

History **7**

for the
Australian
Curriculum

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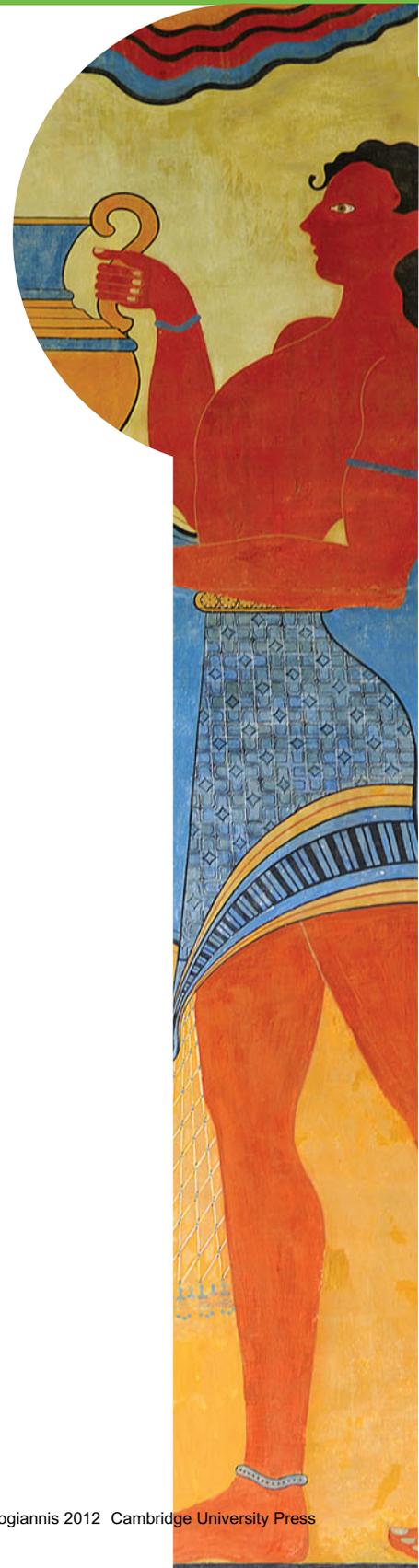
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Foreword



The new *Australian Curriculum: History* is an important and exciting chance for all of us to approach the subject differently. For the first time, students and teachers across the nation are working on the same topics and themes, placing their own local stories in national and global contexts. The curriculum makes us consider each Australian state within the wider history of the colonies and the nation, and indeed the whole of world history. It is designed to help students become educated citizens with a broad grasp of all major historical developments.

The team of authors assembled by Cambridge University Press to write *History for the Australian Curriculum* share a passionate sense of the possibilities of this curriculum. The authors are from around the country and bring to the series a wealth of expertise and depth of teaching experience from various levels of secondary and tertiary education. The excitement was palpable when we met as a team in January 2011 to discuss the textbooks, how they would be structured, and what features would make them the best possible resources for both students and teachers. The concise coverage of topics, rich excerpts from primary sources, first-person voices, creative activities, *Historical facts*, *Times gone by* vignettes, vivid illustrations, glossary definitions and many other features make this an outstanding series.

The historian RH Tawney commented eloquently that ‘there is truth in the paradox that all history is the history of the present; and for this reason each generation must write its history for itself. That of its predecessors may be true, but its truth may not be relevant. Different answers are required because different questions are asked. Standing at a new point on the road, it finds that new ranges in the landscape come into view.’ The questions asked, topics covered and stories told in *History for the Australian Curriculum* are different from those in earlier textbooks. In the twenty-first century, the history we must learn and research has moved on and requires new angles of analysis. Moreover, we, the students of history, are different.

Students and teachers across Australian schools come from a wider variety of backgrounds than was the case in earlier generations. We understand the importance of Aboriginal history, and we now expect to learn about the historical experiences of Australians’ families and ancestors who arrived here from various regions of the world. People who have made history include peasants and kings, ancient Egyptians and ancient Australians, women and men, and people from a wide range of cultures, traditions and linguistic backgrounds. The *Australian Curriculum: History* is innovative in its balance between world history and Australian history, and in its placing of Australian history in the context of Asian and Pacific histories, for example, as well as European, American and other histories.

In *History for the Australian Curriculum 7*, you will learn about the ancient world including our origins as humans, the development of ancient cultures and how historians and archaeologists investigate ancient history. You will study the relationships between ancient societies and their natural environments, and a range of aspects of their daily lives, cultural practices and belief systems, around the world from ancient Egypt to Greece, Rome, China and India.

We hope you will find fascinating information, provocative questions and useful resources for the *Australian Curriculum: History* in these pages. Good luck for your journey of historical study and research!

Angela Woollacott,
Series Editor

About the authors



Angela Woollacott is the Manning Clark Professor of History at the Australian National University and Vice President of the Australian Historical Association. Angela teaches in the fields of Australian history, British Empire history, transnational history, gender history and settler colonialism, and she serves on the boards of several national and international journals.



Michael Adcock is Head of History and Head of Humanities at Melbourne Grammar School. He has published a number of books on the French Revolution, including *Analysing the French Revolution*, published by Cambridge University Press. Michael is a social and cultural historian who has lectured on modern French history in the History Department at the University of Melbourne.



Margaret Allen works at the University of Adelaide, and has been teaching and researching gender studies and history for 40 years. Margaret has published on nineteenth century Australian women writers and more recently has been researching links between India and Australia from c. 1880 to 1940. She has worked on many committees during her career, including those of the Senior Secondary Assessment Board of South Australia and History South Australia.



Helen Butler has taught history and geography in Victorian and New South Wales state and private schools for over 30 years. She has also served as both a Head of History and Head of Humanities. Helen has a passion for imparting the skills of independent inquiry to her history students and instilling a love of the subject in them.



Christopher Cunneen is a Senior Research Fellow in the Department of Modern History, Politics and International Relations, Faculty of Arts at Macquarie University in Sydney. Christopher is the author of books and articles on Australian history and a former Deputy General Editor of the *Australian Dictionary of Biography*, for which he has written over 70 biographical entries.



Raymond Evans is an Adjunct Professor of History with the Griffith Centre for Cultural Research at Griffith University as well as a Senior Research Fellow with the Centre for Critical and Cultural Studies at the University of Queensland. Raymond has been involved in the research and writing of Australian history since the 1960s. He has written and published widely on a range of topics concerning social and cultural history.



Jenny Gregory is Winthrop Professor of History, and Head of the School of Humanities at the University of Western Australia. Jenny has taught Australian history for many years. Her involvement in the development of the *Australian Curriculum: History* began when she was one of 12 invited participants at the Australian History Summit hosted by the then federal Minister for Education in 2006. She is now leading a group at the University of Western Australia developing professional learning courses for teachers and a Masters program to assist teachers in preparing for the implementation of the Australian Curriculum.



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Judy McPherson is a teacher of humanities and has taught history and geography to students across Years 7 to 12 in several Victorian schools. Judy's experience includes head of faculty roles in the humanities as well as pastoral team leadership. She has made a significant contribution to curriculum development as a subject leader in the humanities and has been a contributing author to three geography textbooks. She is also a director of Ed Scape Pty Ltd, which provides a range of consultancy services in the field of program evaluation and school improvement.



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James St. Julian studied archaeology and history at the University of Sydney and subsequently worked in Cambodia on the Greater Angkor Project for five seasons. James has taught the IB and HSC ancient and modern history curricula at Trinity Grammar School in Sydney for a number of years. He also runs an archaeology program, teaching students archaeological theory, method and practice. He is passionate about introducing students to the history and archaeology of South-East Asia.



Luis Siddall teaches history at the Sydney Church of England Grammar School (Shore) and is an Honorary Associate of the Department of Ancient History at Macquarie University. Luis received his PhD in Assyriology from the School of Oriental and African Studies at the University of London, where he taught (Old Babylonian) Akkadian language. His research interests are in the languages and history of the ancient Near East and Egypt. He has published articles in scholarly journals on Assyrian history, Biblical studies and the Amarna Letters. He is also a regular reviewer for the *Bryn Mawr Classical Review*.



Robert Skinner is a highly experienced teacher of ancient and modern history. Robert has significant experience as an HSC examination marker, has been an adviser on the HSC Advice Line for students, run by the NSW Board of Studies, and is a former Head of History at two private schools in NSW.



Alan Thomas taught history studies at Belmont High School and Parkdale Secondary College and was Head of History at the Geelong College Senior Campus until 2005. Alan served as curriculum coordinator at Parkdale Secondary College in 1988–90, and was an active member of the education committee of the school council. During this career, he developed a strong interest in curriculum development in history studies Years 7 to 12.



Nicholas Vlahogiannis teaches classical studies and history at Melbourne Girls Grammar and is a Senior Fellow in the School of Historical and Philosophical Studies, University of Melbourne. Nicholas's principal interest is ancient history, but he has also published on Australian educational and urban history, and modern Balkan history.

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Times gone by case studies extend on information to add another layer to your knowledge and understanding.

A variety of **activities** and **research tasks** explore key concepts, develop skills and draw back to the general learning capabilities and cross-curriculum priorities.

Historical facts highlight interesting information to enrich your learning.

Activity 7.5

Plan and prepare an important religious festival to ensure a good harvest and prosperity for your village. Your teacher will give you a card that will identify you as one of the following:

- Brahmins
- Kshatriyas
- Vaishyas
- Shudras

Your duties will be as follows:

- 1 Brahmins will plan, give orders, organise others to do the work, conduct all the sacrificial rituals and lighting the sacred fire and be the most important person. They will be respected, praised and obeyed.
- 2 Kshatriyas will keep order, punish people who do the wrong thing and protect those who are in danger.
- 3 Vaishyas will provide all the resources needed to make the religious festival a success - for example, food, money, animals and building materials.
- 4 Shudras will do all the work and serve others. They will not have a say in the planning of the activity and will receive no respect or praise for the work they do.

As you act out the festival, each of the varnas will need to stay within the roles assigned to it to complete the task.

Discuss whether you believe that the division of the society into varnas was effective in achieving your goal. Why or why not?

Historical Fact

Brahmins, Kshatriyas and Vaishyas were all expected to be 'times hours'. This simply referred to the fact that some of these varnas were permitted to make the festival. They were thought to be 'times hours' because of their 'times' hours. Because of these varnas that the sacred fire around their heads as part of their sacrificial ceremony.

Times gone by ...

The most famous Vedic women were Draupadi, Sita, Lakshmi, Indira, Sati and Sati. The differences in the ways women have been described are of some interest to historians as they seem to be disagreement in what has been written about women in Vedic times.

- 1 Conduct your own research into the role of women in ancient India. Look at the women listed above and find out more about them and the contributions they made to thinking and learning in Vedic society.
- 2 How might you explain the differences in the ways women and their roles in Vedic society are described?

Research 7.1

Research the different roles that women played in a traditional Indian society. Do not include the following:

- 1 a range to cover the location of the city you have chosen
- 2 a range of
- 3 a range of
- 4 a range of
- 5 a range of
- 6 a range of

Icons alert you to additional activities available in the workbook for extra practice with developing historical skills.

Note this down sections recommend the use of a range of graphic organisers to help you record and revise key ideas.

Glossary terms are bolded in the text, defined in the margins and collated at the end of the textbook for easy reference.

How historians and archaeologists investigate history

What is history and what is an historian?

Historians of Herodotus have chosen to inquiry, so that human activities that the culture has gathered, analysed and recorded should not be without glory and especially to show who has people fought with each other.

Historical Fact

The word 'history' comes from the ancient Greek word *historia*, which means 'enquiry'.

Writing history

Writing about past people and their societies requires knowing about their times and places. All historians go through a series of steps when they write about the past, collecting information, analysing it and writing their accounts.

Choosing a topic of research

The first step is to define the topic the historian will be researching and writing about. It might be something broad and vague, such as ancient China, or something a little more defined, such as the evolution of democracy in ancient Athens, or even more specific, such as a cultural phenomenon like Roman gladiators, or an individual such as Cleopatra of Egypt.

Having selected a topic, the historian needs to decide or set the boundaries of their research. In asking more questions, the historian could become a specialist. In other words, an historian will start asking questions and writing knowledge for their research, and the process will continue as the research and writing evolves.

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, list the key features of history.

Key features of history

What has not been mentioned

Historical Fact

The word 'history' comes from the ancient Greek word *historia*, which means 'enquiry'.

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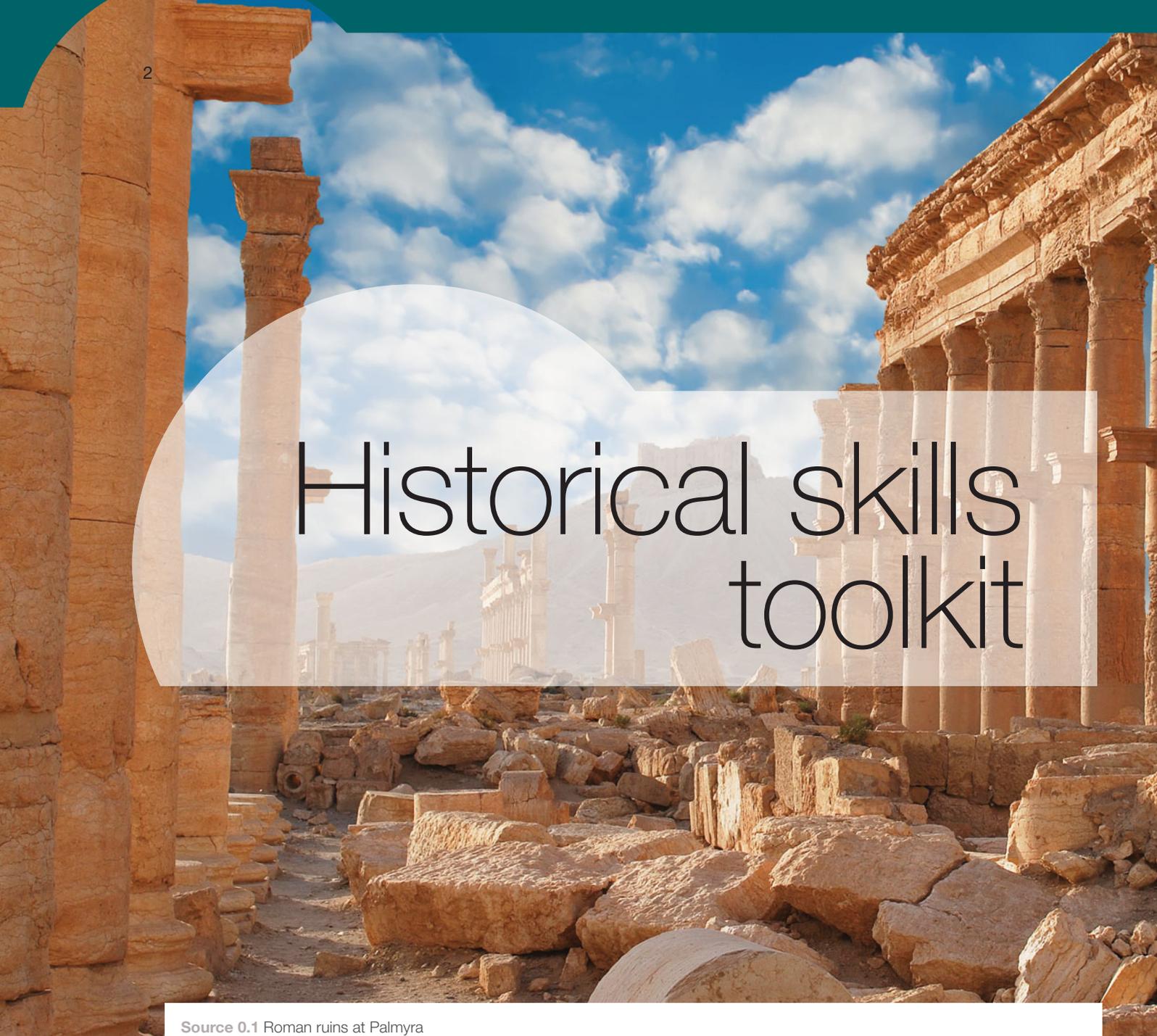
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A photograph of ancient Roman ruins at Palmyra, featuring several tall, weathered stone columns and a large pile of rubble in the foreground. The sky is blue with scattered white clouds. A semi-transparent white circle is overlaid on the image, containing the title text.

Historical skills toolkit

Source 0.1 Roman ruins at Palmyra

Introduction

History is full of interesting people, mysterious civilisations and wondrous cities. As a junior historian, you will learn about ancient history through identifying historical evidence, assessing primary and secondary sources, and recognising perspectives and interpretations. There is no easy way to become a good student, but there are good methods that will help you achieve this aim. The historical skills toolkit will show you how to develop a range of skills that will improve your ability to read and interpret historical writings and sources, and help you better understand history. The skills you develop in history will also assist in other areas of life. One of the fundamental skills used in the study of history is critical thinking, which is an important skill for life – both inside and outside of the classroom.

Reading skills

Reading is one of the most pleasurable pastimes available. People often read books in their free time for relaxation and enjoyment, and even take books with them on holidays. However, there are different types of writing, and sometimes we need to use more developed skills to read more complex kinds of writing. For example, you may find a novel easier to read than a poem, or you may find reading a school textbook more difficult than a newspaper or a comic book. This is because different skills are required to understand these different types of writing. In this section, you will learn the skills required to investigate history. You will become an 'active reader'.

Tips on active reading

An active reader is someone who engages with the text they are reading by making observations, taking note of headings and learning the vocabulary used. These practices will help you predict the author's line of argument and gain a deeper understanding of what is written. There are a number of good methods that will help you become an active reader. Below are some ways to improve your reading skills.

How to be an active reader

- **Observation and prediction.** When you first open a chapter of your history textbook, you should observe the headings and the layout of the page. The headings will tell you what you will be reading about and the Inquiry Questions at the beginning of each chapter will give you an idea of the aims of the chapter. The pages will often contain hints, such as key words and diagrams, which will aid your comprehension. The activities are also great indicators of what is important.
- **Concentration.** It is important to concentrate on every written sentence. If you feel that you are drifting off, STOP! Go back to the beginning of the paragraph and re-read the text. If you continue to read while only half concentrating, you will not understand what is being communicated.
- **Historical vocabulary.** Vocabulary means the special words used in a particular area of study. These words may be technical terms, or names of peoples and places. Since you might not have encountered the words before, it is a good idea to learn them as you go. Important vocabulary is listed in the margins, and you will learn more about building your historical vocabulary below.
- **Cause and effect words and phrases.** One of the great themes of history is the relationship between cause and effect: how one event can affect those that occur later. You will learn more about this topic below, but it is important for you to think about what the following words and phrases mean: 'because', 'therefore', 'consequently', 'as a result of', 'thus', 'hence', 'so' and 'led to'.
- **Comparison and contrast words and phrases.** Just like 'cause and effect', comparing and contrasting one historical situation with another is something historians do. There are certain words that are used for comparing and contrasting. Consider the meanings of the following: 'likewise', 'similarly', 'also' and 'as well as'. Now contrast these with the words: 'however', 'yet', 'on the other hand' and 'unlike'.

Activity 0.1

Read Source 0.2 and complete the questions that follow it.

The plague originated, so they say, in Ethiopia in Upper Egypt, and spread from there into Egypt itself and Libya and much of the territory of the King of Persia. In the city of Athens it appeared suddenly, and the first cases were among the population of Piraeus, so that it was supposed by them that the Peloponnesians had poisoned the **reservoirs**. Later, however, it appeared also in the upper city, and by this time the deaths were greatly increasing in number. As to the question of how it could first have come about or what causes can be found adequate to explain its powerful effect on nature, I must leave that to be considered by other writers, with or without medical experience.

Source 0.2 A description of the outbreak of a plague. Thucydides, *The Peloponnesian War* (Book II: 48), translated by R. Warner (Penguin, 1967).

reservoir a place (usually artificial) where water is stored

- 1 Where did the plague first break out?
- 2 Outline the spread of the plague.
- 3 Explain whether Thucydides is sure about the details he has given about the plague.

Building historical vocabulary

Any subject you study will have specific words for particular ideas and topics. These words form a vocabulary, which makes it easier to convey ideas and meaning in the subject area. Often the important vocabulary will appear highlighted and be listed separately in the margin of the page. You should take the time to memorise the vocabulary as it is introduced in each chapter.

Dating systems: BCE, CE and BP

In this textbook, we use the terms **BCE** (Before Common Era) and **CE** (Common Era). The term **BP** (Before Present) is also sometimes used. However, this is not the only dating system used in history. In Western countries like Australia, years are organised according to the Georgian Calendar that was introduced by Pope Gregory XIII in 1582. This dating system used the birth of Christ as the key moment in history when time was divided into the period 'Before Christ' (BC) and the time after

the birth of Christ, which became known as *anno domini* (Latin for 'The year of Our Lord') or AD.

However, because so many different cultures study, research and write history, historians have made the decision to change the Christian terms for dating, **BC** and **AD**, to the more culturally neutral terms **BCE** and **CE**. For example, the war between the Greeks and the Persians at Thermopylae happened in 480 **BCE**, while World War I began in 1914 **CE**.

There is a further dating term used by archaeologists, **BP** (Before Present), which counts years back from the present. However, 'present' is the year 1950 **CE**, and it would be confusing to use this system for historical periods (e.g. 500 **BP** is the year 1450 **CE**). For this reason, the dating method is used only in prehistoric archaeology – that is, archaeology of the period before writing was invented in c. 5000 **BCE** (which means 'around 5000 **BCE**') – which studies periods tens of thousands of years ago.

Activity 0.2

With a partner, spend five minutes memorising the 23 words in the vocabulary list below. When you and your partner are confident that you know all the vocabulary, select ten words each from the vocabulary list and test each other to see who remembers more.

age	A period of time, often named after a characteristic of that time, such as the 'Iron Age'.
ancient	Referring to a time period in the distant past.
archaeology	The study of ancient societies through the materials (artefacts, art and architecture) that have been excavated.
artefact	A human-made object, such as a tool, pottery or a weapon.
BCE	'Before the Common Era'; a culturally neutral dating system for the years before the birth of Christ.
BP	'Before Present'; the dating system used in prehistoric archaeology. 'Present' is the year 1950 CE.
CE	'Common Era'; a culturally neutral dating system for the years after the birth of Christ. It has replaced AD (<i>anno domini</i> , which is Latin for 'The year of Our Lord').
century	A span of 100 years.
chronology	The arrangement of periods and events according to the order in which they occurred through time.
decade	A span of 10 years.
divine right	The idea that one's authority (usually a king's) comes directly from the will of God.
dynasty	A powerful family that rules a region.
evidence	Information found in a source that historians use to construct a theory or idea.
excavation	The archaeological method of exploring an ancient site to discover artefacts buried in the ground.
fact	Something that is known to be true and can be proven on the basis of evidence.
heritage	Aspects of the past that we value, such as traditions, influences, physical structures and places.
inscription	The inscribed writing on an artefact.
millennium	A span of 1000 years
opinion	A point of view or judgement that is based on some evidence, but is not well enough established to be considered a fact.
perspective	A person's point of view.
slavery	A social and economic state of human existence where a person is not free and is under the complete authority of another person.
source	An item of information that historians use for evidence.
theory	An idea that has been developed to answer a problem. However, the theory may or may not be correct.

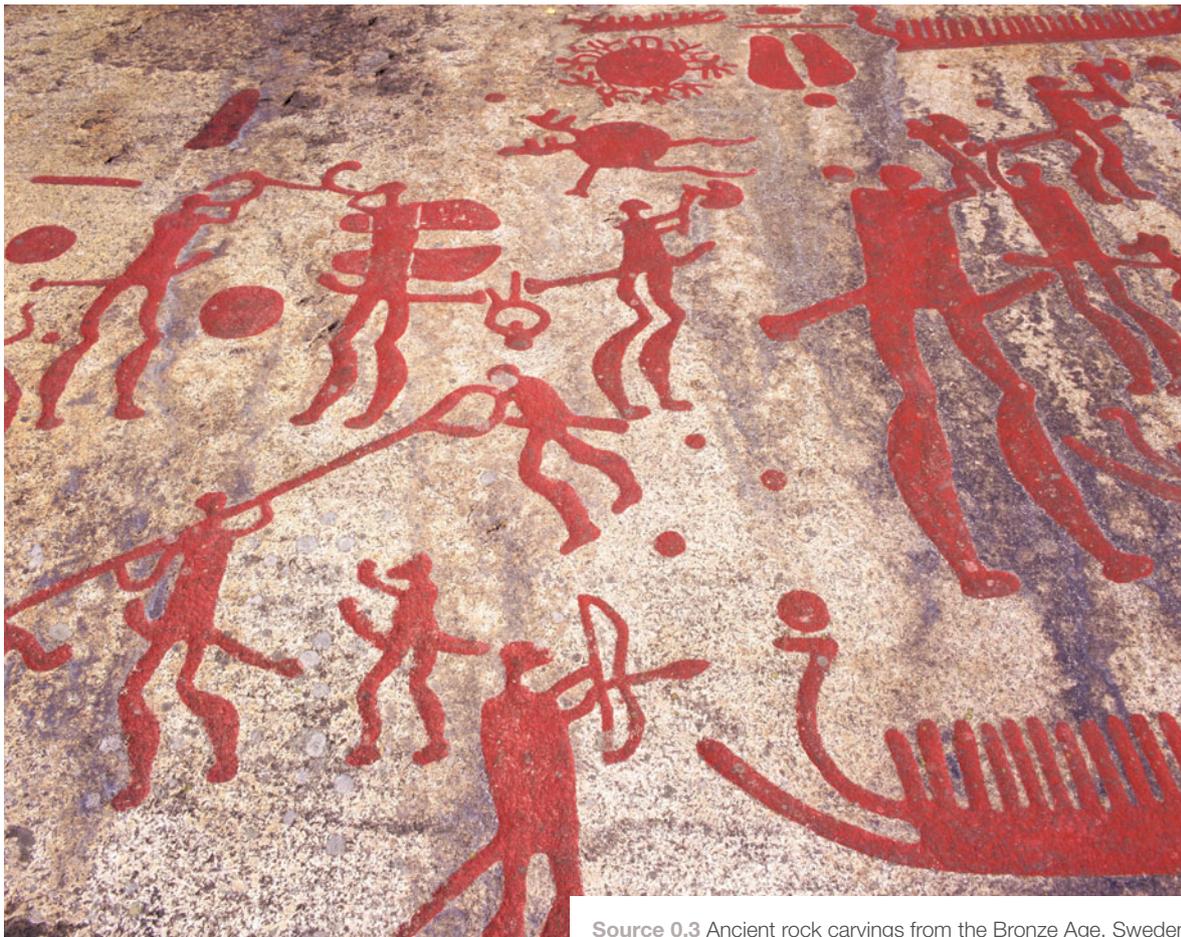
Activity 0.3

Examine the timelines of the civilisations of Egypt (page 82), Greece (page 126) and Rome (page 172) and answer the following questions.

- 1 Over what timespan did the Egyptian Old Kingdom occur?
- 2 During which years were the Greeks at war with the Persians?
- 3 When did the Roman Empire begin?
- 4 How long did the Roman Empire last?
- 5 Which of the three civilisations lasted for the longest period of time?

Extended activity: Look closely at the dates of the rise and fall of each of the three civilisations and outline what **chronological** patterns you notice.

chronological the time sequence beginning with the earliest time period and continuing through to the last



Source 0.3 Ancient rock carvings from the Bronze Age, Sweden

Interpreting websites

The internet is commonly known as the 'information superhighway', but it is also an information junk-heap. The problem with the internet is that, unlike books and magazines, anyone can publish a website on any topic, regardless of how much they may actually know about the topic. Therefore, it is important to analyse websites to make sure that the information they present is factual and reliable. Here are some tips for making sure a website is reliable:

- **Check the URL.** Every website has an internet address called a **URL** (Universal Resource Locator). The URL has a domain, which indicates what sort of website it is and who created it. Common domains are .com, .net, .org and .gov. If a website has the domain .edu, it is an educational website created by a school or university and is usually reliable. Government websites are also good, and have the .gov domain. Institutions and societies often have

URL internet user
domain

the domain .org and generally produce good-quality websites.

- **Identify the creator.** If the creator is an institution you recognise, like a museum, a government department or a well-known author (a Doctor or Professor of History), the chances are that the information is reliable. If you do not recognise the creator, you will need to be more careful in using the information.
- **Check the quality of the content.** Is the information well written? If there are lots of typographical errors and poor grammar, low-quality images and broken links, the information may have been written by an amateur.
- **Contact information.** Does the website have information on how to contact the website's creator? If it does, then it means that the creator is interested in updating the content, which is a good indicator that the content is reliable. This information is usually on the website's homepage.

The screenshot shows the 'Young Explorers' page on The British Museum website. The page is designed for children and features a colorful, interactive layout. At the top, there is a navigation menu with options like 'Explore', 'Research', 'Learning', and 'About us'. A search bar is positioned in the top right corner. The main heading is 'Young explorers', followed by a navigation bar with icons for 'Create', 'Play', 'Discover', and 'Post'. Below this, the section is titled 'Explore world histories and cultures'. The central focus is a world map labeled 'Museum explorer' with various icons representing different regions and topics such as 'Ancient Egypt', 'Daily life', 'Leaders & Rulers', 'Death', 'Civilisation', 'Daily life', 'Leaders & Rulers', 'Civilisation', 'Daily life', 'Leaders & Rulers', 'Civilisation', 'Daily life', 'Leaders & Rulers'. To the left of the map are three interactive cards: 'Time explorer' (The ultimate adventure game), 'Museum explorer' (Discover over 500 Museum objects), and 'Videos: a brief history...' (Find out about clothing, money, writing and time telling). On the right side, there are three sections: 'Families newsletter' (Receive regular updates about the range of free family events and activities), 'Family events' (Digital photography day on Saturday 5 May 11.30-15.30), and 'Family activities' (Mega-mummy animation workshop on Sunday 6 May 11.00 & 14.00). At the bottom, there are three main activity categories: 'Family events', 'Online games', and 'Fascinating facts'.

Source 0.4 The British Museum website

Activity 0.4

Go to www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks and use the guidelines for analysing a website to write a short report on whether the website is reliable for studying history.

Analysing primary and secondary sources

Sources are items that contain information for historians. Sources come in a number of forms, such as written texts, artefacts (pots, weapons, jewellery, etc.), art and even buildings. It is the historian's primary task to analyse sources to find **evidence** for the topic they are researching. Unfortunately, sources do not always present information in a straightforward way. For example, an ancient king might have recorded the history of his time as he wanted it remembered; or an author might not have been interested in the same topic as the modern historian. Thus **inference** needs to be used to draw out the information the historian requires.

evidence facts to support an idea, argument or theory

inference the process of drawing a conclusion from evidence that is probable, but still uncertain

Primary sources

Primary sources are those created at the time of the event. You may like to think of primary sources as 'first-hand accounts'. You can often tell that a textual (written) source is a primary source because the first person is used, such as 'I', 'we' and 'us'. Another indicator is the date when it was created. If the source was produced by someone who lived at the same time as the event, then it is probably a primary source. There are many different types of primary sources, such as royal inscriptions, memoirs, letters, photographs, books and articles, speeches, artefacts, buildings, government documents, diaries, and many more.

Secondary sources

Secondary sources are those created after the time of the event. You may like to think of the secondary sources as 'second-hand accounts'. Secondary sources often make reference to primary sources, and much like primary sources there are different types of secondary sources, such as textbooks, magazines and documentaries.

Analysing primary and secondary sources

Is a primary source more valuable to an historian than a secondary one? It is a common error to think that a primary source is more reliable than a secondary one because it was created at the time of the events being studied. Primary sources are just as susceptible to **bias** as secondary sources. This is not to say that a biased source is not useful, for it informs us about the attitudes of the creator; however, you need to be aware that primary sources may not contain facts alone. Secondary sources are useful because they inform us about what happened in the past. The authors often use primary sources and interpret them for you. However, as an active reader you should analyse a secondary source just like you would a primary one by discerning fact from opinion, identifying bias and recognising the use of primary sources.

bias having a particular interest or view that limits one's ability to make a fair judgement

Fact versus opinion

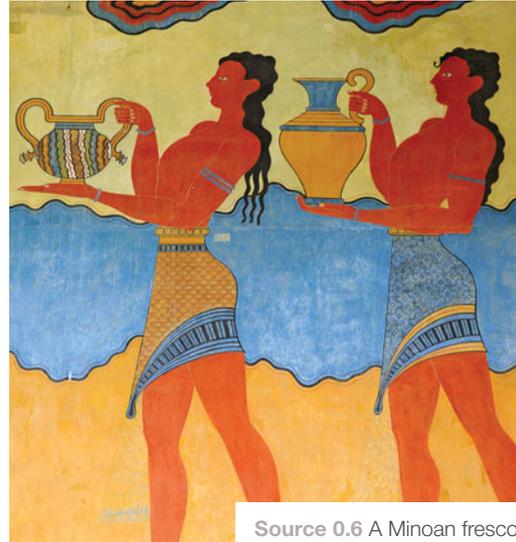
A crucial step in developing your historical skills is recognising the difference between facts and opinions in sources. Facts are things that are known to be true and can be proven on the basis of evidence. Opinions are ideas or judgements derived from evidence that are not proven to be true. A good indicator that a statement is an opinion is when you see words like 'might', 'could', 'believe' and 'think'. You will see both facts and opinions in nearly anything you read.

Activity 0.5

Look at the following images of sources and use the table below to analyse the sources in terms of what the object is, whether it is primary or secondary, its origin (what civilisation produced it) and what information the historian may learn from it.



Source 0.5 A Greek vase from the Classical period



Source 0.6 A Minoan fresco



Source 0.7 Egyptian architecture with hieroglyphs



Source 0.8 A Greek helmet

Object	Primary or secondary	Origin	What can it tell an historian?

Activity 0.6

In 701 BCE, the Assyrian king, Sennacherib, attacked the Jewish city of Jerusalem during the reign of Hezekiah. We have two accounts of the battle, one from each side. Read the accounts of the battle and answer the questions.

As for Hezekiah, the Judean, who did not submit to my yoke, 46 of his heavily fortified cities, walled cities and small cities of their surroundings, which were numerous ... I besieged [and] I conquered ... [Much spoil] I brought out and counted as booty. Himself [Hezekiah] I imprisoned in Jerusalem, his royal city, like a bird in a cage ... He, Hezekiah, the terrifying fear of my radiance overwhelmed him ... [and] he sent [much spoil] to me in Nineveh, my royal city, and to pay tribute he sent his messenger.

Source 0.9 A description of the siege of Jerusalem from Sennacherib's *Annals*. Sennacherib, *Annals* (Taylor Prism, col. III: 11–41), translated by L.R. Siddall.

In the fourteenth year of king Hezekiah's reign, Sennacherib king of Assyria attacked all the fortified cities of Judah and captured them ... The king of Assyria exacted from Hezekiah the king of Judah [much spoil] ... That night the angel of the Lord went out and put to death 185,000 men in the Assyrian camp ... So Sennacherib king of Assyria broke camp and withdrew. He returned to Nineveh and stayed there.

Source 0.10 A description of the siege of Jerusalem from the Bible. II *Kings* 18:13–15; 19:35–36.

- 1 Use the Venn diagram below to compare and contrast the Biblical and Assyrian accounts of the siege of Jerusalem.



- 2 Describe the perspective of each of the sources, being sure to comment on the points at which the sources agree and disagree.
- 3 Outline what these sources demonstrate to you about the reliability of primary sources.

Activity 0.7

Consider the following statements and identify which are facts and which are opinions:

- 1 Rameses II was a pharaoh of Egypt.
- 2 I think Ancient Indian history is more interesting than Roman.
- 3 The Han dynasty ruled in Ancient China.
- 4 Sparta might have been a more successful city than Athens.
- 5 The Persian Wars were probably the hardest battles the Greek armies fought.

Writing skills

In the introduction to the section on reading skills, the point was made that there are different types of writing. In this section, you will be introduced to some methods for composing good historical writing. In particular, we will focus on expository writing, research writing and how to construct an argument.

Expository and research writing

expository to explain
or provide information
for a topic

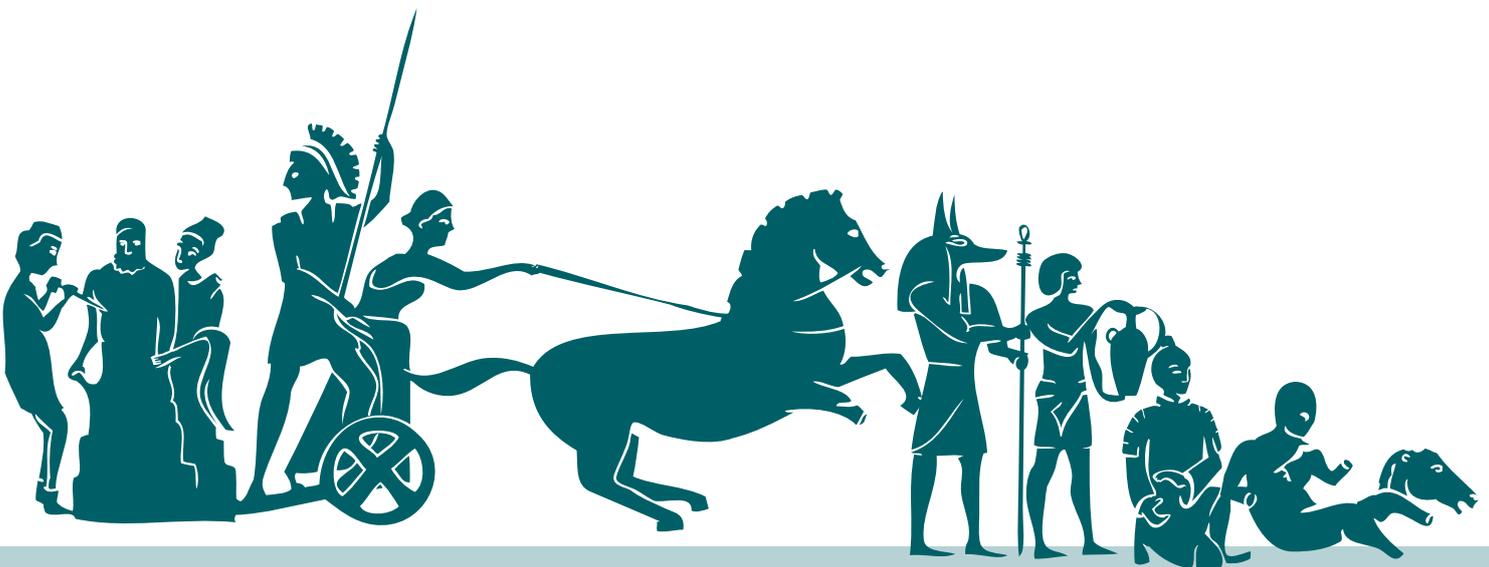
Expository writing

Expository writing requires you to explain or provide information on a topic. You will often be asked to write an expository piece when your teacher sets an essay or written report.

Research writing

The difference between expository writing and research writing is that in research writing you will analyse other people's ideas in your work. So in addition to using primary sources and facts, you will need to locate secondary sources and incorporate them into your work.

There are three steps in developing quality work for both expository and research writing. These steps are the preliminary work, drafting and revision, and writing.



1 Preliminary work

Expository writing

Analysing the question	The first step in any piece of writing is identifying what the question requires. In expository writing, you are usually asked to compare and contrast ideas or things; explain the cause and effect of an event; or explain the sequence of events of an issue.	
Developing a thesis statement	Once you have identified the objective of the question, you should then develop a thesis statement that sums up your argument in one sentence. For example, if you were set a cause and effect task such as 'Assess the impact of geography on life in ancient Egypt', you could write a thesis statement: 'Geography had a great impact on ancient Egyptian life because it affected the political development, the economy and warfare.'	thesis a theory or idea supported by facts and evidence to be proved
Gathering and organising information	You will need to find facts and sources to properly answer the assignment. Go to the library and search online to find primary sources and history books or articles. If you get stuck, be sure to ask your teacher or librarian for help with finding material. You should be looking for facts, statistics, images and examples on your topic. Once you have gathered enough information, you should organise your study materials according to the structure of your response. For the sample question given above, you would arrange your notes into three sub-topics: politics, economy and war. Within each sub-topic, you should outline the causes and effects.	

Research writing

Analysing the question	The first step in any piece of writing is identifying what the question requires. Look for task words such as 'analyse' (identify key points and explain relationships between them and their implications), 'assess' or 'evaluate' (make a judgement) and 'explain' (cause and effect), and plan your approach appropriately. It is a good idea to break the question down into parts. For example, if you were asked to 'Analyse the social structure of Ancient Egypt', you would have to identify different levels of Egyptian society.
Gathering and organising information	You will need to find primary and secondary sources to answer the question properly. Go to the library and search online to find primary sources, history books and articles. If you get stuck, be sure to ask your teacher or librarian for help with finding material. You should be looking for facts, statistics, images and studies on your topic. Once you have gathered enough information, you should organise your notes according to the structure of your response. For the sample question given above, you would arrange your notes into the different levels of society and identify the relationships between them.

2 Drafting

It is only once you have gathered all the information and organised your notes that you should start writing a draft. A good framework for your written exposition is shown in the example below.



3 Revision and writing

Once you have a complete draft of your exposition you need to proofread the work and make all necessary corrections. You should take care to check for the following:

- It should have a clear structure (that is, introduction–body paragraphs–conclusion).
- Remove any repetition in your discussion.
- Check that the spelling, grammar and punctuation are correct.

When you have proofread your work and made all necessary corrections, it will be ready for printing and submission.

How to construct an argument

Part of becoming a good student of history is learning how to construct an argument. Historians construct arguments by forming opinions based on the analysis of sources and the significance of historical personalities and events. They turn their opinions into arguments by engaging with secondary sources and developing a logical case that can be backed up by primary sources. The following steps will help you construct sound historical arguments.

- 1 Active reading.** When you read about a topic, think of key questions, such as ‘How was that feat achieved?’, ‘What evidence is there?’ and ‘What theories have been developed?’ Use questions like these to form an opinion.
- 2 Consider the secondary sources.** What have other people said about the topic? Do they agree with what you think? If not, on what do they base their argument?
- 3 Use primary sources.** It is crucial that you check whether your opinion is supported by primary sources. If the sources do not support your ideas, then you will have to reconsider your argument.

When you construct an argument, use the following template to help you formulate your ideas using logic and evidence.

Primary source	Secondary source	Your interpretation

Answering activities from the book

This textbook contains a variety of activities that allow students to revise and develop a better understanding of what they have learnt throughout the book.

The next example shows how students can utilise instructions from the Expository and Research Writing section of this skills chapter to answer all the activities in the book.

Times gone by ...

Emperor Augustus's rule from 27 BCE began a period in Roman history called Pax Romana – meaning 'the Roman Peace'. The Roman historian Suetonius recounts a quote from Augustus.

May it be my privilege to have the happiness of establishing the commonwealth on a firm and secure basis and thus enjoy the reward which I desire, but only if I may be called the author of the best possible government; and bear with me the hope when I die that the foundations which I have laid for its future government, will stand firm and stable. – Augustus Caesar

Source 5.28 Suetonius, *The Lives of the Caesars*

- 1 In your own words, explain what Augustus is saying in Source 5.28.
- 2 What reward is Augustus seeking for establishing a firm and secure government for Rome?
- 3 Discuss what hopes Augustus had for the future of Rome.
- 4 Reflect on why establishing a good foundation for a government will ensure prosperity in the future.

You will need to **analyse the question** and identify what you are required to do to answer the question effectively. These questions are asking you to analyse a primary source, and using your own words, summarise what the statement means. This activity is a perfect example of how to analyse a primary source, and how to interpret what you believe this source is trying to convey to the audience.

This question asks you to develop your own opinion using all the information from the chapter. This is a great opportunity for you to **construct an argument** of your own, **gathering and organising information** such as primary and secondary sources as evidence to **develop your thesis statement**

Source 0.11 An example of how to answer activities from the book

Activity 0.8

Using your own words, provide a definition for each of the terms listed below:

- analysing the question
- developing a thesis statement
- gathering and organising information
- drafting
- revision and writing
- constructing an argument.

Speaking skills

Speaking is an important form of communication. A good speaker who can clearly communicate their ideas to an audience generally will be more persuasive and effective. Thus it is important that you become comfortable speaking in front of other people. If the idea of public speaking seems scary to you, do not worry because there are a number of skills you can develop that will help you to become a better oral communicator. Most speaking tasks that you will be asked to do at school will be speeches and oral presentations. The best oral presentations are performed in a style that is easy to listen to, but also informative. Here are some tips on developing your oral presentation skills.

Prepare! Prepare! Prepare!

Presentations require a great deal of preparation, and a good aim is to produce an informative and interesting speech that is accompanied by audio-visual media. For this reason, a presentation can require even more work than an essay. If you follow these steps, it will make preparing your presentation an easier task, and result in a better presentation.

- **Analyse the question.** The first step in any piece of writing is identifying what the question requires. Look for task words such as 'analyse' (identify key points and explain relationships between them and their implications), 'assess' or 'evaluate' (make a judgement) and 'explain' (cause and effect), and plan your approach appropriately. It is a good idea to break the question down into parts.
- **Gathering and organising information.** You will need to find primary and secondary sources to answer the question properly. Go to the library and search online to find primary sources, history books and articles. If you get stuck, be sure to ask your teacher or librarian for help with finding material. You should be looking for facts, statistics, images and studies on your topic. Once you have gathered enough information, you should organise your notes according to the structure of your presentation.

- **‘Writing’ the presentation.** It is important to remember that a speech should be different from a formal written essay. Certainly your language should be appropriate for the classroom and the correct vocabulary should be used. However, try to make your speech more conversational as well. A good way to achieve this aim is to write key notes on palm cards rather than writing a whole speech on paper.
- **Use audio-visual media.** Audio-visual media such as music, images and slides of headings, quotes and main points can be a great way to make your presentation more interesting and to improve your audience’s understanding of the topic.

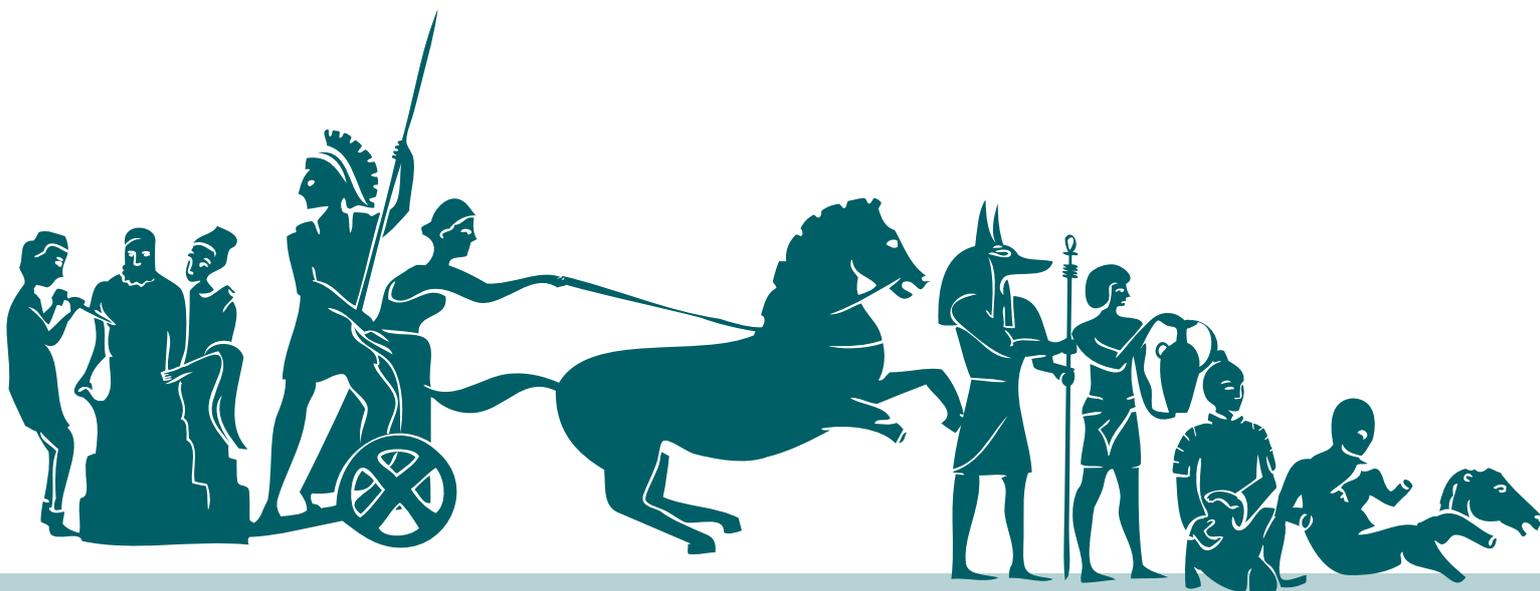
Practice makes perfect

It is important to realise that you need to practise delivering your speech. If you rely on reading your speech straight from a piece of paper or palm cards without practice, you will probably make mistakes and – worse still – bore your audience.

Rehearsal

Even the very good public speakers, like politicians and actors, spend a lot of time practising their speeches, and so should you. By practising your speech, you will build your confidence as well as pick up on errors and make changes if needed. If possible, practise your speech in front of your family or friends. Practising in front of a mirror is a good way to develop eye-contact skills and examine the way you stand and move while speaking.

- **Speak slowly.** Make sure you do not rush through your speech, and speak clearly and slowly. This will ensure that your audience understands you and has time to think about what you are saying. Concentrate on projecting your voice so that everyone in the room can hear what you are saying, and stress those words to which you want the audience to pay particular attention.
- **Body language.** Your body language is just as important as what you say. A good speaker is also someone who regularly makes eye contact with their audience, makes clear facial expressions and positions their body positively.
- **Audio-visual media.** When you practise your presentation, be sure to include your audio-visual media in your rehearsal so you know that all items are in the correct order and are clear enough for the whole audience to see and hear them.



Delivering the speech

When it comes to the big day, you may feel nervous regardless of how much you have practised. Don't worry about your nerves – they usually go away once you start speaking. Here are four tips for making your presentation run smoothly:

- 1 Check that your audio-visual media are ready before you start your speech.
- 2 Be sure to speak slowly. When we are nervous, we tend to rush what we are doing and make mistakes. When you speak slowly and clearly, your audience will understand your presentation better.
- 3 Focus on the purpose of your presentation. If you are reading your speech, it is important not to slip into half-conscious reading: you will certainly make mistakes and bore your audience.
- 4 Make sure you end your speech with a strong finish. This is your last chance to impress your audience, so make sure you conclude by reaffirming your main argument.

Activity 0.9

In pairs, create a 10-minute presentation on an Egyptian pharaoh and a battle they fought using PowerPoint. Select Tutankhamun, Khufu, Cleopatra or Rameses II, and then research one of their battles. Explain:

- the reasons for the conflict
- the location of the battle
- the tactics the pharaoh used
- the type of weapons used
- the result of the battle.

Be sure to follow the guidelines set out above and include a slide with your bibliography. A list of useful websites to refer to can be found at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks.

1



Overview: the ancient world

Source 1.1 Aboriginal rock art at Ubirr, Kakadu National Park, Northern Territory, Australia

Before you start

Main focus

Originating in Africa hundreds of thousands of years ago, the first humans eventually spread into other parts of the world and established the first civilisations.

Why it's relevant today

The evolution of our shared ancestors in Africa, and how and where early civilisations developed, are key parts of a long and fascinating history from which we can learn about managing our environment.

Inquiry questions

- Where did *Homo sapiens* originate and in which directions did the species migrate around the Earth?
- Why did the first civilisations develop in the places they did?
- Why was the development of agriculture important?
- How were the first civilisations in widely scattered places similar or different?
- How do we know about the ancient past?

Key terms

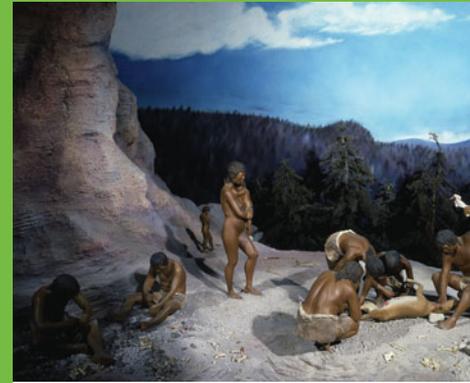
- Bronze Age
- cuneiform
- hominids
- *Homo sapiens*
- hunter-gatherers
- Neolithic period
- Palaeolithic period

Significant individuals

- Charles Darwin
- Mary and Louis Leakey

Let's begin

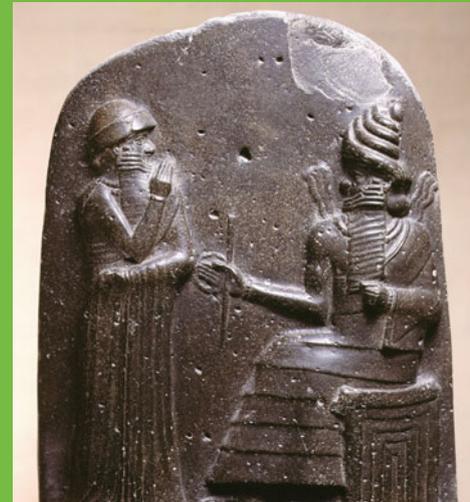
Around 100 000 BCE, our ancestors, *Homo sapiens*, began to migrate from Africa to Europe and Asia. Gradually, humans spread around the world, arriving in Australia by at least 60 000 BCE. Hominids – from whom *Homo sapiens* evolved – used tools and fire, and early humans were hunter-gatherers. The development of agriculture began around 10 000 BCE. We know about early human cultures from art such as rock carvings, sculpture and pottery, as well as buildings like the pyramids of ancient Egypt.



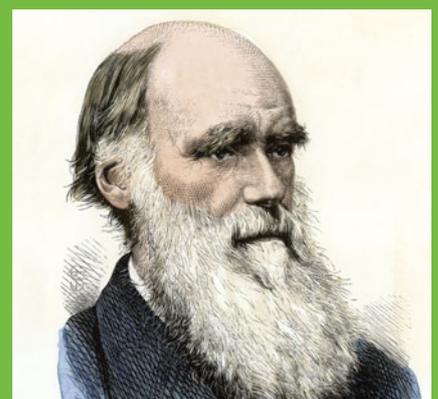
Source 1.2 Reconstruction of hunter-gatherers skinning game and fashioning tools in the Paleolithic era



Source 1.3 A Phoenician coin depicting a large merchant ship



Source 1.4 A sculpture of King Hammurabi and the Babylonian Sun God, Shamash



Source 1.5 Charles Darwin

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS



Source 1.6 Model of a Neanderthal man, a precursor to *Homo sapiens*

Palaeolithic **c. 2 000 000 BCE** period (Old Stone Age) begins

c. 100 000 BCE *Homo sapiens* begin to migrate from Africa

Human settlement **c. 60 000 BCE** of Australia begins

20 000 BCE

c. 20 000 BCE First spear-throwers

10 000 BCE

Neolithic **c. 10 000–3500 BCE** period (New Stone Age): development of farming and the domestication of animals

5000 BCE

c. 8000–4000 BCE Development of agriculture and silk weaving in China

Beginning of **c. 6500–4000 BCE** agriculture in Europe

c. 4000–2500 BCE Farming and villages in western India

Pyramids **c. 2700–2200 BCE** built in Egypt

c. 3000–1500 BCE Stonehenge in Britain and other megaliths in Europe

Indus **c. 2500–1500 BCE** civilisation in South Asia

2000 BCE

c. 2000 BCE Bronze Age in China

Rise of Greek **c. 800–700 BCE** city-states

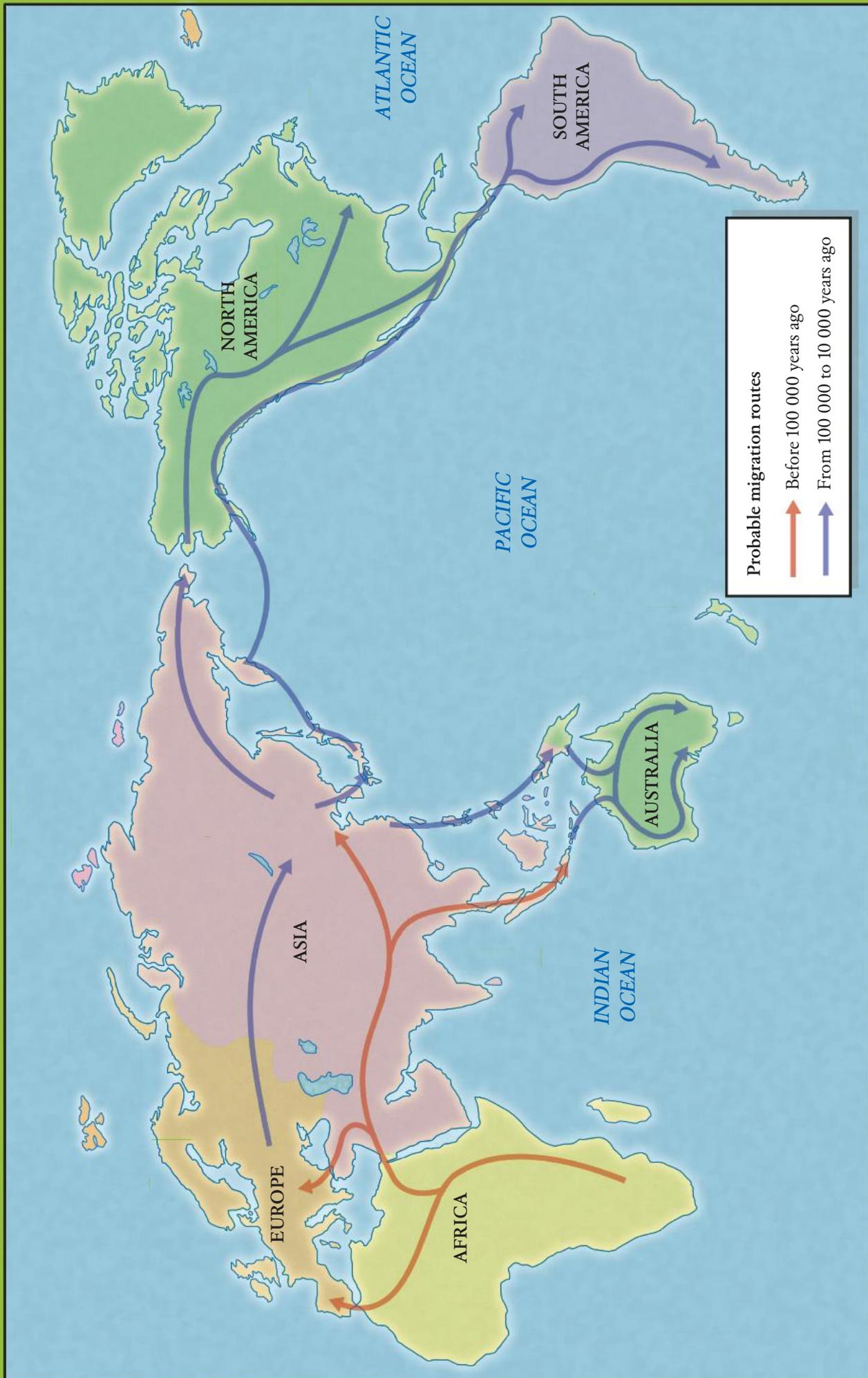
c. 166 CE Roman merchants reach China by sea



Source 1.7 The Venus of Dolní Věstonice



Source 1.8 Stonehenge, England



Source 1.9 Map of the world showing the early human migrations



Out of Africa: migrations of the early humans

primates a group of related mammals that includes humans, apes and monkeys

hominids a family of primates who date back about seven million years

archaeologists researchers who study cultures, especially ancient civilisations, by excavating and describing their remains

Homo sapiens ('wise man') our species of modern humans

Humans have descended from a family of **primates** known as **hominids**. Unlike other primates, such as apes, humans walk upright on two legs. They also have larger brains and the physical capacity for speech. Fossil evidence discovered by **archaeologists** Mary and Louis Leakey and others shows that the earliest humans lived in tropical areas of Africa. *Homo erectus* was a species of hominid that existed prior to the emergence of the human species. The first human species (**Homo sapiens**) lived and evolved between 400 000 BCE and 130 000 BCE. What is regarded

as the modern human species of *Homo sapiens* evolved around 150 000 BCE.

Early humans gradually expanded their range across Africa, starting in eastern and southern Africa. Some time after 100 000 BCE, humans migrated from Africa to Europe and Asia. Around 60 000 years ago, humans reached Australia. They crossed from Asia to the Americas via a land bridge to what is now Alaska, but it is thought that their spreading down through the Americas around 40 000 BCE to 20 000 BCE may have occurred partly by boat. The South Pacific was reached somewhere between 1100 BCE and 1300 CE.

Evidence of the first humans

The use of tools has distinguished humans from other species, even though some primates and birds are known to use tools as well. Evidence shows the earliest stone tools to have been used by hominids from around 2 500 000 BCE. The use of fire for cooking dates back to 500 000 BCE. Art gives us further important evidence of hominids, with cave art being found that dates from as early as 70 000 BCE.

For millions of years, tools were made from stone as well as bones. The **Palaeolithic period** extended until around 10 000 years ago and was followed by the **Neolithic period**, which accompanied the development of **agriculture**. Early humans shaped weapons for hunting animals and tools for cutting, scraping, digging and grinding. Humans learnt to use metals to make better tools, at first from bronze and later from iron.

During the Palaeolithic period, people were **hunter-gatherers**. They **foraged** for wild fruits, nuts, roots and grains, and hunted animals. They lived as **nomads**, and followed food from place to place as the seasons changed.

We are slowly learning about the early human use of fire, for hunting animals and managing the landscape, in places ranging from Africa to Australia. Early humans wore animal skins for warmth, and there is evidence of weaving fibres into cloth as early as 26 000 years ago.

Palaeolithic period (or Old Stone Age period) an era of hunting and gathering societies and the use of stone tools

Neolithic period (or New Stone Age period) an era marked by the development of farming and the domestication of animals

agriculture cultivating the land, producing crops and raising livestock

hunter-gatherers humans who foraged and hunted for their food

forage to search for food

nomads people who move from place to place without settling

HISTORICAL FACT

Modern humans are remarkably physically alike, despite cultural diversity.



Times gone by ...

In his 1871 book *The Descent of Man*, evolutionary theorist Charles Darwin speculated that humankind had evolved in Africa, because humans and African apes shared similar features. But at the time there was no archaeological evidence to support his argument. Starting in the 1930s, archaeologists Mary and Louis

Leakey began looking for human **fossils** in East Africa. At first they found stone tools, but it was not until 1959 that they found the first hominid fossil remains in the Great Rift Valley, which would provide evidence to support Darwin's **theory of evolution**. They also found footprints dating back around 3.5 million years, showing that hominids had walked upright. Two years later, they discovered a second hominid with a larger brain, which they called *Homo habilis* ('handy man') because this hominid had made the tools by chipping flakes from volcanic stones. Such tools could have very sharp edges.

Further key archaeological research would be conducted in Africa. In 1974, a team of archaeologists, including Mary Leakey, discovered much of a skeleton of an **Australopithecus** hominid in the Afar Depression in Ethiopia. They nicknamed the female skeleton 'Lucy' (see Source 1.10). It was an exciting discovery because they found 40 per cent of the whole skeleton - much more than was usually possible. From this skeleton, they worked out that this hominid had a small brain but walked upright. In 1990-92, James Aronson and Robert Walter used **radiometric technology** to analyse volcanic ash that had surrounded Lucy to date her as around 3.2 million years old. Aronson would later joke with university colleagues about having 'dated Lucy'.

- 1 Identify where and how Lucy was discovered.
- 2 Why is Lucy so important to our knowledge about human evolution?

Look up the University of Texas's 'Lucy' website (www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks) to find out more about human origins and evolution.

fossils remains or traces of a plant, animal or human from a former geological time

theory of evolution a theory in biology that species adapt to their environments through a process of selection over time

Australopithecus an extinct kind of primate whose jaws were like those of a human and whose skull was like that of an ape

radiometric technology tools that allow a scientist to work out the age of a rock or mineral by analysing radioactive particles



Source 1.10 A replica of the skeleton 'Lucy', the *Australopithecus* hominid discovered in the Afar Depression in Ethiopia in 1974 and dated to 3.2 million years ago

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, compare the Palaeolithic and Neolithic periods.

Palaeolithic period	Neolithic period
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hunter-gatherers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Farming

Activity 1.1

- 1 Using the information here and online resources, identify the four main types of hominid.
- 2 What advantages did later groups of hominids have over earlier groups in relation to physical and anatomical developments?

HISTORICAL FACT

The female skeleton was nicknamed 'Lucy' because the team members played a tape of The Beatles' song 'Lucy in the Sky with Diamonds' repeatedly at their camp.

Theories and questions of early human life

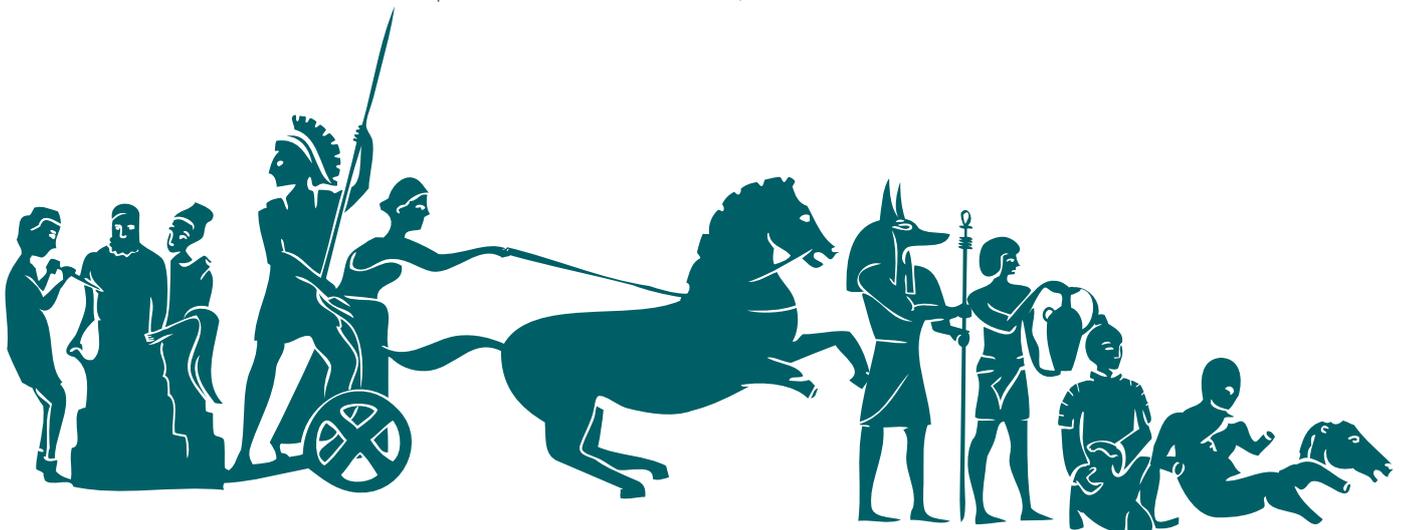
What defines our humanity? How do we express it? Scholars have identified language and tool-making as key attributes of humanity, but which came first or might be more important is a matter for debate. Other attributes such as larger brain size and erect posture pose similar questions: which came first, and did one lead to the other? One important question has been settled, though. When Darwin suggested that early human life was the result of an evolutionary process, the

main competing theory was that each 'race' of people had been created separately, and in the very places on the globe where they are found today. Scientists have well and truly decided in Darwin's favour.

Scientists have used archaeological evidence to draw the line between animals such as primates and humans based on brain size, ways of moving around, methods of communication and tool-making capacity, but these distinctions continue to be subject to debate. Animals, too, are capable of intelligence and emotional complexity. We share much more than just DNA.



Source 1.11 Husband and wife team Louis and Mary Leakey dig for bones and tools of prehistoric humans in East Africa, 1962



Research 1.1



Source 1.12 This statue of Prometheus was built in the main square of Pripyat, the city adjacent to the Chernobyl nuclear reactor in Ukraine, USSR that suffered a major nuclear disaster in 1986. The statue was built before the disaster to represent the god-like supply of electricity (a modern form of 'fire') by the nuclear plant. It is now in the zone of high radioactive contamination.

Prometheus is one of the gods in ancient Greek mythology. Aeschylus (525–455 BCE) was a Greek playwright known especially for his tragedies. In Aeschylus's play *Prometheus Bound*, Prometheus is punished by the other gods – especially Zeus – because he has stolen fire from the heavens and given it to mortal humans. Lines from the play include:

Prometheus: ... I gave them fire.

Chorus: What? Men, whose life is but a day, possess already the hot radiance of fire?

Prometheus: They do; and with it they shall master many crafts.

Source 1.13 Aeschylus, *Prometheus Bound, The Suppliants, Seven Against Thebes, The Persians* (Penguin, 1961), p. 28.

Investigate the ways in which early humans used fire for cooking, hunting, making tools and managing the landscape. What did fire make possible that people had not been able to do before? Then, using Sources 1.12 and 1.13 as well, complete some research on the nuclear power station accident at Chernobyl, USSR in 1986.

- Why do you think the Soviet authorities erected a statue to Prometheus near Chernobyl when the nuclear power station was first built?
- In Aeschylus's play, why do you think the Chorus was shocked that humans had fire?
- In today's debates over nuclear power, who is Prometheus and who are the Chorus?

Explain your findings to the class, either in a PowerPoint presentation or on a poster with visual images.

Debate continues on the timing and patterns of the migration of early humans around the world, such as when humans crossed from Asia to the Americas (now generally thought to be about 25 000 years ago) and how they moved from North to South America. Researchers continue

strontium a metallic element that can resemble calcium

to find evidence that raises questions about the social patterns of early human life. For example, recent research used lasers to measure **strontium**

in the teeth of human ancestors who lived in South Africa between 2.7 and 1.7 million years ago. The strontium that forms in human molars around the age of eight gives clues to geological location. The results suggest that males of the species stayed at home while females travelled further afield. While the spreading out of females may have prevented inbreeding, we do not know whether the males participated in caring for the children.

Establishment of ancient societies



Source 1.14 An ancient Assyrian wall carving of a hand with cuneiform writing

Art and iconography

iconography images and symbols used to represent ideas

cuneiform Sumerian writing that used sharp tools to create wedge-shaped symbols on clay tablets

Art and **iconography** provide us with invaluable evidence of early human cultures. From around 4000 BCE, farming communities in the valleys of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in Mesopotamia (now Iraq) invented the wheel for transportation, made pottery and developed art forms. From around 3500 BCE, the Sumerians who invaded this region developed an early form of writing, called **cuneiform**, which was based on pictures.

Sumerian art included **frescoes** and statues in the temples of their gods, and Sumerian architecture included towers. As you will read in Chapter 3, ancient Egypt was rich in forms of art that showed Egyptians' life and the natural environment, including paintings in tombs, on papyrus, statues – especially of pharaohs and gods – and amazingly large stone pyramids and statues such as the sphinxes. Ancient China also developed forms of art, such as the remarkable terracotta warriors of Xian, which date from the third century BCE, elaborate pottery and

fresco interior type of pictorial wall painting where the pigment or paint to create the picture is applied to the wet plaster surface of the wall then allowed to dry

carved jade. In Central America, Mayan civilisation developed and, from before 150 BCE, began to build remarkable pyramids, temples and palaces with much sculpture and many decorations. From such

art forms we can learn about the dress, religion, gender practices, food habits, warfare, hunting, pets, sport, and even cosmetics and jewellery of ancient cultures.

HISTORICAL FACT

The name cuneiform means 'wedge-shaped', from the Latin *cuneus*, meaning 'wedge'.

Technology and daily life

We have some knowledge of technological developments, such as that metal tools were used from around 4000 BCE. The first tools were made of copper, but soon a stronger alloy of copper and tin came to be used, thus beginning

the **Bronze Age**, from around 3000 BCE. Iron was first used from around 1500 BCE. It should be remembered that stone and metal have lasted through the **millennia**

better than wood or fibre, so that when tools were first made from these materials, and what they might have looked like, are largely

unknown. It is also worth remembering that we still use tools made of wood and fibre as well as of metal, and find them just as useful as did our ancient ancestors.

The word *technology* has evolved in meaning, and was not much used before the twentieth century. Contemporary usage has limited it to little more than electronics, while most of the

Bronze Age the period when humans began to make items out of bronze

millennium (plural millennia) a period of a thousand years



Source 1.15 Bronze axe blades from ancient Egypt

modern era has applied it to machines. For ancient times, before electronics and machines, we should think of technology in a different way: as a broad category of things including clothing, shelter, tools, weapons, ornaments, containers and so forth. From this standpoint, it is clear that ancient lives were filled with technology, as are ours today.

Today, archaeologists are using sophisticated new tools to investigate subjects we thought we knew about, showing how much we still do not

HISTORICAL FACT

Stonehenge, the prehistoric **megalith** just north of Salisbury in England, was constructed around 2500 BCE. It is a series of concentric circles of massive bluestones that were transported and assembled very carefully. Its design marks the movement of the sun.

megalith a monument made of stone

know. For example, satellites with infrared cameras that can highlight different materials underground recently have identified many pyramids and unexcavated tombs lying buried in parts of Egypt, covered with silt from the Nile. This research shows that we are still learning about the extent and

nature of ancient settlements and their buildings. Just who built the massive pyramids in Egypt is still a matter of debate among researchers, with recent discoveries of workers' tombs suggesting that at least some were free workers and not slaves, as had long been thought.

Key features of ancient societies



Farming

domesticate to tame or to make part of home life

cultivate to raise crops by working the land

In the Neolithic age, from around 7000 BCE, some people developed more settled societies, **domesticated** animals for food and **cultivated** crops. Once agriculture developed and reliable food supplies

increased, communities expanded in population quite dramatically. Some communities combined hunting and gathering with crop cultivation. In Chapter 3, you will learn about the first farmers in ancient Egypt along the valley of the River Nile, who domesticated animals from around

7000 years ago. The land along the Nile was especially fertile because of the **silt** from the river. Ancient China had several Neolithic cultures from around 6000 BCE, with the cultivation of **millet** in the north and rice in the lower Yangtze valley, and the cultivation of **yams, taro** and fruit in southern areas. The first farming communities developed in north-western India between 4000 and

silt rich, fine soil carried in the waters of a river

millet a grain crop with small seeds used for food

yam starchy root plant widely cultivated for food in warm climates

taro the root of a herb cultivated for food in tropical areas

2500 BCE, followed by the civilisation in the Indus Valley. Various forms of farming developed in different places. In Central America by the early Common Era, Mayan farmers were draining swamps, using irrigation and

learning to manage the forests around their villages to produce their own food.

A common feature of agricultural societies was a gendered division of labour and a **patriarchal** system in which

patriarchal a social system in which fathers are heads of households, descent is through the male line and men hold more power and authority than women

men held more power and authority. Hunter-gatherer societies valued the contributions of both women and men to the collection of food relatively equally, even where there were divisions of labour. With the growth of settled farming communities, men became more associated with the production of crops and the ownership of land, and women were seen as less important. While there was considerable variation in women's rights, legal, religious and cultural systems developed in which men and boys were valued more than women and girls.

Trade

A common feature of the earliest civilisations was the development of trade with other groups. The location of ancient Greece on the Mediterranean coast, for example, and its island geography, led to the use of boats and the development of **maritime trade**. As you will see in Chapter 4,

Phoenician society, which developed from around 1500 BCE, traded across distances as far as the British Isles (for tin). By around 600 BCE, the ancient Greeks were importing **commodities** including grain and timber from around the Mediterranean. The **Harappan** culture of the Indus Valley in ancient India engaged in trade from around 2600 BCE, including commodities such as cotton, precious stones and metals. Early trade was facilitated by proximity to rivers and seas. The oldest written records, found on cuneiform tablets, often dealt with trade, as well as the taxation that often followed as rulers sought to

maritime trade trade conducted across the sea

Phoenicians seafaring and trading civilisation from the eastern Mediterranean that was active between 1500 and 300 BCE

commodity an item that is bought and sold, especially a raw material or something that is manufactured, for which there is a commercial demand

Harappan name given by archaeologists to the civilisation that occupied the Indus Valley of ancient India

HISTORICAL FACT

The Hittite people in Anatolia (Turkey) first made iron tools around 1500 BCE. Iron was better than bronze because it is harder and sharper. Bronze is made from both copper and tin.

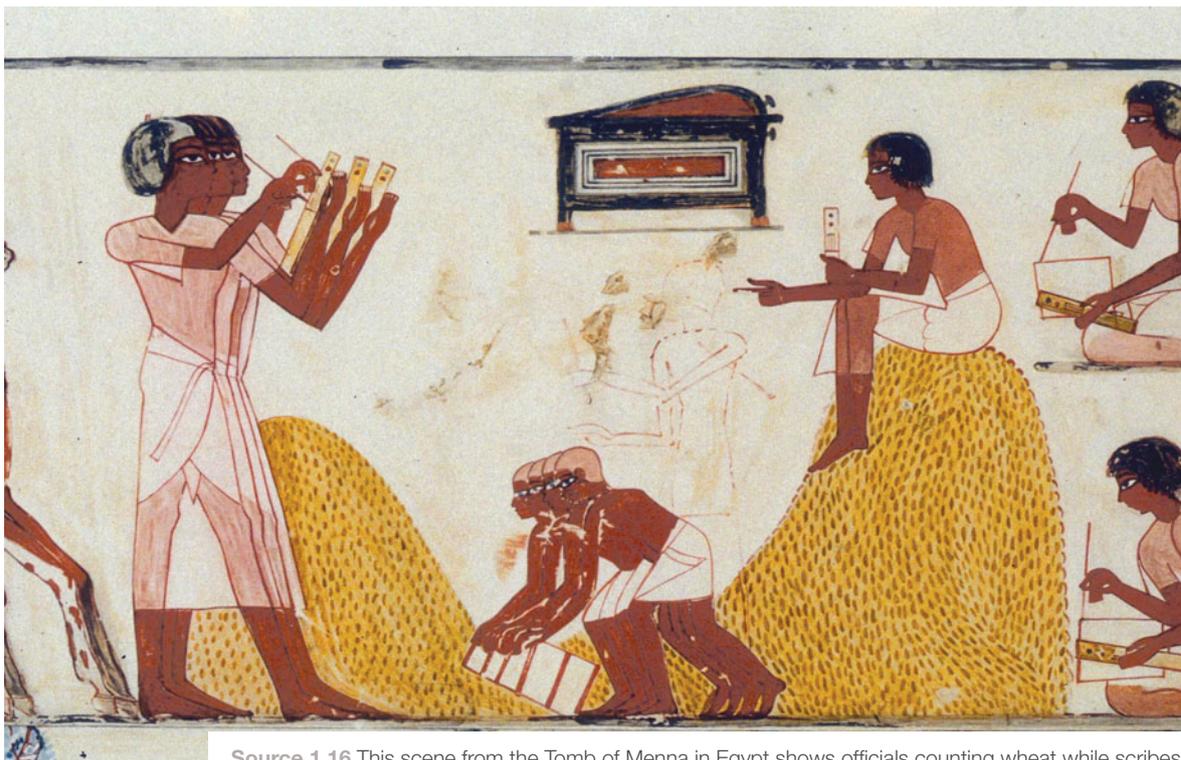
make money from it. Trade was also helped by roads and communication systems. The ancient Persian empire, under the rule of Darius I from 522–486 BCE, built a highly developed communications system, including a postal service and a large network of roads that enabled the movement of armies and emissaries as well as traders and their caravans.

Social classes

Another aspect of early civilisations was the division of society by rank, occupation, wealth and power. The wealth produced by agriculture and trade enabled societies to support members specialising in jobs such as priests, artists and **scribes**, unlike hunter-

scribe an official who copied documents or did clerical duties

gatherer societies where every able-bodied member was required to find food. Leaders emerged, such as the pharaohs of ancient Egypt who enjoyed great wealth and power. In ancient Rome, as you will learn in Chapter 5, patricians were the wealthy ruling elite; plebeians were a broadly ranged rank of free citizens beneath the patricians – including some rich merchants as well as humbler tradespeople – and at the bottom of the heap were slaves, a large, oppressed class of servants who inherited their status or were prisoners of war or convicted criminals. The specific forms of social hierarchy or rankings varied between civilisations. In ancient India, social differences became a caste system, in which people inherit their status and different social ranks have particular occupations, rights and duties.



Source 1.16 This scene from the Tomb of Menna in Egypt shows officials counting wheat while scribes record the quantities, probably for tax purposes

Religion

Ancient human cultures developed rituals, often associated with burying the dead and with **fertility** and crop production.

fertile able to produce a large number of quality crops; the ability to produce offspring or reproduce

pantheon all the deities of a religion considered collectively

Early civilisations also developed detailed systems of beliefs. The ancient Greeks worshipped many gods, each responsible for a particular aspect of life. Zeus ruled over the **pantheon** of gods who were believed to live on Mount Olympus, about whom many stories were told. They included Aphrodite, the goddess of love and beauty; Athena, the goddess of wisdom and the arts; Hermes, the god of trade; and Poseidon, the god of the seas. Religion in ancient Rome was based partly on the worship of the Greek gods. In India from about 1500 BCE, the invading Aryan people developed systems of knowledge called the ‘Vedas’, which became the basis of the religion of Hinduism and spread across the subcontinent.

reincarnation living again in a new body or form after death

enlightenment a spiritually enlightened state of being

monotheism a religion that believes in only one god

Much later, around 500 BCE, the Buddhist religion emerged, based on a belief in **reincarnation** and the possibility of attaining **enlightenment**. Buddhism would spread from India to China and elsewhere. Judaism is based on scriptures called the Tanakh, codified between about 400 and 150 BCE, as a **monotheistic** religion of the Hebrew people in ancient Israel. Christianity emerged, initially as a reform movement within Judaism, in the Roman Empire in the first centuries of the Common Era, particularly taking off in the fourth century. Islam, based on the teachings of the Prophet Muhammad, began in the Arabian peninsula in the seventh century and spread quickly across western Asia and northern Africa.

Rule of law

Early civilisations were marked by the development of language and writing. Some of the first written records relate to codes of social practice and the emergence of laws. The code of **Hammurabi**, c. 1700 BCE, contains 282 laws covering such topics as work, commerce, marriage, family and sexual relations. Pertaining to the Babylonian rule of Mesopotamia, it is the oldest surviving comprehensive legal code.

Hammurabi a Babylonian king who introduced his famous early code of law for the welfare of his people

The success of the vast Roman Empire lay partly in the uniformity of the legal system across its length and breadth. Rome’s first legal code, introduced around 450 BCE, helped to establish the privileges and rights of all Roman citizens but also set out some privileges of the patrician class over the plebeians. In ancient China, the Qin dynasty, established in the third century BCE, asserted its rule not only by military means but also through a common system of laws, written script, taxation, administration, weights, measures and currency.

The ancient early civilisations that developed in fertile areas – often river valleys – shared some common features. Settled villages emerged, and farming and the domestication of animals began around 10 000 BCE. People gradually learnt to make better tools from metals. Civilisations traded with other groups and developed gendered divisions of labour and authority, as well as social classes, religious rituals, legal systems, art and technology, language and writing.

Chapter summary

- Our species *Homo sapiens* descended from hominids in eastern Africa around 150 000 BCE.
- Some time after 100 000 BCE, *Homo sapiens* spread slowly from Africa to Europe and Asia, and from there down to Australia, across to North America, down through the Americas and to the South Pacific.
- The Palaeolithic period began around 2 500 000 BCE and was a long era of hunting and gathering societies and the use of stone tools.
- The Neolithic period from around 10 000 BCE marks the development of farming and the domestication of animals, though stone tools were still used, with bronze not being used until around 2500 BCE.
- The development of agriculture – both crops and animals – enabled the first settlements, and the increased production of food, which meant a great expansion of population.
- Early civilisations developed social hierarchies, political organisation, language, laws, religion, art, architecture and varying cultural practices.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

- The hominid family of primates:
 - had large brains
 - had small feet
 - walked on all fours
 - walked upright
- The first tools used by hominids and early humans for millions of years were made of:
 - wood
 - bronze
 - stone and bones
 - none of the above
- Which statement about the development of farming is not true?
 - The development of agriculture caused population expansion.
 - Some communities combined hunting and gathering with growing crops.
 - Farming communities settled in the mountains and not in river valleys.
 - Men and boys were valued more than women and girls.
- Trade developed between early civilisations because:
 - people wanted commodities like grain, timber, cotton and metals
 - rulers wanted to be able to impose taxation
 - language differences made communication difficult
 - all of the above

- 5** Language and the rule of law emerged in early civilisations:
- A** to govern matters like commerce, work, marriage and family
 - B** to help unify large empires
 - C** to establish the rights of one class over another
 - D** all of the above
- 3** How was the Neolithic period different from the Paleolithic period?
- 4** List the common characteristics of agricultural societies.
- 5** What are significant shared features of early civilisations?

Short answer

- 1** Explain how researchers study prehistory without the aid of written records from that time.
- 2** Outline three ways in which early humans fed themselves during the Paleolithic period.
- 1** Why did early humans make rock carvings such as these?
- 2** Reflect on what we can learn today from studying such carvings.

Source analysis

Study Source 1.17 and answer the following questions:



Source 1.17 Prehistoric rock engraving of giraffes, Wadi Mathendous archaeological site, Sahara Desert, Libya, UNESCO World Heritage site

Extended response

Imagine that you are an archaeologist about to set out on a research expedition. Choose a particular site where archaeologists have made discoveries and conduct some online research. In a short essay, do the following:

- Identify two or three artefacts you might uncover at this site.
- Explain the work that it would take to find them.
- Describe daily life on the site.
- Evaluate what these artefacts can tell us about the civilisation.

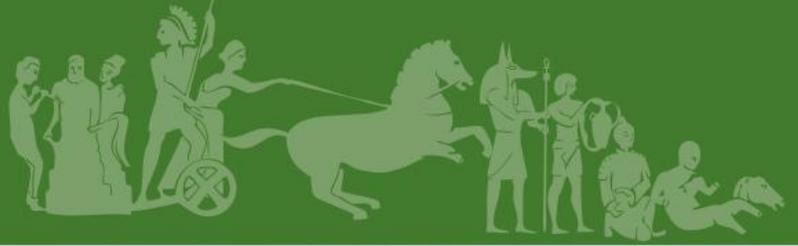


DEPTH STUDY 1

Investigating the ancient past



2



The ancient past



Source 2.1 An archaeological site in Lindos, Greece

Before you start

Main focus

History is a window into our past: it helps us understand who we are and how we came to be that way.

Why it's relevant today

Knowing about and understanding the ancient past is fundamental to understanding the present. History provides an essential context for evaluating the institutions, politics and cultures of today, and it also provides an insight into human nature and human civilisation.

Inquiry questions

- How do historians and archaeologists investigate the ancient past?
- What sorts of sources do they use?
- What are the defining characteristics of ancient Australia?
- Why should we conserve the remains of the ancient past?

Key terms

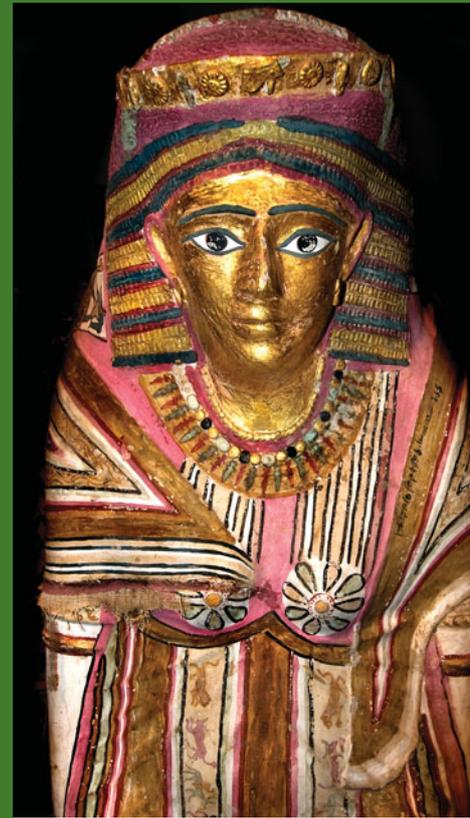
- anthropology
- archaeology
- artefact
- historian
- Indigenous people
- oral tradition
- primary and secondary sources
- stratigraphy

Significant individuals

- Arthur Evans
- Augustus
- Galen
- Graeme Walsh
- Harriet Boyd-Hawes
- Heinrich Schliemann
- Herodotus
- Jim Bowler
- Livy
- Marcus Aurelius
- Thucydides

Let's begin

History consists of stories about people and what they did in the past so that people in the present can understand why they acted and thought as they did. Historians study the past in order to understand it. They also study how events affected societies and people. To understand the past, historians look for evidence and investigate past events.



Source 2.2 Egyptian mummy case



Source 2.3 A bronze food container from China, 1200 BCE



Source 2.4 Rock paintings in the UNESCO-protected Kakadu National Park

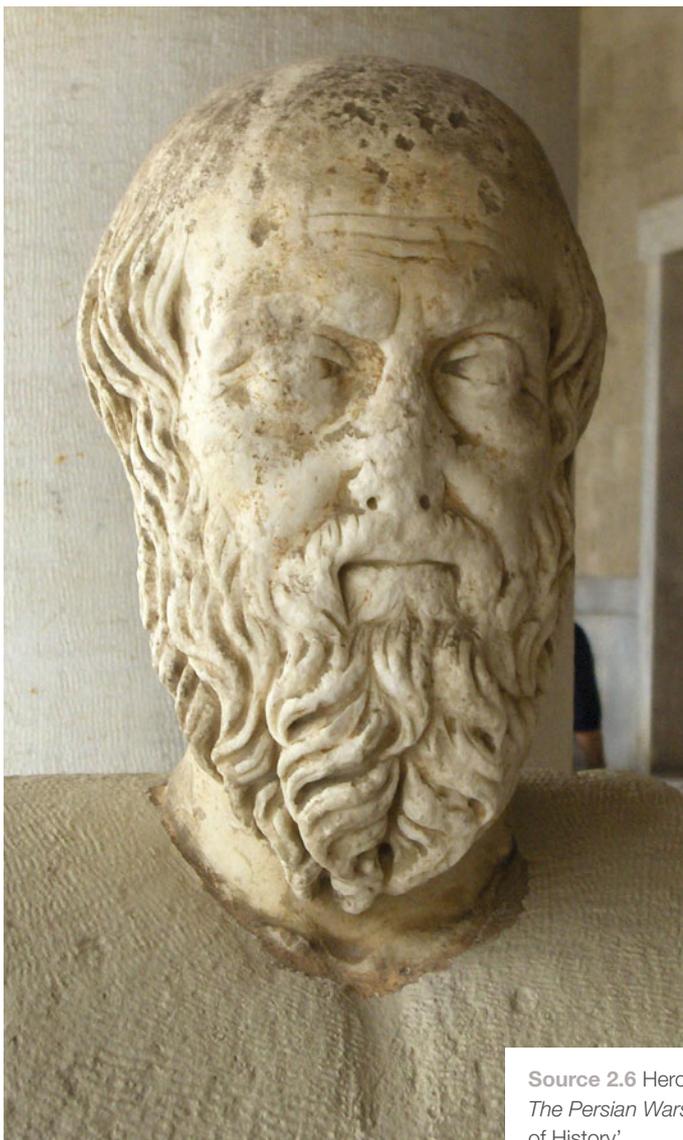


How historians and archaeologists investigate history

What is history and what is an historian?

Herodotus of Halicarnassus here displays his inquiry, so that human achievements may not become forgotten in time, and great and marvellous deeds may not be without glory; and especially to show why two peoples fought with each other.

Source 2.5 *The Histories* (Penguin, 1996, p. 3)



Source 2.6 Herodotus (c. 484–420 BCE) wrote *The Persian Wars*. He is known as ‘The Father of History’.

The word ‘**history**’ was first used by the ancient Greek writer Herodotus. He used it to describe what he was hoping to achieve in his account of the Persian Wars – that is, the Persian invasion of ancient Greece in 490 and 480–479 BCE. His aim was to ask what had happened and why. In doing this, Herodotus made significant changes to the way people wrote about the past. Instead of simply recording names of kings, or events that had happened, Herodotus sought to explain why Persia had invaded Greece. This is called causation, and with it a new intellectual discipline – the writing of history – was invented. To commemorate this contribution, Herodotus has been dubbed the ‘Father of History’.

Writing history is an important responsibility. When we are writing history, we are trying to recreate as accurately as possible the stories of peoples of the past and their actions, so that we in the present can understand why they thought and acted the way they did.

It is also important to remember that history is never static: it is constantly changing as every generation of **historians** re-examines the past. Historians ask new questions, add new information that might have been found, and revise existing explanations for historical questions about the past.

history the study of the past through examining the written evidence of a society

historian someone who studies and writes about history

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, list the key features of history.

Key features of history
Word first used by Herodotus

HISTORICAL FACT

HISTORICAL FACT

The word 'history' comes from the ancient Greek word *historia*, which means inquiry.



Writing history

Writing about past peoples and their societies requires knowing about those times and places. All historians go through a series of steps when they write about the past: collecting information, analysing it and writing their account.

Choosing a topic of research

The first step is to define the topic the historian will be researching and writing about. It might be something broad and vague, such as ancient China; or something a little more defined, such as the evolution of democracy in ancient Athens; or even more specific, such as a cultural phenomenon like Roman triumphs; or an individual such as Cleopatra of Egypt.

Having selected a topic, the historian needs to shape or set the boundaries of their research by asking more questions, otherwise the project could become a nightmare. In other words, an historian will start asking questions and setting boundaries for their research, and this process will continue as the research and writing evolve.

As well as setting the scope of the project, these questions will also shape the uniqueness of the project, because every question historians ask in the process of writing history reflects who they are as individuals.

If we take Cleopatra, the Pharaoh of Egypt, as an example, we might refine our interest by asking the following questions:

- Who was she?
- When did she live?
- What kind of upbringing did she have?
- Why is she famous?
- How did she become the ruler of Egypt?
- Was she a good ruler?
- Was she liked by her people?
- Was it acceptable to Egyptian society that a woman was their ruler?
- Being of Greek descent and a woman, did she have to have Egyptian advisers?
- If she did have advisers, who were they and what influence did they have?
- What happened to Cleopatra?



Source 2.7 Cleopatra (69–30 BCE) was of Macedonian Greek descent and was one of only a handful of women who ruled as Pharaoh of ancient Egypt.

Another example might be Roman triumphs, which were a particularly important feature of Roman society. As well as the basic questions of how a general qualified for a triumph, and what happened during a triumph, historians with different interests will ask quite different questions about what a Roman triumph signified.

- An historian interested in military history might investigate the battles that brought about the triumph.
- Another historian interested in religion might examine the religious connotations: why was it necessary to appease Jupiter, the king of the Roman gods?
- An historian interested in logistics might ask how an army that has to parade all day is organised and fed. And what did soldiers do when they needed to answer the call of nature?

Activity 2.1

In groups, consider what kind of questions you might want to ask before you start a project on the evolution of Athenian democracy. Compare your questions with the rest of the class and justify them.

Collecting information

Defining a topic is important: it stops us from writing an encyclopaedia about every subject of interest, and it directs how we collect our information. Instead of finding everything there is about Cleopatra or China in the library or on the internet, we look for information relevant to the questions we have set ourselves. We gather that information from both primary and secondary sources. The range of sources available to an ancient historian will be discussed later in this chapter.

Secondary sources

A first and important step in preparing to research a project is to seek out and read appropriate accounts of your area of interest. Without doing this, you are neither appreciating nor taking advantage of what past historians have achieved and written. This process will allow you to understand the different selection of evidence, the varied use of evidence and the different interpretations historians bring to the use of evidence. Without this information, historians would continuously be ‘reinventing the wheel’. However, nor should you adopt the simple way of writing history by collecting one, two or more secondary sources, reading what they say about your topic, synthesising or merging the information, and presenting it as your own work. If your account of the past is to be authentic, you must also seek out primary sources.

Written or literary sources

For an historian, the most important source of information that has survived from the ancient past is literary or written sources. Unlike any other source of information from the ancient past, written sources allow us to see a little more clearly into the mentality of a particular society. But to appreciate a piece of evidence fully, and to extract the best information from it, each piece of evidence needs to be examined or exposed to a range of questions.

Who wrote it and when, and how close or distant in time was it to the event it describes?

Identifying and discovering information about the author of a written source and establishing when the work was written are important first steps. These simple questions place historians in a

relationship with the text they are using. It provides the beginning of the analysis of a document.

A text written by a ruler will be different in scope and attitude from a letter written by an ordinary citizen without status. The inscription from ancient Mesopotamia proclaiming Naram Sin (2258–2214 BCE) ‘King of the Four Quarters’ – that is, the universe – is different from the self-serving accounts of the wars against Gaul by the Roman general Julius Caesar, and both are different from the philosophical writings of the Roman emperor Marcus Aurelius, compiled while fighting the German tribes towards the end of the second century CE; all vary once again from the letters written by St Paul to his friends in Ephesus or Corinth.

Similarly, knowing when a text was written and the chronological relationship of that piece of writing to the events it discusses is also relevant. Was the account contemporaneous with the events the text describes, and therefore was it ‘raw’ and not affected by time, experience and memory? Or had time mellowed the memory and emotions, thus possibly producing a more reflective account or analysis?

Is the source authentic?

It is not a common occurrence, but it is possible that the authenticity of a source or document may be doubted. This occurred in 1998 when a letter said to have been written by Alexander the Great to Aristotle, the Athenian philosopher who was also his tutor, was posted on the website of the Republic of Macedonia. You can read the letter and a commentary on its authenticity at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks.

Why was the written text produced?

The reasons why a document was produced can be very significant when it comes to understanding the information it bears and, more importantly, how truthful that information is.

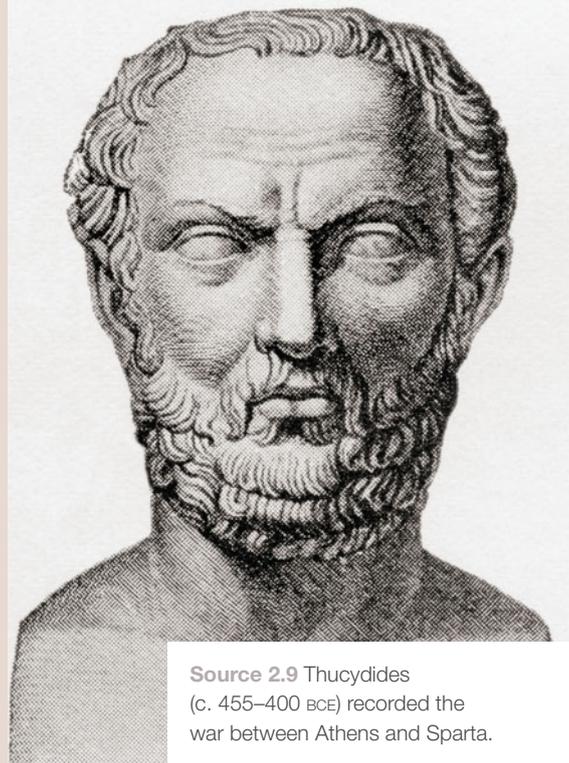
What information does it provide? Is the information credible?

Does the text have inherent bias or omissions? Is there repetition of hearsay or straight-out inaccuracies? All must be checked, verified or substantiated as thoroughly as possible.

Times gone by ...

However, I do not think that one will be far wrong in accepting the conclusions I have reached from the evidence which I have put forward. It is better evidence than that of the poets, who exaggerate the importance of their themes, or of the prose chroniclers, who are less interested in telling the truth than in catching the attention of their public, whose authorities cannot be checked, and whose subject-matter, owing to the passage of time, is mostly lost in the unreliable stream of mythology. We may claim instead to have used only the plainest evidence and to have reached conclusions which are reasonably accurate, considering that we are dealing with ancient history ... In this history I have made use of set speeches some of which were delivered just before or others during the war. I have found it difficult to remember the precise words used in the speeches which I listened to myself and my various informants have experienced the same difficulty; so my method has been, while keeping as closely as possible to the general sense of the words that were actually used, to make the speakers say what, in my opinion, was called for by each situation.

Source 2.8 Thucydides, *History of the Peloponnesian War* (Penguin, 1972, p. 47)



Source 2.9 Thucydides (c. 455–400 BCE) recorded the war between Athens and Sparta.

- 1 Identify what Thucydides sees as being problematic for the earlier writers.
- 2 How has he improved the process of writing accurate history?
- 3 Consider the problems in the method he uses to write speeches that had been spoken by others.



Source 2.10 Rameses II, Pharaoh of Egypt (1279–1213 BCE). His armies fought against the Hittites at the battle of Kadesh in 1274 BCE.

Even documentary sources, such as inscriptions of treaties recording agreements between kings and countries, can be subject to exaggeration or information that has been left out. This is the case with the oldest peace treaty in existence, the Treaty of Kadesh. The treaty was produced in Egyptian by Rameses II of Egypt and in Akkadian by Hattusilis III of Hatti (Hittites) to mark the end of the battle of Kadesh in 1275 BCE. Interestingly, both kings claimed victory in the battle.

Does the source tell us where the information it provides came from?

Knowing where a piece of information came from can also help an historian to assess its truthfulness and reliability.

Can the information the source provides be substantiated?

When writing his account of the war between Athens and Sparta (431–404 BCE), Thucydides, who followed Herodotus, refined the idea of writing history. He believed every piece of information should be substantiated at least once, if not twice, by other sources of information before that piece of information could be used. Unfortunately, we are not always fortunate enough to have multiple sources of information for an event – indeed, the history of the Peloponnesian War is such an example. Our only detailed account is by Thucydides, but that does not mean we should not seek supporting evidence.

What value judgements are apparent in the text?

Is the information being provided objective or does it have the historian's value judgements embedded in the account?

What are its overt and implicit messages?

Texts can have both an obvious message and implied messages. One of the most important and intriguing documents from ancient Rome is the memoirs of the Emperor Augustus, the *Res Gestae Divi Augusti* (*Achievements of the Divine Augustus*), published in 14 CE after Augustus died. Written in a straightforward, matter-of-fact style, it is in fact a clever document of propaganda, filled with overt and implied messages.

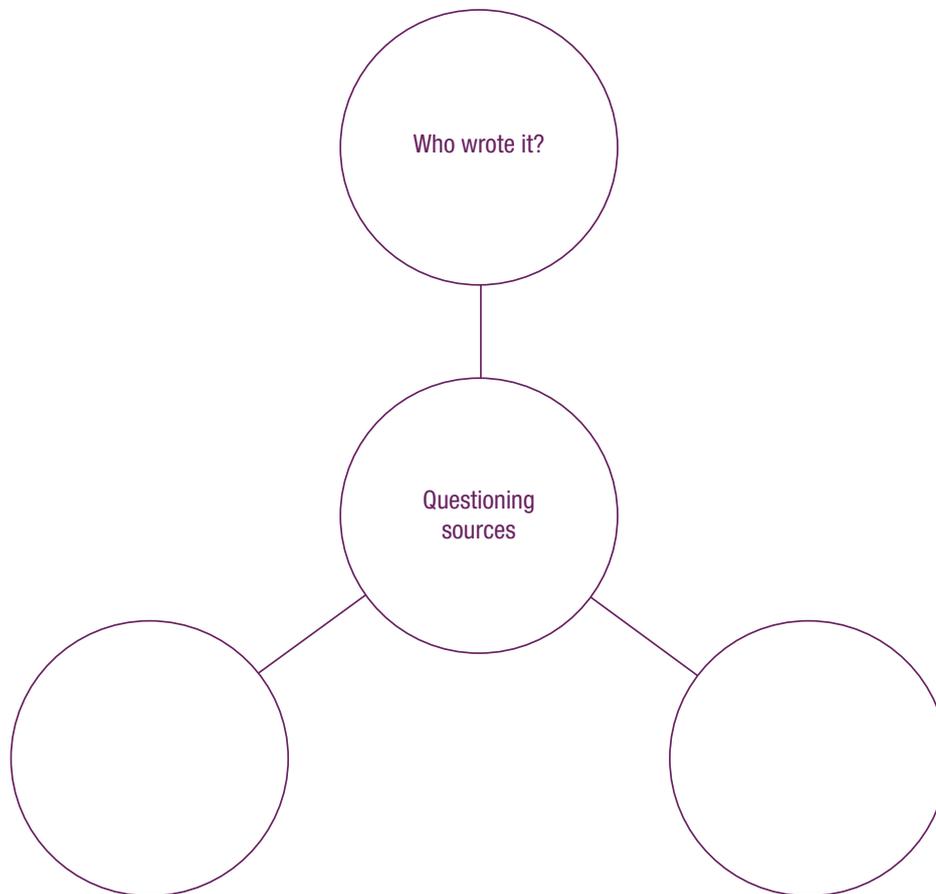
On the surface, the document claims to be an account of Augustus's extensive activities, listing all the deeds and sacrifices he made on behalf of Rome. Its implied message, however, is how wonderful Augustus was as the saviour of Rome; how much he was admired by the Roman people and the Roman gods; and how all his actions were constitutionally legal and in accordance with Roman law. This impression is supported by the straightforward and matter-of-fact style in which the memoir is written. What is missing – which is just as powerful in shaping the message as what is there – is all the actions he took that were not legal; the political and military manipulations he exercised to maintain power.



Source 2.11 The *Res Gestae Divi Augusti* (*Achievements of the Divine Augustus*) was published at different places in the empire after Augustus's death in 14 CE

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the ways an historian can question a source.



Other difficulties facing historians

Lost texts

Unfortunately, the majority of works written in the ancient past have not survived to the present. Those lost texts can leave an historian with enormous gaps in the material that is available, and can influence our understanding of what happened, shaping how a history is written.

Research 2.1

Three of the greatest playwrights of ancient Greece were Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides. Go online and do some research on these playwrights, then answer the following questions:

- 1 Identify when these playwrights lived.
- 2 How many plays did each of them write? What is the total for all three?
- 3 Investigate how many of their plays can be read today.

**HISTORICAL
FACT**

The famous ancient Library of Alexandria, which is believed to have been destroyed by fire in 48 BCE, is said to have contained many tens of thousands of manuscripts of writings from ancient Greece and Rome.

Another kind of gap in our knowledge can occur because a society has not produced any written sources about an event, and this can also distort our understanding of an event or period. For example, as we have already discovered, Herodotus has left us a detailed Greek account of the Persian Wars. The Persian kings, in contrast, have not left us their own version of the wars.

As well as these problems, there are texts that have sections missing. For example, treaties

between cities were carved in stone so that they could be displayed in public places. Over time, these have often been damaged and parts of the text with crucial information can be lost.

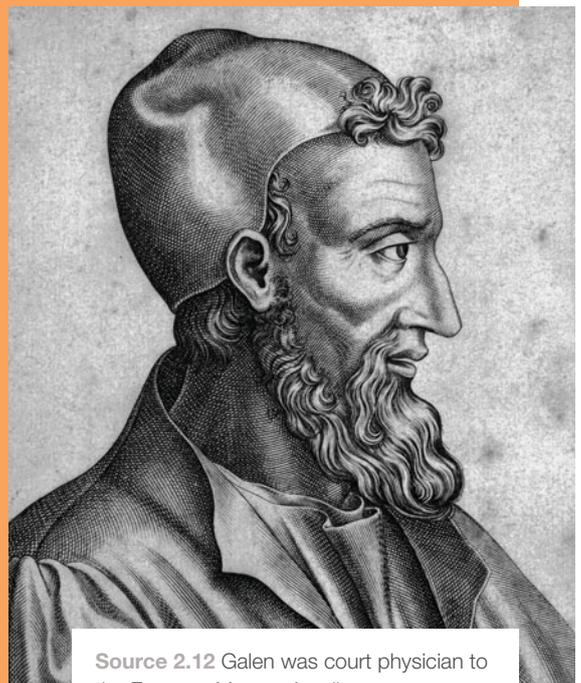
The Roman historian Livy (69 BCE–12 CE) wrote a monumental history of Rome from the ‘Foundation of the City’ – that is, from the origins of Rome until 9 BCE – in 142 books. Of these, only Books 1–10 and 21–45 survive today.

Research 2.2

Finds of ancient literary texts can still happen. In 2005, Antoine Pietrobelli was working on old manuscripts from the Vlatadon monastery in Turkey when he found a letter written by the Roman physician Galen (129–217 CE). The letter, known as ‘On the avoidance of grief’, was thought to have been lost during the Middle Ages. The letter describes the emotional effects Galen felt after a little-known fire devastated central Rome in 192 CE, during the reign of the emperor Commodus (180–192 CE). Galen’s letter recounts that the fire burnt for many days, destroying large parts of the city including the Horrea Piperataria, a giant warehouse where Galen had stored his library, his collection of unique medical instruments and his research notes. Also burnt were all the libraries on the Palatine Hill, a great disaster to befall the city.

Another ‘Great Fire’ that destroyed Rome happened in 64 CE, when the Emperor Nero was in power. Complete some online research and answer the following questions:

- 1 What caused this fire?
- 2 How much of Rome was damaged by the fire?
- 3 Explain why Nero blamed the fire on ‘Christians’.



Source 2.12 Galen was court physician to the Emperor Marcus Aurelius.

Historians at work

As we have already mentioned, an historian works by asking questions. However, as we are all products of our respective generations, it is inevitable that some of the questions we ask will be ‘modern’ questions; that is, questions or ideas that have been influenced by modern perceptions and issues, such as political ideologies like feminism and Marxism, and the movement for gay and lesbian rights. This cannot be avoided, and indeed it is one of the ways fresh interpretations are brought to our understanding of the ancient past.

However, investigating ancient societies through modern questions is different from making value judgements about ancient societies using modern values. Examining, analysing and understanding the role of slavery or the position of women is different from labelling those societies ‘sexist’ or exploitative. That is, we can understand and empathise with the different values and problems faced by ancient societies even while recognising the differences between their values and ours. And we can be conscious of our subjectivity and not let it colour our interpretation of the past based on personal or modern values. Therefore, it is an historian’s responsibility to write as accurately as possible with as little bias or prejudice as they can manage.

The first step in writing history involves research: collecting evidence, evaluating that evidence, identifying the strengths and limitations of the evidence, and recognising the limitations of the information that is available.

Next comes the most difficult process of all: writing history. Writing history involves telling a

true story of something that has happened in the past. Like all good stories, you need to know:

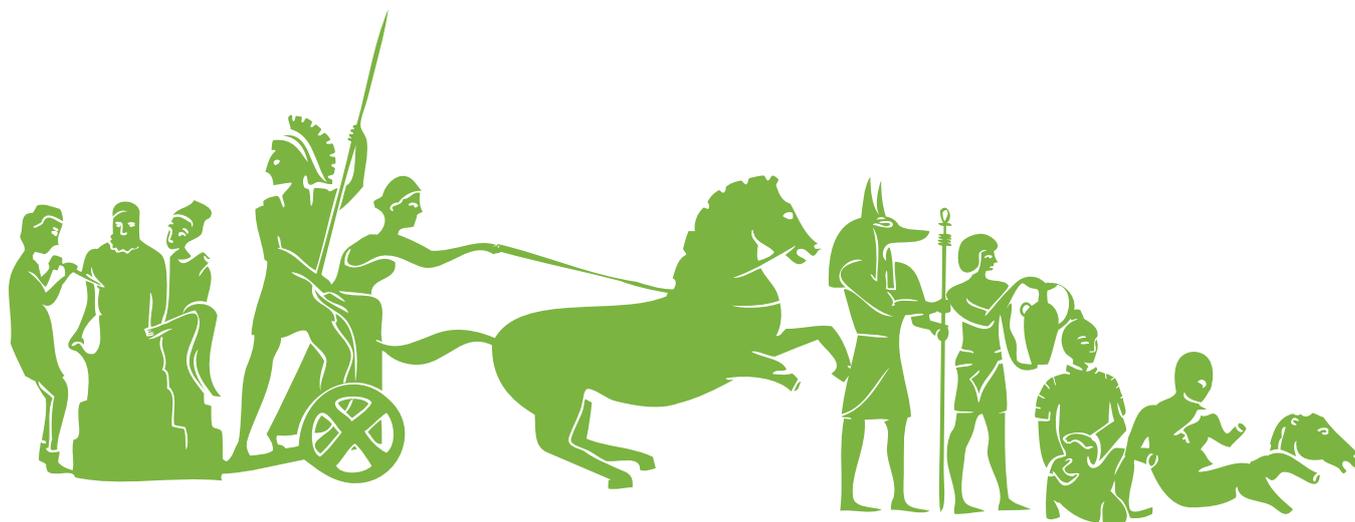
- when and where an event took place
- who was involved
- how or what happened
- why it happened.

The most important step in the process is the last: explaining why something occurred. This is called *causation*, and will very likely be the basis of your contention or argument.

However, writing about the ancient past also means understanding that no account or version of what happened can be complete. This is because we seldom have a whole picture of what happened, since no event that has occurred can be recorded fully. As we have discovered, sources from the past are themselves inevitably incomplete; the persons recording events in the past chose what to record and in doing so left something else out. What that historian recorded will be considered as fact, and what was ignored may never be thought of or talked about again.

A famous example used by historians to illustrate the instance of fact is the Roman Senate’s instructions to Julius Caesar in 49 BCE that he must not enter Italy with an army. That he chose to do so by crossing the River Rubicon in northern Italy meant he was declaring civil war on Rome. The historian who chose to record that incident as significant because it illustrated Caesar’s declaration of war marked the incident as a fact.

Writing history therefore involves interpreting, moulding and linking; writing the different but relevant pieces of information into a coherent narrative that explains what happened.



Activity 2.2

Imagine yourself at lunchtime, sitting in the school playground with your friends. Now think about how you would go about describing all the activities happening at the same time. What they are doing? Who they are with? What they are wearing? Where are the teachers on yard duty? How would you go about organising your material? How would you decide what is important to record and what can be left out of your account? Now shift your imagination from the playground to a battlefield that may extend over kilometres, in a battle involving many thousands of men. Keeping in mind your attempt to describe a moment in a game, consider what problems an historian would face in writing an account of a battle they weren't even there to see. Write a short report on what you think these problems could be.

Archaeology and archaeologists

epigraphers
researchers who study ancient inscriptions

numismatists
researchers who study coinage

archaeologists
researchers who study cultures, especially ancient civilisations, by excavating and describing their remains

archaeology the study of the past through excavating and interpreting the remains found

While historians of the past largely work with written sources, they can rely on other sources of information, such as the work of **epigraphers**, **numismatists** and **archaeologists**.

What is archaeology?

Archaeology is the study of ancient things. Archaeology allows us to study human societies through the material culture or things they produced.

Prehistory and history

The discoveries of archaeologists can come from any period of human history, from the first signs of human life on earth to the present. However, archaeology's most important contribution and value to human knowledge are in studying prehistoric societies, because those societies did not leave any written records for historians to study. Without archaeology, we would know next to nothing about cultures that existed before the advent of writing, apart from what

oral tradition historical information that is passed on through speech or song

might have been saved by **oral traditions** and religious beliefs, legends and rituals.

Relationship between archaeology and history

Historians need archaeologists and archaeologists need historians. Although they work in different fields of endeavour, both complement and inform each other's work and both inform us about the past. The information archaeology provides often supplements the knowledge we have from the historical period. Human and material remains can enlighten us about a society's lifestyle, art and architecture, clothing, utensils and tools, medical conditions, and even the food people ate. Sometimes the physical remains have been described in literary texts; more often, they were not written about by ancient authors.

The most famous case of archaeology contributing to our knowledge of ancient society is undoubtedly Pompeii, the city in ancient Italy that was buried and obliterated when the volcano Mt Vesuvius erupted on 20 August 79 CE. Written sources tell us much about ancient Pompeii, its origins, the individuals who lived there, their relations with the ancient Greek cities of southern Italy and later ancient Rome, and even graphic descriptions of the volcano's eruption.

The excavations of Pompeii that began in 1754 added a lot of information that the written accounts did not record. For example, the excavations allowed us to understand the layout of the city and how its political and commercial centre was located in relation to the port and the gates into the countryside. The excavation of the houses informed us about their size, shape, distribution of rooms, wall decorations and how



Source 2.13 The Temple of Jupiter at Pompeii

HISTORICAL FACT

The word 'archaeology' comes from the ancient Greek *archaio*, which means 'ancient' and *logia*, which means 'the study of'.

they were located in relation to other houses in the street. More dramatically, archaeologists noticed hollow spaces within the volcanic deposits. They quickly realised that this was the result of organic material that had been buried by the ash and had decomposed over time. Archaeologists filled these hollows with liquid plaster, which – once dried – replicated perfect models of furniture, as well as models of the bodies of animals and humans who had died on that day.

How an archaeologist works

An archaeological dig takes a lot of planning and organising. Today, archaeology has become increasingly specialised to include marine, industrial, urban, rescue and environmental archaeology.

Each has specific requirements, but there are common features that need to be considered when proposing a dig.

Choosing the site and research

Any number of factors might influence an archaeologist to select a site for investigation. Research is the most obvious way archaeologists decide on what site to investigate. Clues from ancient texts or the work of other archaeologists might indicate the possibility that a site has something valuable to offer. Such was the case in 1874, when Heinrich Schliemann went to the ancient fortress of Mycenae, Greece where he found the famous 'Mask of Agamemnon'. The fortress of the ancient rulers was clearly visible – and indeed, other archaeologists had searched the



Source 2.14 Schliemann's photograph of the Shaft Grave cemetery at Mycenae in 1874

site. He was successful because he followed the descriptions of an ancient geographer, Pausanias, and dug within the existing walls.

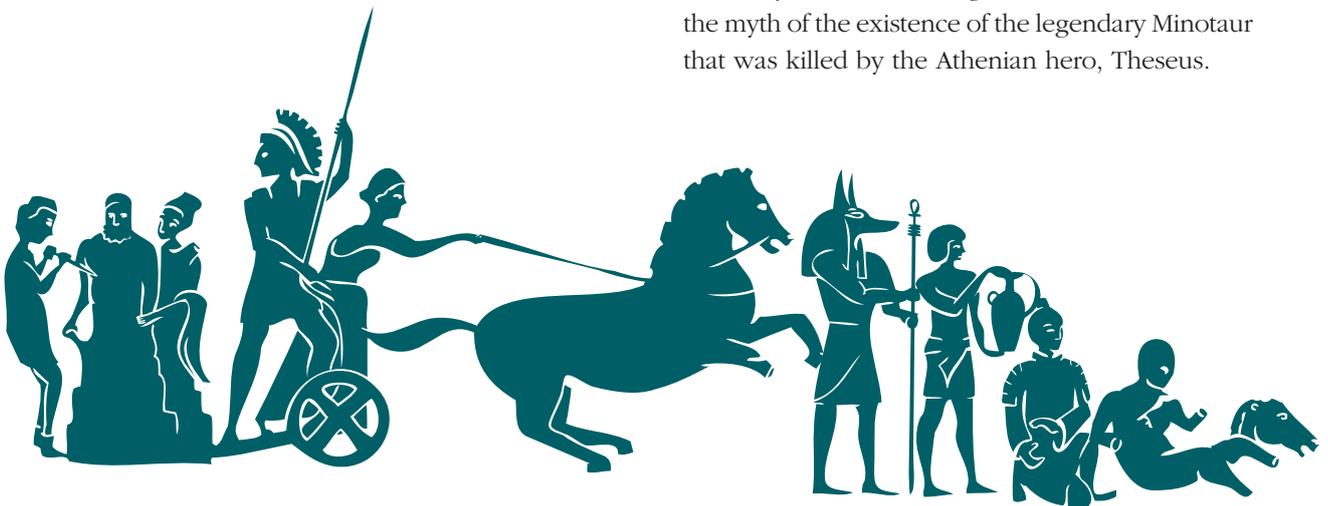
Physical layout of the land

Schliemann was also famous for finding ancient Troy. When Schliemann started his search for Troy, no one knew where the legendary city of Priam and Hector might be, other than that it was somewhere in the north-west corner of Turkey. Using clues from Homer's poem, the *Iliad*, Schliemann decided

the most likely place was a hill called Hissarlik – a hillside in an otherwise flat coastal plain – and between 1871 and 1873 his work there revealed nine major levels of occupation.

Surface remains

Sir Arthur Evans' excavations at Knossos, Crete were inspired by surface finds of seals, pottery and remains of walls. What he found when excavations began in 1900 was the palace of the Minoan civilisation, dating to the second millennium BCE. The labyrinth-like underground corridors fuelled the myth of the existence of the legendary Minotaur that was killed by the Athenian hero, Theseus.



Times gone by ...

Harriet Boyd-Hawes (1871–1945) was a pioneer in her field. She was the first American to excavate in Crete and the first woman to direct a major archaeological project, especially in Greece. She was also the first woman to lecture before the American Institute of Archaeology and to publish a major study on an archaeological topic. Boyd graduated with a degree in Classics from Smith College in Massachusetts in 1892. Between 1901 and 1905, she taught Greek Archaeology and Epigraphy at Smith College as well as directing the excavations of the Minoan site of Gournia, which was located near the coast approximately 100 kilometres east of Knossos. Boyd excavated a Minoan palace and town. The town, which spreads down the side of a small hill, had a theatre, houses and streets, and a temple. Boyd's discoveries at Gournia, together with her subsequent analysis of the evidence found there, remain crucial to our understanding of Bronze Age cities in ancient Greece.



Source 2.15 Harriet Boyd (second row, last on right) with her team and Edith Hall who assisted at Gournia, Crete

Complete some online research and compare the Palace at Gournia with that at Knossos.

- 1 Determine which was more important.
- 2 List the features of the palace that support your conclusion.

Good fortune

Some of the most spectacular archaeological finds have been the result of luck. This was the case in 1974, when farmers digging for a well found the spectacular Chinese ‘terracotta warriors’, which date to the second half of the third century BCE. Some 8800 life-size statues of soldiers, horses and chariots had been buried with Qin Shi Huang, China’s first emperor, to accompany him to the afterlife.

artefacts objects made by humans

Good fortune has also often been the case with findings of Australian Aboriginal remains and

artefacts. In the 1950s and 1960s,

John Mulvaney found the oldest dingo remains in Australia while excavating a limestone rock-shelter at Fromm’s Landing on the Murray River, South Australia. Then in 1969 and in 1973, he

accompanied Jim Bowler to Lake Mungo where ‘**Mungo Lady**’ and ‘**Mungo Man**’ had been found. There he uncovered a fire hearth that was dated to 30 000 years ago.

Mungo Lady/Mungo Man the remains of an Aboriginal woman and man found at Lake Mungo in New South Wales

Researching the site

Having decided on a site, archaeologists must consider the scope of the project. Issues they would consider include:

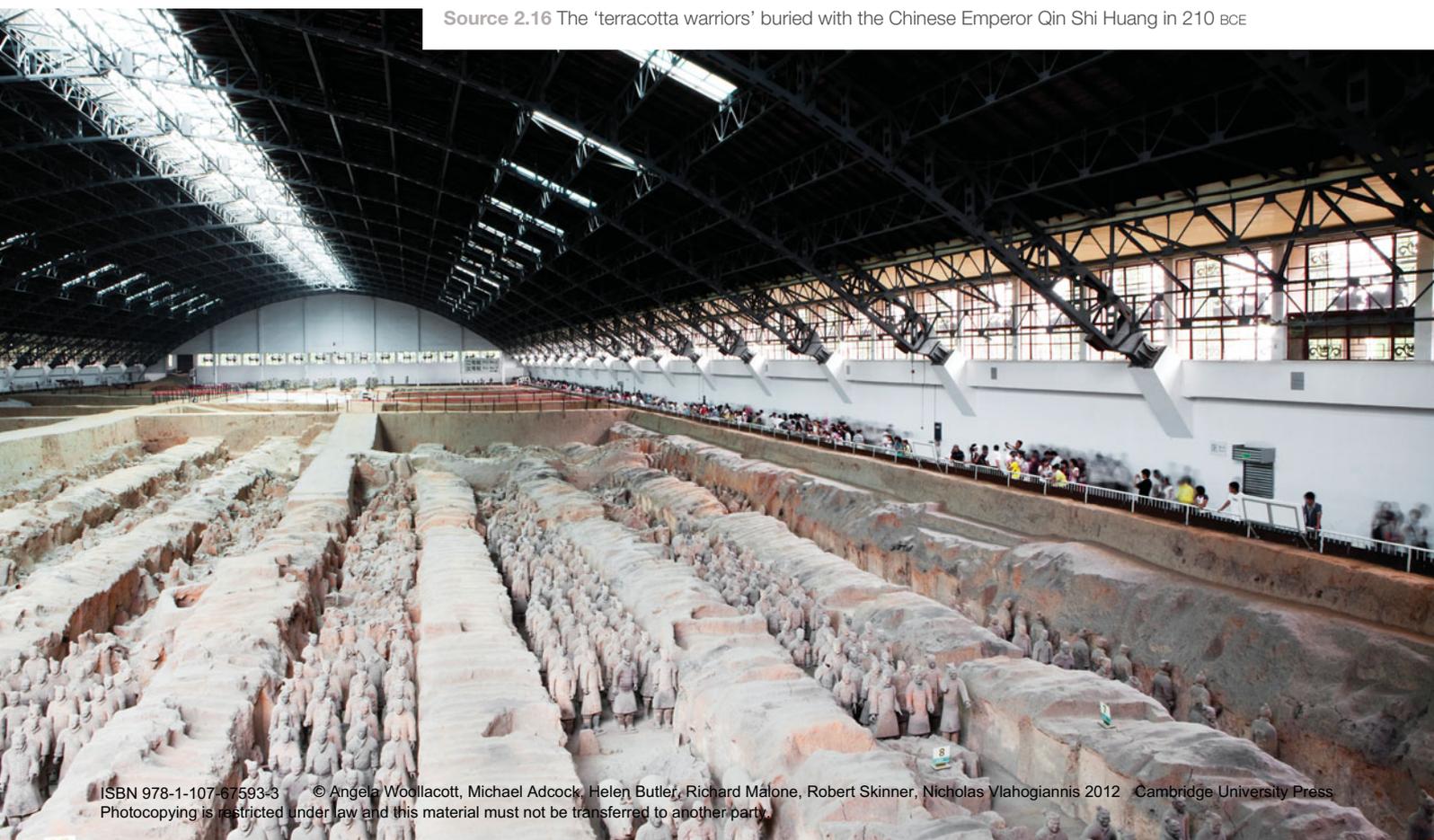
- the aim of the dig
- the size of the project
- the size and composition of the team.

Assembling a team and equipment

The team typically includes:

- the director, who is responsible for the project
- an assistant director and/or site director
- diggers who do the work of careful digging and sifting through rubble
- recorders and measurers who record every object found and what it is; they measure it, and note exactly where it was found and what other items it was found with
- photographers and illustrators
- washers, documenters and restorers, who clean the items, then document each find in the project records and give it a reference number
- local workers, who generally undertake the initial digging and shifting of earth and rubble.

Source 2.16 The ‘terracotta warriors’ buried with the Chinese Emperor Qin Shi Huang in 210 BCE





Source 2.17 Students from the Anglo-American Project excavating at Pompeii

Modern archaeology typically involves experts who are assembled from a range of disciplines or areas of study to analyse as fully as possible everything that is found in a dig, as every bit of information can contribute to our understanding of the ancient past. The skeletal remains of someone from the past can tell us about the sex, age, diet and nutrition of that person, the prevalence of disease, and in some cases the cause of death. The biological and botanical analysis of pollen, seeds and plants can help us understand the types of foods available to a society. Analysis of their artefacts or material remains – for example, tools, crafts, weapons, technology, stonework, pottery and use of metal – helps us understand the technological developments and the degree of local and international trade.

Processing the finds

Each step of an archaeological dig is taken in tiny precise steps, so every bit of evidence is recovered. Of course, the process of archaeology means a site is being destroyed or damaged. Consequently, it is critically important that every ‘step’ is precisely noted. Each level is clearly distinguished; every item is fully documented, by itself and in relation to what is around it. It is then cleaned, photographed, drawn to scale and labelled with a reference

number. The daily work is recorded in notebooks that later will be synthesised into a full publication.

By this stage, all the various experts who have been invited to join the project begin their work. Depending on what is found, they could be pottery experts, geologists to examine the layers of soil, architects to record buildings, **anthropologists** to suggest models of social behaviour, epigraphers and **philologists** to record and translate any inscriptions, botanists to analyse plants, numismatists to assess coins, **zoologists** to examine animal remains and **pathologists** to study the remains of humans.

anthropologists
researchers who study humans and their societies by concentrating on culture

philologists
researchers who study the language of literary and written texts

zoologists researchers who study animals and animal life

pathologists
researchers who study human diseases

Who owns the finds?

One condition for gaining a permit to dig in a foreign country is that all artefacts that are found will remain the property of that country. The artefacts then can be stored for future study or display in museums. On occasion, you might visit a museum where you are forbidden to photograph a specific exhibit. Often this is because that item might have been found recently and information about it has not yet been published in a scholarly paper.

Research 2.3

Look up the Virtual Museum website at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks and complete the tasks under the menu heading Interactive Archaeological Dig. Follow the three steps.

Chronology

If we wish to understand historical developments properly, we need to put historical events into a chronological order. This is not a problem in our contemporary era because we have one calendar that is used throughout the world. But that was not the case in the distant past where there were enormous variations between societies, whether they were the same people or peoples of different countries. Not only did they use different methods of counting time but they even differed in the degree of precision or accuracy. For example, in ancient Greece every city-state had a calendar, with its own names for the months that were fixed according to the moon, and even the date of the New Year.

King lists left by ancient societies can provide a chronological framework, but they require accurate counting of the length of reign for each king, the accurate order of the kings' reigns, and then ideally a link to another society to synchronise that society with others. King lists have been left by many ancient societies. The Sumerian King List was written down in the late third millennium BCE. It records the dynasties of 21 city-states of Sumer or ancient Mesopotamia (modern Iraq) over the third millennium. Although the dynasties reigned roughly simultaneously, the creators of the King List recorded one continuous line of kings with the kingship, which was seen as a gift of the gods, passing from dynasty to dynasty.

Activity 2.3

Research the Athenian calendar online.

- 1 How many months did the Athenian calendar have?
- 2 When did each month begin?
- 3 List some of the names of the months. What were they named after?
- 4 How many days were in a month?
- 5 Did the Greeks have days of the week?
- 6 Compare the Athenian calendar with an ancient Roman calendar.

Archaeology and chronology

Archaeological finds also can help scholars establish chronological order. Over the past century, a number of scientific methods have been discovered that are now crucial to archaeological dating.

Relative dating

stratigraphy a means of establishing a relative chronology through the levels or strata

strata the individual layers of human occupation revealed by archaeological excavations

stratification the classification of different layers of human habitation revealed by archaeological excavations

Relative dating involves placing finds into a chronological sequence from oldest to youngest and looking for connections. In an archaeological excavation, **stratigraphy** is used to determine the different periods of time. The different **strata** help place artefacts found in a relative order. Strata are counted from the top down – that is, the top layer will be the latest or youngest level of occupation

and the lowest layer the earliest. This layering of different levels is called **stratification**.

Usually there are no precise dates unless some clues are found that can fit the objects into a chronological period. This involves organising a particular type of object into items that can be grouped together under different categories. Pottery – a material remain that is found in almost every archaeological context and has been very useful in framing chronological periods – can be grouped according to clay type, shape, size, decoration and use. For example, ancient Corinth was the leading producer and exporter of pottery in the ancient Greek world between the eighth and sixth centuries BCE. The abundance of its distinctive pottery has allowed archaeologists to determine a careful and precisely dated sequencing, especially for the earlier period,

which paralleled the Greek settlement of Sicily and southern Italy.

Absolute dating

Sometimes archaeologists are lucky and find an artefact that has chronological information on it – for example, a coin or a seal with the name of a ruler and even the year of his or her reign. That then helps to fit other objects found in the same context to a fixed date.

Sometimes ancient historians recount important chronological data, such as that provided by the Greek historian Thucydides, who recounted the ancient Greek colonisation of southern Italy and Sicily. In turn, this chronological framework was used by historians to date and coordinate other events happening in the Greek world, and by archaeologists to date the sequence of Greek pottery produced and traded in the Greek world during this time by the different city-states.

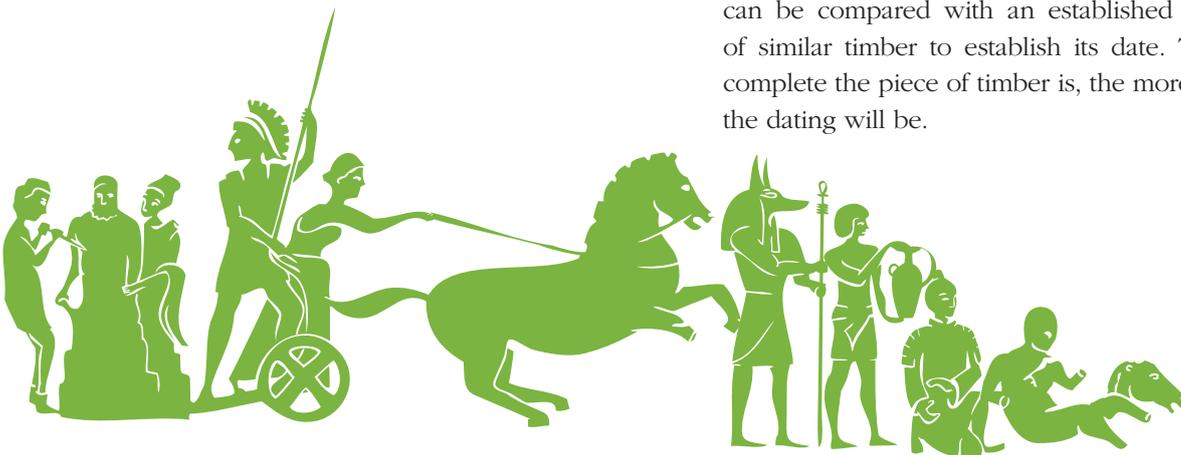
Dendrochronology (tree-ring dating)

Dendrochronology, or ‘tree ring dating’, is a method of dating the ancient past using the rings of growth in the trunk of a tree. As trees grow, their trunks expand every year because of a layer of growth known as tree rings.

dendrochronology (tree-ring dating) a method of dating using the pattern of rings inside a tree trunk

By counting and measuring the width of rings of live trees and then comparing the data with data collected from older pieces of similar timber – for example, from building sites and then archaeological sites – scientists can plot out dating systems or sequences that can go back thousands of years. For example, the University of Sheffield in Great Britain has established a sequence of dating that goes back to 5000 BCE.

If an old piece of timber is found, the rings can be compared with an established sequence of similar timber to establish its date. The more complete the piece of timber is, the more accurate the dating will be.





Source 2.18 A view of the tree rings that help date the age of a tree

Radiocarbon dating (carbon dating)

radiocarbon dating (carbon dating) measures the amount of radiation, or carbon-14, in an organic or living object

Radiocarbon dating can be used anywhere in the world, and is calculated up to 50 000 years. The larger the sample, the more accurate the dating will be. Carbon-14 is the radiation from the sun that exists in all living organisms on earth.

Thermoluminescence dating (TL dating) and optically stimulated luminescence dating (OSL dating)

thermoluminescence dating (TL dating) a method of dating using inorganic matter

optically stimulated luminescence dating (OSL dating) used to date the layer of sediment in which the artefact was found

Thermoluminescence dating is used on materials that have no organic matter, such as silt, quartz, flint, pottery and bricks that have been buried for a long time. This method is used to date materials up to 300 000 years old. The **optically stimulated luminescence dating** process determines the time that has passed since the sediment was exposed to sunlight, thus providing the approximate date when the object was buried.

Other scientific methods of dating artefacts with radioactive particles are archaeomagnetic dating, uranium-thorium dating, electron-spin resonance and potassium-argon dating. For example, potassium-argon dating measures radioactive quantities in potassium and the amount of argon in a mineral, allowing dating back into the millions of years.

Sources that can be used in an historical investigation



Primary sources

A primary source is a document created at the time of the event or subject you have chosen to study. It can be a seal recording someone's name, graffiti or the legend on a coin. Or it can be a letter, an inscription recording a law or a treaty, an historical account of an event, or perhaps drawings – such as in an Egyptian tomb. Any

information we can glean from a primary source that is used in the interpretation and writing of history is known as evidence.

Primary sources can be divided into literary and non-literary documents. As we have already discussed, both literary and non-literary sources of evidence are limited in that they are incomplete – and in fact can never be complete – because of the enormous gaps in the information that has survived to the present.

Literary texts

The documents that have survived from the ancient past range from a single word or phrase scratched on to a piece of pottery or seal to extensive religious and literary texts. Written documents are critical because they can tell us many things about a society and its different aspects, and more importantly reveal how a society thought and what it valued – intellectually, religiously and emotionally.

Public or official documents

Public or official documents are those published by the government, which refer to or record the official business of government. They could be treaties, such as the Treaty of Kadesh between Egypt and the Hittites, or inscriptions recording official decrees, such as those issued by the people of Athens or the Roman Senate.

Private documents

This category can incorporate any written document that has been produced by non-government sources. They could be letters or private meditations, such as the philosophical deliberations of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius, *Meditations*, written while he was on campaign against the Germanic tribes in the latter half of the second century CE.

Non-official documents

Non-official documents can cover a broad range of texts, and can inform us about many aspects of ancient societies and their ways of thinking. They can cover a range of fields of writing: religious, scientific, philosophical, medical, instructional and creative, such as plays, poems or even novels, for example, the Story of Sinuhe, composed in the early twentieth century BCE. Set against a political backdrop – the assassination of the Pharaoh Amenemhet – it narrates the adventures of Sinuhe as he escapes Egypt to seek safety elsewhere. Among the themes of the story is that of longing to return home.

Historical texts

A particular type of ancient text that is considered a primary source is the historical accounts of historians like Herodotus, Thucydides, Livy, Tacitus and others. As we have already seen, most of these writers were recording their history long after the events they were discussing – and indeed they could be considered secondary sources. However, because they were written in the ancient past, they are considered primary sources too.

Non-literary texts

As we have seen, historians also rely heavily on the work of archaeologists for information to supplement our knowledge of past peoples and societies. Archaeological evidence can range from human remains to artefacts such as tools, utensils, weapons, pottery, art and remains of buildings.

Human remains

Human remains have always attracted the primary attention of archaeologists because they can tell us so much about past societies and the people who constituted them. Skeletal remains can provide all sorts of information about an individual, and even more broadly about their society, including:

HISTORICAL FACT

Writing developed independently between 3500 and 3100 BCE in Egypt, Mesopotamia and the Indus civilisations of Harappa and Mahenjo-Daro.



- the physical size or statue of a person
- age and sex
- eating habits
- medical conditions
- burial customs
- reason for death.

On a wider scale, they can help us to trace changes from the earliest nomadic tribes to the period of settlement into communities.

Bodies that have survived for thousands of years, because the physical conditions in which they were found preserved them and prevented them from decaying, have been of much benefit to scholars. These conditions have been bogs, ice and dry deserts.

Egypt, for example, has been a wonderful treasure trove for archaeologists. The hot, dry desert sands have preserved many bodies – often of ordinary people – by allowing the body to dry out naturally, as well as preserving material

mummification a method of preserving a dead body by removing the internal organs and drying out the body

remains like wood, papyrus and cloth. As well as the desert heat, the Egyptians developed the technique of **mummification**. The opportunity to study these

bodies has helped scientists to understand the prevalence of different diseases such as spina bifida, arthritis, tuberculosis and different cancers.

Artefacts

The broad category of ‘artefact’ incorporates an enormous range of material remains that can be classified into every walk of life. Utensils such as combs and mirrors tell us about grooming; seals mark out ownership of sacks of grain and can help plot commercial interests; tools and weapons help us understand the levels of technology and the materials that were available; jewellery such as brooches and pins, precious gems and diadems illustrates concerns with adorning; and votive offerings such as models of eyes and limbs donated to healing temples of gods such as the Greek god Asclepius point to the universal need for good health.

Pottery

Nothing in archaeological remains is more ubiquitous – that is, found everywhere – than pottery. Pottery can come in all shapes, sizes and

decorations. It can be shaped by hand or turned on the wheel. It was used for utilitarian purposes such as carrying water and cooking, and storing grain, wine and oil. It was offered as prizes in athletic competitions. It can be plain clay or covered with beautiful, delicate and moving scenes of love, war and death. Decorations – whether incised, shaped or painted – can inform us about everyday life, mythology, religious beliefs and social practices. Pottery sequences have helped archaeologists establish chronological frameworks and track the trading relations between societies.

Art and architecture

Art can come as paintings, sculpture and architecture. After written sources, art is a primary means of understanding the cultures of past societies, their thoughts, emotions and beliefs. The geometric patterns on pottery can be decorative; a statue of Buddha is religious; and the sculptural reliefs on the Parthenon are political propaganda. Scenes of dancing or lamenting point to daily life and religious rituals.

Architectural remains can range from important monumental buildings such as temples to whole towns, including houses of ordinary people. Buildings can be places of worship (such as temples), of recreation (such as theatres and amphitheatres), of living (such as ordinary houses, palaces or even Roman baths) and of work and government (such as the Roman Senate house).

Oral traditions

As well as their material remains, some societies are able to inform us about their cultures through their oral traditions. Oral traditions are relied on by societies without writing systems to pass down information verbally from one generation to the next.

Oral traditions – usually in the form of songs, ballads or stories – can record a society’s history, literature, law and social knowledge. In ancient times, famous oral traditions that subsequently were recorded for posterity as poems were the *Epic of Gilgamesh* from ancient Mesopotamia and the tales of the Trojan War and the travels of the hero Odysseus, retold in Homer’s *Iliad* and *Odyssey*.



Methods and sources used to investigate an historical mystery: Myrtis

Myrtis: Face to face with the past

Modern scientific techniques have helped to solve many mysteries of the ancient past. One such technique is known as the 'Manchester method' of facial reconstruction.

Scientists reconstructing the face of a skull use the bone structure and traces of muscles in the face to work out how deep facial tissue might have been. From that, they create the form and features of the face. This technique has been used in particular to help police investigations identify corpses that have been badly damaged, making them otherwise unidentifiable.

Facial reconstruction has been adapted to ancient peoples, especially the remains of ancient Egyptian mummies. Most famously, it was applied to a skull believed to be that of Philip II, the king of Macedon and father of Alexander the Great.

More recently, a similar reconstruction has been carried out on an intact skull found in Athens in 1994. The skull was buried, together with the skeletal remains of another 150 bodies of men, women and children, in the **Kerameikos** or cemetery region of ancient Athens. According to the archaeologists, the mass grave was poorly prepared, with bodies thrown in together as if the proper rules of religious burial

Kerameikos the cemetery of ancient Athens



Source 2.19 Models showing the stages in the reconstruction of Myrtis's facial features

or respect for the dead had not been observed. The pottery finds in the grave dated the burial to 430–426 BCE.

An x-ray analysis of the skull's remaining teeth indicated an 11-year-old girl. Archaeologists working on the site named the person to whom the skull belonged 'Myrtis'.

Cause of death

The year 430/429 BCE was a turbulent one in Athenian history. Just a year earlier, war had broken out between Athens and Sparta, the two most powerful city-states in ancient Greece. The war ended 26 years later when Athens surrendered to Sparta in 404 BCE.

One possible reason for the eventual defeat was a major epidemic or plague that broke out in Athens in 430/429, claiming the lives of some 50 000 Athenians, including young men of military age, and Pericles, the Athenian leader of the time, who died in 429 BCE.

The nature of this epidemic has puzzled medical scholars for many years, and a number of suggestions have been proposed. Among these have been bubonic plague, influenza and even measles.

Medical scholars now believe the skull has provided the clue to the epidemic. Studies of samples of **deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)** taken from Myrtis

deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) found in living things and unique to each person through their genetic makeup

Times gone by ...

One of the victims of the plague who survived was the historian Thucydides, who described the symptoms in graphic detail.

People in perfect health suddenly began to have burning feelings in the head; their eyes became red and inflamed; inside their mouths there was bleeding from the throat and tongue, and the breath became unnatural and unpleasant ... Externally the body was not very hot to the touch, nor was there any pallor: the skin was rather reddish and livid, breaking out into small pustules and ulcers. But inside there was a feeling of burning, so that people could not bear the touch of even the lightest linen clothing, but wanted to be completely naked ... if they survived this critical period, then the disease descended to the bowels, producing violent ulceration and uncontrollable diarrhoea, so that most of them died ...

Source 2.20 *History of the Peloponnesian War* (Penguin, 1972, p. 153)

Using Source 2.20, answer the following:

- 1 Describe the symptoms of the plague.
- 2 What do you think was the eventual cause of death from the plague?

and some of the skeletal remains found in the pit suggest that these people died from an early form of typhoid fever, the symptoms of which match those described by Thucydides.

Who was Myrtis?

Apart from her age and sex, we know nothing about Myrtis – not her given name, who her parents were, or whether she was the child of Athenian citizens or slaves. Her body seems to have been thrown into a mass grave, probably by

the city authorities trying to bury the many people who had died this horrible and painful death.

Reconstructing Myrtis

Myrtis is the first ‘ordinary’ person to be studied using the ‘Manchester method’. A team of 20 scientists worked with the orthodontist Professor Manolis Papagrigorakis to reconstruct Myrtis’s face. Watch a video clip that shows the scientific procedure of the reconstruction of Myrtis at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks.

Research 2.4

Look up Kerameikos cemetery, Athens on the internet and answer the following questions.

- 1 Plot its location in relation to the centre of ancient Athens, especially the Agora.
- 2 Where does the name Kerameikos come from?
- 3 What did the cemetery look like physically?
- 4 Describe some of the larger tombstones.
- 5 Identify some of the Athenians buried there.

The nature of the sources for ancient Australia and what they reveal



It is estimated that at the time of European settlement, the Aboriginal population of Australia was at least 315 000 people, living in 600 tribes or kingdoms across the continent. The first Europeans’ impression of the Aboriginal people was of a primitive, nomadic people who still used **Stone Age** tools and lived by hunting and gathering food.

Stone Age a term used to describe the period of the human past when stone was the primary material used to make tools

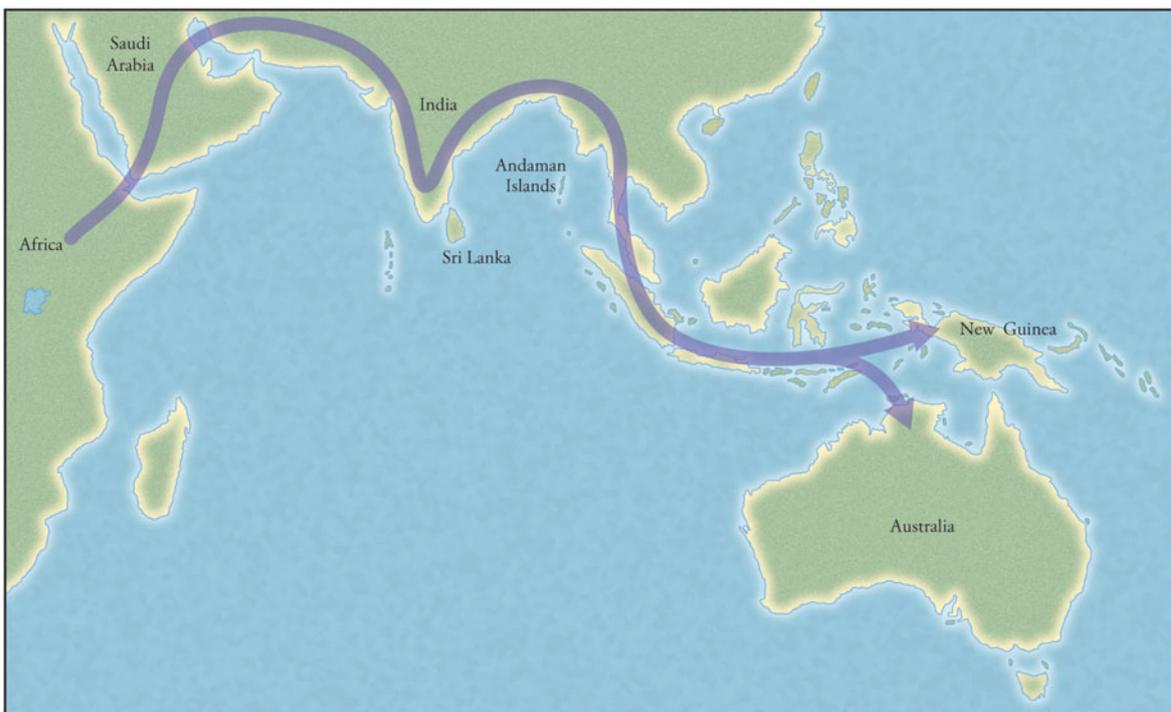
Of course, these impressions were totally different from the reality that has since become apparent, especially during the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. Our understanding of ancient Australia and its people has changed dramatically, largely due to the work of archaeologists and other scholars.

Nevertheless, as with all archaeological study that relies on material remains, there are enormous gaps in our knowledge of the ancient history of Australia. These gaps can never be complete, and that means any interpretations we make are subject to uncertainty, challenge by other interpretations and controversy. This is particularly relevant to Australian prehistory, which has been and remains subject to ideological and political debate related to land rights and identity.

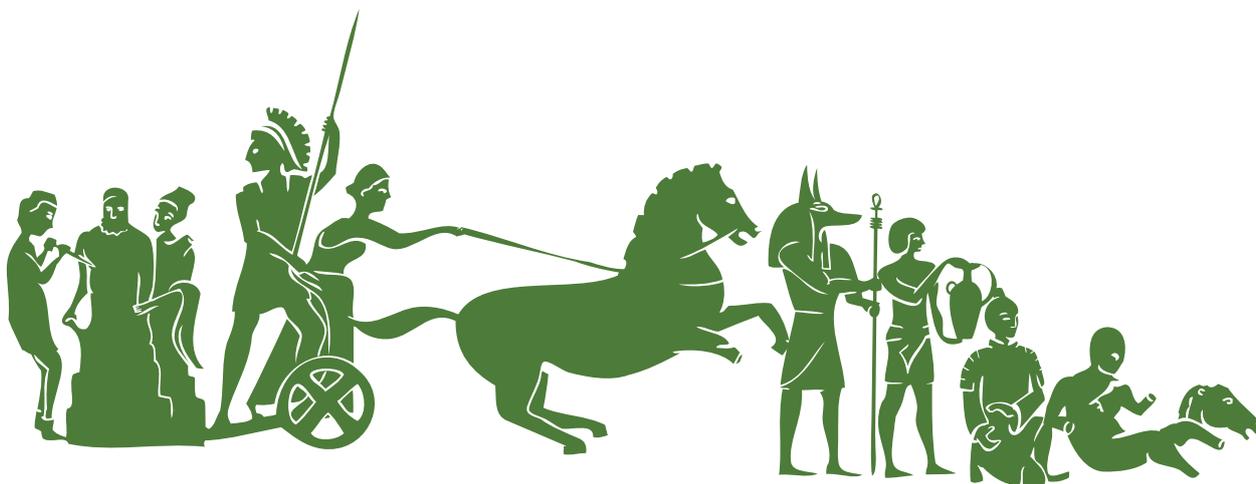
Where from and when?

Our understanding of when Australia was first settled by humans and the origin of these settlers has changed dramatically in recent years. Only a century ago, people believed the Aboriginal presence in Australia was only 400 years old. Today, scholars increasingly are coming to the conclusion that the evidence of human habitation and human remains suggests that people arrived in Australia between 45 000 and 60 000 years ago. However, the discussion is hampered by incomplete information and conflicting evidence, and theories that constantly are being challenged.

One key theory is that the first settlers to Australia migrated south from Asia, particularly Indonesia. More recently, studies around the world using DNA in particular have supported the ‘Out of Africa’ theory that suggests all peoples throughout the world originated in Africa about 150 000 years ago and slowly spread across the globe. Around 60 000 years ago, another wave of travellers left Africa, following the southern coastline of Asia through Timor, eventually arriving in Australia between 60 000 and 45 000 years ago. It is unclear whether there was only one single migration or many smaller migratory groups over many thousands of years.



Source 2.21 The route settlers may have travelled from Africa to Australia



Research 2.5

The following websites examine evidence for the 'Out of Africa' theory. Find the links at: www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks.

- the Australian Museum
- *National Geographic*
- the BBC
- the Bradshaw Foundation

Investigate the different theories suggested about the origins of human, and the migration to Australia. Why is there so much uncertainty and controversy about this theory? Create a PowerPoint presentation for your class.

Early settlement in Australia

A number of archaeological discoveries in different parts of Australia have been very important in plotting the human history of ancient Australia.

Keilor

In 1940, Edward Gill – who worked for the Museum of Victoria – used carbon-14 to date a skull that his team had found at Keilor on the outskirts of Melbourne, Victoria. The date of approximately 12000 years old was one of the first accurate datings of Aboriginal remains.

Lake Mungo

In 1968, Professor Jim Bowler – who was then a geologist working for the Australian National University – made extraordinary discoveries in the sand dunes of Lake Mungo in south-west New South Wales.

Lake Mungo was a 20 kilometre long and 10 kilometre wide lake that dried up approximately 15000 years ago. Excavations now show that it was the centre of human occupation for some 50000 years.

The evidence of human occupation and activity that archaeologists have found includes:

- ancient fireplaces and hearths
- calcified plant matter
- stone tools

- animal bones
- mussel shells
- a shell **midden** or dunghill
- tracks made by human foot-prints dated to 20000 years ago
- the skeletal remains of two people, one of whom had been cremated.

midden deposits of rubbish made up of food, shells, etc.

Lake Mungo 1

Discovered in 1969, 'Mungo Lady' – or more properly, 'Lake Mungo 1' – was an 18-year-old young woman who had been cremated before receiving a ceremonial burial, shown by the **ochre** used to decorate her body. Initially, carbon-14 dating placed her cremation to 24000 years ago.

ochre an oxide found in rocks that is used to make colour pigments, such as yellow and red

More recently, the sophisticated dating technique optically stimulated luminescence indicates a date of 40000 years ago. Lake Mungo 1 is now one of the world's oldest known cremations.

Lake Mungo 3

In 1974, Jim Bowler found the skeletal remains of another person not too far from the burial place of Lake Mungo 1. While initial DNA testing in the late 1990s had suggested a date of more than 60000 years for this body, more recent studies now suggest that Lake Mungo 3 also dates to approximately 40000 years ago.



Source 2.22 Jim Bowler, who found Lake Mungo 1 and Lake Mungo 3



Source 2.23 Lake Mungo, New South Wales, where Lake Mungo 3 (Mungo Man) was found in 1974

Devil's Lair

A limestone cave in southern Western Australia has evidence of human occupation that includes fire hearths, bone remains and stone artefacts, all dated to over 40 000 years ago.

Murray River Basin

Deposits of mussel shells around the River Murray Basin in South Australia suggest human occupation to around 40 000 years ago.

Lake Gregory

In 2008, a piece of stone that had had flakes broken off it to make a tool was found in a distinctive layer of sediment at Lake Gregory on the edge of the Great Sandy Desert in north-western Australia. Optical stimulated luminescence analysis dated the sediment to between 45 000 and 50 000 years ago.



Source 2.24 A piece of stone from which flakes have been broken off to make a stone tool, found at Lake Gregory

Archaeological remains as sources

indigenous people

those who are native to a region or country; a capital letter (Indigenous) is used to refer to Australian Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander peoples

ice age

a period of time when large parts of the planet were covered by ice

Remains left by ancient Aboriginal communities have helped us understand the long presence of **Indigenous people** in Australia, and how they adapted to the Australian environment. For example, the wealth of human, animal, marine and floral remains around Lake Mungo points to a life of abundance between the last **ice age** that affected

Australia (approximately 50 000 to 60 000 years ago) and the onset of droughts that turned the lake into sand dunes around 20 000 years ago.

Furthermore, the ritual burial – especially of Lake Mungo 1 – suggests that ideas and values had been established about the significance of death.

In 2010, archaeologists from Monash University in Melbourne made an amazing discovery in the rock-shelter Nawala Gabammang in south-western Arnhem Land, in the Northern Territory. There they unearthed a rock axe that had been sharpened by grinding the cutting edge; it was dated to 35 000 years ago. While stone implements had been used for millions of years by our ancestors, this was the earliest instance of a piece of stone being sharpened on purpose to create a sharp tool.

Trade route

Trading between communities and across the length and width of the continent was a very important part of life in ancient Australia. Trade provided communities with highly prized items that were not easily found in their own area. Trade also assisted the development of respect for the rights and sharing of the cultural values of other communities. The goods were carried over Dreaming trails or trade routes that criss-crossed Australia.

Among the special trading items was the rare melo shell. Found on the east coast of Cape York Peninsula in Queensland, the melo shell was moved over established trade routes to South Australia. In return, valuable red ochre that was mined in the Flinders Ranges in South Australia was carried through Central Australia to Queensland. The same happened with Pituri, a form of tobacco drug that was used in ritual ceremonies.

Resources

Dreaming stories show that Aboriginal people had a very close association with their land. To Aboriginal people, the land represents a spiritual connection with their ancestors, as well as providing resources such as food, clothing and materials needed for technology and building. As inhabitants of the land for 40 000 to 60 000 years, Aboriginal people had learnt how to manage the land effectively so that resources were renewed rather than exhausted. This involved knowing the plants their area supported and the animals that grazed and lived in the area, such as kangaroos, wombats, goannas and lizards. The different foods that were available altered with the seasons and the area to include nuts, wild berries, fruits, edible leaves and plant roots.

Aboriginal understanding of the ecology was obvious through the use of 'firestick farming' for many thousands of years. Aboriginal people used fire to clear thick vegetation and promote fresh growth. Over time, the use of burning changed the landscape, as large areas of forest were replaced with open grasslands that were more convenient for hunting, and with the spread of plants that were more resistant to fire, such as grass trees, eucalypts and acacias.

Fishing was also very popular, as seen from the extensive archaeological evidence of fish traps made of stone found in riverbeds; trees bearing signs of scarring caused by the removal of the bark for building canoes, making shields and building huts; and shell middens discovered along rivers, beside lakes and on the coastline.



Source 2.25 Aboriginal shell midden at Weipa, Queensland, 1958

Archaeologists have studied the deposits of shell middens for all kinds of reasons. They can provide information about the kinds of food that were available to the people; clues about the technology they were using; and a guide to the general use of the area – such as the length of time the area was being visited and occupied by people.

‘Dreaming’

Aboriginal history has been passed down from generation to generation through their oral tradition. Aboriginal oral tradition commonly falls under the name of ‘Dreaming’ or ‘Dreamtime’, which comes from the word *Altyerrenge*. Dreaming is integral to the history and way of life of Australian Aborigines. The stories of the Dreaming encompass faith, knowledge and ritual, and are reflected in oral traditions, song, dance and art. The Dreaming links the Aboriginal people to the land, as it is believed the land was created by ancestral Creator Beings that made both the land and the people, and gave them language, law and the proper way of behaviour. It is used to educate the young generations, explain the history of the land and its people,

and give practical knowledge of the Aboriginal culture. The stories are both common, public stories, and men-only and women-only secret stories – usually concerning religious ceremonies and initiation.

One such story concerns the Djanggawul Sisters, who are considered the ancestors of the peoples of north-eastern Arnhem Land in the Northern Territory. The two sisters came to Arnhem Land from the Land of the Dead. In Arnhem Land, they created birds and trees, gave shape to the landscape and names to places. They also gave birth to the first people.

Aboriginal rock art

Rock art – both paintings and engravings – has been found all over Australia. Some examples, such as those at Kakadu National Park, are accessible to tourists. Most, however, are located in very remote areas of Australia and are spread across hundreds of thousands of square kilometres. The rock art fulfilled religious and secular roles. It told Aboriginal myths or Dreaming stories, marked territorial boundaries, served as a rite of passage, and contained information about tribal secrets and laws.

Research 2.6

Find an Aboriginal Dreaming myth that you find interesting.

- 1 Read and summarise it.
- 2 Investigate the part of Australia and the people to which it refers.
- 3 Explain its significance to your class in a brief oral presentation.

HISTORICAL FACT

Aboriginal art is regarded as the world’s longest, continuous art tradition, lasting over 40 000 years.



Burrup Peninsula

petroglyph rock art that is made by carving or engraving (pecking) the image on a rock face

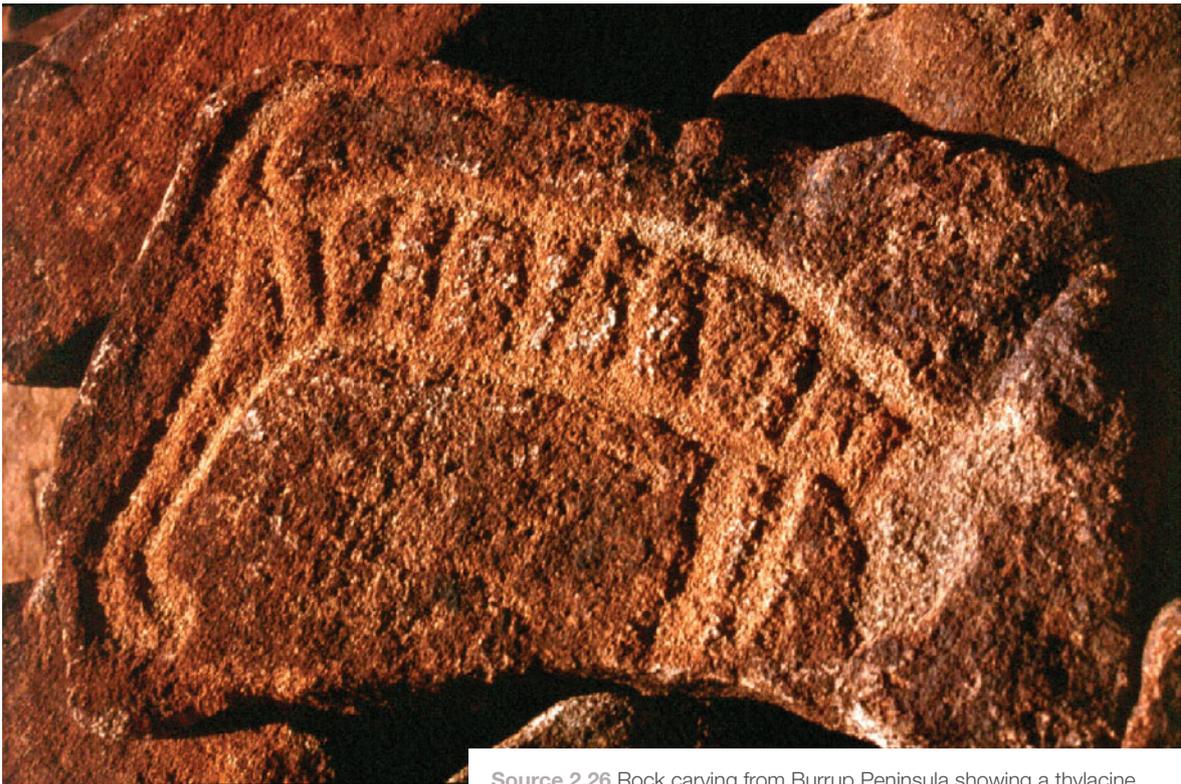
A remarkable art form found in West Australia is the rock carvings or engravings known as **petroglyphs** on the Burrup Peninsula in the Pilbara region. The images were created on the rock faces by incising or carving – or pecking – into the rock face.

This area is extremely rich in images, with many hundreds of thousands of art pieces engraved on an estimated 10 000 to 18 000 sites, showing an extraordinary range and diversity of images. Many of the sites have yet to be documented.

Made by the ancestors of the Ngarluma people, this is an area of very great significance

to these people, as the Ngarluma people believe the rock carvings were the work of the ancestral Creator Beings of the Dreaming, and that they relate mythology and law. There is a wide range of subject matter, including geometric patterns, animals and birds, and humans, as well as mythological beings. A particularly interesting image is of the thylacine or Tasmanian tiger, which became extinct on the Australian mainland about 3 000 years ago.

Archaeological estimates place this body of art from 10 000 years ago. It complements the rich archaeological evidence already found in the Pilbara regions – campsites, quarries, shell middens and stone tools – that attests to human occupation of the region dating back 30 000 years.



Source 2.26 Rock carving from Burrup Peninsula showing a thylacine (Tasmanian Tiger); this species was made extinct in Tasmania in the 1880s.



Times gone by ...

Gwion Gwion started up Stone Age. He made those paintings when he was a man. Before he was a bird. He made that *gimbu* - stone point - and tomahawk. Cracked open that rock, made spear and *gimbu*. Started up the Law from this time. Made knife. That's how they get 'im out of that string (vein), that blood, initiation. Use that *gimbu* to get out that blood. Those Djinarrgi Djinarrgi dancing together, in a row, a circle, ceremony. That's why ceremony keeps going today, from those images. The Gwion Gwion bird has a long nose. It's hard to find him because he walks around at night. We know how to find him. I'm Gwion Gwion Man.

Source 2.27 David Mowaljarlai (d. 1997) in conversation with Paddy Neowarra, Paddy Wamma and Laurie Cowanulli (d. 2000)

Study Source 2.27 and answer the following questions:

- 1 In your own words, describe what Gwion Gwion is to the local Aboriginal people.
- 2 What are some of the things Gwion Gwion created that are still being used today?

Gwion Gwion

Another spectacular example of rock art is the Gwion Gwion rock paintings that were first documented by Joseph Bradshaw in 1891, and are also known as the Bradshaw Paintings. Covering an enormous area of land in the North Kimberley of Western Australia, this very distinctive art form is also largely undocumented.

The images – often found in caves and under rock shelters – are painted predominantly with red ochre, black, brown, yellow, white and pale blue. They depict day-to-day life and images of boat travel, groups hunting and deer. Most striking are the unique depictions of human figures that are drawn with slim bodies and long limbs. They wear distinctive head-dresses and other tassel-

shaped bodily decorations attached to their hair, neck, waist, arms and legs.

Who painted this remarkable art is a matter of great debate. According to the tradition of the Ngarinyin people, the art is part of their heritage and identity, and goes back to the very beginning of time. They believe that Gwion Gwion was a 'spirit man' connected to their initiation ceremonies.

Attempts to date this art have fuelled the debate because of the contradictory conclusions reached. Carbon-14 dating suggests the art belongs to between 1500 and 4500 years ago. In contrast, luminescence dating techniques suggest no less than 17000 years. More recently, Graeme Walsh – who has studied these works extensively – suggested a dating of at least 60000 to 75000 years ago, which would make the Gwion Gwion art



Source 2.28 Gwion Gwion rock art showing human figures

the oldest figurative painting in the world. In his opinion, this unique art style was the work of an earlier non-Aboriginal people who had settled in the Kimberley region, and who eventually were displaced by the arrival of later peoples.



Conserving the remains of the past

All of us are interested in our history and our past. As we have seen, the past represents our heritage and who we are as a people. It is not enough to read about the past in history books; it is also important to see the physical remains of the ancient

past, to imagine ancient societies, to be amazed by what the peoples of the past have achieved. It is the responsibility of every individual and every government to preserve our heritage for the future.

Museums

The main repositories of a national heritage of a society are museums, whether they are run by the state, by interested organisations or by individuals with a passion for collecting artefacts of the past.

The rise of great national museums largely happened in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, as European powers such as Britain,

HISTORICAL FACT

The word 'museum' comes from the Greek word *museion*, the temple dedicated to the Nine Muses, where the ancient Greeks deposited statues and treasures.



France, Germany and Spain acquired territories overseas. As controlling powers, many extraordinary artefacts were removed – some with permission, others illegally – and donated or sold to these great museums, to form the bases of their fabulous collections.

In recent decades, considerable debate and controversy have arisen as countries from which

these archaeological treasures were removed have requested their return. Greece has mounted a concerted campaign for the return of the Parthenon Marbles by the British Museum, and Australian Aboriginal communities have gone to court to have the human remains of ancestors that somehow have ended up in museums overseas repatriated or returned for burial in Australia.

Research 2.7

Use the internet to look at the collections of two or three national museums. Look at what each museum boasts is its prize collection. Investigate where they came from and, where possible, how each collection was acquired. Compare your notes with your class.

Questions for class discussion

- 1 Why would countries like Greece think it important to regain ownership of artefacts that are in contention?
- 2 Do museums like the British Museum have any right to keep these collections in their possession?
- 3 What agreements could nations such as Britain and Greece reach that would be satisfactory to both parties?

Australian collections and sites

Two centuries of research and collecting by archaeologists, anthropologists and others have resulted in important collections of Aboriginal artefacts in Australian museums in all the capital cities. Important repositories include the Australian Museum in Sydney, which holds many millions of specimens of natural science and cultural artefacts, and the South Australian Museum. Both hold significant ethnographic and archaeological materials representing Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures. In Canberra, the National Museum of Australia's exhibitions cover the 50 000 years of Indigenous heritage and are thematically arranged. They trace Aboriginal spirituality and identity, and Indigenous use of the environment.

Monuments and archaeological sites

Once archaeologists have completed their work on a site, a number of steps need to be taken to preserve it. On many occasions, because the site is not considered to be of 'tourist' significance, the dig is refilled to be available for possible re-examination by future archaeologists.

On other occasions, the site or monument is of great cultural significance and is opened for public viewing. Monuments and sites are important because they are reminders of past events, persons or actions. They are places where moments of history might be revealed or understood. However, monuments and archaeological sites face mounting difficulties.



Source 2.29 National Gallery of Australia, Canberra

Tourism

Many sites are accessible to visitors interested in the ancient past. This is particularly the case where major architectural buildings or town layouts have been excavated, such as Stonehenge in Britain or Ephesus in Turkey.

While modern governments have realised the commercial advantages brought by tourism, the advantages come with a number of threats to the preservation of a site. Over the centuries, tourists have caused – and in many places continue to cause – the greatest damage to archaeological sites, particularly as tourist numbers continue to rise. This damage comes from general wear and tear, vandalism and souvenir collectors. Many sites are supervised, but many more are not, and these are the most vulnerable. One such Australian site that is vulnerable to tourism is Uluru, which continues to be a magnet for tourists who wish to climb it, despite the expressed (and signposted) wishes of the Aboriginal custodians.

Environmental damage

Equally damaging is the effect of climate and pollution. At Pompeii, the effects of an earthquake in the 1980s, which damaged many of the

buildings, have not been repaired, and as a consequence structures continue to deteriorate. Furthermore, over the years acid rain has caused the discolouration or fading of 80 per cent of Pompeii's exposed wall paintings. In Pakistan, salt corrosion and a rising water table are damaging the mud-brick walls of the third millennium BCE city of Mohenjo-Daro.

Lack of money

The damage caused by visitors and the environment is compounded by the high cost of maintaining and protecting an archaeological site. Insufficient funding by governments means adequate numbers of personnel cannot be employed to maintain and guard the monuments and sites. In some cases, the total disinterest of, and neglect by, governments results in the slow obliteration of sites. This is the fate of parts of the temple complex of Angkor Wat in Cambodia, which is being reclaimed by the surrounding jungle.

The question of restoration

When Sir Arthur Evans excavated Knossos at the beginning of the twentieth century, he also



Source 2.30 The reconstruction of the 'Prince of the Lilies' fresco from the Minoan palace at Knossos, Crete

undertook the restoration of sections of the palace complex and some of the famous frescoes, such as the 'Prince of the Lilies'. While early visitors were probably enthralled by what they saw, modern commentators have criticised Evans' efforts, especially the reconstruction of the frescoes, as being an eyesore and inaccurate.

The question of how far or how much restoration should be undertaken on a monument or archaeological site is one that incites much debate. On one side are those who argue that monuments should be left as they have been found, and on the other are those who think some restoration is acceptable, especially if it helps the viewer reconstruct in their imagination some idea of what a monument might have looked like.

UNESCO and World Heritage Sites

One organisation that has recognised the importance of preserving ancient sites is the UNESCO World Heritage program. The program had its beginning in 1972 with the signing of the Convention Concerning the Protection of World Cultural and Natural Heritage.

By 2011, UNESCO had over 900 sites on its protected list, from countries all around the world. In Australia, these include Aboriginal sites such as Kakadu and Lake Mungo.

UNESCO Heritage Sites

cultural and natural sites around the world that are listed by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) as being of outstanding value

To warrant registration on the UNESCO World Heritage List, an ancient site or monument must be considered to be of 'outstanding universal value'. This is determined by satisfying two out of 10 criteria that since 2011 have been applied equally to cultural and natural heritage. In order to meet the criteria that apply to ancient sites and monuments, a nominated site must:

- be a masterpiece of human creative genius
- reflect important human values through developments in architecture or monumental arts or town-planning – as can be seen in a site such as Agrigento in Sicily, Italy, which shows town planning being applied to an early Greek colony
- demonstrate a unique cultural tradition of an ancient civilisation – such as Petra in Syria
- be an outstanding example of a type of building that illustrates a significant stage(s) in human history – such as the Parthenon in Athens, Greece
- show traditional human settlement, or land use or sea use, that is representative of a culture (or cultures), or human interaction with the environment – such as the Willandra Lakes Region in Australia

- be associated with ideas and beliefs reflected through artistic and literary works – such as rock painting at Kakadu National Park, Australia.

One of UNESCO's most famous rescue operations was the open-air Museum of Nubia and Aswan, more commonly known as the Temple of Rameses II at Abu-Simbel. The temple was built into the rock face on the banks of the Nile River in the thirteenth century BCE by the Pharaoh Rameses II of the Nineteenth Dynasty as a statement of Egyptian power. It, as well as many other monuments in the area, was placed under threat of submersion and obliteration when the Egyptian government began the Aswan High Dam Project in the late 1950s. Between 1960 and 1980, UNESCO, supported by 50 countries, undertook the project of relocating these monuments to higher ground. The success of this project led to the adoption of the World Heritage Convention in 1972. Footage of the project is provided by UNESCO which you can see at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks.



Source 2.31 The Temple of Rameses II at Abu-Simbel. The size of the temple makes its relocation remarkable.

Chapter summary

- Historians work primarily with written sources to understand the past. However, to gain full value from their sources, they need to test those sources with a range of questions.
- The contributions of archaeology to our understanding of the ancient past cannot be underestimated, as they often fill out parts of the picture left blank by written sources.
- Accurate chronology is a key factor in writing history. It provides the framework for understanding the past as a continuing stream into the present.
- The presence of Aboriginal people in Australia going back more than 40 000 to 60 000 years makes it the longest continuing society in the world.
- The past is our heritage, and it needs to be preserved for the future.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

- The 'Father of History' was:
 - Augustus
 - Herodotus
 - Thucydides
 - Julius Caesar
- Historians get their evidence primarily from:
 - bones
 - written texts
 - buildings
 - DNA samples
- Heinrich Schliemann found the royal tombs at Mycenae by:
 - researching ancient texts
 - finding surface remains
 - looking at the physical layout of the land
 - examining historical records
- Mungo Lady and Mungo Man were named after:
 - the comic character Mr Mungo
 - the lake in which they were found floating
 - the dried-out lakes in the area where they were found
 - the Egyptian mummy Mungamus
- The Djanggawul Sisters:
 - created birds and trees
 - gave shape to the landscape
 - gave birth to the first people
 - all of the above

Short answer

- 1 Explain why it is important for historians to evaluate their sources.
- 2 What is the difference between 'prehistory' and 'history'?
- 3 List three ways archaeologists select sites for excavation.
- 4 What is the difference between absolute and relative dating?
- 5 Name two different forms of rock art that can be found in Australia.

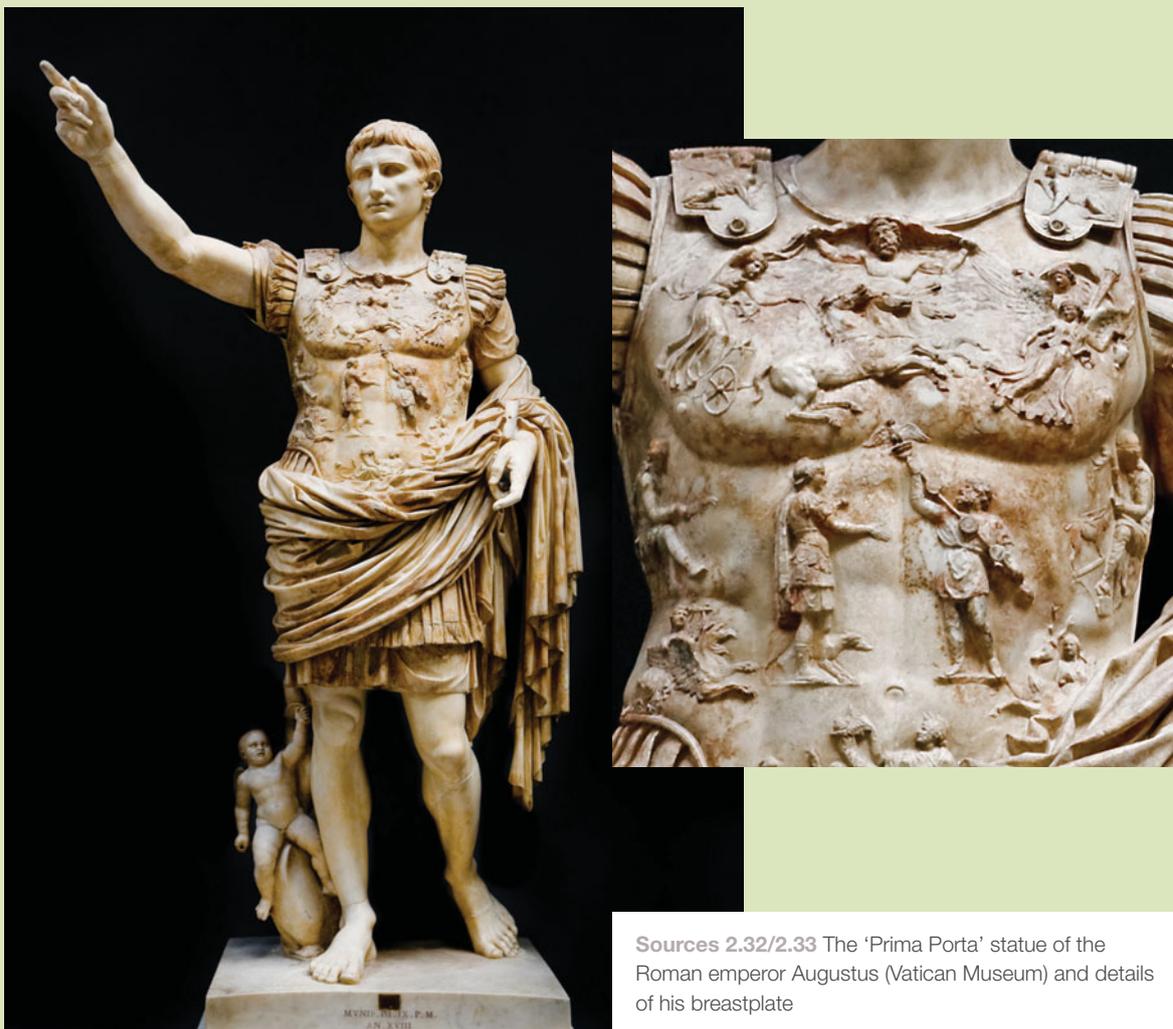
Source analysis

Study Sources 2.32 and 2.33, and answer the following questions:

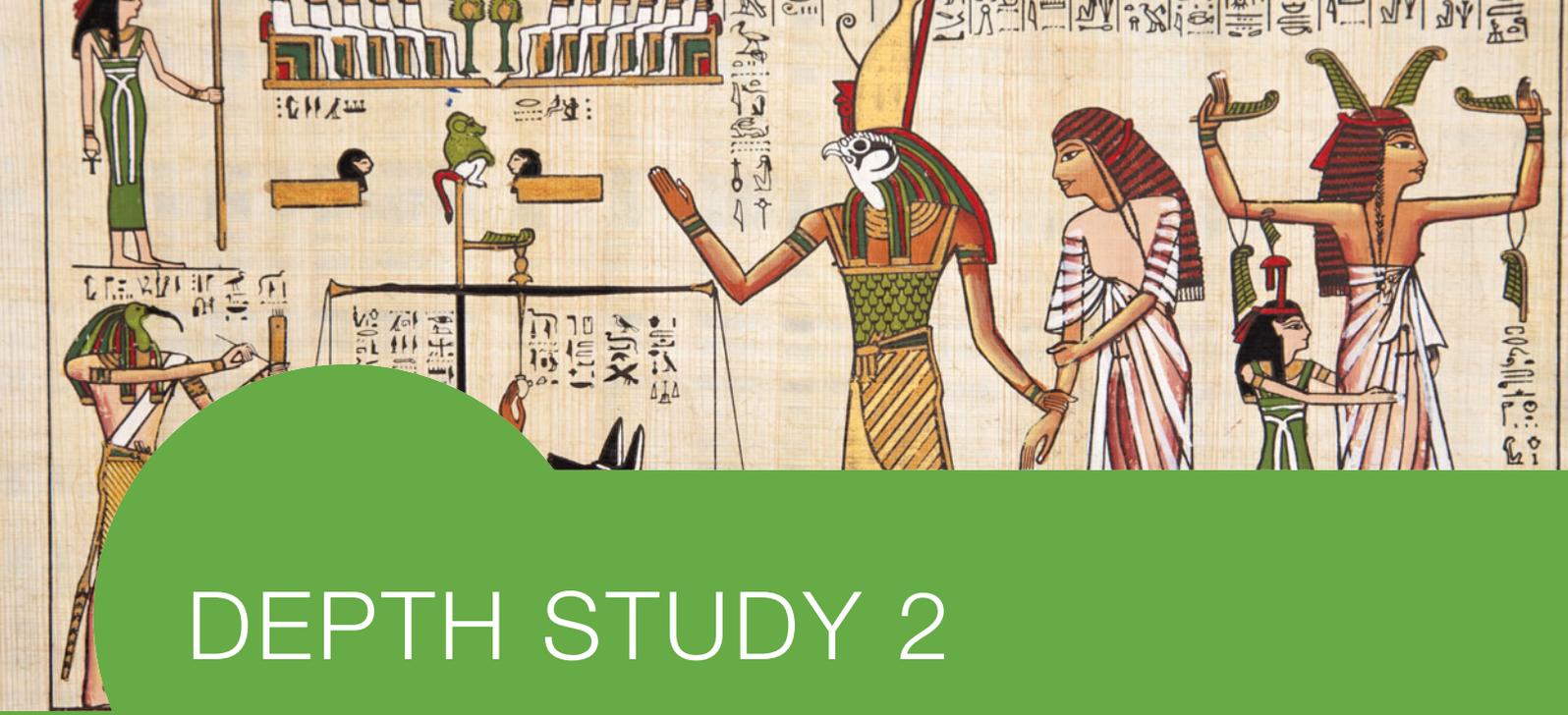
- 1 The statue of the Emperor Augustus was carved after his death when he was a very old man. What do you notice about his appearance that is at odds with this information?
- 2 Look at the scene depicted on the armour Augustus is wearing. What kind of information would we need to know to understand its meaning?
- 3 What kind of message is Augustus trying to send through this statue?

Extended response

Describe how historians and archaeologists contribute to the writing of history.



Sources 2.32/2.33 The 'Prima Porta' statue of the Roman emperor Augustus (Vatican Museum) and details of his breastplate



DEPTH STUDY 2

The Mediterranean world



3



Ancient Egypt

Source 3.1 This satellite image shows Egypt from space. The narrow green strip is the fertile land around the River Nile. Most of the country is dry desert, which supports little life.

Before you start

Main focus

A peaceful and productive society, ancient Egypt developed many of the main skills of civilisation.

Why it's relevant today

The ancient Egyptians demonstrated that people can develop a strong and wealthy society if they learn how to adapt to their environment, and if they creatively use the resources available to them.

Inquiry questions

- Why was such an advanced civilisation able to develop in the hot, dry desert land of Egypt?
- How did the Egyptians organise their government and society?
- How did the ancient Egyptians' beliefs affect the way their civilisation developed?
- How do historians know about the lives of people in ancient Egypt?
- How have the achievements of the ancient Egyptians contributed to the development of later civilisations?

Key terms

- afterlife
- civilisation
- dynasty
- hieroglyphs
- inundation
- irrigation
- mummification
- pharaoh
- pyramid
- River Nile

Significant individuals

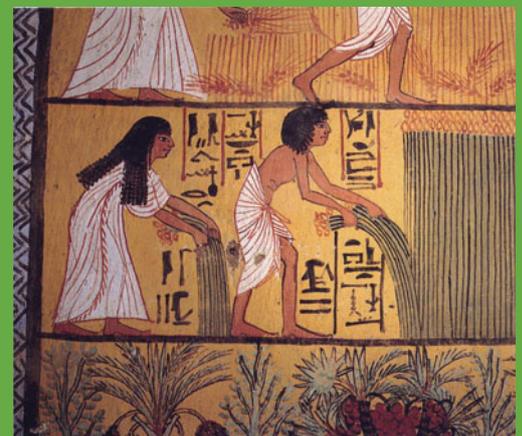
- King Narmer (King Menes)
- King Cheops
- Imhotep
- King Rameses II
- 'King' Hatshepsut
- King Akhenaten
- King Tutankhamun
- Queen Nefertiti
- Queen Cleopatra

Let's begin

Ancient Egypt was one of the world's great early civilisations. It developed along the banks of the River Nile in North Africa and lasted for some 3000 years. The Egyptians made good use of their rich land, and developed a strong system of government and an orderly society. They also created religious beliefs and temples, where they worshipped their gods. Finally, they developed advanced skills in architecture, painting, sculpture, writing, mathematics and medicine.



Source 3.2 The Sphinx and Pyramid at Giza



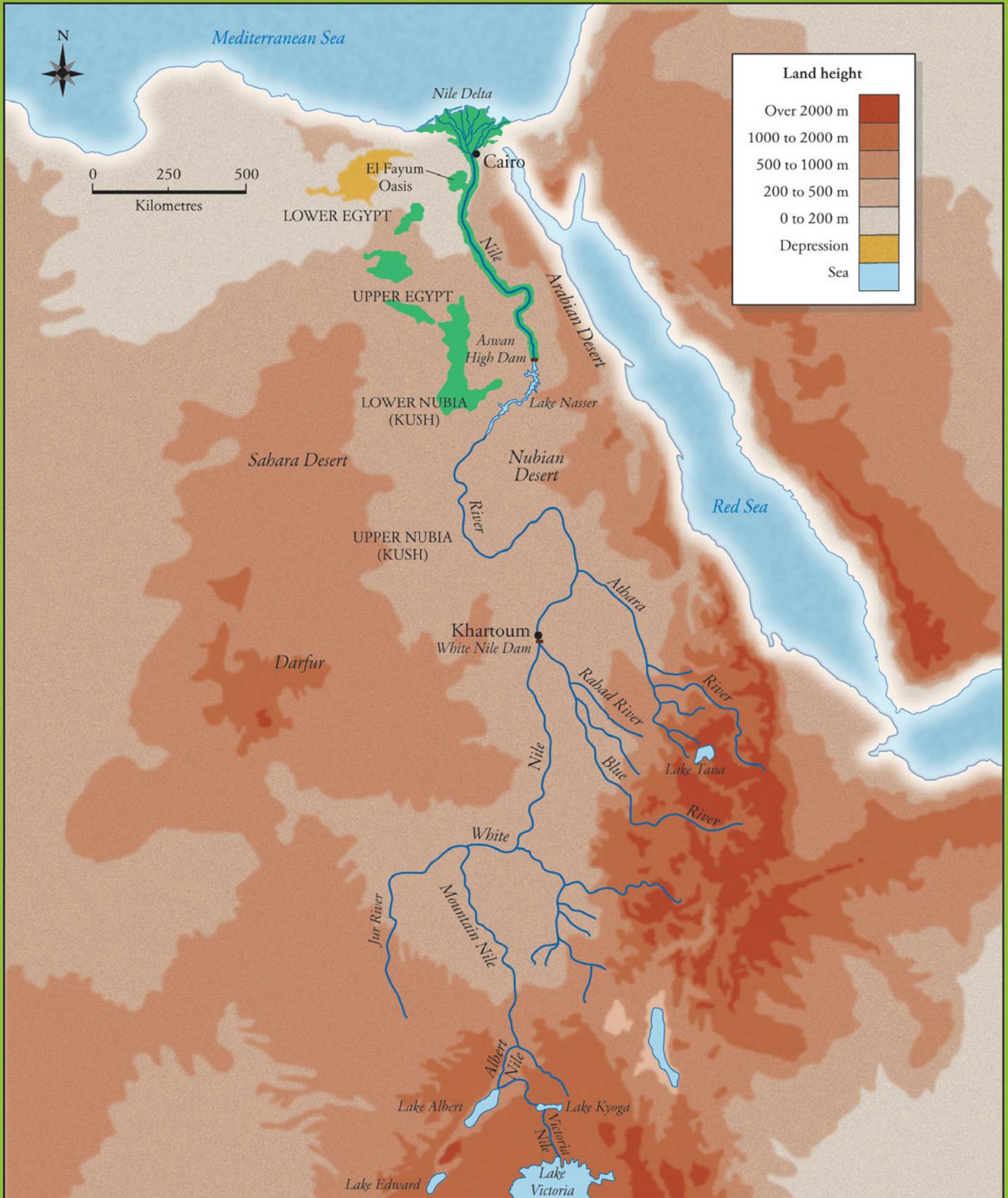
Source 3.3 Wall painting depicting peasants harvesting papyrus



Source 3.4 Stone relief of Akhenaten and Nefertiti

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS	WORLD EVENTS
5000 BCE
The first settlers arrive in Egypt c. 5500 BCE The pre-dynastic period: c. 5500–3000 BCE	c. 4000 BCE In Iraq, large cities built in Sumer
3000 BCE
The unification of Egypt under c. 3600–3100 BCE King Narmer	c. 3000 BCE In Iraq, Sumerians introduce writing
Early Dynastic Period c. 3100–2686 BCE The Pyramid of Djoser is built c. 2700 BCE The Old Kingdom c. 2649–2150 BCE The Great Pyramid of Giza is built c. 2560 BCE	c. 3000–1450 BCE In Crete, the Minoan civilisation flourishes c. 2500 BCE In India, the Indus River Valley civilisation develops
2000 BCE
The Middle Kingdom c. 2040–1640 BCE King Mentuhotep unites Egypt after c. 2020 BCE a period of civil war King Amenemhet III leads Egypt to c. 1850 BCE great prosperity	1900 BCE In Turkey, the Hittite people develop iron production 1800 BCE In Peru, the first villages are built 1766 BCE In China, the Shang dynasty begins
The rule of the Hyksos 1730–1530 BCE	1750–1200 BCE In Turkey, the Hittite Empire is at the height of its power
The New Kingdom c. 1550–1070 BCE The workers' village of Deir el-Medina 1500 BCE is built	1500 BCE In South America, the Mayan civilisation begins
The reign of Rameses II c. 1303–1213 BCE 'the Great'	c. 1200 BCE In China, bronze casting is developed 1000 BCE In Greece, the production of iron becomes common
1000 BCE
Assyrian armies and Persian armies 747–332 BCE conquer Egypt	753 BCE Rome is founded
The Macedonian general Alexander the Great 332 BCE conquers Egypt	
Egypt is ruled by Greek kings called 323–30 BCE the Ptolemies	c. 27 BCE Augustus becomes the first emperor of Rome
The last of the Ptolemaic pharaohs, 30 BCE Cleopatra VII, dies and Rome takes over Egypt	
1 CE
	c. 1 CE The traditional date of the birth of Christ



Source 3.5 A map of Egypt c. 3100 BCE showing Lower and Upper Egypt, Nubia and Kush, the Red Sea and the Nile Delta



Physical features and their influence

The River Nile

When we first study a photograph of the desert in Egypt, we see few resources to support human life. Yet nature provided everything that the Egyptian people needed to live a good life. The main feature of this land was a large river, the Nile, flowing from the mountains in the south to the Mediterranean Sea in the north. It created a long, narrow corridor of life in the heart of the dry desert. The historian Jon Manchip White wrote: 'Egypt is [like] a thread of wet green silk stretched loosely on endless yellow desert. Egypt was made by the River Nile. It was a narrow carpet of soil enclosed within a rocky slot in the sands. The people of the valley huddled together on their magic carpet, which had been spread out for them by the kindly gods at the beginning of the world, and they took good care not to wander away from it.'

The Egyptians loved their country, and were grateful to live in it. They called it *Ta-Mery*, meaning 'Beloved Land'. They also called Egypt *kemet*, meaning Black Land, with dark, rich soil that was good for farming. Beyond lay *desbret*, the Red Land, and the baking sands of the deserts. Even these hot deserts and dry mountains

were useful as a barrier to the outside world, and usually as a protection from attack. The Egyptians understood that they owed everything to the River Nile. They would have agreed with the Greek historian Herodotus, who said that 'Egypt is the gift of the Nile'. They even worshipped the Nile as a god called Hapi.

The Nile is 6670 kilometres long, making it the longest river in the world. Several distant rivers feed water into it, generated by melting snow and heavy rain in the mountains of central Africa. The Nile flows through a narrow valley. As it approaches sea level, it slows down and divides into smaller channels, creating a fan-shaped delta 250 kilometres wide. It then flows into the Mediterranean Sea.

About 8000 years ago, groups of ancient people entered the valley. They discovered a rich, green land where they could live by hunting and farming. Although only about 10 per cent of the land was **fertile**, this small area grew more food than the Egyptians needed just to survive and this changed the way people lived. Hunters have to move around all the time to follow herds of wild animals, but farmers have to stay where they are to look after crops. Seven thousand years ago, people tamed wild goats, sheep and cattle to become farm animals. Five and half thousand years ago,

fertile able to produce a large number of quality crops

Source 3.6 The three zones that make up Egypt: the broad River Nile, the narrow strip of rich farming land and the desert mountains beyond



Neolithic Revolution the early period of human history when people made the important change from hunting to farming

they built the first mud-brick villages, then towns and cities. This process is known as the **Neolithic Revolution**, and it created the conditions in which civilised life developed.

Flooding of the Nile

When a powerful river such as the Nile rushes down steep mountain slopes, it digs out soil and carries it along. When the river flows down into a valley, it slows down, spreads out and

floods over the land near the river banks. This is called an **inundation**. Because the water slows down, it drops a layer of rich soil known as **silt**. Because this happened once every year, the land surrounding the Nile was topped up regularly with fresh soil.

inundation the yearly flooding of the Nile

silt rich, fine soil carried in the waters of a river

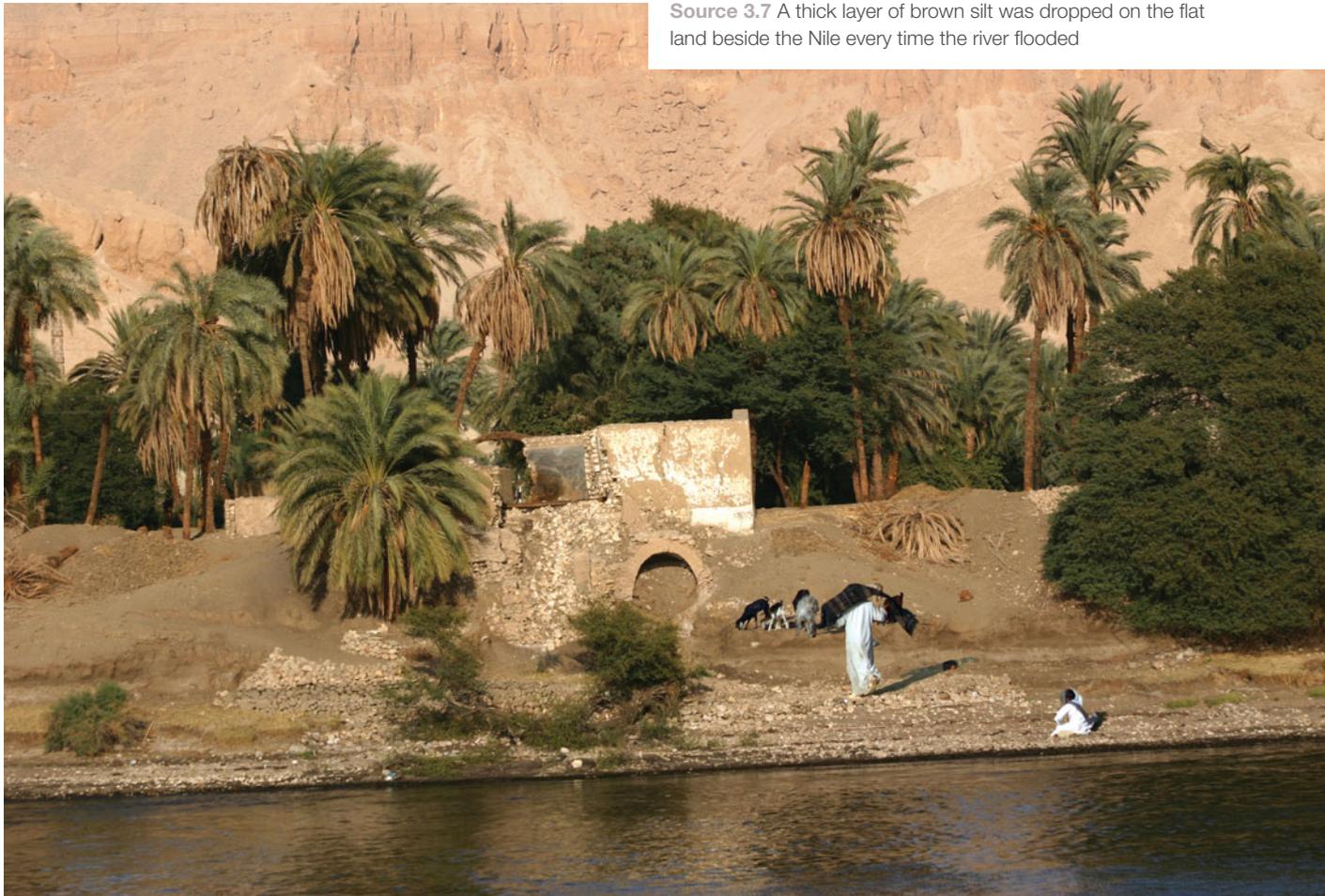
The inundation varied each year. The Egyptians carefully measured the rising water on a **nilometer**, which showed the water level in **cubits**. Thirteen cubits meant little water, poor crops and starvation. Fifteen cubits still meant that the people starved. Seventeen cubits just guaranteed a living. The usual height of the water was about 8 metres (around 15.3 cubits). Too much water was disastrous because it flooded whole villages.

nilometer used to measure the water level of the Nile during the annual inundation

cubit the length from your elbow to your fingertips

Gifts of the Nile

The Nile provided more than just the water and silt of the inundation. It was rich in fish such as perch – an important food for the poor – and in bird life such as ducks and geese. The land provided almost all of the building materials the Egyptians would need to construct houses, villages



Source 3.7 A thick layer of brown silt was dropped on the flat land beside the Nile every time the river flooded



Source 3.8 A painting from the tomb of a man named Nebamun. It shows him and his wife riding on a boat made of papyrus and hunting birds in the marshes by the banks of the Nile River.

papyrus a tall reed with a triangular stalk that grew in wet, marshy conditions by the banks of rivers. The inside of the stalk could be cut into fine strips that were woven together to make a smooth papery surface suitable for writing and painting

and finally towns. The marshes provided **papyrus** plants, used to make an early form of paper, baskets and even light fishing boats such as the one used by Nebamun (see Source 3.8). The silt brought down by the river was simply mixed with straw and baked in the sun to create strong mud bricks. The

mountains provided stone for buildings. The only major resource missing was forests, so Egyptians bought wood from other countries.

In a land where there were few roads, the river was the main form of transport. It was a watery highway traversing Egypt from top to bottom. It was always crowded with boats. Merchants had large ships to trade goods. Builders had enormous barges to move blocks of stone from quarries to building sites such as pyramids or temples. Rich people had pleasure craft for boating and hunting trips.

The land provided many other natural resources. The flax plant was ideal for making the linen cloth needed for clothing. There were large amounts of copper, which could be used to make tools such as saws and chisels. Flint, a sharp stone,

was used for making knives, sickles and weapons. In the desert mountains, there was gold that was used for making jewellery and for trading.

The inundation only reached the lower land near the river. However, the Egyptians realised that they could arrange their own flooding of

higher land to make it fertile. They dug canals across the land, and raised water from the Nile. At first, farmers lifted the water by hand. Then, during the Old Kingdom, they invented a **shaduf**.

shaduf a wooden arm with a counter-weight on one end and a bucket on the other

Times gone by ...

Praise to you, O Nile, that comes from the earth, and comes to nourish Egypt. He that spills out, giving the fields water to drink and making the people strong. He that waters the meadows, he that Ra created to feed all cattle. He that makes barley and wheat, so that temples can keep festivals. He that makes trees grow, so that men may have wood. The ship is built by his power.

If the inundation is poor, then all men are poor and millions of men will die. When the river rises, the whole land is joyful, all jaws begin to laugh and every tooth is shown.

When the Nile floods, offerings are made to you, cattle are slaughtered for you, birds are fattened for you, prayers are said for you. You are fruitful, O Nile, you are fruitful, He that makes man to live on his cattle, and his cattle on the meadow.

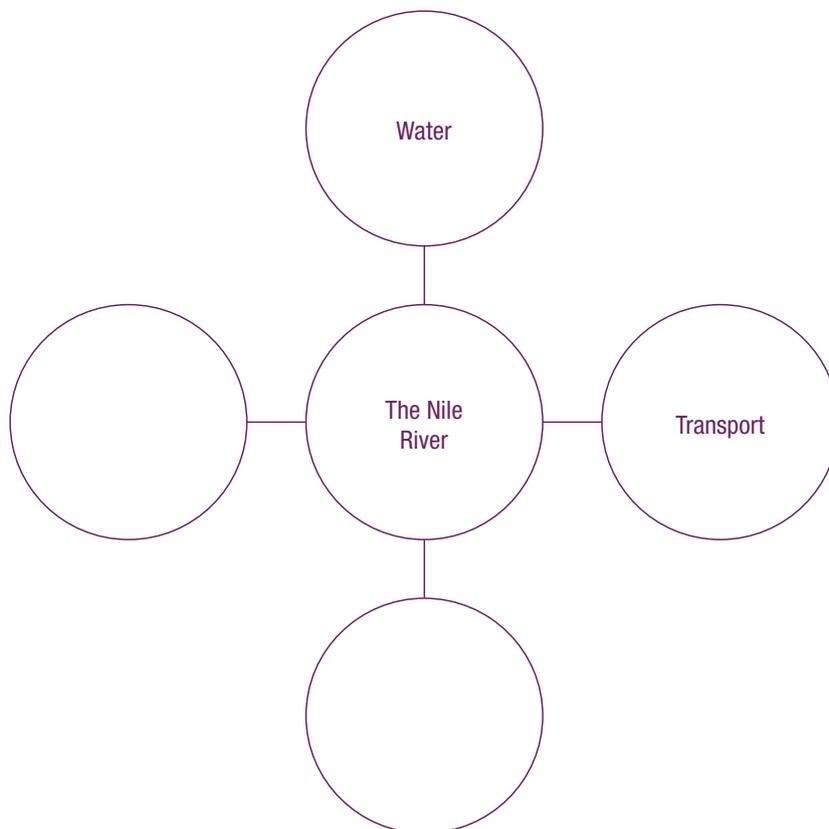
Source 3.9 A hymn to the Nile

Study Source 3.9 and answer the following questions:

- 1 List the different types of food being grown with the help of the Nile.
- 2 What were the results of a bad year of inundation?
- 3 How did the Egyptians pay back the Nile for what it gave them?
- 4 Explain how important rivers are to modern Australia. What are some of the arguments that have occurred in recent years about the ways in which we use our rivers?

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the resources that the Nile gave to ancient Egyptians.



Effect of geography

civilisation a society that has developed an organised system of government, social customs and religious beliefs, and a number of forms of technology including writing and the arts

Why did the greatest **civilisations** – including the Indus Valley civilisation in India and the Sumerian civilisation in Mesopotamia – grow up along great rivers? The land and the river did more than just provide a living. They actually helped some forms of civilisation to appear. Egypt was a large land, which may be why the Egyptians developed one single, powerful government. The king needed to send orders and messages to his people, and this led to the invention of writing by about 3100 BCE. Historians originally believed that the Egyptians learned this from the nearby Sumerians, but some now believe they invented writing first.

The richness of the land had another important effect. In countries where the land is poor, most people have to spend their whole lives growing enough food to eat. In a country where the land is rich, some people can grow enough food for the whole country. This leaves other people free to become officials, architects, artists, scribes and craftsmen. They become specialists, and the main skills of civilisation – such as government, building and writing – become highly developed.

The Nile gave Egypt another sort of gift: wealth. When a society produces more food than it needs, it trades that food for other goods. Egypt also had supplies of gold in its desert mountains. This valuable metal was used to make luxury objects for kings and nobles. Egypt soon became one of the richest lands in the ancient world.



Role of key groups

Making sense of a long history

dynasty a succession of rulers from the same family. In Egypt, however, some of the dynasties included pharaohs that were not related to the main ruling family

In about 300 BCE, the Egyptian priest Manetho wrote a detailed history of Egypt, using historical documents that are no longer available to us. He made this long history clearer by dividing it into 30 **dynasties**, or families of kings. For him, the First

Dynasty started with King Narmer.

Manetho's historical outline shows that Egypt lasted for an unusually long time, while other empires rose and fell. This is because the Egyptians had a well-organised society, with a clear system of government, strong leadership and good administration and officials, as well as laws and courts, religion and temples. All of these made Egyptian society stable, so it survived largely unchanged for 3000 years.

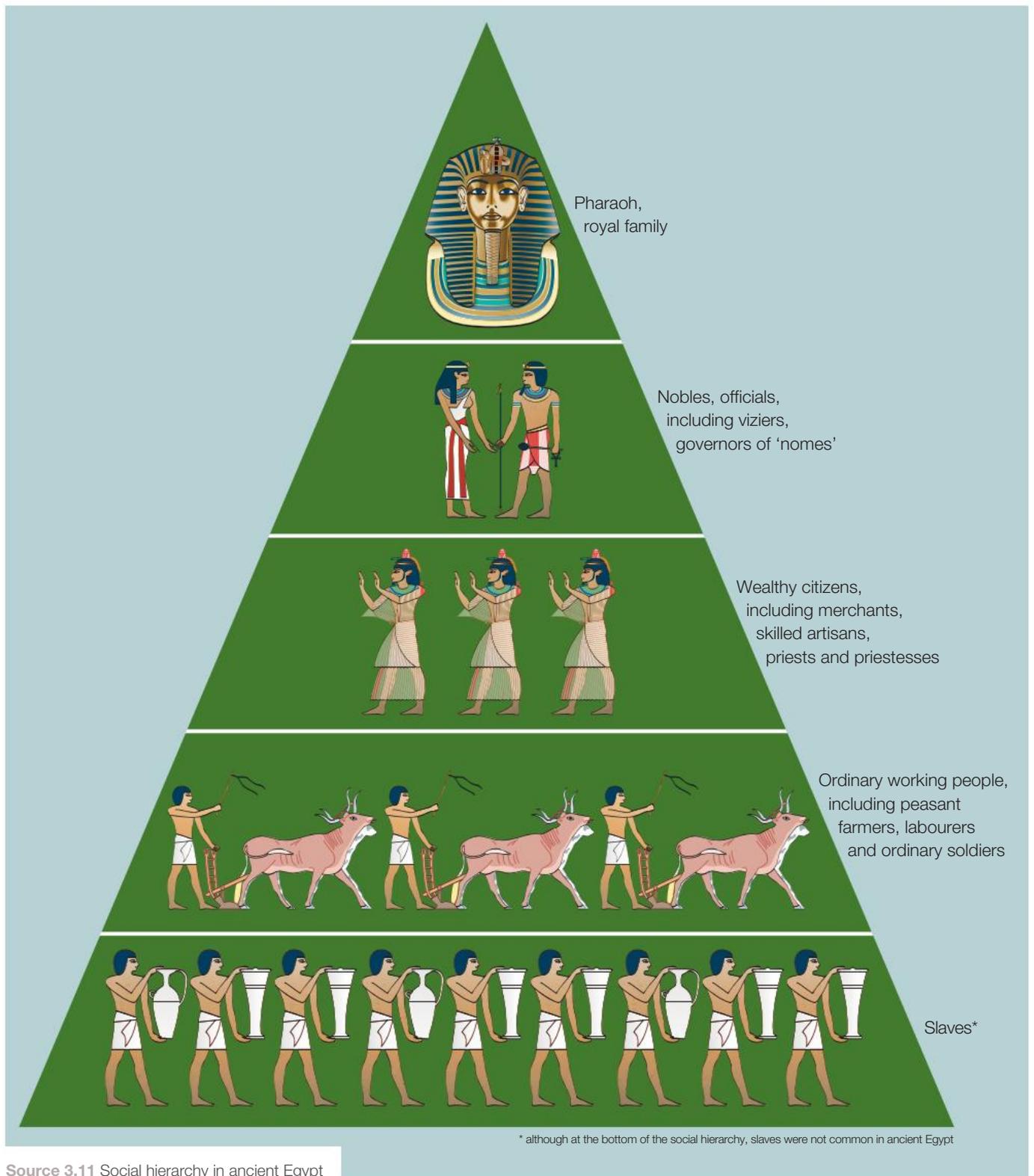
We can imagine Egyptian society in the shape of a pyramid (see Source 3.11), with the most powerful people at the top. On the first level were the pharaoh, his or her consort and the royal children. On the second level were the nobles and important officials, such as the vizier, high priests, army commanders and skilled experts such as the scribes. On the third level were wealthy people such as merchants, skilled craftsmen such as potters, and ordinary priests and priestesses. On the fourth level were working people with special skills, such as soldiers and farmers. At the base of the pyramid were ordinary working people, such as peasant workers and servants. There were also slaves, but these were not common in Egyptian society.

Historian Jon White believes that the nature of Egypt – a huge land with a large population of five million – created a need for a **bureaucracy**. White argues: 'The Egyptians were devoted bureaucrats, and Egypt was one of the most efficiently ordered states that was ever seen.' Egyptian civilisation was stable partly because one powerful ruler learned to use officials to make all the people obey him and his laws.

bureaucracy
government officials

Source 3.10 Manetho's dynasties

The Old Kingdom (Third to Sixth Dynasties)	Egypt was rich and powerful. It traded with neighbouring countries such as Punt and Nubia. This was also the age of the building of the great pyramids at Saqqara and Giza.
The First Intermediate Period (2180–2130 BCE)	This kingdom fell into confusion because of weak rulers, a divided house and possibly famine caused by multiple poor inundations. After some conflict, the ruler of Upper Egypt, Mentuhotep, reunited the country.
The Middle Kingdom (Eleventh to Thirteenth Dynasties)	The government was strengthened and Egypt became wealthy again. The capital was moved to a new site near the Fayum oasis, where it was possible to control Egypt more effectively. Trade began again, and the Egyptians even took over Nubia. This prosperous time ended when the foreign Hyksos people invaded Egypt.
The Second Intermediate Period (1630–1560 BCE)	The foreign Hyksos people ruled from the north and made the south obey their orders. The Egyptians united to drive out the foreigners by 1567 BCE.
The New Kingdom (Eighteenth to Twentieth Dynasties)	The Egyptians regained confidence and played a greater role in trade and warfare in their region. Armed with a new weapon they had taken from the Hyksos – the horse-drawn chariot – they conquered a large area including Nubia in the south and Syria and Sumer in the north. Victorious armies brought back precious goods; conquered states paid tributes of precious materials such as gold. Money flowed into Egypt. This helped to finance the building of the many splendid temples at this time.
The Third Intermediate Period (1085–716 BCE)	Egypt again suffered division and disorder. A number of different kings, all competing with each other, tried to rule. Law and order broke down. Egypt lost its large empire, and was neither feared nor respected by the other countries in the region.



Source 3.11 Social hierarchy in ancient Egypt

The pharaoh: A god on earth

Every society has a way of showing respect to the person who rules it. From the beginning of their society in about 3100 BCE, the Egyptians believed

pharaoh divine ruler of ancient Egypt

that their **pharaoh** was a god descended from the great god Amun-Re. He was also the human form of the god Hathor.

He had magical powers, such as keeping the gods pleased with the people of Egypt.

inscription writing that has been carved into a hard surface such as solid stone, to help people remember a certain person or event

Historians know this because they have found **inscriptions** calling him *netjer* (god) and *nefer netjer* (good god), meaning that he must protect his people. Another title, *aa netjer* (great god) meant that he had

to be a great warrior and lead his army against enemies.

The Egyptians ‘trained’ all princes in the royal family to be king because many children died early. Princes were instructed in the skills of hunting and chariot-driving as preparation for being a leader.

The pharaoh was believed to own the whole land of Egypt and everything in it – including the people. He was protected by the hawk-headed god Horus. When alive, he was a part of the Horus god-king. When he died, he became a part of the Osiris god-king. When he sat on his throne, he became a god himself. By the time of the New Kingdom, he was so respected that people did not dare to say his name. People would kiss the ground as he walked by. Anybody who accidentally touched him was executed.

The Egyptians created many signs that the pharaoh was all-important – even a god. The most important sign of royal power was the crown. This was made up of two earlier crowns: the tall, conical, white crown of Upper Egypt and the



Source 3.12 This triple statue shows King Osorkon II (centre) between Isis (left) and Horus (right). The Egyptians believed that the pharaoh was a god on earth.

Title: Pendant: Osirian triad in the name of Osorkon. Description: 22 Dynasty (Osorkon II) Photo credit: ©RMN-GP (Louvre Museum)/ HervéLewandowski

shorter, red crown of Lower Egypt. Together, they symbolised the union of Egypt under one ruler. On the front was the uraeus cobra, which would spit fire or poison into the eyes of an enemy. It was a sign of the king's magical power. In times of war, the pharaoh commanded the armies and wore a special blue war crown. The pharaoh

also wore a false beard, woven from goat's hair, strapped on to the chin with a cord. This showed that the pharaoh was a god. Another title was 'The Strong Bull', so he wore a bull's tail to show his physical strength and ability to father many children. Most pharaohs were male, though there were exceptions.

HISTORICAL FACT

The Egyptian pharaoh Pepi II came to the throne aged only six, and ruled for 94 years!



Research 3.1

One of the best ways of gaining a better understanding of Egyptian culture is to see examples of ancient objects now held in museum collections. A number of museums have rich collections of Egyptian art. It might be possible to visit a museum close to your school. Otherwise, most of these museums have useful websites that you can explore on the internet. Choose three works of Egyptian art, including one building, one statue and one other item, as your focus for research.

Using both book resources and the internet, research your three works of art and investigate what they tell us about the lives, values and experiences of ancient Egyptians. For example, you might examine a statue to discover what it reveals about the political and religious beliefs concerning the pharaoh. You might use a tomb painting of a country work scene to explain what sort of life a farmer had in Egypt. Present your findings as a PowerPoint presentation or blog. The following websites may assist you with your research; find all the links at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks:

- National Gallery of Victoria, Melbourne
- Museum of Victoria, Melbourne
- Australian Museum, Sydney
- University of Sydney, Nicholson Museum, Sydney
- Australian National University, Classics Museum, Canberra
- Egyptian Museum, Cairo, Egypt
- British Museum, London
- Fitzwilliam Museum, Cambridge, United Kingdom
- Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York
- Global Egyptian Museum.

The pharaoh was usually shown with two other important symbols of power. One was the flail, copied from a farmer's whip, representing the pharaoh's authority to make his people obey him. The second was the rounded crook, used by shepherds to pull sheep back to the herd,

representing the pharaoh's role in guiding his people. The pharaohs wore large, jewelled collars and beautiful head-dresses as a sign of wealth: gold was a precious item, and so were stones such as the brilliant blue lapis lazuli.

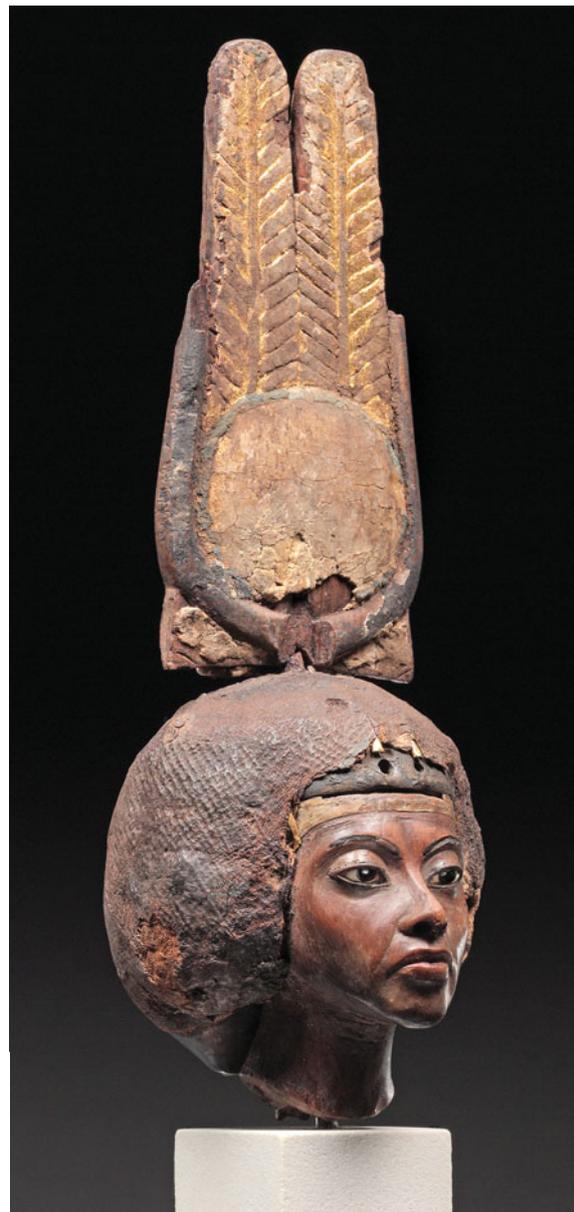
HISTORICAL FACT

The Egyptians were badly bothered by flies. One of the most important pieces of equipment was a fly whisk. One pharaoh was even driven to the point of having slaves smear themselves with honey and stand around him, so the flies were attracted to them and not him!

The queen consort

The pharaoh's queen consort was called 'The Great Royal Wife'. She was often the pharaoh's sister. He had several less important wives who lived away from the royal palace. The son of his main queen came to power when the pharaoh died. Sometimes a living pharaoh made his son co-ruler to ensure that the right person came to the throne. The son usually married his own sister because she was his only possible equal.

We can see these powerful women in works of art. In 1360 BCE an artist made a statue of Queen Tiyi (1410–1340 BCE), wife of Amenhotep III and mother of the notable pharaoh Akhenaten. She wielded power and influence during the reign of both her husband and her son, and received letters from rulers of other lands asking for her advice. The statue shows the face and character of a woman of great authority.



Source 3.13 This head of Queen Tiyi is one of the few portraits to have been produced in ancient Egypt. It is from about 1360 BCE (Egyptian Museum, Berlin).

Copyright bpk / Ägyptisches Museum und Papyrussammlung, SMB / Sandra Steiß

The highest official: The vizier

The most important official in Egypt was the vizier, or ‘Superintendent of All the Works of the King’, the chief minister or prime minister. There was one for Upper Egypt and one for Lower Egypt. A vizier named Rekhmire said: ‘The pharaoh told me, “Be my vizier. You must look after everything.” Being a vizier is not easy.’ The vizier had to report to the pharaoh about almost everything: the royal accounts, taxes (in goods, not money) coming in, spending going out, the state of the fortresses on the borders, even who was entering or leaving the palace. He ensured that the royal governors understood the pharaoh’s orders and sent in their reports on time. He was responsible for law and order across the land.

The great officials of the land

Below the vizier were thousands of other officials. The next most important were the royal governors, who were in charge of Egypt’s 42 ‘nomes’, or

provinces. They had to report on the condition of their province, and to collect taxes for the central government. Some were tax inspectors who visited farms to calculate how much each farmer earned, and how much tax he owed. Many were officials in charge of building sites. The thousands of officials who ran Egypt’s affairs needed one important skill to communicate their orders and keep records: writing.

Scribes

In ancient Egypt, writing was a special skill practised by experts. Only 1 per cent of the population could write. Scribes were all male and from rich families. The scribe Kheti wrote:

This is the best of all jobs. There is no other position like it in the land. Every other worker has a boss, but the scribe is his own boss. If you can learn how to write, this will be very good for you.

Scribes rose to be some of the most important officials in Egypt. In one case, a scribe named Horemheb became pharaoh. Training began at age nine and took five years. Scribes did not

Activity 3.1

Using your school library and the internet, prepare a press release for the British newspaper the *Times*, announcing the achievement of the French scholar Jean-François Champollion in learning how to read ancient Egyptian hieroglyphs. In your report, be sure to explain how he cracked the code, and also why his achievement was so important in improving our understanding of the ancient Egyptians. You will find a useful link about decipherment at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks.

In your response, investigate and report on the following issues:

- 1 Why had the language of the hieroglyphs been forgotten in Egypt by 400 CE?
- 2 How and where was the Rosetta Stone discovered?
- 3 Which three languages were engraved on the Rosetta Stone? Why did this provide a valuable clue to the meaning of the hieroglyphs?
- 4 How did the French scholar Jean-François Champollion crack the code of the hieroglyphs?
- 5 Why was this discovery so important to our understanding of the Egyptians?

Times gone by ...

The Egyptians developed writing as early as 3100 BCE. They believed that the ibis-headed god Thoth, the god of the moon and the maker of human intelligence, invented it for them. The Egyptian name for writing was 'the words of the gods'. The modern word - hieroglyphs - was made up much later by the Greeks. They could not read them, but thought the carvings on walls were 'sacred signs'. When writing began, the hieroglyphs were complicated. There were 700 signs. Some were drawings of an object: the hieroglyph for 'boat' actually looked like a child's quick sketch of a boat. Others represented ideas: a picture of a small mound literally meant 'a hill', but it also represented a foreign land. Some hieroglyphs represented sounds. Over the centuries, hieroglyphs changed: some signs still represented a single word, but many represented sounds. Finally, all

the consonants of the Egyptian language had their own sign. In about 2500 BCE, the Egyptians created a simpler form of writing called hieratic for use in everyday life, allowing traders and craftspeople to write notes quickly. By about 600 BCE, they had an even simpler one called demotic.

- 1 Identify which god the Egyptians believed invented writing for them.
- 2 Discuss how writing assisted the ancient Egyptian culture.



Source 3.14 Ancient Egyptian hieroglyphs

invent desks until 2000 BCE; they sat on the floor cross-legged, with their kilt pulled tight to make a writing platform. They often worked in large rooms where a chief scribe read out the text aloud and the scribes made copies. Scribes kept their hieroglyphic writing complicated so that others could not learn it. A text in hieroglyphs could be read from top to bottom, or from left to right or right to left. There was no punctuation.

Ordinary working people

Historians struggle to find information about the lives of ordinary working people. The problem was partly solved when the archaeologist Bernard Bruyère discovered the workers' village at Deir-el Medina in 1920. This was a town of 70 mud-brick houses built by the government of the New Kingdom to house the artisans who were working on the tombs in the nearby Valley of the Kings and the Valley of the Queens. The houses



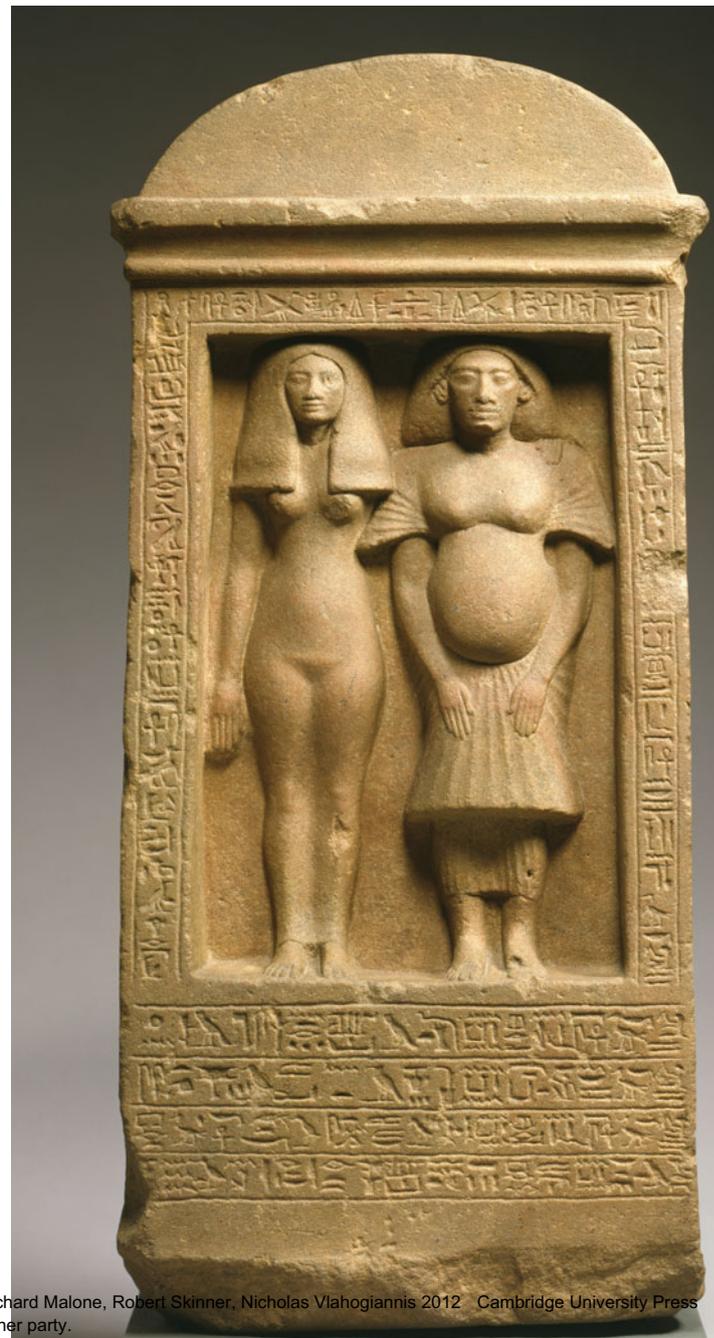
Source 3.15 This is the workers' town of Deir el-Medina. We can clearly see the ground plan of the 70 houses, which were all enclosed by one large external wall to keep strangers out.

had several rooms, and were built to be cool; the flat roofs could be used as a place of relaxation in the cool of the evening.

These workers also had time to build beautiful tombs for themselves just near the village. In the tomb of Kha, for example, archaeologists found a complete set of carpentry tools that was used by the foreman when he was employed here. The historian John Romer has also explored Deir el-Medina, and discovered more about the workers' lives. He found stories about the leader of the village choir, the scribes who made extra money by painting coffins in their spare time and a scribe who used his skills to write love poetry to his girlfriend. There was an angry shopkeeper who kept up a court case for 17 years over some jars of fat. There was a young man who was so excited to be given the job of royal scribe that he carved graffiti into the cliffs to celebrate his success. This was also the location of the first workers' strike known to history: in 1153 BCE, the workers stopped work because they had not received their 'wages' of food and clothing. Romer even found the artists' 'sketchbooks': because papyrus was expensive, they practised by drawing on pieces of rock or pottery known as *ostraca*. One of the most beautiful drawings is of a girl acrobat practising her handstands.

Influence of skilled artisans

We can see how important skilled artisans were by looking at the gravestone of the sculptor Bak, chief artist to the pharaoh Akhenaten. He helped to introduce the new Amarna style, in which paintings and sculptures tried to show people more realistically than before. When Bak made this stone for his own grave in about 1345 BCE, he realistically showed his large belly and heavy chest. He also is able to show his importance, as he wears an expensive pleated robe, as well as a long wig. His wife Tehery wears an expensive dress of fine white linen that clings to her body. She places her arm on Bak's shoulders, perhaps as a sign of affection.



Source 3.16 The gravestone of the sculptor Bak and his wife Tehery shows the realism of what is now called the Amarna Style. c. 1345 BCE (Egyptian Museum, Berlin).

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Women

Historians always try to study the lives of all the people who live in a society. Women have been referred to as ‘the other half of history’. It is especially important to discover how women lived, and whether they had equal rights to men. If all people have equal rights, they have an equal chance of living the best possible lives. If not, they may find it difficult to make the most of their skills. To discover how people lived, the historian needs evidence. Historians think that very few women in ancient Egypt learned to write. This is because there are very few surviving texts written *by* women. We only have texts written *about* women by men.

Ancient Egyptian women’s lives are not well known. They appear very early in Egyptian art, as we can see in the sculpture of a figure of a woman

holding a baby (Source 3.17). When this was carved about 3000 BCE, Egypt had recently been unified by Narmer, writing had been invented and the explosive development of Egyptian civilisation was about to occur. What place would people like this woman have in such a society?

Women did enjoy some important rights, but were not completely equal to men. Women in ancient Egypt could buy property, sign contracts and go to court if necessary. They could also control their own wealth, which was not the case in some other great civilisations.

Historian Ruth Manning found a document by a woman named Naunakhte. Naunakhte wrote angrily: ‘I am a free woman of this land. I have raised eight children, and made sure they had everything necessary in life. Now that I am old, they do not look after me as they should. I am going to give my goods to the children who do



Source 3.17 This sculpture is one of the earliest known representations of women in ancient Egypt. It shows the woman naked, holding a baby who clutches at her breast

look after me.’ This proves that this woman had the legal right to control her belongings. Egyptian women were important in their own homes. Historian Gay Robins points out that the tombs of wealthy women often have the proud name of *nebet per* (‘mistress of the house’) carved on them. She also found that men were advised to respect the skills of their wives. In a text called *The Instruction of Ani* (New Kingdom period), Ani is advised: ‘Do not control your wife in her house, when you know she is efficient. Don’t say to her: “Where is it? Get it!” when she has put it in the right place. Let your eye observe in silence, then you recognise her skill.’

Egyptian women were not forced to stay at home. They were allowed by law to work, but there were limits. One important industry was the weaving of fine linen, the fabric that was so important to the Egyptians. Women in towns could also set up stalls in marketplaces and sell food. Women who lived in the country took an equal part in the heavy work of farming. In the Papyrus of Ta-Rudj, for example, we see a painting of a young woman hard at work ploughing the fields and using a whip to move the oxen along.

as the ‘state’ gods, or gods officially worshipped by the pharaoh and by the priests in the temples. Ordinary Egyptian people could not take part in this official worship, but prayed to their local gods in their own homes.

Worship of gods

Ordinary Egyptians did not worship their gods the way we do when we go to a church or mosque. The temples were special places where a number of priests took responsibility for praying to the gods and leaving them offerings. The temple was believed to be the house where the god actually lived. The pharaoh was responsible for ensuring that temples were built, repaired and well run. Because he was also the highest priest in the land, he could enter the temples to talk to the god. Apart from him, only priests and priestesses could enter these sacred places.

Priests and priestesses

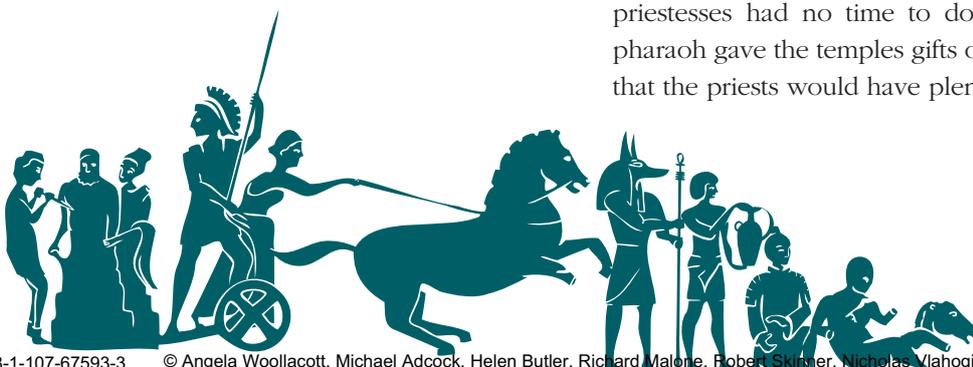
Every temple had a large number of priests and priestesses who conducted special ceremonies. Priests looked after temples for male gods and priestesses looked after temples for goddesses. Later, in the New Kingdom, priests took over all temples. These priests had to ensure they were completely pure: they had to bathe in a sacred pool, shave off all hair – even their eyelashes – and avoid certain foods. They served the statue of the god, which they believed was the actual god. First, as the sun rose, the priests had to ‘wake up’ the god: they washed it, placed fresh clothing on it, left fresh offerings of food and then respectfully left the room. They even wiped away their footprints, and carefully locked the doors with a clay seal. They washed and dressed the statue three times a day. On special holy days, they took the statue out of its special room in the temple and carried it through the streets or on a boat down the river, so that people could see it. These priests and priestesses had no time to do other work. The pharaoh gave the temples gifts of land and gold so that the priests would have plenty of food.



Significant beliefs, values and practices

What were the beliefs and values of the ancient Egyptians?

Religion was the guiding belief that shaped every aspect of Egyptian life. The Egyptians believed in 2000 different gods, each responsible for one aspect of life. The great god Osiris, for example, looked after both the dead and the forces of life, such as crops and all fertility. These were known



Source 3.18 Egyptian gods

Atum was the god who emerged from the sea at the very first creation of the world.



Re was the Sun God, and was the main god during the Old Kingdom. Amun-Re became even more important during the New Kingdom, when he was seen to back the military pharaohs in their conquests.



Osiris was both the god and the king of the underworld that lay below the living world of Egypt. It was a dangerous zone through which the soul had to pass.



Isis was the wife of Osiris, but also represented a woman's magical power to heal and to save people.



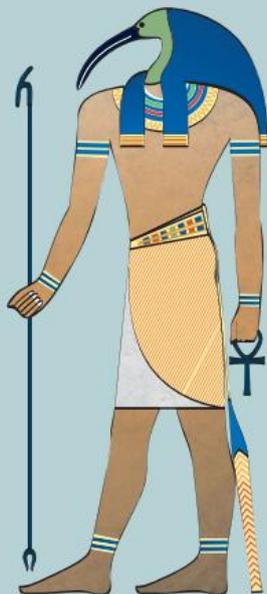
Anubis was the jackal-headed god in charge of cemeteries and the important process of mummification. The jackal was chosen because in real life jackals used to roam through cemeteries in search of food. Curiously, they came to be seen as protectors of the dead. The main state god during the New Kingdom.



Horus was the child of Osiris and Isis, and was the god who protected Egypt's current pharaoh.



Thoth was the god of the moon. He could appear as an ibis or a baboon, and served as scribe to the gods. He represented the sacred intelligence of the universe. He gave human beings the knowledge of music, writing, mathematics and art, and was protector of all scribes.



The ram-headed god **Khnum** was in charge of the Nile River, controlling its dangerous **cataracts** and deciding when the river should rise for the inundation. A destructive and mischievous god, representing disorder.

cataract a large and sudden wave of water



Burial arrangements

During the Old Kingdom and Middle Kingdom, the pharaohs built pyramids at a site near modern-day Giza. These were designed as personal burial sites for the pharaohs, their wives and children. They were called 'houses of eternity'. The first true pyramid was built by pharaoh Sneferu in 2600 BCE, and set the model for a structure with smooth sides. For the Egyptians, the mountain of stone represented the original mass of land that emerged out of the waters at the beginning of creation.

The most impressive of these structures is the Great Pyramid of Khufu, built over more than 20 years between about 2551 and 2528 BCE. It is massive: it stands 138 metres tall, on a nearly perfect square measuring 230 metres on each side. It was originally covered in white limestone, which would have gleamed brilliantly in the sun. This was later removed, leaving the large blocks of which the body of the pyramid is built.

You can still visit the inside of the pyramid, and walk along the massive Grand Gallery, about

8.5 metres high, that leads to the king's burial chamber. His **sarcophagus** is still there – it must have been placed there before the narrower entrance

passage was built – but the mummy is long gone. There are two other small, secret rooms – one in the pyramid and one underneath it – but their purpose remains a mystery. The pyramids did not serve to protect the bodies of the pharaohs: by about 1000 BCE, all of them had been looted, the treasures taken and the bodies destroyed.

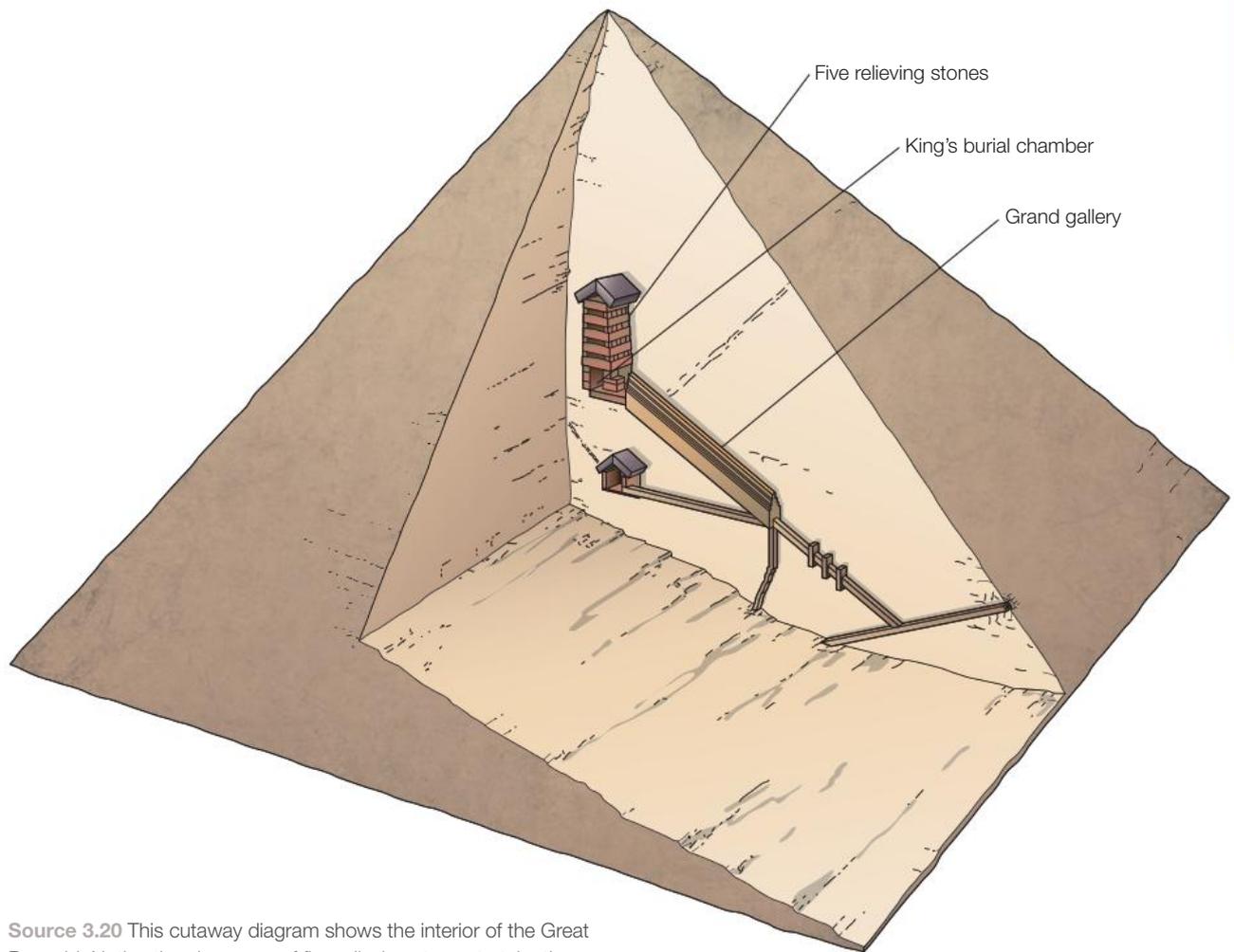
The pyramid was accompanied by three smaller pyramids for the pharaoh's three main wives. There were also boat pits containing wooden boats – laid in pieces – so that the king's body could be carried along the Nile.

Nearby is the Great Sphinx, which the Egyptians thought was a form of the Sun God. It was made by order of pharaoh Khafra (Chephren) in about 2600 BCE. This is a lion's body with a pharaoh's head, possibly Khafra's. The head has a royal head-dress and once wore a royal beard.

sarcophagus an ornate coffin adorned with lavish carvings and inscriptions

Source 3.19 The pyramids at Giza. The pyramid of pharaoh Mekkura (or Mycerinus) is on the left, the pyramid of Khafra (Chephren) in the centre and the great Pyramid of Khufu (or Cheops) on the right.





Source 3.20 This cutaway diagram shows the interior of the Great Pyramid. Notice the clever use of five relieving stones to take the pressure off the roof of the burial chamber.

The Valley of the Kings and the Valley of the Queens

During the New Kingdom, the pharaohs realised that the pyramids were targets for robbers. They ordered tombs to be cut into the cliff faces near Western Thebes, in an area now known as the Valley of Kings and the Valley of the Queens. These cliffs were only a few kilometres from the Nile, so it was easy for the priests and mourners to walk from the temples to the burial places. The tomb of Tutankhamun is located in this area.

Even so, robbers often broke into the tombs and stole the gold and jewels. Some were the workers who had built the tomb, so they knew exactly where to go. If they were caught, they were drowned, burned alive or impaled on a sharpened stake.

How were the pyramids at Giza built?

From the moment they were built, the pyramids were buildings of amazing size and beauty. For centuries they have caused historians, archaeologists and other writers to wonder why they were built, and how. It is agreed now that the pyramids were an early form of royal burial, and historians and archaeologists have hypothesised how humans could have created these ancient wonders.

First, stone could have been cut using copper saws with semi-precious jewel stones fixed to the teeth; large stones could be cut by inserting wooden wedges into cracks, and wetting the wedges to make the wood expand. Second, the stones could have been moved using rollers and ramps of mud-brick and rubble. It does

seem that this would have been hard work, but not impossible: vast ramps had to be made as the pyramid grew higher. Each stone weighed about as much as a modern car, and it had to be dragged on a sled, since there were no wheels strong enough to carry the weight.

The Egyptians simply used thousands of strong workers: just one barracks discovered near the pyramids was big enough to house 4000

workers. The popular belief that the stones were pulled along by thousands of groaning slaves is unlikely to be true: the workers were in fact local farmers who could not work their land due to the inundation, and who were very happy to have paid work during this off-season. Far from being whipped and mistreated, they were well housed in special villages near the pyramids, and were paid with food and other goods.

HISTORICAL FACT

The 'mystery of the pyramids' has become an obsession with some people to the point where they have started to speculate on wacky and wonderful theories. One amateur historian calculated that the height of the great pyramid at Giza was exactly the measure, many times over, of the distance from the earth to the moon. Later, he realised that he had miscalculated the actual height of the pyramid, and was discovered on top of the pyramid with a hammer and chisel, feverishly trying to chip off some stone to make the height of the pyramid fit his calculations! Others suggested, with no evidence, that the pyramids might have been built by the people of the lost civilisation of Atlantis. Still more have argued that the pyramids could only have been built by some highly advanced civilisation from another planet, which might have used the pyramids like landing beacons for its spacecraft!

What did the ancient Egyptians believe happened after death?

In all civilisations, one of the most important beliefs is the way people make sense of the experience of death. All people wonder what becomes of a person once they have died, and they wonder whether there is an 'afterlife'. The Egyptians believed the story of Osiris. He had been killed by his jealous brother Set, but his faithful wife Isis had repaired his body and brought him back to life. This made the Egyptians think that it was possible to have a life after death.

The ancient Egyptians thought of the after-life as a paradise. This idea only developed slowly over time. During the early period, they believed that only their mighty pharaohs could achieve the god-like journey from the tomb to go and

live with the gods. By the Middle Kingdom, however, nobles, high officials, then craftsmen and even ordinary working people wanted to make sure that they could also make the journey to paradise. Long before the end of their lives, they would start to plan a tomb and to buy all the things they would need to complete the journey successfully.

Mummification: A one-way ticket to eternity

In some societies, people have the tradition of simply burying their dead in coffins, or of cremating the body in a fire. The ancient Egyptians did far more to look after the bodies of the dead. The process of mummifying, or preserving, a body began accidentally. People may have noticed that when they buried a body in the hot, dry sand, it dried out and did not decay.

afterlife the second stage of life, when the souls of the dead go to another world



Source 3.21 The mummified body of Ramses II, buried about 1340 BCE

When a person died, the body was taken to the embalmer's workshop, which was called 'The House of Strength'. The process of embalming a body was considered to be magical, and the embalmers may have worn masks in the shape of the jackal-headed god Anubis. They prepared the body so it would not decay. The brain was taken out through the nose, and apparently thrown away. A small slit was then made in the side of the body. The embalmer removed the liver, stomach, intestines and lungs, and carefully put each one in a special storage jar known as a canopic jar. Each jar was protected by a special god: Hapi protected the lungs, Duamutef protected the stomach, Imsety looked after the liver and Qebhsenuf guarded the intestines. The space left in the body was packed with natron, a natural salt. The body was then

placed on a slanted table and completely covered with natron. Any fluids draining out of the body ran down a special groove in the stone tabletop. The body was left drying in the salt for about 40 days. Then the natron packs were removed. The body was washed down with oils, ointments, spices and resin. The eyes were filled with linen and the nostrils were plugged with beeswax. The fingers and the toes were covered with gold caps. Then the cut in the stomach was carefully sewn up again.

The Egyptians believed that the dead person needed everyday items for use in the afterlife. The most important was the *shabti*, or small figure representing a servant. This small clay figure was magically changed into a real worker once the dead person reached the afterlife.

HISTORICAL FACT

During mummification, the Egyptians pulled the brain out of the skull through the nostrils, using a long, curved hook, and threw it away. They thought that all memories of good and bad actions were kept in the heart. This was carefully stored in a jar near the mummified body. By now, the body was ready for a very long journey. It was wrapped with long strips of linen. Every few layers, glue was pasted on to hold the linen together.



Source 3.22 Australia is home to a number of ancient Egyptians. The mummy of Tjeby, for example, is located in Melbourne at the Museum of Victoria.

HISTORICAL FACT

The embalmers used nearly 5 kilometres of cloth strips to wrap up a body.



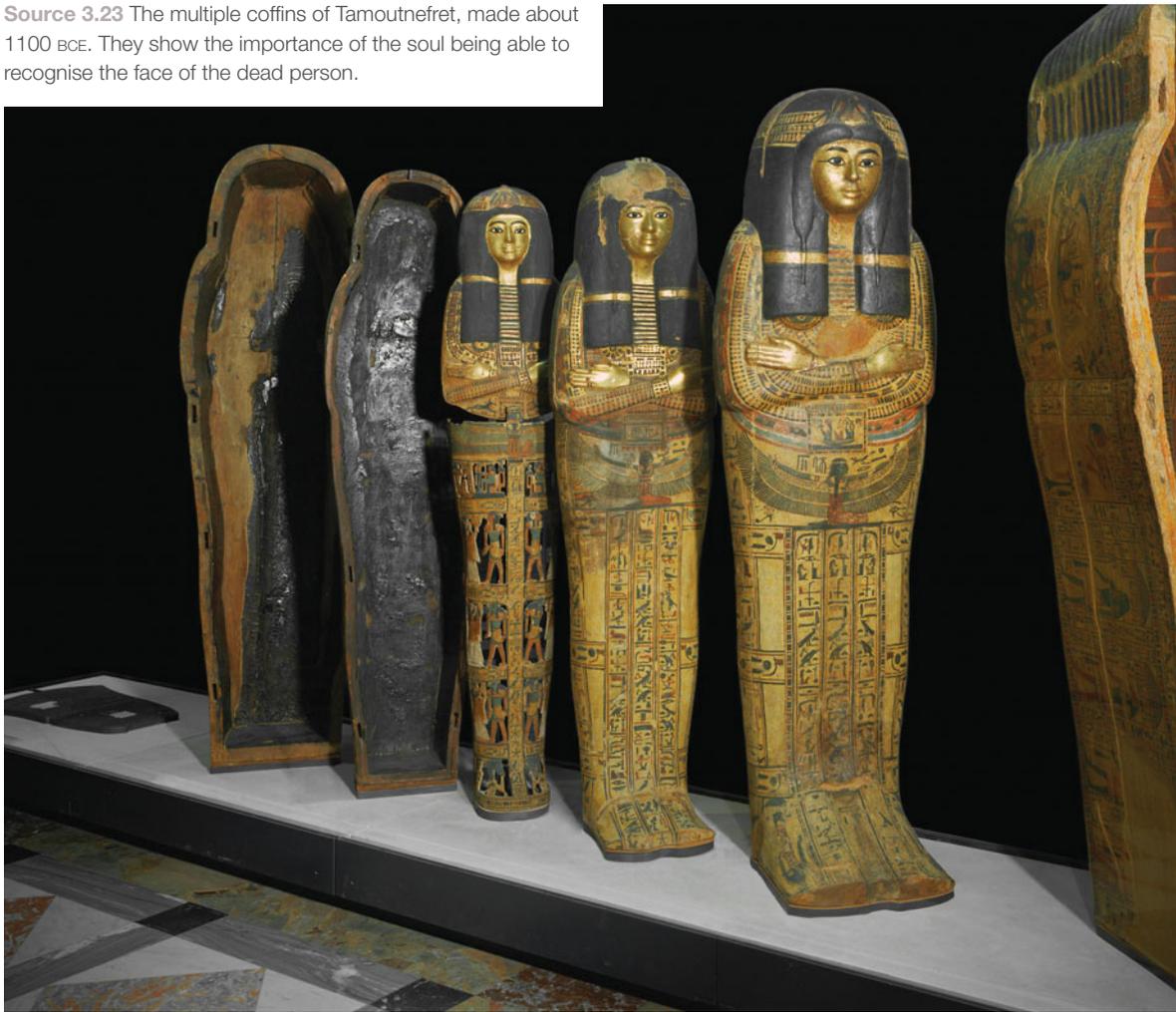
Activity 3.2

Imagine you are the head of an embalming workshop in Thebes. You must train new workers in the ancient secrets of embalming. You know that every detail must be perfect if the body is going to make its way successfully through time. You decide to hire a scribe and a painter to make a papyrus explaining every step of the process. Your 'manual' must be clear on what embalmers have to do and why. It should include the following:

- the actual process of mummification
- a list of objects that may need to be put in the grave
- pictures drawn in the flat Egyptian style.

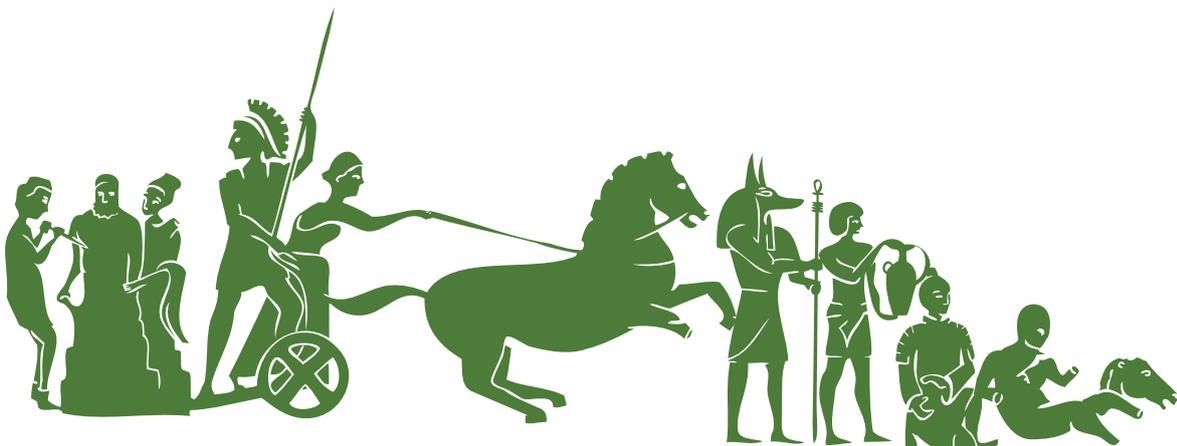
Alternatively, you may like to do a role-play and conduct a training session using your classmates as trainee mummifiers. You may also need a volunteer to lie on the table and be your corpse so you can demonstrate your techniques.

Source 3.23 The multiple coffins of Tamoutnefret, made about 1100 BCE. They show the importance of the soul being able to recognise the face of the dead person.



HISTORICAL FACT

Historians still do not know where the word 'mummy' comes from. It is possible that it comes from an Arabic word, *mumiyah*, meaning tar. A cheap form of mummification for poorer people was to dip the body in tar. In later centuries, travellers in the desert found tarred bodies that had been uncovered, and they snapped off pieces to make campfires.





Contacts and conflicts

Civilisations make contact with each other through warfare and trade. They can be changed by contacts with other people who have different beliefs and technologies. If the Egyptians had a fault, it was that they were happily unaware of other great civilisations. They thought of the world as being made up of two types of people: Egyptians and outsiders. They found it difficult to admit that other people could create civilisations too. They even refused to use the word 'king' for other societies: only Egypt was civilised enough to have a pharaoh. It was therefore quite difficult to have to admit that other civilisations were more powerful, especially

when they defeated Egypt in battle or even invaded the country! Egypt suffered the invasion of an Asian people whom they described as

Hyksos people of Asian and Semitic descent who settled in Egypt

Hyksos in about 1670 BCE. While this invasion was seen as a bad experience, even this contact brought important changes. In about 1640 BCE, the Egyptians adopted the horse-drawn war chariot. They learned about new weapons, such as plated armour, the composite bow and the curved sword. The Egyptians also learned from the Hyksos how to make bronze, which is stronger than copper, and to make greater use of silver.

Civilisations also contact each other by trade. The Egyptians traded with other countries from the earliest days. During the Middle Kingdom (2050–1786 BCE), Egypt traded widely with countries such as Syria, Palestine, Crete and Nubia. Nubia was an important source of gold, and a gateway to trade with the rest of Africa. By the time of the New Kingdom (1567–1085 BCE), Egypt was a powerful country, stretching all the way from Sudan in the south to Syria in the north. It traded with all the other important countries in its region, including what today are Greece, Turkey, Iran and Iraq.



Source 3.24 Map of Egyptian trade routes

Trade made Egypt even wealthier. It was conducted by exchange: before money was invented, traders simply gave one good in return for another. Egyptians had plenty of food to trade, including wheat, barley and dried fish. They also had resources such as copper, gold and precious stones. They sold their special products such as papyrus to make paper and fine linen. In return, trade brought them some new luxury goods. From lands such as Nubia and Punt, in the area we now know as Africa, they were able to gain rare materials such as ivory from the tusks of elephants, colourful feathers from ostriches,

brilliantly coloured gems and ebony. They particularly valued **myrrh**, and bought whole myrrh trees to plant in Egypt. From the Middle East, they gained silver

myrrh a gum resin used in perfume, medicines and incense

to make jewels and other precious objects, cedar wood to make furniture and statues, incense to burn in their temple ceremonies and a rare blue stone, lapis lazuli, for special decorations. The Egyptians also imported animals. Some, such as leopards and monkeys, were simply unusual and interesting. Others, such as camels and horses, completely changed the way the Egyptians

travelled. Others, such as chickens, gave them new types of food they had not enjoyed before. Finally, they traded slaves. Egyptian traders were willing to travel a long way. They even designed boats that could be pulled to pieces, carried across the desert, then put back together on the Red Sea ready for a trading journey.

Role of significant individuals



Pharaoh Djoser (Old Kingdom)

During the reign of King Djoser (Third Dynasty, 2667–2648 BCE), the Egyptians made an important advance in building. Until the Third Dynasty, the Egyptians built with mud brick, reeds and wood. Djoser's architect Imhotep translated the shapes of the early brick tombs into limestone. The result was the step pyramid, the world's first monument built entirely of stone. It included a *serdab*, or statue room, from which the king viewed his kingdom.

Source 3.25 Djoser's step pyramid: the world's first great monument, built entirely of stone





Source 3.26
The serdab, or statue room, at Djoser's pyramid



Source 3.27 Djoser's statue in the serdab in his pyramid: the eyes were damaged when thieves cut out the precious stones that had been set into the statue.

Pharaoh Cheops (Old Kingdom)

During the reign of King Cheops, or Khufu (Fourth Dynasty, 2589–2566 BCE), the Egyptians fully developed the pyramid. It was a massive project: an estimated 2 300 000 blocks of stone were used, each weighing 2.3 tonnes. Khufu remains mysterious: there are no statues of him remaining at the pyramid. Only one inscription inside the pyramid identifies it as being his place of burial.



Source 3.28 This tiny statue carved in ivory is the only known image of Cheops. It was made in about 2560 BCE.

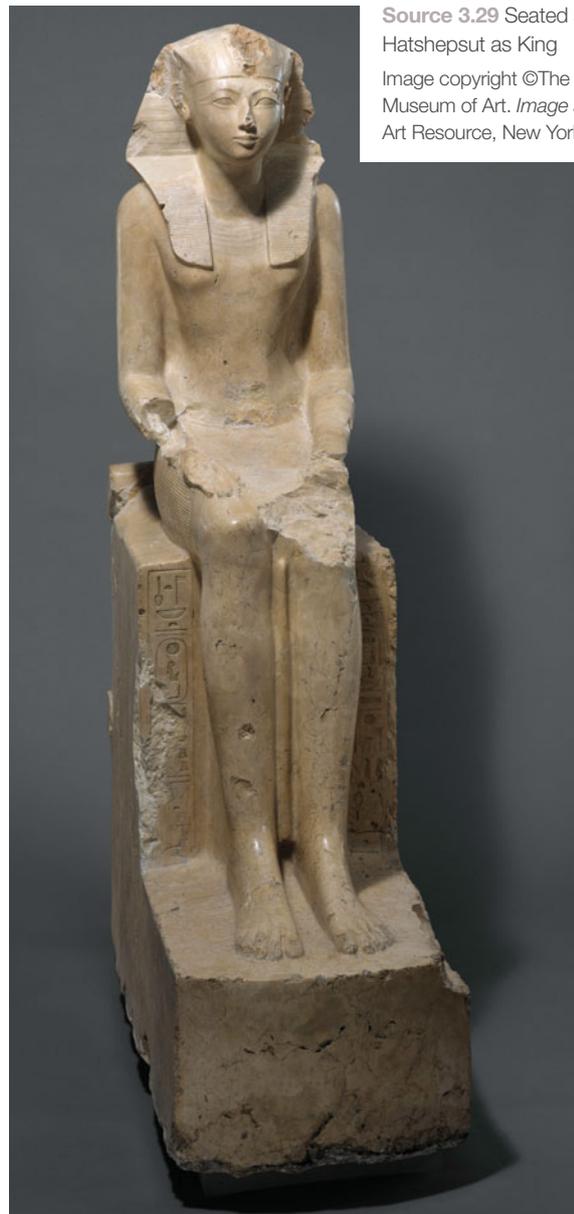
Hatshepsut

Although Egyptian women enjoyed some equal rights with men in everyday life, it was not the same in the world of government. The pharaoh was expected to be male. In the fifteenth century BCE, Queen Hatshepsut proved that a woman could rule well and solve Egypt's problems. Hatshepsut became queen when her brother, Thutmose II, came to the throne in 1482 BCE.

When he died in 1472 BCE, his son, Thutmose III, was only six years old and too young to rule. Hatshepsut stepped in to become **regent**. She then took on a pharaoh's duties, such as making offerings to the gods.

regent a ruler who steps in temporarily to rule because the person who is to be pharaoh is not yet old enough to take up his or her position of authority

Later, she took the title of pharaoh herself and put Thutmose in second place. She reigned for 21 years. Hatshepsut even decided to dress like a male, wearing the pharaoh's full crown and beard. Few people saw the pharaoh in real life, so she could use artworks to give the impression that she was actually male. The earliest statues showed her as a woman, but later statues showed her as a male. Because she was all-powerful and



Source 3.29 Seated statue of Hatshepsut as King

Image copyright ©The Metropolitan Museum of Art. *Image source:* Art Resource, New York



Source 3.30 This head of Hatshepsut was made in about 1460 BCE. It was originally a part of a statue of a sphinx. She wears a strap-on beard, but her face is clearly female



Source 3.31 This stone block was ordered by Hatshepsut to remind people that she had done good work restoring the Temple of Karnak. In this scene, she is making an offering to the god Amon (left).

Source 3.32 This engraved piece of quartzite stone shows Hatshepsut as a male pharaoh, with two of the obelisks, or stone pillars, she had built at Luxor.



paid for the statues, she could tell the sculptor that she wanted to be shown wearing the pharaoh's robes and even a false, strap-on beard.

Hatshepsut showed that a capable person could improve Egypt's position, even though she was not the male ruler people expected. She helped Egypt to recover its economic wealth by bringing the country's finances back into order. She also launched a program of building, repairing temples damaged by the Hyksos invaders.

Hatshepsut disappears from history

Hatshepsut's capable rule ended when she died in 1458 BCE. It is not known how she died. Her stepson, Thutmose III, became pharaoh. He destroyed all signs of her rule, even chipping her name off the front of her great buildings. Historians thought he was angry, but in fact he did not order this until twenty years after her death. He probably wanted to destroy any memory that a woman had ruled Egypt, to prevent it happening again. When records are destroyed, historians have no evidence to go by, and they are left wondering what really drove her to seize power. Historians feel that they still do not know enough about Hatshepsut.

A modern detective story: Hatshepsut reappears

For many years, archaeologists thought that they would never find Hatshepsut's mummy. Howard Carter discovered her stone coffin in the Valley of the Kings in 1903, but there was no body inside. He thought Thutmose had destroyed her mummy as well her statues. The story of her rediscovery is like a detective story in archaeology. Recently, archaeologist Zahi Hawass, leader of the Egyptian Mummy Project, looked more carefully at all the unnamed female mummies of the Eighteenth Dynasty. He focused on two, found in tomb 60 in the Valley of the Kings. Hawass spent four months passing the two bodies through modern CT scanners, but remained unsure. The case seemed hopeless. Then he remembered that a box had been found with Hatshepsut's name on it, containing her liver. When he checked the box, he also found a broken tooth. With the help of a dental expert, he discovered that the tooth exactly fitted the jaw of the larger of the two mummies. If the naming of the box was correct, and if the tooth came from Hatshepsut, then the body he had found must be that of the missing queen-pharaoh. You can follow this story at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks.

Source 3.33 Dr Zahi Hawass inspects the mummy that is later proved to be Hatshepsut.



Times gone by ...

Historian Jennifer Lawless states that Hatshepsut recorded what she had done in her reign by carving an inscription on her temple at Speos Artemidos:

I am the maker of all that is, chosen by Re when he created our land. The Black Land and the Red Land fear me. My power makes foreign countries bow down. The uraeus on my brow tames all other lands. Foreign lands have not remained hidden from my mighty self.

I rebuilt the Temple of the Lady of Cusae. I gave a gold sculpture of her figure to be carried in festivals. I reconstructed several temples that had been ruined. Thoth, the great, told me to give an offering of silver and gold, boxes of linen cloth and every kind of furniture.

My army used to lack equipment. Since I have been king, it is wealthy.

Listen, all you nobles and common folk. I have done these things by my own wish. I have made strong what was decayed. My command stands firm like the mountains. My falcon rises high above the king's banner into all eternity.

Source 3.34 Hatshepsut declares her authority and goodness

Study Source 3.34 and answer the following questions:

- 1 Explain why Hatshepsut believed that the 'uraeus' symbol on her head-dress made foreign countries obey her.
- 2 How did Egyptians use the rich myrrh that she bought in foreign lands?
- 3 Discuss how Hatshepsut improved the temples that had been damaged.
- 4 Consider how Hatshepsut describes her power and authority. Identify two descriptions she uses.

Pharaoh Akhenaten (New Kingdom)

In a society where the ruler was all-powerful, the pharaoh could decide to introduce important changes to his people's lives and beliefs. In Egypt, the most serious change to religion and to art was made by pharaoh Amenhotep IV (Eighteenth Dynasty, 1352–1336 BCE). He ordered that the whole range of gods and goddesses be replaced by one god, Aten, the Sun God. He even changed his name to Akhenaten, meaning 'The Goodness of Aten'. To help make this important change, he founded a new city named Akhetaten ('Horizon of the Aten'). He did not even allow a statue of Aten: the god was shown simply by the circle of the Sun itself. He sent officials out across Egypt to smash statues of the other gods. The Egyptian people were deeply unhappy. They had worshipped the sun before, but they had never been ordered to worship the Sun God alone. They were also angry

that paintings showed Aten giving his attention only to Akhenaten and the royal family. Engravings of the pharaoh worshipping showed the rays of the sun coming down to his family, and giving them little *ankh* ('sign of life') symbols. Ordinary people were used to praying to the gods to protect them; now they could only look at scenes of the pharaoh praying to the Sun God. They probably disobeyed the pharaoh's orders and secretly worshipped their traditional gods at home.

Akhenaten made another important change by creating a completely new style in Egyptian art. Artists now did many scenes of the pharaoh and the royal family. In every scene, the royal figures seem to have strange shapes: fat bellies, buttocks and thighs, and spindly legs. Their heads are unusual: the skull is long and slanting, and the face has thick lips. Historians still cannot decide whether the members of his family actually looked like this, or whether Akhenaten told his artists to show them this way to make them seem



Source 3.35 Akhenaten is shown sitting with his family, below the disc of the Sun, while Aten sends down beams of light that give the life symbol directly to the pharaoh and his family.

strange and godlike. The archaeologist Cyril Aldred believes that Akhenaten may have suffered from an illness called Frohlich's Disease, which causes the body to develop very fatty areas around the upper part, but to have thin lower arms and legs.

Akhenaten paid a heavy price for his actions. After his death, his religion

was called a **heresy**.

His city was completely destroyed.

heresy a belief that is against what is generally accepted



Source 3.36 This statue of Akhenaten is done in what is now known as the Amarna style.



Source 3.37 This sculpture shows Nefertiti to have been one of the most beautiful women of the ancient world.

Nefertiti

Queen Nefertiti (1380–1340 BCE) was Akhenaten's wife. Her name means 'a beautiful person has come'. Many artworks show her and her family of six daughters as being close to the pharaoh. Some paintings or engravings show her to be equal to her husband. For example, she is shown making offerings to the god Aten. A famous statue shows her wearing a special blue crown never seen before. One engraving even shows her driving a war chariot against foreign enemies. The end of her life remains a mystery. She may have been replaced by another ruler called Smenkhara, or she may have been renamed Smenkhara. The date of her death is not known. Her tomb was probably at Amarna, but few objects have been found.

Tutankhamun (New Kingdom)

Tutankhamun is one of the most famous pharaohs. His name means ‘The living image of Amun’. He is known as the boy-king because he came to the throne at the age of nine. He reigned for 10 years (1333–1323 BCE). He restored order to Egypt by reversing his father Akhenaten’s worship of the Sun God. He led his people to return to the old religion, with Amun again the main god. He changed his name from Tutankhaten to Tutankhamun to show his loyalty to the god. He moved the capital of Egypt away from his father’s city of Akhetaten back to Thebes, and restored temples and statues of the other gods of Egypt. Tutankhamun died quite suddenly in 1327 BCE. For some time, historians wondered whether he had been murdered by enemies. Recently, they have used modern medical machines,

such as CT scanners, to look more carefully at his mummified body. In 2010, they found that his left thigh bone had been smashed, perhaps in a hunting accident. This had created a deep wound, which may have become infected. His leg certainly still had a large open wound when it was mummified.

Tutankhamun is also famous because of a stroke of luck. All pharaohs were buried with many treasures for use in the afterlife, but most tombs were later robbed. The entrance to Tutankhamun’s tomb was accidentally covered over by the building of a worker’s hut. This kept the entrance hidden until the British archaeologist Howard Carter discovered it in 1922. For the first time, historians could see a nearly complete royal burial. You can see Tutankhamun’s treasure in the Egyptian Museum in Cairo. It is really a time capsule that has brought these beautiful objects through 3000 years of time.

Source 3.38 This double statue shows King Tutankhamun (right) with the great god Amun-Re (left). Both wear false beards, showing that they are gods. The pharaoh was believed to be descended from Ra, the Sun God.



Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the information on the pharaohs listed above, including key advancements during their reign.

Pharaoh	Advancement
• Pharaoh Djoser	• Building

Rameses II, The Great (New Kingdom)

In many societies, rulers try to impress their people by great building projects. They hope to be remembered in the future by their achievements. Rameses II (Nineteenth Dynasty, 1279–1213 BCE) enjoyed a long reign of 67 years. In this time, he built many temples such as Abu Simbel. He ordered enormous statues of himself, such as the twin statues at Luxor. He had a large number of wives, of whom Nefertari is the most famous. He had over one hundred children by these wives. He was also famous as a warrior king because he created descriptions and pictures of his wars. In reality, it is not clear whether he really defeated Egypt's enemies, the Hittites, in the famous Battle of Kadesh.



Source 3.39 This statue of Rameses II shows him sitting on his throne, wearing the War Crown. The small figure of Nefertari is beside him.

Research 3.2

Go online and research one of the following people in more detail:

- King Narmer (King Menes)
- King Cheops
- Imhotep
- King Rameses II
- 'King' Hatshepsut
- King Akhenaten
- King Tutankhamun
- Queen Nefertiti
- Queen Cleopatra VII.

Be sure to research the major achievements of the pharaoh you choose, and evaluate the role of the person selected. Present your findings on a poster.

Activity 3.3

Choose a partner and write a short role-play between the two people whose names are printed in bold:

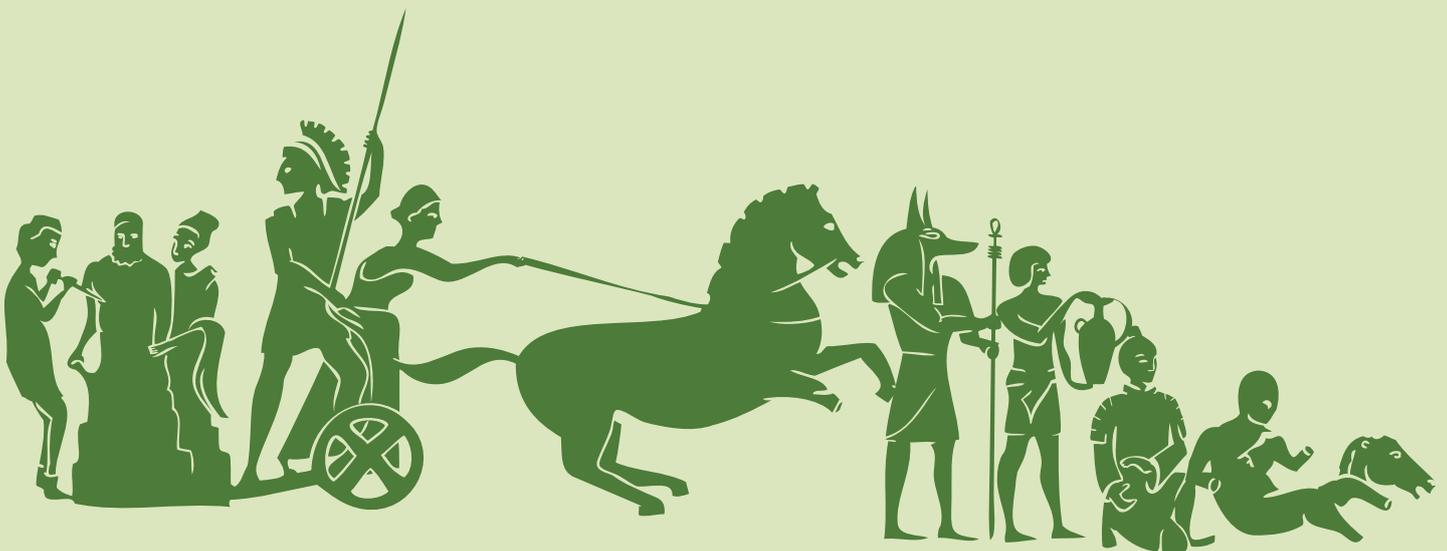
- **King Narmer** (Pre-Dynastic Period) describes to his **vizier** how he won the battle that united Upper and Lower Egypt, and the vizier praises him for the results.
- **Pharaoh Djoser** (Old Kingdom) summons his vizier **Imhotep** and explains that he has a vision for a vast building made entirely of stone. The two men discuss the difficulties of such a large project, and plan ways of overcoming them.
- **Pharaoh Hatshepsut** (New Kingdom) debates or argues with **Thutmose III** why Egypt has benefited from her taking control of government.
- **Pharaoh Akhenaten** (New Kingdom), the maker of the single Sun God religion, has to face up to the **god Amen** in the afterlife and explain his actions.
- **Pharaoh Tutankhamun** receives a deputation from the **high priests of Egypt**, who argue that they must bring back the traditional gods. How would Tutankhamun reply to them?
- **Pharaoh Rameses II** explains how he organised his great military campaign at Kadesh, while the **Hittite general** argues that there was no victory.

Research 3.3

One of the best ways of gaining a deeper knowledge of Egyptian culture is to investigate excavations that are happening at the present time. Each discovery brings new and interesting information to light. Many of the most important excavations are being conducted by teams of Australian archaeologists, working at sites such as Helwan, Saqqara, Meir, Tehra and Thebes. Write a report about the work of Australian archaeologists at three excavation sites in Egypt. In your report, identify what sort of site they are excavating, what they have found and what this tells us about life in ancient Egypt. The Australian Centre for Egyptology at Macquarie University has a website which may assist you with your report. Find the link at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks.

Chapter summary

- The nature of any land will affect the sort of society that develops there. In the case of Egypt, most of the land – the desert – worked against human life. The River Nile made it possible for humans to survive, and even live very well, in its rich valley.
- Settlement in Egypt started very early and grew very quickly. Once people had discovered how many resources the river gave, they learned to keep farm animals and plant crops.
- As they settled down in one place, people were able to build houses, then villages, then cities. The rich mud of the river and the burning sun gave them everything they needed to make mud bricks for thousands of buildings.
- In terms of government, the Egyptians began in smaller tribes, which then joined together until the country was ruled by a King of Upper Egypt and a King of Lower Egypt. King Narmer finally brought them together in one country in about 3100 BCE.
- The Egyptians quickly found that they only needed some people to grow enough food for everybody. This meant that others were free to take up other jobs and become expert in them. Some became priests, some architects and builders, some scribes and artists.
- Egypt was unusually big: it covered a vast area, and had a large population of five million people. One of the secrets of the Egyptians' success was a strong, centralised government in the hands of a powerful ruler, the pharaoh, who was served by a large number of officials who helped him rule (a bureaucracy).
- To rule Egypt, it was important to have a way of giving people orders, telling them of new laws and recording the taxes they paid. The Egyptians may have invented writing first, and by themselves, or they may have learned it from the nearby civilisation of Sumer.
- Egypt also had a very strictly ordered social system. People obeyed the laws and knew their place in society. Historians know a lot about groups of people who were rich and powerful, and who could pay for works of art and good tombs. Historians admit that it is more difficult to find out about people who were not powerful, such as women, peasant farmers, workers, slaves and children.
- Egypt is famous for its complicated system of religion. The Egyptians believed that it was possible to survive death and to go on to the afterlife, providing the body was preserved so that the soul could return to it. This belief inspired great buildings, such as the pyramids for the pharaohs and the many beautiful painted tombs found in the Valley of the Kings and elsewhere.



End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

- The river that flows through Egypt is the:
 - Tigris
 - Euphrates
 - Nile
 - Jordan
- The pyramids were initially built as:
 - fortifications
 - royal palaces
 - safe storerooms
 - safe burial places
- The writing of the ancient Egyptians was called:
 - cuneiform
 - hieroglyphics
 - italics
 - pinyin
- Which statement about mummification in ancient Egypt is false?
 - Mummification in ancient Egypt was expensive and time-consuming.
 - When a pharaoh's mummy was complete, a priest would touch the mouth of the mummy with a stick so that the pharaoh could breathe and speak in the afterlife.
 - The mummy was wrapped in about twenty layers of linen.
 - The Egyptians were very careful about preserving the brain of a mummified person.
- British archaeologist Howard Carter uncovered this pharaoh's tomb in 1922:
 - Tutankhamun
 - Menes
 - Thutmose II
 - Ptolemy I

Short answer

- Explain why the Egyptians called their country 'Beloved Land'.
- How was ancient Egypt protected from invaders by natural borders?
- The Egyptian dynasties were divided into three periods. What were their names and why were they divided?
- Outline how Hatshepsut became the pharaoh.
- Analyse how contact with other cultures, in war and trade, helped to change and improve Egypt.



Source analysis

Study Source 3.40 and answer the following questions.

- 1 Make a list of the symbols of royal authority that you can see on this statue.
- 2 Why would most Egyptians easily have understood the meaning of the pharaoh's symbols of the crook and the flail?
- 3 How was the unification of Upper and Lower Egypt shown in the shape of the pharaoh's crown?
- 4 Look carefully at any statues of important people in the area where you live. What sorts of people do we build statues of today?
- 5 Consider who is the most powerful and important person in Australia today. How does this person show their authority?

Source 3.40 This granite statue shows the great Rameses II sitting on his throne and holding his symbols of royal authority.

Extended response

You are a leading expert on ancient Egyptian tombs, and you have just been called by the Director of Antiquities to come to Egypt. The breaking news is that an important pharaoh's tomb has just been discovered and it is in perfect condition. The doors had been well hidden, and as a result robbers had not broken in to remove objects. The wall paintings and the treasures are all still in place. This is the most significant step forward in Egyptology since the discovery of Tutankhamun's tomb in 1922. You have been called in to write a report for a major news network and for newspapers across the world. Using your own knowledge of other pharaohs' tombs, give information about the contents of this new tomb:

- Write a description of the shape of the tomb and the protection of the mummy of the pharaoh.
- Describe what sorts of precious objects are in the tomb.
- Explain why your pharaoh needed magical items such as *shabtis*.
- Identify and analyse what is shown in the wall paintings, such as 'The Opening of the Mouth Ceremony'.
- Present photographs, maps and diagrams to help the public understand what has been found.
- Provide interviews – for example, with the workers who first made the discovery.
- You may make up the name of your pharaoh, but you should include real historical information based on what you know about actual burials in the Valley of the Kings.

Source 3.41 Tutankhamun's coffin on display at the Museum of Egyptian Antiquities, Cairo



4



Ancient Greece

Source 4.1 Temple of Poseidon (God of the Sea), Cape Sounion, Attica near Athens

Before you start

Main focus

The political and social systems of ancient Greece form the foundation for Western society, and are seen by many historians as a point of origin for Western culture.

Why it's relevant today

Ancient Greek society has had a major influence on Western society for the last two millennia. Studying this civilisation enables a deeper understanding of important elements of modern society, including democracy, philosophy and the arts.

Inquiry questions

- What do we know about ancient Greece and how do we know it?
- Why and where did ancient Greek societies develop?
- What were the defining characteristics of ancient Greece?
- What is the legacy of ancient Greece?

Key terms

- Attica
- democracy
- Hellas
- *hoplite*
- Mycenaeans
- oligarchy
- oracle
- Peloponnese
- *polis*

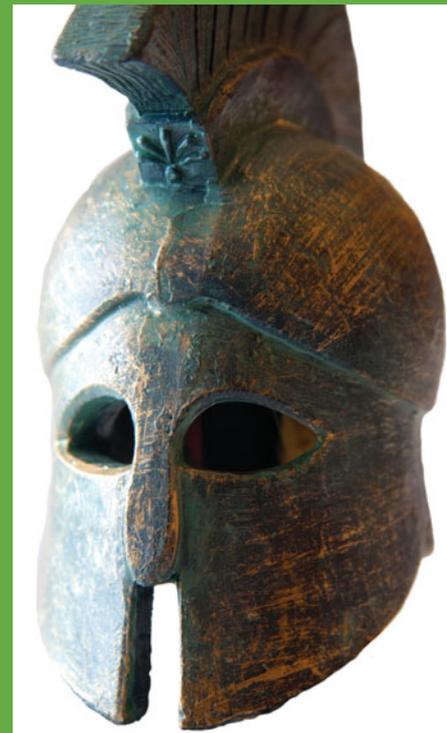
Significant individuals

- Homer
- Darius I ('the Great')
- Kleisthenes
- Leonidas
- Miltiades
- Pericles
- Praxilla
- Themistocles
- Xerxes
- Sophocles
- Aristophanes
- Euripedes
- Plato
- Socrates
- Aristotle

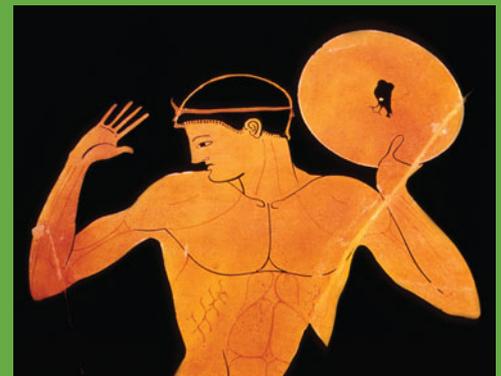
Let's begin

Ancient Greek civilisation had a profound influence on the region around the Mediterranean Sea for over 500 years. It reached its peak in the fifth and fourth centuries BCE, but its effects go beyond this and are still apparent. Many of the institutions of ancient Greece survive in our society and provide a connection between antiquity and the present. The Olympic Games, for example, is a direct link with the past and a reminder of the impact that civilisation can have through non-violent means.

The Greeks made new discoveries in science and mathematics. They developed new forms of government, such as democracy, in which people governed themselves rather than submitting to the rule of a king. They also invented drama, writing stories and plays that continue to be performed today. As well as this, it was an age of great thinkers, and many of the ancient Greek philosophers have influenced how we see the world today. Accordingly, ancient Greece is often called the Cradle of Western Civilisation.



Source 4.2 Spartan helmet



Source 4.3 Ancient Olympic athlete



Source 4.4 The Theatre of Dionysus in Athens

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS	WORLD EVENTS
3000 BCE
Minoan civilisation in Crete c. 3000–1600 BCE	c. 3100–2686 BCE Early Egyptian dynastic period
Greek speaking tribes enter Greece c. 3000–1450 BCE	c. 2500 BCE Indus River Valley civilisation develops
2000 BCE
Mycenaean civilisation c. 2000–1100 BCE	c. 1600 BCE Shang dynasty begins in China
Phoenician civilisation c. 1500–300 BCE	c. 1600 BCE Thera destroyed by volcano
Athens established c. 1400 BCE	c. 1674–1550 BCE Hyksos rule Egypt
Trojan War c. early 1100s BCE	1550–1085 BCE New Kingdom in Egypt
Dorians overrun Mycenaeans c. 1100 BCE	c. 1391–1358 BCE Amarna period in Egypt
Period of Dark Age c. 1100–900 BCE	c. 1368–1349 BCE Reign of Tutankhamun
1000 BCE
Last Athenian king dies c. 900 BCE	c. 1070–712 BCE Third Egyptian intermediate period
Greek <i>poleis</i> and colonisation c. 750 BCE	. .
<i>Iliad</i> and <i>Odyssey</i> written c. 700s BCE	c. 753 BCE Rome is founded
Early Athenian democracy c. 750–594 BCE	c. 509 BCE Romans overthrow the Etruscan ruling family and establish a republic
Peisistratid tyranny in Athens c. 546–527 BCE	. .
Kleisthenes' reforms c. 508–507 BCE	. .
500 BCE
Ionian revolt c. 499–492 BCE	. .
Greco-Persian Wars c. 490–479 BCE	340 BCE The Latin War begins
Pericles' democratic reforms c. 460s BCE	. .
Peloponnesian War c. 431–404 BCE	44 BCE Assassination of Julius Caesar
400 BCE
Battle of Leuctra c. 371 BCE	c. 27 BCE Principate – Roman Empire begins
Assassination of Phillip II of Macedon c. 336 BCE	. .
Alexander's reign c. 336–323 BCE	. .
300 BCE
1 CE . .	c. 1 CE The traditional date of the birth of Christ



Source 4.5 A map of ancient Greece



Physical features and their influence

Phoenicians seafaring and trading civilisation from the eastern Mediterranean that was active between 1500 and 300 BCE

Minoans name given by Sir Arthur Evans to the civilisation that existed on the island of Crete until about 1450 BCE

Mycenaeans Greeks who conquered the Minoans and flourished as a civilisation in southern Greece between 1600 and 1100 BCE

When historians talk about the civilisation of the ancient Greeks, they generally refer to the time period between 1200 BCE and 323 BCE, the year Alexander the Great died. The geographical area to which they refer stretches from the European mainland to the islands in the Aegean Sea to cities in Anatolia (modern-day Turkey). Therefore, when we think about ancient Greece, we must consider the societies in that area that influenced ancient Greek culture. The most notable of these Mediterranean cultures were the **Phoenicians**, **Minoans** and **Mycenaeans**.

Phoenicians, Minoans and Mycenaeans

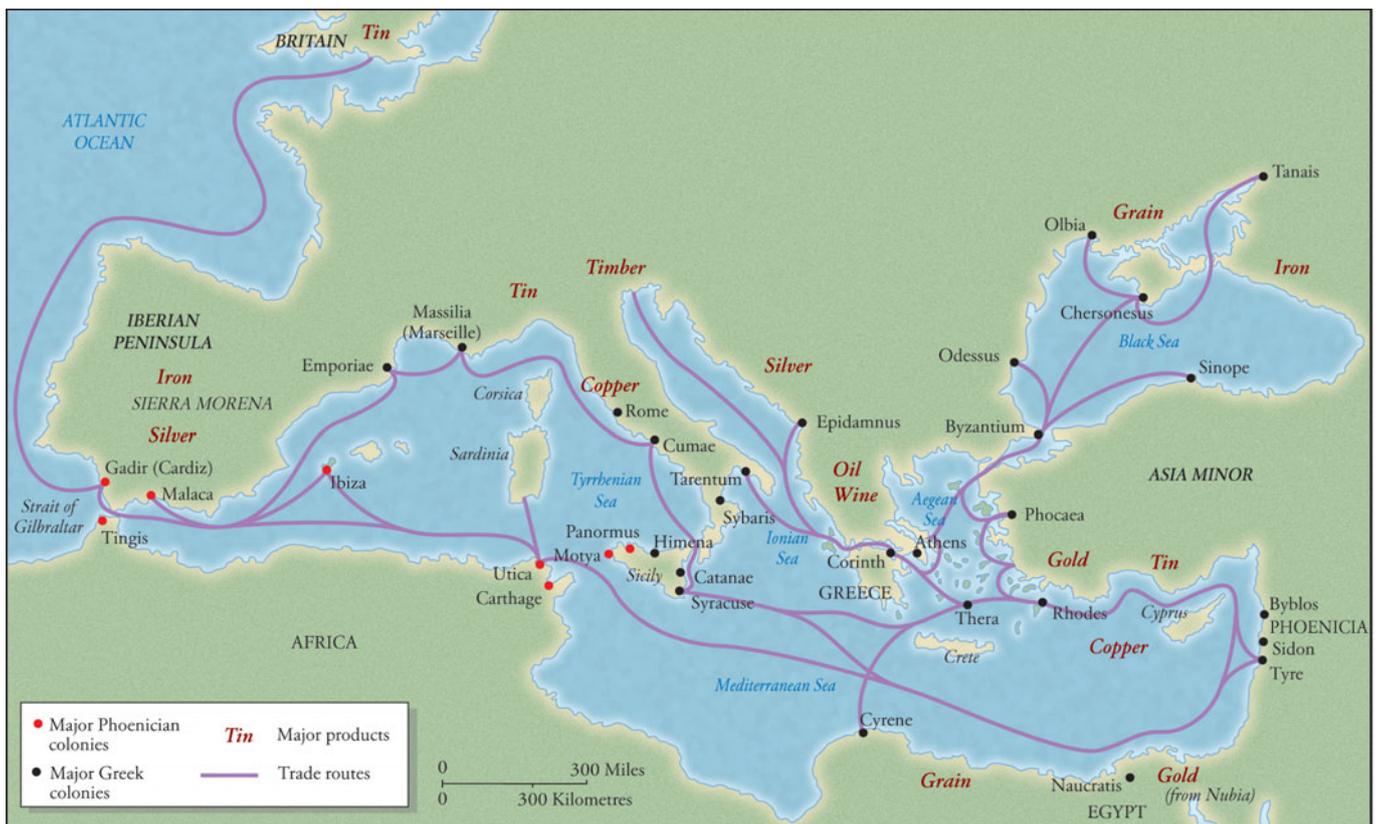
The Phoenician civilisation flourished from 1500 BCE in **Canaan** and port cities such as Tyre and Sidon (today in Israel and Lebanon). The Phoenicians were **maritime** traders, and their trade spread across the sea as far as Britain, in order to obtain tin (the other ingredient, with copper, of bronze). They also controlled trade in Tyrian purple, a rare purple dye extracted from sea snails that was very expensive.

Many elements of Phoenician culture had an influence on the Greeks, including the development of trading colonies, seafaring and shipbuilding, and perhaps most significantly, the development and widespread use of a **phonetic alphabet**.

Canaan a region that in ancient times was on the eastern Mediterranean, covering parts of modern-day Israel, Jordan and Lebanon

maritime associated with seafaring

phonetic alphabet an alphabet where the signs or letters have a one-to-one correspondence with the sounds of the language



Source 4.6 Map showing Greek and Phoenician trade routes, principal commodities and colonies

aleph	beth	gimel	daleth	he	waw	zayin	heth
'	b	g	d	h	w	z	h
teth	yod	kaph	lamed	mem	nun	samekh	ayin
t	y	k	l	m	n	s	'
pe	sade	qoph	resh	shin	taw		
p	s	q	r	sh/s	t		

Source 4.7 The Phoenician alphabet, including the sound and corresponding modern letter. Note that aleph and ayin were sounds made at the back of the throat, similar to modern Middle Eastern languages.

The Minoan civilisation flourished on the island of Crete, possibly as early as 3000 BCE. Little was known about the Minoans until excavation of the major site of Knossos by British archaeologist Sir Arthur Evans at the beginning of the twentieth century.

Evans attempted to partially restore the main building at Knossos, which he deemed to be a

palace. The ruined site contained **frescoes**, pottery, jewellery and clay tablets. All these finds demonstrated a sophisticated culture. Minoan art was highly developed and portrayed aspects of ordinary life, including a fresco that depicts young men and a woman leaping over a bull.

fresco interior type of pictorial wall painting where the pigment or paint to create the picture is applied to the wet plaster surface of the wall then allowed to dry



Source 4.8 Fresco from the east wing at Knossos, which appears to show men and a woman performing acrobatic jumps over a charging bull

The clay tablets found at Knossos contained examples of two distinct types of writing, labelled Linear A – which appears to be written in the unknown Minoan language – and Linear B. Linear B was discovered to have been written in the Mycenaean language (a relative of ancient Greek),



Source 4.9 Gold funeral mask, also known as the 'Agamemnon Mask', found in Tomb V, Mycenae by Heinrich Schliemann

but Linear A – and therefore many details of the Minoan civilisation – remains undeciphered.

Prior to the ancient Greek civilisation, from around 2000 BCE, the Mycenaean civilisation was dominant in the area. The Mycenaeans moved into Greece from the north and were at first dominated by the Minoans. They appear to have been influenced by Minoan culture but they worshipped a different set of gods. They seem to have been more warlike than the Minoans and flourished not through trading, but through conquest. They were skilled in the use of bronze, especially for making weapons. The Mycenaeans conquered the Minoans and adapted their Linear A script for their own language (resulting in Linear B).

The Mycenaean civilisation was at its height in the early twelfth century BCE at a time that coincided with the legendary **Trojan War**. However, the peak of Mycenae didn't last long – it is thought that Mycenae was overrun and destroyed by the **Dorians** around 1150 BCE.

Trojan War a legendary 10-year war between the Mycenaean Greeks and the city of Troy, caused by the abduction of Helen, the wife of King Menelaus of Sparta, the brother of King Agamemnon of Mycenae, by the Trojan prince Paris

Dorians Greek-speaking people from the north who conquered the Mycenaeans around 1150 BCE

Activity 4.1

- 1 Identify two influences of the Phoenicians on Greek culture.
- 2 Identify two types of writing that have been found on Crete.
- 3 What problems with these currently limit our knowledge of the Minoan culture?
- 4 Examine the map in Source 4.6, and answer the following questions:
 - a Which island provided the most likelihood of the Greeks and Phoenicians coming into contact? Why?
 - b List four commodities that were traded.
- 5 Study the information in Source 4.7 and answer the following questions:
 - a How many letters were in the Phoenician alphabet?
 - b What letters in our alphabet do not appear in this ancient one?
- 6 What were two differences between Mycenaean culture and Minoan culture?
- 7 Look at Source 4.8. Do you think this is a literal depiction of something that the Minoans did? Explain your answer.
- 8 Why might Heinrich Schliemann have decided to call Source 4.9 the 'Agamemnon Mask'?

Research 4.1

Research the excavations at Knossos by Sir Arthur Evans and at Mycenae by Heinrich Schliemann, using your school library or the internet. Write a report of your findings covering the following points:

- What did they uncover at each site?
- How did their discoveries lead them to certain conclusions about the nature of each site in antiquity?
- Are their findings still accepted? Explain why.

Impact of geography and climate

The mainland of Greece is made up of two distinct regions (north and south) joined by a narrow strip of land called the Isthmus of Corinth. The southern region is known as the **Peloponnese**. The mainland is predominantly mountainous, with small valleys and plains with a few rivers running to the coast.

Peloponnese the southern part of Greece

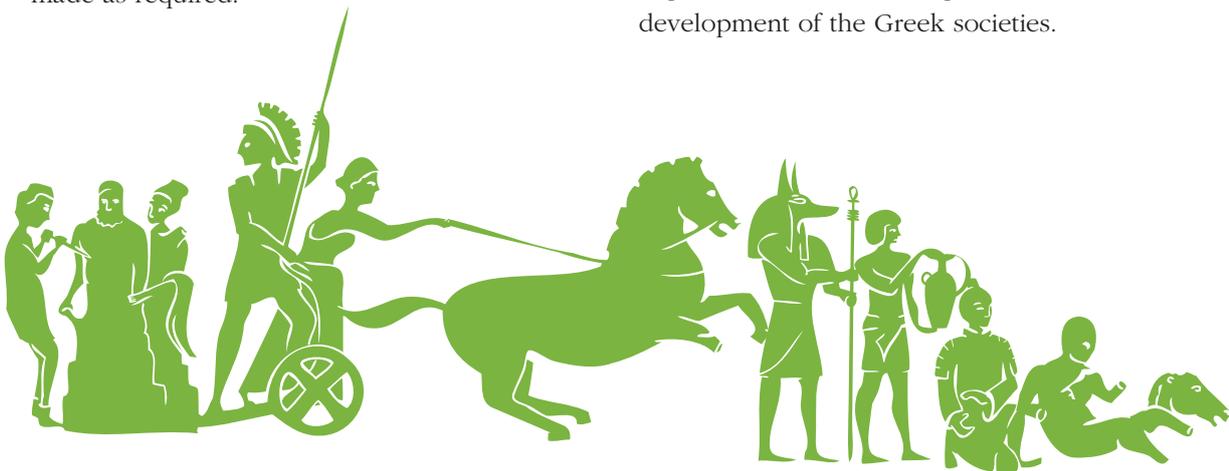
The climate in ancient times was hot and dry in summer, with mild winters – similar to southern Australia today. Towns and cities reflected an outdoor lifestyle with open-air meeting places and markets, as well as building designs that were relatively exposed to the elements. A common feature was a civic and market centre (*agora*) and *stoas* (verandas lined with columns running the length of public buildings) surrounding the *agora*, providing protected spaces for shops and for walking. However, urban growth was usually haphazardly planned, with additions made as required.

The combination of climate and geography made sufficient food production a problem. Some communities moved off the mainland on to the many islands in the Ionian and Aegean seas because of this. Limestone soils were ideal for olives and grapes, but **cereal crops**, such as wheat, oats and corn, needed space and flat fertile land, both of which were in short supply on the mainland. Goats became the main livestock as they were more suited to the conditions and sparse vegetation. Travelling by boat was an efficient way to reach various places on land from the island communities and provided an opportunity to trade.

cereal crops grains grown for eating, such as corn, wheat and barley

By 600 BCE, significant amounts of food and raw materials were being imported from places such as Egypt, **Lydia** and southern Italy. These materials included grain, timber (used for shipbuilding) and wool. Slaves, a human commodity, were also imported and were an important element in the development of the Greek societies.

Lydia a kingdom of western Asia Minor located generally east of ancient Ionia in what is today part of Turkey



Hellas

The isolation of developing communities on the mainland meant that in ancient times there was no such country as ‘Greece’. Rather, the Greek language and culture – particularly religion – provided a common bond for them as Hellenes, or ‘Greeks’. Hellas, which is what Hellenes called where they lived, could be anywhere there was a significant concentration of Greeks (not only where Greece is today, but also on the coast of what is modern-day Turkey, and southern Italy and Sicily). However, while they were united culturally,

the Greeks were divided and competitive as states, often to the point of making war against each other. There were only two brief periods when the Hellenes chose to unite for a single cause. These were both in the early fifth century BCE when the Persian Empire, first under **Darius I** and later under his son, **Xerxes**, attempted to invade the Greek mainland.

Darius I (‘the Great’) king and emperor of the Persian Empire, who launched the First Persian War against the Greeks in 490 BCE

Xerxes the son of Darius I, and then king and emperor of the Persian Empire, who launched the Second Persian War against the Greeks in 480 BCE

Activity 4.2

- 1 Identify the most common feature of urban development in Greece prior to the seventh century BCE.
- 2 Why was it difficult to produce sufficient food in Greece? Give two reasons.
- 3 Explain how this problem was solved.
- 4 Who were the Hellenes?

The polis

polis (plural poleis)
Greek city-state

monarchy a style of government where a king or queen rules society

tyranny form of government found in other Greek *poleis* and at one time in Athens, where power was taken by one man unlawfully

After the fall of the Mycenaeans, little is known about Greece until the eighth century BCE. This period is known as the Dark Ages. The geography of Greece, a mountainous mainland along with widely spread islands, meant that the Dorian communities were quite isolated. This isolation led to each community developing a distinct way of organising its society. The people of different geographical areas grew into separate states with their own local identities, but still within a shared Greek culture. By the seventh century BCE, each had evolved into a city-state called a **polis**. The modern term *politics* is derived from the practices that were developed to organise and run these *poleis*. Various types of political organisation emerged, including **monarchy**, **tyranny**, **oligarchy** and **democracy**.

oligarchy the form of government adopted by the Spartans in which power lies with only a few people

democracy the form of government eventually adopted and popularised by the Athenians, where male citizens took part in decision-making through voting

Times gone by ...

Ionia and most of the islands were colonised by the Athenians. The Peloponnesians founded most of the colonies in Italy and Sicily, and some in other parts of Hellas. All of them were founded after the Trojan War.

The Corinthians are supposed to have been the first to adopt more or less modern methods in shipbuilding, and it is said that the first **triremes** ever built in Hellas were laid down in Corinth.

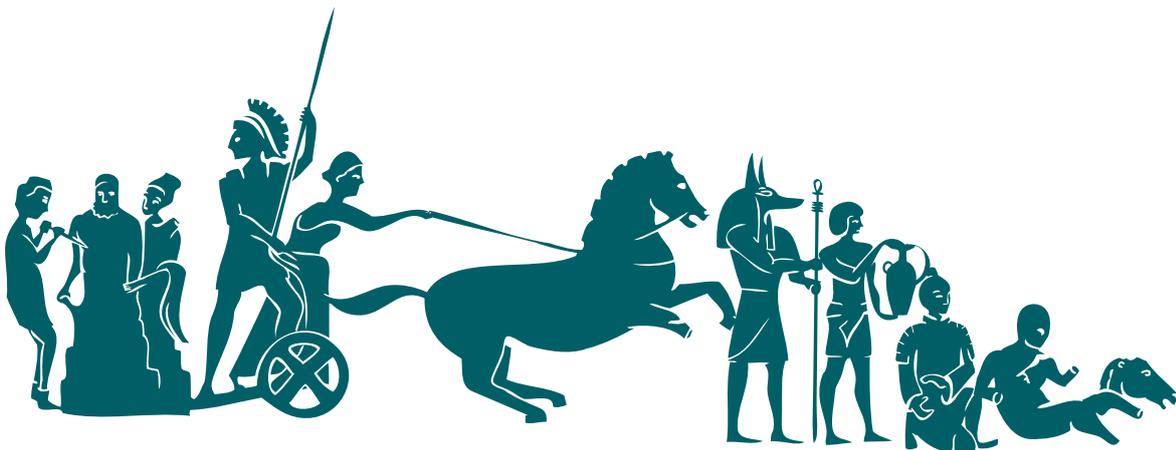
Corinth, planted on its isthmus, had been from time immemorial an important **mercantile** centre, though in ancient days traffic had been by land rather than sea. The communication between those who lived inside and those who lived outside the Peloponnese had to travel through Corinthian territory. So Corinth grew to power by her riches – being able to provide trading facilities on both the land and the sea routes made the city powerful from the revenues which came to it by both these means.

Source 4.10 Thucydides, *The Peloponnesian War*, 1, 12–13

trireme warship with three banks of oars

mercantile relating to trade or commerce

- 1 In Source 4.10, discuss what Thucydides sees as being the reasons for Corinth's commercial success.
- 2 What does the example of Corinth (in Source 4.10) suggest about the advantages to a *polis* of establishing a colony?
- 3 The Corinthians are supposed to have been the first to do what with shipbuilding?



Colonisation

Over 30 *poleis* established multiple colonies around the Mediterranean from 800 BCE. There were several reasons for colonisation:

- Over population of the original *polis* led to scarcity of land to sustain food productivity.
- Setting up new ports could increase income from trade.
- Political tensions in some *poleis* led to the **exile** of some groups and voluntary departure of others.

exile banishment from a *polis*, usually after a vote of the citizens

There were two types of colony: those that were politically independent city-states, and those that were communities of traders with no independent political existence.

The *polis* that sent out the colonisation expedition was called the ‘mother-city’, or *metropolis*. Any differences that arose between mother and daughter colony were settled, if possible, by peaceful means, with war justifiable only in extreme cases. The constitution of the mother-city was usually adopted by the colony, but the new city remained politically independent. If the colony sent out a fresh colony on its own account, the mother-city generally was consulted, or at least requested to provide a leader.

Like the Phoenicians, who were also active in colonising, the Greeks benefited from having safe places in foreign lands from which to trade (see Source 4.6). Trade increased wealth and generated technological developments like ship design.

Activity 4.3

- 1 Describe how geography influenced the development of the Greek *polis*.
- 2 List the two types of Greek colony.
- 3 What was the other major trading culture in the Aegean at the time?

Research 4.2

Research the process of Greek colonisation using the internet. Then make bullet-point notes on this, under headings that could include:

- causes
- establishment of colonies
- impact of colonisation on the spread of Greek culture.

Attica region in east-central Greece that had Athens as its *polis*

Athens, established around 1400 BCE, was the chief city in the region of **Attica** in east-central Greece. Bordered by the sea on the south and east, Attica attracted maritime trade. Athens developed into a *polis*, driven by the wealth it generated through trade of olive oil

and pottery, and silver mining. By the seventh century BCE, it controlled Attica and was one of the leading centres of trade in the region. Three stone walls, each about 6 kilometres in length, joined Athens to the coastal harbours of Piraeus and Phaleron, and gave the Athenians protected access to the sea in times of war.



Source 4.11 A plan showing the defensive wall in Athens. The original wall was destroyed by the Persians in 480 BCE, but it was rebuilt after the Second Persian War.

Activity 4.4

- 1 Identify where and when Athens was established.
- 2 How did Athens' location help it to develop successfully?
- 3 Describe the city's walls and determine their purpose.



Role of key groups

Democracy

From the sixth century BCE, Athens developed towards democracy (the modern word comes from the Greek *demokratia*, in which *demos* means 'people' and *kratein* means 'to rule'). The Athenian government was a direct democracy. Any adult male citizen could take part, and it was his duty to do so. If not enough citizens showed

up for the Assembly (*ekklesia*), for example, 300 specially trained slaves would go through the town with a rope dipped in red paint. Anyone hit by the paint had to pay a fine for not doing his civic duty. The officials of the democracy were chosen by lot, but the generals – the *strategoí* in charge of the army and foreign policy – were elected by the assembly of citizens. The assembly also voted on legislation and policy matters.

A unique feature of Athenian democracy was the use of a lottery system to appoint nearly

all public officials. Appointment by lot and for short terms of office allowed most Athenians to participate in their government at some time in their lives. It also limited the ability of a person or

group to gain too much power. Apart from voting, a citizen's duty included fighting in the Athenian army in times of war. This system meant that no *polis* had a standing army except for Sparta.

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, document the development of Athenian democracy.

Event 1
Event 2
Event 3
Event 4
Event 5
Event 6
Event 7
Event 8
Event 9
Event 10
Event 11
Event 12

Times gone by ...

An *agora* was a commercial and political centre, and consisted of an open square lined with trees and set among large public buildings. In Athens, it was the focus of political, commercial, administrative, cultural, religious and social life. Athens' Agora is located to the north-west of the Acropolis and is bounded on the south by the hill of the Areopagus (civil and criminal courts of appeal) and on the west by the hill known as the *Colonos Agoraios* (literally, 'the hill next to the Agora'). It was where the Athenian craftsmen met to buy and sell their goods. It is not known whether craftswomen were also allowed to attend.

The Agora was the focus of government in Athens. It was here that both the **boule** and the **ekklesia** assembled. Surrounding the Agora were courts and temples. Many of these buildings incorporated a *stoa* – a covered walkway or portico lined with columns for public use. This gave the Agora an enveloping, protective atmosphere.

It also functioned as the main marketplace for Athens, although respectable women did not go shopping for produce there. This would be done by slaves. Temporary stalls were set up on market days and a bell was rung when fresh fish was delivered. Areas set aside for particular goods were called 'circles'. When slaves were being offered for sale, they were made to run around the slave circle so that prospective buyers could appraise them. Horses were paraded in the same manner. Production and sale of pottery took place in a specific area near the city walls.

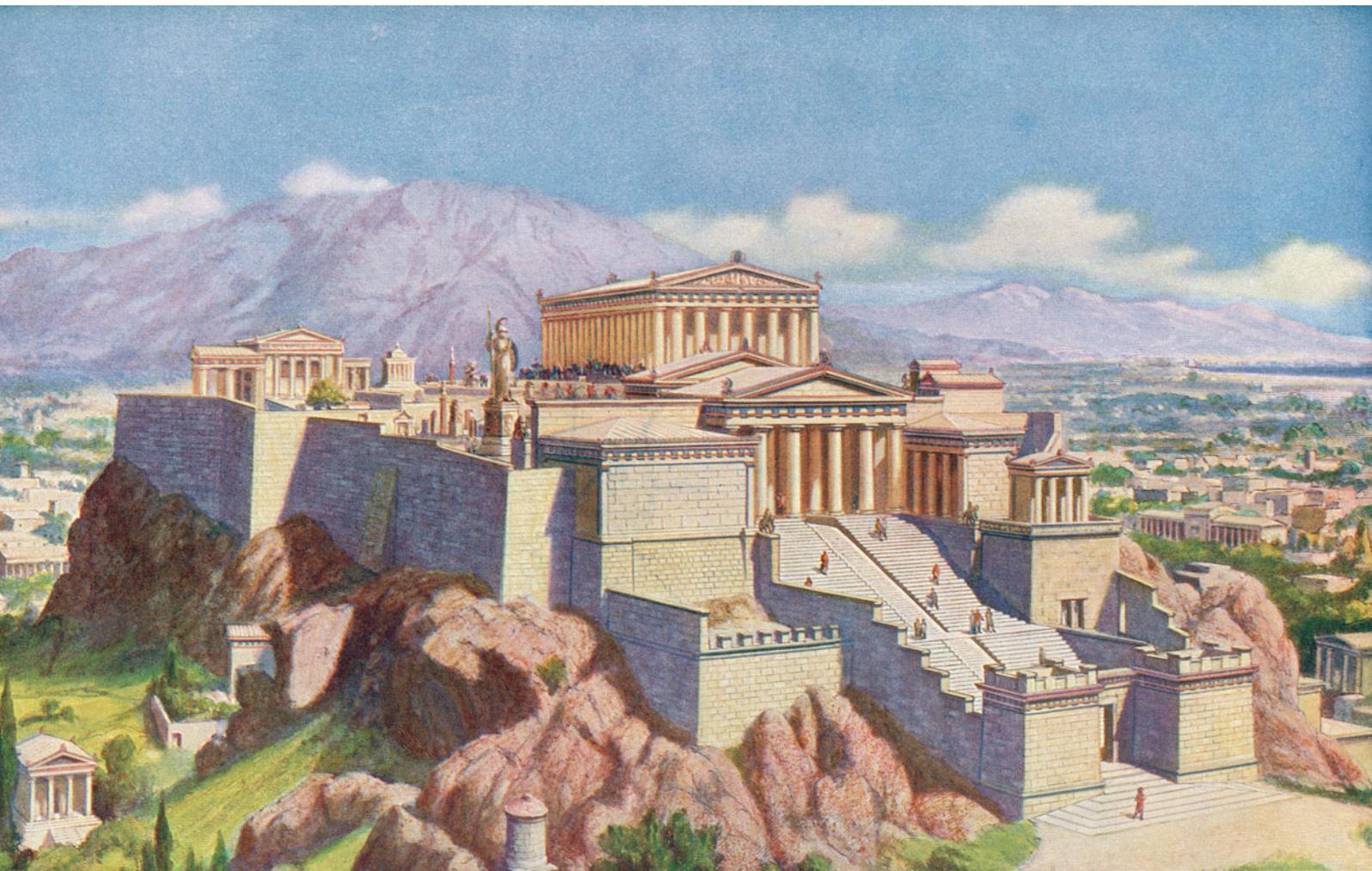
- 1 Who was responsible for shopping at the Agora?
- 2 Discuss a reason why areas set aside for particular goods were called 'circles'?
- 3 To the north-west of what building is the Agora located?

boule the council of citizens in ancient Greece

ekklesia the popular assembly in ancient Greece



Source 4.12 Reconstructed stoa in the Athenian Agora



Source 4.13 Artist's impression of the Acropolis c. 430 BCE. Note where the former Temple to Athena (burned by the Persians in 480 BCE) stood. This was replaced by the Parthenon (Temple to Athena), which is the largest building on the site. The Temple of Athena Nike (lower right) was erected in honour of the Athenian victory over the Persians at the Battle of Marathon.

The Acropolis

The Athenian Acropolis is a flat-topped rock that rises 150 metres above sea level with a surface area of about 3 hectares. It was the highest point in Athens, and originally had been the **citadel** of the city. By the fifth century BCE, it had developed into the religious centre of Athens, dominated by the Parthenon, a temple devoted to the city's patron, the goddess Athena.

citadel a fortress built to defend a city

Citizens

Athenian citizenship was hereditary – a citizen had to be descended from a citizen. In 450 BCE, as a result of reforms by Pericles and Cimon, a citizen had to

be descended from an Athenian citizen on both sides of the family, which excluded the children of Athenian men and foreign women. Only adult male Athenian citizens who had completed their military training (two years after the age of 18) had the right to vote in the Assembly in Athens. This excluded a majority of the Athenian population, namely women, slaves, freed slaves, children and *metics* (foreigners). Also disallowed were citizens whose rights were under suspension (often for failure to pay a debt to the city). Citizenship could be granted by the *ekklesia* and was sometimes given to large groups, especially in time of war (for example, the Plateans in 427 BCE and the Samians in 405 BCE). By the fourth century BCE, it could only be granted to individuals and then by a special vote of the Assembly with a minimum attendance of 6000.

Activity 4.5

- 1 What qualified a person to vote in Athens?
- 2 How did the function of the Acropolis change over time?
- 3 Draw up a table with two columns. In the left column, list groups of people who could not vote in Athens. Next to each, in the right column, give reasons why they could not.

SOCIAL GROUP	WHY THEY COULD NOT VOTE

- 4 What was the *ekklesia*?
- 5 Explain how Athens practised 'direct democracy'.

Social structure

The male citizenry of Athens was divided into four tiers, as suggested by reforms of Solon in the early sixth century BCE, when political rights were allocated in proportion to the income of each man. The four ranks were:

- *pentecosiomedimnoi* – those who produced approximately 8000 kilograms of grain per year, and could serve as *stratego*i or generals in the army (about 5 per cent of the citizenry)
- *hipp*is – those who could equip themselves and one cavalry horse for war, valued at 5000 kilograms per year (about 10 per cent)
- *zeugit*ai – tillers, owners of at least one pair of beasts of burden, valued at 3000 kilograms per year, who could serve as **hoplites** (about 25 per cent)
- *thetes* – manual labourers and poor farmers (about 60 per cent).

hoplite heavily armed Greek citizen foot-soldier

Population estimates for Athens in the mid-fifth century BCE range between 120 000 and 150 000 people, of whom up to 40 000 were citizens.

Clothing

The clothing worn by men and women was universal, with slaves and citizens in similar dress. Clothes were fastened with brooches or pins (*fibulae*), and a belt or girdle (*zone*) might secure the waist. The fundamental clothing for Greek men was a tunic, called a *chiton*. These came in two versions:

- *exomis* – a short *chiton* with the right arm left free for activity. This was often used by workers or slaves.
- *xystis* – a longer *chiton*-like garment covering the whole body all the way to the ankles.

Men also wore a long cloak called a *himation*, which could be draped around the body, or a *chlamys*, a shorter version that was used for travel or riding. It was fastened in front or on one shoulder.

Women mainly wore a *peplos*, made from two rectangles of cloth or one large rectangular piece of cloth (equivalent to the two) with the top edge folded down and the folded edges pinned together at the shoulders. The woman's arms went through the opening on either side. The overhanging fabric could end above the waist to show the material that was bloused over



Source 4.14 Bronze statue of a charioteer from Delphi shown wearing a *xystis* (long *chiton*)



Source 4.15 Artist's impression of Athenian couple wearing day clothes

a *zone*. The *peplos* was usually a heavier woollen garment, while the *chiton* was a lighter linen one and might be worn underneath. For warmth or modesty, women could also wear a *stola*, a mantle draped around the shoulders or placed over the head. Children wore the *chiton*.

Men and women wore sandals, slippers, soft shoes or boots, depending on the circumstance. At home they usually went barefoot.

Family

Married men were seen as the head of the family; however, they took very little part in the direct running of the household on a daily basis. Farmers and craftsmen spent most of the time working. Wealthier men employed managers to run their properties or businesses so they could be involved with the political institutions of the *polis* or socialise.

Families usually shared meals. Dinner parties were a social expectation of those holding public office, but such gatherings were for men only. Women and girls were confined to homemaking and child-rearing. However, women in less wealthy families often had to go out of the house to help with the work of the family.

Education

Schooling was not a legal requirement in ancient Athens; however, scenes on painted vases from as early as 500 BCE show that schooling of boys was quite widespread. Girls were not commonly educated in a formal way. Boys began their education aged seven. The wealthy employed private teachers or tutors, and teachers could sometimes be slaves.



Source 4.16 A boy stands before his seated tutor, who is reading a scroll, possibly reciting something or checking as it is recited to him. Depiction on fifth-century BCE krater.

Pupils studied under three types of teachers:

- *grammatistes*, who taught reading, writing, arithmetic and literature
- *paidotribes*, who coached wrestling, boxing and gymnastics
- *kitharistes*, who taught music – especially singing and playing the lyre.

Boys had to undergo two years of military training at the age of 18, after which those from wealthier families often returned to higher education to prepare themselves for public life. One of the first of these places of higher learning was the Academy, a school of philosophy founded by Plato around 385 BCE. Aristotle ran a similar establishment, called the Lyceum, where the curriculum was broader.

Women

Women in Athens had limited freedom and power. A woman could own personal property, including slaves; however, she was not permitted to buy anything, to own land or to enter into contracts. A male guardian controlled all aspects of her life until

she married. Athenian citizenship enabled her to marry another citizen or to participate in religious ceremonies. Girls in Athens got married soon after puberty, usually to much older men. Marriages were often arranged between families, either for the consolidation and management of property or for the production of future heirs. Women lived at home with their mothers until marriage, and unmarried women were the property of their father or guardian. Property protection was such a concern that if a married woman became an heiress of her father (because she had no living brothers), she was required to divorce and then remarry her closest paternal relative to ensure that her inheritance remained in the family. Lower class women had to go out and help with shopping and so on. A wife's duty was to bear legitimate children and to manage work in the household in an economical way. A respectable woman was expected to remain inside her home; women seen in the street were prostitutes, slaves or poor, and had to work to contribute to their family's well-being. The most important activities of a good wife were childcare, spinning and weaving.

Activity 4.6

- 1 Outline the four social levels Athenian citizens could occupy.
- 2 Approximately what percentage of the Athenian population were citizens in the mid-fifth century BCE?
- 3 Give two reasons why men were not involved in the daily running of their households.
- 4 Ordinarily, when were all members of an Athenian family most likely to be together?

Metics and slaves

Metics were resident aliens with no political rights. They were not allowed to own land, and could not obtain citizenship. However, many were involved in trade and industry, and became very wealthy. Although not possessing political rights, *metics* enjoyed similar privileges to citizens in some areas. Estimates of the *metic* population in Athens by the mid-fifth century BCE are between 30 000 and 50 000.

Slaves constituted the lowest level of Athenian society, but made up at least half of the population of 70 000 to 100 000. Slaves could be owned either privately or by the state. State-owned slaves worked on the roads, in the dockyards and on public buildings. The lowest class of slaves worked in the silver mines at Laurium.

Privately owned slaves were treated better. They worked in wealthy houses where many held positions of trust. In Athens, slaves worked in every capacity imaginable, and were as familiar a sight as free members of the society.

Slaves came from a variety of origins: some were prisoners of war, others were unwanted children, some had been sold into slavery alongside their fathers for the payment of their fathers' debts, and still others had been born into slavery.

Privately owned slaves could be freed by their masters' oral pronouncement, in the sight of witnesses at the theatre or before a public tribunal. However, between the sixth and fourth centuries BCE this practice was outlawed in Athens to protect public order. A slave was often required to pay an amount at least equivalent to his market value to free himself. To do this, he could use his

savings or take a loan (*eranos*) from his master, a friend or a client. Freedom could be either total or partial, at the master's whim. A totally emancipated slave was legally protected against all attempts at re-enslavement, particularly by the former master's inheritors. Freed slaves acquired a status similar to *metics*, but did not have the rights of a citizen.

Sparta: A unique society

Sparta was a *polis* in the region called **Lakonia** in the south-eastern Peloponnese, about 250 kilometres from Athens.

Lakonia a region in southern Greece that had Sparta as its *polis*

It was unique in all Hellas because its social system was completely focused on military training and excellence in the art of warfare. The descendants of the Dorians who had settled Lakonia at the end of the Mycenaean period, the Spartans had invaded and conquered neighbouring Messene in the eighth century BCE and the Messenian population had become *belots*, a **serf** class distributed to Spartan masters.

serf a person who was bound to work the land of their master in return for a small amount of land to feed their family

Spartan society was divided into the following ranks:

- *Spartiates* – with the exception of the royal families, they were native-born male citizens over the age of 30, who had passed all stages of the *agoge* (the Spartan education system). They belonged to a *syssition* (a military group that supported its members, who were



Source 4.17 Recreation of Spartan phalanx at Thermopylae in the film *300* (2007), showing the characteristic Greek letter *lambda* for Lakonia on the Spartans' shields

full-time soldiers – *hoplites* – and shared meals together). Each Spartiate owned a plot of farming land. They saw themselves as equals who shared in a communal society. Even so, there were unfair advantages based on wealth. They never numbered more than 10 000.

- *Perioikoi* – literally ‘surrounding’ (*peri-*) householders’ (*oikoi*). They were not citizens but members of different communities spread around the Peloponnese that were allied to Sparta. The *perioikoi* made up half of the Spartan army, and had a monopoly on trade and manufacturing.
- *Inferiors* – known by a number of different terms, inferiors were those who failed the *agoge* or could not maintain their contributions to the *syssitia*; those who had lost their citizenship through cowardice in war; children of unwed *helot* mothers and Spartiate fathers; or *belots* who had become freed men through service in war.
- *Helots* – state-owned serfs (rural workers) bound to the land who could not be bought and sold. *Helots* worked the land and did most of the **menial** labour – thus freeing Spartiates from such work to concentrate on military training. They were entitled to a portion of what they produced. Some historians estimate that they outnumbered the Spartiates by seven to one.

menial relating to work normally performed by a servant, or to unskilled work

Spartiate boys joined the **agoge** from the age of seven, living in army barracks. Aside from athletics, fitness and weapons training, the program included dance and music. Food was deliberately rationed to encourage resourcefulness in stealing it – but if caught stealing, boys were severely beaten. At the age of 20, they became fully part of a *syssition* and the Spartan army, and continued to live in barracks.

agoge Spartan education system

The aim of the system was to ensure that every Spartiate would be able to:

- have self-discipline
- endure physical and mental hardship
- show unquestioning obedience to superiors
- be loyal to the state
- possess superior fighting skills.

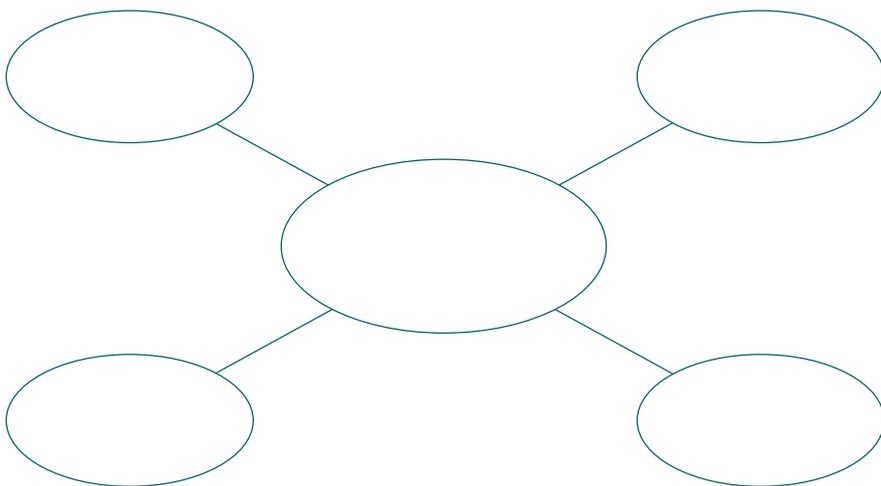
Spartan girls were educated separately, with physical training including running and athletics – sometimes with boys in the *agoge*.

They run in the following way: their hair hangs down, a tunic reaches to a little above the knee, and they bare the right shoulder as far as the breast.

Source 4.18 A description of Spartan female runners at Olympia given by Pausanias (Book V, 16.2–3)

Activity 4.7

- 1 List three types of teachers found in ancient Athens.
- 2 What were considered suitable activities for a 'good wife'?
- 3 Who or what was a *metic*?
- 4 How many slaves are there estimated to have been in Athens during the mid-fifth century BCE?
- 5 Discuss what was unique about Spartan women.
- 6 Create a mind map of the factors that contributed to Sparta's reputation as a military society. You may find more than four factors.



Ruled by the minority of Spartiates, Sparta was an oligarchy, headed by two hereditary kings, who had some powers, balanced by a council of elders known as the *gerousia* who were consulted during meetings of the public assembly, attended

by all male Spartiates. The assembly elected five overseers, known as *epbors*, who helped to expedite decision-making in times of duress. The assembly was ultimately in control of the policies and legislation of the *polis*.

The Spartans were pious, and religious festivals were taken very seriously – even taking precedence over war. There were nine major festivals in the Spartan calendar. This was the reason they were

delayed in going to assist the Athenians at Marathon in 490 BCE and why Leonidas could only bring 300 *hoplites* (his bodyguard) to Thermopylae in 480 BCE.

HISTORICAL FACT

Unlike their depiction in films like *300*, the Spartans generally grew their hair long. They kept it well groomed and often wore it braided. Also, while they did have beards, Spartiates did not wear moustaches.

Activity 4.8

- 1 Name the four levels of Spartan society.
- 2 Who were the *perioikoi*?
- 3 What was the *agoge*?
- 4 How were Spartan girls educated?



Significant beliefs, values and practices

Many gods

The ancient Greeks believed in many gods, and they were part of everyday life. For example, workers would seek the favour of gods associated with their work: farmers would pray to Demeter, the goddess of agriculture; while **smiths** looked to Hephaestus, god of metalworking. In their homes, they prayed for the protection of **deities** such as Hestia, the goddess of the hearth. Despite the many differences between *poleis*, the Greeks shared beliefs in the same gods and this distinguished them as Hellenes.

smiths artisans who worked with metal, making tools, weapons and armour

deities gods

The gods were believed to have human temperaments: they could love, get angry, be jealous or quarrel. The gods who demonstrated these qualities and became most prominent were the 12 Olympians, who it was believed lived on Mount Olympus in Macedon, north of Greece. These deities were worshipped by all Greeks, and were personified in art and stories. Ruled by their king, Zeus, all the gods on Mount Olympus were either his brothers or sisters, or his children.

Athena, who was goddess of wisdom, was often depicted with an owl. Because owls can see in the dark, this idea was associated with her power to see things more clearly than others. This connection between owls and wisdom has become part of our folklore.

Source 4.19 The 12 Olympian gods

	Aphrodite Daughter of Zeus, goddess of love and beauty		Dionysus Son of Zeus, god of the grape harvest, wine and wine-making
	Apollo Son of Zeus, god of the sun, music and poetry; god of the herdsmen		Hephaestus Son of Zeus and Hera, god of blacksmiths and metalworking
	Ares Son of Zeus and Hera, god of war		Hera Wife and sister of Zeus, goddess of marriage and protector of women
	Artemis Daughter of Zeus, goddess of hunting and the moon; goddess of vegetation and childbirth		Hermes Son of Zeus, messenger of the gods and a guide to the Underworld
	Athena Born of the head of Zeus, goddess of wisdom and war		Poseidon Brother of Zeus, god of the sea and god of earthquakes
	Demeter Sister of Zeus, goddess of agriculture		Zeus King and father of the gods

Heroes and myths

The Greeks also told tales about heroes, who were often descended from the gods or had their protection. They were the subject of stories

myth a sacred narrative, either as a story or poem, explaining how the world and humankind came to be in their present form

or poems, which usually involved the performance of dangerous or superhuman tasks. These stories, or **myths**, served the purpose of explaining the origins of the world and detailed the lives and adventures of a wide variety of gods and goddesses and their interaction with heroic men and women, often involving fantastical creatures. Prior to the introduction of the Phoenician alphabet in the ninth century BCE, these stories were part of an oral tradition that recorded events important to the Greeks. They then increasingly became the basis of evolving Greek literature and art.

Oracles

The Greeks often tried to learn the will of the gods to help them manage their daily lives. One popular way in which they tried to do this was through consulting oracles. The most revered of these was the **oracle** of Apollo at Delphi. It was known as ‘the navel of the world’ because the Greeks believed that Zeus had once, long ago, released two eagles; one flew east and the other flew west, and where they met was the centre of the earth. The eagles met at Delphi.

oracle a message from the gods in answer to a person’s question, most notably via the *sibyl*, or priestess of the oracle at Delphi

The god Apollo allegedly spoke through the *sibyl*, or priestess of the oracle at Delphi. She had to be an older woman of blameless reputation chosen from among the peasants of the area. The temple at Delphi was built over a volcanic fissure, and the priestess would sit in a trance, giving her responses as gaseous vapours came through a crack in the floor. Many of the expeditions to set



Source 4.20 Temple of Apollo at Delphi

up colonies went to Delphi to receive sanction from the oracle. Famously, according to Homer in the *Iliad*, the Greeks went there to consult the gods before setting off on the Trojan War.

Anyone could ask the oracle for a prophecy as long as they could pay the priestess for the right to do so and to make sacrifices. There were three types of prophecy:

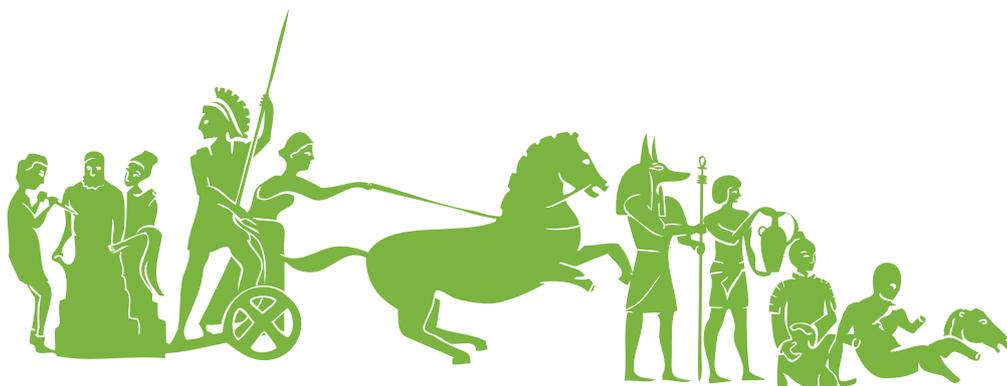
- giving approval to treaties or constitution of a new *polis*
- making religious pronouncements, such as announcing a feast day
- making predictions about the future – although these were usually ambiguous.

Activity 4.9

- 1 Athena, who was goddess of wisdom, was often depicted with what animal?
- 2 What was Zeus's relationship to the other gods on Mt Olympus?
- 3 Through whom did the god Apollo allegedly speak?
- 4 Of what was Demeter the goddess?
- 5 Examine Source 4.19. If you lived in ancient Greece, which god would you pray to for:
 - a a good grape harvest
 - b a healthy pregnancy
 - c success in battle
 - d a safe sea voyage
 - e a good harvest
 - f protection of your herd of goats?

Research 4.3

In your school or local library, or using the internet research the story of Odysseus battling the sirens. Write an imaginary interview with Odysseus about his adventures. This can then be acted as a role-play interview with the rest of the class as an audience.



Sources and evidence

How do we know about the ancient Greeks? Some sources written by historians have survived that give details of events and customs, but such sources are not abundant. Writers like Herodotus, Thucydides and Xenophon give contemporary accounts from the fifth century BCE. Others, such as Aristotle (fourth century BCE), Plutarch (first and early second century CE) and Pausanias (second century CE) wrote later and often refer to other, now lost, sources. Because of the relatively small amount of historical writing, we also rely on ancient Greek art to tell us about ancient Greek society. The eighth-century poetry of Homer and the philosophical and dramatic works of writers such as Aeschylus, Aristophanes, Euripides, Plato and Sophocles fill in our understanding of ancient Greek life.

As well as these written art forms, we have learnt a lot about ancient Greece from many types of archaeological evidence, including buildings, sculpture and, significantly, pottery. Examples of pottery have been found from every era of ancient Greek civilisation, depicting a wide range of ancient Greek life including mythology, warfare, religious practices, leisure and education.

Theatre

The Greeks formalised the telling of stories by using actors to recite the words spoken by the characters in them, often accompanied by music provided by musicians, who sat in a particular place at the side of the acting space, which was called the *orchestra*. The Greeks also invented the *theatre*, a special structure where these plays could be staged, and which enabled people to see and hear them. The remains of some of these theatres survive today, revealing terraced seating for thousands of spectators.

Taking place from the fifth century BCE, the Athenian annual festival, the *Dionysia*, included a drama festival that produced two traditions of performance: comedy and tragedy. The first three days of the festival were devoted to tragedy. Following this, *satyrs* – plays that relied on sexual humour, slapstick, pranks and sight gags – were staged. Many important ancient Greek playwrights, including Sophocles, Aeschylus, Euripides and Aristophanes, won the drama competition at the festival. The genres and styles from the plays of the *Dionysia* festival are all well represented in contemporary culture today, whether on stage, in film or on television.



Source 4.21 Fifth-century BCE red figure vase, depicting a scene from the *Odyssey*. Odysseus is shown battling the sirens, who were women with the bodies of birds.

Art

The Greeks perfected free-standing sculpture in stone (usually marble) or bronze, as a life-like image of the human form. The sculpture they developed was the first in antiquity to use realistic proportions and anatomical accuracy. Drapery of clothing and positioning of the figure suggested movement and facial features were individualistic and expressive. Greek sculpture had a strong impact on Renaissance artists like Michelangelo and has a continuing influence on sculptural art up to the present day.



Source 4.22 One of the bronze sculptures featured in the JF Archibald Memorial Fountain located in Hyde Park, in central Sydney.



Source 4.23 The Shrine of Remembrance in Melbourne's Kings Domain. It was modelled on a Classical Greek temple and serves as a memorial to all Victorians who fought and died in World War I.

Architecture

The Greeks developed three architectural systems: Doric, Ionic and Corinthian. Called 'orders', each had its own distinctive proportions and detailing. Initially these orders influenced the Romans, who overtook the Greeks as the dominant European culture in the second century BCE. More recently, in the late-nineteenth and early-twentieth centuries CE, the architectural style called 'Neo-classicism', which incorporated many Greek architectural elements, was very popular for public buildings in many Western countries, including Australia.



Philosophy

Greek philosophy has influenced Western thought since it began in the sixth century BCE. The most influential philosophers were Socrates, Plato and Aristotle. These thinkers' ideas are the foundation of the discipline of philosophy as we know it, and are still the subject of study and debate today. Subsequent philosophic thinkers were so influenced by the ideas of Socrates (which were written down by Plato) that ancient Greek philosophy before Socrates is known as 'pre-Socratic philosophy'.

Socrates was Athenian, and he believed that the philosopher's function was to provoke people into thinking for themselves, rather than to teach them anything they did not already know. Plato was also an Athenian, and when he was young he studied under Socrates. Plato expressed his ideas in dialogues, often with Socrates, so that we can be part of the philosophical discussion. The third great Athenian philosopher, Aristotle, was a pupil of Plato; his ideas cover many subjects, including physics, metaphysics, poetry, theatre, music, logic, rhetoric, linguistics, politics, government, ethics, biology and zoology.



Source 4.24 Socrates, Plato and Aristotle. Their ideas not only laid the foundation for the development of the discipline of philosophy, but are still central to the study of the discipline today.

Activity 4.10

- 1 In Athenian drama, what was a *satyr*?
- 2 Of whom was Aristotle a pupil?
- 3 Explain how we know about Socrates and his ideas.

The Olympic Games

Festivals were very important in the ancient Greek world. Especially significant were athletic festivals that brought together Greeks from various parts of Hellas to participate. There were many of these festivals, including the Nemean, the Pythian and the Isthmian Games. However, the most significant, and by far the most well known in the modern world, was the Olympic Games.

Held at Olympia near the mountains of Elis every four years, the Olympic festival attracted competitors from all over the Greek world, and was possibly the most important celebration between the eighth and fourth centuries. The accepted date for the origin of the games is 776 BCE, based on inscriptions found at Olympia of the winners of a foot race held every four years starting in that year.

The origins of the Olympic Games were the subject of myths. In one legend, the hero Herakles called the first games 'Olympic' to honour his father, Zeus, and established the custom of holding them every four years. He similarly built the Olympic stadium in honour of Zeus.

The ancient games were held in summer, and only Greek-speaking free males could compete.

When the games first started, there was only a single event: the *stadion* race, a short race around the stadium (usually between 180 and 240 metres), but others were added over time. When the Spartans joined, competitions like the pentathlon (consisting of a jumping event, discus and javelin throws, a foot race and wrestling) were introduced. Boxing, wrestling and equestrian events were added later. Events were often accompanied by music. Eventually the games grew to five days. Contestants were often injured or killed.

Chariot races were a highlight, with races having up to 40 participants. The venue for these was the hippodrome, an immense oval structure with a track 1200 metres in length. Depending on the event, the track would be lapped three to 12 times in the course of a race. These were very dangerous competitions, with frequent accidents.

During the Olympic Games, all political differences between participating *poleis* were supposed to be suspended. However, this did not always happen. In 420 BCE, for example, the Spartans were fined for attacking Elean territory during the festival.

Most evidence suggests that men competed naked, with the exception of charioteers and



Source 4.25 Black-figure vase painting showing long-jump, javelin and discus athletes, possibly illustrating the pentathlon

greaves leather or bronze shin guards worn by *hoplites* to protect their legs in battle

entrants in the *hoplitodromos* (race of soldiers), who were required to run wearing the helmet and **greaves** of the *hoplite*, from whom the race took its name. Runners also carried the *hoplite's* shield, bringing the total weight to be carried to at least 25 kilograms.

Married women were prohibited from attending the men's games on penalty of death, although young girls (virgins) and the priestesses of Demeter were welcome. There is some speculation that holding athletic events in the nude was a way to find out whether any athletes were actually women disguised as men. Other interpretations of athletic nudity argue that it may have symbolised purity. Trainers were also required to enter the stadium naked after a woman, Kallipateira, defied the rule by disguising herself

as a trainer so she could watch her son compete. Because her father, three brothers, nephew and son were Olympic victors, the officials pardoned her in honour of her family.

Contrary to the popular belief that the games were an amateur contest, it is now thought that the athletes were most likely professionals. The fact that the Greeks had no concept or word for amateur athletics is some evidence for this idea. By the sixth century BCE, athletes were specialising in events and hiring expert coaches. Even though no medals or monetary prizes were given at Olympia, there is evidence that some *poleis*, such as Athens, Macedon and Syracuse, provided financial rewards or erected monuments to their respective Olympic champions. These cities probably realised that it was good publicity and good for business.



Source 4.26 Contestants in the *hoplitodromos* shown on a Greek black-figure vase



Source 4.27 Olympic runners in sprint race, shown in black-figure vase, c. 525 BCE



Source 4.28 Sprint race at the modern Olympics

HISTORICAL FACT

The 'Olympiad', the four-year period between Olympic Games, was used by the Greeks as one of their units of time measurement.

Activity 4.11

- 1 Identify where the ancient games were held.
- 2 Who competed in the ancient Olympics?
- 3 Explain why you think women were banned from competition.
- 4 Examine Sources 4.27 and 4.28. What are the similarities and differences between the ancient and modern ways of conducting this event, including the rewards that successful competitors might receive?
- 5 Complete the following table about the ancient Olympics by marking the statements TRUE or FALSE.

In your book, make a note to justify your answer in each case.

A The ancient Olympics were held in summer.	TRUE / FALSE
B The <i>stadion</i> was a 100-metre sprint race.	TRUE / FALSE
C Music was banned during the competition.	TRUE / FALSE
D Anyone from the Greek-speaking world could compete.	TRUE / FALSE
E Competitors were naked except for chariot racing and the race of the soldiers.	TRUE / FALSE
F Trainers were also naked in the arena.	TRUE / FALSE
G Many of the athletes were professionals.	TRUE / FALSE
H Chariot racing was not very popular.	TRUE / FALSE

... not having disturbed the existing magistrates nor changed the ancient laws ... [Peisistratus] administered the State under that constitution of things which was already established, ordering it fairly and well.

Source 4.29 Herodotus, *The Histories*, Book I



Contacts and conflicts

Hoplites

Every *polis* had an army made up of citizens (often farmers) who fought as *hoplites*. This word comes from the Greek word *hoplon*, which refers to the shield, helmet, spear and armour used by this type of soldier. The army was not like a modern professional army. Usually, each citizen was individually responsible for supplying his armour and weapons. Equipment was not

standardised, but *hoplite* armour shared some features, even though it was purpose-made for individuals.

A bronze helmet was essential; it had a reinforced ridge along the top that might have a plume made of horse hair. A body vest or **cuirass**, laced at the front, was crucial. Early versions were made of bronze, but these were heavy, expensive and restrictive in battle. More commonly, they were made of leather with metal scales or glued layers of linen. Bronze or leather greaves protected the lower legs. The other mandatory item was a large bronze-covered

cuirass armour made from a breastplate and a back-plate fastened together

wooden con-cave shield to protect the *hoplite* from chin to knees. This was heavy, weighing up to 15 kilograms. *Hoplites* would use a spear about 2.5 metres long, as well as either a short or curved hacking sword. *Hoplites* were heavily armed by ancient standards. In comparison, the Persians, the great enemy of ancient Greece, were clad in light fabric clothing and carried only wicker shields.

Hoplites fought in a formation called the

phalanx main military formation used by the Greek *hoplites*

phalanx, which was perfected in Sparta. *Hoplites* would line up in rows behind each other, tightly pressing together to make a rectangle. Each *hoplite* carried his shield on his left arm, protecting himself and the soldier to the left, and his spear in his right hand. This caused the soldiers at the far right of the phalanx to be only partly protected, so only the most experienced *hoplites* were placed there.

The phalanx was a formation in which teamwork, cooperation and cohesion were vital. Its effectiveness relied upon the whole formation using its combined weight to push through enemy ranks and then to fight from the outside. The Spartans' reputation as the greatest fighters

in Hellas was based on the exceptional discipline of their phalanx.

Triremes

Because Hellas was surrounded by water, it was inevitable that ships would be part of any defence of Greek territory. Early warships were based on Phoenician designs such as the bireme, with two banks of oars. *Triremes* were prominent from the seventh to the fourth centuries BCE. They were fast and agile, and helped to win the Persian Wars and create the Athenian maritime empire. Most *triremes* were about 35 metres long and 5 metres wide, and were equipped with two sails. During battle, up to 170 oarsmen arranged in three rows on either side could power a *trireme* to reach a speed of 8 knots (about 15 kilometres per hour). This was the ideal speed at which to use the bronze ram, which formed part of the bow of the ship, to ram enemy ships in order to make them sink. The *trireme's* chief advantages over other ship designs were its manoeuvrability and speed.



Source 4.30 A modern artist's impression of a Spartan *hoplite* (left) and his Athenian counterpart, fifth century BCE



Source 4.31 A replica of an ancient Athenian *trireme*

The Persian threat

In 499 BCE, Greek settlements in Ionia – today the west coast of Turkey – rebelled against the authority of Persia under Emperor Darius I. Two Greek *poleis*, Athens and Eretria, sent military support to aid the Ionians, resulting in the destruction of Sardis, a Persian regional capital, in 498 BCE. Although the revolt eventually collapsed four years later, Darius was determined to take his revenge on the Athenians and Eretrians, and in 492 BCE he sent an expedition to invade Hellas, but this was wrecked by storms. Two years later, Darius mounted another, bigger force, which captured Eretria in 490 BCE and then landed at Marathon, near Athens.

The First Greco-Persian War

Darius's invasion placed Athens in considerable danger. The Persians destroyed the *polis* of Eretria off the east coast of the Greek mainland and enslaved its inhabitants. Darius's fleet then

sailed south, to land at the Bay of Marathon, about 40 kilometres from Athens. The Persian army at Marathon consisted of about 25 000 **infantry** and 1000 **cavalry**. Athens sent a messenger to Sparta seeking the Spartans' assistance in facing the Persians. The Spartans were thought to have the best *hoplites* in all Hellas, and as the threat of Persian invasion had grown, it was assumed the Spartans would lead the fight to repel the invaders. However, the Spartans were celebrating a religious festival and would not be available for about 10 days.

The Athenians, led by the **strategos** Miltiades, decided not to wait for the Spartans. Herodotus does not give a figure for the Athenian army, but historians agree that there were probably about 9000 Athenian *hoplites* aided by 1000 men from the small *polis* of Plataea. They attacked the numerically superior Persian force on the open plain before its archers and cavalry were in position. In the

infantry soldiers marching or fighting on foot; foot soldiers collectively

cavalry soldiers who fought on horseback

strategos one of 10 generals elected to command the Athenian army

fierce hand-to-hand combat of the battle, the lightly equipped Persian troops were no match for the heavily armed *hoplites*. After losing the battle, the remaining Persians sailed further around the coast to threaten Athens, but Miltiades marched the Greek forces quickly back to the city and the Persians sailed home defeated.

 *Note this down*

Using the graphic organiser below, complete the sections on the Greco-Persian wars.

Who
What
When
Where
Why
How

Hereupon all those generals who had been desirous of hazarding a battle, when their turn came to command the army, gave up their right to Miltiades. He however, though he accepted their offers, nevertheless waited, and would not fight until his own day of command arrived in due course. Then at length, when his own turn was come, the Athenian battle was set in array, and this was the order of it ... The Athenians ... charged the barbarians at a run. Now the distance between the two armies was little short of eight furlongs [approximately 2 kilometres]. The Persians, therefore, when they saw the Greeks coming on at speed, made ready to receive them, although it seemed to them that the Athenians were bereft of their senses, and bent upon their own destruction; for they saw a mere handful of men coming on at a run without either horsemen or archers ... Such was the opinion of the barbarians; but the Athenians in close array fell upon them, and fought in a manner worthy of being recorded ... There fell in this battle of Marathon, on the side of the barbarians, about six thousand and four hundred men; on that of the Athenians, one hundred and ninety-two. Such was the number of the slain on the one side and the other.

Source 4.32 Herodotus, *The Histories*, Book 6.110–17

HISTORICAL FACT

Despite the numerical inferiority of the Greeks at the Battle of Marathon, the Athenians only lost 192 men and the Plataeans just 11, compared with the Persian death toll of over 6400.



Source 4.33 Bronze Greek helmet, fifth century BCE, inscribed 'Miltiades dedicates this to Zeus'. Found on site at the Temple of Zeus at Olympia.

Activity 4.12

- 1 Greek citizen soldiers were referred to by what term?
- 2 Explain why they were called this.
- 3 What was a *trireme*?
- 4 Discuss why Darius I invaded Greece in 490 BCE.
- 5 Why did the Athenians expect the Spartans to help them to attack the Persians?
- 6 How were the Spartans delayed in arriving for the battle at Marathon?
- 7 Read Source 4.32. It is an Athenian description of the Greeks at Marathon. Is it entirely credible? Do you think it demonstrates any bias?

The Second Greco-Persian War

Xerxes, who was Darius's son and heir, mounted a second invasion in 480 BCE with a bigger army to complete his father's unfinished plans to punish the Greeks. Two significant things occurred before this, which dramatically improved the Greeks' chances. In 483 BCE, a massive new seam of silver was found in the Athenian mines at Laurium, and the Athenian politician Themistocles persuaded the Assembly to use the silver to build a new fleet of *triremes*. Then, in 481 BCE, several of the Greek *poleis* formed themselves into a league at Corinth. Established to deal with the anticipated Persian invasion, this alliance, which called itself the Allies, included the dominant states of Athens and Sparta, although leadership was nominally given to Sparta.

Xerxes landed on the Greek mainland in August 480 BCE with about 250 000 fighting men and 1200 ships. A combined force of 7000 Greeks, including 300 Spartans, under the command of one of the Spartan kings, Leonidas, famously held the invaders off for three days at the Battle of Thermopylae, which took place at a narrow mountain pass in Thessaly, north of Athens. Most of the defenders died but at a cost of up to 20 000 Persian lives. This delayed the Persian advance on Athens – Xerxes had waited nearly

five days before engaging with the Greeks – and allowed the evacuation of its population. At the same time, 60 kilometres away, the Greek and Persian fleets fought a naval battle off the coast of Artemisium, where 271 Allied *triremes*



Source 4.34 A modern artist's impression of Xerxes watching the Battle of Salamis from Mount Aegaleos

engaged an estimated 600 Persian vessels. Prior to arriving at Artemisium, the Persians had lost a third of their fleet in storms off the coast. While there was no clear winner in the three-day battle, it weakened Persian naval strength further and gave the Allied commanders, especially Athenian *strategos* Themistocles, a clearer understanding of the enemy's tactics.

looting widespread stealing from public and private buildings, often with vandalism and violence

When the Persians reached Athens, they **looted** and set fire to the city. A month later, near the island of Salamis (off the Attic coast), the next naval battle took place. The fleet of Athenian *triremes* and the tactics of Themistocles turned the tide of the war. At this battle, the Allies comprehensively defeated the Persian fleet. Xerxes had been so confident of victory that he had a silver throne placed ashore on high ground to watch the battle. After the loss at Salamis, Xerxes returned to Persia, leaving his son-in-law, Mardonius, in command of a land army in Greece. He led the Persian forces at the last major battle of the war on the Greek mainland at Plataea in 479 BCE. Here an Allied army of 100 000 (including 38 000 *hoplites*) under the command of Spartan general, Pausanias, routed a much larger Persian

army. The Spartans played a decisive role in the victory, and Mardonius was killed during the battle. The remnants of the Persian forces fled. This effectively ended the war.

Peloponnesian War

After Salamis, the Athenians gave chase to the Persian fleet as it retreated across the Aegean Sea. The experience of the Second Persian War gave Athens confidence in its own military prowess and called into question its former submissiveness to Sparta. In 477 BCE, Athens formed the Delian League, a confederation of *poleis* that paid money or ships to Athens for its protection. Athens used this arrangement over the next 40 years to grow rich and powerful. This put Athens into conflict with Sparta and its allies, the Peloponnesian League, and intermittent hostilities between the two *poleis* grew until full-scale war erupted between Athens and Sparta, first in 460 BCE and then most seriously in 431 BCE.

In 430 BCE, a plague broke out in Athens and spread rapidly. Estimates of the death toll are as high as a third of the Athenian population. Pericles, the Athenian statesman and champion of democracy, was one of its victims. The plague



Source 4.35 Greek *hoplite* painted on a ceramic dish

drastically reduced the numbers of men who could fight against Sparta.

The second war was conducted in roughly four phases, with short-lived periods of peace in between. In the final period (413–404 BCE), Athens' once-unrivalled navy was defeated by a Persian-

backed Spartan fleet. At the Battle of Aegospotami in 405 BCE, Sparta finally captured the Athenian fleet. The Spartans then laid siege to Athens, which surrendered in 404 BCE. Spartan supremacy was short-lived, however. Its population of full Spartiates went into steep decline, and Sparta was defeated by the army of Thebes at the Battle of Leuctra in 371 BCE.

Activity 4.13

- 1 Who was Xerxes?
- 2 Identify when the second Greco-Persian War was fought and why the Persians invaded.
- 3 Who were the 'Allies'?
- 4 Which battle was fought simultaneously with the Battle of Thermopylae?
- 5 Explain what the Delian League was and how it contributed to the Peloponnesian War.

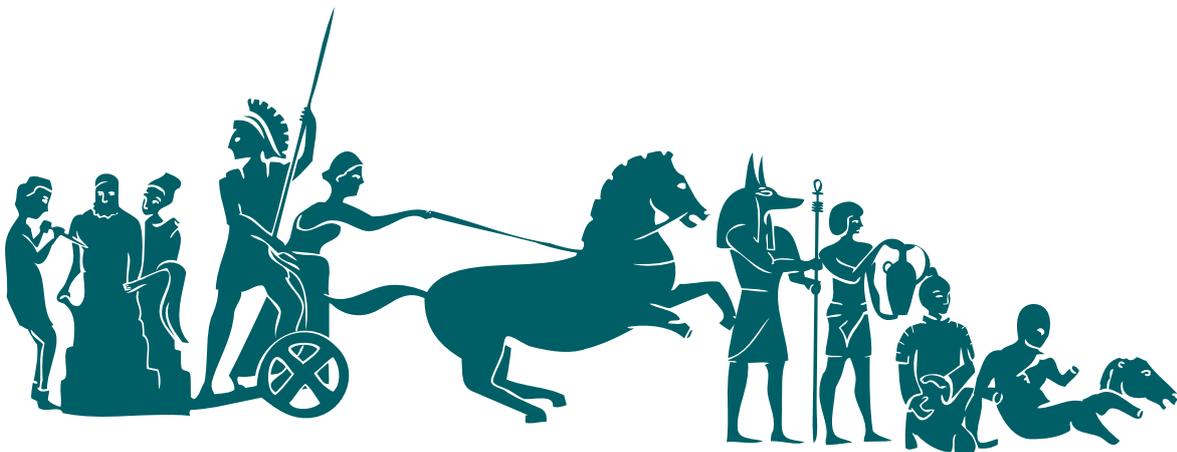
Research 4.4

- 1 Divide the class into groups and research the battles of the Second Greco-Persian War:
 - Thermopylae
 - Artemisium
 - Salamis
 - Plataea.
- 2 Use the information to make a PowerPoint presentation. Be sure to include the following:
 - details of the battle
 - role of the Greeks
 - role of the Persians
 - outcome
 - significance of the battle to the eventual Greek victory in 479 BCE.

Times gone by ...

A succession of kings ruled Athens up until the end of the tenth century BCE. Athens' growing wealth resulted in merchants and other people of means wanting to have more say. Elected judges called *archons* replaced the kings as rulers, although they had nearly as much power. By the mid-eighth century BCE, the position of *archon* was limited to a term of 10 years. In 683 BCE, the office was changed from one *archon* to nine, serving for one-year terms. An *archon* called Solon attempted to develop rule by a council of 400 chosen from all but the poorest groups of Athenians in 594 BCE. Solon's reforms failed and Athens was ruled by a tyrant named Peisistratus from 546–527 BCE. Unlike our contemporary definition of a tyrant, which often refers to a single ruler with a violent and oppressive nature, an ancient Greek tyrant was simply a sole ruler who had taken power unlawfully. Peisistratus seized power by force, but he was also a popular ruler for much of his reign. He was succeeded by his son, Hippias.

- 1 What were the elected judges called who replaced the kings as rulers?
- 2 In what year did the office change from one *archon* to nine serving for one-year terms?
- 3 Discuss whether an ancient Greek tyrant was simply a sole ruler who had taken power lawfully.





Role of significant individuals

Kleisthenes

The aristocratic statesman Kleisthenes is often considered the founder of Athenian democracy. In 508–507 BCE, he divided the population of Athens into 10 tribal groups. Each group would elect by lot 50 representatives to the Council of 500 (called the *boule*). This extended participation in government to all male citizens in Athens. All male citizens were also permitted to vote in the Assembly (the *ekklesia*). These two institutions laid the foundation for Athenian democracy.

Pericles

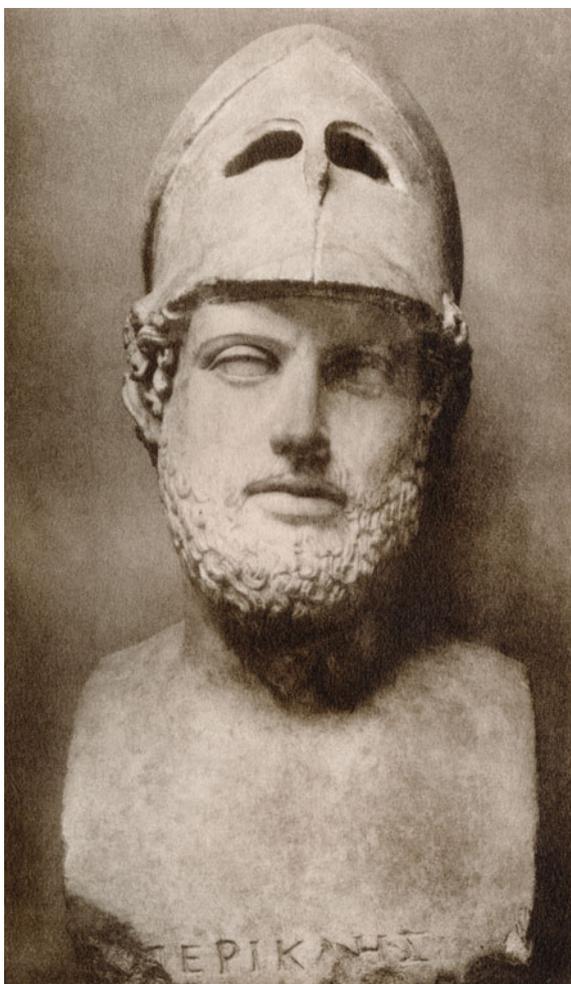
Later, in the 460s BCE, another Athenian, Pericles, expanded the democracy when he was able to get compensation paid to citizens for service in public office and jury duty. This allowed many

who could not financially afford to take office in government to participate, and extended the opportunity to participate in the governance of Athens to all its citizens. Pericles was called ‘the first citizen of Athens’ because of his dedication to democracy. He was also a military general and led Athens through the Peloponnesian War. His rule was referred to as the Golden Age of Athens, and as well as his contribution to how the world now views democracy, his legend also lives on in the Parthenon, the enduring symbol of Ancient Greece, which he commissioned in 447 BCE.

Much of what we know about Pericles is due to the admiration of him expressed by Thucydides. Thucydides participated in the Peloponnesian War as both a general and a recorder of its history, and he later wrote a comprehensive account of the 27-year war between Athens and Sparta. Thucydides held Pericles in awe, and describes him as great politician, great war strategist and as being immeasurably important to the advancement of democracy.

Praxilla

Praxilla of Sicyon was a Greek lyric poet of the fifth century BCE. She was famous as a composer of *skolia* (songs sung by guests at banquets). Only eight fragments of her work survive, but she appears to have been highly esteemed during her lifetime. We know her today from a statue of her made by the sculptor Lysippus and parodies of her work made by the famous Athenian playwright, Aristophanes. This suggests that Aristophanes not only knew her work, but that he expected his Athenian audience to recognise it too.



Source 4.36 Bust of Pericles, the Athenian statesman

Homer

Homer eighth-century BCE Greek poet who wrote the *Iliad* (an account of the Trojan War) and the *Odyssey* (detailing Odysseus's epic journey home after that war)

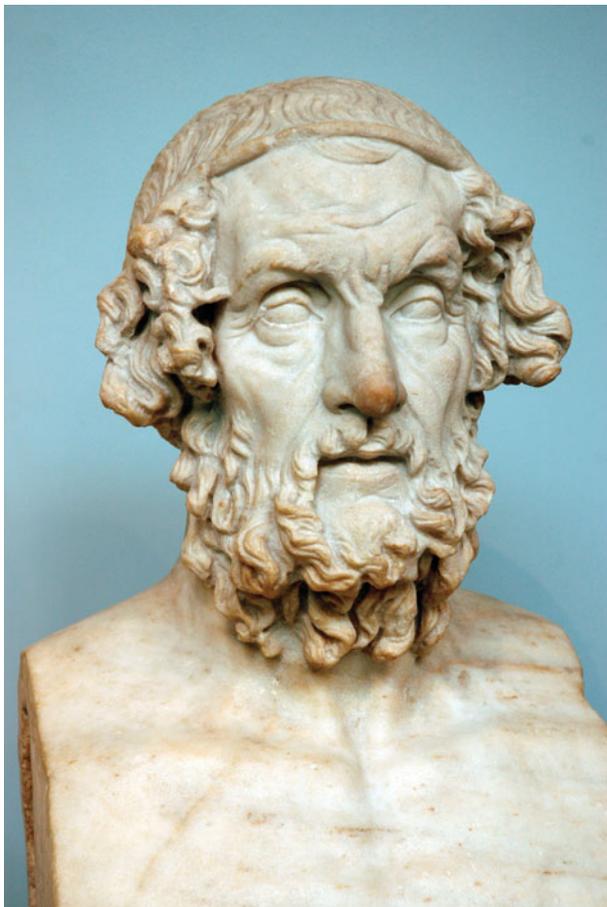
Homer's two epic poems, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, were written in the eighth century BCE, though the stories they tell are set 400 years before Homer's time, in the twelfth century BCE. The *Iliad* tells the story of the Greeks' pursuit of Helen, the wife of the

Spartan king, Menelaus, and the resulting war with Troy. The *Odyssey* details the saga of the 10-year return journey from the Trojan War undertaken by the hero Odysseus, the king of Ithaca, and the gods who hindered and helped him getting home. The *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* are the oldest surviving works of Western literature, and are also remarkable because of the influence they have had on other works of literature throughout the ages.

The **heifer** arrived from the meadow, and ... the smith brought bronze tools in his hands, anvil, hammer and well-wrought tongs, the instruments of his gold-working craft: and Athene [Athena] too arrived to witness the sacrifice. Then old Nestor the charioteer gave the smith gold to gild the heifer's horns, so the goddess would delight in the offering ... Thrasymedes, stalwart in fighting, stood there, gripping a sharp axe to strike the heifer, and Perseus held the dish for the blood ... Thrasymedes... approached and struck the blow ... and the women raised the ritual cry ... When the black blood had flowed, and life had left its body, they dismembered the carcass, cut out the thigh pieces accordingly ... Then the old king burned them on the fire ... while the young men waited beside him, five-pronged forks in hand.

heifer a young cow before she has had her first calf

Source 4.37 Description of a sacrifice to Athena from the *Odyssey* by Homer. Homer, the *Odyssey*, Book III: 404–63.



Source 4.38 Marble bust of Homer, the revered epic poet of ancient Greece

Alexander

The Peloponnesian War effectively destroyed both Athens and Sparta as centres of power and influence in Hellas. Nearly 20 years after the defeat of Athens, Phillip II, the King of Macedon in northern Greece, emerged as a new political leader. Phillip subdued most of Hellas, becoming wealthy and powerful. The key to Macedonian success was a professional army and the use of a modified version of the phalanx, incorporating a 6-metre long pike (*sarissa*). Phillip was assassinated in 336 BCE and succeeded by his son, Alexander, then aged 20.

Over the next 12 years, Alexander established through conquest an empire that included most of Persia, parts of Egypt and northern India. Alexander was seen as a god and called 'the Great'. Even so, he died from a fever (possibly malaria) in Babylon in 323 BCE. There are no known likenesses of Alexander made in his lifetime.



Source 4.39 A likeness of Alexander on a coin issued by Lysimachus (c. 361–281 BCE), later Macedonian King of Thrace. Lysimachus had been a member of Alexander's Companion Cavalry (a type of mounted bodyguard).

Activity 4.14

- 1 Who was Solon and what were his reforms?
- 2 Who was Peisistratos?
- 3 Explain Kleisthenes' contribution to democracy in Athens.
- 4 Based on the information provided here, is it likely that Praxilla was a married woman? Give reasons for your answer.

Legacy

There are many aspects of our culture that are derived from that of the ancient Greeks. Every year, millions of people travel to Greece and nearby parts of the Mediterranean to see the sites, museums and remains of the Greek civilisation. The contribution of the ancient Greeks to the development of political ideas, and especially to democracy, is crucial to the way many countries govern today. Every four years, the Olympic Games brings together athletes from all over our world to compete – in some instances in the same

events as those in antiquity. The Greek language forms a significant part of the English language. We still read and refer to Greek mythology. The intellectual discipline of mathematics began with Greeks like Pythagoras. Similarly, the early Greek scientists like Archimedes or Anaxagoras were crucial to the development of our knowledge. Other areas where the Greek legacy is evident include theatre, art, architecture and philosophy. It is almost impossible to imagine how the world would work without the influence of many of the important ideas of ancient Greece.

Chapter summary

- Ancient Greece dates back to 1200 BCE, covering a time period of over 800 years, and was influenced by earlier cultures, including the Phoenicians, Minoans and Mycenaeans.
- The Greeks called their land Hellas and referred to themselves collectively as Hellenes.
- The Greeks worshipped many gods and held festivals in their honour. Some of these festivals also involved athletic or artistic competitions. The festival at Olympia, held every four years and devoted to Zeus, included the Olympic Games.
- The geography of Greece meant that separate city-states developed. The two most powerful of these were Athens and Sparta.
- Athens was famous as a centre of culture and had great influence on the ancient world. It developed a new form of government, called democracy.
- Sparta was a military state famous for its citizen-soldiers.
- Although the Greek city-states were often in conflict with each other, they rallied together twice to oppose invasion by the Persian empire.
- There are many things today that have been passed down to us by the Greeks; for example, theatre, architecture and philosophy.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

- The god who the Greeks believed spoke through the oracle at Delphi was:
 - Zeus
 - Dionysus
 - Apollo
 - Hermes
- Greek colonisation occurred because of:
 - over-population
 - trade opportunities
 - political tensions
 - all of the above
- At the ancient Olympic Games, held at Olympia:
 - all women were banned from attending the races
 - mothers were allowed to accompany their sons to watch them race
 - young girls and the priestesses of Demeter were permitted to attend the races
 - women were allowed to attend the races if they were naked
- Which statement about women in ancient Athens is false?
 - It was common for girls aged 14 to marry older men.
 - Married women were expected to run the household and look after their children.
 - A woman could not own slaves.
 - A married woman could participate in religious ceremonies.
- In the Second Greco-Persian War:
 - Persia invaded in 490 BCE
 - the Greeks called themselves 'Allies'
 - Persian emperor Darius I sailed home
 - the war ended when the Persian king left for Persia

Short answer

- 1 Explain why ancient Greece is often called the 'Cradle of Western Civilisation'. Give at least two specific examples in your answer.
- 2 How was ancient Athens protected from invaders?
- 3 What was a *polis*?
- 4 Outline what the nature and role of being a citizen in ancient Athens involved.
- 5 Compare how the position of women in Sparta was different from that of women in Athens.

Source analysis

Study Source 4.40 and answer the following questions:

- 1 What does this source show about *hoplites*?
- 2 How did the Greeks defend themselves against the Persian invasion?
- 3 With the exception of Sparta, the ancient Greeks defended themselves against the threat of the Persian invasions with temporary, voluntary armies of male citizens raised by individual *poleis*. How do countries in today's world deal with possible threats from other nations? In your answer you might consider the nature and constitution of modern armies, international agencies like the United Nations or the threat posed by contemporary weapons technology.



Source 4.40 Black figure pottery depiction of *hoplites* fighting, fifth century BCE

Extended response

A unique feature of Athenian democracy was the use of a lottery system to appoint nearly all public officials. Discuss the positive and negative aspects of using such a lottery system in Australia today.



Source 4.41 The Diadumene Room at the National Archaeological Museum, Athens, which houses many important artefacts from ancient Greece

5



Ancient Rome

Source 5.1 The world's most famous aqueduct, Pont du Gard in southern France, is so well known because of its massive size: it is more than 43 metres high and almost 245 metres long.

Before you start

Main focus

From the mythical beginning of twin boys raised by a mother wolf grew the world's first superpower – the city of ancient Rome that controlled the Mediterranean region for 1000 years.

Why it's relevant today

Ancient Rome's legacy lives on politically, practically and philosophically: the republican concept and much of the Roman's Latin language is used in English today; arches, aqueducts, roads and buildings still exist today; and Roman concepts of power, wealth, beauty and love are still important themes today.

Inquiry questions

- Why was the founding of Rome so significant?
- How was the Roman Republic governed?
- What were Romans' daily values and practices?
- Why was there such peace during the early Empire period?
- Why did the powerful Roman Empire collapse?

Key terms

- aqueduct
- civilisation
- Colosseum
- constitution
- empire
- forum
- gladiators
- Mediterranean
- patricians
- plebeians
- republic
- Senate
- slaves

Significant individuals

- Romulus and Remus
- Julius Caesar
- Emperor Augustus
- Emperor Nero
- Emperor Caligula
- Queen Cleopatra of Egypt

Let's begin

Ancient Rome united the whole of the Mediterranean coastline under a single ruler. Powerful leaders like Julius Caesar, blood sports like the gladiator games in the Colosseum and inspiring engineering feats like the aqueducts and roads still capture our imagination. Rome was a civilisation with complex political, economic and social systems, many of which continue to influence our modern life today.



Source 5.2 Remains of a Roman aqueduct



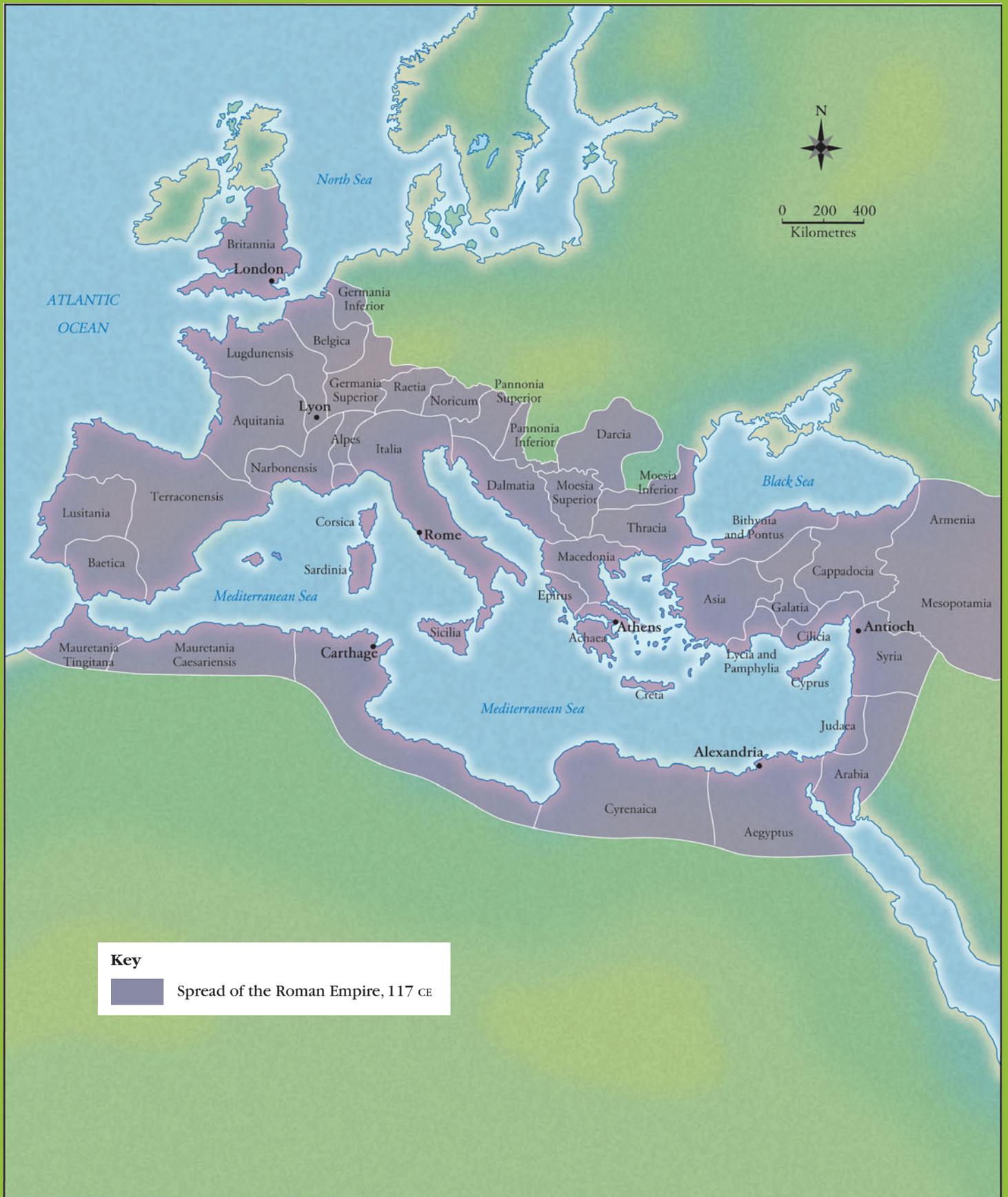
Source 5.3 Romulus and Remus depicted on a Roman coin



Source 5.4 The Roman Colosseum

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS	WORLD EVENTS
700 BCE . . . Romulus founds the city of Rome c. 753 BCE	. 776–393 BCE Olympic Games in Greece
600 BCE . . . Etruscans begin their rule of Rome c. 616 BCE	.
500 BCE . . . The Roman Republic begins c. 509 BCE	. 563–483 BCE The life of the Buddha in Ancient India begins the Buddhist religion
400 BCE . . . Circus Maximus is built c. 326 BCE	.
The first aqueduct, the Aqua Appia, is built c. 312 BCE	.
300 BCE . . . Rome issues coins for the first time c. 280 BCE	.
Rome controls all of the Italian Peninsula c. 275 BCE	220 BCE Construction of the Great Wall of China begins during the Qin dynasty in ancient China
First Punic War is fought between Rome c. 264 BCE and Carthage	210 BCE Burial of the 8000 terracotta warriors in ancient China
200 BCE . . . Gaius Marius creates the world's first c. 107 BCE permanent and professional army	.
100 BCE . . . Julius Caesar is murdered by the senators c. 44 BCE	.
The Roman Empire begins with the rule c. 27 BCE of Emperor Augustus	30 BCE Queen Cleopatra's death makes Egypt a Roman province
1 CE
Emperor Augustus dies c. 14 CE	c. 1 CE The traditional date for the birth of Jesus Christ. Jesus was born in Bethlehem due to Roman Emperor Augustus' first census.
Rule of bad Emperor Caligula c. 37–41 CE	43 CE Roman begins its conquest of England and controls it until the fifth century
Rule of bad Emperor Nero c. 54–68 CE	
Colosseum opened by Emperor Titus c. 80 CE	
The population of the city of Rome c. 100 CE grows to one million people	
Popular Emperor Trajan dies, leaving Rome c. 117 CE at the peak of its power	
Rule of good Emperor Hadrian, which c. 117–138 CE includes building the Pantheon in 130 CE	
Emperor Constantine moves the capital of c. 330 CE Rome to Constantinople	250–900 CE Ancient Mayan cities in Latin America develop into a strong society
Rome is invaded by powerful Goths c. 410 CE	
The Roman Empire ends c. 476 CE	



Key
 Spread of the Roman Empire, 117 CE

Source 5.5 When Emperor Trajan died in 117 CE, the massive Roman Empire was at its greatest. It covered five million square kilometres with over 100 million people as its subjects. Yet it grew out of a single Italian city with a population, at its largest, of only one million.



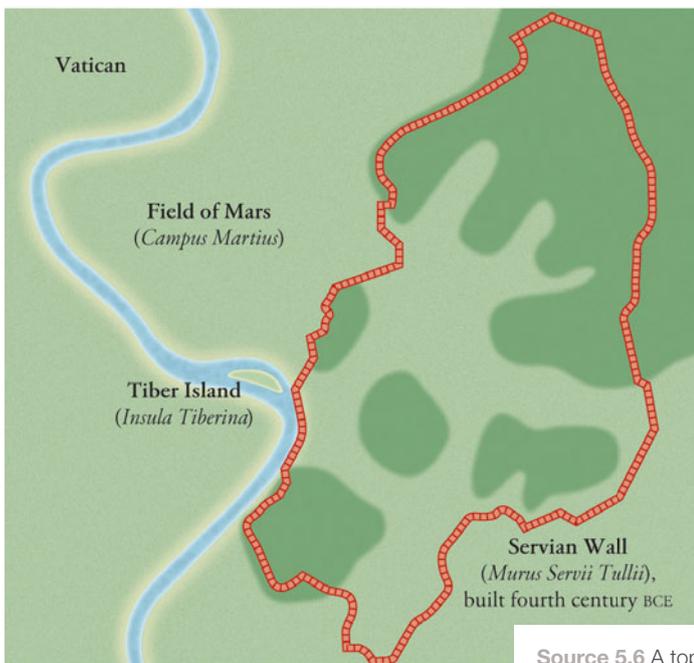
Physical features and their influence

Geography has always played a crucial role in history. Cities have been built based on geographical factors such as rivers. Battles have been won or lost because of geographical factors such as hills. Civilisations have grown or died due to their use of the land.

Italy has a perfect location. It lies almost directly in the centre of the Mediterranean Sea from east to west. It is famously shaped like a

high-heeled boot, which means that it has easy access to sea transport and trade on three sides due to its long, narrow shape. The north of the country has direct access to Europe but was also protected from invaders due to the high Alps. Even more significant was the rich and fertile land, in combination with a mild climate, which meant that it was able to support a large population with jobs and food.

Activity 5.1



Source 5.6 A topographical map of ancient Rome showing the Tiber River and the seven hills

1 Find a map of Rome (you will find a link to one at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks) and identify the seven hills and Tiber River where the city of Rome was founded.

2 Match which rivers the following modern cities are built upon:

Paris (France)

Swan River

Cairo (Egypt)

Neva River

London (England)

Seine River

Perth (Australia)

Nile River

St Petersburg (Russia)

Thames River

3 What are the advantages of building a city on a river?

How did the city of Rome begin?

Legend a popular story that is believed by many people

Legend says that Rome was founded by twin brothers, Romulus and Remus, who were born to Mars, the god of war. They were thrown from the heavens to earth after a fight between their parents and their great-uncle. Their evil great-uncle abandoned them in a basket on the Tiber River, but they were washed to the shore and were rescued by a mother wolf. The wolf fed and raised the boys until a shepherd discovered them and adopted them as his own sons.

When the boys were older, they decided to build a city in the seven hills surrounding the Tiber River where they had been saved. The brothers fought about the exact location of the city and about the city's design. In a heated argument, Romulus murdered his brother. Romulus then built the city as he had planned and named it Rome after himself (Rome-ulus). After populating the city, Romulus returned to heaven in a thunderstorm.

There are some interesting interpretations of the significance of the legend of Romulus and Remus and the future city of Rome.

- 1 Rome was founded by the sons of gods – meaning that the city always had a strong

connection with the gods. This was shown through religion being a crucial part of everyday life.

- 2 The legend of Romulus and Remus symbolises the political tension that community living involves – and foreshadows the Roman civil wars. Like most ancient civilisations, though, Rome had an interest in warfare. This was shown through the Romans' admiration of gladiators and architecture like the Colosseum.

- 3 Rome was founded on the power struggle between Mars and the evil great-uncle Amulius. This depicts the desire for power that most ancient **civilisations** share in common. The value placed on the struggle for power in ancient Rome was shown through assassinations of powerful leaders.

civilisation a society that has developed an organised system of government, social customs and religious beliefs, and a number of forms of technology including writing and the arts

- 4 Rome was founded on the care of the mother wolf and shepherd – meaning that the city always had a strong rural connection. It also symbolises the rugged toughness of the Romans (the wolf), their fierce determination to protect their citizens against all enemies and attackers (the mother wolf) and the agricultural/pastoral nature of Rome's founders and economy.



Source 5.7 Romulus and Remus are rescued by a mother wolf.

How did Rome develop into a major city?

Whether Rome was really founded by Romulus and Remus is unclear, but what is known is that it developed into a major city. The region where the city was founded was called Latium, which meant that the people who lived there were called the Latins; they originally arrived in Italy in the 1000s BCE. The city of Rome was ruled by native Latin kings (beginning with Romulus) who made the city bigger, busier and more successful. Around 616 BCE, the city was taken over by

Etruscans the name of the northern Italian people who greatly influenced early Roman society

people from the north of Italy called the **Etruscans**, a sophisticated group of people who were very influenced by Greek culture. For example, the Etruscans wrote using the Greek letters, used Greek engineering techniques and architecture, and were excellent metalworkers and jewellers. Powerful Etruscan kings – Tarquinius Priscus, Servius Tullius and Tarquinius Superbus – drained the marshes in the centre of Rome and built the first temples, shops and public buildings there. The Etruscans then ruled the city for over 100 years and were directly responsible for creating the foundations on which Rome's greatness was built.

How was Rome designed and built?

Engineering and architecture have left us remarkable legacies. Even 2000 years later, many original examples of Roman engineering feats

survive. Unlike the Greeks, who were interested in knowledge for its own sake, the Romans sought to use their knowledge for practical purposes. Science was used to design Roman cities, sewerage systems, underfloor heating, amphitheatres, temples and domes.

Aqueducts

Aqueducts were cleverly designed structures used to transport fresh water from mountain springs to the cities. The word 'aqueduct' actually means 'bringing water'. They could be built above ground due to the Romans' invention of concrete and round arches. Limestone blocks were lifted into place using human-powered cranes. **Siphons**, filter tanks and tunnels were also part of the innovative engineering techniques. Water moved with gravity through channels or pipes, so every aqueduct needed to point slightly downhill. Eleven large aqueducts brought 1000 million litres of water over a distance of 50 kilometres to the city of Rome in the first century CE.

aqueduct structures designed to transport fresh water to cities

siphons pipes used to transport water upwards from a container

Roads

Roman roads held the republic and the empire together. The roads totalled 80 450 kilometres and were built as networks for communication, trade and the army. Roads were built perfectly straight over or through hills, and cost so much that they had to be paid for by the Roman state. They were constructed by the army using a

How the Etruscans influenced the city of Rome

- They built the first city walls and sewerage system.
- They introduced building techniques such as the arch.
- They introduced the alphabet and number system.
- They helped develop the system of government.
- They introduced gladiator games and chariot racing.
- They influenced styles of art such as sculpture and painting.

**HISTORICAL
FACT**

There were markers on every Roman road that recorded the distance to the Forum in the centre of Rome. All roads *did* lead to Rome!

strong base of large stones on sand, and were built up with smaller stones and mud to create a strong road with excellent drainage. The roads quickly attracted frequent use by a great variety of travellers, from mail couriers to government officials, tax collectors, Christian missionaries, athletes traveling to competitions and tourists going to see the famous city of Rome.

Massive monument: The Forum

At the centre of the busy city of Rome was the Forum. It was the main public square and where the most important government buildings – such as the Senate house and major religious temples – were located. It was also the main shopping centre, with shops along the edges where people came to buy, sell and gossip. Major festivals were held in the Forum and Roman leaders spent time there most afternoons mingling with the citizens. The Forum was simply the busiest place in the busiest city in the world.



Source 5.8 An illustration of what the Forum may have looked like in ancient Roman times



Role of key groups

republic a political system where the government is chosen by the people and there is no monarch

In 509 BCE, the Romans overthrew the Etruscans and in a direct move against the political rule of kings created a **republic** that was to last for another 500 years. The phrase '*res publica*' means 'public things'.

Interestingly, as Italy increasingly fell under Roman control, Rome itself became more Italian.

How was the Roman republic structured?

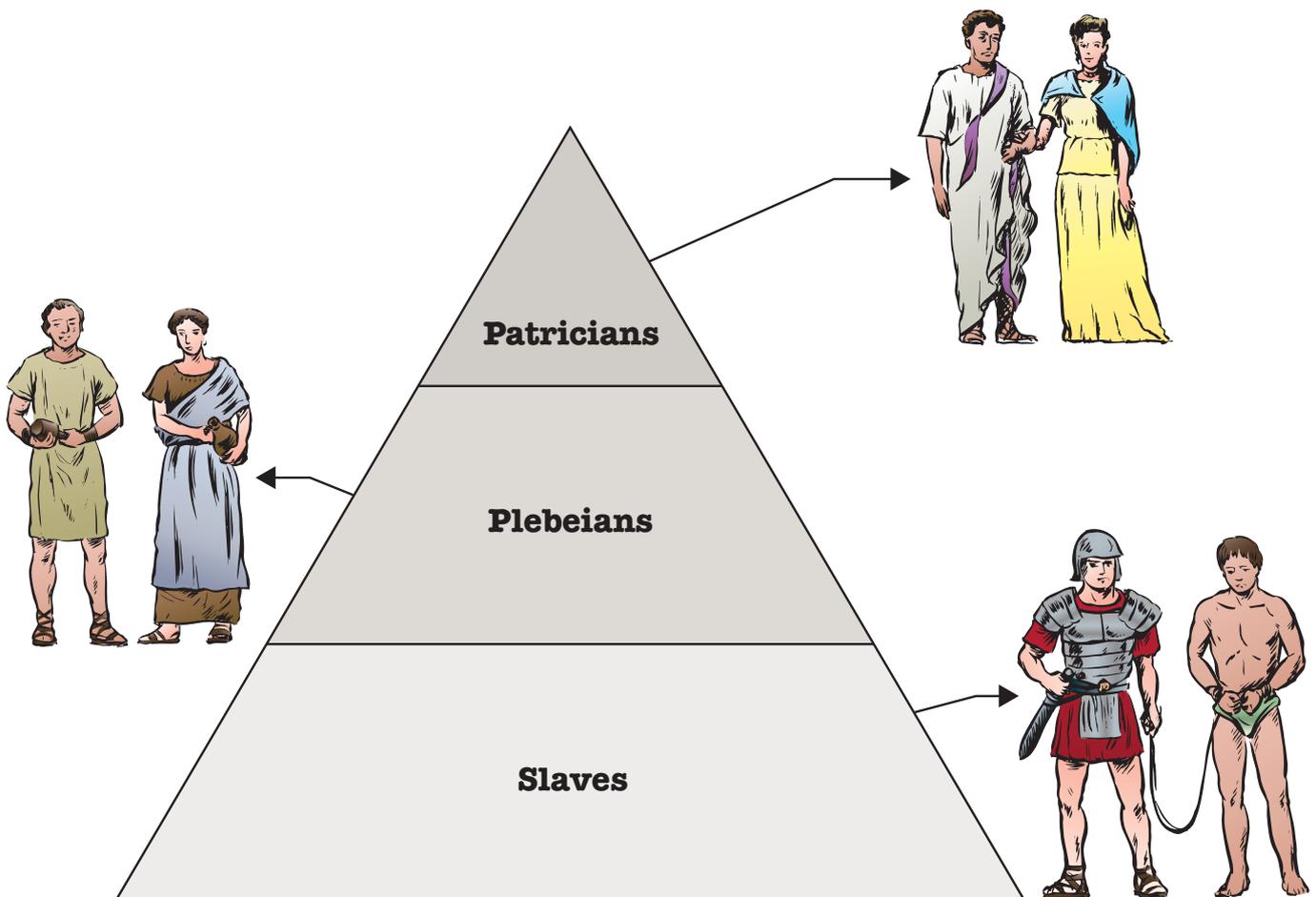
Rome was based on a rigid system of classes divided into three main social groups of people: the wealthy patricians, the ordinary plebeians and the slaves who did most of the work.

Patricians

Patrician was the name given to the ruling class in Rome. Patrician families owned large amounts of land and lived in luxurious houses. At first, patrician families controlled every aspect of Roman society – politics, religion, the economy and the military. The jobs that patricians filled were the best in the city, such as being a member of the **Senate**, holding the top jobs in the government, heading up the army or holding a priesthood. Patrician men and women lived lives of luxury, comfort and influence.

patrician a member of the wealthy ruling class

Senate the powerful parliament made up of wealthy men who advised the consuls and people



Source 5.9 The social hierarchy of ancient Rome

Plebeians

plebeian a member of the ordinary working class

Plebeians were all those free citizens who were not patricians. This was therefore a more diverse class than the patricians.

Plebeians who were bankers and merchants were quite rich, whereas plebeian farmers, shopkeepers, labourers, fortune tellers, goldsmiths and cobblers were of lower class. But as free citizens, plebeians were able to vote in elections and thus choose which patrician families to put into power.

Slaves

Slaves played a crucial role in allowing Roman society to function effectively and expand quickly by undertaking the hardest jobs. Out of the one million people who lived in Rome in the first century CE, one-third were slaves. Slavery was accepted as normal and even vital to the Roman economy.

slave a person who served a master or mistress and had no rights

People were enslaved for a variety of reasons – including being born to slave parents, being abandoned at birth by free parents, being a convicted criminal or being captured during war. Wealthy Romans often considered slaves to be a measure of their status – the more slaves you owned, the more important you were.

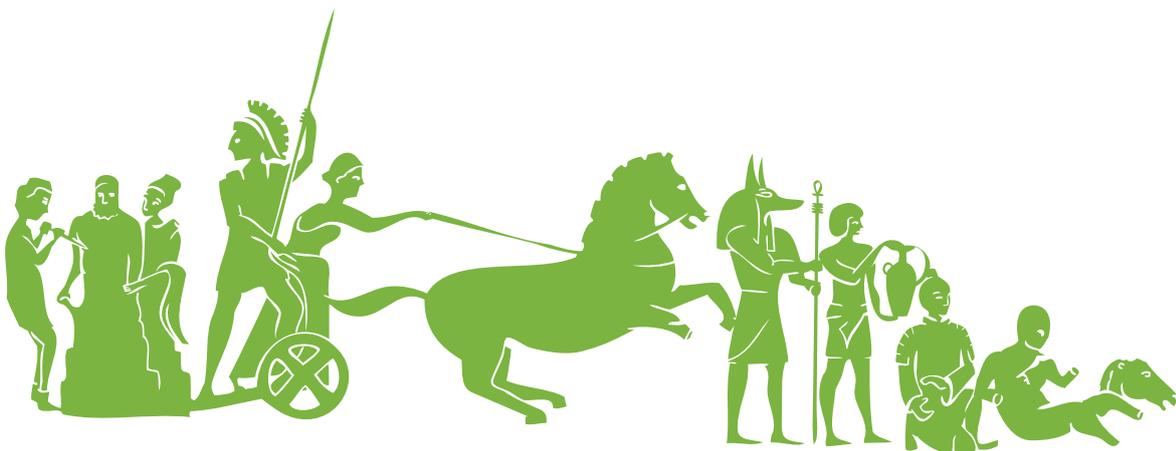
Activity 5.2

The saying ‘as many enemies as slaves’ was one of the common ideas in ancient Rome.

- 1 Explain what you think this proverb means.
- 2 Why do you think social status played an important part in the ownership of slaves?
- 3 See ancient Rome and the Forum in 3D at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks, and take a whole tour of the city of ancient Rome.

HISTORICAL FACT

Some children were freed from slavery before their parents. There were even some cases where the children then bought their own parents as their slaves!



Activity 5.3

Complete this table by marking the statements TRUE or FALSE.

A Plebeians were wealthier than patricians.	TRUE / FALSE
B Patricians could be members of the Senate.	TRUE / FALSE
C A person could be born into slavery.	TRUE / FALSE
D Some plebeians had a lot of money but others could be quite poor.	TRUE / FALSE
E All slaves were treated cruelly.	TRUE / FALSE
F Patricians families controlled every aspect of Roman society.	TRUE / FALSE

What was law and order like in Rome?

Law and discipline were crucial aspects of life in Rome. The republican system of passing laws through the assemblies meant that careful decisions were made, laws remained stable and these laws could be enforced. Roman law applied only to Roman citizens, not the 'growing empire'. Laws were formulated by the Senate, but only the people could enact legislation by voting on what the senators presented to them. Until 287 BCE, *plebescites* (laws passed in the Concilium Plebis, the Plebeian Assembly) applied only to plebeians.

To help develop the relationship between the patrician and plebeian classes, Rome's first law code was written in 451 and 450 BCE. This code became known as the 'Laws of the 12 Tables' because the laws were displayed on 12 large bronze tablets in the central Roman Forum. These laws meant that patrician judges had to make decisions based on these published laws. Some of these laws included that the two classes were not allowed to intermarry and that a plebeian only had 30 days to pay back a debt to a patrician.

How did the Roman republic work?

The new republican system worked well because it was made up of four main parts: consuls, the Senate, assemblies and magistrates. Having lots of different branches of government meant that there was strong accountability, or checks and balances, to make sure that good decisions were made and power was distributed equitably.

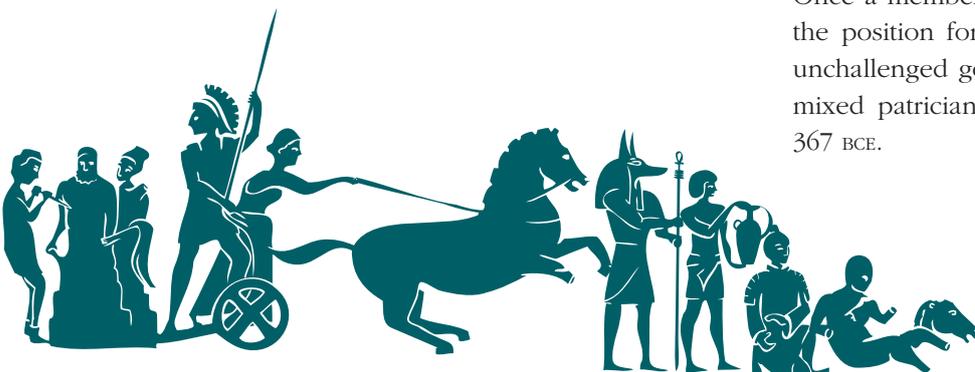
Consuls

The highest role in the government was a **consul**. Two consuls were elected every year to run the city of Rome and head up the army in times of war.

consul the highest role in the government of Rome

Senate

The consuls were advised by a body called the Senate. Senators were not elected – or at least not directly. They entered the Senate after being elected to high office. The Senate was made up of 300 men from the wealthy patrician class. Once a member of the Senate, the senator held the position for life. The Senate worked as the unchallenged government of Rome. It became a mixed patrician–plebeian aristocratic body after 367 BCE.



Assemblies

assembly a group of people with the power to vote on the decisions of the Senate

There were several different **assemblies**, each made up of adult male citizens, who voted on the decisions made by the Senate and on who should be officials.

The most important votes concerned whether to declare war or peace.

Magistrates

magistrates elected officials who had the power to put laws into practice

Magistrates were officials who put the laws into practice on behalf of the people. Magistrates could be members of either the patrician or plebeian class.

What did men, women and children do each day?

Despite vast differences between poor and wealthy families in Roman society, everyone fulfilled their roles in a network of cooperation.

Role of men and boys

paterfamilias the name given to the male head of the household; the family father

Instead of everyone being equal and able to share their opinions and make decisions together, as in many families today, Roman families had a **paterfamilias**.

This meant that the father (the *pater* – usually the oldest living male in a nuclear family unit) was the dominant and most powerful member of the family, who controlled everyone else from his wife and his sons' wives down to each of his slaves. When a daughter married, she passed out of the control of her father and into her husband's control.

By the first century CE, however, a more flexible type of Roman marriage, called *sine manu*, was adopted, which meant that the husband and wife were more equal. There were very clear values that each man needed to foster within this strong family structure: simplicity, religious devotion and obedience.

Wealthy men did not do much practical work or manual labour. They enjoyed their luxurious estates while working in the government or high up in the army. Wealthy men often spent their time discussing political issues among public officials or political groups. In comparison, men in the lower plebeian class had manual jobs, such as butchers, fishmongers, bath attendants, fruit sellers, porters, leatherworkers, bakers, traders or blacksmiths. Their sons were involved in learning their father's job.

Great value was placed on education, especially for boys. Boys in wealthy families were educated in mathematics, Latin, reading, writing and poetry until they were 16 years old.

Role of women and girls

Women had two crucial roles: managing the household and being a mother. There was a complex series of roles in maintaining a household. The amount of work that a woman did around the house was dependent on how many slaves, if any, she had to help her. Richer women managed many slaves, which gave them more independence to enjoy leisure activities. Girls usually stayed at home with their mother until they were old enough to marry. Some girls had some primary schooling and were educated before they got married. Only 50 per cent of children ever reached puberty, due to the high occurrence of deadly diseases such as smallpox, dysentery and measles. This meant

HISTORICAL FACT

Boys and girls could not wear underwear until they were considered an adult. A boy was regarded as a man when his beard first began to grow. A girl was regarded as a woman when she got married. To symbolise that they had become an adult, all their childhood toys and clothes were burnt!

that many Roman women needed to have four or five children in order for at least two of them to grow to an age when they could marry. Roman women had citizenship but they were not permitted to vote.

Ordinary women (and a large proportion of the poorer Roman population) with smaller

houses or overcrowded apartments did not spend so much time on maintaining the household, as they were often required to earn money as well. Hence they often held jobs outside the home, such as shopkeepers, midwives, dressmakers or stallholders in the market.

A woman's role

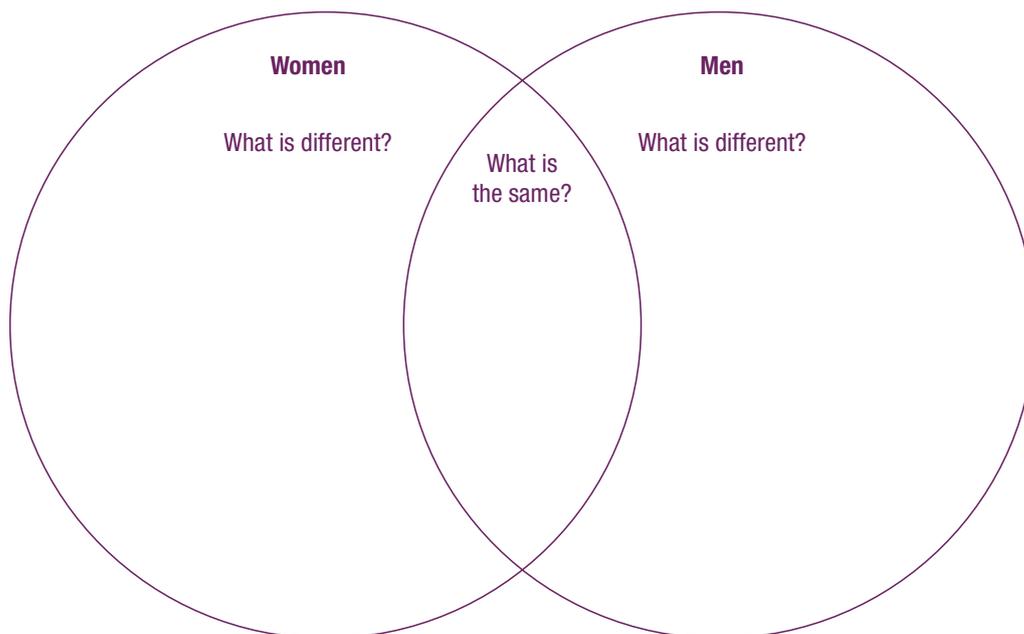
A woman's main role was managing her household, with men often away for business or serving in the army. She had responsibility for:

- maintaining the home
- spinning and weaving
- controlling the finances
- writing her own will
- supervising the upbringing of children.

She also had freedom to enjoy public entertainments and spend time with women friends.

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, compare the similarities and differences between the roles of men and women.



**HISTORICAL
FACT**

More women died in childbirth than the number of men who died in battle.



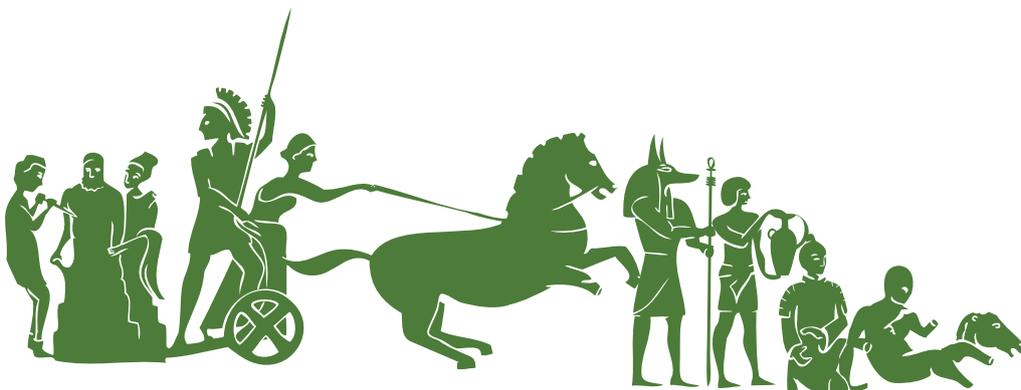
The words on gravestones today often list basic facts about the person and are called an epitaph. In comparison, cemeteries in Roman times were located along main roads so gravestones were meant to be read by people passing by. Source 5.10 is an example of one epitaph from the second century BCE describing the qualities of a good wife.

Times gone by ...

Stranger, I have only a few words to say. Stop and read them. This is the unlovely tomb of a lovely woman. Her parents named her Claudia. She loved her husband with all her heart. She bore two sons; one whom she leaves here on Earth, the other she has already placed under the earth. She was charming in her speech, yet pleasant and proper in manner. She managed the household well. She spun wool. I have spoken. Go on your way.

Source 5.10 Epitaph from gravestone, second century BCE

- 1 List three of Claudia's positive qualities.
- 2 What is helpful and unhelpful about using gravestones to learn about Roman life?
- 3 This epitaph is 82 words long. Notice that the sentences are very short. Write an epitaph for yourself in 82 words that describes your personality, achievements and interests.



Research 5.1

Women in Rome were not allowed to hold public office or vote, even though they were allowed to own property. Yet women exercised some power. They joined the men at dinner parties and were actively involved in political discussions and decisions. There were some very powerful women who exerted considerable influence.

Use the internet and your library's resources to research one of the following influential female Roman leaders in more detail:

- Lucretia
- Cornelia – mother of the Gracchi
- Livia Drusilla
- Clodia – sister of Clodius
- Julia Agrippina – Caligula's sister
- Claudia Quinta.

Be sure to research the major achievements of the woman you choose. Gather information about her birth, life, death and, importantly, her political influence. Present your findings to the class as a PowerPoint presentation, Prezi presentation or poster.

What did Romans wear?

What did ordinary Romans wear?

tunic the basic piece of clothing worn by both men and women

stola a shorter tunic worn as the outer garment for fashion

toga a long garment worn on special occasions

Both men and women wore a simple **tunic**, which was a long piece of clothing with holes for the head and arms. It was a woman's responsibility to spin and weave the wool to make clothing for her family. A man's tunic was knee-length, so that his legs were free, and was tied with a belt around the waist. Women's tunics were ankle-length and made more fashionable by adding a shorter

tunic, called a **stola**, over the top. The stola was clipped onto the tunic with a big brooch on the woman's shoulder. On special occasions people wore the traditional **toga**, a long piece of material that wound around the person's body, over the left shoulder and under the right arm. Both men and women wore sandals on their feet that laced up their ankles and calves.

What did wealthy Romans wear?

Wealthy Romans were able to afford more decorative clothing and paid a lot of attention to their appearance. For example, many wealthy families wore clothes made from linen that had come from Egypt or silk from China. Wealthy families also had slaves who spent hours styling the women's hair, with complicated hairstyles that included braids, curls and buns. The slaves washed the women's hair with scented oils and sometimes dyed it with colour made from boiled leaves and fruit. Women also wore beautiful jewellery – bracelets, brooches, hairpieces, earrings and necklaces – and makeup. Having a pale face was a sign of status to show that they were different from poor women who had tanned faces from working outside, so wealthy women used creams made from chalk and flour to whiten their skin. Wealthy men were also concerned with their looks. Men's hair fashions were taken from the way the emperor wore his hair. For example, most men were clean shaven but if the emperor grew a beard, then men grew a beard too.

HISTORICAL FACT

HISTORICAL FACT Only emperors and senators were allowed to wear purple. This was because purple dye was expensive and time-consuming to produce. Snails from the Mediterranean Sea were used to make the dye. They had a gland near their gills where they produced a colour that turned purple when it came into contact with oxygen. Several thousand snails were needed to produce one gram of purple dye.



Significant beliefs, values and practices

What was the role of religion?

Religion was a crucial part of life in Rome. There were hundreds of gods, both male (a god) and female (a goddess). Some of the Roman gods were the same as the Greek gods, but had been given different names. Each had a specific aspect of life for which he or she was responsible. Given that every part of life had a god, Romans had to make sure that they honoured the gods in order to ensure a good life and good fortune. Many Romans also worshipped the emperor as a god.

Temples were built for each god. The temple was considered to be the home of that god and a statue of them was placed inside. The god was honoured through regular sacrifices on the altar outside the temple by a priest. The sacrifice could be birds, goats, pigs or cows, and indicated

respect for the god. Romans believed that the gods sent messages through natural events, such as the actions of sacred chickens, the flight of birds and even the arrangement of entrails. It was also common for a priest to examine a dead animal and interpret messages sent by the god. For example, a clean liver meant good luck whereas diseased organs meant that a bad event was coming. Festivals and feast days were held for each god.

As the Roman Empire expanded, it absorbed religious beliefs from the societies it conquered. For example, many Romans began to worship Mithras, a Persian deity, while many worshipped Isis, an important goddess in Egyptian mythology. In most cases, the Roman authorities allowed worship of non-Roman gods in the territories it conquered, while also setting up temples for the traditional Roman gods. They did this to help include new cultures in the growing Roman society.



Source 5.11 The original Pantheon in Rome was built by Marcus Agrippa as temple to all the gods.

Roman gods

Source 5.12 Twelve Roman gods

Jupiter

Title: King of the Gods
Greek name: Zeus
Symbol: lightning bolt
Role: Protected Rome; controlled the sky and weather



Minerva

Title: Goddess of Wisdom
Greek name: Athena
Symbol: owl
Role: wore armour and advised people on how to make good decisions



Juno

Title: Queen of the Gods
Greek name: Hera
Symbol: peacock
Role: Wife of Jupiter; goddess of women and marriage



Neptune

Title: God of the Sea
Greek name: Poseidon
Symbol: trident
Role: rode a dolphin through storms to calm the waves



Mars

Title: God of War
Greek name: Ares
Symbol: sword
Role: gave strength and courage to the army to win battles



Venus

Title: Goddess of Love
Greek name: Aphrodite
Symbol: scallop shell
Role: protected and promoted love; mother of Cupid



Apollo

Title: God of the Sun
Greek name: Apollo
Symbol: sun
Role: Drove his chariot of fiery horses across the sky to give light to the world



Vulcan

Title: God of Fire
Greek name: Hephaestus
Symbol: blacksmith's tongs
Role: used his fire to make weapons for other gods, such as Jupiter's lightning bolts



Ceres

Title: Goddess of the Earth
Greek name: Demeter
Symbol: horn full of vegetables and fruit
Role: helped crops grow well



Pluto

Title: God of Death
Greek name: Hades
Symbol: coin
Role: ruled beneath the earth; dead people used the coins to travel to the underworld



Saturn

Title: God of Time
Greek name: Chronos
Symbol: scythe
Role: ruled the gods before Jupiter; Jupiter, Neptune and Pluto were his children; they represented air, water and death – the three things that time cannot kill



Cupid

Title: God of Love
Greek name: Eros
Symbol: bow and arrow
Role: anyone hit by his arrow fell madly in love



Activity 5.4

Use all of the information in Source 5.12 to decide the god to which you would pray about each of the following issues.

Issue	Name of god
If you wanted someone to fall in love with you	
If you were a trader preparing to sail a ship full of goods back to Rome	
If you needed good weather	
If you needed time to be on your side	
If you needed a bright day for a festival	
If you were preparing for a battle	
If your marriage had problems	
If your crops were not growing well	
If you wanted to have a positive experience after you died	
If you had a major problem to solve	

Vestal Virgins

Vesta was the goddess of the hearth, which meant that she was responsible for maintaining the fire that warmed each house. The temple built for Vesta was called the House of the Vestals and contained a flame to honour Vesta that was never allowed to go out. If the flame went out, it was believed that Rome would immediately be destroyed. Girls aged between six and ten

were chosen from wealthy families to make sure that the flame stayed alight. These honoured priestesses were called Vestal Virgins and lived in the temple for the 30 years of their life. The Vestal Virgins enjoyed privileges denied to other Roman women, and were able to manage their own affairs. They were given unlimited spending money and allowed special treatment at the theatre and gladiatorial games.

HISTORICAL FACT

During their 30 years of service, Vestal Virgins were not allowed to have sex or get married. If they did, they faced terrible consequences such as being buried alive.



What were Roman houses like?

villa a large home in the country owned by a wealthy family

atrium open living area in the centre of a home

Wealthy families often had a house in Rome and another in the country, called a **villa**. Rich people's homes often had conveniences that we take for granted today, such as running water and toilets. Large houses were usually only one storey and were

built around an open **atrium** with no roof so that sunshine and rain would collect in a central pool. Romans admired beautiful things, so rich people's houses had artistic mosaics, colourful paintings, marble floors and strong stone statues. Oil lamps were used for lighting, an open fireplace for heating and a wood oven for cooking. Surrounding the house were beautiful gardens, servants' quarters and even private baths.

Most of the one million people who lived in Rome were not wealthy. They lived in crowded and unhealthy apartments, which were badly built and poorly maintained. There was no kitchen, no

heating and no running water. This meant that families slept in their apartments but spent most of their time in the streets and markets. Families would often buy their meals from the street stalls or taverns. Streets in Rome were therefore busy and noisy until late into the night. A survey conducted in Rome in 350 CE revealed that there were only 1782 private houses for the wealthy but 46 602 blocks of apartments for the poor.

Fire was a constant problem because the open flames that were used for lighting and cooking could easily burn the wooden frames used to build the apartments. No running water meant that fires could not be put out easily unless buckets were quickly carried up from the public fountains below. Thousands of Romans lost their lives in fires. There was also the problem of what to do with human waste. Given that the apartments could be up to six storeys high, most people couldn't be bothered carrying buckets down the steps and instead simply threw the waste out the window. The streets had raised footpaths so that people could avoid the mud, sewage and garbage.

HISTORICAL FACT

Often the apartments of the lower classes smelled so stale and horrible from rubbish and sewage that they deliberately burned bread to hide the smell.

Activity 5.5

Learning about other societies can help you to better understand your world today. Answer the following questions about Roman housing compared with houses today:

- 1 Wealthy Romans' houses were decorated with pools, mosaics and statues. What is similar to and different from wealthy people's houses today?
- 2 Fire was a major problem in Roman apartments. Outline some common problems in today's houses.
- 3 Romans threw their garbage and sewage out of the window into the street. Explain how we dispose of our garbage and sewage today.
- 4 Romans spent much of their time in the streets rather than inside their apartments. What is similar and different about how you spend your time today?

What was the role of food?

What did wealthy Romans eat?

Famous modern-day English chef Heston Blumenthal describes Roman eating as 'food drama'. He argues that the Romans invented the concept of 'dinner theatre', where eating was an experience that was far more than just the taste and flavours of the food. Instead, feasts for wealthy Romans were also about what the guests were seeing, hearing and smelling. Extravagant banquets would have involved several courses with elaborate entertainment such as clowns, dancers, singers, storytellers or poets. The guests dined lying down on large couches and ate with their fingers, enjoying the food, wine and entertainment, and discussing politics and philosophy. The guests were served by slaves,

who refilled glasses, brought new dishes and regularly cleaned the fingers of the guests.

Roman cooking was about creating pleasure for the guests. Roman historian Petronius described the famous example of Trimalchio's banquet where a notorious dish called 'The Trojan Hog' was served. The drama occurred when a huge whole pig was carved up at the table and, to the horror of the guests, its intestines all splattered on to the table as if the chef had forgotten to gut the pig. The entertainment was the transformation of disgust into surprised joy when the guests realised that the 'intestines' were actually different coloured gourmet sausages that had been carefully inserted into the belly of the pig. Emperor Caligula was once so annoyed that a pig served at the table seemingly had not been gutted that he ordered the chef to be beheaded. He quickly discovered that it was a famous 'Trojan Hog'. Fortunately the chef was spared!

HISTORICAL FACT

HISTORICAL FACT

While it is well known that ancient Romans liked to feast to excess, it is a common misconception that they visited a 'vomitorium' to purge themselves of food in order to make room for the next course. In fact, a 'vomitorium' was a passage in an amphitheatre, through which large crowds could pass. The word comes from a verb meaning 'to spew forth', which is perhaps how the misuse of the word started!

What did ordinary Romans eat?

In comparison, poorer Roman families only ate one meal per day. Ingredients were more limited than the types of foods that the wealthy could

afford. All Romans enjoyed red and white wine. The wine was mixed with water because drinking straight wine was considered bad manners.

Foods eaten by poor Romans	Foods eaten by wealthy Romans
Olives	Same as poor people plus ...
Grapes, apples, dates and cherries	Exotic fruits and vegetables
Bread	Common meats: pig, fish and chicken
Eggs	Exotic meats: peacock, bear, ostrich
Cheese	Snails
Beans	Sea urchins and oysters
Porridge	Honey cake



Source 5.13 A fresco recovered from Pompeii shows that it was common to buy bread, rather than baking it at home.

HISTORICAL FACT

Romans used lots of spices, herbs and sauces to disguise the rotting taste of old meat or fish. The most common sauce was called *liquamen*, which was a liquid made from salted fish guts that had been left out in the sun.

What were Roman marriage customs?

Marriage was the cornerstone of Roman society. Men and women often married for practical (and, in the upper classes, political) reasons, and not just for love as some cultures do in today's society. One of the best-known writers on women and childbirth in the ancient world,

Soranus, wrote that 'women are married for the sake of bearing children and heirs, and not for pleasure and enjoyment'. In fact, there was no word in Latin for a woman who was not married; one was either married or widowed. One could not choose to be single or unmarried as women can in today's society. There is also no Latin word for homosexuality, as same-sex couples were not accepted or even recognised.

Source 5.14 What made an ideal Roman husband and wife?

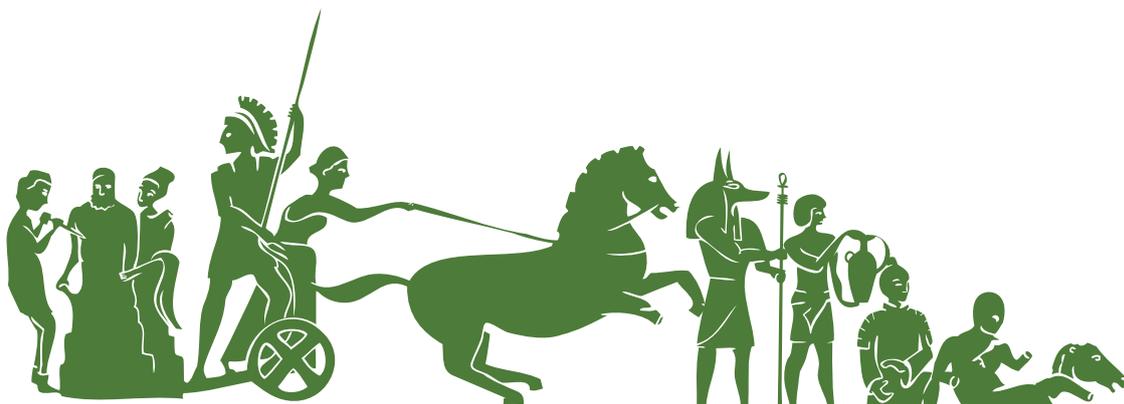
Characteristics of an ideal Roman husband	Characteristics of an ideal Roman wife
Strong Hard working Powerful Educated Religious	Kind Obedient Religious Chaste Faithful Fertile

A guide to getting married in Rome

- *Step 1:* If you are the bridegroom, before the ceremony go to your bride's father's house, sacrifice a pig to the gods and check its intestines for good omens.
- *Step 2:* At the wedding ceremony, hold right hands with your partner and exchange vows promising to be a faithful husband or wife.
- *Step 3:* Enjoy the banquet to celebrate your two families joining.
- *Step 4:* If you are the bride, let your new husband theatrically steal you away from your mother and let him walk you through the street to his family's house. Enjoy the flutes, guests, torchbearers, singing and being showered with nuts (used as confetti).
- *Step 5:* When you get to the house, if you are the bride you need to wipe oil and wool on the doorway to show that you know your duties as a wife, and if you are the groom you need to pick up your new wife and carry her over the threshold into the house.
- *Step 6:* Go to a party together the next day to worship the gods and ask them to bless your marriage.

HISTORICAL FACT

Romans were one of the first civilisations to use wedding rings. A ring was worn on the third finger of the left hand because it was believed that a delicate nerve led from this finger to the heart.



What were Roman funeral customs?

Funeral customs were very much based on the wealth of the family. For reasons of health and hygiene, cemeteries were all located outside the city gates. No burials were allowed inside the city. Poor Romans were often buried just in a simple sack in a mass grave, whereas wealthy Romans had a wooden coffin or even an impressive

marble **sarcophagus** in which they were buried individually.

All Romans shared the belief that the soul of the dead person was carried on a ferry across the River Styx to the afterlife. The dead body, therefore, was laid with its feet facing towards the door so that the soul could find its way out, and a coin was placed on each eye to pay the boatman to get across the river.

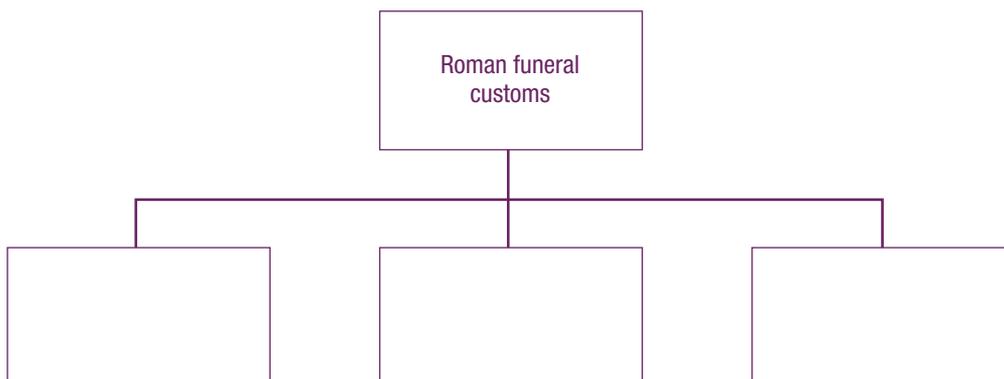
sarcophagus an ornate coffin adorned with lavish carvings and inscriptions



Source 5.15 Ancient Roman gravestones found in the buried city of Pompeii

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, write down three facts about Roman funeral customs.



What were the Romans' favourite types of entertainment?

Romans of all classes enjoyed public entertainment. On a normal work day, Romans finished work in the early afternoon and spent the rest of the day involved in leisure activities. To make sure that the masses of ordinary Romans remained happy, public entertainment was often free. The types of activities enjoyed by the Roman people are explored below.

Theatre

Visiting the theatre was one of the Romans' favourite pastimes. We know this because of the number and size of the theatres. The largest was the stone Theatre of Pompey, which held 27 000 people. Each show lasted several hours. Romans invented a type of comedy called mime, which is still presented today. Mime is a play without

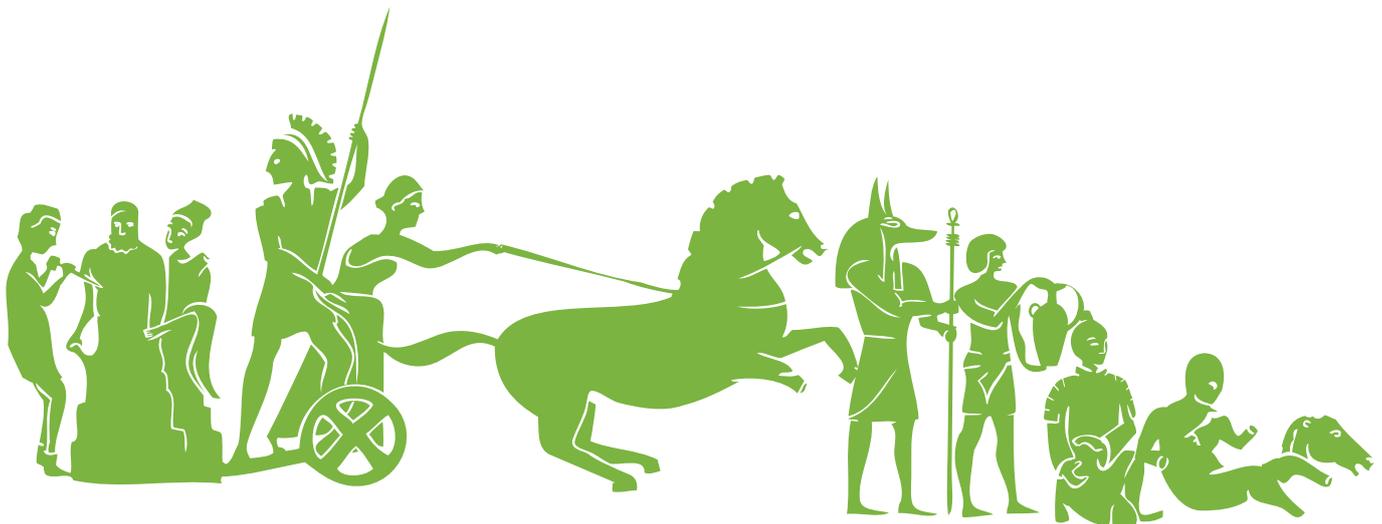
words. Plautus (254–184 BCE) was one of Rome's most famous playwrights. He is believed to have written over a hundred plays, 21 of which still survive today.

Amphitheatres were used for concerts. Music was played with instruments such as pipes, cymbals and tambourines because the sound carried well in the open air. If the crowd was enjoying the play, then they clapped and clicked their fingers or waved their togas. If they were disappointed, then they would hiss or whistle with disapproval.

Given the large size of the amphitheatres, the plays had to be extravagant and larger than life. Actors showed what character they were by wearing obvious masks and wigs. Special effects were even used, such as ghosts appearing through holes in the stage floor or gods being lowered down on ropes. Real wild animals or horses and chariots, or even the live execution of criminals, were also sometimes used to amaze the crowd.

HISTORICAL FACT

Romans were given a day off for every day that they worked, which meant that they had 159 public holidays every year! Of these days, 93 were dedicated to gladiator games.



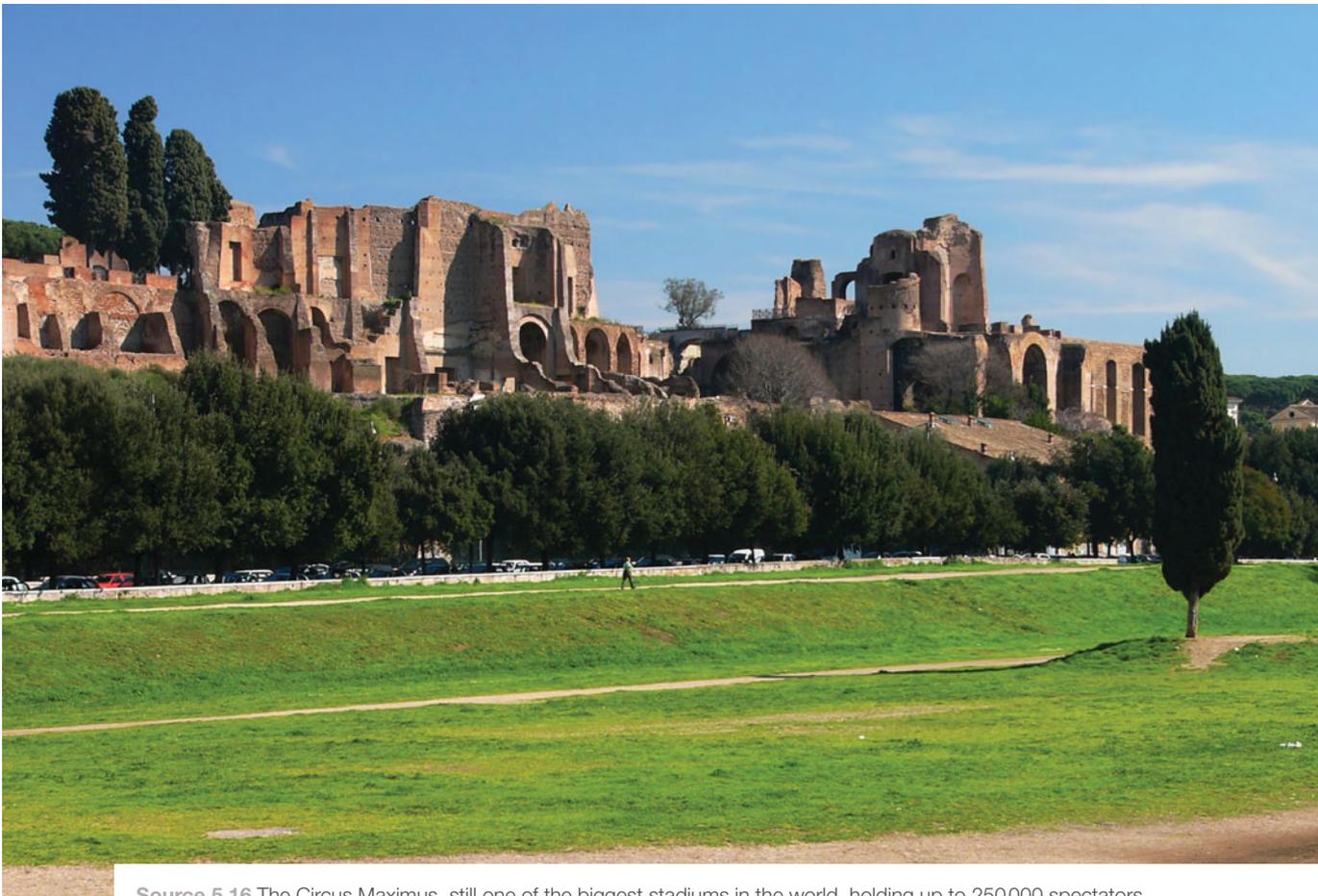
Chariot racing

The Circus Maximus was the massive chariot-racing circuit. It is still the biggest stadium in the world because it can hold 250 000 spectators. Twenty-four races were held each race day, and entry was free. There were four chariots in each race but they changed the number of horses: races with two horses pulling the chariot were called *bigae*, three-horse chariots were known as *trigae* and four-horse chariots as *quadrigae*.

The aim was to finish seven laps first; each lap was 1.5 kilometres long. Chariots were able to race at surprisingly high speeds because the straight parts of the track were 600 metres long and 100 metres wide. At the end of each straight was the turning point, called the *meta*, which was marked by three tall cones. These corners were the most dangerous points because it was difficult to turn the horses at high speeds.

HISTORICAL FACT

Each of the seven laps was measured by golden dolphins at the finish line. Each time a lap was completed, one dolphin was removed, showing how many laps were left.



Source 5.16 The Circus Maximus, still one of the biggest stadiums in the world, holding up to 250 000 spectators

Activity 5.6

Primary sources are crucial for helping us understand what was important to the Romans. Artworks are helpful sources. Source 5.17 shows a carving on a ceramic plate of a chariot race in the second century CE. You will need to use the information that you've just read about chariot races to answer the questions.

- 1 Identify which type of chariot race is shown.
- 2 Consider what this medallion suggests about the place of chariot races in Roman culture.
- 3 How does the artist give us a sense of the speed and movement of the horses and chariot?



Source 5.17 Relic medallion showing a chariot race, on a ceramic vase

Baths

Public baths were a popular and necessary part of life in Rome. Hygiene was important to the Romans, so they created public baths because ordinary people did not have baths in their own houses. By 300 CE, there were 856 bath-houses in Rome. Bath-houses were often beautifully decorated with mosaic floors, marble pillars and high, painted ceilings. Baths were like small swimming pools where everyone bathed naked together. There were separate baths for men and

strigil blunt metal tool used to scrape olive oil and dirt off the skin to keep clean

women. People rubbed olive oil on their skin, but instead of washing it off like soap, they used a blunt metal tool called a **strigil** to scrape it off.

The baths were warmed with a clever system called a **hypocaust**. This was under-floor central heating. Baths were built on brick pillars and slaves maintained fires underneath the baths that heated both the floor and the water.

hypocaust underfloor central heating system utilising a fire looked after by slaves

Baths, however, were a place of business and politics, not just hygiene. Many people visited a bath-house every day to spend time relaxing, swimming, playing games or chatting about sport and politics. Bath-houses not only included a series of hot and cold pools, steam rooms and saunas, but the largest ones were also like luxury leisure centres with gymnasiums, hairdressers, shops, restaurants, libraries and gardens. For example, the Baths of Diocletian were begun in 298 CE and the complex spread over 32 acres and could hold 3000 bathers.

Times gone by ...

Seneca was a famous Roman philosopher. In this letter to his friend Lucilius, he describes how annoying it is to live in an apartment above a public bath-house.

Here I am with a babel of noise going on all about me. I have lodgings right over a public bath-house. Now imagine to yourself every kind of sound that can make one weary of one's ears! When the strenuous types are doing their exercises, swinging weight-laden hands about, I hear their grunting as they toil away - or go through the motions of toiling away - at them and the hissings and strident gasps every time they expel their pent-up breath. When my attention turns to a less active fellow who is contenting himself with an ordinary inexpensive massage, I hear the smack of a hand pummelling his shoulders, the sound varying according as it comes down flat or cupped. But if on top of this some ball player comes along and starts shouting out the score, that's the end!

Then add someone starting up a brawl, and someone else caught thieving, and the man who likes the sound of his voice in the bath, and the people who leap into the pool with a tremendous splash. Apart from those whose voices are, if nothing else, natural, think of the hair remover, continually giving vent to his shrill and penetrating cry in order to advertise his presence, never silent unless it be while he is plucking someone's armpits and making the client yell for him! Then think of the various cries of the man selling drinks, and the one selling sausages and the other selling pastries, and all the ones hawking for the catering shops, each publicising his wares with a distinctive cry of his own.

Source 5.18 Seneca, *Letters*, LVI

- 1 Use Source 5.18 to make a list of all the activities that occurred in the bath-house.
- 2 Identify all the sounds Seneca hears from the bath-house.
- 3 Compare the similarities and differences between Roman bath-houses and modern-day gyms.
- 5 Why is this a helpful letter for us to learn about what bath-houses were like in Rome?

HISTORICAL FACT

The most popular game for women at the baths was rolling hoops along with a stick. But for men it was a catching game with three people called *trigon*, and nude wrestling where competitors were coated in oil to make them too slippery for their opponent to grip.

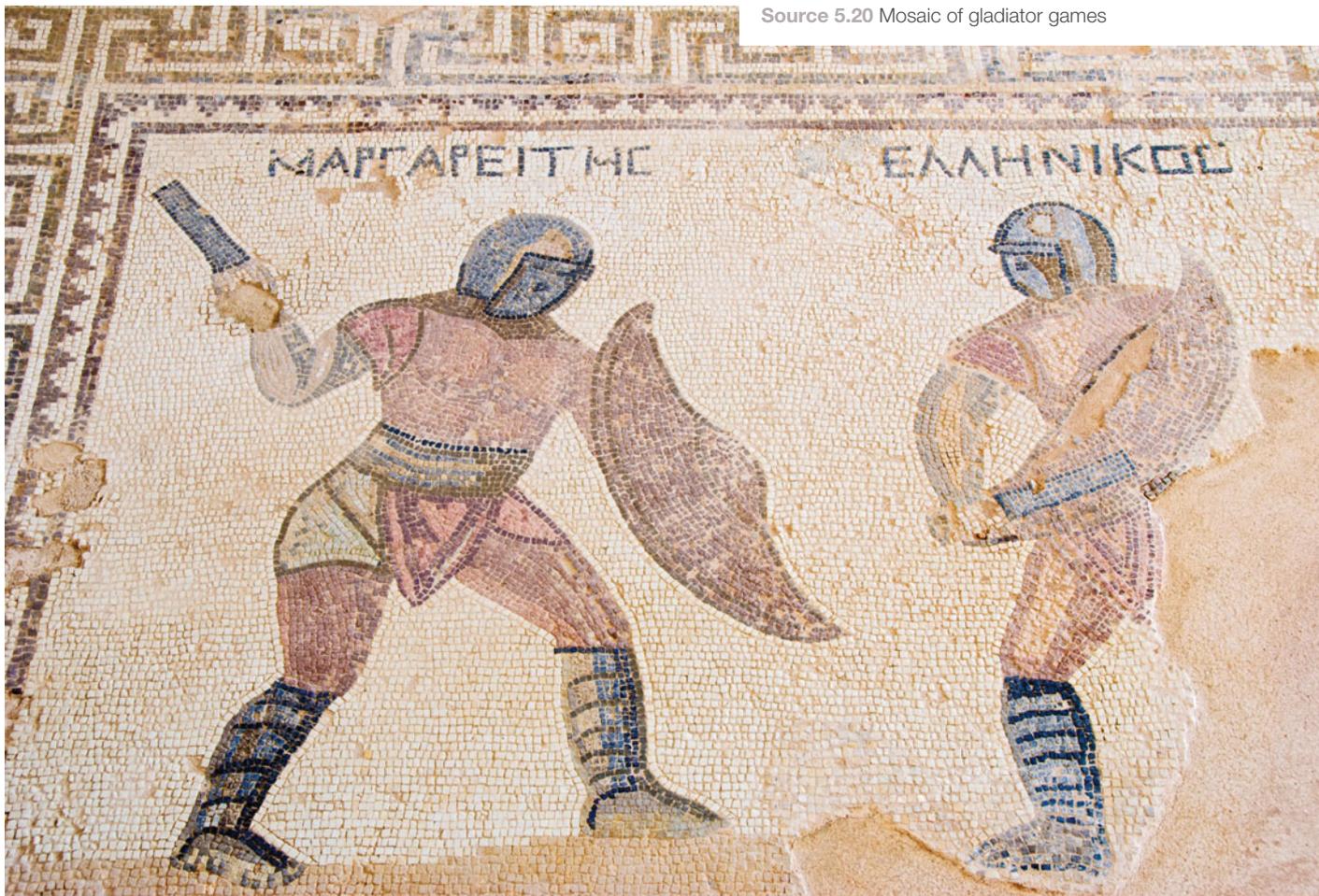
Gladiator games

All niceties were put aside and it was pure and simple murder.

Source 5.19 Roman philosopher Seneca

While music, theatre, chariot racing and the baths were all very popular forms of entertainment, the most exciting were the gladiator fights. There was such a high risk of death as a gladiator that most did

not choose to participate but instead were forced into it – unwilling slaves, criminals or prisoners. Some people, however, chose to be gladiators because they were desperate for money, loved the thrill of danger or wanted to become famous. There were also women gladiators who often fought before the men. While gladiator fights were to the death, those who survived or won in a courageous or theatrical way became popular heroes and were widely idolised like movie, television, music and sporting stars are today.



Source 5.20 Mosaic of gladiator games

Types of gladiator

In an attempt to make the fights more interesting, many different types or styles of fighting were invented (see Source 5.21).

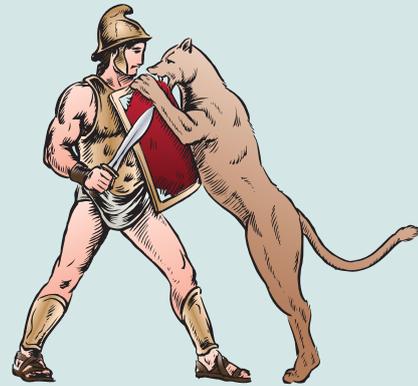
Bestiarius

Nickname: Beast Man

Fought: wild animals

Weapons: wore armour to protect their chests and heads from sharp claws and horns

Skills: needed to be incredibly brave, as often they were killed or horribly injured



Secutor

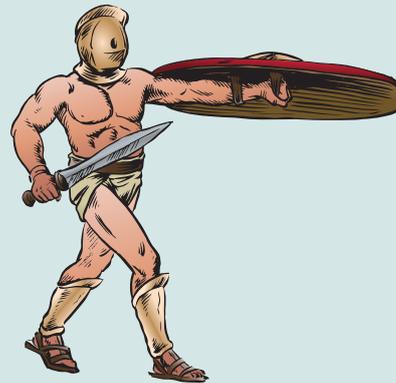
Nickname: Sword Man

Opposition: Retiarius

Armour: shield

Weapons: dagger called a gladius

Skills: needed to be strong to carry the heavy equipment; slow but powerful



Retiarius

Nickname: Net Man

Fought: other gladiators, often a secutor.

Armour: armour on one arm only

Weapons: a trident (which was like a sword with three prongs); the aim was to use the net to tangle the opponent and then stab him with the trident

Skills: needed to be small and quick but had little protection



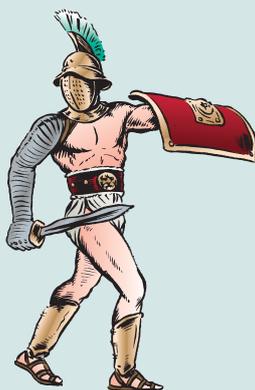
Samnite

Nickname: Strong Man

Fought: other gladiators

Weapons: heavy helmet with a short sword and shield

Skills: needed to be strong to carry the heavy equipment; slow but powerful



Thracian

Nickname: Dagger Man

Fought: other gladiators

Armour: round shields, leather strips on their legs, metal on their chests and arms

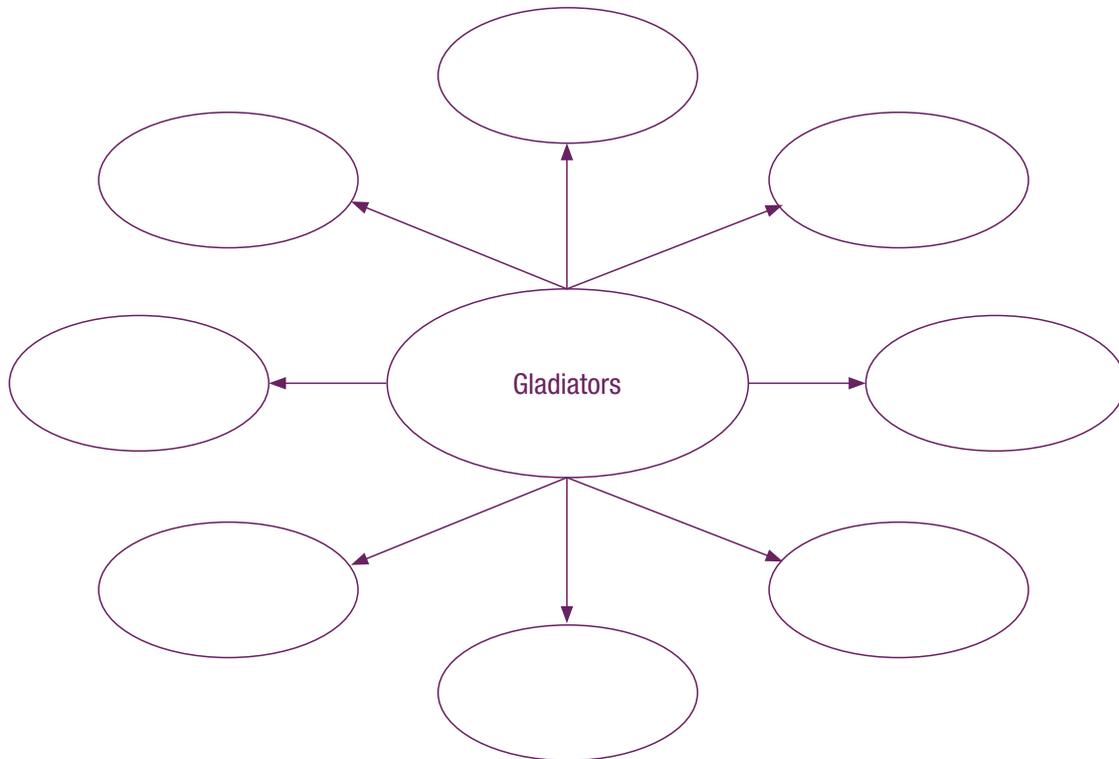
Weapons: daggers



Source 5.21 Types of gladiators

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, write down important facts about gladiators.



The Colosseum

Special arenas were built throughout the Roman Empire to hold gladiator fights. The most famous of these, and the building that best symbolises Rome, was the Colosseum. Why? First, the engineering and architecture of the Colosseum were simply brilliant. The idea of building a massive amphitheatre came from Emperor Vespasian. The Colosseum is the largest amphitheatre in the world and held 55 000 spectators with 80 entrances and exits for easy access. There were even enormous canvas awnings or sails over the heads of the spectators that were moved backwards and forwards by slaves pulling on hundreds of ropes. Underneath the sand floor was a complex series of passages, cells and cages for both the gladiators and animals used in the shows.

Second, the Colosseum was an excellent symbol of Rome's people. Everyone in Rome was

able to attend the games, from poorer Romans to the wealthy senators. Even the seating system showed the different classes – the more important you were, the closer you got to sit to the emperor's official box. Senators sat closest to the emperor, and the poor people and slaves sat in the highest levels of seating. The emperor often judged the wishes of the crowds before deciding whether a defeated gladiator should be killed or allowed to live.

Third, the Colosseum was a good example of Rome's love of lavish entertainment and blood sports. It was opened by Emperor Titus in 80 CE, in a ceremony that lasted for 100 days. It even involved the deaths of 9000 wild animals such as lions, rhinos, panthers, elephants and wild boars, which were starved for days before being released into the Colosseum to fight other animals or even specially trained gladiators.

HISTORICAL FACT

So many wild animals were used by the Romans in gladiator games that the lion became extinct in the Middle East and the elephant in North Africa.



Source 5.22 Opened by Emperor Titus in 80 CE, the Colosseum still stands today as a symbol of Rome's ancient past.

 *Note this down*

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the three reasons why the Colosseum was a symbol of ancient Rome.



Research 5.2

Life in Rome was active and varied. This assignment involves researching one aspect of the everyday life of people in Rome. There are many topics and presentation styles to choose from, so select something that you are interested in. The aim is to complete an assignment that you are proud of. Some of these topics have already been covered but others are discussed later in this chapter. Information from this book should be the starting point of your research. You will need to discuss your topic and presentation method with your teacher.

Choose a topic from this list:

- the role of women
- the role of men
- children – for example, games, schooling and becoming an adult
- clothing and fashion
- leaders – for example, Julius Caesar or Emperor Augustus
- baths
- weddings and funerals
- architecture – for example, Colosseum, aqueducts, arches, temples or houses
- entertainment – for example, theatre, chariot racing, music or gladiators
- the army – including weapons, soldiers, training and battles
- law and order
- trade, travel and transport
- health and medicine.

Choose a way to present your assignment from this list:

- invent a board game
- design and construct a model
- deliver an oral presentation
- cook food or create a recipe book
- write a story, poem or diary entries
- draw a cartoon series
- design clothing or weapons
- film a news report
- make a poster with pictures linked to explanations
- write and draw a picture storybook.



Contacts and conflicts

The rise of the Roman Empire

The Roman military machine was simply the best armed force in the ancient world. Its attitude towards enemies was uncompromising – either unconditional surrender or total destruction – and armies were known for their lack of mercy once battle had begun. The military allowed for the defence of Rome, but more importantly it enabled the expansion of the empire and its values throughout the Mediterranean region.

Part of the secret of the army's success was its efficient organisation. It was divided into large units called **legions**, which included about 6000 soldiers who were called legionnaires, and 1000 cavalry on horseback. During the Republic, the legions were led by consuls and praetors, but during the imperial period, the emperors or their subordinates led the legions. The legions were divided into much smaller groups of 100 men, each of which was called a century and was commanded by a centurion. Initially, the army was temporary and recruited each year from land-owning male citizens between the ages of 17 and 46, who were required to fight in specific campaigns. In 107 BCE, the consul Gaius Marius made a radical move and created the world's first permanent and professional army by recruiting men who did not own land and who now became career soldiers. The army peaked at around 450 000 men. They were full-time soldiers who signed up voluntarily for 16 to 20 years. Soldiers were either fighting or building roads, bridges and aqueducts. Legionnaires were highly respected. When their service was over, legionnaires were rewarded with money and land, often in newly conquered territories. Victorious generals were given huge parades through Rome, called 'triumphs', while wearing a special painted toga and holding a golden sceptre.

legion a large fighting group of soldiers called legionnaires

Fighting: Strength through discipline

The Roman army was almost invincible because of two main qualities: flexibility and determination. One major reason for the success of the army was the intense training, which was as fierce as real war. In war, the soldiers fought side by side, about 1.2 metres apart. The first strategy was to throw javelins with small enough heads to pierce enemy shields. The second was for the soldiers to attack with their swords, used for stabbing rather than slicing, while protecting themselves with their large, curved shields. The soldiers were trained never to panic. If under arrow attack, the soldiers in the century would create a protective barrier with their shields on all sides and above their heads, called a *testudo* or 'turtle' because the formation resembled the shell of a turtle. Roman soldiers were fiercely loyal to their officers, which made them incredibly disciplined, refusing to surrender even when outnumbered or fighting in difficult conditions. Interestingly, the Romans were willing to accept losing many men in wars instead of retreating. Battering rams and catapults were also used in sieges, either to attack or defend forts and cities.

How did the Roman Empire's expansion influence trade?

The might of the Roman army was the main reason that the empire was able to expand so quickly. The powerful Roman army was able to conquer Italy, Greece, north Africa and Gaul. Colonised territories were crucial in creating safe trade routes and partners. Once the army had conquered a territory, Roman laws and culture were imposed. For example, every new colony or province had to use Roman coins, the Latin language for official purposes and Roman laws, which made trade very easy. The extensive network of roads also helped trade. Trade involved a great variety of workers, such as merchants, tradesmen and women, ship owners, sailors, accountants, grain merchants, wine dealers, warehousemen, barge

caulker a person who waterproofed ships

ballast man a person who organised the load in the bottom of a ship so that it was balanced

drivers, ship builders, **caulkers** (waterproofing ships) and **ballast men** (who balanced the load in the ships). Roman ships had the geographical advantage of being able to sail through the Mediterranean Sea to Africa, Asia and Europe, and then sail back up the Tiber River to the city of Rome.

Under the emperor Augustus, Rome grew so large and powerful that trade envoys from as far away as China and India came to deliver gifts and open up trade routes. The Roman writer Florus described the visits of envoys from Asia who brought with them elephants and precious pearls, and claimed their journey took four years.



Source 5.23 Ancient Rome's trade expansion reached from Great Britain all the way down to Africa, covering the entire Mediterranean region.

Activity 5.7

Look at the map in Source 5.23 closely. Use the details to answer the following questions:

- 1 List all the items traded with Rome.
- 2 Which item was traded most?
- 3 Why do you think this item was so important?
- 4 Identify the benefits of trading within such a large area.
- 5 Identify the problems of trading within such a large area.

**HISTORICAL
FACT**

Romans were very superstitious people. Ships would not sail on 24 August, 5 October or 8 November. These were the traditional days when the dead were transported from their graves into the underworld.

What made Rome change to a system of emperors?

The system of a republic had been challenged by Lucius Cornelius Sulla (consul in 88 BCE and 80 BCE, and dictator in 81 BCE) and Julius Caesar (consul in 59 BCE, and consul and dictator 49–44 BCE). The senators murdered Caesar in 44 BCE in a desperate attempt to save the Republic. Caesar's position was fought over by his great-nephew and adopted son Octavian and his closest associate and friend Marc Antony. At first Octavian and Antony agreed to rule half of the empire each, but war broke out between the two. Octavian eventually defeated Antony and his ally, Queen Cleopatra VII of Egypt,

who both committed suicide rather than risk capture by Octavian. From this point onwards, the Republic was also dead. Rome needed a new political system. Rather than being based around the involvement of the people of Rome and the Senate, the Roman Empire system gave political power to an influential leader to make decisions himself. Octavian therefore became the first Roman emperor in the new system. He symbolically resigned from his official roles and was then given his position and powers back again, along with the new name of Augustus, which meant 'holy one'.



Source 5.24 An artist's imagining of Augustus finding Cleopatra after she committed suicide through a snakebite



Role of significant individuals

Julius Caesar

Born: 100 BCE

Died: 44 BCE (aged 56)

Class: patrician

Looks: tall, muscular, dark eyes, balding

Interest: writing history, public speaking

Skills: military genius; excellent planning and strategies; loved and respected by his soldiers

Most famous campaign: defeating all tribes in Gaul (now called France), 58 BCE–49 BCE

Most famous battle: Battle of Alesia against fierce enemy leader Vercingetorix

Quotes: 'Veni. Vidi. Vici.' (meaning 'I came. I saw. I conquered.')

Political career: elected consul in 59 BCE; seized power as dictator in 49 BCE

Honours: made a 'Dictator for Life' by the Senate in 44 BCE

Interesting info: he had an affair with Queen Cleopatra VII of Egypt in 48 BCE and they had a son together. After Julius died, Cleopatra was with his best friend Marc Antony and had three children with him.

Historian's view: 'In all respects he is one of the most striking figures of the ancient world.'

– Betty Radice



Source 5.25 Julius Caesar is known to have been one of the most influential leaders in ancient Rome.

Times gone by ...

Julius Caesar's death was as interesting as his life. Amazingly, he was killed by his closest friends as well as his enemies in the Senate. On 15 March 44 BCE, which the Romans called the Ides of March, Caesar was meeting the senators in a regular meeting in a building called Pompey's Theatre when they drew daggers from underneath their togas and murdered him. It is believed that the reason for the murder was that the senators hated the fact that Caesar was acting like an all-powerful king and the senators wanted to save the republican system.

A famous Roman historian called Suetonius wrote this summary of the murder of Julius Caesar:

As he took his seat, the conspirators gathered about him as if to pay their respects, and straightway Tillius Cimber, who had assumed the lead, came nearer as if to ask something; and when Caesar [made] a gesture to put him off to another time, Cimber caught his toga by both shoulders; then as Caesar cried, 'Why, this is violence!' one of the Cascas stabbed him from one side just below the throat. Caesar caught Casca's arm and ran it through with his stylus, but as he tried to leap to his feet, he was stopped by another wound. When he saw that he was beset on all sides by drawn daggers, he muffled his head in his robe, and at the same time drew down its lap to his feet with his left hand, in order to fall more decently, with the lower part of his body also covered. And in this wise he was stabbed with three and twenty wounds, uttering not a word, but merely a groan at the first stroke, though some have written that when Marcus Brutus rushed at him, he said in Greek 'You too, my child?'

Source 5.26 Suetonius, *The Lives of the Caesars*

Use all of the information from Source 5.26 and on page 205 to complete the table over the page.

Note: Give yourself a Roman name. Romans had three names: their first name was their Christian name, the second was their father's surname, and the third name was something that described them. Boys' names ended in 'ius' and girls' names ended in 'ia'.

 Your Roman name

 Name of victim

 Date of murder

 Scene of murder

 Name of murderers

 Weapons used in murder

 Number of times he was
stabbed

 Motives of murderers

Activity 5.8

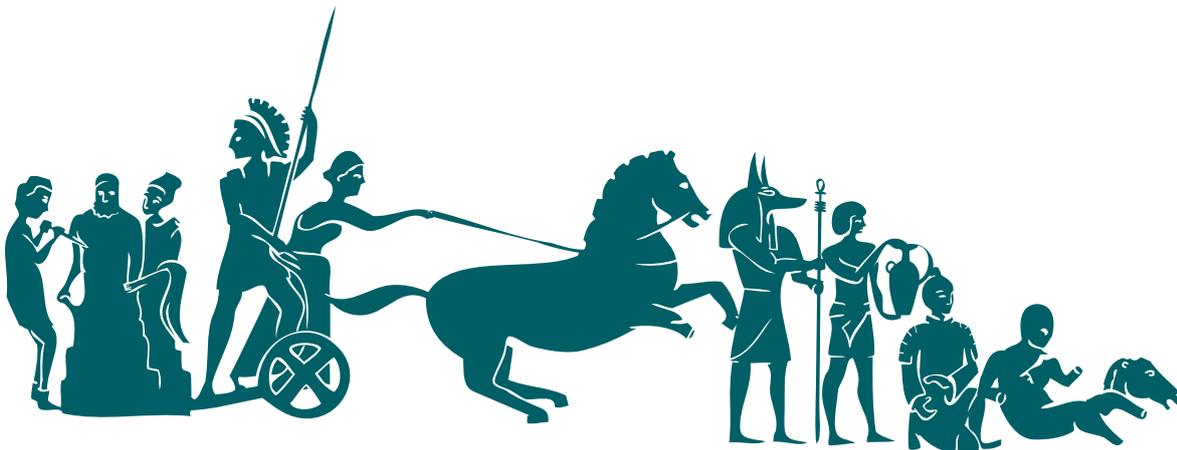
Julius Caesar's murder is incredible news. You must tell the Roman people about this scandal as quickly as possible. Use all of the information that you've collected above.

Individual activity

You are a journalist. Write a front-page newspaper report. You must include a catchy headline of five words or less. Make sure that you've described the events of the murder well.

Group activity

You are a television news presenter. Write a script about Julius Caesar's murder. Use catchy music to begin your breaking news report. Do a live cross to a reporter on the scene who can describe what happened, or maybe interview a senator.



Emperor Augustus

Born: 63 BCE

Died: 14 CE (aged 77) from natural causes

Class: patrician

Looks: short, slim

Interests: sociable family man; public speaking; modest gambler

Weaknesses: not a strong military leader so he gave this role to his very capable generals

Quotes: 'I found Rome built of bricks. I leave her clothed in marble.'

Political career: Consul in 43, 33, 31–23, 5 and 2 BCE; Emperor of Rome from 27 BCE to 14 CE

Achievements: ruled Rome for 40 years and expanded the Empire significantly, and began the 200-year period of relative peace in the Roman Empire

Honours: became the first and greatest Roman emperor. Was given the title 'Father of the Country' in 2 BCE. Was made a 'god' when he died in 14 CE.

Interesting info: reformed Rome into a great city with excellent buildings, such as restoring and building 82 new temples to the gods in only one year. He was socially conservative, and imposed penalties on couples who did not have any children. He even banished his only daughter, Julia, for having an affair.



Source 5.27 A bronze statue of Emperor Augustus

HISTORICAL FACT

Romans believed the left side of anything was unlucky. The Latin word for 'left' is our word for 'sinister'. Emperor Augustus never put his left shoe on first.



How did the empire function?

Pax Romana

Pax Romana
name given to
the 200 years of
peaceful growth and
development during
the Roman Empire

Emperor Augustus's rule from 27 BCE began a period in Roman history called **Pax Romana** – meaning 'the Roman Peace'. For most of the next 200 years, Rome had a stable government, a strong legal system, widespread trade and, most importantly, relative peace without major wars or invasion. As more and more countries were defeated by the might of the Roman army, a system of provinces, which was

started under the Republic, was expanded. Each new province was ruled by a governor who was paid by Augustus. This was a fairer and better system than under the Republic, when governors were unpaid and extorted money from the people of the provinces. Laws and punishments were the same throughout every province. But during this time, there were both good emperors, who were respected for making wise decisions, and bad emperors, who were hated for being cruel. Some emperors used their unlimited wealth and power well but others did not. Over the page are some examples.

Times gone by ...

Emperor Augustus's rule from 27 BCE began a period in Roman history called Pax Romana – meaning 'the Roman Peace'. The Roman historian Suetonius recounts a quote from Augustus.

May it be my privilege to have the happiness of establishing the commonwealth on a firm and secure basis and thus enjoy the reward which I desire, but only if I may be called the author of the best possible government; and bear with me the hope when I die that the foundations which I have laid for its future government, will stand firm and stable. – Augustus Caesar

Source 5.28 Suetonius, *The Lives of the Caesars*

- 1 In your own words, explain what Augustus is saying in Source 5.28.
- 2 What reward is Augustus seeking for establishing a firm and secure government for Rome?
- 3 Discuss what hopes Augustus had for the future of Rome.
- 4 Reflect on why establishing a good foundation for a government will ensure prosperity in the future.

Good emperors

Emperor Trajan, 98–117 CE

Trajan was an excellent choice as emperor because he made clever military and civil decisions and was comfortable leading the government, people and army. He enlisted more people into the army to expand Rome's land and wealth. This new money was used for humane causes, such as helping poor children, and building a larger Forum, and baths and libraries for the people. For all these reasons, Trajan was truly the most popular of all the Roman emperors.



Emperor Hadrian, 117–138 CE

In contrast to Trajan, Hadrian believed that the empire had expanded too far and was too large to manage. He withdrew from a lot of the extra territories won by Trajan. He was very determined to protect Roman territory, even going so far as to build a wall in northern Britain over 100 kilometres in length to stop the empire being invaded.



Emperor Aurelius, 161–180 CE

Marcus Aurelius was a true philosopher who was thoughtful and selfless, had high ideals and expressed peaceful philosophies. Although he wanted desperately to bring peace to the empire, his rule was dominated by continuous warfare and he died of suspected cancer at the war front in 180 CE.

Source 5.29 Good emperors of ancient Rome

Activity 5.9

Think about the three good emperors in Source 5.29: Trajan, Hadrian and Aurelius. In your opinion, which one should be considered the best emperor? List three reasons for your choice.

Bad emperors

Emperor Caligula, 37–41 CE

After a positive start to his leadership, Caligula fell seriously ill. When he got better, his personality was changed and he was a cruel and mentally unstable emperor. He built a temple to himself and forced people to worship him as a god. So embarrassed were they by his actions that Caligula's own officials killed him on 24 January 41 CE as he was leaving the gladiator games.

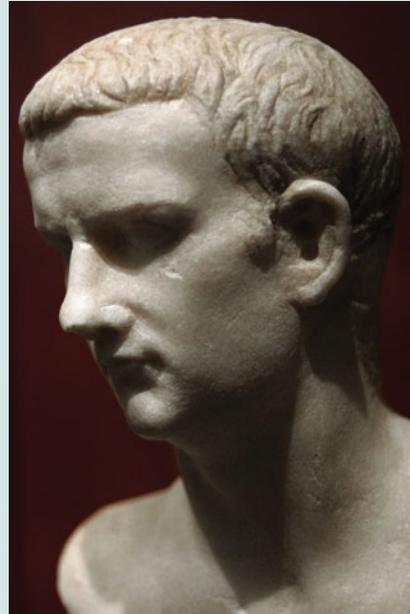


Emperor Nero, 54–68 CE

Like his uncle Caligula, Nero began his rule well even though he was only 16 years old. To help him make decisions, he listened to the advice of the philosopher Seneca,

but when Seneca later retired from this role, Nero began making terrible and brutal decisions. During Nero's 14-year rule, he had many people sentenced or beaten to death. He allegedly even kicked his pregnant wife Poppaea to death, but this is probably fiction. Another example of Nero's violence occurred in 64 CE, when most of Rome was destroyed by a massive fire. People popularly (but wrongly) believed that Nero began the Great Fire

of Rome himself, but Nero blamed the Christians and had them hunted down, persecuted and killed. The combination of all of Nero's actions was so terrible that the government declared him a public enemy and made a decision to have him whipped to death. Nero committed suicide before he could be captured, ordering a slave to run him through with a sword.



Source 5.30 Bad emperors of ancient Rome

HISTORICAL FACT

Nero was so cruel that he even ordered his mother and wife to be killed. When Nero died, Romans knocked down and destroyed all the statues of him so that they never had to think about him again.

Activity 5.10

Think about the two bad emperors in Source 5.30: Caligula and Nero. In your opinion, which one should be considered the worse emperor? List three reasons for your choice.

Research 5.3

The Romans recognised the power of history. Understanding the history of a country gives it a great future if you learn from the lessons of the past. Historians give us an idea of what life was really like in Rome because they lived there during the time that we are studying. Their writing is therefore called a primary source.

Use the internet and your library's resources to research one of the following influential Roman historians in more detail:

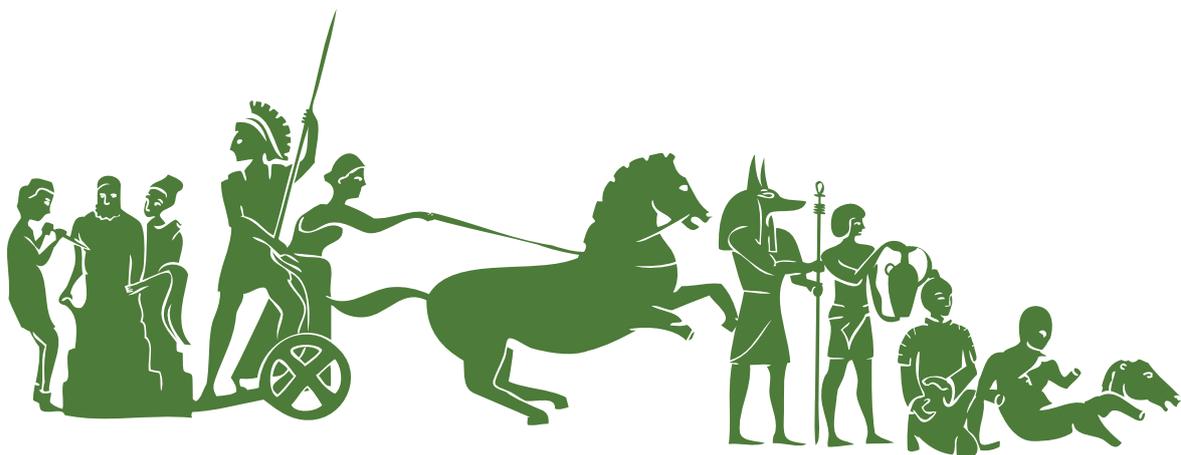
- Polybius (200–118 BCE)
- Sallust (86–34 BCE)
- Petronius (27–66 CE)
- Tacitus (55–116 CE)
- Suetonius (69–140 CE).

Be sure to research the major achievements of the historian you choose. Gather information about his birth, life, death and, importantly, his most popular writings. Present your findings to the class as a PowerPoint presentation, Prezi presentation or poster.

Why and how did the Roman Empire end?

The empire was over-stretched under Trajan; Hadrian rolled it back to manageable limits. The causes of the decline of the Roman Empire are related to emperors undertaking expensive wars for personal glory and the expansion of barbarians outside the empire as well as disease. The leadership of the empire was unstable, and army generals became desperate to control Rome. The instability was apparent in the fact that 30 out of 42 emperors were assassinated between

138 CE and 361 CE. Robbers and pirates had been suppressed during the late Republic, but now became powerful again in the Mediterranean Sea, disrupting trade routes and travel. The northern borders of the Empire were attacked by ferocious barbarians called the Huns. This was such a threat that Emperor Constantine moved the capital of the empire from Rome to Constantinople (now called Istanbul in Turkey). This left the city of Rome relatively unprotected and unable to stop invasions by the Goths in 410 CE and again in 476 CE. The mighty Roman Empire was over.





Source 5.31 A painting by Thomas Cole depicting the collapse of Rome

Activity 5.11

- 1 Rewrite the caption of Source 5.31 in your workbook.
- 2 Why do you think the sky is painted with lots of dark clouds and smoke?
- 3 What do you notice about the large statue on the right-hand side?
- 4 Find and explain three things that are happening in this painting.
- 5 Do you think the artist believed that the collapse of Rome was a good thing or not? Explain why you think this.

Chapter summary

- Legend says Rome was founded by twin boys, Romulus and Remus, who fell from the heavens but were saved by a mother wolf and later adopted by a shepherd. The city of Rome was founded on the Tiber River.
- The Roman Republic was established after the Romans overthrew their Etruscan kings. This system involved common people, called citizens, electing officials and passing laws. The most powerful group was the Senate, which advised the most powerful men, the consuls. The most famous consul was the military genius Julius Caesar, who was assassinated in 44 BCE.
- Rome was divided into rigid social classes. The wealthy families were called patricians, and the rest were called plebeians. Both were supported by the accepted system of slavery. Men, women and children all had specific roles and clothing. Religion was a crucial part of everyday life in Rome. There were gods to oversee every aspect of daily life and they were worshipped with large temples, shrines and festivals.
- Romans were intelligent architects, scientists and engineers. Some of the most famous buildings in Rome included the Forum, Pantheon and Colosseum, as well as amphitheatres, villas, bath-houses, temples, aqueducts, roads and arches.
- Romans' love of competition and humour meant that entertainment was an important part of everyday life. The most popular forms of entertainment were music, theatre, chariot racing, gambling, gymnasium activities and the gladiator games.
- After quick and successful expansion due to the power of the army, the Roman Empire lasted for 500 years and was dominated by the years of relative peace begun by Emperor Augustus. A series of cruel emperors who made poor decisions gradually led to the weakening of the Empire, which was eventually overthrown in 476 CE. The Roman Empire collapsed in the West, but carried on in a different form in the East, called the 'Byzantine Empire'.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

- Rome was built on which river?
 - Tigris
 - Euphrates
 - Nile
 - Tiber
- Which structure transported water?
 - arches
 - aqueducts
 - hypocaust
 - roads
- Jupiter was the:
 - King of the Gods
 - God of War
 - God of the Sea
 - God of Planets
- Julius Caesar was assassinated on:
 - 15 March 44 BCE
 - 15 May 44 BCE
 - 15 April 44 BCE
 - 21 March 44 BCE

- 5 Julius Caesar was assassinated because he:
- A invaded and defeated the tribes in Gaul
 - B was acting like an all-powerful king
 - C had an affair with Queen Cleopatra from Egypt
 - D committed a crime against the Senate

Short answer

- 1 How was Rome founded?
- 2 What was the role of religion in Roman life?
- 3 What were the roles of men, women and children?
- 4 Explain why the Roman army was so important.
- 5 Identify and describe the good and bad emperors in the Roman Empire period.

Source analysis

Study Source 5.32. This stone carving is from a tombstone in Gaul in the first century CE. It was tradition for the grieving parents to hold a feast in honour of the lost loved one. In this carving, the young boy is shown alive. Answer the following questions.

- 1 Identify the two ways in which Romans could sit while having dinner.
- 2 How do we know that the mother and father love their child?
- 3 Describe and name the types of clothing that the members of the family are wearing.
- 4 Based on the clothing and furniture, do you think the family is patrician or plebeian?
- 5 Who do you think the figures on the left and right might be? Why do you think this?
- 6 What are funerals like today? How are they the same as or different from Roman funerals?



Source 5.32 Image of stone carving of a grieving family

Extended response

Discuss the types of entertainment that the Romans enjoyed. Be sure to include some analysis of what this tells us about Roman culture.

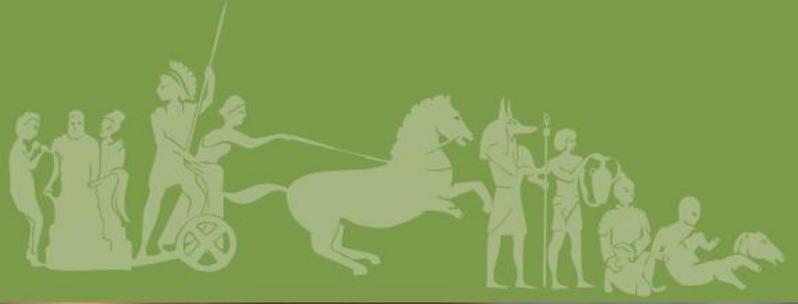


DEPTH STUDY 3

The Asian world



6



Ancient China

Source 6.1 Terracotta soldiers and horses buried at Xian as part of the extended burial site of China's first emperor, Qin Shi Huangdi

Before you start

Main focus

A study of the early imperial period of ancient China provides some understanding of China's continuity as the world's longest surviving culture.

Why it's relevant today

Its innovations and inventions had widespread influence which still shape life today.

Inquiry questions

- How was ancient imperial China established and organised?
- What belief systems were important in forming the values of the ancient Chinese?
- How has ancient China influenced other civilisations, both ancient and modern?
- What have been the legacies of ancient Chinese civilisation?

Key terms

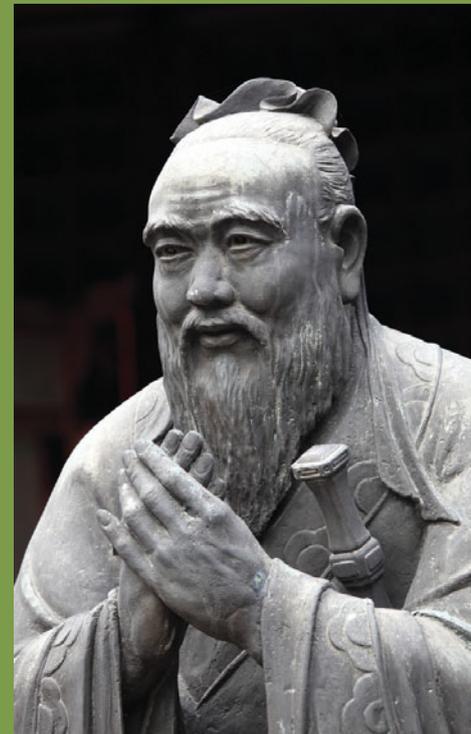
- agriculture
- Buddhism
- bureaucracy
- Confucianism
- Daoism
- dynasty
- feudalism
- imperial
- Legalism
- standardisation

Significant individuals

- Confucius
- Fu Hao
- Han Gaozu
- Laozi
- Qin Shi Huangdi
- Sima Qian
- Han Wudi

Let's begin

China stands as possibly the greatest civilisation of ancient times not simply because of its physical size in terms of population and geographical area – both of which were larger than the Roman empire, which existed at the same time. Rather, it is because of the level of sophistication China demonstrated as an ancient culture. The depth of innovation and invention it possessed sets it apart from other ancient civilisations, as demonstrated by the archaeological discovery of the buried terracotta army of the first Chinese emperor. The extent of ancient China's influence on history and the development of Western society and culture can be seen from the commonplace use of money to the significance of communicating ideas by printing them on paper.



Source 6.2 Statue of Confucius



Source 6.3 Excavated Shang dynasty war chariot and the remains of a human sacrifice



Source 6.4 Western Han dynasty bronze lamp in the shape of a maidservant

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS

3000 BCE . . .
Early settlements on Huang-He flood plains **c. 3500 BCE**

2000 BCE . . .
Xia dynasty **c. 2100–c. 1600 BCE**
Shang dynasty **c. 1600–1046 BCE**

1500 BCE . . .
Fu Hao dies **1200 BCE**
Western Zhou dynasty **1046–771 BCE**

1000 BCE . . .
Eastern Zhou dynasty **771–256 BCE**
Spring and Autumn period **722–c. 481 BCE**
Buddha born **c. 563 BCE**
Confucius born **c. 551 BCE**

500 BCE . . .
Buddha dies **c. 480 BCE**
Confucius dies **c. 479 BCE**
Warring States period **c. 475–221 BCE**

300 BCE . . .
Compass invented **c. 250 BCE**
Qin Shi Huangdi born **259 BCE**
Qin dynasty **221–206 BCE**
building of Great Wall begins **220 BCE**
Qin Shi Huangdi dies **210 BCE**

200 BCE . . .
Western Han dynasty **202 BCE–9 CE**
Sima Qian born **145 BCE**
Han Wudi becomes emperor **141 BCE**

100 BCE . . .
Sima Qian dies **90 BCE**
Han Wudi dies **87 BCE**

1 CE . . .
Xin dynasty **9–23 CE**
Eastern Han dynasty **25–220 CE**
Three Kingdoms – Cao Wei, Eastern Wu **220–280 CE**
and Shu Han
Jin dynasty **265–420 CE**

WORLD EVENTS

. . .
c. 3100–2686 BCE Early Egyptian dynastic period
c. 3000–1600 BCE Minoan civilisation flourishes in Crete
c. 2500 BCE Indus River Valley civilisation develops

. . .
c. 1550–1085 BCE New Kingdom Egypt
c. 1500–300 BCE Phoenician civilisation

. . .
c. 1391–1358 BCE Armana period in Egypt
c. early 1100s BCE Trojan War

. . .
c. From 800 BCE Greeks adopt Phoenician alphabet
c. 753 BCE Romulus founds Roman culture at the Palatine
Early 700s BCE The *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* are written
c. 509 BCE Romans overthrow the Etruscans

. . .
c. 490–479 BCE Greco-Persian Wars
c. 460s BCE Pericles' democratic reforms in Athens
c. 431–404 BCE Peloponnesian War

. . .
323 BCE Death of Alexander the Great

. . .
c. 218–201 BCE Second Punic War brings the defeat of
General Hannibal of Carthage

. . .
44 BCE Assassination of Julius Caesar
c. 27 BCE Principate – Roman Empire begins
Around 1 CE Traditional date for the birth of Christ
. . .

14 CE Augustus dies and principate ends
43–410 CE Roman Britain
306–337 CE Constantine the Great emperor of Rome
476 CE Fall of Rome



Source 6.5 China has an area of over 9.6 million square kilometres and is the world's third largest country today, after Russia and Canada.



Physical features and their influence

The geography of China is extremely varied. To the north and north-west are the Gobi and Taklamakan Deserts and the vast wastelands of Mongolia, and further east is Siberia.

impenetrable unable to be penetrated or got through

In the south are **impenetrable** mountain ranges like the Himalayas as well as dense rainforest jungle. The western part of the country is mountainous and is dominated by the

Tibetan Plateau. In the east is the world's largest ocean, the Pacific. There is wide variation in climate, from cold temperate zones to equatorial and tropical areas. China has some of the driest and most **impassable** deserts in the world. The

impassable unable to be travelled on or across

highest mountains on Earth are part of the ranges that border the country. Historically, these features acted as natural barriers and served to isolate China as well as to create separate geographical zones within the borders of the country.

Yellow and Blue Rivers

Ancient China's geography included forests, grasslands, plains, hills and mountain ranges, but perhaps the country's most influential feature was two great rivers. The first of these, the Yangzi or Yangtze River (*Chang Jiang*), is today the longest river in Asia at 6418 kilometres, and the third-longest in the world. It flows from the glaciers in the Tibetan Plateau across south-west, central and eastern China before emptying into the East China Sea at Shanghai. In early times, it was referred to as the 'Blue River' to distinguish it from the Yellow River.

The second, the Yellow River (*Huang He*) is the second-longest river in China and the sixth-longest in the world at an estimated length of 5464 kilometres. It gets its name from the yellow **loess** that blows from the **steppes** of Central Asia and into the river, giving it a yellow appearance. The Loess Plateau is an area of some 640 000 square kilometres in the middle of China, which has some of the most **erodible** soil on earth. The Yellow River is called 'the cradle of Chinese civilisation', as it was the most prosperous region in early Chinese history. The Wei River is a major **tributary** of the Yellow River.

loess yellow wind-borne clay dust

steppes a vast area of grasslands that spans much of central Asia

erodible subject to erosion, easily worn away by water and wind

tributary a river flowing into a larger river or body of water

The Pearl River (*Xi Jiang*) is another extensive river system in southern China. Measured from the farthest reaches of incorporated rivers, the Pearl River system is China's third-longest river, measuring 2200 kilometres, and the second largest by volume.

Ancient China developed along these rivers because these water flows aided **agriculture**. They provided fresh water for consumption and **irrigation**, helped by cycles of floods that deposited silt and created some of the best **arable** land in the world. However, the Yellow River is particularly prone to major flooding and has changed its course several times over the past two millennia.

agriculture cultivating the land, producing crops and raising livestock

irrigation a system of bringing a supply of water to a dry area, especially in order to help crops to grow

arable land that can be cultivated for the growing of crops

In the north, a cool climate and silt deposits from the Yellow River created very fertile farming areas. Central China has a warmer climate and high rainfall. These conditions, together with water from the Yangtze River, allowed a great variety of crops to be grown. Poor soils in the mountainous regions of the west were better suited for grazing animals and herding. The hotter southern part of China was ideal to grow rice and tea. As China grew, all these areas became part of the country and contributed to its wealth and development.



Activity 6.1

- 1 List four examples demonstrating the diversity of China's geography.
- 2 How did China's geography make it difficult to travel and communicate within China?
- 3 Identify the three main rivers in China.
- 4 Which of these is also called 'the cradle of Chinese civilisation'? Why?
- 5 Using the map in Source 6.5 as a reference, identify the natural geographical boundaries separating China from nearby states in:
 - A the central north
 - B the west
 - C the south-west
 - D the east.
- 6 Which of these would have required additional human-made barriers to keep out neighbouring peoples?
- 7 Explain how China's geography contributed to ancient China's isolation.

Concept of *Zhong Guo*

China's isolation distinguishes it from other ancient civilisations, such as those of the Greeks or the Romans, which grew through contact with other cultures. As a result, China can today

directly trace many aspects of its culture to ancient times. In their isolation, the Chinese saw outsiders as **barbarians**. Innovation inside China followed the demands peculiar to this closed society. Examples

barbarians people who live outside the limits of the society and are therefore believed to be uncivilised and primitive



Source 6.6 Chinese map of the world dated 1763 CE, positioning China at the centre of the map. It is inscribed 'drawn by Mo Yi Tong and copied from a map made in the 16th year of the Emperor Yongle' (1418 CE).

of Chinese inventions in antiquity include the compass, paper, printing with ink, the clapper bell, noodles, the eating fork, cultivation of rice, silk, the food steamer, bellows, the window crank, the kite, the fan, porcelain ('china'), playing cards, the wooden wheelbarrow, the hot-air balloon, natural gas as a fuel, cast iron and tea.

The term *Zhong Guo* has long been applied as a name for China (*zhong* means 'central' or 'middle', while *guo* means 'kingdom'). The notion of China as the 'Middle Kingdom' partly refers to the idea that it is at the centre of civilisation. This also reflects the impact of isolation on Chinese self-perception. The Chinese saw themselves as living in a place poised between heaven and earth.

Xia dynasty

People living in the Huang He flood plains developed agriculture and settled into small villages around 3500 BCE. In time, these settlements grew into larger groups, and it is from these groups that China's first ruling dynasty, the Xia, may have emerged. We don't know much about the Xia dynasty because there are no written records. Chinese script was not developed until after the decline of the Xia, during the early Shang period. Current estimates place the Xia in the period c. 2100 BCE–1600 BCE.

The history of the Xia is controversial, as historians and archaeologists disagree as to whether the dynasty actually existed. The major

Times gone by ...

The government of the Xia dynasty was distinguished by good intentions. Over time this ideal deteriorated until lowly men turned it into barbarity. The Shang who succeeded the Xia removed this defect through the virtue of piety. But piety degenerated until lowly men turned into a superstitious obsession with the world of the spirits ... What was then needed to reform this useless ritual was a return to the good intentions of the Xia.

Source 6.7 Reference to the Xia dynasty by Sima Qian in *The Records of the Grand Historian*, adapted from translation by Burton Watson (Columbia University Press, New York, 1961)

- 1 Explain why the Chinese civilisation developed in the areas it did.
- 2 List 10 ancient Chinese inventions or innovations.
- 3 What does *Zhong Guo* mean?
- 4 Study Source 6.5 and use it to answer the following questions:
 - a How does Source 6.5 demonstrate *Zhong Guo*?
 - b If the information on the map is correct, it was originally drawn over 70 years before Europeans came into contact with the Americas. What does this suggest about the Chinese?
- 5 How useful is Source 6.5 in establishing the existence of the Xia dynasty?

reference to its existence lies in the writings of Han dynasty historian Sima Qian (c. 145–90 BCE). It is the first dynasty listed in his major work, *The Records of the Grand Historian*, also known as *Shiji* (written between 109 and 91 BCE), which recounted Chinese history up until his own time.

Bronze smelts from the Xia dated to around 2000 BCE have been identified in Henan province in western China. Symbols predating Chinese

characters have been discovered on pottery and bronze crafts from this period. No conclusive physical evidence has yet been found, although bronze and pottery artefacts have been attributed to the period. The end of the Xia is said to have resulted from the Battle of Mingtiao in 1600 BCE.

bronze smelts sites where a process of melting copper and tin, and combining them under high levels of heat to produce bronze, was carried out

Research 6.1

Use the internet to research Sima Qian and his major work, *The Records of the Grand Historian*. What evidence does it provide of the early history of China up until 1000 BCE? How accurate do you think Sima Qian's work is? How do you think we can judge this? Write a summary of your findings in two or three paragraphs. Does this affect your response to Question 5 in the *Times gone by* box on the previous page?



Role of key groups

dynasty a succession of rulers from the same family

The history of China is characterised by a long series of **dynasties**. The first four of these provided the pattern for China's government for nearly 2000 years.

Shang dynasty

The modern estimate of the rule of the Shang is c. 1600–1046 BCE. According to historical tradition, the Shang dynasty followed the (possibly mythical) Xia. Archaeological evidence suggests the Shang emerged with the capital Anyang in the northern river valleys of the Yellow River by 1500 BCE. Shang rule was a form of **feudalism**. The Shang kingdom was thus not a **sovereign** dynasty that dominated a large part of ancient China, but rather one state among several.

The Shang is the first Chinese dynasty to have left historical records. The script found on

oracle bones of the Shang dynasty represents the oldest forms of Chinese writing found and is the direct **antecedent** of the modern Chinese characters used today. Oracle bones were engraved tortoise shells or animal bones, and were used in **divination** ceremonies. Asking questions of the gods or ancestral spirits, priests heated the bones until they cracked and then used the position of the cracks to divine the answers. The bone was then inscribed with the name of the priest, the date and the question asked. Among the information found on oracle bones is the royal **genealogy** of the Shang dynasty. Approximately 100 000 of these bones have been discovered since they were first found in the 1920s CE.

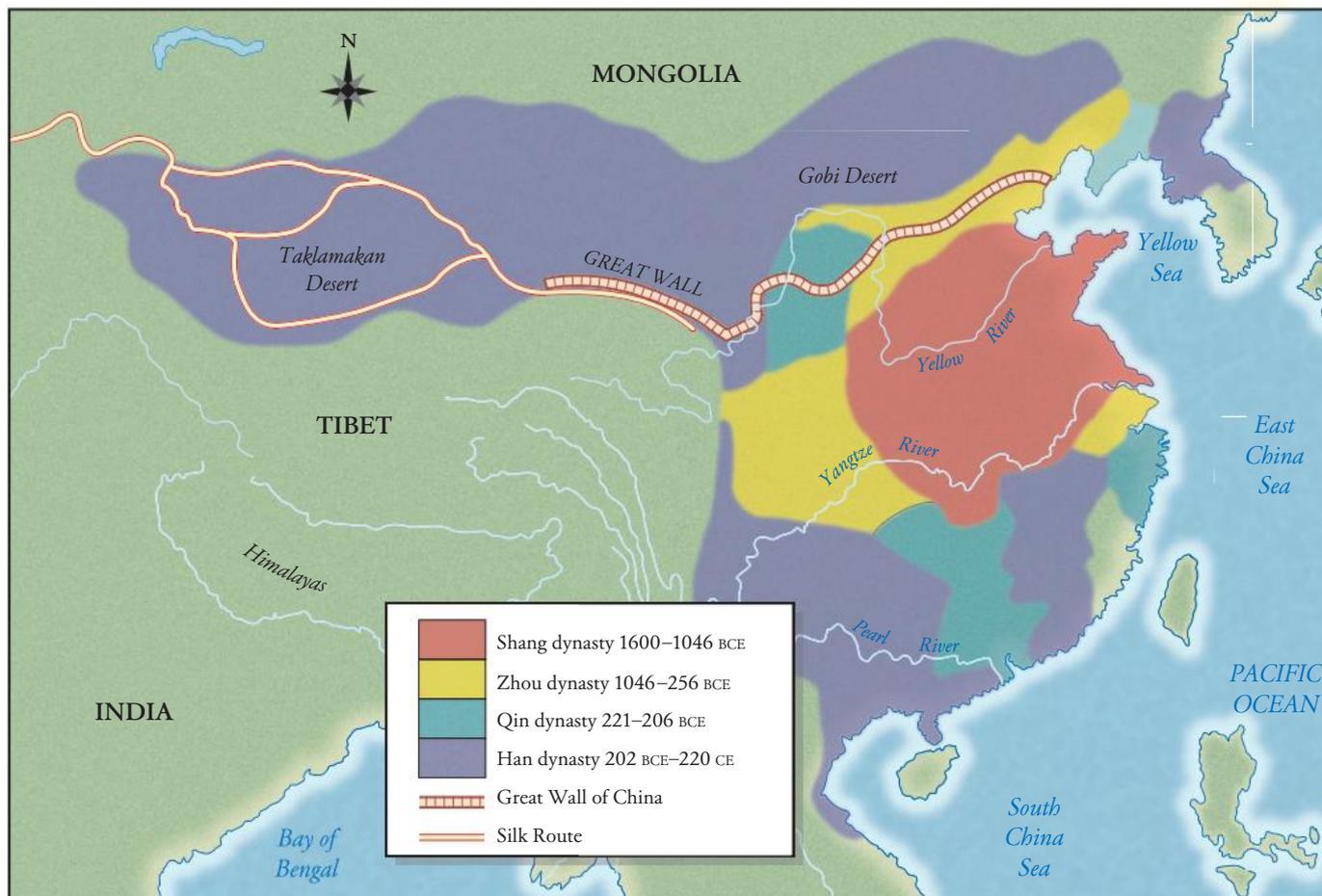
Apart from agriculture, the Shang economy involved large-scale production of bronze-ware vessels and weapons – industries that required a large labour force to mine and process the copper, tin and lead **ores** used

antecedent something that happens or exists before something else

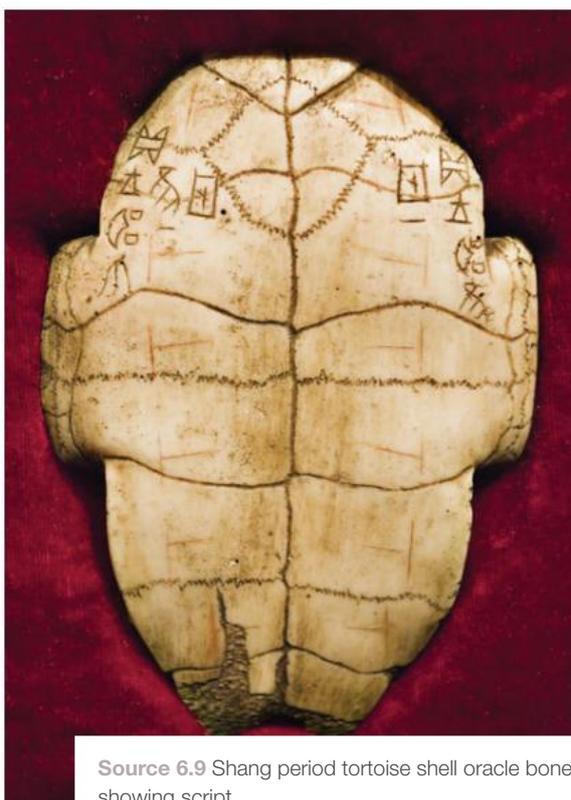
divination occult process or ritual that attempts to gain insight into a question or situation by way of a standardised process such as reading signs in natural objects or fortune telling

genealogy the history of families and the line of descent from their ancestors

ores naturally occurring mineral deposits from which metals can be extracted



Source 6.8 Map showing extremities of the four early dynasties in China, the original Great Wall and the early Silk Route



Source 6.9 Shang period tortoise shell oracle bone showing script

in bronze production. The large workforce led to the development of a **bureaucracy** to oversee the miners, labourers and skilled craftsmen. The high level of Shang craftsmanship is confirmed by bronze, jade, pottery and bone artefacts found in tombs from the period.

bureaucracy
government officials

The Shang remained in power for over 500 years with the kingdom extending over 100 000 square kilometres. Its influence – though not its political control – spread as far north-east as the area of modern Beijing. The last Shang king, Zhou Xin, was allegedly cruel and **decadent**, causing a revolt in which some subjects went over to fight on the side of the Zhou invaders from the south-west. The king committed suicide after being defeated by Wu Wang, King of Zhou, at the battle of Muye (c. 1046 BCE).

decadent showing unrestrained or immorally self-indulgent behaviour



Source 6.10 Example of Shang dynasty bronze work

Zhou dynasty

The Zhou dynasty originated in the Wei River valley. The Zhou came to power after defeating the Shang in 1046 BCE, and ruled until the third century BCE, the longest period of any Chinese dynasty. In that time, the dynasty produced great works in arts, philosophy, technology and astronomy.

Zhou society was based on agricultural production and a feudal social structure. The massive area controlled by the dynasty was too large to administer directly, so the king's land was divided into territories controlled by nobles appointed

taxes compulsory contributions made for the support of the government

by the king, each receiving their title through inheritance. The lords then divided their land among the peasants to grow crops, and these crops were used to pay **taxes**. This version of feudalism was made more difficult by the poor means of communication available at that time. Consequently, these territories became more independent over time – still prosperous, but distant from the central Zhou dynasty leaders.

However, political and military control of China by the Zhou dynasty's ruling family only lasted during the Western Zhou period (up to

771 BCE); after this time, the dynasty's centralised authority was slowly eroded by feudal warlords.

The Eastern Zhou is the name given to the second part of the Zhou dynasty (771–256 BCE) and is divided into the Spring and Autumn periods (722–c. 481 BCE) and the Warring States period (c. 475–221 BCE). The Zhou had to flee eastward after their king was killed in 771 BCE; they never regained complete power after this.

After 771 BCE, the Zhou kings lost control and many independent states rebelled against them. They waged war with each other for over 200 years, only occasionally obeying the Zhou king.

Though the Zhou kings were not in control, they still believed they were appointed by heaven as lords of these territories, which were now kingdoms.

The Eastern Zhou was also a golden age of cultural and intellectual development. Philosophical schools emerged that would influence Chinese government and culture, including **Confucianism**, **Daoism** and **Legalism**. The changes brought by these schools of thought played a large part in the decline of the Zhou dynasty itself.

Confucianism a philosophical system of ethics based on the teachings of Confucius (c. 551–479 BCE)

Daoism a philosophy based on the teachings of Laozi, seeking harmony with nature

Legalism a philosophy of administration in ancient China, where all people under the ruler were subject to a code of publicly proclaimed laws and punishments



Source 6.11 The earliest Chinese coins were made in the shape of miniature hoes, spades and knives. They were probably first issued around the tenth century BCE and continued in use during the Zhou period. Flat-handled spade coins (shown here) made from copper appeared around 300 BCE.

Activity 6.2

- 1 Define 'dynasty'.
- 2 Explain what oracle bones were and how they were used.
- 3 What artefacts characterised the economy of the Shang dynasty?
- 4 Consider the information provided so far, especially by Source 6.8. Use your computer (or the school's computer) to make a timeline of the period covering the Xia, Shang and Zhou dynasties. Describe key developments of these periods including oracle bones, bronze-ware and Chinese schools of philosophy.

To help you with your design, find the link to the Tiki Toki website at www.cambridge.edu.au/history7weblinks. This is a free website, and will allow you to incorporate illustrations to demonstrate aspects or features of these dynasties, such as oracle bones.

- 5 Source 6.11 shows an example of coinage introduced during the Zhou period. Why do you think they were shaped like this?

Mandate of Heaven

doctrine a rule or principle that forms the basis of a belief taught to people as truthful or correct

Five Confucian Relationships the duties of respect that shape society: ruler to ruled, father to son, husband to wife, elder brother to younger brother and friend to friend

despotic like a tyrant, a ruler acting in a cruel and repressive way

mandate authority given to a leader or government, effectively permitting them to rule

The Mandate of Heaven (*Tianming*) was first used by the Zhou Dynasty to justify its overthrow of the Shang dynasty, and would be used by succeeding Chinese emperors to justify their claimed right to rule. The **doctrine** was defined by the **Five Confucian Relationships**, and stated simply that heaven would bless the authority of a just ruler, but would be displeased with a **despotic** ruler and would withdraw its **mandate**, leading to the overthrow of that ruler. The Mandate of Heaven would then transfer to those who would rule best. In the Eastern Zhou, it may have acted as a justification for those who challenged the authority of the ruling dynasty.

This period gets its name from the *Spring and Autumn Annals*, a chronicle of the state of Lǔ, which was a **vassal state** to Zhou. The chronicle covers the years 722–479 BCE. Lǔ was the home state of Confucius.

vassal state under feudalism, this was a region that gave loyalty, homage and tribute to the king, in return for his protection

Warring States

As the process of increased wealth and strengthening of armies continued, the number of individual states declined as they were absorbed by those that were more powerful. Some of these territories now were larger and more powerful than the original Zhou kingdom. This chaotic period was dominated by the remaining seven powerful sovereign states, each with its own king, ministry and army. Apart from the Zhou, these included Qin, Han, Wei, Chu, Yan and Qi. The Zhou dynasty was overthrown in 256 BCE, but internal fighting continued until the emergence of the Qin as the inheritors of the Mandate of Heaven in 221 BCE.

The Spring and Autumn period

In 771 BCE, the Zhou kings lost control of their vassal territories. This period saw great economic growth, even though there was constant warfare between the territories. The development of iron production improved agricultural techniques, causing both the amount of food grown and the population to increase. Population growth led to bigger markets (and wealthier merchants) and, most crucially, bigger armies. These changes allowed rulers to control more territory.

Qin dynasty

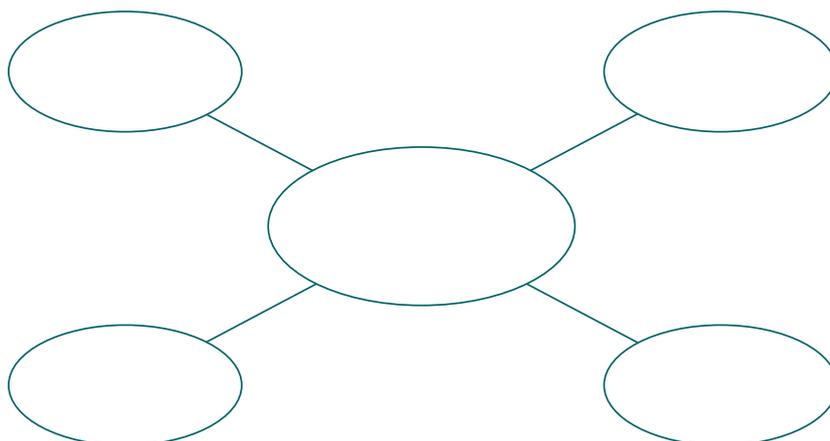
Qin is considered the first Chinese imperial dynasty because for the first time the whole of China was unified under one ruler, Ying Zheng, ruler of Qin, who declared himself Shi Huangdi, meaning the 'emperor of the first generation' after conquering the other states in 221 BCE. This brought the Warring States period to an end. (Also see the section about Qin Shi Huangdi on page 248.)

HISTORICAL FACT

The invention of the Chinese sword occurred during the Warring States period and was seen as a great advance. It was first used mostly in bronze form, but by the third century BCE, stronger iron swords had been developed and were increasingly being used.

Activity 6.3

- 1 What was the Mandate of Heaven?
- 2 What use would the Mandate of Heaven be to a ruler? Outline the benefits using the graphic organiser below.



- 3 Is there a pattern associated with the way in which successive dynasties came to, maintained and then lost power? How might this have prompted the adoption of *Tianming*?

Han Gaozu

The Han dynasty was founded by Gaozu when he became emperor in 202 BCE. Four years of warfare had followed his overthrow of Ziyang, the last Qin ruler, in 206 BCE. The period of Han rule is significant because the reforms initiated by Han Gaozu set the pattern not just for subsequent Han rulers but also for succeeding dynasties. Han

peasants poor agricultural workers

Gaozu's original name was Liu Bang and he had led a **peasant** rebellion against the Qin. He reduced taxes, encouraged the replacement of texts burned by the Qin and disbanded his armies to restore peace, encouraging soldiers to go back to the land to increase food production.

The system of government introduced by Han Gaozu borrowed its core features from the Qin dynasty, particularly the idea of having regions administered by officials rather than employing a feudalist system. Excluding kingdoms, the country was divided into political units of **provinces** (*zhou*), prefectures (*jun*) and **counties** (*xian*). Han Gaozu's reforms seemed to reflect a desire to benefit ordinary people, and the Han period is seen by many as a 'golden age' in Chinese history. The dynasty he founded lasted over 400 years and had enormous influence. Today, the largest ethnic group in China calls itself the 'Han people'.

province the largest of the geographical regions into which China was divided by the early emperors to maintain control and collect taxes

county the smallest of the geographical divisions; several counties would fit inside a prefecture and several prefectures would then fit into a province



Han Wudi and China's rise to prominence

Han Wudi was the seventh Han emperor. He ruled from 141 BCE to 87 BCE. During his reign, China grew to its largest extent to that point. He conquered territory from northern Vietnam in the south, Kyrgyzstan in the west and in the northeast parts of Korea. With an estimated population at that time of 60 million, China had become the largest country in the world. However, expanding China's borders had to be paid for through increased taxation and maintaining the strength of the army through expanded conscription. Salt, a

implements useful pieces of equipment, usually specially shaped or designed to do particular tasks

dietary requirement essential for the peasantry, and iron, the most commonly used material to make tools and everyday **implements** (including cooking pots), were taxed to fund these campaigns.

Han Wudi completed Gaozu's centralisation of government. He listened to Confucian scholars and followed their principles in setting up the state's bureaucracy. To be appointed, government officials had to be able to write 8000 characters in

the state language, have knowledge of traditional texts and have competent military skills. These skills were assessed at an annual examination conducted by the scholar and historian Sima Qian.

Like his Qin and Han predecessors, Han Wudi used Legalism to govern his empire. The punishment for perceived failures and disloyalty was often exceedingly harsh. For example, in 99 BCE Sima Qian was arrested for the crime of *grand insult* (to the emperor's brother-in-law) and was sentenced to death. His charges were reduced to lesser punishments – either a fine, which he was not rich enough to pay, or **castration** and a three-year prison sentence.

castration removal of the testicles of a man, making reproduction impossible

Around 100 BCE, there were peasant revolts throughout the empire in response to the heavy taxation and human workforce burden resulting from unending warfare. This unrest was made worse in 96 BCE when Han Wudi began a series of witchcraft **prosecutions**, which finally led to the death of his eldest son. Han Wudi died in 87 BCE.

prosecutions legal proceedings against people because of crimes they are alleged to have committed



Source 6.12 Emperor Han Wudi, who ruled China for 54 years

Han culture

There was great creativity in the arts and sciences during the Han dynasty. Han Wudi gave Confucianism exclusive support, and it formed the philosophical basis of Han social, political and cultural life. Confucian ideas of ritual, respect and devotion to family, and harmonious relationships were connected under Han Wudi, with the Daoist ideas of a *yin–yang cosmology*, an arrangement that justified the imperial system of government within the natural order of the universe. Art and science were seen as extensions of that order, so poetry, literature and philosophy flourished.

cosmology ideas about the origin and structure of the universe

Shifting power

The Han dynasty was interrupted when Wang Mang, a court official, proclaimed himself emperor of the Xin dynasty in 9 CE and attempted to give wealthy landholdings to the peasantry.

famine a period of severe shortages of food resulting in widespread hunger

Wang Mang's seizure of power coincided with **famine** in parts of the empire, eventually resulting in peasant revolts opposing the Xin. In 23 CE, peasant forces overthrew and killed Wang Mang and installed a new emperor, Gengshi, who had connections to the Han. The Han dynasty was properly restored to power in 25 CE when Guangwu became emperor.

End of the Han

The first period of Han rule (206 BCE–9 CE) is now distinguished by historians as the Western Han. After the period of the Xin dynasty, the restored Han era is called the Eastern Han (25–220 CE). In this period, there was increasing intervention in state matters by civil servants, who were often **eunuchs**. This was partly due to the failure of members of the dynasty to take proper responsibility for running the empire. A war between the eunuchs and palace officials (168–170 CE) demonstrated the weakening leadership of the Han. These problems were made worse by growing peasant unrest.

eunuch civil servant who has been castrated

The dynasty was shaken by a major and prolonged rebellion (184–205 CE) led by a Daoist sect calling themselves the 'Yellow Scarves' (a reference to the rebels' distinctive headdresses). Even though the rebellion was eventually defeated, the military leaders and local administrators involved gained independence in the process, hastening the collapse of the Han dynasty in 220 CE.

The end of the Han dynasty was followed by a period of conflict between three states: Cao Wei, Eastern Wu and Shu Han (220–280 CE). In the latter part of this conflict, the Jin dynasty (265–420 CE) emerged.

HISTORICAL FACT

The world's best-preserved mummy is that of the wife of the ruler of Dai, a Western Han imperial **fiefdom**. Her name was Xin Zhui, and she died between 178 and 145 BCE, at around 50 years of age. Given her position, she has been nicknamed 'Lady Dai'.

Found in 1971, her body was remarkably well preserved – her skin was supple and soft; her limbs could still be moved and bent at the joints; her hair was still complete; type A blood was found in her veins; and all her internal organs were intact, including the contents of her stomach from her last meal.

fiefdom the lands controlled by a feudal lord

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, summarise the changes made under the Han dynasty. In the left column, list the reforms and changes made during the Han period. In the middle column, note the benefits. Next to these, in the third column, list the disadvantages. An example has been provided.

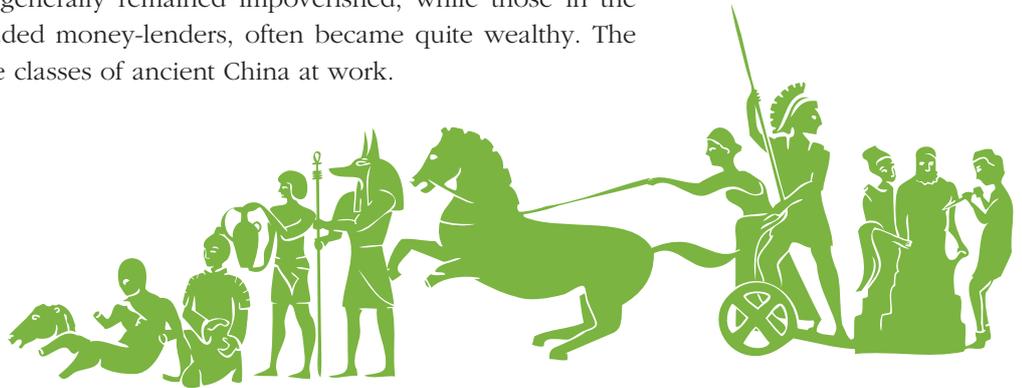
Reforms	Benefits	Disadvantages
Division of China into clear administrative divisions	Made the country easier to govern	Gave power to civil servants and independent administrators, which led to the downfall of the Han

Activity 6.4

- 1 Discuss the significance of the reforms of Han Gaozu.
- 2 Outline the Qin initiatives Han Gaozu borrowed.
- 3 Explain the cost of Han Wudi's military success.
- 4 Identify when the Xin dynasty occurred.
- 5 What names are given to the two halves of the Han dynasty?
- 6 Who were the Yellow Scarves?
- 7 Which dynasty finally emerged in 280 BCE to succeed the Han?
- 8 Reflect on what ideas became prevalent under Han Wudi to serve as the ethical and cultural basis of the Han dynasty.

Social structure

There were five social classes and work varied according to a person's social position. The table below shows each of these five classes. Even though they were the *Nong* class, peasants generally remained impoverished, while those in the *Shang* group, which included money-lenders, often became quite wealthy. The table below shows the five classes of ancient China at work.



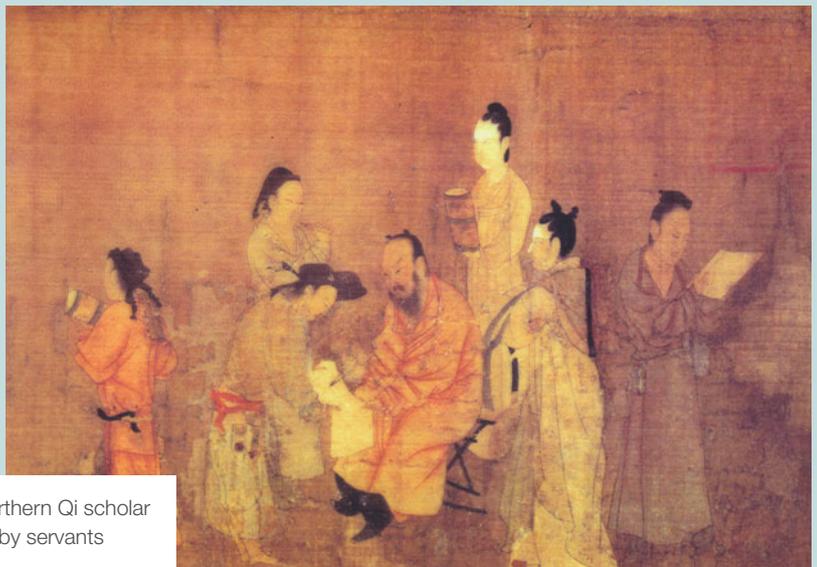
Source 6.13 Social structure

scholars educated men who had been schooled in calligraphy (writing Chinese) and Confucian texts, they were usually civil servants or government officials

gentry rural landowners, who were businesspeople, renting out parts of their vast amount of property to poorer people, like peasants, and maintaining their own private armies or militia to defend themselves

Shi

The top level of society, whose members were educated. They included **scholars** and **gentry**, who ran the government, planned battles and enjoyed a comfortable way of life.



Source 6.14 Painting of a northern Qi scholar official, assisted in his writing by servants

commodity an item that is bought and sold, especially a raw material or something that is manufactured



Source 6.15 Painting of peasants at work in a rice field

Nong

Food was the most precious **commodity** to sustain the society, and the second most valued social group was made up of farmers and peasants. This was by far the largest group in Chinese society.

Gong

Craftsmen and artisans, or people with certain skills, constituted the next social level. Many of these worked for the government or privately, sometimes employing artisans under them.



Source 6.16 Painting from Eastern Han period showing various artisans working with wood, stone and lacquer paint



Source 6.17 Painting of a merchant selling his wares

Shang

The lowest class consisted of **merchants** and traders. Even though they were at the bottom, they were regarded as important members of the community.

merchants these were business people who bought and sold goods and were often quite wealthy, but were looked down upon

Nubi

Nubi were slaves often forced into labour, and could include war captives, enslaved debtors and criminals. While there is debate about the extent of slavery in antiquity, given its conflict with Confucian values, there is little doubt about the role of slaves in projects like the building of the Great Wall.



Source 6.18 Painting showing a slave pouring a drink, while another slave assists someone to stand up

Family

Living together as an extended family was common in ancient China, with grandparents, parents and children in the same household. This pattern applied to all social classes. From the Han period onwards, Confucian principles were prominent – for example, valuing the family, respect for elders, family loyalty and placing the needs of the family as a whole ahead of individuals' desires. The oldest man was the official head of the family, while the oldest woman oversaw the daily running of the household. Parents chose marriage partners for their children and, once married, a woman would move to her husband's family house and show obedience to him and his parents.

Men and women

Confucius taught that women were inferior to men, and this view became widespread. A woman could increase her worth if she gave birth to boys, as families preferred male children,

and poor families often killed female infants in times of need. Farming was seen as men's work, so boys were expected to assist on the farm from an early age and their higher status resulted from this. Even so, at harvest times all members of the family, including women and girls, worked in the fields. Boys got the opportunity to go to school at the age of six, but girls received no formal education. The family of a girl had to provide a **dowry** to ensure a man would marry her, and this represented an extra burden for many.

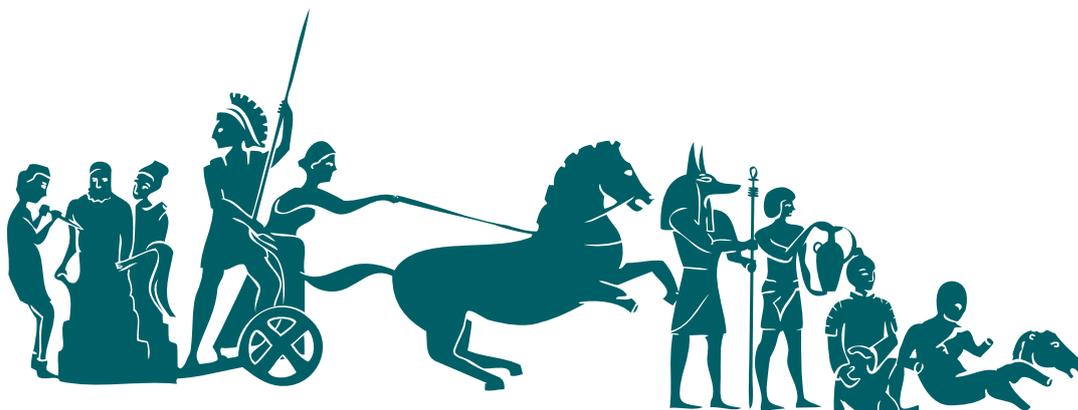
Men were allowed to have more than one wife, although the first wife held higher status and her children would have the right of inheritance. An emperor also had **concubines**, who were kept to provide him with entertainment and sometimes children. To be a concubine was seen as a great privilege.

dowry an amount of money or property given by a bride's family to her bridegroom or his family upon marriage

concubine a woman who was the lover of the emperor, was not married to him and resided in or near the royal court

Activity 6.5

- 1 Identify where most of ancient China's population lived.
- 2 What Confucian values contributed to the importance of the family in ancient China?
- 3 Compare the different approaches to the idea of law presented by the philosophies of Legalism and Confucianism.
- 4 Examine Sources 6.14–18 closely:
 - A What different types of work can you recognise?
 - B For each example of work you identify, suggest the social class to which that person might belong.



Times gone by ...

Some royal women were exceptions to the generally lowly and unprotected position of women in ancient China. Fu Hao was one of the wives of Wu Ding, the most powerful Shang king. She was a wife and mother, military leader, politician and shaman (priestess). She had a son, Prince Jie. However, little is known of her early life before she married Wu Ding.

In her tomb at Anyang, discovered in 1976 CE, oracle bones were found showing that Lady Fu Hao led numerous military campaigns against neighbouring tribes. These indicate that she had an army of over 10 000 men and powerful generals serving under her. Her unique status as a female military commander is confirmed by the many weapons unearthed from her tomb.

Oracle bone inscriptions also show that Wu Ding often instructed Fu Hao to perform significant ceremonies as a high priestess. This, too, was uncommon for a woman of that time, and has been interpreted as evidence that the king had great confidence in his wife. She died c. 1200 BCE.

- 1 List the disadvantages associated with being female in ancient China.
- 2 How did the social position of women like Fu Hao provide exceptions from the experience of other women?
- 3 What was interpreted as evidence that the king had great confidence in his wife?



Source 6.19 Fu Hao's burial pit, discovered in 1976

Lotus feet

Under later dynasties, wealthy families often had their daughters' feet bound to create 'lotus feet'. The toes and arches of the feet were broken and then each foot was tightly bandaged with the toes curled underneath so that the bones healed into a stunted shape. The result was that these girls developed tiny, deformed feet, which were regarded by men as beautiful. Women with lotus feet walked with great difficulty and some needed to be carried. Bound feet rendered women dependent on their families,

chastity abstaining from sex on moral grounds

particularly their men, and therefore they supposedly became an alluring symbol of **chastity**, social status (because they could not work) and male ownership.

Food

Food in ancient China varied on a regional basis. Some common aspects were observed. From at least 4000 BCE, the two staple grain crops were **millet** in northern China and rice in the south. These were supplemented by many other crops, including cabbage, soybeans, peas and bamboo shoots. Irrespective of social position, the Chinese ate two meals a day – one at mid-morning and the other before nightfall. Each meal had cooked grain (*fan*) and vegetables (*cai*).

millet a grain crop with small seeds used for food

The poor ate roast duck, chicken or fried fish, supplemented by vegetables, grains and soup. Rice wine would have been provided at these occasions. From about

carp a family of large freshwater fish with a single fin on the back

100 BCE, villages started to have artificial ponds to breed **carp**.

The rich cooked in elaborate ways such as stir-frying or steaming. They were cooked for by servants who used elaborate bronze and iron cooking pots. The rich ate more meat, eggs and fish than the poor. On special occasions, the wealthy had access to even more exotic foods, such as bear paw, shark fin and wild boar.

Law and order

Laws were often harsh under principles like Legalism. Legalism was based on the concept that humans were predisposed to evil or wrongdoing. This belief led to the understanding that a code of laws and punishments was needed in order to maintain order in society. The first several emperors adopted Legalistic approaches, and although this did tie forms of punishment to particular types of crime, the penalties were often severe. Qin Shi Huangdi set down strict disciplinary codes, brutally persecuted critics of his regime and set up a nationwide network of spies and **informants**.

informants people whose job it was to gather details on others and then inform the authorities

The Confucian philosophy, in contrast to Legalism, stated that social control and social order could only be created through education. Confucianism influenced the ancient Chinese legal system as it suggested that humans were inherently good and that order was based on respect. Confucian values came to prominence during the Eastern Han dynasty and were reflected in laws from that time. Early Han emperors abided by Legalistic approaches, despite their elevation of Confucius and his teaching.

Death and burial

The ancient Chinese believed that the afterlife was a continuation of life on earth. The wealthy prepared for death by arranging tombs. It was very important that all the things they needed were buried with them in their tomb. Some people had objects made especially for this purpose.

The powerful and wealthy of ancient China had their tombs furnished with very fine objects made from the very best materials. They had large sets of ritual vessels in their tombs so they could continue to make offerings to their ancestors. They often had weapons buried with them to show their power and to be used in the afterlife. It is believed that the tomb of Qin Shi Huangdi may be filled with mercury, which was believed to be a substance that created immortality.



Source 6.20 This jade burial suit contained the body of Liu Sheng, brother of Emperor Han Wudi, who died in 113 BCE. The suit is made from over 2000 jade plates sewn together by gold wire.

Jade had a very important role in ancient Chinese burials. Jade objects were placed on top of and around the body. The ancient Chinese came to believe that jade had the power to protect their bodies. Royal tombs from the Han dynasty onwards have contained bodies wearing jade burial suits, to protect the corpses from decay.

HISTORICAL FACT

Up until the period of Qin, it was not uncommon for kings to have their servants buried alive with them.

Activity 6.6

- 1 Compare the differences between the food available to the rich and the poor.
- 2 Compare the difference between the Legalist view of human nature and the Confucianist view.
- 3 What were ancient Chinese attitudes about death? How does Source 6.20 relate to these?
- 4 Explain the role of women in ancient Chinese society. Look at women from different social classes. In your answer, make specific reference to at least two sources from this section to support your answer.



Significant beliefs, values and practices



Source 6.21 Song dynasty (960–1279 CE) painting with the theme ‘Confucianism, Daoism and Buddhism are one’

There were three great belief systems that had an influence on ancient China. Daoism and Confucianism emerged during the Warring States period, followed by Buddhism some centuries later. Additionally, before the birth of these three philosophies, the Chinese had religious practices like the worship of ancestors. This worship honoured elderly family members and was based on the belief that spirits of dead ancestors would protect the family. Worship usually centred on household shrines.

wei (knowing when to act and when not to act). The Daoist notion is that everything has both *yin* and *yang* aspects, but if either is allowed to be stronger than the other, then the balance in nature is broken. Daoists believed that life should be peaceful and filled with joy, and it was their view that most of the things that people regarded as necessary for a civilised society – government, money, laws, power and social position – didn’t help to achieve this.

Laozi and Daoism

Traditionally, Daoism derives from Laozi (meaning ‘old master’) and his book the *Daodejing*, a philosophical work central to Daoism and Chinese Buddhism. However, the question of whether Laozi actually existed, whether he is a mythical figure or whether he is a combination of a number of people is unclear. *Dao* literally means ‘[the] way’. The central idea of Daoism is balance or harmony, especially with nature.

Daoism is better understood as a way of life than as a religion. Daoist teachings are based on revelations from various sources. There are differing interpretations of these revelations within Daoism, but all the sects share certain core beliefs, particularly the centrality of the *taijitu* (*yin yang*) symbol, and the notion of *wu-*



Source 6.22 The *taijitu*, a Chinese symbol traditionally representing the Daoist idea of *yin yang* (‘opposites in nature’); *yin* represents the dark, cold and passive parts of nature, while *yang* represents the light, hot and active parts.

Activity 6.7

- 1 List four major religious beliefs or practices of ancient China.
- 2 What does *dao* mean?
- 3 Who was Laozi?
- 4 What is the literal meaning of *wu-wei*? Can you think of a real-life example of how this idea might be applied?
- 5 Source 6.22 represents the *taijitu*. Explain how this relates to Daoist beliefs.

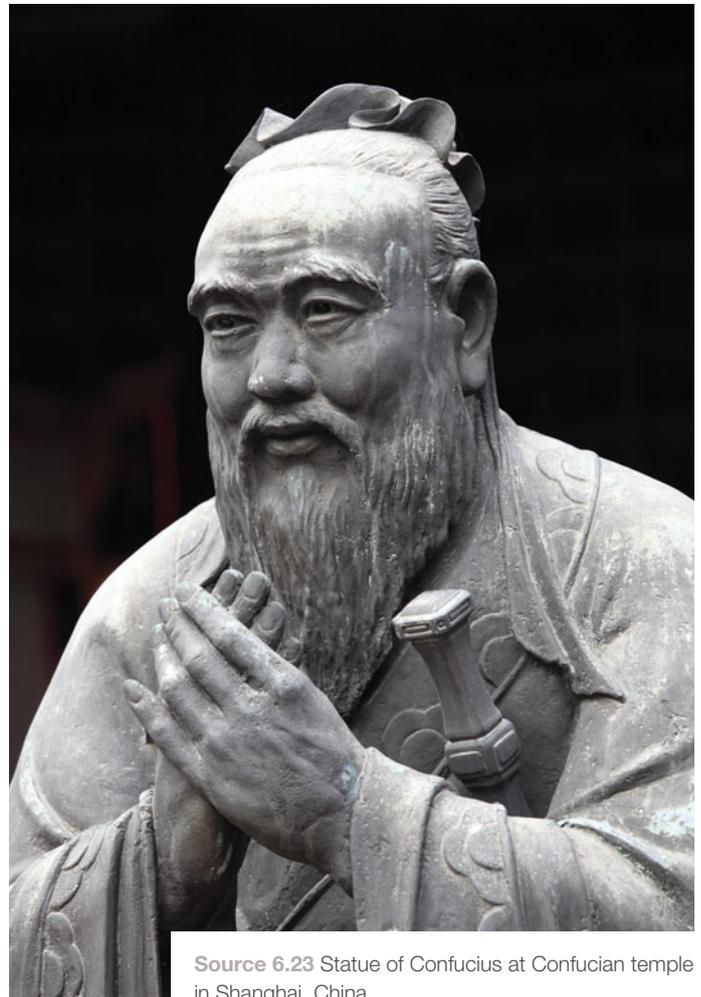
Confucianism

Confucius (c. 551–c. 479 BCE) was a thinker and social philosopher of the Eastern Zhou period, who emphasised personal and public **morality**, correctness of social relationships, justice and sincerity. The turmoil of his own and subsequent times made his clear ideas attractive. During his lifetime, he travelled throughout China teaching and presenting his views. No original texts of his survive, and most of what became the philosophy of Confucianism was written down by followers in the centuries after his death. His ideas are mainly known from a collection of 499 statements and observations compiled about 30 to 50 years after his death, called the *Lun Yu* (literally ‘Classified/Ordered Sayings’), or *The Analects*.

In Confucian teaching, the family was the basis of society, and ideas such as strong familial loyalty, ancestor worship, respect of elders by children and the family as a basis for an ideal government were very important. This meant that a good ruler was one who treated his subjects as a family.

Confucius had little widespread influence during his lifetime, but by the beginning of the Qin period his ideas had gained prominence. Confucianism has arguably had a deeper impact on Chinese culture than any other philosophy. Its principles were to have as profound an effect on the organisation of government as they did on people’s ordinary social and personal values.

morality standards of conduct based on what is generally accepted as right or wrong



Source 6.23 Statue of Confucius at Confucian temple in Shanghai, China

Times gone by ...

A young man should be a good son at home and an obedient young man abroad, sparing of speech but trustworthy in what he says, and should love the multitude at large but cultivate the friendship of his fellow men ...

If, on examining himself, a man finds nothing to reproach himself for, what worries and fears can he have?

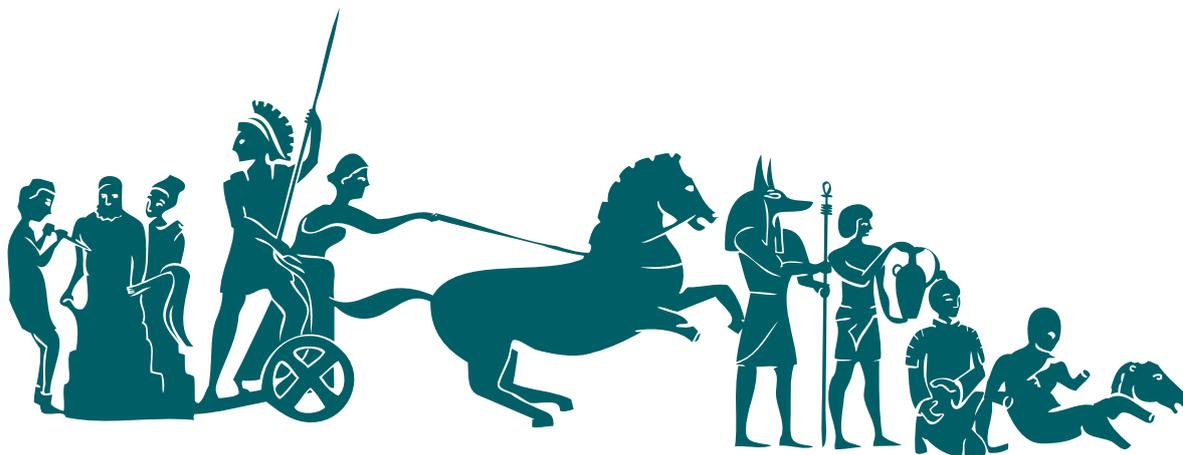
Make it your guiding principle to do your best for others and to be trustworthy in what you say, and move yourself to where rightness is, then you will be exalting virtue.

Claims made immodestly are difficult to live up to.

If one sets strict standards for oneself and makes allowances for others when making demands on them, one will stay clear of ill-will.

Source 6.24 Sayings by Confucius from the *Lun Yu*

- 1 A young man should be a good son where?
- 2 Discuss what you think is meant by the line 'Claims made immodestly are difficult to live up to'.
- 3 'If one sets strict standards for oneself and makes allowances for others when making demands on them', what will one stay clear of?



Buddha and Buddhism

The origins of Buddhism in China are lost in legend. What is known is that Buddhism originated in northern India where Prince Siddhartha Gautama (c. 563 BCE – c. 480 BCE) began a search for ‘enlightenment’ at the age of 29. He taught and studied for over 50 years and was the first Buddha (‘enlightened one’). According to tradition, he first discovered enlightenment when he was 35 years old, and from this experience conceived the ‘four noble truths’, which became the heart of Buddhist teachings:

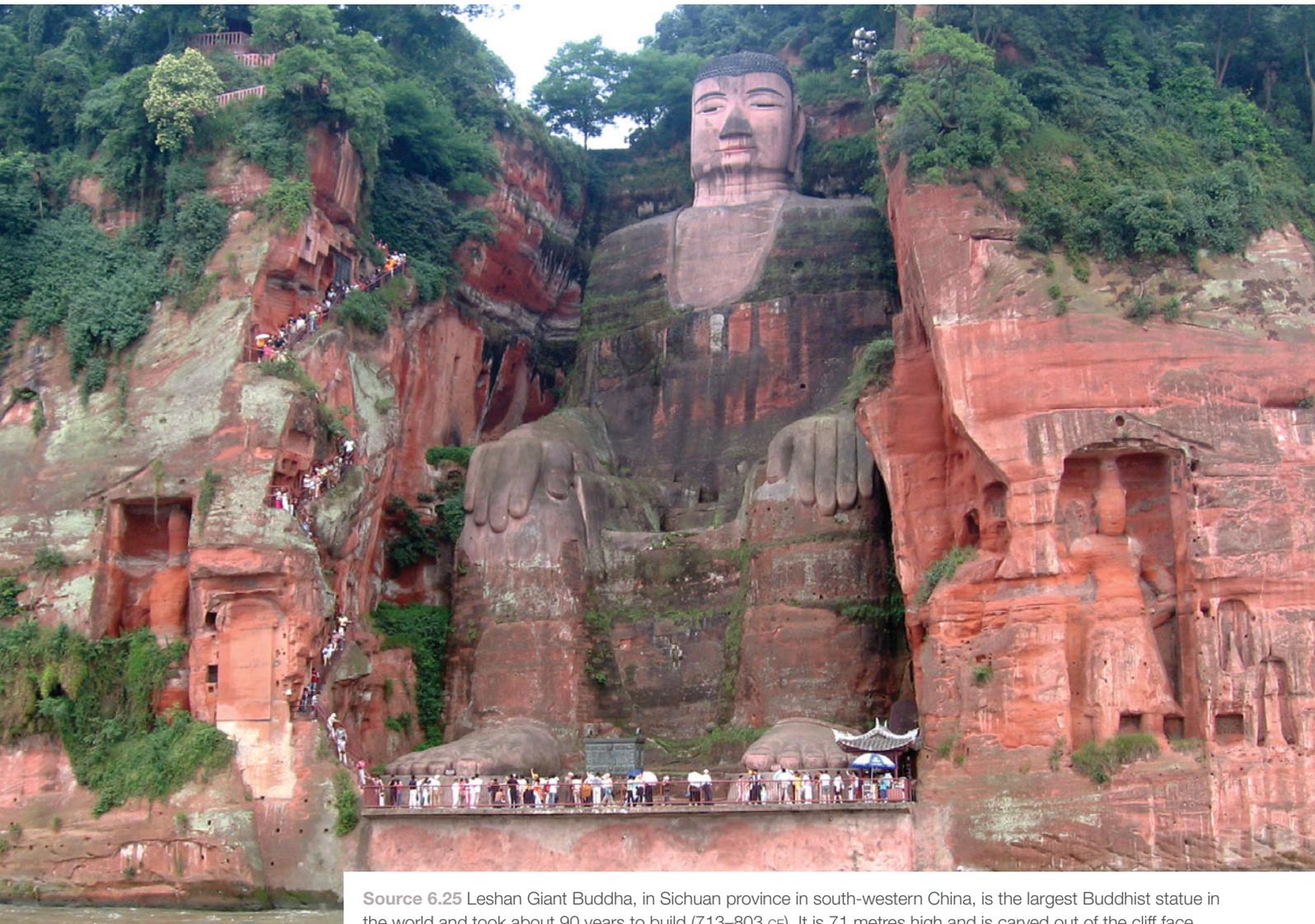
- 1 Existence is suffering (dukkha).
- 2 Suffering arises from attachment to desires.
- 3 Freedom from suffering (nirvana) occurs when attachment to desire ceases.

- 4 Freedom from suffering is possible by practising the ‘Eightfold Path’, which lays down a process to acquire ethical, moral and mental discipline.

Buddhism also taught that people are **reincarnated** after they die and continue to have many lives until reaching nirvana.

reincarnation living again in a new body or form after death

It is now thought that Buddhism came to China from what was then north-west India (present-day Afghanistan and Pakistan) and was spread via the trade routes associated with the Silk Road to reach Han China. After entering China, Buddhism appears to have blended readily with early Daoism, possibly in the first century BCE. Within 600 years, Buddhism had become the largest religion in China, as it remains today.



Source 6.25 Leshan Giant Buddha, in Sichuan province in south-western China, is the largest Buddhist statue in the world and took about 90 years to build (713–803 CE). It is 71 metres high and is carved out of the cliff face.

Activity 6.8

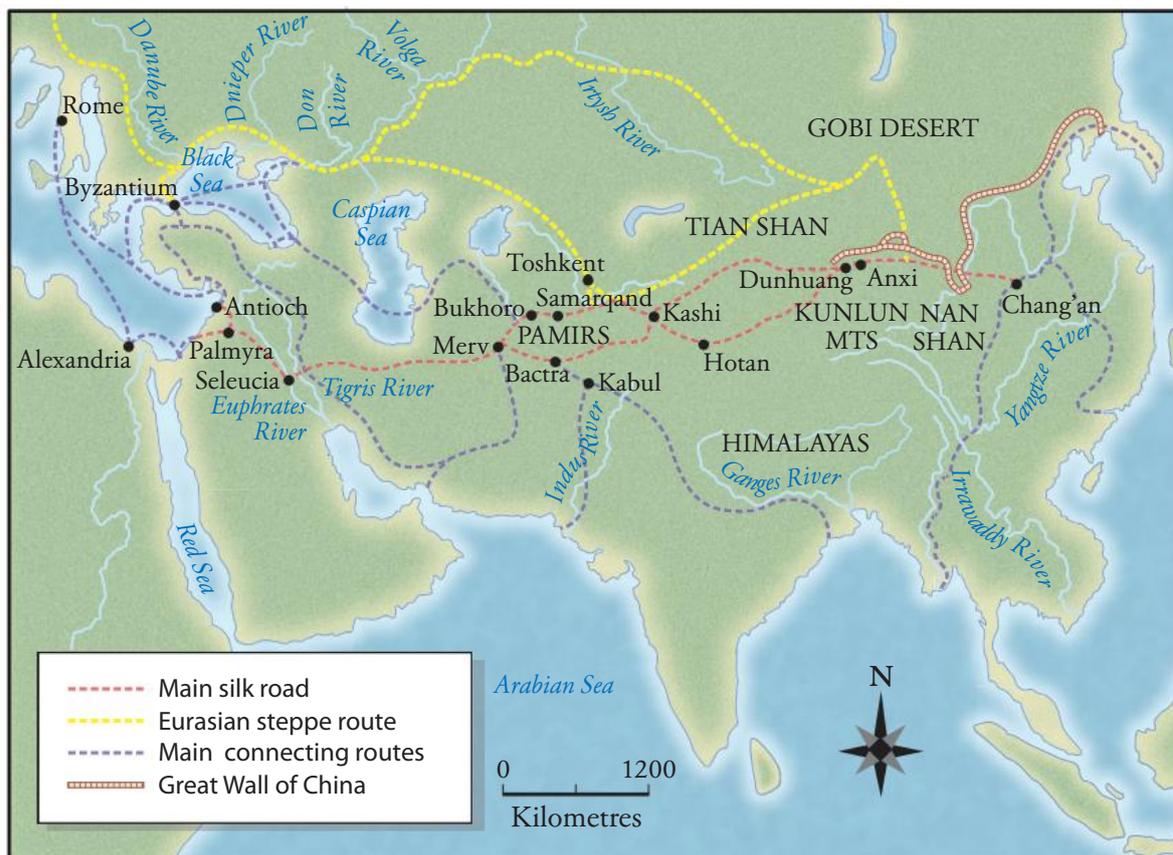
- 1 Who was Confucius?
- 2 Discuss why people were attracted to his ideas.
- 3 What is the *Lun Yu*?
- 4 Where and with whom did Buddhism originate?
- 5 Explain how Buddhism reached China.
- 6 Take one of the sayings in Source 6.24 and explain what you think it means and how you think it would apply in a real-life situation.
- 7 Consider what Source 6.25 suggests about the impact of Buddhism in China.
- 8 Design a poster to depict important aspects of one of these philosophies. The poster should be designed to be used as a teaching resource for display in a Years 7–8 classroom. Write a 250-word explanation of the connection between the aspects and how they are presented in the poster.



Contacts and conflicts

Even though China was geographically isolated, there was some contact with distant foreign cultures through trade. Most importantly, an

informal network of trade routes connected East, South and Western Asia with the Mediterranean world. Today this network is called the 'Silk Road'



Source 6.26 The main routes of the Silk Road and the Eurasian steppe route

because of the profitable silk trade with China that began during the Han dynasty under the emperor Wudi. The main route of the Silk Road (the red line in Source 6.26) wound all the way through to Central Asia and modern Afghanistan and Iran to the east coast of the Mediterranean Sea, and still further along the trading centres in the Near East, and then Europe. By the thirteenth century, the Eurasian steppe route (the yellow line in Source 6.26), which travelled through Mongolia and modern Siberia, Kazakhstan and Georgia, provided another widely used means

to transport Chinese silk to Europe. While the caravans along these routes carried slaves, luxuries such as **frankincense**, satin and **hemp**, **musk** and other rare perfumes, spices, medicines, jewels, glassware and even exotic food plants like rhubarb, silk was by far the most profitable commodity traded. The Silk Road also served as a medium for the spread of knowledge, ideas, cultures and disease.

frankincense an aromatic resin from an African tree, used as incense – especially in religious ceremonies – and in perfumes

hemp an Asian plant, the fibres of which can be used to make canvas, rope, paper and cloth

musk a pungent and greasy secretion from a gland in the male musk deer, used to make a strong perfume

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, choose a topic and plan a persuasive essay (in which you try to convince a reader of your point of view).

Essay topic		What is your opinion on this topic?
Reason 1:		Why? Support your reason.
Reason 2:		Why? Support your reason.
Reason 3:		Why? Support your reason.

Silk production

To control the production and trading of silk, the Chinese kept secret the process of making silk until the fourth century CE, when the information was inadvertently publicised in northern India and then spread to Europe. Chinese silk was, however, always considered superior. The process of silk weaving was developed over 4000 years ago, and it is much the same today. The practice of breeding silkworms for this purpose is known as **sericulture**.

sericulture the commercial breeding of silkworms for their silk

filament a slender strand or fibre

yarn a continuous twisted strand of fibre

The cocoons of silk moths are placed in hot water to release the silk filaments and kill the moth larvae (silkworms). The **filaments** are combined to form **yarn**, which is wound and finally dried. Each cocoon (about 500 millimetres in length) can yield from 500 to 1200 metres of silk fibre.



Source 6.27 Nineteenth century silk from China showing the classic dragon motif

Activity 6.9

- 1 What was the Silk Road?
- 2 Under which emperor of which dynasty did this trade begin?
- 3 List eight things traded on the Silk Road apart from silk.
- 4 Apart from trade in goods, what else did the Silk Road help to spread?
- 5 How long ago was the silk-making process developed?
- 6 Discuss why the Chinese kept the process secret.
- 7 How much silk can be produced by one silkworm cocoon?

Activity 6.10

- 1 List four pieces of information you can gain from Source 6.26.
- 2 What does Source 6.27 suggest about why Chinese silk was seen as superior to that from other places?

HISTORICAL FACT

The oldest evidence of the silk trade is the finding of silk in the hair of an Egyptian mummy of the twenty-first dynasty, c. 1070 BCE. Tests in 1993 confirmed the dating of these fibres and the suggestion that the Chinese were possibly trading silk to the West this long ago.

Trade

Silk became a prime trading commodity during the Han dynasty, and generated enormous wealth for China because of the Romans' obsessive demand for it, which made silk literally worth its weight in gold. The Romans called China *Serica* ('Land of Silk'). The silk trade between China and Europe lasted from the first century BCE until about 1400 CE. This coincides with spread of the 'Black Death' (bubonic plague), possibly originating in China in c. 1346 CE, and then moving through the Middle East and reaching its height in Europe in around 1350 CE.

Parthia an ancient culture that was part of the Persian empire at its height, stretching from the northern reaches of what is now south-eastern Turkey to eastern Iran

envoy somebody acting as a diplomat on behalf of the ruler

The Chinese merchants mainly sold their silk to **Parthian** merchants, who in turn dealt directly with the Romans. Gan Ying was a Chinese military **envoy** who was sent on a mission to Rome in 97 CE by Han general Ban Chao. Following the Silk Road, he travelled as far as the Persian Gulf coast of Parthia (modern Iran) and he is recorded as the Chinese person who went the furthest west during antiquity, gathering what information he could.

Apart from silk, there was also a huge demand for Chinese tea and porcelain, and Chinese merchants became very wealthy as a result. Chinese ideas and inventions got passed along with the trade, including the compass, paper money and the **abacus**. Western traders journeyed to the east to obtain more of these goods.

abacus a wooden calculating machine

The most famous European to travel westwards via the Silk Road and to reach China, over a thousand years after the expedition led by Gan Ying, was an Italian merchant, Marco Polo. He accompanied his father and uncle, both Venetian merchants, on an epic 24-year journey to Asia, returning to find Venice at war with Genoa (another Italian city) in 1293 CE. Marco Polo was imprisoned by the Genoese and during his captivity told stories about his travels to a fellow prisoner, Rustichello da Pisa, who wrote them down and later incorporated them into a book that made Marco Polo famous. The book's detail created enormous interest about China in Europe. Despite the book's popularity, many could not believe the lavish and extraordinary descriptions of Chinese culture it contained, so it also became known in Italy as *Il Milione* ('The Million'), because sceptics alleged it contained a million lies.

Kublai, who is styled grand khan, or lord of lords, is of the middle stature, that is, neither tall nor short; his limbs are well formed, and in his whole figure there is a just proportion. His complexion is fair, and occasionally suffused with red, like the bright tint of the rose, which adds much grace to his countenance. His eyes are black and handsome, his nose is well shaped and prominent.

Source 6.28 Extract from *Travels of Marco Polo the Venetian*, translated by Thomas Wright, Book II, Chapter IV

Activity 6.11

- 1 Explain why the Romans called China *Serica*.
- 2 Who provided the trading link between the Chinese and Europeans in ancient times?

Research 6.2

In groups, undertake research in your library and/or on the internet to find out about the journeys of Zhang Qian in the second century BCE. What was his role? How significant was he in influencing the Han decision to pursue the silk trade, establish contact outside of the Middle Kingdom and develop the Silk Road? Prepare a map showing his travels, some of the goods that he brought both into and out of China, and some of the peoples he encountered.



Role of significant individuals

Qin Shi Huangdi

imperial related to an empire or emperor/empress

The Qin is considered the first Chinese **imperial** dynasty because for the first time the whole of China was unified under one ruler. Ying Zheng, the ruler of Qin who came to the throne at age 13 in 246 BCE, declared himself Shi Huangdi, meaning the ‘Emperor of the First Generation’, after conquering the other kingdoms in 221 BCE. This brought the Warring States period to an end. Ying Zheng was 36 when he proclaimed himself emperor. While King of Qin, he survived at least two assassination attempts. This experience led him to introduce Legalism as a way of maintaining order in Qin. Everyone was expected to obey the rule of law. The discipline resulting from this system was one of the main reasons for the Qin army’s victory, along with the experience gained from defending Qin’s remote western frontier and its advanced weaponry. Individually, the forces of the other six states that had emerged from the chaos of the first half of the Warring States period were no match for the Qin.

A new organisation of society

As the first emperor, Qin Shi Huangdi’s challenge was to establish one government over the inhabitants of states that had been at war for centuries. The existing kingdoms had been organised by feudalism, a system that had resulted in continual warfare. In 221 BCE, Qin Shi Huangdi noted: ‘If I restore feudal holdings, war would return. Then peace could never be found.’

After compelling the families of those who had opposed him to live in the Qin capital, Xianyang, he had all weapons confiscated and brought back to the capital where they were melted down and turned into bells. Resistance to the rule of Qin in the conquered states meant that a continuing military occupation was required. Qin Shi Huangdi then divided China into 36 **prefectures**, each governed by three officials – one to control the army, another to oversee taxation and legal matters, and a third to ensure that the emperor’s instructions were being followed. This was the first two-tier

prefectures local areas or districts to which people are assigned and ruled over by government-appointed officials



Source 6.29 A likeness of Qin Shi Huangdi in the British Library collection at the British Museum. It is from an eighteenth century CE album of portraits of 86 emperors of China, with Chinese historical notes. There are no surviving images of the emperor from his lifetime.

administrative system to exist in China. Appointments were based on merit, not on the previous practice of hereditary rights

Standardisation

Working with his chief minister, Li Si, the emperor abolished the distinctions that would remind the people of the former separate states. A unified state was achieved through **standardisation** of different aspects of life, particularly the economy. Weights and measures, currency and even the length of

standardisation to remove variations in something and bring it into conformity with one another throughout society

the axles of carts (to facilitate transport on the road system) were changed to meet new uniform requirements.

The Chinese writing system was also standardised to promote unification. Under Li Si, variations of the writing forms within the Qin script were removed and a new standardised script made official throughout all the conquered regions. Regional scripts were abolished and one language for all of China was enforced.

Transport and communications were vital to maintain unity and control. A network of 6800 kilometres of roads spread out from Xianying. Road widths were standardised, and

fresh horses were provided at specific intervals along the roads to allow for the emperor's messengers to get their deliveries through. Bridges

were upgraded or built to assist this process. As well as helping the emperor's messengers, the improved roads increased trade and growth.



Source 6.30 Introduced in c. 210 BCE, a standard *ban liang* coin typically weighed between 6 and 10 grams, and was made from copper.

All under heaven are of one mind, single in will.

Weights and measures have a single standard; words are written in a uniform way.

Wherever sun and moon shine, where ships and wheeled vehicles bear cargo,
all fulfil their allotted years, none do not attain their goal.

To initiate projects in season – such is the August Emperor's way.

He rectifies diverse customs, crossing rivers, traversing the land.

He pities the black-headed people, morning and evening never neglectful.

He erases doubt and establishes laws, so all will know what to shun ...

Source 6.31 An extract from the Emperor's Stone inscription (attributed to Li Si), Mount Langya (central eastern China), 219 BCE

Activity 6.12

- 1 Outline two reasons why the army of Qin was victorious at the end of the Warring States period.
- 2 How many prefectures did Qin Shi Huangdi establish and how was each of them run?
- 3 What steps did the new emperor take to stop the threat of a return to feudalism?
- 4 Write a paragraph explaining the purpose and the process of standardisation introduced by Qin Shi Huangdi, using Sources 6.30 and 6.31 to illustrate your argument.

The Great Wall

Qin armies had gained experience during the Warring States period through defending their western borders. This meant that the new emperor was fully aware of the dangers posed by external threats. Walls had been built as early as the seventh century BCE to defend against the Xiongnu tribes in the north and the other warring kingdoms. Qin Shi Huangdi ordered the destruction of these internal walls because they impeded the process of unification. The notion of a continuous fortified

garrison group of soldiers stationed to protect a particular location

defensive barrier began with him, and work started as early as 220 BCE. This wall included watch towers at intervals and required troops as **garrisons**.

A **conscripted** workforce of possibly one million people was employed to construct a 'great wall', approximately 2400 kilometres in length. It is hard to know its exact length because no historical records indicating its length survive, and also because little of the rammed earth and mountain rock construction of the Qin dynasty wall has survived. Subsequent dynasties provided continual repairs to and rebuilding or extending of this vital defence against invasion. Much of today's Great Wall dates from the Ming period (1368–1644 CE), when bricks and stone were employed to deal with the threat of Mongol invasion.

conscripted forced into service

The Great Wall has over 5000 kilometres of continuous structure.



Source 6.32 The Great Wall of China was started by Qin Shi Huangdi. This section is at Simatai, near Beijing.

Legalism and authority of the emperor

Intolerance to opposition was a strong feature of the first emperor's rule. The chief minister, Li Si, instituted a code of Legalism, which had been developed in the Qin Kingdom. Under this system, those who obeyed the ruler were rewarded and those who did not faced severe punishment. Legalist thought served as a means to both control the population and eliminate **dissent**.

dissent disagreement with a practice and refusal to conform to the rules laid down by the emperor

Times gone by ...

The historian Sima Qian provided this account of Li Si's reaction to the criticism of the emperor made by scholars in 213 BCE:

Now the August Emperor has unified all under heaven ... Yet the adherents of private theories band together to criticize the laws and directives. Hearing that an order has been handed down, each one proceeds to discuss it in the light of his own theories ... If behavior such as this is not prohibited, then in upper circles the authority of the ruler will be compromised, and in lower ones cliques will form. Therefore it should be prohibited.

I therefore request that all records of the historians other than those of the state of Qin be burned ... they shall in all cases deliver them to the governor or his commandant for burning ... Anyone who uses antiquity to criticize the present shall be executed along with his family. Any official who observes or knows of violations and fails to report them shall be equally guilty. Anyone who has failed to burn such books within thirty days of the promulgation of this order shall be subjected to tattoo and condemned to 'wall dawn' [convict] labor.

Source 6.33 Sima Qian, *Records of the Grand Historian*

- 1 Describe the punishment awaiting anyone who had failed to burn such books within 30 days of the promulgation of the order.
- 2 What was requested to be done to all records of the historians other than those of the state of Qin?
- 3 Discuss with a classmate what is meant by the term 'the adherents of private theories'.



Source 6.34 A modern artist's impression of 460 Confucian scholars being executed on the demand of the emperor, c. 212 BCE

Legalism appeared to bring social stability and made impressive public works possible. But a building project as large as the Great Wall involved mass suffering and hundreds of thousands of deaths – as many workers were forcibly separated from their families, underfed, beaten and worked to death. The Great Wall was known to later generations as the ‘world’s longest cemetery’.

An incident known as the ‘burning of the books and burying of the scholars’ (*fenshu kengru*) demonstrates the price of control under Legalism. The book burning occurred when Li Si argued with some scholars. They asserted that earlier rulers had treated their families better than Qin Shi Huangdi treated his family.

Qin Shi Huangdi was fearful of dying. He spent enormous resources searching out possible ways to cheat death. A year after the order to burn the books, the emperor ordered more than 460 scholars in the capital to be buried alive or beheaded after he had apparently been deceived by two **alchemists** about a process to prolong his life.

alchemist a person who practised an early, unscientific form of chemistry that sought to change base metals into gold and discover a life-prolonging elixir, and a universal cure for disease

Activity 6.13

- 1 Explain why the Great Wall was built.
- 2 How did the building of the Great Wall affect the ordinary people?
- 3 What was the purpose of the policy of Legalism?
- 4 List two benefits of Legalism.
- 5 Outline the negative effects of Legalism as used by Qin Shi Huangdi. Make specific reference to Sources 6.33 and 6.34 in your answer.

Qin's death and legacy

Qin Shi Huangdi's quest for the elixir of life grew to occupy most of his time in his last years. He died in 210 BCE in Shaqiu prefecture, while on a tour of eastern China. It is believed that the emperor died after swallowing toxic mercury pills supplied by his court alchemists to make him immortal. Mercury was believed to have properties that could prolong life.

After his death, the empire of Qin only lasted until 206 BCE, when Liu Bang (subsequently Han founding emperor Gaozu) led a successful revolt against the last Qin ruler, Ziyang.

In death, perhaps Qin's greatest legacy was the **mausoleum** complex at Xian that some estimate occupies an area of over 50 square kilometres.

mausoleum large tomb structure containing bodily remains

Activity 6.14

- 1 Describe how Qin Shi Huangdi died.
- 2 What is ironic about the circumstances of his death?
- 3 Why did Li Si try to keep the emperor's death a secret until his body was brought back to the capital?
- 4 Name the three Qin emperors and state for how long each ruled.

Research 6.3

Research Li Si on the internet. Copy and complete this profile scaffold. Note that there will be several things to list for achievements/influence.

Name _____

Year of birth _____

Position in Qin dynasty _____

Achievements/influence _____

Year of death _____

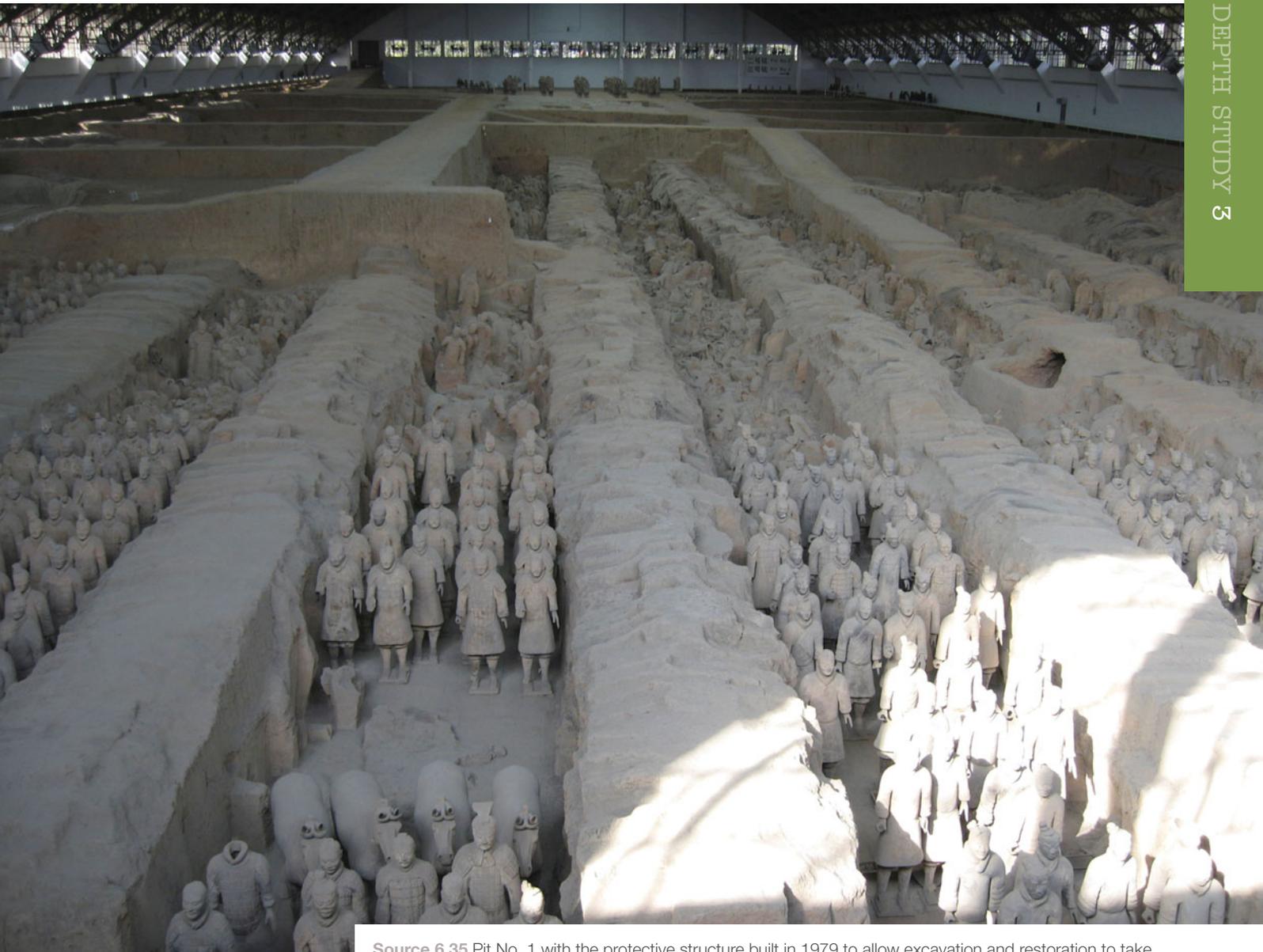
Circumstances of death _____

Terracotta warriors of Xian

In 1974 CE, workmen digging a well near Xian in central China found at a depth of 4 metres a slightly larger than life-size human figure made from fired clay. They reported their find to local authorities,

resulting in the State Cultural Relics Administration performing an initial excavation, which revealed a trench with rows of similar **terracotta** statues. It was determined that this army had

terracotta kiln-baked clay used to make an unglazed ceramic



Source 6.35 Pit No. 1 with the protective structure built in 1979 to allow excavation and restoration to take place all year round on site. Rows of soldiers and horse-drawn chariots face the east, the direction from which invaders were expected.

been created for the emperor Qin Shi Huangdi, whose burial mound and tomb are located 1.5 kilometres to the west of the site. Over the next four years, three separate pits were discovered and excavation was begun. This was the Emperor's army for the afterlife.

infantry soldiers marching or fighting on foot; foot soldiers collectively

chariot a two-wheeled horse-drawn vehicle without seats

Three pits

Pit No. 1 is the largest, and is about 210 metres long. It contains over 6000 statues, including **infantry**, archers and 30 **chariots**, each drawn by four full-scale terracotta horses. Most of the

heavily armed infantry in this pit was arranged in nine columns, with over 500 archers guarding the flanks of the army. About half of this pit has been excavated – 1087 soldiers, 32 horses and remnants of eight chariots have been uncovered so far. Originally wooden pillars held up a roof of plastered wooden beams to protect the terracotta army and to support between 5 and 7 metres of earth fill that buried the site. However, a fire destroyed some of these pillars, causing the soil to crush some of the figures, but also making the figures easier to discover because they were closer to the surface.

cavalry soldiers trained to fight on horseback

Pit No. 2 is L-shaped and smaller, but still covers 6000 square metres. Over 900 statues of soldiers and 350 chariot horses, 124 **cavalry** horses and the remains of 89 war chariots have been uncovered. The soldiers are infantrymen and crossbowmen. Chariots are accompanied by a charioteer, an officer archer and three infantrymen. This site is estimated to hold up to 1400 figures and is only partially excavated.

The U-shaped Pit No. 3 is smaller still (500 square metres) and has been interpreted as a 'command post' for the army units arranged in the other pits. A number of the figures here appear to be officers. Many of the 64 warriors found in this pit had been smashed in antiquity and their real weapons taken. Bronze and wood weapons – swords, **crossbows**, spears, daggers

crossbow a weapon consisting of a bow attached crosswise to a stock with a winding mechanism and a trigger – it fires short, heavy arrows called bolts

and **halberds** – have since been discovered. The soldiers in the first two pits are on average 1.8 metres in height and those in the third pit average 1.9 metres.

The excavation at Xian has been underway for over 35 years.

Virtually all the figures had originally been brightly painted and equipped with real weapons. These were mainly made of wood, which had rotted away after being buried for over 2000 years. An enormous aircraft hangar-like building has been erected over Pit No. 1 to protect the site and enable continuous excavation and restoration work. All the warriors are placed facing the emperor's burial mound and mausoleum, which is about two kilometres away. At the time of writing, this had not yet been excavated.

halberd a weapon consisting of an axe blade and pick with a spearhead on top, mounted on a long wooden handle

HISTORICAL FACT

The type of crossbow used by the Qin army could be rendered ineffective by removing two pins, which prevented enemies from capturing a working crossbow and then using it against them.

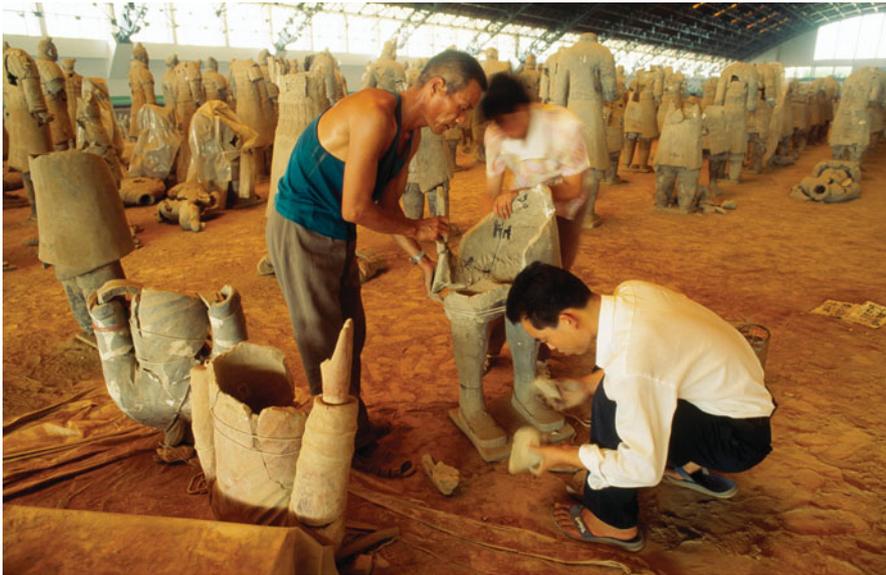
Activity 6.15

- 1 Locate the site of the terracotta army.
- 2 Explain why the existence of the terracotta army was unknown until 1974.
- 3 How far from the emperor's burial mound and tomb is the terracotta army located?
- 4 How many statues of soldiers, including officers, have been uncovered so far?
- 5 Pit No. 3 is the smallest, but is thought to be the most important for the terracotta army. Can you explain why?
- 6 Why are the figures shown facing east in Source 6.35? What does this suggest about their purpose?
- 7 What evidence does Source 6.35 tell us about conservation issues being addressed by the archaeologists and specialists working at the site?

Technologies

kiln a specialised oven or furnace used for industrial processes such as firing clay for pottery

The terracotta figures were all made in the same way, with solid legs and hands and hollow bodies, arms and heads. Each of these components was probably made in different **kilns** and transported to the site, where heads, hands and arms were joined to the torso with coils of clay concealing any joins. Fine clay was then layered over mass-produced heads, and individual features, hairstyles and expressions were sculpted on



Source 6.36 Workers try to piece together one of the terracotta warriors found in Pit No. 1. Thousands of fragments are each numbered and described before being matched.



Source 6.37 An artist's impression of workers placing the terracotta army and constructing the protective ceiling structure in Pit No. 1 before burial

forelock the part of a horse's mane that falls forward between its ears

to each. This process was repeated for the armour and hands. Finally, the figures were painted in minute detail to replicate living models.

Horses were put together in the same way. Details like flaring nostrils, open mouths, tousled **forelocks** and pricked ears all conveyed the sense of an alert, live animal.

As mentioned earlier, all the warriors were buried with actual weapons. Prior to this find, it was thought that the overwhelming success of the Qin army was because it used iron weapons to overcome the bronze weapons of its enemies. However, the terracotta army is armed mostly with bronze weapons. Archaeologists have noted

first that the arrangement of the army in Pit No. 1 has units of troops facing outwards along the edges of the main force – all **flanks** were covered

flank the left or right side of a military formation

against surprise attack and the formation could change shape quickly in battle. Most significant is the appearance of crossbows – the Qin version is thought to have been powerful enough to easily pierce enemy armour.

The warriors occupy a range of poses associated with various functions. Officers stand, usually holding a weapon in the right hand. Crossbowmen either kneel or stand – standing crossbowmen do not wear armour, but those that are kneeling do. These patterns are repeated with minor variations across thousands of statues. Horses wore real leather and bronze **bridles**.

bridle part of the harness of a horse, including a set of leather straps fitted to a horse's head and incorporating the bit (fitting in the horse's mouth) and the reins (held by the rider or driver to control the horse's head)



Source 6.38 Six types of soldiers' poses from the terracotta army – note the original colouring still in evidence. Hands were placed in position to hold real weapons. The figure on the left is a charioteer and both hands would have held the horses' reins



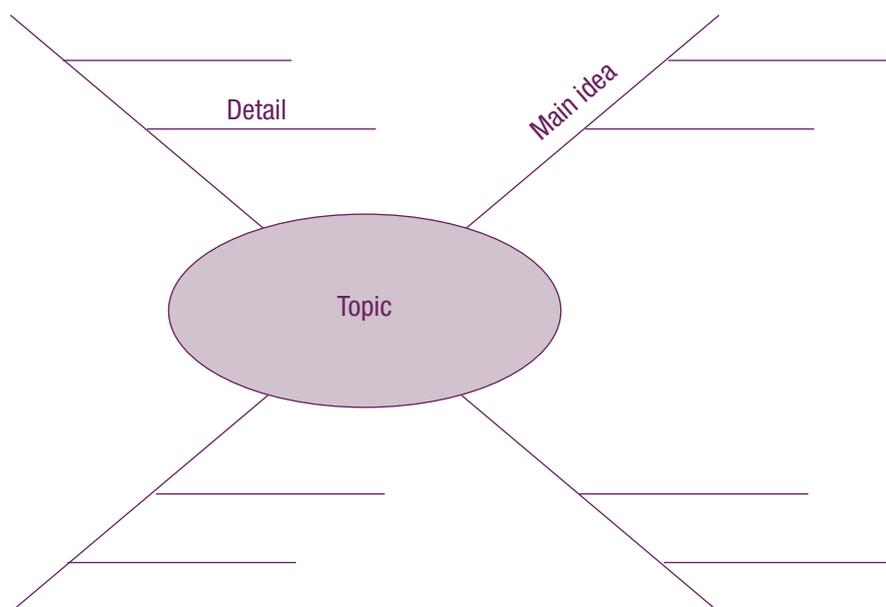
Source 6.39 No two warriors are the same. Every head has been individually modelled with unique features. The range of faces depicted is intended to represent the various ethnicities under the emperor's authority. Hairstyles are varied and complex, and possibly denote the rank of the wearer.

Activity 6.16

- 1** Outline the steps involved in making one of these terracotta warriors.
- 2** What information about the Qin army has study of the terracotta warriors provided about:
 - a** weapons and armour
 - b** organisation
 - c** use of cavalry and chariots?
- 3** How many people, and how long, did it take to construct the emperor's burial complex?
- 4** Look at Sources 6.38 and 6.39 and refer to them in answering the following questions:
 - a** How were the terracotta warriors individualised? Why was this done?
 - b** In what ways are the warriors we see today at the site changed from how the emperor might have seen them?
- 5** Examine the pictures of the terracotta warriors in this chapter. Reflect on the quantity, quality, variety and age of the statues. What do you think study of the emperor's buried army can tell us about the power of Qin?

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, examine sources and make notes for question 5, Activity 6.16, on the previous page. The 'topic' is the terracotta army; the 'Main Idea' is what the army tell us about Qin's power. The details are from the sources and accompanying text.



Six types of soldiers were found among China's great terracotta army. The scale of creating the army is unique. It is estimated that kilns would have needed to fire the statues at between 800 and 1000 degrees Celsius. Centuries of burial caused chemical reactions between the soil and the painted lacquer used to vividly colour the statues. When exposed to the air, the paint shrank, cracked and rapidly faded. New techniques are being experimented with to stop this process on future excavations.

Time capsule

The excavations at Xian provide a unique insight into life in China over 2000 years ago. The organisation of the terracotta army provides a

sense not only of the military strength that Qin Shi Huangdi had at his disposal, but also the organisation of the army and the technologies it would have employed in the process of overcoming the other kingdoms to unify China. The enormity of the scale of the site at Xian also suggests much about the authority of the Qin emperor. The coordination of various craftspeople and workers to make the terracotta army alone is unmatched by any other historical find. The Chinese historian Sima Qian, writing a century after Qin Shi Huangdi's death, estimated that the creation of the emperor's mausoleum and its surroundings involved 700 000 labourers over a period of 40 years.

Chapter summary

- Archaeological evidence for ancient China dates back to 3500 BCE, making it the oldest continuous culture in the world.
- China's geography meant that it developed in isolation from outside influences. The Chinese called their land *Zhong Guo*, or 'Middle Kingdom', because they saw it as being poised between heaven and earth.
- The history of China is characterised by a long series of dynasties, possibly starting with the Xia c. 2100 BCE.
- China was first united under the Qin dynasty emperor Shi Huangdi in the third century BCE. He initiated the building of the Great Wall and his tomb is a unique complex, partly consisting of thousands of life-sized terracotta figures replicating the Qin army.
- Subsequent dynasties, especially the Han, added to Qin's legacy of standardisation and Legalism.
- Three great religious beliefs that influenced ancient China were Daoism, Confucianism and Buddhism. Arguably, Confucianism had the most profound impact on Chinese culture.
- Chinese culture was finally spread through trade, especially in silk, which the Chinese controlled for over 1400 years.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

- The Warring States period was:
 - the period after the Xia dynasty
 - the period between the Qin and Han dynasties
 - the period that occurred at the end of the Zhou dynasty
 - the period that led to the Han dynasty
- Qin Shi Huangdi followed a policy of:
 - Confucianism
 - Legalism
 - Daoism
 - Buddhism
- Sima Qian was:
 - a Han emperor
 - a Han policy
 - a Han historian
 - the Han capital
- Put these dynasties in the correct order:
 - Qin, Shang, Han, Zhou
 - Zhou, Shang, Qin, Han
 - Han, Zhou, Shang, Qin
 - Shang, Zhou, Qin, Han
- The Mandate of Heaven meant:
 - the gods approved of the ruler
 - the ruler had to obey the gods
 - the ruler was a god
 - the ruler needed proof of heaven

Short answer

- 1 Explain how the Silk Road helped to increase contact between China and the world beyond the Middle Kingdom.
- 2 Identify the changes Qin Shi Huangdi made to the walls that had been built before he came to power.
- 3 Outline the main types of evidence we have for the Shang dynasty and explain what this evidence tells us about it.
- 4 Who was Han Wudi and why is he important in early imperial China?
- 5 What were the main ideas of Daoism?

Source analysis

Study Source 6.40 and answer the following questions

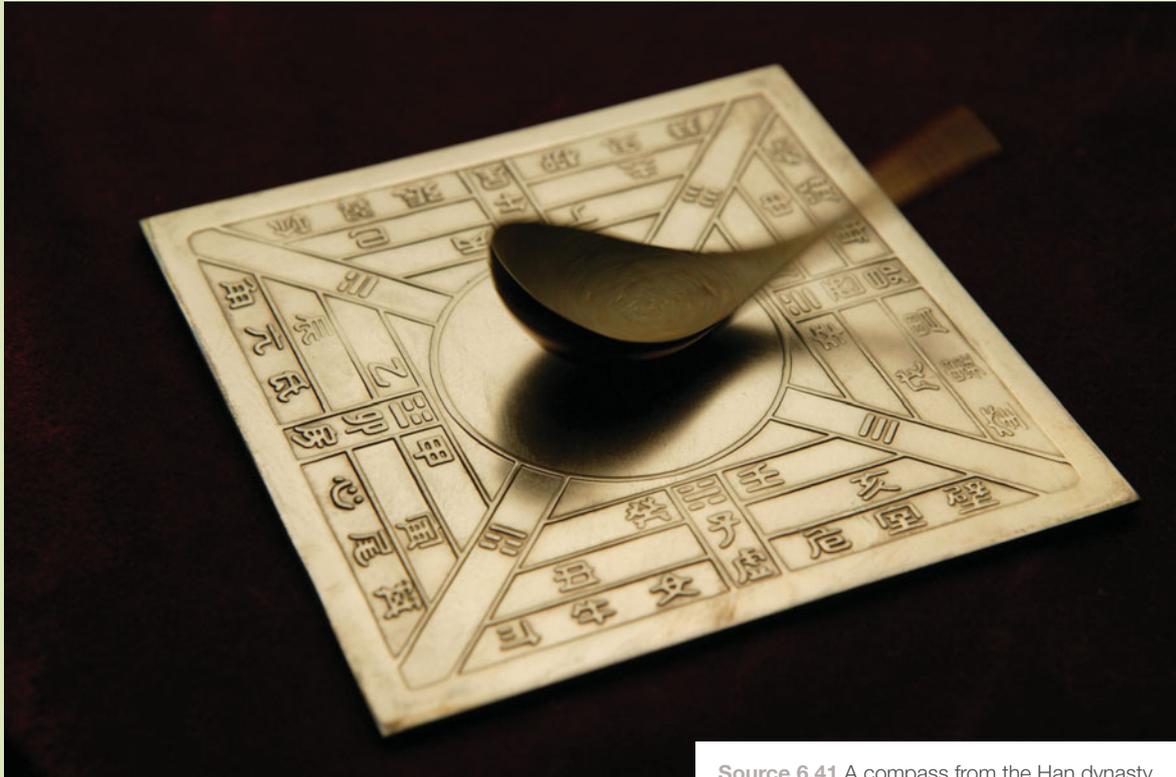
- 1 How does this source reflect ideals during the Han period, but especially from the time of Han Wudi?
- 2 Han military might was partly based on its use of cavalry. Do you think that this flying horse may have a symbolic connection to this? In your answer, consider the role of the military (including cavalry) in the establishment of the Han dynasty.
- 3 What does this source suggest about Han craftsmanship and metal technology?



Source 6.40 Han dynasty bronze sculpture of a wingless flying horse. It is meant to be understood metaphorically rather than literally; it represents an ideal horse that can gallop so fast it seems to outrun the wind. The idea of balance in nature is achieved by the sculpture balancing on one hoof, which is stepping on a swallow in flight.

Extended response

Assess the achievements of early imperial China, from the Qin to Eastern Han. In your answer, identify positive aspects – such as introducing a standardised currency. You also should at least acknowledge the negative effects. Make notes and then prepare your response as an essay.



Source 6.41 A compass from the Han dynasty

7



Ancient India

Source 7.1 The national symbol of modern India is based on the Lion Capital, which was erected by the Emperor Ashoka at Sarnath in 250 BCE. The symbols used by Emperor Ashoka are evidence of his Buddhist beliefs. Amazing skill and effort were required to make and transport these columns.

Before you start

Main focus

Ancient India was one of the earliest river valley civilisations, and its story is one of tradition and change, chaos and calm.

Why it's relevant today

From small beginnings, the ideas that began in ancient India have spread throughout the world and influenced millions of people. Modern medicine, mathematics and religion all owe a debt to ancient India.

Inquiry questions

- What physical features of India played an important role in influencing the location of settlements?
- How was ancient Indian society structured?
- Why, when and how did a number of the world's major religions have their foundations in ancient Indian society?
- What is the legacy of ancient India?

Key terms

- Buddhism
- Harappan
- Hinduism
- Indus River Valley
- Jainism
- Mauryan Empire
- Vedic civilisation

Significant individuals

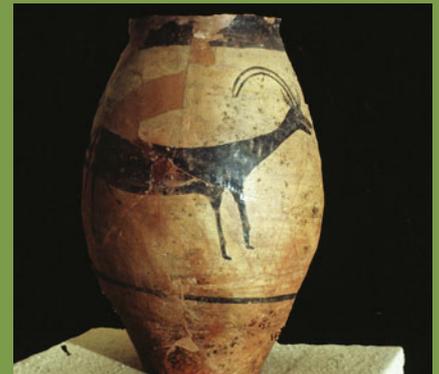
- Chandragupta Maurya
- Emperor Ashoka the Great
- Sangamitta
- Siddhartha Gautama Buddha
- Vardhamma Mahavira

Let's begin

The earliest settlements in ancient India formed in the Indus River Valley, where plentiful rain and fertile soils provided an ideal environment for agriculture and a settled, urban way of life. Archaeologists have discovered sophisticated cities at Harappa and Mohenjo Daro. Controversy surrounds the decline of this Harappa culture, and provides ample evidence of the important work of historians in interpreting data and separating fact from opinion. The rise of the Ganges River culture led to the building of a mighty empire whose people had contact with many other parts of the ancient world through trade and the exchange of ideas.



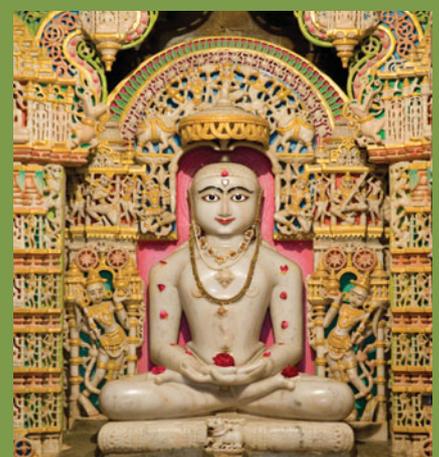
Source 7.2 Ruins at Mohenjo Daro, Indus Valley



Source 7.3 Terracotta vase from Mohenjo Daro



Source 7.4 The 'Great Stupa' at Sanchi by Ashoka the Great in the third century BCE.



Source 7.5 Ornate stone carvings of deities inside the Jain temple in Jaisalmer Rajasthan

Timeline

CHAPTER EVENTS

3000 BCE ...

Earliest settlements in **c. 3200 BCE** north-west India

Indus Valley **c. 2500–1700 BCE** civilisation

Establishment **c. 2500–1550 BCE** of cities

2000 BCE ...

Decline of Indus River **c. 1550 BCE** civilisation

Vedic scriptures **c. 1500–1200 BCE** written

Early Vedic period **c. 1500–600 BCE**

1000 BCE ...

Later Vedic period **c. 800–500 BCE**

600 BCE ...

Birth of Siddhartha **c. 563 BCE** Gautama Buddha

Birth of Vardhamma **c. 550 BCE** Mahavira

Alexander the Great **c. 325 BCE** reaches India

Chandragupta **c. 320–298 BCE** Maurya

Mauryan Empire **c. 321–185 BCE**

Emperor Ashoka **c. 304–232 BCE** the Great

300 BCE ...

WORLD EVENTS

c. 3500 BCE Early settlers in Nile Valley

c. 2580 BCE Great Pyramid of Giza was built

c. 2500–2000 BCE Period of Mycenaean expansion in the Mediterranean

c. 1525–1028 BCE Shang dynasty in China

c. 499–494 BCE Revolt of Ionian cities against Persian rule; rise of Classical Greece

c. 332 BCE Alexander the Great invaded Egypt

c. 321 BCE The first Roman road built

c. 300 BCE Start of the Han dynasty in China



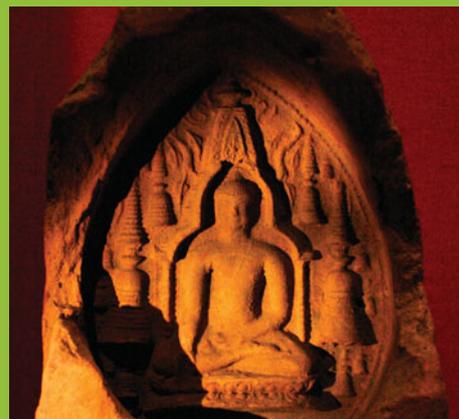
Source 7.6 Stone statue of Hindu God Vishnu



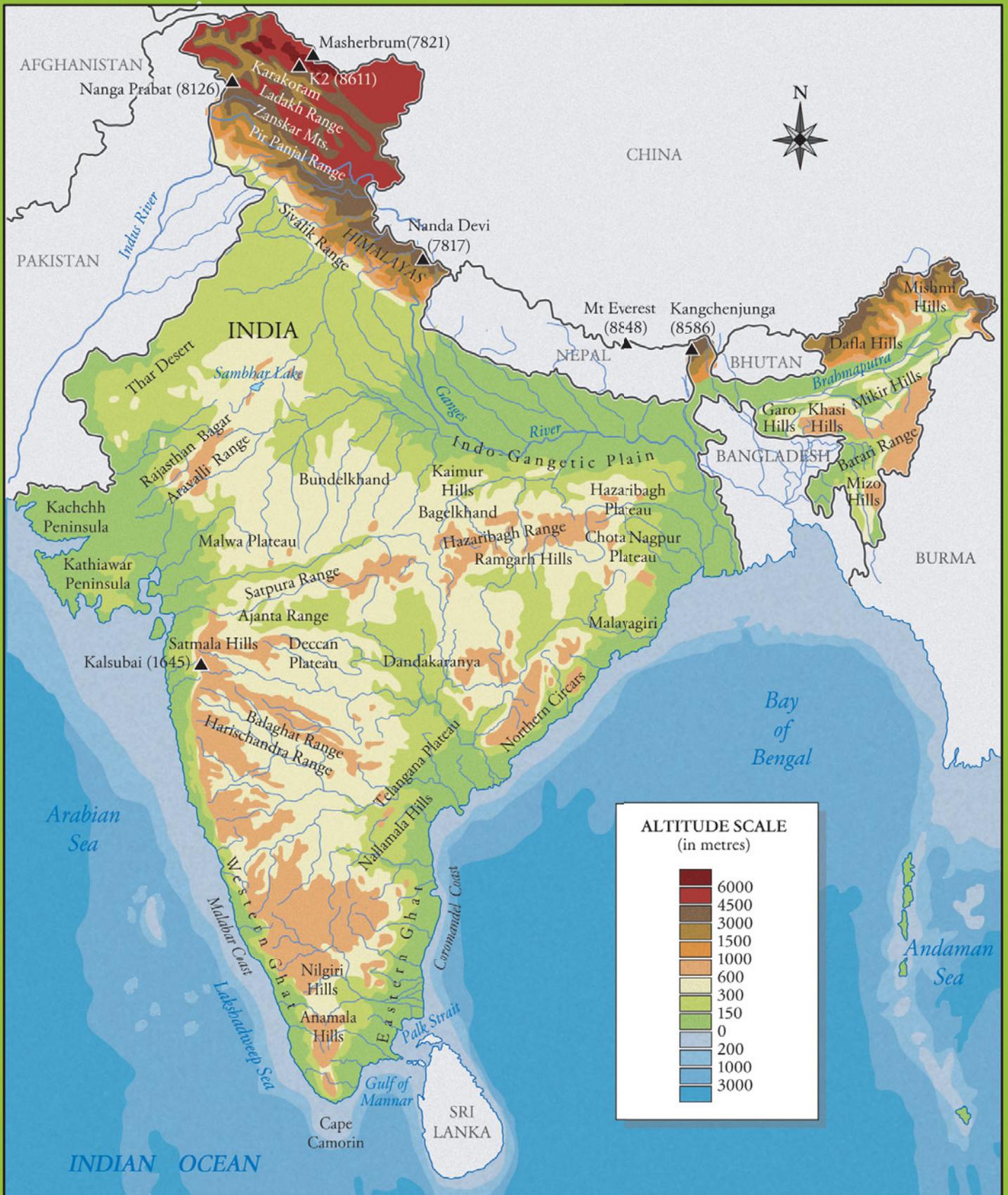
Source 7.7 Buddha, Prince Siddhartha Gautama, in a temple in Ladakh, India



Source 7.8 Lion and horse from early settlements of the Indus Valley civilisation



Source 7.9 Buddha in the Mahabodhi temple, India



Source 7.10 The physical features of ancient India played a major role in determining the location, way of life and religious beliefs of the earliest settlements.



Physical features and their influence

Gondwana name given to a giant continent that is thought to have existed some 500 million years ago, consisting of Australia, South America, Africa, India and Antarctica

India is a very ancient land. It is thought that many millions of years ago, it was part of a giant supercontinent called **Gondwana**. Forces from within the Earth pushed India into the continent of Asia and the mighty Himalayas were formed. India is a subcontinent (part of the large continent of Asia).

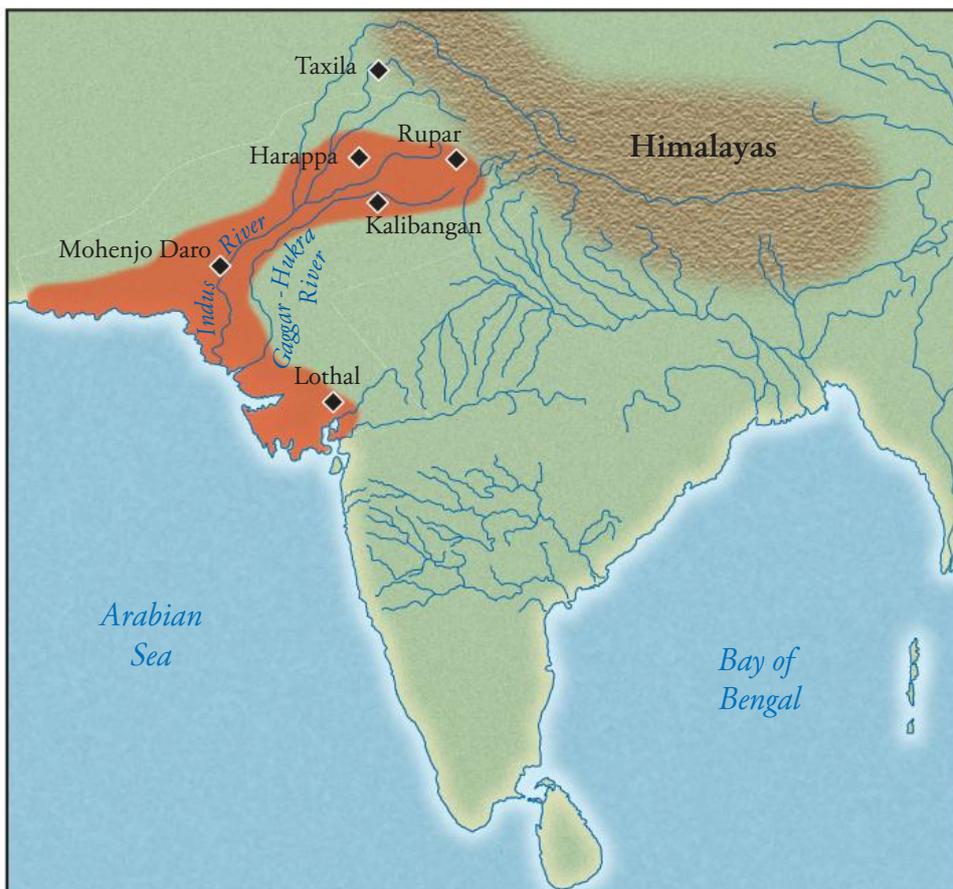
The Himalayas affected the climate, landforms and settlement patterns of India. They are the source of many large rivers, such as the Indus, Sarasvati (Saraswati), Ganges and Brahmaputra. Their large, fertile valleys, filled with rich **alluvial** soil, provided ideal places for settlement. The Indus and Ganges Rivers form

alluvial soil that is carried and deposited by water, usually by rivers in flood

a region known as the Great Plains or Indo-Gangetic Plain. In central India there is an area of higher land known as the Deccan Plateau and two hilly areas, the Western and Eastern Ghats, which run down the coastlines. In the north-west, the Thar Desert has formed due to the limiting effect the presence of the mountains has on the amount of rainfall received. The geographic areas of India are sometimes named for the different amounts of rainfall they receive. India experiences seasonal rains known as **monsoons**. The rivers provided for travel within ancient India, and the surrounding oceans and seas encouraged the establishment of trade with other cultures. The Himalayas provided a barrier against invaders, but the **passes** also allowed for trade, travel and the spread of new ideas and beliefs.

monsoon refers to the seasonal reversal of wind direction that causes distinct wet and dry seasons

passes passageways or gaps in mountain ranges



Source 7.11 The location of the major settlements of the Harappan period. The Indus Valley civilisations supported a large population and a number of well-planned and organised urban settlements such as Harappa and Mohenjo Daro.

HISTORICAL FACT

The Sarasvati (Saraswati) River is believed to have supported over 1600 settlements in the Indus Valley. During the Vedic period of India's history, it was sacred: a mother and goddess. Around 1500 BCE, there appears to have been less rain falling in the Indus Valley and the Sarasvati River stopped flowing, making it hard for the people of the Indus Valley civilisation to continue to live there.

Historians and scientists believe that the first people to inhabit the Indus Valley (the area now known as

Pakistan) had migrated eastward from Africa. They were **nomadic** Stone Age hunter-gatherers. The abundance of water and the presence of fertile soils saw a shift to a crop-growing, settled way of life in large cities. Melting

snow from the Himalayas and heavy rain from the monsoon often caused the rivers of the Indus Valley to flood their settlements. These people, who depended on the annual flooding to replenish the soil and provide water for their crops, were unable to predict when the flooding would occur or whether the monsoon would provide sufficient rainfall for their needs. They depended so heavily on the rains and the flooding of the rivers that they developed a close relationship with, and respect for, nature. They made and worshipped images of

animals and thought of their rivers, trees and the monsoon rains as sacred.

The name 'Harappa/Harappan' was given to the Indus River civilisation that began to develop around 2600 BCE. In about 1920 CE, archaeologists discovered the remains of many orderly and organised cities along the Indus and Ghaggar-Hakra Rivers. Barley and wheat were the main crops grown. Buffalo, sheep and cattle were raised. Fish from the rivers also represented an important food source. Cotton was grown and used to make clothing and was later traded. The Harappans built massive grain stores (granaries) and used the river mud to fashion bricks that they baked in kilns. Archaeologists assume that they did this because of the climate, which was wet and humid, and would have eroded sun-dried bricks. There is supporting evidence for this assumption or theory: archaeologists have found that the city of Mohenjo Daro had been built and

nomadic when people wander from place to place in search of food for themselves and their animals



Sources 7.12 and 7.13 The Great Bath at Mohenjo Daro and a seal showing a buffalo and Indus script (which has not been deciphered); both suggest that the ancient Indians had respect for their natural environment.

rebuilt at least six times, presumably after having been destroyed by floods. The neighbouring city of Harappa had been rebuilt five times. There was also a plentiful supply of wood in the nearby forests for firing the brick kilns. Harappan **seals**

seals small terracotta and stone items marked with images of animals and text

ritual an action performed as part of religious ceremony

made from terracotta show images of rhinoceroses, elephants and tigers, indicating the presence of forests and swamps. Water played an important part in Harappan culture. The Great Bath at Harappa was probably used for **ritual** bathing, and many homes also had baths or pools; all cities had drainage and plumbing. It is believed

that bathing, cleanliness and purity may have had some religious significance for a people who relied so much on water for their livelihood, and that this was seen as a way of showing respect. Trade by sea and river flourished during the Harappan period. Archaeologists have suggested that Mohenjo Daro was carefully located to take advantage of copper mines, and that the coastal city of Lothal (see Source 7.14 below) was sited to provide access to the Deccan Plateau and for sea trade with the Arabian Peninsula and Persian Gulf. Trade goods included metals, precious stones and cotton.

Around 2000 BCE, a race of lighter-skinned people from Central Asia began to settle in the Indus River Valley. The term Aryan, which was used to identify these people as having a lighter skin colour than the Harappans, later came to mean ‘master’ or ‘nobleman’. The Aryans created a much more rigid social organisation based on **varnas** and focused on a more complex set of religious beliefs called the **Vedas**. There has been much debate over whether the warlike Aryans actually invaded the Indus Valley, but there is little real evidence for the ‘invasion’ theory. Unlike the Harappans, the Aryans built no cities. They lived in family groupings in small villages, with several villages forming a tribal unit. They were originally herders but there was a gradual shift from reliance on cattle to an agricultural society. By about 1500 BCE, the Indus River civilisation was in decline. Scientists have found evidence that the climate in the Indus Valley was changing. There was a decline in rainfall – possibly due to the failure of the monsoon – and the Sarasvati (Saraswati) River ceased to flow. Various other reasons for these

varna a class of people within the Aryan social system; there were four varnas

Vedas Hindu sacred writings consisting of four books; in Sanskrit, Veda means ‘sacred knowledge’



Source 7.14 The port city of Lothal was an important part of the Indus Valley trade network.

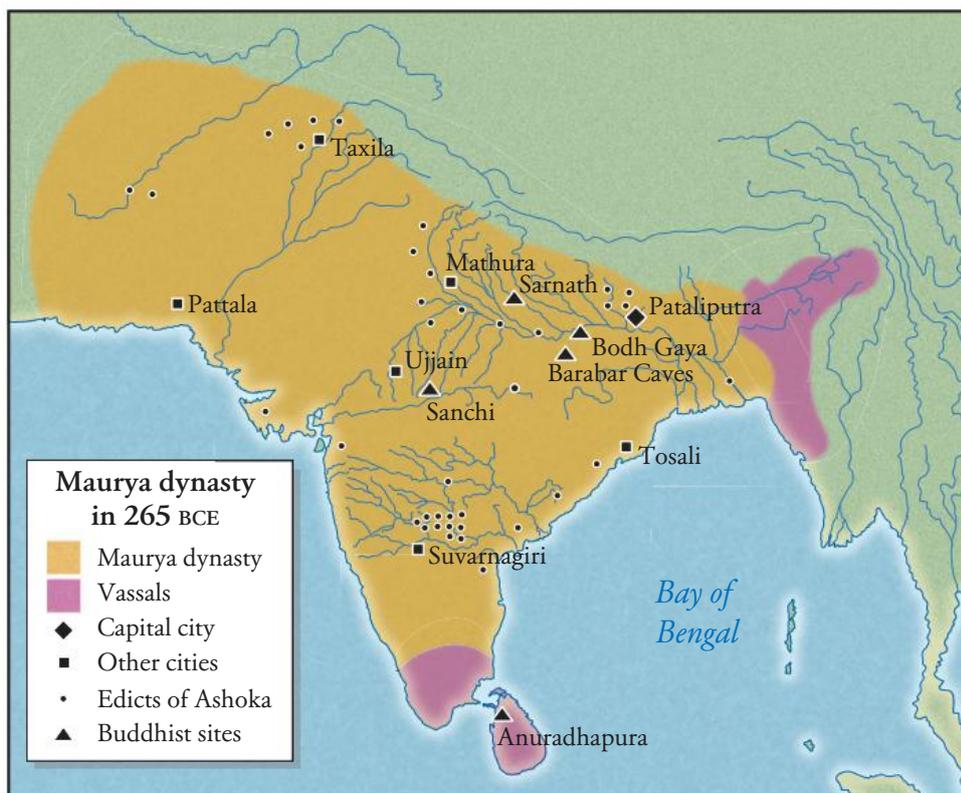
changes have been put forward, including the possibility of faulting in the earth's crust causing the river to be swallowed up.

Vedic refers to the Aryan Hindu culture, which was based on the Vedas

The Aryan or **Vedic** culture began a gradual shift to the Ganga (Ganges River Valley) in the east. The Ganges and Brahmaputra Rivers provided water and fertile soil, and the milder climate allowed for the establishment of agriculture and the development of cities. The Aryans followed the seasons and worshipped gods and goddesses related to the sky, the earth, rain, water, rivers and animals. At first the Aryans settled in the hilly areas, but the use of iron tools allowed them to clear the dense forests that grew in the Ganges Valley so that rice could be grown. This rice-based agriculture was able to sustain a large population. Irrigation was used to ensure a constant food supply, and sea trade with Persia brought wealth

and stability to the civilisation. The **caste** system provided for different classes within Vedic society: teachers, warriors, merchants and workers. Everyone had their place, and this increasingly was determined by birth. Sixteen powerful kingdoms formed. By 600 BCE, the two most powerful kingdoms were Kosala and Magadha. Alexander the Great of Macedonia invaded India in about 325 BCE, but his armies only made it as far as Gandhara, the plain to the west of the Indus River. The hot, humid conditions experienced by Alexander's troops contributed to their rebelling and refusing to continue with his military campaign. In 323 BCE, Chandragupta Maurya, a local warrior, used the confusion created by Alexander's invasion to seize power. Over the next 30 years he created the vast Mauryan Empire.

caste a word later applied to the varnas formed by the Aryans; a caste system was one in which a person's place in society was determined by birth rather than by occupation or effort



Source 7.15 By c. 265 BCE, under the rule of Chandragupta Maurya and later his grandson, Emperor Ashoka, the Mauryan Empire covered most of the Indian subcontinent. The reign of Ashoka the Great has been referred to as the Golden or Classical Age, as it was a time of peace, prosperity and progress for India.



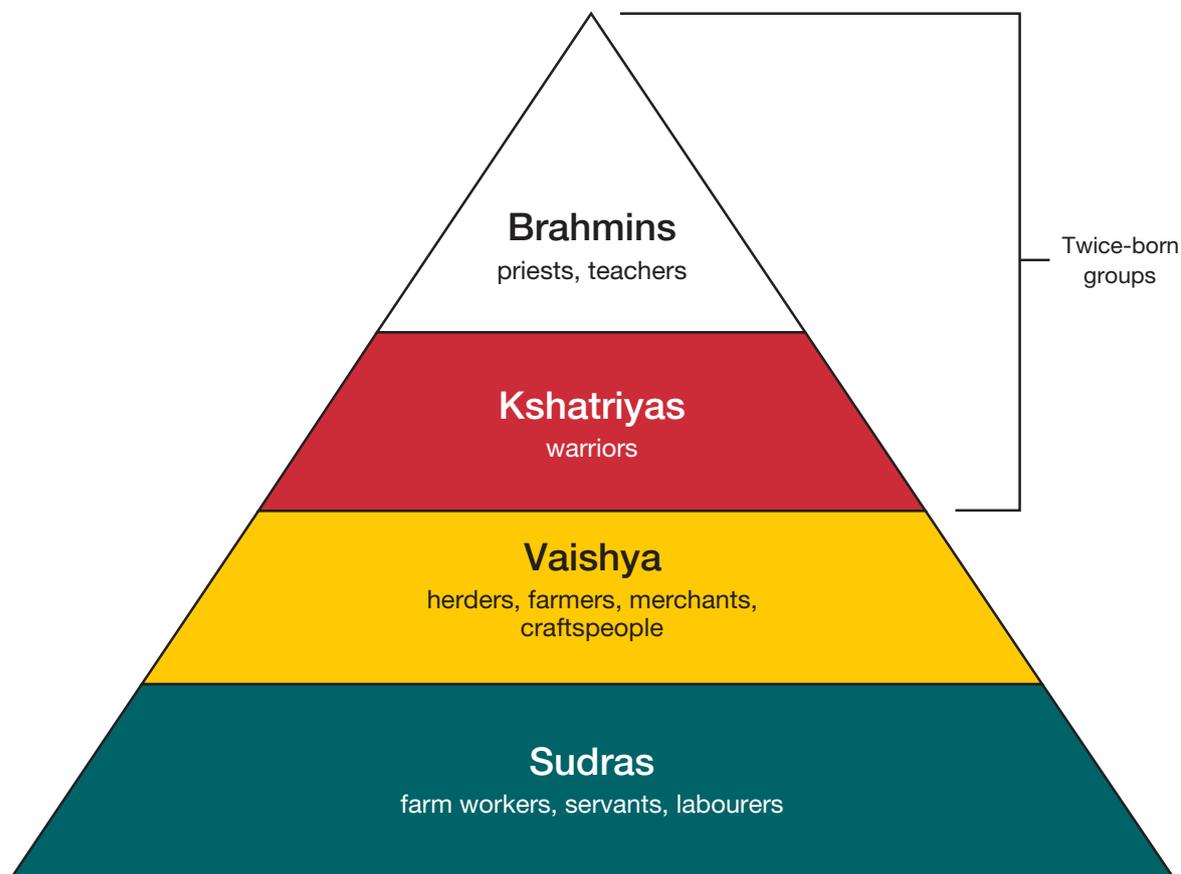
Role of key groups

The Indus Valley civilisation

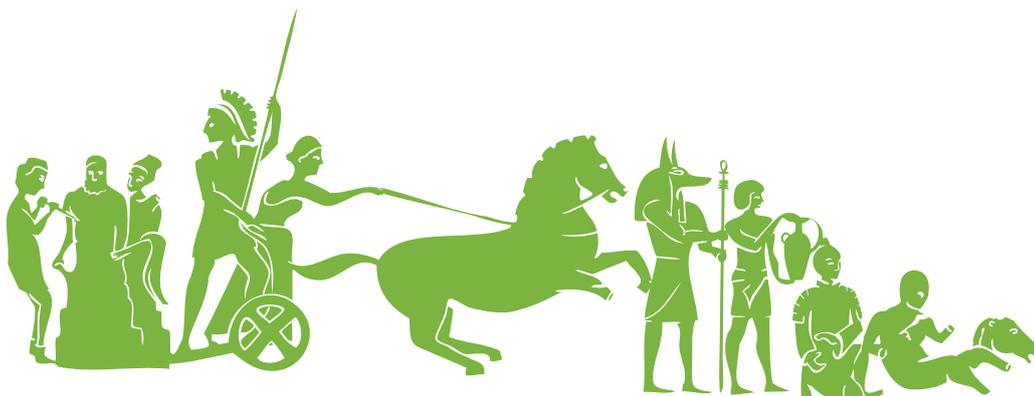
There is little evidence of the way in which Indus Valley society was organised. No palaces have been found, but archaeologists and historians have put forward the theory that the society was most likely a **theocracy**, ruled by

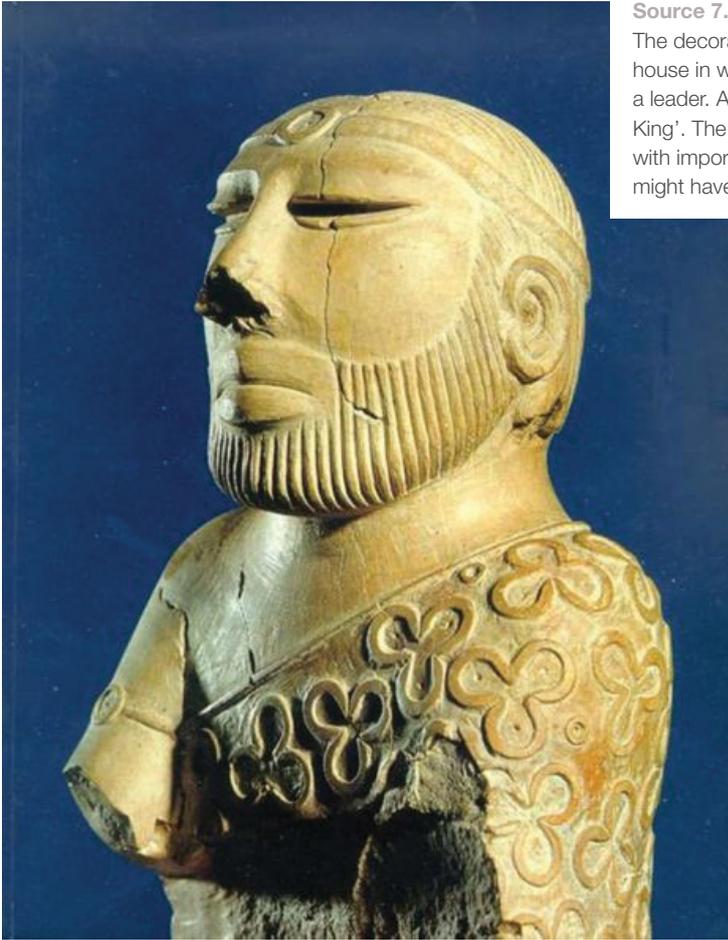
theocracy government by religious leaders such as priests

a small group of priest-kings or a council of high priests who organised religious rituals, trade and building. A statuette discovered at Mohenjo Daro in 1927 has been called 'The Priest-King'. The different types of buildings and artefacts, such as the Indus seals, found in Harappan settlements also indicate that there were farmers, skilled craftsmen, merchants and traders who all played important roles within the society.



Source 7.16 The Aryans introduced a system of social organisation based on the four varnas, or classes, which were determined by occupation. In time, this led to a more rigid hierarchy, where birth determined a person's place in society.





Source 7.17 The Priest King statuette found at Mohenjo Daro. The decorations and symbols on the figure, as well as the fine house in which it was found, suggest that he may have been a leader. Archaeologists have therefore named him the 'Priest King'. The statuette has provided archaeologists and historians with important clues to the way in which Harappan society might have been organised.

Activity 7.1

Study Source 7.17 and answer the following questions:

- 1** List the features of the statuette that would have led archaeologists to conclude that he played an important role in Harappan society.
- 2** Some features of the statuette have been lost. Conduct your own research and find out more about these 'lost features' of the statuette and the location in which it was found.
- 3** Explain whether your own findings strengthen the belief that he was important in Harappan society. Provide evidence from your research to support your explanation.
- 4** Reach your own conclusion on the importance of the 'Priest King' and his role in Harappan society.

Note this down

Using the graphic organiser below, sequence the events of ancient India's history from the settlement of the Indus Valley to the establishment of the Mauryan Empire c. 2500–325 BCE. Be sure to include the main dates.

First:

↓

Then:

↓

Then:

↓

Then:

↓

Finally:

Aryan/Vedic civilisation

By about 1500 BCE, tribes of people known as Aryans had arrived in the Indus Valley. They were a warlike people, and archaeologists have found weapons and other artefacts to indicate a warrior class. Each tribe was led by a hereditary chief. The Aryans did not have a written language but passed on stories of their beliefs, conquests and traditions by word of mouth (orally). These stories were called Vedas, meaning 'knowledge'. Each

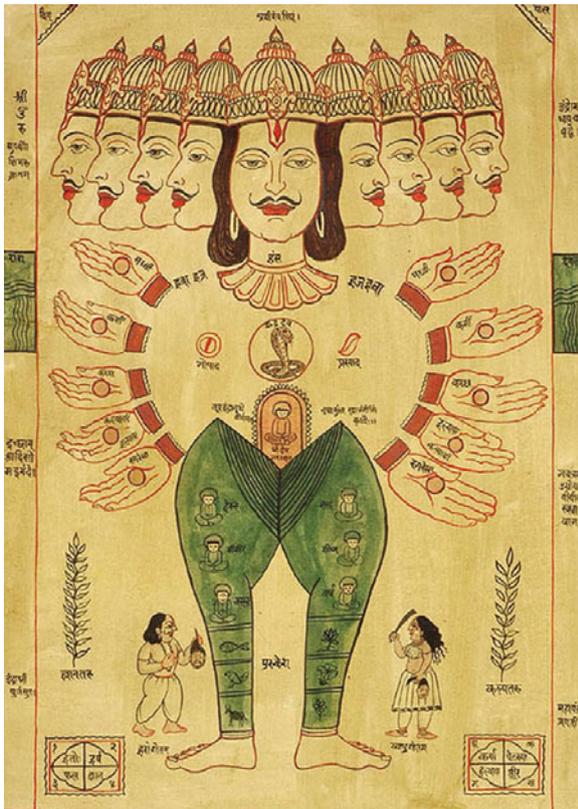
Brahmin highest order or varna within the Aryan social system; they were the priests and teachers

of the four Vedas was divided again into the Samhitas (hymns), the Brahminas (rituals), the Aranyakas (religious thoughts) and the Upani-shads (broader beliefs or philosophies). The priests, or

Brahmins (Brahmans), were required to memorise this vast store of divine knowledge in order to perform the sacrifices that would ensure the society prospered. Pleasing their many gods and goddesses was viewed as vital to the safety and prosperity of the society and its people. The Vedas were later written down in Vedic **Sanskrit**, which was a difficult language. Since few people could read, this added to the power of the priests. The Vedas and their teachings provided the basis for **Hinduism**. Many of the hymns and poems contained in the Vedas were chanted, creating a kind of meditation and focusing the mind on higher things. The Vedas covered all aspects of daily life and provided a

Sanskrit ancient language of India

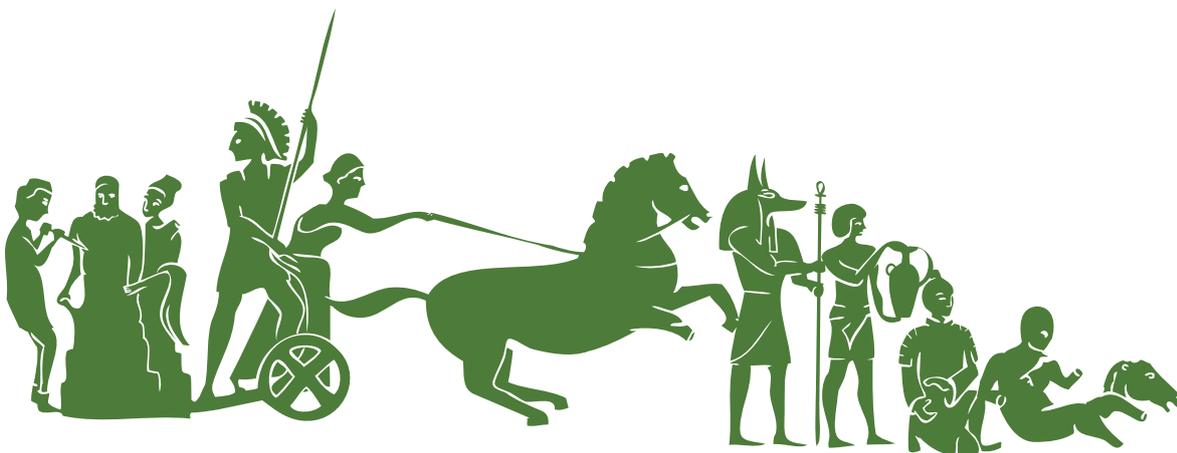
Hinduism religious belief developed by the Aryans, which involved killing animals (sacrifices) and many different gods and goddesses



Source 7.18 Purusha or Cosmic Man was viewed by Hindus as the creator of all life. The head, body and feet of Purusha were linked to the different varnas.

framework for the social and legal systems. Politics and religion were also covered in the Vedas. The four Vedas (the Rig Veda, Yajur Veda, Sama Veda and Artharva Veda) were believed to have been passed down by a higher power to wise men within the society, but most historians believe they were written by Aryan scholars. The Rig Veda described how the god Purusha sacrificed himself to make Aryan society: his mouth became the Brahmins (Brahmans) or teachers; his arms became the Kshatriyas or warriors; his thighs became the Vaisyas or merchants, farmers, herders and craftsmen; and his feet became the Sudra (Shudra) or servants (see Source 7.22). This

story is part of Indian mythology, and probably should not be taken as evidence for the formation of the varna or social class system. There is historical evidence that when the Aryans came to the Indus Valley, they already had a number of different classes of people based on occupation, and simply added the existing population to the fourth or lowest-ranked varna. Each varna within both early and later Vedic society had a role to play to make society work as a whole. At first movement between varnas was possible, but as time passed the system became much more rigid, resulting in the formation of a caste system based on birth rather than occupation.



Brahmins (Brahmans)

Within the Vedic varna system of social organisation, the Brahmins (Brahmans) were responsible for creating and preserving the sacred texts and carrying out the many rituals required. They were the teachers and intellectual leaders. They were forbidden to eat meat, or drink milk or alcohol. They had to bathe every day to remain pure. The priests chanted and read out the hymns and holy texts to 'speak to' the gods and goddesses. They also performed animal sacrifices and fire rituals (*yajna*) to please and nourish the gods. These rituals grew more and more complicated and lengthy, and the power and influence of the Brahmins increased. Male Brahmins could marry a woman from a lower varna but female Brahmins were only allowed to marry someone from their own class. When the Aryans first established the varna system, males from non-Brahmin families could become Brahmins.

Kshatriyas

The Kshatriyas were the warrior-nobles; they had always been important in Aryan society. The earliest Vedas actually placed the Kshatriyas in the first varna, probably because of the importance of their role in defending and protecting the people on their migrations into new and unfamiliar territories. It was their role to be ready for war and to practise their skills in the martial arts. The Kshatriyas could learn but not teach the Vedas. Their diet was not as restricted as that of the

Brahmins but they could not marry outside their own varna. Their children were well educated and expected to follow in their fathers' footsteps. Many Kshatriyas were wealthy and owned herds of cattle. They helped administer laws and kept order in the society.

Vaishyas

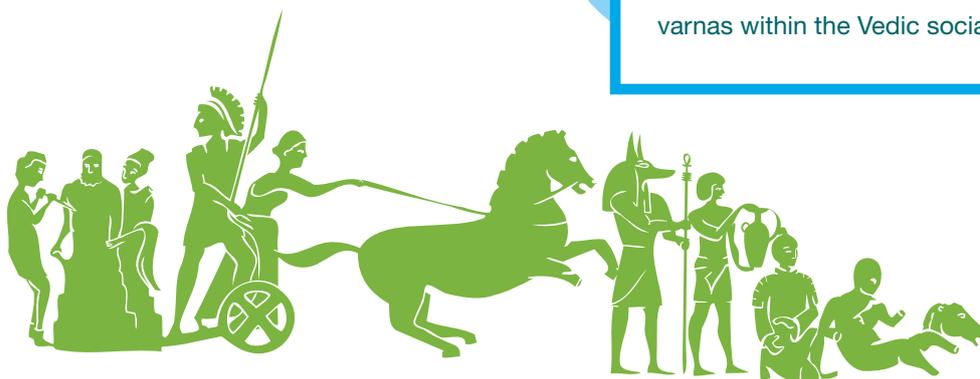
The Vaishyas were the merchants, traders and skilled craftsmen. Vaishyas could be traders or farmers who owned their own land or businesses, and employed others to work for them. The varna system did not greatly affect the lives of the Vaishyas, as they had money and were important in establishing trade and commerce with surrounding countries. This varna kept the economy working, and also assisted in the provision of money for religious buildings like temples, so it was valued.

Shudras

Most people in Vedic society belonged to the lowest varna, the Shudras. They formed the servant and labourer class. Shudras were expected to be 'loyal' to their masters and increasingly they were required to perform tasks that were unpleasant or not acceptable to the other varnas in a religious sense. Since their role was to serve others, they were not required to learn the Vedas; however, in the early Vedic period they were able to enter the temple and participate in some ceremonies.

Activity 7.2

Study Sources 7.19 to 7.22 and summarise the roles of the four different varnas within the Vedic social system.



The four varnas of the Vedic social system



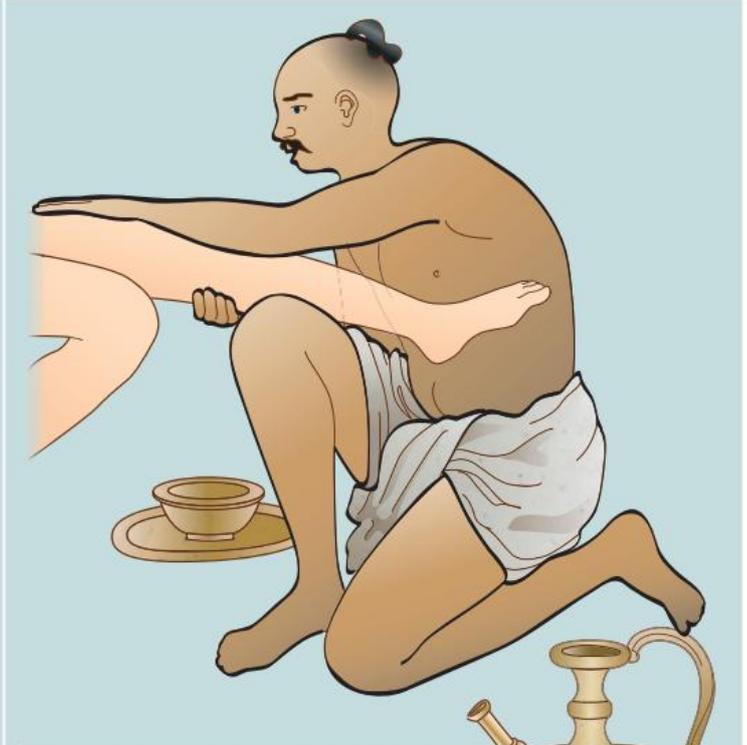
Source 7.19 The Brahmins (Brahmans) were the highest of the varnas.



Source 7.20 The Kshatriya, or warrior class, was the second-highest caste of the varnas and played an important role in protecting people and possessions, and also expanding the land area held by the Aryans.



Source 7.21 The Vaishya was the third level in the varnas; Vaishyas were important for trade and agriculture, which provided income for Aryan society.



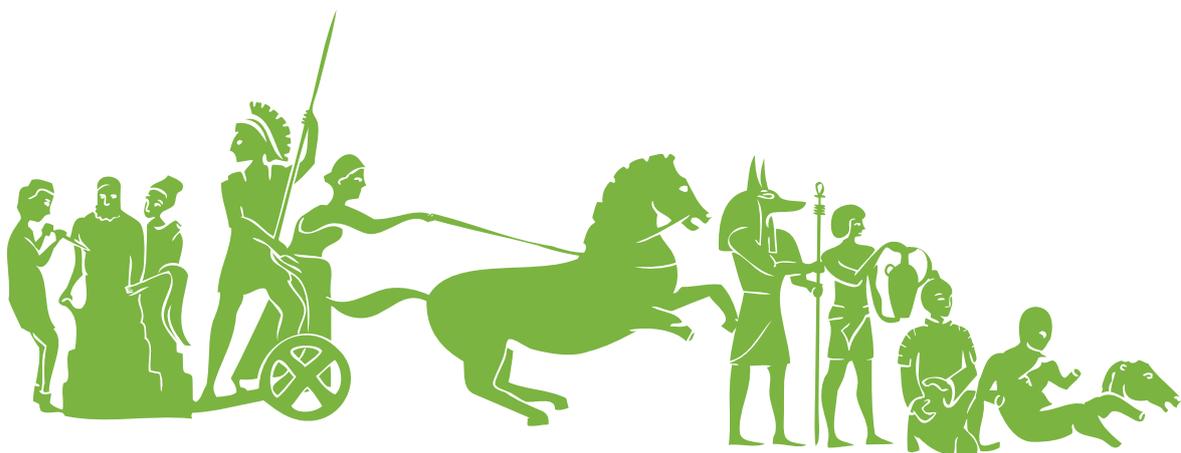
Source 7.22 The Shudras were the lowest level of the varnas. Over time, this varna or caste came to contain modern India's most disadvantaged people, the Dalits – 'Outcasts' or 'Untouchables'.

Activity 7.3

- 1 Role-play an important religious festival to ensure a good harvest and prosperity for your village. Your teacher will give you a card that will identify you as one of the following:
 - Brahmin
 - Kshatriya
 - Vaishya
 - Shudra.
- 2 Your duties will be as follows:
 - Brahmins will plan, give orders, organise others to do the work, conduct all rituals like sacrificing animals and lighting the sacred fire, and be the most important people. They will be respected, praised and obeyed.
 - Kshatriyas will keep order, punish people who do the wrong thing and protect those who are in danger.
 - Vaishyas will provide all the resources needed to make the religious festival a success; for example, food, money, animals and building materials.
 - Shudras will do all the work and serve others. They will not have a say in the planning of the activity and will receive no reward or praise for the work they do.
- 3 As you act out the festival, each of the varnas will need to stay within the roles assigned to it to complete the task.
- 4 Discuss whether you believe that the division of the society into varnas was effective in achieving your goal. Why or why not?

HISTORICAL FACT

Brahmins, Kshatriyas and Vaishyas were all considered to be 'twice born'. This simply referred to the fact that males of these varnas were permitted to read the Vedas. They wore a sacred thread to signify their 'second' birth. Females of these varnas had the sacred thread tied around their hands as part of their marriage ceremony.



Role of women

The ideal woman was described in the Rig Veda as being beautiful and able to bear children. She was to be kind and caring to her husband and a good mother to her children (preferably sons). The religious writings expressed the wish for every woman to be 'the mother of a hundred sons'. In an agricultural society, men were considered more important than women because they could do the hard work in the fields and with the animals. Women were expected to remain at home. Their jobs included cleaning, washing, cooking and

looking after the children. They also had the job of making sure the sacred flame on the family altar was kept burning to ensure that the gods and goddesses would bless the household with money and good health. This was considered an important task and earned them respect. At the same time, the Vedic Samhitas (hymns) described women being involved in farm work, drawing water, churning milk to make butter, making wine and sewing. Vedic women appear to have been able to own property, and high-born women were educated, took part in debates and wrote poetry.

Times gone by ...

The most famous Vedic women were Gosha, Apala, Lopamundra, Indranna, Gargi and Maitreyi. The differences in the ways women have been described are of some interest to historians as there seems to be disagreement in what has been written about women in Vedic times.

- 1 Conduct your own research into the role of women in ancient India. Look at the women listed above and find out more about them and the contributions they made to thinking and learning in Vedic society.
- 2 How might you explain the differences in the ways women and their roles in Vedic society are described?

Research 7.1

Research life in Harappa or Mohenjo Daro and present your findings as a PowerPoint presentation. Be sure to include the following:

- 1 a map to show the location of the city you have chosen
- 2 a description of:
 - the surroundings
 - daily life
 - religious beliefs and practices
- 3 an explanation of the different reasons given for the decline of the Indus River civilisation.

The Mauryan Empire

During the later Vedic period, Hindu culture, beliefs and social organisation spread to the Ganges River Valley. The Aryan leaders developed a new tribal culture. The priests remained powerful, and increasingly women were excluded from religious ceremonies. The priests now stressed that each varna must remain separate and movement between varnas was not allowed.

Under Brahmanic tradition, kingship was now seen as coming from the gods, and rulers no longer sought the approval of their subjects. The king was the protector of his people and his role was to maintain the laws. Tax collectors ensured a supply of money for building and teachers (gurus) were important for the transmission of knowledge. The **asrama system** of Hinduism set out the rules and responsibilities of people. Sanskrit became the official language.

The Mauryan period has been referred to as the 'Classical Age' of ancient India. During this time, trade and commerce flourished. The number of

asrama system
Hindu pathways to a religious life involving study, and purity of thought and action

gods and goddesses increased and religious rituals gained even greater significance. Small kingdoms developed, and fighting was frequent as rulers tried to gain more territory and greater power.

Around 323 BCE, Chandragupta Maurya used the chaos that resulted from this constant rivalry between kingdoms to become powerful. The failure of Alexander the Great's Indian campaign was also an opportunity he used to his advantage. He was a smart man who knew how to use spies and trickery to achieve his goals. Over the next 24 years, he built the Mauryan Empire. Under his grandson, Emperor Ashoka (c. 269–232 BCE), the Mauryan Empire dominated all of northern India (see Source 7.15 on page 271).

Significant beliefs, values and practices



Funerary customs

Archaeologists working in the Indus Valley have discovered a number of graves, which have led to the conclusion that the funeral practices associated



Source 7.23 Harappans buried their dead. These discoveries show the burial of a mother and child. Some were placed in coffins while others were wrapped in cotton cloth or other material.



Source 7.24 The earliest evidence of cremation is provided by these distinctive urns, used to store the ashes of the dead

with burials were varied. Some bodies appear to have been wrapped in reeds, and others in cotton cloth. Some were then placed in wooden coffins. Burial pottery was often buried with bodies. Large pottery urns dating from around 1900 BCE were used to store human ashes, providing the earliest evidence for the practice of cremation (the burning of a body).

The burning or cremation of bodies increasingly was associated with the Hindu belief system. Hindus worshipped many gods and goddesses, most of them linked to nature. The god of fire, Agni, was believed to carry a person's soul to the underworld to Yama, the god of death. The body was not important once a person died, so it was burned to both purify and release the soul.

There were many things families had to do when a relative died, such as lamenting or wailing to show their grief. If they did not have enough family members to do this, they could hire professional mourners. The son or eldest male in the family played an important role. He had to light the funeral **pyre**. Even the type of

pyre a pile of wood for burning a dead body

wood used in the pyre was important.

A man's widow would be expected to scream and tear at her clothes, then leap into the funeral fire to show her grief and be burned with him. This practice of widow **self-immolation** was referred to as **sati** and may have been restricted to the higher classes. Agni's role was to take the liberated soul and guide it to the underworld to wait for rebirth into a new body. This process or cycle of life, death and rebirth is called **reincarnation**. *Antyesti* was the Sanskrit word for the funeral ceremony.

Hindus believed in **karma** – that the consequences of past actions and behaviours worked both during a person's lifetime and also after death. Each person brought his or her past life to the next reincarnation. *Samsara* was the Sanskrit word used for this cycle of birth, death and rebirth.

self-immolation

the act of willingly or deliberately sacrificing oneself by burning

sati

the ritual act of a widow being burned to death on the funeral pyre of her dead husband

reincarnation

living again in a new body or form after death

karma

Hindu (and Buddhist) belief that the way a person lives their life has an effect on how happy or successful they will be in their next life



Source 7.25 Agni, god of fire, played an important role in delivering the soul of those who had died and been cremated to Yama, god of death, to await rebirth.

Activity 7.4

Study Source 7.25 and answer the following questions:

- 1 Describe Agni's appearance.
- 2 What features of his appearance would tell you that he was the god of fire?
- 3 Why do you think fire was associated with purification?
- 4 Do Hindus still cremate their dead?
- 5 Are widows still burned to death on their husbands' funeral pyres?
- 6 Why is the River Ganges an important part of modern Hindu funerary practice?
- 7 Research and outline the funerary practices of modern Hindus.



Source 7.26 This picture, painted c. 1820 CE, shows a Hindu funeral. The body is being carried to the river to be cremated.



Source 7.27 Diagram showing the cycle of birth, death and rebirth called *samsara* by Hindus. Note that this diagram is of Chinese origin.



Source 7.28 The Great Stupa at Sanchi

During the reign of Chandragupta Maurya, the Hindu way of life – and especially the killing of many animals as ritual sacrifices to ensure that the gods and goddesses were pleased – caused some members of society to dislike Hinduism and to turn away from its beliefs. The power held by the Brahmins made them unpopular with many ordinary people, who were excluded from the religious rituals used to receive the blessings of the gods and goddesses. It was an unsettled time in India, and many were looking for new belief systems. Two significant figures arose, Gautama (later Siddhartha or Buddha) and Mahavira. Siddhartha Gautama Buddha (c. 563–486 BCE) was the founder of the Buddhist religion or way of life. Buddhism was based on the

Four Noble Truths and the **Eightfold Path**. Buddhists believed in reincarnation, but by following the teachings of the Buddha they could gain enlightenment or release from the cycle of birth, death and rebirth and achieve **nirvana**. **Stupas** were erected to house sacred remains and relics. The most remarkable of the stupas was the Great Stupa at Sanchi, constructed by Emperor Ashoka in 250 BCE.

Four Noble Truths

Buddha taught that life involved suffering and that suffering was caused by desire; by conquering desire, one could end this suffering

Eightfold Path

Buddha's higher teachings were designed to help people end suffering by behaving and thinking in 'right' ways

nirvana a state of release from all suffering

stupas originally simple mounds built to house Buddhist remains; a place of worship for Buddhists

Activity 7.5

The earliest stupas constructed in India were simple mounds.

- 1 What was their purpose?
- 2 Who constructed the stupa at Sanchi?
- 3 When and why was it built?
- 4 Explain the significance or meaning of the symbols used with different parts of the Great Stupa at Sanchi; for example, the dome or central mound; and the toranas or gateways.

Buddhist nuns wrote the *Therīgāthā*, a collection of short poems, which showed that women were equal to men within the Buddhist faith. It is believed that they were handed down by

word of mouth (orally) for many centuries before being written down by nuns who were disciples of Buddha. They focused on issues that were important to women, such as:

1 the death of a child:

The way of which men come we cannot know;
Nor can we see the path by which they go.
Why mourn then for him who came to you,
Lamenting through the tears? ...
Weep not, for such is the life of man.
Unasked he came and unbidden he went.
Ask yourself again whence came your child
To live on earth this little time?
By one way come and by another gone,
As human to die, and pass to other births –
So hither and so hence – why should you weep?

Source 7.29 Thig.VI.1 Pancasata Patacara

2 the willingness to give up a comfortable and wealthy life to follow the Buddhist teachings:

Born in a high-ranking family with much property, great wealth ...
Sons of kings sought for me ...
One of them sent my father a message saying
'Give me Anopama.
I will give you in return eight times her weight in gold and jewels.'
But I, having seen the One Self-awakened, unsurpassed, excelling the world,
Paid homage at his feet.
He Gotama, for sympathy, taught me the Dhamma.
And as I sat in that very seat,
I attained the third fruit
[of non-return]
Then I cut off my hair, and went forth into homelessness.
Today is the seventh day since I made craving wither away.

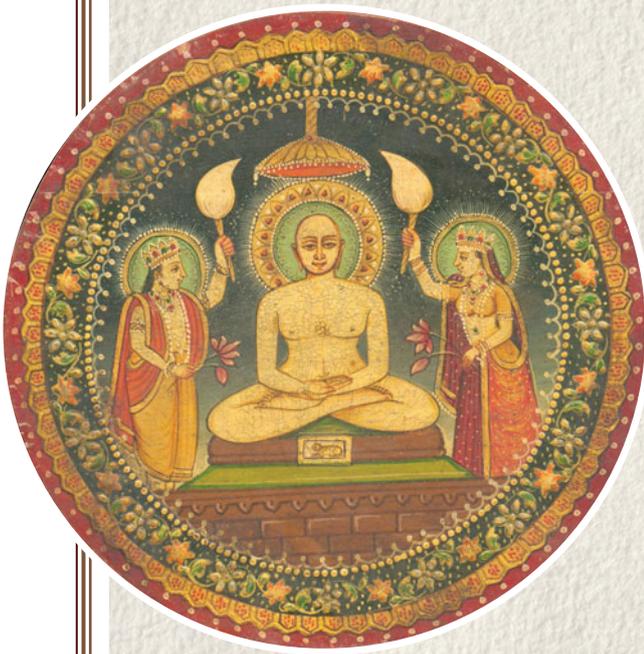
Source 7.30 Thig VI.5 Anopama, the *Millionaire's Daughter*

Activity 7.6

Study the two poems in sources 7.29 and 7.30 and answer the following questions:

- 1 What do they show about the women who wrote them?
- 2 What do you understand by the following:
 - ‘as human to die and pass to other births’
 - Dhamma (Dharma)
 - ‘non-return’?

Times gone by ...



Source 7.31 Portrayal of Vardhamana Mahavira

Vardhamana Mahavira (c. 550–527 BCE), the ‘Great Hero’ and founder of Jainism, preached a non-violent way of life (*ahimsa*), which showed respect for all living things. He was a vegetarian and lived a very simple life, giving up all possessions and begging for his food. At times he ate so little that he was in danger of starving. Such self-sacrifice was seen as proof that a person was focused on higher things. The people who lived this harsh way of life were called ascetics.

- 1 Research where the word ‘ascetics’ comes from and its definition.
- 2 Why may religious figures have believed asceticism was necessary?

Cremation was also part of Jain funeral practice. As with Hinduism and Buddhism, the purpose of cremation was to release the soul and allow for reincarnation. The difference was that Jains believed a person’s soul could come back not only as another human, animal or plant, but even as an element of the earth like fire or wind.

Activity 7.7

Copy and complete the chart to show the basic similarities and differences between the Hindu, Buddhist and Jain belief systems/religions.

Religion	Founder/ origin	Main beliefs	Sacred texts/ writings	Funeral practices/what happens after death	Symbols
Hinduism					
Buddhism					
Jainism					



Contacts and conflicts

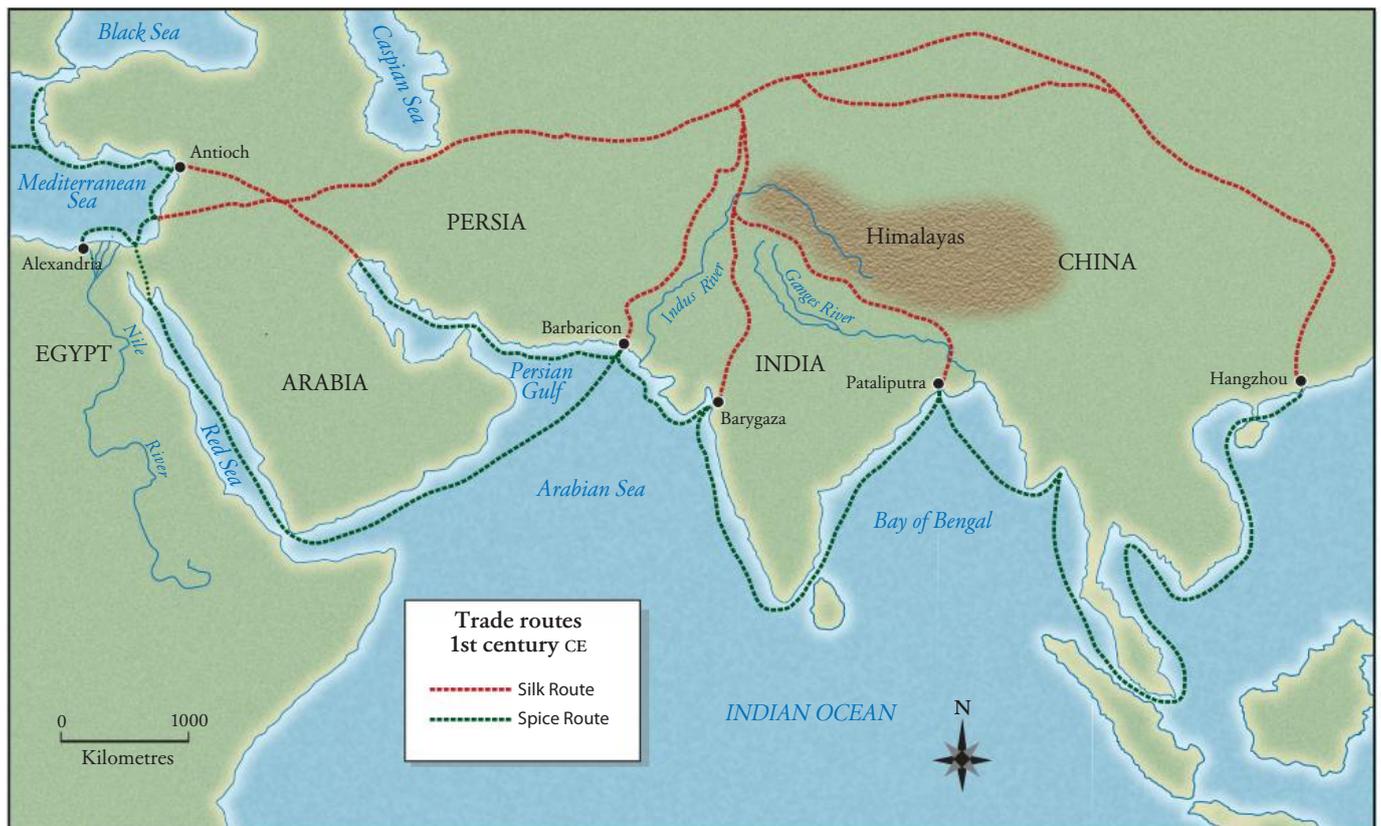
Expansion of trade

Archaeologists have found physical evidence to indicate that trade played an important role in ancient India. Digs at the Indus Valley cities of Harappa and Mohenjo Daro have uncovered raw materials such as copper, which was found mainly in Oman, and jewellery made from agate and jasper, the local stones found in Kutch and Gujarat. Harappan seals (see Source 7.13) may have been used as part of the trading process – either worn by merchants to identify themselves or by their images stamped on to trade goods. In Harappa, objects from the areas we now call the Middle East, including textiles, combs, beads and dice, were found. Mummies wrapped in cloth dyed with indigo and items made from tamarind wood, both from India, have been found in Egyptian tombs.

Teakwood and muslin cloth from India were used in ancient Babylon. Overland caravan routes linked different parts of India, and rivers and

seas were used for more distant trade. Lothal (see Source 7.11) was an important port. Indian exports included timber, ivory, shells, textiles and beads. Silver, tin, woollens and grains were imported. Between c. 1250 BCE and c. 153 CE, China, Rome and India developed more advanced trade networks. Established sea and land routes began to link East and West. Strabo, a Greek geographer and historian, refers to this trade between Rome and India in his writings. The first trade routes between Greece and India began about c. 130 BCE, when Greek traders sailed along the west coast of India using the seasonal monsoon winds. They sought Indian spices, including black pepper, cinnamon, cassia, cardamom, ginger and turmeric. From the Mediterranean region, India imported copper, silver, olive oil and wine.

Under the Persian ruler Cyrus (c. 559–530 BCE), an extensive road system was developed. This Royal Road was extended by the third Persian king, Darius (c. 521–485 BCE). Persian coinage found in the Ganges Valley indicates that there was a regular interchange of commerce between India and the Persian Empire. Luxury goods such as silk, amber, incense and spices became important trade items, and special road networks



Source 7.32 This map shows the trade routes used between Rome, Egypt, North-East Africa and India. Greek navigators used such documents to show ports, landmarks and distances.

were developed to provide safe and speedy passage. However, bands of robbers on land and pirates at sea still made trade hazardous. Large numbers of Roman coins have been found in southern and western India, indicating that trade continued to expand both during and after the time of Chandragupta Maurya and his grandson, Ashoka. The historian Pliny commented on the large amount of gold being spent by the Romans on Indian commodities such as fine muslin cloth.

Rise of the Mauryan Empire

The Mauryan Empire (c. 321–185 BCE) (see Source 7.15) was formed out of the confusion and chaos that followed the invasion of north-western India by Alexander the Great in 326 BCE. Although Alexander did not remain long in India, his idea of building an ‘empire’ impressed

a young Chandragupta Maurya.

He studied Macedonian military methods and used fighting units of **mercenary** soldiers to bring the divided kingdoms of northern India under his control. He set about reforming the society and used many ideas from Persia and Greece, such as coinage and tax collection, to build a strong economy.

Under Chandragupta, trade flourished and land routes were established. The varna system was reorganised so that farmers were recognised as being as important as soldiers. Irrigation ensured a constant supply of water, and rice provided a steady food supply. In his capital, Pataliputra (now the modern-day city of Patna), Chandragupta built a magnificent fortress. Megasthenes, a Greek historian and ambassador, described mighty walls (ramparts) of tree trunks and a moat that had 570 towers and 64 gates. Cobble streets ran between houses several

mercenary soldier who sells their services in return for money

storeys high and there were gardens filled with flowering trees and vines. Eighty commemorative pillars, inspired by Persian architecture, supported the roof of a palace some 6 metres high.

Chandragupta had a clever and cunning adviser named Chanakya (Kautilya), and employed spies to make sure he knew everything that was going on in his capital and throughout his empire. Some sources say that towards the end of his life Chandragupta changed from Hinduism to Jainism, becoming an ascetic and actually starving himself to death as part of his religious devotions. He died in 298 BCE and was succeeded by his son Bindusara and later his grandson Ashoka.

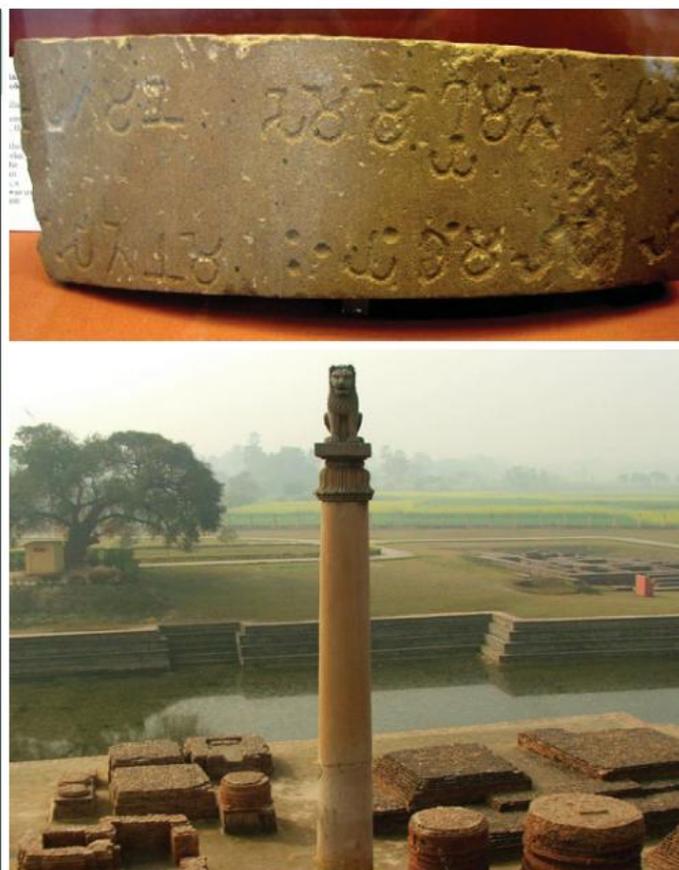
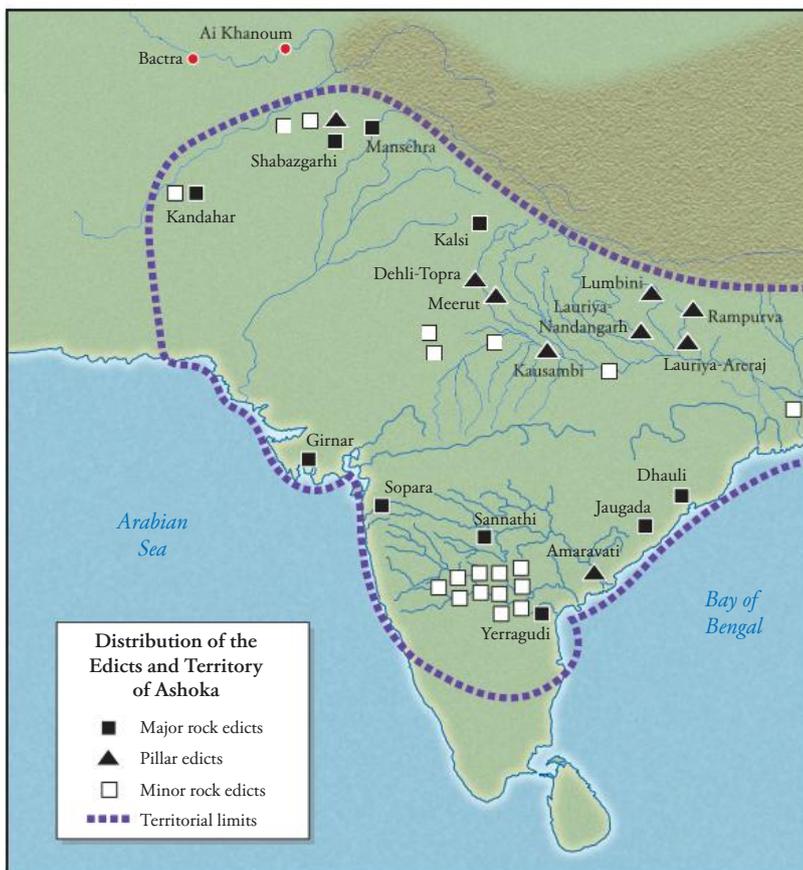
After a terrible battle at Kalinga, where thousands of people were slaughtered and others enslaved, it is said Ashoka began to question the use of violence. Around 258 BCE, Ashoka is said to have converted to Buddhism and

followed its teaching of non-violence (*ahimsa*) for the remainder of his reign. Ashoka's legacies include his **edicts**, which were carved on massive stone pillars, large rocks and cave walls. He placed these at different locations around his capital and along roadways so that his people could read them. Their message was one of peace, right thought and action, and accepting personal responsibility for one's actions. Ashoka believed in **dharma**, and his aim was for his empire to be ruled in a fair and just way.

edict an order given by an authority

dharma the Hindu and Buddhist ideas of good order and harmony maintained in the world

The time of the Mauryan Empire is sometimes referred to as India's Golden or Classical Age. Following Ashoka's death in 233 BCE, weak leadership led to a decline in the strength of the empire. The last Mauryan king was assassinated in 185 BCE.



Source 7.33/7.34/7.35 Map showing the distribution of Ashoka's rock edicts and pillars, a remnant of the pillar showing details of his sixth edict and one of his pillar edicts

Research 7.2

Research the rock edicts and rock pillars of Ashoka the Great and answer the following questions:

- 1 What was the total number of edicts produced by Ashoka during his reign?
- 2 Where did he usually place his edicts? Why?
- 3 What languages were used on the inscriptions? Why?
- 4 Where could you find the actual remnant shown in Source 7.34?
- 5 Describe the skill and technology required to:
 - construct, and
 - transport Ashoka's pillars.
- 6 Examine the edicts of Ashoka. Do you believe that they were genuine reflections of a Buddhist view of life (religious) or more about the efficient running of his empire and winning over the support of his people (political)? Discuss.

Spread of philosophies and beliefs

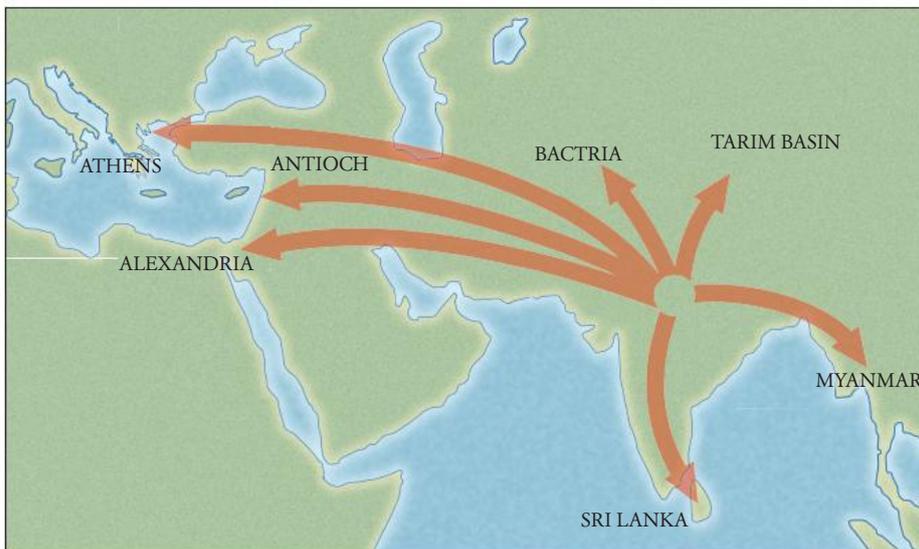
During the reign of Emperor Ashoka, Hinduism, Buddhism and Jainism developed and people were free to choose and follow their own religion. The Emperor also promoted the spread of Buddhism.

Different Buddhist **sects** developed and monks undertook **missionary** work by travelling the

roads and mountain passes to spread the teachings of the Buddha. In c. 250 BCE, Ashoka sent his son Mahendra (Mahinda) to Sri Lanka. Mahendra was a follower of the Theravada sect. Within a century, Theravada Buddhism had reached Thailand. Today it remains Thailand's official religion. Missionaries travelling the Silk Road also introduced Buddhism into China. By about c. 600 BCE, Buddhism had declined in India and Hinduism had reasserted its influence by widening public acceptance of many different gods and goddesses, and its religious practices. However, the stupas and pillars erected

sects religious groups who change some of the main teachings within an established religion

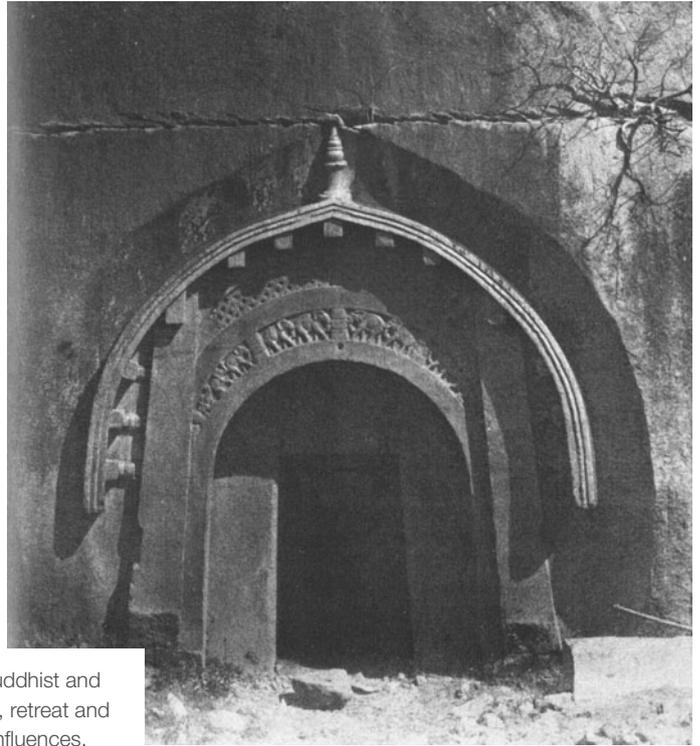
missionary people sent to spread a particular religious faith in another country



Source 7.36 Map showing the spread of Buddhism from India during the reign of Emperor Ashoka the Great

Thirthankars Jains believed that Mahavira was one of a long line of religious teachers who showed others the way. The term means 'ford', and each teacher was regarded as building bridges or fords for the whole religion.

by Emperor Ashoka and the many rock-cut caves such as the Barabar Caves serve as reminders of the power of Buddhist beliefs in India. Jainism shared many common beliefs with Buddhism, and became well established in southern and western India. Jain **Thirthankars** also took their beliefs to Sri Lanka (then Ceylon) and the area known today as Myanmar (Burma).



Source 7.37 Caves such as the Barabar Caves were used by Buddhist and Jain monks and travellers (pilgrims). They were places of worship, retreat and meditation. Many of the designs and inscriptions reflect Persian influences.

HISTORICAL FACT

The swastika

Despite its association with Nazi Germany, the swastika was originally a symbol of well-being that dates back to ancient India, and is used in Hinduism, Buddhism, and Jainism. The swastika dates back to the Indus Valley civilisation.

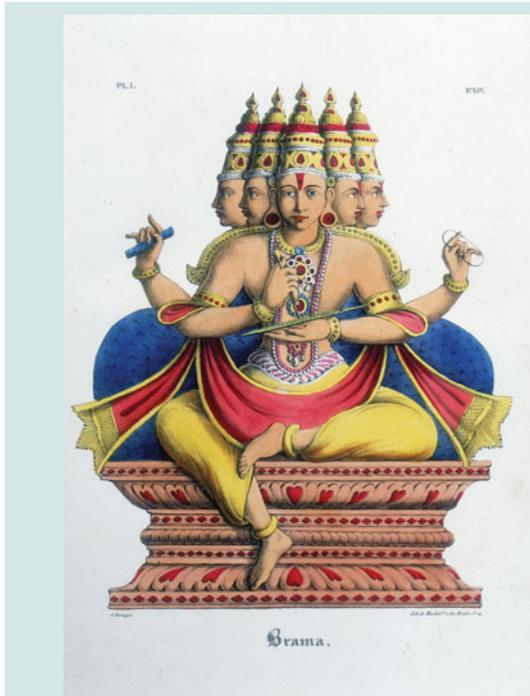


Source 7.38 A swastika in modern day India marks where Gandhi was born

Many gods of Hinduism

There are many gods and goddesses worshipped within Hinduism. It is mostly accepted that there is one ultimate deity, Brahma, and all other gods are considered to be aspects of him. It has been said that there are 330 million gods and goddesses in Hinduism; Source 7.39 shows some of the most popular.

Source 7.39 Hindu gods



Brahma
The Creator



Saraswati
Goddess of Knowledge, Music and the Arts



Parvati
The Divine Mother



Vishnu
The Preserver



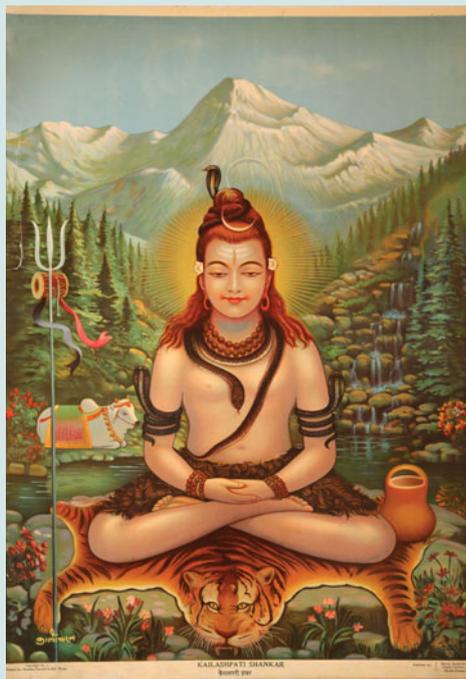
Ganesh
God of the Intellect and the Remover of Obstacles



Lakshmi
Goddess of Wealth and Prosperity



Kali
Goddess of Time and Death



Shiva
The Destroyer/Transformer



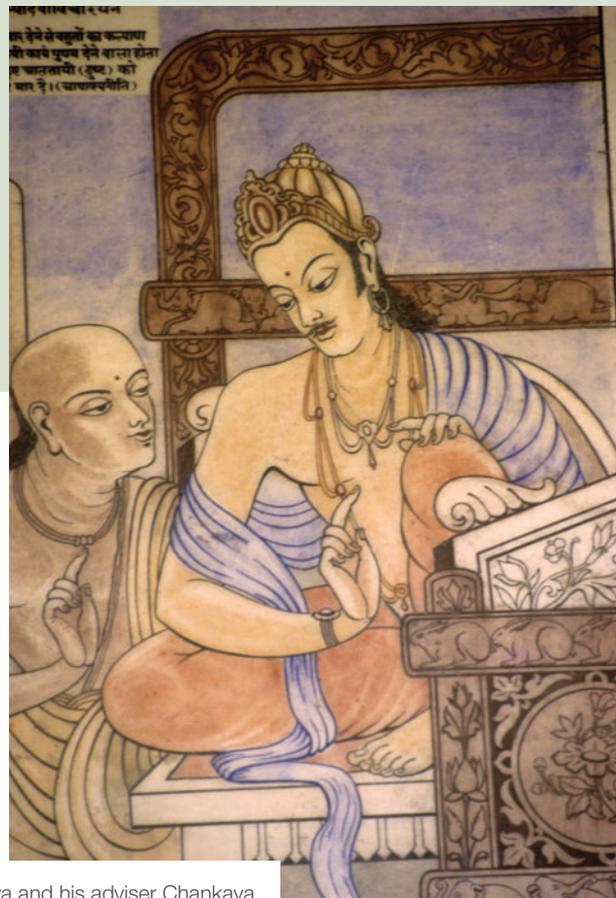
Role of significant individuals

Power of the sword versus the power of ideas

Chandragupta Maurya and his grandson Emperor Ashoka were both warriors, but their lives were changed when they adopted Buddhist beliefs. Siddhartha Gautama Buddha and Mahavira also broke away from their family backgrounds to choose a new path of religious enlightenment.

Chandragupta Maurya (320–298 BCE)

- Born the son of a chief of the Maurya clan
- Raised by a herder after the death of his father
- Later raised by Brahmin politician, Chanakya (Kautilya)
- Educated in military tactics and the arts
- Legendary meeting with Alexander the Great and a dream of power to come.
- Gathered mercenary soldiers and with public support defeated the ruler of the Nanda dynasty
- c. 325 BCE took the throne of the Magadha kingdom
- c. 322 BCE founded the Maurya dynasty
- c. 305 BCE defeated Alexander's successor, General Seleucus I Nicator
- Extended the Mauryan Empire from the Himalayas to the southern tip of India
- Maintained an army of some 600 000 soldiers
- Built an organised and prosperous government and society
- Used Chanakya as his adviser
- Accepted Jainism and spent his last days in the service of the sage Bhadrabahu at Sravana Belgola in south-west India



Source 7.40 Chandragupta Maurya and his adviser Chanakya

Emperor Ashoka (Asoka) (304–185 BCE)

- Ashoka was the grandson of Chandragupta Maurya and a prince of the Mauryan dynasty.
- It is believed that he came to the throne following a power struggle with one or more of his brothers. In 206 BCE, Ashoka attacked the city of Kalinga.
- Following a terrible battle, Ashoka is said to have renounced warfare and adopted Buddhist principles. Ashoka's rock edicts and pillar edicts, see Sources 7.34–7.35 on p. 289, were erected in public places so that he could direct his subjects in what he believed were the right ways of thinking and living.
- Ashoka tried to improve the life of his subjects by building medical centres in the countryside, improving roads, providing wells and planting trees.
- His reign was a time of religious freedom. He encouraged the spread of religious ideas, and missionaries travelled outside to China and South-East Asia.
- He constructed stupas and rock caves, which served as retreats for monks and nuns.



Source 7.41 Emperor Ashoka, also known as Ashoka the Great

Siddhartha Gautama (Buddha) (563–483 BCE)

- He was born into the Kshatriya caste.
- Various legends are told about his birth and early life.
- At the age of 29, Gautama gave up his life of luxury to become a wandering ascetic.
- He sat under a sacred tree near Uruvela for six years, teaching and fasting.
- He then abandoned his life of self-denial to seek a Middle Path to enlightenment.
- The term Siddhartha was added to his family name to show that he had reached his goal.
- At 35, Gautama became a Buddha (teacher) and spent the rest of his life travelling and teaching his followers.
- He died in 483 BCE.



Source 7.42 The Gandhara Buddha is one of the earliest statues of Buddha. It dates from the first century BCE and shows the influence of Greek art.

Vardhamma Mahavira (Mahavira) (550–527 BCE)

- Born c. 550 BCE, he was the son of a Kshatriya warrior.
- His youth was a time of opposition to the Brahmin sacrificial rites, a movement that later grew in importance and size.
- Vardhamma Mahavira and his family believed in the bond between humans and animals through reincarnation, and therefore opposed animal sacrifices.
- At around age 30, Mahavira renounced his life of luxury to become a monk.
- He practised *sallekhana* (voluntary self-starvation).
- He travelled naked and without any possessions except for a bowl for water.
- He meditated and developed the doctrine of *ahimsa* (non-violence).
- After 12 years, he created the Jain monastic order.
- He was given the title 'Jina', meaning 'conqueror', as he had overcome all worldly attachment and sense of self.
- He died in 527 BCE.



Source 7.43 Statue of Mahavira at the Shri Mahaveerji Temple, Rajasthan, Northern India

Sangamitta Theri (c. 281–? BCE)

- He was born to Emperor Ashoka and his first wife Devi, who was a Buddhist.
- Raised as a Buddhist, he married at the age of 14.
- Had a son named Sumana.
- He became a teacher and was ordained to Theravada Buddhism at the age of 18.
- Lived in Pataliputra.
- Sent to join her brother Mahinda, who had gone to Ceylon (Sri Lanka) to teach about Buddha.
- Arrived in Ceylon at the age of 32.
- Took a sapling (small tree) from the Bodhi tree under which Buddha experienced his Great Awakening to Ceylon (see Source 7.42).
- Planted the Bodhi tree sapling at Aundrahuaपुरa.
- Established an order of Buddhist nuns (*bhikkunis*).
- Taught and wrote about Buddhism.
- Died in Sri Lanka at the age of either 59 or 79.
- Was cremated and her ashes were buried in front of the Bodhi tree.
- A stupa was erected at Uttiya over her ashes.
- Respected as one of the important women teachers of the Buddhist faith.



Source 7.44 Model of Sangamitta arriving in Ceylon (Sri Lanka) bearing a gift of the Bodhi tree, an important Buddhist symbol

Research 7.3

Read the summaries of the lives of Chandragupta Maurya, Emperor Ashoka, Siddhartha Gautama (Buddha), Vardhamma, Mahavira and Sangamitta Theri. Choose one of these significant individuals and complete a research project, including the following:

- 1 Give your reasons for choosing this individual.
- 2 Write at least half a page on the early life of this individual.
- 3 Explain how this individual broke away from their established family background.
- 4 Outline the new beliefs of this individual.
- 5 Explain why this individual believed they needed to follow a new or different path.
- 6 Demonstrate how the beliefs of this individual affected others.
- 7 Identify what physical evidence is left of this individual's life and beliefs.
- 8 Discuss how important you believe this individual was and is to India's history.

You may present your research as a poster, structured essay or PowerPoint presentation.



Source 7.45 Mahabodhi Temple, now a UNESCO World Heritage Site, was first built by Emperor Ashoka in the third century BCE.

Chapter summary

- The earliest inhabitants of the Indus Valley were nomadic hunter-gatherers who had migrated from Africa. Fertile soils and plentiful water allowed the development of agriculture, trade and a settled life in well-planned cities.
- The Aryans entered the Indus Valley around 2000 BCE. They also brought new social and belief systems.
- By about 1500 BCE, environmental conditions in the Indus Valley caused a move to the Indo-Gangetic Plain in northern India.
- The Aryan or Vedic society was based on the Vedas or Hindu religious writings, and power was concentrated in the hands of the Brahmin class or varna.
- In about 325 BCE, Alexander the Great extended his military campaign into India; however, his soldiers rebelled and he was forced to withdraw.
- Chandragupta Maurya became the most powerful leader in ancient India. He established the Mauryan Empire, which grew to cover most of the subcontinent.
- Opposition to the increasing use of sacrifices by Hindus resulted in the formation of new religious beliefs, and two significant men of ideas – Siddhartha Gautama Buddha (Buddhism) and Vardhamma Mahavira (Jainism) – were born.
- Chandragupta Maurya and his grandson Ashoka became followers of Buddhism.
- India traded and exchanged ideas with many neighbouring countries. The spread of Buddhism and Jainism was encouraged.

End-of-chapter questions

Multiple choice

- The Indus River Valley is located in what is now:
 - Northern India
 - Pakistan
 - Iraq
 - Southern India
- The Himalayas played an important role in providing the following benefits for earlier river valley settlements:
 - water
 - protection from invaders
 - passes for trade and communications
 - all of the above
- The Vedas were sacred Hindu:
 - burial practices
 - writings
 - teachers
 - varnas
- Buddhism and Jainism arose as a result of:
 - Chandragupta Maurya making a law to say his people must follow a new religion
 - opposition to Hindu religious beliefs and practices
 - Siddhartha Gautama Buddha being a powerful member of society
 - monks introducing the religions to India from other countries

- 5 India was actively involved in trading and exchanging ideas with:
- A Greece
 - B Rome
 - C China
 - D all of the above

Short answer

- 1 Explain why settlers moved from the Indus Valley to the Ganges Valley.
- 2 Early civilisations worshipped gods and goddesses who were closely linked to nature. Why was this?
- 3 Why was the varna system introduced by the Aryans?
- 4 During the period of the Mauryan Empire, trade flourished. What evidence is there to support this statement?
- 5 Ashoka is called 'the Great'. Do you think he deserves this title? Why or why not?
- 6 What beliefs were shared by both Buddhism and Jainism?

Source analysis

Refer to Source 7.1 at the beginning of this chapter and answer the following questions:

- 1 Ashoka became a Buddhist. What symbols on the capital tell us that?
- 2 Were columns and pillars the only way in which Ashoka spread his messages?
- 3 What were his messages called?
- 4 What were they meant to tell his people?
- 5 Why might this capital and its symbols have been chosen for modern India?

Extended response

From its beginnings in the Indus River Valley, India grew to play an important role in the trading, cultural and religious life of the ancient world. What factors do you believe allowed it to do this? Present your findings as either a structured essay or on a poster. Be sure to include specific evidence to support your claims and show research in your findings.



Source 7.46 The Indus River Valley today

Glossary

- abacus** a wooden calculating machine
- afterlife** the second stage of life, when the souls of the dead go to another world
- agoge** Spartan education system
- agriculture** cultivating the land, producing crops and raising livestock
- alchemist** a person who practised an early, unscientific form of chemistry that sought to change base metals into gold and discover a life-prolonging elixir, and a universal cure for disease
- alluvial** soil that is carried and deposited by water, usually by rivers in flood
- antecedent** something that happens or exists before something else
- anthropologists** researchers who study humans and their societies by concentrating on culture
- aqueduct** structures designed to transport fresh water to cities
- arable** land that can be cultivated for the growing of crops
- archaeologists** researchers who study cultures, especially ancient civilisations, by excavating and describing their remains
- archaeology** the study of the past through excavating and interpreting the remains found
- artefacts** objects made by humans
- asrama system** Hindu pathways to a religious life involving study, and purity of thought and action
- assembly** a group of people with the power to vote on the decisions of the Senate
- atrium** open living area in the centre of a home
- Attica** region in east-central Greece that had Athens as its *polis*
- Australopithecus** an extinct kind of primate whose jaws were like those of a human and whose skull was like that of an ape
- ballast man** a person who organised the load in the bottom of a ship so it was balanced
- barbarians** people who live outside the limits of the society and are therefore believed to be uncivilised and primitive
- bias** having a particular interest or view that limits one's ability to make a fair judgement
- boule** the council of citizens in ancient Greece
- Brahmin** highest order or varna within the Aryan social system; they were the priests and teachers
- bridle** part of the harness of a horse, including a set of leather straps fitted to a horse's head and incorporating the bit (fitting in the horse's mouth) and the reins (held by the rider or driver to control the horse's head)
- Bronze Age** the period when humans began to make items out of bronze
- bronze smelts** sites where a process of melting copper and tin, and combining them under high levels of heat to produce bronze, was carried out
- bureaucracy** government officials
- Canaan** a region that in ancient times was on the eastern Mediterranean, covering parts of modern-day Israel, Jordan and Lebanon
- carp** family of large freshwater fish with a single fin on the back
- caste** a word later applied to the varnas formed by the Aryans; a caste system was one in which a person's place in society was determined by birth rather than by occupation or effort
- castration** removal of the testicles of a man, making reproduction impossible
- cataract** a large and sudden wave of water
- caulker** a person who waterproofed ships

cavalry soldiers who fought on horseback

cereal crops grains grown for eating, such as corn, wheat or barley

chariot a two-wheeled horse-drawn vehicle without seats

chastity abstaining from sex on moral grounds

chronological the time sequence beginning with the earliest time period and continuing through to the most recent

citadel a fortress built to defend a city

civilisation a society that has developed an organised system of government, social customs and religious beliefs, and a number of forms of technology including writing and the arts

commodity an item that is bought and sold, especially a raw material or something that is manufactured, for which there is a commercial demand

concubine a woman who was the lover of the emperor, was not married to him and resided in or near the royal court

Confucianism a philosophical system of ethics based on the teachings of Confucius (c. 511 – 479 BCE)

conscripted forced into service

consul the highest role in the government of Rome

cosmology ideas about the origin and structure of the universe

county the smallest of the geographical divisions; several counties would fit inside a prefecture and several prefectures would then fit into a province

crossbow a weapon consisting of a bow attached crosswise to a stock with a winding mechanism and a trigger – it fires short, heavy arrows called bolts

cubit the length from your elbow to your fingertips

cuirass armour made from a breastplate and a back-plate fastened together

cultivate to raise crops by working the land

cuneiform Sumerian writing that used sharp tools to create wedge-shaped symbols on clay tablets

Daoism a philosophy based on teachings of Laozi, seeking harmony with nature

Darius I ('the Great') king and emperor of the Persian Empire, who launched the First Persian War against the Greeks in 490 BCE

decadent showing unrestrained or immorally self-indulgent behaviour

deities gods

democracy the form of government eventually adopted and popularised by the Athenians, where male citizens took part in decision-making through voting

dendrochronology (tree-ring dating) a method of dating using the pattern rings inside a tree trunk

deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) found in living things and unique to each person through their genetic makeup

despotic behaving like a tyrant; a ruler acting in a cruel and repressive way

dharma the Hindu and Buddhist idea of good order and harmony being maintained in the world

dissent disagreement with a practice and refusal to conform to rules laid down

divination occult process or ritual that attempts to gain insight into a question or situation by way of a standardised process such as reading signs in natural objects or fortune telling

doctrine a rule or principle that forms the basis of a belief taught to people as truthful or correct

domesticate to tame or to make part of home life

- Dorians** Greek-speaking people from the north who conquered the Mycenaeans around 1150 BCE
- dowry** an amount of money or property given by a bride's family to her bridegroom or his family upon marriage
- dynasty** a succession of rulers from the same family. In Egypt however, some dynasties included pharaohs that were not related to the main ruling family
- edict** an order given by an authority
- Eightfold Path** Buddha's higher teachings were designed to help people end suffering by helping them behave and think in 'right' ways
- ekklesia** the popular assembly in ancient Greece
- enlightenment** a spiritually enlightened state of being
- envoy** somebody acting as a diplomat on behalf of the ruler
- epigraphers** researchers who study ancient inscriptions
- erodible** subject to erosion; easily worn away by water and wind
- Etruscans** the name of the northern Italian people who greatly influenced early Roman society
- eunuch** civil servant who has been castrated
- evidence** facts to support an idea, argument or theory
- exile** banishment from a *polis*, usually after a vote of the citizens
- expository** to explain or provide information for a topic
- famine** a period of severe shortages of food resulting in widespread hunger
- fertile** able to produce a large number of quality crops; the ability to produce offspring or reproduce
- feudalism** type of rule based on land usage where the ruler owns all the land and allows others to occupy and use it in return for taxes, money, goods or services
- fiefdom** the lands controlled by a feudal lord
- filament** a slender strand or fibre
- Five Confucian Relationships** the duties of respect that shape society: ruler to ruled, father to son, husband to wife, elder brother to younger brother and friend to friend
- flank** the left or right side of a military formation
- forage** to search for food
- forelock** the part of a horse's mane that falls forward between its ears
- fossils** remains or traces of a plant, animal or human from a former geological time
- Four Noble Truths** Buddha taught that life involved suffering and that suffering was caused by desire; by conquering desire, one could end this suffering
- frankincense** an aromatic resin from an African tree, used as incense – especially in religious ceremonies – and in perfumes
- fresco** interior type of pictorial wall painting where the pigment or paint to create the picture is applied to the wet plaster surface of the wall then allowed to dry
- garrison** group of soldiers stationed to protect a particular location
- genealogy** the history of families and the line of descent from their ancestors
- gentry** rural landowners who were businesspeople, renting out parts of their vast amount of property to poorer people like peasants, and maintaining their own private armies or militia to defend themselves
- Gondwana** name given to a giant continent that is thought to have existed some 500 million years ago, consisting of Australia, South America, Africa, India and Antarctica

- greaves** leather or bronze shin guards worn by *hoplites* to protect their legs in battle
- halberd** a weapon consisting of an axe blade and pick with a spearhead on top, mounted on a long wooden handle
- Hammurabi** a Babylonian king who introduced his famous early code of law for the welfare of his people
- Harappan** name given by archaeologists to the civilisation that occupied the Indus Valley of ancient India
- heifer** a young cow before she has had her first calf
- hemp** an Asian plant, the fibres of which can be used to make canvas, rope, paper and cloth
- heresy** a belief that is against what is generally accepted
- Hinduism** religious belief developed by the Aryans, which involved many different gods and goddesses and the killing of animals (sacrifices)
- historian** someone who studies and writes about history
- history** the study of the past through examining the written evidence of a society
- Homer** eighth-century BCE Greek poet who wrote the *Iliad* (an account of the Trojan War) and the *Odyssey* (detailing Odysseus's epic journey home after that war)
- hominids** a family of primates who date back about seven million years
- Homo sapiens*** ('wise man') our species of modern humans
- hoplite** heavily armed Greek citizen foot-soldiers
- hunter-gatherers** humans who foraged and hunted for their food
- Hyksos** people of Asian and Semitic descent who settled in Egypt
- hypocaust** underfloor central heating system utilising a fire looked after by slaves
- ice age** a period of time when large parts of the planet were covered by ice
- iconography** images and symbols used to represent ideas
- impassable** unable to be travelled on or across
- impenetrable** unable to be penetrated or got through
- imperial** related to an empire or emperor/empress
- implements** useful pieces of equipment, usually specially shaped or designed to do particular tasks
- indigenous people** those who are native to a region or country; a capital letter (Indigenous) is used to refer to Australian Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander people
- infantry** soldiers marching or fighting on foot; foot soldiers collectively
- inference** the process of drawing a conclusion from evidence that is probable, but still uncertain
- informants** people whose job was to gather details on others and then inform the authorities
- inscription** writing that has been carved into a hard surface such as solid stone, to help people remember a certain person or event
- inundation** the yearly flooding of the Nile
- irrigation** a system of bringing a supply of water to a dry area, especially in order to help crops to grow
- karma** Hindu (and Buddhist) belief that the way a person lives their life has an effect on how happy or successful they will be in their next life
- Kerameikos** the cemetery of ancient Athens
- kiln** a specialised oven or furnace used for industrial processes such as firing clay for pottery

- Lakonia** a region in southern Greece that had Sparta as its *polis*
- Legalism** a philosophy of administration in ancient China, where all people under the ruler were subject to a code of publicly proclaimed laws and punishments
- legend** a popular story that is believed by many people
- legion** a large fighting group of soldiers called legionnaires
- loess** yellow wind-borne clay dust
- looting** widespread stealing from public and private buildings, often with vandalism and violence
- Lydia** a kingdom of western Asia Minor located generally east of ancient Ionia in what is today part of Turkey
- magistrates** elected officials who had the power to put laws into practice
- mandate** authority given to a leader or government, effectively permitting them to rule
- maritime** associated with seafaring
- maritime trade** trade conducted across the sea
- mausoleum** large tomb structure containing bodily remains
- megalith** a monument made of stone
- menial** relating to work normally performed by a servant or to unskilled work
- mercantile** relating to trade or commerce
- mercenaries** soldiers who sell their services in return for money
- merchants** business people who bought and sold goods and were often quite wealthy, but were looked down upon
- midden** deposits of rubbish made up of food, shells, etc.
- millennium (plural millennia)** a period of a thousand years
- millet** a grain crop with small seeds used for food
- Minoans** name given by Sir Arthur Evans to the civilisation that existed on the island of Crete until about 1450 BCE
- missionary** people sent to spread a particular religious faith in another country
- monarchy** a style of government where a king or queen rules society
- monotheism** a religion that believes in only one god
- monsoon** refers to the seasonal reversal of wind direction that causes distinct wet and dry seasons
- morality** standards of conduct based on what is generally accepted as right or wrong
- mummification** method of preserving a dead body by removing the internal organs and drying out the body
- Mungo Lady/Mungo Man** the remains of an Aboriginal woman and man found at Lake Mungo, New South Wales
- musk** a pungent and greasy secretion from a gland in the male musk deer, used to make a strong perfume
- Mycenaean** Greeks who conquered the Minoans and flourished as a civilisation in southern Greece between 1600 and 1100 BCE
- myrrh** a gum resin used in perfume, medicines and incense
- myth** a sacred narrative, either as a story or poem, explaining how the world and humankind came to be in their present form
- Neolithic period (or New Stone Age period)** an era marked by the development of farming and the domestication of animals

Neolithic Revolution the early period of human history when people made the important change from hunting to farming

nilometer used to measure the water level of the Nile during the annual inundation

nirvana a state of release from all suffering

nomadic when people wander from place to place in search of food for themselves and their animals

nomads people who move from place to place without settling

numismatists researchers who study coinage

ochre an oxide found in rocks that is used to make colour pigments, such as yellow and red

oligarchy the form of government adopted by the Spartans in which power lies with only a few people

optically stimulated luminescence dating (OSL dating) used to date the layer of sediment in which the artefact was found

oracle a message from the gods in answer to a person's question, most notably via the *sibyl*, or priestess of the oracle at Delphi

oral tradition historical information that is passed on through speech or song

ores naturally occurring mineral deposits from which metals can be extracted

Palaeolithic period (or Old Stone Age period) an era of hunting and gathering societies and the use of stone tools

pantheon all the deities of a religion considered collectively

papyrus this was a tall reed with a triangular stalk that grew in wet, marshy conditions by the banks of rivers. The inside of the stalk could be cut into fine strips, which were woven together to make a smooth papery surface suitable for writing and painting.

Parthia an ancient culture that was part of the Persian empire at its height, stretching from the northern reaches of what is now south-eastern Turkey to eastern Iran

passes passageways or gaps in mountain ranges

paterfamilias the name given to the male head of the household; the family father

pathologists researchers who study human diseases

patriarchal a social system in which fathers are heads of households, descent is through the male line and men hold more power and authority than women

patrician a member of the wealthy ruling class

Pax Romana name given to the 200 years of peaceful growth and development during the Roman Empire

peasants poor agricultural workers

Peloponnese the southern part of Greece

petroglyph rock art that is made by carving or engraving (pecking) the image on to a rock face

phalanx main military formation used by the Greek *hoplites*

pharaoh divine ruler of ancient Egypt

philologists researchers who study the language of literary and written texts

Phoenicians seafaring and trading civilisation from the eastern Mediterranean that was active between 1500 and 300 BCE

phonetic alphabet an alphabet where the signs or letters have a one-to-one correspondence with the sounds of the language

plebeian a member of the ordinary working class

polis (plural poleis) Greek city state

prefectures local areas or districts to which people are assigned, and which are ruled over by government-appointed officials

primates a group of related mammals that includes humans, apes and monkeys

prosecutions legal proceedings against people because of crimes they are alleged to have committed

province the largest of the geographical regions into which China was divided by the early emperors to maintain control and collect taxes

pyre a pile of wood for burning a dead body

radiocarbon dating (carbon dating) measures the amount of radiation or carbon-14 in an organic or living object

radiometric technology tools that allow a scientist to work out the age of a rock or mineral by analysing radioactive particles

regent a ruler who steps in temporarily to rule because the person who is to be pharaoh is not yet old enough to take up his or her position of authority

reincarnation living again in a new body or form after death

reservoir a place (usually artificial) where water is stored

republic a political system where the government is chosen by the people and there is no monarch

ritual an action performed as part of religious ceremony

Sanskrit ancient language of India

sarcophagus an ornate coffin adorned with lavish carvings and inscriptions

sati the ritual act of a widow being burnt to death on the funeral pyre of her dead husband

scholars educated men who had been schooled in calligraphy (writing Chinese) and Confucian texts; usually civil servants or government officials

scribe an official who copied documents or performed clerical duties

seals small terracotta and stone items marked with images of animals and text

sects religious groups who change some of the main teachings within an established religion

self-immolation the act of willingly or deliberately sacrificing oneself by burning

Senate the powerful parliament made up of wealthy men who advised the consuls and people

serf a person who was bound to work the land of their master in return for a small amount of land to feed their family

sericulture the commercial breeding of silkworms for their silk

shaduf a wooden arm with a counter-weight on one end and a bucket on the other

silt rich, fine soil carried in the waters of a river

siphons pipes used to transport water upwards from a container

slave a person who served a master or mistress and had no rights

smiths craftsmen who worked with metal, making tools, weapons and armour

sovereign self-governing and independent

standardisation to remove variations in something and bring it into conformity with one another throughout society

steppes a vast area of grasslands that spans much of central Asia

stola a shorter tunic worn in ancient Rome as the outer garment for fashion

Stone Age a term used to describe the period of the human past when stone was the primary material used to make tools

strata the individual layers of human occupation revealed by archaeological excavations

strategos one of 10 generals elected to command the Athenian army

stratification the classification of different layers of human habitation revealed by archaeological excavations

stratigraphy a means of establishing a relative chronology through the levels or strata

strigil blunt metal tool used to scrape olive oil and dirt off the skin to keep clean

strontium a metallic element that can resemble calcium

stupas originally simple mounds built to house Buddhist remains; a place of worship for Buddhists

taro the root of a herb cultivated for food in tropical areas

taxes compulsory contributions made for the support of the government

terracotta kiln-baked clay used to make an unglazed ceramic

theocracy government by religious leaders such as priests

theory of evolution a theory in biology that species adapt to their environments through a process of selection over time

thermoluminescence dating (TL dating) a method of dating using organic matter

thesis a theory or idea supported by facts and evidence to be proved

Thirthankars Jains believed that Mahavira was one of a long line of religious teachers who showed others the way. The term means 'ford' and each teacher was regarded as building bridges or fords for the whole religion.

timespan a period between two significant points in time.

toga a long garment worn on special occasions in ancient Rome

tributary a river flowing into a larger river or body of water

trireme warship with three banks of oars

Trojan War a legendary 10-year war between the Mycenaean Greeks and the city of Troy, caused by the abduction of Helen, the wife of King Menelaus of Sparta, the brother of King Agamemnon of Mycenae, by the Trojan prince Paris

tunic the basic piece of clothing worn by both men and women in ancient Rome

tyranny form of government found in other Greek poleis and at one time in Athens, where power was taken by one man unlawfully

UNESCO Heritage Sites cultural and natural sites around the world that are listed by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) as being of outstanding value

URL internet user domain

varna a class of people within the Aryan social system; there were four varnas

vassal state under feudalism, this was a region that gave loyalty, homage and tribute to the king, in return for his protection

Vedas Hindu sacred writings consisting of four books; in Sanskrit, Veda means 'sacred knowledge'

Vedic refers to the Aryan Hindu culture, which was based on the Vedas

villa a large home in the country owned by a wealthy family

Xerxes the son of Darius I, and then king and emperor of the Persian Empire, who launched the Second Persian War against the Greeks in 480 BCE

yam starchy root plant widely cultivated for food in warm climates

yarn a continuous twisted strand of fibre

zoologists researchers who study animals and animal life

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