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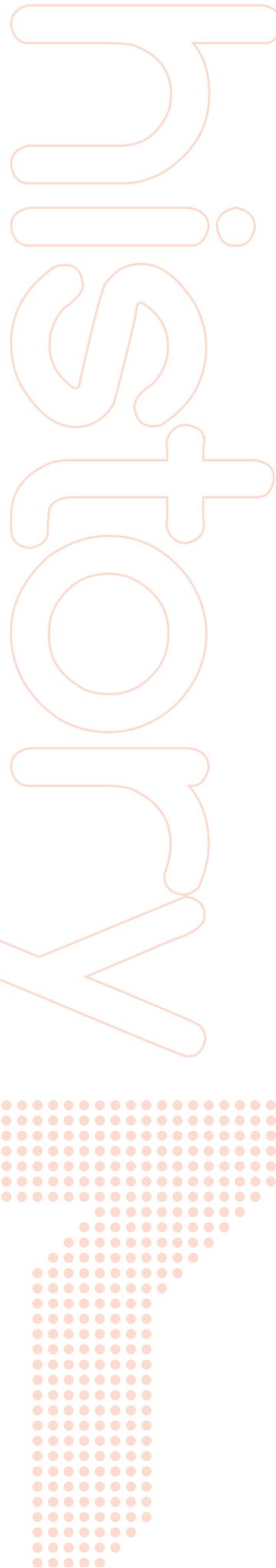
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PEARSON history



Student Book

Written specifically to meet the requirements of the Australian Curriculum, the student book acts as a guide for both student and teacher. It features:

- topics built around inquiry-based learning and Bloom's revised taxonomy
- a dedicated introduction to history skills through the History Skills Toolbox, with skills also built into topics
- Indigenous Australians content written by the National Museum of Australia.



Activity Book

The activity book is a write-in resource designed to:

- reinforce, extend and enrich learning initiated through the student book
- be used as part of an integrated homework program or for independent classroom use.

Teacher Companion

The teacher companion makes lesson preparation easy by linking student book pages to teaching and learning strategies. This teacher resource:

- creates explicit links between the student book and the Australian Curriculum
- contains solutions to student book and activity book learning activities.



ALWAYS LEARNING

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Much more than an e-book, **Pearson Reader** is an interactive online version of your student book linked to rich media resources. Not only does it support you with activities and teaching tools, it allows you to personalise your class version of the student book by adding your own links and content. **Pearson Reader** also enables you to harness the collective intelligence of education professionals by connecting you to other **Pearson Reader** users, building a powerful and continually evolving web book for your students.

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delivered in a personal style.

Because wherever learning flourishes, so do people.

HOW TO USE THIS BOOK

PEARSON history 7 has been created for the Australian Curriculum History course. It provides a fully integrated approach to teaching the two strands of Historical Knowledge and Understanding and Historical Skills. Through both classroom learning and independent research and work, students will explore these key inquiry questions:

- How do we know about the ancient past?
- Why and where did the earliest societies develop?

- What emerged as the defining characteristics of ancient societies?
- What have been the legacies of ancient societies?

The student book consists of nine chapters, each built around key inquiry questions that can be examined as they are or amended to suit the needs of students. Students can also use these questions as a springboard for developing their own inquiry questions.

The chapters are scaffolded in the following way, providing a comprehensive approach to teaching and learning about the ancient world.

CHAPTER OPENER

Each chapter opens with student-focused inquiry-based questions on the chapter topic together with a dynamic image that can be used as a springboard for pre-topic discussion and to develop students' skills in using source material.

UNIT CONTENT

Unit content includes written and visual primary and secondary source material, illustrations, maps, timelines and tables to reinforce student learning.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

The learning activities have been written using Bloom's Taxonomy. Answers require a range of responses that incorporate the requirements of the Australian Curriculum History course, namely: Historical knowledge, understanding and skills, General capabilities, Cross-curriculum dimensions, and Links to other learning areas. The learning activities can be answered using the student book as a stimulus but also through further independent research.

UNIT OPENER

Each unit within a chapter opens with a spectacular image to engage students with the concepts and content they will be exploring.

SNAPSHOT UNIT



Each chapter begins with a 'Snapshot' unit, which includes a full-page map, a timeline of significant events and a brief contextual presentation of the topic.

SOURCE STUDY UNIT

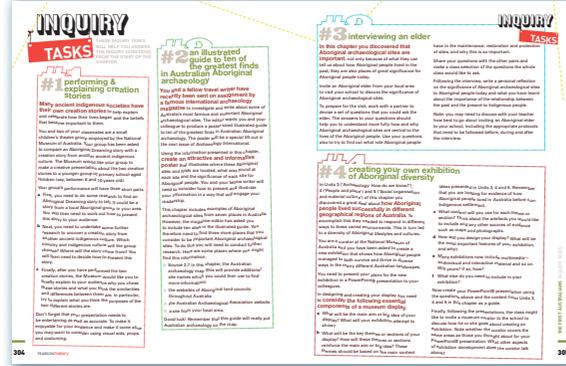


The source study unit is designed to actively engage students in exploring a range of written and visual primary and secondary sources. Students will develop the important historical skill of using and interpreting evidence, while also improving their understanding of key concepts such as continuity and change, cause and effect, perspectives, empathy, significance and contestability.

LEGACIES AND CONNECTIONS TO ... UNIT

Within each chapter (except 'What is history?') is a 'Legacies and connections to ...' unit that draws connections between the society being studied and the societies investigated in other chapters. The unit describes the legacies of the society as well as addressing connections between the past and the present. The 'Legacies and connections to ...' unit also includes a 'Time to think ...' section with thought-provoking discussion questions that are an excellent lead-in to the inquiry tasks.

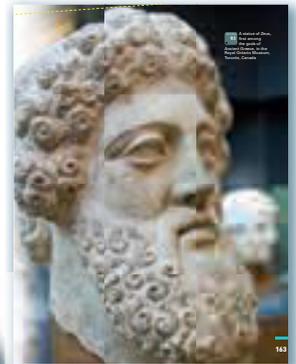
INQUIRY TASKS



At the end of each chapter is a set of inquiry tasks, also based on Bloom's Taxonomy. Inquiry tasks incorporate content from the whole chapter and appeal to a variety of learning styles. They can be set for further exploration and assignment work, for individuals, pairs or small groups. The tasks provide opportunities for further research and skills development as well as interdisciplinary and general capabilities learning.

CHAPTER CLOSER

Each chapter concludes with another dynamic image that can be used as a springboard for post-topic discussion and in developing skills related to using sources.



OTHER FEATURES

- Throughout each chapter, many sources are accompanied by questions designed to promote students' understanding.
- 'Did you know' boxes contain fun and interesting snippets of historical fact. They can be used to generate further discussion in the classroom.





THE HISTORICAL INQUIRY PROCESS

Historical inquiry is a process of investigation. It aims to answer questions about the past. At the beginning of most chapters in this student book you will find inquiry questions that you can use as a starting point for your investigations. You can also modify these questions if you wish, or create entirely new questions of your own. In working through the inquiry tasks at the end of chapters, or in reaching conclusions about the questions you have created, you can follow the same process explained here, step by step.

In preparing and drafting an inquiry question, keep the following points in mind:

- Highlight the key concepts and words in the inquiry question, and rewrite what is asked in your own words.
- Note what you already know in key words/ ideas, presented as dot points.
- Do some extra research to expand your knowledge on that particular event or topic, asking questions such as: Who were X? What did X eat/wear/do? Where did X live; when, how and why?
- Develop your inquiry question: what would you want to learn specifically about this topic?
- Note all the questions you will need to answer in order to find the final answer to your inquiry question.

1 THE INQUIRY QUESTION

An inquiry question:

- helps you understand the research task
- is open-ended
- will be refined during the course of your investigation.

An example of a good inquiry question is: 'What was life like for women in Ancient Rome?' This is a good question because it is open-ended—it leads to other questions such as: 'What work did they do?', 'What were their family relationships like?' and 'How did life differ for rich and poor women?'

An example of a poor inquiry question is: 'When did Solon rule Ancient Greece?' This is not a good question because there is only one answer possible (the date) and it leaves no room for further thought or discussion.

2 DEVELOP A RESEARCH PLAN

Your plan should include the following:

- the date your work is due
- all the tasks you need to achieve and how much time is necessary to do so
- a list of where you might find information, such as libraries, the internet or museums, with the types of information you might find there, addresses and opening times
- if relevant, a list of people you could interview and what information you might get from them
- the key terms that will enable you to conduct your search
- a timeline or schedule showing what you want to get done, and by when.



SUGGESTED WORKING SHEET FOR YOUR RESEARCH PLAN

INQUIRY QUESTION: WHAT WAS LIFE LIKE FOR WOMEN IN ANCIENT ROME?				Date due: 09/06
Task	Time I need to achieve it	Where to source information?	What type of information will I get from there?	Search terms I can use
find primary sources	1 week	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> internet museum (9 a.m. – 5 p.m.) school library (8 a.m. – 3.30 p.m.) 	artefacts (and photos of), drawings, book extracts and letters from the time	Ancient Rome, women, everyday life, work, children

3 FINDING PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SOURCES

You must now identify, locate and select resources appropriate to the task, and take notes.

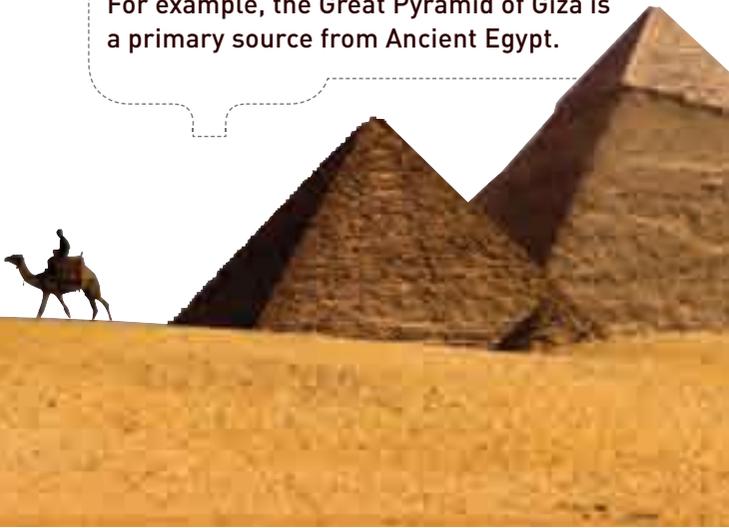
In the course of your investigation you will probably be asked to use at least two primary and two secondary sources on which to base your report. Your report will then become a new secondary source!

WHAT IS A PRIMARY SOURCE?

A primary source is an authentic document or original item that was produced at the time of the events you are studying. It might be a letter, a report, a photograph, an interview, a recording, a drawing, a piece of pottery, a building or any other kind of artefact or written account. It was created by someone who lived at the time and is therefore a great source of records or evidence.

Primary sources can be found in: museums, online museum collections, historical sites, buildings, libraries, galleries, exhibitions at auction houses.

For example, the Great Pyramid of Giza is a primary source from Ancient Egypt.



USING WORKING COPIES OF SOURCES

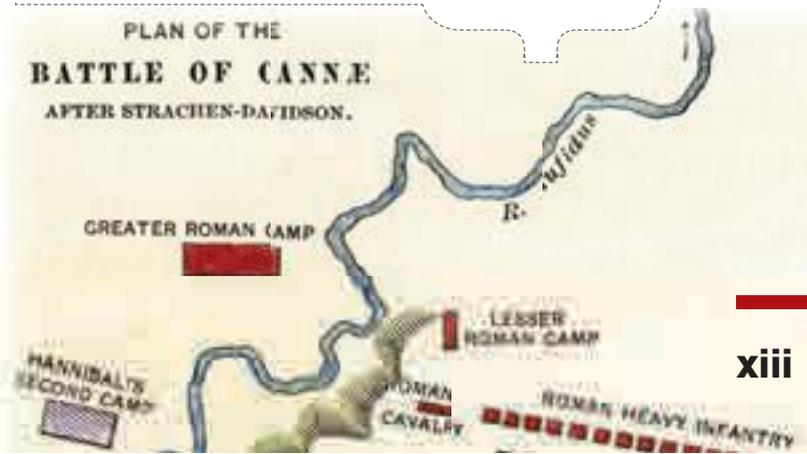
Work from copies of your sources, annotate them, highlight or underline key words or phrases, look up in a dictionary words you don't understand, note down your ideas in dot-point form in the margin. Keep a clean copy of each source for your final report.

WHAT IS A SECONDARY SOURCE?

A secondary source is a description, report or recording about the past that was produced after the events being studied took place. It could be a textbook, an encyclopaedia, a historical novel, a biography, a historical movie or any other form of text or file that recounts or analyses the events. It may contain an opinion, as the author may have wanted to express their point of view on the topic.

Secondary sources can also be found online and in libraries, encyclopaedias and databases.

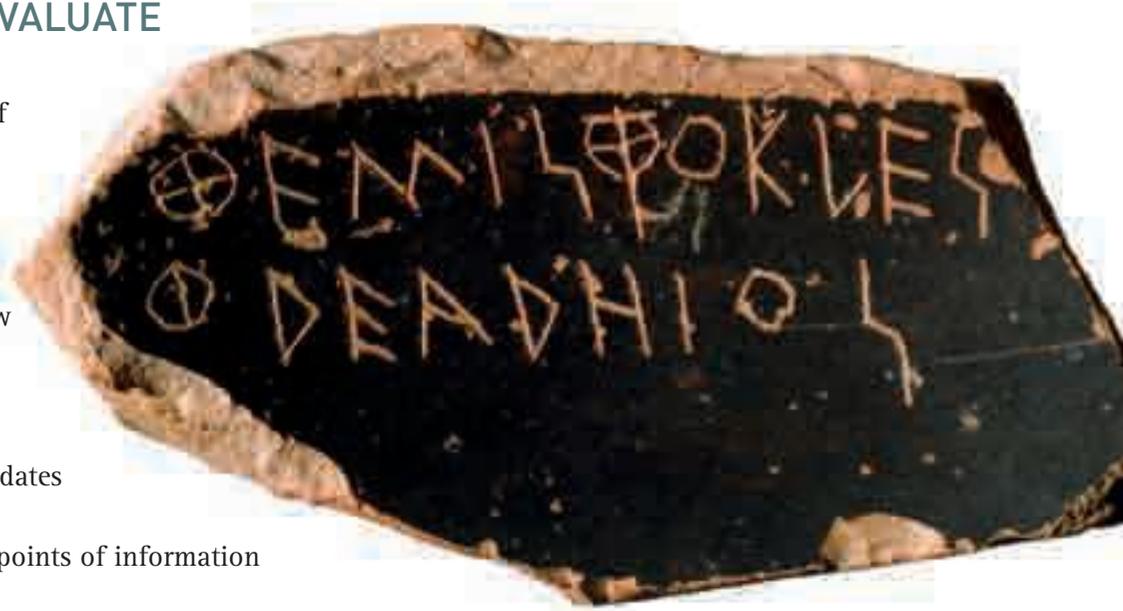
For example, an encyclopaedia article about the Great Pyramid of Giza is a secondary source on Ancient Egypt.



4 ANALYSE AND EVALUATE YOUR SOURCES

For each source, ask yourself the following questions:

- When and where was the source produced?
- Who is the author or creator? What do we know about them?
- In what historical context was it produced?
- What are the key facts or dates mentioned?
- What are the main ideas, points of information or opinions stated?
- Is there any evidence that the source is inaccurate or is missing some information?
- For whom was it produced, and why?



SOURCE
7.5

This is a picture of an *ostrakon*—the name that appears is that of Themistocles. From the Agora Museum, Athens.

USING ONLINE MATERIAL

All of the following can be found online and might help with your research: books, newspapers, images and items from museum collections, databases, reference works, indexes to library holdings. Here are a few tips about how to conduct online research.

There are thousands of sites on the internet, so when you do a word search using a search engine, be as precise as possible: the more precise your key terms are, the more refined and accurate the result will be. For example, to search on Athens in Ancient Greece, type in not only the word 'Greece', but also 'Ancient Greece' and 'history of Athens'.

Always question the source of an item of information. Check the URL: sites with the domain labels *.edu* (educational institutions), *.gov* (governments) and *.org* (non-profit organisations) may be more reliable than those with *.com* or *.net* (companies or individuals).

Examine the content of the page thoroughly.

- See if the author is identified, and whether they list their qualifications and other publications. If not, consider this site carefully.
- Check the language used: if it is informal and there are errors in spelling, grammar and punctuation, be wary!
- Try to find references on the page to other sources (print or online); look for a bibliography. A site that has both of these is more likely to be reliable.

Wikipedia is very popular—it is free and contains a page on almost every topic you can think of. But it is not necessarily written by experts, so you shouldn't rely on Wikipedia as your only source of information.

Note down URLs and the date you accessed a site in a log to assist with future research and to include in your bibliography.

Explore each source and examine its perspective in the light of the historical inquiry question:

- What is being represented?
- How can I interpret this source?
- Is this source useful to answer the research questions? In what ways?
- What are its limitations?

5 ACKNOWLEDGING SOURCES: HOW TO WRITE A BIBLIOGRAPHY

A bibliography is a detailed list in alphabetical order of the written and other sources you have used when conducting your research: books, encyclopaedias, websites, CD-ROMs, videos and so on. You should always acknowledge the work of others, and anyone who reads your report should be able to find your sources. The bibliography should be placed at the end of your report. A bibliography should be complete and is presented in a set format with items separated by commas. There are different ways of constructing a bibliography, but here is one approach:

If there are more authors, keep listing them the same way

If there are more than three authors, list the name of the first author, followed by *et al.*

Don't forget the initial capital letter for all nouns

- author's surname
- author's first name initial
- year of publication
- 'Title of Article', if applicable
- Complete Title of the Book or Publication
- type of publication in brackets, if applicable—for example, '(video)' or '(CD-ROM)'
- publisher
- place of publication.

For example:

Addison, P., *et al.*, 2011 *Pearson History 7*, Pearson Australia, Melbourne

Note: if a source does not have an author, list it in alphabetical order by its title, excluding the words 'A', 'An' and 'The'.

For a source accessed on the internet, include the following, separated by full stops. Note: the parts shown here in bold type always remain the same.

- author's name, if known, and year of publication, if applicable
- 'Title of Article', if applicable
- Title of site
- [Online]
- Available: the URL, or internet address, of the source [accessed: the date you accessed the source]

For example:

National Museum of Australia. [Online].

Available: <http://www.nma.gov.au/index.html> [accessed: 25/09/2010]

6 ORGANISE AND DRAFT

- Select the sources you are going to use, and organise them in order of relevance to the inquiry question.
- Compare the evidence found in each source. What are the similarities and differences in ideas, information and perspective? Did you find any gaps in the information gathered? If so, research further to fill them in. If your sources are contradictory, check their credibility: investigate their origin and decide whether they can be trusted or not.
- Based on the information you have gleaned from your sources and your personal knowledge and understanding of the facts and events, write a draft answer to the inquiry question.
- Continue your research to make sure your hypothesis (conclusion) holds up.

SOURCE
5.9
Basket from the Atherton region of Queensland



7 YOUR FINAL REPORT

You can communicate your findings in many different ways: in a written report, an essay, a PowerPoint® presentation, a talk, a debate or a mind map—to name a few.

The purpose of a report is to share your conclusions on the inquiry question based on your findings and analyses. You should provide evidence that your knowledge and understanding of the historical period and your conclusions are valid by acknowledging and presenting your sources.

Use your notes and organise them according to the requirements of the task and its presentation. For instance, if you have a PowerPoint presentation in mind, sketch out your slides in order.

Develop a thesis statement that clearly states your main argument—for example, ‘Women in Ancient Rome lived very interesting lives.’

Create a plan: introduction, arguments supported with evidence and evaluation of your sources, conclusion.

Write using your own words. Clearly state your personal conclusions. Remember: if you use someone else’s words, you need to acknowledge this by placing the writing in single quotation marks and ensuring your source is presented in the bibliography.

List your sources in a bibliography.

Proofread your report before you submit it.

USING VISUALS (ILLUSTRATIONS AND PHOTOS)

Use as many photographs and illustrations as seem necessary to support your presentations and reports. They can be used as evidence, and they will also make your report more exciting and interesting.

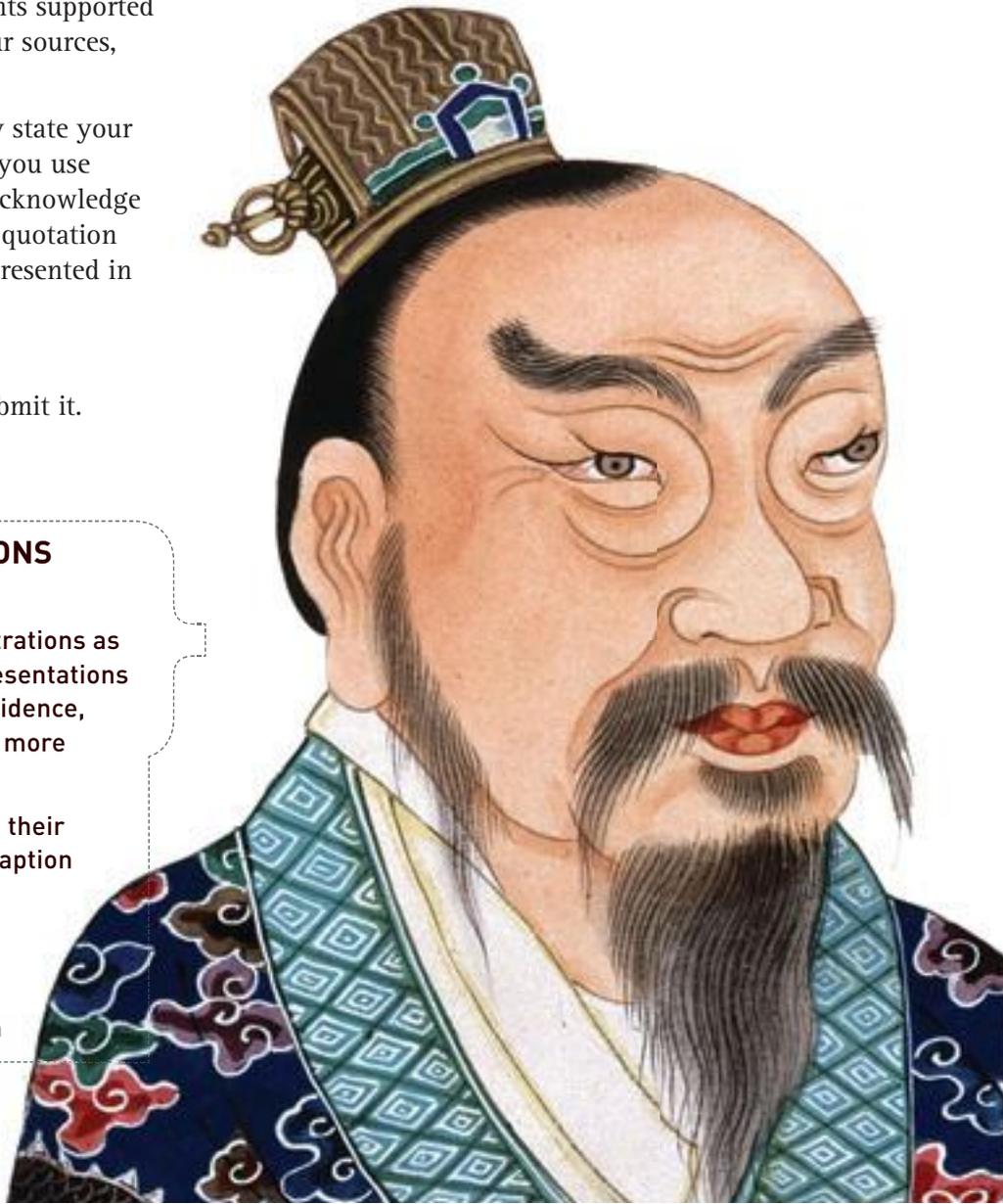
When using visuals, always indicate their origin and label them with a short caption or explanation.

SOURCE
7.2 A portrait of Liu Bang, first emperor of the Han dynasty, in the British Museum, London

8 EVALUATE YOUR WORK

Once you have submitted your report, evaluate it to enable you to further improve next time. See below:

- What went well? Why?
- What went badly? Why?
- What aspects did you enjoy the most? Why?
- What aspects did you enjoy the least? Why?
- What could you have done better?
- How could you have used your time better?
- Finally, make a list of the elements you could re-use in future research: places that were your best sources of information, websites that were more reliable than others, etc.



KEY LITERACY SKILLS

NOTE-TAKING

There are many ways to take notes; some are better than others. Here are a few tips:

- Listen, read or watch carefully.
- Write your notes in a Microsoft® Word document, in an exercise book or on A4 paper in a folder. Do not write your notes on scrap paper.
- Use headings to organise your notes.
- Look for key phrases such as ‘The most important aspect is ...’ or ‘The causes of ...’
- Do not write down every word.
- Summarise what is being said or written.
- Create a concept map or chart to help you organise your ideas.
- Ask yourself questions and make comments on what you have read, heard or viewed.

EXPLAIN YOUR ANSWERS

In answering a historical question, firstly, pay attention to exactly what is asked of you. Don’t provide too much information; don’t leave any out, either. For example, if the question asks you to support your answer with one example, don’t give two: you will waste precious time, and your teacher may not even bother reading the second example!

Elaborate on your answer. Explain why you are answering in this way by supporting your argument with an example, stating your sources and your reasons for thinking that way.

WRITING AN ACCOUNT

An account is a verbal or written narration of past events.

These few questions will guide you in your writing:

- What was the situation before the events?
Describe the historical background, the place.
- What happened? When did it happen? How long did it last? Who was involved?
- How did people react? Did the events make a difference in their lives?
- Do these events affect your life today?
- In summary, what was the significance of these events? What changed because of them?

WRITING A PARAGRAPH

A paragraph is a group of related sentences dealing with one topic or idea.

- Start each paragraph on a new line.
- Introduce your topic or idea in a topic sentence.
- Develop your topic or idea in one or more sentences—this is your argument.
- Support your argument with evidence gathered from sources, or an example and, if appropriate, a map or diagram.
- Finish with a clear, logical sentence that links this paragraph with the next paragraph.

Good paragraph writing is the key to writing effective accounts, essays and reports.

WRITING A REPORT

A report is a complete document made up of paragraphs presented in a logical order. It should contain:

- **cover page**—include your name, your class, the inquiry question, and an illustration if you wish.
- **table of contents**
- **introduction**—start with a general paragraph about the inquiry question and the questions you’ve asked during your investigation.
- **body**—present your findings, ideas and arguments in separate paragraphs. Order your paragraphs from most important idea to least important idea. Support each idea with evidence from sources and examples, illustrations and graphs.
- **conclusion**—provide a summary of your report along with your conclusions on the topic.
- **appendix**—attach a bibliography of your sources, a copy of the texts and photographs of artefacts you have used, and all other supportive material, such as maps and graphs, that you refer to in your paragraphs.

A few tips on presentation:

- Use clear sentences and formal speech.
- Watch your spelling and grammar.
- Avoid using contractions such as *didn’t*, *she’s*, *haven’t*, and shortened forms of words.
- Start your sentences with a capital letter and finish them with a full stop.
- Begin names and titles with a capital letter.
- Provide headings in your appendix.

OTHER TYPES OF TASKS



TYPE	LAYOUT	INFORMATION	STYLE
Newspaper article	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Short paragraphs • Text in columns • One or more illustrations, photographs, maps or graphs if possible 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A catchy, relevant title to attract the reader's attention • A subheading stating the main information to come in the story, to confirm that it is an interesting story to read • The date and your name or 'by-line' 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Formal language, no slang • Third person (<i>he/she</i>) unless you quote someone
Personal diary/ journal entry	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No particular structure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The date and place • An account of events as they happened for the writer on a particular day. A series of entries will cover a longer period of time. • Not an objective recount of events. A diary expresses opinions and feelings. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In the past, quite a formal tone, e.g. educated people kept a personal journal when on a mission or doing research • Nowadays, an informal tone and language • First person (<i>I/we</i>)
Script	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • One line or paragraph per character • Each line introduced by the name of the character speaking (usually in bold) • Extra comments in italics <p>Note: if in doubt, look at some plays in your school or local library.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A written transcript of a dialogue • A short introduction, stating where and when the scene is taking place, who the characters are, and what their relationship is • If appropriate, commentaries on the situation: who came in or left the scene, what is in the background, any extra noises, facial expressions etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As far as possible, the style of language used at the time • Formal or informal tone and language, depending on the situation • Spoken, or oral, language
Creative writing (short story)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Usually, a strict word limit. Make sure you stick to it. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • An introduction to the scene (people, place, time, background events), keeping in mind the historical context (how people used to talk, act, dress, eat, what jobs they had, etc.) • A short description of characters • The action! 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Imaginative—show your creative talents and your own writing style

GRAPHIC ORGANISERS

ANNOTATED VISUAL DISPLAY (AVD)

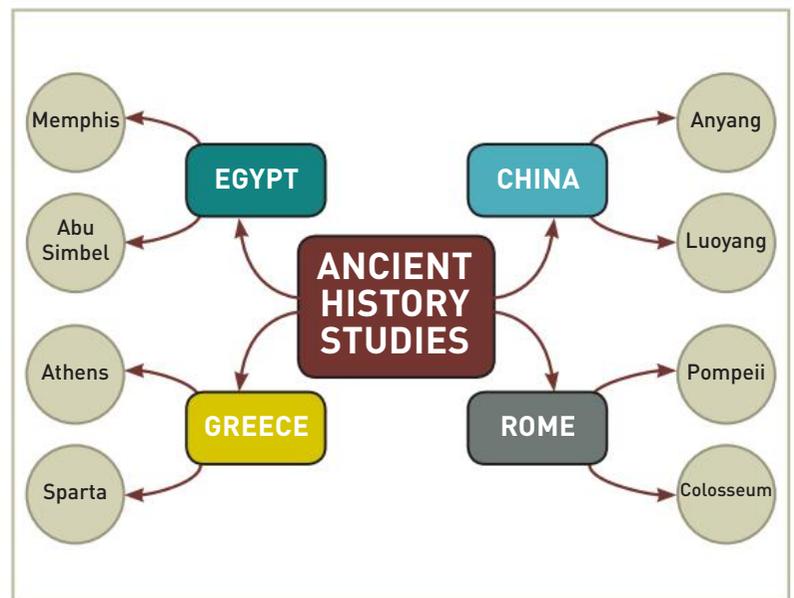
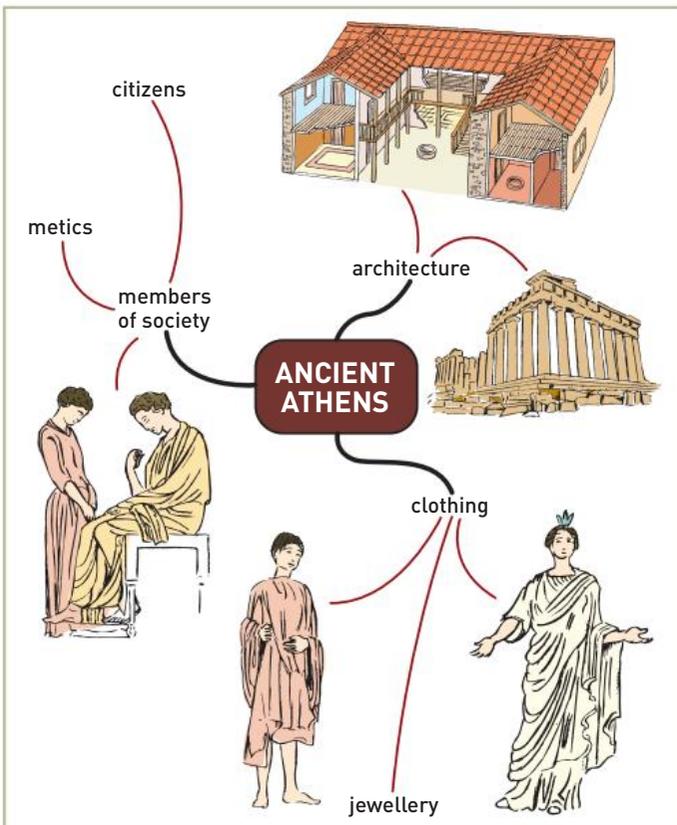
An AVD presents images on a specific topic accompanied by annotations such as photographs, illustrations, diagrams and graphs. It contains a main heading and subheadings.

MIND MAP OR CONCEPT MAP

A mind map allows you to remember, organise and present your thoughts and understandings on a given topic. It is a great way to brainstorm information individually or in a group. Mind maps also prompt you to think of new ideas.

Start in the centre of your page, write or draw the topic's main idea and with the help of arrows and circles, add your own ideas around it, linking them together. Use sketches, colours, symbols and short labels to illustrate your ideas.

A concept map organises ideas in a hierarchical branching structure using words and captions. Concepts can be linked with phrases such as 'results in', 'contributes to', 'impacts on'.



FLOW CHART

A flow chart shows the different steps to an event, time frame or process. All steps are presented in a box and linked to others by arrows, which indicate the direction you should read it. Flow charts are particularly useful as an aid to analysis or as something to base your explanations upon.

FLOW CHART SHOWING KEY EVENTS IN ROME'S TRANSITION TO AN EMPIRE

44 BCE

Julius Caesar, dictator of Rome, is assassinated.

43 BCE

Mark Antony, Lepidus and Octavian rule Rome as the Second Triumvirate.

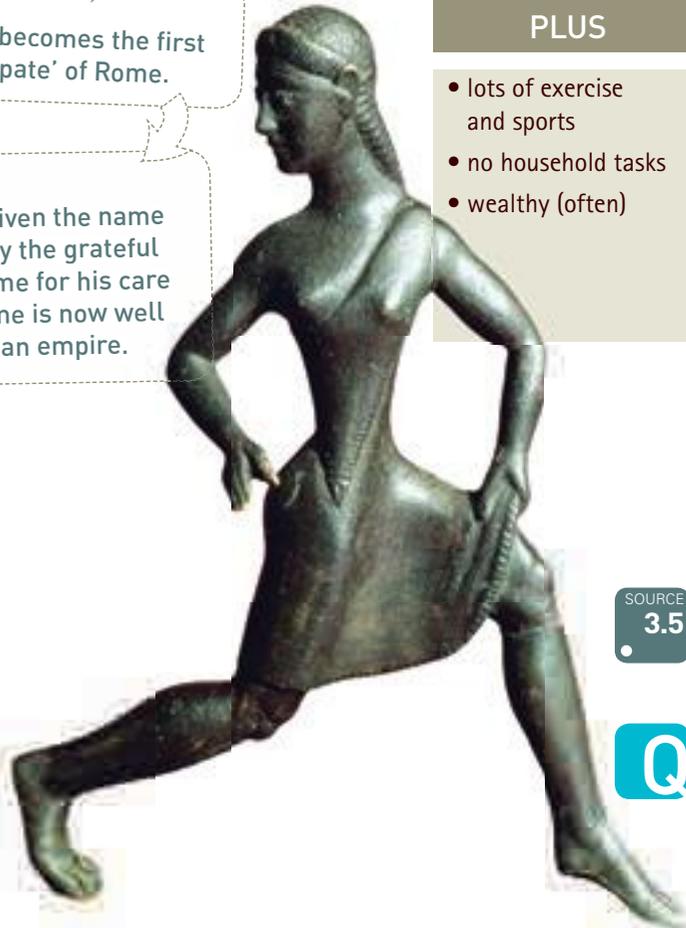
Civil war follows as the members of the Second Triumvirate vie for power.

31 BCE

Octavian becomes the first 'principate' of Rome.

27 BCE

Octavian is given the name 'Augustus' by the grateful people of Rome for his care of them. Rome is now well and truly an empire.



KWL CHART

A KWL chart is a table organised in three columns showing, on a given topic, what you **k**now, what you **w**ant to learn, and what you have **l**earnt. Fill in the first two columns before you start studying a topic; this will help you work on what you need to learn.

ANCIENT GREEK GODS AND GODDESSES

What I know	What I want to learn	What I learnt
Athena is a goddess	↓	Warfare, wisdom, art, literature
Artemis is a god		Hunting
Apollo is a god		Foreseeing the future
Aphrodite is a goddess		Love

PMI

A PMI is a three-column opinion table showing the **P**luses, **M**inuses, and the **I**nteresting aspects of a given topic or idea. It helps you develop your views and make informed decisions.

LIFE OF SPARTAN WOMEN

PLUS	MINUS	INTERESTING
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> lots of exercise and sports no household tasks wealthy (often) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> did not learn to read and write husbands' mortality rate high 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> managed farms supervised helots cared for children reputation of being outspoken and aggressive wore short skirts

SOURCE
3.5

A bronze figurine of a Spartan girl dancing from about 500 BCE, in the British Museum

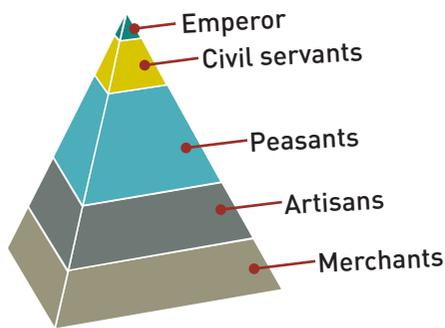


What aspects of this girl's appearance indicate that she is Spartan?

SOCIAL PYRAMID

A social pyramid is a representation of the structure of a society. It shows the hierarchy and the number of people involved: the highest class will usually also be the smallest and will therefore be shown at the top.

SOCIAL PYRAMID OF ANCIENT CHINA DURING THE HAN DYNASTY



Han Dynasty — Ancient China

T-CHART

A T-chart is a two-column table that lists and analyses two sides of a topic, such as pros and cons, similarities and differences or facts and opinions.

THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA	
PROS	CONS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good defence against foreign tribes • Great human-made construction 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lots of people died during its construction • It was never finished

TIMELINE

A timeline is a graphical representation of a chronological sequence of events—that is, in order of *when* they happened. It usually looks like a line or an arrow with markers for major dates, and captions or labels. It helps visualise and understand the relationship between different events and analyse the evolution of a civilisation.

Note that dates after 1 CE are recorded in chronological order. Dates before 1 CE are recorded in reverse chronological order. Remember there is no such thing as the year zero!

2205 Yu, the last of the sage-kings, establishes the Xia dynasty

2000 BCE

2205–1766 BCE
Xia dynasty

1700? Silk is produced

1500 BCE

1766–1122 BCE
Shang dynasty

1122 King Wu of Zhou defeats Di Xin, the last Shang king

1000 BCE

1122–481 BCE
Zhou dynasty

771 Zhou capital is moved from Hao to Luoyang

551 Confucius is born

500 BCE Crossbow is invented

481–221 BCE
Warring States period

372 Mencius is born

221 Qin conquers Warring States

210 Shi Huangdi dies

202 Liu Bang conquers his rivals and establishes the Han dynasty

124 Emperor Wudi establishes the Imperial Academy

100? Sima Qian completes *Historical Records*

1 CE

202 BCE – 220 CE
Han dynasty

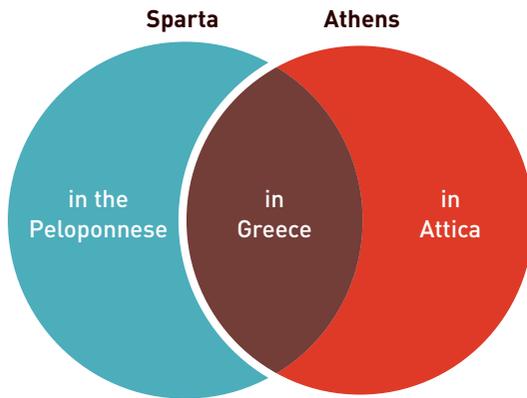
200? Paper is invented

220 Han dynasty ends

SOURCE
1.2
Timeline of Ancient China

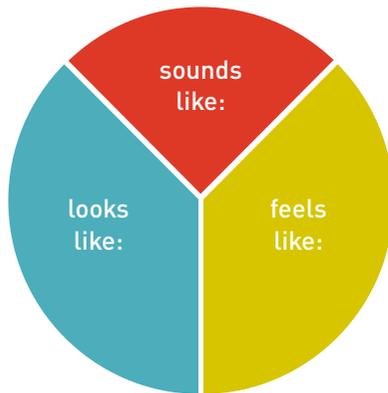
VENN DIAGRAM

A Venn diagram consists of two or three overlapping circles. It is used to compare and contrast the characteristics of ideas, events, places or even people. You can write the connections and similarities between two events, for example, in the area of overlap, and the aspects that are different in the remaining spaces.



Y-CHART

A Y-chart is a brainstorming tool that allows you to explore an idea or topic using your senses. Divide a circle in three equal parts labelled 'Looks like', 'Feels like' and 'Sounds like'.



Then, in a group or individually, start filling in each part.



VISUALS

CREATING A MAP

A good way to ensure that your map is complete is by using the BOLTSS system:

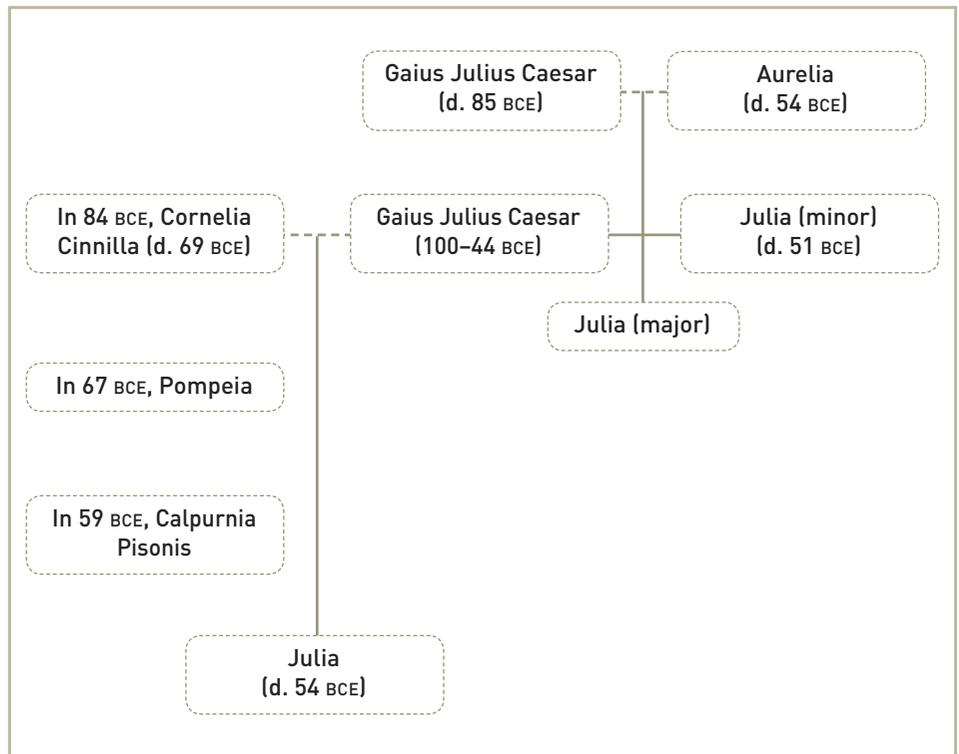
- **Border:** draw an outline of the place to be mapped or source it from your library or online. If the place is a country, show its borders and present a few neighbouring countries to give an idea of its situation.
- **Orientation:** add a compass or arrow to show which direction is north.
- **Legend:** in a box, create a list of all the elements that appear on your map—landmarks, arrows, symbols and colours—with corresponding captions. A legend (also known as a key) helps the reader understand your coding system and read your map conveniently.
- **Title:** include a heading to show what the map is about.
- **Scale:** shows how many kilometres are represented by 1 centimetre on the paper. This shows the reader size and distances.
- **Source:** always acknowledge your sources. Note the source of your map along its edge.

Use colour. You might want to show land elevation, different populations, kingdoms or anything else. Maps commonly show rivers and other water features in blue and roads in red, for example. Show your colour coding in the legend so the reader can identify and understand it.



CREATING A FAMILY TREE

A family tree is an organiser that helps you visualise the relationships between family members over time. It shows their names, dates, and marital and parental links with other family individuals. It converges on the main family member you want to study. You can decide whether to make your way up or down in time.



CREATING A STORYBOARD/CARTOON STRIP

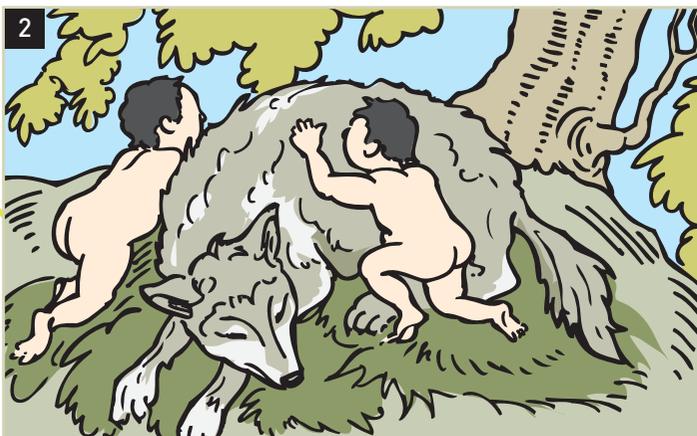
A cartoon strip or storyboard is very useful in History for retelling an event or story.

Create a few frames and draw in them. Your drawings should be as detailed as possible to depict places, people and their actions. Add a heading and some captions to each frame, giving dates, names and short explanations.

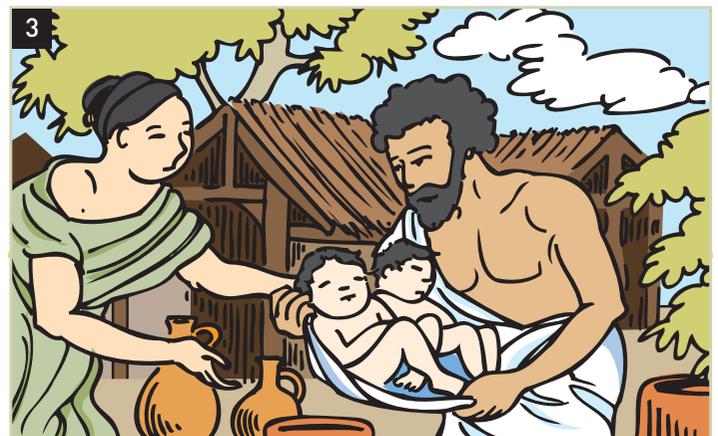
In a cartoon strip, add speech bubbles within the frames to insert quotations or made-up dialogue.



Romulus and Remus were abandoned.



A she-wolf rescued them and took care of them.



A shepherd found them and raised them.

KEY ICT SKILLS

CREATING A POWERPOINT PRESENTATION

A PowerPoint presentation (or presentation using any other data presentation program) is meant to be interesting, straight to the point, and well supported visually. Here are a few hints to help you achieve this:

- Do not have more than ten slides.
- Use only two or three different fonts and font colours, and one background.
- Use 26-plus point size for text, and don't crowd too much information onto a slide.
- Use visuals where possible but avoid special effects as they are distracting.
- Keep your presentation to a maximum of 20 minutes.
- Practise beforehand and time yourself to make sure you stick to the time allocated.
- Check your spelling and grammar carefully.
- Keep a hard copy of your presentation as a back-up just in case there is a technical problem.
- When doing your presentation, don't just read your slides. Explain what is on them to make it more interesting for your audience.

OTHER ICT DOCUMENTS

TYPE	KEY FEATURES
Flyer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1 page presentation • Attractive and colourful • Catchy headline • Graphics and design • Short sentences • Some white space to ease the eye
Webpage/ Blog	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Heading • Subheadings • Paragraphs • Graphics and design • Links • Your name • Sources

Crossword/ Word search	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clues that don't give away too much • Keywords relevant to topic studied • Use online tools to create it
Board game	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Theme • Design and pictures • Cards, dice, pieces • Path or road for steps • Fair set of rules to avoid confusion • Fun • Test it beforehand with a friend to assess it

KEY ORAL SKILLS

PREPARING AN ORAL PRESENTATION

Giving an oral presentation can be quite nerve-racking, so here are a few hints to help you prepare and relax:

- First of all, make sure you understand your topic. If you are not sure, ask your teacher for some guidance.
- Plan your presentation, keeping in mind the time limit given.
- Prepare your text, keeping it clear and concise. As it is an oral presentation, your sentences should be short.
- Focus on what you find interesting, then your presentation will be interesting to others.
- Include concrete examples and supportive evidence/sources to show your audience. Sources can include photographs, artefacts, maps and diagrams.
- Practise beforehand to ensure you stick to the time allocated. This will also increase your self-confidence so you are less nervous when the time comes to do it for real. You can do this in front of a mirror or your family. Ask someone to time you.

On the day:

- Remember to take deep breaths before you begin.
- Do not gabble: speak at a reasonable pace, making sure you pause to allow your listeners to follow what you are saying.
- Look at your audience so they feel involved, too.



Old meets new at the Louvre Museum in Paris, France, which was opened in 1793 CE. Visitors now enter the museum through a glass pyramid that was added in the 1980s.

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How do we know early humans migrated 'out of Africa' across the Earth?

How did early humans live?

What challenges faced early humans and how did they deal with them?

What evidence tells us about the development of ancient societies?

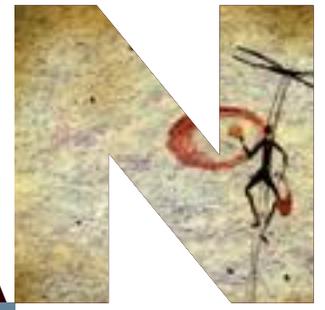
Over the millennia, in what ways have humans changed and in what ways have they stayed the same?



Throughout human history, people have felt the urge to move outwards from their homelands to improve their lives. This pattern of migration can be traced back through **the millennia to the Stone Ages.**



HUMAN



& MIGRATION & SETTLEMENT



SOURCE
0.1

The first migration: our ancestors left Africa to settle across the globe between 100 000 and 60 000 years ago. By 10 000 BCE they had colonised all of the continents except Antarctica. How did they survive and thrive in such very different physical environments?

SNAPSHOT

OUT OF AFRICA

Fossils and DNA provide strong evidence that modern human beings (*Homo sapiens*) originated in Africa in about 150 000 BCE, during the Palaeolithic period or Old Stone Age. This period is so called because early people used very basic stone tools to help them survive.

From about 100 000 BCE onwards, small family groups drifted northwards to south-western Asia, but this migration ceased in about 70 000 BCE. Some experts think that this was because of the volcanic eruption of Toba on the island

SOURCE 1.2 Lascaux, France, c. 17 000 BCE

These paintings on the walls of a cave show an abundance of mammoth, bison, oxen and deer.



SOURCE 1.3 Venus of Dolni Věstonice, 28 000–22 000 BCE

This small figurine of a woman is one of the earliest examples of ceramic sculpture created by humans. It was found at the site of two early kilns along with more than 700 other fired pottery fragments.

SOURCE 1.4 Zhoukoudian, China, c. 25 000 BCE

A tooth from an early human was found in this cave alongside stone tools, a layer of ash, burnt stones, charred bones, berry seeds and more than 40 species of mammal fossils.



SOURCE 1.1 This map shows key sites for early *Homo sapiens*. It also shows the routes that the first human migrants might have taken from Africa to the rest of the world.



SOURCE 1.5 Lake Mungo, 60 000–40 000 BCE

The earliest finds of *Homo sapiens* fossils in Australia have been at Lake Mungo in New South Wales. Two fossil skeletons, those of 'Mungo Man' and 'Mungo Lady', have been found. There has been some controversy over the dating of Mungo Man: some experts believe his fossils are more than 60 000 years old, while others place him at about 42 000 BCE.

of Sumatra, a catastrophic event that lowered global temperatures for more than 1000 years. Thus, in 60 000 BCE, most people were still living in Africa. Apart from their hunter-gatherer lifestyle these early modern humans were just like us. They had the same physical and mental capacities as modern humans, along with the ability to adapt to any environment on Earth. Then, in about 60 000 BCE, during the final cold period of the last Ice Age, the most important human migration out of Africa began.



SOURCE 1.6 Clovis people, c. 9500 BCE

First artefacts of the Clovis people, discovered in Clovis, New Mexico, USA. These people were skilled big game hunters who made use of a distinctive spearhead known as the Clovis point.



SOURCE 1.7 Monte Verde, c. 11 000 BCE

There is evidence of human settlement in Chile, South America, as early as 11 000 BCE. This date is at least 1300 years earlier than scientists had at first thought. No-one knows how these migrating early humans found a way through the vast ice glaciers of North America of the Ice Age.

LEGEND

-  Site of early modern human remains
-  Migration of early modern humans
- 160 000 BCE Approximate date of first evidence of modern humans

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

200 000–40 000 BCE
Middle Palaeolithic period (Old Stone Age)

50 000 BCE Humans have settled Australia and Central Asia; estimated world population is one million

45 000 Humans have moved into Central and Western Europe

40 000 BCE First stone tools are developed in South-East Asia

38 000 Estimated world population is 1.5 million; what is now Great Britain is settled; earliest evidence of cremation, Lake Mungo, Australia

30 000 BCE First bone and ivory needles are developed

40 000–12 000 BCE
Upper Palaeolithic period (Old Stone Age)

25 000 Northward migration of *Homo sapiens* through Asia; estimated world population is three million

20 000 BCE First spear-throwers

17 000 Cave paintings, Lascaux, France

15 000 Crossing of the Beringia land bridge from Asia to the Americas

10 000 BCE Glacial retreat begins

9000 First pottery is made

8000 Estimated world population is six million

12 000–2000 BCE
Neolithic period (New Stone Age)

5000 Beginnings of metalwork; farming spreads to Western Europe

3500 First pictorial evidence of wheeled vehicles in Sumer

SOURCE 1.8 Timeline of prehistory



SOURCE 2.1 Jomon shell midden from a site near Kawasaki, Japan. The Jomon people lived in Japan from about 13 680 BCE to 410 BCE. In this midden archaeologists have found fish bones, clams, oyster shells and other shellfish remains.



MIGRATION

- Q** 1 What sort of dishes do you think the Jomon people might have cooked with these foods?
- 2 Conduct further research on the internet to find out what archaeologists have uncovered about the Jomon people's cooking from their research of middens such as this one. Present your findings in a short paragraph.

MIGRATION BEGINS

It is not known for certain why the movement out of Africa began. The hunter-gatherer lifestyle could be a precarious one, dependent on climatic conditions and the abundance of game and edible plants. When conditions changed, the early humans reacted by moving on to other areas. They were able to adapt successfully to just about any climate in which they found themselves, from the harshness of nine-month winters and sub-zero temperatures to the searing heat of arid desert regions and the energy-sapping humidity of steamy tropical rainforests. By the end of the Ice Age, in approximately 15 000 BCE, this vast migration was complete. Ice Age hunting bands and family groups had settled all of Africa, Europe and Asia. They had crossed to the Americas via the Beringia land bridge and had traversed tropical waters in canoes and on rafts to settle New Guinea and Australia. The only continent untouched by humans was Antarctica.



HOW MANY PEOPLE THERE WERE IN 50 000 BCE?

The answer is 'not many'. It is estimated that the human population of Earth in 50 000 BCE was just one million. When you consider that the world's population today is nearly seven billion people, the world at that time was a rather empty place. Historians hypothesise that most people at this time probably met only a few dozen fellow humans during their entire lives.

EVIDENCE OF HUMAN MIGRATION

Proof of the migration of early humans can be found at numerous archaeological sites across the world (see Source 1.1). These comprise caves, rock and cliff shelters, open campsites, and middens or rubbish heaps filled with the litter of early human life: bones, shells, seeds and broken tool and arrow points. They allow archaeologists to estimate when humans arrived in the areas where they are found.

The recent remarkable advances in the understanding of human **physiology**, which is the study of the working of the human body, through molecular biology are another way in which we can learn about the migration patterns of early humans. By comparing DNA from fossils with DNA from modern humans, scientists can work out how *Homo sapiens* settled the Earth and when changes or splits in the population occurred.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT NEANDERTHALS WERE NEARLY CALLED 'STUPID PEOPLE'?

The scientific conventions governing the naming of species say that the name published first is the one that sticks—luckily for the Neanderthals! In 1866 CE, the German biologist Ernst Haeckel proposed that they be named *Homo stupidus*, but the name *Homo neanderthalensis* had been accepted two years earlier and so that is how we now know them.

NEANDERTHALS VERSUS EARLY HUMANS

When the first groups of *Homo sapiens* migrated out of Africa, they were not alone. Populations of *Homo neanderthalensis* or Neanderthals (named after the Neander valley in Germany, where their fossils were first discovered in 1856) were already living in Europe and parts of Asia and had been there since about 350 000 BCE. We know a lot about Neanderthals since they tended to live in areas rich with limestone caves, which preserved their bones well and have proved to be an abundant source of prehistoric fossils and artefacts for archaeologists.

Homo neanderthalensis was physically distinct from *Homo sapiens*, with a low, sloping forehead, a prominent brow ridge, a heavy, jutting jaw and little or no chin. Neanderthals were also broader shouldered than modern humans, were extremely muscular in the upper body and in their short, strong legs, and had very broad, strong feet. There is much debate about *Homo neanderthalensis* among archaeologists. One source of disagreement has been whether it is a subspecies of *Homo sapiens* or not. Should it really be classified as *Homo sapiens neanderthalensis*?

SOURCE 2.2 The skulls of *Homo neanderthalensis* (left) and an early *Homo sapiens* (right)

- 1 Trace the two skulls and label the distinctive features of both skulls.
- 2 What conclusions can you draw about the two skulls?





SOURCE
2.3

A Neanderthal burial in Israel, from about 60 000 BCE. Neanderthals often buried their dead with items for the afterlife such as parcels of meat and rings of animal horn.



1 What does this tell you concerning Neanderthal beliefs about life and death?

2 Does this make them human? Explain your answer.

Most recently, archaeologists have agreed that *Homo neanderthalensis*, although closely related to *Homo sapiens*, is a distinct species. It is known that the Neanderthal way of life was very similar to that of early humans. Neanderthals, too, were expert hunters and gatherers. Archaeological evidence shows, however, that they tended to use the same campsites season after season, whether there was abundant food there or not, which suggests that perhaps they did not adapt so well to the varying yearly conditions. It is also known from archaeological evidence that they buried their dead

and looked after their sick and elderly. Neanderthals were the first known people to do so.

Another debatable point has been whether Neanderthals and the newcomers from Africa interbred. There was fossil evidence that suggested this, and recent analysis of DNA from Neanderthal fossil bones now appears to confirm that Neanderthals and early modern humans produced offspring.

Lastly, it is not known why, despite their greater strength and their ability to cope with living in areas of extreme cold, Neanderthals were not able to survive the onslaught of early humans and died out as a species by about 24 000 BCE. It has been suggested that *Homo neanderthalensis* became extinct because it could not compete with the superior *Homo sapiens*. Early humans were more adaptable to any environment, smarter and more technologically able than their Neanderthal rivals.

remembering & understanding

#1 In your workbook or in a Microsoft® Word document or Excel® file on your computer, create a 'Human migration and settlement' glossary. Begin your glossary by listing these key words and phrases and explaining their meanings:

- *Homo neanderthalensis*
- *Homo sapiens*
- middens
- migration
- Palaeolithic period
- physiology

#2 Read Units 1 and 2 of this chapter carefully and answer the following questions.

- a Why is it thought that *Homo sapiens* originated in Africa?
- b Over what time frame is the migration of *Homo sapiens* from Africa thought to have occurred? When did the biggest migration occur? By what date was this migration largely completed?
- c What is the probable reason for this migration?
- d Why was *Homo sapiens* so successful at colonising the Earth?

understanding, evaluating & creating

#3 Read the section 'Evidence of human migration' carefully and answer the following questions.

- a What are the two ways in which archaeologists can prove this human migration took place?
- b With a partner and using the internet, conduct further research into the two ways of proving prehistoric human migration. Which way do you think is the more accurate?
- c Create an A3 poster or a webpage to demonstrate your findings. Divide your poster or webpage in half. On the left side place your information about the first way, and on the right side place your information about the second way. Across the bottom of the page, write two or three sentences that explain your conclusions.

understanding & analysing

#4 Examine Source 1.2 carefully, and use the library or the internet to find other images of the Lascaux cave paintings.

- a What do these cave paintings tell us of the lifestyle of *Homo sapiens* during the Ice Age?
- b Which animal do you think is depicted here?
- c Why? Explain your choice.

#5 Examine Source 1.4 carefully.

- a Create a two-column table. In column one write down each piece of evidence about the *Homo sapiens* fossil site at Zhoukoudian and in column two write down what you think it shows about how these early humans lived.
- b From this evidence, what overall hypothesis can you formulate about the lifestyle and diet of these early humans?

understanding, analysing & creating

#6 Examine Source 1.6 carefully.

- a What could be the link between the presence of the Clovis people in the Americas and the disappearance of mammoths, mastodons and the giant sloth in the same time period?
- b Conduct further research on the internet to find out more about the Clovis people.
- c You are a prehistoric environmentalist protesting against the extinction of mammoths, mastodons and giant sloths. Either on poster paper or using publishing software on a computer, create a flyer outlining your protest.

analysing, evaluating & creating

#7 Read 'Neanderthals versus early humans' carefully and then use the library and the internet to conduct further research into *Homo neanderthalensis* and early *Homo sapiens*.

- a Create a Venn diagram that compares and contrasts *Homo neanderthalensis* and *Homo sapiens*.
- b Using your Venn diagram to help you, answer the following question: Why do you think *Homo neanderthalensis* became extinct? Explain your answer.

HUNTERS & GATHERERS

SOURCE 3.1 A cave painting from Spain, dating from about 13 000 BCE, showing a human figure harvesting honey from a hive of wild bees on a cliff face. The hunter-gatherer is using ropes to reach the hive and smoke from a burning brand to subdue the bees.

- Q** 1 What do you think the black specks around the figure might represent?
- 2 Even though it only shows one figure, how does this painting suggest that gathering honey involved cooperation between people?

Until about 10 000 BCE our ancestors were all **hunter-gatherers**. This meant that they hunted animals for food and **foraged** for nuts and berries in order to survive. Hunter-gatherers usually lived in small groups. As the food supply in one area became scarce, the group would move on to the next hunting and foraging ground. It was a generally successful lifestyle that existed for more than 100 000 years. Today, elements of the hunter-gatherer lifestyle survive, to a greater or lesser degree, among societies in the Amazon basin, Africa, Australia, New Guinea and the Arctic.

HOW DID THEY LIVE?

It is thought that hunter-gatherers lived in relatively small extended-family groups of between ten and thirty people. Men would hunt for small and large game while women and children foraged for fruit, berries, nuts and other foods, such as eggs and honey. There is evidence that different groups would band together for the hunting of large game. They would form hunting parties of around 100 people and would work cooperatively to bring down huge animals such as mammoths and mastodons.

A hunting and gathering lifestyle requires an extensive geographical area and, once the food supply in that area is exhausted, forces the group to move on to the next area. So hunter-gatherers were **nomadic**. Most groups would follow a seasonal pattern, returning to the same hunting grounds from one year to the next—that is, unless climatic changes required them to move further afield. When this happened, they would move into a new area. Once there, early humans would quickly adjust to their new conditions: a different climate, new game to hunt, new types of food for which to forage and new shelters to find or build. It was this ability to adapt to any conditions, no matter how different or how harsh, that enabled prehistoric humans to colonise the Earth.

A VERY SUCCESSFUL WAY OF LIFE

Some historians speculate that the shift from the hunter-gatherer way of life to the settled life of farming was one of the worst mistakes humankind ever made. Studies by anthropologists of the few existing hunter-gatherer societies, such as the !Kung San of the Kalahari in Africa, show that they work far less hard than neighbouring farmers and have a better and more varied diet.

Archaeological evidence provided by Ice Age fossils from Greece and Turkey also shows that early humans were better off as hunter-gatherers. In these places men had an average height of 175 centimetres and were strong and healthy. Studies of later fossils show that by 3000 BCE the average height was only 160 centimetres, and there is evidence of malnutrition and disease. There is also some archaeological evidence that average life expectancy fell in the new farming societies.

Groups of ancient farmers, with their settled villages and higher populations, faced a variety of problems that their hunter-gatherer predecessors did not. They were more dependent on the weather and more vulnerable to famine due to **climatic changes**. Early farmers tended to have a more limited diet based on cereal and root vegetables. Lastly, overcrowding in their villages made them susceptible to epidemics and disease in general.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE !KUNG SAN MIGHT BE OUR ANCESTORS?

The results of a study of African genetics, undertaken by the University of Pennsylvania in 2009, has suggested that the home of the !Kung San of Southern Africa—the Kalahari desert—could be where modern humanity originated.

SOURCE 3.2 !Kung San gather around a fire at the end of the day.



SOURCE 3.3 Map of adaptations by early humans to different environments in about 10 000 BCE

North America

After crossing the Beringia land bridge, early humans learnt to survive by hunting herds of big game, such as mammoth, bison and mastodons, that roamed the Great Plains of North America.

Europe

As early humans moved northwards into Europe, they encountered large tracts of forest that were rich in animals such as deer, aurochs and wild boar.

Middle East

Early humans adapted to this environment by learning to utilise and harvest wild cereals.

Amazonia

In the fertile Amazon basin, early humans quickly learnt to adapt to a diet rich in fish and other marine animals such as turtles and manatees. They also learnt to utilise root crops.

SOUTH AMERICA

West and Central Africa

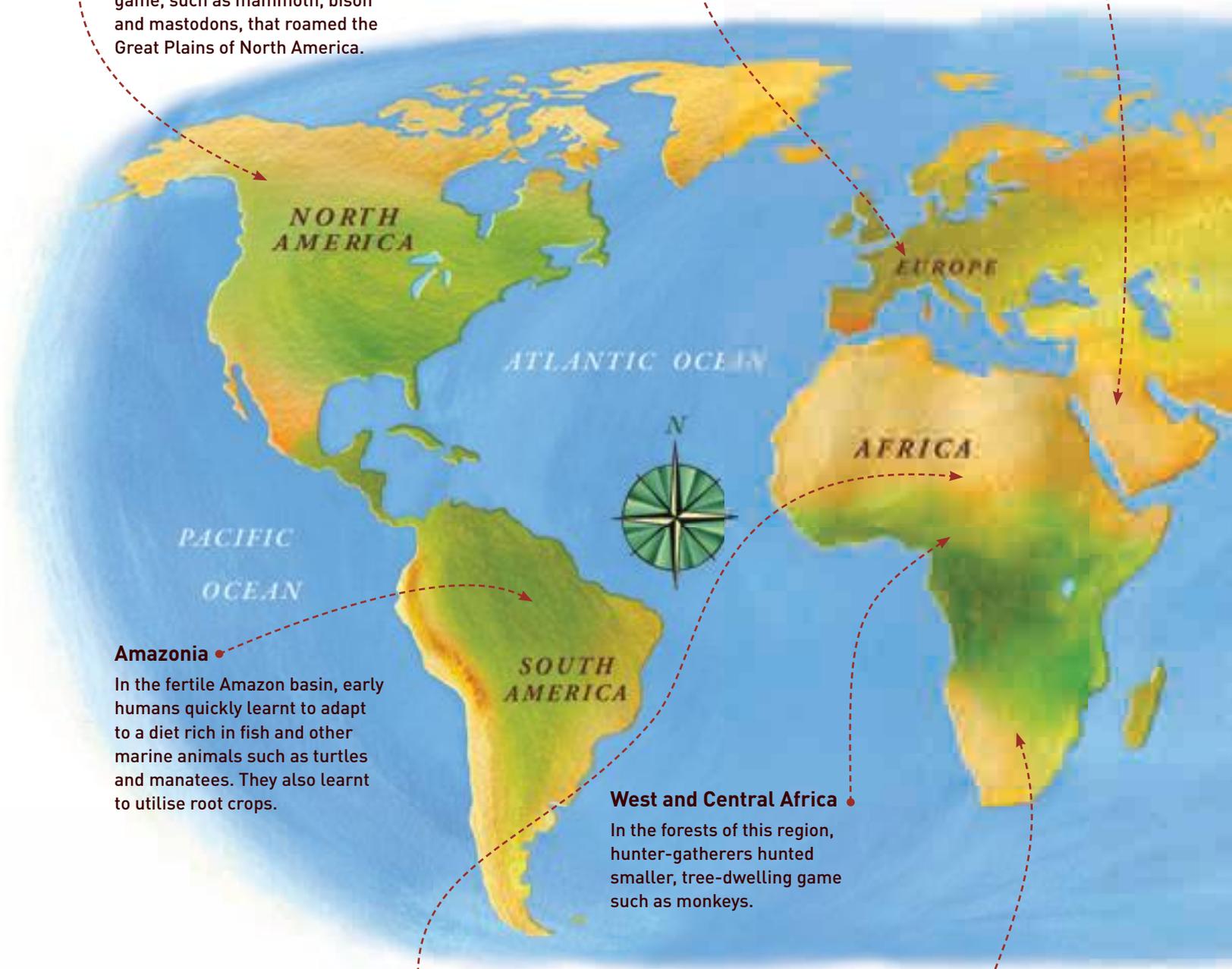
In the forests of this region, hunter-gatherers hunted smaller, tree-dwelling game such as monkeys.

The 'Green Sahara'

From 10 000 BCE to about 4000 BCE, due to the wetter conditions as the last Ice Age was drawing to a close, the Sahara was grassland, rather than desert. This far kinder environment attracted plenty of game such as lions, elephants, rhinoceros, hippopotamus—and, of course, early humans.

Kalahari

Hunter-gatherers in this arid region relied, as they do today, on moving regularly from place to place and foraging for seasonal plants.



Northern Eurasia

As the ice shelf receded due to climatic changes, woolly mammoth and rhinoceros became extinct and were replaced by forest-dwelling game such as deer, wild boar and aurochs. Early hunters rapidly learnt to take advantage of this new, far easier source of food.

Japan

Early humans who migrated here quickly adapted to a marine diet. Shell middens reflect the importance of shellfish in their diet.

ASIA

PACIFIC OCEAN

INDIAN OCEAN

AUSTRALIA



South-East Asia

There is evidence of early *Homo sapiens* both on the mainland and on the islands of South-East Asia. People adapted to hunting either the small game found on the mainland or the marine life that was abundant on the islands.

Australia

Initially, early humans lived along the coast and in the river valleys of Australia. However, as time passed they adapted to the harsh, arid environment of the interior and settled in all parts of the continent.

CASE STUDY: THE LOST LAND UNDER THE NORTH SEA

Today, the North Sea is bounded by the British Isles to the west, northern Europe to the south and Scandinavia to the east and north (see Source 3.5). More than 12 000 years ago, this was a vast landscape that provided a rich abundance of life for hunter-gatherers. It was not just a land bridge between Europe and the British Isles.

People think this was a land bridge across which people roamed to get to Britain, but the truth is very different. The places you wanted to live were the big plains next to the water and the coastline was way beyond where it is now. This was probably a heartland of population at the time ... Some of this land would have made the perfect environment for hunter-gatherers. There is higher land where they could have built their homes and hills they could see their prey from ... This completely transforms how we understand the early history of north-western Europe.

SOURCE 3.4 Professor Vince Gaffney, Director of the Institute of Archaeology and Antiquity and Chair in Landscape Archaeology and Geomatics at Birmingham University, UK, writing on the lost land under the North Sea in the *Guardian* online, 24 April 2007

The lost land under the North Sea has been discovered by geologists and archaeologists from the University of Birmingham, who used 3-D seismic images from exploration of the seabed for oil to 'map the best-preserved prehistoric landscape in Europe'. They named this land 'Doggerland'.

CLIMATE CHANGE CATASTROPHE!

As the world warmed and the last great Ice Age came to an end, the hunter-gatherers of the great North Sea plain would have lost their hunting grounds. Rising water levels due to increasing temperatures and the retreat of glaciers to the north would have flooded the low-lying plains, and the people would have been forced to move to higher ground in all directions. By 6000 BCE the North Sea was formed and Britain was an island.

The fertile prehistoric plain was lost under the sea in the space of 4000 years. At certain times and at

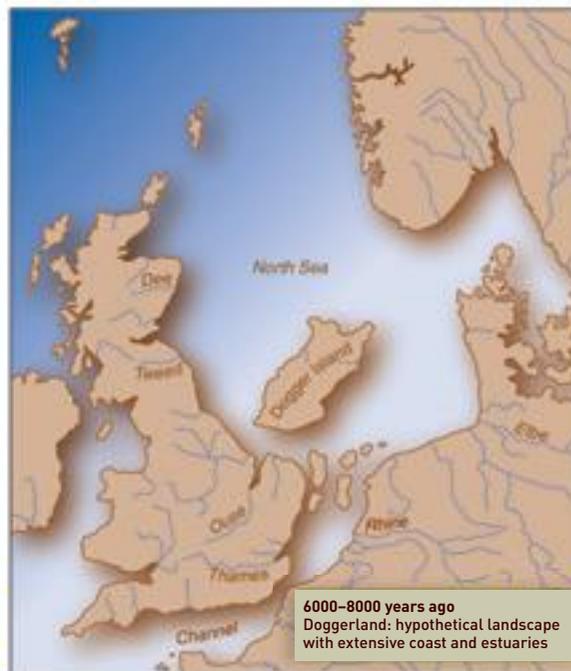
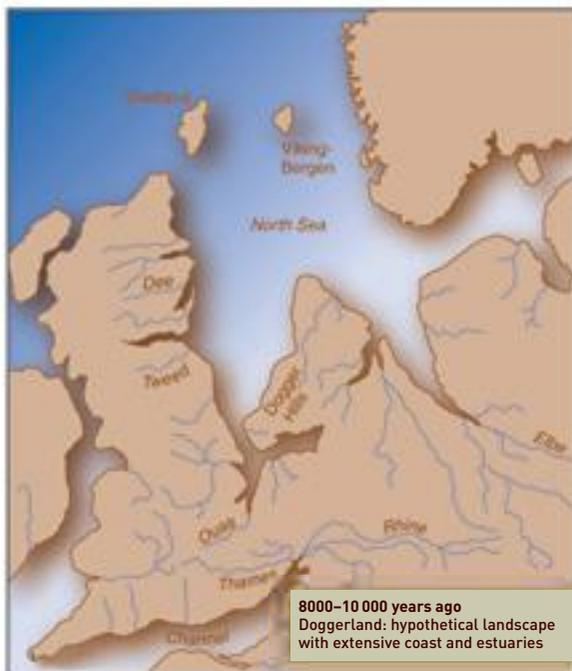
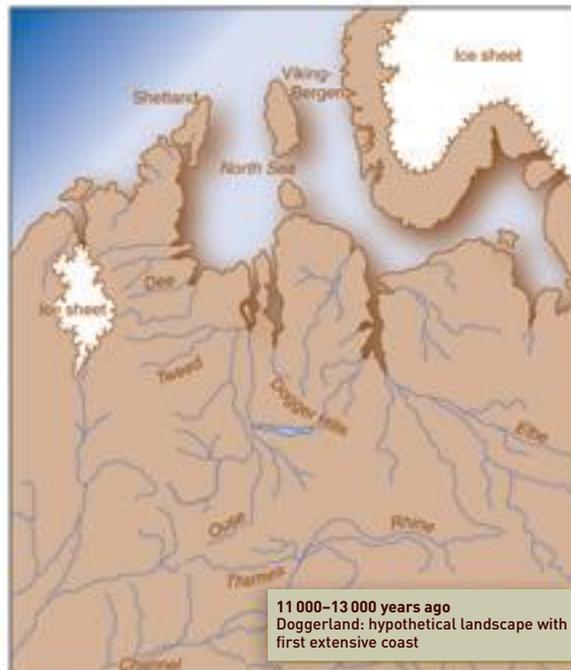
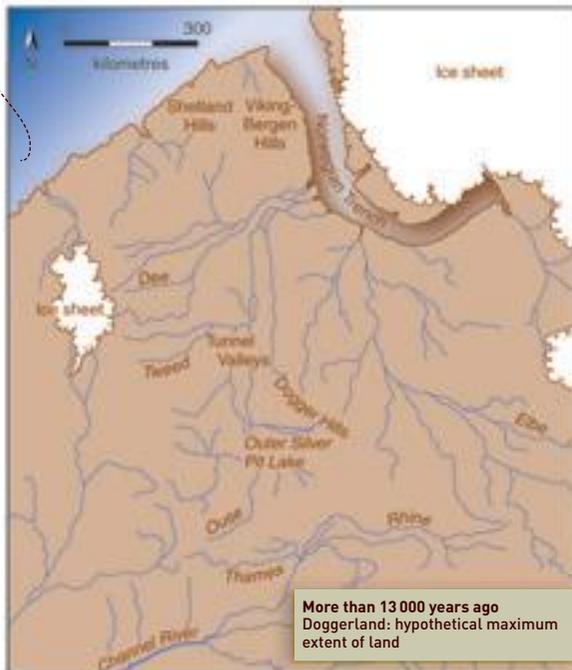
specific locations, however, the flooding may have been far quicker than that, with significant areas disappearing within the memory of a single generation.

Professor Vince Gaffney, the author of Sources 3.4 and 3.6, believes these historical events to be of great importance to us today as the current predicted rate of climate change mirrors the rate of change between 10 000 and 6000 BCE.

SOURCE 3.5 As water levels began to rise in about 10 000 BCE, the coastline of Britain and Europe began to alter.

“At a time when global warming and sea level rise are now accepted as amongst the greatest threats to our lifestyles, the fate of the landscapes and peoples of the North Sea may yet be interpreted not as an academic curiosity but as a significant warning.”

SOURCE 3.6 Professor Vince Gaffney, Director of the Institute of Archaeology and Antiquity and Chair in Landscape Archaeology and Geomatics at Birmingham University, UK, writing on the Birmingham University website



remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Human migration and settlement' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- climatic changes
- hunter-gatherers
- foraged
- nomadic
- Green Sahara

#2 Read the section 'How did they live?' carefully and answer the following questions.

- a What is a hunter-gatherer lifestyle?
- b In either a short paragraph or in a table, outline the different types of environments to which early humans had to adapt and in what ways they made some of those adaptations.

understanding & analysing

#3 What do the remaining geographic areas where hunter-gatherer societies still exist have in common?

understanding, analysing & creating

#4 Using your answer to Question 2, above, create a Venn diagram that compares and contrasts the hunter-gatherer lifestyle and our modern lifestyle. Make sure that you include, among other things, food and diet, shelter, making of artefacts, and family.

SOURCE 3.7 A reconstruction of a mammoth bone house that would have been built by Ice Age mammoth hunters in Ukraine.

- Q 1** What materials do you think the mammoth hunters would have used to cover the bones?
- 2** Why would they have had to do this?



evaluating

#5 At home, choose ten to twenty packaged food items randomly from your pantry or refrigerator and then complete the following tasks.

- a Trace the outline of a world map from this chapter or an atlas, or download a world outline map onto your computer and print it.
- b Label your map with relevant features such as continents, oceans, countries and major cities. Don't forget your BOLTSS.
- c Look at the packaging on your food items to find where in the world they came from. Mark these places on your map and trace a route from there to your home town.
- d How many kilometres did your food have to travel? How does this compare with the distance travelled by food of the hunter-gatherers?

#6 With a partner, carefully read 'Case study: The lost land under the North Sea' and answer the following questions.

- a Why is the discovery of the prehistoric landscape so important? In your answer consider Professor Gaffney's statement that this 'completely transforms how we understand the early history of north-western Europe'.
- b What sorts of experts were required to conduct this study? Why? You may have to undertake some further research to answer these questions fully.
- c What significance do the effects of global warming and the end of the last Ice Age have for us today when we consider our changing environment?

evaluating & creating

#7 In a group of three, carefully read the section 'A very successful way of life'. Conduct further research in the library and on the internet to find out more facts and arguments about this historical hypothesis. Using the information that you have found, prepare a five-minute debate in the style of a television talk show on the topic: *Should modern humans return to the hunter-gatherer way of life?*

The first member of the group should take the affirmative side of the argument, the second member the negative side, and the third member of the group is the host of the television show and adjudicates the discussion.

SOURCE
4.1 A modern-day Tuareg village in Mali, Africa, viewed from the air. The first villages would have looked very much like this one.

- Q**
- 1 What materials do you think have been used to make these houses?
 - 2 What purposes do you think the little round structures might serve?



THE NEOLITHIC REVOLUTION

DID YOU KNOW

THAT WE ARE 99 PER CENT HUNTER-GATHERER?

It is hard to imagine, as we buy our food from supermarkets or online, that for all but the most recent 1 per cent of humankind's history we lived a nomadic life. Where we lived and how we survived was dependent on the seasons, the growth cycles of plants, the movements of big and small game and the ebb and flow of marine life. This all changed with the Neolithic Revolution.

In about 10 000 BCE the last Ice Age came to an end: with global warming, the great ice glaciers of the Northern Hemisphere had receded and a warmer, more hospitable climate and terrain replaced them. Modern humans (*Homo sapiens*) were able to adapt rapidly to this more temperate environment. The most significant way they did this was by altering the way they obtained food. This has become known as the Neolithic Revolution. The hunter-gatherers of the Palaeolithic period adapted to their new environment by becoming farmers and herders. Neolithic humans domesticated animals and plants for their own use. This radically changed the way most people lived, and eventually led to the development of the great civilisations discussed in this book—and thus to our own, modern world.

THE FERTILE CRESCENT

The earliest evidence of the new farming and herding way of life was found in what is known as the 'Fertile Crescent'. This was an area of the Middle East that includes modern-day Turkey, Syria and Iraq. In 1906 CE, an archaeologist named James Henry Breasted from the University of Chicago in the United States of America first used the phrase 'Fertile Crescent' to describe this region. He called it this because of its curved shape on the map and its rich, fertile soil. It is thought that in about 10 000 BCE animals such as sheep and goats, and later pigs, were first tamed when early Neolithic farmers, living close by wild herds of these animals, learnt to control their movements for the benefit of humans.

In a similar way, it is thought that people may have first planted the seeds of grains and cereals, such as einkorn and emmer, in an attempt to maintain their seasonal supply of plants to gather. It is in the Fertile Crescent that archaeologists have found the earliest evidence of settlement, dating from about 9600 BCE onwards. Jericho, Abu Hureya and Göbekli Tepe were all early farming villages in the region.

Archaeological evidence further suggests that the idea for farming developed independently in several places in Asia and the Americas in the period after 10 000 BCE. It is thought that farming spread to Europe and Africa from the Middle East in the same period.

THEORIES ABOUT THE BEGINNINGS OF AGRICULTURE

Theory 1	Climatic changes	As the global climate changed with the ending of the last Ice Age, weather and climate became erratic, with cold snaps or droughts that could last for decades or even centuries. This meant that, to survive, Palaeolithic humans had to take control of their food sources.
Theory 2	Ecological theory	As some food sources, such as wild wheat or goats, became more attractive to early humans, people used them more and more often. Eventually, they cultivated or domesticated these food sources for themselves so that they would always have an established supply.
Theory 3	Social competition	In some hunter-gatherer groups or societies, socially ambitious people would gain status by giving elaborate feasts. Others in the group would feel the need to respond with a great feast of their own. Thus agriculture became necessary to ensure a steady supply of prized foods and drink.
Theory 4	Social and economic factors	Another theory is also related to the fact that some hunter-gatherer bands had become increasingly complex as societies. The archaeological evidence for this is that in the late Palaeolithic period there was an increase in trading of objects between different groups. There is also evidence of the use of richly decorated objects at burials. This would have put pressure on the various Palaeolithic groups to create more surplus goods for trade with their neighbours.
Theory 5	Population pressure	Some experts think that there was a worldwide increase in population and that, as a result, the bands of hunter-gatherers were depleting their food resources too quickly. One way for early humans to respond to this was to start controlling their own food production.



SOURCE
4.2

This map shows the spread of farming. Starting in about 10 000 BCE, many hunter-gatherers gave up their nomadic lifestyle and began to live by farming. The earliest evidence of this trend is found in the Middle East. Archaeological evidence also shows that farming and herding developed independently in other parts of the world from that time onwards.

SOURCE
4.3

It is thought that the flooding of the **Euxine Lake** sometime between 6000 BCE and 5000 BCE caused Neolithic farmers to move northwards into the forested areas of Europe, taking the idea of farming and herding with them.



SOURCE
4.4

The sheep was a wild animal that was domesticated quite early by Neolithic humans, in about 10 000 BCE. Sheep were highly valued for their wool, which was much thicker on the domesticated sheep than on its wild forebears.



SOURCE
4.5

The earliest evidence of cultivation in the Americas has been found in Panama and dates from about 7000 BCE, but it is certain that by 5000 BCE corn or maize was being farmed in **Central America**. It developed from a wild grass called teosinte, which is still found in Mexico. The growing of this crop soon spread throughout the Americas, and Stone Age farmers in both arid and cooler environments developed strains that could flourish in local conditions.



SOURCE
4.6

In the **Andes** of South America, traders domesticated llamas for use as pack animals to carry textiles and other goods for trade between the highlands and the lowlands.



SOURCE
4.7

Sometime before 5000 BCE, potatoes were first domesticated by farmers in the **Andes**. Different varieties were developed that were able to adapt to differing climates throughout the continent.



SOURCE 4.8 In about 10 000 BCE, the wild wheat varieties einkorn and emmer were the first cereals to be domesticated by Neolithic people in south-eastern Turkey.



SOURCE 4.9 Goats were among the first wild animals to be tamed by humans. This took place in about 10 000 BCE in the **Middle East**. Goats are sociable creatures, and it would have been straightforward for early humans to pen entire wild herds. Goats are very hardy and provided their owners with meat, skins, milk and other products.



SOURCE 4.10 Rice was first cultivated in the **Yangzi valley**, China, and in South Asia in about 8500 BCE, and quickly spread throughout the surrounding regions.



SOURCE 4.11 Before 6000 BCE, the wild ox or aurochs, *Bos primigenius*, was domesticated in several parts of the world, including the Green **Sahara** and south-western **Asia**.



SOURCE 4.12 By 6000 BCE, probably because of drought, agriculture and the domestication of cattle began along the Nile. As the Green **Sahara** became more arid in about 5000 BCE, farmers of cereal crops moved south towards the East African highlands. However, it was not until about 1000 BCE that farming became prevalent in the rest of **Africa**.



THE FIRST VILLAGES

The most obvious consequence of the new farming way of life was the advent of permanent settlements, which quickly developed into villages. Early villages usually consisted of huts, of mud brick or other simple construction, crowded together not far from the villagers' fields. Over time, as the community stayed in one place, these huts became sturdier shelters, built using better techniques and making full use of the natural resources available in the area.

The basic diet of people in these early villages comprised grains, such as wheat or rice, and the meat and other produce from their domesticated herds of goats, cattle or sheep. The villagers would sometimes supplement or add to their diet by hunting for wild game and foraging for berries and nuts. As the community now stayed in one place, people were able to store their grain, the foods they collected, and even smoked and cured meat.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT JERICHO MAY BE THE LONGEST CONTINUOUSLY INHABITED SETTLEMENT IN THE WORLD?

Jericho, in the Fertile Crescent—now the West Bank area of the Palestinian Administered Territories—was first settled in about 9600 BCE. Its people lived in houses shaped like beehives. They were built around courtyards with stone foundations, plastered floors and ovens. Archaeological excavations have revealed that Jericho was several times destroyed, then rebuilt in the same place. It gives us a link to the earliest development of village life and is therefore a significant example of the first steps towards developing a **civilisation**, where people live together in large groups and complex arrangements develop.

SOURCE 4.13 Archaeological excavation of Tell Al-Sultan, Jericho, West Bank, showing a preserved wall two metres thick



CONSEQUENCES OF VILLAGE LIFE

One of the outcomes of farming was that it enabled a given geographic area to support more people. This meant that the population of these new settlements grew rapidly. As a result there was less leisure time for most of the new farmers and there was also overcrowding, which led to the easy spread of disease. However, it also made it possible to produce food surpluses, which could be stored for later use or traded for other items.

Not everyone was needed to find food, so some people were able to become specialists at jobs that were not necessarily related to the production of food for the community. In this category were shamans, or early doctors, priests and medicine men, hut and canoe builders, toolmakers and potters.

EARLY RELIGIOUS BELIEFS

Alongside this sense of community came the beginnings of religion. New life was seen as coming from the fertile soil in which crops grew. Ancestor worship came into being: people believed their dead ancestors had the ability to bless the land, ensuring its fertility. There is much archaeological evidence of increasingly elaborate burial rituals, which included objects for the dead person's existence in the afterlife. Neolithic people also celebrated the change of seasons and marked the movements of the Sun, Moon and stars. They did this by conducting ceremonies and festivals at significant times, such as harvest, and the summer and winter solstices (respectively, the longest and shortest days of the year). Across Europe, Neolithic people also built monuments using enormous stones called megaliths. The most famous of these monuments is Stonehenge, in England (see Source 5.14).

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE PEOPLE OF JERICHO BEHEADED THEIR DEAD?

The headless body was buried beneath the floor of the family's home. Relatives then used the skull as the base for a clay model of the dead person's face and buried this in a separate pit.



SOURCE
4.14

This is a shrine figure excavated at 'Ain Ghazal in Jordan.

It is a human-sized, robed ancestral figure, which was placed on a platform in the home. It dates from about 7250 BCE and is now in the National Museum of Jordan in Amman.



- 1 Why do you think the ancestral figure was kept in the home?
- 2 Why do you think it was so large and wore robes?

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TRADE

Trade and the bartering of goods began long before the beginning of farming and the development of permanent settlements. Even nomadic bands of hunter-gatherers were not completely self-sufficient as the areas they commonly visited could not supply all the resources they needed. So communities would set up bartering systems and exchange goods with neighbouring groups. Over time these practices became more complex and widespread. Archaeological evidence for this includes shells from the Black Sea that appear in Ukraine, hundreds of kilometres to the north, dated as early as 18 000 BCE. Most early trade was in grain, building materials and stone for the making of tools.

The development of permanent villages, and then cities, meant that communities were closely tied to their land and the resources it supplied. Thus, certain societies were able to control those resources and trade them for other resources which they themselves lacked. This took place, for example, in Çatalhöyük, a Neolithic village in Turkey of about 7500 BCE, which specialised in trading obsidian, a volcanic glass that was highly valued for making knives and other tools.

SOURCE 4.16 Two of the oldest examples of gold artefacts. These grave ornaments were found in a Neolithic cemetery of more than 200 graves at Varna, Bulgaria. They date from about 5000 BCE and are now in the Varna Museum of Archaeology. One grave contained more than 1000 gold objects.

Q 1 Do you think that the people of Varna imported gold or was it one of their own resources?

2 Why do you think this?



SOURCE 4.15 An obsidian blade from Çatalhöyük, Turkey, from about 7000 BCE

- Q 1** How can you tell that the people of Çatalhöyük were adept toolmakers?
- 2** Why do you think Neolithic people would have found obsidian to be such a valuable material for toolmaking?

In about 5000 BCE, metalworking in copper, gold and silver began in the Middle East, then spread west and north to other parts of the world. As ore outcrops of these metals are unevenly distributed in different geographic areas, items made from them became valuable trade goods. An example of this is what happened in Mesopotamia, or modern-day Iraq and Iran. The people of the Mesopotamian region lacked any metal ore deposits, so they developed a trade in copper and gold from Turkey and the Iranian Plateau in exchange for grain and other goods.

As there were further advances in metalworking—from copper tools to bronze and then iron tools and weapons—trade continued to flourish throughout the Neolithic and ancient world. There was always a society that would trade for the commodities of another, thereby improving the lives of members of both societies.





remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Human migration and settlement' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- civilisation
- Neolithic Revolution
- domesticated
- temperate
- global warming

#2 a What is the 'Fertile Crescent'?

b Who first called it that, and why?

#3 Read 'The Neolithic Revolution' and 'The Fertile Crescent' and examine Source 4.2 carefully, then answer the following questions.

a What happened to the Earth at the end of the last Ice Age?

b How did early humans adapt to these changes?

c Why did Neolithic humans begin to control their food sources?

#4 Read 'The first villages' and 'Consequences of village life' carefully and answer the following question: What were the benefits and pitfalls of this new type of community living?

#5 Read 'Early religious beliefs' and examine Sources 4.14, 4.16 and 5.14. What were the early religious beliefs of Neolithic humans?

remembering, understanding & analysing

#6 Create a three-column table to write your answers to the following question: When and where were the first plants and animals domesticated by humans, and what were they?

analysing & evaluating

#7 Examine the table 'Theories about the beginnings of agriculture' carefully and then rank the theories in order of validity, from the one you think is the most valid to the least valid. Give reasons for your ranking.

#8 Read 'The development of trade' carefully and answer the following questions.

a How did trade develop?

b What benefits were there for communities that engaged in barter and trade?

c What would our society be like if barter and trade had never been developed?

evaluating

#9 Overall, do you think that living in villages was a good or a bad development? Give reasons for your answer.

#10 What do you think were the consequences of the development of a widespread trading system?

analysing & creating

#11 Conduct further research in the library or on the internet to find out more of the sorts of specialist jobs that people in Neolithic societies undertook. Then, either on a piece of A3 paper or using a software program such as Inspiration®, create a concept map to demonstrate the information that you have found.

Place 'Early village life' at the centre of your concept map and give your concept map a suitable title.

You may also include appropriate illustrations.

Include a bibliography on the back of your concept map.

creating

#12 Imagine that you are a hunter-gatherer who has just been 'converted' to the new way of living in one place. You think that this is such a great idea that you want the rest of your tribe to join you in a new village.

a Write a speech to persuade your tribe to join you.

b Deliver your speech to your class. You may wish to use some props to help you be more convincing.

TOOLS & ARTEFACTS OF EARLY SOCIETIES



SOURCE 5.1 A Bronze Age fire-starting kit, from about 1750 BCE. At first, humans probably started to use fire by taking the branches of a tree struck by lightning, but they soon learnt to create fire at will by using tools such as this flint stone.

WE LIVE IN AN AGE OF RAPID CHANGE AND UNPRECEDENTED TECHNOLOGICAL INNOVATION.

IN OUR MODERN WORLD, the people who make breakthroughs in their field are often praised and well rewarded. Yet some of the greatest inventions ever developed occurred in prehistoric times. Nobody knows who first came up with the ideas for the following inventions, but they set humankind on the path to where we are now.

FIRE

Fire was the first great innovation of humankind. It is known that early forms of humans had mastered fire, perhaps as early as 1.8 million years ago and certainly by 500 000 years ago. The ability to create fire at will meant that humans could live in cold environments, protect themselves against predators and cook new foods. Later, people used fire to create clay vessels and work metal, to make tools and artefacts that they could use to improve their lives. There is archaeological evidence that early humans carried toolkits for making fire.

THE NEEDLE

The invention of the needle in about 30 000 BCE was another important technological breakthrough. It allowed the Ice Age people of Europe and Asia to sew 'tailor-made' clothing from cured and softened animal skins. Despite having mastered fire, *Homo sapiens* would never have been able to migrate to the colder regions of the world without this warm clothing. The needles were made from slivers of polished bone or ivory. The hole or eye of the needle was bored with a sharp-pointed flint.



SOURCE 5.2 Bone needles from about 12 500 BCE, found in the cave of Courbet, Penne-Tarn, France, currently in the British Museum.



SOURCE 5.3 A modern sewing needle

A RANGE OF TOOLS AND ARTEFACTS

Early humans were skilful at adapting to the changing environment around them. They were equally adept at using the objects available to them to invent tools and artefacts to improve the quality of their lives. These included weapons for hunting and tools for harvesting to help them survive better, and musical instruments and works of art to enrich their lives.

SOURCE
5.4 A flint axe for harvesting cereal crops, from between 4000 and 2300 BCE. The original flint blade has been attached to a modern handle.

SOURCE
5.5 A flute made from the thigh bone of a young cave bear, from about 45 000 BCE, found in a cave in Divje Babe, western Slovenia, and now in the National Museum of Slovenia in Ljubljana. This is one of the earliest musical instruments known to have been made.

SOURCE
5.6 A spear-thrower carved from a deer antler, in the shape of a mammoth, from about 10 500 BCE, found in a rock shelter at Tarn-et-Garonne, France, and currently in the British Museum

SOURCE
5.7 A stone sculpture with human-like features as well as characteristics, from Lepenski Vir, Serbia, from about 6000 BCE, in the National Museum in Belgrade, Serbia

SOURCE
5.8 Ice Age weapons: a serrated flint, a harpoon made from an antler and a flint point lashed to a wooden handle, from between 18 000 and 10 000 BCE

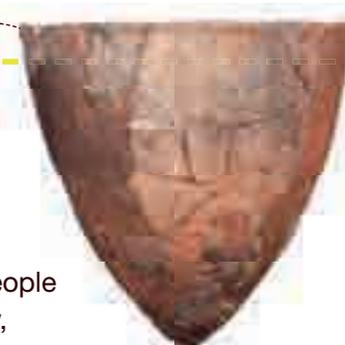


SOURCE
5.10 Jomon pot, from between 2500 and 1500 BCE

SOURCE
5.9 Jomon pot, from between 10 000 and 8000 BCE

POTTERY

By 10 000 BCE, the Jomon people of Japan and, independently, people in Mali, West Africa, were using a potter's wheel to make pots for storing and carrying food and water. This made the new way of life, as farmers settled in villages, much easier. People were now able to stockpile their grains and foods for times of scarcity. It meant that the population of these villages increased as there was often plenty of food for all. It also meant that these communities now had a means of transporting food, and thus could trade their surplus foods for other commodities with neighbouring settlements and, eventually, with more widespread communities.



THE WHEEL

The wheel is thought to have been used first in the Middle Eastern region of Mesopotamia between about 5000 and 4000 BCE. Historians suggest that it developed from the potter's wheel. The invention of the wheel soon led to a transport revolution. It allowed humans to travel greater distances more quickly, and transport goods more easily, than ever before. By 3500 BCE wheeled carts were being used in south-western Asia, and this soon spread to Europe and India. It was not long—about 500 years—before the chariot became a popular mode of transport, especially for armies on the move.

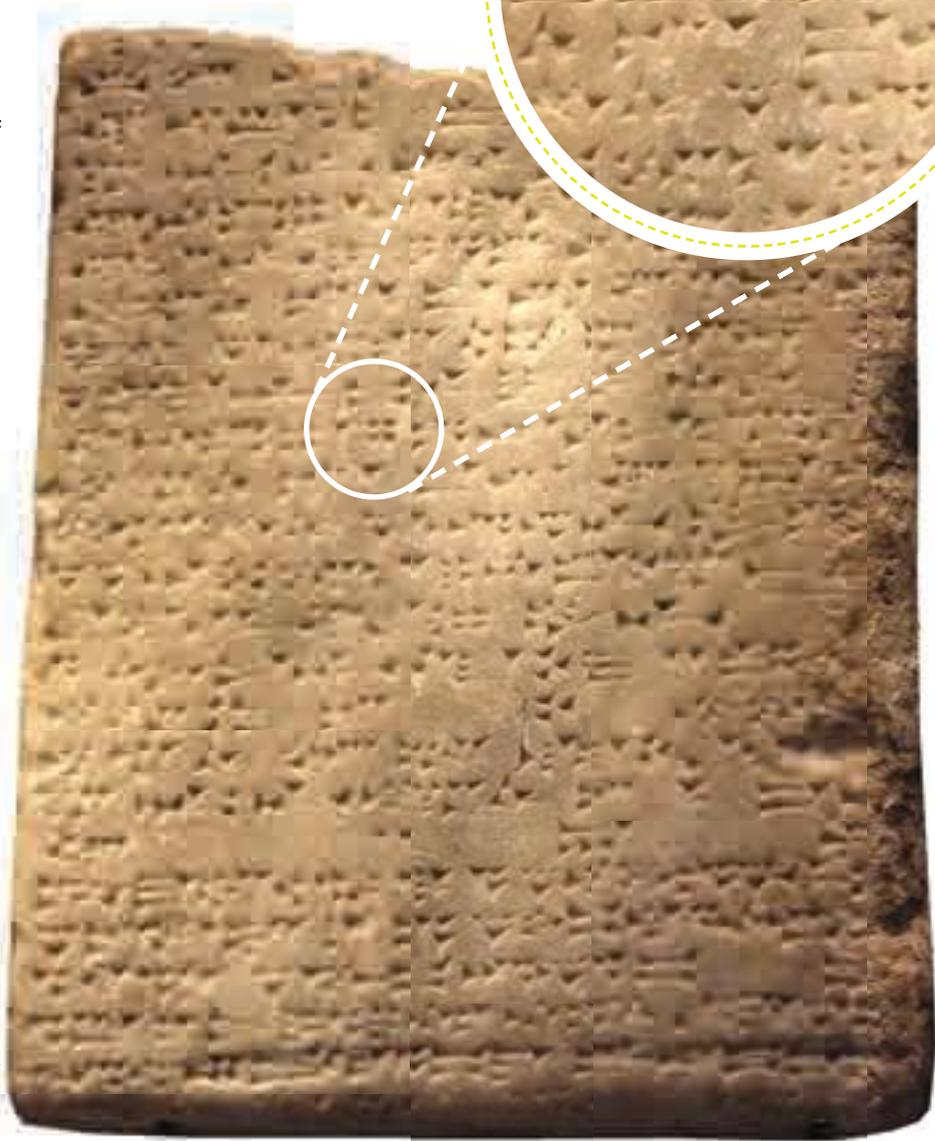


SOURCE
5.11 A terracotta model of a two-wheeled bullock cart from Mohenjo-Daro in the Indus Valley, from about 2500 BCE, in the National Museum of Pakistan, in Karachi

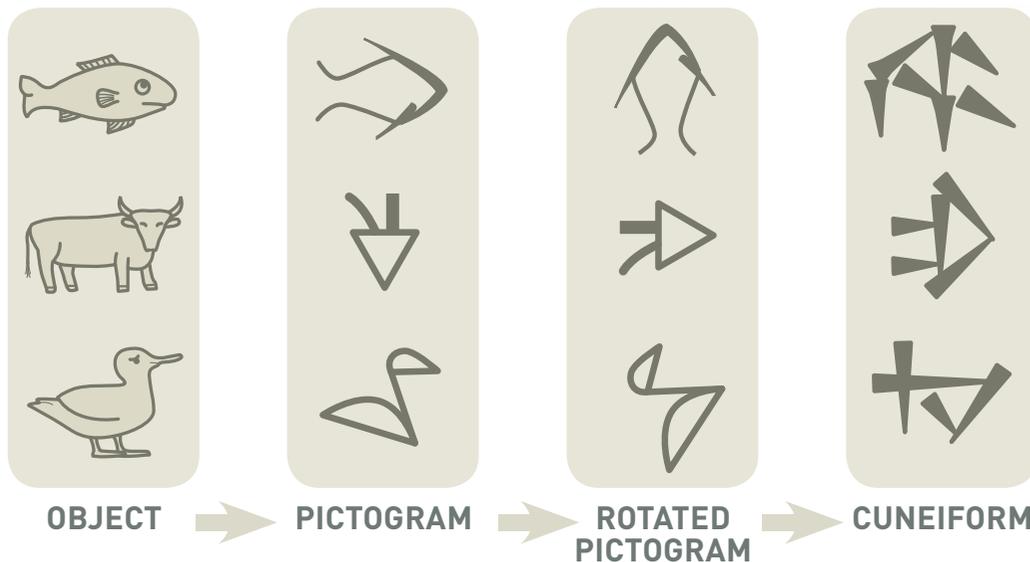
THE FIRST WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

The first cities in Mesopotamia developed from farming villages into city-states that were administered by the priests of the great temples or ziggurats. The priests were responsible for storing grain and other produce and keeping the records of harvests. Initially this was done by using picture writing or pictograms, which represented actual things. Pictograms were the basis for cuneiform writing, which was in use as early as 3250 BCE.

Cuneiform writing eventually became a system of wedge-shaped marks pushed into clay tablets using a stylus made from a reed. Important tablets were then baked and kept in huge libraries in the cities of Mesopotamia, including Nippur and Uruk. Cuneiform represented not only actual objects and words, but also syllables and abstract ideas. Cuneiform writing spread to other ancient societies and was in use for more than 3000 years.



SOURCE 5.12 An example of cuneiform writing on a clay tablet



SOURCE 5.13 Development of cuneiform writing

NEOLITHIC MONUMENTS

As part of the early Neolithic people's desire to worship their ancestors and also to celebrate the seasons and the Sun, Moon and stars, huge monuments were built. The most well known of these are the henge monuments. These first appeared in about 3200 BCE across France, England and Scotland, probably because stone was more readily available for construction in these areas. Stonehenge, in the south-west of England, is the most famous of all the Neolithic henge monuments. It was an amazing feat of engineering for these early humans. The original eighty-two bluestone megaliths, which weighed around 4 tonnes each, were transported nearly 400 kilometres from Wales. It has been estimated that it took more than thirty million hours of labour to build Stonehenge. It is thought that it was built to worship the Sun and the Moon.

SOURCE 5.14 Stonehenge, on Salisbury Plain in the United Kingdom, was built between 3000 and 1500 BCE.

1
UNDERSTANDING & APPLYING

Examine Source 5.1 carefully. What do you think are the four components required for making fire?

To find out more, you can do more research in the library or on the internet.

2
APPLYING, ANALYSING & CREATING

Read 'The needle' carefully and examine Sources 5.2 and 5.3, then answer the following questions.

- What is significant about these examples of needles?
- Think about a modern electric sewing machine. Is its needle any different? Explain.
- In what ways has our clothing changed since the Ice Ages? Create a Venn diagram to illustrate the differences and similarities between clothing in the Ice Ages and clothing today.



SOURCE
5.15

A scene from the Sumerian Royal Standard of Ur, from about 2600 BCE, showing a wagon with solid wheels. The standard is held in the British Museum.



3 APPLYING & ANALYSING

Read 'A range of tools and artefacts' and examine Sources 5.4 to 5.8 carefully, then answer the following questions.

- The flute is made from the bone of a cave bear. What other materials did early humans have from which to make musical instruments? Conduct further research to find out what other musical instruments Stone Age humans made.
- Do you think that the three Ice Age weapons show a progression in toolmaking? Explain your answer.
- What reasons could the maker of this spear-thrower have for carving it in the shape of a mammoth?
- What does the stone sculpture suggest to you about the lives of the people of Lepenski Vir?
- To what later implement for harvesting grain, which is still in use in some parts of the world today, is this flint axe a forerunner?

4 APPLYING & CREATING

Read 'Neolithic monuments' and examine Source 5.14 carefully. Then use the internet to conduct more research on Stonehenge and create a tourist brochure on this Neolithic site. You can do this by entering 'Stonehenge' into a search engine such as Google or Yahoo, and you could create the brochure either on paper or on a computer using a software program such as Microsoft® Publisher.

5 ANALYSING & EVALUATING

Read 'The wheel' and examine Sources 5.11 and 5.15 carefully, then answer the following questions.

- Why do you think the wheels in Sources 5.11 and 5.15 were solid?
- What improvements have been made to the design of the wheel in the past 2500 years?

6

Read 'The first written communication' and examine Sources 5.12 and 5.13 carefully, then answer the following questions.

- Why do you think pictograms evolved into cuneiform writing?
- What were the drawbacks of this ancient form of writing? What improvements have been made to writing, and writing implements, over the millennia?

7

Read 'Pottery' and examine Sources 5.9 and 5.10 carefully, then answer the following questions.

- Why do you think the pot in Source 5.9 has a pointed bottom?
- Examine the differences in design between the two pots. What might be some reasons for these differences?

LEGACIES AND CONNECTIONS TO...

UNIT 6

WE ARE ALL RELATED

SOURCE 6.1 Glacial landscape, Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, China

SOURCE 6.2 These four people can all trace their ancestry back to one of the 1000 or so first migrants from Africa.

Q Which continent might now be home to each person?

According to the most recent genetic studies of mitochondrial DNA (which has been passed down from mother to child since the first *Homo sapiens*), all people are descended from an 'African Eve' who lived in approximately 150 000 BCE. Later, between 100 000 and 60 000 BCE, about 1000 people migrated out of Africa and their descendants populated the rest of the world.

This means that everyone outside the African continent can trace their genes back to these 1000 or so people, and all humans can trace their genes back to the 'African Eve'. It also means that the genetic code of all humans throughout the entire world is 99.9 per cent identical. The differences in the way people look, such as their facial features, their eye, hair and skin colouring and their height, are due to minor genetic alterations that have taken place over the past 150 000 years.



THE SPREAD OF IDEAS

Similarities and connections between the societies of the Stone Age world were strengthened by the development of trade and trading routes. As goods were traded from one community to another, new ideas and inventions went with them—concepts such as written communication, when cuneiform writing spread from Sumer in Mesopotamia from about 3000 BCE via its trading partners of Babylonia and Assyria; and inventions such as the wheel, which also originated in Mesopotamia, between about 5000 and 4000 BCE.

FROM VILLAGE TO CITY

By 9600 BCE, village life was well established in the Middle East and, as the centuries passed, in many other agricultural communities across the globe. Farming communities became larger and grew into villages, then towns and, eventually, cities. It was no longer necessary for everyone to be involved in the production of food. Community members began to specialise in certain jobs, such as toolmaking or being the village leader or religious leader. So different classes in society began to form, and eventually there came to be a social divide between those who led the village and those who were ruled by them. Thus a hierarchical society developed, with a smaller, elite ruling class and a far larger working class. The basis for modern societies was formed.

MAJOR CIVILISATIONS GROW

In ancient times, several quite advanced societies developed in different parts of the world. These ancient civilisations made great achievements in areas such as learning and culture, art and architecture, engineering, technological invention, government, agriculture and trade. Much of our modern way of life can be traced all the way back to the achievements of these ancient civilisations.

- Within Mesopotamia, the region we know today as Iraq and some of its neighbours, distinct civilisations arose in Sumer (3800–1750 BCE), Assyria (2000–609 BCE) and Babylonia (1696–639 BCE).
- Based around the Nile River, the civilisation of Ancient Egypt (3000–30 BCE) was made up of many different social classes and governed by the wealthy, supremely powerful pharaoh.
- In Persia, today's Iran, two ancient cultural groups, the Medes and the Persians, were brought under the control of the Achaemenid dynasty that ruled the Persian Empire (550–331 BCE).
- The Minoan and Mycenaean civilisations were the early societies of Ancient Greece (2000–146 BCE), where the rival city-states of Athens and Sparta later fought wars against each other.
- Building one of the mightiest empires in history was a major feature of Ancient Rome (753 BCE – 476 CE), whose official language, Latin, greatly influenced later languages, including English.
- Because of its geography, Ancient China (2205 BCE – 220 CE) was more isolated from other parts of the world, but it became one of the most advanced civilisations in ancient times.
- Ancient India (2600 BCE – 415 CE), in parts of today's India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, combined the Indus Valley and Aryan civilisations and over the centuries developed complex spiritual ideas.
- In parts of what is known as Mesoamerica (Mexico, Guatemala, Belize, El Salvador and Honduras) the highly developed Ancient Maya civilisation (300 BCE – 900 CE) was made up of several city-states.

THAT SEA LEVELS FELL 90 METRES DURING THE LAST ICE AGE?

The big chill of the last Ice Age, which is thought to have been due to minute shifts in the Earth's axis, caused some of the water in Earth's vast oceans to freeze, forming the Arctic and Antarctic ice caps. Underwater landmasses were exposed, linking existing landmasses. Siberia was connected to Alaska, Britain to mainland Europe, and only short expanses of open water separated South-East Asia from New Guinea and Australia. The scene was set for the global movement of *Homo sapiens*.

MAJOR RELIGIONS AND PHILOSOPHIES EMERGE

The ancient world was also where the major religions and philosophies emerged and developed as people sought to further understand the world around them.

- Judaism traces its origins to the Hebrews, who lived in Mesopotamia before migrating west into present-day Israel in about 2000 BCE. According to Jewish tradition the prophet Moses, with God's help, led the Jewish people out of slavery in Egypt in about the thirteenth century BCE. In gratitude, these people agreed to serve God and each other. Moses received from God a set of commandments that became the foundation of Jewish law, known as the Torah.
- Hinduism developed from the religious practices of Ancient Indians during the early Vedic period around 1400 BCE. It was based on the sacred books called the Vedas, which were written down in about 600 BCE. The Indo-Aryans worshipped many gods, and ordinary people worshipped in their homes. Holy men or Brahmans became a very important and powerful social class.
- In about 700 BCE, many Indian wise men began to question the authority of the Brahmans. Their ideas were written down in the Vedanta Upanishads. Buddhism was founded during the time of the Vedanta Upanishads, in about 530 BCE, by an Indian prince called Siddhartha Gautama. Siddhartha left his family and wealth to seek enlightenment or nirvana. Once he had achieved this, he became known as Buddha. At the heart of Buddha's philosophy were the Four Noble Truths:
 - Suffering is inevitable.
 - Ignorance is the basic cause of suffering.
 - Any ailment, when understood, can be cured.
 - There is an eightfold path to the elimination of suffering.
- Confucius (551–479 BCE) was a Chinese scholar. The philosophical questions that most interested him were how a person could live a better life and how to create a good society ruled by a good government. Confucianism was the most influential philosophy in China from the time of the Han dynasty (202 BCE – 220 CE) until the Communist era began in modern China in 1949 CE.
- Christianity began as a Jewish movement; its key figure is a man named Jesus, who lived in what is now Israel between 4 BCE and 33 CE. Christians believe that any person can enter heaven if they are prepared to turn away from sin and that God forgives those who seek forgiveness from him.
- In a part of the Middle East then known as Arabia, in about 610 CE, the religion of Islam was born. Islam consists of a set of basic beliefs, a set of basic duties and a body of principles—for example, that there is one God, who is unique, and that it is important to achieve social justice. These principles are derived from the Qur'an, which Muslims believe is the word of God as it was revealed to the prophet Muhammad.

TIME TO THINK ...

1

EVIDENCE

- a The time period we are examining in this chapter is tens of thousands years ago. Yet we seem to have a lot of information about our early ancestors which allows us to hypothesise about their way of life. Do you think that all of this information is accurate? Why or why not?
- b How could we find out more?

2

MOVEMENT OF PEOPLES

Why is it important to know how and why our ancestors migrated across the globe?

3

PROBLEM SOLVING AND TRANSFORMATION OF THE ENVIRONMENT

- a What do you think was the greatest achievement of early humans in adapting to their environment?
- b To ensure survival, what changes did they have to make to themselves? To their environment?

4

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

- a What do you think we still have in common with our early human ancestors?
- b What differences are there?

INQUIRY

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU ANSWER THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS FROM THE START OF THE CHAPTER.

TASKS

#1 homicide detective

In 1991 the preserved body of a Neolithic man was found frozen in a glacier

(see Source 7.1). It has been dated to around 3350 BCE. The man was given the nickname 'Ötzi the Iceman' because he was found in the Ötztal Alps near the border between Italy and Austria. Archaeologists and scientists have discovered that Ötzi was murdered!

You are a homicide detective with Interpol and it is your job to investigate Ötzi's life and death. Conduct thorough research in the library and on the internet to prepare a report for your superior, which details:

- how Ötzi lived
- how he died
- who might have murdered him.

#3 trace your ancestors

You and a friend have been asked to trace the migration of ten members of your class back to their origins in Africa.

Using an atlas, Source 1.1 and your own research, mark on a map of the world the route that your ten subjects' ancestors took in getting from Africa in prehistoric times to Australia today. Use a different colour for each person.

What conclusions can you come to about how each person's family arrived here?

Write your answer in a short paragraph, either below your map or on the back of the map.

#2 town planner

The year is 9000 BCE and you are a town planner from Mesopotamia. You have travelled to Jericho to find out how its people live. This is so that you can take ideas back to the people of your community, who are thinking of shifting to this new way of living: farming.

You plan to take back a well-illustrated and labelled poster with diagrams, maps and tables.

Information on your poster should include:

- the layout of Jericho
- how its people live
- what crops they farm
- what sort of livestock they breed
- interviews with people who live in Jericho
- how successful an enterprise this has been for the people.

#4 environmental genius

You are an environmental engineer

who has made major breakthroughs in changing environments to improve them for humans. The people of the Sahara have finally had enough of living in a desert. They want to return it to its state as the Green Sahara, as it was from about 10 000 BCE until about 4000 BCE. Before they commit to this very expensive project and ask you to effect this change, they would like an understanding of what the Green Sahara was actually like.

Prepare a report that outlines the pros and cons of such a project.

Remember, however, that you have a vested interest in persuading the people of the Sahara that this project would be a good thing to do. (This means that you are biased because you want your company to get the job!) You should therefore complete your report with a persuasive summary that will encourage them to commit to the project.

#5 Guinness World Records

You are an official adjudicator for Guinness World Records and you have been asked to write a page for the 'Science and technology' section of the latest edition. Your page is to be titled 'The greatest inventions and artefacts of the Stone Age'.

Using the sources in the source study as a starting point, decide which inventions or artefacts you will include on your page.

For each one you need to include:

- a heading
- an illustration
- a description and history
- an explanation of why it is included on the page, including what importance it has for us today.

#6 social anthropologist

Social anthropology is the study of human societies. Some social anthropologists do this by living as a member of that society.

You are a social anthropologist who has been asked to investigate how people lived in either the Old Stone Age (Palaeolithic) or the New Stone Age (Neolithic).

To do this, you and your colleagues have 're-created' either a nomadic Palaeolithic community or a Neolithic village. (You will do this through research in the library and on the internet.) You have lived as Stone Age people for several months.

Now, you and your partners have been asked to give an oral presentation between five and ten minutes long to your class.

For your oral presentation you need to prepare:

- a map of either of the following:
 - the nomadic route your Palaeolithic community took to its hunting and gathering sites
 - your Neolithic village
- illustrations or images of your hunting and gathering sites or your village, and of the tools and artefacts that you used in your daily life
- a journal consisting of at least five entries recording your experiences
- a Venn diagram that compares and contrasts Stone Age life with modern life
- a speech five to ten minutes long that outlines:
 - your experiences
 - what you have learnt about Stone Age life
 - comparisons and contrasts with life today.



SOURCE
7.1 'Ötzi the Iceman', a Neolithic man whose frozen body was found in 1991 in the Ötztal Alps, near the border between Italy and Austria. His body and numerous fragments of his clothing and equipment were recovered from a deep gully which had lain beneath a glacier for more than 5000 years. Ötzi now rests in a refrigerated room in the South Tyrol Museum of Archaeology in Bolzano, Italy.

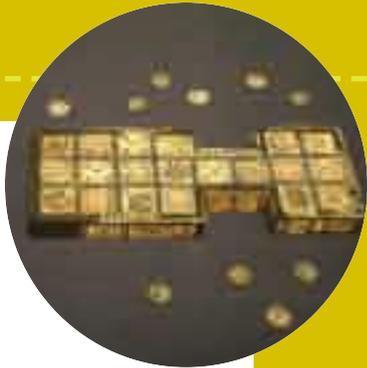
KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How did the Sumerian civilisation develop?

What were the features and core beliefs of Sumerian society?

How has archaeology allowed us to gain a clear understanding of Sumerian culture?

What was the contribution of Sumer to later civilisations?



Archaeological excavations

in modern-day Iraq have revealed a picture of an amazingly advanced ancient civilisation, which we know as Sumer. Between 3800 and 1750 BCE these intelligent and inventive people developed a complex society with flourishing cities that were among the first in the world.

FIRST CIVILISATION:



S

U

M

E

R



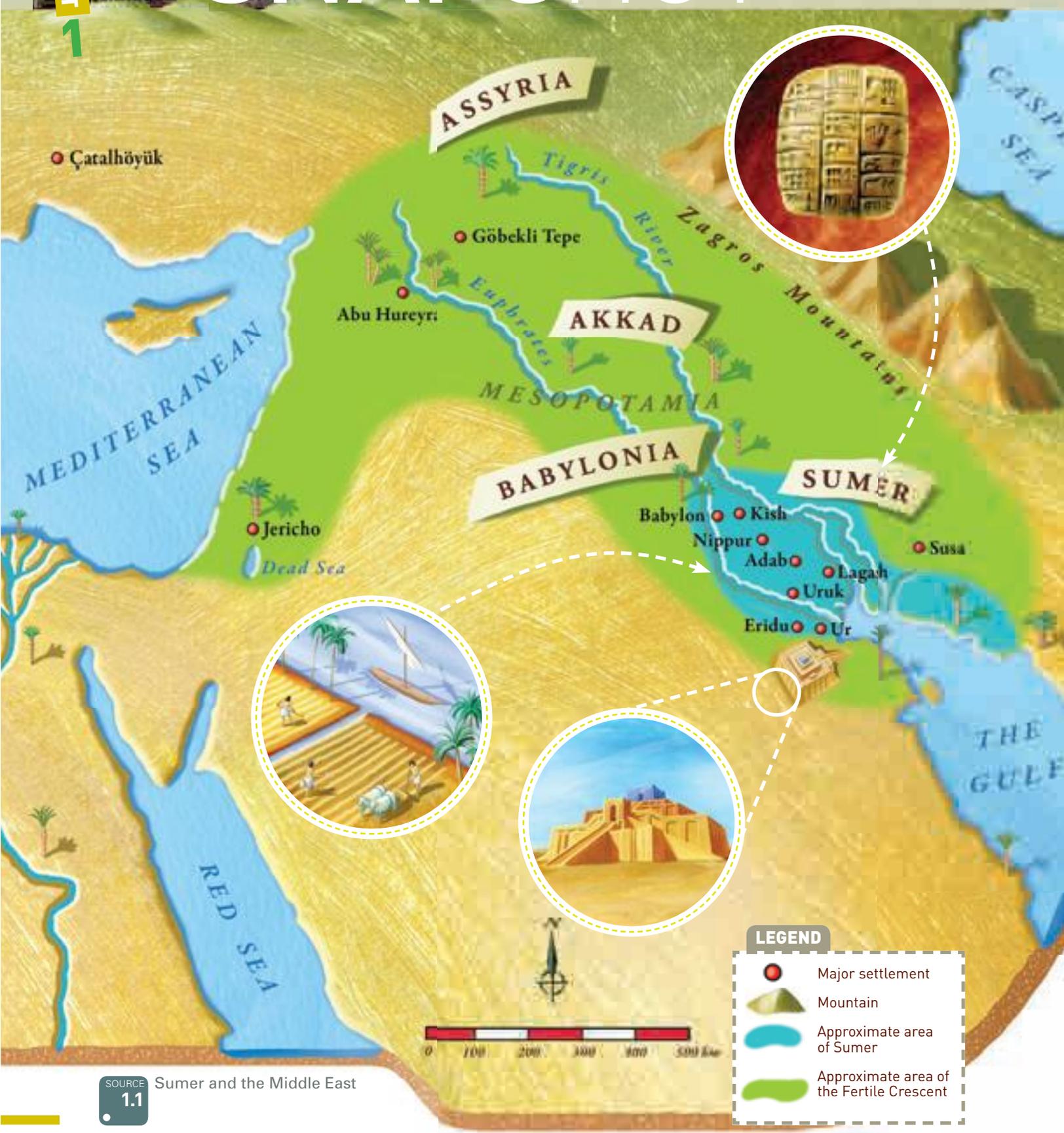
SOURCE
0.1 The imposing Ziggurat of Ur, near Nasiriyah, Iraq. The facade was rebuilt in the 1980s.



UNIT

1

SNAPSHOT



SOURCE 1.1 Sumer and the Middle East

1.1



6000 BCE

3800 Early evidence of Sumerian civilisation

3000 BCE

2900 City-states such as Ur, Uruk, Kish, Mari and Luk emerge

2750 The legendary Gilgamesh possibly reigned in this period

2500 BCE

2371 Sargon founds Akkadian Empire

2150 Fall of Akkad; *Epic of Gilgamesh* possibly written?

2125 Sumerian king list is possibly inscribed on clay tablets

2112 Ur-Nammu becomes king of Ur

2095 Shulgi becomes king of Ur

2000 BCE

1894 Sumuabum founds First Dynasty of Babylon

1792 Reign of Hammurabi begins; code of laws appears

1595 Hittites sack Babylon

1500 BCE

SOURCE 1.2 Timeline of Sumer

6000–3000 BCE
Prehistoric cultures

3000–2300 BCE
Early Dynastic period

2250–2120 BCE
Gutian period

2112–2004 BCE
Third Dynasty of Ur

1894–1595 BCE
First Dynasty of Babylon

THE LAND BETWEEN THE RIVERS

Sumerian culture arose in the region known as Mesopotamia, or ‘the land between the rivers’. Flowing from the mountains to the north, the Tigris and Euphrates rivers deposited vast amounts of rich alluvial soil, or **silt**, across the **floodplains** where Sumer was situated. This fertile soil became the basis for Sumer’s thriving farms. The rivers, however, were subject to irregular flooding. The Sumerians discovered ways of controlling these floods using canals, levees and reservoirs. These devices also provided water for the **irrigation** of crops during the hot, dry summers.

Sumer also lay on the one of the great trade routes of the ancient world. Its rivers and waterways were important transport routes for trade caravans between east and west, which brought goods such as timber from surrounding lands. In exchange, Sumer exported manufactured luxury items such as jewellery. Trade became a very important source of wealth for Sumerian cities.

SEPARATE CITIES

The Sumerians all spoke the same language, worshipped the same gods and followed similar lifestyles but, unlike Egypt, Sumer did not become a united people or country. Its cities were independent city-states, frequently at war with one another. Sometimes alliances were formed between cities and from time to time a city managed to become stronger than neighbouring cities. Eventually, however, Sumer was absorbed into the territories of foreign empires.

ABUNDANT EVIDENCE

Archaeologists and historians are able to draw conclusions about Sumer because of the amount of evidence available. A very important source is the **cuneiform** writing developed by the Sumerians. Thousands of clay tablets with cuneiform script reveal detailed information about almost every aspect of Sumerian life. Excavations such as those of the Royal Tombs of Ur have yielded extraordinary artefacts that show the richness of life in Sumer.

SOURCE 2.1 This stone bas-relief from the Palace of Sargon, in present-day Khorsabad, Iraq, shows timber being unloaded from boats. The carving is in the Louvre Museum, Paris.

Q Describe what you can see on this bas-relief.



CITIES, WEALTH & KINGS

DID YOU KNOW

THAT SOME SUMERIAN KINGS RULED FOR THOUSANDS OF YEARS ... EACH!

The Sumerian king list is an ancient text inscribed on clay tablets. It dates from about 2125 BCE and records the names of Sumerian kings, the cities they ruled and for how long they ruled. Alulim of Erigug is listed as ruling for 28 800 years and Jurur of Kic for 1200 years! The only female ruler recorded, Kug-bau of Kic, is listed as ruling for 100 years. Why do you think such unbelievably long reigns would be listed?

CITIES

Sumerian cities were usually surrounded by a high stone wall to fend off attack from their neighbours. The main building in the city was the temple, or **ziggurat**, built for the city's main god. Courts and public buildings surrounded the temples.

Over the centuries, the cities grew with little planning. There were some wide streets and perhaps a town square near the temple, but the rest of the city was a maze of narrow streets and alleyways. Streets were unpaved, dusty and filled with rubbish. There was no drainage and mud filled the streets and lanes when it rained. Houses were made of **mud brick** and crowded together with shared walls.

Some cities became quite large. Uruk, the oldest city, reached a population of more than 20 000 people.

FARMING AND TRADE

Sumer was a farming society. Farmers conquered the dry climate and barren landscape through their great skill in irrigation. With this skill and with the help of inventions such as the plough, Sumerian farms yielded a surprisingly wide variety of food. They supported the growing populations in the cities.

Trade was an important source of wealth, and cities competed for control of the trade routes. There were very few natural resources in Sumer. Traders set off in all directions in search of precious materials. Their trade extended from the Indus Valley in the east to the Mediterranean Sea in the west.

Cities became centres of production. Luxury goods such as jewellery were manufactured and exported in payment for raw materials. Luxury goods were also enjoyed by wealthy local people.



SOURCE 2.2 A gold dagger and sheath from the Royal Tombs of Ur in the National Museum of Iraq, Baghdad

KINGS

In the early years temples held the political and economic power. As cities extended over surrounding farmland, and wealth through trade increased, political control grew more complex. Increasingly, **city-states** were ruled by kings or warlords. The Sumerians believed that kingship was a gift of the gods, so the king was both leader and chief priest. With warfare between cities a frequent occurrence, the king was also expected to be a military leader.



SOURCE 2.3 Intensive farming in Sumer may have looked like this scene, in present-day Iraq.

*I, Shulgi, a mighty man from the day I was born,
A fierce-eyed lion born of a dragon am I,
King of the four corners of the Universe am I,
Herdsman, shepherd of the blackheads am I,
The trustworthy, the god of all the lands am I,
The son born of Ninsun am I,
Called to the heart of holy Anu am I,
He who was blessed by Enlil am I.*

SOURCE 2.4 From 'Hymn of praise to Shulgi'. Shulgi was king of Ur from 2095 to 2047 BCE. Ninsun, Anu and Enlil were Sumerian gods. From S. N. Kramer, *History Begins at Sumer*, University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1981.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 In your workbook or in a Microsoft® Word document or Excel® file on your computer, create a 'First civilisation: Sumer' glossary. Begin your glossary by listing these key words and phrases and explaining their meanings:

- bas-relief
- city-states
- cuneiform
- floodplains
- irrigation
- mud brick
- silt
- ziggurat

#2 What do we learn about Sumerian trade from Sources 2.1 and 2.2?

#3 Read Source 2.4 again and answer the following questions.

- a** How does Shulgi show that he is a great and strong king?

- b** What two main features of Sumerian kingship are demonstrated in these lines?

applying & analysing

#4 How would the intensive farming shown in Source 2.3 affect the quality of the soil?

evaluating

#5 What health problems might people living in a Sumerian city-state have experienced?

analysing & creating

#6 Using information in this unit and your own research, create a half-page map of a Sumerian city. Label the main features of your city.

SOURCE 3.1 This clay tablet dating from about 2600 BCE in the National Museum of Iraq, Baghdad, is from the region of Ur and shows offerings being made to a deity.

- Q** 1 Which figure is the deity or god on the clay tablet? Why do you think this?
- 2 What sorts of offerings are being made to the deity?

DAILY LIFE & RELIGION

127 *If any one 'point the finger' at a sister of a god or the wife of any one, and can not prove it, this man shall be taken before the judges and his brow shall be marked [by cutting the skin, or perhaps hair].*

134 *If any one be captured in war and there is not sustenance in his house, if then his wife go to another house this woman shall be held blameless.*

SOURCE 3.2 Laws from the Code of Hammurabi, trans. L. W. King, on the Exploring Ancient World Cultures website. This set of 282 laws made by King Hammurabi of Babylon, who reigned from about 1792 to 1750 BCE, was carved in stone and set up in a temple.

FAMILIES AND MARRIAGE

In a Sumerian family, the father enjoyed a privileged position. A husband could divorce his wife very easily. He also had the right to take a second wife if his first wife was not able to bear a child. Children were generally loved and cared for, but could also be sold into slavery to repay a debt.

Although women did enjoy some rights, they were not equal to men. They could own property, buy and sell goods, be involved in legal issues and run their own business. If a woman worked outside the home, her job would be related to what she had learnt in the home. She might, for instance, sell beer she had made or become an innkeeper.

Girls were brought up to follow the traditional roles of wife, mother and homemaker.

EDUCATION

Children of the poor worked beside their parents from a young age. Only the sons of wealthy people attended school. Very few girls, if any, received an education.

Gaining an education mainly involved learning the cuneiform writing script. This was a very difficult system and took many years of hard work to master. If a student could tolerate the harsh discipline, the long days from sunrise to sunset, and was successful in his studies, he could become a scribe. This was a very important role, as scribes recorded all aspects of life in Sumer.

HOMES

Houses in the cities were built close together, usually sharing walls with their neighbours. Doors and windows were small to keep houses warm in winter and cool in summer.

The houses of the poor were simple mud-brick dwellings. An inner, enclosed courtyard was a centre of family life and offered cool relief during the hot summers. Flat roofs were also used as a place for family life and as a cool sleeping area during hot summer nights.



SOURCE
3.3 Clay model of a Sumerian house, from about 2000 BCE, in the Rosicrucian Egyptian Museum, San Jose, USA

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE SUMERIANS BURIED THEIR DEAD UNDER THEIR OWN HOMES?

Family burials were made in a brick vault under the floor of the chapel or, in a house without a chapel, under any ground-floor room. Adults were wrapped in matting to be buried, and children who had died were often placed in clay jars.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE SUMERIANS HAD RECIPE BOOKS?

Archaeologists have found many clay tablets containing Sumerian recipes. A favourite dish was goat stew. Poorer families did not often slaughter a goat because the live animal was important to them for its milk. When they did, all parts of the animal would be used in the dish—head, legs, tail and blood.

The houses of wealthy Sumerians were larger, sometimes with a second storey. A water container was placed near the door so that people could wash the dirt of the street from their feet before they entered the house. Also built around a courtyard, these spacious houses had reception rooms, a kitchen, an oven for baking bread and sometimes a small chapel. There was a lavatory with drainage but not many houses had a bathroom.

There was very little furniture in Sumerian homes. The home of a wealthy person would have wall-hangings and floor rugs as well as some wooden furniture. Wood was rare and highly valued. Dishes, bowls, cups and goblets were made of clay or copper.

LIFESTYLE

The Sumerians appear to have enjoyed a wide variety of foods as well as an active lifestyle. Fish were plentiful and wild animals were hunted for meat. Wealthy people enjoyed cheese and butter, wine, meat from sheep and goats, fruit, vegetables, herbs and dates. Barley, bread and beer were the main foods of poorer people.

Sumerians played sports and games. They particularly enjoyed playing board games. There was also hunting, fishing, boxing and wrestling.

Numerous musical instruments have been found in royal burial sites, indicating that music was also popular with Sumerians. Evidence shows a variety of instruments including the harp, reed pipes, drums and lyre.

DID YOU KNOW

SUMERIAN MEDICINE

If they became ill or suffered an injury, Sumerians could seek treatment from a healer. Some treatments, such as the driving out of evil spirits, were of a religious nature. Practical treatment could also be prescribed, and Sumerian clay tablets contain some of the world's oldest medical texts.

FASHION

In the warm climate, Sumerians had no need for heavy clothing. The main piece of clothing was a woollen skirt. Men wore a short skirt with a bare top or one shoulder uncovered. Women wore a longer skirt with a top that covered one shoulder. Some women wore elaborate hats or headdresses. Men wore a neat beard or were clean-shaven. Both men and women wore jewellery.



SOURCE 3.4 These clay models of a man and a woman were among twelve discovered during excavation of a Sumerian temple at Tell Asmar, in present-day Iraq.

THAT MEDICINE HAS ALWAYS TASTED BAD?

The following instructions, in cuneiform script, were found on a clay tablet: 'Grind up the seeds of the carpenter plant with Markazi resin and thyme. Dissolve the resulting mess in beer and give it to the man to drink.'

SOURCE 3.5 Clay model of a Sumerian priest from about 2400 BCE, in the Louvre Museum, Paris



RELIGIOUS BELIEFS

Religion was very important to the Sumerians. They were polytheistic, worshipping many gods, and each city had its own god or goddess.

The god of Ur, for example, was the moon god, Nanna, and the god of Nippur was the chief god, Enlil. There were many other gods as well. The Sumerians prayed to hundreds of deities to guard against disasters overwhelming their lives.

If you visited a Sumerian city, the first thing you saw would be the temple dedicated to the god of the city (see Source 0.1). The temple, or ziggurat, was a pyramid-like structure made of brick. It was made up of terraces and the temple to the god stood on the top. The purpose of the ziggurat was very different to that of an Egyptian pyramid. A pyramid was built as a tomb for a dead pharaoh whereas a ziggurat was a temple and played a central role in the religious life of the city.

WRITING

Early writing was used for recording and counting goods and stores. Over time, writing came to express historical, religious, commercial, legal and poetic ideas. The Sumerians wrote with pointers on wet clay tablets, making wedge-shaped marks. This shape gave the writing its name, cuneiform, from the Latin *cuneus*, meaning 'wedge'.

Thousands of clay tablets inscribed with cuneiform have been found, creating a unique source for Sumerian culture.



SOURCE 3.6 Cuneiform writing, used here to record numbers of goats and sheep

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'First civilisation: Sumer' glossary, list these words and explain their meanings:
- deities
 - scribe
 - polytheistic
- #2** Explain why there was very little furniture in Sumerian homes.

understanding & applying

- There are many websites devoted to cuneiform writing. Using a search engine such as Google and keywords such as 'Mesopotamia' and 'cuneiform writing', find a website that shows the development of cuneiform writing to complete Questions 3 and 4.
- #3** Draw diagrams showing the progressive changes in cuneiform signs such as the sign for barley or the sign for sheep.
- In what year did the sign last appear? What did it look like then?
- #4** Cuneiform was used for five different languages. Conduct some research to find out what they were.

understanding & analysing

- #5** Read Source 3.2 and answer the following question.
- What do these laws tell us about the values of the time?
- #6** Using Sources 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5, explain how the Sumerians adapted their homes and clothing to their environment.
- #7** What do Sources 0.1, 3.1 and 3.5 tell us about the Sumerians' attitude towards religion?

evaluating & creating

- #8** a Create a Venn diagram that compares and contrasts the main foods available to Sumerian families and modern families such as your own.
- b Write a paragraph summarising your conclusions about the nutritional value of both diets.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

SOURCE STUDY

UNIT 4

TWO IMPORTANT PRIMARY SOURCES FROM SUMER



SOURCE 4.1 Headdress found in the tomb of Lady Puabi at Ur. It is made of gold, lapis lazuli and carnelian, a type of reddish stone. The headdress, from about 2600 BCE, is in the University of Pennsylvania Museum of Archaeology and Anthropology, Philadelphia, USA.

SOURCE 4.2 The Royal Standard of Ur, in the British Museum

HOW DO WE LEARN MORE ABOUT SUMER?

WHAT WE, AS HISTORIANS, HAVE LEARNT ABOUT SUMER

comes primarily from primary sources found by archaeologists. Two important primary sources about Sumer are the Royal Tombs of Ur, which were discovered by the British archaeologist Leonard Woolley, and *The Epic of Gilgamesh*.

WOOLLEY AND THE ROYAL TOMBS OF UR

The British archaeologist Leonard Woolley, who spent many years excavating sites in Mesopotamia, discovered what he called ‘the Royal Tombs of Ur’ at the site of the ancient Sumerian city of Ur. As with the discovery of Tutankhamen’s tomb in Egypt, which occurred at about the same time, this discovery caused a world-wide sensation. The tombs contained wonderful jewellery and objects made of gold, silver and lapis lazuli, stunning headdresses, cups, furnishings and large paintings. Remarkably, one of the tombs, like that of Tutankhamen, had been untouched by looters. Between 1922 and 1934 Woolley returned to Ur during the digging season and, in all, excavated 1800 tombs. He was knighted in 1935.



SOURCE 4.3 Sir Leonard Woolley's excavation of Ur



SOURCE 4.4 The Ram in the Thicket before restoration

THE ROYAL STANDARD OF UR

Discovered during the excavation of the tombs of Ur, this artefact is one of the most famous finds of the ancient world. No one is sure of its purpose. Its images, however, tell us much about Sumerian culture.

RESTORING THE TREASURES

Sources 4.1, 4.2 and 4.5 are just three of the many stunning objects found in the Royal Tombs. They were not, however, found in the condition you see in these photographs. Over the thousands of years they lay in the tomb, they fell into a state of disrepair (see source 4.4) and were almost unrecognisable as the beautiful artefacts shown here. It is a delicate and painstaking task to restore such objects to their original condition. They are now housed in museums around the world where they are carefully maintained and displayed for the public.



SOURCE 4.5 The Ram in the Thicket is made of gold, silver, lapis lazuli, copper, shell, red limestone and bitumen. It is in the British Museum.

THE EPIC OF GILGAMESH

One of the important aspects of *The Epic of Gilgamesh* is that it is a source of evidence about a major event that happened millennia ago and that has also been recorded in detail in the book of Genesis. Genesis is the first book in both the Christian Bible and the Torah, the Jewish holy text.

The uproar of mankind [was] intolerable and sleep no longer possible because of the babel. So the gods agreed to exterminate mankind ...

I loaded into her [the boat] all that I had of gold and of living things, my family, my kin, the beast of the field both wild and tame, and all the craftsmen ... I looked to the weather and it was terrible, so I boarded the boat and battened her down.

For six days and six nights the winds blew, torrent and tempest and flood overwhelmed the world, tempest and flood raged together like warring hosts. When the seventh day dawned the storm from the south subsided, the sea grew calm, the flood was stilled; I looked at the face of the world and there was silence, all mankind was turned to clay ... I looked for land in vain, but fourteen leagues distant there appeared a mountain and there the boat grounded; on the mountain of Nisir the boat held fast. When the seventh day dawned I loosed a dove and let her go. She flew away, but finding no resting place she returned ... I loosed a raven, she saw the waters had retreated ... Then I threw everything open to the four winds, I made a sacrifice and poured out a libation on the mountain top.

SOURCE 4.6 An extract from *The Epic of Gilgamesh*. This Sumerian legend was written on clay tablets in cuneiform script. It concerns the semi-historical Gilgamesh, who was King of Uruk sometime between 2750 and 2500 BCE. From C. M. Williams, *Chronicles: Investigating the Ancient World, Book One*, McGraw-Hill, 1994.

Now God saw that the whole world was corrupt and full of violence ... God said to Noah, 'The loathsomeness of all mankind has become plain to me ... I intend to destroy them ... Make yourself an ark with ribs of cypress.'

[Noah made the ark as God had said and when the flood came he went into it.]

Noah went into the ark with his sons, his wife and his sons' wives. And into the ark with Noah went one pair, male and female, of all beasts, clean and unclean, of birds and of everything that crawls on the ground, two by two, as God had commanded ... The flood continued upon the earth for forty days ... Every living creature that moves on the earth perished, birds, cattle, wild animals ... and only Noah and his company in the ark survived.

The water gradually receded and by the end of one hundred and fifty days it had disappeared. On the seventeenth day of the seventh month the ark grounded on a mountain in Ararat. After forty days ... Noah released a raven to see whether the water had subsided ... By the twenty-seventh day of the second month everything was dry. And God said to Noah, 'Come out of the ark' ... so Noah came out ... Then Noah built an altar to the Lord.

SOURCE 4.7 The biblical version of the Flood, told in Genesis 6:9–8:20.

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

1
APPLYING

Examine Source 4.2 carefully and complete the following tasks.

- List as many occupations as you can observe on the Royal Standard.
- What does this tell us about life in Sumerian society?

2

As you have learnt, artefacts from Ur and from other parts of Sumer are now in museums around the world. Which museum holds the Royal Standard of Ur?

Imagine you are visiting this museum and a television news reporter interviews you about the display of the Royal Standard of Ur, which you have seen. Write your answers to the following questions.

- Good morning. Would you mind answering a few questions about the display here in the museum?
- Do you think artefacts like these should be restored and preserved? Why? It costs a lot of money!
- Should artefacts like the Royal Standard of Ur stay in their own country? Even if their safety cannot be guaranteed?
- Do you think great museums should return artefacts taken from another country? Even if they were taken years and years ago?

3

APPLYING & ANALYSING

Carefully examine Sources 4.1 and 4.5.

- How useful are Sources 4.1 and 4.5 to a historian studying Sumerian lifestyles?
- Conduct some research to find out what knowledge and skills were needed to restore these artefacts to their original condition.
- Where would you find people with these skills?

4

Create a flow chart to show the sequence of events in the story of the Flood. Use either Source 4.6 or Source 4.7 as the basis for your flow chart.

5
ANALYSING & EVALUATING

Examine Sources 4.6 and 4.7 carefully, and with a partner complete the following tasks.

- List the similarities and differences in these two stories of the Flood.
- Do you think they are about the same flood? What evidence supports your conclusion?
- There are a number of differences between these accounts. Are these significant differences? Can you suggest reasons for the differences?
- How do these stories relate to what you have learned about the geography of Sumer?
- Where would you look for more evidence to support these two accounts of a great flood?

6

Using the Royal Standard of Ur (Source 4.2) as evidence, what suggestions can you make about the role of women in Sumerian society?

7
EVALUATING & CREATING

- There are many flood legends from the ancient world. Work with your partner to find as many details as you can about these flood legends. Create a concept map to help you evaluate your research and decide if there are any similarities among the legends. What conclusions could you draw from this?
- Do all of these flood legends support the occurrence of this flood as a historical event? What other types of evidence would be needed as well?
- Working with your partner, investigate the story of Gilgamesh. Create a mind map showing the results of your research. Use a search engine such as Google to find information on Gilgamesh. In text boxes, write short sentences explaining the following puzzles. Include an evaluation of the reliability of the websites you referred to.
 - Who was Gilgamesh?
 - When and where did Gilgamesh live?
 - How was his story recorded?
 - Where was the original text found, and where can we see this text today?
 - Gilgamesh was on a quest. What was this quest?
 - What is your assessment of the evidence for Gilgamesh as a historical figure?

LEGACIES AND CONNECTIONS TO...

UNIT 5

WHY WAS SUMER SIGNIFICANT?

SOURCE 5.1 This carving of a chariot on a sarcophagus was discovered in 1928 at the Royal Tombs of Ur. It is one of the earliest known representations of the wheel.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE SUMERIANS DIVIDED THE CIRCLE INTO 360 DEGREES?

The Sumerians also gave us the concept of 'a dozen' and the division of the clock to measure hours, minutes and seconds.

OTHER CIVILISATIONS

Sumerian civilisation had an extraordinary influence on neighbouring cultures. Conquerors and neighbours copied, borrowed and adapted from the Sumerians even after they had faded as a culture.

The ziggurats with their stepped platforms became the model for temples by the Assyrians and Babylonians for many centuries after the fall of Ur. The Sumerian religion was also adopted throughout Babylonia, Assyria and Chaldea.

Astronomy, the wheel, mathematics, the calendar—all passed on to later Mesopotamian cultures and then on to other areas. Sumer had a strong commercial identity and its use of such things as credit and receipts spread throughout the region.

Egypt and Sumer seem to share many features. Both civilisations rose as river settlements, they were farmers and traders and were accomplished builders. Religion, with its many gods, played a central role in both societies, and both cultures developed a form of writing. There were, however, very strong differences between them. Unlike Egypt, Sumer was not a unified country and only came under single rule through conquest. It would appear that Egypt and Sumer came in contact through trade and some exchange of influence can be seen in writing, buildings and art.



SOURCE 5.2 Cuneiform writing on a clay tablet

Q Do you think that you would need to be skilled or unskilled to be a scribe in Sumer? Explain your answer.

THE PAST AND THE PRESENT

Cuneiform writing was the most influential feature of Sumerian culture for subsequent civilisations. Cuneiform continued to be used throughout the region long after the Sumerian culture had disappeared. Apart from the writing itself, Sumerian myths and legends were adapted and became part of the literature of the wider Middle East. Baked clay tablets inscribed with cuneiform survived for thousands of years and it is because of these clay tablets that we know so much about Sumer.

LEGACY

Even though it lasted a relatively short time, Sumer was one of the most influential of the world's ancient civilisations. Much of modern life can be traced back to the Sumerians: the wheel, the plough, city life, irrigation, the use of writing and even the idea of a city.



TIME TO THINK ...

1 EVIDENCE FROM THE PAST

- a Were you surprised at the amount of evidence available about Sumer?
- b What did you learn about the way this evidence has been used?
- c Were any sources more important than others?

2 EVIDENCE FOR THE FUTURE

- a What sources do modern Australians leave for future historians?
- b What will future historians learn from these sources?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU ANSWER THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS FROM THE START OF THE CHAPTER.

#1 museum exhibition

You are the curator of a small museum. The local community has decided to hold an exhibition that promotes knowledge and understanding of the ancient past. Sumer will be its focus.

Your museum can only afford to display three artefacts, but these can come from any museum in the world. You are to choose the artefacts for display and then present a case to the community supporting the choices you have made. You decide to choose objects that highlight the lives of the people, both rich and poor.

Your presentation will be a PowerPoint® presentation or an AVD. It will include the following information about each artefact:

- where the artefact was found in Sumer
- where the artefact is at present and how it came to be there
- what the artefact represents and its purpose
- what the artefact is made from and the origin of this material
- what this object tells us about the skills and lives of the Sumerians
- why you think this object should be a part of the display about Sumer.

#2 building a ziggurat

With a partner, conduct further research in the school library and on the internet to find out more about ziggurats and complete *one* only of the following tasks.

- Create an information booklet that outlines the history of these imposing structures and contains information about how they were built.
- Build a model of a ziggurat, after first discussing with your teacher what materials might be suitable for use in constructing your model.

#3 a great archaeologist

Research the work of Sir Leonard Woolley for a class presentation titled 'The archaeological achievements of Sir Leonard Woolley'.

Your illustrated presentation should include:

- brief biographical details and life story
- the reasons behind the decision to excavate the site of Ur
- Woolley's collaborators on this dig
- the people and institutions mainly involved in archaeology at this time and why they were involved
- a description of the dig site and an assessment of the difficulties faced
- an explanation of why Woolley named some of the tombs as 'royal'
- other dig sites in Mesopotamia and who was conducting them
- an assessment of the study of ancient sites in Sumer in recent years
- an assessment of how the recent war in Iraq affected ancient sites and artefacts.

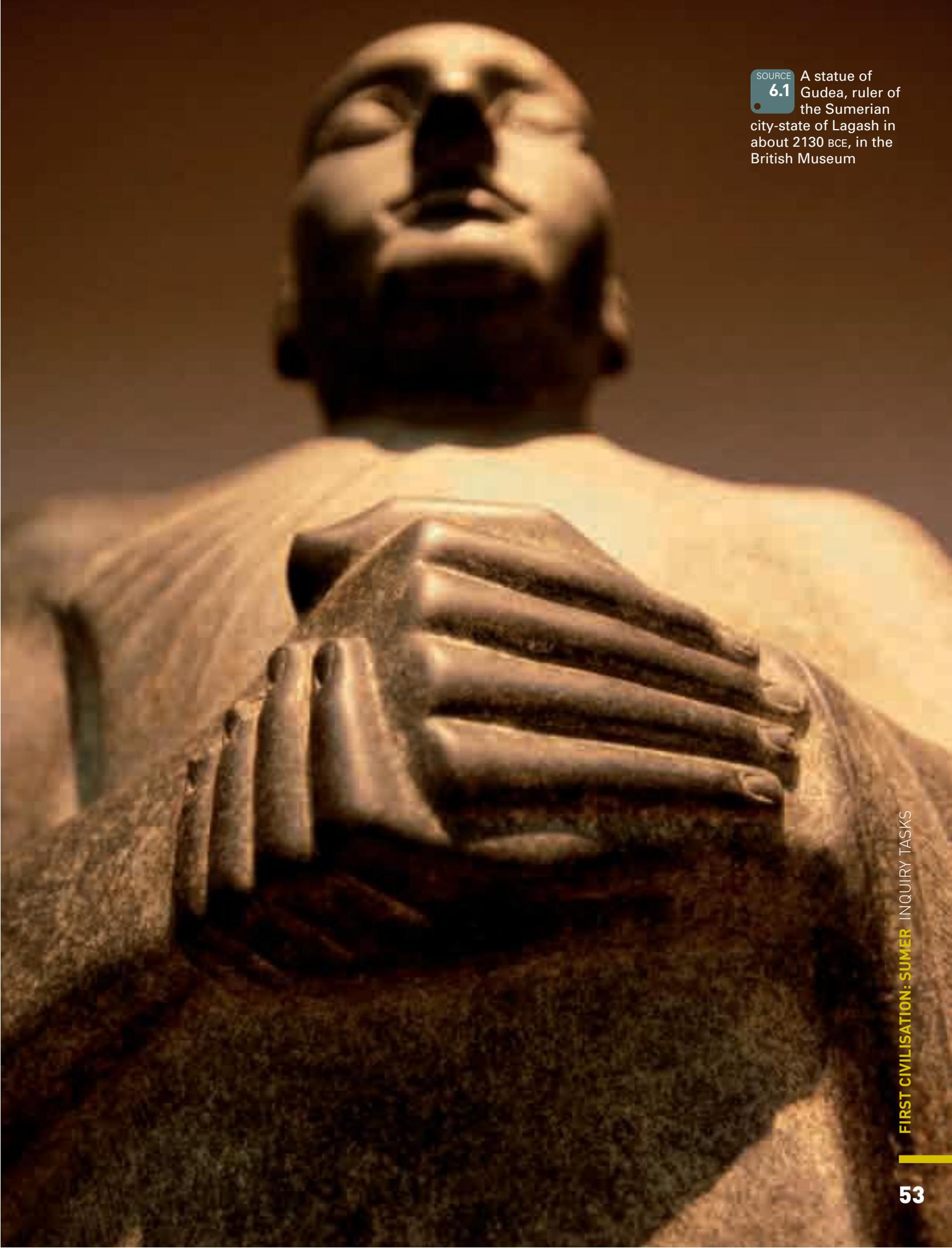
Museum websites such as that of the British Museum may be helpful for this research.

#4 ancient law

Conduct some research to **find out more about King Hammurabi and his code of laws**, then create a Venn diagram to compare and contrast them with laws in contemporary Australia.

Then write a paragraph that evaluates both sets of laws. Your answer should consider the following questions.

- Which laws better protect people? Property? The community? The individual?
- Which laws make people more accountable for their actions?
- Which laws encourage people to behave in a moral or decent way?
- Which laws are more fair? Why?



SOURCE
6.1 A statue of Gudea, ruler of the Sumerian city-state of Lagash in about 2130 BCE, in the British Museum

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How do we learn about the ancient past?

What is history?

How do we find, select and interpret historical evidence?

What can we learn from the past?



History is a record or account of past events, people, places and ideas. History focuses on understanding patterns in human behaviour, especially in the context of civilisations, empires, nations and peoples, and can help us **use the past to learn about the future.**

WHAT IS



IS
STORY?



SOURCE
0.1
Submarine excavation of an Ancient Greek amphora in the Mediterranean Sea



HISTORY IS ...

SOURCE
1.1 An inscription carved in stone showing cuneiform writing. Thousands of such carvings and clay tablets are a rich source of information about almost every aspect of life in Sumer.

PREHISTORY AND HUMAN CIVILISATION

‘Ancient history’ began when humans began to produce written records. This time frame (from about 3500 BCE) corresponds to the rise of **civilisation**—where highly developed and complex arrangements came about to manage large groups of people living together in cities. In early civilisations, there is some of the earliest evidence of religion, commerce, culture, law and social development. The first civilisations were those of Sumer, Egypt and India. Their earliest written records were usually associated with commerce—simple lists of what people owned and what they owed. The time frame before civilisations is known as **prehistory**.

WHY STUDY HISTORY?

History is important because an understanding of the past can help people understand why things are the way there are: for example, why people in Australia drive on the left-hand side of the road, why the majority of Argentines speak Spanish, and why Vietnamese people first came to Australia in large numbers in the mid-1970s. A good understanding of history is also useful when planning for the future as it can mean that people avoid repeating the same mistakes. Studying history also teaches you important skills, such as how to pose questions, how to research and how to think. Best of all, learning about historical events and the way people lived in the past is a form of time travel. It is interesting and fun!

PRESERVING THE PAST

Historians, archaeologists and organisations such as libraries, museums and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) believe that the study and preservation of our past is very important. These people and organisations believe that places and objects of historical interest are part of our legacy and so should be preserved for future generations.

UNESCO strives to 'encourage the identification, protection and preservation of cultural and natural heritage ... considered to be of outstanding value to humanity'. It does this through an international agreement called the 'Convention concerning the protection of the world cultural and natural heritage', which was adopted in 1972. Under the convention, UNESCO works towards the preservation of significant historical and cultural sites through its World Heritage List. More than 180 countries have signed the convention, and the World Heritage List currently consists of 911 sites that are considered to have 'outstanding universal value'. Once a site is on the list, UNESCO monitors it and assesses whether further action or funding is necessary to preserve it.

Museums are also very important institutions for the study and preservation of history. Consider the following examples.

The British Museum, London, United Kingdom:

- was established in 1753 CE
- has more than seven million objects in its catalogue, 1.28 million of which can be viewed online
- employs 1000 staff
- receives over five million visitors per year
- is five times the size of the Colosseum in Rome.

The Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D.C., United States of America:

- is made up of nineteen museums, nine research centres and the National Zoo
- has 156 other museums affiliated (formally associated) with it
- holds more than 136 million objects, artworks and specimens in its collection.

THAT THE U.S. LIBRARY OF CONGRESS IN WASHINGTON, D.C. IS THE LARGEST LIBRARY IN THE WORLD?

It contains:

- more than thirty-two million books and other print materials in 470 languages
- more than sixty-two million manuscripts
- the largest rare book collection in North America
- the world's largest collection of legal materials, films, maps, sheet music and sound recordings.

The Australian War Memorial, Canberra:

- commemorates the sacrifice of Australians in war
- exists mainly to acquire and preserve military artefacts, documents and media
- has online biographical databases, as well as a large research centre.

Other important institutions include universities, institutes, libraries and art galleries.

SOURCE
1.2

A researcher archives and restores a medieval manuscript using a computer. This is part of the Digital Image Archive of Medieval Music based at the University of Oxford, United Kingdom.



1 Examine the screen in front of the researcher on the left. In what ways does the image appear to be damaged?

2 What may have caused this?



DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE REMAINS OF TASMANIAN ABORIGINES ENDED UP ALL OVER THE WORLD?

In the early nineteenth century CE, George Augustus Robinson, who held the government position of Protector of Aborigines, collected the skeletal remains of many Indigenous Tasmanians. These ended up on display in international museums. Tasmania's Indigenous population have fought for many years for their return. In 1976 the Tasmanian Museum returned the remains of an Aboriginal woman named Truganini. It was not until 2007 that the Tasmanian Aboriginal Centre (TAC) was able to secure the return of the Indigenous remains held in London's Natural History Museum.



SOURCE 1.3 Portrait of Truganini, a hand-coloured photograph taken by Charles Alfred Woolley in 1866 CE, in the National Library of Australia

Q How would you describe Truganini's facial expression?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your workbook or in a Microsoft® Word document or Excel® file on your computer, create a 'What is history?' glossary. Begin your glossary by listing these key words and explaining their meanings:
- civilisation
 - historians
 - discipline
 - prehistory

- #2** In your own words, explain the difference between history and prehistory.

understanding & analysing

- #3** Brainstorm possible reasons that individuals, families, communities, countries, businesses and international organisations may have for preserving artefacts or other items from the past.

evaluating

- #4** Imagine you are a television journalist who is covering an important anniversary of the opening of either the British Museum or the U.S. Library of Congress. Write a four-minute introduction to your news story. Conduct some further research to help you. Include the importance of museums and libraries in general, the significance of the museum or library you are covering, and what visitors can expect to see.

evaluating & creating

- #5** Prepare a script outlining a conversation that may have taken place between a member of the Tasmanian Aboriginal Centre and a Natural History Museum employee over the return of Indigenous remains. Make sure you show that you understand why the museum wanted to keep the remains and also the arguments the Tasmanian Aboriginal Centre put forward for their return.
- #6** Conduct an internet search to find the UNESCO World Heritage website. Investigate the site to complete the following tasks.
- With how many of the listed World Heritage sites are you familiar? List them.
 - How many sites are in Australia?
 - Find the World Heritage List criteria page. Rewrite the criteria in your own words.
 - Are there other criteria you think should be considered? Add them to your rewritten list.
 - Discuss your additions with a partner or with your class.
 - Choose one of the historical sites with which you are *not* familiar. Investigate it further and create an AVD or a PowerPoint® presentation that explores the site and explains its value.
OR
Explore the UNESCO World Heritage website more thoroughly and create an AVD or a digital presentation to showcase the organisation's work.



HISTORIANS IN ACTION

THE HISTORIAN

People who study history in a professional capacity are called historians. Historians are like detectives: they work from **evidence** (what is written, said and preserved) to construct an account of something that has happened in the past.

It can often be difficult for a historian to construct an account of the past. This can be for a variety of reasons:

- There is little material evidence—this is especially the case for small, or very old, civilisations.
- There is material evidence but it is **fragmentary**—for example, only bits of a speech or play remain.
- There is material evidence but it was written much later than the time frame it is concerned with.
- There is written evidence but it cannot be **deciphered**—for example, Linear A, the language of Minoan Crete.
- Written evidence can be biased (see Unit 6 of this chapter).

History is also a very dynamic discipline. As new evidence is discovered all the time, historians must constantly re-examine the conclusions they draw to ensure their accounts are accurate.

HERODOTUS: THE FIRST HISTORIAN

Herodotus of Halicarnassus was an Ionian Greek who lived from about 484 to 425 CE and is often referred to as the ‘father of history’. He is most famous for writing *The Histories*. This deals mainly with the Persian Wars

SOURCE 2.1 A relief of Darius I, King of Persia, sitting on his throne, in the palace complex at Persepolis, in present-day Iran. Darius ruled Persia during the Second Persian War between Persia and Greece. Darius is seated before two incense burners. When compared with Ancient Greece, little written material from Ancient Persia has survived to the present day.

- Q**
- 1 **What problems do you imagine this lack of written material from Ancient Persia would cause for historians?**
 - 2 **Describe what you can see in this source.**
 - 3 **What information does this source give us about Ancient Persian society and governance?**

of 490–480 BCE, which were fought between the Greek city-states and Persia. Herodotus wrote more than a generation after the events he related. He is likely, however, to have talked with people who were alive at the time of the wars. Historians today generally agree that Herodotus’s account is reasonably accurate. Most, however, criticise him for bias. Often he was happy to accept a single account of an event rather than **corroborate** it. Because of this, Herodotus is nowadays regarded as much as a curious traveller and storyteller as a historian.

ALTERNATIVE ACCOUNT: AESCHYLUS

The Greek playwright Aeschylus provides one of only a few alternative accounts of the Persian Wars. Aeschylus writes about the Persian Wars in his tragedy, *The Persians*. Aeschylus was in the right place at the right time to have witnessed (and possibly even fought in) key battles during

the wars. *The Persians* was also written and performed only a few years after the Battle of Salamis, the event that brought the Second Persian War to an end. It is important to remember that the play would have been written for dramatic effect. Historians must ask themselves which is the most reliable account of the Persian Wars.

HISTORIAN IN PROFILE: TACITUS

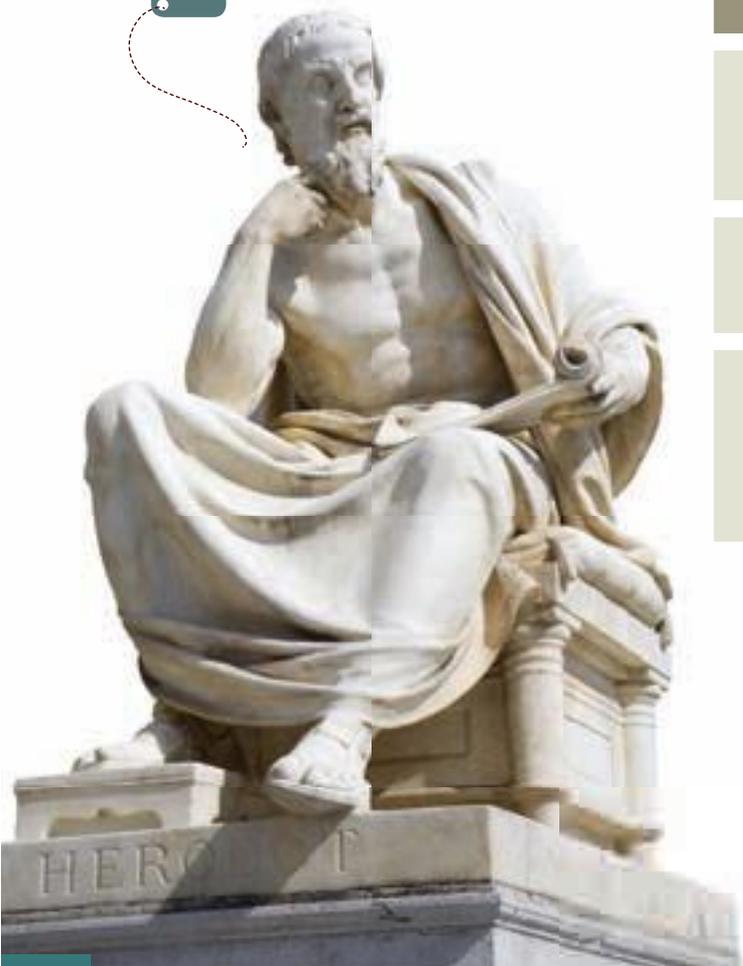
Publius (or Gaius) Cornelius Tacitus, who lived from 56 to 120 CE, was probably Rome’s greatest historian. No one is sure where he was born or who his parents were. As a young man, he first studied **rhetoric**, or the art of influencing people through public speaking. He later trained as a lawyer and married Julia, the daughter of the famous Roman general Agricola. Tacitus entered politics in 81 or 82 CE and began to rise to prominence. Among his most important works are those listed below.

MAJOR WORKS OF TACITUS

Work	Content	Interesting fact
<i>The Germania</i>	Germanic tribes along the Roman Empire’s northern borders	Tacitus observes virtues and vices in those living on the frontier of the Rhine.
<i>The Annals</i>	Roman Empire from 14 to 68 CE	This is among the first secular records to mention Jesus.
<i>The Histories</i>	Roman Empire from 69 to 96 CE	Tacitus gives a short survey of ancient Jews and educated Roman attitudes towards them.



SOURCE 2.2 A statue of Herodotus outside the Austrian Parliament Building in Vienna.



OTHER HISTORY PROFESSIONALS

Historians cannot work alone. They need the help of other professionals, including **archaeologists**, **anthropologists**, **etymologists**, **linguists** and **conservators**, to help them construct accounts of the past.

Archaeologists uncover most of the material evidence of past civilisations.

Anthropologists are experts in humans—their institutions, religious beliefs, social relationships and culture.

Etymologists are experts in the origins and development of words. They can help historians interpret the meanings of words in written sources.

Linguists are experts in the features and structures of languages. They can help historians interpret the meanings of sentences in written sources.

Conservators ensure that material evidence is stored in such a way that it survives. This may involve storage in an inert gas (such as argon) or at a particular temperature. For example, the Library of Congress stores a copy of the Gettysburg Address—President Abraham Lincoln’s speech at Gettysburg in 1863, during the American Civil War—at 10 degrees Celsius, an ideal temperature for preserving paper documents.



SOURCE 2.3 A conservator works to reconstruct the pieces of a head ornament discovered in volcanic mud and ash produced when Mount Vesuvius erupted about 3500 years ago. Another eruption more than 1000 years later destroyed (and preserved) the Roman city of Pompeii.

Q What challenges do you think this conservator faces in her work preserving the head ornament?

remembering & understanding

#1 In your ‘What is history?’ glossary, list these words and explain their meanings:

- | | |
|-------------------|---------------|
| ■ anthropologists | ■ evidence |
| ■ archaeologists | ■ fragmentary |
| ■ conservators | ■ linguists |
| ■ corroborate | ■ prehistory |
| ■ deciphered | ■ rhetoric |
| ■ etymologists | |

#2 Create a mind map explaining the reasons historians often find it difficult to construct accounts of the past. For each reason, add a small illustration.

analysing & applying

#3 Imagine you are at university studying history and have spent the day examining the works of Tacitus. Write a personal journal entry in which you reflect on and discuss the importance of his work and how fortunate we are that it has been preserved. If you could travel back in time, what five questions would you ask him about his work?

evaluating

#4 Using half a page in your workbook, create a grid with four boxes. In the first two boxes, note down the main strengths and weaknesses of Herodotus’s account of the Persian Wars. Do the same thing for Aeschylus’s account in the remaining boxes. Review the information, and decide which account is more likely to be accurate. Describe the conclusions you have drawn (and your reasons) in an extended paragraph.

creating

#5 Write and publish a job description for a historian. Make sure you cover the work he/she is likely to do, the people he/she will work with, and the personal qualities he/she will need. Set it out like a job advertisement from the internet or a newspaper.

**LEARNING
ACTIVITIES** 



ARCHAEOLOGY

SOURCE 3.1 Excavations at the Roman Forum in Rome. The site is marked out in a grid with string, a technique commonly used to assist untrained or inexperienced diggers and to ensure accurate record keeping.

- Q 1** List all the 'tools of the archaeologist' that you see in this photograph.
- 2** Do the diggers look trained or untrained? On what evidence have you based your answer?
- 3** What are some of the advantages and disadvantages of trained and untrained diggers on an excavation site?

WHAT IS ARCHAEOLOGY?

Archaeology is a discipline that is closely associated with history. Like historians, archaeologists study the past. Where historians are primarily concerned with written records, archaeologists are primarily concerned with material evidence, such as human remains, tools and pottery.

FIELDWORK

Much of the work of an archaeologist is **fieldwork**. Sites of archaeological interest can be identified in several ways—for example, by accident during a construction project or by examining **aerial photography**. Often, newer technologies such as ground-penetrating radar and infra-red and thermal imaging equipment are used to confirm whether it is worth excavating the site. This is because **excavation** work is expensive.

AN ARCHAEOLOGIST'S TEAM AND THEIR TOOLS

The team can include:

- diggers, trained or untrained
- draftspeople, to provide detailed scale drawings
- surveyors
- photographers
- finds specialists, e.g. in pottery, axe heads
- conservators, to protect material evidence

The tools can include:

- brushes, hand trowels, small picks or hammers, fine dental tools
- sifting screens
- buckets to remove debris
- notebooks, pencils, tags and information cards
- cameras
- surveying equipment, including GPS

'I FOUND SOMETHING!'

Accurate and detailed record keeping is very important in fieldwork. When material evidence is found, its **context** must be recorded—that is:

- Where was the object found?
- What was it found in (soil, peat or other material)?
- What was it found with?

This information can help archaeologists date the object and understand its significance. For example, an arrowhead found on its own means something different to hundreds of arrowheads found in a similar location (which may indicate a battle).

Consider the examples of Troy and Mohenjo-Daro.

TROY

Ancient Troy, on the coast of the Aegean Sea in modern-day Turkey, was discovered by the archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann and was excavated in four stages between 1871 and 1890. It was identified in Homer's *The Iliad* as the city of King Priam.

Nine different cities were discovered in the same location (each with a different stratum, or layer of earth). The earliest Troy dates from between about 3000 and 2600 BCE; the most recent, from about 334 BCE to the fifth century CE.

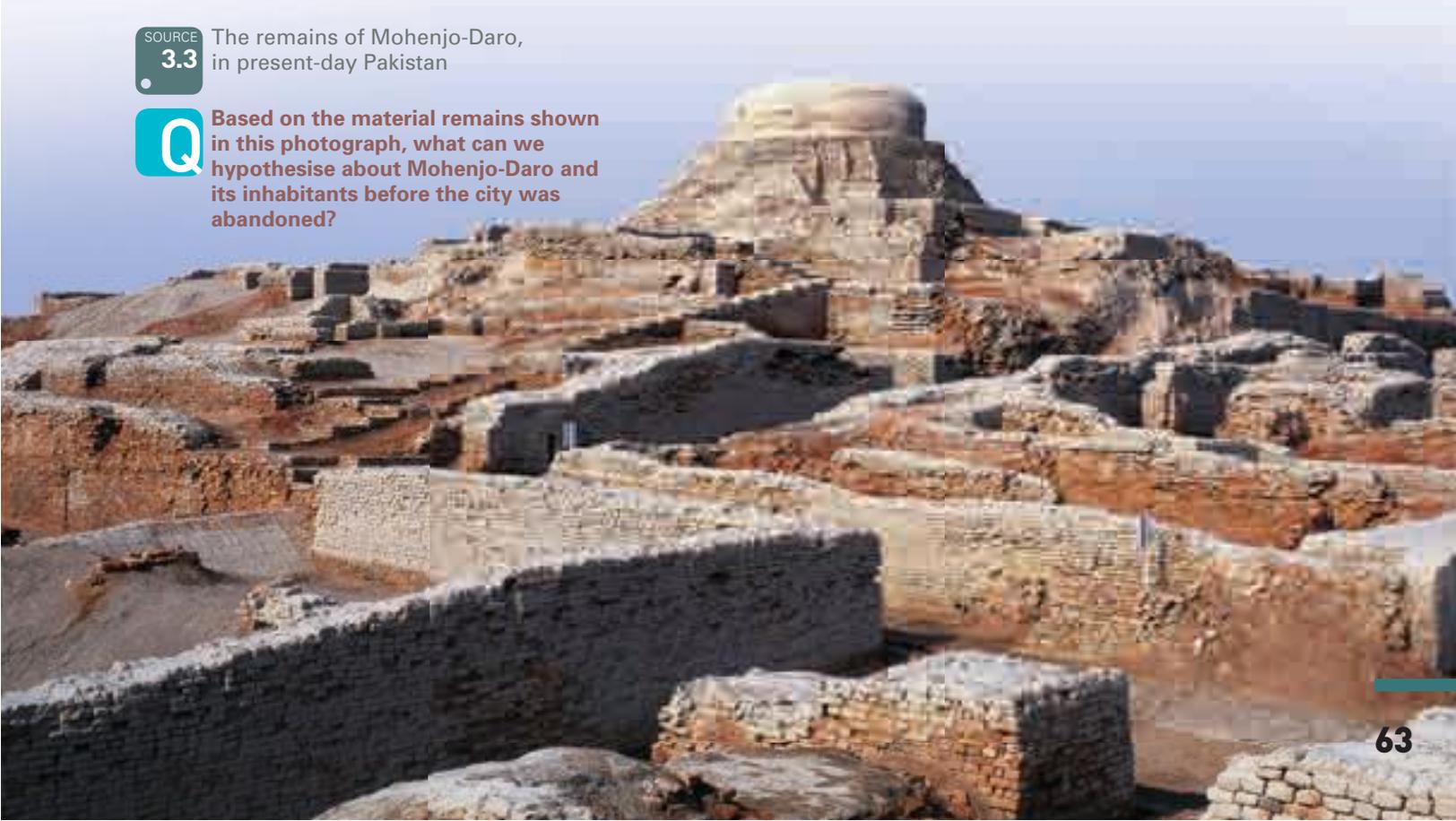
SOURCE 3.3 The remains of Mohenjo-Daro, in present-day Pakistan

Q Based on the material remains shown in this photograph, what can we hypothesise about Mohenjo-Daro and its inhabitants before the city was abandoned?



SOURCE 3.2 A relief of a horse and rider. This artefact belongs to the eighth stratum of Troy (785–700 BCE); it is currently displayed at the Canakkale Museum in Turkey.

Artefacts found by Schliemann were smuggled by him out of Turkey to Berlin, Germany. They disappeared after the Second World War and were rediscovered in Moscow, Russia, in 1993. This treasure included gold jewellery (earrings, hair rings, beads, pendants) and a gold sauceboat and flask.



MOHENJO-DARO

Mohenjo-Daro was the largest and most complex city of the Indus Valley civilisation in Ancient India. The site dates from between 2600 and 1800 BCE. It was accidentally found in 1924 CE when a Buddhist stupa (a dome with a significant relic inside) was excavated.

Mohenjo-Daro was a large and well-planned city, approximately 250 hectares in size. It had a citadel and a large public bath. Its houses were well built, in many cases double-storeyed and with bathrooms.

The lowest strata of the city are under water and have not yet been excavated.

FOUND AND LOST

Archaeologists face many challenges in their work. One such challenge is that artefacts are often fragile. Changes to the environment can also have a negative impact on sites of archaeological significance. Sometimes these environmental changes are natural—for example, when coastlines are eroded by sea water. Other environmental changes are the result of human activity—for example, when houses and roads are built, when wetlands are drained for farmland, and in mining. Air pollution can also damage archaeological sites, monuments and artefacts when substances such as carbon and sulfur react with water in the atmosphere and turn into acid rain.

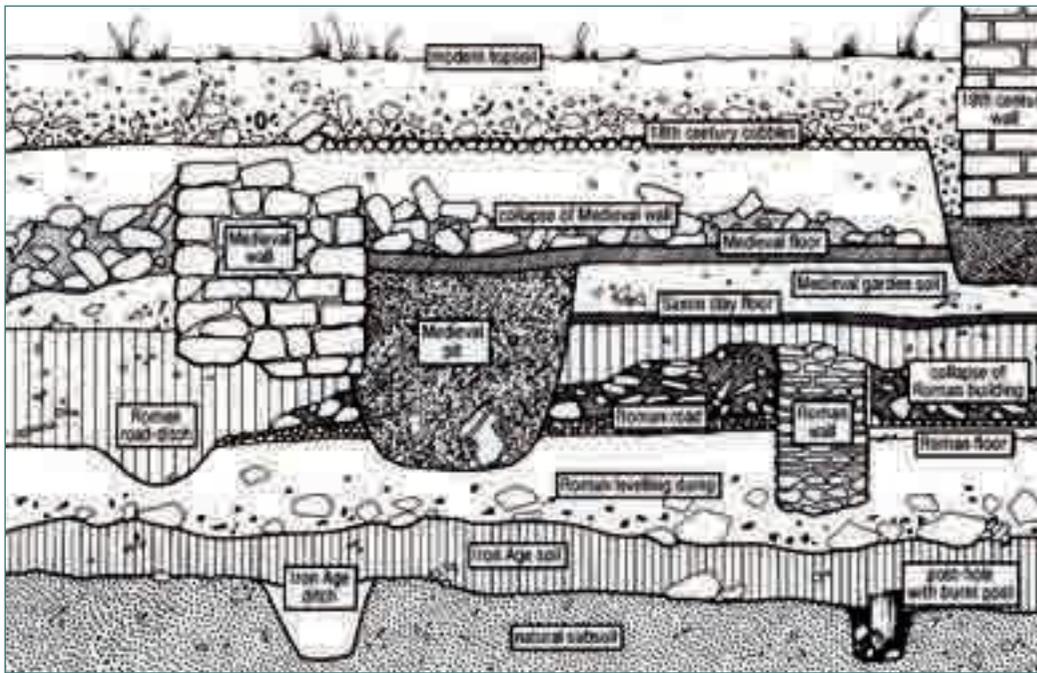
In modern societies it is not practical to preserve every archaeological site. For instance, in England alone there are 600 000 registered sites of archaeological significance; only the most important of these, numbering about 13 000, are protected by the *Ancient Monuments and Archaeological Areas Act 1979*.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT BARGES BUILT FOR LEISURE WERE SEARCHED FOR TREASURE, THEN LOST?

In the fifteenth century CE, Cardinal Prospero Colonna hired an architect to locate two Ancient Roman ships dating from the first century CE at the bottom of Lake Nemi in central Italy. The ships were rumoured to contain great wealth and art. More than 1400 swimmers were hired for the search, and the ships were found in about 20 metres of water. Other searches were made in the following centuries. In 1928 CE, Benito Mussolini, then ruler of Italy, ordered Lake Nemi drained. By 1932, the ships had been exposed; their hulls were very well preserved. The ships were then faithfully restored. Unfortunately, in 1944, during the Second World War, as the German army retreated through Italy, the Nemi ships were set alight and completely destroyed.

SOURCE 3.4 A historic shipwreck on the beach at Ainsdale in north-western England. Once shipwrecks have been raised to the ocean's surface, their wood must be stabilised by carefully removing the water without damaging the wood.



SOURCE 3.5 This diagram of archaeological strata was produced by the Canterbury Archaeological Trust, a charity that carries out excavations in Kent in south-eastern England.

- Q**
- 1 Which stratum or layer is the most recent, and which is the oldest?
 - 2 For approximately how many centuries has this site in Kent been inhabited by people? Refer to the timeline of prehistory in the 'Human migration and settlement' chapter to help you.

DATING

Dating material evidence is important in both archaeology and history. Dating helps archaeologists and historians develop a chronology, or arrangement of dates, events and so on. There are two types of dating: relative and absolute.

RELATIVE DATING

Relative dating involves close examination of the object's context (see above). Relative dating is the older of the two types of dating and is approximate. There are three types of relative dating:

- **typology**—a date is given for an object because it is of the same type as another object for which the date is known (for example, a distinctive style of pottery)
- **association**—a date is given for an object because it is found next to another object for which the date is known (for example, a coin found in a grave)
- **stratigraphy**—a date is given for an object because it is found in the same stratum, or layer of earth, as another object for which the date is known.

ANALYSING STRATA

Stratigraphy is based on the principle that older strata are found underneath more recent strata. Strata can be formed by natural and human

processes—for example, ash from a volcano, or a Roman road. Strata can also be interrupted by natural and human processes—for example, a mudslide or the digging of a hole—so archaeologists must be careful with their work and their interpretations.

ABSOLUTE DATING

Absolute dating is a more modern and precise form of dating material evidence. There are many types of absolute dating, including:

- analysis of ancient calendars—for example, the Aztec calendar
- scientific analysis of **varves** (ice sheets produced every year in very cold areas), which can tell us about climatic conditions over time.

Dendrochronology involves analysis of tree rings, which form in pairs in tree trunks each year. The thickness of a ring is determined by climatic conditions—for example, a year of drought will produce a very narrow ring whereas a long growing season and good rainfall will produce a thick ring. Trees of the same species growing in a particular region show the same tree ring patterns. Consequently, by analysing hundreds of samples, archaeologists can create detailed chronologies. By comparing a sample from the same region with the chronology for that species, archaeologists can therefore date buildings made of wood.

Radiocarbon dating is one of the absolute dating techniques most widely used by archaeologists. All organic material (including living things such as humans, seeds and wood) contains carbon, and a small, known proportion of that carbon is a substance called carbon-14. Carbon-14 is radioactive. This means it is unstable and deteriorates over time at a known rate. Scientists are able to measure the proportion of carbon-14 that remains and work backwards to determine when the object, or the material that it is made of, was alive.

SOURCE 3.6 Scrolls from the Roman town of Herculaneum, in present-day Italy, undergoing radiocarbon dating. Carbon is extracted from the sample in the form of carbon dioxide. This carbon dioxide is then condensed using liquid nitrogen, allowing the amount of carbon-14 it contains to be measured.



Scientists are in the process of developing even more advanced techniques for absolute dating. One is optical dating, which involves using a laser to release (and measure) the energy stored in quartz grains. This technique is still experimental, but has the potential to date non-organic material that is hundreds of thousands of years old.

DNA ANALYSIS

Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is a molecule found in the cells of all living things. In the case of humans, DNA is like a 'blueprint' for our bodies to function properly. This blueprint is carried in our **genes**, which are short segments of DNA that determine characteristics such as hair colour, eye colour and height. Your genes are inherited from your mother and father and, in turn, from their ancestors. Thus, in your DNA you carry a complete 'map' of your evolutionary past that includes every person you are descended from. Through DNA analysis, scientists can therefore determine whether two people are related, and how closely. This applies to people living today as well as to skeletal remains many thousands of years old.

HOW IS DNA ANALYSED?

A scientist analyses DNA by:

- 1 grinding up a biological sample—for example, a bone fragment
- 2 using chemicals to purify the sample, which means removing material that is not DNA
- 3 using a technique called polymerase chain reaction (PCR) to make more of the DNA that remains
- 4 using PCR again to attach dyes to the ends of individual DNA strands—a different coloured dye is used for each of four different chemicals that are arranged in different orders within samples of DNA
- 5 using a DNA sequencing machine to separate the dyed DNA and determine the exact sequence (order) of the four chemicals in the sample of DNA. The order in which these chemicals occur creates the blueprint that carries information from one generation to the next.

SOURCE
3.7

A 28 000-year-old thigh bone fragment, found in southern Italy. The DNA extracted from this sample shows that modern Europeans descended from Cro-Magnon men and women, the first modern-looking humans.



DID YOU KNOW

THAT YOUR FAMILY TREE HAS VERY DEEP ROOTS?

In 2008, two men living in north-western Germany discovered they were related to each other via a 3000-year-old shared ancestor! The men, Manfred Huchthausen and Uwe Lange, were among 300 locals who had given DNA samples to archaeologists examining the remains of twenty-three skeletons found in a nearby cave. The remains dated from between 1000 and 700 BCE.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'What is history?' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- absolute dating
- aerial photography
- association
- context
- dendrochronology
- deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA)
- excavation
- fieldwork
- genes
- radiocarbon dating
- relative dating
- stratigraphy
- typology
- varves

#2 What is the difference between a historian and an archaeologist?

#3 What is the difference between relative and absolute dating?

#4 Write a paragraph outlining the importance of fieldwork to archaeology and the ways fieldwork is carried out, including how sites are discovered.

applying & analysing

#5 Examine Source 3.5.

- a Locate the rubbish pit dug in the medieval period. Why would archaeologists need to take special care in interpreting what they find here?

b What conclusions can you draw about how this site has been used over time?

c Create an annotated timeline that shows the history of the excavation in Kent.

#6 Create and publish an A4 information sheet for untrained diggers that covers:

- a the tools they may be asked to use
- b what they may be asked to do at the site
- c what to do when they find something of interest
- d the importance of accurate and detailed record keeping for relative dating

#7 Create a flow chart that deals with the development of dating techniques over time. Your flow chart should begin with relative dating techniques and end with optical dating. Write a paragraph underneath it identifying some of the strengths and weaknesses of both older and newer techniques.

evaluating & creating

#8 Imagine you have the chance to visit either Mohenjo-Daro or Troy. Your application to the relevant authorities for permission to do so should cover:

- a the importance of archaeology
- b things about the site that interest you
- c four or five questions you would like answered in the course of your visit

SOURCE
4.1
Detail of the Rosetta Stone, which is now on display in the British Museum, London

PRIMARY & SECONDARY SOURCES

PRIMARY SOURCES

Historians construct accounts of what has happened in the past from the ‘pieces of the puzzle’ that are available from source material. Source material can be classified as either primary or secondary.

Primary sources are sources that were created at or around the time being studied. There are three main types of primary source material:

- *what is written*—for example, drawings, paintings, photographs, tomb and tablet inscriptions, maps, letters, memoirs, diaries, books, **ephemera** (items not originally intended to last for a long time—for example, receipts, advertising material, train tickets)
- *what is said*—for example, oral histories, audio recordings, film, video
- *what is preserved*—for example, artefacts such as axe blades, temples, tombs, Canopic jars, perfume pots.

USING PRIMARY SOURCES

It is easy to assume that the most accurate and comprehensive histories are found in primary sources. This is not necessarily the case. In practice, it is often difficult to find primary source material. For instance, some primary sources have been destroyed, either accidentally or deliberately. It is also often difficult to use primary source material. Obviously, not being able to read Ancient Greek will be a problem if your source is written in Ancient Greek. Even when the primary source is in your own language there can still be potential obstacles. For example, material published in English before 1900 CE often contains words we recognise but that now have a different meaning—so in today’s usage a ‘craze’ may be the latest fashion, but it used to mean a crack in the glaze of pottery.



SOURCE
4.2
An artefact such as this glass perfume pot from Ancient Greece is a primary source. It is on display in the Ashmolean Museum at the University of Oxford, UK.

Q **What hypothesis do you think you could make about Ancient Greek society from examining this perfume pot?**

Paintings and other works of art can be particularly valuable primary sources. They not only tell us about artistic techniques and materials, but also about what people thought, aspired to and feared. For instance, images of the Christian heaven produced in Europe during the Middle Ages often show rich pastures and the presence of saints and cherubs (a type of angel often depicted as winged children). When an understanding of these images is combined with an understanding of other artefacts that have survived—such as churches and religious sculptures—historians are able to produce comprehensive accounts of religious life in medieval Europe.

SECONDARY SOURCES

Secondary sources are sources that were created well after the time being studied. Not all secondary sources are produced by historians: they can also be produced by artists, **cartographers** (people who make maps) and filmmakers, among others. For example:

- **An artist** may be commissioned to create a sculpture commemorating the sixty-fifth anniversary of the Allied bombing of Dresden (a city in Germany) during the Second World War. The sculpture may focus on the large loss of life among civilians.
- **A cartographer** may be asked by a museum or university to produce a detailed annotated map of the Battle of Hastings in 1066 CE, which heralded the Norman conquest of England.
- **A filmmaker** may wish to create a biography of Martin Luther, the German monk who challenged the power of the Roman Catholic Church in the early sixteenth century.

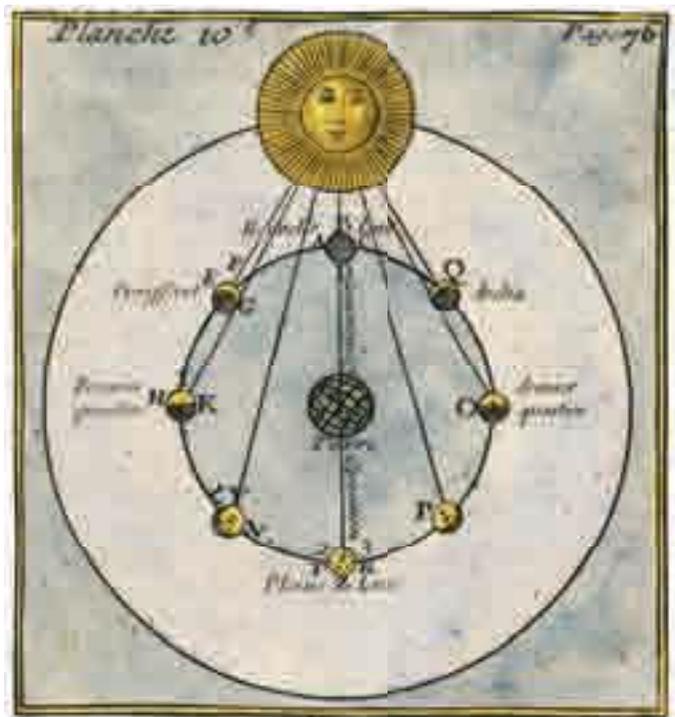
DID YOU KNOW

THAT WE HAVE FIRST-HAND ACCOUNTS OF LIFE IN ANCIENT ROME?

Often, primary sources are written or produced by the very people being studied. For example, much information about Ancient Rome can be found in the works of Marcus Cicero (106–43 BCE), a Roman statesman, lawyer, philosopher and orator. Fourteen books, fifty-eight speeches and more than 800 letters written by Cicero have been preserved.

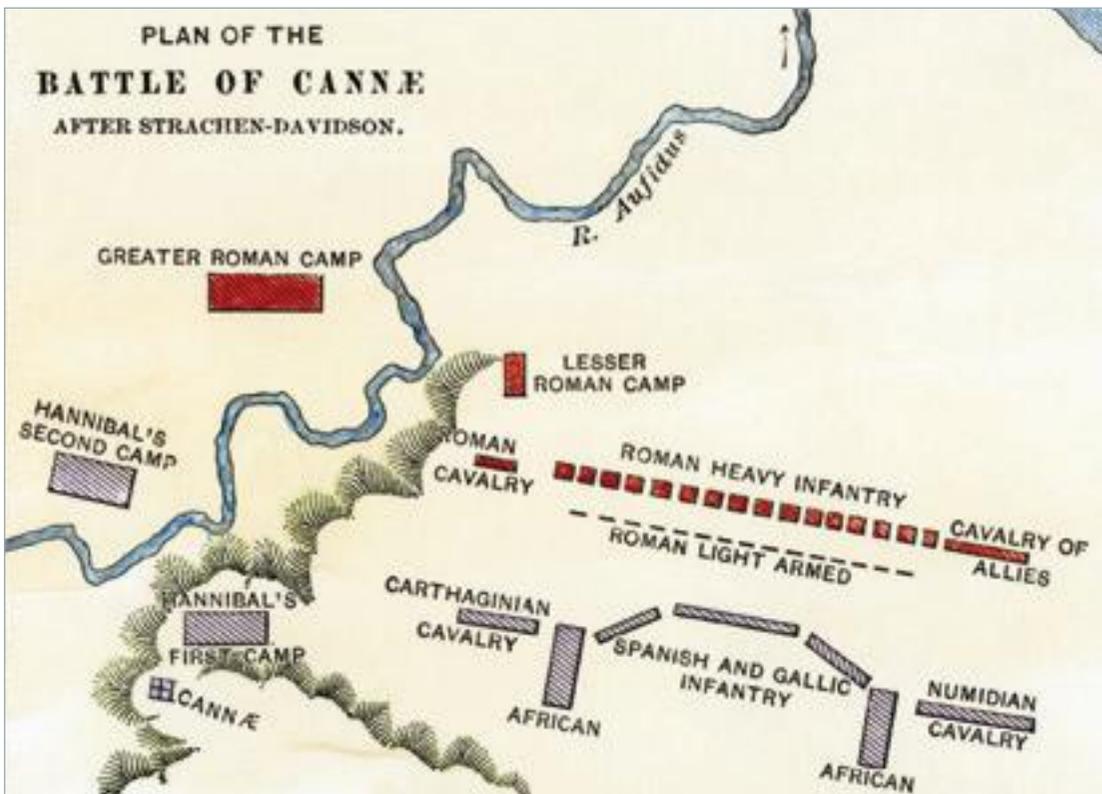


SOURCE 4.3 A written source from Ancient Rome, such as this inscription of a letter (in Greek) from the Roman governor of Achaia to the Greek city of Dyme, is a primary source. This inscription is in the Fitzwilliam Museum at the University of Cambridge, UK.



SOURCE 4.4 An eighteenth-century CE French depiction of the phases of the moon

Q What does this source tell us about eighteenth-century knowledge of astronomy?



SOURCE 4.5 This map is a secondary source. It deals with the Battle of Cannae, in which Hannibal (a famous general from Carthage) defeated the Romans during the Second Punic War in 216 BCE.

Q How does this map help you to understand why Hannibal won the Battle of Cannae?

When secondary sources are produced by historians, they are constructed from primary sources and the work of other historians. These secondary sources recount events of the past. They also generalise, analyse, interpret and evaluate these events in the light of common or popular viewpoints associated with their own time frame.

INTERPRETING AND EVALUATING SOURCES

How do we make sense of source material? Sometimes this is difficult, especially if we don't understand the language the source is written in. A good example of this is one of the forms of writing used by the Minoans—Linear A—which has never been deciphered in modern times.

Both primary and secondary sources require thorough examination and evaluation. One important reason for this is that written material always reflects the author's values and attitudes.

THE ROSETTA STONE AND HIEROGLYPHS

'Cracking the code' of the Rosetta Stone more than 180 years ago helped historians develop a more accurate account of Ancient Egyptian history. This was because it enabled them to decipher hieroglyphs for the first time.

The Rosetta Stone was created in 196 BCE. It is actually a decree that was made by the then ruler of Egypt, Ptolemy V. This decree was written on the stone in three languages: the known Ancient Greek and Egyptian Demotic, and the unknown

SOURCE 4.6 An example of Linear A script, from the Minoan palace at Knossos, Crete, held by the Heraklion Museum in Greece





Ancient Egyptian hieroglyphs. The Rosetta Stone was discovered in 1799 CE, but was not fully deciphered until 1822, by Jean-François Champollion. Champollion translated the Greek first, then the Demotic. The hieroglyphs could then be translated.

SOURCE 4.7 At its tallest point, the Rosetta Stone is 1.44 metres high. It weighs approximately 760 kilograms and is permanently displayed in the British Museum.

Q What is it about this stone that would have excited historians as soon as they saw it?

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'What is history?' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:
 - cartographers ■ primary sources
 - ephemera ■ secondary sources
- #2** Draw up two tables of two columns and six to eight rows each.
 - a** In the first table, head the columns 'Type of primary source' and 'Example'.
 - b** In the second table, head the columns 'Type of secondary source' and 'Example'.
 - c** Fill in both tables using the information in this unit.
 - d** Add to each table two or three of your own examples of each type of source.
- #3** In a short paragraph discuss the similarities and differences between primary and secondary sources.
- #4** Write a key facts box about:
 - a** Cicero
 - b** the Rosetta StoneIn each case, note the main reason why the preservation and translation of these primary sources has been significant for our understanding of the past.

applying & analysing

- #5** Imagine you are a historian and a source has just been uncovered that deals with the Persian Wars. The author is a Persian but nothing more is known about him or her. What do you need to know about this source before you can decide whether it is credible or not?
- #6** Create an A4 information sheet for a person new to the study of history who has uncovered a historical source. Make sure your information sheet will help them to:
 - a** work out whether the source is a primary source or a secondary source
 - b** understand the source as they read it
 - c** examine and evaluate the source

analysing

- #7** Think back over the past twenty-four hours. What primary source material would be available that 'proves' (is historical evidence for) what you did and ate, and who you spoke to? Consider what may have been written, said and preserved.

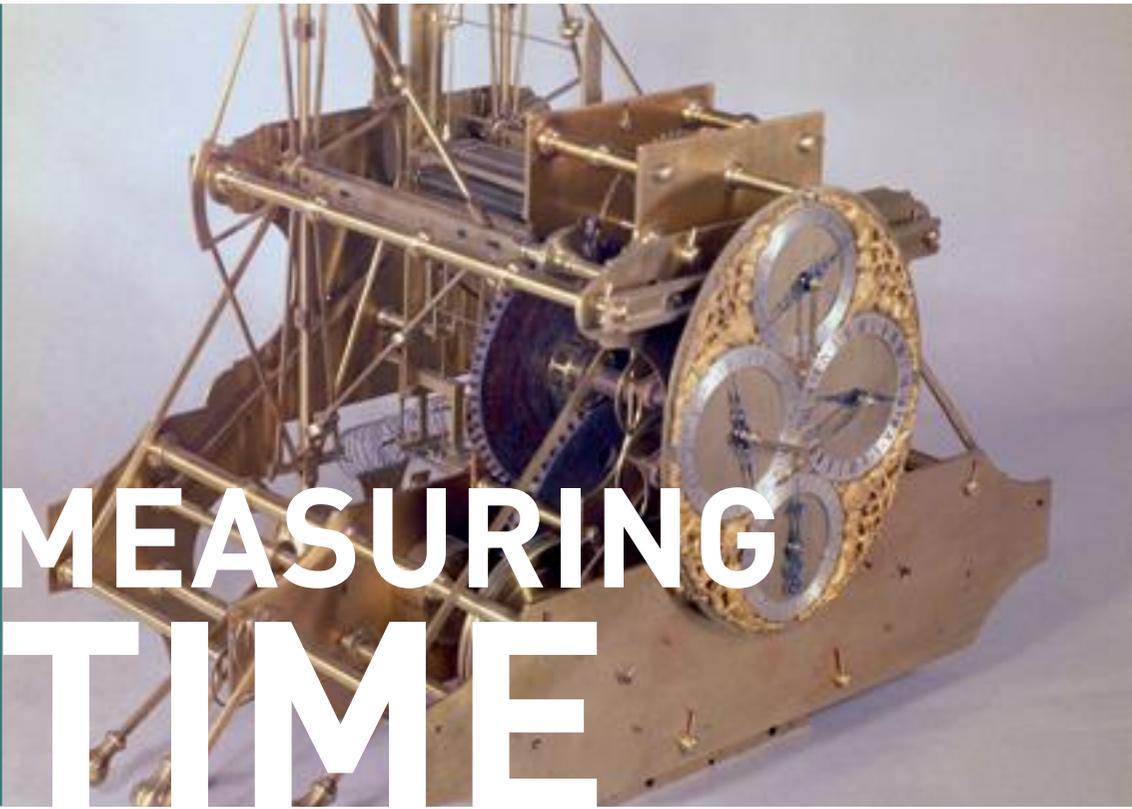
creating

- #8** Create a family time capsule of ten items. You can include things that have been written, said and/or preserved. Select them carefully, as they need to represent all family members as well as key shared experiences. Write up and attach a note for each, explaining the meaning and importance of the item.

LEARNING
ACTIVITIES

SOURCE
5.1 The H1 marine timekeeper, in the National Maritime Museum, Greenwich, UK, was made by Lincolnshire carpenter John Harrison in 1735 CE. A later clock won Harrison the Longitude Prize for the first timepiece accurate and robust enough to be used on ships at sea. This allowed mariners to calculate longitude, or position east or west of the prime meridian.

MEASURING TIME



UNDERSTANDING TIME

“What then is time? I know well enough what it is, provided that nobody asks me; but if I am asked what it is and try to explain, I am baffled.”

SOURCE
5.3 The Christian theologian Augustine, writing in the fifth century CE

Time is an abstract concept that humans developed in order to understand and measure change in our environment. There are many ways of understanding time. For instance, we can predict that an event will occur in the future, it can be happening now, or it can be understood to have happened in the past.

Historians have found it useful to divide the past into different time periods. In Unit 1 of this chapter, for instance, you learnt that the time frame before written records and civilisations began is known as ‘prehistory,’ and everything that happened after that is ‘history.’ Historians also divide the past into ancient, medieval and modern periods. These terms are not used to describe fixed periods of time in world history, but general characteristics of societies. Japan’s ancient period, for instance, was from 400 CE to 1185 CE,

SOURCE
5.2 English astronomer Sir William Henry Mahoney Christie (1845–1922 CE). Christie played an important role in establishing Greenwich, England, as the prime meridian in 1884. World time zones are now based on the time in Greenwich.



THAT THE Y2K BUG DIDN'T BITE?

At the end of 1999 CE, many people were concerned about the beginning of a new century and a new millennium. In particular, they thought that computers' internal clocks would be unable to cope with the change of date. This was because the clocks had originally been programmed with a shorthand version of the year (99) so the year 2000 CE would appear as 00 and therefore would not make sense to the computer. This supposed problem was known as the Y2K (short for 'year 2000') bug. Many people stocked up on food and other essential items; some even predicted that planes would fall from the sky. In the end, millions of dollars were spent and very little happened except that a few automatic teller machines went offline in China.

its medieval period was from 1185 to 1868 CE, and its modern period began after that. Most Western historians associate the 'modern' period with the aftermath of the Black Death in Europe and the beginning of the Italian Renaissance: these events occurred in the fourteenth century CE.

This book is concerned with both prehistory and **ancient history**—that is, the history from the rise of civilisations in Sumer, Egypt and India to the fall of the Roman Empire. The end of this period is usually taken by Western historians to be 476 CE, when Rome was sacked by the Visigoths.

THE PRIME MERIDIAN

Before the establishment of a world standard time in 1884 CE, the world was not divided into twenty-four time zones. Instead, every village, town and city had its own local time. For example, in the United States of America time varied from one locality to the next by a minute for every 19 kilometres one travelled east or west. This had not been a particularly significant problem for earlier societies as most people did not move from one place to another in any great hurry. However, the invention of the first practical steam engine in the late eighteenth century and the spread of railways across the world in the nineteenth century meant that people could cover large distances far more quickly than before.

In 1884, U.S. President Chester Arthur organised the International Meridian Conference to decide upon a world standard time. Delegates from twenty-five countries attended the conference in Washington, D.C. and within three weeks they had agreed that the prime meridian (the imaginary line joining the Earth's poles at 0° longitude) would pass through the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, London. A universal day was adopted that began at midnight at Greenwich, and time around the world has been measured universally, with some local variations, ever since.

CALENDARS

Different societies have different ways of measuring time. In Australia, we measure time according to the **Gregorian calendar**, a modified form of the **Julian calendar**. The Julian calendar was introduced by Julius Caesar in 46 BCE. Our calendar is almost identical to it. The only alterations have been those made by Pope Gregory VIII in 1582 CE, which set the year at 365 days and altered the calculation of leap years.

Islamic societies use a calendar that is different from the Gregorian calendar. It calculates the year from the date the prophet Muhammad fled persecution in Mecca in 622 CE. The Muslim calendar is also **lunar** (it follows the waxing and waning of the moon), so its year is shorter than the Gregorian year by eleven days. Jewish and Hindu societies also have their own calendars.

CHRONOLOGIES AND TIMELINES

Chronology (the arrangement of dates, events and so on) is important to historians. Knowing when something occurred can help evaluate the significance of an object; it can also help develop our understanding of continuity (when things stay the same) and change, and the reasons for both.

Until recently, the most common way of dating events in Australia and the Western world was to use the terms **BC** and **AD**. **BC** is an abbreviation for 'before Christ' and **AD** an abbreviation for *anno Domini*, which is Latin for 'in the year of the Lord'. These terms show a Christian perspective that was common among early modern historians, but which made some later historians uneasy. A new system was devised, replacing these terms with more neutral ones that refer to the same years—**BCE**, or 'before the Common Era', and **CE**, or 'of the Common Era'. Occasionally, the term **BP**, or 'before present' is used to describe events that occurred in the past. Because the 'present' is always changing, this time scale can be confusing and is therefore not a common way of dating events.

A timeline is a visual representation of time. Events are placed on a timeline in **chronological order**—that is, in order of when they occurred, from the earliest to the most recent. Those dates before 1 **CE** are recorded in descending order—that is, counting down towards an imaginary 'year zero'. Dates from then on are recorded in ascending order from 1 **CE**.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT YOU MAY NOT HAVE BEEN BORN WHEN YOU THINK YOU WERE?

The use of **BCE** and **CE** in place of **BC** and **AD** is widely considered an improvement, not only because these terms are more inclusive of non-Christians, but also because historians are now confident that Jesus Christ was born in about 3 or 4 **BCE** and not in the year zero. There is no such thing as the year zero, anyway!

31 BCE Roman Republic ends; Roman Empire begins

1 CE

1 Rome's population is one million

43 Rome invades Britain

79 Vesuvius erupts; Pompeii and Herculaneum are destroyed

80 Colosseum is completed

100 CE

116 Rome conquers Iran and Iraq

122 Hadrian's Wall is built

200 CE

212 Citizenship is awarded to all free men in the Empire

235 Barbarian invasions of Rome begin

250 Empire-wide persecution of Christians

286 Empire is split in half and ruled by two emperors

300 CE

312 Constantine becomes leader of western half of Empire; Christian church is recognised; gladiator contests end

324 Empire is united again

395 Roman Empire is divided into western and eastern halves

400 CE

410–455 Invasions of Rome by barbarians

476 Roman Empire ends

500 CE

SOURCE
5.4

A sample annotated timeline for the period of the Roman Empire

31 BCE – 476 CE
Roman Empire



SOURCE
5.5 A modern reproduction of a calendar developed by the Maya civilisation of Mesoamerica, perhaps as early as 3000 BCE. The Maya had several calendars, including a lunar one of 260 days and a solar one of 365 days. They are still used today in some communities in Guatemala.

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'What is history?' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:
- | | |
|-------------------|-----------------------|
| ■ AD | ■ chronological order |
| ■ BC | ■ chronology |
| ■ BCE | ■ Gregorian calendar |
| ■ BP | ■ Julian calendar |
| ■ CE | ■ lunar |
| ■ ancient history | ■ prime meridian |
- #2** Identify three different ways that are mentioned in this unit in which time can be divided into periods.
- #3** What is the prime meridian? Why is it important for measuring time?
- #4** What is problematic about the designation BP?

applying & analysing

- #5** Write a paragraph explaining why the designations 'BCE' and 'CE' are now more common than 'BC' and 'AD'.
- #6** Imagine it is the morning of 31 December 1999 CE. Write a number of journal entries that highlight the different types of attitudes brought about by the new millennium. Your journal entries could focus on religious fears or hopes, scepticism and/or concerns about technology.

evaluating & analysing

- #7** Several different types of calendars are mentioned in this unit. Choose two of them and create an annotated visual display (AVD) that illustrates the key features of each one and compares and contrasts them.

evaluating & creating

- #8** Imagine you are a delegate at the International Meridian Conference in 1884. You support establishing the prime meridian in Greenwich, London, and also the creation of world time zones. Do either of the following.
- Prepare the speech you will deliver on the first day of the conference, outlining the benefits of international cooperation on this issue.
 - Create a newspaper article (with headline) announcing Greenwich as the site for the prime meridian.

**LEARNING
 ACTIVITIES**



POINTS OF VIEW

SOURCE
6.1 A scene from the
film *Gladiator*

WINDOWS INTO HISTORY

Primary and secondary sources are often described as ‘windows into history’. Imagine that there is a massive brick wall in front of you. It stretches as far as you can see, to both left and right, and extends upwards into the sky. On the other side of the wall is a complete set of ‘facts’ about a historical event you are interested in. You notice that there are a number of windows in the wall. Each window is a different shape and size. Some are easy to see through and give a good (but not perfect) view of what is on the other side; others are opaque, or are positioned too high or too low to show a lot of what is going on. Sometimes what is seen from one window contradicts what is seen through another. Each window represents a historical source and gives a slightly different version of what happened; this is because each account is written from the author’s point of view.

BIAS

When written material reflects an author’s values and attitudes, it is said to be biased. There are many types of **bias**. Some examples are:

- **class bias**—shown by a point of view that reflects an economic position, such as an aristocrat’s view of slaves and slavery
- **geographical bias**—shown by a point of view that reflects where the author comes from, such as a Corinthian’s view of the Persian Empire
- **racial bias**—shown by a point of view that reflects the racial or ethnic background of the author, such as an Indian writer’s view of a non-Indian.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT OPINIONS ARE NOT THE SAME AS FACTS?

A fact is information that is known to be true—for example, 'paper was used in Ancient China'. Opinions are information that can be disputed—for example, 'Alexander the Great was the greatest military leader in world history'.

- **gender bias**—shown by a point of view that reflects gender, such as a male writer's view of women
- **religious bias**—shown by a point of view that reflects religion, such as a Roman pagan's view of Christianity.

In general, historians try to write their material from a **neutral point of view**. This means that they attempt to cover all the reliable source material produced on a topic without bias.

SOURCE 6.2 A statue of the historian Thucydides outside the Austrian Parliament building in Vienna

Q Why do you think a statue of an Ancient Greek historian would be placed outside a major public building in modern Austria?

THUCYDIDES AND THE 'SCIENTIFIC APPROACH' TO HISTORY

Writing material from a neutral point of view is part of a 'scientific approach' to history. The Greek historian Thucydides, who lived from about 460 to 400 BCE, is a good example of a historian who tried to adopt a scientific approach to history. This approach is shown in his book, *History of the Peloponnesian War*, which describes the war between Sparta and Athens (431–404 BCE). In his book, Thucydides examined cause and effect and emphasised chronology. He also discounted the gods as the chief determiners of history; instead, he believed that human beings made history through their choices and actions.

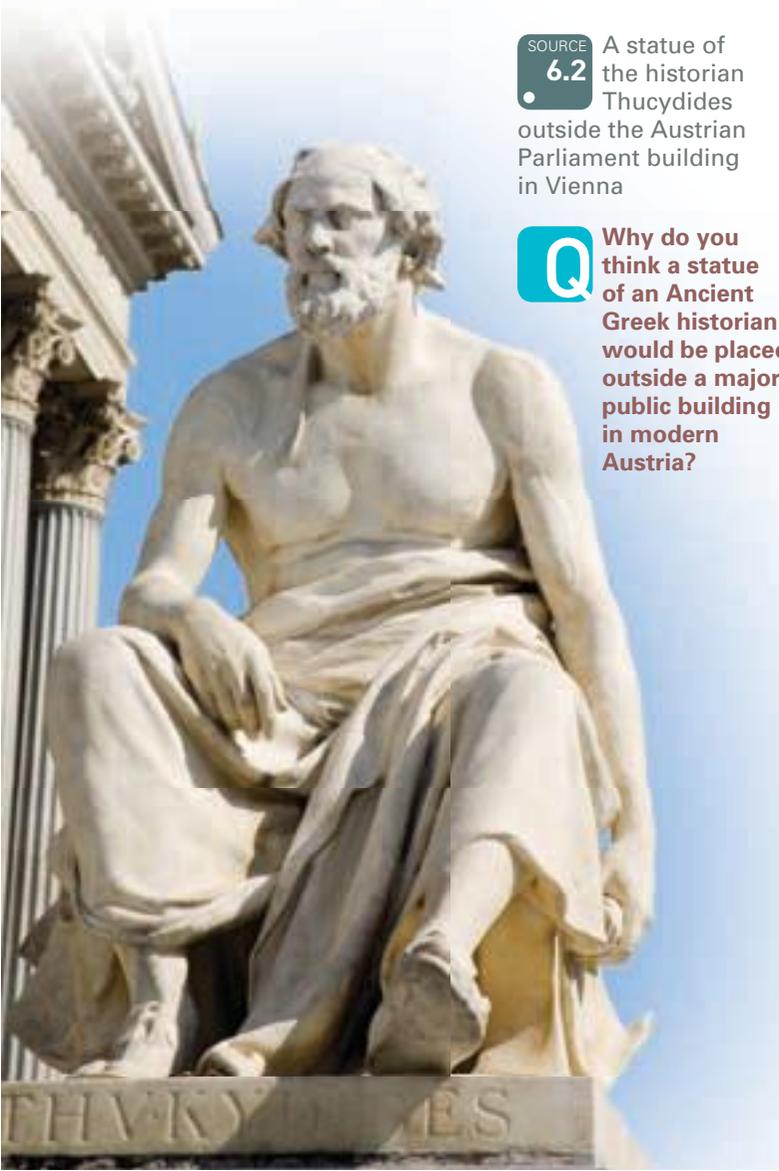
HOLLYWOOD AND HISTORY

Hollywood filmmakers have produced hundreds of feature films depicting historical events. When watching these films, students of history should ask themselves, 'Are they good sources of historical knowledge?'

GLADIATOR

The movie *Gladiator* (2000 CE) was directed by Ridley Scott and starred Russell Crowe and Joaquin Phoenix. Many historians criticised the film because of historical inaccuracies. Here are some of the criticisms:

- In the film, the fictional character Maximus, a gladiator, kills Commodus. According to historical records, Commodus was killed by a wrestler.
- The Colosseum is referred to in the film as the Colosseum. In fact it was not called that until the seventh century CE. *Gladiator* is set in about 180 CE, when the Colosseum was known as the Flavian Amphitheatre.
- In the opening battle scene, stirrups can be seen on some of the Roman horses. The Romans did not use stirrups.



CASE STUDY: XENOPHON AND ARISTOTLE ON THE SPARTANS

In *Constitution of the Spartans*, the Greek historian Xenophon, who lived from about 427 to 355 BCE, refers to the Spartans as having ‘extraordinary power and prestige’ among the Greek states despite their small population. Xenophon also makes the following comments in relation to the Spartan education system:

The legislator further provided the educator with a body of youths in the prime of life and bearing whips, to inflict punishment when necessary, with this happy result that in Sparta modesty and obedience ever go hand in hand, nor is there lack of either.

SOURCE 6.3 Xenophon, from *Constitution of the Spartans*

By his use of the words ‘extraordinary’ and ‘happy’, Xenophon displays a positive view of the Spartans.

The Greek philosopher Aristotle (384–322 BCE) holds a very different view on the Spartans’ treatment of their children (see Source 6.5).

The Spartans brutalise their children by abnormal exertion which is supposed to endow them with courage. In point of fact, however ... courage should not be the sole or even principal end of youth training ... the Spartans go to work in quite the wrong way.

SOURCE 6.5 Aristotle, from *Politics*

This case illustrates why modern historians must constantly re-examine the conclusions they draw to ensure their accounts are consistent with the evidence.

WOMEN IN ANCIENT HISTORY

It is hard to find references to women in sources from the ancient world. This is especially the case for women who were agricultural workers or slaves. Most sources are written by men who present women as inferior. When women are mentioned or discussed at all, it is often in their role as wife, daughter, mother or concubine (a woman who cohabits with an important man without being married to him). However, there are some women in ancient history who have been remembered and written about, and some whose own writings survive.

ENHEDUANNA: FIRST KNOWN AUTHOR

Enheduanna was born in Akkad in about 2285 BCE. Records indicate that she was the daughter of King Sargon, who in about 2350 BCE had brought all the Sumerian cities under his rule and established a great empire throughout Mesopotamia. Sargon appointed his daughter high priestess to Nanna, the Sumerian moon god, a practice that subsequent kings continued for the next 500 years.

Enheduanna is remembered as the writer of the first literary works that can be attributed to a known individual. A handful of her works survive, including two long hymns to the goddess Inanna, who was Nanna’s daughter.

SOURCE 6.4 The Spartan education system was intended to produce warriors like the one depicted in this bronze statue at the Archaeological Museum of Sparta.

Q What qualities of Spartan warriors are on display in this sculpture?





SOURCE 6.6 Enheduanna is the third from the right of the four figures in the scene carved on this alabaster disc, which shows a religious ritual. The disc was in pieces when Leonard Woolley found it in Ur. It has been restored and is in the University of Pennsylvania Museum.

- Q 1** What do you notice about the height and clothing of Enheduanna when compared with the other figures in this scene?
- 2** What does this suggest about their roles and status?

LIVIA: POWER BEHIND THE THRONE

Livia Drusilla was born in Rome in 58 BCE. She married her cousin at the age of fifteen and then, at the age of nineteen, met and fell in love with Octavian, who later became emperor of Rome. Their affair caused a scandal. Both divorced their respective spouses, even though Livia was pregnant to her first husband. Livia and Octavian were married three days after Livia gave birth to her first husband's child. They were married for over fifty years, but never had children of their own.

LIVIA'S LEGACY

Octavian relied on Livia's advice in matters of state and at times she acted as regent. She supported charitable causes by building and supporting orphanages and providing dowries for poor women. In 35 BCE, Octavian honoured Livia in two ways: he built a statue in her honour and he ruled that she could control her own finances. Livia died in 29 CE at the age of eighty-six and was later deified (that is, thought of as a goddess). Roman coins bearing her profile had the Latin word *pietas* stamped on the coin—*pietas* was the virtue of duty or devotion.

*You have filled the land with venom,
like a dragon.*

*Vegetation ceases, when You thunder like Ishkur,
You who bring down the Flood from the mountain,
Supreme One, who are the Inanna of Heaven
(and) Earth,*

Who rain flaming fire over the land ...

Who can fathom Your great rites!

SOURCE 6.7 From 'Prayer of Enheduanna: Adoration of Inanna of Ur', in J. D. Pritchard, *The Ancient Near East*, Volume II, Princeton University Press, Chichester, 1975

Q What does this extract tell you about the goddess Inanna and the poet Enheduanna?



SOURCE 6.8 A statue of Livia found at Pompeii, in the collections of the Louvre Museum in Paris, France. Livia is dressed as Ops, the Roman goddess of abundance.

- Q 1** Livia holds a sheaf of wheat in her right hand. What is spilling from the goat's horn in her left hand?
- 2** Why do you think that Livia was depicted as this particular goddess?

... she answered that it was by being scrupulously chaste herself, doing gladly whatever pleased him, not meddling with any of his affairs and, in particular, by pretending neither to hear nor notice the favourites that were the objects of his passion [that her and Octavian's marriage was a happy one] ...

SOURCE
6.9

Dio Cassius writing about Livia. Dio Cassius wrote a Roman history in eighty books that took him twenty-two years to complete.

HISTORY IN THE INTERNET AGE

The internet has opened up opportunities for sourcing information. Search engines, however, can generate thousands, if not millions, of 'hits'—so how do we know what is relevant to our historical inquiries? The **reliability** of information is another issue: there is great variation in the quality of information available via the internet because anyone can publish material on it and often this material is not checked or scrutinised by experts.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1 In your 'What is history?' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:
 - bias
 - neutral point of view
 - reliability
- #2 In your own words, explain why primary and secondary sources are often viewed as 'windows into history'.
- #3 What is the difference between a fact and an opinion? Give five examples of each from your own life.
- #4 Give an example from your own experience of a type of bias.

understanding

- #5
 - a In your own words, explain why modern films may not make good sources of historical knowledge.
 - b List five films that you have seen or know of that were about a key historical figure or event.
- #6 In your own words, explain why historical information on the internet is not always reliable.

applying & analysing

- #7 In this unit you learnt about Livia, a famous Ancient Roman woman.
 - a Create a timeline for Livia's life.
 - b From the information provided, generalise about what qualities, habits, attitudes, abilities and the like appeared to make women in ancient times powerful. Are these qualities, habits, attitudes and abilities admired by women today? If not, why not?

evaluating

- #8 Create a chart for the Spartans that:
 - identifies what parts of Aristotle's and Xenophon's writing are facts
 - identifies what parts of Aristotle's and Xenophon's writing are opinions.

Under this chart, evaluate both writers in a single paragraph: do they show a positive bias, a negative bias or a neutral point of view?

evaluating & creating

- #9 To demonstrate your understanding of bias, write about Australia Day, which is held annually on 26 January. Write from two different points of view—for example, that of an Australian of European background and that of an Indigenous Australian.



HISTORICAL THINKING

WHY HISTORICAL THINKING MATTERS

Historical thinking is central to the questions historians seek to answer, the arguments they make and the debates they engage in. Historical thinking also helps students of history to understand the past. It lets students make sense of primary sources and develop views on them and arguments about them, and challenge interpretations made by historians and others writing in secondary sources.

METHODS OF THINKING

The discipline of history requires particular methods of thinking, which are outlined below.

HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE

This involves being aware of what it is important to remember, investigate, teach and learn. This is not about what you think is personally interesting, but about what is relevant and of value to the study as a whole.

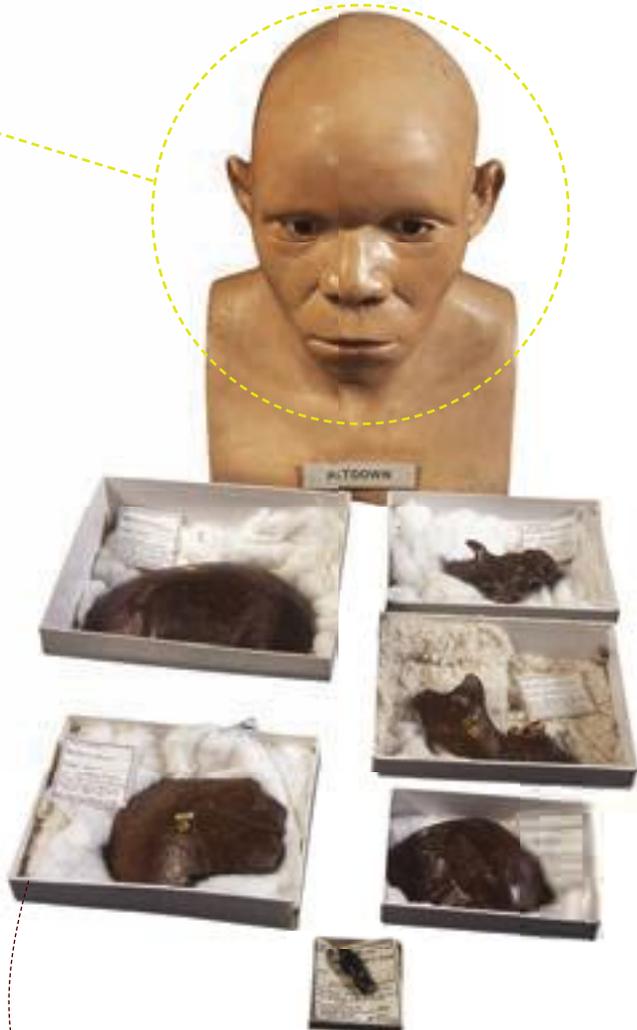
The way in which an object, person, idea or event is 'historically significant' can be difficult to determine. This is because individuals and groups often have different ideas about relevance and value. The twenty-sixth of January, for example, is celebrated annually as Australia Day. On this date in 1788 CE, the British First Fleet arrived in Sydney Cove to establish a permanent penal settlement. The negative impact this settlement had on Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples has led

SOURCE 7.1 Former Australian prime minister Kevin Rudd on the big screen at Federation Square, Melbourne, on 13 February 2008 CE. The crowd is there to watch his apology to Australia's Stolen Generations. The Stolen Generations were a large group of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander children removed from their families by Australian federal and state government agencies and church missions over about 100 years from 1869. At the time of Rudd's apology, the issue of the Stolen Generations had divided public opinion for a number of years. Some commentators, such as Sir Ronald Wilson, then president of the Australian Human Rights and Equal Opportunities Commission, argued that the treatment of the Stolen Generations was an attempted genocide (mass murder). Australian historian Keith Windschuttle, however, strongly rejected this view.

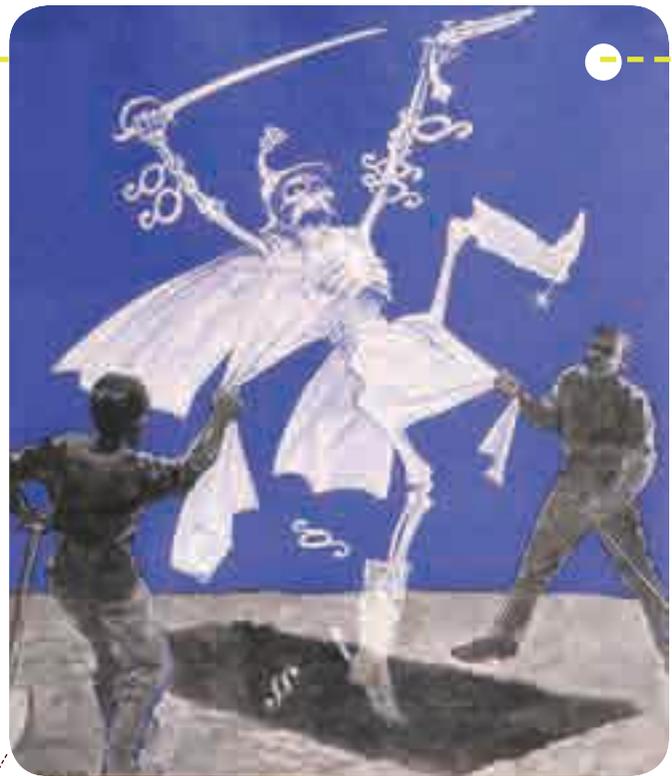
some Australians to commemorate 26 January as 'Invasion Day', rather than Australia Day. The date is historically significant for what occurred in the past, for its impact and for how it divides opinion today.

EVIDENCE

It is important to know how to find, select and interpret source material (both primary and secondary). This is as much about *asking* questions as it is about *answering* them. Good interpretation involves reading 'between the lines'—understanding who produced the source and for what purpose.



SOURCE 7.2 The 'Piltdown Man' artefacts as they are currently exhibited at the Natural History Museum, London, UK. Piltdown Man was 'discovered' by Charles Dawson in 1912 CE. In 1949, Dr Arthur Smith Woodward confirmed that Piltdown Man was the 'missing link' between apes and humans. In 1953, though, tests on the remains cast doubt on this finding. Some researchers went so far as to brand the remains as fake. It was not until 2003 that two former British Museum employees were named as the probable hoaxers. They had a grudge against Dr Smith Woodward, who was their boss. It was established that the jawbone came from an orangutan.



SOURCE 7.3 Some historians argue that Adolf Hitler appealed to German voters in the 1930s CE because he argued against the implementation of the Treaty of Versailles. Germany was forced to sign the Treaty of Versailles in 1919 in order to bring the First World War to an end. Among other things, the Treaty of Versailles imposed huge financial penalties on Germany. When the Great Depression of the 1930s caused the German economy to decline and unemployment to rise, support for Hitler also rose. In this political cartoon, Hitler's Germany 'buries the ghost' of the treaty.

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

This requires creating and understanding sequences of events (chronologies). Historical thinking in this area also means being able to recognise evidence of progress and decline.

Most historians look at continuity and change in one of two ways:

- by comparing some point in the past with the present
- by comparing two points in the past, such as before and after the collapse of a civilisation or another significant event.

An understanding of continuity and change helps us recognise the interconnectedness of objects, people, ideas and events. This is important because 'history' does not happen randomly, but results from the interplay of many different factors.

SOURCE
7.4

The World Trade Center terrorist attack in New York, USA, on 11 September 2001 CE. A short-term consequence of this event was a collapse of the U.S. airline industry as many people no longer felt it was safe to travel by air. A long-term consequence was a change in U.S. foreign policy that included waging a 'war on terror' and led to U.S. President George W. Bush ordering the invasion of Afghanistan and Iraq.



CAUSE AND EFFECT

Historians must understand how different events, ideas, individuals and developments influence each other. These influences can be short-term and long-term. Historical thinking in this area also means being able to recognise which outcomes are intended (linked to a purpose) and which ones are unintended.

HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES

It is important to be aware that source material is produced within particular social and cultural contexts. Historical thinking in this area also requires acceptance of many different perspectives on the past.

A *Christopher Columbus was enrolled in the American Republic's Hall of Fame today. A majestic memorial fountain, wrought around a heroic statue of the discoverer of the New World, was unveiled to his honour. President Taft pronounced the intrepid sailor as 'the greatest mariner of history ... the struggles of Columbus present the basis of a truly epic poem and make him a hero, whose great and exceptional virtues command respect and veneration. A study of his character leads to a full recognition of the greatness and dignity of the man, the ideals that prompted his almost superhuman efforts.'*

B *Columbus sent expedition after expedition into the interior [of Haiti]. They found no gold fields so instead filled their ships with 500 Arawak men, women and children to be taken back as slaves. Of these 500, two died en route. Columbus and his men ordered all natives on Haiti aged fourteen or over to collect a certain quantity of gold every three months. When they brought it they were given copper tokens to hang around their necks. Those found without a copper token had their hands cut off and bled to death. To emphasise the heroism of Columbus and his successors as navigators and discoverers serves to justify what was done. There is also considerable doubt about Columbus's skill as a navigator ... he may well have landed in the Americas by accident. (Columbus himself, until the day he died, continued to believe he had actually landed in Asia.)*

SOURCE
7.5
Two views of Christopher Columbus are presented here. The first is from the *New York Times* of 9 June 1912 CE and the second is from H. Zinn, *A People's History of the United States*, Harper and Row, New York, 1980.

- Q**
- 1 List three differences between these two sources.
 - 2 Can you think of reasons why the sources might be different?

HISTORICAL EMPATHY

This type of thinking consists of an ability to 'enter into the world of the past' and not judge on the basis of personal preferences. It is about being aware of the values you bring to a historical inquiry and how these may impact on historical understanding.

Honestly, they were inhuman. I mean, I've seen them lay men down and just put a bit of a pipe or something in their mouth and just keep pouring water in and then jump on their stomach. They did some terrible things.

SOURCE 7.6 An Australian who was a prisoner of war recounts his memory of Japanese atrocities against other Australian prisoners on the infamous Burma Railway during the Second World War. From P. Adam-Smith, *Prisoners of War: From Gallipoli to Korea*, Ken Fin Books, Collingwood, 1998.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 Why is historical thinking important to those who study history?

applying & analysing

- #2** What does the caption of Source 7.3 suggest may have been a cause of Hitler's rising popularity in Germany in the 1930s?
- #3** In Source 7.3, what is the cartoonist's perspective (either positive or negative) on both the Treaty of Versailles and the actions of Hitler's Germany in 'burying' it? In each case, what is it about the way the cartoon has been drawn that helps you to work this out?
- #4** Examine Source 7.6:
What view of Japanese behaviour during the Second World War is put forward in this account?
Is it easy to empathise with the experience of the Australian prisoner of war? Why, or why not?
Why must we take care when reading single accounts of historical events?

CONTESTABILITY

Students of history should be willing to challenge popular or accepted interpretations of history even if these are supported by historians or leading public figures.

SOURCE 7.7 Private John Simpson Kirkpatrick (1892–1915 CE) assisting an unidentified soldier being carried by a donkey. Simpson was later killed by Turkish machine gun fire. 'Simpson and his donkey' have entered Australian folklore, mainly due to a 1916 book, *Glorious Deeds of Australasians in the Great War*, that claimed he single-handedly rescued up to 300 injured soldiers during his three and a half weeks at Gallipoli (a physical impossibility given the extremely dangerous and rough conditions). What many do not know is that Simpson was English, and not Australian. He had joined up as an ANZAC hoping for free passage to England. He was also AWOL (absent without leave) during his time at Gallipoli. This photograph by J. A. O'Brien is in the Australian War Memorial in Canberra.



evaluating & creating

- #5** Conduct further research into the events at Gallipoli during the First World War to answer the following question in an extended paragraph about Source 7.7: Why might the story of Simpson and his donkey have become important to so many Australians despite the improbability of accounts of his deeds?
- #6** Use the information from your answer to Question 5 to retell the story of Simpson and his donkey. Present your retelling in one of the following ways:
- PowerPoint® presentation
 - cartoon strip
 - role-play.

INQUIRY

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU ANSWER THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS FROM THE START OF THE CHAPTER.

TASKS

#1 got the time?

Conduct further research into the **concept of time** to explore some of its different aspects, for example:

- Is time real?
- Time in history
- Time in religion
- Time in philosophy
- Time in science
- Time travel

Choose one of the following ways to present your exploration:

- wiki page
- television interview
- AVD
- PowerPoint® presentation
- short play
- documentary script.

#2 analyse a primary source

Use Fordham University's free Internet Medieval Sourcebook, Internet Ancient History Sourcebook or Internet Modern History Sourcebook to **select and examine a primary source of your choice**. Begin by printing off a copy of the source and placing it in the centre of a sheet of A3 or poster paper. Then annotate it with observations, analysis and questions. Conduct additional research to further help you to understand and explain its context and meaning. Present your findings to the whole class.

#3 Hollywood and history

Select a recent Hollywood movie that is **set in the past**—suggestions are *Robin Hood*, *Kingdom of Heaven*, *Spartacus*, *300*, *Prince of Egypt*, *Stargate*. Work in a small group to watch the movie and assess its historical accuracy. Try to highlight five positive areas (accuracy) and five areas of weakness (inaccuracy). Present your findings to the whole class. You will need to conduct detailed research on the historical context of your film before you analyse the film's accuracy.

#4 ICT product: visual story of an archaeological site

Create an ICT product (with visual and audio components) that tells **the story of a famous or interesting archaeological site** such as Troy, the Royal Tombs of Ur, the Minoan palace at Knossos or Mohenjo-Daro in the Indus Valley. Be sure to:

- include a detailed map of the site
- include relevant images or artefacts (well described)
- include a timeline of events (relating to the site itself, and to archaeological work on the site)
- describe in detail who discovered the site and how it was discovered, including the archaeologist/s and other professionals involved, and the techniques and/or technology they employed
- evaluate the significance of the discovery.

TASKS

#5 Christopher Columbus controversy: case study

In Source 7.5 you were introduced to different views of Christopher Columbus. For some, Columbus is the person who is credited with discovering the Americas, and consequently his achievements are worthy of celebration each year. Others contend that the Americas could not really be 'discovered' at all since people already lived there. Some strongly believe that Columbus should not be celebrated as a hero, as he was twice investigated for his poor treatment of native peoples. **In a group of three or four students, investigate this controversy further.** Your research should include:

- finding out more about Columbus and creating a chronology of his life, presented as a timeline
- locating some of Columbus's writings in which he talks about native peoples
- finding out more about Columbus Day, and how and why it is celebrated in different U.S. states and in other Central American and South American countries

- finding out about the impact of Columbus's discoveries of native populations
- locating some of the writings of those people who strongly criticise Columbus—for example, University of Colorado Ethnic Studies professor Ward Churchill.

Present your findings in a detailed PMI chart. Having assessed the evidence in your PMI chart, work within your group to reach a consensus about whether Columbus was a hero or a villain, or a mixture of both.

#7 international conference of historians

Imagine you are a historian who is a world expert on *one* of the important sites, documents and finds listed below. You are about to attend an international conference that will seek to decide on the eight most important historical artefacts that have survived to the modern era. Working in a group with two fellow historians who are also experts in your field:

- a prepare all of the material you need to convince those attending the conference that your site/document/find should be in the top eight
- b write up and present a speech of approximately five minutes in length. You may use a PowerPoint presentation during your speech.

The sites/documents/finds in question are:

- Angkor Thom, Cambodia
- Colosseum, Rome
- Tutankhamen's tomb, Egypt
- Knossos Palace, Crete
- Palenque, Mexico
- Parthenon, Greece
- Pompeii, Roman Empire (Italy)
- Rosetta Stone, Egypt
- Sutton Hoo, Viking Britain
- Terracotta warriors, China
- Vindolanda tablets, Roman Britain

#6

The first part of your task is to create a personal time capsule that will be 'opened' and analysed by another member of the class. **Your time capsule can only contain ten items**—these may include things that have been written, said and/or preserved. Work with your teacher to hide your time capsule somewhere in the school. Note down on a piece of paper how to find the capsule, and hand the paper to your teacher. You will then be given another student's instructions. As an archaeologist-historian, you will locate the time capsule, read/view and analyse the contents and then write up the 'history' of that person from the ten artefacts. A peer discussion will then take place, allowing each time capsule's owner and the archaeologist-historian to discuss the account, noting the accuracy (or otherwise) of the interpretation. A whole class debrief should follow, with a focus on some of the difficulties of interpreting historical evidence.

SOURCE 8.1 Christopher Columbus's landing on Hispaniola, in the West Indies, is depicted here in an engraving published in 1886.



KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

What different beliefs and theories are there about how Aboriginal people first came to Australia?

What does archaeology tell us about how Aboriginal people lived before Europeans?

What did the first Australians trade and how did trade influence the way they lived?

What role did laws play in the lives of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people?



Two distinct peoples make up the First Australians: Aboriginal people and Torres Strait Islanders. Scientists estimate Aboriginal people have lived in Australia for at least 50 000 years; the people themselves believe they have been in Australia since the beginning of time.

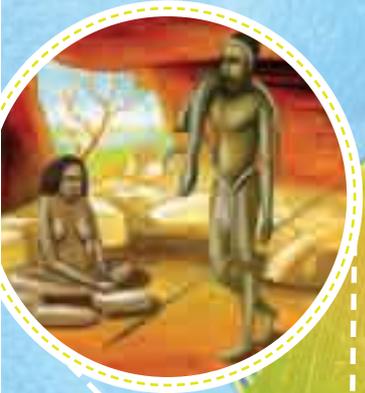
INVESTIGATING ANCIENT

AUSTRALIA



SOURCE
0.1 Aboriginal
rock art in
Arnhem
Land

SNAPSHOT



LEGEND

-  Important Aboriginal site
-  Present-day state or territory border
- TASMANIA** Present-day state or territory name

SOURCE 1.1 Australia, including Torres Strait region

60 000 YEARS AGO**50 000 YEARS AGO** People are living at Lake Mungo, NSW**48 000** People are camping in the cave known as Devil's Lair, WA**40 000 YEARS AGO** Two people who lived at Lake Mungo are buried**30 000 YEARS AGO** People are camping at the Puritjarra rock shelter in Central Australia**20 000 YEARS AGO****13 000** People are living at Kow Swamp, Victoria**12 000** Tasmania becomes separated from the Australian mainland**10 000 YEARS AGO** Torres Strait Islands are formed when the land bridge between the Australian continent and New Guinea is flooded**7 000** People migrate from the Melanesia region to settle on islands in the Torres Strait**1 000**

Stone axes made at a quarry near Mount Isa, Qld

PRESENTSOURCE
1.2 Timeline of Ancient Australia

In Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures, people have relied on oral, ceremonial and visual means for communication, rather than on written records. Other societies came to rely on written languages and stories; Indigenous Australians have recorded and taught their history and culture and kept them alive through a strong oral tradition. The different art forms they have used include painted images on rock surfaces, sand drawings, sand paintings, wooden sculptures and artefacts, and performances involving music, song and dance. Their spiritual affiliation with the natural world (sea, sky, land, plants and animals) encouraged forms of conservation and the utmost respect for the environment on which their survival depended.

Before the arrival of Europeans, Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander society was made up of approximately 250 language groups. Certain items were shared between different groups through a sophisticated and extensive trade network. Through contact with other groups, people learnt things such as language, customs, songs and stories. For example, regular festival-like events to harvest the nuts of the bunya pine in the Bunya Mountains north-west of Brisbane, and Bogong moths from the mountain tops near present-day Canberra, brought different groups together.

Aboriginal groups commonly moved from place to place within their tribal area of land to hunt and gather seasonal foods. The seasons also determined where they would camp and for how long. The Girramy (Girramay) rainforest people of the Cardwell region in far north Queensland, for example, occupied large, diverse lands extending from the coast to the Great Dividing Range and including the flat plains of Murray Upper. All eight clans of the Girramy language group had their own areas of land and a common Girramy dialect was spoken.

Thousands of Aboriginal sites across Australia are testimony to past busy human activity. Perhaps you've even walked by a shell midden near a river, at the beach or on an island, and not known it. In the not-too-distant past, some sites were destroyed to make way for farming, houses, roads and other types of development. Better laws today help to minimise this, and they recognise Aboriginal people as custodians of their cultural heritage, with rights to maintain and protect it.

SOURCE
2.1 An ancient rock engraving
at Cleland Hills in Central
Australia

Q Why do you think
Aboriginal people used
rock art to communicate
some of their sacred
beliefs?

BEING HERE

SINCE THE DREAMING

Aboriginal people believe they have always been in Australia. Many say that they 'come from the land' or 'belong to the land'. This is a common and strongly held Aboriginal viewpoint. Aboriginal people have stories that tell of Australia 'since time began'. Their very old stories tell about the creation of people, land, animals and plants. These are widely known as **Dreaming** stories. The recently adopted term 'Dreaming' has come to mean two closely related things: the period of creation, and the stories originating from this period according to Aboriginal culture. These stories tell of the creation of the world, the laws for caring for the land and the laws people are to live by.

Some groups from Central and Western Australia continue to use their own word, *jukurrpa* (*tjurkurrpa* or *tjurgurba*) for the old stories that tell of their creation and their laws. Other words used across Australia to refer to this concept are *altjeringa*, *alcheringa*, *alchera*, *aldjerinya*, *palaneri*, *bugaregara*, *ngarangani*, *ungud*, *wongar* and *bugari*. Other words again may also be used, but they all refer to the creation period when ancestral beings created the world and established the relationships between people, plants, animals and the physical features of the land.

DREAMING STORIES

Dreaming stories are proof of the very successful **oral tradition** used by Aboriginal people to pass on their cultures and histories to subsequent generations. For tens of thousands of years they have relied for this on spoken words, dance and images. An enormous number of engraved and painted images on rock surfaces tell stories from the Dreaming, which often feature the mighty **Creator Ancestors**. Today, other mediums such as bark and canvas are used for painting and keeping stories alive.

DID YOU KNOW

**THAT THE RAINBOW
SERPENT IS THE
MOST COMMON
CREATOR ANCESTOR?**

Different Aboriginal groups across Australia have their own stories about the Rainbow Serpent. Many of these stories tell how the hills, mountains and waterways came to be.

SOURCE
2.2 Elder Bill Neidjie



DID YOU
KNOW

THAT 'COUNTRY' HAS A SPECIAL MEANING FOR ABORIGINAL PEOPLE?

Aboriginal people have a special bond with their **Country**, which is always written with a capital *C*. **Country** is not just the mountains, deserts, plains and waterways—it is all living things. It also includes the stories and the Creation Spirits associated with an area.

Our story is in the land ... It is written in those sacred places. My children will look after those places, that's the law.

SOURCE
2.3 Words of Bill Neidjie, elder of the Bunitj clan, Gagudju people, Arnhem Land, Northern Territory

- Q** 1 What is the role of 'the law' or laws in Australian society today?
- 2 Do you think there might be similarities and differences between Aboriginal laws and the role of laws in Australian society today? Give reasons for your answer.

CREATOR ANCESTORS FROM THE DREAMING

Wandjina are the 'Creator Ancestors' of Aboriginal groups in the Kimberley region in Western Australia. Some very old and impressive paintings of *wandjina* can be seen at protected rock art sites today. It is difficult to date these paintings exactly as custodians paint over them as they fade. They are still being painted today. Like other images of Creator Ancestors who journeyed across Australia long ago, they remind us of a lively and ancient past and of the interconnectedness between Aboriginal societies, their laws and their lands. This link continues to exist in the present day for many Aboriginal groups. The laws and belief systems handed down in the Dreaming are as much about the present and the future as they are of the past. Using painting, elder Charlie Alyungurra expressed his rights and responsibilities to retell the story of *wandjina*, his Creator Ancestors (see Source 2.4).



SOURCE
2.4 Charlie Alyungurra did this bark painting of *wandjina* in 1975. *Wandjina* are his Creator Ancestors. They are known as the bringers of rain. They make and control the weather and are the Protectors of Country.

- Q** 1 What can you see in this bark painting? List as many words as you can to describe it. Share your list with the rest of the class to come up with a class list.
- 2 What do you think this painting is trying to tell the viewer?
- 3 In your view, what is the main purpose of bark paintings such as this one? How could you test your answer to see if it is correct?

A SCIENTIFIC VIEW OF AUSTRALIA'S HUMAN PAST

The discoverers, explorers and colonists of the three million square miles which are Australia, were its Aborigines.

SOURCE 2.5 John Mulvaney in 1969, quoted in R. Lewis, *Australian History Mysteries: Investigating Five Case Studies in Australian History*, National Museum of Australia, 2002

For decades, archaeologists have been asking the following two important questions about Australia's remote human past:

- When did Aboriginal people first set foot on the shoreline of the Australian continent?
- What were the patterns of settlement across the continent, including when and why it occurred?

From many kinds of evidence, especially archaeological data from Aboriginal sites, archaeologists believe that Aboriginal people have lived in Australia for at least 50 000 years. However, before the invention of radiocarbon dating in the 1950s, based on geological evidence, the scientific community believed Aboriginal people had come to Australia about 6000 years ago.

In 1968, geomorphologist Jim Bowler made an amazing discovery in a sand dune at Lake Mungo in western New South Wales. It was the grave of an Aboriginal woman, later named 'Mungo Lady'. Archaeologist Alan Thorne meticulously reconstructed her skull, making the startling claim that this lightly built woman had lived tens of thousands of years ago. Mungo Lady, who lived 40 000 years ago, is still the oldest known modern human in the world to have been cremated, or ritually burnt after death. At about this time, Thorne identified another 40 human remains from Kow Swamp in Victoria. Their rugged bone structure, quite unlike that of Mungo Lady, led Thorne to believe he was looking at two very different groups of people.



SOURCE 2.6 Archaeologist John Mulvaney used this sieve and this trowel at excavation sites.



- 1 In what ways would John Mulvaney have used these tools to help him at excavation sites?
- 2 What other tools do you think Mulvaney may have used on excavation sites?

ONE THEORY OF ABORIGINAL ORIGINS AND SETTLEMENT

Alan Thorne came up with the 'two-wave' hypothesis, which said that Aboriginal people today are descended from two physically different peoples who came ashore in the Pleistocene era. The 'first wave' was a robust type of early human from Java, descended from the Javan *Homo erectus*, while the 'second wave' was descended from a north Asian *Homo erectus* that had spread from China into South-East Asia. Thorne believed that the delicately built people who were later found at Lake Mungo belonged to this second wave. Thorne's theory is one attempt to explain the origins of the First Australians.



SOURCE 2.7 Locations of archaeological sites in Australia from the Pleistocene, which occurred between about 1.6 million and 10 000 years ago

Q Why do you think some people may have wanted to believe that Aborigines only arrived in Australia in the very recent past? Discuss this with a partner.



[There have] always been people who for various philosophical or scientific or political reasons have wanted Aborigines to have only arrived the week before last Tuesday, and those who have thought that Aboriginal people may well have evolved partially here, and have made adaptations physically and culturally over a very long period.

SOURCE 2.8 Alan Thorne talks about different theories regarding the origin of the First Australians, on the ABC's Quantum website.

DID YOU KNOW

NEW TECHNOLOGY LEADS TO NEW THEORIES

When Alan Thorne proposed his two-wave theory, DNA testing was not available. Recent DNA testing by Greg Adcock has shown that there is no mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) difference between individuals from Lake Mungo and individuals from Kow Swamp. Mitochondrial DNA is normally inherited only through the mother. It can be used to track ancestry through females and has been used in this way to trace the ancestry of many species back for hundreds of generations.

Work by other scientists indicates that there was more variation in the shape of the human face and head thousands of years ago than there is today. Many scientists now believe that both Mungo people and Kow Swamp people were *Homo sapiens* (modern humans) and that the perceived differences between them were the result of adaptations to a variety of conditions in Australia.

SOURCE 2.9 Small-scale archaeological excavations in progress on Moa Island in Torres Strait. These excavations are an initiative of the local Mualgal community and Kubin Community Council in partnership with Monash University archaeologists. Their aim is to document local history dating from a time beyond community memory. The research incorporates a community training program.

THAT ABORIGINAL PEOPLE ARE THE TRADITIONAL OWNERS OF THE LAND NOW CALLED AUSTRALIA?

In the 1970s, Aboriginal people began voicing their right to be acknowledged as traditional owners of their cultural heritage as it is contained in the landscape. Today, archaeologists consult with local Aboriginal groups, and archaeologists and Aboriginal representatives work side by side to excavate and research sites.

Every so often, exciting new discoveries are made of rich ancient sites such as rock shelters. The evidence collected from these sites often leads to new claims relating to the big questions confronting Australian archaeology. Many archaeologists believe that, in the future, superior dating methods will show Aboriginal history in Australia to extend beyond 60 000 years.

- Q 1** What is happening in this photograph?
- Q 2** Does the photograph help to support the claim that 'archaeologists and Aboriginal representatives work side by side to excavate and research sites'? Explain your answer.



remembering & understanding

#1 In your workbook or in a Microsoft® Word document or Excel® file on your computer, create an 'Investigating Ancient Australia' glossary. Begin your glossary by listing these key words and explaining their meanings:

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| ■ Country | ■ hybrid |
| ■ Creator Ancestors | ■ hypothesis |
| ■ DNA | ■ interconnectedness |
| ■ Dreaming | ■ oral tradition |
| ■ geomorphologist | ■ <i>wandjina</i> |

- #2**
- What are Dreaming stories?
 - How have these stories been remembered by Aboriginal people?
 - What is the relationship between Dreaming stories and Aboriginal people's connection to the land they come from?
 - How do Dreaming stories show the 'interconnectedness between Aboriginal societies, their laws and their lands'?

understanding & analysing

- #3**
- Why do you think Aboriginal people believe their oral history is the equivalent of written history books?
 - In what ways does art play an important role in helping Aboriginal people to preserve their histories and cultures?

analysing & evaluating

- #4**
- Look carefully at Source 2.4, Charlie Alyungurra's *wandjina* painting. What does it show?
 - What beliefs is Charlie Alyungurra expressing through this painting and why are they important to him and to other Aboriginal people?
- #5** Is it important for non-Aboriginal people to know about and appreciate Dreaming stories? Give reasons for your opinion.

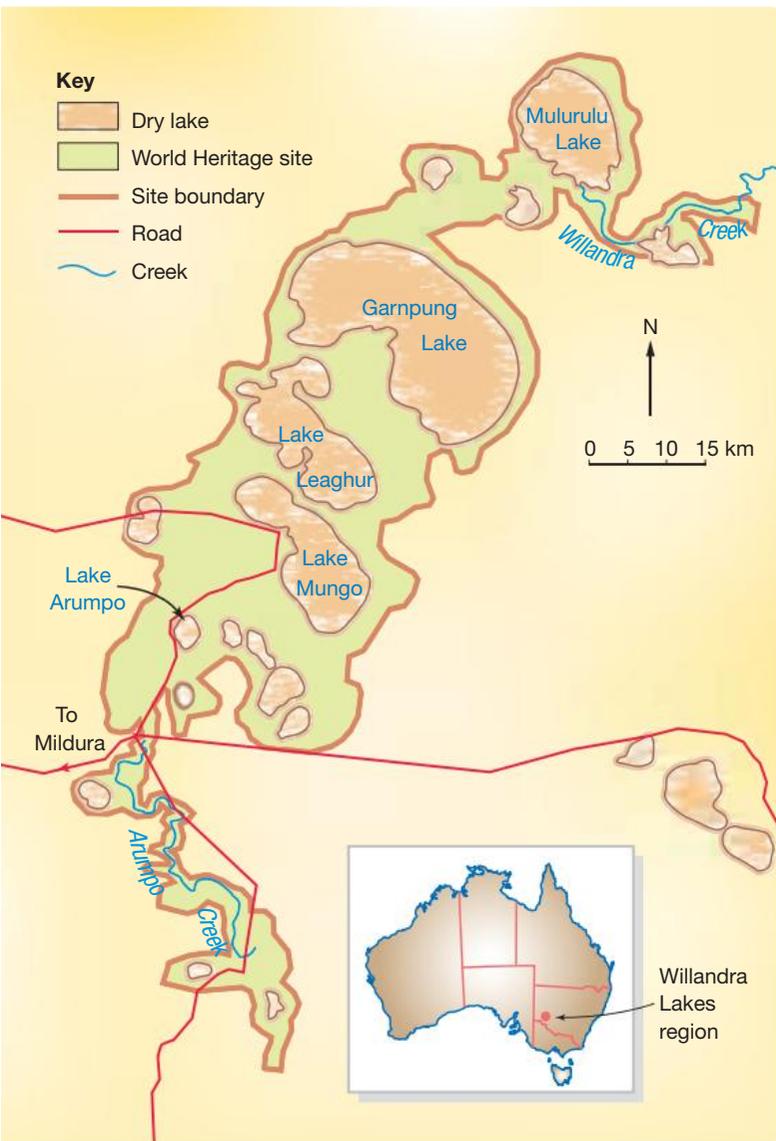
understanding & analysing

- #6**
- According to archaeologists, what is the length of time Aboriginal people have lived in Australia?
 - What method of scientific dating have archaeologists used to arrive at this number?
 - Re-read the section on dating of archaeological evidence in the 'What is History?' chapter. How does this scientific dating method work?
 - What is Alan Thorne's theory of the Aboriginal settlement of Australia?
 - Why is it called a theory?
 - Read 'New technology leads to new theories', opposite, to find out about another theory of Aboriginal settlement. How does this theory differ from Thorne's?

evaluating & creating

- #7**
- Do the Aboriginal and scientific views of Indigenous settlement contradict each other, or is it possible to find some common ground? Discuss this question as a class and try to come to a class conclusion.
 - Do you agree with the statement that 'superior dating methods will show Aboriginal history in Australia to extend beyond 60 000 years'? Explain your answer.
- #8** The *wandjina* paintings in the Kimberley are an excellent example of a rock art site. Using the library or the internet, find out about at least one other important rock art site in Australia and write answers to the following questions.
- Where is the site?
 - How old is it?
 - What does it show?
 - Is it still visited today, and if so, by whom?
 - Are there any measures in place to protect it? If so, what measures are they? If not, why not?
 - Overall, do you think Australian rock art sites are held in high regard by Australian society? What is their value to understanding the First Australians and Australian history and culture?

EXAMINING THE EVIDENCE



SOURCE 3.1 The Willandra Lakes region, a semi-arid landscape made up of 240 000 hectares of land in the Murray River basin

ARCHAEOLOGISTS CONTINUE TO DISCOVER, EXCAVATE AND DATE things left behind in the landscape by Aboriginal people long ago. These sites include countless rock shelters, shell middens, fireplaces and human burial sites. Even so, much more such evidence is yet to be discovered, both above and below the ground.

From such sites archaeologists put together evidence of Australia’s story before Europeans arrived. In the 1950s scientists thought people first occupied Australia 6000 years ago, around the time of the last Ice Age. By the next decade, the date of occupation had been extended to 20 000 years as new discoveries and excavations took place. Then in the 1970s the date was pushed back to 40 000 years. New discoveries and improved dating techniques now suggest Australia’s remote human history is at least 50 000 years old. What have been some of the amazing discoveries that tell how Aboriginal people lived in different places at different times?

From such sites archaeologists put together evidence of Australia’s story before Europeans arrived. In the 1950s scientists thought people first occupied Australia 6000 years ago, around the time of the last Ice Age. By the next decade, the date of occupation had been extended to 20 000 years as new discoveries and excavations took place. Then in the 1970s the date was pushed back to 40 000 years. New discoveries and improved dating techniques now suggest Australia’s remote human history is at least 50 000 years old. What have been some of the amazing discoveries that tell how Aboriginal people lived in different places at different times?

SOURCE 3.2 A painting by Giovanni Caselli, created in 1974, showing what life may have looked like at Lake Mungo 30 000 years ago.

- Q 1** What does this illustration tell us about what life may have been like at Mungo 30 000 years ago?
- 2** What evidence would the illustrator need to have to ensure that the illustration was as accurate as possible?

THE WILLANDRA LAKES REGION

Aboriginal people were living in this region 50 000 years ago. Five freshwater lakes provided them with resources such as Murray cod, perch, yabbies, mussels and a variety of waterbirds. Plants, reptiles and marsupials such as the bettong, rat-kangaroo and bandicoot also contributed to their high-protein diet.

Since the 1960s, more than 400 archaeological sites have been found in this region. From this evidence, archaeologists are able to paint a picture of Aboriginal people's lifestyles at different times over a vast period—in this case, tens of thousands of years.

The types of evidence found here include:

- human burials, including that of Mungo Lady. People lived and died here. Cremations and burials were carried out. Mungo Lady's remains are the earliest example in the world of ritual cremation
- fireplaces. These were used to cook food and provide warmth and light. As stone was rare, lumps of clay from the shoreline were shaped into balls to make cooking stones that could retain heat. The fireplaces contain pieces of burnt bones from fish and marsupials that were cooked and eaten there
- shell middens—the piles of shells left behind after meals. They contain emu eggshell, animal bones and fish bones.

Archaeologists continue to research this fragile and changing environment. The Paakantji, Ngyiampaa and Mutthi Mutthi peoples still care for their traditional lands today.

We are a part of this land. The stories we've been told, we like to share with white kids too, give knowledge to everyone. We are one mob—we are still Australian. The culture and heritage that's on the ground out there is unique. It must be taught to other people.

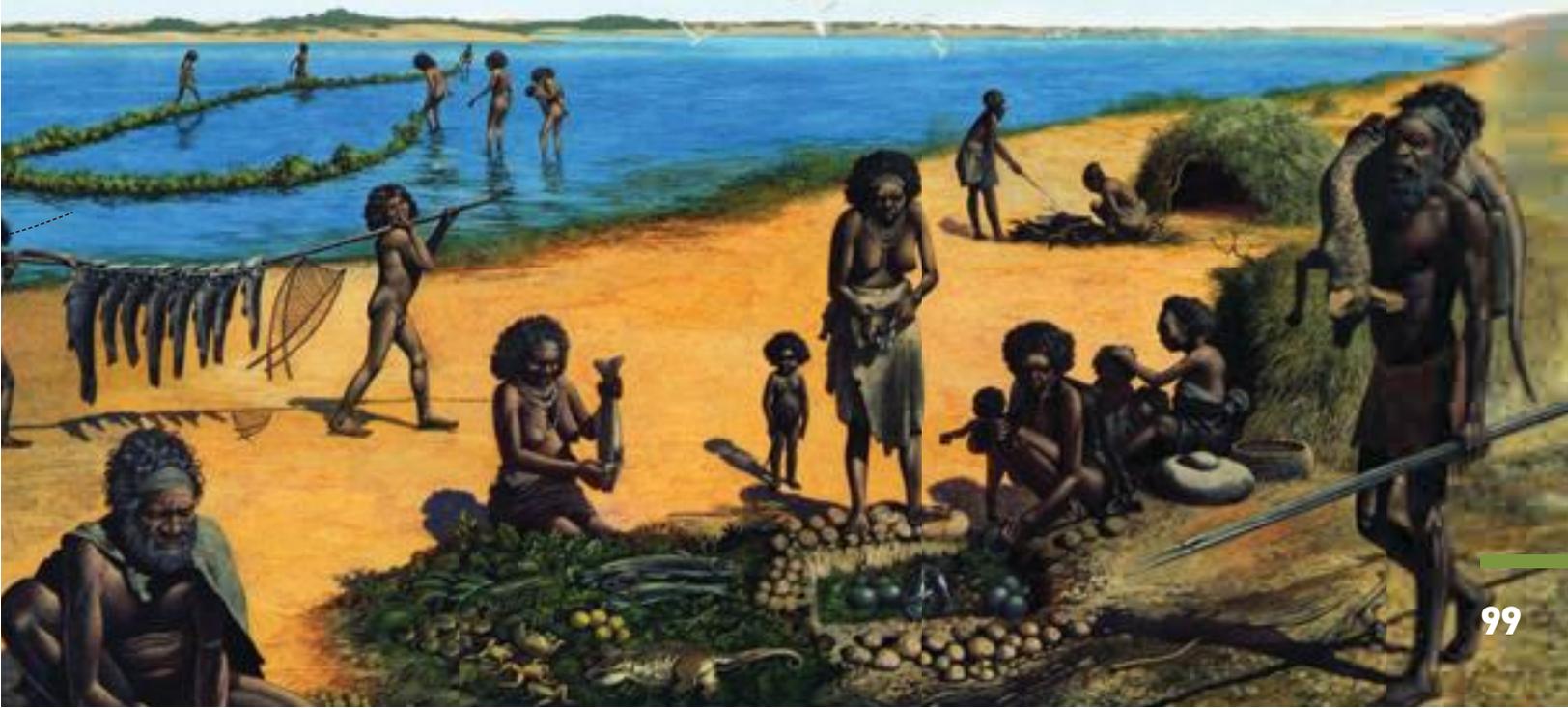
SOURCE 3.3 Elders from the three tribes of the Willandra Lakes region, quoted in T. Albert, *Caring for Country*, Pearson Australia, 2009

- Q**
- 1 Why do you think the elders want everyone to know about their history and culture?
 - 2 How might you benefit from knowing these things?

THAT WATERFRONT LOCATIONS WERE POPULAR 30 000 YEARS AGO?

The Willandra Lakes region's archaeological sites are mostly found in or near the sand dunes, and along the lakes' shorelines. The dunes of Arumpo, Garnpung and Mungo lakes contain sites older than 30 000 years.

DID YOU KNOW



50 000 YEARS AGO Aboriginal people are living at Willandra Lakes

19 000 TO 23 000 YEARS AGO A severe climate change means the five lakes begin to dry up. People are experiencing changes in their environment.

16 000 YEARS AGO The lakes have dried up and Aboriginal people are now living in an arid environment

1981 Included on the World Heritage List
PRESENT

SOURCE 3.4 Some key events in the Willandra Lakes region

DEVIL'S LAIR

In the south-west of Western Australia in the 1970s, archaeologist Charlie Dortch found fireplaces, tools and animal bones, including shaped pieces of animal bone known as bone points. The evidence showed that Aboriginal people began living at Devil's Lair, a small limestone cave, at least 42 000 years ago. They may have made the bone points either for body adornment or to make or pin together skin cloaks.



SOURCE 3.5 Bone points found at Devil's Lair, Western Australia, and now in the Western Australian Museum. The two thinner bone points are at least 20 000 years old.



- 1 How do you think Aboriginal people shaped the bone points? How could you check your answer?
- 2 Why would skin cloaks be worn in south-west Western Australia?

PURITJARRA ROCK SHELTER

In 1986, archaeologist Mike Smith began excavating the Puritjarra rock shelter at Cleland Hills in Central Australia. He found rock art, charcoal, red ochre and stone flakes. The evidence showed that Aboriginal people began using the rock shelter as a camp site about 35 000 years ago. This wonderful discovery revealed a new date for Aboriginal settlement in the arid centre.



SOURCE 3.6 Puritjarra rock shelter, where charcoal from camp fires provides a record of Aboriginal people camping over time

Only people that know that Country can survive out there. My grandad showed me the waterholes ... If I go out [away] for a long time from my Country, makes me worried. Sometime I might get sick, or get homesick, until I go back. That's in my spirit, that's calling me back home.



SOURCE 3.7 Douglas Multa Tjupurrula, a traditional owner of the Puritjarra rock shelter, quoted in T. Albert, *Discovering Aboriginal Australia*, Pearson Australia, 2009



- 1 What does this quotation tell us about the importance of Aboriginal people's relationship to the land?
- 2 Do you think this is something that non-Aboriginal people can easily understand? Explain your answer.



SOURCE 3.8 Douglas Multa Tjupurrula

KOW SWAMP

In 1968, archaeologist Alan Thorne began excavating Kow Swamp in Victoria. He found the remains of more than 40 people. Most had been buried in shallow graves. Based on these findings it is believed these people lived at Kow Swamp between 13 000 and 9500 years ago. This discovery provides important clues about the characteristics and origins of Australian Aboriginal people.

WYRIE SWAMP

In 1973, archaeologist Roger Luebbers dug up three old boomerangs from Wyrrie Swamp in South Australia. This was the first time that such ancient boomerangs could be dated, and it showed that Aboriginal people were making and using boomerangs at least 10 000 years ago. Many Aboriginal groups across Australia have made boomerangs. They used stone tools to make hunting, returning and fighting boomerangs.

SOURCE 3.9 One of three boomerangs from Wyrrie Swamp that were used between 7000 and 10 000 years ago, now in the South Australian Museum



1 What did the discovery of these three boomerangs in 1973 show?

2 Do you think boomerangs were versatile tools? Give reasons for your answer.



SOURCE 3.10 Kow Swamp is north-west of Echuca in Victoria. In 1991, the human remains from Kow Swamp were returned to the Echuca Aboriginal Community for re-burial.

PREMINGHANA

Aboriginal people lived at Preminghana on the north-west coast of Tasmania for thousands of years. They carved designs onto the sandstone rocks. The designs consisted of circles, dots, lines and animal tracks. These engravings were excavated between the 1950s and the 1970s.

CALTON HILLS STATION

Aboriginal people were making axes from black basalt rocks dug from the hills around Mount Isa in Queensland within the last 1000 years. They broke the heavy rocks into pieces, then shaped the rock pieces and ground a sharp edge onto the hard rock. The strong axes made popular trade items with other groups, and ended up in areas far from where they were manufactured.



SOURCE
3.11

Kalkadoon elder Patrick Donovan looks at a stone axe head.

SOURCE
3.12

Engravings such as these at Preminghana are an example of how the First Australians saw their world.



What does this engraving tell us about what was important to the Aboriginal people of this area?



SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

REMEMBERING & UNDERSTANDING

- 1**
 - a How long do archaeologists believe Aboriginal people have lived in Australia?
 - b Why do archaeologists continue to revise their estimates of how long Aboriginal people have lived in Australia?

- 2**
 - a Why hasn't all the evidence of Aboriginal people's lives in ancient times disappeared?
 - b Is it possible that more evidence could still be found?
 - c Why might this be important?

- 3** What did archaeologists find at Devil's Lair that helped them understand how people lived 42 000 years ago?

REMEMBERING, UNDERSTANDING & EVALUATING

- 4**
 - a Who was Mungo Lady and why is she so important?
 - b What evidence of how Aboriginal people lived has been found in the Willandra Lakes region?
 - c From this evidence, would you say that Aboriginal people successfully adapted to living in the Willandra Lakes region's environment? Explain your answer.
 - d How do the other archaeological sites mentioned in this chapter add to our understanding of how Aboriginal people lived and how they adapted to different environments?

CREATING

- 5** Create a timeline of archaeological discoveries of ancient Aboriginal life from the information you have read in this section. Include a key for your timeline that shows what was discovered at each place.

ANALYSING & EVALUATING

- 6** Do you think archaeologists have discovered all there is to know about Aboriginal people in the past? What else do you think archaeology might tell us about Aboriginal history and culture?

SOURCE 3.13 A quarry near Mount Isa



- 1** What tools did Aboriginal people make from the basalt rocks found in quarries such as this one?
- 2** What do you think these tools would have been used for?
- 3** Why would they be popular trade items?

PEOPLE & PLACE

SOURCE 4.1 Quarries such as this one at Wilga Mia in Western Australia are outcrops of rock from which Aboriginal people obtained stone to make tools, or ochre to make paint.

TRADE AND GOODS

The trade of goods through **barter** and exchange meant important social and economic transactions occurred between groups of Aboriginal people. This allowed people to acquire other sorts of raw and finished materials—for example, shells, ochre and particular tools—that were not available in their own environments. In addition, people may well have enjoyed exchanging their valuable items for something different from elsewhere. Exchanges between neighbouring groups, or with those from hundreds of kilometres away, occurred via trading routes that crisscrossed Australia. These exchanges took place at a certain time each year, and in some cases more frequently.

OCHRE

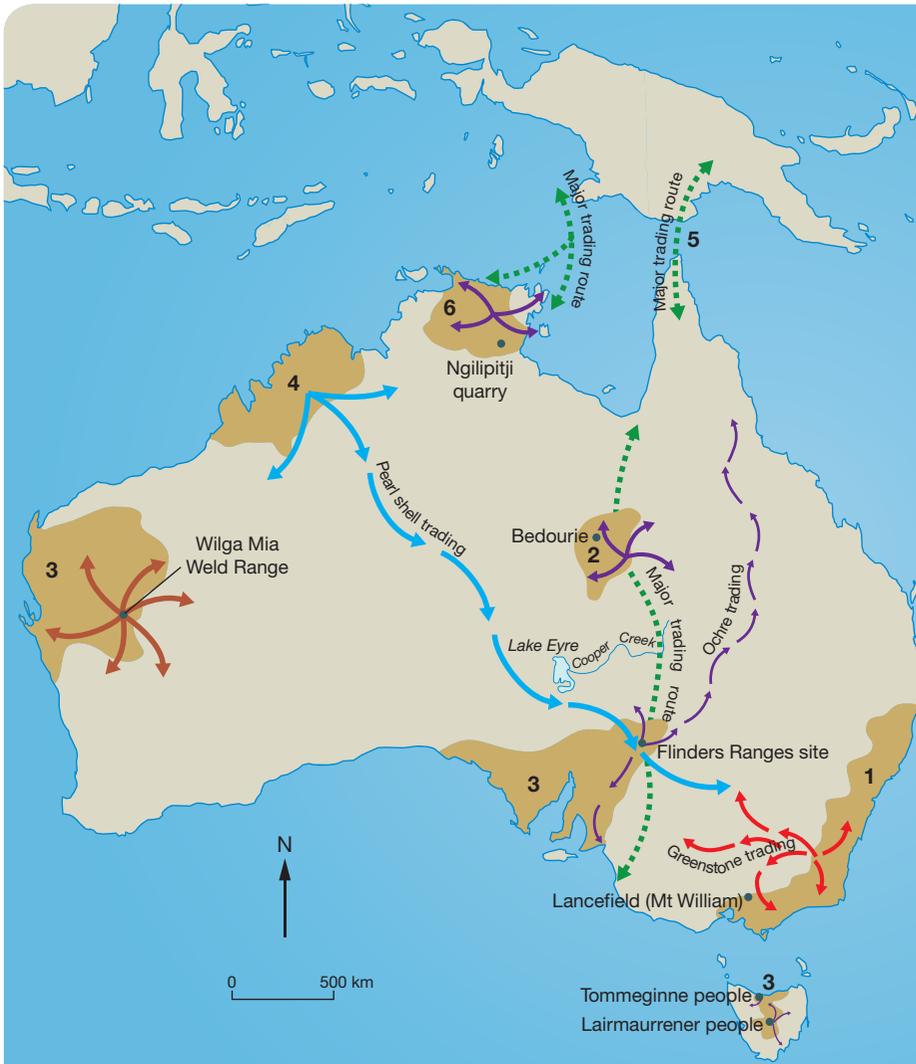
Ochre is the name given to iron-rich earths found in a range of colours including yellow, brown, orange and red. Ochre was made into paint and used for many different things. The collection and preparation of ochre was very time-consuming. Some ochre was heated up, with the temperature it reached determining the depth of colour that was achieved. Once ground and prepared, the ochre was mixed with a binder such as tree resin, bush honey, egg yolk or kangaroo blood. Ochre is not affected by direct light. It is extremely durable in all temperatures and climates. It was commonly painted onto rock surfaces and used for painting designs onto the body. In this way it became part of a costume, and was an important aspect of different ceremonies.

People may have begun mining ochre at Wilga Mia (see Source 4.1) thousands of years ago. The rock was crushed with heavy stones, then strong wooden wedges were used to dig out the ochre. Wooden scaffolds were likely propped against rock faces for hard-to-reach places. Over time, thousands of tonnes of rock were removed from here. Other sites across Australia tell similar stories.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE PITURI TRADE WAS A BIG DEAL?

Pituri is a type of bush tobacco containing nicotine, made from the cured leaves of the *Duboisia hopwoodii* shrub. Although this toxic drug held risks for its makers and users, there was a thriving market for pituri and the process for making it was kept secret. Each year during winter, the Dieri men walked 450 kilometres to gather the plants to make pituri.



Key

1 Greenstone

Mount William was one of the largest of approximately 200 quarries in this greenstone region. Stone was the most common material used for toolmaking by Aboriginal people.

2 Pituri

The Pita Pita and Wangkamana groups produced pituri. The Dieri people from Cooper Creek, near Lake Eyre, controlled the pituri market in Central Australia.

3 Ochre

Some main sites were in South Australia, mined by the Adnyamathanha people of the Flinders Ranges, in Western Australia, by the Watjarrie people in the Weld Range, and in Tasmania, by the Tommeginne and Lairmaurrener people.

4 Pearl shell

This popular material from the Kimberley region spread far and wide over the continent, though it is not known to have reached Victoria or Tasmania.

5 Drum

Two types of cylindrical drums were traded from Papua New Guinea and then stylised by their new owners in Torres Strait.

6 Trade bundle

The Ngilipitji quarry was a major flint quarry site. Finished spearheads were packed into bark bundles for safe transport.



SOURCE
4.2

Map of Australia showing trading routes and materials traded within the last 1000 years



1 What picture of Aboriginal life do you gain from this map and the information on it?

2 Australia is a very large country. How would it be possible for pearl shells, for example, to travel such vast distances?

SOURCE
4.3

Aboriginal people today use ochre for a variety of purposes, such as to colour this 'bush string' made of pandanus fibres, in Arnhem Land, Northern Territory.



What do you see in this photograph that tells you it depicts a modern-day person, rather than an Ancient Australian, using ochre?



SOURCE 4.4 *Dancing Ceremony of Spear Country*, by Djardie Ashley Wodalpa, in the National Museum of Australia collection



- 1 Why would the Ngilipitji quarry hold great cultural significance for the Wagilag clan?
- 2 In what ways might the Wagilag clan hand down their Dreaming story from generation to generation?

MINING STONE FROM NGILIPITJI QUARRY: A SACRED PLACE

The Wagilag clan mined stone from the Ngilipitji quarry. From quartzite they fashioned spearheads that became a popular trade item in their local region of Arnhem Land. Though other groups had suitable stone for making spearheads, the stone from sacred Ngilipitji was highly prized because it was imbued with power from the Dreaming.

The Wagilag clan's Dreaming story and their close relationship to Ngilipitji is told through Source 4.4, a painting on bark by Djardie Ashley Wodalpa. The Wagilag believe that their ancestral spirits, the Wagilag sisters, created the quarry. In the painting the Wagilag carry stone blades from the quarry on their travels through eastern Arnhem Land. On their travels they come across many animals and plants and bring them to life by naming them. They set up camp at a waterhole but are unaware that the waterhole is the sacred home of Wititj, the giant python, who is angered by their presence and creates a storm. The sisters perform songs and dances to stop the flood of rain. This creation story is very important to the Wagilag clan.

In Source 4.6, a man is pictured with a collection of handmade Ngilipitji stone blades. These popular stone blades made good implements for cutting, scraping and piercing and were suitable for hunting, food preparation and toolmaking activities. Once an assortment of blades was packed into containers made from paperbark and string, they became ready-to-travel trade bundles.

SOURCE
4.5

A trade bundle made from paperbark and containing stone spearheads from Ngilipitji quarry, from the collections of the National Museum of Australia

Q

Look at the design of the paperbark container. What purposes did it serve?



DID YOU KNOW

THAT ABORIGINAL PEOPLE TRADED GOODS OVER VERY LONG DISTANCES?

As many as 70 Dieri men from Cooper Creek in Central Australia made an annual 400-kilometre trek southwards to the Flinders Ranges to exchange feathers for bags of highly prized ochre. Ochre bundles that weighed up to 30 kilograms were carried on the head on their long trip home.



SOURCE
4.6

In 1935 CE, a man inspects a spear at Ngilipitji alongside a display of items being organised for trade. Note the trading bundles.

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Investigating Ancient Australia' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- barter
- paperbark
- ochre
- pituri

#2 a What material did Aboriginal people most rely on for toolmaking?

b Name two items that ancient Aboriginal people mined from quarries. Describe what each item could be used for.

c Describe three tasks that the Ngilipitji stone blades could be used for.

d What are the four shades of ochre?

e How did people use ochre?

remembering, understanding & analysing

#3 a What is trade and why is trade important in human history?

b How does trade help humans to develop and prosper?

c What evidence is presented in this section to show how widespread trade was in Aboriginal society? Are you surprised about any of the items that were traded? Explain your answer.

d Who did Torres Strait Islander people trade with to obtain drums for music-making? What method of transport was necessary for these exchanges?

analysing & evaluating

#4 a From the evidence provided, how successful do you think Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people were at trading with each other and with others?

b What does trade tell us about the relationships between different Aboriginal groups?

c How might trade be connected to Dreaming stories? Explain your answer.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES



SOURCE 5.1 Tasmanian canoes, in C. A. Lesueur, *Terre de Diémen: Navigation*, 1803

SOCIAL ORGANISATION AND MATERIAL CULTURE

DAY-TO-DAY LIFE

There are parallels between our lives today and those of traditional Aboriginal societies. Though seeing to basic daily human needs was a priority, Aboriginal people enjoyed time as a family unit and put energy into fun activities involving mime, music and dance.

Aboriginal people also believed in something much bigger than themselves. This bigger idea was a belief in Creator Ancestors who gave Aboriginal people their laws for social order in the creation era, known today as the Dreaming. Aboriginal people believed the spirits and powers of their Creator Ancestors resided in the land. For the Anbarra group of people on the northern coast of Arnhem Land in the Northern Territory, their Creator Ancestors are known as *wangarr*, and they come in many forms—as humans, animals, plants or objects. The song in Source 5.3 tells the story of how Fishtrap, who is *wangarr*, came from his home out in the sea, creating the main features of the land, including some special places.

SOURCE 5.2 In 2000, elder Frank Gurrmanamana sings after he finishes making his special object, a fish trap.

- Q** 1 What would this fish trap be made of?
2 Would it be effective at catching fish? Why or why not?

*Fishtrap swims at sea.
You can see his foaming wake.
He scoops up fish and prawns.
Gobble, gobble, gobble!
He comes ashore to camp at Djunawunya.
Here, and at Munungurramba.
That is Fishtrap's other camp, out in the sea.
Fishtrap gave these places to us.
He came here and walked about.
'This is yours. You camp here.'
'Alright,' he said.*

SOURCE 5.3 Through this song, Frank Gurrmanamana activated the spirit of his Creator Ancestor, or *wangarr*.



MANY ABORIGINAL GROUPS

More than 250 Aboriginal groups lived in Australia before Europeans arrived. Each had its own Creator Ancestors and each spoke a different Aboriginal language or dialect. Their way of life varied according to where they lived, but all used artefacts to help them live successfully on the land. Sometimes they exchanged artefacts with other groups.



Map adaptation reproduced courtesy of Aboriginal Studies Press. Map is copyright Aboriginal Studies Press, AIATSIS and Auslig/Sinclair, Knight, Merz, 1996. No reproduction or adaptation without permission. This is just one representation of many other map sources. Using published resources available between 1988–1994, this map attempts to represent all the language or tribal or nation groups of the Indigenous people of Australia. It indicates only the general location of larger groupings of people which may include smaller groups such as clans, dialects or individual languages in a group. Boundaries are not intended to be exact. This map is not suitable for use in native title and other land claims.

SOURCE 5.4 Map showing the Aboriginal language groups of Australia

Q How do we know that there were more than 250 Aboriginal language groups in Australia before Europeans arrived?

MATERIAL CULTURE

Artefacts such as fish traps were essential everyday items in the Aboriginal hunter-gatherer society. Aboriginal people invented and created artefacts using fauna and flora as well as other natural materials such as stone and shell. Artefacts from across Australia had many functions that suited each group's particular environment and food resources.

A set of four artefacts from the Central Australian desert consisting of a spear, a spear-thrower, a wooden bowl and **grinding stones** can be likened to a modern-day toolkit. Each artefact or tool was used for many tasks (the spear, for example, could be used to cut, pierce or carry something), making for an extremely versatile toolkit. Women used the wooden bowl for collecting and winnowing grass seeds, which were a staple food in their diet. It was also an important tool for extracting water from the ground or scooping it from a rockhole. Then it

became a water container and carrier. With the help of a soft, handmade head pad, the wooden bowl was also carried on the head.

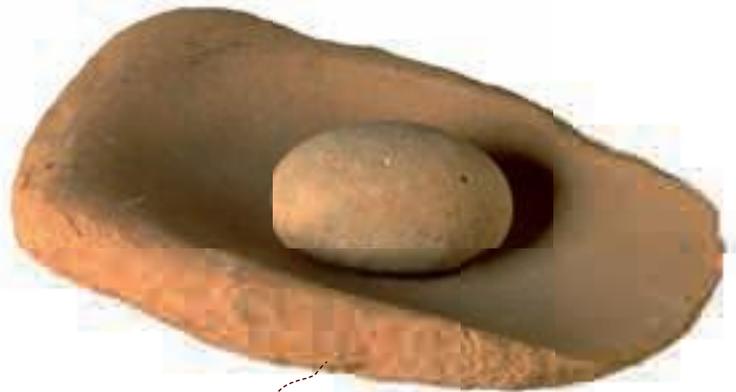
SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN MATERIAL CULTURE

Aboriginal people designed and created artefacts so they could hunt and gather resources from the land and bodies of water. They used natural materials such as stone, wood, shell and fibre from plants and trees. Not surprisingly, there were an enormous variety of containers made for collecting and carrying food or water. Examples shown on these and the following pages include the unique water container made from kelp in Tasmania, the water and food container made from bark in Western Australia, and the woven basket from Cobourgh Peninsula in the Northern Territory. Artefacts show the diversity of Aboriginal groups and the technologies they used for their everyday survival.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT NOT ALL BOOMERANGS ARE ALIKE?

There are many different types of boomerangs, including hunting boomerangs, returning ones, fighting and ceremonial boomerangs (which are used as musical instruments by clapping them together). They were used at sport-like and ceremonial events. Boomerangs were not used in Cape York Peninsula, south-western Australia or Tasmania.



SOURCE
5.6

Grinding stones (2) were used to grind seeds and nuts in many parts of Australia.



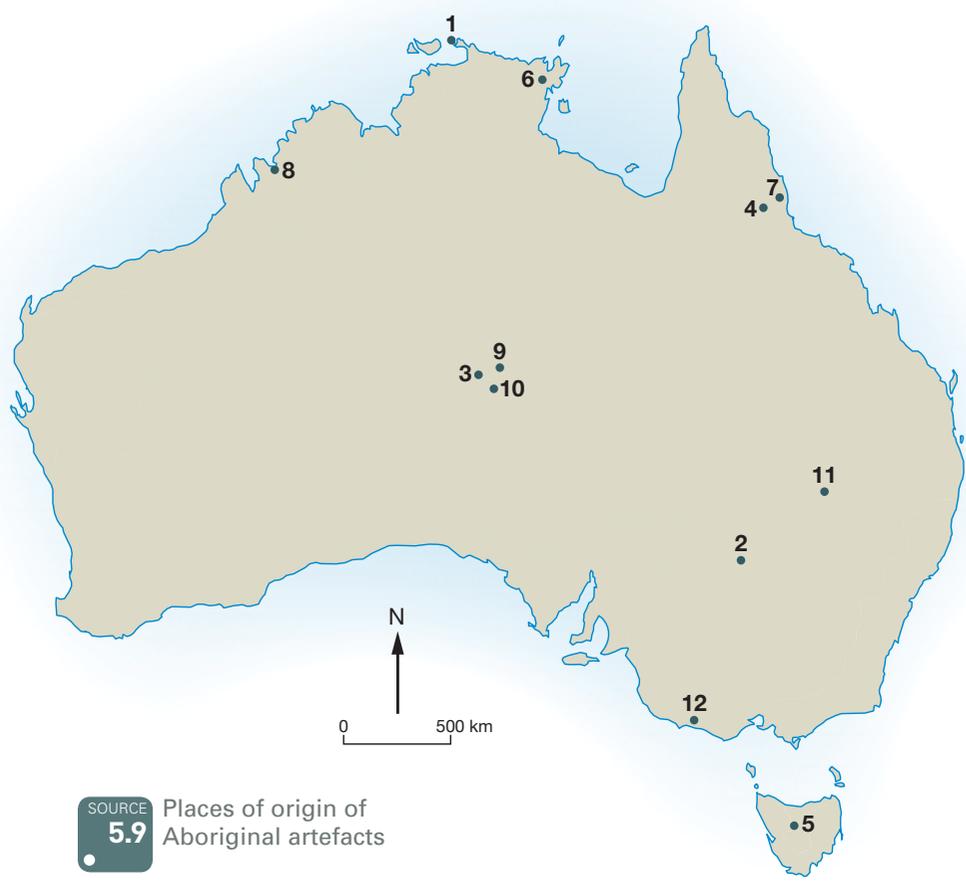
SOURCE
5.5

A returning boomerang (top) and a hunting boomerang. Hunting boomerangs, particularly those used for hunting large animals, are heavier and fly in a flatter, straighter path.



SOURCE 5.7 Woven basket from Northern Australia, used for collecting and carrying food (1—see map for location). Except where indicated, all artefacts shown on these and the next two pages are from the collections of the National Museum of Australia.

SOURCE 5.8 A spear-thrower (3) is attached to the end of a spear and used to launch it. This one comes from Central Australia.



SOURCE 5.9 Places of origin of Aboriginal artefacts

SOURCE 5.10 Basket (4) from Atherton region of Queensland

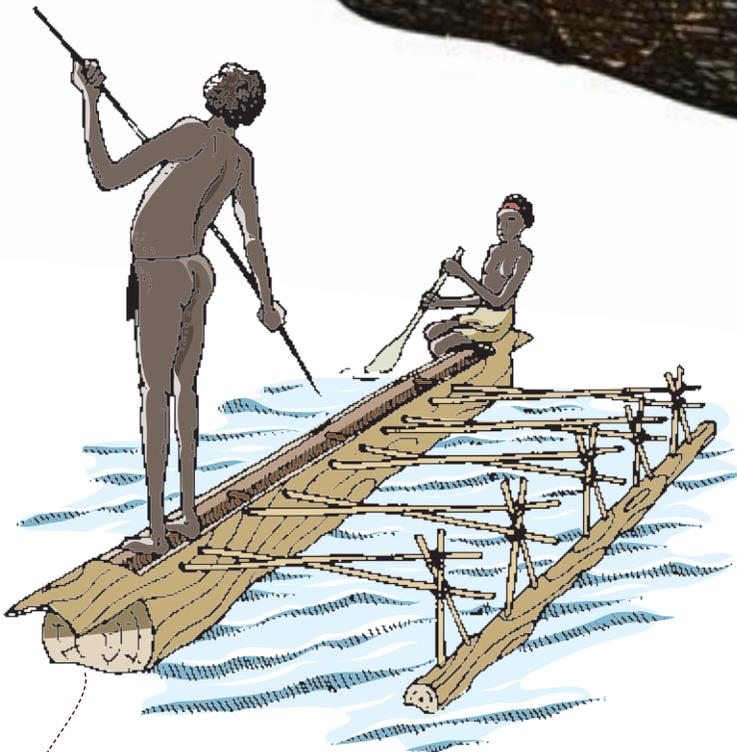




SOURCE 5.11 Kelp bag (5), a water carrier used in Tasmania



SOURCE 5.12 Fish trap (6) from Arnhem Land



SOURCE 5.13 Illustration of a Dugout canoe (7) from the Cairns region



SOURCE 5.14 Bark container (8) from Port George IV, Western Australia

SOURCE
5.15

Head pad (9) from the Pitjantjatjara Homelands



SOURCE
5.16

Wooden bowl with baby (10)



SOURCE
5.17

Fish traps (11) on the Darling River near Brewarrina, NSW

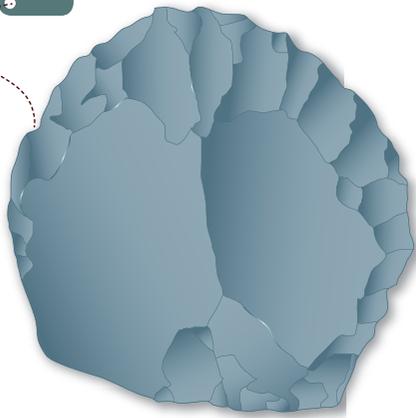


SOURCE
5.18

Eel trap (12) made by Aunty Connie Hart near Lake Condah, Victoria, in the Koorie Heritage Trust collection

SOURCE
5.19

Illustration of a Tula adze flake



SOURCE
5.20

Painted firesticks from Milingimbi, Northern Territory, made in about 1960, from the National Museum of Australia collection



SOURCE
5.21

Firesticks in a case of cane and beeswax decorated with seeds, from Cape York Peninsula, from the National Museum of Australia collection



AN EXAMPLE OF ADAPTATION AND INNOVATION

About 3000 years ago in the arid region of Australia, a sophisticated new tool with a simple design was invented. The **tula adze** consisted of a lightweight stone flake attached with resin to a wooden handle. It was found to adze, or shave and incise, dense wood such as mulga and gidgee effectively and accurately. The tula adze outshone the heavy stone chopper for certain types of toolmaking and other activities, and became a time and energy saver.

FIRESTICK FARMING

The **firestick** was the most powerful Aboriginal tool. People set fire to vegetation on purpose because of their expert knowledge of the land and of how to maintain a healthy and habitable environment. Dry vegetation was regularly set alight to ‘clean up’ or ‘care for the land’. Burning kept important paths or tracks, which led to hunting and gathering areas, clear and visible. In Arnhem Land, vine thickets were protected by firebreaks up to a kilometre wide.

Fire was a useful aid to hunting. Animals such as wallabies and kangaroos, disturbed by the smoke and flames, were flushed into the open towards waiting hunters armed with wooden clubs. Fire was also used to encourage the growth of plants such as daisy yams and grasses. In some cases, it also improved their taste!

Firesticks work by using heat generated by friction. A round-ended stick held with both hands is quickly twirled in a depression in a wooden base. The point of contact ignites the dry grass or bark lying next to it.

- Q**
- 1 We often hear in the news about ‘controlled burning’. What is it?
 - 2 Do you think that Aboriginal people’s use of fire can be likened to controlled burning? Explain your answer.

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Investigating Ancient Australia' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- dialect ■ tula adze
- firestick ■ *wangarr*
- grinding stones

#2 a What did Aboriginal people believe in that was 'bigger than themselves'?

- b** How would this belief have shaped the way Aboriginal people lived?
- c** Do you think that these beliefs would have helped or hindered Aboriginal people's ability to live successfully and respectfully on their land? Explain your answer.

#3 a What is an artefact?

- b** What materials did Aboriginal people use to make their artefacts?
- c** What is a multi-purpose artefact?
- d** Which of the multi-purpose artefacts mentioned in the text impress you the most? Why?
- e** What multi-purpose artefacts or tools do people use today? Do you use any of them?

understanding & analysing

#4 a Why do you think Frank Gurrmanamana sang his song after he finished making his fish trap?

- b** How would he know this song?
- c** What do songs like this one tell us about the way Aboriginal people celebrate and give meaning to their lives?
- d** What do you think Frank would do to ensure that the knowledge of his Creator Ancestor was passed on to future generations?

#5 a Using the school library or the internet, find out how many different types of boomerangs Aboriginal people used.

- b** How would Aboriginal people have developed so many different types of boomerangs and refined their designs over many generations?

analysing & applying

#6 a Are you surprised by how many Aboriginal language groups there were in Australia?

- b** What theory can you put forward to explain how these different language groups might have emerged?
- c** Share your theory with the other students in your class. Which theory sounds the best?
- d** Where could you go or who could you ask to find the answer to the mystery of the spread of Aboriginal languages?
- e** Now try to find out the answer. Did anyone in the class guess correctly?

understanding & creating

#7 a Look at all the artefacts in this unit. Draw your favourite one and label it.

- b** Tell the class why you like this artefact and explain why it would have been important to the Aboriginal people who used it.

analysing, evaluating & creating

#8 a Do you agree that the tula adze is a sophisticated tool? Explain your answer.

- b** Write a modern advertisement for the tula adze. Make sure you tell your audience just how innovative and clever this tool is!

remembering, understanding & analysing

#9 a What was the most powerful Aboriginal tool or artefact?

- b** Why was this tool so important?
- c** What did Aboriginal people use this tool for? What did it achieve?

analysing & creating

#10 What arguments could you use to agree or disagree with the following statement?

Aboriginal people adapted well to the Australian environment. Through their beliefs and the use of artefacts such as firesticks, they helped to shape and give meaning to the land they lived in.



TORRES STRAIT ISLANDER PEOPLE

SOURCE 6.1 A large double-outrigger canoe with woven mat sails and decorations, made by the Saibai Island community in 2000 CE. Canoes like this one were made thousands of years ago.

- Q**
- 1 Why is this canoe called a 'double-outrigger' canoe?
 - 2 What would be the advantages of this type of canoe?

ORIGINS

About 7000 years ago, people from Melanesia in the Pacific Ocean migrated to islands in the Torres Strait. In time they came to be considered a distinct cultural group, and they are known today as Torres Strait Islanders. Theirs is a seafaring culture with strong and enduring belief systems. Their legends tell stories of hero cults, supernatural beings, warriors and mythological creatures from the time of creation. Different island groups travelled long distances to trade with other cultural groups to their south and north. Their history also includes disputes with neighbouring tribes or other groups, which were often settled by warfare.

NAVIGATION

Torres Strait Islanders were skilled **navigators** who went on voyages to hunt for food, trade goods with Aboriginal people on Cape York Peninsula and groups on the Fly River in present-day Papua New Guinea, visit families and attend ceremonial events on other islands in the region. They travelled in craft like the canoe in Source 6.1. Because suitable timber was scarce, Islanders first obtained the hulls through trade with Papua New Guinea.

THE FOUR WINDS

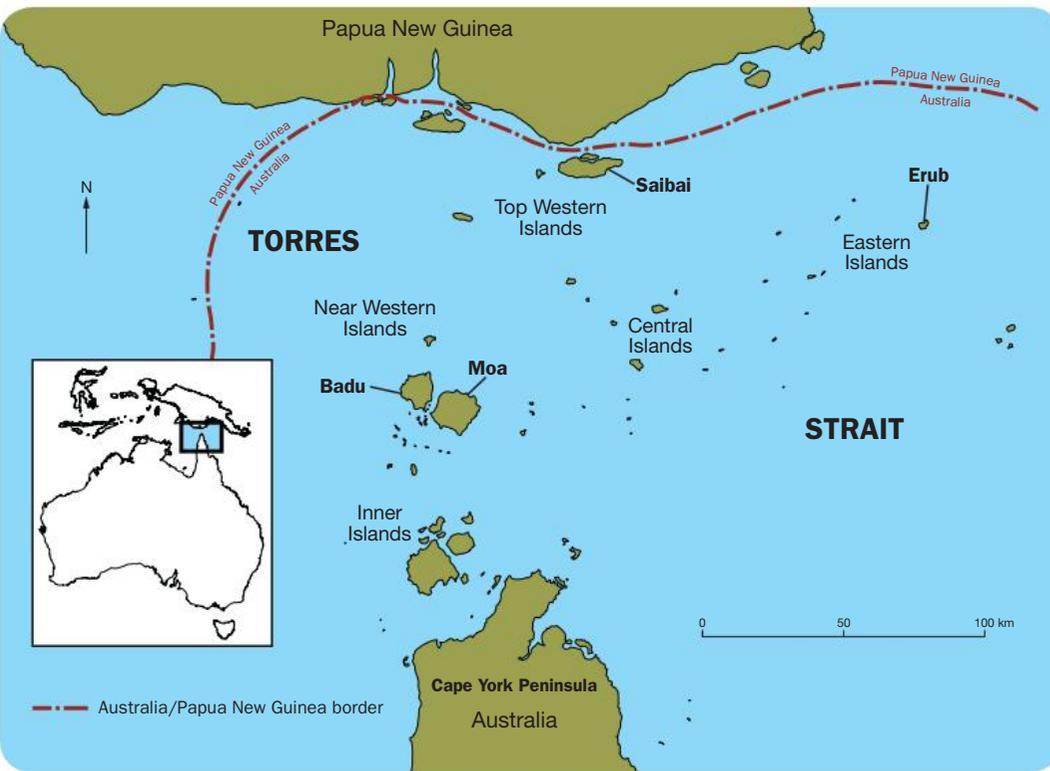
Islanders learnt to read signs from the land, sea and sky, including the winds. These were all part of the seasonal cycle governing their lives.

Islanders relied on marine resources for their survival, and the men especially spent a lot of time on the water, hunting for dugong, turtle and fish. They needed to know their position on the water, day or night, and how to get safely

DID YOU KNOW

THAT YOU CAN NAVIGATE BY THE STARS?

Stars (as mentioned in Sources 6.3 and 6.4) are associated with directions. This is why each of the major clans is linked with a star or group of stars in the same direction as its wind name.



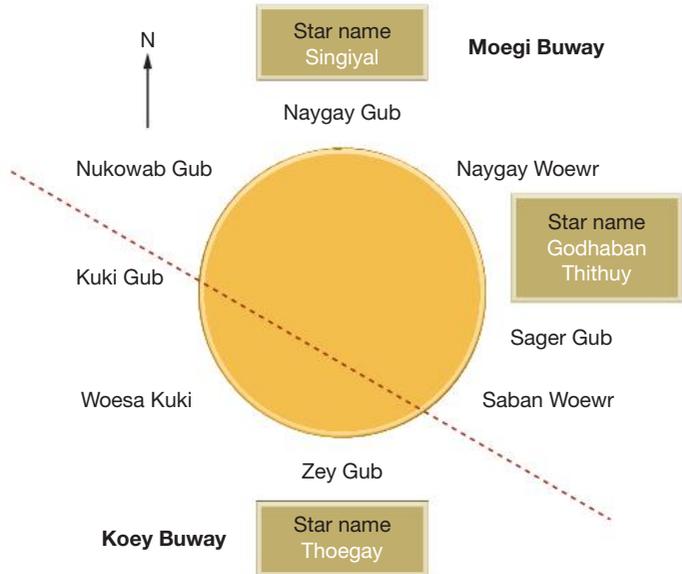
SOURCE 6.2 This map shows the Torres Strait region, which is the traditional homeland of the Torres Strait Islander people. This chain of islands formed when the land bridge between the Australian continent and New Guinea was flooded by rising seas 10 000 years ago.

from one place to another. A deep knowledge of the winds was necessary because winds marked the wet and dry seasons and affected the weather; this in turn affected the conditions on the sea, including tides and currents. It's not surprising, then, that islanders had names for the four major winds in the Torres Strait. The winds Naygay Gub, Sager Gub, Zey Gub and Kuki Gub are shown in Source 6.4.

Stars of the night sky (such as the Southern Cross) are important direction markers used for navigation. Source 6.3 shows some major clans and their names for the winds and stars. Each clan was linked to a wind from a particular direction.

CLAN	WIND	STAR(S)
Thabu	Naygay Gub	Singiyal (Seven Sisters)
Aith Koedal	Sager Gub	Godhaban Thithuy (Morning Star)
Dhoeybaw	Zey Gub	Thoegay (Southern Cross)
Umay	Kuki Gub	

SOURCE 6.3 Clan names in Kala Kawaw Ya, with the names of the winds and stars with which each clan was linked



SOURCE 6.4 Wind names in Kala Kawaw Ya. Clans on the north side of the dashed line are collectively known as the Moegi Buway; those on the south side are the Koey Buway.

- Q**
- 1 How do winds affect the weather?
 - 2 Why would the direction of the winds be important for Torres Strait Islanders?



SOURCE
6.5 A dance ornament made of cane, wood and feathers, collected from Mer Island in the 1880s and currently held in the University of Cambridge (UK) Museum of Archaeology and Anthropology. Its design represents the seasons and features a star motif in the centre.

SOURCE
6.6 Dancers from Moa Island with dance ornaments in 2004.

- Q**
- 1 What are the similarities between the older and more recent dance ornaments?
 - 2 Do you think winds continue to be significant for Torres Strait Islanders today? Explain your answer.



Each person identified with a wind name inherited from their father. It was an important part of ceremonies and of their relationships with others, including marriage. The following example shows how people talk about their connection with a wind in Kala Kawaw Ya, a variant of the Kala Lagaw Ya language of Torres Strait:

Ngay sager guba layg.

Word for word, this means 'I easterlies wind belonging-to'. In more natural English we would say, 'I am one of the easterly-wind clan.'

Can you write the following sentence in Kala Kawaw Ya?

I am one of the westerly-wind clan.

**THAT YOU CAN
PLANT VEGETABLES
BY THE WIND?**

**DID YOU
KNOW**

When Zey Gub, the wind from the south-west, blew, Torres Strait Islanders planted garden food such as taro, yam and cassava.

SOCIAL ORDER: LAWS FOR LIVING

Each island group had its own laws for social order. This meant families understood how they were expected to treat each other. Importantly, these laws encouraged respect for the land, sea and animals, and peace between different tribes or clans. For example, the Meriam people of Mer Island are made up of eight distinct tribes, and each lived in separate villages with boundary markers. The very old teachings from their religious cult, **Bomai-Malo**, have kept their culture and identity strong up to the present day. Here is an extract from their teachings called Malo's Law.

Malo keeps his hands to himself; he does not touch what is not his.

He does not permit his feet to carry him towards another man's property.

His hands are not grasping, he holds them back.

He does not wander from his path.

He walks on tiptoe, silent, careful, leaving no sign to tell that this is the way he took.

Stars travel their own path across the sky.

Malo Tag Mauki Mauki.

Teter Mauki Mauki.

Malo tag aorir aorir.

Teter aorir aorir.

Malo tag tupamait tupamait.

Teter tupamait tupamait.

Wer taba gabge baupamaretli.

SOURCE
6.7 Extract from Malo's Law, from T. Albert, *Welcome to Mer Island: Maiem Taba Merem*, Pearson Australia, 2009

SOURCE
6.8 Mer Island is one of the eastern islands of the Torres Strait. It is home to the Meriam people.



1 What are the main features of Malo's Law?

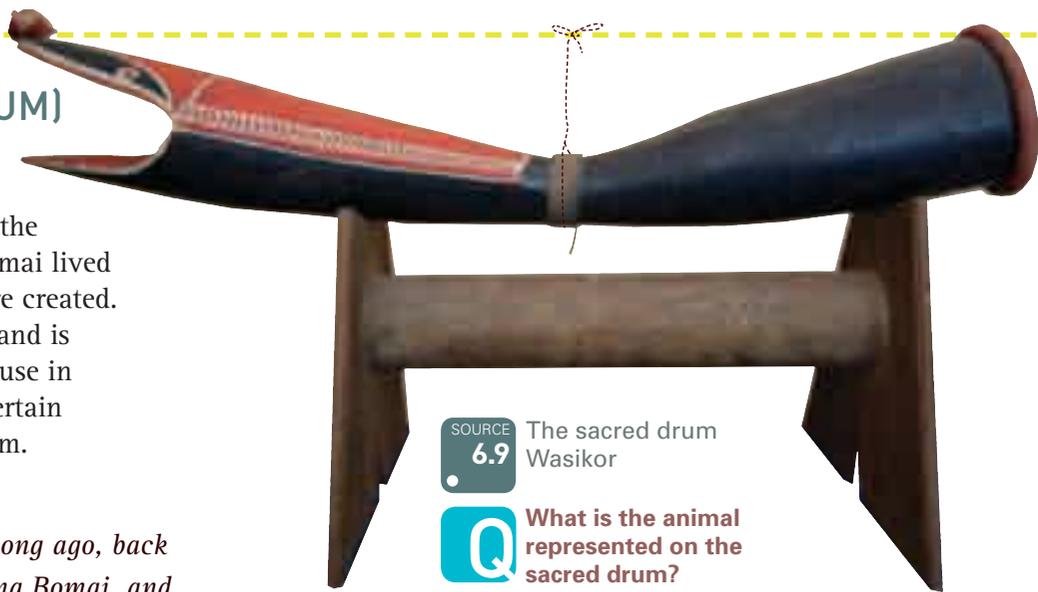
2 Do you agree with them?

3 In your opinion, are there any messages in Malo's Law that have relevance, or make good sense, in today's wider society? Discuss your ideas with the rest of the class.



WASIKOR (SACRED DRUM)

For the people of Mer Island, the sacred drum known as **Wasikor** is a symbol connected to the time when their superior being Bomai lived and their laws for social order were created. Wasikor is closely guarded today, and is brought out on rare occasions for use in special ceremonial dances. Only certain people are allowed to beat the drum.



SOURCE 6.9 The sacred drum Wasikor

Q What is the animal represented on the sacred drum?

Our dances come from a time long ago, back to the days of our superior being Bomai, and the lesser being Malo. Part of Malo's Law is to respect life. The actions used in the Beizam Kab (Shark Dance) relate back to those days and today too—it's about the order of society and respect. If you don't show respect to your community then you're not a Meriam person.

SOURCE 6.10 Elder Ron Day from Mer Island, quoted in T. Albert, *Welcome to Mer Island: Maiem Taba Merem*, Pearson Australia, 2009

Q What role does dance play in the beliefs of the Meriam people of the Torres Strait?

In the days of Malo, people not allowed to walk around the back of Wasikor. It cast a spell on anyone who disobeyed—they got eaten by a shark. Each notch means death. People should show respect to Wasikor.

SOURCE 6.12 Father John Noah from Mer Island, quoted in T. Albert, *Welcome to Mer Island: Maiem Taba Merem*, Pearson Australia, 2009

SOURCE 6.11 Joey Zaro and Jack Wailu perform the Shark Dance.



remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'Investigating Ancient Australia' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:
- Bomai-Malo
 - navigators
 - seafaring
 - Wasikor
- #2**
- a What led to the formation of the Torres Strait Islands?
 - b When did people first begin to inhabit the Torres Strait Islands?
 - c From what region in the Pacific Ocean did these people migrate?
 - d What is the most likely way people migrated to the Torres Strait Islands?
- #3**
- a What is one way in which people from the Torres Strait Islands would obtain wood for their canoes?
 - b Name three sources of food they would hunt using canoes.
 - c What special type of canoe was made on Saibai Island?

understanding, analysing & evaluating

- #4**
- a What do you think is meant by the word 'culture'? Try to define this word and then share your ideas with the rest of your class.
 - b Think of three things that help to make up Australian culture today. Again, share your ideas with your class and come up with a class list.
 - c What kind of culture did Torres Strait Islanders develop?
 - d What evidence can you find to support this description?
 - e In what ways would this culture unite and strengthen Torres Strait Islander identity? Discuss your ideas.

- #5**
- a What is navigation?
 - b What skills and knowledge did Torres Strait Islanders develop to become expert navigators?
 - c Why did Torres Strait Islanders need to use their navigation skills every day?
 - d How did the winds shape and strengthen Torres Strait Islander identity? Discuss your ideas with the class.
- #6** Using the school library or the internet, find and write answers to the following questions.
- a What are the 'wet' and 'dry' seasons?
 - b When does each season occur in the Torres Strait and how long does each one last?
 - c Which winds are most common in the Torres Strait during the wet and dry seasons?
 - d How would 'reading' these winds help to ensure that Torres Strait Islanders survived and thrived all year round?
- #7**
- a In pairs, discuss why successful societies need laws.
 - b Now re-read Source 6.7, the extract from Malo's Law, together. In what ways do you think this law would contribute to 'respect for the land, sea and animals; and peace between different tribes'? Share your ideas with the class.
 - c Why are the elders of societies such as the Torres Strait Islander clans so important in maintaining their respective laws?
 - d What qualities do you think elders would need to have to be successful?
- #8**
- a What are the main similarities and differences between Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander cultures?
 - b Can you think of ways in which each culture may have influenced the other over a long period of time? Share your ideas with the class.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

LEGACIES AND CONNECTIONS TO...

UNIT 7

WHAT MAKES LAKE MUNGO SIGNIFICANT?

SOURCE 7.1 At Lake Mungo, important elders wait to receive the remains of Mungo Lady from archaeologist Alan Thorne. This event was one of the first of its kind.

FINDS OF HUMAN REMAINS: MUNGO LADY AND MUNGO MAN

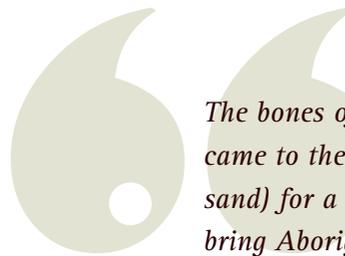
As you've already discovered in earlier units in this chapter, Lake Mungo contains valuable clues to an ancient past that is of national and international significance. It is where the person we know as Mungo Lady lived and died. Her grave was discovered in 1968, and she is still the oldest known example of a cremation burial from anywhere in the world. In 1974, a second grave was discovered only a few hundred metres from the first. The person buried here, Mungo Man, died at about the same time as Mungo Lady. Mungo Man is the oldest known example of an ochre burial, in which the body is sprinkled with ochre before being buried.

Remarkably, the remains of Mungo Lady and Mungo Man give a rare insight into the cultural practices and belief systems of that time. From the two now-famous burials at Lake Mungo, we learn how a society carried out sophisticated ceremonies—just like a modern-day funeral. As people do today all around the world, ancient Aboriginal people were making deliberate decisions on how to 'farewell the dead' based on their culture and beliefs. Mungo Lady and Mungo Man are examples of astounding evidence that modern human behaviour was present in Australia tens of thousands of years ago.



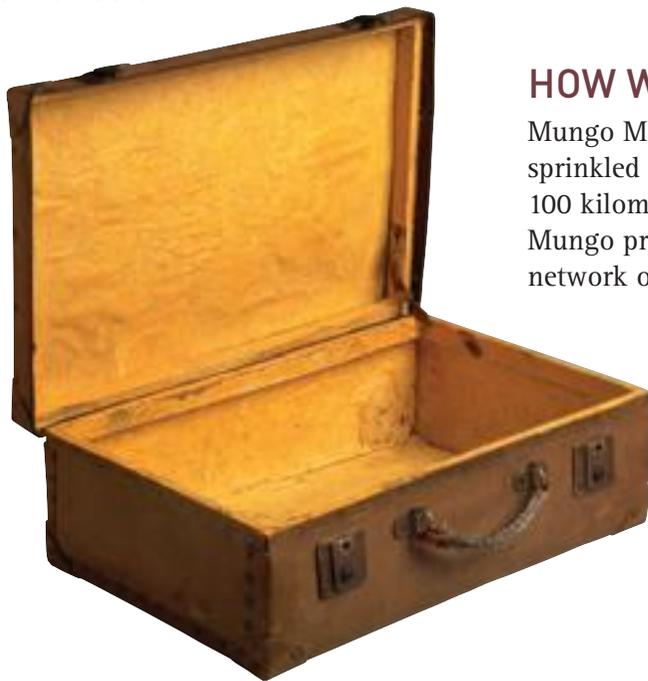
HOW WAS MUNGO LADY FAREWELLED?

From the analysis by archaeologist Alan Thorne, we know that Mungo Lady was a young woman whose body was cremated approximately 40 000 years ago. After the cremation, her remaining bones were smashed and then burned again before being buried. This evidence paints a picture of people planning and conducting an important ceremonial activity in which one of their number was farewelled with dignity and honour. It is likely that Mungo Lady was a person of some importance. Thorne wondered whether the people who buried her believed the burial process would in some way ensure Mungo Lady's spirit did not return to haunt them.



The bones of the Mungo Lady came to the surface (of the sand) for a reason: perhaps to bring Aborigines and scholars together.

SOURCE 7.2 Mutthi Mutthi elder Alice Kelly in the 1970s, quoted in T. Albert, *Caring for Country*, Pearson Australia, 2009



HOW WAS MUNGO MAN FAREWELLED?

Mungo Man's burial site showed that his body had been sprinkled with red ochre. This ochre is found at a place 100 kilometres away from Lake Mungo. The people of Lake Mungo probably got the red ochre through an extensive network of trade with other groups.

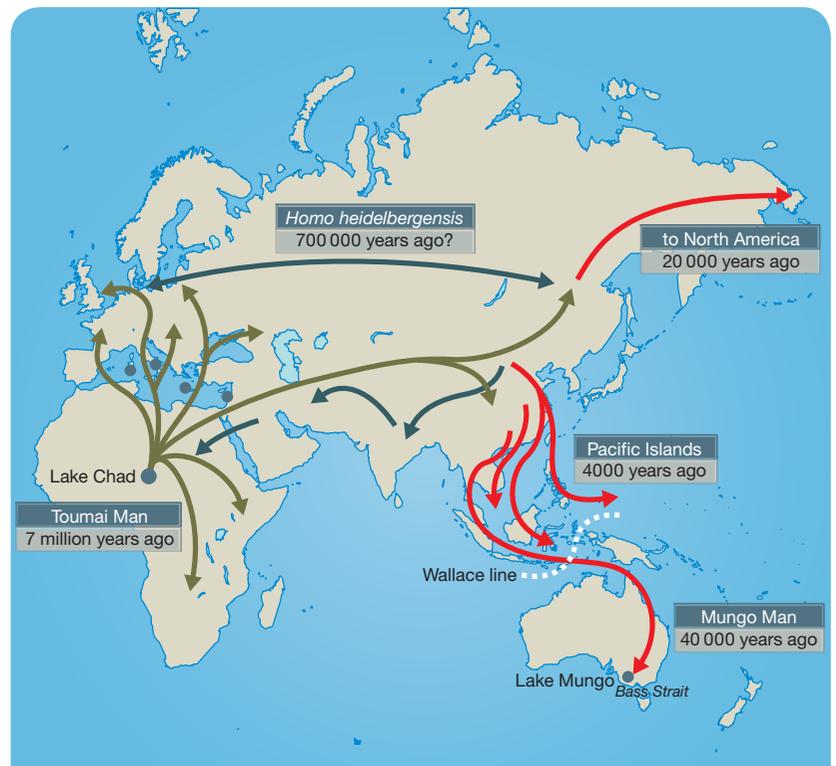
SOURCE 7.3 In 1968, archaeologist John Mulvaney used his suitcase to transport the remains of Mungo Lady from Lake Mungo to Sydney. At that time there were no official policies requiring archaeologists to have permission from Aboriginal families before human remains could be disturbed.

SOURCE 7.4 The multi-region theory of human evolution proposes that *Homo erectus* left Africa two million years ago and evolved into modern humans in different locations around the world.

DIFFERENT THEORIES

Scientists believe that the ancestors of the first modern humans originated in Africa two million years ago. However, they disagree about whether these first humans evolved into modern humans in Africa before spreading across the globe, or evolved later in many parts of the world including Europe, North Asia and South-East Asia.

The theory that humans evolved only in Africa before spreading over the world between 100 000 and 60 000 years ago is called the 'African origin of modern humans' or 'Out of Africa' theory. Most scientists agree with this theory.



One scientist who believes that modern humans evolved in many different parts of the world is Australian archaeologist Alan Thorne. His theory of the spread of human evolution has become known as the ‘multi-region’ theory.

Modern humans [Homo sapiens] didn't just come from one area, they came from all areas. We assert that when people began to leave Africa about two million years ago, they [Homo erectus] were the ancestors of all modern people [but] we don't think modern humanity emerged from one place ...'

SOURCE
7.5

Archaeologist Alan Thorne outlines the multi-region theory of human evolution.

Thorne used his research into the origins of Australia's Aboriginal people to develop his multi-region theory. Among the evidence that is used to support this theory is the age of Mungo Man, who Thorne claims is closer to 60 000 years old than to 40 000 years old, as most scientists believe.

That's what science is about—it's about new ideas, new data and new ways of analysing material, throwing out old ideas and moving on.

SOURCE
7.6

Alan Thorne on the role of science

The role of DNA testing is critical to resolving the ongoing debate about how and when modern humans occupied different parts of the world, including Australia. The evidence of mitochondrial DNA supports the theory known as the ‘African origin of modern humans’, or ‘Out of Africa’, theory. This says that modern humans originated in Africa in about 150 000 BCE, and that some of them migrated from Africa in about 60 000 BCE to replace existing human species such as *Homo erectus* and the Neanderthals. While some dispute still takes place, this is now a widely accepted theory. However, it and the view supported by Alan Thorne are both still theories, and it is possible that new theories will one day develop. Advances in technology may help to bring us closer to resolving this intriguing uncertainty.

In the meantime, scientists continue to think about how they can trace the ancestors of Aboriginal people. Until then, the ‘how’ and ‘when’ questions about the peopling of Australia continue to be researched, theorised and debated.

RETURN OF ANCESTRAL REMAINS

From the late eighteenth century until the early part of the twentieth century, it was considered acceptable for Aboriginal human remains to be taken and used for scientific purposes without permission from Aboriginal families. Some remains were dug up or taken from Aboriginal burial sites including caves and trees. Others came from individuals who were killed by settlers on the expanding frontier. Human remains were

DID YOU KNOW

THAT HUMAN REMAINS FROM AUSTRALIA ARE STILL KEPT IN MUSEUMS ABROAD?

For a long time, thousands of Aboriginal human remains have been kept in institutions around the world. The first such theft involved a man named Pemulwuy, of the Eora people in Sydney, who was killed in 1802. His head was cut off and sent to Sir Joseph Banks, a scientist in England who had earlier visited Australia with James Cook.

used as 'objects' in museum collections in Australia and other countries, including the United Kingdom and the United States of America. They were labelled, studied, interpreted and classified. Sometimes body parts were carelessly separated, adding another dimension of theft of a person's identity. In the name of science, archaeologists and physical anthropologists were, among other things, measuring racial characteristics and drawing comparisons with other cultures. Aboriginal people were considered inferior to the colonisers, and in the first part of the twentieth century they were seen as a 'dying race'.

This theft of human remains, as it is now generally considered to be, has been a source of sorrow, torment and grief for Aboriginal families. Out of respect for their ancestors, they wish to be able to return these remains to Country and to complete appropriate ceremonial rituals. Today there are laws and government policies enabling communities to request an official hand-back of their ancestral remains. Since 1980 the National Museum of Australia, in Canberra, has returned the remains of more than 1000 individuals. This museum has also become a temporary holding place for collections returned from museums overseas.

In 1992, a special ceremony at Lake Mungo celebrated the return of Mungo Lady to her lands twenty-four years after she was removed from her grave. In a show of respect, those gathered watched in silence as archaeologist Alan Thorne handed back Mungo Lady's remains to a group of important elders. The Paakantji, Ngyiampaa and Mutthi Mutthi peoples welcomed their ancestor home. It was the result of years of campaigning by the three tribes to assert their rights as owners of their cultural heritage, including ancestral remains—a campaign that had become world-renowned. The event represented a practical move towards reconciliation between the scientific community and an Aboriginal community.



TIME TO THINK ...

1

ARCHAEOLOGICAL FINDS AT LAKE MUNGO

Why were these finds at Lake Mungo so significant for:

- a Aboriginal people?
- b Australian scientists and archaeologists?

2

REMOVAL OF HUMAN REMAINS

- a Why were thousands of Aboriginal remains such as those at Lake Mungo collected by non-Aboriginal people?
- b What impact do you think the removal of Aboriginal remains had on Aboriginal people, including the relatives of those taken who are still alive today?

3

REPATRIATION OF HUMAN REMAINS

- a Today, as you have discovered, some of these remains have been returned to the Aboriginal relatives and communities to which they belong. This process is called repatriation. In what ways do you think repatriation can lead to reconciliation between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal people?
- b Why is repatriation an important issue for museums such as the National Museum of Australia?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU ANSWER THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS FROM THE START OF THE CHAPTER.

#1 performing & explaining creation stories

Many societies have their own creation stories to help explain and celebrate how their lives began and the beliefs that became important to them.

You and two of your classmates are a small children's theatre group employed by the National Museum of Australia. Your group has been asked to compare an Aboriginal Dreaming story with a creation story from another ancient culture. The Museum would like your group to make a creative presentation about the two creation stories to a younger group of primary school-aged children (say, between 6 and 10 years old).

Your group's performance will have three short parts.

- First, you need to do some research to find an Aboriginal Dreaming story to tell. It could be a story from a local Aboriginal group in your area. You will then need to work out how to present this story to your audience.
- Next, you need to undertake some further research to uncover a creation story from another ancient culture. Which country and culture will the group choose? Where will the story come from? You will then need to decide how to present this story.
- Finally, after you have performed the two creation stories, the Museum would like you to briefly explain to your audience why you chose these stories and what you think the similarities and differences between them are. In particular, try to explain what you think the purposes of the two different stories are.

Don't forget that your presentation needs to be entertaining as well as accurate. To make it enjoyable for your audience and make it come alive, you may want to consider using visual aids, props and costuming.

#2 an illustrated guide to ten of the greatest finds in Australian Aboriginal archaeology

You and a fellow travel writer have recently been sent on assignment by a famous international archaeology magazine to investigate and write about some of Australia's most famous and important Aboriginal archaeological sites. The editor wants you and your colleague to produce a poster-sized illustrated guide to ten of the greatest finds in Australian Aboriginal archaeology. The poster will be a special lift-out in the next issue of *Archaeology International*.

Using the information presented in this chapter, create an attractive and informative poster that illustrates where these Aboriginal sites and finds are located, what was found at each site and the significance of each site for Aboriginal people. You and your fellow writer will need to consider how to present and illustrate your information in a way that will engage your readership.

This chapter includes examples of Aboriginal archaeological sites from seven places in Australia. However, the magazine editor has asked you to include ten sites in the illustrated guide. You therefore need to find three more places that you consider to be important Aboriginal archaeological sites. To do this you will need to conduct further research. Here are some places where you might find this information:

- Source 2.7 in this chapter, the Australian archaeology map (this will provide additional site names which you could then use to find more information)
- the websites of Aboriginal land councils throughout Australia
- the Australian Archaeological Association website
- a site from your local area.

Good luck! Remember that this guide will really put Australian archaeology on the map.

#3 interviewing an elder

In this chapter you discovered that **Aboriginal archaeological sites are important**, not only because of what they can tell us about how Aboriginal people lived in the past; they are also places of great significance for Aboriginal people today.

Invite an Aboriginal elder from your local area to visit your school to discuss the significance of Aboriginal archaeological sites.

To prepare for the visit, work with a partner to devise a set of questions that you could ask the elder. The answers to your questions should help you to understand more fully how and why Aboriginal archaeological sites are central to the lives of the Aboriginal people. Use your questions also to try to find out what role Aboriginal people

have in the maintenance, restoration and protection of sites, and why this is so important.

Share your questions with the other pairs and make a class selection of the questions the whole class would like to ask.

Following the interview, write a personal reflection on the significance of Aboriginal archaeological sites to Aboriginal people today and what you have learnt about the importance of the relationship between the past and the present to Indigenous people.

Note: you may need to discuss with your teacher how best to go about inviting an Aboriginal elder to your school, including the appropriate protocols that need to be followed before, during and after the interview.

#4 creating your own exhibition of Aboriginal diversity

In Units 3 ('Archaeology: How do we know?'), 4 ('People and place') and 5 ('Social organisation and material culture') of this chapter you discovered a great deal about **how Aboriginal people lived successfully in different geographical regions of Australia**. To accomplish this they needed to respond in different ways to these varied environments. This in turn led to a diversity of Aboriginal lifestyles and cultures.

You are a curator at the National Museum of Australia and you have been asked to create a new exhibition that shows how Aboriginal people managed to both survive and thrive in diverse ways in the many different Australian landscapes.

You need to present your plans for the new exhibition in a PowerPoint® presentation to your colleagues.

In designing and creating your display you need to consider the following essential components of a museum display.

- What will be the main aim or big idea of your display? What will your exhibition attempt to show?
- What will be the key themes or sections of your display? How will these themes or sections reinforce the main aim or big idea? These themes should be based on the main content ideas

presented in Units 3, 4 and 5. Remember that you are looking for evidence of how Aboriginal people lived in Australia before non-Indigenous settlement.

- What content will you use for each theme or section? Think about the artefacts you would like to include and any other sources of evidence such as maps and photographs.
- How will you design your display? What will be the most important features of your exhibition, and why?
- Many exhibitions now include multimedia—audiovisual and interactive material and so on. Will yours? If so, how?
- What else do you need to include in your exhibition?

Now create your PowerPoint presentation using the questions above and the content from Units 3, 4 and 5 in this chapter as a guide.

Finally, following the presentations, the class might like to invite a museum curator to the school to discuss how he or she goes about creating an exhibition. Note whether the curator covers the same areas as those you thought about for your PowerPoint presentation. What other aspects of exhibition development does the curator talk about?

#5 return of ancestral remains

Read the following article about the return of Aboriginal remains from a British museum.

Aboriginal remains returned to Australia from museum in Britain

By John Wolper, DPA ■ 18:46, 13 May 2009

London—The skull of an Indigenous Australian taken from the country 100 years ago and kept by a museum in Britain was handed back at a ceremony in Britain Wednesday. The remains, believed to date back to the nineteenth century, were returned to representatives of the Ngarrindjeri people at the National Museums Liverpool, in northern Britain. They had been bought from William Broad, of Liverpool, in 1948 after he visited Australia between 1902 and 1904 and published works on skeletal remains in the country. George Trevorrow, 57, and Major Sumner, 61, who are both members of the Ngarrindjeri Aboriginal tribe, collected the skull. 'We are here to take our ancestor back home. We believe that if there is a part of our ancestor missing and taken to another area, that spirit never rests until their remains are put together in their home ground,' Sumner said. Trevorrow said there were about 600

Aboriginal remains held in British museums. 'I think British people are starting to understand our need for our tribal groups to have people returned to them. People who refuse these requests for the return of our ancestors are holding us down. We have been downtrodden for so long.' David Fleming, director of National Museums Liverpool, said it was fitting that the remains which entered the museum's collections many years ago should be returned. 'The fact is there is a debate. Not everyone believes this is the right thing to do. National Museums Liverpool believes this is exactly the right thing to do,' said Fleming. It is the second time remains have been returned to Australia from Liverpool. In 1997, the remains of the warrior Yagan were returned after the bones were exhumed from a cemetery in the city. The remains of two other individuals will also be returned to Australia at a later date, the museum said.

In this chapter you have discovered a great deal about Aboriginal people, how they lived in the past, their beliefs, customs and culture and the continuing importance of these ideas and practices in their lives today. Write a response to this newspaper article that expresses your view of why archaeological

discoveries by non-Indigenous people in the past, including the practice of removing Aboriginal remains, affected Aboriginal people so profoundly and what you believe should be done about this issue today.

SOURCE
8.1

These footprints were made in the surface of Lake Mungo by a child about 19 000 years ago. They came to the attention of archaeologists in 2003 but local Indigenous people say they had known about them for much longer.

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How did the geography of Egypt influence the development of the Egyptian civilisation?

What were the features and core beliefs of Ancient Egyptian society?

What is the legacy of the Ancient Egyptians?



About 10 000 years ago, nomadic peoples from North Africa and nearby Asia created the beginnings of a civilisation, with agriculture and towns. By 3000 BCE, they had become united under one king—called the pharaoh. Their civilisation **lasted for 3000 years.**



ANCIENT



E G Y P T



SOURCE 0.1 Stone head of Pharaoh Khafre, who ruled Egypt from about 2558 to 2532 BCE, in the Museum of Egyptian Antiquities, Cairo

SNAPSHOT



LEGEND

- Major settlement
- Oasis
- Cataract (rapids)
- Mine



To the Southern Lakes, highlands of Ethiopia

SOURCE Ancient Egypt
1.1

9000 BCE

3000 BCE Unification of Egypt by King Menes, also known as Narmer

2650 Step pyramid of Pharaoh Djoser

2569 Great Pyramid built for Pharaoh Khufu

2300 Seneb the scribe

2000 BCE

1900 Tale of Sinuhe

1840 Pharaoh Senwosret II

1600 Hyksos invasion

1470 Pharaoh Hatshepsut

1460 Pharaoh Thutmose III

1353 Pharaoh Akhenaton

1333 Pharaoh Tutankhamen

1279 Pharaoh Ramses II

1145 Pharaoh Ramses VI

1000 BCE

989 Pharaoh Psuesennes I

332 Alexander the Great conquers Egypt and is crowned Pharaoh

51 Pharaoh Cleopatra VII

30 Conquest of Egypt by Rome

1 CE

9000–3000 BCE

Stone Age settlements

3000–2200 BCE

Old Kingdom:

3rd to 6th Dynasties

2200–2100 BCE

First Intermediate

Period

2100–1700 BCE

Middle Kingdom:

11th and 12th Dynasties

1700–1600 BCE

Second Intermediate

Period

1600–1100 BCE

New Kingdom:

18th to 20th

Dynasties

1100–332 BCE

Persian and Late

Period: 21st to 31st

Dynasties

332–30 BCE

Ptolemaic Era

SOURCE

1.2

Timeline of Ancient Egypt

EGYPT'S CLIMATE

Ancient Egypt occupied almost the same area as the modern country of Egypt. It covered the north-eastern part of the Sahara **desert**, near where the continent of Africa meets Asia and the Mediterranean Sea. The very dry climate and the deserts in Ancient Egypt were much the same as they are in modern Egypt. So was the Nile River, with its **delta** and rich, black, fertile soil.

Summers were hot and long, and the average maximum temperature in June, July and August was 35 degrees Celsius or more. The short winters were very warm. From March to June, a hot wind blew from the south. Both summer and winter were dry. Modern Egypt's capital city, Cairo, receives less than 35 millimetres of rain each year, reflecting a similar lack of rainfall in the Nile Valley in ancient times.

Hot deserts, such as those in Egypt, are empty lands. Apart from small mining areas and an occasional **oasis**, they do not support human life in large numbers. This is because food crops will not grow and there is little or no pasture for animals to graze on. Without the life-giving Nile River, the kingdom would have been almost uninhabited.

THE FORMATION OF A UNIFIED LAND

There is archaeological evidence that there had been New Stone Age settlements along the valley and in the delta of the Nile since around 9000 BCE—thousands of years before the Egyptian civilisation began. As these settlements were dependent upon the flooding of the Nile each year, over time a flood warning system was developed. This allowed farmers to band together to control the oncoming **inundation** of Nile waters by building canals to irrigate their fields.

The rich delta area north of the point where the Nile splits into many channels was called Lower Egypt. The land south of the delta was named Upper Egypt. Before 3000 BCE, Upper and Lower Egypt were separate kingdoms. However, the cooperation of villages along the length of the Nile eventually evolved into a strong central government. This occurred in about 3000 BCE, when King Menes, also known as Narmer, is thought to have unified the kingdoms of Lower Egypt and Upper Egypt. So began the rule of the pharaohs and the great Ancient Egyptian civilisation, which was to last for nearly 3000 years.

SOURCE 2.1 The Nile gives life to the desert—a typical Egyptian landscape today



THE GIFTS OF THE NILE

THE NILE

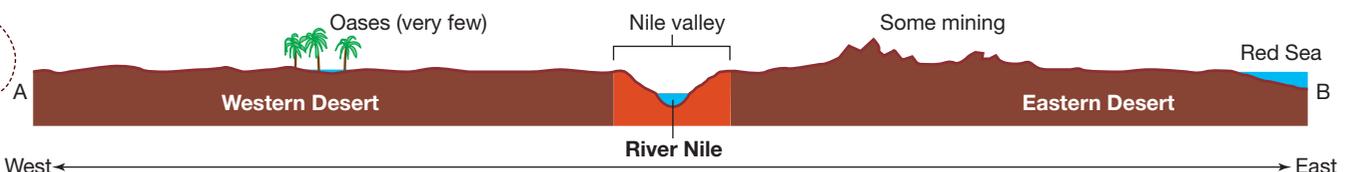
The Nile is the longest river in the world at 6695 kilometres. It flows through Egypt from south to north, beginning in tropical Africa and emptying into the Mediterranean Sea.

The sources of the Nile are the White Nile, which starts near Lake Victoria in rainy, tropical Africa, and the Blue Nile, which is fed by melting snow in the highlands of Ethiopia. From the point where they meet, the river is simply called the Nile. Only the northern 1200 kilometres of this mighty river belong to Egypt, yet this is enough to make a great difference to the Egyptian people.

In ancient times the snowmelt caused the Nile to flood its banks when it arrived in Egypt. When the floodwaters dropped, millions of tonnes of rich, black soil that had been carried by the water from Ethiopia were left in a layer along the side of the river. This made the existing soil fertile again. Without these new layers of fertile soil being laid down every year, the soil would have been worn out by constant planting. A new layer of rich soil was deposited almost every year for tens of thousands of years. Because of this, Egypt could grow food more easily than any other country in the ancient world. Ancient Egyptians called the area in which the silt was deposited the Black Land, because of the colour of the soil.

Because people crowded onto land near the Nile and the deserts were almost empty, Ancient Egypt was compared to an oasis—a very long and thin oasis about 1200 kilometres long, and 3 kilometres wide on average.

SOURCE 2.2 Egypt: a cross-section from west to east. The width of the Nile valley is exaggerated for clarity.





SOURCE 2.3 The Red Land of Egypt

*Hail to you, O Nile!
you reveal yourself over this land,
and come to give life to Egypt!
Your source is mysterious and dark,
Yet we celebrate this day when you arrive!
Watering the orchards created by Ra
to cause all the cattle to live,
you give the earth to drink, inexhaustible one!
Lord of the fish, during the inundation,
No bird alights on the crops.
You create the corn, you bring forth the barley,
Assuring eternity to the temples.
If you cease your toil and your work,
then all that exists is in torment.*

SOURCE 2.4 Part of an ancient religious text called 'Hymn to the Nile'

THE BLACK LAND

There were three areas of rich Black Land:

- the narrow ribbon along the river that varied in width from 600 metres to 26 kilometres
- the mouth of the Nile where it entered the sea and spread out into many channels over a wider area. This was known as the delta
- Lake Fayum, which was like a large oasis to the west of the Nile that used water from the river.

The rich, black soil was ideal for growing crops. Of course, the crops also needed water from the Nile and heat from the sun.

THE GIFT OF THE NILE

A Greek traveller and historian named Herodotus called Egypt 'the gift of the Nile'. According to him, without the Nile the Ancient Egyptian civilisation would not have existed.

The Nile had other 'gifts' to offer Egypt. There were plenty of fish, such as catfish and Nile perch. People caught waterbirds in large nets and snares. House walls were built from bricks made of river mud. Roofs were thatched with reeds from the river. Boats were built from reeds. **Papyrus**, a special type of reed, was made into writing paper. River resources were also used to make pens, ink, ropes and other household items.

The Ancient Egyptian people were intelligent and hardworking, and learnt how to use the riches that nature had provided. Skilled farmers could grow crops fairly reliably year after year, century after century.

THE RED LAND

On both sides of the Nile, beyond the Black Land, was desert—typically, sand dunes, rocky plateaus and low hills. The Ancient Egyptians called this area the Red Land, because of the colour of the sand. Only a few tribespeople and wild animals were able to live there, due to the lack of rain. Near the Nile the desert was used as a burial ground. The famous pyramids, tombs and temples of the Ancient Egyptians were built there. Here and there throughout the desert were small but important oases, some of which were famous for their wines.

Stone for building the pyramids, temples and statues was cut in the desert. Gold and semiprecious stones such as agate, jasper and amethyst were mined for jewellery. The Eastern Desert was very rich in minerals, mined mostly by slaves.

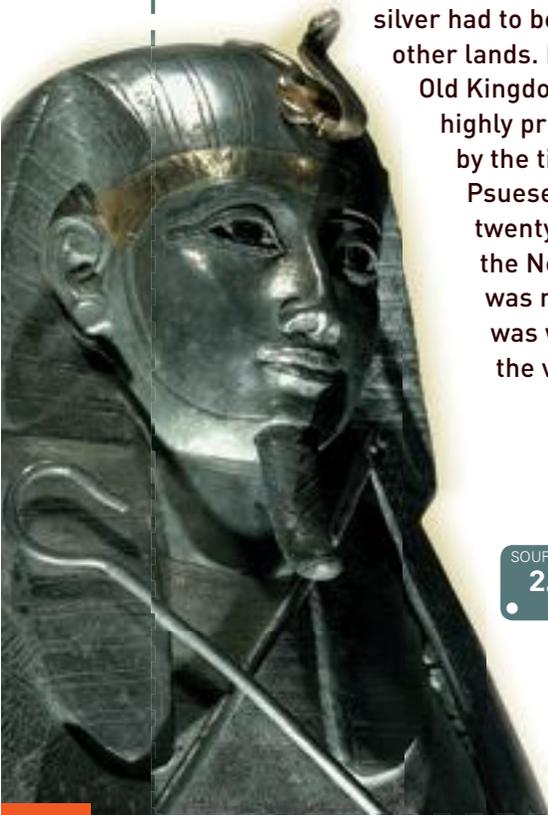
The hot, waterless desert was valuable in another way. Would-be invaders found it difficult to cross because they had to take their water and food with them. They would have been in a desperate situation if they were defeated and had to retreat. So the desert acted as a defensive barrier for the Egyptians. Although the Red Land protected the Ancient Egyptians from invaders, they disliked it so much that they considered red to be an unlucky colour.



DID YOU KNOW

THAT IN THE OLD KINGDOM SILVER WAS MORE PRECIOUS THAN GOLD?

The Ancient Egyptians thought that the skin of the gods was made of gold and their bones were made of silver. An abundance of gold could be obtained from the Red Lands but silver had to be imported from other lands. In the time of the Old Kingdom silver was more highly prized than gold but by the time of Pharaoh Psuesennes I in the twenty-first dynasty of the New Kingdom, silver was more common and was worth about half the value of gold.



SOURCE 2.6 Silver coffin of Pharaoh Psuesennes I, from about 989 BCE, in the Museum of Egyptian Antiquities, Cairo

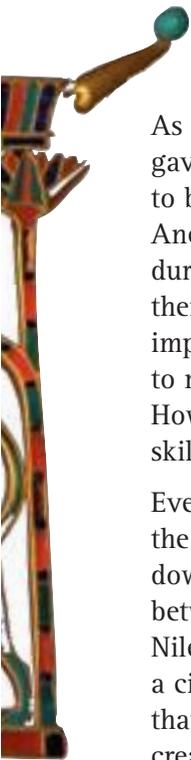
SOURCE 2.5 A **pectoral ornament**, a large pendant designed to be worn on the chest, made of gold and semiprecious stones and bearing the name of Pharaoh Senwosret II (1844–1837 BCE). It was found in the tomb of an Egyptian princess, which was situated next to the pyramid of Senwosret II.

- Q 1** Which semiprecious stones may have been used in this ornament?
- 2** What figures or animals can you see represented? What importance might they have?
- 3** Why do you think the ornament with the name of the pharaoh on it was buried with the princess in her tomb?

PRODUCING FOOD

The earliest humans living along the Nile were hunters and gatherers. They obtained their food by hunting wild birds and animals, and gathering wild plants. They were also **nomads**: as the food began to run out in one area they would move on to another.

Gradually, over thousands of years, herding and farming replaced hunting and gathering as a way of life. The early Egyptians learnt how to keep and breed animals that provided meat and milk, such as cattle and goats. These were their first herds. They also learnt how to grow crops along the Nile and irrigate land using water from the Nile. The Nile River was also a plentiful source of fish for the early Egyptians.



As they slowly became better farmers, the Egyptians gave up their nomadic way of life. They began to build strong houses of mud. By 3000 BCE, most Ancient Egyptians spent all their working time during the growing season in the fields, tending their crops and animals. It was not possible to import large amounts of food, so the Egyptians had to rely on what they could grow for themselves. However, the dry climate meant that hard work and skill were needed to grow food.

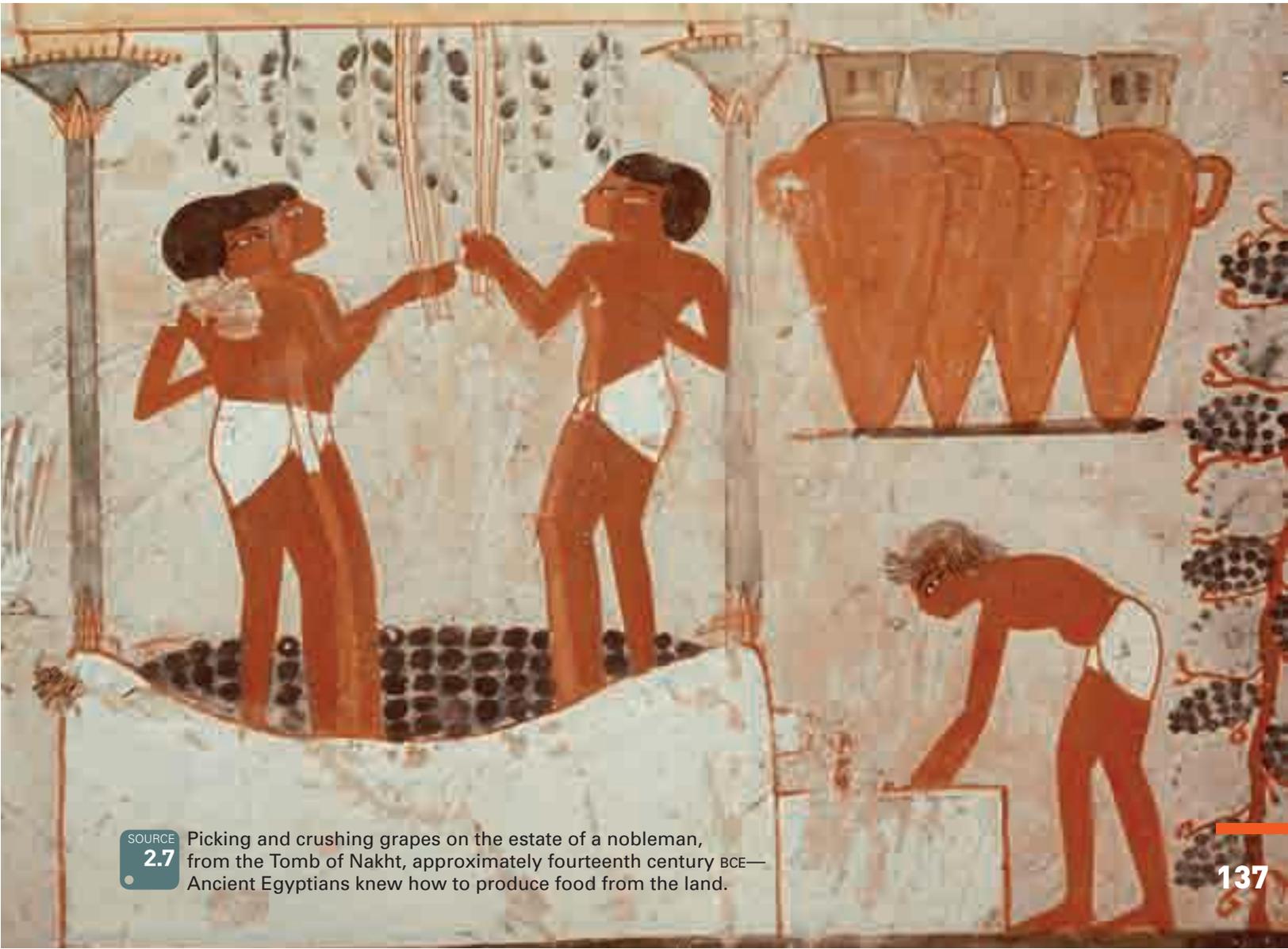
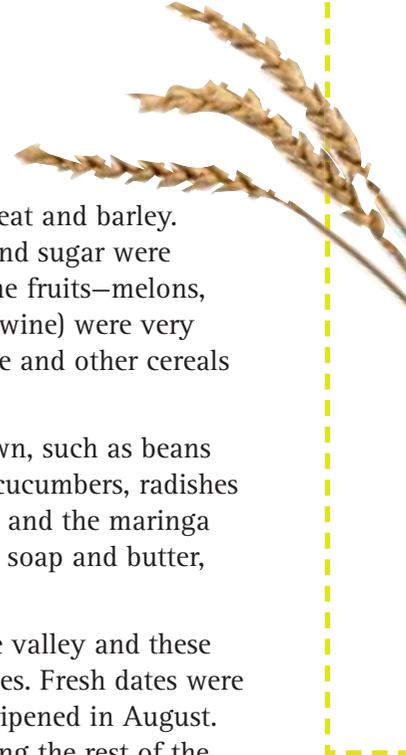
Eventually, with a reliable supply of food assured, the development of skills to store food, the settling down into fixed abodes and the cooperation between villages along the entire length of the Nile, Ancient Egyptians were able to start building a civilisation. The availability of extra food meant that the population increased and allowed for the creation of a specialised workforce, such as scribes and soldiers.

EATING WELL

The main winter crops were wheat and barley. In spring, flax (to make cloth) and sugar were important. Then in summer came fruits—melons, figs, dates and dark grapes (for wine) were very popular. In autumn, flowers, rice and other cereals were grown.

Many vegetables were also grown, such as beans and peas, onions, leeks, garlic, cucumbers, radishes and lettuce. The castor oil plant and the maringa tree were grown for oil to make soap and butter, and for cooking.

Palm trees grew wild in the Nile valley and these provided nutritious crops of dates. Fresh dates were gathered and eaten when they ripened in August. Preserved dates were eaten during the rest of the year, either dried or made into jam.



SOURCE 2.7 Picking and crushing grapes on the estate of a nobleman, from the Tomb of Nakht, approximately fourteenth century BCE—Ancient Egyptians knew how to produce food from the land.

Egyptians were among the first people to domesticate cattle. At first the animals were used for meat; later they were used as beasts of burden. A revolutionary step forward was taken about 4500 years ago, when oxen were first used to pull ploughs. Before this time, ploughing was carried out by humans.

Huge herds of cattle, goats and sheep, raised for meat, milk and other dairy produce, grazed on the river delta. Geese, ducks and chickens were raised, and birds and fish were caught for food. Donkeys and horses were used to help transport goods.



- 1 Examine Sources 2.8 and 2.9 carefully. Nebamun described himself as merely a 'scribe and counter of grain'; what evidence is there in these two images to suggest otherwise?
- 2 Standing behind Nebamun in the boat is his wife, Hatshepsut. She is dressed in her best clothes and is wearing a wig. Why do you think she is depicted as being dressed this way for a day in the marshes?
- 3 What evidence is there that the artist/s of these wall paintings must have been very skilled?

SOURCE
2.8

A fragment of a wall painting from the tomb of Nebamun, eighteenth dynasty, approximately 1350 BCE. The scene depicts cattle being brought before Nebamun for registration and inspection. Both the upper and the lower registers show scribes holding papyrus, ready for their recording duties.

SOURCE
2.9

Another fragment of a wall painting from the tomb of Nebamun. The scene depicts Nebamun fowling on the Nile.



THE FARMING CALENDAR

The rhythm of life in the farming villages hardly changed from one century to the next. What change there was occurred because of the change of season. The Ancient Egyptian calendar was based on three seasons—**Akhet**, **Peret** and **Shemu**.

SEASON	MONTHS	EVENTS
Akhet 'Season of Inundation'	Summer June to October	Nile rises due to snowmelt in Ethiopia. Black Land is flooded or inundated and a layer of rich silt is deposited. Floodwaters reach their highest point between September and October. Villages become separate islands, reached only by boat. Little work is done by peasants—only feeding cattle with dry fodder. Lots of time for leisure activities, such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ large feasts ■ games and sports, such as wrestling, gymnastics and bull-fighting. Many peasants willing to work on building projects for the pharaoh, as they are paid with grain from the pharaoh's storehouses.
Peret 'Season of Emergence'	Winter November to February	Floods recede. Fields are ploughed using donkeys or oxen. Peasants have to judge the ploughing very carefully: too late and the mud becomes as hard as bricks and unworkable. Seed is scattered by hand. Sheep and goats are used to tread the seed into the ground before the birds can get it Life is hard, as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ the sun is very hot ■ remaining pools of water are infested with parasites that burrow in through the skin ■ snakes and scorpions are a constant danger.
Shemu 'Season of Drought'	Spring March to May	Nile is at its shallowest. Crops are ready for harvesting, which is taken very seriously. Religious ceremony is held at the commencement of the harvest to honour Min , the Egyptian god of fertility. The pharaoh reaps the first ear of wheat. The harvest is then measured, recorded and stored in brick silos. A successful harvest means eating well and surviving. A failed harvest means famine and death.



IRRIGATION

The annual flooding of the Nile was so important to all Egyptian life that it was not enough simply to leave it to nature and 'hope for the best'. If the flooding was too high, homes were destroyed and people and animals could be drowned. If it was

too low, some areas missed out on receiving water and the rich deposit of silt. Those areas could not be used for farming that season. Also, if the water drained away too quickly after the flooding, crops would die in the summer heat and people could starve. So the flow of the river water was closely watched and, as far as possible, controlled.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT NILOMETERS WERE USED TO PREDICT THE INUNDATION?

Placed along the length of the Nile, nilometers consisted of a well, or a series of steps dug into the side of the river bank, and were used to measure the inundation. The most important nilometer was at Elephantine Island, the southernmost point of Ancient Egypt, and could be used to predict the inundation for the rest of Egypt. When the inundation started, the clear waters of the Nile would turn a murky red. If the flood was too low at Elephantine, the inundation would be poor and drought and famine would follow. If the Nile rose too high, villages would be destroyed.



SOURCE 2.10 The nilometer at Elephantine Island. This nilometer has been restored a number of times over the last two millennia.



1 Why do you think the pharaoh would have wanted to have early knowledge of the inundation?

2 What could he do with this information?

To solve these problems, the Ancient Egyptians built large water-catchment areas and canals to irrigate their fields. During the flood, water flowed over the land into the catchment basins. It was stored in those basins throughout the year. From the basins, water was allowed to flow through canals to the fields. **Levee banks** (long ridges) and dams were built to protect the villages from floods and to stop the valuable water from running back into the Nile.

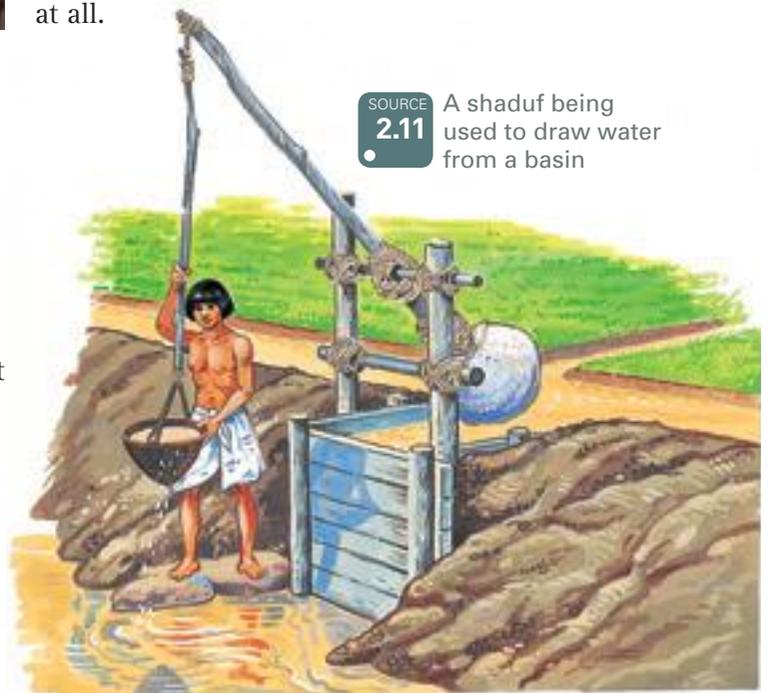
The shape of the Nile valley was suitable for irrigation. It was fairly flat, which meant that water could flow easily from the river and canals to water the fields.

Sometimes the water level was too low and the Egyptians had to carry water from the basins, or even directly from the river, to their own irrigation canals. At first they used buckets, which was a very slow, inefficient and time-consuming process. Later, the invention of the **shaduf** saved a lot of this hard work. The shaduf was a pole that rested on a pivot. At one end of the pole was a bucket; at the other end was a heavy stone. The farmer could lift the bucket easily by using the pole.

The price of land that flooded regularly was higher than that of land that flooded less frequently or not at all. Taxes were also higher on the land that flooded regularly. So highly did the Ancient Egyptians regard their canals and levees that large sums of money were spent each year to keep them repaired and in good condition. Destruction of a levee was a major crime, comparable to murder. A person caught deliberately damaging a levee was branded and condemned to hard labour in the mines in the Eastern Desert.

Once the Egyptians learnt how to irrigate the rich Black Land, they were able to produce so much food that some people could be freed from food-growing. Craftspeople such as carpenters, jewellers, artists, stonemasons, tomb builders, weavers and other skilled tradespeople did not do any farming at all.

SOURCE 2.11 A shaduf being used to draw water from a basin





remembering & understanding

- #1** In your workbook or in a Microsoft® Word document or Excel® file on your computer, create an 'Ancient Egypt' glossary. Begin your glossary by listing these key words or phrases and explaining their meanings:
- | | | |
|---------------|---------------|-------------|
| ■ Akhet | ■ inundation | ■ Peret |
| ■ desert | ■ levee banks | ■ ploughing |
| ■ delta | ■ Min | ■ shaduf |
| ■ domesticate | ■ nomads | ■ Shemu |
| ■ famine | ■ oasis | ■ silt |
| ■ flax | ■ papyrus | ■ tropical |
- #2** a Draw a table with two columns. The title for your table should be 'Egypt's Black and Red Lands'. Head one column 'Black Land' and the other 'Red Land'. In each column make a list of the area's most important features.
- b What were the most important differences between the two lands?
- #3** Read 'The farming calendar' carefully and answer the following questions. Make sure that you write your answers in full sentences.
- What were the names of the three seasons and how long did they last?
 - What were the key features of each of these seasons?
 - Why was the harvest taken so seriously?
 - Describe what occurred during the harvest.

understanding

- #4** a Explain in note form why the Nile flooded.
b What good did this flooding do?
- #5** What natural feature made it so difficult for many would-be invaders to conquer Egypt? Explain your answer.

understanding & analysing

- #6** Read 'Hymn to the Nile' in Source 2.4 carefully and answer the following questions.
- Why is this poem called 'Hymn to the Nile'?
 - List all the good things that come from the Nile.
 - In what way does the line 'assuring eternity to the temples' relate to your answer to part a, above?
 - What do you think the last two lines of the hymn mean?

analysing & evaluating

- #7** With a partner, conduct some research on the internet to find out more about the climate of Egypt. You can do this easily by keying 'Egypt weather and climate' into a search engine such as Google or Yahoo. You and your partner should discuss with your teacher the best way to present your findings. Do not forget to include a bibliography of your sources of information. Below are some suggestions:
- annotated visual diagram, or AVD
 - PowerPoint® presentation
 - annotated map
 - written report
 - a weather and climate report for a five-minute segment on a television travel program.

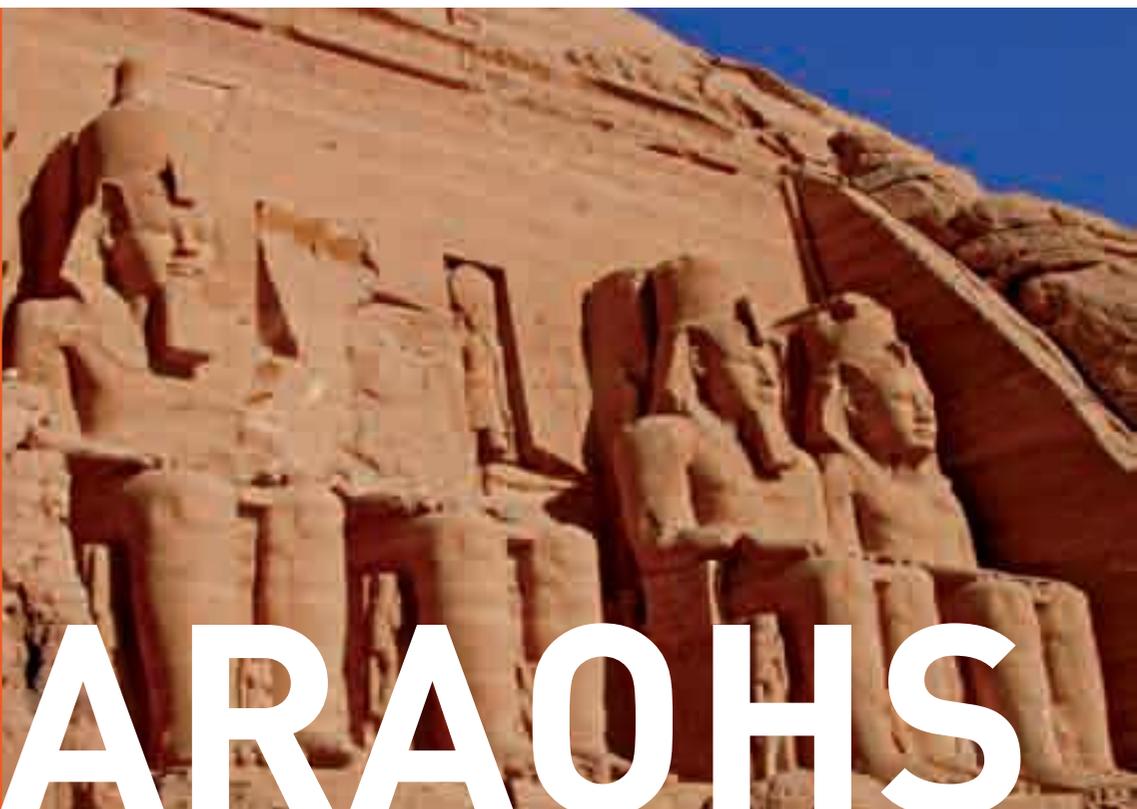
applying & creating

- #8** Using tracing paper or an outline map of Ancient Egypt, trace or copy the features of Ancient Egypt from Source 1.1.
- On your map show:
- the Nile, the Red Sea and the Mediterranean Sea
 - Upper and Lower Egypt, Lake Fayum, Aswan and the first cataract
 - Egypt's modern capital (name it)
 - four of Ancient Egypt's capital cities—Memphis, Thebes, Alexandria and Akhetaton (Ancient Egypt had ten different capital cities altogether)
 - a compass rose or north point
 - an arrow to indicate the direction in which the Nile flows
 - the Black Land and the Red Land.

Illustrate some of these features. Print your name on the map and then display your finished product. Do not forget to give your map a border and an appropriate title.

creating

- #9** Write your own hymn to the Nile. Your hymn should be at least ten lines in length. Illustrate your hymn with an appropriate drawing or image.



THE PHAROHS

WEALTH OF KINGS

Egypt's kings, called **pharaohs**, were all-powerful. The supremacy and wealth of the pharaohs is illustrated by the huge treasure of gold and jewellery buried with them on their death and later found in their tombs. Tutankhamen was a fairly unimportant pharaoh, yet his gold funerary mask is worth about \$1 000 000 at gold scrap prices, and an unlimited sum as a work of art.

A god is he without a peer; none other surpasses him. A master of prudence is he, excellent in counsel, effective in decrees. Goings and comings are at his command. It is he who subdued the foreign lands. Valiant is he, achieving with his strong arm; active, and none is like to him, when he is seen charging down on the Easterners. His enemies cannot marshal their ranks. Vengeful is he, a smasher of foreheads; none can stand in his neighbourhood ...

He is a master of grace, great in sweetness; he conquers through love. His city loves him more than itself, it rejoices over him more than over its god. Men and women pass by

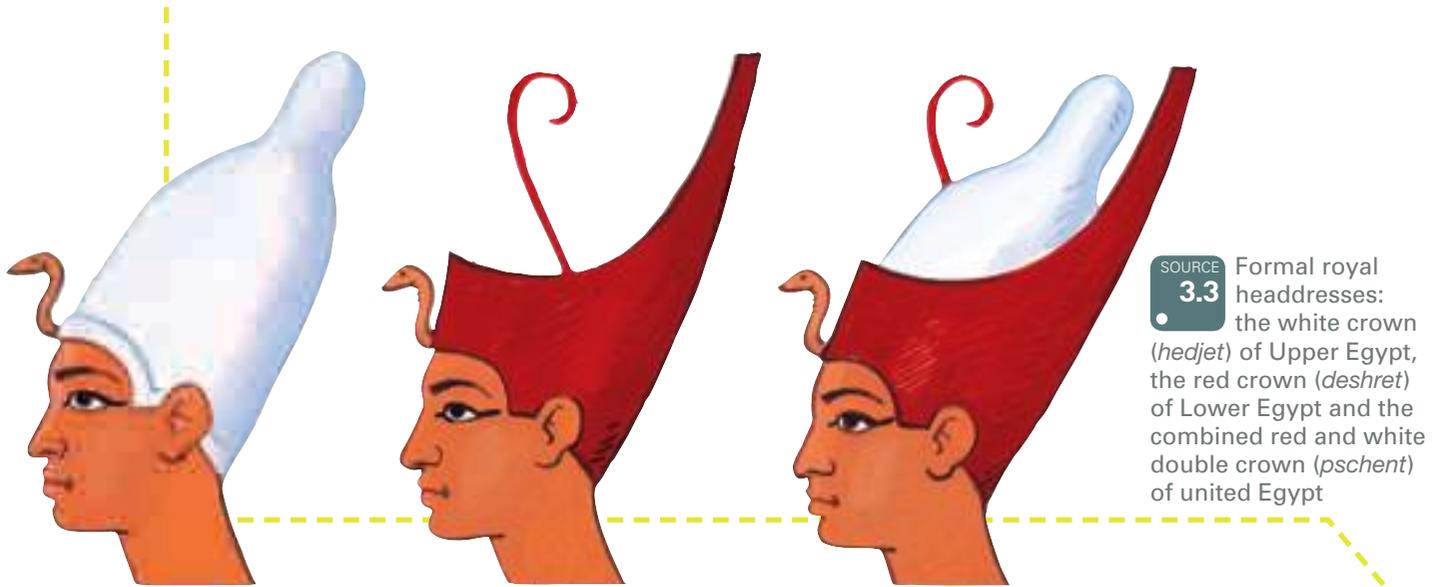
in exultation concerning him, now that he is king. His face has been set toward kingship ever since he was born. He is unique, god-given. This land that he rules rejoices. Utter no curse against His Majesty. He fails not to do good to the land that is loyal to him.

SOURCE 3.2 A description of the Pharaoh Senwosret I of the twelfth dynasty (1908–1875 BCE) from 'The Tale of Sinuhe', in A. H. Gardiner, *Notes on the Story of Sinuhe*, Librairie Honoré Champion, Paris, 1916. Sinuhe was a scribe and official of the royal court.

- Q 1** What do you think is Sinuhe's opinion of the pharaoh? Give three quotes from the text that support your opinion.
- 2** Is this a primary or a secondary source? Explain your answer.

SOURCE 3.1 Four colossal statues of Ramses II at Abu Simbel. Each figure of the seated pharaoh is approximately 20 metres high.

- Q 1** Why do you think that the statues of Ramses II are so immense?
- 2** Conduct some research to enable you to write a brief biography of Ramses II.



SOURCE 3.3 Formal royal headdresses: the white crown (*hedjet*) of Upper Egypt, the red crown (*deshret*) of Lower Egypt and the combined red and white double crown (*pschent*) of united Egypt

THE POWER OF THE PHARAOH

The pharaoh had ultimate power over his people, over all of Egypt and over the rise and fall of the Nile. This was shown by what he wore. The symbols of his power were:

- a false beard made of goat's hair to show his manly power, which came from the god Osiris
- a shepherd's crook called a *heka*, meaning 'ruler', which he held in one hand and which symbolised magic and the pharaoh's guardianship of his people
- a whip called a *nekhata*, which he held in the other hand and which symbolised his absolute power over his subjects
- an apron called a *shemset*, which had a bull's tail hanging from the back of the belt as a representation of the pharaoh's strength.
- a crown. The pharaoh could wear a number of crowns, depending upon the ceremony, such as:
 - the *pschent* or double crown shown in Source 3.3, which showed his rule over Upper and Lower Egypt
 - the *nemes* crown, shown in Source 3.6, which was more like a headdress than a crown
 - the *khepresh*, the blue crown or war crown shown in Source 3.4. Worn from the eighteenth dynasty in the sixteenth century BCE, it was a tall headdress made of blue cloth or leather decorated with gold discs. It was often worn in battle and at certain ceremonies.

THAT EVEN LONG-DEAD PHARAOKS NEED A PASSPORT?

DID YOU KNOW

In 1974, Egyptologists at the Cairo Museum discovered that the mummy of Ramses II (ruled 1279–1213 BCE) was deteriorating due to a fungal infection. They flew the mummy to Paris so that a team of experts could work on it. In order for Ramses II's mummy to leave Egypt legally, it was issued with a passport. His occupation was listed as 'King (deceased) Egypt'.



SOURCE 3.4 Ramses II wearing the *khepresh*, known as the blue crown or war crown, from the temple of Osiris in Abydos

TWO PHARAOKHS

KHUFU: PYRAMID BUILDER

According to the great Greek historian Herodotus, who lived from about 484 to 430 BCE, the long reign of Pharaoh Khufu (2589–2566 BCE) some 2000 years earlier was one of tyranny and wretchedness for the people of Egypt. This was because he forced them to work on the building of his pyramid, which became known as the Great Pyramid at Giza.

Down to the time when Rhampsinitos was king, they told me there was in Egypt nothing but orderly rule, and Egypt prospered greatly; but after him [Khufu] became king over them and brought them to every kind of evil: for he shut up all the temples, and having first kept them from sacrifices there, he then bade all the Egyptians work for him.

So some were appointed to draw stones from the stone-quarries in the Arabian mountains to the Nile ... and they worked by a hundred thousand men at a time, for each three months continually. Of this oppression there passed ten years while the causeway was made by which they drew the stones ... and it is a work not much less, as it appears to me, than the pyramid. For the making of the pyramid itself there passed a period of twenty years.

SOURCE 3.5 Description of Pharaoh Khufu by Herodotus, from *The Histories of Herodotus*, trans. G. C. Macaulay, at the Project Gutenberg website



- 1 Is Source 3.5 a primary or a secondary source? Explain your answer.
- 2 Do you think that everything Herodotus has to say about Khufu is true? Give quotes from the text above to support your answers.

HATSHEPSUT: FEMALE PHARAOH

The Ancient Egyptians believed that there had to be a pharaoh to act as a link between gods and humans and to ensure the good running of the country and its government. However, they also believed that the pharaoh could not be a woman. Women could marry the pharaoh and help him and the royal dynasty by having children and appearing at important ceremonies, but that was all. Yet Hatshepsut ruled as pharaoh for more than twenty years. How did she manage it?

Hatshepsut became royal when she married Pharaoh Thutmose II. When he died she became much more powerful as **regent** for the boy pharaoh Thutmose III (a regent is a person who governs a kingdom when the monarch cannot do so because he or she is too young). Thutmose III was only eight years old when he came to the throne—but Hatshepsut was not even his mother.

HATSHEPSUT AS PHARAOH

While Hatshepsut was regent, she probably came to enjoy the power of a pharaoh. However, as Thutmose III grew up she must have become worried about how to hold on to that power. She found ways to deal with this. One scheme was to have an **oracle** announce that Amun-Ra, the highest of the gods, said that she was to be pharaoh. At that time, whatever Amun-Ra said was accepted as the truth.

An old custom of having two kings as joint rulers was revived and eventually Hatshepsut and Thutmose III both became pharaohs at the same time, with Hatshepsut doing the real ruling. Hatshepsut played a male role very thoroughly. She gave up the title of queen and took up that of pharaoh, calling herself the ‘ruler of two lands’, which was a male title. In monuments she had herself depicted in male clothes, like a king, and with a beard, like all the male pharaohs. In one temple, she had her father shown as the god Amun-Ra, who was said to be the father of only male pharaohs.

Hatshepsut did things that only kings were allowed to do, such as set up obelisks at Karnak and make offerings directly to the gods. She had herself depicted on sculptures and carvings as the god Horus, even though Horus was a male god. The scribes were completely confused. They did not know whether to refer to her as female or male, so they used both genders.

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient Egypt' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- oracle
- pharaohs
- regent

remembering, understanding & applying

#2 Read 'The power of the pharaoh' carefully and answer the following questions.

- a What were the powers of the pharaoh?
- b Why was he so powerful?
- c Using the description of his symbols of power and the sources in this unit, draw an illustration of what you think the pharaoh looked like.

understanding & analysing

#3 With a partner, respond to the following tasks.

- a Discuss the ways in which Hatshepsut gained power.
- b List the steps she took to gain power and then rank them in order of importance, placing the most important at number one.

Write a short paragraph explaining your reasoning.

SOURCE 3.6 Sphinx of Pharaoh Hatshepsut, from the Metropolitan Museum, New York, USA

- Q**
- 1 Is Hatshepsut depicted as a pharaoh or as merely royal in this statue?
 - 2 What evidence from the statue do you have for your answer?

understanding & evaluating

- #4**
- a Conduct some further research to find out what happened to the temple of Abu Simbel when the Egyptian government built the High Dam at Aswan in the 1960s CE.
 - b The building of the High Dam at Aswan was a mammoth undertaking. What links can you make between modern feats of engineering such as this and the achievements of the Ancient Egyptians?

applying & evaluating

- #5** The famous historian Herodotus has been called both 'the father of history' and 'the father of lies'. Conduct some further research in the library and on the internet to find out more about Herodotus, and complete the following tasks.
- a Write a short biography of his life.
 - b Why has he been called by both these names?
 - c Which do you think is a more accurate description of Herodotus? Why?
 - d As historians, can we always rely on his *Histories*? Explain your answer.

applying & creating

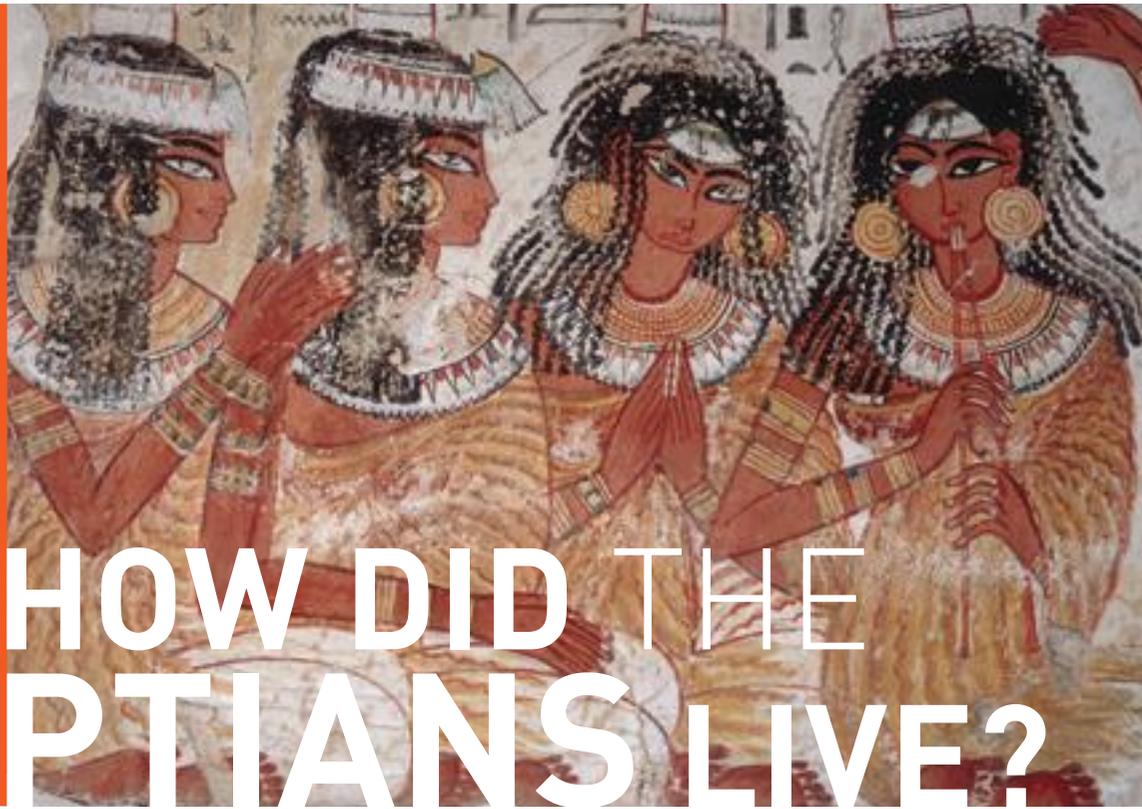
- #6** Read Source 3.2 and 'The power of the pharaoh' and examine the sources in this unit very carefully. With a partner, create an AVD about a pharaoh and his powers and duties. Place your picture from Question 2 c in the middle of a sheet of A3 paper. Around your picture, draw the symbols of the pharaoh and explain what they mean. Also include illustrations of the duties of a pharaoh. Explain your illustrations.

analysing & creating

- #7** Using your AVD from Question 6 to help you, discuss with your partner the question below and complete the task that follows.
- a Who has these powers and duties in society today?
 - b Create a chart that shows which person or institution has which power or performs which duty. Give detail in your answers.



SOURCE
4.1
Music and dance were an important part of Ancient Egyptian life.

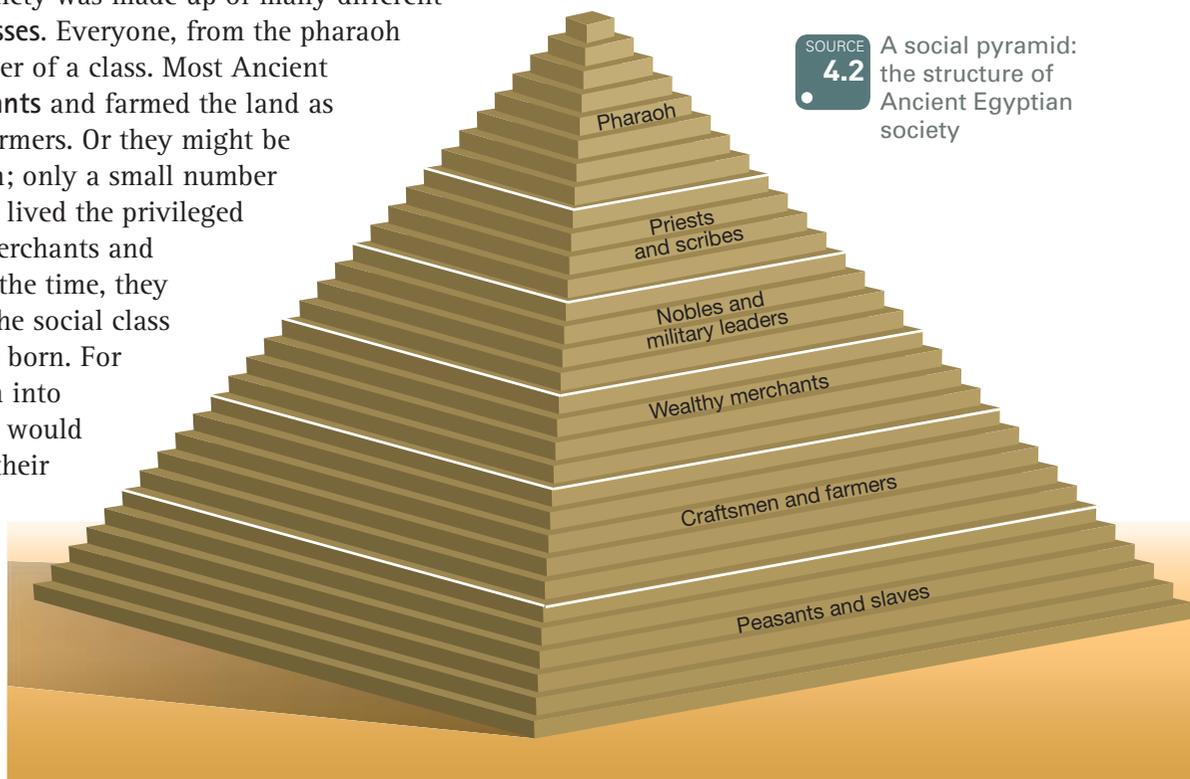


HOW DID THE EGYPTIANS LIVE?

STABLE STRUCTURE

Life in Ancient Egypt was very **traditional** and this is reflected by the fact that Ancient Egyptian society changed very little in nearly 3000 years. For most people in this society, family, work and the community were the focal points of their lives, much as they are for people today.

Ancient Egyptian society was made up of many different groups known as **classes**. Everyone, from the pharaoh down, was the member of a class. Most Ancient Egyptians were **peasants** and farmed the land as either labourers or farmers. Or they might be **scribes** and craftsmen; only a small number of Ancient Egyptians lived the privileged life of the wealthy merchants and the **nobility**. Most of the time, they remained for life in the social class into which they were born. For example, people born into poor servant families would work as servants all their lives and so would their children.



SCRIBES

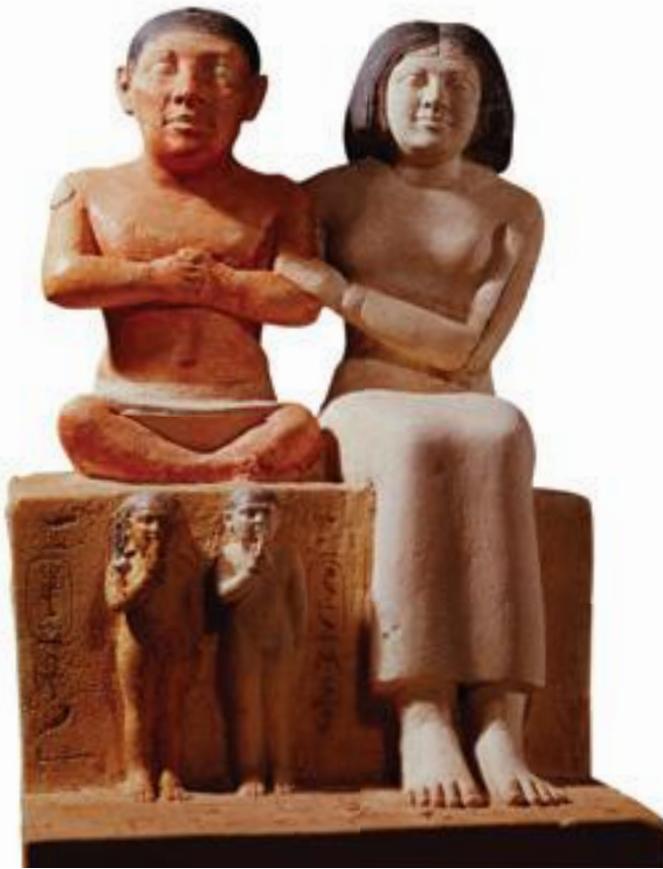
There were thousands of scribes in Ancient Egypt, and the position of scribe was one of the most important jobs in society. One of a scribe's chief duties was to make a written record of everything that was of significance to the pharaoh and to the running of the country. But scribes also performed many other tasks. These included:

- tax collecting
- keeping court records
- writing reports and recording statistics about food production and harvests
- communicating during battle
- teaching boys
- writing out the spells on the walls of tombs for craftsmen to carve and paint.

Some scribes were also priests.

Scribes were highly regarded members of Ancient Egyptian society. Consequently, the job of scribe was jealously guarded and might be passed down from father to son. Scribes were considered to represent Thoth, the god of learning and writing, who was adviser to the other Egyptian gods.

SOURCE
4.3 Limestone statue of the dwarf Seneb and his family, from 2300 BCE, in the Museum of Egyptian Antiquities, Cairo



*The scribe is ahead of all work in this world.
Be a scribe, for he is controller of everyone.
He who works in writing is not taxed, nor has
he any dues to pay.
Writing for him who knows it is better than all
other professions.
It pleases more than bread and beer, more than
clothing and ointment.
It is worth more than an inheritance in Egypt,
than a tomb in the west.*

SOURCE
4.4 A scribe as seen by himself, from T. Healey, *Life in the Land of the Pharaohs*, Reader's Digest Association, London, 1995

MARRIAGE AND FAMILY

Family life was important in Ancient Egyptian life for all social classes. The father was the head of the household, whether noble family or peasant family. He was responsible for the welfare of the family and the mother was responsible for the running of the house and rearing the children. The Ancient Egyptian family spent much time together, sharing all their mealtimes and spending evenings together as a family.

Wealthy men often had more than one wife, as long as they could afford to look after them. His first wife was always the most important wife and her children were his main heirs. It was common for Ancient Egyptians to marry at age thirteen or fourteen but the newly wed couple would stay with the groom's father until they were considered adults, some time in their late teens. Marriages were usually for life, although couples could divorce.

Ancient Egyptians usually had families of between four and seven children, as the **infant mortality rate** was very high. Only about half of the children born lived past their fifth birthday. Most infant deaths were due to infection or disease. A large family was especially important to peasants as they needed the children to work on the farm. Children were also expected to look after their parents in their old age.

While Ancient Egyptian children had toys and played games, most of their time was spent getting ready for adulthood. Boys were expected to assist their fathers and girls their mothers. For example, farmers' children helped out in the fields while the sons of craftsmen were apprenticed to their fathers and their daughters helped in the house.

WOMEN

In Ancient Egypt, female gods were equal in power to their male counterparts and so it was thought that this should be reflected in society. Consequently, Ancient Egyptian women had as many rights within the law as men did. Women could inherit property, which remained theirs even after marriage, and leave it to whomever they chose. They could run a business just as a man did and earn the same pay as a man. However, women could not hold positions of power in the government unless they were of royal blood.

If a husband was violent or neglected his wife, she could either apply for protection from the courts or ask for a divorce. If a woman divorced her husband, she kept the children. He would continue to help support them and both she and the children had a right to a share of his property on his death.

EDUCATION

Most children in Ancient Egypt did not go to school. It was only the sons of the wealthy and nobles who attended the schools housed in the temples, palaces and noblemen's estates. The boys were taught by scribes, who were very strict. Anyone who broke the rules or was lazy and careless was beaten with a cane. Boys began school at age four and continued until they were sixteen.

The school day would start at dawn and finish at noon. The boys learnt writing in both hieroglyphs and hieratic, law, mathematics, painting and design, geography, history, the strategies of war and good manners.

HOUSING

Most houses in Ancient Egypt were humble, single-storey huts made of mud bricks and straw. They usually comprised two to four rooms with earthen floors covered in reed mats, a small backyard and a cellar for storing food. The houses would have been near the river or a well, as there were no water pipes or running water.

The houses of wealthy and noble Ancient Egyptians were far more elaborate. They were built of stone, not mud bricks, and were often two or three storeys high. They had their own wells, tiled floors, painted walls, shrines to one of the gods, staircases and other decorative elements. However, poor and rich homes alike had flat roofs, where the family would eat, rest and sleep during the cool of the evenings.

FASHION

All Ancient Egyptians dressed for their hot, dry climate in simple, lightweight clothing, and both men and women wore make-up, wigs, jewellery and other ornaments. However, wealthy people and nobles wore fine linen, had access to high-quality cosmetics and wigs, and used gold and semiprecious stones in their jewellery and ornaments. Poor people wore coarser cloth and poorer quality make-up and wigs, and their jewellery was not made from precious materials. Both men and women, rich and poor, adopted the latest trends in fashion, such as the length of men's kilts or the development of sleeves.



SOURCE
4.5

An artist's impression of the house of a wealthy Ancient Egyptian



1 Is this a primary or a secondary source? Explain your answer.

2 What evidence is there in the picture that this is the house of a wealthy person?

Men wore short linen kilt-like skirts with a band of cloth over one shoulder, while women wore long, fitted dresses that fell from their armpits. Jewellery included diadems, necklaces, pectoral ornaments, bracelets, anklets and rings. It was treasured not only for its beauty and precious stones, but also for the magical protection it gave the wearer.

Men and women would often shave their heads and wear wigs instead. Wigs for women were often long and heavily braided, while men's wigs were shorter but more intricate in design. Both men and women wore distinctive eye make-up called kohl. This was believed to reduce sun glare. They also oiled and perfumed themselves to protect their skin from the sun and hot, sandy winds. Sometimes they wore rouge and lipstick, and coloured their fingernails, the palms of their hands and the soles of their feet with a purple dye.

THAT THE ANCIENT EGYPTIANS OFTEN WORE NO CLOTHES AT ALL?

As Egypt was so hot and dusty, Ancient Egyptians often went about their daily chores naked.

Peasant women wore nothing around the house, slaves often worked naked and most children played with no clothing on until they were about six years of age.

SOURCE 4.6 A wealthy overseer, Ankerhau, relaxing at home with his wife. The wigs they wore were made of human hair with a padding of vegetable fibres to make them thicker and fuller.



- 1 Do you think that Ankerhau and his wife really dressed like this when they were at home? Why or why not?
- 2 What differences can you see between Ankerhau and his wife, and the musician?



ENTERTAINMENT

Ancient Egyptians lived a very full life. Although their days were busy with work, they made plenty of time for **leisure** as well. Families would hold feasts to celebrate important events such as weddings, births and religious days. The guests were entertained by dancers and musicians.

Ancient Egyptians loved to play board games such as Senet and Mehen, the snake game. These games were so popular that gaming boards were placed in tombs so that the dead would be entertained in the afterlife. Ancient Egyptians also loved sporting events such as running, swimming, chariot and boat races, wrestling, boxing, fencing and hunting.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient Egypt' glossary, list and explain the meaning of these words and phrases:

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------|
| ■ classes | ■ peasants |
| ■ infant mortality rate | ■ scribes |
| ■ leisure | ■ traditional |
| ■ nobility | |

understanding

#2 Read 'Marriage and family' and 'Women' carefully and answer the following questions.

- What were the positive aspects of being a woman in Ancient Egypt?
- What were the negative aspects?

#3 Read 'Fashion' carefully and describe in note form the type of clothing and fashion that Ancient Egyptians wore.

#4 Read 'Entertainment' carefully and answer the following questions.

- List the leisure activities that the Ancient Egyptians enjoyed.
- How different are they from the sort of entertainment we have today?

understanding & analysing

#5 Read 'Scribes' carefully and answer the following questions.

- What types of jobs did scribes perform?
- Why do you think they were such valued people in Ancient Egyptian society?
- Who does those sorts of jobs in Australian society today? Give detail in your answer.

#6 Examine Source 4.2 carefully and, with a partner, create a social pyramid that reflects Australian society today.

analysing & evaluating

#7 Using Source 4.2 and your own social pyramid from Question 6, with your partner discuss and answer the following questions.

- Why do you think that in Ancient Egyptian society people remained in the class that they were born into?
- Is that true of Australian society today? Explain your answer.

understanding, analysing & evaluating

#8 a Read 'Marriage and family' carefully and, with a partner, construct a Venn diagram that compares and contrasts marriage and families in Ancient Egypt and in Australia today. With your partner, write a sentence or two that outlines your conclusions based on your Venn diagram.

OR

b Read 'Education' carefully and, with a partner, construct a Venn diagram that compares and contrasts schooling in Ancient Egypt and in Australia today. With your partner, write a sentence or two that outlines your conclusions based on your Venn diagram.

RELIGION

SOURCE 5.1 Pharaoh Ramses II kneeling before the king of the gods, Amun-Ra. From the wall of the Great Hypostyle Hall (a hall where the ceiling is held up by pillars) at Karnak, nineteenth dynasty, thirteenth century BCE.

RELIGIOUS BELIEFS

Religion was part of the lives of Ancient Egyptians in a way that can be difficult for us to understand. Most civil servants were priests and art was part of religion. The Ancient Egyptians believed that:

- the pharaoh was **mortal** and, therefore, lived only as long as everyone else, but was also a god, and lived forever—that is, was **immortal**
- the Nile flooded every year because the pharaoh **willed** it to flood
- gods could be plants and animals, some humans and even the weather itself
- anything unusual that happened, such as floods or droughts, war, victory or defeat, was the fault of the gods, not of nature or of man.

GODS

There were hundreds of gods in Ancient Egypt. The very first Egyptians depicted gods as animals. The god that created everything was said to be Kroun, a ram. The god of fertility was Thoveris, a hippopotamus. The god of wisdom and knowledge was Thoth, sometimes shown as an ibis and sometimes as a baboon.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE ANCIENT EGYPTIANS WERE VERY FOND OF CATS?

They kept cats as pets to keep the numbers of rats and mice down, and regarded them as friendly gods. Cats were often mummified and buried. Most present-day house cats are descendants of Egyptian cats.

The goddess Bastet disguised herself as a cat with a woman's body and a cat's head. There was a cat-god city and even a cat-god festival. The Egyptian word for cat was *miu*, meaning 'creature that miaows'.



SOURCE 5.2 The cat god, Bastet, was very popular in Ancient Egypt's last 1000 years.

In 3000 BCE, those religious images began to change. The gods took on human form and grew human bodies, or heads or arms and legs. They became **hybrids** or mixtures. Thoth became the head of an ibis on a man's body. Anubis, the god of the dead, became a man with a jackal's head. There was a lion-headed god, another with a crocodile's head and many such others.

Some of the major gods and goddesses worshipped by the Ancient Egyptians are shown in Source 5.3.

Ancient Egyptians both feared and admired the gods. Live examples of the animal gods were sometimes kept in **temples** and were very well looked after.

Important features of the Egyptians' religion lasted for thousands of years. At the centre of their religion was the god Amun-Ra, who had created everything. He had a great love for the world and

had a strong sense of justice. However, there were also demons and evil spirits who wanted to destroy everything that had been created. To keep the world safe, humans had to work together with Amun-Ra and his gods, otherwise everything would fall into chaos and horror.

Centuries later in the New Kingdom, and then later still, when foreigners conquered the country, Egyptians' attitudes changed. They paid less and less attention to the old gods because they thought these gods had lost their power. Instead, the Egyptians paid more attention to smaller local gods, who they hoped would protect them from danger and lessen the burden of daily life. Animals such as cats that could be kept domestically were especially worshipped for a time. Egyptians believed that the cat god, Bastet, was more interested in people than the old gods were.

SOURCE 5.3 The major gods of Egypt

NAME	APPEARANCE	QUALITIES
Amun	A crowned king	The god of all living things
Amun-Ra	The two gods Amun and Ra joined	King of the gods
Anubis	A jackal-headed man	Guarded the tombs and was the god of embalming
Hathor	A woman with the horns of a cow and a sun disc as a headdress	The goddess of love, beauty, happiness and childbirth
Horus	The falcon-headed god	The god of the sky
Isis	A woman wearing a headdress in the shape of a throne	A motherly goddess and protector of children. She had many healing powers
Khnum	A man with a ram's head	God of creation. He also controlled the annual inundation of the Nile River
Ma'at	A woman with a feather on her head	The goddess of truth, justice, harmony and good behaviour
Osiris	A mummified man with a white headdress	King of the underworld. Controlled birth and rebirth of all humans, animals and vegetation
Ptah	A mummified man with a beard	The god of craftsmen
Ra (or Re)	A hawk-headed man who wore a headdress with a sun disk	The god of the sun
Thoth	An ibis-headed man	The god of learning and wisdom

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient Egypt' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- hybrids
- temples
- immortal
- willed
- mortal

#2 Read 'Religious beliefs' carefully and answer the following questions.

- a Why was the pharaoh both mortal and immortal?
- b Why did the Nile flood every year?
- c How were religion and superstition a part of everyday life in Ancient Egypt?

#3 Read 'Gods' carefully and answer the following questions.

- a Who was Amun-Ra?
- b Why was he so important?
- c Describe him.

#4 How did the attitudes of the Ancient Egyptians to their gods change over time?

applying

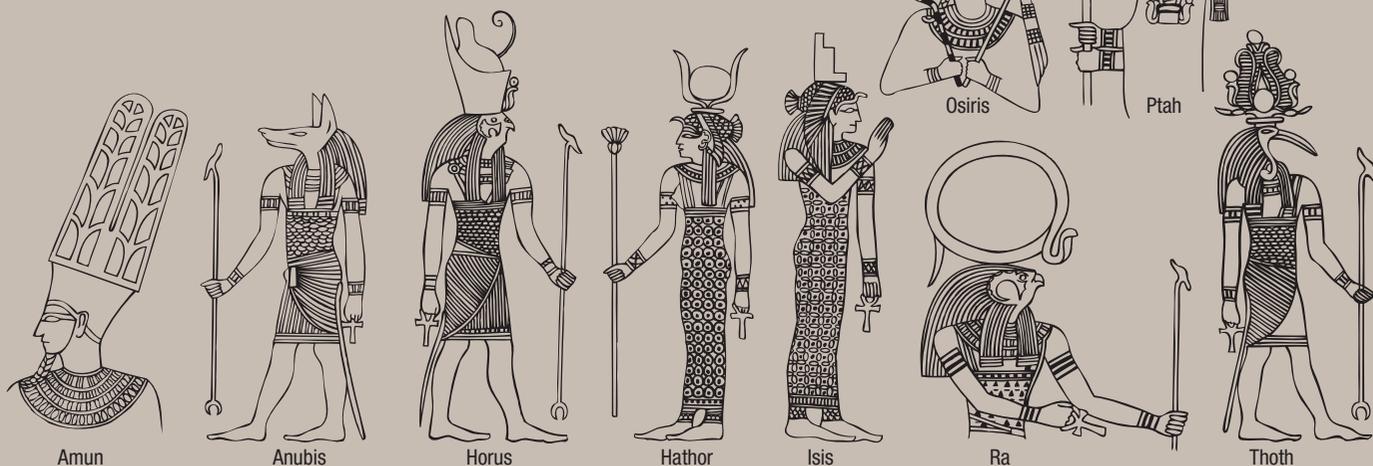
#5 Study Source 5.3 carefully. With a partner, choose four Ancient Egyptian gods. If you wish, you may research further and choose gods other than those listed in the text.

Make a poster, illustrating and describing the gods you choose.

Using your own words, write about:

- the purpose of each god (under each picture)
- the importance of these gods in ancient times.

You may prefer to use a computer program such as PowerPoint®, Paint or Adobe® Flash® to present your information.



analysing & evaluating

#6 The Ancient Egyptians viewed their world as a place where gods protected them while evil spirits wanted to destroy them. Why do you think that the Ancient Egyptians interpreted the natural world around them in terms of the supernatural?

#7 Do you think that the change in attitude towards the gods shown in the New Kingdom was successful for the Ancient Egyptian people or not?

#8 Draw a table with two columns. Give your table the title 'Comparing religions'. Head one column 'Ancient Egyptian' and the other column 'Religion of your choice'. Write six main features of the Ancient Egyptian religion in the first column. In the other column, write the main features of a religion of your choice.

When you have completed the table, write a short paragraph about the similarities and differences between the two religions. Compare your answers with those of other students.

creating

#9 a If Ancient Egyptian gods were still relevant today, what sort of god would be the god of your household?

b Create an annotated illustration of your god, describing him and his powers and explaining why he is the god of *your* household.

#10 Write a short story about how your household god from Question 9 helped you in some way with a problem that you or your family had. Your story should be about 300 to 500 words in length.

EGYPTIANS

& THE BELIEF IN THE AFTERLIFE

SOURCE 6.1 The Temple of Deir el Bahari, the mortuary monument of Pharaoh Hatshepsut, is situated at the head of the Valley of the Kings, below Al-Qurn, the Peak of Thebes.

- Q** 1 What adjectives would you use to describe Hatshepsut's temple?
- 2 Why do you think she built the temple like this and in this location?

LIFE AFTER DEATH

One religious belief held by Ancient Egyptians was that men and women lived forever. Death was not the end of everything but simply a change to another type of living. The soul did not die, only the body. They believed that death was just a stage and that after death there was an **afterlife**. For this reason, people's bodies were preserved and, if they could afford it, food and drink was buried with them to be used later.

THE CULT OF THE DEAD

PREPARING FOR DEATH

Because Ancient Egyptians spent so much of their time and wealth getting ready for death, some people see them as **morbid**. However, it is now believed by Egyptologists that Ancient Egyptians enjoyed life so much that they wished to continue it after death.

In the afterlife, Ancient Egyptians expected to go to the **Kingdom of the Dead**. They believed that when they arrived there they would live with their family again, enjoy using the same possessions and have the same personality. They would eat, drink and work as they did on Earth and be able to relive the best moments of their lives. To them, death was seen simply as an interruption to the joy of living.

The pharaohs and nobles spent many years planning, building and furnishing their tombs. The walls were painted with pictures showing the activities that the dead person expected to continue after death—for example, hunting, winning battles and banqueting.

All that was needed for life after death was buried with the body. There was food, clothing, furniture and jewellery, as well as some luxuries. *Ushebtis* were also placed in the tomb. These were small statues of servants who were supposed to come alive and start work when called upon by the dead person.

SOURCE 6.2 A painted wooden box with *ushebtis* figures found in a tomb from about 1290 BCE.

- Q**
- 1 Why do you think there were so many *ushebtis* figures buried with the owner of the tomb?
 - 2 Examine the figures and the box carefully. What conclusion could you make about the Ancient Egyptian whose tomb this is?



SOURCE 6.3 An unwrapped mummy and its case, from about 800 BCE. The preservation of mummies was probably due more to the hot and dry climate rather than the skill of the embalmers.

MUMMIFICATION

Egyptians also believed that from time to time they would return from the **afterworld** and use their earthly bodies again. As it was essential that their bodies be in good condition, bodies were mummified to prevent decay.

Below is Herodotus's description of mummification.

The mode of embalming, according to the most perfect process, is the following: They take first a crooked piece of iron, and with it draw out the brain through the nostrils, thus getting rid of a portion, while the skull is cleared of the rest by rinsing with drugs; next they make a cut along the flank with a sharp Ethiopian stone, and take out the whole contents of the abdomen, which they then cleanse, washing it thoroughly with palm wine, and again frequently with an infusion of pounded aromatics. After this they fill the cavity with the purest bruised myrrh, with cassia, and every other sort of spicery except frankincense, and sew up the opening. Then the body is placed in natrum [natron] for seventy days, and covered entirely over. After the expiration of that space of time, which must not be exceeded, the body is washed, and wrapped round, from head to foot, with bandages of fine linen cloth, smeared over with gum, which is used generally by the Egyptians in the place of glue, and in this state it is given back to the relations, who enclose it in a wooden case which they have had made for the purpose, shaped into the figure of a man [a sarcophagus]. Then fastening the case, they place it in a sepulchral chamber, upright against the wall. Such is the most costly way of embalming the dead.

If persons wish to avoid expense, and choose the second process, the following is the method pursued: Syringes are filled with oil made from the cedar-tree, which is then, without any incision or disembowelling, injected into the abdomen. The passage by which it might be likely to return is stopped, and the body laid in

natrum the prescribed number of days. At the end of the time the cedar-oil is allowed to make its escape; and such is its power that it brings with it the whole stomach and intestines in a liquid state. The natrum meanwhile has dissolved the flesh, and so nothing is left of the dead body but the skin and the bones. It is returned in this condition to the relatives, without any further trouble being bestowed upon it.

The third method of embalming, which is practised in the case of the poorer classes, is to clear out the intestines with a clyster, and let the body lie in natrum the seventy days, after which it is at once given to those who come to fetch it away.

SOURCE 6.4 The process of mummification, from *The Histories of Herodotus*, trans. G. Rawlinson



- 1 Which of the three methods outlined above do you think would have been the most effective?
- 2 Why? Give evidence from the text above for your answer.

TOMB ROBBERS

Modern Egyptologists wonder just how much some Ancient Egyptians really believed in their gods and how little they were bothered by thoughts of life after death. Tombs were regularly robbed of their more precious items and tomb robbers would disturb the body of a pharaoh or a wealthy noble to cut off rings and amulets.

The worst robbers were probably officials and labourers working on the tombs, who knew where the most valuable items were. Even governments robbed tombs. Desperate for treasure, later Egyptian governments opened up tombs belonging to earlier wealthy pharaohs to take back the gold and jewels buried with them.



GOING TO THE AFTERWORLD

Before being allowed into the afterworld, the dead were judged by the god Anubis or, later, Osiris. A good person would pass the trial but the personality of the bad was devoured by a horrible beast called the 'devourer'. It had the jaws of a crocodile and a body that was a combination of a lion and a hippopotamus. It chewed the heart of a bad person before swallowing them. There was no greater horror to Egyptians than the thought of having their personality destroyed forever by the devourer.

MUMMIES AND MODERN TIMES

During the 3000 years of the Ancient Egyptian civilisation, hundreds of thousands—perhaps millions—of Egyptians were mummified. In the nineteenth century it became fashionable for wealthy English tourists in Egypt to take mummies home as souvenirs. There, after a sumptuous dinner party, the unwrapped mummy would be put on display before the thrilled guests.

A paper manufacturer in the United States of America bought a large number of mummies to use the metres of linen each was wrapped in to make cheap paper. However, the oils and resins stained the paper brown. So, for a time, some butcher's wrapping paper in the eastern United States was brown. The left-over bodies were used as fuel in the fireboxes of steam locomotives. Mark Twain, the famous American author, had one of his characters complain that the mummies of lower-class Egyptians did not burn well in his locomotive. He preferred the bodies of the nobility that had more flammable oils in them.

By the late twentieth century medical science had a different use for the bodies. Small tissue samples were taken from them for research into the origins of diseases. Mummies were used in setting up X-ray machines and ultra-scanners where it would have been too dangerous to use live humans.

SOURCE 6.5 The jackal-headed god Anubis judges Ani, the white-robed figure second from the left, in this scene from the *Book of the Dead* of Ani, now in the British Museum. People commissioned these books to instruct them in the afterlife. Anubis is shown weighing Ani's heart against a feather. The devourer waits on the right.





SOURCE X-rays of an Ancient Egyptian mummy

6.6

DID YOU KNOW

THAT ANCIENT EGYPTIAN MUMMIES CAN HELP CURE MODERN DISEASES?

Researchers use X-rays of mummies to study the state of health and disease in Ancient Egyptians. They then compare their findings to the health and diseases of present-day people to trace the adaptation of humans to the environment. It is hoped that this knowledge will help with the tracking of changes in diseases over time, bringing scientists much closer to developing cures for them.

“O all people who enter this tomb who will make evil against this tomb and destroy it; may the crocodile be against them on water, and snakes be against them on land; may the hippopotamus be against them on water, the scorpion against them on land.”

SOURCE **6.7** A **curse** to protect the Great Pyramid of Khufu, from D. P. Silverman (ed.), *Ancient Egypt*, Duncan Baird, London, 1997

THE PYRAMIDS: HOUSES FOR ETERNITY

The pyramids are Ancient Egypt's greatest and longest-lasting monuments. They are also a symbol of Ancient Egypt. They show the power and wealth of the pharaohs who had them built, the importance of the cult of the dead and the skill of Egyptian builders and craftspeople. There are over eighty pyramids in Egypt and over a hundred in the Sudan. The most famous of them are the Pyramids of Giza. Today they are still seen as one of the wonders of the world and attract millions of tourists to Egypt every year.

EGYPT'S FAMOUS PYRAMIDS

A pyramid was designed as the royal palace for the spirit of the pharaoh. In the tomb, the pharaoh's spirit could find all the things he had enjoyed in life.

Pyramids were designed to last forever. These enormous buildings were made of mud bricks or stone blocks arranged on top of one another to reach evenly to a point. The sloping sides of the triangles were meant to show the rays of the sun on which the king ascended to the upper world.

The pyramids were all built within a space of ninety years; just a small segment of time in Ancient Egypt's 3000-year history. The largest and most impressive pyramids are the three outside modern Cairo. They were built in just seventy-five years in the reign of Khufu, also called Cheops (ruled 2589–2566 BCE), and two of his sons.

The largest of the three pyramids is that of Khufu. It stands on six hectares of land and is about the size of six football fields. It is 200 metres high with an entrance about 18 metres off the ground. It has 2.3 million eight-tonne limestone blocks fitted and levelled to within a millimetre. This pyramid took more than twenty-three years to build at immense cost.

BUILDING THE PYRAMIDS

A pharaoh would begin planning his tomb as soon as he came to power. Royal builders and architects designed the pyramid itself. For the heavy and less skilled work, each village sent a certain number of workers to the stone quarries and the construction site. Egyptologists originally thought that the pyramids must have been built by slave labour but it is now accepted that the workers were probably all volunteers. Payment to those workers was in the form of food.

The limestone and granite blocks used for building were cut using only simple tools made of stone and copper. These blocks were moved without the help of animals or machinery, though boats were used to transport them along the Nile. Foremen kept the men cutting and moving stone blocks, while scribes recorded every detail of a block's size and the workers who produced it. Often the workers painted their blocks with names or signs.

The base of the pyramid was a perfect square. The Ancient Egyptians used water-filled trenches around the base to make sure the land was flat. The stone blocks were hauled up ramps by teams of men and set in place. Stonemasons then cut the sides so that they were smooth and sloped downwards.

The interior of the pyramid was made up of corridors, passageways, airshafts, a grand gallery and the king's chamber. Later pharaohs were dismayed to find that their ancestors' tombs had been robbed and tried to protect their own remains from tomb robbers. To do this, a maze of confusing corridors and passageways was built inside the tombs. Both royal tombs and private tombs were 'protected' by having curses put on them. Despite these measures, most tombs were robbed sooner or later.



SOURCE 6.8 Egypt's first pyramid, which was built in about 2650 BCE, is called the Step Pyramid of Djoser. It is probably the world's first stone building. There is graffiti on it that is about 3500 years old.

- Q**
- 1 What do you think the graffiti might say?
 - 2 Compare this pyramid with the pyramids of Giza. What differences can you see in design and structure?

SOURCE 6.9 The pyramids of Giza—Egypt's largest and most impressive pyramids

- Q**
- 1 Who were the pharaohs who had these three pyramids built? When were they built? Conduct some research on the internet or in the library to find out more about them.
 - 2 Create a mini pamphlet suitable for tourists about one of the three pyramids.



... and the pyramid is square, each side measuring eight hundred feet [244 metres], and the height of it is the same. It is built of stone smoothed and fitted together in the most perfect manner, not one of the stones being less than thirty feet [9 metres] in length. This pyramid was made after the manner of steps which some called 'rows' and others 'bases': and when they had first made it thus, they raised the remaining stones with machines made of short pieces of timber, raising them first from the ground to the first stage of the steps, and when the stone got up to this it was placed upon another machine standing on the first stage, and so from this it was drawn to the second upon another machine; for as many as were the courses of the steps, so many machines there were also, or perhaps they transferred one and the same machine, made so as easily to be carried, to each stage successively, in order that they might take up the stones; for let it be told in both ways, according as it is reported. However that may be, the highest parts of it were finished first, and proceeded to finish that which came next to them, and lastly they finished the parts of it near the ground.

SOURCE 6.10 A description of the Great Pyramid of Pharaoh Khufu by Herodotus, from *The Histories of Herodotus*, trans. G. C. Macaulay at the Project Gutenberg website

- Q** 1 Is this a primary source or a secondary source?
- 2 Give a quote from the text above that supports your answer.

THE VALLEY OF THE KINGS

In about 1550 BCE, the court of the pharaoh was moved south to Thebes from Memphis. This heralded the start of the New Kingdom. The pharaohs decided against building any further pyramids as they were such an obvious target for tomb robbers. The pharaohs had the people build great temples in their honour while their bodies were buried in hidden underground tombs. These were located in the cliffs bordering the desert on

the west bank of the Nile. This area was chosen for a number of reasons.

- The Sun set each night in the west and the Ancient Egyptians believed that the west was where the Sun began its journey in the underworld. So it was from here that the deceased pharaoh would leave to meet the Sun god.
- It was close to the cultivated banks of the river and so supplies for the builders and workers were easy to obtain.
- It was a small valley, encircled by steep cliffs and therefore easy to guard.
- The limestone of which the valley was made was generally of good quality for building and excavating tombs.
- Soaring above the valley is the mountain Al-Qurn, which resembles a pyramid.

There were three burial sites in the necropolis of Thebes. These were the Valley of the Kings, the Valley of the Queens and the Valley of the Nobles. Rich and colourful paintings adorned the walls of the tombs. Highly trained full-time craftspeople covered the insides of the burial chamber and passageways with skilled and colourful artwork. Each generation of craftspeople passed their skills on to the next generation, and so on for hundreds of years. Although working on the pyramids, tombs and monuments was hard work, most people considered it a privilege. They liked to work for the pharaoh, for they believed he was a living god and could help them enter the afterworld.

Just like the pyramids, the tombs were full of treasures and practical items that the deceased might need in the afterlife. These included furniture, statues and other articles used in life. Valuable jewellery was also often added—an attraction to tomb robbers. To prevent any desecration of the royal resting place, the grave sites of the pharaohs, queens and nobles were guarded by a special police force and, like the pyramids, were booby-trapped to thwart any tomb robbers. Unfortunately, again like the pyramids, the majority were robbed in ancient times, some even by the undertakers and officials as the deceased was being laid to rest in the tomb. However, luckily for Egyptologists, some did remain unspoiled and have been able to provide an insight into the world of Ancient Egypt.



remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'Ancient Egypt' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:
- afterlife
 - afterworld
 - amulets
 - curse
 - Kingdom of the Dead
 - morbid
 - mummification
 - sarcophagus
 - *ushebtis*

understanding & applying

- #2** Examine Source 6.5. What was the most horrifying nightmare for Ancient Egyptians? Describe and illustrate it.

understanding & analysing

- #3** Read 'Mummification' carefully.
- a With a partner draw a flow chart to show the steps in mummifying a body.
 - b How well did mummification work in preserving bodies?
 - c Explain your answer beneath your flow chart.
- #4**
- a What do you think was wrong with the ways in which people in the nineteenth century used mummies?
 - b What do you think was wrong with the ways in which people in the twentieth century used mummies?
 - c What are the main differences?

analysing & evaluating

- #5** Read the entire chapter carefully. Draw up a two-column table. Give it the heading 'Life after death'. In one column make a list of the evidence that most Ancient Egyptians believed in life after death. In the other column list the evidence that some Egyptians did not take it seriously.
- #6** Re-read Source 6.10 carefully. This is one theory about how the Great Pyramid was constructed. Conduct some further research in the library or on the internet to find out about other theories. Which do you think is the most likely? Give reasons for your choice.

- #7**
- a Find out where most pyramids were built. Why were they built in this location and not somewhere else?
 - b How can you explain the fact that tomb robbers almost always broke into the burial chambers, no matter what precautions were taken?

applying, evaluating & creating

- #8** Imagine that you and a partner have been sent back in time to interview a pharaoh about his favourite subject: the building of his tomb.
- What questions would you ask?
 - What answers would you most likely be given?
 - Write both the questions and the answers.
 - One student should act as the interviewer; the other as the pharaoh.

applying & creating

- #9** Do the following activity in pairs.
- Imagine you are a pharaoh and you are designing your pyramid. First, draw a large diagram of this pyramid using colour. Then add labelling and written notes to explain these points:
- a Which pharaoh is the pyramid for?
 - b Where is it to be built?
 - c Show its size, the entrance, burial chambers, passageways and false tunnels.
 - d Where will you place the curse to frighten off tomb robbers?
 - e What materials are going to be used?
 - f Explain how you are going to have it built.

creating

- #10** Write the curse for your pyramid to scare away tomb robbers and add it to your drawing of your pyramid for Question 9.

THE TREASURES OF TUTANKHAMEN'S TOMB



THE BOY PHARAOH



VERY LITTLE IS KNOWN OF TUTANKHAMEN'S LIFE.

Egyptologists are not even sure who his parents were. He may have been the son of the heretic Pharaoh Akhenaton and a minor wife, or possibly of his half-brother, the son of the Pharaoh Amenophis III and his queen, Tiye. Yet when his tomb was discovered by Howard Carter in 1922 CE, Tutankhamen definitely became the most famous of pharaohs.

Tutankhamen became pharaoh in about 1333 BCE, when he was only nine years old. A relative named Ay acted as regent for the young pharaoh and worked to return Egypt to stability by correcting the disasters of Akhenaton's rule. Tutankhamen and his court returned to Thebes, the traditional capital of the Middle and New Kingdom, where he was crowned pharaoh and the religion of Amun was reinstated.

SOURCE 7.1 This 40-centimetre coffinette, made of gold inlaid with carnelian, obsidian, rock crystal and glass, was one of four that lay in a chest found inside a shrine in one wall of Tutankhamen's tomb. They held his liver, stomach, lungs and intestines, which were removed from his body and mummified separately. All the treasures shown in this source study are in the collections of the Museum of Egyptian Antiquities.





SOURCE 7.2 The painted war chest of Tutankhamen. The scenes on it show Tutankhamen in battle against the Nubians and the Syrians.

Unfortunately, at only eighteen, Tutankhamen died. Despite forensic examination revealing a serious blow to the head, a broken leg and several missing ribs, Egyptologists are still uncertain about the truth of his death. Did Tutankhamen die of natural causes, such as gangrene from his broken leg, perhaps in combination with malaria, or was he assassinated by Ay, who became pharaoh after him?

What is known is that Tutankhamen died unexpectedly and without a direct heir. He was not buried in the half-finished tomb in the Valley of the Kings that he was building for himself; Ay was eventually buried in that grand tomb. Instead, Tutankhamen was buried in the tomb that was originally intended for Ay, a much humbler burial place.

Luckily for Egyptologists, Tutankhamen's humble tomb was long forgotten by the time of Ramses VI in the twelfth century BCE. Workers building the tomb of Ramses VI built temporary stone huts directly over the entrance to Tutankhamen's tomb. This preserved it from looters for over two thousand years until a methodical investigation of the Valley of the Kings by archaeologist Howard Carter uncovered the tomb in 1922 CE.

When Howard Carter opened Pharaoh Tutankhamen's tomb he was overawed by the magnificence of the treasures that lay within. Despite the fact that the tomb had been disturbed twice by tomb robbers, its treasures were largely intact. Altogether there were over 5000 objects in Tutankhamen's tomb. All were placed there to help the pharaoh during his afterlife.



SOURCE 7.3 One of two almost identical life-sized wooden statues that guarded the entrance to Tutankhamen's sealed burial chamber. The other statue of the pair appears opposite. They were custodians of Tutankhamen's Ka, or spirit. This figure's black skin is painted with resin, which meant that he would be identified with Osiris, king of the underworld.

At first I could see nothing, the hot air escaping from the chamber causing the candle flame to flicker, but presently, as my eyes grew accustomed to the light, details of the room within emerged slowly from the mist, strange animals, statues, and gold—everywhere the glint of gold. For the moment—an eternity it must have seemed to the others standing by—I was struck dumb with amazement, and when Lord Carnarvon, unable to stand the suspense any longer, inquired anxiously, ‘Can you see anything?’ it was all I could do to get out the words, ‘Yes, wonderful things.’

SOURCE
7.4 Howard Carter, upon opening Tutankhamen’s tomb in 1922 CE, from ‘Entering King Tut’s Tomb, 1922’, at the EyeWitness to History website

The tomb was a treasure trove of golden and bejewelled artefacts. Tutankhamen’s mummy was laid within three nested coffins. The innermost coffin was made of solid gold, while the two outer coffins were made of gold hammered over wooden frames. There was a gold face mask of the young pharaoh and many pieces of jewellery made from gold and semi-precious stones. The rooms were filled with the furniture, statues, clothes, weapons and other objects that Tutankhamen would need for his journey to the afterlife. Egyptologists were able to learn a great deal about Ancient Egypt from Howard Carter’s discovery.



SOURCE
7.5 These items were found in the antechamber to the tomb.

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

1 UNDERSTANDING & EVALUATING

With a partner, draw a table with three columns. Give your table the title 'Evaluating Tutankhamen's treasures'. Head one column 'Artefact', the second column 'Description' and the third column 'Conclusion'. Examine Sources 7.1 to 7.5 carefully. In the first column, write the name of the artefact or source and in the second column, write a brief description of it. In the third column, write the conclusions about Tutankhamen and/or Ancient Egyptian society that you can make from the artefact or source.

How might you be able to verify your conclusions?

2 EVALUATING & CREATING

Using your table from Question 1 and some further research, with a partner create one of the following: an annotated visual display or AVD, an art catalogue or brochure, a PowerPoint® presentation or a Web page. Begin by choosing four to six artefacts for your display. You can choose from the sources above or from your own research.

Place a drawn or electronic copy of each image in the centre of each 'page' of your chosen form of display. Around your picture, place textboxes with short sentences that inform your audience about your artefacts.

Research: you may start with the primary sources in this chapter and then look in your school or local library for further resources on Tutankhamen. Lastly, do some research on the internet for more information.

3 APPLYING & CREATING

Imagine that you are Howard Carter, opening Tutankhamen's tomb for the first time in over two thousand years. Using Source 7.4 as a starting point, continue the journal, describing the wonderful artefacts found in the tomb. Write a minimum of three more entries. Make sure that you write in the style of Carter and that you record his possible thoughts and emotions as well as detailing what he has found.



4 ANALYSING, EVALUATING & CREATING

Examine Source 7.5. This photograph was taken in Tutankhamen's tomb by Harry Burton, a photographer who worked for the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, USA. Carter had asked for the museum's help with cataloguing the many treasures found in the tomb. Burton was to spend the next ten years recording and photographing the more than 5000 artefacts that were discovered in the tomb. He became known as 'the pharaoh's photographer'.

Find out more about Burton and view more of his photos by using the internet. Search for the Metropolitan Museum of Art website and type 'Harry Burton' in the search box. Then answer the following questions.

- In what ways are Burton's photographs both primary sources and secondary sources? Explain your answer.
- Why do you think the Metropolitan Museum was so willing to let Burton spend ten years photographing and cataloguing the artefacts in Tutankhamen's tomb?
- The photographs are all in sepia (a brownish colour). Conduct some further research into photographic techniques of the early twentieth century CE and how early photos are being preserved. Then write a short article for your school newspaper titled 'Early twentieth-century photographs and their preservation'. Why is it so important to preserve photographs such as these? Include the answer to this in your newspaper article.

5 ANALYSING & EVALUATING

The death of Tutankhamen: murder or natural causes? Working in a small group, investigate the latest facts about his death and then create a concept map either on A3 paper or on a computer, using a program such as Inspiration® to outline your findings.

Research: the most up-to-date information about Tutankhamen and his death is to be found on the internet.

Include a bibliography with your concept map. Next to each source that you have used, give answers to the questions about analysing and evaluating sources from the 'History skills toolbox'. Give each source a rating out of five, with five being excellent and one being very poor.



LEGACIES AND CONNECTIONS TO...

UNIT
8

WHY WAS ANCIENT EGYPT SIGNIFICANT?

SOURCE
8.1 Hieroglyphs in a tomb. They were colourful, elaborate and time-consuming to make.



SOURCE
8.2 Ancient Egypt and its trading partners

OTHER CIVILISATIONS

Over the 3000 years of rule by the pharaohs, Ancient Egyptian society did not exist in isolation. If you examine the timelines near the start of each chapter in this book, you will see that other significant civilisations existed at the same time. These other civilisations included the Sumerians and Minoans, and those of Akkad, Babylon, Carthage, the Indus Valley and Ancient Greece and Rome.

During the Old Kingdom period, from 3000 to 2200 BCE, Egypt became a key force in Middle Eastern politics. Ancient Egypt was located where Africa met Asia, and this made it an important geographical, political and economic power in ancient times. Ancient Egypt made contact with nearby and far-flung countries and empires in order to maintain its borders and to develop trade routes. Like other ancient civilisations, Ancient Egypt could not fulfil all its own needs from its own resources.

The Ancient Egyptians set up trade routes to the Mediterranean countries and islands of Cyprus, Crete and Greece. They also traded with the Middle Eastern countries of Sumer, Akkad and what is now Syria and Lebanon, and with African countries such as Nubia, Punt and Kush. It is even thought that they might have traded as far away as Asia.

The Ancient Egyptians traded their abundant gold, fabulous jewellery, fine linen, stone for building, grain, rope and papyrus. In exchange, their trading partners supplied them with silver, wood such as cedar for furniture, various types of cloth, perfume, incense and wild animals and their products, such as bears, giraffes, ostrich eggs and elephant tusks.

THE PAST AND THE PRESENT

Ancient Egyptians shared a strong sense of their past over their 3000-year history. For all of that time, throughout their fertile land along the banks of the Nile, the Egyptians spoke a common language, viewed the world around them in the same way and revered the pharaoh as their king and their god.

Ancient Egyptians saw themselves as possessing a distinct and superior culture and it was important to them to preserve their way of life and take it to other countries. When the Ancient Egyptians conquered another country, the sons and daughters of the defeated rulers were taken back to Egypt and brought up as Egyptians. They were allowed to return home when they were adults to bring the Ancient Egyptian way of life to their own countries.

As the centuries passed, the rituals performed in Ancient Egyptian society were done so as to maintain a sense of continuity with the past. They reminded the Ancient Egyptians of the earlier periods of their history, which they saw as being idyllic.

HOW DO WE KNOW?

The Ancient Egyptians' belief in the afterlife has meant that we know a great deal about them in the present. Many Ancient Egyptians were mummified and buried in tombs with the objects that they would need in the underworld. The fact that the Ancient Egyptians were skilled builders is also significant, as many of the numerous pyramids and monuments that they built to honour the gods and the dead are still standing. However, until Egyptologists learnt to read the hieroglyphs on the many buildings and scrolls that the Ancient Egyptians left behind, much about their civilisation was unknown. The story of the Rosetta Stone and how this happened is told in the 'What is history?' chapter.

LEGACY

Along with Sumer, Ancient Egypt was one of the world's major early civilisations; unlike Sumer, however, it was a long-lived civilisation. Ancient Egypt left a legacy of significant discoveries and innovations that have contributed to humankind ever since.

It is possible that the Pharaoh Akhenaton's worship of just one god, Aton, rather than all of the many Egyptian gods, may have pioneered the idea of worshipping only one god. It certainly was a forerunner of this significant type of religious belief in the modern world.

The huge amount of written material that has survived thousands of years indicates the desire of humans to record the world around them. The Ancient Egyptians invented papyrus, an early form of paper. Papyrus scrolls that have survived show us the extent of the Ancient Egyptians' knowledge of mathematics, astronomy and medicine.



SOURCE
8.3

There is an Ancient Egyptian obelisk known as Cleopatra's Needle in each of Paris (pictured), London and New York. None of the three, however, has any actual connection with Cleopatra. Obelisks originally stood in pairs at the entrances to Egyptian temples but, beginning in Ancient Roman times, many were dismantled, removed and re-erected in other places. The concept has also been widely copied.



Do some research to identify at least two modern obelisks.

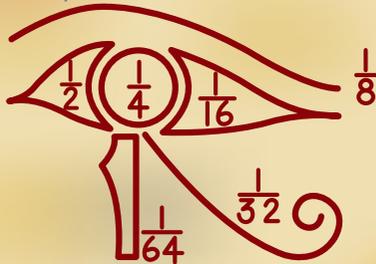
DID YOU KNOW

THAT ANCIENT EGYPTIAN FRACTIONS WERE BASED ON THE EYE OF HORUS?

The eye of Horus, the god of mathematics, symbolised Ancient Egyptian fractions. These fractions were used with the *hekat*, the unit for measuring grain in Ancient Egypt.

However, all the fractions or parts of the eye actually add up to $\frac{63}{64}$ and the Ancient Egyptians rounded up to 'one'. Some Egyptologists think that this was deliberate, as the Ancient Egyptians believed that all knowledge can never be known by humankind. There was always one fraction of the whole beyond description and unmeasurable.

SOURCE 8.4 The eye of Horus



Egyptian mathematics was largely developed for measurement and for keeping accounts for trade. However, Ancient Egyptian texts show that they advanced far beyond mere bookkeeping. The Ancient Egyptians knew arithmetic, fractions and geometry, and counted in groups of ten, just as we do. Also, it is obvious from vast building projects such as the pyramids that their mathematics was advanced, as their architects, engineers and builders could think spatially.

Ancient Egyptian astronomers invented the *merkhet*, which was an instrument that enabled them to predict the movement of the stars. This was then used to predict important events such as the rise and fall of the Nile. It is even thought that the pyramids were built to mimic the placement of the stars in the night sky.

The doctors of Ancient Egypt were the scribes and priests. To heal someone they would first say a prayer. If the illness continued they would then turn to other methods. It is known that Ancient Egyptian doctors studied dead bodies and the human organs removed during mummification to learn about the human body. Each doctor was an expert in one area of the body, much like our specialists today. It is known that they made potions, set broken bones, performed dental work and even performed brain surgery.

The Ancient Greeks were heavily influenced by the Ancient Egyptians in philosophy, art and architecture, science and religion. The Ancient Greeks, in their turn, influenced the Ancient Romans and both these classical civilisations were important in the resurgence of philosophy, art and the beginnings of scientific inquiry during the Renaissance, which began in the fourteenth century CE in Italy. The Renaissance, of course, led directly to our modern-day Western society.

TIME TO THINK ...

1

ANCIENT EGYPT AND AUSTRALIA AND THEIR LINKS TO OTHER COUNTRIES

- Were you surprised by how many different trading partners Ancient Egypt had? Why or why not?
- Apart from the obvious goods which were traded, what do you think Ancient Egypt and its trading partners might have gained from each other?
- What links or connections does Australia have with other countries? Are these only based on trade? What other reasons could Australia have for promoting ties with other countries?

2

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE IN ANCIENT EGYPT

- Why do you think Ancient Egyptian society remained very much the same throughout most of its 3000-year history?
- What sorts of changes did take place over this time? Were these changes due to internal or external factors or a combination of both?

3

HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE AND HERITAGE

- Why do you think we still study Ancient Egyptian society today?
- What does it have to offer us?

INQUIRY

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU ANSWER THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS FROM THE START OF THE CHAPTER.

TASKS

#1 time & space traveller

You are a time and space traveller and have travelled 8500 years back in time to an oasis in the Sahara that is drying up. The oasis is about 100 kilometres west of the Nile. The local people are desperate. There is less rain each year and water has become scarce. There are two groups of people in the oasis: a small group who want to leave and look for better lands (they've heard stories about a big river to the east) and the rest, who want to stay and hope the good rains return. Both groups are quite sure that they are right and it is going to be hard to convince one group otherwise. **They turn to you for help, thinking you are a god who has come to save them.**

- What do you recommend, and why? What facts can you present to them about the 'big river'?
- You find that what you say is not enough to convince most people. Produce some well-labelled maps, charts and diagrams to help convey your message.

#2 designing a memorial

You and a friend have won a contract from the present Egyptian government to design a memorial to Ancient Egypt to be erected near the pyramids at Giza. Your memorial needs to outline:

- the most important events and why they were important
- the most important and interesting pharaohs and their achievements.
- the legacy for the modern world from the Ancient Egyptians.

You have to decide on and design the best form of memorial. It could be a giant timeline, a mural, a series of models such as a diorama, or an interactive media display such as a website or PowerPoint® presentation.

#3 tour guide

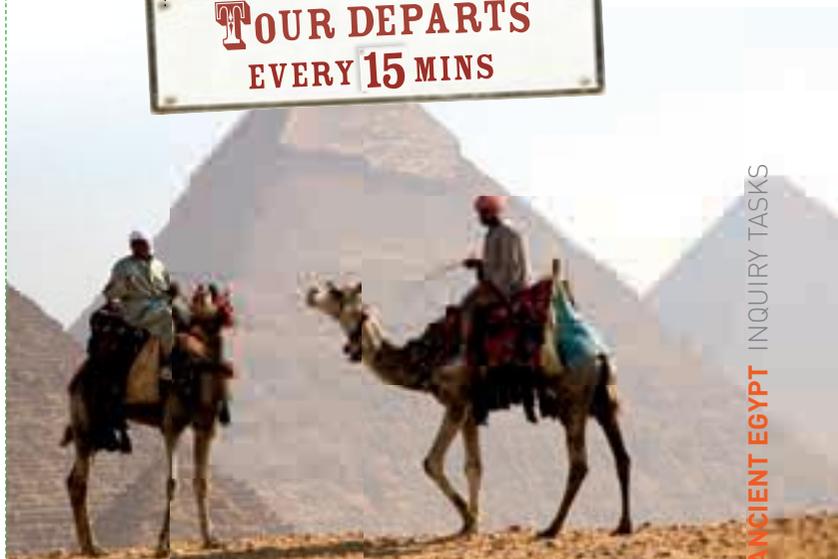
The year is 334 BCE. You and a friend are the chief guides for a group of important visitors from Macedonia. They tell you they have come on a fact-finding mission to Egypt to see what use they can make of the Egyptians' skills back home in mountainous and rainy Macedonia.

You have been ordered to prepare a well-illustrated and labelled brochure with diagrams, maps and tables (for some unusual reason both you and they know modern English).

These are the topics you have been ordered to prepare information on:

- the sources of the Nile and its flow
- the riches the Nile brings
- how the Egyptians have cleverly used the Nile
- what life would be like for the Egyptians if there was no river Nile
- what Egyptians do to look after the river and their farmlands.

TOUR DEPARTS
EVERY 15 MINS



TASKS

#4 TV researcher

You and a friend are researchers for a television program on Ancient Egypt called *Stability and Change*. Your job is to research one episode for the series. You can choose 'Religion and superstition', 'Government', 'Farming', 'Warfare' or 'Building the pyramids'. You have to prepare your chosen topic for the onscreen presenter. The producer wants the topic discussed in a detailed and interesting way that will appeal to the audience. You should make sure you cover the following aspects:

- what remained the same
- what changed and why
- what changes were tried and failed, if any.

The producer also expects you to make some comparisons with today's society, so you will need to do further research on that, too.

As well as a written script, you are expected to prepare labelled and coloured illustrations, charts and diagrams. You may also decide to have an annotated storyboard for the producer and director to work from.

#5 virtual excursion to a museum

A museum visit is the best way to **see large amounts of primary material on Ancient Egypt**. An Egyptologist at the museum will conduct tours of Ancient Egyptian artefacts for school groups if asked. Sometimes there is a special display of Ancient Egyptian artefacts open to the public and these are worth seeing. However, in Australia it is hard to gain access to the world-famous exhibits in some of the major museums. This is because these museums are in Europe, the United States and Egypt. Luckily for us, many of these museums have excellent websites.

Working with a partner, your task is to create a Virtual Museum excursion for your class. Using the internet, research some of the major museums that have Egyptian exhibitions. On a webpage or in any other appropriate ICT format, create a display of artefacts and exhibits.

#6 interviewing a pharaoh

A pharaoh has been brought to life for just one world-shattering interview at great cost. Working in a group of three, imagine that one of you is a television journalist recording an interview, another is a pharaoh (you name which one) who is quite talkative, and the third is a professor who is an expert in government. To recover expenses, you must produce a quality product. Illustrations, portraits, charts and diagrams are important for this prime-time production.

- All three of you need to research the pharaoh's background. You need to find out:
 - where the pharaoh lived
 - what he or she believed in, what their duties were, what changes the pharaoh brought about (if any) and how important they were to the Egyptian people.
- Carry out the interview and perhaps film or record it. You may have to probe a little. After a time, politely tell the pharaoh what some people such as priests, soldiers, and the average Egyptian said about him or her. What does the pharaoh's generation think? What do previous generations think about pharaohs and does this pharaoh fit that role? What do the next generations think about the pharaoh? The pharaoh is to say what he or she thinks, and why.

Your display is titled '**Wonderful features of the amazing Ancient Egyptian civilisation**'.

Include images of the museums, of specific artefacts, appropriate weblinks and informative paragraphs written in your own words.

Some museums you might like to consider are:

- the Museum of Egyptian Antiquities in Cairo, Egypt
- the British Museum in London, United Kingdom
- the Louvre in Paris, France
- the Carnegie Museum of Natural History in Pittsburgh, USA
- the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York, USA.



SOURCE
9.1 An Egyptian mummy, partially unwrapped. The care with which the Ancient Egyptians prepared their dead for the afterlife left historians a rich source of information about their civilisation.

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How and why did Ancient Greek city-states develop?

What were the features and core beliefs of the various Ancient Greek city-states?

How did democracy develop in Ancient Greece? How has it influenced modern democratic ideals?

Why is Ancient Greece considered to be one of the cornerstones of modern Western civilisation?



About 4000 years ago Minoan civilisation developed on the Greek island of Crete. It was followed by Mycenaean civilisation in south-western Greece. Civilisation flourished in Greece over the next 1650 years, reaching its peak between 480 and 338 BCE, with major advances in architecture, the arts, science, politics and law.



ANCIENT



SOURCE
0.1

Even in ruins, the Parthenon, on the Acropolis in Athens, is one of the most easily recognised buildings in the world today. It is a lasting symbol of the achievements of Ancient Greek civilisation.



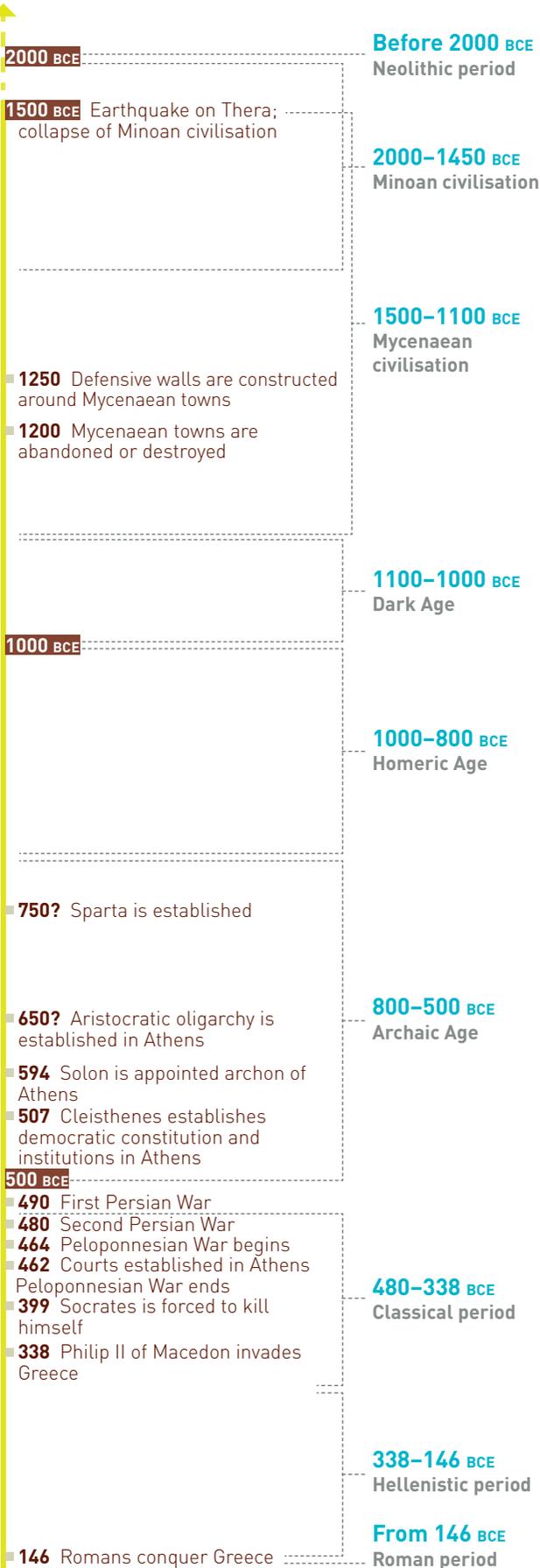
RECEIVE

SNAPSHOT



SOURCE Ancient Greece

1.1



SOURCE 1.2 Timeline of Ancient Greece

Greece consists of many islands and a mainland bounded by three seas: the Ionian (to the west), the Mediterranean (south) and the Aegean (east). The southern part of the mainland is a peninsula, known as the Peloponnese, which is joined to the mainland by the narrow Isthmus of Corinth.

The land is not particularly fertile but it produced grain, grapes and olives, and pastured sheep and goats. The sea allowed trade and transport and provided fish and salt.

Mainland Greece is mountainous, so in ancient times it was difficult for people to travel from one place to another. Many journeys had to be made on foot and were long and arduous; others crossed the sea to the various ports and islands where people lived. So, rather than develop into a ‘nation’, as Egypt or Rome did, Ancient Greece became a collection of independent city-states or *poleis*. Each *polis* had its own sphere of influence on the land surrounding the main city. Each city-state also had its own form of government, traditions and laws. The *poleis* were often in conflict with one another. Some of the most powerful and influential city-states were Athens, Sparta and Thebes. No matter how much the *poleis* differed from each other, however, they shared a sense of ‘Greekness’ in the areas of culture, language, history and religion.

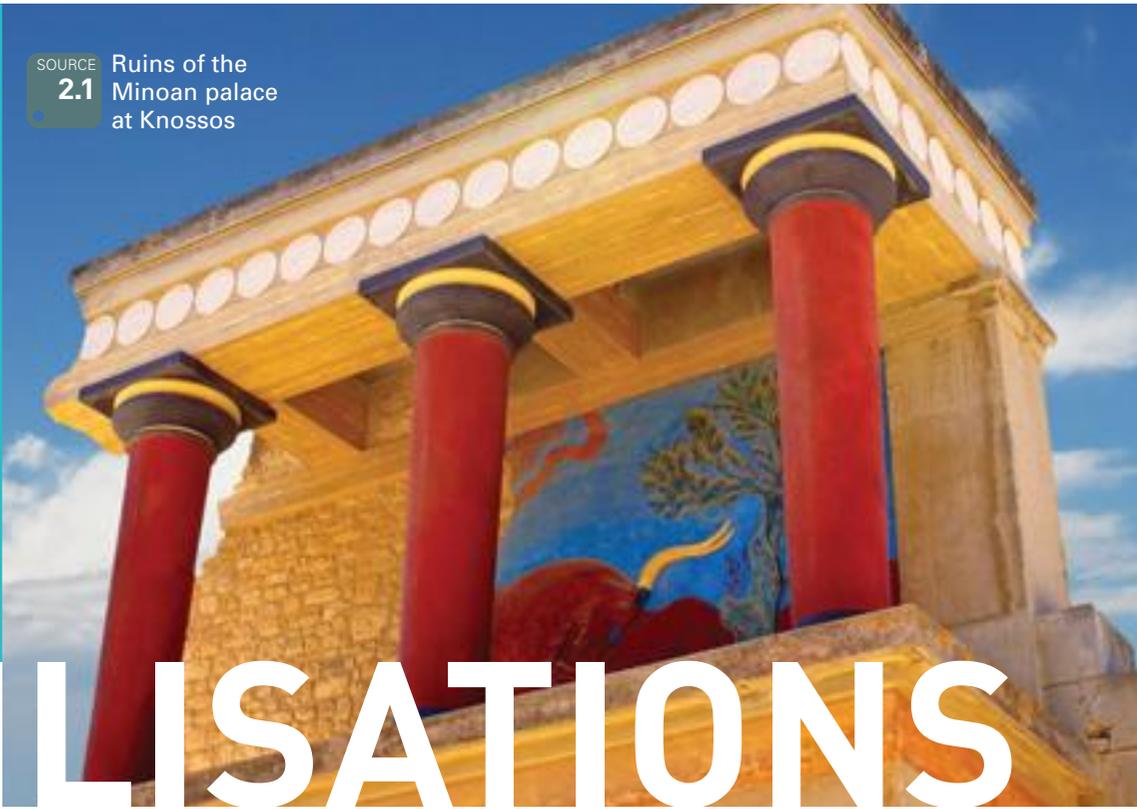
Greece’s earliest civilisations were the Minoan and the Mycenaean. After they declined, Greece is said to have entered a Dark Age that lasted about a hundred years. Historians know very little about this period. It was followed by the Homeric Age, during which the poet Homer wrote *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey*. Homer was an Ionian Greek, possibly from Chios. Tradition tells us he was blind.

The first important development in the Archaic Age, or Age of Colonisation, which began in 800 BCE and lasted until 500 BCE, was the emergence of the *polis*. The other was the enlargement of the Greek world by colonisation of lands in and around the Mediterranean and Black seas.

In 490 and 480 BCE Greeks united against a common threat and fought the Persian Wars. The Classical period that followed was the height of Ancient Greek civilisation. At this time democracy developed in Athens, magnificent public buildings were built, and learning and culture flourished.

In 338 BCE the Hellenistic period began when King Philip II of Macedon invaded Greece and imposed his rule. Alexander, Philip II’s son, took Greek values and culture with him as he conquered most of the ancient world.

SOURCE
2.1 Ruins of the
Minoan palace
at Knossos



AEGEAN CIVILISATIONS



SOURCE
2.2 A Minoan vase depicting an octopus, from around 1400 BCE, in the Ashmolean Museum of the University of Oxford, UK

- Q** 1 Why do you think this pottery bears an octopus as a motif (shape or pattern in the design)?
- 2 In what way is this an important primary source for historians?

LOST TO HISTORY

The earliest civilisations of Greece—the Minoan and the Mycenaean—are known as the Aegean civilisations. Both these Bronze Age societies were ‘lost’ to history until the archaeologists Schliemann and Evans rediscovered them at the end of the nineteenth century CE.

THE MINOANS

Out of the dark blue sea there lies a land called Crete; a rich and lovely land, washed by the waters on every side. Many people live there ...

SOURCE
2.3 A description of Crete, from Homer, *The Odyssey*

Minoan civilisation was the earliest of the Aegean civilisations. It flourished on the island of **Crete** in the second millennium BCE. The British archaeologist Arthur Evans named it after the mythical figure of King Minos.

Archaeologists have uncovered many Minoan artefacts, including buildings, religious artefacts and commercial records. No literature has survived, nor any information about the names of gods or rulers or the Minoan system of government. One type of writing used there—**Linear A**—has never been deciphered. The magnificent palace at Knossos was a centre of government, commerce and cultural activity, and had toilets and complex drainage systems. Minoan pottery, jewellery, bronzeware and sculptures were exported all over

the Mediterranean region. This breadth of trade testifies to the sturdiness of the Minoans' boats and their excellent naval skills.

Minoan civilisation suffered the effects of two major volcanic eruptions. The second of these, on the nearby island of Thera in about 1500 BCE, may have contributed to the collapse of Minoan civilisation.

THE MYCENAEANS

Mycenaean civilisation flourished as Minoan civilisation was declining. It too was named by archaeologists, after the powerful city of **Mycenae**, which lay on a low hill in the north-eastern Peloponnese.

Mycenaean cities were administrative centres where records of taxes, stores, slaves, animals and the like were kept. The Mycenaeans traded metals and luxury items. They produced pottery, some of which has been found as far away as Sicily, Egypt and Cyprus. Trade supplied the materials they needed to make tools and weapons. Mycenaean religion and art show Minoan influences.

The thickness of their palace walls suggests that the Mycenaeans were in an almost constant state of war, as does the quantity of swords, spears, armour and chariots found in tombs and depicted on vases.

It is unclear why Mycenaean civilisation declined. Some historians suggest foreign invasions or civil war as a cause; others, the impact of a natural disaster or prolonged drought. We know that in about 1250 BCE huge defensive walls were constructed around all major Mycenaean towns. By about 1200 BCE these cities were beginning to be abandoned or destroyed.



SOURCE 2.4 A dagger blade and sheath made of bronze from a royal tomb in Mycenae, now in the National Archaeological Museum in Athens. Leopards are depicted on the blade to the left.

- Q**
- 1 Why might a Mycenaean king have been buried with this dagger?
 - 2 What might the dagger be a symbol of?

remembering & understanding

#1 In your workbook or in a Microsoft® Word document or Excel® file on your computer, create an 'Ancient Greece' glossary. Begin your glossary by listing these key words or phrases and explaining their meanings:

- Crete
- Mycenae
- Linear A
- polis

#2 What is odd about the words 'Minoan' and 'Mycenaean'?

applying & analysing

- #3**
- a Use tracing paper to create your own outline map of Ancient Greece.
 - b Shade areas of land and water, and label all major built and natural environments.
 - c Paste your map into your exercise book and annotate it with answers to the following questions.
 - i What is it about the geography/location of Crete that helps to explain why the palace of Knossos did not have defensive walls?

- ii What is it about the geography of Greece that helps to explain the development of independent city-states (*poleis*)? Hint: Use an atlas or Google Earth to help you examine the geography of Greece more thoroughly.

evaluating & creating

- #4** Imagine you are a junior archaeologist working with Schliemann (on the Mycenaeans) or Evans (on the Minoans). Prepare a media product about what has been discovered. The public want to know:
- a what material evidence has been found
 - b what preliminary conclusions have been drawn about the material evidence
 - c what questions remain unanswered
 - d what it felt like to be involved in such a significant archaeological discovery

**LEARNING
ACTIVITIES**



ATHENS & SPARTA

SOURCE
3.1 The Acropolis dominates the landscape in Athens.

Q 1 The uses the Athenians made of the Acropolis changed over time. What might some of those different uses have been?

2 Why do you think its elevated position was important in its different uses?

TALE OF TWO CITY-STATES

Athens and Sparta were the two most important city-states of Ancient Greece. Both played an important role in Greek history. As allies, they fought together to repel the Persians in 480 BCE. Later they became rivals and fought against each other in the Peloponnesian War, from which the Spartans emerged victorious.

ATHENS

Athens lies in **Attica**, a mountainous land of approximately 3808 square kilometres, with a long coastline. Athens was said to have been founded by the hero Theseus, who united four Ionian tribes living in four villages in the same area. Early Athenian society was socially and economically divided. Aristocrats, known as eupatrids, held the most and best land; they also dominated political and religious life.

THE CITY OF ATHENS

Political, economic and community life in Athens was centred on its **agora** or gathering place. During Athens's 'Golden Age' (in the fifth century BCE) the agora was an open, tree-lined square that housed markets, shops, shrines, courts and other public buildings. Ordinary Athenians would have spent a lot of their time in the agora. The philosopher Socrates famously spent much of his time there, questioning those he met.

The **Acropolis** was the highest point in Athens (approximately 120 metres above sea level) and overshadowed the agora. In early Athens, the Acropolis was a fortified citadel (fortress). Later, it became the most sacred part of Athens as its most important temples and sanctuaries were housed there.

THE PARTHENON

One of the most important buildings of Athens was the **Parthenon**. This temple, dedicated to the goddess Athena, was built on the Acropolis during the rule of Pericles, between 447 and 432 BCE. Callicrates designed it and the renowned sculptor Pheidias decorated it and built the great gold and ivory statue of Athena inside. The Parthenon still stands, but in a deteriorated state—over the centuries, many of its sculptures were removed, and its marble was stripped for building materials. It was blown up in a battle in the seventeenth century CE and has been damaged by acid rain.



SOURCE 3.2 An example of Pheidias's Parthenon sculpture, in the British Museum

SOCIETY AND ECONOMY

In a legal sense, there were three types of people in Athens in the fifth century BCE: citizens, **metics** and slaves, as in the table below.



- 1 Describe the two figures in this sculpture in detail. What are they doing?
- 2 Suggest why both figures are missing an arm.

CITIZENS	METICS	SLAVES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ were males born to free Athenian parents ■ could own land ■ had full political rights ■ had full legal rights ■ paid no direct taxes ■ took the Ephebic Oath of loyalty at eighteen (see Source 3.3) ■ were mostly shopkeepers, craftsmen or farmers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ were foreigners who lived in Athens ■ could not own land ■ had no political rights ■ had limited legal rights ■ were forced to pay taxes ■ were attracted to Athens in the hope of becoming rich ■ were mostly craftsmen 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ could be captured or born ■ worked the land but could not own it ■ often lived in dreadful conditions ■ had no legal rights ■ could sometimes earn limited wages ■ worked in the silver mines, in the case of many state-owned slaves ■ could be educated and then work as tutors



I shall not bring disgrace upon my sacred weapons, nor shall I desert the comrade at arms beside whom I stand in battle. I shall defend what is sacred ... and I shall hand on my country ... greater and better as far as my efforts, and those of all, can make it.

SOURCE 3.3 Excerpt from the Ephebic Oath



Which four qualities or actions are considered important according to this excerpt?

THE JOYS OF CHILDHOOD

When an Athenian child was born, it was handed to its father, who decided whether it lived or died. Sometimes it was abandoned due to its sickly appearance or because of the state of the family's finances. If kept, a baby was treated with kindness. Archaeological evidence suggests a childhood filled with toys and games. Hand-modelled clay figurines have been unearthed, as have spinning tops, and board games similar to snakes and ladders.

AT SCHOOL

Education for boys began at the age of seven. They learnt reading, writing and arithmetic from a teacher called a *grammatistes*. In the classroom,

boys used a wooden tablet covered in wax. They wrote with a **stylus**, which was usually made of bone or metal; the sharp end formed the letters, while the blunt end was used for smoothing out mistakes. At the age of twelve, Athenian boys were taught music by a teacher called a *kitharistes*. They were also required to learn poetry by heart and the art of debating. Physical training was another priority.

At fourteen, formal education stopped; only the sons of wealthy Athenians continued their education under the guidance of their fathers. Sometimes a **sophist** (a type of philosopher) was employed. Between the ages of eighteen and twenty, young men completed military training.

The daughters of Athenian citizens were educated by their mothers. They learned household tasks such as cooking, cleaning and making clothes. In a few cases, girls from wealthier families were taught to read and write. See Unit 5 for more information on Athenian girls and women.

SPARTA

Sparta lies in Laconia, in the Peloponnese. This is one of the most fertile areas of Greece, and is surrounded by high mountains to the east, north and west, and the sea to the south.

Sparta was established when the people of five villages joined together in the eighth century BCE. They went on to subdue what remained of Laconia. The Spartans were Dorians, a group of people who had invaded Greece from the north in the tenth century BCE. The early Spartans loved luxury, and music and poetry flourished during this time.

SOURCE 3.4 A terracotta figurine warrior holding a lance and riding a horse on wheels, in the Kanellopoulos Museum, Athens

Q How do we know this toy belonged to an Athenian child and not a Spartan one? Think, pair, share with a partner.



In the seventh century BCE, a group of people called the Messenians, whom the Spartans had conquered, revolted against Spartan rule. It took the Spartans seventeen years to suppress the Messenians' revolt. To ensure nothing like this happened again, the Spartans turned Sparta into an armed camp.

Sparta was a 'closed' society; outsiders were not welcome. The Athenian historian Thucydides complained of 'the secrecy with which [the Spartans'] affairs are conducted'. No description of Sparta written by a Spartan has survived.

SOCIETY AND ECONOMY

There were three types of people in Sparta in the fifth century BCE: *spartiates*, *perioikoi* and *helots*, as in the table below.

All land in Sparta was owned by the state. It was distributed to Spartan boys at birth, with a farm and *helots* to work it. Land could not be bought or sold. When a Spartan died, his land returned to the state. The state also decided what was to be grown on the land. The Spartan economy was self-sufficient and money was in the form of heavy iron bars.

SPARTIATES	PERIOIKOI	HELOTS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> were the 'true' Spartans and the citizens of Sparta if male, were known as 'equals' and were expected to be soldiers were forbidden to be involved in economic activity or even to use money if female, were expected to produce Spartan men 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> came from some of the areas of Laconia conquered by the early Spartans—their name means 'dwellers around' were free but were not citizens typically acted as artisans/craftsmen and managed the economy for the Spartans could be conscripted, if required, into the Spartan army 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> were semi-slaves are likely to have been descendants of the Messenians were not paid for their labour but were clothed and fed worked Spartan land



CHILDHOOD AND EDUCATION

From its first day, a Spartan child's life was controlled by the state. Babies that looked weak were left outside, exposed to the elements, until they died.

At the age of seven, Spartan boys went to live in a military barracks. They were housed in huts of fifteen boys. In the classroom, they learned basic reading and writing. Their most important training, however, was physical. Among other things, they learned to throw a javelin and fight with a sword. Boys who did not live up to Spartan ideals were whipped and humiliated as part of a 'toughening' process. At the age of twelve, young Spartans were given a cloak to wear for the whole year. It was meant to be uncomfortable, especially in times of great heat and cold. They also had to go barefoot.

At the age of twenty, equals (male *spartiates*) joined a mess hall called a *syssition*. Even after marriage, an equal was required to live in the barracks. This carried on until he was thirty, when he was permitted to spend nights with his wife and family.

Spartan girls lived at home until they married. They did not learn to read or write. They did not learn about household tasks, either (these jobs were given to helots). Physical fitness was important

SOURCE
3.5 A bronze figurine of a Spartan girl dancing, from about 500 BCE, in the British Museum

Q What aspects of this girl's appearance indicate that she is Spartan?



DID YOU KNOW

THAT IN SPARTA IT WAS OKAY TO STEAL ...

... but not to get caught? Spartan children were beaten if they were caught stealing food. This was not because it was considered wrong to steal (in fact, sneakiness was regarded as useful in battle), but because they had been caught!

for Spartan women—it was thought to help them produce male *spartiates*. Girls therefore learnt dancing, gymnastics, wrestling, running, discus, javelin, horseriding and chariot driving.

Later in life, Spartan women were required to manage farms, supervise and direct helots and care for children. According to the Athenian philosopher Aristotle in his book *Politics*, many Spartan women became wealthy as the death rate among Spartan men was high. They had a reputation among other Greeks for outspokenness and aggressiveness.

DAILY LIFE

Men and women of all classes in Greece wore a **chiton**, a large piece of cloth, sewn on one side, that was attached at the shoulder with a clasp and belted at the waist. In colder weather, they wore a cloak. These clothes were made of linen or finely spun wool. The wealthy purchased expensive silks from the East. Bright colours were popular: purple was extracted from sea snails and crimson from the bodies of a type of insect called a kermes.

Women typically kept their hair long, drawn to the back of the head and secured with a net and ribbon. Jewellery and make-up were popular. Women wore rings, bracelets (on wrists, ankles and arms), necklaces, earrings, belts and diadems (a jewelled circlet worn like a crown) made from gold, silver, garnets and pearls. Blusher, eye shadow, eyeliner, lipstick and ceruse (a white, lead-based solid) were all used on the face.

HEARTH AND HOME

Athenian housing was typical of housing all over Ancient Greece. Houses were constructed from mud brick, which was sometimes plastered over. Clay tiles adorned the roof. Windows did not contain glass, but had shutters.

Greek homes also had storage rooms, guestrooms, bathrooms and kitchens; the homes of the wealthy had stables. All houses had an altar for making sacrifices to the gods. In the porch of every house was a statue of the god Hermes, for protection.

Furniture included wooden chairs, stools and chests, as well as different types of beds for sleeping, reading, writing and eating. Oil lamps provided light. Most Athenian houses were dark and unsanitary.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient Greece' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- | | |
|----------------|---------------------|
| ■ Acropolis | ■ Parthenon |
| ■ agora | ■ <i>perioikoi</i> |
| ■ Attica | ■ sophist |
| ■ chiton | ■ <i>spartiates</i> |
| ■ Ephebic Oath | ■ stylus |
| ■ helots | ■ <i>syssition</i> |
| ■ metics | |

understanding & analysing

#2 a What happened to Spartan babies who looked weak or unwell?

b Why do you think the Spartans did this?

#3 Use a Venn diagram to compare and contrast the lives of Ancient Athenian and Spartan children.

remembering & applying

#4 Identify the three social classes in Athens and in Sparta. For each class, note three facts. Present your work in two social pyramids.

applying & analysing

#5 Compare and contrast the lives of Ancient Greek girls and boys with those of Australian boys and girls today.

a Begin by considering only Ancient Greek girls and boys. Draw up a T-chart with the headings 'Ancient Greek Boys' and 'Ancient Greek Girls'. In dot-point form, list key features.

b Use a colour-coding system (for example, two highlighters) to highlight those things in the 'Ancient Greek Boys' list that apply to Australian boys today, and those things that no longer apply.

c Complete the same process for the 'Ancient Greek Girls' list.

d Use the information from your T-chart to write your answer to the initial question over two or three paragraphs.

#6 Write a series of newspaper headlines (six or more) that summarise the rights of, and restrictions on, citizens, metics and slaves in Athens. Do the same exercise for the *spartiates*, *perioikoi* and helots of Sparta. For example, 'Spartans defend treatment of helots: protection of state chief concern'.

#7 Using a storyboard, demonstrate your understanding of an Ancient Greek woman's routine as she attends to her appearance and moves through her home.

evaluating & creating

#8 Form groups of four who will carry out a panel discussion that places Athenian men and women as rivals to Spartan men and women. Your job will be to both argue for the superiority of your own city-state and also defend it against verbal attack. Panel discussions should run in two rounds, with speakers participating in one of the rounds and observing and evaluating others in the other round.

#9 Imagine you are a middle-aged Athenian or Spartan citizen with children. Write a series of between four and six diary entries that reflect on your childhood, education, and life since reaching maturity and having children of your own. Make sure you also demonstrate an understanding of:

- why your society operates the way it does (for instance, the reasons behind abandoning weak Spartan babies)
- some of the challenges you may have faced meeting the expectations of your society.



SOURCE 3.6 Pendant gold earring with disc and human face, made by hand with precision and skill, in the National Museum of Taranto, Italy

Q What conclusions can you draw about Ancient Greek civilisation from this earring?

LEARNING IN CLASSICAL ATHENS

SOURCE
4.1 An amphitheatre at Epidauros

Q

- 1 What are some of the key aspects of this amphitheatre's design?
- 2 How does this amphitheatre show us that theatre was very important to the Greeks?

GREEK PHILOSOPHY

In the fifty-year period following the Persian Wars (from 480 BCE), Athens was the most powerful of the Greek city-states. It was also famous as a centre of learning and culture, and was home to philosophers and artists and the site of the most magnificent of Greece's public buildings.

There were many schools of philosophy in Athens. Most were interested in **ethics**—the difference between right and wrong, and good and bad. These philosophers asked questions that still puzzle us today—questions such as ‘What leads to happiness?’ One group of philosophers in Athens, the **Stoics**, taught that happiness comes through acceptance of things that cannot be changed.

SOCRATES

One of Athens's most famous philosophers was **Socrates**, who was born in 469 BCE. Little is known about his early life. Socrates's later life was spent in Athens, where he was often found in the agora, engaging people from all walks of life in intensive discussions. The aim of these discussions was to get people to think about the opinions they held to be true. Socrates left no actual writings; what we know about him comes from his pupil and fellow philosopher Plato (427–347 BCE).

Unfortunately, Socrates upset some powerful Athenians. They charged him with ‘corrupting the youth of Athens’ and showing disrespect to the gods. In his defence he famously stated, ‘... so long as I draw breath and have my faculties, I shall never stop practising philosophy and exhorting you and elucidating the truth for everyone I meet’. Socrates was found guilty and sentenced to death. He was made to drink hemlock, a poison, to end his own life in 399 BCE.

SOURCE
4.2 Marble statue of Socrates in front of the Academy of Athens

Q

- 1 Describe Socrates's posture.
- 2 The sculptor has deliberately chosen to pose Socrates in this way. Why do you think this is?



GREEK DRAMA

Greek plays began as performances connected to the worship of Dionysus, the god of vegetation and wine. They involved singing and dancing around an altar after the wine casks were opened each spring. Over time, these songs became formalised; dialogue was added and their subject matter broadened.

Beginning in the middle of the sixth century BCE, plays were put on in Athens during the week-long festival of Dionysus (known as the City Dionysia or **Great Dionysia**), which occurred at the end of March each year. This festival was a huge event—Plato estimated that 30 000 people attended from across the Greek world. By the fifth century BCE, both tragedies and comedies were being performed.

All actors were men, and they wore masks when performing. These masks covered the face, but communicated the gender, age and feelings of the characters to the audience. There was also a **chorus**, a group of between twelve and fifteen actors who commented on the action of the play as it progressed, and made sound effects. Plays were performed in special open-air theatres called **amphitheatres**. These amphitheatres were built to seat approximately 2000 people. Scenery was painted on a wall behind the actors. Many words



SOURCE
4.3

Two actors prepare for a performance. The figure on the left holds his mask; the figure on the right is already wearing a mask. This large ceramic vessel is in the Archaeological Museum of Ferrara, Italy.

in use today that we associate with the theatre—for example, tragedy, comedy, scenery, drama, chorus and orchestra—were originally Greek words. The most famous Ancient Greek playwrights were Sophocles, Euripides and Aeschylus, who all wrote tragedies, and Aristophanes, who wrote comedies.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient Greece' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- amphitheatres
- Great Dionysia
- chorus
- Socrates
- ethics
- Stoics

#2 Create a quick word splash with ten entries that relate what sort of person Socrates seems to have been—for instance, 'inquisitive.'

applying & analysing

#3 Create a flow chart that illustrates the development of Ancient Greek theatre. Add a sketch at each stage.

#4 Conduct some research on the internet or in the library on one of the four famous Ancient Greek playwrights. Present your research to your class either as a PowerPoint® presentation or as an AVD.

evaluating & creating

#5 Imagine you are a journalist who travels back in time. You are to interview an Ancient Greek actor who is about to go on stage to perform a new play by Euripides. Using the information provided in this unit, as well as Sources 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3:

- a Write out ten questions that you will ask him.
- b For each question, write down the notes you recorded when he responded.
- c Take a few extra notes covering your own opinion of the venue, play and performances.

SOURCE STUDY

UNIT 5

WOMEN IN ANCIENT GREECE



IT IS HARD TO FIND REFERENCES TO ANCIENT GREEK WOMEN IN SOURCES FROM THE ANCIENT WORLD.

Most sources are written by men who present women as inferior. When a woman is mentioned or discussed at all, it is often in her role as wife, daughter, mother or concubine. Here are a number of primary and secondary text sources that deal with the lives of women in **Ancient Greece**.

**Pernicious is the race; the woman tribe
Dwells upon earth, a mighty bane to men ...
Such evil did the Thunderer send to man
In woman's form, and so he gave the sex,
Ill helpmates of intolerable toils.
Yet more of ill instead of good he gave.**

SOURCE 5.1 Hesiod, an early Greek oral poet, in *Theogony*, composed in about 700 BCE, from the Internet Ancient History Sourcebook

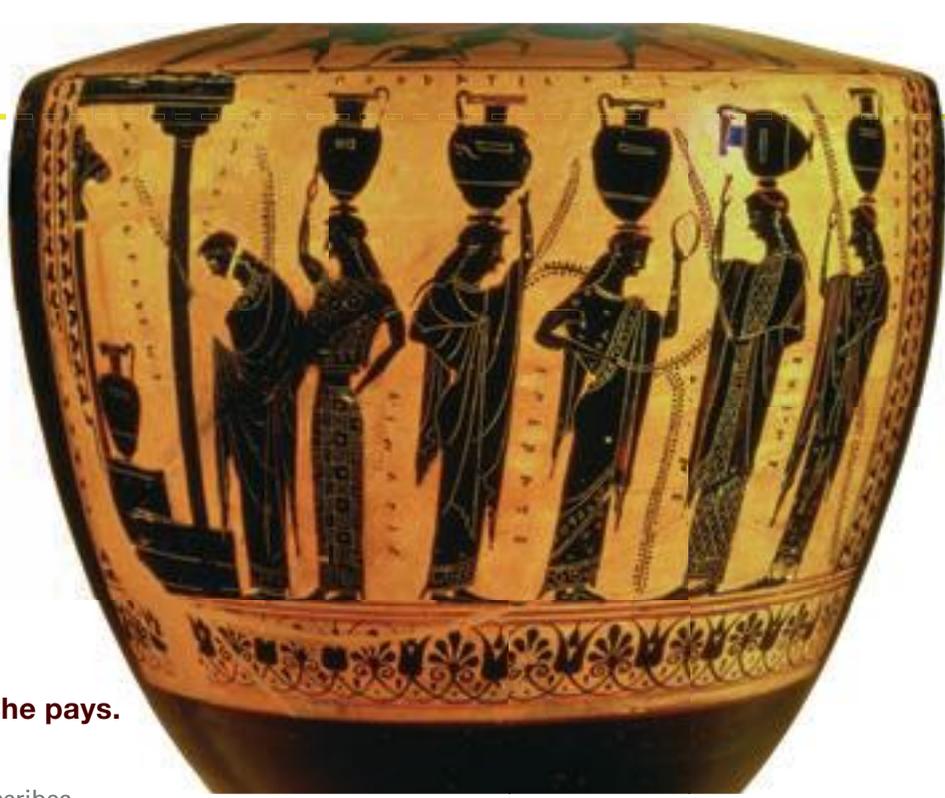
SOURCE 5.2 This nineteenth-century engraving, probably of an Ancient Roman copy of the original Greek statue, shows the goddess Artemis, daughter of Zeus and Leto and twin sister to Apollo. Artemis was worshipped widely across Ancient Greece.

God made the mind of woman in the beginning of different qualities; for one he fashioned like a bristly hog, in whose house everything tumbles about in disorder, bespattered with mud, and rolls upon the ground; she, dirty, with unwashed clothes, sits and grows fat on a dung heap. The woman like mud is ignorant of everything, both good and bad; her only accomplishment is eating: cold though the winters be, she is too stupid to draw near the fire ... The woman who resembles a mare is delicate and long-haired, unfit for drudgery or toil; she would not touch the mill, or lift the sieve, or clean the house out! She bathes twice or thrice a day, and anoints herself with myrrh; then she wears her hair combed out long and wavy, dressed with flowers. It follows that this woman is a rare sight to one's guests; but to her husband she is a curse, unless he be a tyrant who prides himself on such expensive luxuries ... The man who gets the woman like a bee is lucky; to her alone belongs no censure; one's household goods thrive and increase under her management; loving, with a loving spouse, she grows old, the mother of a fair and famous race.

SOURCE 5.3 Semonides of Amorgos, a Greek poet from Samos, in *The Types of Women*, written in about 550 BCE, from the Internet Ancient History Sourcebook

**A good woman is the
rudder of her household.
A sympathetic wife is man's
chiefest treasure
... She bears him children;
She watches o'er his couch,
if he be sick,
With tender care; she's ever
by his side
When fortune frowns; and should
he chance to die,
The last sad rites with honour due she pays.**

SOURCE
5.4 Menander, an Athenian dramatist, describes some of the qualities of a good woman in *Women*, written in about 325 BCE, from the Internet Ancient History Sourcebook



SOURCE
5.5 An Athenian vase from about 525 BCE shows women waiting to draw water from a fountain.

THE RIGHTS OF ATHENIAN WOMEN

Athenian girls were typically married by the age of thirteen or fourteen, often to a husband who was aged thirty or more. Fathers arranged these marriages.

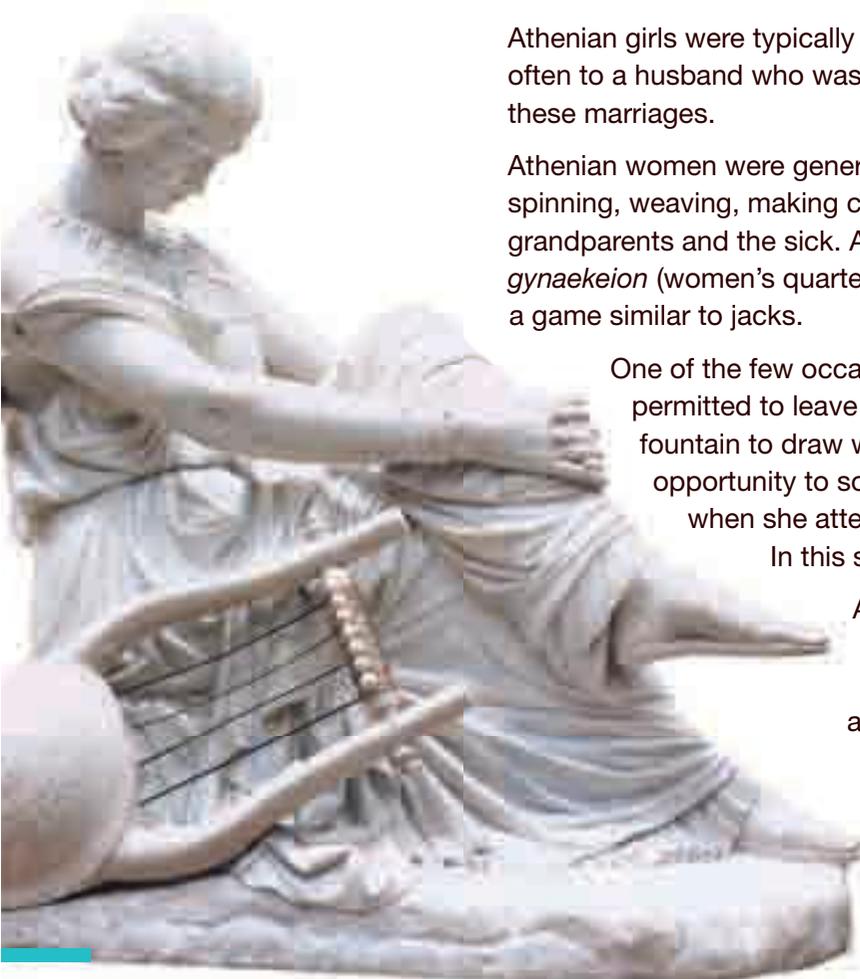
Athenian women were generally housebound. Their lives were focused on spinning, weaving, making clothes, preparing food and looking after children, grandparents and the sick. At home, women were generally confined to a *gynaekion* (women's quarters). Women enjoyed playing knucklebones, a game similar to jacks.

One of the few occasions on which an Athenian woman was permitted to leave the house was when she visited a well or fountain to draw water for the household. This provided an opportunity to socialise with other women. Another occasion was when she attended religious festivals or a cemetery.

In this situation a male relative would accompany her.

Athenian women took little part in economic or political life. An Athenian woman's status improved if she gave birth to a boy as it ensured a continuation of the male line.

SOURCE
5.6 Sculpture of Sappho, a lyric poet born on the island of Lesbos. Although little of her poetry survived to modern times, Sappho was well-known and admired in the ancient world. Later, Roman historian Horace wrote that Sappho's lyrics were 'worthy of sacred admiration'.



A considerable body of evidence indicates that Athenian women participated in a wide range of activities which regularly took them out of their houses. These included working in the fields, selling produce in the market, acting as a nurse or midwife, and many other economic activities. This is what one would expect in a poor region like the Mediterranean, where the labour of women and children cannot be dispensed with. Indeed, Aristotle in *Politics* says that in a democracy it is impossible to prevent the women of the poor from going out to work.

SOURCE
5.7

Here, modern historian David Cohen challenges the view that Athenian women were housebound. Cohen points out that most Athenian women lived outside the city of Athens and were poor. Consequently, they could not afford *not* to contribute to their family's fortunes. From 'Seclusion, separation and the status of women in Classical Athens', *Greece and Rome*, Second Series, Vol. 36, No. 1, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, April 1989

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

1 **ANALYSING** Hesiod expresses a very negative attitude to women in Source 5.1. In your workbook write out the quote from Hesiod. Underline all the words or phrases that are negative. You may need to use a dictionary to help you with difficult words. Who is the 'Thunderer' referred to in line three?

2 **ANALYSING & EVALUATING** In Source 5.3, Semonides of Amorgos describes four different types of Ancient Greek women. Draw up a four-column table and:

- In column one, identify the four types of women (e.g. 'bristly hog').
- In column two, list the key features of Semonides's description (e.g. 'has a disordered house').
- In column three, interpret Semonides's comment (e.g. 'she is untidy').
- In column four, state whether the evidence in columns two and three is positive or negative.

3 **ANALYSING**

- What important duties carried out by a wife are described by Menander in Source 5.4?
- Menander uses a metaphor to equate a woman with a rudder. Explain this metaphor.

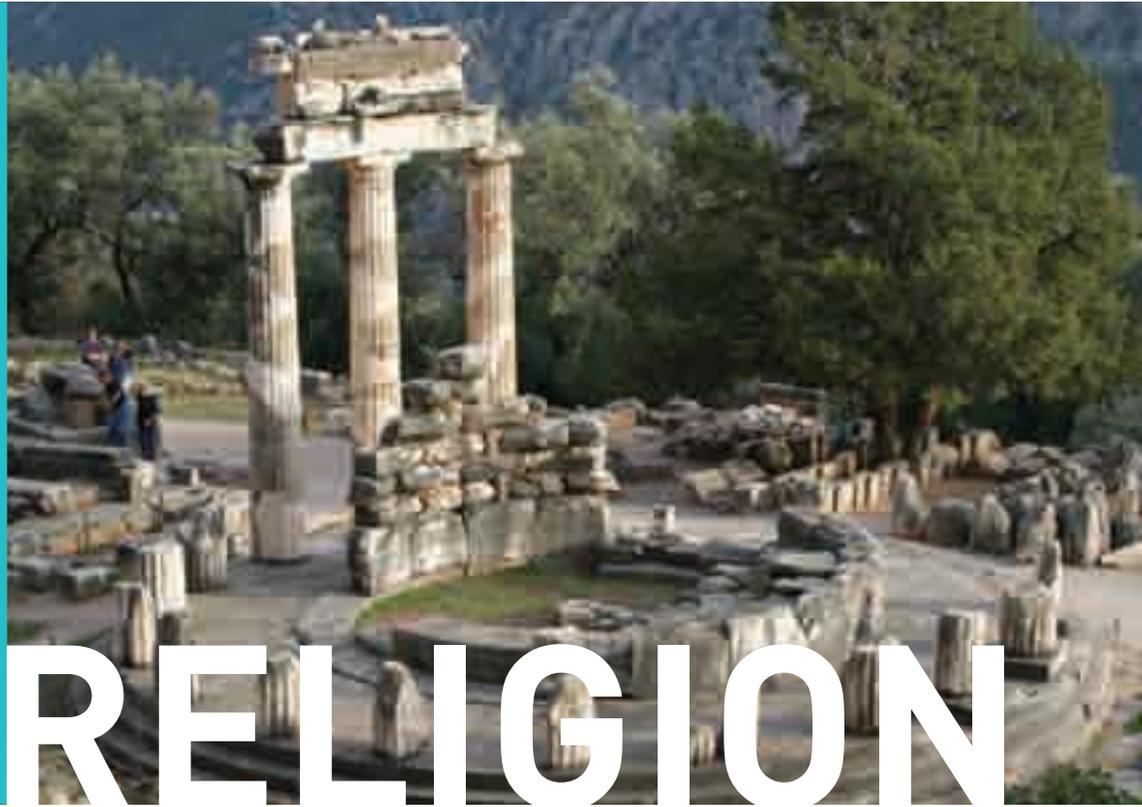
4 **ANALYSING & EVALUATING** The information presented in this source study and in Source 5.5 is challenged by modern historian David Cohen in Source 5.7. Use a T-chart to investigate the differences.

- In column one of your T-chart, use dot points to summarise the information presented in this unit and Source 5.5.
- In column two of your T-chart, use dot points to summarise David Cohen's analysis.
- Use a highlighter to highlight disputed areas.
- Work with a partner to determine which account is more accurate or whether both, in fact, are accurate. You should consider what sort of evidence is presented in both cases, and whether each account applies to the exactly the same group of women.
- Write up your findings over several paragraphs. At each stage, justify your interpretation.

5 **ANALYSING** Re-examine the first six sources carefully. Do they show:

- different views of or attitudes towards Ancient Greek women over time?
- different views of or attitudes towards Ancient Greek women in different parts of Ancient Greece?

Once you have made your judgement, note down all the evidence that you used to support your analysis.



SOURCE
6.1 Ruins of Apollo's temple at Delphi

RELIGION

MANY GODS

Ancient Greeks were polytheists—that is, they believed in more than one god or goddess. All their gods and goddesses were the descendants of the Earth (Gaia) and the sky (Uranos) and lived on **Mount Olympus**. The gods were considered to be like humans: they fell in love, married, had children, argued and so on. People believed that the gods and goddesses would look after them if they made offerings to them in the form of food and animal sacrifices.

There was also a group of **demigods**, who were humans with some special power. One of the most well-known demigods was Herakles (known to the Romans as Hercules).

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE LABOURS OF HERAKLES WERE *THAT* BAD?!

The twelve labours of Herakles included fighting with a lion (Eurystheus wanted its skin) and a menacing hydra, or nine-headed snake. He also had to clean out the stables of 3000 oxen. The stables had not been cleaned in thirty years!

SOURCE
6.2 An Athenian vase from about 500 BCE, now in the British Museum. It shows Herakles completing one of the twelve labours that his rival Eurystheus demanded of him—with help from the goddess Athena (left).



- 1 Examine this vase closely. Was the artisan who made it highly skilled or poorly skilled?
- 2 What does this tell you about the civilisation that produced the vase?



NAME	SPHERE OF INFLUENCE	SYMBOL/S
Aphrodite	Goddess of love and beauty	Sceptre (staff), myrtle (shrub), dove
Apollo	God of music, prophecies, archery and the art of healing	Bow, lyre (stringed instrument), laurel (small tree with glossy leaves)
Ares	God of war, murder and bloodshed	Vulture, dog, boar, spear
Artemis	Goddess of hunting, wild creatures and the moon	Bow, dog, deer
Athena	Goddess of wisdom, warfare, the arts, literature and philosophy; patron goddess of Athens	Owl, olive tree
Demeter	Goddess of fertility, grain and the harvest	Sceptre, torch, corn
Dionysus	God of wine, festivals, madness and enjoyment	Grape vine, ivy, thyrsus (staff with a pine cone on top)
Hades	God of the underworld and the dead	Bident (weapon with two prongs), Cerberus (three-headed dog)
Hephaestus	God of fire, the forge and metalwork	Axe, hammer, flame
Hera	Goddess of marriage, women and childbirth	Sceptre, diadem, peacock
Hermes	God of science, flight, thieves, commerce and travellers	Caduceus (staff with entwined serpents), winged shoes
Hestia	Goddess of the hearth and home	Hearth
Poseidon	God of the sea and earthquakes	Horses, sea foam, dolphins, trident (three-pronged spear)
Zeus	King of the gods, ruler of Mount Olympus and god of the sky and thunder	Thunderbolt, eagle, bull, oak



SOURCE 6.3 Olympian gods and goddesses. Pictured are Athena (top), Poseidon (middle) and Zeus (bottom).



ATHENA

Athena was the patron goddess of Athens. Her sphere of influence was wisdom and warfare. She also had power over the arts, literature and philosophy. Her favourite bird was an owl and her favourite plant, an olive tree. Athena was the daughter of Zeus by the goddess Metis. Zeus had been told that any child born of Metis would be more powerful than its father. When Metis fell pregnant by him, Zeus swallowed Metis whole. Athena was subsequently born from Zeus's head.

TEMPLES AND SANCTUARIES

The best known gods and goddesses had temples and sanctuaries dedicated to them. Temples were the largest of all Ancient Greek buildings. The most important sanctuary was that of Apollo, at Delphi, on the slopes of Mount Parnassus. At Delphi, Apollo would reply to questions about the future through the mediation of a priestess who could foretell the future. This priestess was called the **Oracle of Delphi**. The meaning of the oracle's answers (also referred to as oracles) was often obscure, or unclear, until after events had occurred.

*When the council-chamber in Siphnos shines white,
And white too is the forehead of the market-place,
Then is there need for a man of foresight to beware.
Danger threatens from a wooden host and
a scarlet message.*

SOURCE 6.4 This advice was given by the Oracle of Delphi to the Siphnians, who were concerned about whether they would remain the richest of the island peoples. It is recounted by Herodotus in *The Histories*, trans. A. de Séincourt, Penguin, Harmondsworth, 1954.

The Siphnians worked out the first part of the oracle in Source 6.4 easily, as their council chamber and market place had recently been decorated with white marble. They were confused by the second half of the oracle, though. This confusion cleared when the Samians arrived in ships with the topsides painted red: the Samians demanded money and, when the Siphnians refused, they attacked.

MYTHS, HEROES AND MONSTERS

Greek mythology is peopled, not only with gods, goddesses and demigods, but also with heroes, **Cyclopes** (one-eyed monsters), river gods, **nymphs** (female spirits) and giants.

THE MYTH OF NARCISSUS

Narcissus was the son of a nymph, Leiriope, and the river god, Cephissus. During his teenage years, many men and women fell in love with Narcissus because of his extraordinary beauty. All this attention made Narcissus quite heartless.

One day, Narcissus sent a sword to a particularly eager suitor of his, Ameinias, daring him to kill himself. Ameinias did kill himself, but called upon the gods to avenge his death. Artemis heard his plea and decided to make Narcissus fall in love with something he could not have.

Later that day Narcissus came across a clear spring, and when he caught sight of his own reflection, he fell in love with it. Narcissus lay gazing at his own reflection for hours. Eventually, he became filled with grief, and plunged a dagger into his own chest and died. Narcissus's blood ran from his body into the surrounding earth, from which white narcissus flowers then grew.

HEROES OF THE ILIAD AND THE ODYSSEY

Homer's two great epic poems, *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey*, tell us about great heroes and monsters.

The Iliad deals with events during the tenth and final year of the siege of Troy by the Greeks. The Greeks waged war for the return of Helen—according to legend, the daughter of Zeus and the most beautiful woman in Greece—after she had been abducted by Paris, a Trojan prince. Troy is located on the west coast of present-day Turkey. *The Iliad* describes the heroic deeds both of Greek soldiers, including Achilles, and of Trojan soldiers such as Hector.

The Odyssey tells about the wanderings of the hero Odysseus in his attempt to return home to Ithaca after the Trojan War. Odysseus's journey takes him twenty-one years. He faces

many challenges, such as outwitting the Cyclops Polyphemus. Odysseus blinds Polyphemus with a sharpened club made of olive wood that has been hardened and heated in Polyphemus's fire. Odysseus also has to escape the grasp of the witch-goddess Circe, and battle Scylla (a many-headed monster) and Charybdis (a giant whirlpool).

THE OLYMPIC GAMES

One of the most important sporting festivals that Athenians took part in was the Olympic Games. The Games were held in western Greece every four years from 776 to 393 BCE. They were dedicated to Zeus, and they involved processions, prayers and sacrifices, and were open to free, male Greeks.

In the beginning, the Olympic Games only lasted one day and consisted of one event, a 200-metre running race. Later, they were extended to five days and included chariot racing, bareback horseracing, wrestling, boxing, *pankration* (violent fighting) and the pentathlon (five events—javelin, running, discus, long jump and wrestling). Those who won events were crowned with **laurel wreaths** or those made from the branches of a sacred olive tree.

Success brought honour, not just for the individual, but also for his family and city-state. There were no prizes for second or third place—only humiliation. Women were strictly forbidden to attend the Olympic Games and would be thrown from a cliff if discovered. A separate set of games for women was held at the festival of the goddess Hera.

A sacred truce was called throughout Greece two months before the Olympic Games and for the duration of the festival. The truce meant that wars between city-states were banned to allow competitors to travel to and from Olympia without being attacked.

SOURCE 6.5 This Roman sculpture of a discus thrower (made from marble) is a copy of the bronze Greek original, made by Myrnon, that did not survive.

Q In what ways do this figure's appearance, and his stance, show an ideal athlete?



LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'Ancient Greece' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:
- Cyclopes
 - demigods
 - laurel wreaths
 - Mount Olympus
 - nymphs
 - Oracle of Delphi
 - *pankration*
- #2**
- a Between which dates were the Olympic Games held in Ancient Greece?
 - b Who were the games dedicated to and why?
 - c The Games did not just involve sporting competitions. What other things were involved?
 - d What was the laurel or olive wreath used for?
 - e Name five events of the ancient Olympic Games.
- #3** Copy the following list of names:
- Achilles
 - Aphrodite
 - Athena
 - Gaia
 - Hades
 - Hera
 - Herakles
 - Metis
 - Odysseus
 - Polyphemus
 - Poseidon
 - Scylla

Write 'G' next to those who are gods or goddesses, 'D' next to demigods, 'C' next to cyclopes, 'H' next to heroes, and 'M' next to monsters. Give their attributes and what they are known for.

understanding

- #4** Create a storyboard of four to six frames that illustrates the conception and birth of the goddess Athena. Include a brief written description under each frame.

applying & analysing

- #5** Consider the events of the original Olympic Games.
- a With a partner, brainstorm the physical (and any other) qualities that would have made an athlete successful in these events.
 - b Create a Venn diagram comparing and contrasting Ancient Greek Olympians with modern Olympians.
- #6** Just as if you were the Oracle of Delphi, write up your own four-line prediction to cover one of the following situations.
- Take care to avoid trees with large branches in the high winds tomorrow.
 - Avoid drinking a milkshake that has been sitting in the sunlight or you will get sick.
 - Hand your homework in or you will get in trouble.
- Remember that the oracle's answers were often obscure (unclear) until after events had occurred. Get someone else to read your prediction and see if they can work it out.
- #7** Using the internet or the library to help you, research one Ancient Greek myth. Present your myth to the class in a PowerPoint® presentation or AVD. Include an answer to the question, 'How relevant are Ancient Greek myths to people in the twenty-first century?'

evaluating & creating

- #8** Form a group of three. One of you will be a journalist who travels back in time; the other two will be Ancient Greek athletes, one of whom has just won the pentathlon and the other of whom has come second. Write up a script for the interview and perform or record it. Some areas you should cover are: training and preparation, and feelings before and after the event.
- #9** In groups, design and construct a board game that will help other people learn about Ancient Greek religion: a person who plays the game should have the opportunity to learn about Ancient Greek gods, goddesses and demigods, and also Ancient Greek myths, heroes and monsters.

GOVERNANCE IN ATHENS

SOURCE 7.1 Site of the Pnyx, the meeting place of the Athenian Assembly or Ecclesia, as it is today

BEGINNINGS

By the fourth century BCE, there were hundreds of democracies in ancient Greece. *Poleis* that were not democracies were either oligarchies (where political power was held by a small number of wealthy people) or monarchies (where kings ruled and political power was inherited). When a ruler came to power by force rather than inheritance, a **tyranny** was established. The term ‘tyranny’ is a little misleading, though, as the Greeks initially used it in a neutral way. For us, today, a tyrant is a person who governs using violence, oppression and injustice. For them, a tyrant could be good or bad.

Of the democratic *poleis*, Athens was the oldest and most stable. Athenian democracy was at its height during the age of Pericles, in the middle of the fifth century BCE.

SOLON

Democracy developed in Athens over a long period of time. Solon, a poet and politician, was its first important figure. In 594 BCE, he was appointed mediator and **archon** (ruler) of Athens. At this time, Attica was in a state of crisis: the masses had fallen into poverty at the hands of the wealthy. As Aristotle related in *The Athenian Constitution*, ‘they [the masses] had, so to speak, no share in anything at all’.

Solon’s reforms included:

- dividing the citizens into four new classes based on wealth (previously, they were based on who you were related to). The four classes determined a man’s eligibility for political roles. A *pentacosiomedimnos*, for instance, was a man whose net worth exceeded 500 bushels; only these men could become archons
- establishing the ‘Council of 400’ (a forerunner of Cleisthenes’s Council of 500—see ‘The Boule’)
- giving citizens the right of appeal in legal matters (see ‘The Heliaea and the law courts’).

When he gained control of affairs, Solon set the people free, both for the present and the future, by forbidding loans on the security of the person; he also passed laws, and caused a cancellation of debts, both private and public, which the Athenians call the ‘shaking off of burdens’, since they have shaken off the weight which oppressed them.

SOURCE 7.2 Aristotle in *The Athenian Constitution*



- 1 List all the reforms brought in by Solon as they are described by Aristotle.
- 2 Why did the Athenians call these reforms the ‘shaking off of burdens’?

CLEISTHENES

Almost 100 years later, in 510 BCE, an Athenian aristocrat named Cleisthenes rose to power. Cleisthenes brought in a democratic constitution for Athens in 507 BCE and established the democratic institutions described in the next section. Cleisthenes also replaced Solon's four classes with ten tribes. Each tribe had members from the city, from coastal communities and from rural areas. Cleisthenes wanted Athenians to be less strongly loyal to their family and their local neighbourhood and more loyal to the *polis*.

DEMOCRACY IN PRACTICE: THE INSTITUTIONS

THE ECCLESIA

The **Ecclesia** (Assembly) was the basic institution of democracy in fifth-century Athens—it passed the laws and had ultimate power in affairs of state. When summoned, it gathered on the **Pnyx hill**, south-west of the agora. The Ecclesia was made up of all citizens over the age of eighteen. In theory, this meant that between 20 000 and 50 000 citizens could attend. In practice, the Pnyx could only hold about 6000 people. Many chose not to attend because to do so would mean a loss of earnings; others considered it too far to travel.

According to Aristotle, the Ecclesia held four meetings in each of the ten months of the Ancient Greek calendar. Additional meetings could be called if necessary. The Ecclesia met early in the day. The Scythian Archers, a group of 300 slaves, herded latecomers from the agora. The Archers held a red-dyed rope that would colour clothing and embarrass the latecomers. Every meeting began with purification offerings, followed by a curse on traitors. After this, business began. A herald read out items from the agenda prepared by the **Boule** (see following page). A vote was taken on whether the item merited discussion. If it did, the herald proclaimed: 'Who wishes to speak?' All those who wished to do so mounted the *bema* (rostrum). The most successful speakers were those who had very loud voices and who could convince others.

700 BCE? Aristocratic oligarchy is established in Athens

600 BCE

■ **594** Solon becomes archon, makes all citizens eligible for the Assembly and the Heliæa, creates the Council of 400, abolishes slavery and lays the foundations of democracy

■ **545** Peisistratus becomes tyrant, retains Solon's constitutional reforms, purges noble enemies and redistributes land, so helping to modify social divisions

■ **510** Cleisthenes rises to power

■ **507** Cleisthenes replaces old clans with ten new tribes; creates the Council of 500; introduces ostracism

500 BCE

■ **487** Archons, previously elected, are chosen by lot

■ **482** Ephialtes removes all powers from the **Areopagus** except in cases such as homicide

■ **461** Pericles introduces payment for jurors

■ **458** Pericles introduces payment for archons

■ **457** Pericles admits hoplite class to archonship

SOURCE 7.3 The steps to democracy in Athens began with the aristocratic oligarchy (rule of a few important families) in the seventh century BCE. The height of the democracy occurred under Pericles between 461 and 457 BCE.

After the speeches, a vote was taken by a show of hands, and a simple majority won the day. In very serious cases, such as treason, voting was by ballot (see Source 7.4). In the fourth century BCE, the Pnyx was enlarged and payment was introduced for those who attended.



SOURCE 7.4 Voting by ballot used tablets such as these, in the Agora Museum, Athens.



SOURCE 7.5 This is a picture of an *ostrakon*—the name that appears is that of Themistocles. From the Agora Museum, Athens.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE PEOPLE OF ATHENS COULD BANISH WOULD-BE TYRANTS?

If the Ecclesia indicated there was a need for it, each citizen had the chance to inscribe on a small piece of pottery the name of the man he wished to see banished for ten years. The piece of pottery was known as an *ostrakon*—hence the English words ‘ostracise’ and ‘ostracism’. A minimum of 6000 votes was required for an ostracism to be valid. Voting for ostracism took place in the agora rather than on the Pnyx, where the Ecclesia normally met.

THE BOULE

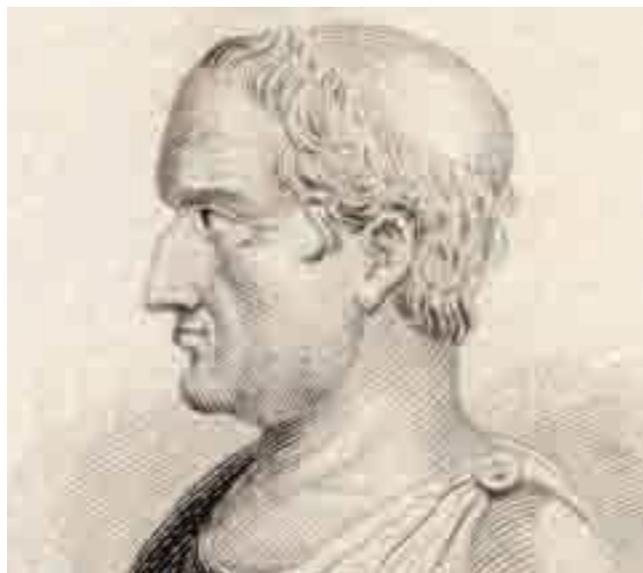
The Boule, or Council of 500, consisted of fifty men from each of Cleisthenes’s ten tribes. It had the following functions:

- to prepare the Ecclesia’s agenda
- to execute many of the Ecclesia’s decisions
- to administer the city and its finances on a day-to-day basis
- to supervise officials
- to supervise the election of the *strategoï*, or politician generals.

Only Athenian citizens over thirty-nine years of age could be members. Councillors served for one year only, and could only do so twice in their lifetime. The Boule sat in the Bouleuterion (Council House) in the agora, where the public could observe its proceedings. The Boule met every day except holidays. The 500 worked on a rotational basis and each group of fifty served for approximately thirty-six days at a time.



SOURCE 7.6 A *klepsydra* or water clock takes about six minutes to empty and was used to time the speeches of defendants and prosecutors. From the Agora Museum, Athens.



SOURCE 7.7 A later representation of Solon. Most of Solon’s achievements are documented in Plutarch’s *Parallel Lives*.

THE HELIAEA AND THE LAW COURTS

The original *Heliaea* was established by Solon as an appeals court. Complaints against the decisions made by magistrates could be heard there. Other courts developed after 462 BCE. These were 'courts of first instance', where trials were initially held, and were called 'dicasteries' after the citizens who sat on the juries, who were called dicasts. Each year, 6000 citizens over thirty years of age (600 from each tribe) were chosen by lot to compose the *Heliaea*. The required numbers for any jury trial were selected from this group. There are key differences between modern courts and Athenian courts.

There were no lawyers in Athenian courts—all those involved represented themselves. There were no strict rules of evidence, and a slave's evidence, for example, was only accepted if extracted under torture, whereas today evidence extracted under torture is inadmissible. Witnesses were not cross-examined. Trials lasted only one day, and juries did not deliberate as they do today but made up their minds on the spot. Depending on the case, Athenian juries were made up of between 201 and 2501 people—the most common number was 501—whereas modern juries are small. And there were no judges in Athenian courts.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient Greece' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- | | |
|------------------|--------------------|
| ■ archon | ■ <i>klepsydra</i> |
| ■ Areopagus | ■ Pnyx hill |
| ■ Boule | ■ ostracism |
| ■ Ecclesia | ■ <i>stratego</i> |
| ■ <i>Heliaea</i> | ■ tyranny |

- #2 a** Outline what the *Heliaea* was and who was a part of it.
- b** How large were Athenian juries?

applying & analysing

#3 Design an annotated visual display titled 'Ancient Greek democracy' that illustrates its key features and development. Include important facts, individuals, ideas and sketches related to Ancient Greek democracy.

- #4** Compare and contrast the role of the Ecclesia with that of the Boule.
- a** Begin by completing a T-chart with the headings 'Similarities' and 'Differences'.
- b** Use the information from your T-chart to write the answer in paragraph form.

analysing & evaluating

- #5** Form groups of four to carry out a panel discussion that sets supporters of Solon (two students) against supporters of Cleisthenes (two students) for the title of the person who 'Most influenced the development of democracy in Ancient Athens'. Your job will be both to argue for your choice and to attack your opponent's choice. Panel discussions should run in two rounds, with each speaker participating in one round, and observing and evaluating others in the other round.

evaluating & creating

- #6** Examine the features of Athenian courts. Which three features listed in the table would you change if you were given the opportunity to do so? Why?
- #7** Construct a large PMI table that evaluates Ancient Greek democracy and its court system from a modern perspective.
- #8** Using your information from Question 7, write two or three paragraphs comparing and contrasting Ancient Greek democracy and justice with the modern Australian system.

SOURCE

8.1

A nineteenth-century CE illustration of a trireme

GREECE AT WAR

GOING TO WAR

War was a normal part of Ancient Greek life. The most significant wars were the Persian Wars (490 and 480 BCE) and the Peloponnesian War (fought between 464 and 404 BCE, with some times of peace). The Persian Wars were against a foreign invader, and they united Greece. The Peloponnesian War was civil in nature, and it almost tore Greece apart.

Greek foot soldiers were known as **hoplites** (from the Greek word *hoplon*, or 'shield'). Hoplites equipped themselves, which was expensive. The equipment consisted of:

- a bronze helmet, often with nose protection and/or a horsehair crest
- a breastplate or a **cuirass** (body armour), usually made of bronze
- an oval shield, made of bronze or wood
- shin and knee protectors called **greaves**
- a long spear, approximately 2 metres in length, which was the hoplite's main weapon
- a short sword, to be used if the spear was broken or lost.

Hoplites fought in close formations called **phalanxes**. Phalanxes were usually eight men deep—the first two rows did the initial fighting and then were replaced by those from behind. Poorer Greeks had roles as archers and stone throwers.

The fastest ships in the Greek battle fleet were known as **triremes**. Each trireme required 170 oarsmen. They sat on three levels on both sides of the ship. Triremes had one or two linen sails that were lowered when the ship was engaged in battle.



SOURCE

8.2

A Greek hoplite, or foot soldier, in full armour. This statuette from about 1900 CE is in the German Historical Museum in Berlin.



1 Which aspects of the hoplite's appearance allow him to defend himself, and also attack his enemies?

2 What is he meant to be holding in his right hand?

THE PERSIAN WARS



SOURCE 8.4 Bust of Leonidas in the Archaeological Museum of Sparta

7 The Battle of Thermopylae (480 BCE)

The Spartan king, Leonidas, had been instructed to hold a mountain pass at Thermopylae. Three hundred Spartans and a few thousand inexperienced allied soldiers repelled the Persians for three days. The Spartans were then betrayed when the Persians were shown another way over the mountain. The Spartan 'code' required them to stay on and fight to the death, even though they were outnumbered. All were killed. For Leonidas and the Spartans, the poet Simonides produced the following famous epitaph: 'Stranger, go tell the Spartans that we lie here obedient to their laws.'

8 The Battle of Salamis (480 BCE)

Other Greeks, at Salamis, were divided over how to best defend the isthmus that led to the Peloponnese. Themistocles, dissatisfied with their dallying, decided to provoke the Persians into attacking. This forced a Greek response. The Greeks drew the Persians into the narrow strait, where the Persian ships were at a disadvantage (their large number of ships had no room to manoeuvre). The Greeks then aggressively drove their ships into the Persian fleet. When the Persian ships fell back, they ran into those behind. Havoc ensued. The Persians soon realised their mistake and attempted to retreat, but the Greeks harried them. Persian losses were considerable.

5 The interwar years (490–480 BCE)

The Persians were prevented from launching another attack on Greece by an uprising in their territories in Egypt. When a rich vein of silver was discovered in the state-owned silver mines at Laureion, Themistocles persuaded Athenians that the riches would be best spent on a navy. By 480 BCE this fleet numbered 200 ships. The interwar years also gave the Greeks time to reflect on the danger the Persians presented. As a result, they formed an alliance—the Hellenic League—and most Greek states joined.

4 The Battle of Marathon (490 BCE)

The odds were against an Athenian victory at Marathon in 490 BCE—the Athenians were greatly outnumbered and did not have Spartan support. Pheidippides, the first 'marathon' runner, had carried an urgent message to them, but the Spartans were in the middle of a religious festival which delayed their attendance. Even the Oracle of Delphi advised against resistance. The Greek soldier Miltiades, however, persuaded the Athenians to resist and set out to Marathon with approximately 10 000 hoplites and 600 Plataeans. The two armies faced each other across the Plain of Marathon for seventeen days. Miltiades finally gave the order to attack after he learnt that the Persian cavalry had withdrawn. The Athenians won a decisive victory and the Persians fled to their boats.



SOURCE 8.5 Burial mound at Marathon today

6 The Second Persian War (480 BCE)

Xerxes mounted a full-scale invasion of Greece by land, via Hellespont, and by sea in 480 BCE. Herodotus estimated that the Persian forces numbered in the millions; a more realistic estimate is that they had 100 000 to 200 000 men and 600 warships. The Greek defence was led by Sparta.

1 Origins of the conflict

The Persian Empire was established under Cyrus the Great. He came to the throne in 559 BCE when Persia was only a small kingdom. By the time he died, it had expanded to include Media and Lydia, which were Greek cities in Asia Minor. Under Cambyses and Darius (successors to Cyrus), the Persian Empire expanded to the Indus River in the east and to Thrace in northern Greece in the west.

9 Persia defeated (479 BCE)

The final major action of the Second Persian War was at Plataea in Boeotia. The fighting lasted several days. In the end, the Persians were defeated. The Aegean Sea was secured by another battle that day on the coast near Mycale in Asia Minor. Here, a Persian camp was destroyed and what remained of the Persian navy was burnt. Lastly, Sestos, a powerful Persian base nearby, was besieged and fell.



SOURCE 8.3 Key routes and sites of the Persian Wars. Read the text in numerical order to find out about the Persian Wars.



Key
 — Xerxes's route (480 BCE)
 - - - Darius's route (490 BCE)

2 The Ionian Revolt (499 BCE)

In 499 BCE, a group of Greeks living under Persian rule in Asia Minor revolted. The tyrant of Miletus (a city in Asia Minor), Aristagoras, was responsible for this revolt. He appealed for help from the Greek city-states. Athens and Eritrea agreed to help. Athens was angry at Persia for providing sanctuary to the former Athenian tyrant Hippias. The Athenians may also have helped because of their shared Ionian descent.

The rebels burnt a number of Persian-controlled cities but the revolt was successfully put down by 492 BCE. The Persians avenged themselves on Miletus in particular by burning it to the ground. According to Herodotus, the interference of Athens and Eritrea were galling to Darius. He had a servant constantly remind him, 'Do not forget the Athenians'.

3 The First Persian War (490 BCE)

In 490 BCE Darius mounted a full-scale invasion of Greece by sea. His first stop was Eritrea, which was besieged for six days, betrayed and then burnt to the ground. The Persians then sailed directly for Athens, landing at the bay of Marathon, the nearest convenient landing place north-east of Attica.



SOURCE 8.6 A hoplite subdues a Persian—a bowl in the National Museum of Scotland

THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR

The threat of Persian dominance over Greece was at an end, but it was soon replaced with dominance of another kind—Athenian. This dominance was brought to an end by the Peloponnesian War, fought between Athens and Sparta.



SOURCE 8.7 Allies and subjects of Athens and Sparta

Q In what ways does this map show that Athens was in a dangerous position at the outbreak of the Peloponnesian War?

ORIGINS OF THE CONFLICT

Open conflict first broke out in 464 BCE after Athens allied itself with Argos, an enemy of Sparta. Conflict dragged on until about 446 BCE, when Pericles and the Spartan king, Pleistoanax, signed a thirty-year peace. Initially, both sides were keen to see the peace work. According to the historian Thucydides, however, the mood soon became aggressive.

FLASHPOINT

A flashpoint came in the late 430s BCE, when Athens became involved in the affairs of Corinth, a neighbour and ally of the Spartans and fellow

member of the Peloponnesian League. The Spartan response was to begin making regular, small-scale invasions into Athenian territory, beginning in 430 BCE. Their chief action was to destroy Athenian crops, which demoralised farmers and threatened Athens's food supply. Unluckily for Athens, a plague broke out at about the same time. The Athenian response to the destruction of their crops was to inflict surprise defeats on larger Peloponnesian fleets on two occasions.

THE PEACE OF NIKIAS

It soon became clear that neither side would be able to overcome the other. For every Athenian success, there was a setback. It was the same for the Spartans. In 421 BCE, a fifty-year peace—the Peace of Nicias—was signed and both sides returned what had been captured. The peace, however, was unworkable—it had been signed by Athens and Sparta, rather than by their allies, some of whom refused to honour it.

In 416 BCE, Athens was called to the aid of Sicily, an ally. The Athenian fleet was defeated there, suffering losses of approximately 40 000 men. Sparta saw opportunity in a weakened Athens. In 413 BCE, Sparta built a fort in Attica, which restricted the movements of Athenians. Athens was isolated, and was forced to melt down gold statues to raise funds to continue the war.

ATHENS DEFEATED

Several naval battles ensued. In 406 BCE, the Spartan and Athenian fleets battled off the Arginoussai Islands, near Lesbos. The Peloponnesian fleet was crushed. The Athenians lost thirty ships and twelve more were disabled. Hampered by bad weather, a rescue mission was delayed and thousands of Athenians drowned. Such was the public grief and fury that the six *stratego*i who survived and returned to Athens were executed. In 405 BCE the entire Athenian navy was captured in a surprise attack. The Athenians had to accept Spartan conditions. The Athenian fleet was limited to twelve ships, the city's defences (including two long walls) were dismantled and its people were forced to accept Spartan rule. The Athenian Empire was no longer.

SPARTAN DOMINANCE

After the Peloponnesian War the Spartan king, Lysander, set up a thirty-man oligarchy of pro-Spartans in Athens. Over time, however, Sparta proved unable to maintain its leadership. This was because the number of Spartans with full citizenship had dwindled to approximately 2000 due to the war.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'Ancient Greece' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:
- cuirass
 - greaves
 - hoplites
 - phalanxes
 - triremes
- #2** Name and briefly describe four famous figures from the Persian Wars and/or the Peloponnesian War.

applying

- #3** Create a timeline of the key dates associated with the Persian Wars. Pay special attention to the spatial arrangement of entries.

applying & analysing

- #4** a Write a paragraph contrasting the relationship between Athens and Sparta in the Persian Wars with their relationship during the Peloponnesian War.
- b Explain why the Spartans were unable to maintain control over Athens after their victory in the Peloponnesian War.
- c Explain why Athens never reasserted control over the Aegean at the end of the Peloponnesian War.
- #5** Make a list of the key armour, weapons, skills and attitudes needed by a hoplite. When your list is complete, classify each item according to whether a modern soldier would require it.

ATHENIAN BANKRUPTCY

Loss of wealth, loss of revenue from its allies and the interruption of trade and farm production bankrupted Athens. Agriculture in Athens, in fact, never really recovered.

- #6** Create an annotated visual display of a trireme that uses flaps to reveal the inner workings of the ship. Make sure you label all its key features. Add three or four dialogue boxes to show you know what sort of conversations would be taking place on deck and below it.

evaluating

- #7** Complete a T-chart about either the Persian Wars or the Peloponnesian War with the headings 'Cause' and 'Effect' to explain how and why the Greeks went to war. For instance:
- The Persian Empire expanded to include Media and Lydia, Greek cities in Asia Minor (cause).
 - The tyrant of Miletus, Aristagoras, organised a revolt of Greeks living under Persian rule (effect).

creating

- #8** Imagine you are an Athenian soldier who fought at the Battle of Marathon in 490 BCE. It is now 488 BCE and you have been asked to write a memoir. You should cover why both you and Athens as a whole went to war, how you were equipped, and how you felt at different stages of the battle. You should also cover what has been happening since the Persians were defeated and whether you have any fears for the future.
- #9** Imagine you have just been hired by the Greek Bureau of Tourism to create a media product to encourage Australian tourists to visit important battle sites from the Persian Wars and the Peloponnesian War while they are on holiday in Greece. Aim to be as persuasive as possible by including attractive images, graphics and colour; engaging headings and catchphrases; dramatic recounts and quotes; key information of interest; contact details and a map.

LEGACIES AND CONNECTIONS TO...

UNIT 9

WHY WAS ANCIENT GREECE SIGNIFICANT?

HELLENISTIC AND ROMAN GREECE

In 338 BCE, Greece was invaded by Macedonians from the north, led by their king, Philip II. Macedonians ruled Greece for the next 192 years. Alexander the Great, Philip II's son, took Greek values and culture with him as he conquered most of the ancient world. Great centres of Greek culture were established in places such as Alexandria and Antioch. This time is known as the Hellenistic period of Greece's history.

When the Romans conquered Greece in 146 BCE, they adopted much that was Greek. For example, the Greek god Poseidon became the Roman god Jupiter, Roman painting styles show Greek influences, and Roman music was largely based on Greek music. The Romans, like the Macedonians before them, became important sources of the transmission of culture and values through time.

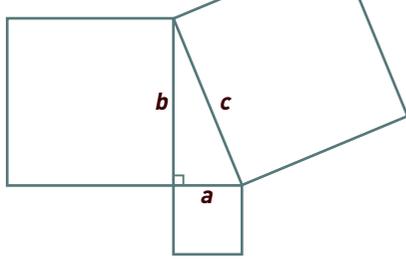
MUSLIM SCHOLARS, THE RENAISSANCE AND NEOCLASSICISM

Medieval Muslim scholars showed great interest in Ancient Greek learning in the areas of science, technology and the humanities. By the eleventh century CE, at least eighty Ancient Greek authors including Aristotle, Plato and Euclid had been translated into Arabic by Muslim scholars in Baghdad alone. Subjects covered included philosophy, medicine, mathematics, physics, optics, astronomy, geography and the occult sciences—astrology, alchemy and magic. These sources were later accessed by European Renaissance scholars.

Even later, in the late 1700s, a movement known as neoclassicism began in Europe, seeking to return to the 'purity' or 'ideal' of Ancient Greece and Rome in art, sculpture, literature, theatre, music and architecture.

SOURCE 9.1 Alexander on his horse, Bucephalus (left of image), from a mosaic uncovered at Pompeii, now in the National Archaeological Museum, Naples. This mosaic most likely depicts the Battle of Issus, 333 BCE.

$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$



SOURCE
9.2 Pythagoras's theorem represented as a diagram

MATHEMATICS

Pythagoras was a mathematician and mystic born on the Greek island of Samos in about 560 BCE. He and his followers had an almost religious view of numbers—he is reported to have said that ‘all things are numbers’. Pythagoras offered the first mathematical proof in history, and a rule of geometry known as Pythagoras’s theorem is taught to school-aged children today.

DEMOCRACY

Australia and many other Western countries operate according to democratic principles. Ancient Greek democracy was different from Australian democracy, but its chief principles—participation and majority rule—remain. Other democratic countries include the United States of America, the United Kingdom, India, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, France and South Africa.

OLD AND NEW JUSTICE

Large court systems are a common feature of modern nations, including Australia. For instance, in Australia there are many types of courts—state and federal, general and specialist—all the way up to the High Court, the highest judicial body in the country. Ancient Greek courts operated differently from modern Australian ones, but basic features such as the jury system and the right to defend yourself remain.

HEALING THE SICK

Modern doctors still take a form of the Hippocratic Oath. The Hippocratic Oath forms the basis of medical ethics and is named after Hippocrates, a physician born on the Greek island of Cos around 460 BCE. Hippocrates and his associates believed that medicine was a rational science—that diseases were not punishments from the gods. They advocated ‘preventative medicine’ through attention to diet, environment and daily routine. A doctor’s conduct was also considered important. Hippocrates thought a patient’s needs should come first, irrespective of social status or race.

I will respect the privacy of my patients, for their problems are not disclosed to me that the world may know. Most especially must I tread with care in matters of life and death ... I will prevent disease whenever I can, for prevention is preferable to cure.

SOURCE
9.3 Part of a modern version of the Hippocratic Oath, written by a U.S. medical school dean in 1964

Q Identify two features of Hippocrates’s thinking that remain evident in this modern version of the Hippocratic Oath.

TIME TO THINK ...

1

IDEALISING THE PAST

- a** Do you think the neoclassical scholars got it right—that Ancient Greece was pure or ideal?
- b** What other past societies or eras do we often wish to recapture?
- c** Why do you think this is?

2

LEGACIES OF ANCIENT GREECE

If you were asked to choose the three most important legacies of Ancient Greece, what would they be and why?

3

CONTINUING SIGNIFICANCE

Why do you think Ancient Greece has had such an impact on other past, as well as present, societies?

INQUIRY

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU ANSWER THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS FROM THE START OF THE CHAPTER.

TASKS

#1 democracy: then and now

The whole class will participate in a series of activities from the Curriculum Corporation's Discovering Democracy unit 'Should the people rule?', which you can find on the internet. The following focus questions will be answered in the course of this unit:

- Who rules us?
- What are the main types of government in Australia?
- What was it like to live in a democracy in Ancient Athens?
- How do the people rule in Australia?

Activities and assessment items include:

- hypothetical incident analysis: Government bans American TV shows
- poster creation
- oral presentation
- note-taking
- mapping
- definitions crossword
- group development of a newspaper
- class discussion: extending direct democracy in Australia
- interview task: oral or written
- group work: prepare and participate in class debate.

#2 storyteller

Working with a partner or in a group of three, you are to **create a small library of illustrated children's books** covering between four and six **Ancient Greek myths**. Here are some important things for you to consider:

- Your audience is Grade 3 or 4 so the language must be simple.
- Illustrations should be large and should help the audience understand the story.
- Each book requires a front cover and a blurb.
- Your books should be boxed. This box should be eye-catching and should also provide some background information about Greek mythology and its importance.
- You are encouraged to create some teacher aids—for example, a family tree explaining how some of the gods and goddesses mentioned are related to each other, or question cards for each myth with easier and harder questions.
- With your teacher's support, you may be able to visit a local primary school and share your finished products.

#3 voices through time

Imagine you have the opportunity to travel back in time and record the voices of different people living in Ancient Greece. What would they say about their lives?

Your task is to prepare and record between four and six of their oral histories. Your scripts for these oral histories should cover both Athens and Sparta, and include information on the history of each, its social groups, economic life and political systems where relevant. Here are three possible examples:

- an Athenian man who is about to take the Epehebic Oath and is looking forward to the future
- a Spartan woman, whose newborn baby is very ill and whose husband is away from home at war
- an Athenian slave working in the silver mines, who talks about his view of 'democracy' in Athens.

#4 guess who's coming to dinner

Imagine your history teacher has just divided the class in half and set an assignment on this topic: 'The importance of Ancient Greece to modern civilisation'. Neither you nor your fellow group members have any idea where to start but your uncle (an inventor) says he's got something that will help. To your shock, he arrives that afternoon with a time machine! He encourages you all to hold a dinner party and use the time machine to travel back in time and pick up between ten and twelve key figures from the past who can help you with your assignment. Before travelling back in time, your group needs to complete quite a bit of thinking, research and preparation. For instance, you all need to:

- Decide who the key figures will be. Not all of them need to come from Ancient Greece: for instance, some may be Macedonians or Romans who embraced Greek ideas later in history.
- Prepare note cards with key facts about each historical figure (birth, early life, education, achievements, attitudes etc.) so none of you gets confused about who is speaking.
- Read widely on each historical figure and prepare very specific questions that will be asked.
- Think about what to serve the historical figures (food and beverages), what entertainment will be appropriate and so on. Make sure you note this down.
- Find or make an appropriate small gift to thank each historical figure for his/her participation.

Note: once prepared, each group member will assume the identity of one of the guests and role-play that individual for the duration of the party.

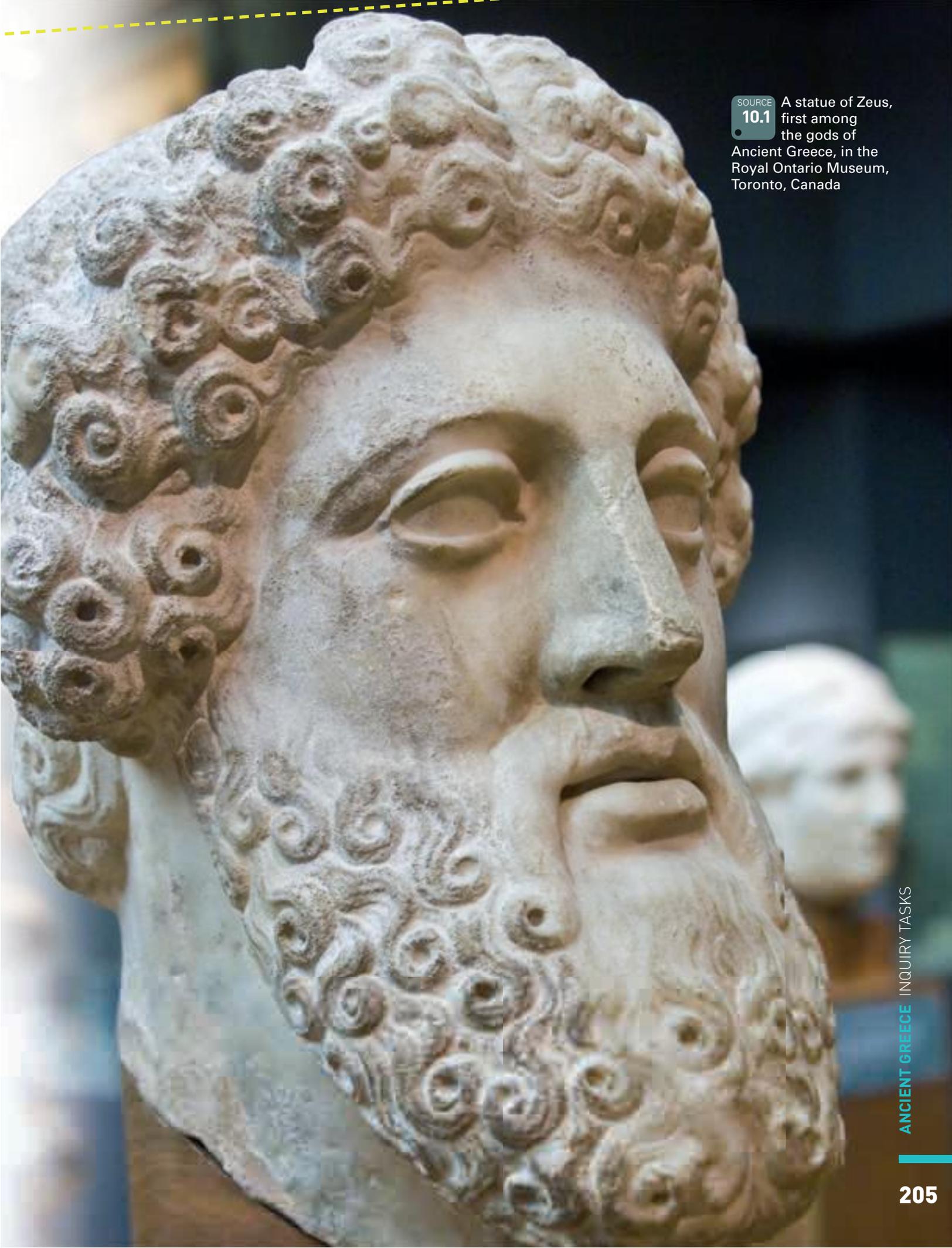
#5 independent research task and presentation

Your task is to prepare a detailed study of Ancient Greek women. This will take the form of an independent research task and presentation. The following areas should be covered:

- a detailed description of the lives of Ancient Greek women (this may be different in different periods of Ancient Greek history, and in different city-states)
- examples of famous Ancient Greek women
- differences and similarities between the lives of poor and wealthy Ancient Greek women
- differences and similarities between Ancient Greek women and other ancient women** (for example, women in Ancient Egypt, India or China)
- location, description and analysis of at least one visual and one written contemporary source (not shown or used in the source study: Women in Ancient Greece) on Ancient Greek women—for example, Medea's speech in *Medea* by Euripides
- a final evaluation of the lives of Ancient Greek women: were they fortunate or unfortunate?

#6 illustrator/designer

You have been commissioned to produce a design that will be used in promotional material for a new exhibition on Ancient Greece. The design needs to synthesise all the relevant information on Ancient Greek religion and religious practice, culture, social and political organisation, and economics. The design can only incorporate up to fifteen words (concept words, or a catchphrase or two) and eight images (which may be big or small, and may overlap one another). Which words and images are you going to choose to represent this civilisation and how are you going to arrange them so they are visually appealing? Your design can be produced using computer software or concrete materials (for example, collage), or it can be painted or drawn by hand.



SOURCE
10.1 A statue of Zeus,
first among
the gods of
Ancient Greece, in the
Royal Ontario Museum,
Toronto, Canada

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How did the Romans develop a powerful empire and why did it eventually decline?

What was life like in Ancient Roman society?

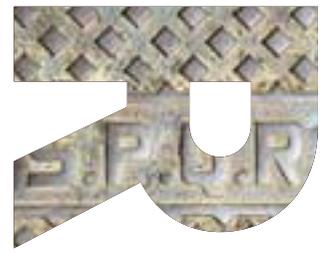
What have we learnt from the Ancient Romans?



From a small agricultural settlement on the Tiber River grew an empire whose influence extended across most of Europe and beyond. For more than 1000 years, between 753 BCE and 476 CE, Ancient Rome took a leading role in European history, leaving a legacy that we feel even today.



ANCIENT



RO

UM

EM



SOURCE 0.1 The Roman Forum, the central public meeting area in the centre of Rome. The Forum was the location of important government buildings, temples and entertainment venues.

SNAPSHOT



SOURCE 1.1 The Roman Empire at its greatest extent

2000 BCE First tribes migrate from Central Europe across Alps to Italy

1000 BCE

753 Rome is founded
Forum built in Rome

509 Tarquinius is overthrown as king

500 BCE

390 Gauls attack Rome

378 City wall is built to protect Rome

329 Circus Maximus is built

304 Rome controls central and southern Italy

264 First Punic War begins

Second Punic War begins

149 Third Punic war begins

146 Rome conquers Greece

133 Rome controls Mediterranean

63 Rome conquers Syria and Jerusalem

31 Rome captures Egypt;
Republic ends; Empire begins

1 CE Rome's population is 1 000 000

43 Rome invades Britain

79 Vesuvius erupts; Pompeii destroyed

80 Colosseum is completed

116 Rome conquers Iran and Iraq
Hadrian's Wall is built

235 Barbarian invasions begin

250 Empire-wide persecution of Christians

286 Empire is split in half

312 Constantine becomes leader of western half of Empire

324 Empire is united again

395 Roman Empire is divided into western and eastern halves

476 Roman Empire ends

500 CE

Before 753 BCE

Iron Age

753–509 BCE

Roman monarchy

509–31 BCE

Roman Republic

31 BCE – 476 CE

Roman Empire

After 476 CE

Dark Ages

ROME: SUPERPOWER OF THE ANCIENT WORLD

The Roman Empire grew from a small farming community into one of the mightiest empires in history. For over 1000 years Rome ruled and influenced more than half of Europe, northern Africa and much of the Middle East.

At its greatest, Ancient Rome's Empire spread over an area about four-fifths the size of Australia. The population of the Roman Empire at its height was almost three times Australia's population today. Even by today's standards, the Roman Empire was big—big in size, big in population and extremely big in its influence over the Western world.

COMPARING THE ROMAN EMPIRE WITH AUSTRALIA AND OTHER CIVILISATIONS

	Year	Area in square kilometres	Population
Australia	2010 CE	7.6 million	22 million
Roman Empire	300 CE	5.9 million	60 million
Ancient Egypt	30 BCE	1.0 million	5 million
Ancient China	210 BCE	5.0 million	40 million

Powerful though Ancient Rome was, it was not indestructible. Rome led the Western world from 753 BCE to 476 CE, but towards the end of its 1000-year dominance its strength began to wane. Eventually only the eastern half of the Empire remained under the control of Rome, and in the end even that part was conquered and the Roman civilisation faded as a world power. With the fall of the Roman Empire the Western world moved into the Dark Ages. This period began in 476 CE and continued till 1000 CE. It has long been thought that, in comparison with the glory of Ancient Rome, the Dark Ages were a time of little progress in learning, technology and the arts.

SOURCE
1.2

Timeline of Ancient Rome

SOURCE 2.1 The Appian Way, a road that connected Rome with southern Italy. The Romans built the main part in 32 BCE as a military road. Over the next 40 years the Appian Way was lengthened to reach the south-eastern part of Italy and stretched over a distance of 550 kilometres.



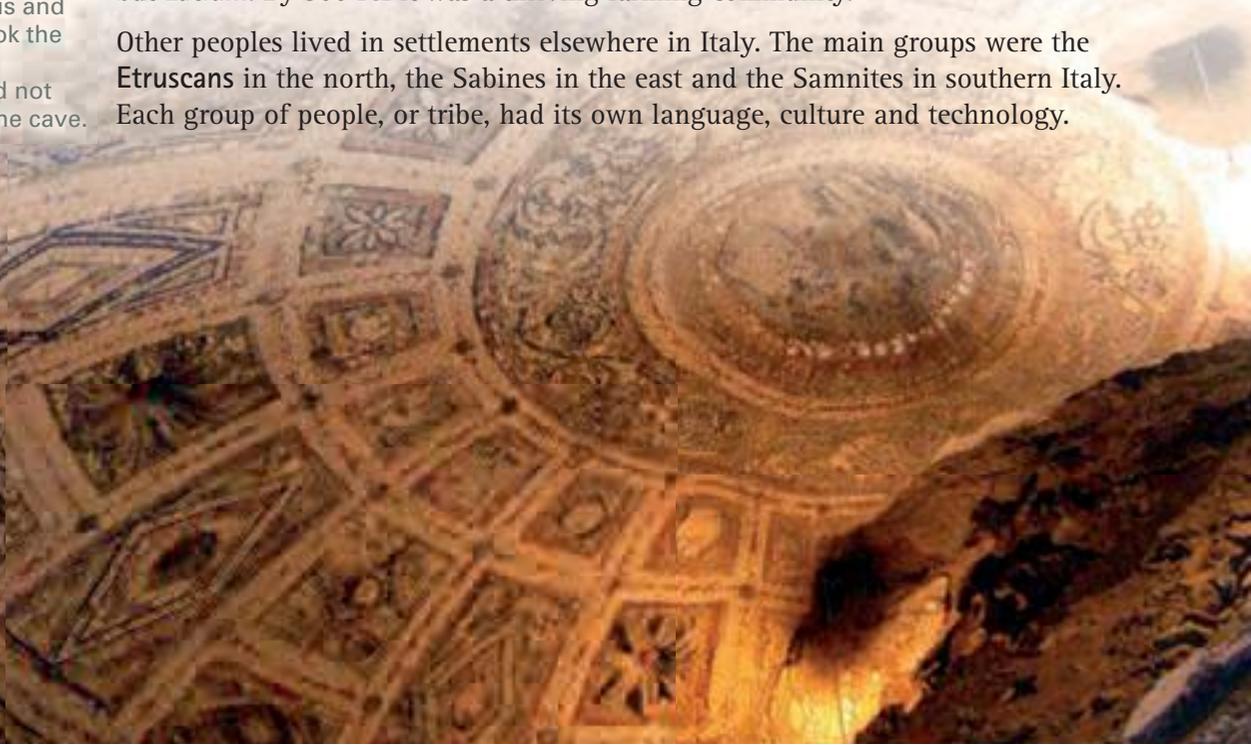
THE EMERGENCE OF ROME

SMALL BEGINNINGS

Ancient Rome was located in the present-day country of Italy in Europe. During the Stone and Iron Ages, small settlements had developed in Europe. These settlements were centred on farming. Rome was one of these farming communities. Rome was the settlement of the Latin people, or **Latini**. These people began their migration from central Europe across the Alps in about 1200 BCE. The Latini chose to settle at the present location of Rome on the banks of the Tiber River. There were many advantages in settling at that site. There was a fresh water supply, a mild climate, fertile soil for farming in the valley, and steep hills that surrounded the town and made it easier to defend against enemies. The early settlement was not called Rome, but **Latium**. By 500 BCE it was a thriving farming community.

SOURCE 2.2 Mosaics line the roof of a cave that was discovered in 2007 beneath the Palatine Hill in Rome. The cave is believed to be the Lupercal, where, according to legend, a she-wolf cared for Romulus and Remus. Archaeologists took the photograph with a remote sensing device as they had not yet found an entrance to the cave.

Other peoples lived in settlements elsewhere in Italy. The main groups were the **Etruscans** in the north, the **Sabines** in the east and the **Samnites** in southern Italy. Each group of people, or tribe, had its own language, culture and technology.





SOURCE 2.3 A carving in the Vatican Museums, showing Romans preparing an animal for cooking

- Q** 1 Describe what you can see in this carving.
2 What does this suggest about Roman farming?

FROM IRON AGE TO MONARCHY

Historians generally agree that 753 BCE was the year when Ancient Rome emerged as a town with political power. Rome began as a **monarchy**. A monarchy is a type of government where the rulers or leaders are kings and queens.

During the next 244 years, kings ruled Rome. There were six kings altogether. The first four of them were Latini or Romans. In 700 BCE the Etruscans took control of Rome, and the last two kings were Etruscans. Under the Etruscans, Rome grew from a small farming community into a wealthy city. From the technologically advanced Etruscans the Romans gained knowledge about metalwork, land drainage, road making, building and trade.

THE LEGEND OF ROMULUS AND REMUS

As the town of Rome grew, many legends emerged about it. The legend of **Romulus and Remus** has been passed down over thousands of years. The details of the legend can vary. Historical facts and the legend have become intertwined over centuries. It is not easy to separate fact from fiction.

Legend says that the twin brothers Romulus and Remus were the founders of Rome. They were the sons of Mars, the Roman god of war. As babies they were abandoned, but a she-wolf found them, looked after them and fed them her milk. A shepherd discovered the boys, took them home and raised them as his children.

When the boys grew up, they decided to start their own settlement. For its location they chose the place where the she-wolf had nursed them. While building the walls of the city, Romulus killed Remus over a disagreement. The city was called Rome after Romulus's own name. It was believed that Romulus did not die but disappeared during a storm and was taken to heaven. Romans worshipped Romulus as a god.

SOURCE 2.4 Roman bronze coin from the reign of Emperor Constantine I (307–338 CE) depicting Romulus as king of Rome on the obverse or main face and the she-wolf suckling Romulus and Remus on the reverse.



THE ROMAN MONARCHY

Romulus was the first Roman king. He was chief of the army and chief judge of legal matters. Throughout his reign, from 753 to 717 BCE, Romulus was involved in wars to gain more territory for Rome. He conquered many neighbouring cities. While Romulus lost some battles, he never lost a war. At the start of his reign, Romulus consulted the wealthy upper-class citizens called **patricians** who made up the **Senate**. The king also got advice from the Assembly. He could, however, totally ignore their advice if he chose.

Over time, Romulus relied less and less on the Senate's advice. As the king became more powerful, the Senate lost the power to influence government decisions. Towards the end of his reign, Romulus only called the Senate together when it suited him, and then it sat in silence while he issued instructions and made known his decisions. As king, Romulus had gained total power to govern Rome. Romulus and future kings had control of religion, making the laws, running the courts and the military and dealing with neighbouring tribes outside Roman territory.



Senate

- was made up of wealthy Romans called patricians
- began with 100 wealthy men
- advised the king about ruling Rome
- had very little power
- approved or vetoed (stopped) new laws after the king had taken them to the Assembly for approval

King/Monarch

- was elected by senators for a life term
- had total power
- took advice from Senate and Assembly but could ignore this advice
- made new laws but would involve Senate and Curiate Assembly
- was commander of the army
- was chief judge in legal cases
- decided when, and if, he would call the Senate to meet
- decided what matters the Senate would discuss

Assembly

- was also known as the Curiate Assembly
- comprised representatives from different regions or 'centuries' of Rome
- was a way for ordinary citizens to have a say in government
- also involved participation by patricians
- had power to make laws but had to go to Senate and king for approval



King could receive advice from the Assembly and Senate, but had ultimate power to rule Rome

SOURCE 2.5 Government during the Roman monarchy

DID YOU KNOW

THAT TARQUINIUS CUT DOWN TALL POPPIES?

The last king of Rome, Lucius Tarquinius, was very cruel, proud and ambitious. He murdered or exiled anyone whom he even suspected might try to take over his position as king. He also confiscated many people's property. In 509 BCE, after he had ruled Rome for 25 years, there was an uprising against him.

The nobles and population turned against the king and his family because of the behaviour of his son Sextus Tarquinius. The unscrupulous prince raped Lucretia, an important noblewoman. Lucretia's father and husband learnt of it and tried to console her, but her humiliation was so great that she took her own life. Lucretia's husband, Tarquinius Collatinus, and his friend Brutus vowed to get revenge.

The queen and two of the princes fled Rome. Sextus also fled but was followed and killed. The king, who was away at war at the time, was refused entry back into Rome on his return. The period of the monarchy ended and the Roman Republic began. Brutus and Tarquinius Collatinus became the first leaders or consuls of the new Republic.

Today's expression 'tall poppy' started when the last Roman king, Lucius Tarquinius, swept a stick across his garden and cut off the heads of all the tallest poppies. With this action he gave his son Sextus a symbolic message that all the people who 'stood out above the crowd'—anyone who was different from the majority of people—should be killed. Sextus killed all the important people of the city he had conquered. Today, a 'tall poppy' is someone who is seen as successful but who is resented, disliked or envied by others.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT EVEN ANCIENT ROME HAD CRIMINALS?

In about 640 BCE Ancus Marcus, the king of Rome, had a prison built to lock away criminals until they were punished. Strangulation in a public place was a common punishment. Traitors and murderers were thought to be the worst types of prisoners. They were thrown to their deaths from a cliff called the Tarpeian Rock. The mentally ill and disabled were thought to be cursed by the gods and they too were thrown off the Tarpeian Rock.

For he was the first of the kings who violated the custom derived from his predecessors of consulting the senate on all matters, and administered the business of state by taking counsel with his friends alone. War, peace, treaties, alliances, all these he contracted and dissolved with whomsoever he pleased, without the sanction of the people and senate, entirely on his own responsibility.

SOURCE 2.6 The Roman historian Livy, writing about Lucius Tarquinius in *Roman History*, trans. J. H. Freese, D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1898

SOURCE 2.7 Ruins of the Roman colonial town of Thamagudi, founded by Emperor Trajan in about 100 CE, in Algeria.



LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your workbook or in a Microsoft® Word document or Excel® file on your computer, create an 'Ancient Rome' glossary. Begin your glossary by listing these key words and explaining their meanings:
- | | |
|-------------|---------------------|
| ■ Etruscans | ■ legends |
| ■ monarchy | ■ patricians |
| ■ Latium | ■ Romulus and Remus |
| ■ Latini | ■ Senate |
- #2**
- Who were the first settlers of Rome?
 - Where did these first settlers originate?
 - List four reasons why the first settlers chose the banks of the Tiber River for a settlement.
 - What was the most common job of the first settlers?
- #3**
- Which groups of people lived in settlements on the Italian peninsula before 750 BCE?
 - In which part of Italy was each settlement?
 - List five ways in which the people from northern Italy influenced life in Rome.
- #4**
- What is a monarchy?
 - When was Rome a monarchy?
 - Who was the first Roman monarch?
 - What responsibilities did the monarch have in the government?
- #5** Answer *true* or *false* to the following statements about the Roman monarchy.
- The king was the commander of the Roman army.
 - The Curiate Assembly was part of the Senate.
 - The Senate could discuss whatever issues it liked, whenever it liked.
 - The Curiate Assembly made laws.
 - Senators were patricians.

understanding & analysing

- #6** Draw a Venn diagram. Use it to show the similarities and the differences between the two kings, Romulus and Lucius Tarquinius. Find at least two similarities and two differences.

analysing

- #7**
- Look carefully at the Roman coin in Source 2.4. Compare and contrast this coin with any currently circulating Australian coin. Consider their design, shape and appearance, and any writing that appears on them. You may use a chart or a Venn diagram to record your answer.
 - The Roman coin you looked at in part a was made about 2000 years ago, yet it has features in common with current Australian coins. Select one similarity between the Roman and the Australian coin. Explain why this feature is considered so important that both coins display it.

understanding & analysing

- #8** Work with a partner to complete this question. Read Source 2.6, written by Livy, a famous Roman historian born in 59 BCE.
- What do the following words and phrases mean as they appear in the quotation?
 - violated the custom
 - predecessors
 - administered the business of the state
 - taking counsel with his friends
 - treaties, alliances
 - contracted and dissolved
 - sanction of the people and senate
 - What does Livy say that Tarquinius did which previous kings had not done?
 - What responsibilities did Tarquinius take upon himself?
 - Who were the king's advisers?

creating

- #9** Read the legend of Romulus and Remus. Recreate this story in cartoon form. There should be a minimum of five scenes in the cartoon strip. Each scene should show a different event in the legend. Each scene should have a drawing and a written explanation. Give your cartoon a suitable title.



SOURCE 3.1 A drain cover in Rome today. The motto 'SPQR' represents the Roman Republic's political ideal of people and senators together influencing the running of the Republic.

BEGINNINGS OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC

The year 509 BCE saw the beginning of the Roman Republic. In reaction to Tarquinius, the harsh and unpopular last king, and his total power over the people, the Romans established a new, different system of government called a republic. The Roman Republic lasted for 482 years.

The republican government set up a system of checks and balances. No single person had all the power. Power was shared or balanced out between three different groups—the consuls, the Senate and the Assemblies—which each had different responsibilities. Assemblies made laws. The Senate approved or disapproved of the laws. The consuls supervised the Assemblies and the Senate.

Another check was that there were two leaders, or consuls. Their positions were equal, so power was divided between two people and was not all in the hands of one. In addition, the consuls only held power for one year, after which two new consuls were elected. The citizens voted for the new consuls from among the members of the Senate.

The Romans set up a constitution that set out the guidelines for their system of government and the responsibilities of each part of it. The constitution was spoken, not written, and was always being changed in response to the demands of different groups.

Poor Romans were known as plebeians. Their actions between 494 BCE and 297 BCE changed the Roman constitution. Plebeians wanted a say in government and improvements in their living conditions. They went on strike a number of times and their demands became known as the Struggle of the Orders.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT ROME'S MOTTO HAS NOT CHANGED IN 2500 YEARS?

The four letters 'SPQR' appeared throughout the Roman Republic—on coins, banners, buildings and even drain covers. They stand for *Senatus populusque Romanus*, which means 'The Senate and the people of Rome'. Today, 'SPQR' is still the motto of the city of Rome: it is on the city's coat of arms, is on many government buildings and is still found on drain covers.



Senate

- was made up of 300 wealthy citizens called patricians
- was an appointment for life
- controlled the spending of government money on public works
- maintained towns and cities
- gave advice to government officials
- discussed political issues
- advised the consuls
- could suggest new laws
- discussed laws made by Assemblies, and passed or vetoed them
- could not pass new laws

Consuls

- were both elected annually
- had equal power
- checked on each other to stop abuse of power
- had powers similar to those of a present-day prime minister
- controlled foreign affairs
- commanded the army
- oversaw meetings of the Senate and Assemblies

Legislative Assemblies

- had the final say about new laws, court verdicts, punishments, declarations of war and relations with non-Romans
- were responsible for the census
- comprised many different assemblies and councils, including these three important assemblies:

Assembly of Centuries

- represented centuries, which were geographic areas, each with its own assembly

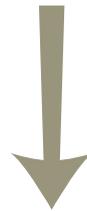
Plebeian Council

- consisted of non-patrician citizens of Rome
- passed the majority of laws

Assembly of Tribes

- consisted of representatives of each of the 35 geographic areas of Rome
- was an assembly for discussion but had little power

Checks and balances



- The power to rule Rome was spread between the consuls, the senators and the legislative assemblies.
- Each group had particular responsibilities.
- To rule Rome, each group had to work cooperatively with the others.
- The Senate discussed and advised the consuls. Assemblies made final decisions about laws and advised the consuls.
- Consuls shared power and oversaw the running of the whole Republic.
- The system was established to stop power falling into the hands of just one person, as had happened in the time of the Roman monarchy.

SOURCE 3.2 Government during the Roman Republic—a system of checks and balances



- 1 Which of the three major political groups held the highest position in the Republic?
- 2 In a situation where Rome was considering engaging in war, which group would have:
 - a discussed it and given advice?
 - b made the declaration of war?
 - c commanded the army and led them into battle?

DID YOU KNOW

THAT ROMANS CONDUCTED THE FIRST CENSUS?

Servius Tullius ordered the first count of the Roman population in about 570 BCE. From then on, a census was carried out in Rome every five years. The Romans saw the census as a symbol of their move from barbarianism to civilisation. The Roman government saw it as a way of working out Rome's possible military strength and income through taxes.

The patricians, or members of the wealthy upper class, were forced to take notice of the plebeians' demands for a number of reasons:

- There were plebeians in the Roman army and they refused to fight the enemy.
- There were more plebeians than patricians in Rome so the patricians felt threatened.
- Without the plebeians there was no workforce to do everyday jobs such as building, baking, farming, pottery making, metalwork and carpentry, so Rome came to a standstill.

The actions of the plebeians had the following results:

- The plebeians gained their own Assembly, which gave them some power in government.
- Roman laws were recorded in writing and were called the Twelve Tables. Laws could now be applied consistently and fairly for everyone.
- Plebeians could become consuls. In fact, in 63 CE Cicero became the first consul from the plebeian social class.

SOURCE 3.3 Plebeians at work: this Roman mosaic showing a ship being unloaded is in the National Museum of Bardo, in Tunisia.



SENATORS, CITIZENS AND SLAVES

In Roman society, people each had their particular place. Everyone was not equal. A person's social level and gender affected their rights and the degree of freedom they enjoyed. Women were not considered to be citizens. As early as 753 BCE, Roman men were grouped into one of three categories: citizens, part-citizens and non-citizens. By 212 BCE, part-citizens were given full citizenship. This meant that all free-born men living in the Roman Republic now had citizenship, and therefore the right to be involved in politics. The reason for offering the privilege of citizenship to free-born people outside Rome itself was to make them feel equal to people in Rome. Inclusion made them feel loyalty towards Rome and meant they would support and fight for Rome against outsiders.

The people of the Republic were diverse since Rome was continually invading and taking over new territories. The Republic was multicultural: it contained people of many different ethnic backgrounds who practised many different religions. The Republic was also multilingual: while Latin was the official spoken and written language, and Greek was the next most widely used, there were many other languages spoken as well.

THAT THE ORIGINAL 'PLEBS' WERE ROMANS?

If a person is called a pleb today, it means they are common and lacking in culture. The word 'pleb' is an abbreviation of 'plebeian', and the plebeians in Rome were the social class who were poor, uneducated and low in status.

DID YOU KNOW

SOCIAL STATUS IN ANCIENT ROME

Citizens

- had full rights
- voted at 25 years of age
- couldn't be tortured or crucified
- could serve in the army
- could be elected to government positions

Patricians (upper class)

- were wealthy landowners
- held powerful government positions that were hereditary
- became senators, magistrates and governors in provinces

Equestrians (middle class)

- were rich merchants and businessmen
- served in the army in positions of command
- controlled law courts and collected taxes
- held government administration jobs and could become senators

Plebeians (lower class)

- were poor people in towns and rural areas
- worked as craftsmen, shopkeepers, farmers, servants, stonecutters, bricklayers, skilled and unskilled workers

Part-citizens

- gained full citizenship in 212 BCE

Foreigners

- were free people born outside Rome

Non-citizens

- had no rights
- had no freedoms
- were the property of their owners

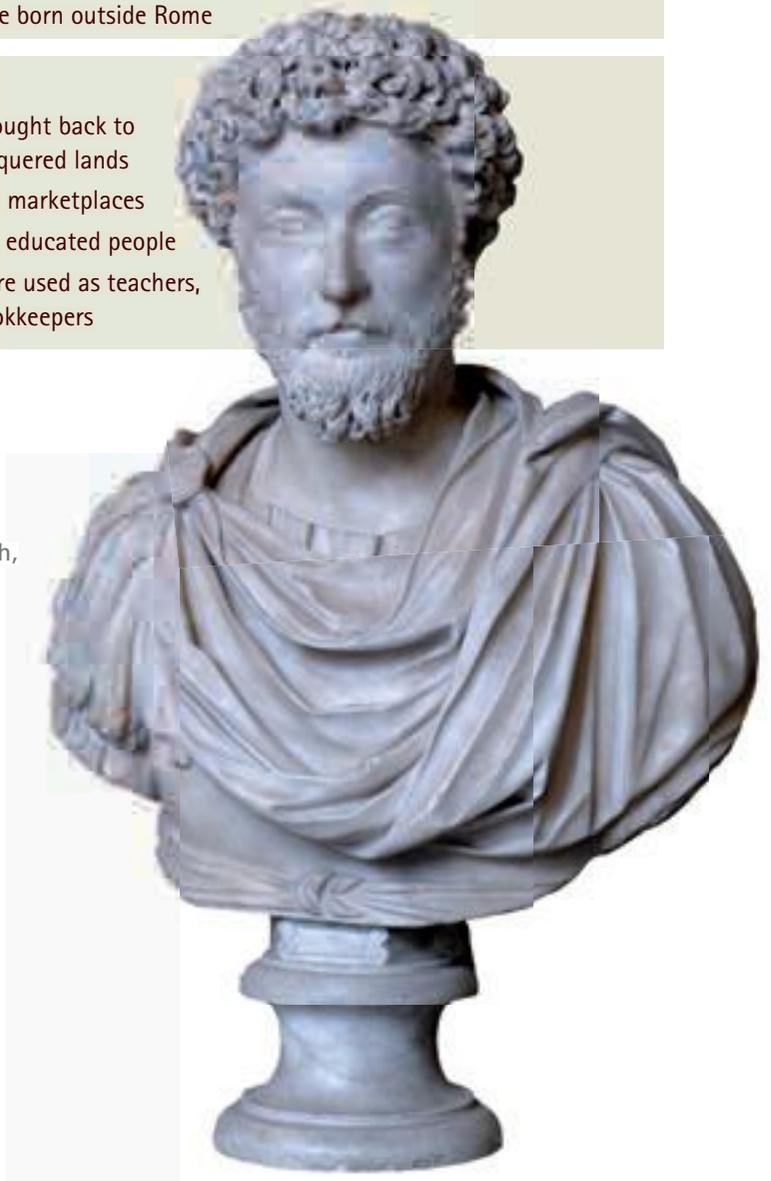
Slaves

- were people brought back to Rome from conquered lands
- could be sold in marketplaces
- were often well educated people
- if educated, were used as teachers, doctors and bookkeepers

SOURCE 3.4 Bust of a citizen of Rome, in the Glyptothek, Munich, Germany



- 1 Which social group do you think this person belonged to? Why?
- 2 List three types of jobs this person might have been involved in.





SOURCE
3.5
A painting showing what the Roman Senate might have looked like

WAR AND PEACE

Roman leaders spent a great deal of time and money to control and defend their borders and maintain peace in the Republic. They used a large and effective army to achieve this. The Roman army gained a fearsome reputation and won most of the battles it fought. The army often fought to ward off invasions from neighbouring cities and tribes. Victory resulted in an expansion of Roman territory. During the 450 years of the Roman Republic alone, there were at least fifteen wars, each with many battles. Some of these wars lasted for decades.

THE PUNIC WARS

Rome's first war outside the Italian peninsula was against the Carthaginians. **Carthage** was located on the northern coast of Africa and, like Rome, had developed into a powerful state. The island of Sicily, controlled by Carthage, lay between the two powers. A dispute over ownership of Sicily started the conflict. Altogether there were three **Punic Wars** over a period of 63 years (see the table over the page), with times of peace in between. They were the largest conflicts experienced in the ancient world. Hundreds of thousands of soldiers died on both sides.



SOURCE
3.6
A Roman coin showing a naval sailing ship

- Q**
- 1 The coin was made at some time during the Republic. After what date is it likely to have been made?
 - 2 Why is it unlikely to have been made before the date you suggested?



THE PUNIC WARS

	Main events	Results
First Punic War 264–241 BCE	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Mainly fought in Sicily and Africa■ Romans were superior soldiers on land but had no navy■ Carthaginians had superior naval power■ Rome responded by building ships and training sailors■ Rome managed to defeat Carthage despite very little experience in naval warfare	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Rome was victorious■ Rome gained Sicily■ Carthage had to pay huge compensation to Romans
Second Punic War 218–201 BCE	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Most remembered because of the Carthaginian leader, Hannibal■ Hannibal, his army and thirty-six elephants crossed the Alps to invade Rome■ Hannibal's invasion surprised the Romans■ Hannibal beat the Romans in many battles but could not take control of Rome	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Romans eventually won■ Carthage had to give its territories to Rome■ Carthage not permitted to have a strong army or navy again
Third Punic War 149–146 BCE	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Carthage was almost defenceless■ Rome kept provoking Carthage■ Carthage surrendered to Rome, but Rome refused to accept■ The battle that followed left Carthage in ruins. The city was burned to the ground	<ul style="list-style-type: none">■ Carthaginian culture destroyed■ Rome victorious■ Roman territory expanded



SOURCE
3.7

Hannibal's trek over the Alps with war elephants during the Second Punic War. Hannibal planned a surprise attack on Rome from the north. This fresco by Jacopo Ripanda, from about 1510 CE, is in the Capitoline Museums, Rome.



remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient Rome' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- Carthage
- Punic Wars
- equestrians
- Roman Republic
- Hannibal
- SPQR
- plebeians

#2

- a How many Punic Wars were there?
- b When did these wars occur?
- c Which were the opposing sides in these wars?
- d What caused the wars?
- e What influence did Carthage have before the Punic Wars?
- f In what way did the influence of Carthage change after the Punic Wars? Why?

#3 Respond with *true* or *false* to the following statements about the Roman Republican government.

- a The senate made the laws.
- b Only a patrician could become a member of an Assembly.
- c There were always two consuls and they held office for one year.
- d The Senate gave advice on political matters to the Assemblies.
- e Plebeians could be a part of an Assembly.
- f The power of the consuls was checked because the Assemblies made the laws, the Senate discussed and commented on the new laws and the consuls ran Rome according to the laws.

understanding & applying

#4 a Look at the following examples of mottos. What is a motto?

Organisation	Motto
Scouting movement	Be prepared
Apple Computer	Think different
Nike	Just do it
Motorola	Hello moto

- b What was the motto used by Ancient Rome?
- c What did this motto mean?
- d Was this a suitable motto for the Roman Republic? Why?
- e Write a motto that reflects you.

applying & analysing

#5 Look at the table 'Social status in Ancient Rome'. What would be the social status of each person?

- a a Roman baker
- b a Greek doctor captured by the Roman army
- c a Senator
- d a captured Carthaginian
- e a free-born Etruscan
- f a stonecutter who built Roman temples
- g a very wealthy Roman landowner

analysing & evaluating

#6 The census conducted by the Roman government could be seen as both good and bad.

- a From whose point of view would the census have been seen as useful and therefore a good thing?
- b Who may not have been pleased about the census and why?

#7

- a When and why did the plebeians go on strike?
- b What did the plebeians gain from the strike?
- c Why was it an improvement that Roman laws were written and not just spoken?

#8

- a Australia today and Ancient Rome are examples of multicultural societies. Explain what this means.
- b Australia has become multicultural because of the many migrants choosing to settle in the country. Explain how Ancient Rome became a multicultural society.

creating

#9 Choose a person from the list in Question 5.

- a Write a diary entry for one day in that person's life in Ancient Rome.
- b Draw a scene that depicts a typical event in his or her life.



SOURCE 4.1 Detail of Trajan's Column in Rome, a memorial celebrating the emperor's war victories

EMPIRE

END OF THE REPUBLIC

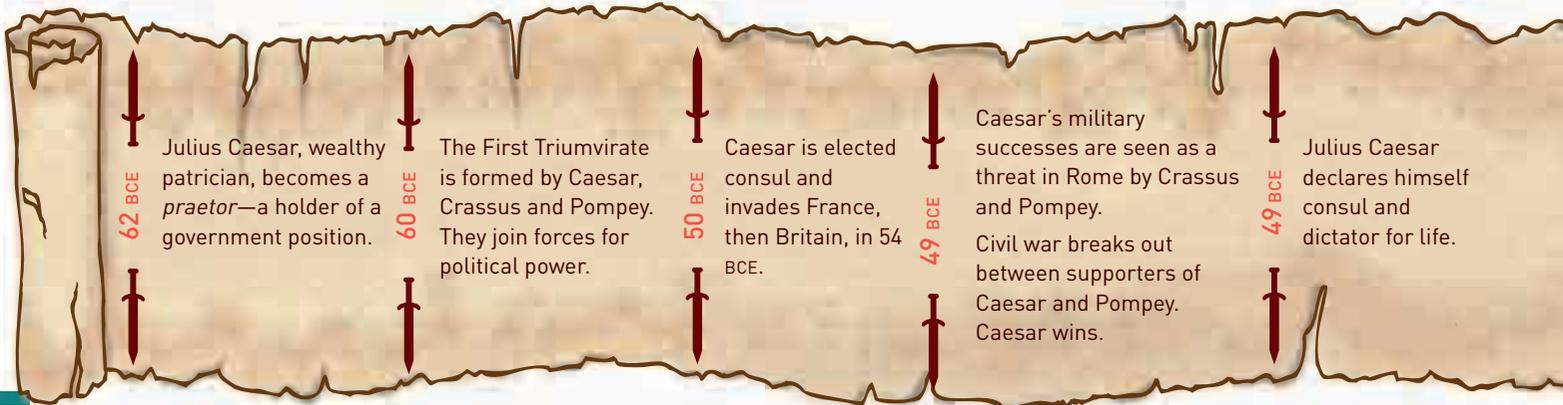
The period towards the end of the Republic was very unsettled. Different groups of people competed for power. There was infighting, and loyalties kept changing.

One political group that was powerful at this time has become known as the First Triumvirate. This group included a wealthy patrician called Julius Caesar. Power struggles split the First Triumvirate, and the other two in the group met violent deaths. In 49 BCE Julius Caesar became the most powerful man in Rome. He declared himself consul and dictator of Rome for life. By 44 BCE Caesar was dead, stabbed to death as he entered the Senate by people who resented his power. Many Romans feared

that Caesar had so much power that he would declare himself king of Rome. The old hatred of the kings still lingered from the period of the Roman monarchy. This fear led to Caesar's murder.

After Caesar's death in 44 BCE, and up until 27 BCE, the struggle for power continued between rival groups. Eventually, in 31 BCE Octavian declared himself the first **emperor** of Rome and the period of the Roman Empire began. Octavian was the great-nephew and adopted son of Julius Caesar.

Rome had been building a huge empire well before 31 BCE; it was the change in the title of the Roman ruler that separated the Republic from the Empire. Caesar, as the last consul, and Octavian, as the first emperor, had the same amount of power and control over Rome. Only their title changed.



ROMAN EMPIRE

For the 507 years that the Empire lasted, Rome fought many campaigns that further extended its control and influence. By 476 CE the Empire included all areas bordering the Mediterranean Sea and some areas bordering the Baltic and North seas.

Romans thought of all people living outside of the Empire as **barbarians** or uncivilised savages. They had little regard for barbarians. This was shown in 151 BCE by the actions of a Roman commander who ordered the massacre of thousands of Portuguese barbarians after they had surrendered. A Roman court investigating the massacre found the Roman commander not guilty of any crime.

The writings of Roman historians such as Livy present a clear picture of how Rome saw its place in the world.



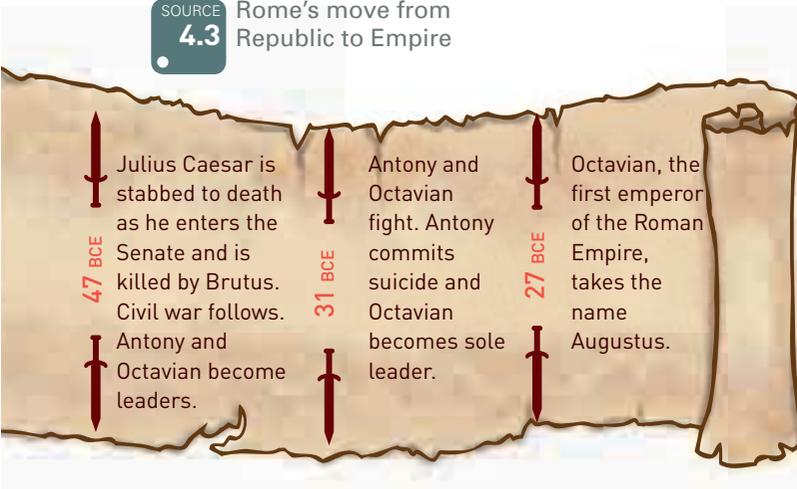
The gods desire that the city of Rome shall be the capital of all the countries of the world. They shall practise warfare so that no humans shall be able to resist the armies of Rome.

SOURCE 4.2 The Roman writer Livy wrote this about Rome in the first century BCE.



- 1 What does Livy tell you about Rome's intentions in the Mediterranean region?
- 2 What does Livy tell you about Romans' views of other civilisations?

SOURCE 4.3 Rome's move from Republic to Empire



DID YOU KNOW

THAT JULIUS CAESAR NAMED A MONTH AFTER HIMSELF?

The month of July came into being as part of Caesar's reorganisation of the calendar, known as the Julian reform. Caesar changed the number of days in a year from 355 to 365, changed the number of months in a year from ten to twelve, and started the calendar year on the first of January.

LEADERS OF THE EMPIRE

In 31 BCE the leader and first emperor of the new Roman Empire was Octavian, the nephew of Julius Caesar, who in 27 BCE took the name Augustus. He restored peace and prosperity to Rome after years of internal unrest. He also continued the campaigns that had expanded the Empire. During his 45-year reign, Augustus unified the Empire into a huge area of trade under the protection of Rome. He also cleverly convinced the Senate to make him absolute ruler. While he claimed to be ruling in the tradition of the Republic and its system of government, in fact the emperor had gained total control. The Senate still operated, but Augustus spoke to the Senate first so they knew how he wanted them to vote on issues. Augustus and the emperors who followed him relied on their own advisers rather than on the Senate. The Assemblies had little power. Augustus had created a government with a single ruler, who ruled for life. The Senate and the Assemblies were retained to make it appear that they were being consulted. This disguised the fact that the emperor made all the governmental decisions.

In the 507 years of the Empire, there were 170 emperors who ruled over the largest and most prosperous civilisation of the ancient world. The emperor relied on his bodyguard, the **Praetorian Guard**, for protection. This was essential as Roman politics was treacherous during the Empire. Ambitious potential leaders would clear the way for their succession to the position of emperor by murder. Dissatisfied army troops or members of the Praetorian Guard also committed murder to get rid of emperors they disliked. The chance that an emperor's rule would end in his being murdered was about 45 per cent, which made death by murder about as likely as death from natural causes. An emperor was safer at war: he only stood a 10 per cent chance of dying on the battlefield.



Nero (reigned 54–68 CE) is associated with cruelty and extravagance. Romans did not like his behaviour. He spent more time acting and enjoying himself than ruling. For two years he toured Greece, acting, playing the lute and chariot racing.

Anyone who plotted to get rid of him was executed. He even had his mother and his wife murdered.

Some historians say that Nero deliberately had a fire lit in Rome, and that he played his fiddle as he watched it burn. Not all historians agree that this event took place but most are negative about Nero as an emperor.

In 68 CE the senate said Nero was a public enemy and ordered that he be flogged to death. Rather than be publicly humiliated in this way, Nero chose to stab himself with his own dagger.



Hadrian (reigned 117–138 CE) reigned at a time of peace. He spent most of his time travelling around the Empire, strengthening fortifications to improve its defences. Hadrian concentrated on defence, unlike other emperors, who focused on attack.

In Britain he ordered the building of **Hadrian's Wall** near the border between Scotland and England. This wall is about 150 kilometres long, 5 metres high and 3 metres wide. In other parts of the Empire he strengthened wooden forts and watchtowers along borders.

Hadrian was also very knowledgeable. He wrote poetry, was literate in Latin and Greek, was a philosopher and had a keen interest in architecture.

He died of natural causes at the age of 62.



Trajan (reigned 98–117 CE) had a reputation as a good emperor. He was the first emperor to have been born outside Rome.

Trajan served in the Roman army and was considered an excellent military commander. As emperor, he led the army into Central Europe and conquered the territory. The Roman Empire reached its greatest extent under his leadership.

Trajan had new buildings, roads and monuments built. Trajan's Column was built to celebrate his war victories in Central Europe. The column is 30 metres high and has a frieze winding around it depicting battle scenes in sculpture.

Trajan was so popular that the Senate paid him the honour of calling him 'the best'.

SOURCE 4.4 Profiles of three very different emperors of Rome

4.4

Q

- 1 In whose reign did the famous fire of Rome occur?
- 2 Where was Hadrian's Wall built, and why?
- 3 Why did Nero stab himself with his dagger?
- 4 Of these three emperors, which one was the least popular? Why?
- 5 a Which of these three emperors do you think was the most popular?
b What evidence do you have for your choice?

THAT HALLEY'S COMET PASSED OVER ROME EARLY IN THE REIGN OF AUGUSTUS?

In order to become popular, Augustus claimed that the comet was the spirit of the murdered Julius Caesar entering heaven. Because people at that time thought of Caesar as a god, they also thought of Augustus, his son and heir, as the son of a god.

DID YOU KNOW

DID YOU KNOW

THAT ROMAN SOLDIERS WERE PARTLY PAID IN SALT?

Salt was a valuable substance in the ancient world, used for food preservation and as an antiseptic. The word 'salary' comes from the Roman word *salarium*, meaning payment for work done with money and provisions such as salt. The word 'soldier' may come from *sal dare*, meaning to give salt. Today, if you are 'not worth your salt', you are not doing the task well. This expression was first used when Roman soldiers who didn't do the job well had their salt supply reduced.

THE ROMAN ARMY

Ancient Rome was continually at war so it needed an army. The Romans developed the most efficient army of the time and it was a key factor in Rome's expansion into a huge empire. As the Roman army grew, so the Roman civilisation grew. With time, the army became professional and was so well trained that it rarely lost a battle.

During the monarchy only the wealthier Roman citizens were allowed to join the army. A citizen had to own a lot of land to be eligible to volunteer for the army. Soldiers served part-time, bought their own weapons and armour and were only called upon when there was a war. Soldiers were sent home when the war ended.

During the Republic the Roman army became professional. A permanent, full-time army was needed as Rome continued to invade and conquer new territory. Between wars, soldiers did not go home but underwent demanding training programs and built bridges, roads, forts and defensive walls, such as Hadrian's Wall. Soldiers enlisted for twenty-five years; commanders of units, for four to five years. Soldiers were well paid.

The last eighty years of the Republic saw major changes to the Roman army. For the first time, non-landowning citizens were allowed to volunteer. This became necessary due to the lack of manpower after heavy losses of men in the Punic Wars. The Roman army provided soldiers with weapons and armour because the masses of poor who enlisted could not afford the cost themselves. As a result, all soldiers had the same uniforms, weapons and armour.



SOURCE
4.5

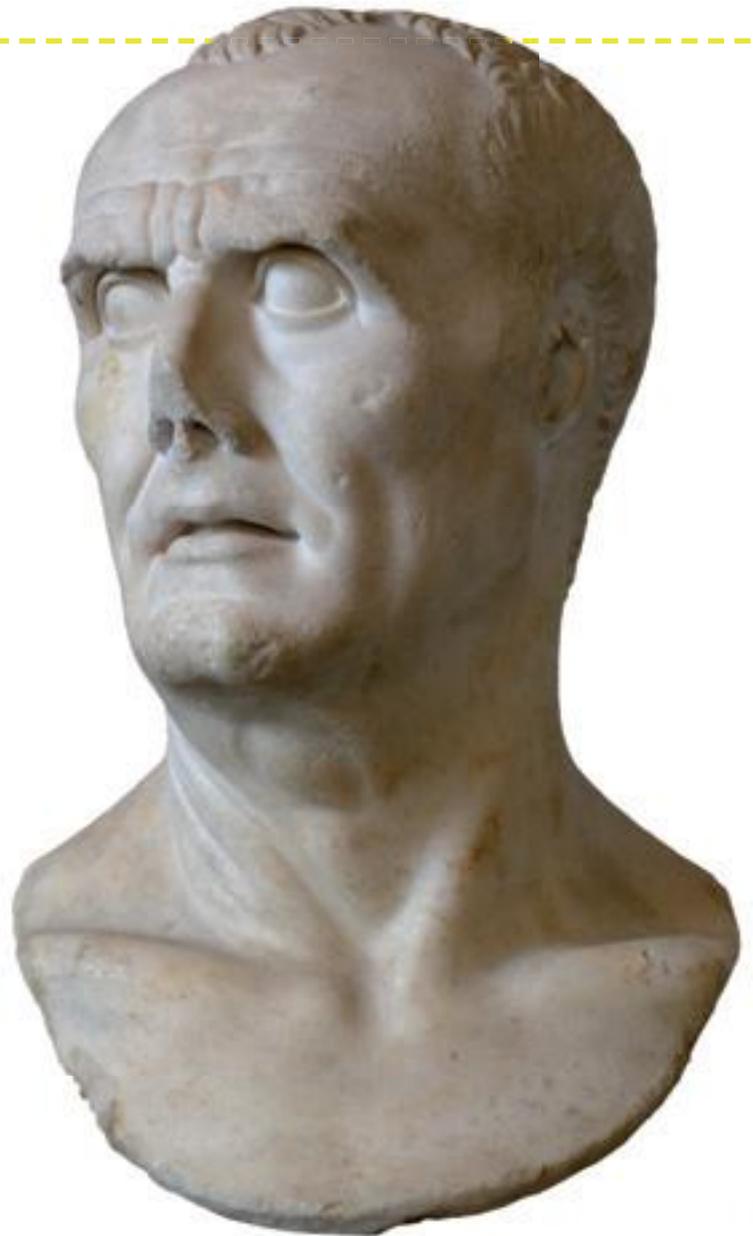
A Roman soldier with his uniform, equipment and weapons

REFORMS OF THE ARMY

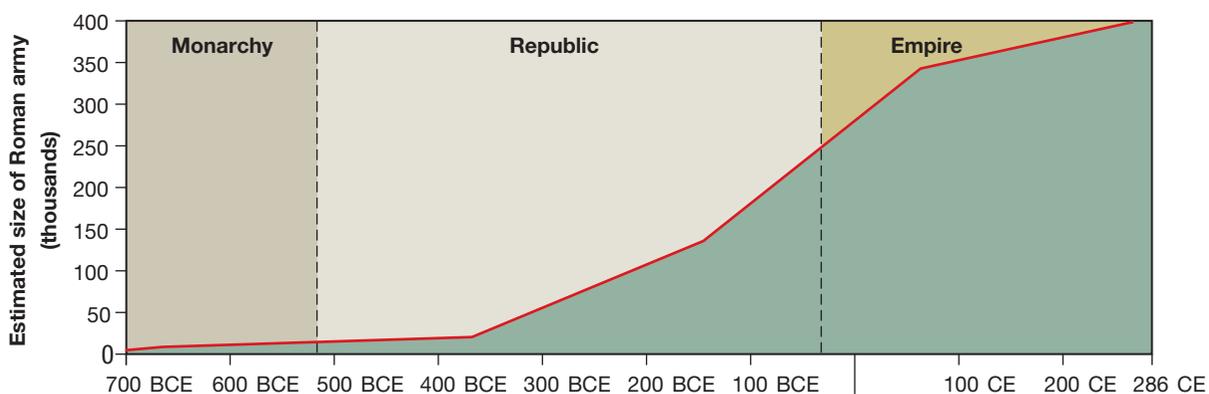
The first major reforms of the Roman army are known as the Marian reforms and are attributed to the general and consul Gaius Marius. Marius saw that Rome needed more troops to defend it against barbarian attacks, and when he was elected consul in 107 BCE he relaxed the requirements to enter the army. Any citizen of Rome who wished to, including those from conquered territories, could now join the army whether they owned land or not. Many did so. They became full-time soldiers, were well paid, could learn a trade between military campaigns, and at the end of their years of service could retire with a grant of land and money.

These plebeians became the army's foot soldiers, while patricians kept the positions of command and the status these brought. A military command was often a stepping stone to a career in government. Most monarchs, consuls and emperors proved themselves in the army before they became leaders of Rome.

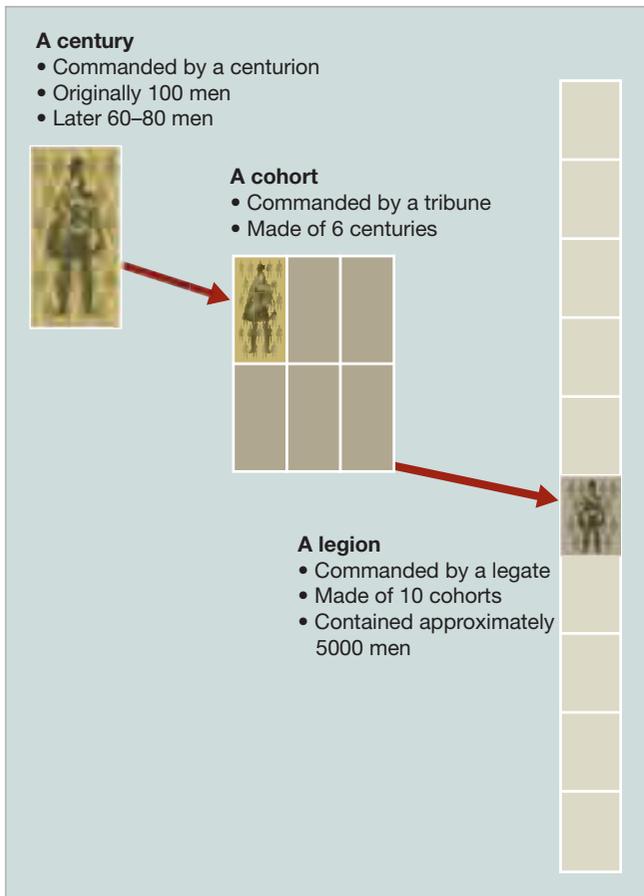
Further reforms took place when Octavian (later Augustus) became emperor in 31 BCE. He reduced the number of legions from more than 40 to 28, which he achieved by merging existing legions and by offering veteran soldiers inducements to retire in Rome's provinces. This way he tried to ensure that the army owed its loyalty to the emperor rather than to the generals who led it. In the long period of relative peace under Augustus's rule, the army defended the Empire's borders. Augustus also formed the elite military force known as the Praetorian Guard, whose role was to protect the emperor himself from harm.



SOURCE 4.6 A bust of Gaius Marius in the Glyptothek in Munich, Germany. Marius was elected consul seven times despite often being away from Rome on military campaigns.



SOURCE 4.7 Development of the Roman army from 700 BCE up until the Empire was split into eastern and western halves in 286 CE.



SOURCE 4.8 Organisation of the Roman army

ORGANISATION OF THE ROMAN ARMY

Soldiers were organised in groups known as centuries, **cohorts** and **legions**, each with their own identifying emblem or standard. A standard or *signum* was a long pole with good-luck badges on it and an eagle on the top. The standard-bearer or signifier walked ahead of the soldiers and led them into battle. The eagle on top of the standard was a symbol of pride and it was considered a disgrace to allow the enemy to capture a legion's eagle.

A Roman soldier could be either a legionary or an **auxiliary**. The auxiliaries were seen as a second-class army. Non-citizens could join up as auxiliaries for a 25-year term, after which their families became Roman citizens. Auxiliaries were paid one-third as much as legionaries and were not included in the army training program. They included horsemen, archers and slingers. There were often as many auxiliaries to help the legion as there were legionaries in it.



SOURCE 4.9 A Roman denarius coin showing the eagle that became the emblem of every legion as a result of the Marian reforms. The eagle was linked to the god Jupiter, the king of all gods and grandfather to Romulus and Remus.



THE END OF AN EMPIRE

Augustus, the first emperor of Rome, who reigned from 31 BCE to 14 CE, had warned that the Empire should not expand any further. This advice was ignored and Roman territory continued to increase. By 100 CE Roman emperors began realising there were limits to Rome's power. A slow decline began, which lasted more than 350 years. In 476 CE a barbarian chief named Odoacer overthrew Romulus Augustus, the last emperor of Rome, and the Empire ended. Barbarians conquered all parts of the Empire, including the city of Rome.

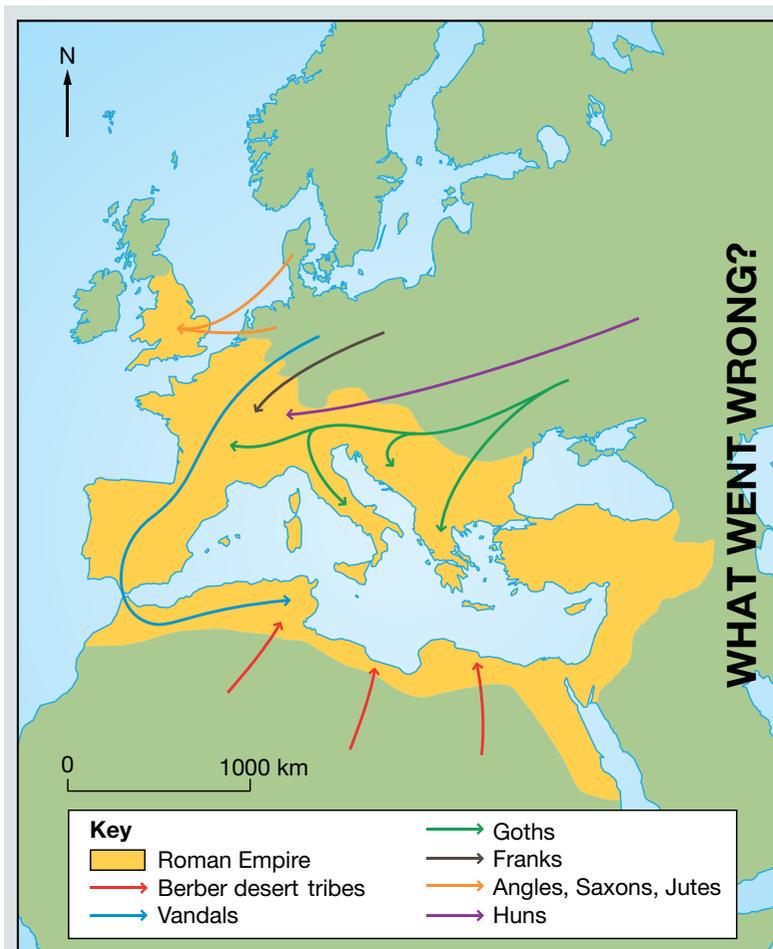
SOURCE 4.10 A nineteenth-century CE wood engraving that depicts the last western emperor of Rome, Romulus Augustus, submitting to the barbarian Odoacer, who was a Germanic commander in the Roman army, in 476 CE

- Q**
- 1 How can you identify which figures in this engraving are Romans and which are barbarians?
 - 2 Is this a primary or a secondary source? Explain your answer.
 - 3 How useful is this source to us as historians? Explain.

SOURCE 4.11 The fall of the Roman Empire



- 1 What was the name of the barbarians who invaded the Italian peninsula, and where did they come from?
- 2 What present-day countries did the Saxons and Angles come from? What part of the Roman Empire did they invade?



WHAT WENT WRONG?

The Empire became too large. At its largest there were 26 000 kilometres of borders to guard and patrol. About 13 000 kilometres were inland frontiers bordering the lands of barbarians. The Roman army was not big enough to be able to guard all borders.

The Empire needed huge amounts of money to maintain the territory; for roads, aqueducts, transport and buildings, and to pay for the army. Taxes were continually increased, but there still was not enough money to pay for all of this.

The Roman army had allowed mercenary soldiers to join due to shortages of men. A mercenary is a soldier who fights for a country but is not a citizen of that country. Many barbarians had joined the army but they eventually turned on the Romans.

In Rome there continued to be fighting among generals for the position of emperor. They fought with each other, instead of uniting against Rome's many enemies. Political unrest continued.

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient Rome' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- | | |
|----------------|--------------------|
| ■ auxiliary | ■ emperor |
| ■ barbarians | ■ Hadrian's Wall |
| ■ civilisation | ■ legions |
| ■ cohorts | ■ Praetorian Guard |

#2 Look at Source 4.8.

- How many men were in a cohort in the Roman army?
- How many men were in a legion?
- In 200 CE, Rome had thirty legions. How many men made up the Roman army at that time?

#3 Look at Source 4.11, showing the fall of the Roman Empire.

- How many different barbarian tribes lived on the borders of the Roman Empire?
- Which barbarian tribes invaded northern Africa?
- How did the size of the Empire contribute to its downfall?
- What is a mercenary soldier and what did they have to do with the collapse of the Empire?

understanding & analysing

#4 Read 'End of the Republic' and examine Source 4.3 carefully to enable you to create a detailed flow chart explaining the sequence of events that led Rome from Republic to Empire.

#5 Rome was a military empire, yet it was safer for an emperor to be on the battlefield than to be involved in politics in Rome. Explain how this could be the case.

#6 Look at Sources 4.7 and 4.8.

- Compare the size of the army in 200 BCE with its size in 200 CE.
- Describe one major reform that Consul Marius made to the army.
- Why did the size of the Roman army change after the Marian reforms?

#7 Look at Source 4.1. Trajan's Column was one of many war memorials built by the Romans.

- Describe a scene shown on Trajan's Column.
- What conclusions can you come to about the Roman army by looking at this scene?

understanding, analysing & evaluating

#8 a Explain the Roman system of government during the Empire. Who had power? Who made the laws?

b Was this system of government in the best interests of Romans? Explain your answer, giving one reason.

#9 a In the opinion of the Romans, who were the barbarians?

b What three words might Romans have used to describe the characteristics of barbarians?

c Give the names of any two countries today whose citizens the Ancient Romans would have considered to be barbarians.

d Would the Romans ever have considered the Ancient Egyptians to be barbarians? Explain your answer.

e In your opinion, were the Romans justified in calling other civilisations barbarians? Give an explanation for your opinion.

creating

#10 A new army legion is to be established. You have the task of naming the legion and designing its standard. Draw the standard, including four decorations. Label each part and explain the significance of the decorations you selected.

#11 Create a concept map that shows the reasons for the end of the Roman Empire.

DAILY LIFE

SOURCE 5.1 An *insula* or apartment block at Trajan's Markets in Rome

Q 1 How many storeys high does this *insula* appear to be?

2 Where do you think the markets were?

HOUSES

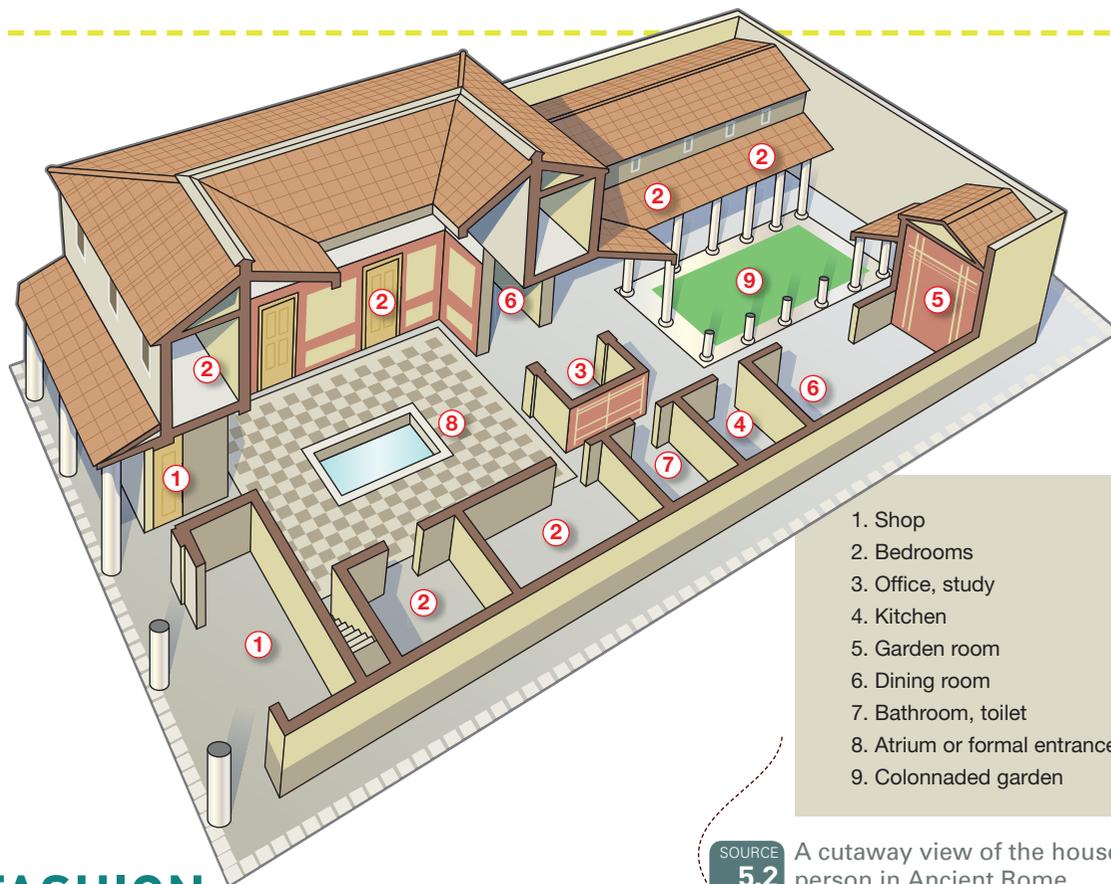
The houses of the wealthy in Ancient Rome were very different from those of the poor. Only the rich could afford a city house or country villa. Most people lived in crowded apartment-style dwellings, up to six storeys high, called *insulae*. The census of 350 CE listed 44 173 *insulae* and 1782 private houses.

ROMAN *INSULAE*

The apartments on the lower floors of *insulae* were made of brick and were large and comfortable. Upper-storey flats were often made of wood and were drafty and small. None of the flats had toilets, running water or kitchens. People used public toilets and had to carry water up to their flats. The ground floor of the block was rented out as shops. *Insula* (plural *insulae*) is the Latin word for an island, and these very large apartment blocks were called *insulae* because they took so much area that they were like a small island. *Insulae* were often badly made with poor-quality materials, so cracks appeared and whole buildings collapsed. Slums grew in parts of Rome where buildings were crammed together and poorly made.

HOUSES OF WEALTHY ROMANS

Houses of the wealthy were built around an open courtyard called an atrium, and had enough rooms for the family and servants. Houses were richly decorated with mosaics on the floors and frescoes on the walls. Mosaics are pictures made by setting small, coloured tiles into the floor. Frescoes are paintings done on plaster walls. Houses had raised floors, which allowed hot air to flow under the rooms for heating. An outside furnace provided the heated air. This type of heating system is called a **hypocaust**. The wealthy had private bathrooms and a toilet. Only the rich could afford pipes to bring water into their houses from the aqueducts that carried the city's water supply.



1. Shop
2. Bedrooms
3. Office, study
4. Kitchen
5. Garden room
6. Dining room
7. Bathroom, toilet
8. Atrium or formal entrance hall
9. Colonnaded garden

FASHION

The social rank of people in Ancient Rome was shown by the clothes they wore. All people, wealthy and poor, male and female, wore a basic tunic with a belt or cord at the waist. Clothes were not sewn together but were tied or fastened with decorative brooches called *fibulae*. These were like pieces of jewellery made of gold, silver or bronze, and they worked like a safety pin.

Footwear was basic. The leather sandal was the standard indoor shoe but the wealthy considered sandals improper footwear in public. Out of doors a soft leather shoe was worn. Social status was shown by shoe colour. Patricians wore red shoes. Women wore white, green or yellow shoes. Senators wore brown with black straps, and consuls wore white shoes. The poor went barefoot.

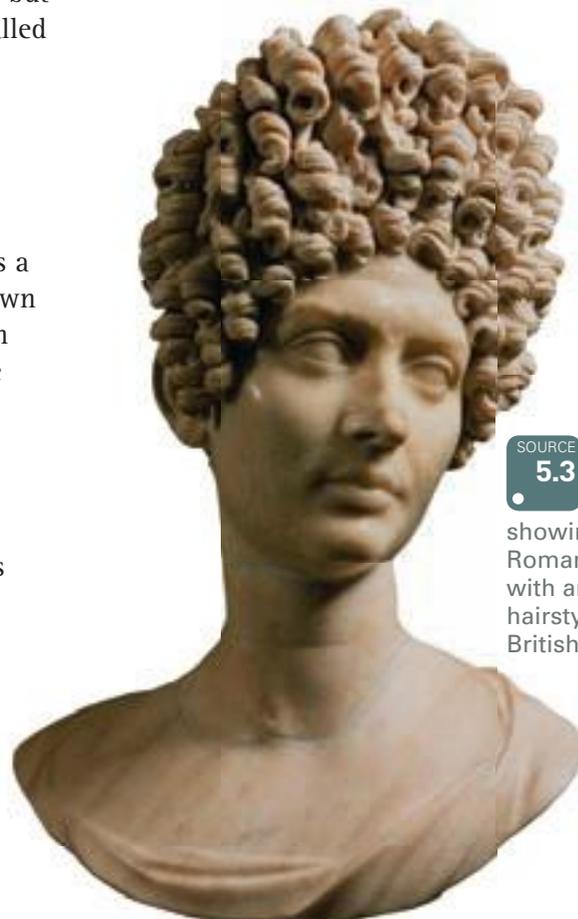
Wealthy women took pride in their appearance, and so followed the fashion in hairstyles and make-up. Highly polished metal served as mirrors so hair and make-up could be arranged. Roman women usually wore their hair up in carefully arranged styles held with jewelled hairpins. False hairpieces were used to make hair look thicker and longer. Wealthy women sometimes had hairpieces made for them from the hair of their slave girls. Hair was dyed to a fashionable golden-red colour.

SOURCE
5.2

A cutaway view of the house of a wealthy person in Ancient Rome

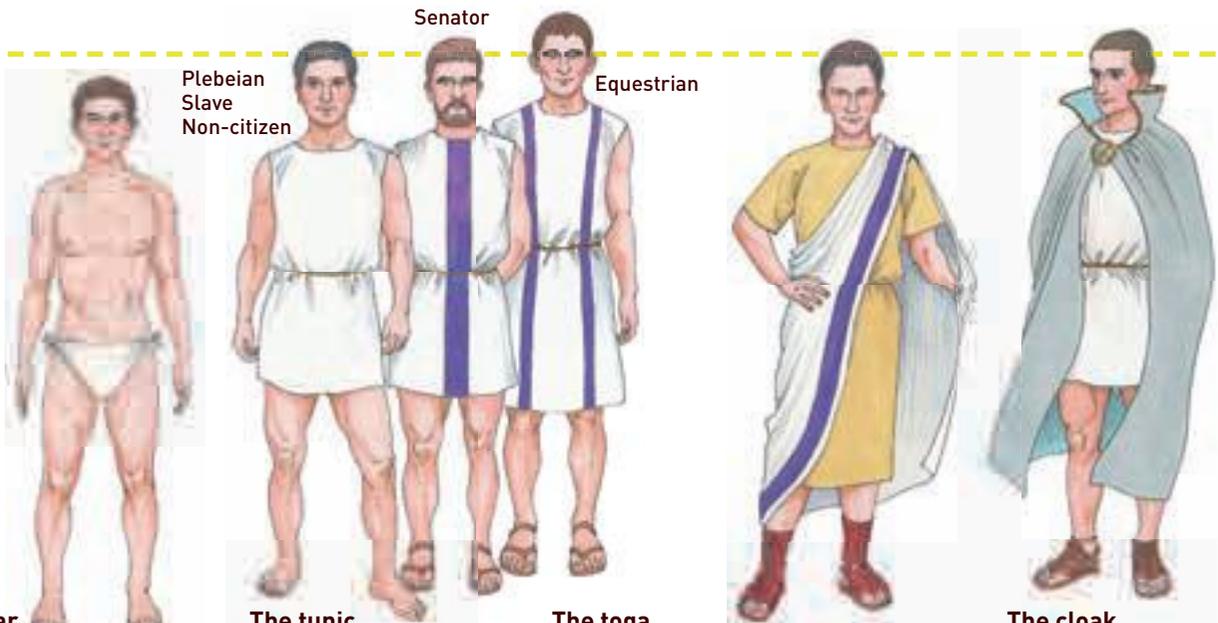


- 1 Where are the garden and atrium in relation to the rooms?
- 2 What do you think the exterior of the house would have looked like?



SOURCE
5.3

This bust or statue from 120 CE, showing a patrician Roman woman with an elaborate hairstyle, is in the British Museum.



Underwear

- A loincloth knotted at the sides
- Made of linen

The tunic

- Standard clothing in Rome
- Worn by all males from the emperor down to slaves
- Showed social rank by different markings—purple dye was one of the costliest items in the ancient world
- Tied at the waist with a belt
- Made of soft wool or linen

The toga

- Worn only by free Roman citizens—could not be worn by non-citizens or foreigners
- Seen as a sign of citizenship—it was improper for a citizen to be seen in public without a toga
- Seen as a sign of peace since it was not worn by soldiers
- Showed social rank by different markings
- A piece of material about 4 metres long that was draped around the body like a blanket
- Made of wool, it was an outdoor and ceremonial garment

The cloak

- Worn over other garments when it was cold
- Worn by soldiers, the wealthy and the poor
- Similar in design for all, but the wealthy wore brighter colours while the poor wore dark, dull colours

SOURCE 5.4 Clothes worn by Roman men

Q What differences were there between the clothes worn by a slave and those worn by a senator?

DID YOU KNOW

WHERE THE WORD 'CANDIDATE' CAME FROM?

In ancient Rome, people campaigning for election to government would whiten their togas with chalk so they would be noticed—and be more likely to be elected. The Latin for 'white toga' is *toga candida*. In English, a person who puts himself or herself forward for government office is called a candidate.

SOURCE 5.5 Clothes worn by Roman women

Q What was a *stola*, and who would have worn one?



Underwear

- A loincloth tied at the sides
- A cloth band tied tightly over the body, like a brassiere—under clothes and covering the bust, or over clothes and below the bust



The tunic

- Longer than a man's tunic
- Could have long sleeves, short sleeves or no sleeves

The stola

- Outer tunic worn over another tunic
- Usually shorter than the inner tunic, to show layers—layering displayed this way was a sign of wealth, as was a border on the hem of the tunic or stola

The pallia

- Like a small toga draped over the body

ENTERTAINMENT

Entertainment was an important part of Roman life. All Romans went to the public baths to wash and to socialise with friends. Every town had at least one bathhouse, and Rome had hundreds of them. Men and women were not permitted to bathe together. At the baths, Romans proceeded through four rooms, each at a higher temperature than the last. In the hottest room slaves would rub oil on the bathers' skin and then scrape the skin with a metal tool. This method was used for cleaning as there was no soap. As well as the bathing areas, bathhouses had shops that sold food, ointments and clothes, and had gardens, libraries and gymnasiums.

Chariot racing was a favourite pastime. Chariot races were held in venues called circuses. The **Circus Maximus**, which means the 'greatest circus', was the largest in Rome. A chariot was a light, open two-wheeled cart pulled by two, three or four horses. The riders raced up the track, turned at the end post and raced back again to complete a lap. One race consisted of seven laps. The sport was dangerous. Chariots overturned easily and drivers could be dragged many metres along the track. Often, drivers and horses were killed.

Gladiator contests were very popular and were held in the arena of an amphitheatre. The greatest amphitheatre of all was the **Colosseum**, originally known as the Flavian Amphitheatre, in Rome. Gladiators were usually slaves and condemned criminals but some were volunteers. Rich Romans paid for the shows to be run but entry was free for the public. In small towns the amphitheatre usually provided the only entertainment.

SOURCE
5.6

A public bathing house in the Roman Forum. This hot room had under-floor heating and air ducts in its walls so the whole room was full of steam, like a sauna.



- 1 Why are there holes in the ceiling?
- 2 What do you think the huge basin in the centre of the room was used for?

RELIGION

Romans worshipped many gods and believed that different gods controlled different aspects of their lives. The gods were so important that rulers consulted priests before making decisions and farmers only planted crops when the gods approved. People had shrines to the gods in their homes so their welfare and possessions would be looked after. Each family had a shrine with a statue of Vesta, the goddess who looked after preparation of food and the eating of meals.

Roman gods were easily angered so Romans regularly sacrificed animals to the gods to prevent disasters. Priests made sure the sacrifice was done in the way the gods wanted.

Romans believed that after death they would go to an underworld in the centre of the Earth that was

the home of the god Pluto. They believed the spirit of a dead person was ferried across the River Styx to **Hades**, which was the land of the dead. Spirits were judged there: the good went to heaven and the bad went to hell. The dead person had to pay a fare to Charon, the ferryman, so a coin was put under the dead person's tongue at the funeral.

THAT SOME ROMAN GODS ARE STILL WITH US TODAY?

Janus, the god for starting things, gives his name to January. Saturday is named after the Roman god Saturn, who was the father of all the gods.

DID YOU KNOW

SOURCE 5.7 The Colosseum was the venue for gladiator fights in Ancient Rome.



IMPORTANT ROMAN GODS

Vulcan was the god of fire, metalwork and craftsmen. Vulcan's forge, where he worked as a blacksmith, was under Mount Etna. If he was angered, it was said, Mount Etna would erupt.

Mercury, the winged god who was messenger to the gods, was small, clever and cunning. He was the god of trade but also god of thieves.

Mars was the god of war and was worshipped by the Roman army. Mars was father to Romulus and Remus.

Minerva was one of the greatest gods and had many powers. She was goddess of wisdom, good advice, science, arts, weaving and warfare.



SOURCE
5.8

The god Mars. This statue from about 100 CE is in the Capitoline Museums, Rome.



SOURCE
5.9

The goddess Minerva. This statue is in the gardens of the Peterhof Palace, Russia.

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient Rome' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- Circus Maximus
- hypocaust
- Colosseum
- *insulae*
- Hades
- toga

- #2**
- a Describe the clothes worn by plebeians.
 - b Describe the appearance of a fashionable, wealthy Roman woman.
 - c The Ancient Romans did not sew their clothes. How do you think their clothes were put together?
 - d Look at the following list of items and state whether each one was part of a Roman man's or a Roman woman's wardrobe: toga, yellow shoes, *palla*, white tunic, white tunic with wide purple stripe, *stola*, brown shoes.

remembering & understanding

#3 Match the entertainment venues with the activities, people and animals associated with them.

Entertainment venues	Activities, people and animals
public baths Colosseum Circus Maximus	gladiators bathing chariot racing shopping fighting horses wild animals

understanding & analysing

#4 Draw a Venn diagram to show the similarities and differences between the houses of the rich and the poor in Rome.

- #5**
- a What connection did Romulus and Remus, the founders of Rome, have with the gods?
 - b What did Roman families fear would happen if they did not worship their statue of Vesta?
 - c Why did Romans place a coin under a dead person's tongue at the funeral?
 - d Why do you think Romans found it necessary to have so many gods?

creating

#6 The Roman emperor is concerned at the number of gladiator accidents and deaths at the Colosseum. He has decided that gladiators need a god to protect them. Your task is to think about what this new god should be like. Name the god and make a drawing of him or her. Write a description of the god that includes:

- the god's appearance
- the god's powers
- where the god lives
- whom the god protects
- when and how the god should be worshipped
- what would please and displease the god
- what might happen if the god were angered in any way.

LEARNING
ACTIVITIES

THE DISCOVERY AND EXCAVATION OF THE ANCIENT ROMAN TOWN OF POMPEII

provides a real and unspoilt understanding of daily life in Ancient Rome. The town is like an open-air museum where archaeological digs still continue today. In Pompeii 44 hectares have been excavated and are visible. Archaeologists estimate there are a further 22 hectares left buried under volcanic debris.

THE ERUPTION OF VESUVIUS

Pompeii is located on the Bay of Naples, at the base of Mount Vesuvius. It was a thriving and bustling town and was used by wealthy Romans for summer holidays. Pompeii was the administrative and trading centre in the region for crops, wine and olive oil. All of that changed in the early morning of 24 August 79 CE, when Vesuvius suddenly erupted.

Romans recognised Vesuvius as a volcano from its flat top, but thought it was extinct. Before the eruption of 79 CE no Roman record existed of any eruption. A major earthquake in 63 CE should have warned residents of a possible eruption, but at that time the connection between earthquakes and volcanic eruptions was not known.

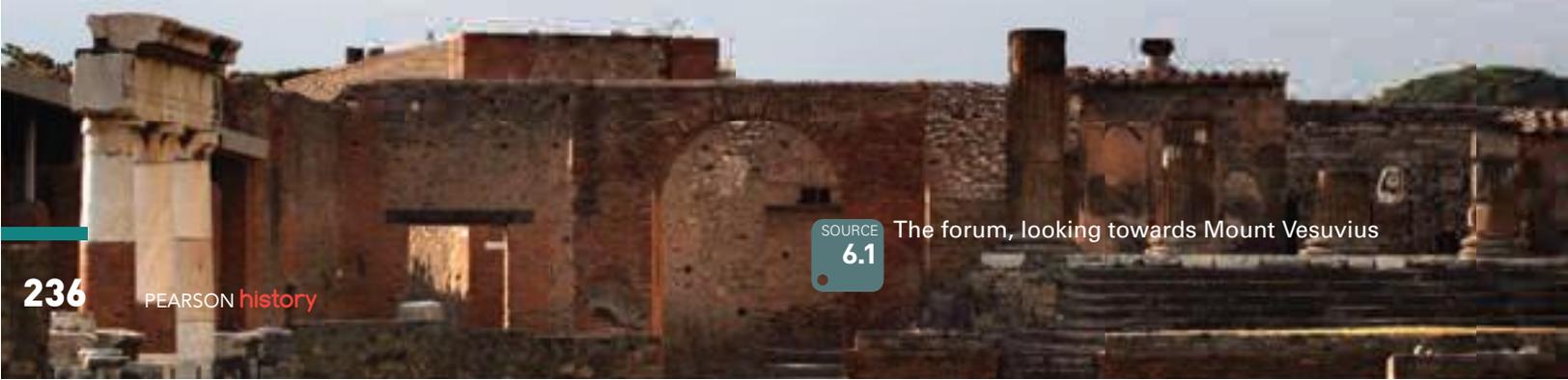
The eruption in 79 CE was therefore totally unexpected. At first, ash and pumice fell on the nearby towns, including Pompeii. Pumice is a light volcanic rock full of air bubbles. Later, pyroclastic surges began. A pyroclastic surge is like an avalanche, speeding along at ground level and made up of hot ash, volcanic rocks and super-hot volcanic gases. Pompeii was hit by surges

travelling at 100 kilometres an hour. Those people who had not escaped at the beginning of the eruption now had no hope of escape. They were asphyxiated, or suffocated, and buried in the volcanic debris.

In three days Pompeii was buried in tons of volcanic ash up to 3 metres thick. Only a few rooftops remained visible. Pompeii disappeared from the face of the Earth, was abandoned and, with time, was forgotten. The area was later resettled and its rich volcanic soil was used for farming.

PLINY THE YOUNGER

First-hand accounts of these events were written by Pliny the Younger, a witness to the eruption. Pliny the Younger was a young lawyer in Pompeii. His uncle, Pliny the Elder, was a military commander and a friend of the emperor. Both were in the Pompeii region during the eruption. Pliny the Elder died trying to help friends escape. Pliny the Younger wrote such detailed accounts of the events that historians have reconstructed what happened.



The cloud was rising from ... Vesuvius. I can best describe its shape by likening it to a pine tree. It rose into the sky on a long 'trunk' from which spread some 'branches' ... Ash was falling onto the ships ... Now it had bits of pumice, and rocks that were blackened ... It was daylight now elsewhere in the world, but there the darkness was darker and thicker than any night ... Then came a smell of sulphur, announcing the flames ... breathing was obstructed by the dust-laden air ...

SOURCE 6.2 From Pliny the Younger's observations of the eruption of Vesuvius, 'The Destruction of Pompeii, 79 AD', EyeWitness to History website, 1999

SOURCE 6.3 Excavation of Pompeii has continued since the 1700s CE. Here, archaeological workers in 1961 have uncovered the mummified bodies of two adults and three children.



REDISCOVERING POMPEII

In 1748 CE Pompeii was rediscovered and excavation of the site began. This was 1669 years after the catastrophic eruption of Vesuvius. Diggings were organised and detailed records were kept of the town plan and building designs. There was a systematic excavation of the town, from west to east. By the mid-1800s the method of digging out the streets first to get to the houses was stopped. Instead, houses were reached by working from the roof down, as this better preserved the town. From the 1900s to the present, excavation and restoration have been the focus of archaeological work at Pompeii.

The discoveries at Pompeii provide a wealth of knowledge about the Roman world. Pompeii is a town frozen in time. For centuries, it remained forgotten and preserved under volcanic ash. As archaeologists began removing the volcanic debris, they discovered details of Roman life that no history book could show in such a meaningful and lifelike way. A whole town is emerging: buildings, artwork, entertainment venues, streets, plumbing systems, pottery, glassware, petrified food items, surgical instruments and jewellery. Many remains of victims have also been found, and plaster or resin casts have been made of them.

A tragedy for people nearly 2000 years ago in Pompeii has given rise to a rare and wonderful opportunity for us today.

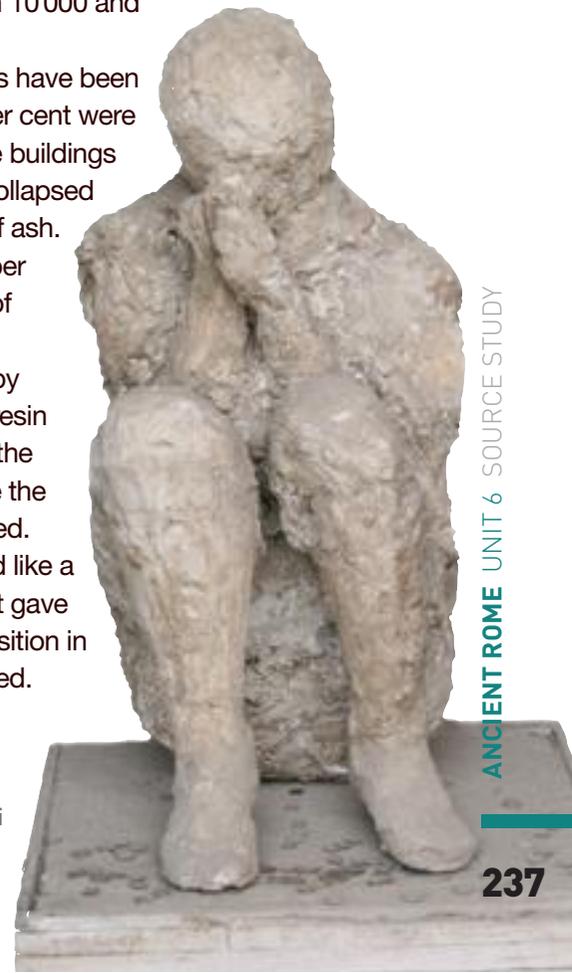
VICTIMS OF THE ERUPTION

Estimates place the population of Pompeii in 79 CE at between 10 000 and 25 000 people.

To date, 800 bodies have been found. About 40 per cent were found buried inside buildings whose roofs had collapsed under the weight of ash.

The remaining 60 per cent were victims of pyroclastic surges.

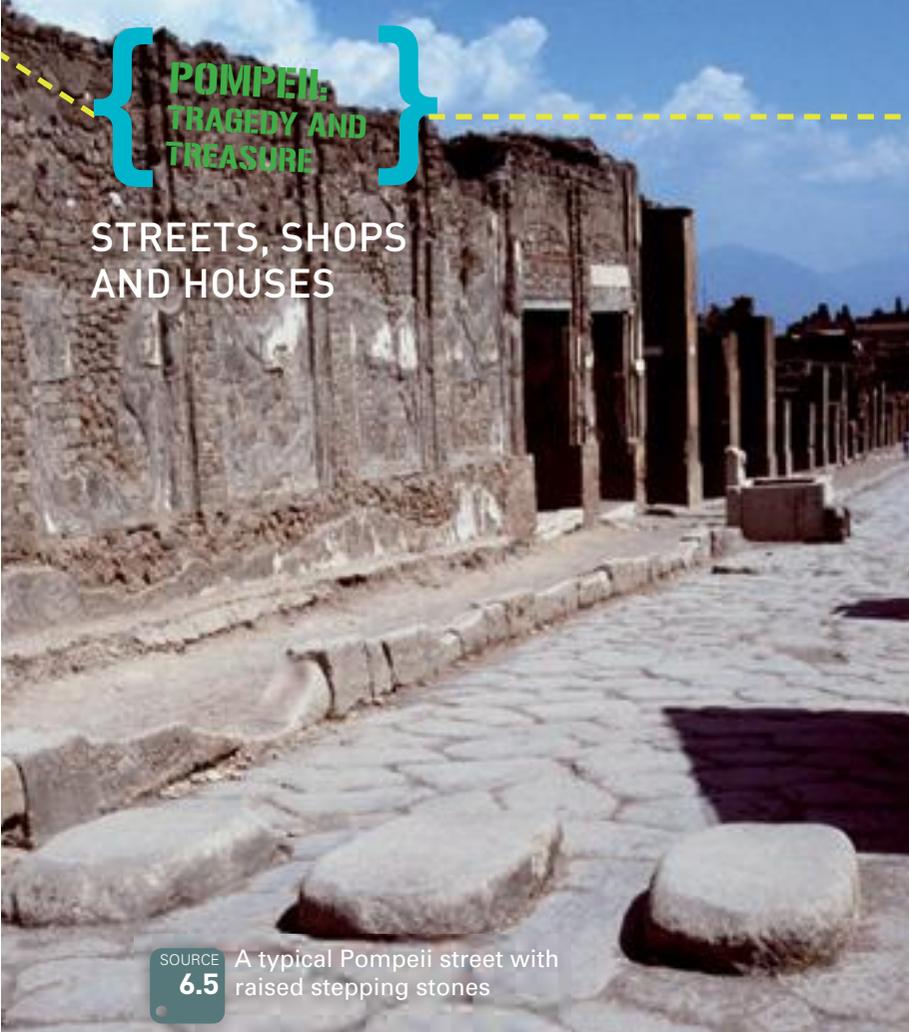
Casts were made by pouring plaster or resin into the hollows in the volcanic ash where the victims were trapped. Each hollow served like a mould and the cast gave an image of the position in which the victim died.



SOURCE 6.4 Plaster cast of a victim from Pompeii

POMPEII: TRAGEDY AND TREASURE

STREETS, SHOPS AND HOUSES



SOURCE 6.5 A typical Pompeii street with raised stepping stones



SOURCE 6.7 A bakery, with the oven on the right and a grinding mill on the left

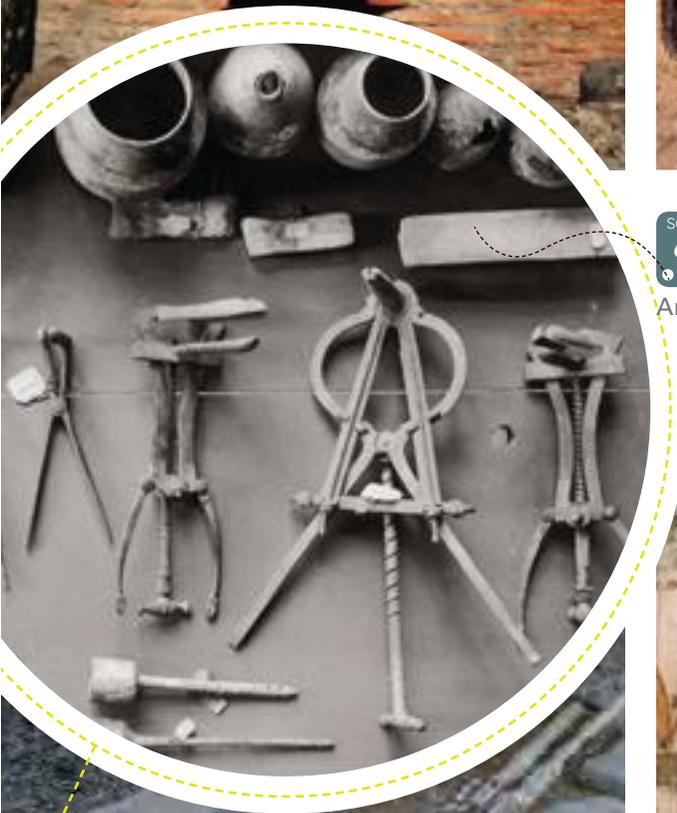
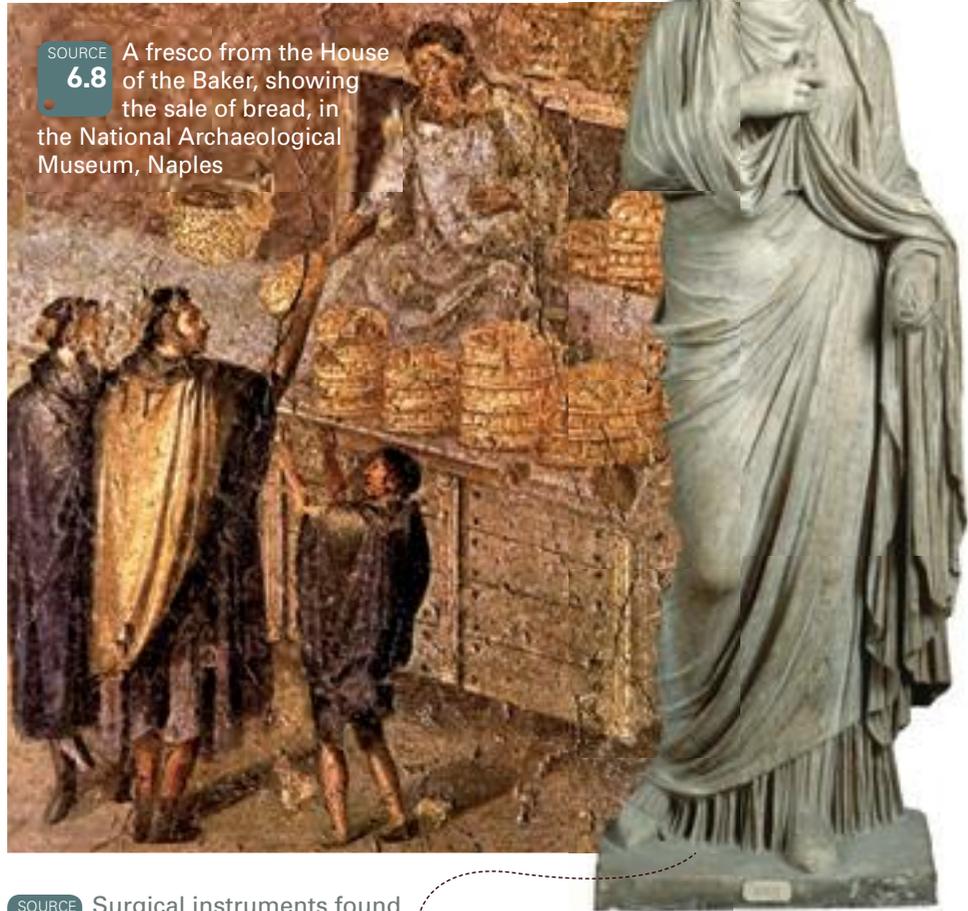


SOURCE 6.6 The garden of the House of Vettii

THE ART OF POMPEII



SOURCE 6.8 A fresco from the House of the Baker, showing the sale of bread, in the National Archaeological Museum, Naples



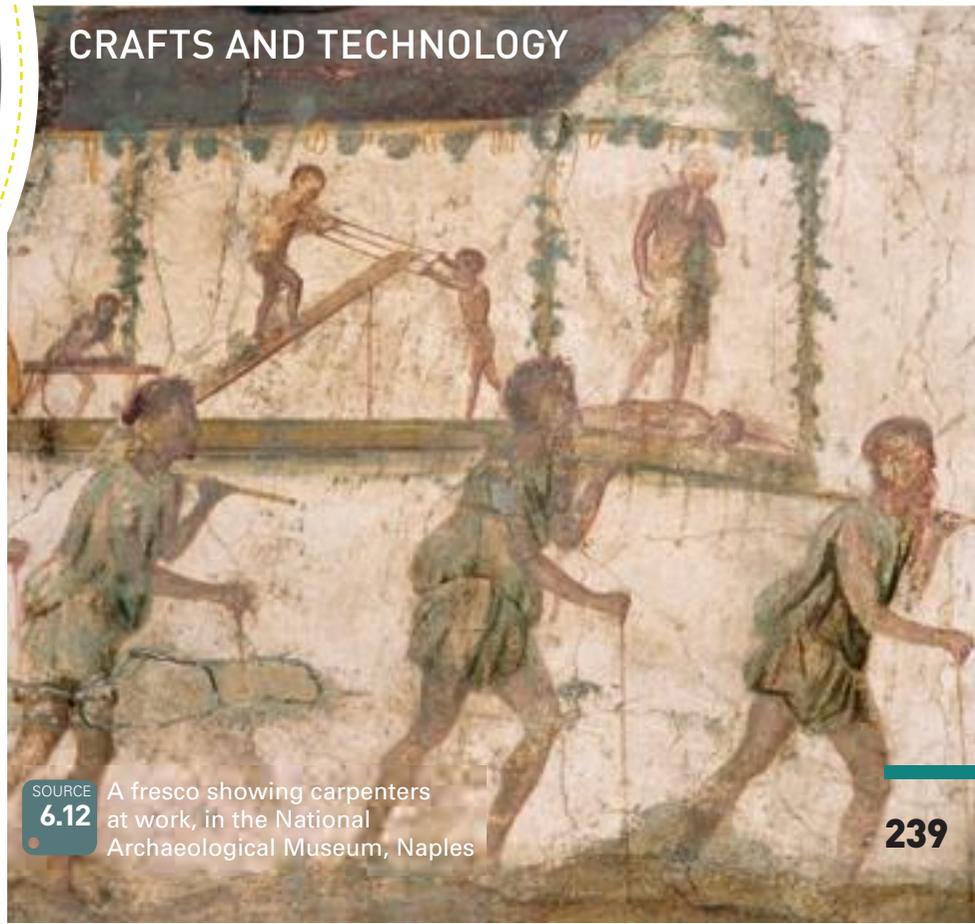
SOURCE 6.10 Surgical instruments found next to a victim of the eruption, in the National Archaeological Museum, Naples

SOURCE 6.9 Marble statue of a woman of Pompeii, in the National Archaeological Museum, Naples

CRAFTS AND TECHNOLOGY



SOURCE 6.11 A lead water pipe found under the street stones



SOURCE 6.12 A fresco showing carpenters at work, in the National Archaeological Museum, Naples

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

1 UNDERSTANDING, ANALYSING & EVALUATING

Read Source 6.2. This source consists of selected sections from letters written by Pliny the Younger, then aged 17 or 18 years, to the Roman historian Tacitus. It provides an eyewitness account of events.

- Is Pliny's letter a reliable source of information for historians? Why or why not?
- Would you classify Pliny's letter as a primary or a secondary source? Explain why.
- Is the information in this book mainly primary or secondary information? Why?
- How would you classify the Pompeii site? Is it a primary or a secondary source of information? Give reasons for your opinion.
- Why do historians learning about the past always prefer to look at primary sources?

2

A large number of works of art have been found in Pompeii. Their state of preservation varies. Pottery, statues and mosaics are reasonably well preserved. Frescoes are generally not in good condition. Artworks are a very valuable source for information about daily life in Pompeii.

Create a chart of three columns. Label the columns 'Type of art', 'Description of art' and 'Conclusion about daily life'. Look at Sources 6.8, 6.9 and 6.13 to complete this chart.

SOURCE 6.13 A floor mosaic from Pompeii, in the National Archaeological Museum, Naples



3 UNDERSTANDING, ANALYSING & EVALUATING

Look at Sources 6.3 and 6.4 to complete parts a and b.

- What conclusion can you reach about what occurred to these victims by looking at their casts?
- As an archaeologist investigating Ancient Roman times, what information can you gain from the plaster casts?

4 ANALYSING & EVALUATING

Look at Sources 6.1, 6.5, 6.7, 6.8 and 6.12, showing street scenes, houses and shops in Pompeii, then answer the questions that follow.

- What evidence is there of businesses that operated to serve the population?
- Examine the street scenes. What do you think is the function of the raised rocks set in regular positions in the street?
- Describe the forum.
- Look carefully at the private house in Source 6.6 to complete the following. Create a chart with two columns. Label the columns 'Description of house' and 'Conclusion about residents'. Fill in the two columns of the chart.

5 UNDERSTANDING, ANALYSING & EVALUATING

Secondary sources tell us that the Romans had developed advanced technologies for their time. Look at the evidence found in Pompeii to judge for yourself. Refer to Sources 6.10, 6.11 and 6.12.

- Pipes of lead and clay were found under streets and in walls as well as sewer drains. How did these technologies make life easier for people in Pompeii?
- What conclusion can you come to about life in Pompeii by looking at these sources?
- What crafts or trades were the local people involved in?

6 UNDERSTANDING, APPLYING & CREATING

Refer to all the sources for inspiration to complete this task.

Imagine you were a resident of Pompeii in 70 CE, nine years before the disastrous eruption of Mount Vesuvius. Write a diary entry outlining a typical day in your life. Try to include ideas from the wide range of sources provided. You may also do more research using the library and the internet. Your diary should include both text and images.

LEGACIES AND CONNECTIONS TO...

UNIT 7

LEGACIES OF ANCIENT ROMAN CIVILISATION

SOURCE 7.1 A Roman aqueduct in present-day Turkey. Notice the use of arches for strength. A channel at the top of the aqueduct allowed water to flow to its destination.

- Q**
- 1 Why was an aqueduct constructed at this location?
 - 2 How is it that a Roman aqueduct is to be found in Turkey?

DID YOU KNOW

THAT TRAJAN IS ALL AROUND US?

The Trajan typeface, designed for Adobe in 1989, is based on Roman 'square capitals' such as those used on the inscriptions around the base of Trajan's Column. Trajan is widely recognised as the 'movie font' and has been used for the titles of many blockbuster movies, including *Titanic* and *Michael Jackson's This Is It*. The designer of the typeface Comic Sans has said that he'd like his epitaph to be in Trajan.

The Roman Empire reached its peak about 2000 years ago. From the time of Rome's emergence until its decline, it was a dynamic, progressive and innovative society. Despite the large time gap between Ancient Roman society and societies today, many Roman ways have filtered down to us. These are called legacies of Roman civilisation. A legacy is something handed down from one person, generation or civilisation to another. It can include a wide range of inherited things, such as objects, technologies, architecture, ways of organising society, government and legal systems and language.

Ancient Rome has had a huge influence on modern societies, especially western societies. In Australia today, Roman influence is evident in the areas of law and order, government, town planning, engineering, architecture and language.

LAW AND ORDER

Romans were the first people to write down laws. First came the Twelve Tables; these laws were later improved and called the Justinian Code.

Australia has a legal system with clearly documented laws to protect citizens, property and maintain law and order.

In Ancient Rome, law trials were held to judge an accused person's innocence or guilt. In serious cases there could be up to 75 citizens on a jury. A lawyer defended the accused person.

Australia has a jury system and a court listens to a case against the accused. A lawyer defends the accused but there are only 12 people on a jury.

GOVERNMENT

Rome's system of government had a leader, the Senate and Assemblies to discuss issues, give advice and make laws.

Australia has two houses of parliament, called the Senate and the House of Representatives, to discuss issues and make laws.

Rome developed a professional, well trained and paid army. It protected Rome and acted like a police force to maintain law and order.

Australia has a professional army to protect the country but has a separate police force.

TOWN PLANNING

Romans built about 85 000 kilometres of roads, some of which are still in use today. The roads were higher in the middle and curved downwards towards drainage ditches at the sides.

Australian roads have the same slight curved surface and gutters at the sides for drainage.

Roman towns were planned on a grid pattern. This was an organised system of roads that intersected at right angles and divided the town up into blocks.

Most Australian towns and cities are planned on a grid pattern.

ENGINEERING

The Romans built aqueducts that carried water over long distances from mountain springs to towns. Town water supplies were distributed further by lead, clay and wooden pipes.

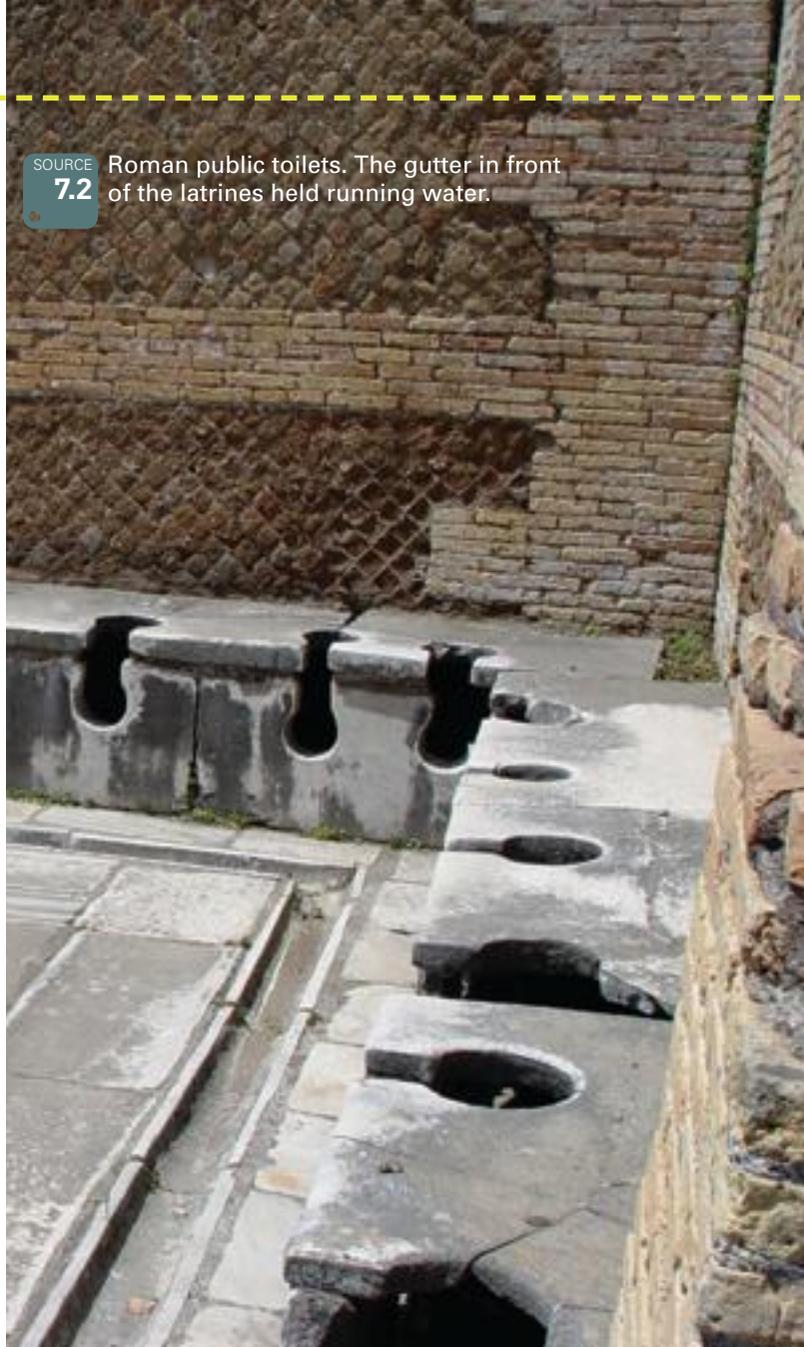
The water supply system of modern cities and towns follows the Roman model but is more sophisticated. Water is collected in dams, then pipes transport it to population areas.

Romans were hygiene-conscious. A public toilet (see Source 7.2) consisted of a bench with holes, under which ran a drain. There was a ditch or gutter nearby with running water, which people used to wash out a sponge before cleaning themselves with it.

Australia has more advanced toilets than those of Rome although those in many remote areas still drain into basic septic tanks.

SOURCE
7.2

Roman public toilets. The gutter in front of the latrines held running water.



SOURCE
7.3

The Roman hypocaust system of heating buildings. A space was created under the building by supporting the floor on brick pillars.





The Romans invented a central heating system called a hypocaust (see Source 7.3). Floors of houses or public baths were built on raised brick pillars. Hot air from a fire circulated under the building and into cavities in the wall to heat the building.

Modern central heating works on the same principle as the hypocaust system. A heater warms the air and a fan circulates it through the building.

ARCHITECTURE

The Romans invented concrete. The best concrete was made of crushed limestone and volcanic ash from Vesuvius. It allowed the Romans to build tall structures such as the Colosseum.

Concrete is used widely in building today because of its great strength, ready availability and ease of use.

Romans were the first to build domes and arches on a huge scale. The Pantheon in Rome is a large circular building supporting a dome. The dome was made by pouring concrete over a wooden frame.

Domes and arches are common architectural features today.

SOURCE
7.4 The interior of the Pantheon in Rome. This building, which has a dome made of concrete, was completed in 126 CE.

LANGUAGE

The official language of Ancient Rome was Latin. The 22-letter Latin alphabet was: A B C D E F G H I K L M N O P Q R S T V X Z.

The English alphabet is based on the Latin alphabet with the addition of an extra four letters: J, U, W and Y.

Latin was spoken throughout the Empire. Even after the decline of Rome, Latin remained the language of the Roman Catholic Church.

English has borrowed many words from Latin. Latin influenced French, Romanian, modern Italian, Spanish and Portuguese, which are called Romance languages because of their Roman roots.

SOME LATIN WORDS AND THEIR MEANINGS IN ENGLISH

Latin	English	English derived from Latin
<i>aqua</i>	water	aquatic, aqueous
<i>terra</i>	land	terrain, terrestrial
<i>video</i>	to see	video, visible, vision
<i>vehiculum</i>	wagon	vehicle
<i>et cetera</i>	and the rest	etc.
<i>ante meridiem</i>	before noon	a.m.
<i>post meridiem</i>	after noon	p.m.
<i>post scriptum</i>	after what is written	PS

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE ROMANS USED LETTERS AS NUMBERS?

These letters, which we call Roman numerals, were written in a row. Depending on the order in which they were written, some had to be added and others subtracted to work out the total number shown.

ROMAN NUMERALS

I = 1

V = 5

X = 10

L = 50

C = 100

D = 500

M = 1000

TIME TO THINK ...

1 CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

- a** Why do you think the Ancient Roman civilisation was so successful for such a long time?
- b** In what ways did Romans adapt to their environment?

2 EVIDENCE AND HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

- a** What sort of relations did Ancient Rome have with neighbouring countries? Does Australia have the same or a different type of relationship with its neighbours? Explain.
- b** Why is it important to learn about ancient civilisations such as Ancient Rome?

3 HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE AND HERITAGE

- a** What do you think was the greatest Roman achievement, and why?
- b** What is Ancient Rome's most important legacy to us? Why do you think that?

INQUIRY

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU ANSWER THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS FROM THE START OF THE CHAPTER.

TASKS

#1 advertising a historic site

You have been asked to **prepare an advertising campaign** for Vindolanda, an archaeological site at a Roman fort in England. The campaign must be informative as well as attract visitors to the site.

- Conduct research into Vindolanda, both in the past and the present. Use a two-column chart to record information. One column can be titled 'Vindolanda in Roman times' and the other, 'Vindolanda today'. Include the following information: location, age, the builders and occupants of the site, the purpose of the site, daily life there, what remains today, attractions for visitors today, the historical significance of the site, the facilities available, how to get there and anything else that is relevant.
- Prepare an advertising campaign designed to attract the general public to Vindolanda. You could consider developing a poster, a pamphlet, a website or a television advertisement. Produce the advertisement.

#2 resettling a population

The year is 80 CE. Four months ago, the eruption of Vesuvius killed thousands in Pompeii and left tens of thousands of survivors homeless. The Roman emperor has decided that a new town, to be called New Pompeii, must be built somewhere nearby to resettle the survivors. A group of you have been sent by the emperor to carry out this task. You are all experts in town planning, engineering and building.

- Draw a map of the Bay of Naples area, showing rivers, mountains and seas. Select a suitable location for New Pompeii and mark it on the map. Write a report outlining your reasons for selecting this site as the most suitable for the new town.
- Before drawing up the town plan for New Pompeii, do some research into old Pompeii and note all the features of the old town that should be included in the new one. List these desirable features in a table of two columns. The first column should list the type of feature. The second

#3 launching Ancient Rome into outer space

NASA launched the first message from humankind into space on board *Pioneer 10* in 1972 CE. Another deep space satellite is to be launched in 2015 and NASA intends sending another message from Earth that focuses on humankind's greatest and most influential achievements. The ancient civilisations are to be represented by Rome. **Your team has the task of developing this message.**

- Conduct some research into Ancient Rome's achievements and its legacies to humankind. You could record this information on a table of three columns under the headings 'List of achievements', 'Description of achievement' and 'Evidence of influence on other societies'.
- Select the achievements you think would most impress an alien species. Prepare the message that is to be launched into space with the satellite. Your team should remember there may be language difficulties in communicating with aliens, so the message could be largely in diagram form. Ancient Rome's influence on later civilisations should be clearly demonstrated.
- In addition to preparing the satellite message itself, NASA requires you to write a brief justification for the message you designed. Describe what your team included in the message and why you included it.

- column should explain its function. Also note any features of old Pompeii you could improve upon.
- Draw the town plan for New Pompeii. Fully label all parts of the town.
- Select one aspect of advanced technology (in Ancient Roman terms) to be used in building the new town. This could be the system of heating buildings, plumbing, construction of tall buildings, construction of aqueducts, road making, water supply to the town or some other technology. Describe this technology and how it works or is carried out.

#4 meeting the Chinese ambassador

The Roman Empire in Europe and the Chinese Han Dynasty in Asia were both superpowers in their regions at about the same time. There is evidence of meetings between ambassadors of these two empires.

An ambassador is a government official sent to another country to represent his or her country.

Imagine that you and your group are Roman senators who have been given the task of looking after the visiting Chinese ambassador to Rome. You want to impress the Chinese ambassador with Rome's achievements and power. The ambassador is especially interested in Rome's legendary army and how the Empire keeps control of its territory.

- Conduct some research into the Roman Empire. Record your findings on a chart. Some aspects to focus on are: how the Empire grew, the role of the army in the growth of the Empire, army organisation and tactics, and protection of borders against the barbarians. Also look at why empires can decline from power.
- Draw an annotated map of the Roman Empire to show the locations you would take the Chinese ambassador to visit. He is especially interested in the expansion and control of the Empire. The places visited should be the best examples of military successes. Make sure your annotations clearly explain why you selected each of these locations for the ambassador to see.
- As the Chinese Ambassador does not want either China or Rome to decline as the Ancient Greek and Egyptian civilisations did, he gives a passionate speech to the Roman Senate. In it he explains why empires decline and suggests ways to prevent this happening. Write the speech that the Chinese ambassador gives to the Senate.

#5 interviewing a clone

Modern science has made it possible to clone an organism, or make an identical organism using some of the original DNA. **The technology has enabled Julius Caesar and his adopted son Augustus to be cloned** and brought back to life. You and your group are reporters for a large media company. You have been given the unique chance to meet and interview either Julius Caesar or Augustus Caesar. You want to find out about his life, his achievements and what he thinks of the world today.

- You should conduct research into the life of Julius Caesar or Augustus Caesar to prepare for the interview. You could record your findings on an annotated timeline.
- Create at least ten key questions to ask your chosen subject. These should cover all aspects of his life. They should be 'open-ended' questions—meaning they will draw out a detailed answer, not just a 'yes' or 'no' reply.
- At the end of the interview give your subject the chance to ask you some questions. Remember, he has jumped 2000 years in time and must be bursting with curiosity and bewilderment. Consider what questions he might want to ask.
- Carry out the interview by asking Julius Caesar or Augustus Caesar the questions you have prepared and having him give answers. Invite your subject to ask his own questions and give him your detailed replies. Record the interview in audio or visual form. One student could take the part of Julius Caesar or Augustus Caesar and others could be the reporters.



SOURCE
8.1

This marble statue of Augustus Caesar from the first century CE is in the Vatican Museums, Rome. It may be a copy of an even earlier bronze original, now lost, and it may once have been painted in colours. It was found in 1860 in the villa where Livia, Augustus's widow, lived after his death.



KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

How and where did the civilisation of Ancient China develop?

What archaeological discoveries and types of evidence have enabled historians to understand Ancient Chinese society?

Who, and which philosophies, shaped the nature of Ancient Chinese society?

What technological discoveries did the Ancient Chinese make and how did these influence other civilisations?



Beginning in about 2200 BCE, **China** established Asia's greatest civilisation. Its rich and complex history, shaped both by war and by philosophy, was full of contrasts.

ANCIENT

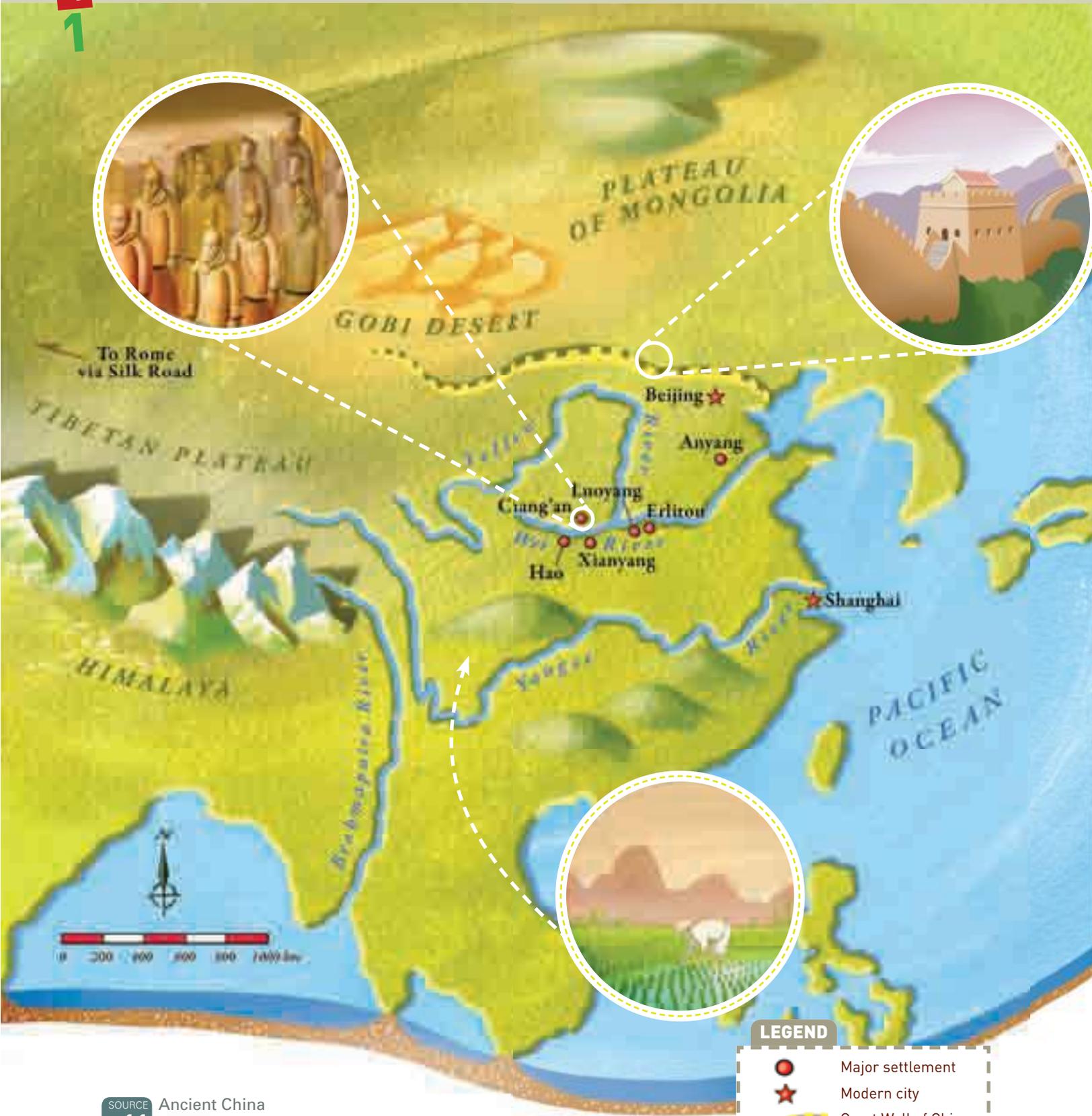


FINNA



SOURCE
0.1 A terracotta
statue in
the tomb
of Shi Huangdi,
near Xian

SNAPSHOT



LEGEND

-  Major settlement
-  Modern city
-  Great Wall of China

SOURCE Ancient China

1.1



2205 Yu, the last of the sage-kings, establishes the Xia dynasty

2000 BCE

2205–1766 BCE
Xia dynasty

1700? Silk is first produced

1500 BCE

1766–1122 BCE
Shang dynasty

1122 King Wu of Zhou defeats Di Xin, the last Shang king

1000 BCE

1122–481 BCE
Zhou dynasty

771 Zhou capital is moved from Hao to Luoyang

551 Confucius is born

500 BCE Crossbow is invented

481–221 BCE
Warring States period

372 Mencius is born

221 Qin conquers Warring States

210 Shi Huangdi dies

202 Liu Bang conquers his rivals and establishes the Han dynasty

124 Emperor Wudi establishes the Imperial Academy

100? Sima Qian completes *Historical Records*

1 CE

202 BCE – 220 CE
Han dynasty

200? Paper is invented

220 Han dynasty ends

SOURCE
1.2 Timeline of Ancient China

ANCIENT CHINA AND ITS GEOGRAPHY

Much of China's history has been shaped by its geography. China is a vast country almost completely surrounded by natural barriers. The Gobi Desert and the rolling plains of Mongolia are to the north and the vast expanses of the Pacific Ocean are to the east. To the south are the ragged mountain ranges and dense, steamy jungles of Vietnam, Burma and Thailand, and to the west is the Tibetan Plateau, the loftiest highland area in the world. Within these natural barriers lies a fertile land of rivers, forests, grasslands and hills containing an abundance of natural resources. This geography allowed the Ancient Chinese to develop a unique civilisation with little influence from other peoples.

EARLY SETTLEMENTS

The earliest settlements developed along the valleys of the Yangzi and Yellow rivers. Access to fresh water and the temperate climate made these areas suitable for growing crops. Archaeological evidence shows that the Chinese were among the earliest societies to develop agriculture. Some archaeologists believe the Chinese were farming as early as 4500 BCE.

THE RISE OF THE DYNASTIES

The early settlements in the Yangzi and Yellow river valleys grew larger and over time formed into states. These states were controlled by warlords who fought each other for land and wealth. The strongest of these warlords eventually took the title of king and formed a **dynasty**.

A dynasty was a system of government where the king (and from the Qin dynasty onwards an emperor or empress) passed on his or her title to another member of the same family. This transfer of authority usually occurred when the king or emperor/empress died.

SOURCE 2.1 A painting of Fuxi, the first divine ruler of China

- Q** 1 Write down three to five adjectives to describe Fuxi.
- 2 Why do you think he is depicted in this way?

XIA, THE FIRST DYNASTY

PREDYNASTIC CHINA

Ancient Chinese historians wrote that, in the beginning of time, China was ruled by three half-human divine rulers: Fuxi, Nuwa and Shennong. These divine rulers are said to have taught the Chinese valuable skills—for example, Fuxi taught the Chinese how to domesticate (tame) animals, such as pigs. The divine rulers were then followed by five virtuous (good) sage-kings or emperors who were human: Huangdi, Zhuanxu, Ku, Yao and Shun. The sage-kings were great rulers because they ruled China for the benefit of the people. According to Ancient Chinese historians, Shun gave his throne to Yu the Great, who founded the Xia dynasty in 2205 BCE.

DISCOVERY OF THE XIA AND SHANG DYNASTIES

By the beginning of the twentieth century CE, Western archaeologists and historians had learnt much about the history of Ancient China by studying numerous artefacts and ancient ruins in China. They had also read the accounts of Ancient China's history in Ancient Chinese texts, which described the two earliest dynasties, the Xia dynasty and the Shang dynasty, as well as the Zhou, Qin and Han dynasties. Although they had discovered archaeological evidence to prove the existence of the later Zhou, Qin and Han dynasties, they doubted whether the Xia and Shang dynasties had actually existed because they had not found any archaeological evidence to **substantiate** (prove) the accounts in the Ancient Chinese texts.

SOURCE 2.2 There were Neolithic civilisations in Ancient China before the Xia dynasty. This red pottery jar is from the Yangshao culture, which existed between 3200 and 2500 BCE.

Q What conclusions can you draw about the Yangshao culture from examining this pottery jar?

The doubts of sceptical Western historians were proved wrong, however, when Chinese archaeologists discovered evidence of an ancient Shang city, as well as a Shang royal cemetery, at Anyang in the early 1930s. In 1959, Chinese archaeologists made an even more important discovery when they unearthed the ruins of an older city at Erlitou, which many historians believe belonged to the Xia dynasty.

ANCIENT TEXTS

Before the archaeological discoveries at Erlitou and Anyang, much of what historians understood about Ancient China during the Xia and Shang dynasties came from a group of texts called the Confucian Classics, or **Five Classics**, and also from Sima Qian's *Historical Records*. The table below summarises the contents of these texts.

ANCIENT CHINESE HISTORICAL AND PHILOSOPHICAL TEXTS

	English title	Chinese title	Author	Date written	Contents
The Five (or Confucian) Classics	<i>Book of Songs</i>	<i>Shijing</i>	attributed to Confucius	c. 8th century BCE	An anthology of poems
	<i>Book of Documents</i>	<i>Shujing</i>	attributed to the Duke of Zhou	c. 10th century BCE	A historical record of events from the Xia dynasty to the Zhou dynasty
	<i>Book of Changes</i>	<i>Yijing</i>	unknown	c. 8th century BCE	A text on fortune-telling
	<i>The Spring and Autumn Annals</i>	<i>Chunqiu</i>	attributed to Confucius	5th century BCE	A historical record of the state of Lu from 722 to 481 BCE
	<i>Book of Rites</i>	<i>Liji</i>	attributed to Confucius	1st century BCE	A text devoted to conducting religious rites and rituals
	<i>Historical Records</i>	<i>Shiji</i>	Sima Qian	2nd – 1st century BCE	A historical record of events from the Xia dynasty to the Zhou dynasty

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your workbook or in a Microsoft® Word document or Excel® file on your computer, create an 'Ancient China' glossary. Begin your glossary by listing these key words or phrases and explaining their meanings:
- dynasty
 - Five Classics
 - sceptical
 - substantiate
- #2** According to myth, who ruled Ancient China before the Xia dynasty?
- #3** When were the ruins at Anyang discovered, and what was found there?

understanding & analysing

- #4** Look at the table above. Compare the *Book of Documents* and the *Historical Records*. Which one might give a more accurate account of the Xia and Shang dynasties? Why?
- #5** Look at the table above. Conduct some further research on the Five Classics to enable you to write a brief description of each one.

evaluating

- #6** Why were the archaeological discoveries at Erlitou and Anyang important? How did they change Western historians' views of the Xia and Shang dynasties?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES



THE SHANG DYNASTY

SOURCE 3.1 A Shang royal burial chamber at the Anyang ruins

Q Describe what you can see in Source 3.1.

THE DISCOVERIES AT ANYANG

In the ruins at Anyang, Chinese archaeologists discovered many artefacts including chariots, Shang bronzes (bronze containers used for holding alcohol or other liquids), weapons and oracle bones (cattle bones and shells with inscriptions on them, used for fortune-telling). These artefacts, particularly the Shang bronzes and the oracle bones, told historians much about what society was like in Ancient China during the Shang dynasty (1766–1122 BCE).

SHANG BRONZES

Shang bronzes were often used as jugs and may have held wine. Some of the later ones had three legs and were probably used for heating wine as well. The designs on Shang bronzes are very detailed. Their surfaces are commonly covered in decorations such as the faces or bodies of mythical creatures. Apart from these decorations, many of the vessels also have inscriptions describing how they should be used and who made them. Many of these vessels were used in rituals for ancestral spirit worship.

Archaeologists initially believed that Shang artisans had copied or adapted the technology for making their bronze vessels from other civilisations. The sophistication of the Shang bronzes and the unique bronze-casting techniques used to create them, however, convinced archaeologists that the Ancient Chinese developed their bronze-working techniques independently.



SOURCE 3.2 A bronze axe blade found in the Shang tomb at Anyang. Beside it were forty-eight headless skeletons of sacrificial victims. Some historians believe the axe blade was used to cut off the victims' heads.

ORACLE BONES

The oracle bones discovered at Anyang, as well as at other locations in northern China, tell historians much about the Shang dynasty. Oracle bones were used for **divining** (telling) the future. Shang **fortune-tellers** would carve questions on the bones and then place the bones in a fire. Small cracks would appear in the bones as a result of the fire's heat and from these cracks fortune-tellers would read the future.

Inscribed on many of the oracle bones are the names of kings from the Shang dynasty. These inscriptions **corroborate** (support) the accounts of the Shang kings in the *Book of Documents*.

Another important feature of the oracle bones is that many of their inscriptions refer to the Zhou kingdom and its relationship with the Shang dynasty. Some refer to the Zhou as an ally of the Shang and others as an enemy. They describe the Zhou as a powerful kingdom before its conquest of the Shang, and tell us that the Shang saw the Zhou as the greatest threat to their authority.

SOURCE
3.3

A Shang bronze in the shape of a tiger holding a child in its jaws. It was made in the twelfth century BCE. It probably held alcohol and was used in rituals. From the Cernuschi Museum, Paris.



- 1 What does it look as though the tiger might do to the child?
- 2 How might this Shang bronze have been used in a ritual?
- 3 What can an artefact such as this one tell us about Ancient Chinese society during the Shang dynasty?



SOURCE
3.4

A Shang oracle bone from the thirteenth or fourteenth century BCE, in the Royal Ontario Museum, Canada

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient China' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- artisans
- fortune-tellers
- corroborate
- inscriptions
- divining

#2 What artefacts were discovered at Anyang? Look back at Sources 3.1 to 3.4 to help answer this question.

#3 What is a Shang bronze? See Source 3.3.

#4 What is an oracle bone? See Source 3.4.

understanding & analysing

#5 Why are oracle bones important pieces of evidence? What do they tell us about the Shang dynasty?

#6 Describe how Shang fortune-tellers divined the future using oracle bones. Give some reasons why a Shang king might want to know about the future.

evaluating & creating

#7 Imagine you were one of the archaeologists who discovered the Shang ruins at Anyang. Draw an annotated floor plan of the dig site—that is, the ruins. Include on your plan where artefacts such as oracle bones and Shang bronzes were discovered and the position of other features such as ancient walls and cooking pits.

LEARNING
ACTIVITIES



SOURCE 4.1 During the Zhou dynasty, bronze bells such as these were rung to initiate formal occasions that might range from a banquet to a war. These bells are part of a set of eight in the Historical Museum of Shaanxi Province that dates from the Western Zhou period.



THE ZHOU DYNASTY

ZHOU SUCCEEDS SHANG

The Zhou dynasty ruled China from 1122 to 481 BCE. During this time many important developments took place. The most influential of all Chinese philosophers—Laozi, Confucius and Mencius—lived and developed their ideas about how to be a good person and how to achieve a prosperous society. Technological innovations such as iron weapons and the crossbow first appeared. Many political changes also occurred as the authority of the rulers of the Zhou dynasty diminished. Consequently, historians have divided the Zhou dynasty’s rule into two parts—the Western Zhou period, from 1122 to 771 BCE, and the Eastern Zhou period, also known as the Spring and Autumn period, from 771 to 481 BCE—and often include with them the Warring States period that followed, from 481 to 221 BCE.

In 1122 BCE a great battle was fought between King Wu of the state of Zhou and Di Xin, the last king of the Shang dynasty. Sima Qian wrote that King Wu had gathered 50 000 troops to fight against the Shang king’s far larger army of 700 000. At a crucial moment in the battle, however, many of King Di Xin’s troops revolted and changed sides to fight for King Wu. This **betrayal** (a treacherous act) led to the defeat of King Di Xin and his remaining troops. However, according to the *Book of Documents*, this was not the only reason he was defeated. In the *Book of Documents*, King Wu claimed that King Di Xin was corrupt and that, because of his misrule, the Shang king had lost the Mandate of Heaven.

SOURCE 4.2 This portrait of King Wu, painted on silk during the Song dynasty, hangs in the National Palace Museum in Taipei, Taiwan.



Shang is full of evil. Heaven commands me to destroy it. If I [Wu, the king of Zhou] did not follow Heaven's command, then my evil would be as great ... Detesting the crimes of Shang, I announced to great Heaven and the sovereign Earth ... 'I, Wu, the virtuous, king of Zhou, by a long descent, am about to have great righting with Shang. Di Xin, the king of Shang, is without virtue, cruel and destructive to the multitudes of people, chief of the vagabonds of the empire, who gather around him as fish in the deep sea, and beasts in the wilderness. I, who am but a little child, having obtained the help of virtuous men, will reverently follow God's will, and put an end to his evil ways.'

SOURCE 4.3 King Wu's declaration, adapted from *Sacred Books of the East*, F. Max Muller (ed.), Motilal Banarsidass, Delhi, 1966

THE MANDATE OF HEAVEN

Both the Shang and Zhou kings used the principle of the Mandate of Heaven to legitimise their authority. They claimed that Heaven had chosen them to rule China. This was a powerful idea because it meant that to disobey the king was also to disobey Heaven. According to the Mandate of Heaven, the people were expected to respect and obey their kings and in return their kings were expected to be virtuous (acting in a good or moral way) and rule for the benefit of the people. If a king was no longer worthy to rule the empire, Heaven would manifest signs on Earth to show the people that the king had lost its approval. Such signs included corruption or poor administration by a king, and crop failures or natural disasters such as floods and earthquakes. Later emperors, from Emperor Shi Huangdi of the Qin dynasty (221–207 BCE) to the last emperor of the Qing dynasty (1644–1911 CE), Pu Yi, also believed they ruled on behalf of Heaven and used the Mandate of Heaven to legitimise their authority.

- Q** 1 Do you think that this is an unusual shape for a coin? Why, or why not?
- 2 How useful would this shape have been, do you think? Could it have served another purpose as well?

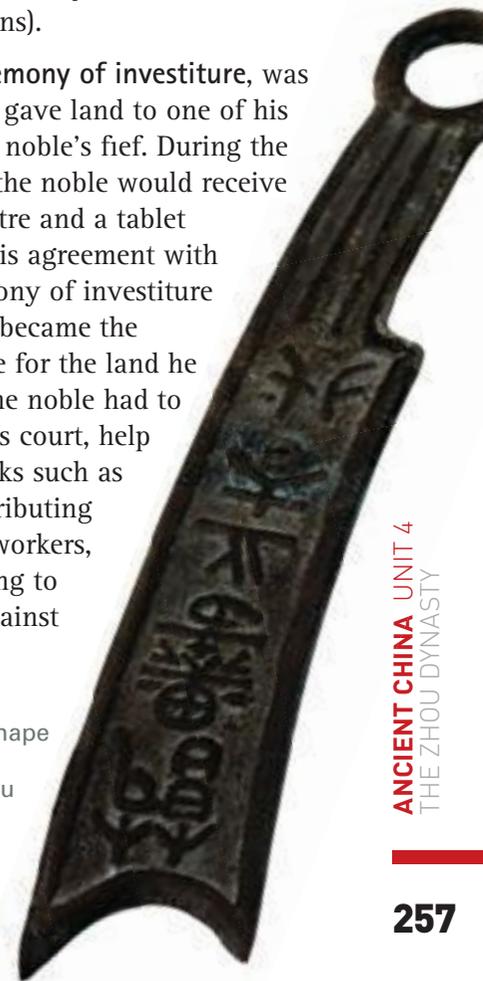
THE WESTERN ZHOU PERIOD

Once the state of Zhou had completed its conquest of the Shang, it continued to expand its empire. Its army conquered the states of Yan and Jin in the north, the state of Qi in the east and the state of Chu in the south. The kings of Zhou soon discovered though that their army was too small to rule the former Shang kingdom, plus the other territories they had conquered and added to their kingdom, directly. In order to rule their kingdom, they were forced to give land to other Zhou nobles and allies to rule on their behalf. This distribution of land created a large number of smaller states. Each of these states generally consisted of a walled city surrounded by farming land. In between each of the states there was a no-man's land where barbarians roamed freely. More than 100 of these states existed by the end of the eighth century BCE.

A **feudal** relationship existed between the Zhou king and the nobles and allies who ruled land on his behalf. A feudal hierarchy formed, consisting of nobles of varying ranks. At the top of the hierarchy were the *gong* (dukes), and below them in rank were the *hou* (marquises), followed by the *bo* (earls), *zi* (viscounts) and *nan* (barons).

A ceremony, called a **ceremony of investiture**, was held when the Zhou king gave land to one of his nobles. This land was the noble's fief. During the ceremony of investiture, the noble would receive from the king a jade sceptre and a tablet containing the terms of his agreement with the king. After the ceremony of investiture was completed the noble became the king's **vassal**. In exchange for the land he received from the king, the noble had to regularly attend the king's court, help the king build public works such as canals and roads by contributing money and lending him workers, and send troops to the king to defend the Zhou lands against barbarian attack.

SOURCE 4.4 Bronze coin in the shape of a miniature knife, used during the Zhou dynasty



THE SPRING AND AUTUMN PERIOD

The Spring and Autumn period began in 771 BCE when nomadic tribesmen from the plains of Mongolia and the Gobi Desert sacked the Zhou capital at Hao and killed King You, the last Western Zhou king. You's son created a new capital at Luoyang, further away from the dangerous northern borders of his kingdom, but his authority over his vassals weakened because he was very young. This enabled his vassals to establish their own independent states. Fifteen major states plus numerous other smaller states existed during this period. These states created their own taxation systems and military forces. Although they were independent, they generally maintained friendly relations with each other.

SOURCE
4.5 Bronze swords such as this one were used by soldiers before and during the Warring States period.

THE WARRING STATES PERIOD

From 481 BCE, relations between the states deteriorated and a period of almost constant warfare began. Historians have called this the Warring States period. This period in Ancient China's history was one of instability as the independent states fought against each other for supremacy. The larger states conquered the smaller ones.

At the beginning of the Warring States period in 481 BCE there were seven large states. A century later, three remained—Qin, Chu and Qi—and in 221 BCE the western state of Qin conquered its rivals and established its own dynasty (see Source 5.5). Although the Warring States period was a time of great destruction, it was also a time of great technological and philosophical innovation. At this time the crossbow was invented and Daoist, Confucian and Legalist philosophies spread throughout China.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'Ancient China' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:
 - betrayal
 - ceremony of investiture
 - feudal
 - innovation
 - legitimise
 - Mandate of Heaven
 - vassal
- #2** List the three periods of the Zhou dynasty and the years each one started and ended.
- #3** In what year did King Wu of the state of Zhou defeat King Di Xin of the Shang dynasty?
- #4** What is the Mandate of Heaven?

understanding & analysing

- #5** Why was the King of Zhou forced to give land to other Zhou nobles and allies to rule on his behalf?

- #6** What did a Zhou noble receive after the ceremony of investiture and what obligations did he have to the king? What obligations do you think the king had to his subjects?
- #7** Why did the authority of King You's son over his vassals weaken during the Spring and Autumn period?

evaluating & creating

- #8** Draw a cartoon strip of a Zhou noble participating in the 'ceremony of investiture'.
- #9** You are the ruler of a state in Ancient China during the seventh century BCE, in the Spring and Autumn period (771–481 BCE). Your state has just gained independence from the king of Zhou. You are to write a report on how you will govern your state and protect it against attack from other neighbouring states. Comment on the following in your report: system of government, taxation, laws and the military.



EMPEROR SHI HUANGDI & THE QIN DYNASTY

SOURCE
5.1 The terracotta warriors in Shi Huangdi's tomb were discovered in 1974 by a farmer, not far from the modern city of Xian.

SHI HUANGDI BECOMES EMPEROR

Emperor Shi Huangdi of the Qin dynasty ruled Ancient China from 221 until 210 BCE. During his brief reign he introduced many reforms that dramatically changed Ancient Chinese society. These changes shaped the way later emperors ruled China and the lives of ordinary people. Modern China would be very different if Shi Huangdi had not become emperor.

One of the most interesting and difficult questions to answer when studying history is why some empires rise and others fall. There are a number of possible reasons why King Zheng of the state of Qin, later to become Emperor Shi Huangdi, was able to conquer the other warring states and establish the Qin dynasty. This was a remarkable feat considering that at the beginning of the Western Zhou period (1122–771 BCE) the state of Qin had been one of the smallest, poorest and remotest of all the warring states. Sources 5.3 and 5.4 on the following page are two historians' views about why King Zheng and the state of Qin rose to power.

SOURCE
5.2 A later Chinese illustration of Shi Huangdi

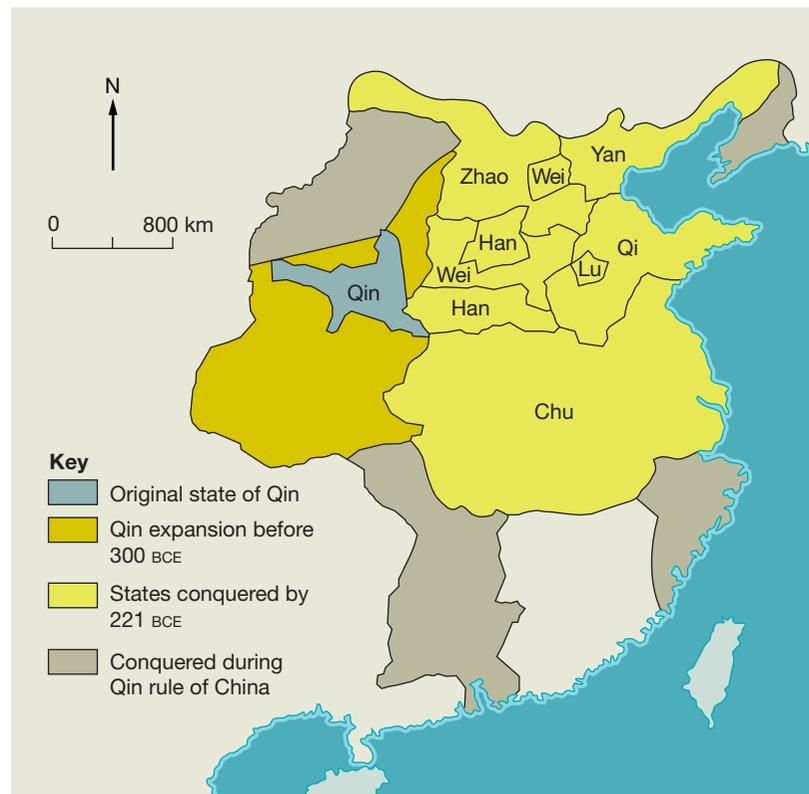


Among the important reasons for Qin's rise to power was its strategically advantageous geographic location [which was] well insulated from the east by mountains and gorges ... The Qin heartland was never itself a major battleground. In contrast, Chu was particularly vulnerable to attack by Qin from the western uplands ... and Qi occupied an exposed plain without any natural defences to the south, west, or north. Of the major contending states, Qin clearly had the advantage of location. Geography also gave Qin economic advantages, which it exploited expertly ... Qin thus built a strong, stable agricultural base and accumulated abundant grain reserves. When its final campaigns to unify China began in the 230s BCE Qin is estimated to have controlled one-third of all the land then under cultivation in China and one-third of China's total population.

SOURCE 5.3 Charles O. Hucker, *China's Imperial Past: An Introduction to Chinese History and Culture*, Stanford University Press, Stanford, 1975

Some of the factors which turned the balance in Qin's favour have already been identified: the geographical position of the state; its ability to attract outstanding figures from other states; the adoption of the ideas of Legalism ... One other factor has been the subject of debate, namely the military prowess of Qin and in particular the significance of the use of a new weapon, the iron sword ... It was suggested at one point that the key to [Qin's] military success lay in the spread of the use of wrought-iron swords which were superior to the bronze swords used by Qin's opponents. However, archaeological evidence has failed to support the thesis that Qin enjoyed some kind of metallurgical superiority over its rivals.

SOURCE 5.4 J. A. G. Roberts, *The Complete History of China*, Sutton Publishing, Chalford, 2003



SOURCE 5.5 This map shows the different states that fought each other during the Warring States period and the expansion of the state of Qin. Note the original state of Qin in the west.

Upon conquering the other warring states King Zheng established the capital of the Qin empire at Xianyang, not far from modern Xian. He also renamed himself Shi Huangdi. Shi meant 'first' and Huangdi meant 'sovereign emperor'. He included the word 'sovereign' in his title to show that all people recognised him as the supreme ruler of the empire.

THAT QIN + A = CHINA?

DID YOU KNOW

The Qin dynasty was so influential in Chinese history that even the word 'China' is believed to have come from the word 'Qin'.

REFORM OF THE EMPIRE

Once Shi Huangdi had conquered all of China, he introduced a number of reforms to increase his imperial authority and govern the empire more easily. He began by reforming his government's administration. The empire was too big for him to rule by himself so he needed other people to help him. Instead of appointing his own sons to administer the lands he had conquered, he chose to appoint independent **governors**. He did this to avoid the collapse of his empire, believing that, if he appointed his sons as governors, they would fight each other after he died—as the sons of the first king of Zhou had done after he died. This conflict had weakened the political authority of the Zhou dynasty and led to its eventual collapse.

WEAKENING THE AUTHORITY OF THE NOBLES

In order to weaken the power of the nobility, Shi Huangdi abolished the practice of **primogeniture**, in which the eldest son inherited all the land and status from his noble father. Nobles were forced to divide their lands among all their heirs. This guaranteed that, over time, their lands would diminish in size. Without large land holdings the nobles were unable to raise the money they needed to create independent armies, and without their own armies they could not overthrow Shi Huangdi.

CHANGING LANGUAGE AND CURRENCY

During the Warring States period, people in the different states spoke their own **dialects** and used their own written languages. Shi Huangdi **standardised** the number of written characters to make one written language that everybody in the empire could understand.

Each state also used its own form of money and had its own ways of measuring weight and distance. These differences made it difficult for merchants in various parts of the empire to trade with one another and thus develop the economy. In order to fix this problem, Shi Huangdi created a standard set of weights and measures and introduced a single currency. He also introduced a uniform **tax** system.



SOURCE 5.6 This painting shows scholars being punished and their books being burned by Shi Huangdi. The painting is in the National Library of France.

- Q**
- 1 What type of books do you think are being burnt in the bottom left-hand corner of the painting?
 - 2 This painting was completed in the eighteenth century CE. How useful is it as a source of historical evidence to explain Shi Huangdi's punishment of the scholars?

Land was taxed and the tax was paid, not in money as it is by taxpayers in Australia today, but in a share of the crop grown on the land.

CREATION OF A NEW LAW CODE

Shi Huangdi also introduced a new legal system called the Code of Qin. The laws of this code were harsh. People were rewarded for reporting crimes, and anyone who criticised the emperor or his government was severely punished with either hard labour, mutilation or execution. This code applied to everyone, from civil servants to peasants, and was based upon ideas associated with a school of philosophy called Legalism.

DID YOU KNOW

SHI HUANGDI PUNISHES THE SCHOLARS

Scholars suffered greatly under these laws. Many worked as civil servants and helped Shi Huangdi administer the empire. However, many of them were also critical of Shi Huangdi and his harsh laws. To punish the scholars, Shi Huangdi ordered all books that were critical of his government, or that were not about useful subjects such as medicine or agriculture, to be burnt. He also buried alive in the same grave 460 scholars who refused to follow his orders.

CONSTRUCTION OF THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

With his strict laws and increased control, Shi Huangdi undertook extensive public works projects. The most spectacular of these was the Great Wall. Before the Qin dynasty, a series of smaller walls had been built to defend against attacks from foreign tribes. Shi Huangdi ordered these walls to be joined together, strengthened and extended to make one continuous wall. He ordered the height and width of the wall to be increased and towers to be constructed at regular intervals to improve its defences. The Great Wall stretches for more than 5760 kilometres. It is without doubt one of the greatest constructions in human history, rivalling the pyramids of Ancient Egypt.

THAT SIMA QIAN SUFFERED GREATLY TO COMPLETE HIS HISTORY OF ANCIENT CHINA?

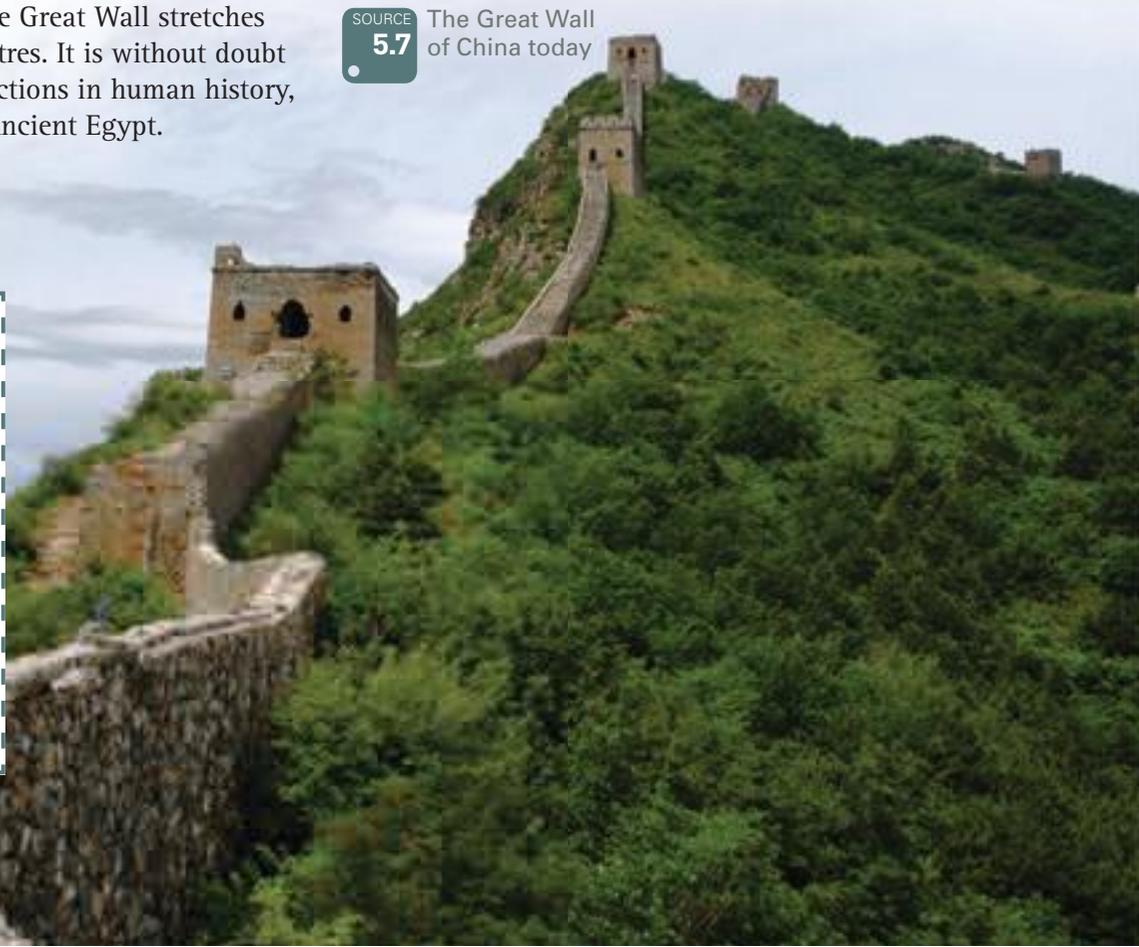
Much of what modern historians understand about the Qin dynasty comes from the *Historical Records*, written by Sima Qian. Sima Qian lived from 145 to 85 BCE, during the Han dynasty. He held the position of Grand Historian at the court of Emperor Wudi. While writing the *Historical Records* he made the political mistake of defending a Han general who had surrendered to a barbarian tribe called the Xiongnu. Wudi was outraged at Sima Qian's perceived act of betrayal and offered the historian two options as punishment: execution or castration and the life of a palace eunuch. Sima Qian chose the latter option so that he could finish his history of Ancient China. In a letter to a friend he wrote that he had made this decision 'because I have things in my heart that I have not been able to express fully'. Apart from the Qin dynasty, Sima Qian also wrote accounts of the Xia, Shang, Zhou and Han dynasties. He took twenty years to finish his work and, not surprisingly, devoted many words to criticising Emperor Wudi's mistakes in governing the empire.

SOURCE 5.7 The Great Wall of China today

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE GREAT WALL IS A MASSIVE CEMETERY?

As many as a million men, women and children were forced to build the Great Wall and it is believed more than a quarter of them died during its construction. Most of those people who died in this way were buried inside the wall, making it one of the biggest graveyards in human history.



THE SEARCH FOR IMMORTALITY

Although he may have established an empire and brought peace to China, many people were unhappy with the harsh measures Shi Huangdi had used to achieve this. There were three attempts to assassinate him, but none of them were successful.

As he grew older, Shi Huangdi became obsessed with death. He ordered his officials to find a way for him to live forever, but they never discovered the secret of immortality. Although he could not achieve immortality, he hoped at least to protect his spirit in the afterlife by housing his body in a magnificent tomb. Construction on Shi Huangdi's burial tomb began before his death in 210 BCE. It contains thousands of life-size terracotta replica soldiers and horses. Some of the soldiers stand beside chariots, others are carrying weapons such as spears, swords or crossbows and wearing armour. No two terracotta warriors are alike; each one has different facial features.

Source 5.8 is an account of Shi Huangdi's tomb from Sima Qian's *Historical Records*. It describes how Shi Huangdi was not just buried with clay soldiers.

When the First Emperor had just ascended the throne, he started to dig and construct the Mount Li [Mausoleum]. After he had united the world, more than 700 000 convict labourers from the world were sent there. They dug through three [strata of] springs, poured in liquid bronze, and secured the sarcophagus. [Terracotta] houses, officials, unusual and valuable things were moved in to fill it. He ordered artisans to make crossbows triggered by mechanisms. Anyone passing before them would be shot immediately. They used mercury to create rivers ... and the great seas, wherein the mercury was circulated mechanically. On the ceiling were celestial bodies and on the ground geographical features. The candles were made of oil of dugong, which was not supposed to burn out for a long time ... Trees were planted to make the tomb resemble a mountain.

SOURCE 5.8 W. H. Nienhauser (trans.), *The Grand Scribe's Records Volume I: The Basic Annals of Pre-Han China*, Indiana University Press, Indiana, 1995

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient China' glossary, list these words and explain their meanings:

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------|
| ■ assassinate | ■ primogeniture |
| ■ dialects | ■ standardised |
| ■ governors | ■ tax |

#2 How long did Emperor Shi Huangdi rule China?

#3 What does Shi Huangdi's name mean?

#4 What is the practice of primogeniture?

understanding & analysing

#5 According to Charles O. Hucker in Source 5.3, why was Qin able to conquer the other warring states?

#6 Why does J. A. G. Roberts in Source 5.4 disagree with the theory that one reason for the state of Qin's success was the use of iron swords?

#7 Why didn't Shi Huangdi want to appoint his sons to help him govern his empire? What lessons had he learnt from history about the rise and fall of states?

evaluating & creating

#8 Read about Shi Huangdi's tomb and the terracotta warriors again. What similarities can you see between the ways Shi Huangdi and the ancient Egyptian pharaohs were buried?

#9 Draw a table listing Shi Huangdi's reforms and describing how each reform changed Ancient China. Then discuss whether these reforms improved society in Ancient China or not.

#10 In groups, conduct a debate in class on the following topic: 'Shi Huangdi was a good leader.' Students in the audience should evaluate the performance of the debaters against a set of pre-agreed criteria.

LEARNING
ACTIVITIES

SOURCE STUDY

UNIT 6

PHILOSOPHY AND RELIGION DURING THE QIN DYNASTY

THERE WERE THREE IMPORTANT

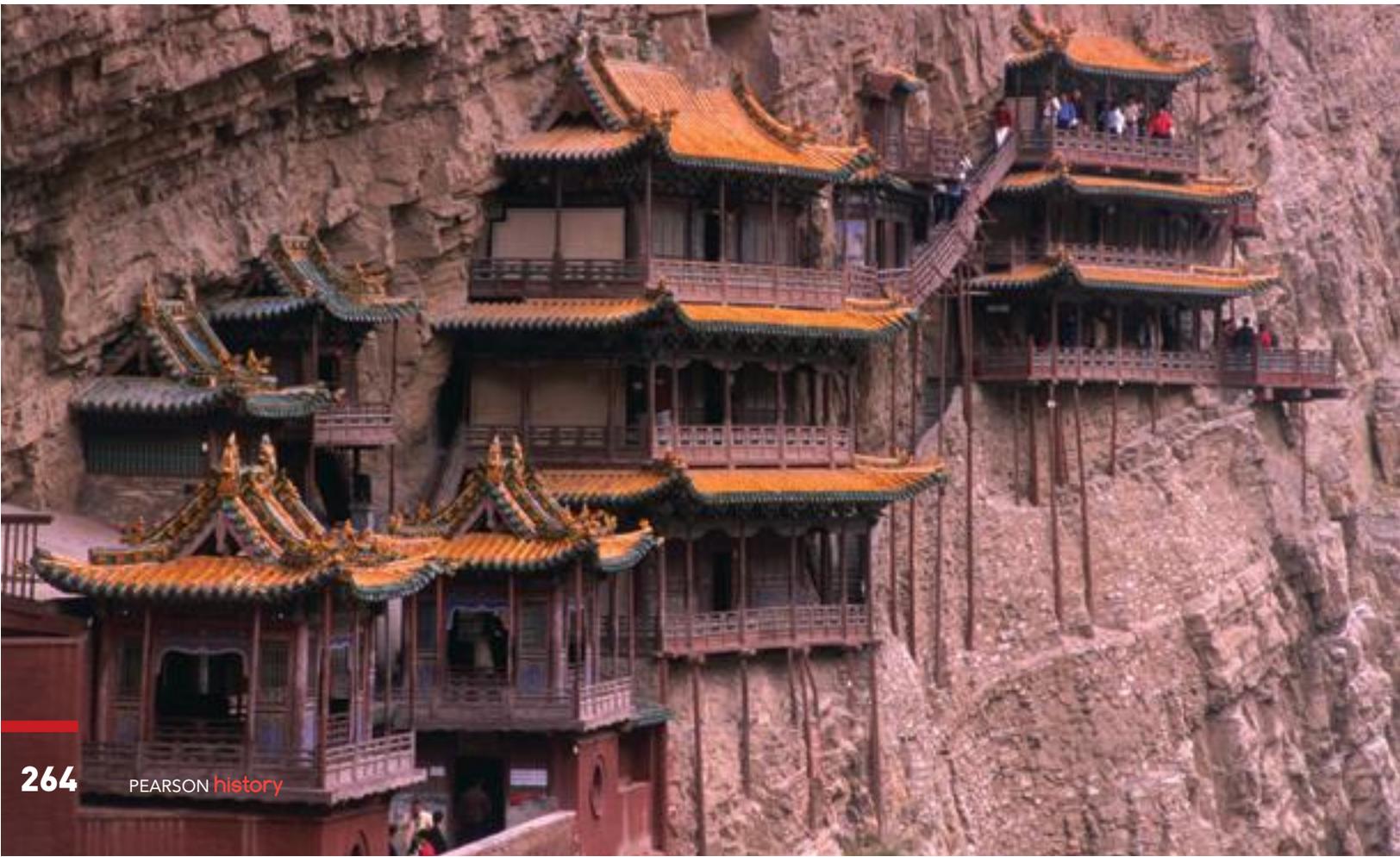
schools of philosophy during the Qin dynasty: Legalism, Confucianism and Daoism. Each tried to explain humanity's place within the universe, the best way to create a good society and how to become a better person.

LEGALISM AND THE CODE OF QIN

Of the three schools of philosophy, Legalism had the greatest impact upon Shi Huangdi's understanding of how to organise and administer his government. It also profoundly influenced his legal system—the Code of Qin.

Legalist philosophy developed during the Warring States period, an era of almost constant warfare and destruction, and this shaped its theories on how to govern society and achieve peace. Legalist philosophers believed the only way to achieve peace was to have a strong government and strict laws.

SOURCE 6.1 This famous Daoist temple, called Xuan Kong Si, or the Hanging Temple, is located on Mount Heng in northern central China and was first constructed in the fourth century CE. It is supported on the cliff face by slender wooden poles.



To achieve a strong government, individuals and families had to place their rights below those of the government. Laws needed to be severe, and punishments had to be harsh so that the people would follow the laws. If the people obeyed the laws, then they would work together, suffering would cease and everyone would benefit.

Legalist philosophers also believed that the emperor had to follow the laws. They argued that it did not matter whether an emperor was good or bad. So long as he followed the laws, the empire would be run effectively and the people would prosper.

Punish severely the light crimes ... If light offences do not occur, serious ones have no chance of coming ... The things which people desire are innumerable, but that from which they benefit is one and the same. Unless the people are made one, there is no way to make them attain their desire. Therefore they are unified, and their strength is consolidated ... If you establish what people delight in, they will suffer from what they dislike, but if you establish what they dislike, they will be happy in what they enjoy.

SOURCE 6.2 The Legalist philosopher Lord Shang's view on punishment, from *The Book of Lord Shang*, trans. J. J. L. Duyvendak, Arthur Probsthain, London, 1928

CONFUCIANISM

Although Shi Huangdi rejected it, Confucianism was the most influential philosophy in China from the Han dynasty until the Communist era began in modern China in 1949 CE. Confucius was a Chinese scholar who lived from 551 to 479 BCE. Little is known of his life except what is described in *The Analects*, a book of his teachings compiled by his followers. According to *The Analects*, he was born in the state of Lu, but was orphaned as a child and grew up in poverty. His humble origins did not, however, stop him from becoming a scholar. He was appointed to the position of police commissioner for the state of Lu. However, he quit this position and travelled to other states, where he sought employment and offered advice to rulers on how to run their governments better. In 484 BCE, he returned to Lu and spent his remaining five years of life teaching. The philosophical questions that most interested him were how a person could live a better life and how to create a good society ruled by a good government.



SOURCE 6.3 A later portrait of Confucius. No paintings or sculptures of the influential philosopher survive from his lifetime.

LIVING A BETTER LIFE

Confucius believed the best type of person was someone who acted virtuously towards others. He criticised people who sought profit and acted simply for their own personal gain. He believed everybody had the ability to act virtuously and do what was right.

Zhonggong asked about humanity. The Master said, ‘When you go out, treat everyone as if you were welcoming a great guest. Employ people as though you were conducting a great sacrifice. Do not do unto others what you would not have them do unto you. Then neither in your country nor in your family will there be complaints against you.’

SOURCE 6.4 Confucius on how to treat other people, in *The Analects* from W. Chan, *A Source Book in Chinese Philosophy*, Princeton University Press, Princeton, 1973

GOOD GOVERNMENT

Confucius believed that only a good government and a virtuous emperor could create a good society. He disagreed with the Legalist philosophers who argued that a good society could only be achieved through the application of strict laws, punishment and force. Instead, he argued, an emperor created a good society by acting virtuously and setting an example for his people to follow.

THE IMPORTANCE OF FAMILY

Confucius also believed that relations within families needed to be strong and harmonious in order for society to prosper. He argued that, because a family was the basic unit of society, if relationships between parents and children were poor then the family might collapse and society, which consisted of many families, would also suffer. According to him, a family prospered when children practised filial piety (showed great respect to their parents).

MENCIUS

After Confucius died, his followers developed his ideas further. The most important of these followers was Mencius. Mencius probably lived from 372 to 289 BCE. He spent much of his adult life in the state of Qi, but also travelled to other states trying to convince their rulers to adopt his ideas on how to govern well. He was unsuccessful, though, and probably retired in the state of Lu.

Mencius expanded upon Confucius’s teachings. In his book *The Mencius*, he focused on how to govern a state better, and was particularly concerned about the nature of humanity and how a person could be virtuous. He believed children were born naturally good, and that if they were taught and raised well then they would grow into adults who acted virtuously. He illustrates his belief in the innate goodness of humanity in the famous passage in Source 6.5.

Suppose a man were, all of a sudden, to see a young child on the verge of falling into a well. He would certainly be moved to compassion, not because he wanted to get in the good graces of the parents, nor because he wished to win the praise of his fellow villagers or friends, nor yet because he disliked the cry of the child. From this it can be seen that whoever is devoid of the heart of compassion is not human, whoever is devoid of the heart of shame is not human, whoever is devoid of the heart of courtesy and modesty is not human and whoever is devoid of the heart of right and wrong is not human.

SOURCE 6.5 Mencius on the nature of humanity, in *The Mencius*, trans. D. C. Lau, Penguin, London, 2003

DAOISM AND THE SEARCH FOR HAPPINESS

The first and most influential of the Daoist philosophers was Laozi. Little is known of Laozi's early life apart from the brief account that appears in the *Book of Songs* (see Unit 2). According to the *Book of Songs*, he lived in the state of Chu during the sixth century BCE—at the same time as Confucius, although he was older than Confucius.

All of Laozi's teachings are contained in a small book of only 5250 words, called the *Daodejing* or *The Classic of the Way and Its Power*. Unlike Legalism or Confucianism, which concentrated on the importance of social order through the creation of good government or a happy family, Laozi focused more on the individual person and aimed to teach him or her how to achieve a happy and peaceful life.

THE DAO AND A HAPPY LIFE

Laozi believed the only way to achieve a happy life was to understand the Dao. The Dao consisted of two opposing forces: the Yin and the Yang. Translated into English, the Dao means 'the way'. In some respects, the Dao was similar to the laws governing nature. It influenced the fate of all things, even the heavens and the gods. It was more than this, though, and difficult to understand.

The Dao (Way) that can be named is not the eternal Dao ...

SOURCE 6.6 Laozi refers to the difficulty of understanding the Dao in the first line of the *Daodejing*, in W. Chan, *A Source Book in Chinese Philosophy*, Princeton University Press, Princeton, 1973

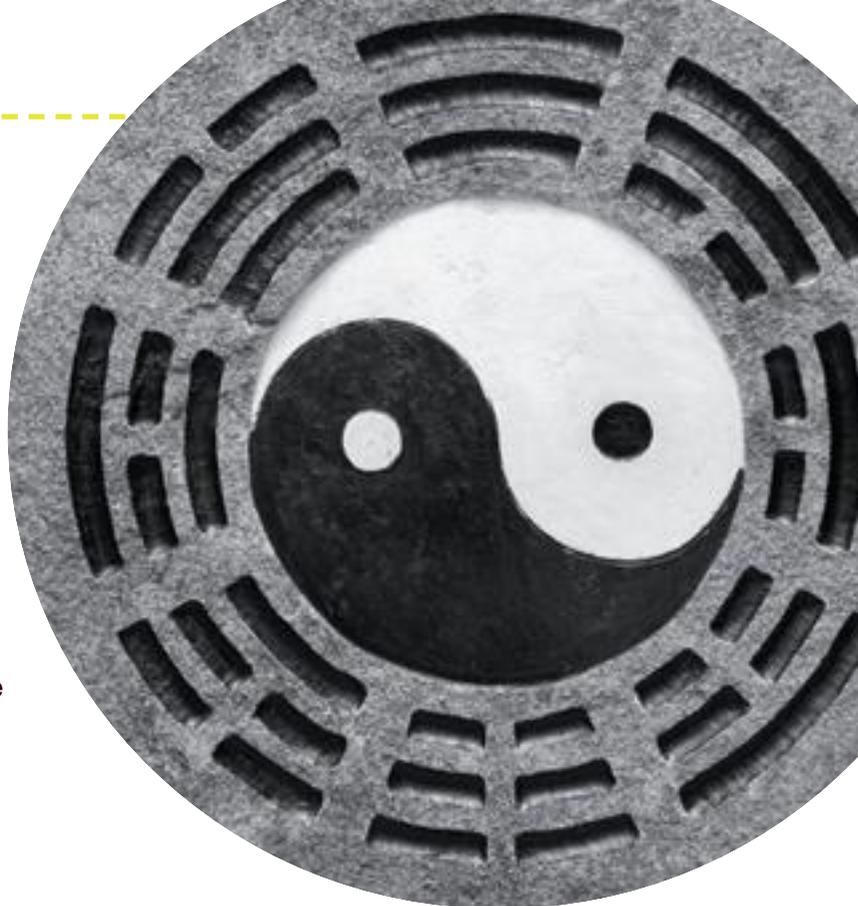
Laozi believed the Dao could not be explained in words, but that it could be understood by observing its influence within the world. He argued that once a person understood the Dao, he or she would then act in accordance with its influence and find happiness.



SOURCE 6.7 A later painting of Laozi

COSMOLOGY AND THE FORCES OF YIN AND YANG

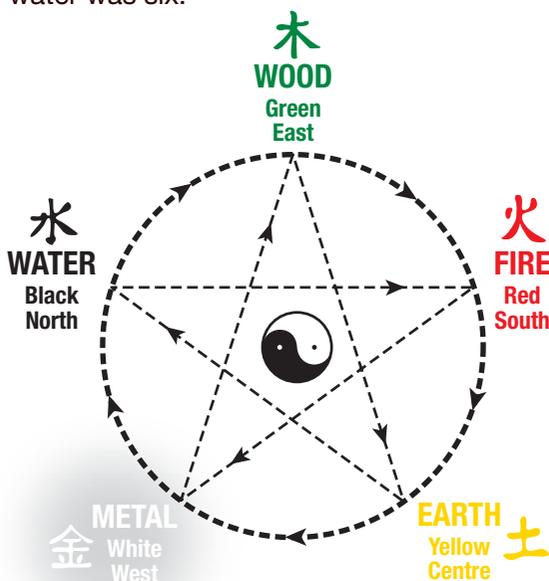
Apart from Legalism, Confucianism and Daoism, the Ancient Chinese also believed in a theory of cosmology based upon the forces of Yin and Yang and the five elements: metal, water, wood, fire and earth. They believed colours, numbers, elements and directions possessed supernatural powers that could affect the fortunes of people, families and even empires. This theory helped the Ancient Chinese to understand the structure of the universe and its evolution.



SHI HUANGDI'S BELIEF IN CHINESE COSMOLOGY

Shi Huangdi strongly believed in Chinese cosmology and, in particular, the theory of the five elements. He chose the element of water to symbolise the Qin dynasty. According to Chinese cosmology, the colour associated with the element of water was black and the number associated with water was six.

SOURCE 6.8 The Yin and Yang symbol represents the two basic forces that shape the universe. Yin is the passive force and Yang is the active force. Both forces must be equal and work in harmony because too much Yin or Yang will cause disorder and misfortune. The concept of Yin and Yang influenced both Confucianism and Daoism.



SOURCE 6.9 This diagram shows the relationship between the five elements in Chinese cosmology and the colours and directions associated with each element.

... the emperor [Shi Huangdi] decided that as the successor to the Zhou dynasty, which was under the Power of Fire, Qin must have the Power of Water. The start of the year was changed to the first day of the tenth month, when the court celebration was held. Black became the paramount colour for garments, flags and pennants, and six the paramount number. Tallies and official hats were six inches long, carriages six feet wide, one 'pace' was six feet, and the imperial carriage had six horses. The Yellow River was renamed the River of Power ...

SOURCE 6.10 Sima Qian describes Shi Huangdi's belief in the power of the element of water in his *Historical Records*, from R. Laidlaw, *A Documentary History of China*, Macmillan Education Australia, South Melbourne, 1994

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

1 UNDERSTANDING

- Name the three important schools of philosophy that existed during the Qin dynasty.
- According to Legalist philosophers, what was the only way to achieve peace?
- What two topics did Confucius primarily focus upon?
- For Laozi, how could a person demonstrate that they understood the Dao?

2 UNDERSTANDING & ANALYSING

- Refer to Source 6.2. According to the Legalist philosopher Lord Shang, why should light offences be punished severely?
- What does Lord Shang's discussion of punishment in Source 6.2 tell us about Legalism? Identify one strength and one weakness of this view of punishment.

3

Do you agree with Confucius that families must be strong and children respect their parents for society to prosper? Make a list of five or six dot points supporting your view.

4

Look at Source 6.1. Why do you think the Daoist monks chose to build a temple on the side of a mountain?

5 ANALYSING & EVALUATING

Read Source 6.5 again. Do you agree with Mencius that all people are naturally good? Draw up a two-column table listing arguments for and against this view.

6

Using the school library or the internet, research and list five key phrases that describe democracy. Look again at the descriptions of Legalist (Source 6.2) and Confucian philosophies (Sources 6.4 and 6.5) and classify these philosophies as democratic or non-democratic.

7

- Use a Venn diagram of three interlocking circles to compare and contrast the key ideas associated with Legalism, Confucianism (including Mencius) and Daoism.
- Which of these three philosophies do you think is most relevant for modern Western society? Explain your answer.

SOURCE 6.11

This scene from the film *Hero* shows the black uniforms worn by Shi Huangdi's soldiers. The actor standing in the middle of the soldiers, Jet Li, portrays one of the assassins who tried to kill Shi Huangdi.

Q

Do you think the costumes in the scene from the film *Hero* are accurate? Read Source 6.10 to help you answer this question.





DAILY LIFE IN ANCIENT CHINA DURING THE HAN DYNASTY

SOURCE 7.1 This painting in the Freer Gallery of Art, Washington, D.C., shows farmers harvesting rice.

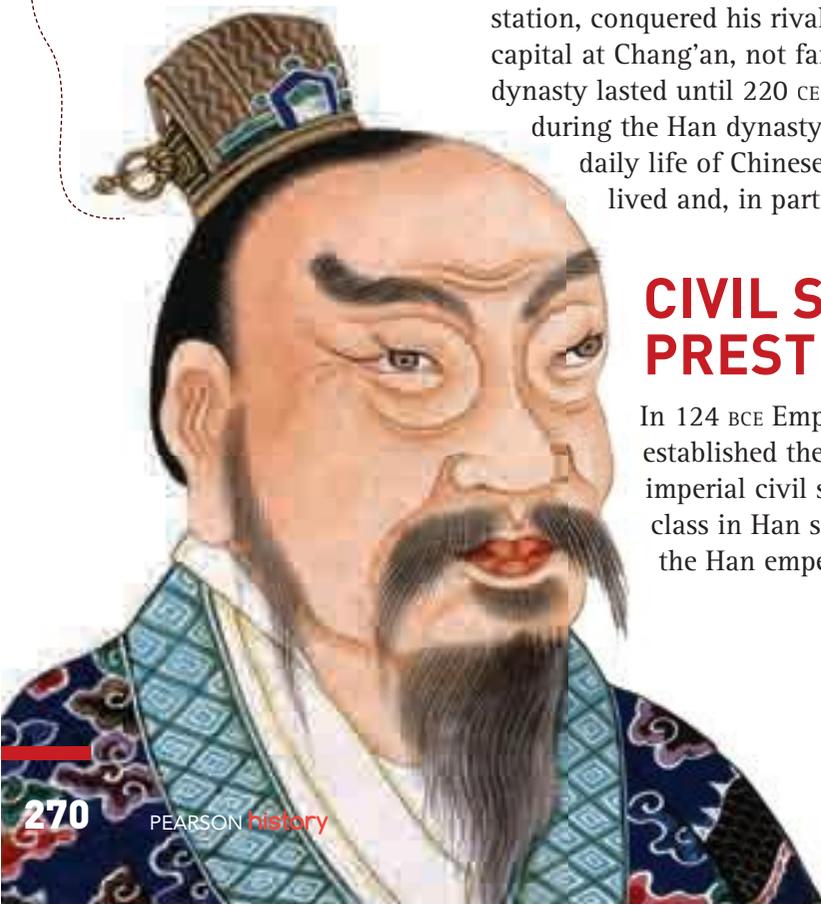
SOURCE 7.2 A portrait of Liu Bang, first emperor of the Han dynasty, in the British Museum, London

Although Shi Huangdi had created one unified empire and implemented many reforms to run it efficiently, he had taxed the people heavily to achieve this. This led to great discontent among the people and then to rebellion. In 207 BCE the Qin dynasty collapsed after rebels captured and executed the last Qin emperor, Ziying, who was one of Shi Huangdi's grandsons. Fighting then ensued between various warlords and former Qin generals.

In 202 BCE Liu Bang, a former Qin local official in charge of a postal relay station, conquered his rivals and established the Han dynasty, locating the new capital at Chang'an, not far from the former Qin capital at Xianyang. The Han dynasty lasted until 220 CE. Society was divided into four main social classes during the Han dynasty: **civil servants**, farmers, artisans and merchants. The daily life of Chinese men and women varied depending on where they lived and, in particular, on the social class to which they belonged.

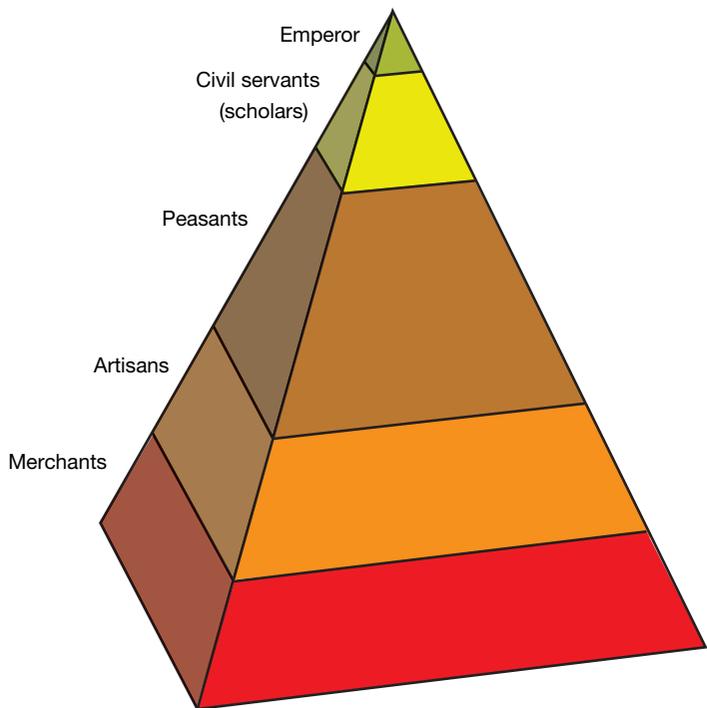
CIVIL SERVANTS: THE MOST PRESTIGIOUS SOCIAL CLASS

In 124 BCE Emperor Wudi (who lived from 141 to 87 BCE) established the Imperial Academy to train civil servants for the imperial civil service. Civil servants were the most important social class in Han society. They held government positions and helped the Han emperors administer their empire.



In order to enter the imperial civil service, a man needed to pass an **examination** based upon the Five Classics (see the table in Unit 2) as well as *The Analects*. Young men would seek out teachers with whom to study the Five Classics and *The Analects* to prepare them for the civil service examinations held at the Imperial Academy. By the middle of the second century CE, the Imperial Academy had over 30 000 students.

The Han emperors stressed ability and education above social status in awarding positions in the imperial civil service. Although civil servants could nominate their sons or other close relatives for government positions, a man did not need to be related to a civil servant to become an official himself. A famous example of a civil servant who rose from a low social position was Gongsun Hong. Before sitting the civil service examination, he had been a swineherd (a person who keeps pigs). After passing the examination, he eventually rose to become Emperor Wudi's chancellor (a high-ranking government minister) and gave advice to Wudi on how to administer the government. As a consequence of the practice of recruiting civil



SOURCE 7.3 This diagram illustrates the social structure that existed in Ancient China during the Han dynasty, with civil servants at the top and merchants at the bottom.

Q Why do you think peasants were ranked higher than craftspeople and merchants?

servants, like Gongsun Hong, on the basis of their talent rather than their social status, the imperial civil service was generally free of corruption and the government bureaucracy ran more efficiently than it had under previous kings and emperors. Civil servants also gained greater political authority because of the establishment of the Imperial Academy, and a post in the imperial civil service became one of the most sought-after and prestigious occupations during the Han dynasty.

SOURCE 7.4 This painting in the National Library of France shows scholars sitting the imperial civil service examination.

- 1** What do you think the emperor is doing in the background?
- 2** What does this painting tell us about the importance of the imperial examination system and learning in Ancient China?
- 3** Is this the case with sitting examinations in Australia today?



THE IMPORTANCE OF FARMERS

Farmers were the second most respected social class during the Han dynasty. Agriculture was the basis of Ancient Chinese society and as a result most people were farmers. Farmers grew a variety of crops in China during this period. In southern China they grew rice, and in northern China, millet and wheat. They used hand-held ploughs to cultivate their fields and oxen to pull the ploughs in larger areas. Farmers also kept chickens and pigs, grew grapes and alfalfa, and used donkeys to carry heavy loads.

Farmers were an important source of tax revenue (income) for the Han emperors. However, the emperors did not want to tax farmers too much because they supported the Confucian view that, apart from civil servants, farmers were the most important class in society. Confucius believed farmers were crucial to maintaining society because farmers produced the food that people ate to survive.

The Han emperors made farmers pay a small land tax, but this meant that the emperors lacked enough money to properly run their government and maintain their armies. They overcame this problem by collecting money from other sources. They **confiscated** nobles' lands, increased the taxes on private businesses and taxed merchants heavily. They also taxed property such as boats, carts and shops.

ARTISANS AND SILK

Artisans were the third most important class during the Han dynasty. They differed from farmers in that they processed the raw materials that the farmers produced. Many artisans made porcelain objects such as bowls or silk cloth. For centuries China has been famous for the silk it produces. Archaeological discoveries suggest the Ancient Chinese had learnt how to make silk as early as the time of the Shang dynasty. By the time of the Han dynasty, the Chinese were exporting silk to neighbouring empires—even to the Romans in Europe. Silk was and still is a highly valued fabric because it is soft, strong and lightweight. It is long-lasting, cool in summer and warm in winter, and can be dyed a variety of colours. It was used not only to make clothing but also to write and even paint upon.

THAT SILK IS MADE BY CATERPILLARS?

DID YOU KNOW

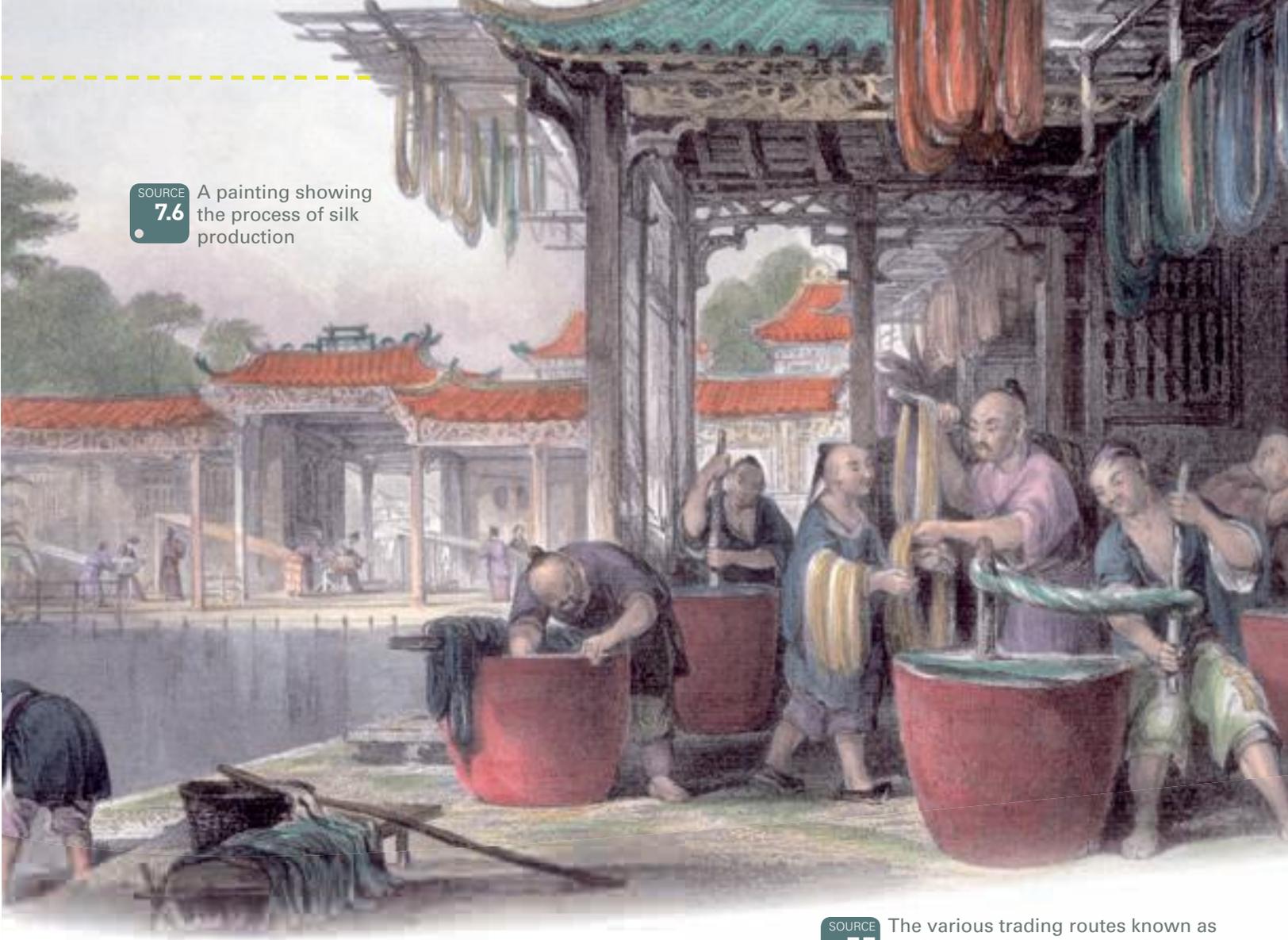
Silk comes from the cocoons of silkworms, which are the larvae (caterpillars) of a type of moth. The cultivation of silk is not easy as silkworms only spin their cocoons at particular times and at specific temperatures.

It takes a month for a silkworm to hatch and spin a cocoon. One cocoon consists of a strand of silk several hundred metres in length. Once the silk from the cocoons has been collected, it is boiled and the individual strands of silk are twisted together to make stronger threads. These are then dyed and woven into cloth. It takes about 2000 silkworms to produce half a kilogram of silk.

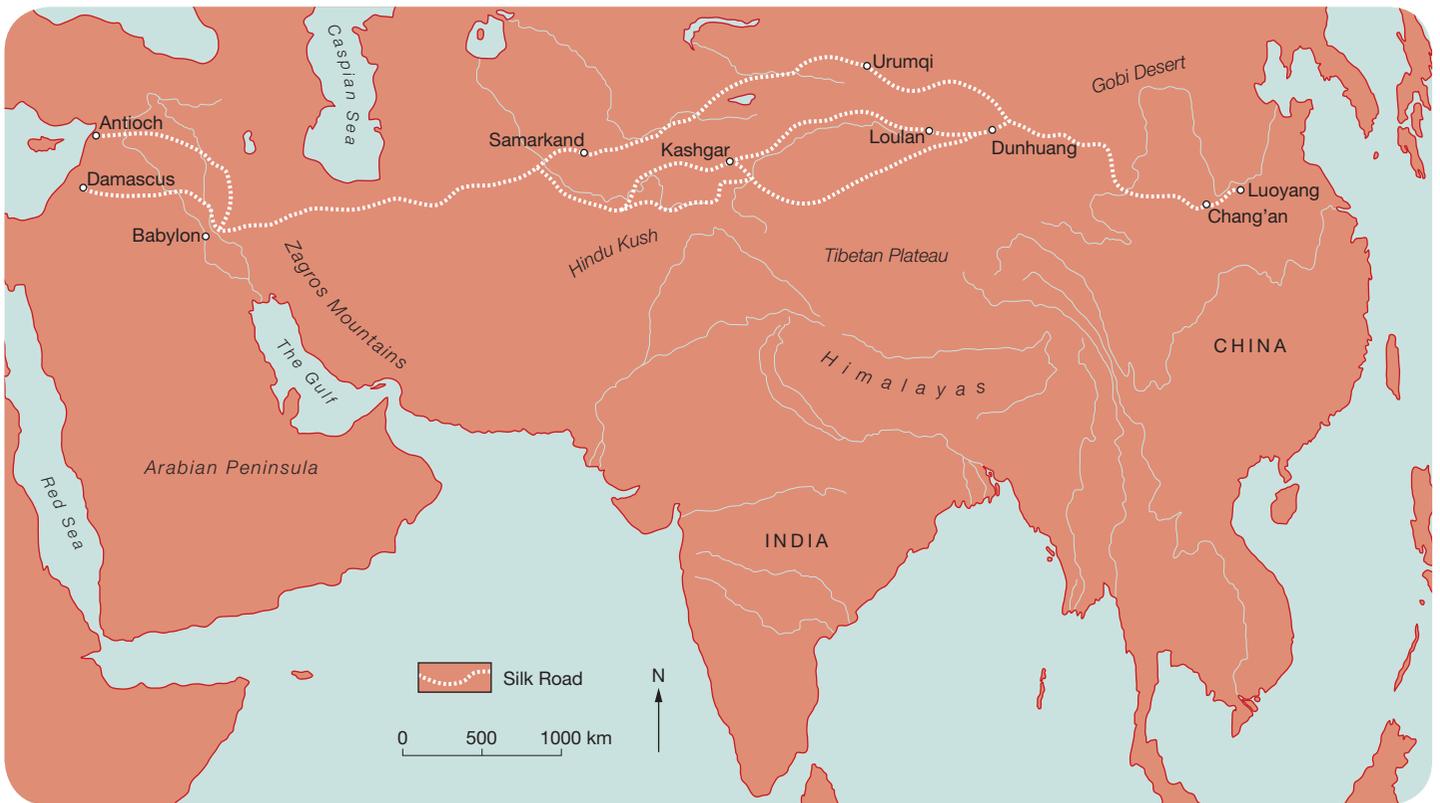
SOURCE 7.5 Where silk comes from—cocoons and larva of the silkworm



SOURCE
7.6 A painting showing the process of silk production



SOURCE
7.7 The various trading routes known as the Silk Road, beginning in China and ending in the Middle East



THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN HAN SOCIETY

Women were considered inferior to men in Han society and were expected to obey their fathers, their husbands and then, when they grew old, their adult sons. This view of the position of women in society was perpetuated by scholars. Scholars wrote books on how women should behave, and encouraged women to be humble and submissive so as to retain their honour. Source 7.8 is an extract from a famous text of this kind, called *Admonitions for Girls*. Written by Ban Zhao (45–116 CE), an instructor to girls in the imperial court who was herself a woman, it discusses the virtues women should develop.

Humility means yielding and acting respectful [sic], putting others first and oneself last, never mentioning one's own good deeds or denying one's own faults, enduring insults and bearing with mistreatment, all with due trepidation. Industriousness means going to bed late, getting up early, never shirking work morning or night, never refusing to take on domestic work, and completing everything that needs to be done neatly and carefully. Continuing the sacrifices means serving one's husband-master with appropriate demeanour, keeping oneself clean and pure, never joking or laughing, and preparing pure wine and food to offer to the ancestors. There has never been a woman who had these three traits and yet ruined her reputation or fell into disgrace. On the other hand, if a woman lacks these traits, she will have no name to preserve and will not be able to avoid shame

SOURCE 7.8 Some advice for women from Ban Zhao, *Admonitions for Girls*, in P. B. Ebrey, *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*, Cambridge University Press, 2006

Despite their perceived inferiority, women did play an important role in Han society. Some female peasants worked on farms beside men. They wove clothes for their families as well as for sale at market, and worked in other crafts. Unlike men, they did not have to perform the *corvée*, which was forced labour. And although they were barred from entering the Imperial Academy and becoming civil servants, many women held powerful and influential positions in the imperial court as a consequence of their familial ties with the emperor or with other noble families.

For example, Empress Lü ruled for fifteen years after her husband Liu Bang, the first emperor of the Han dynasty, died in 195 BCE. During her reign, she appointed many capable ministers to help her run the imperial government and the people generally led peaceful and prosperous lives. She was also quick to defend herself against anyone who threatened her position. She murdered the Prince of Zhao, the son of Concubine Qi, who had been one of Liu Bang's mistresses. She then tortured Concubine Qi by blinding and deafening her and then cutting off her limbs.



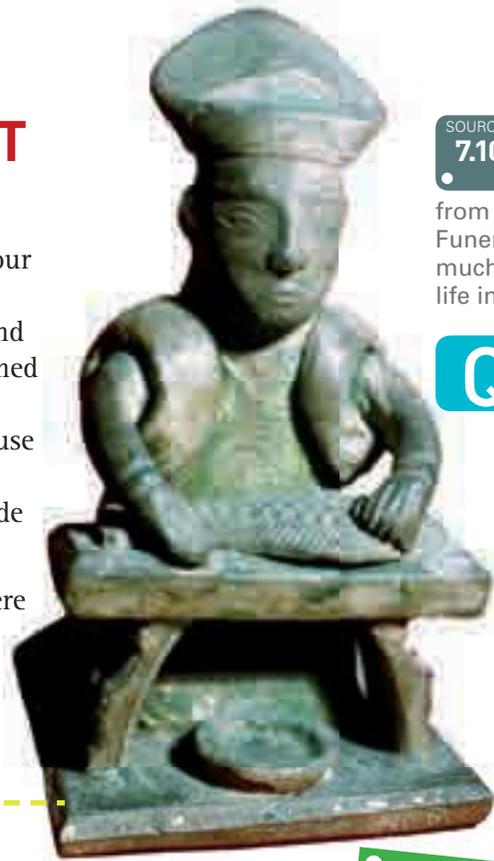
SOURCE 7.9 This figurine of a kneeling woman from the Han dynasty was found in an attendant tomb of the Yang mausoleum at Xian. It embodies the virtues described in Source 7.8.

Q Identify the features of the figurine that embody the womanly virtues as described in Source 7.8.

MERCHANTS: THE LOWEST CLASS

The merchant class was considered the lowest of the four classes during the Han dynasty. Like businesspeople in Australia today, merchants in Ancient China bought and sold products to make a profit. Confucius had condemned the pursuit of profit as a corrupt activity rather than a virtuous one. Merchants were also frowned upon because they were perceived as producing little—unlike, for example, farmers who grew wheat or artisans who made silk garments.

Because of their low standing in society, merchants were treated harshly by the government. The Han emperors taxed merchants heavily. They also often prohibited merchants from buying land and sitting the civil examinations to enter the imperial civil service.



SOURCE 7.10 This statuette of a fishmonger was found in a tomb from the Han dynasty. Funerary art gives us much information about life in this period.

Q What can we learn about life during the Han dynasty from this statuette?

remembering & understanding

#1 In your 'Ancient China' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:

- civil servants
- examination
- confiscated
- silk
- corvée
- social classes

#2 Who established the Han dynasty?

#3 How many years did the Han dynasty last?

#4 Which two classes sat at the top of the social hierarchy during the Han dynasty?

understanding & analysing

#5 Why did the Han dynasty tax farmers and merchants differently?

#6 How did the Han emperors overcome the problem of insufficient taxes to support their administration and armies?

#7 Why is silk such a highly valued fabric?

evaluating

#8 Examine Source 7.7 to help you answer the following question. Do you think farmers played a more important role than merchants did in Ancient Chinese society, as the Han emperors believed? Discuss.

#9 Write several paragraphs comparing the role of women in Australia today with the ideal virtues of women in Han society, as described in Source 7.8. Once you have done this, discuss your ideas with the class.

evaluating & creating

#10 Draw two separate triangles.

- a Divide the first triangle into four sections and in each section write the name of a social class in Ancient China during the Han dynasty, starting with civil servants at the top, followed by farmers and so on.
- b Divide the second triangle into four sections and in each section place one of the following social classes from modern Australia (the most important at the top and the least important at the bottom): Public servants, Farmers, Tradespeople, Businesspeople.
- c In small groups, discuss the similarities and differences between social class in Ancient China and in Australia today.

#11 In groups of three or four, discuss how you would change Han society so that all social classes were treated equally. Once you have done this, share your ideas with the class.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

LEGACIES AND CONNECTIONS TO

UNIT 8

TECHNOLOGY IN ANCIENT CHINA

Although, geographically, Ancient China was far from other ancient civilisations such as Egypt in the Middle East and Greece and Rome in Europe, there is much evidence of connections between these civilisations. As you have already read in Unit 7, the Chinese during the Han dynasty traded silk, as well as other goods, with the Romans—along the ancient trade route known as the Silk Road.

These connections are further demonstrated by the spread of technology. Ancient China was as advanced technologically as other civilisations of the time, including the Roman Empire—and in some ways it was more advanced. Many important technologies—for example, the compass and paper—were first invented by the Chinese. Their discovery contributed to the growth of society in Ancient China and were crucial in advancing many other non-Chinese societies as well.

THE COMPASS

Historians believe that the Ancient Chinese were the first to discover magnetism and that they invented the magnetic compass. Between 200 and 100 BCE, they made a simple magnetic compass using a piece of magnetite, or lodestone. Magnetite is a greyish-black crystal that has unique magnetic qualities.

By 600 CE the Chinese learnt how to induce magnetic properties into small pieces of iron. These would be floated on water to show direction. Between 700 and 800 CE the design of the compass was improved by placing a single piece of magnetised iron on a movable pivot. This new type of compass gave more accurate readings.

The first recorded instance of the Chinese using a compass on a ship to navigate occurred between 1111 and 1117 CE. Europeans only began to use the compass for navigation a century later.



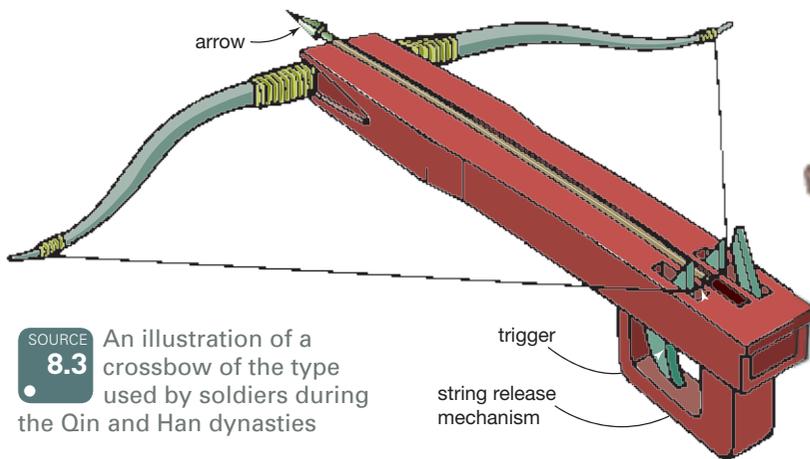
SOURCE 8.1 This paper banknote was used in China in 1374 CE. Few notes older than this survive, though the blocks and plates used to print some of them do.



SOURCE 8.2 This is a replica of the first magnetic compass invented by the Ancient Chinese. The spoon is made from magnetite.

THE CROSSBOW

Historians are uncertain when the crossbow was invented in Ancient China, but they believe it may have been in about 500 BCE, during the Spring and Autumn period. Some terracotta warriors hold crossbows, and archaeologists have found crossbow trigger mechanisms that date from between 221 and 206 BCE. Sima Qian also refers to the crossbow in his *Historical Records* (see Source 5.8). These pieces of evidence indicate that the crossbow was widely used by soldiers during the Qin and Han dynasties. The crossbow had many advantages over a normal bow. It required less skill and strength to fire and it was also more powerful. This allowed untrained soldiers to become effective archers. The crossbow could fire a bolt over a distance of 800 metres. It took centuries for this technology to travel to other parts of the world. Europeans only began using the crossbow during the Medieval period between 1200 and 1400 CE.



SOURCE 8.3 An illustration of a crossbow of the type used by soldiers during the Qin and Han dynasties



SOURCE 8.4 This crossbow trigger mechanism, used during the Qin dynasty (221–207 BCE), was excavated from the burial tomb of Shi Huangdi.



SOURCE 8.5 Another crossbow trigger mechanism, used during the Han dynasty and dating from between 207 BCE and 8 CE. Both mechanisms are in the National Museum of China.

THE INVENTION OF PAPER

In many societies, the availability of paper has led to further technological advances because it has promoted the spread of ideas. Before the invention of paper, the Ancient Chinese wrote on bones, shells, wood and bamboo. These materials were heavy and little could be written upon them. The Ancient Chinese wanted a material they could write on that was lightweight, long lasting and cheap to make.

SILK PAPER

During the Han dynasty the Chinese discovered how to make a type of paper from the cocoons of silkworms. They pulped poor-quality cocoons together on a mat. The cocoons were then removed from the mat, leaving a thin sheet of silk floss behind. Once it dried, the sheet was peeled off the mat and was smooth enough to write on. The Ancient Chinese called this silk paper *xidi*. However, it was still expensive because it was made of silk.

ALTERNATIVE PAPER SOURCES

The Ancient Chinese began to experiment with materials other than silk in the search for a cheaper material that they could write on. Using the same process as they had with silk cocoons, they discovered in the second century CE that a cheap paper could be made from hemp (a type of plant grown for its valuable fibre) and other types of plants. As with the crossbow, it took centuries for the invention of paper to arrive in Europe from Ancient China. Europeans only began writing on paper between 1200 and 1400 CE.

PAPER MONEY

One thing leads to another, and the invention of paper eventually led the Chinese to come up with paper money. This increased trade within China because it enabled merchants to buy and sell more products. Before there was paper money, merchants found it difficult to make large transactions because of the weight of all the metal coins they had to carry.



SOURCE 8.6 This woodblock print shows the papermaking process. Plant fibres are pressed together in a mould, washed and then dried to create a sheet of paper.

TIME TO THINK ...

1 ANCIENT CHINA, AUSTRALIA AND THEIR LINKS TO OTHER COUNTRIES

- a** Were you surprised by the technological discoveries made by the Ancient Chinese? Why, or why not?
- b** We know that the Ancient Chinese traded silk with the Ancient Romans. Can you think of some reasons why other technological discoveries such as paper or the crossbow were not traded with the Ancient Romans?
- c** What links or connections does Australia have with China today? Are they only based on trade? How do both Australia and China benefit from these links?

2 EVIDENCE IN ANCIENT CHINA

- a** What did you learn about the types of evidence historians use to reconstruct Ancient Chinese society?
- b** Which pieces of evidence have been the most valuable to historians in learning about Ancient Chinese society—for example, during the Shang dynasty?

3 CONTINUITY AND CHANGE IN ANCIENT CHINA

- a** How did Ancient Chinese society change from the Xia dynasty to the Han dynasty?
- b** Do you think people benefited as a consequence of these changes? If not all people benefited from them, then which group or groups of people did?

4 HISTORICAL SIGNIFICANCE AND HERITAGE

Why do we study Ancient China today? What is significant about this period in history and what does it tell us about modern China?

INQUIRY

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU ANSWER THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS FROM THE START OF THE CHAPTER.

TASKS

#1 an archaeologist's report

Imagine you are an archaeologist and have just begun digging at the ruins at Erlitou, Anyang or the tomb of the terracotta warriors. Your task is to:

- Read about what was discovered at the archaeological sites of Erlitou (Unit 2), Anyang (Unit 3) or the tomb of the terracotta warriors (Unit 5) in this chapter. Also research what was discovered at these archaeological sites using other sources such as the internet or books.
- Choose one of these sites to **conduct your archaeological dig**.
- Write three diary entries (around 100 words each) on what you discover.

#2 advice to a king

Imagine you are an aspiring philosopher living during the Warring States period (481–221 BCE). You want the fighting to stop and decide to advise your king on how to strengthen his authority and achieve peace. Your task is to write a 300-word letter of advice describing the best way to govern a state.

- Read Unit 6, the source study, again and conduct further research on Chinese philosophy using books and the internet to help you develop your ideas and write your letter.
- Once you have written your letter, you must present it to the king and his advisers (your teacher and class).

#3 interview with Shi Huangdi

It is 221 CE and Shi Huangdi has just become emperor of all of China. He and his advisers are considering what reforms they will make to the Qin Empire in order to strengthen his imperial authority and make the government run more efficiently. Your task is to:

- write a play with two or three other students about Shi Huangdi discussing with his advisers the reforms he will make. When writing the script for your play, you and your group should consider Shi Huangdi's attitude towards the

#4 historians at work

You and your partner work at a museum.

The museum director (your teacher) wishes to create an exhibition on Ancient China and wants to know what types of artefacts to include in the exhibition. Using the internet, books and information from this chapter, design an annotated visual display (AVD) for the museum director that shows the primary evidence historians and archaeologists have discovered about the five dynasties of Ancient China: the Xia, the Shang, the Zhou, the Qin and the Han.

You should design your AVD as follows:

- Separate your AVD into five sections and allocate one of the dynasties to each section.
- Find a minimum of two or three pieces of evidence for each dynasty.
- For each piece of evidence, write a brief description of it that explains why it is significant (20–30 words).
- Find an image of each piece of evidence and stick it on to the AVD next to the description of the piece of evidence.

#5 a Roman travels to Ancient China: the game

Note: dice are necessary for this activity.

It is 150 CE and you are a Roman diplomat who has travelled along the Silk Road to Ancient China in the hope of discovering some miraculous objects that you can bring back to Rome. Your task is to:

- a Read about the technological discoveries made by the Ancient Chinese in Unit 8, 'Technology in Ancient China', in other books and on the internet.
- b Choose two objects and write a brief report explaining why you chose to return with these particular objects to Rome. (Suggestion: describe how the objects would benefit Roman society.)
- c Begin your journey home. During the second century CE, travelling along the Silk Road was dangerous. To see whether you make it back to Rome, roll a six-sided die for each of the three cities you pass through in turn—Kashgar, Samarkand and Babylon—and consult the table below. Begin in Kashgar. Good luck!
- d Keep playing until you reach Rome safely, then **present your report to the emperor or empress** (your teacher). He or she will then judge which objects are the most valuable for Rome by looking at the objects you chose and the reasons why you chose them. You will then receive your reward.



City	Result on a roll of 1, 2 or 3	Result on a roll of 4 or 5	Result on a roll of 6
Kashgar	Your journey is uneventful. You reach Samarkand. (Roll for Samarkand.)	You are delayed several days as you bargain with merchants at the Kashgar market over a bundle of quality lambswool. You are sure you will make a great profit if you sell it in Rome. Roll for Kashgar again.	Your camel runs off into the desert (with you on it) after it sees a scorpion. You do not reach Rome.
Samarkand	Your journey is uneventful. You reach Babylon. (Roll for Babylon.)	It's raining outside and you don't want to get wet. You stay beside the warm fire at the Samarkand Inn for the rest of the day. Roll for Samarkand again.	You have fallen in love and never want to leave Samarkand. Riches and fame are now meaningless. You do not reach Rome.
Babylon	Your journey is uneventful. You reach Rome safely. Congratulations!	You taste sherbet for first time—it's delicious! You decide to stay a while in Babylon and sample some more. Roll for Babylon again.	You meet a priest or priestess beside the Euphrates River who convinces you to discover the meaning of life—in a cave. You do not reach Rome.



SOURCE
9.1

A restored section
of the Great Wall of
China near Beijing

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

Why and where did Ancient Indian civilisations develop?

Did Ancient Indian society change or remain the same throughout the Early and Late Vedic periods?

Which major religions developed in Ancient India and what influence have they had?

Which Ancient Indian rulers had the most impact on their society?



India's first civilisation began in about 2600 BCE in the valley of the Indus River. Aryans from the north-west later brought Vedic culture, from which three great religions developed. Under successive dynasties and through periods of political fragmentation, Ancient India was characterised by sophisticated thought, beautiful art, power, wealth and diversity.



ANCIENT



INDIA



SOURCE
0.1
• Ganesha, the elephant-headed Hindu god of prophecy. Ganesha is associated with intellect and wisdom, and the arts and sciences.

SNAPSHOT



SOURCE 1.1 Ancient India

6000 BCE? First evidence of human settlement, in Baluchistan

4000 BCE First settlements are established in the Indus Valley

3000 BCE

2600 Great cities of the Indus Valley civilisation have been established

2300 Harappa flourishes

2000 BCE

1750 Harappa begins to decline

1400 Aryans from the north-west begin to arrive over the Hindu Kush, bringing the Vedas

1000 BCE

900 Indo-Aryan tribes begin to move east along the Gangetic plain

700 Brahmanas are completed

600 Vedas are first written down

563 Buddha is born

540 Vardhamana Mahavira is born

500 Vedanta Upanishads completed

483 Buddha dies

468 Vardhamana Mahavira dies

324 Chandragupta Maurya comes to power

300 *Ramayana* is completed

269 Ashoka comes to power

1 CE

200 Sangams (colleges) of Madura flourish

320 Chandra Gupta I is crowned in Pataliputra

3000–1400 BCE
Indus Valley civilisation

1400–320 BCE
Vedic period

320–185 BCE
Mauryan dynasty

185 BCE – 320 CE
Period of political fragmentation

320–415 CE
Gupta Empire

SOURCE
1.2 Timeline of Ancient India

GEOGRAPHY

Ancient India occupied part of today's India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. India's three major zones incorporate nearly every kind of climate and landform.

The Himalayan mountains in the north provide protection from invaders and from Arctic winds. Ice and snow from here provide water and silt for the alluvial plain further south.

The central plain receives seasonal monsoon rains, and is the home of the Indus River (after which India is named) and India's most important river, the Ganges.

The southern peninsular massif forms a natural barrier between north and south. This area relies on rain for water, and much of it experiences drought. The **Dravidian** racial group and language family originated here.

HISTORICAL INDIA

The first evidence of human settlement dates from between 6000 and 4000 BCE. These Indians constructed mud-brick houses, used tools of stone and bone, and domesticated sheep, goats and oxen. Archaeologists have uncovered goddess figurines, geometric motifs and evidence of cremation. They also found humped bull figurines and stone phalluses (penises), both later associated with the worship of the Hindu god Shiva.

Settlements established in the Indus Valley during the fourth millennium BCE developed into the great cities of Harappa, Mohenjo-Daro, Kalibangan and Lothal, and flourished for 900 years.

From about 1400 BCE, Aryans began arriving from the north-west. They brought with them the **Vedic culture**, from which Hinduism, Jainism and Buddhism later sprang. The Indo-Aryans established small hereditary kingdoms.

In the fourth century BCE Chandragupta founded the Mauryan dynasty, but it was his grandson, Ashoka, who made it famous. Ashoka subdued rival kings to establish the first Indian Empire.

Other dynasties followed the Mauryas, but none reached the same power, influence and wealth. The last great dynasty was established by a different Chandragupta—Chandra Gupta I—in 320 CE. Hinduism as we know it today was established around this time.

INDUS VALLEY CIVILISATION

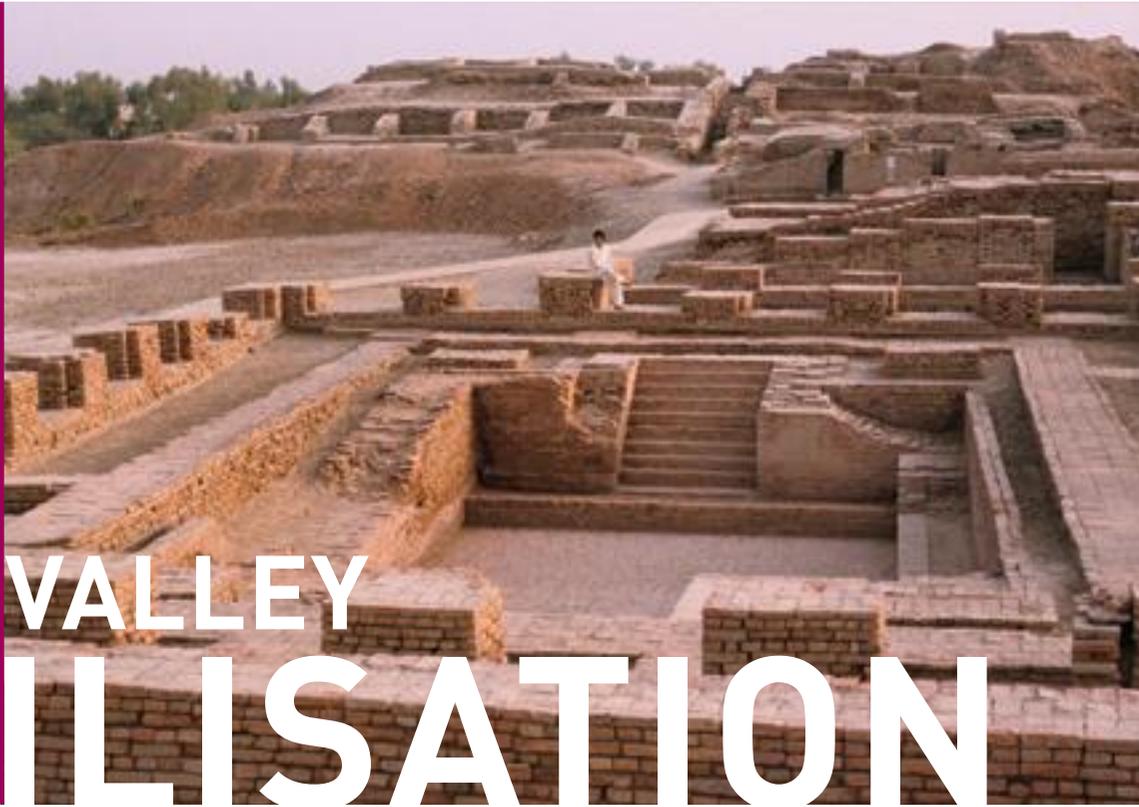
CITIES ON THE PLAIN

The Indus Valley plain is very similar to the Nile of Ancient Egypt and the Tigris–Euphrates valley of Sumer. Naturally fertile soil came in the form of silt from the annual flooding of the Indus River. Different crops were grown in different areas: the western plain was suitable for rice cultivation; on the eastern plain and in northern Punjab, wheat, barley and millet were grown.

The Indus Valley civilisation had two capital cities: a northern capital called Harappa, and a southern capital called Mohenjo-Daro. Both cities had been established by 2600 BCE. For a long time, nobody knew the Indus Valley civilisation had existed. Then, in January 1921, an Indian archaeologist named D. R. Sahni uncovered Harappa. The Indus Valley civilisation is now represented by seventy archaeological sites extending over almost 1.3 million square kilometres.

HARAPPA

Harappa flourished between 2300 and 1750 BCE. During this time, its population peaked at around 35 000 people. The city itself was 5.6 kilometres in circumference, and was surrounded by ramparts or walls that were 12.2 metres thick at the base.



SOURCE 2.1 Mohenjo-Daro's hypocaust. A layer of tar was used to stop the bath from leaking.

Q What else do you see in this photograph that indicates Mohenjo-Daro was a large, well-planned city?

SOURCE 2.2 Seals such as this one, in the National Museum of Pakistan, were characteristic of Harappan culture. It is made from steatite, a variety of talc. Over 400 unique Indus symbols have so far been identified, but they have not yet been deciphered.



Harappa had many granaries. These were arranged in two rows, with six storage areas in each row, each with ventilation ducts. The scale of these granaries attests to Harappa's wealth. Archaeologists believe they were used either to store surplus grain for consumption or export, or to store goods imported from Sumer.

MOHENJO-DARO

Mohenjo-Daro is located on the western bank of the Indus River, about 640 kilometres south of Harappa. There are ten cities on the site, each built on top of the preceding one. The bottom three cities have not been examined by archaeologists because they are immersed in water.

Like Harappa, Mohenjo-Daro has a walled citadel enclosing many important buildings. One of these was a giant **hypocaust**—a heated bath with dressing rooms. Mohenjo-Daro also had a large granary. A large building next to the granary may have been a royal palace. No temple or centre of worship has ever been uncovered in Mohenjo-Daro, though archaeologists believe there may be one under a more recent Buddhist **stupa**.

Beyond Mohenjo-Daro's citadel was a large city. It was well planned on a north-south grid and was divided into major blocks that may have separated occupational or family groups. Houses typically had a large interior courtyard; some were large dwellings built on several levels.

INDUS INDUSTRY AND TRADE

Indus people were very industrious and wealthy. They were the first to make and sell cotton cloth. Most Indus exports, however, were luxury items—for example, goods of shell and bone inlay, ivory combs and wood products. Indus people also domesticated a wide variety of animals, including the dog, cat, camel, sheep, pig, goat, elephant and chicken. They imported luxury items from Persia and Afghanistan, including items made from silver, turquoise, tin and lapis lazuli.

DECLINE

Archaeological evidence suggests a decline in Harappa after about 1750 BCE. Homes became smaller, and new dwellings no longer followed the grid pattern. The quality of pottery and of drainage systems deteriorated. At Mohenjo-Daro homes were abandoned, and jewellery and precious objects were found hidden in high places; some skeletons were found trapped under rubble. An early theory was that Aryan invaders from the north overran the two cities. Newer theories suggest that one or more plate movements in the Earth's crust caused catastrophic flooding and permanently altered the course of waterways including the Indus River. With their ability to grow crops ruined, people abandoned their homes.

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your workbook or in a Microsoft® Word document or Excel® file on your computer, create an 'Ancient India' glossary. Begin your glossary by listing these key words or phrases and explaining their meanings:
 - Dravidian
 - Vedic culture
 - hypocaust
 - stupa
- #2** When was the Indus Valley civilisation discovered? Why do you think no one had known of its existence before this discovery?
- #3** Outline the theories for the decline of the Indus Valley civilisation. Which theory do you think is the most likely to be right? Explain your answer.

applying & analysing

- #4** Imagine you were living in Mohenjo-Daro when the Indus River flooded. Write a diary entry of 150–200 words explaining your reactions and concerns as the water level rises.
- #5** Draw up a T-chart of the key similarities and differences between Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro.

evaluating & creating

- #6** Create a brochure that advertises a five-day archaeological tour to the best Indus sites. Make sure you list and describe the major highlights of the tour. Additional research may be required to complete this task.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

SOURCE 3.1 Sanskrit-inscribed palm leaves at the Oriental Research Institute in Mysore, India. The Oriental Research Institute was founded in 1891 CE. It collects, exhibits, edits and publishes rare manuscripts in both Sanskrit and Kannada (a language of southern India). It houses more than 33 000 palm-leaf manuscripts.

THE EARLY VEDIC PERIOD

ARYAN MIGRATION

In about 1400 BCE a group of peoples known as Aryans (meaning noble or high-born) began arriving in India over the Hindu Kush mountains. Upon their arrival, the Aryans inhabited the 'Land of the Seven Rivers'—the seven rivers being the Indus and its five tributaries, the Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas and Sutlej rivers, and the Sarasvati.

ARYAN POLITICAL, SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC LIFE

The Aryans who crossed into India lived in tribal groupings called *janas*. Each tribe had a **raja** (king), **Brahmans** (priests) and *vish* (commoners). The role of Brahman was particularly important: they were responsible for memorising Vedic hymns and performing sacrifices. Although each Aryan tribe was self-governing, the tribes were united against non-Aryan 'dark' enemies called *dasas*.

The Aryans rode chariots harnessed to horses; common weapons were the bronze axe and longbow. Chariot racing was the leading sport. They also loved music, wine and gambling. *Soma* was a common drink—it is described in the Vedas as having alcoholic, psychedelic and/or narcotic properties. Cows were treated as currency, but were also eaten.

Aryan families were patriarchal (controlled by the father). Sons were prized: sons helped care for the herds, could bring honour in battle, and were the only ones, it was believed, who could carry out a father's funeral correctly. Daughters were not valued, mainly because dowries had to be paid if they were to marry.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT YOUNG HINDU BOYS ARE TIED UP IN KNOTS?

The sacred thread ceremony is a Hindu 'rite of passage'. At the ceremony a boy learns about the source of all creation (Brahman) through chanting a mantra from the *Rig Veda*. With this new knowledge, he is 'born again' (the first time was from his mother's womb). A sacred thread is then placed around the boy's body. It is a circular thread with only one knot. It goes over the left shoulder and under the right arm. He wears it for the rest of his life.



THE FOUR VARNAS

Varna	Name	Colour	Part of body
first	Brahmans (priests)	white	head
second	Kshatriyas (warriors and rulers)	red	arms
third	Vaisyas (merchants)	brown	thighs
fourth	Sudras (farmers, craftsmen and labourers)	black	feet

THE VEDAS

There is very little archaeological evidence for this period of Indian history. Historians must rely on the sacred books known as Vedas. It was not until about 600 BCE that the Vedas were written down; before then, they were transmitted orally. The oldest Veda is the *Rig Veda*: it consists of 1017 Sanskrit poems addressed to various Aryan gods. Historians usually group the *Rig Veda* with three other ancient collections of poems—the *Sama Veda*, the *Yajur Veda* and the *Atharva Veda*. Commentaries on the Vedas were produced between 1000 and 700 BCE. These commentaries are called the Brahmanas. Between 800 and 500 BCE a third set of religious texts was produced. These were the philosophical texts called the *Vedanta Upanishads*, of which 108 have survived.

ARYANS AS INDO-ARYANS

Over the next 400 years, the Indo-Aryan economy changed. The Aryans were no longer just nomadic herders, but also farmers. Their social structure also became more complex as they conquered new peoples. The new system saw rajas rule with the assistance of Kshatriyas (warriors) and household elders; rajas were also expected to seek advice from *rishis* or sages (holy wise men).

All members of Indo-Aryan society were also now members of one of four *varnas* (classes or castes). Each *varna* was ranked, and was associated with a colour and a part of the male body (see table above).

Members of the first three classes were said to be ‘twice born’ and were allowed to participate in the **sacred thread ceremony**. Those who belonged to the lowest class were not permitted to hear or

study the Vedas. In fact, later Vedic legal texts prescribe pouring molten lead into the ears of any **Sudra** caught listening to the Vedas! Sudras were involved in manual labour; they were carpenters, wheelwrights, blacksmiths, weavers, spinners, farmers and herders. Most historians believe the Sudras were the pre-Aryan occupants of the land. The colour associated with their *varna*—black—may refer to their darker skin tone. All Indo-Aryans were also part of a birth group called a *jati*. *Jati* means ‘thus born’ and may refer to the community, occupation or tribe a person is born into. For example, the surname *Gandhi* means ‘perfume seller’. In modern India the term *jati* is used across all religions.

INDO-ARYAN RELIGION

In the Early Vedic period, Indo-Aryans worshipped many gods—thirty-three are mentioned in the *Rig Veda*. The most powerful gods were Indra, Varuna, Agni and Soma.

[He] who has spread out the earth, as a butcher does the hide, by way of a carpet for the sun ... extended the air above the trees ... put strength in horses, milk in cows, willpower in hearts, fire in waters, the sun in heaven, and soma upon the mountain.

SOURCE 3.2 The *Rig Veda* on Varuna, from S. Wolpert, *A New History of India*, Oxford University Press, New York, 2004

Q Identify all the things Varuna is credited with in this extract.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT THE 'HORSE SACRIFICE' WAS AN IMPORTANT RITUAL IN THIS PERIOD?

To increase a raja's realm and also prove his prowess, a great white stallion was allowed to wander freely for a year. A troop of royal horsemen followed the horse and claimed any land the horse looked at or trod on. The horse was then driven home. The horsemen pretended to mate it with the raja's wives, then killed and quartered it.

Ordinary Indo-Aryan religious worship occurred in the home. Sacrifices were typically of *soma*, ghee (clarified butter) or some other treat; they were usually used to secure favour or to preserve dharma (universal order). Indo-Aryans believed that demons were responsible for all the ills of society, including floods, droughts and famine. Demons could be seen in prowling tigers, mad elephants and mosquitoes. This obsession with demons made Brahmins—who were employed day and night to chant Vedic hymns and perform sacrifices—very important, and powerful. The religious practices of the Indo-Aryans in this period would eventually become the basis of Hinduism, the first of India's three great religions.



SOURCE
3.3

Agni, god of fire. In this sculpture, Agni is shown with two heads and four hands; he sits on a ram. Agni's two heads symbolise his two sides—destructive and generous. Agni also has seven tongues that he uses to lick ghee. This teak relief carving dates from the seventeenth century CE.



What else is Agni carrying in this photograph? What might they be used for?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'Ancient India' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:
 - Brahmins
 - sacred thread ceremony
 - *dasas*
 - Sudra
 - *jati*
 - *varna*
 - raja
 - Vedanta Upanishads
 - *Rig Veda*
- #2** a How many gods are mentioned in the *Rig Veda*?
b Name the most powerful of the Indo-Aryan gods.
- #3** Write a paragraph explaining the difference between *varna*, *jati* and caste.
- #4** Draw a simple cartoon strip or storyboard that illustrates the Horse Sacrifice.

applying

- #5** Use an atlas to trace a map of India onto an A4 sheet. Use tracing paper to create a series of overlay maps showing the different stages of the Aryan migration (beginning in the Caspian/Black Sea region, and ending in the occupation of 'Land of the Seven Rivers').

applying & analysing

- #6** Draw up a graphic representation of the Aryan social structure. Next to it, draw a graphic representation of the Indo-Aryan social structure. Annotate the representations to show key areas of similarity and difference.

evaluating & creating

- #7** Plan and write a job advertisement for an Indo-Aryan raja. Make sure to indicate his *varna*, his attitudes to the other *varnas*, the key challenges he is likely to face, and what he is likely to believe in. Make your advertisement read like a modern one.

CONQUEST & UNIFICATION

SOURCE 4.1 The Kamakura Great Buddha, a Japanese *daibutsu* (large Buddha) cast in bronze in 1252 CE. It is 13.35 metres tall and weighs approximately 93 tonnes. It was originally housed in a temple but the temple washed away in a tsunami in 1498. The arrival of Buddhism in Japan is dated to 552 CE. Buddhism also spread to Europe, South-East Asia and China. There are approximately 350 million followers in the world today.



SOURCE 4.2 An untouchable girl carrying granite blocks. Although the caste system has been abolished under the current Indian Constitution, there is still prejudice and discrimination against untouchables. About 16 per cent of India's current population are Dalits (as untouchables are now more commonly known). Gandhi referred to them as 'children of god'. Many Dalits are Christian.

TRIBES ON THE MOVE

In the tenth century BCE, the Indo-Aryan tribes began to move eastwards along the alluvial plain of the Ganga River. This had not been possible beforehand as the Indo-Aryans did not know about iron before this time. Iron tools (heavy ploughs yoked to oxen, and iron axes) were required to clear the area of its thick jungle and plough the rich soil.

This was a period of intertribal conflicts. The great Sanskrit epic (poem) the *Mahabharata* was written in about this period. This was also a time when territorial kingdoms were established, each with its own capital. In the Brahmanas, rajas were now referred to as 'partners of the gods' with special sacrifices to make holy their rule. Other evidence of increasing power was the emergence of new titles—*maharajas* (great kings) and *samrajas* (rulers over all). Brahmans were also at the height of their power and authority. The mantras they chanted were held in higher regard than the gods. Under the direction of a Brahman, ordinary householders were encouraged to perform sacrifices five times a day or more.

SOCIAL STRUCTURE AND WORSHIP

As more peoples were subjected to Indo-Aryan rule, an even lower *varna* than Sudras was created. This group was known as 'fifths' or 'untouchables'. They could only work as butchers, latrine diggers, tanners and the like—occupations considered to be spiritually polluting.

THE UPANISHAD SAGES

By about 700 BCE sages began to question the authority of the Brahmins. They were unhappy about resources being wasted in elaborate rituals. Rich men and rajas died just like poor men, so what was the benefit of frequent sacrifices? These sages began to preach to disciples in the forest. Their ideas were written down and formed the Vedanta Upanishads, which proposed that the key to achieving **moksha** (release) was attaining freedom from desire.

Verily, freedom from desire is like the choicest extract from the choicest treasure. In thinking 'This is I' and 'That is mine' one binds himself with himself, as does a bird with a snare!

SOURCE 4.3 The Maitri Upanishad on desire

For the Upanishad mystics, the key to immortality was understanding that **atman** (the individual soul) was the same as **Brahman** (the source of all creation). Their ideas also included:

- **samsara**—awareness of the endless cycle of birth, death, rebirth and so on that occurs as long as one has not achieved **moksha**
- **karma**—awareness that all actions have repercussions, and that we are a product of all our past actions.

BUDDHISM

Buddhism was founded in India during the time of the Vedanta Upanishads. Buddhism is named after its founder, **Buddha**, who before achieving enlightenment was known as Siddhartha Gautama. Siddhartha Gautama was born into a life of luxury and ease in

SOURCE 4.4 **Aum** (or Om)—the symbol sacred to Hindus, Buddhists and Jains. Aum is made up of three phonemes (sounds) and is often intoned during meditation.



SOURCE 4.5 A group of ascetics (religious people who practise austerity or self-denial) sitting under a banyan tree. This painting dates from 1630 CE and is in the British Museum.

- Q**
- 1 Describe each figure and what they are doing in detail.
 - 2 What do the figures have in common?

563 BCE as the son of a northern Indo-Aryan king. At the age of thirty, though, he abandoned family and wealth to become a wandering hermit in the woods. While sitting under a pipal tree, Siddhartha Gautama achieved enlightenment (**nirvana**).

THE FOUR NOBLE TRUTHS

At the heart of Buddha's philosophy were four propositions known as the **Four Noble Truths**. In short, these are:

- 1 Suffering is inevitable.
- 2 Ignorance is the basic cause of suffering.
- 3 Any ailment, when understood, can be cured.
- 4 There is an eightfold path to the elimination of suffering—holding and practising right views, right aspirations, right speech, right conduct, right livelihood, right effort, right mindfulness and right meditation.

Buddha spent the next forty-five years teaching disciples. In Buddha's lifetime, only men could join his monastic order. To become monks, these men had to commit themselves to chastity, poverty and non-violence. This included abandoning all family ties and any prospect of marriage and children; it also included begging for food each day. Monks' heads were shaved; they wore saffron robes and went barefoot.

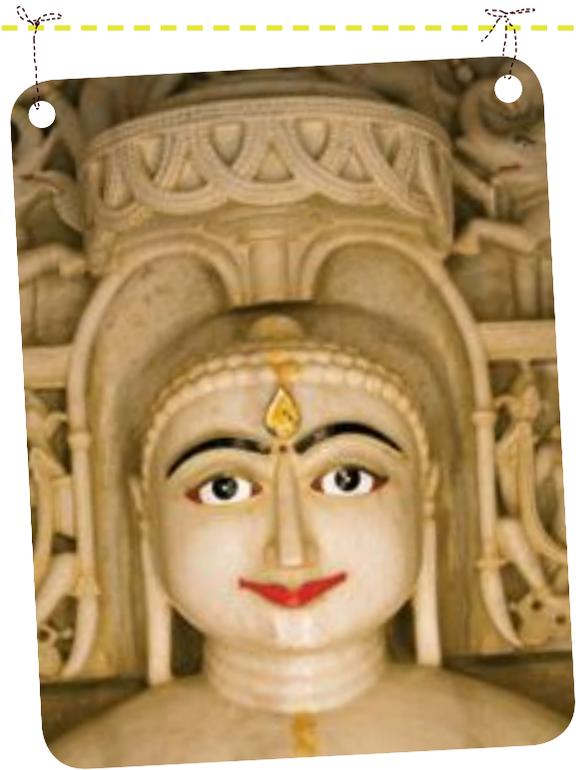
Buddha died, aged eighty, in about 483 BCE.

JAINISM

Jainism was founded by Vardhamana Mahavira, who lived from about 599 to 527 BCE. Like Siddhartha Gautama, Mahavira was the Kshatriya son of a northern Indo-Aryan king who abandoned his privileged life at the age of thirty. Mahavira spent the next ten years with a sect of ascetics who practised nudism. They labelled him *jina* (conqueror) because of his amazing self-control. Mahavira advocated self-torture and death by starvation: he actually starved himself to death over thirteen years, taking less food each year!

Jains (followers of *jina*) accept two core doctrines:

- All of nature is alive. This includes rocks, earthworms, men and gods, all of whom have some form of soul (*jiva*).



SOURCE 4.6 A polished stone statue of Mahavira in a Jain temple inside Jaisalmer Fort

Q Compare this representation of Mahavira with the representation of Buddha in Source 4.1. Are there any similarities?

- **Ahimsa** (nonviolence) totally prohibits taking life. To ensure that they harmed nothing, Jains wore face masks (so they would not accidentally swallow a fly) and gently swept the ground in front of them as they walked (so they would not accidentally step on an ant).

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'Ancient India' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:
- | | |
|-----------|---------------------|
| ■ ahimsa | ■ Four Noble Truths |
| ■ atman | ■ karma |
| ■ Aum | ■ maharajas |
| ■ Brahman | ■ moksha |
| ■ Buddha | ■ untouchables |
- #2** a Who were the maharajas and *samrajas*?
b What was the *Mahabharata*?
- #3** What had originally stopped the Indo-Aryans from moving eastwards along the Gangetic plain?
- #4** Using dot points, note down all the evidence in this unit showing the increasing power of the Brahmins.

applying & analysing

- #5** Imagine you are an untouchable in the Late Vedic period. Write a diary entry of 150–250 words explaining how you came to be an untouchable and what your life is like.
- #6** Write two examples of what Buddha might have meant by right views, right aspirations, right speech, right conduct, right livelihood, right effort, right mindfulness and right meditation.

creating

- #7** Prepare a short cartoon that explains to a primary school student the development and basic philosophy of the Upanishad sages or the development and doctrines of Jainism.

**LEARNING
ACTIVITIES**

THE MAHABHARATA

THE MAHABHARATA CONSISTS OF EIGHTEEN BOOKS, ABOUT 100 000 VERSES AND ABOUT 1.8 MILLION WORDS. It is therefore the

longest epic poem ever written. Historians generally accept that it is a 'layered' text—that is, that some parts of it were written earlier and others much later. The earliest layers have been dated to around the eighth century BCE, and the most recent to the Gupta Empire (from 320 CE). The *Mahabharata* is made up of a number of stories told within other stories. It begins by testifying that Ganesh—the elephant-headed god of prophecy—is the scribe, but that he is writing under the command of the sage Vyasa. Vyasa then proceeds to tell his tale:

A bitter rivalry divides two sets of cousins who seek the throne of Hastinapura. On one side are the Kaurava, who are part of the senior branch of the Kuru clan. On the other side are the Pandavas, who are part of the junior branch. The eldest Kaurava, Duryodhana, is younger than the eldest Pandava, Yudhishthira. Thus, both claim the throne. Unfortunately, Yudhishthira has a terrible human weakness—an addiction to gambling. The Kaurava take advantage of this weakness by inviting him to play dice. Yudhishthira not only loses the game, but also his fortune, the kingdom and all his brothers' possessions, as well as their wife, Draupadi (who was married to all five brothers!). The Pandavas are then exiled for twelve years. At the end of their exile, the Pandavas make preparations for war but also attempt (unsuccessfully) to secure peace. A great battle then takes place at Kurukshetra. At the end of the battle, only seven warriors remain on the Pandava side, and three on the Kaurava side. The dead are lamented by the women. Yudhishthira is eventually crowned king of Hastinapura, and rules peacefully. At the end of his life, Yudhishthira and his brothers travel to the Himalayas to ascend to heaven. Each of Yudhishthira's brothers fails to make it; Yudhishthira is the only one to pass the final test and return to the spiritual world.

THE BHAGAVAD-GITA

The *Bhagavad-Gita* is one of the 'books within a book' of the *Mahabharata*. Hindus consider it a sacred scripture. It records a conversation between Arjuna, Yudhishthira's brother, and Krishna, an avatar (manifestation) of the Hindu god Vishnu. On the battlefield at Kurukshetra, Arjuna hesitates before attacking the Kaurava. Arjuna is confused about where his duty lies because he recognises the Kaurava as his kin (family). Krishna advises Arjuna on the correct path. In doing so, he discusses the duties of a warrior and prince, and also tells him about yoga and Hindu philosophy.

SOURCE 5.1 Mahatma Gandhi's translation of lines 11 to 27 of the *Bhagavad-Gita*. Here, Krishna talks to Arjuna about pleasure, pain and death of the human body. He says they are not to be worried about death, for only the soul lasts forever.

The wise mourn neither for the living nor for the dead ...

As the embodied one has, in the present body, infancy, youth and age, even so does he receive another body ...

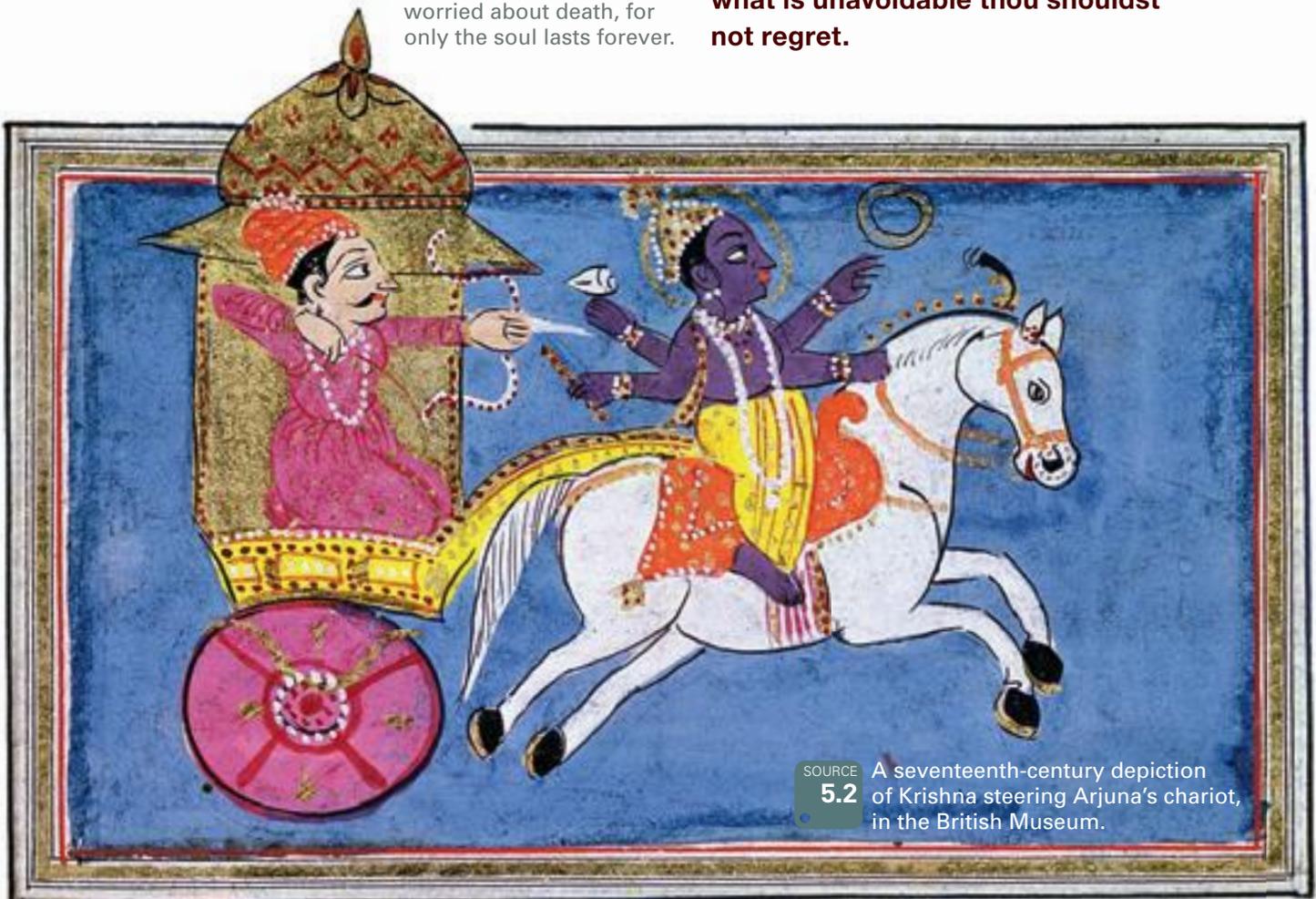
Contacts of the senses with their objects bring cold and heat, pleasure and pain; they come and go and are transient ...

The wise man who is not disturbed by these, who is unmoved by pleasure and pain, he is fitted for immortality ...

[Atman (the soul)] is never born nor ever dies, nor having been will ever not be any more; unborn, eternal, everlasting, ancient, [Atman] is not slain when the body is slain ...

Thou shouldst not grieve ...

For certain is the death of the born, and certain is the birth of the dead; therefore what is unavoidable thou shouldst not regret.



SOURCE 5.2 A seventeenth-century depiction of Krishna steering Arjuna's chariot, in the British Museum.

THE *RAMAYANA*

The *Ramayana* is attributed to the Hindu poet-sage Valmiki, who wrote it in about the fourth century BCE. Like the *Mahabharata*, it is an epic. The *Ramayana* is set in northern India, and at 50 000 verses is only a quarter the size of the *Mahabharata*. It depicts ideal characters such as the ideal servant (Hanuman), the ideal brother (Bharat), the ideal wife (Sita) and the ideal king (Dasarath). The *Ramayana* explores the concept of dharma (universal order, and how one must do his/her duty to preserve it). It is also an excellent source on the teachings of the ancient Hindu hermit-sages. There are a number of regional versions of the work, but the main storyline is the same. The *Ramayana* is essentially the story of Ram and Sita:



SOURCE
5.3 A seventeenth-century depiction of the attack on Ravan and Lanka, in the National Museum of New Delhi

Ram is the oldest of four brothers born to the King of Kosala, Dasarath. He is loved by everyone, and embodies virtue. Ram is no ordinary man, though: he is the seventh avatar of the Hindu god Vishnu. Ram's purpose on Earth is to re-establish order. This is necessary because Ravan, a demon king, has run amok and religion can no longer be safely practised. Ram falls in love with Sita, the daughter of King Janak of Videha (a neighbouring kingdom of Kosala). He wins a competition for her hand in marriage. Soon after Ram and Sita are married, the jealousy of one of Dasarath's younger wives erupts and she tricks Dasarath into promising her anything she desires. She asks that Ram be banished to the forest for fourteen years and that Ram's half-brother—her own son, Bharat—be crowned in Ram's place. Dasarath's honour makes it impossible for him to refuse her request but, in his grief at the loss of his most beloved son, he collapses and dies. To honour his father's word, Ram embraces his changed circumstances. The dutiful Sita and Lakshman, another of Ram's brothers, accompany him into the forest. Bharat, meanwhile, refuses to be crowned king.

In the forest Ram meets, learns from and helps many hermit-sages. The hermit-sages live in self-imposed exile because they wish to practise yoga undisturbed. Ram's actions bring him into the path of Ravan, who falls in love with Sita and abducts her. The rest of the *Ramayana* consists of Ram's search for Sita. In his search Ram meets, befriends and helps a range of characters, including the ape-man Hanuman (who is the son of the wind god, and very powerful). Sita is eventually found on the island of Lanka, where she is rescued and Ravan is killed. Sita emerges from a fire—where Ram had secretly placed her for her safety—to be reunited with her husband. They return to a joyous Ayodhya, Kosala's capital.

SOURCE STUDY QUESTIONS

For the faithful woman follows
 where her wedded lord may lead,
 In the banishment of Rama, Sita's exile
 is decreed,
 Sire nor son nor loving brother rules
 the wedded woman's state,
 With her lord she falls or rises, with
 her consort courts her fate,
 If the righteous son of Raghu wends
 to forests dark and drear,
 Sita steps before her husband wild
 and thorny path to clear!

SOURCE 5.4 According to this extract from the *Ramayana*, it is Sita's duty as a wife to follow her husband into his forest exile.

1 REMEMBERING & UNDERSTANDING

- a Identify which of the following characters are from the *Mahabharata* and which are from the *Ramayana*: Arjuna, Bharat, Dasarath, Draupadi, Ganesh, Hanuman, Krishna, Ram, Ravan, Sita, Vyasa, Yudhisthira.
- b Note a simple fact about each character.

2 APPLYING & ANALYSING

- In Source 5.1:
- a What does Krishna mean when he tells Arjuna he will 'receive another body'?
 - b In your own words, explain this statement: 'For certain is the death of the born, and certain is the birth of the dead'.
 - c Is this view of the soul shared in other belief systems?

3

- Examine Sources 5.2 and 5.3 carefully.
- a Create a 100-word caption for each of Sources 5.2 and 5.3. Make specific references to what you see in the sources.
 - b Choose one of the figures you see in either painting. Write a short story about the events from this character's point of view.

THAT INDIA STOPS FOR THE RAMAYANA?

DID YOU KNOW

From the eighth century CE to the present, the *Ramayana* has inspired painters, poets, writers, temple architects, dancers and playwrights. In the 1980s, a seventy-eight episode television version of the epic became so popular that Indian religious services were rescheduled to accommodate the broadcasts, and trains, buses, and inner-city trucks stopped running when the show was on.

4

APPLYING & ANALYSING

- In Source 5.4:
- a What quality of a wife will cause her to follow her husband's path? (Line 1)
 - b Who are the three people identified whom a married woman will not obey?
 - c What is Sita advised to do in the final four lines as Ram (the son of Dasarath, from the House of Raghu) moves through the forest?
 - d Is the expectation of women outlined in this excerpt from the *Ramayana* a fair one? Why, or why not?

5

- a Draw up a Venn diagram that compares the *Mahabharata* and the *Ramayana*.
- b Use the information in your Venn diagram to write a short paragraph summarising their differences and similarities.

6

EVALUATING & CREATING

- Create a media product (movie poster, podcast, 30-second radio or television advertisement) that promotes a new television or theatre production of the *Mahabharata* or the *Ramayana*. Your media product should place the text in its proper historical context, and should also refer to the more exciting or meaningful aspects of the story.

SOURCE
6.1 Ashoka's wheel and its representation in the Indian flag today

THE MAURYAN KINGS



SOURCE
6.2 Ashoka's most famous pillar edict is called the 'Four Lions of Sarnath'. Three of these lions have been integrated into the national symbol of India. On the pillar, the lions support a stone wheel—the **wheel of law**. This wheel—known commonly as 'Ashoka's wheel'—adorns the centre of the current Indian flag.

CHANDRAGUPTA MAURYA

The first truly Indian empire was established in Magadha in the reign of Chandragupta Maurya (from about 324 to 301 BCE). There are different accounts of Chandragupta's family background: one source suggests his father was a herdsman; another, that his mother was a royal concubine (a woman who cohabits with an important man without being married to him).

Chandragupta's bureaucracy was very large: one source suggests that it consisted of one million civil bureaucrats, soldiers and spies! It was so expensive to support this bureaucracy that Chandragupta collected 25 to 50 per cent of the value of all crops raised, and also taxed trade, gold and herds. The state also owned and operated all mines, shipbuilding and armament factories, and centres of spinning and weaving.

The Mauryan capital was Pataliputra (present-day Patna). The city was 13 kilometres long and 2.5 kilometres wide. It was surrounded by timber walls with 570 towers, and a moat 275 metres wide and 9 metres deep. According to the diaries of Megasthenes, the Greek ambassador to Chandragupta's court, Pataliputra was administered by six five-man boards that dealt with industrial arts, trade and commerce, tax collection, foreigners, vital statistics, and maintenance of public places (including markets and temples). Megasthenes also described seven classes of people in Mauryan India (in order of importance): royal councillors, Brahmans, agriculturalists, herdsmen, soldiers, artisans and spies.

Chandragupta divided his empire into districts that were supervised by close relatives or trusted generals. The Mauryan army was divided into four major corps: infantry (600 000 men), cavalry (300 000 men), chariots (8000) and elephants (9000). These estimates are taken from historical sources that may be exaggerated.

Most historians believe much of Chandragupta's success is due to his talented prime minister Kautilya. Kautilya is credited with writing the *Arthashastra*, or *Science of Material Gain*. The *Arthashastra* is full of advice on statecraft (how to run a state), including the recommended education and training of a king, how a king should behave at court, the importance of spies, and how to conduct foreign policy—which included attacking the most powerful of your enemies.

ASHOKA

Chandragupta's grandson **Ashoka** (meaning 'sorrowless') came to power in 269 BCE. The first eight years of Ashoka's reign were relatively unremarkable. In the ninth year, however, Ashoka ordered his armies to invade Kalinga, a kingdom south of Magadha. Kalinga was only subdued after a bloody war. Victory was so bloody that Ashoka experienced deep remorse and resolved on the battlefield to follow Buddha's law of nonviolence.

Historians have a very clear image of him due to the series of **edicts** (pronouncements) he had carved into great rocks and sandstone pillars. These edicts were first translated into English by James Pricep, a man working in the British Mint in Calcutta, in 1837 CE. One of them appears in Source 6.3. They are the earliest Indian writing to have been deciphered in modern times. More than 5000 words in total were carved into the eighteen rocks and thirty pillars that have survived.

Both this world and the other are hard to reach, except by great love of the law, great self-examination, great obedience, great respect, great energy ... this is my rule: government by the law, administration according to the law, gratification of my subjects under the law, and protection through the law.

SOURCE 6.3 One of Ashoka's edicts, from S. Wolpert, *A New History of India*, Oxford University Press, New York, 2004

ASHOKA THE CHAKRAVARTIN

Many historians regard Ashoka as the first true emperor and **chakravartin** ('he for whom the wheel of law turns') of India. He addressed his subjects as 'my children'. He worked hard to enforce centralised government over his empire. To improve communication and integration, Ashoka constructed rest houses along major highways built during his reign. He also sponsored the digging of wells all over India, and is credited with constructing 84 000 stupas. Many ordinary people emulated Ashoka by embracing vegetarianism and Buddhism.

Ashoka withdrew from public life during the last years of his reign, and died in 232 BCE. Under less capable rule, Mauryan rule soon fell into decline: coins lost their value, ramparts of the empire were attacked in both the north and south, and many sons contested the throne.

remembering & understanding

- #1** In your 'Ancient India' glossary, list these words or phrases and explain their meanings:
 - Ashoka
 - edicts
 - *chakravartin*
 - wheel of law
- #2** In a T-chart, create a list of the key achievements of Chandragupta and Ashoka.
- #3** Who was Kautilya and why was he important to the reign of Chandragupta?
- #4** Why might the sources regarding Chandragupta be uncertain or exaggerated?

applying & analysing

- #5** Imagine you were able to visit Pataliputra for a day during the reign of Chandragupta or visit the court of Ashoka. Write a journal entry of 250–350 words describing who you met and what you saw.

creating

- #6** Using Ashoka's edicts as a guide, write up four pillar edicts that you would like placed around your school.

**LEARNING
ACTIVITIES**

INDIA IN THE COMMON ERA

SOURCE
7.1 A sannyasin praying
at a temple in Kerala,
southern India

THE PANDYAS

Southern India had remained isolated from most of the political developments in the north after the Aryan invasions. This was mainly because the peninsular massif formed an effective natural barrier to easy communication. Southern India was dominated by three Tamil kingdoms: the Cheras (also known as Keralas) on the west coast, the Pandyas in the centre, and the Cholas on the east coast. Infighting between the three kingdoms, and then unity against a foreign invader, followed by infighting and then unity, had been a pattern for hundreds of years.

The Pandyas had their capital at Madura. Several *sangams* (colleges) flourished there from at least the second century CE. Five hundred poets at once are said to have studied at Madura's colleges, and 2000 of their poems survive, collected into nine anthologies. These poems tell us a lot about life in southern India. For instance, Tamils were divided into five castes based on where they were born and lived: hill people, plains people, forest folk, desert folk and coastal folk. Each of these five castes was subdivided into occupational groupings—so, for instance, coastal folk could be pearl divers, fisherfolk or boatmakers. Tamil families were matriarchal (ruled by the mother) and matrilineal (descent traced through female line). Outside southern India, the region was famed for its pearls and precious jewels.

THE SHRENI

From southern ports, Indians exported ivory, onyx, cotton goods, silks, pepper and other spices, and precious stones. The Romans paid for these goods in coins, copper, tin, antimony (a type of metal) and wine but, as Pliny

complained, the balance of trade favoured India. By now, trade routes crisscrossed India. These trade routes were regularly traversed by caravans of camels, oxen and donkeys.

Shreni were artisan or merchant guilds, which had responsibility for maintaining public order, and for establishing and enforcing legal regulations governing the commercial conduct of guild members.

The growth of commerce saw an increase in the number of Indian bankers and financiers. Interest rates were high—between 15 and 240 per cent—but the risks of trade and travel over long distances were high, too. Coin-based trade expanded at this time. Gold and silver coins were used, identical in weight to the Roman denarius. Copper coins and cowry shells were also used as currency. All of this activity was irrelevant to village and rural economies: they continued to engage in non-monetary transactions.

HINDU ASCENDANCY

This period marks the emergence of Hinduism as we might recognise it today. Personal devotion to either **Vishnu** or **Shiva** became common. Hindu legal codes were produced, and myths explaining the origins and deeds of Hindu gods and goddesses emerged.

The myths portrayed Vishnu as the divine saviour of mankind. He had nine avatars: a fish, a tortoise, a boar, a man-lion, a dwarf, Ram with an axe, Ram as the hero of the Ramayana, Krishna and Buddha.

Shiva or Lord Shiva was both the creator and the destroyer of life. He was the lord of beasts and the king of dance. Shiva was always accompanied by a consort (companion)—Parvati, Sati, Kali or Durga. Shiva had a number of children, including Ganesh.

DID YOU KNOW

THAT ANCIENT INDIA HAD FREE HEALTH CARE?

A Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, Fa-hsien, who travelled for six years in India at the beginning of the fifth century CE, kept a diary. In it Fa-hsien described Pataliputra as a city of palaces with free hospitals at which the poor, the crippled, the diseased and even foreigners could be treated.



SOURCE 7.2 A later representation of Vishnu. Vishnu is the colour of clouds (blue) and has four arms. He is commonly shown holding a conch, a mace, a wheel and/or a lotus. Vishnu is mentioned ninety-six times in the *Rig Veda*.

Hindu legal texts of this period wrote of the following four ‘transitions’ or stages in the life of every member of the twice-born *varnas*.

First, as a celibate student, a man:

- is invested with the sacred thread (6 to 12 years old)
- leaves his parents and home to live with a guru
- learns the Vedas and also phonetics, grammar, poetry, astrology and etymology.

Next, as a householder, he:

- returns home and is ritually bathed
- has a duty to start a family and enjoy life, including sexual enjoyment
- moves to the next stage when a grandson is born (ensuring continuity of his bloodline).

Then, as a forest dweller, he:

- dresses and lives as a hermit
- leaves home and all possessions (but his wife is permitted to accompany him if she wants to).

Finally, as a wandering ascetic (*sannyasin*), he:

- abandons his wife
- must be homeless, bondless and isolated
- must sever all links in preparation for death
- has the potential to reach moksha.



THE GUPTA EMPIRE

India's political fragmentation ended in 320 CE when Chandra Gupta I was crowned 'great king of kings' in Pataliputra. It was under the rule of his grandson, Chandra Gupta II, from about 375 to 415 CE, that the Gupta Empire reached its peak.

CHANDRA GUPTA II

Chandra Gupta II patronised the Hindu, Buddhist and Jain faiths and built many Hindu temples. Trade flourished under the Guptas. Indian cottons, ivory, brassware, monkeys, parrots and elephants made their way to China. In return, Indians imported musk, raw and woven silk, and tung-oil (a valuable finish for wood). Trade with Rome had declined as the Roman Empire crumbled, but Indian exports to Europe were still valued. When Alaric spared Rome in 410 CE, he demanded, among other things, 500 kilograms of Indian pepper!

Although taxed at a high rate, agriculture also thrived: rice, wheat and sugar cane were the staple crops; fruits such as mangoes, melons, plantains, coconuts, pears, plums, peaches, apricots, grapes, pomegranates and oranges were grown; spices were plentiful, as were ginger and mustard.

Chandra Gupta II died in 415 CE. His successors were unable to hold off invading Huns from the north-west. A rapid decline of the Gupta Empire followed the death of Chandra Gupta II's grandson, Skanda Gupta.

SOURCE 7.3
Shiva in meditation

Q Which of the following attributes of Shiva can you identify in the meditation image: third eye, blue throat, crescent moon, matted hair, ashes, tiger skin, serpent, trident, drum, bull?

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

remembering & understanding

- #1 In your 'Ancient India' glossary, list these words and explain their meanings:
 - sannyasin ■ *shreni*
 - Shiva ■ Vishnu
- #2 Create a mind map that covers the key attributes of Shiva and Vishnu. Use information from the text, but also what you see in Sources 7.2 and 7.3.
- #3 How and why did ancient southern Indians remain separate from the Indo-Aryan population in India's north?

applying

- #4 Work in a small group to script and perform a play of four scenes illustrating the 'four transitions' of a man's life.

applying & analysing

- #5 Use an atlas to trace a map of India and surrounding countries onto an A4 sheet and:
 - a Using one colour, annotate the map with dot points and arrows showing the flow of goods across, into and out of India before the Gupta Dynasty.
 - b Using another colour, annotate the map with dot points and arrows showing the flow of goods across, into and out of India after the Gupta Dynasty.
- #6 Imagine you have the opportunity to meet a sannyasin. Write ten questions you would like to ask him.

evaluating & creating

- #7 Design a media product that aims to convince people to join a *shreni* or become a sannyasin.

LEGACIES AND CONNECTIONS TO...

UNIT 8

WHY WAS ANCIENT INDIA SIGNIFICANT?

INDIAN SCHOLARSHIP

After the Greeks successfully invaded the north-western borders of India (from 190 BCE), trade between the East and the West increased. This also led to the exchange of ideas in mathematics, astronomy and medicine.

SOURCE 8.1 Detail from a gateway to the Great Stupa of Sanchi

Q What do you see represented in the relief?

MATHEMATICS

The ingenious method of expressing every possible number using a set of ten symbols (each symbol having a place value and an absolute value) emerged in India. The idea seems so simple nowadays that its significance and profound importance is no longer appreciated. Its simplicity lies in the way it facilitated calculation and placed arithmetic foremost amongst useful inventions. The importance of this invention is more readily appreciated when one considers that it was beyond the two greatest men of Antiquity, Archimedes and Apollonius.

SOURCE 8.2 Pierre-Simon, Marquis de Laplace (1749–1827 CE), French mathematician, astronomer and physicist, writing on Ancient Indian mathematics, from 'An overview of Indian mathematics' on the MacTutor History of Mathematics website

Between about 400 CE and 1200 CE mathematics emerged as a serious discipline or study for scholars in both Europe and the East. Indian mathematicians made early contributions to the study of the decimal number system, zero, negative numbers, arithmetic and algebra. They also further developed the work of earlier Greek scholars on sine and cosine (part of trigonometry). Indian knowledge was later transmitted to the Middle East, China and Europe.



1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
—	=	≡	𑀓	𑀔	𑀕	𑀖	𑀗	𑀘

ASTRONOMY

Astronomy was an important science in Ancient India. The Vedas contain references to astronomical events and to calculations made by astronomers. Early Indian astronomers were able to calculate the incidence of eclipses. They developed the use of geometry and trigonometry in astronomical calculations and thus were able to work on calculating the circumference of the Earth. Astronomers also began to think about the idea of gravity. They recognised that the Sun was a star and knew a lot about the Solar System.

SOURCE 8.3 These early Indian numerals, from the first century CE, eventually evolved into the numbers 1 to 9 that are in common use today.

MEDICINE

Ancient Indians made significant advances in medicine. There are records of surgical procedures as early as 800 BCE. Surgeons in Ancient India worked in the areas of dental surgery, removal of cataracts, and even some plastic surgery, such as rhinoplasty or nose jobs. Ancient Indian doctors practised holistic Ayurvedic medicine—that is, they looked at the body as a whole. A famous medical text of this time is the *Charaka Samhita*, which was part of the science of longevity or long life. It was written as poetry to make it easier for medical students to memorise. The text covers general health issues such as diet, hygiene and lifestyle as well as causes, diagnosis and treatment of diseases. It also displays a knowledge of human anatomy. Ayurvedic medicine is popular today in the West, as an alternative to traditional Western medicine, as well as in Asia.

SOURCE 8.4 In this frieze in the Udayagiri caves from the Gupta period, Vishnu has taken the shape of a boar and is rescuing the Earth-goddess Bhumi from the sea, represented by a serpent.

ART AND ARCHITECTURE

The Gupta Empire gave rise to a great period in Ancient Indian culture, shown especially by Hindu and Buddhist art. The archetypal image of Buddha was created, and Buddhist and Jain monks crafted beautiful sculpted friezes in the Udayagiri caves, in eastern India.

More than 500 years earlier, in the the third century BCE, the great Ashoka and his stupa-building program were responsible for some of the most striking buildings of Ancient India. One of the best examples of this is the Great Stupa of Sanchi in central India. It is surrounded by four intricately carved gateways that depict the life of Buddha and symbols of Ashoka's reign.





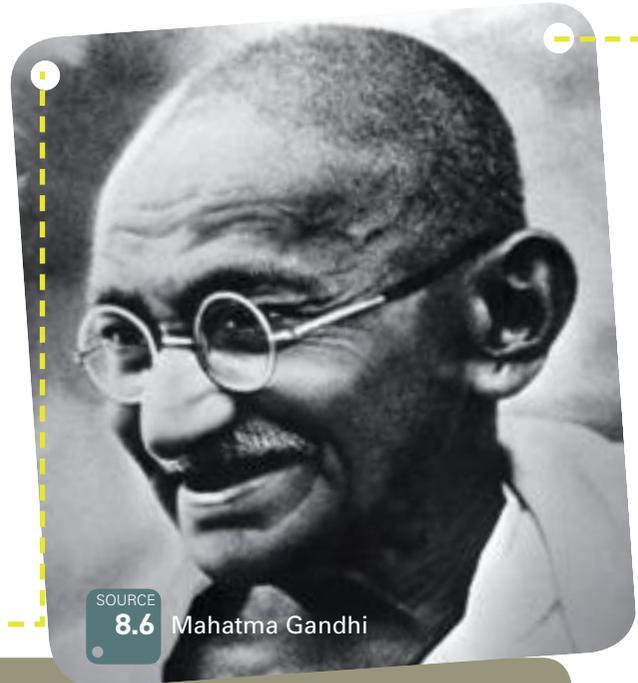
SOURCE 8.5 One of the four gateways to the Great Stupa of Sanchi. The stupa itself (the dome in the background) was commissioned by Ashoka in the third century BCE. The gateways, which are among numerous later additions and alterations, date from the first century BCE.

RELIGION

Two of the world's great religions arose out of Ancient India: Hinduism and Buddhism. Each has millions of believers worldwide and each has had an impact and influence upon the Western world. This influence has

been felt in areas such as philosophy, politics, music and even the practice of yoga for good health.

The great Indian leader of the movement for independence from Great Britain of the 1930s and 1940s CE was Mahatma Gandhi. Gandhi based his principles of nonviolent protest on his Hindu beliefs. His pacifist movement was very successful and has continued to inspire others around the world. The peaceful sit-ins of the hippie movement from the 1960s in the United States of America and elsewhere are one example.



SOURCE 8.6 Mahatma Gandhi

TIME TO THINK ...

1 THE SPREAD OF ANCIENT INDIAN SCHOLARSHIP

- How do you think trade helped the spread of Ancient Indian knowledge out of India?
- How does this compare with the ways in which knowledge is spread today?
- What difference has Ancient Indian scholarship made to the advancement of humankind?

2 ANCIENT INDIAN MATHEMATICS, ASTRONOMY AND MEDICINE

- Were you surprised by the knowledge of the Ancient Indians in these areas of science? Why or why not?
- What impact has the knowledge of the Ancient Indians had on modern sciences?
- Do you think that modern scientists could still learn more from the Ancient Indians? Why or why not?

3 RELIGION

- Hinduism and Buddhism are two of the ten major religions in the world. What do you think are the other eight?
- Rank your top ten religions in order of size from largest to smallest. Where do you think each of these religions is practised?
- Find out what the top ten religions are and where they are practised. Were your answers to parts a and b correct?
- What influence have Indian religious beliefs had on the world in general?

INQUIRY

TASKS

THESE INQUIRY TASKS WILL HELP YOU ANSWER THE INQUIRY QUESTIONS FROM THE START OF THE CHAPTER.

#1 board game

In a small group, design and construct a board game that explains the ways in which Ancient Indian society changed, and the ways in which it remained the same, between the Early Vedic period and the time of the Mauryan kings. Your game needs question cards and should have design features consistent with the time frame. When your game is finished, swap it with another group and play it.

#2 conversation between Krishna, Buddha & Mahavira

Imagine that Krishna, Buddha and Mahavira were able to meet in a forest. What would they talk about? Write up a dialogue. You may need to complete further research first on each figure and their philosophies. As a starting point, perhaps make their conversation about nature (plants, birds) or death.

#3 caste oral histories

- Imagine you have the opportunity to **travel back in time** and record the voices of people from different *varnas* living in Ancient India. What would they say about their lives? **Your task is to prepare and record five of their oral histories.**
- By completing some of your own research on caste in India today, script and record a further two oral histories from contemporary Indians.

#4 annotated faith timeline

Work in a pair or group of three to **draw up a large timeline** and record all the key dates in the development of Hinduism, Buddhism and Jainism in the Ancient period. You may need to complete further research first. Annotate the timeline with images, sketches and 'fact boxes' that focus on key doctrines and key individuals for each faith. Analyse your timeline by answering the following questions.

- Which faith developed first and which last?
- To what extent was each faith dependent on another/others for its development (that is, where are the areas of interaction on the timeline)?
- What are the major similarities and differences between the doctrines of each faith?
- If you could choose ten important dates on the timeline, which ones would they be, and why?
- What influence have these religions had on today's society?

#5 leadership panel debate

In a group of five, prepare for a panel debate on the topic, 'The greatest leader in the history of Ancient India'.

Each member of the panel will argue on behalf of one of the following five ancient leaders: Buddha, Mahavira, Chandragupta, Ashoka, Chandra Gupta II. Group members should begin by reviewing the information in this chapter; further research will also be required. Group members should consider both the achievements of these leaders, and their legacy in India up to and including the present.

#6 whole class production

As a class, stage your own version of **Ram's journey in the Ramayana**. Different groups can work on costumes, props, scenery and script. For inspiration, research the street plays that are staged in India each year.



SOURCE
9.1 A sacred statue of Buddha in the Ajanta caves. These caves in western India were carved out of granite cliffs between the first and the seventh century CE.

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