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FOR NSW
YEAR

7

SECOND EDITION

BRUCE DENNETT
EMILY SHANAHAN
BERNIE HOWITT
STEPHEN DIXON





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HISTORY YEAR 8
for NSW Stage 4

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USING *OXFORD INSIGHT HISTORY*

Oxford Insight History has been developed and written by a team of experienced NSW teachers and educators to meet the requirements of the NSW syllabus for the Australian Curriculum: History. *Insight History* comprehensively covers all syllabus content in order to help students successfully meet all the required outcomes.

KEY FEATURES OF THE STUDENT BOOK

Each chapter of *Oxford Insight History* is sequenced according to the NSW History syllabus and structured around a number of key inquiry questions. Content dot points clearly map the learning sequence for students.

Each topic covered in the Student Book is supported by primary and secondary source materials designed to engage and challenge a range of students. Source materials such as artefacts, historical illustrations, photographs, text extracts, timelines and maps provide rich learning opportunities and encourage students to develop deep understandings and transferable skills.

The learning sequence for each chapter is structured around inquiry questions and content dot points taken directly from the syllabus.



Each chapter features a Case study.

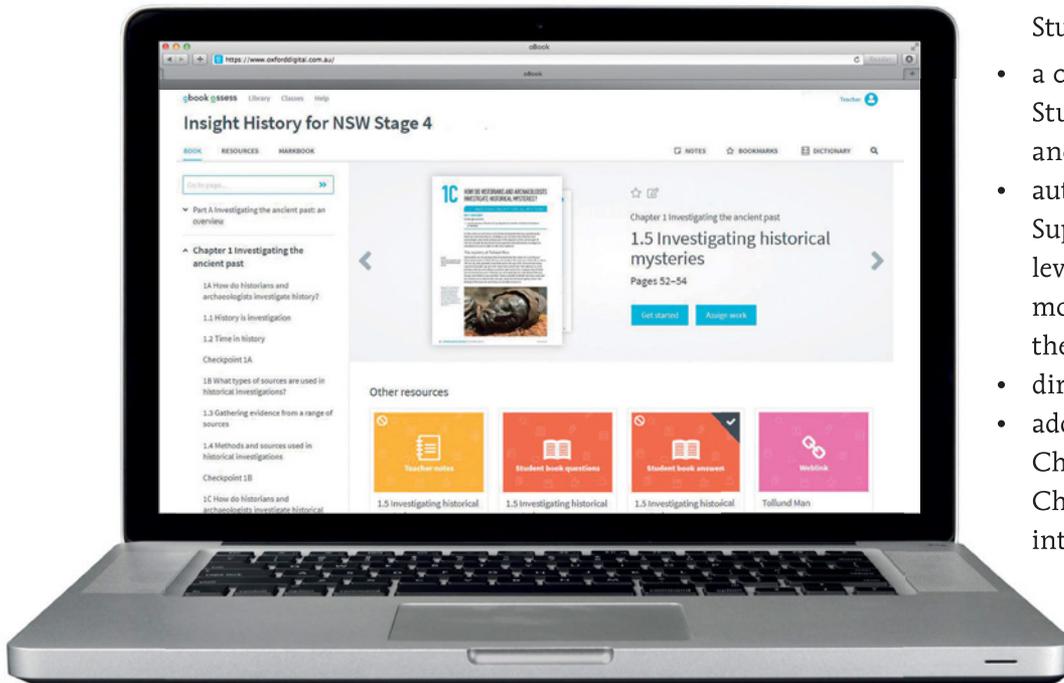
Checkpoint activities at the end of each section are clearly identified.

INTEGRATED TEACHING AND LEARNING SUPPORT

Oxford Insight History for NSW is supported by a range of engaging and relevant digital resources provided via obook assess – Oxford’s award-winning digital platform.

STUDENT BOOK ASSESS

Student obook assess provides a fully interactive digital experience for students that is compatible with laptops, iPads, tablets and IWBs. Access to content is available online and offline.



Students receive:

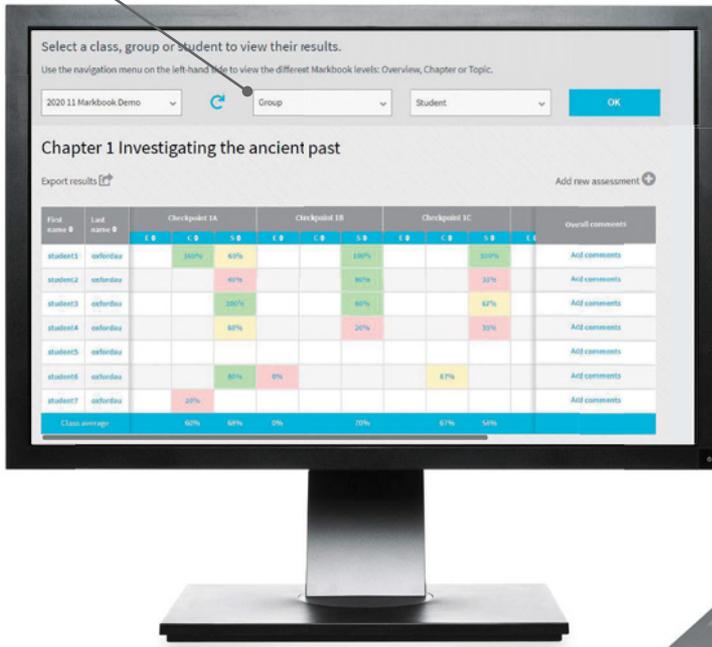
- a complete digital version of the Student book with notetaking and bookmarking functionality
- auto-correcting quizzes at Support, Consolidate and Extend levels to assess understanding, monitor progress and feed into the markbook
- direct access to Quizlet
- additional resources such as Check Your Learning and Checkpoint question worksheets, interactives and weblinks.

TEACHER BOOK ASSESS

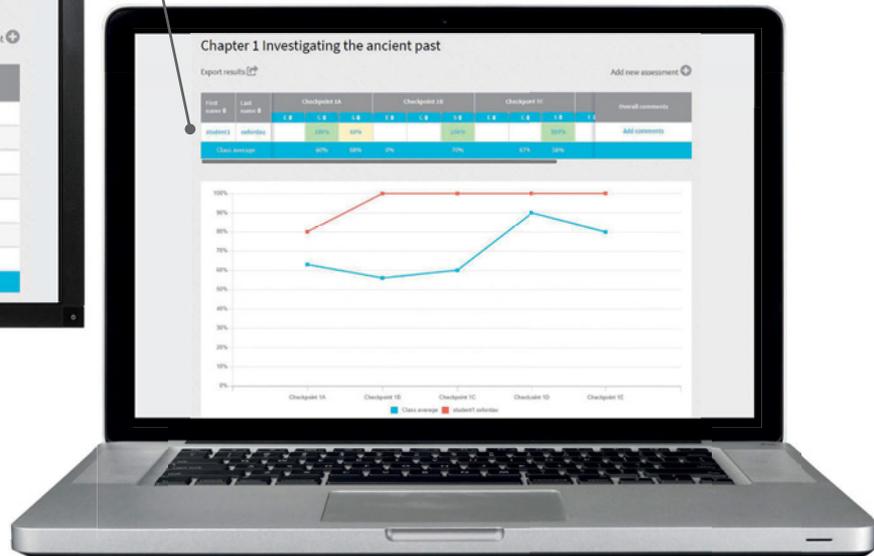
Teacher obook assess supports teachers with a range of additional resources and functionality, including:

- access to all student resources
- detailed course planners, teaching programs and teacher notes
- answers to every question in the Student book
- access to markbook, where they can:
 - filter online quiz results by class or group
 - add custom results from self-administered assessments
 - view student progress reports in HTML or PDF
 - export class reports as .csv files
- direct access to Quizlet
- additional resources such as answers to every Student book question, differentiated Checkpoint worksheets and rich tasks.

Markbook enables teachers to view student results by class



Markbook enables teachers to view individual student results and track them against the class average



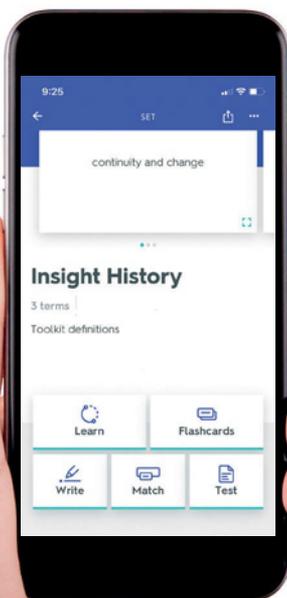
Quizlet

Each chapter of *Oxford Insight History for NSW* is supported by expert-authored content on Quizlet. By accessing Quizlet via a web browser or the Quizlet app, students have access to different interactive learning tools, including:

- interactive flashcards to help students learn key terminology
- multiple-choice questions to test students on their knowledge

Quizlet also provides students with fun revision games to support their learning, including:

- Quizlet Live, where students battle in teams or individually against other members of their class
- 'Match' card game, where students match the correct term to its definition
- 'Gravity' timed test, where students test their knowledge against the clock



Instructions for teachers launching a game of Quizlet Live

- 1 When prompted in the Student book, log onto Oxford Digital and launch the Quizlet website.
- 2 Follow the prompts to set up a game to host for your students, including how you would like them to compete:
 - individually
 - in teams.
- 3 Your game is now set up and ready for students to join. They can join by opening Quizlet on a web browser or the app and either:
 - entering the six-digit code that appears on your screen
 - scanning the QR code that appears on your screen.
- 4 Once all students are ready, click the large 'Create game' button and a summary of the students playing will appear. Click 'Start game'.
- 5 As the teacher, your screen will display a leader board that updates in live time as students answer questions.

NSW SYLLABUS FOR THE AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM: HISTORY STAGE 4 – SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

STAGE 4: THE ANCIENT WORLD TO THE MODERN WORLD

YEAR 7
THE ANCIENT WORLD
[50 HOURS MINIMUM TEACHING TIME]

YEAR 8
THE ANCIENT TO THE MODERN WORLD
[50 HOURS MINIMUM TEACHING TIME]

FOCUS OF STAGE 4

The Stage 4 curriculum provides a study of the nature of history and historical sources, both archaeological and written. Students investigate ancient history from the time of the earliest human communities to the end of the ancient period (approximately 60 000 BC – c. AD 650). It was a period defined by the development of cultural practices and organised societies, including Australia, Egypt, Greece, Rome, India and China.

Students study a range of depth studies from the end of the ancient period to the beginning of the modern period (c. AD 650 – c. 1750). During this period, major civilisations around the world came into contact with each other. Social, economic, religious and political beliefs were often challenged and significantly changed, underpinning the shaping of the modern world.

KEY INQUIRY QUESTIONS

Key inquiry questions for the following three (3) The Ancient World depth studies are:

- 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?

Key inquiry questions for the following three (3) The Ancient to the Modern World Depth Studies are:

- How did societies change from the end of the ancient period to the beginning of the modern age?
- What key beliefs and values emerged and how did they influence societies?
- What were the causes and effects of contact between societies in this period?
- Which significant people, groups and ideas from this period have influenced the world today?

OVERVIEWS

YEAR 7
 The overview is approximately 10% of teaching time of The Ancient World. The overview may be taught separately or may be integrated with the depth studies.

Students briefly outline:

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

YEAR 8
 The overview is approximately 10% of teaching time of The Ancient to the Modern World. The overview may be taught separately or may be integrated with the depth studies.

Students briefly outline:

- the transformation of the Roman world and the spread of Christianity and Islam
- key features of the medieval world (feudalism, trade routes, voyages of discovery, religion, contact and conflict)
- the emergence of ideas about the world and the place of people in it by the end of the period (such as the Renaissance, the Scientific Revolution and the Enlightenment).

DEPTH STUDIES	<p>DEPTH STUDY 1</p> <p>Investigating the Ancient Past (including ancient Australia).</p> <p>Core study – mandatory for all students</p>	<p>DEPTH STUDY 4</p> <p>The Western and Islamic World. ONE of the following to be studied:</p> <p>Topic 4a › The Vikings</p> <p>Topic 4b › Medieval Europe</p> <p>Topic 4c › The Ottoman Empire</p> <p>Topic 4d › Renaissance Italy</p>
	<p>DEPTH STUDY 2</p> <p>The Mediterranean World. ONE of the following to be studied:</p> <p>Topic 2a › Egypt</p> <p>Topic 2b › Greece</p> <p>Topic 2c › Rome</p>	<p>DEPTH STUDY 5</p> <p>The Asia-Pacific World. ONE of the following to be studied:</p> <p>Topic 5a › Angkor/Khmer Empire</p> <p>Topic 5b › Japan under the Shoguns</p> <p>Topic 5c › The Polynesian expansion across the Pacific</p>
	<p>DEPTH STUDY 3</p> <p>The Asian World. ONE of the following to be studied:</p> <p>Topic 3a › India</p> <p>Topic 3b › China</p>	<p>DEPTH STUDY 6</p> <p>Expanding Contacts. ONE of the following to be studied:</p> <p>Topic 6a › Mongol expansion</p> <p>Topic 6b › The Black Death in Asia, Europe and Africa</p> <p>Topic 6c › The Spanish Conquest of the Americas</p> <p>Topic 6d › Aboriginal and Indigenous Peoples, Colonisation and Contact History</p>

HISTORICAL CONCEPTS	<p>Continuity and change: some aspects of a society, event or development change over time and others remain the same, e.g. the rise and fall of ancient civilisations; changes in religious beliefs or ideas; continuity of aspects of everyday life across centuries.</p>
	<p>Cause and effect: events, decisions and developments in the past that produce later actions, results or effects, e.g. the causes of the 'fall' of the Roman empire and its effects; the reasons for and results of the Crusades.</p>
	<p>Perspectives: people from the past may have had different views shaped by their different experiences, e.g. the conquest of the Americas would be viewed differently by an Inca noble and a Spanish conqueror; the arrival of the First Fleet would be viewed differently by a British naval captain and an Aboriginal elder.</p>
	<p>Empathetic understanding: the ability to understand another's point of view, way of life and decisions made in a different period of time or society, e.g. an understanding of why medieval villagers believed the Black Death was sent by God as punishment; why ancient Egyptians believed their kings were divine.</p>
	<p>Significance: the importance of an event, development, group or individual and their impact on their times or later periods, e.g. the importance/impact of the Viking invasions on the British Isles; the significance of the Black Death for medieval societies.</p>
	<p>Contestability: how historians may dispute a particular interpretation of an historical source, historical event or issue, e.g. did the Roman empire 'fall', were the Mongols 'bloodthirsty conquerors', did the British 'settle' or 'invade' Australia?</p>

HISTORICAL SKILLS	<p>Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • read and understand historical texts • sequence historical events and periods (ACHHS205, ACHHS148) • use historical terms and concepts (ACHHS206, ACHHS149)
	<p>Analysis and use of sources</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • identify the origin and purpose of primary and secondary sources (ACHHS209, ACHHS152) • locate, select and use information from a range of sources as evidence (ACHHS210, ACHHS153) • draw conclusions about the usefulness of sources (ACHHS211, ACHHS154)
	<p>Perspectives and interpretations</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • identify and describe different perspectives of participants in a particular historical context (ACHHS212, ACHHS155)
	<p>Empathetic understanding</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • interpret history within the context of the actions, attitudes and motives of people in the context of the past (ACHHS212, ACHHS155)
	<p>Research</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ask a range of questions about the past to inform an historical inquiry (ACHHS207, ACHHS150) • identify and locate a range of relevant sources, using ICT and other methods (ACHHS208, ACHHS151) • use a range of communication forms and technologies
	<p>Explanation and communication</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • develop historical texts, particularly explanations and historical arguments that use evidence from a range of sources (ACHHS213, ACHHS156) • select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written and digital) to communicate effectively about the past (ACHHS214, ACHHS157)

A young man and woman are sitting at a desk in a library, smiling and looking at a tablet. The man is on the left, wearing a dark jacket over a striped shirt. The woman is on the right, wearing a pink shirt. They are surrounded by books on shelves in the background. The text 'THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT: CONCEPTS AND SKILLS' is overlaid in large blue letters across the middle of the image.

THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT: CONCEPTS AND SKILLS

As you investigate the past, you will be required to learn and apply the same historical concepts and skills that historians and archaeologists use in their investigations. These concepts and skills are a historian's 'tools of the trade'. This toolkit describes the historical concepts and skills that you will learn about during your study of history.



HISTORICAL CONCEPTS YOU WILL LEARN ABOUT IN STAGE 4

Continuity and change: some aspects of a society, event or development change over time and others remain the same, e.g. the rise and fall of ancient civilisations; changes in religious beliefs or ideas; continuity of aspects of everyday life across centuries.

Cause and effect: events, decisions and developments in the past that produce later actions, results or effects, e.g. the causes of the 'fall' of the Roman Empire and its effects; the reasons for and results of the Crusades.

Perspectives: people from the past may have had different views shaped by their different experiences, e.g. the conquest of the Americas would be viewed differently by an Inca noble and a Spanish conqueror; the arrival of the First Fleet would be viewed differently by a British naval captain and an Aboriginal elder.

Empathetic understanding: the ability to understand another's point of view, way of life and decisions made in a different period of time or society, e.g. an understanding of why medieval villagers believed the Black Death was sent by God as punishment; why ancient Egyptians believed their kings were divine.

Significance: the importance of an event, development, group or individual and their impact on their times or later periods, e.g. the importance/impact of the Viking invasions on the British Isles; the significance of the Black Death for medieval societies.

Contestability: how historians may dispute a particular interpretation of an historical source, historical event or issue, e.g. did the Roman empire 'fall', were the Mongols 'bloodthirsty conquerors', did the British 'settle' or 'invade' Australia?

HISTORICAL SKILLS YOU WILL LEARN ABOUT IN STAGE 4

Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts

- » Read and understand historical texts.
- » Sequence historical events and periods.
- » Use historical terms and concepts.

Analysis and use of sources

- » Identify the origin and purpose of primary and secondary sources.
- » Locate, select and use information from a range of sources as evidence.
- » Draw conclusions about the usefulness of sources.

Perspectives and interpretations

- » Identify and describe different perspectives of participants in a particular historical context.

Empathetic understanding

- » Interpret history within the context of the actions, attitudes and motives of people in the context of the past.

Research

- » Ask a range of questions about the past to inform an historical inquiry.
- » Identify and locate a range of relevant sources, using ICT and other methods.
- » Use a range of communication forms and technologies.

Explanation and communication

- » Develop historical texts, particularly explanations and historical arguments that use evidence from a range of sources.
- » Select and use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written and digital) to communicate effectively about the past.

THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT

Studying history is similar to investigating a mystery. Just like a detective who needs a toolkit to help them investigate, historians use a range of tools to discover the past. They choose their tools depending on what they are investigating and what they want to learn. These tools are the historical concepts and skills you will learn about in this chapter and throughout this course.

The word 'history' comes from the Greek word *historia*, which means 'inquiry'. In other words, historians are involved in inquiry or investigation. History is a problem-solving discipline and is therefore all about asking questions. We use **evidence** to try to discover the truth about people and events in the past. As a new historian, think of yourself as a researcher, looking for evidence and clues to find the best and fairest explanation of the past. Your study will provide you with the skills to go beyond the simple question 'What do we know?' to answer the more important questions 'How do we know?' and 'Whom do we trust?'

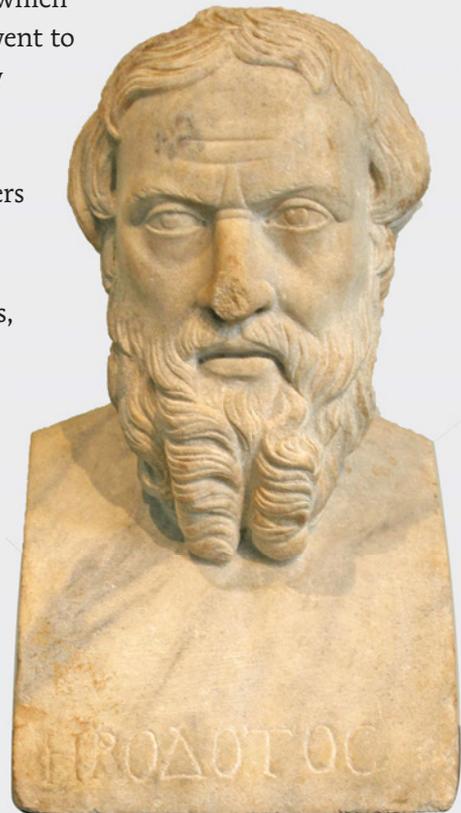
While history will give you the opportunity to learn interesting things about people and stories from the past, it can also teach you to think critically and creatively. This is vital in a world where we are swamped by different versions of the so-called truth in mainstream and social media.

Getting started

Start with a small historical investigation of your own. Ask the older people at home what they remember about studying history at school. Was it useful? Was it interesting? Was it boring? These questions aim to discover their experience of the subject at school. Then ask them why they felt that way. This is where you start to go deeper and consider possible **causes**. You are engaging in research. The people you interview are **sources** of evidence about the recent past and the ways in which history was taught. Now ask them where they went to school (in Australia or another country, in New South Wales or another state, in the city or the country) and when they were at school. Who taught them? How were they taught? The answers to these questions will tell you about the perspectives of all the people you interviewed.

In asking and thinking about these questions, you are using some of the concepts and skills from the historian's toolkit.

Source 1 A bust of Herodotus, a Greek historian who is known as the 'father of history'; much of what we know about the ancient world comes from his writing. He was among the first to record what he read, saw and heard in a planned and ordered manner.



evidence

the information or clues gathered from a historical source; evidence can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

cause

why things happen; a cause has to be directly linked to an event – it is the reason the event occurs

source

evidence that historians use when investigating the past

HT.1 HISTORICAL CONCEPTS

Six key historical concepts are shown in Source 2. At times you might focus on just one of the concepts; at other times you will use several at once. As you learn to apply each concept, you will begin to think like a historian.

Continuity and change

Historians recognise that over time some things change, while others stay the same. This applies not just to the physical world, but also to the way people think.

This concept is known as **continuity and change**. Examples of continuity and change can be seen across every **civilisation** and any given period of time. They can be seen in aspects of everyday life that have continued across **centuries**, or in changes in government, technology or religious beliefs that have affected an entire society's culture.

As you study different societies across different **time periods**, you will have the chance to identify those aspects of life and thinking that stayed the same and those that changed. Go beyond learning the stories and think about the patterns of history, especially continuity and change. The same patterns can also be seen in the world today. This is especially true when we look at the shifts back and forth between **nationalism** and **globalisation**. The **Silk Roads** are an important example of how change occurs as a result of globalisation through trade and sharing new ideas and inventions.

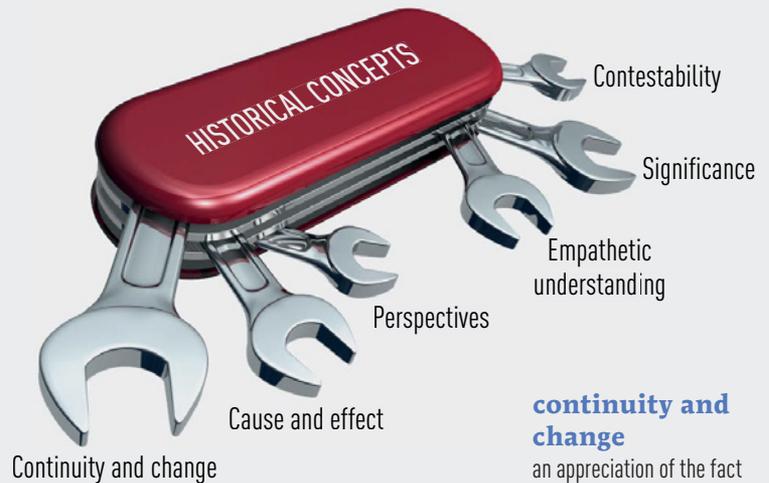
Example of continuity and change

Every generation within a society has tried to make a better and safer world for their children. Some generations found this easier to do and made better decisions than others. This idea of wanting to improve is an example of continuity – something shared and continuous across societies and time periods. Change was sometimes needed to make a better and safer world. Things had to be done differently and old ideas and practices had to change.

Two major patterns of change can be seen as generations sought to make a better and safer world:

- moving to better lands, colonising and expanding trade
- staying in place but transforming society with new ideas, new inventions and new ways of doing things.

In the twenty-first century, both of these patterns might become clear as part of our response to climate change. Some people might be forced to move due to increasing levels of drought or a rise in sea levels. Another response will have to involve changes in the way we organise and power the economy, developing more effective renewable energy.



Source 2 Historical concepts

continuity and change

an appreciation of the fact that while some aspects of a society stay the same over time (continuity), others will develop and transform (change)

civilisation

a highly organised and complex culture and way of living; there are different forms of civilisation in different places and at different times

century

1 a period of 100 years; **2** a military unit in the army of ancient Rome made up of between 80 and 100 soldiers

time period

a block of time in history

nationalism

a shared identity of a group of people, often sharing a common culture, language and racial identity, who form a single nation state and put the interests of that state above all others

globalisation

political, economic and social links between individual nation states and communities; often focuses on shared interests

Silk Roads

a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

Cause and effect

cause and effect

the link between what causes an action and the outcome of that action; an appreciation of the fact that events that take place (both short-term and long-term) are linked and can have impacts on people and places for many years to come

The concept of **cause and effect** is used by historians to identify the reasons for an event or changes in history, and the results of those events or developments. Sometimes the link between cause and effect is clear. For example, heavy rain over many weeks (cause) leads to flooding and the destruction of crops (effect). However, in investigating the past, links are often less obvious and more complicated. Generally, there are many causes (reasons) that lead to an event. There can also be many effects or outcomes. Sometimes the effects are easy to identify, while in other cases they are more difficult to predict and may not even be observed until long after the event.

Historians identify causes and effects as 'primary' or 'secondary'. A primary cause is one that is essential to the event – without that particular cause the event would not have occurred. A secondary cause plays a role in the event, but it is not essential to its occurrence. A secondary cause might influence the timing of an event or how long it lasts.

Example of cause and effect

The primary cause of a flood would be heavy rain. Without an abundance of rain there would be no flood. A secondary cause of the flood could be poor drainage in the flood area or a lack of flood prevention measures, such as the building of dams, canals or levee banks to make it less likely that a river will overflow. The New South Wales town of Maitland was once well known for severe floods. The primary cause of those floods was always heavy rain. Today, however, even with heavy rain, flooding is less severe because of improved secondary flood prevention and stronger and higher levee banks near the Hunter River.



Source 3 The 1955 Maitland floods

One of the short-term effects of flooding can be damage to property and loss of life. There are also long-term effects, and these might be more important and not necessarily negative. In the case of Maitland, the floods do cause damage, but they also leave behind deposits of fresh and fertile soil that result in better crops and more food.

Historians often argue about whether causes and effects are primary or secondary. These debates are influenced by perspective and the assessment of sources, and they are examples of contestability.

Perspectives

perspective

a point of view about an event or issue; a person's perspective is often influenced by their culture, knowledge and beliefs

The concept of **perspectives** is an important part of historical inquiry. A person's perspective is their point of view – the position from which they see and understand events. People will have different perspectives about an event, person, even a society, depending on factors such as their age, gender, social position, nationality, beliefs and values. Historians must try to understand the different values, beliefs and experiences that shaped or affected the lives of people who lived in the past, despite their own perspectives.

People from the past will have had different perspectives about the same event. For example, an invasion would be viewed very differently by the conquering forces and the defeated peoples. In the words of the Australian historian Inga Clendinnen, there are always at least two sides to every story from the past. Writers and historians also have perspectives that can influence their interpretation of the past.

Example of perspectives

Slavery was a common feature of life throughout the ancient and medieval worlds. Many people today would share the belief that slavery is wrong and they might disapprove of the fact that about one-quarter of the population of ancient Rome were slaves. However, slavery was accepted by people in ancient Rome and many other ancient societies. Some people today might assume that all slaves led lives of misery because of their position in society. This was not always the case in the ancient world. Some masters took great care of those slaves whom they valued for their skills. Some slaves became tutors in wealthy households, or had positions of influence with emperors. Some were valued for their strength and physical appearance.

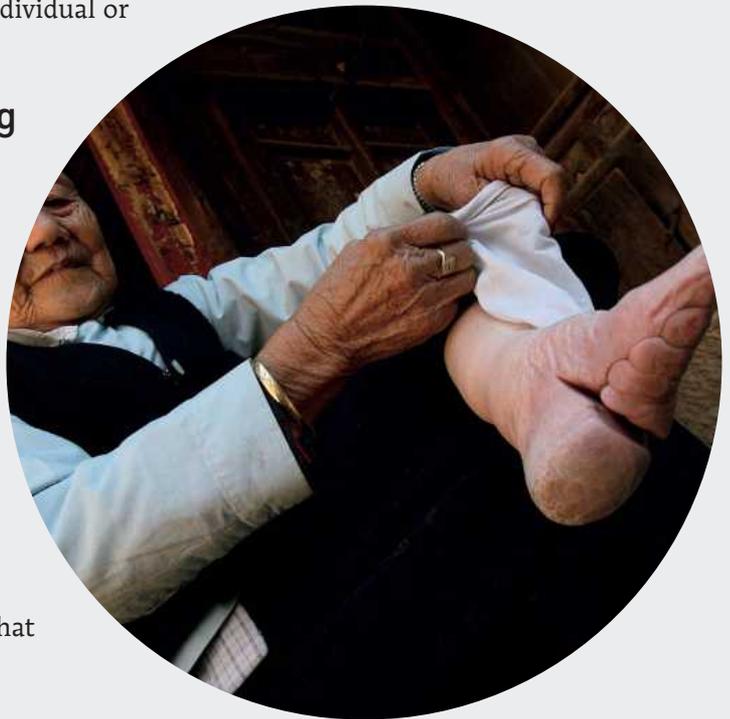
Empathetic understanding

Empathetic understanding is the ability to understand and appreciate events or actions from someone else's point of view. In the study of history, empathetic understanding is about trying to understand and appreciate the thoughts and views of people who have lived at different times, and in different cultures from your own. This concept encourages us to put ourselves in someone else's shoes – to try to think how they may have thought and feel how they may have felt. Empathetic understanding helps us to understand the impact of past events on an individual or group. It also helps us to understand what has motivated an individual or group to act in a particular way.

empathetic understanding
the ability to understand another person's point of view, way of life, or decisions by taking their circumstances and values into consideration

Example of empathetic understanding

The ancient Chinese custom of foot binding can be better understood by putting yourself in the position of the young girls and their families who went through a process that caused pain and lifelong discomfort. Their society considered tiny feet to be beautiful, and they indicated a higher status. Girls who underwent foot binding improved their chances of a 'good' marriage that would provide security and social status.



Source 4 The bound feet of Chinese women were distorted to produce a 'delicate' look and way of walking.

Significance

The concept of **significance** relates to the importance that historians assign to aspects of the past, such as:

- events
- developments and movements
- individuals or groups
- discoveries and historical sites.

What is seen as significant has changed over time. The Greek historian Herodotus wrote so that 'great deeds not be forgotten'. Therefore, significant events for Herodotus involved wars and famous leaders. Another Greek historian, Thucydides, who lived in Greece after Herodotus and therefore wrote from a different perspective, wrote about the causes of wars and the lessons that he hoped might be learnt to avoid wars in the future.

significance
the importance given to a particular historical event, person, development or issue

A great deal of the history that was taught in schools in New South Wales during the twentieth century was about English history, including kings and queens, politicians, national leaders and war. In the late twentieth century there were some important changes, including revised perspectives on Indigenous history. Over the past 20 years historians have started to focus more on the role of women in society and on the lives of ordinary people. This has seen historians regard women's history, social history, family history and the stories of working people as significant.

Historians make decisions about what is historically significant and worth studying. They do so by asking questions about the type of impacts particular events, discoveries, movements, individuals and sites have had on the world, both in their own time and in later periods.



Source 5 Ancient Egyptian stone carving reliefs depicting women

Example of significance

The establishment and spread of the Roman Empire is significant because it affected large areas of Europe and the Mediterranean world. It had significant impacts on many societies across the ancient world, and its legacies are still important today.

Contestability

The concept of **contestability** is about interpretations of the past that are the subject of debate among historians. Historians around the world often have access to different sources, or they may study the same sources but come to different conclusions. Often there is no right answer. New technologies can provide new evidence, which helps historians in their search for a more complete understanding of the past.

contestability

an appreciation of the fact that some historians may challenge or dispute particular interpretations of historical sources, historical events or issues put forward by other historians

Example of contestability

Archaeologists and historians over the centuries have debated just how the Great Pyramid, located just outside modern-day Cairo, was built. For example, Herodotus visited Egypt in 450 BC and wrote the following account of how it was constructed:

Source 6

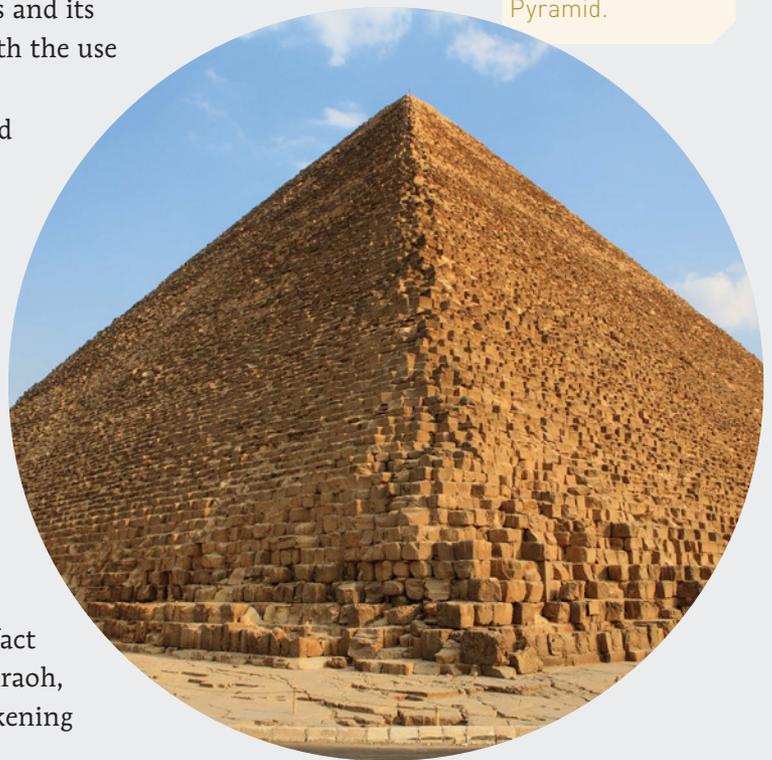
[Then] Cheops [the pharaoh] succeeded to the throne ... he closed the temples and forbade the Egyptians to offer sacrifice, compelling them instead to labour in his service. A hundred thousand men ... ten years oppression of the people to make the causeway for the conveyance of the stones [a ramp to move the stones] ... the pyramid itself took twenty years ... built in steps.

Translated extract from The Histories, Book II, by Herodotus, a Greek historian (c. 450 BC)

For many years this account was believed to be true, along with Herodotus' claim that over 100 000 slaves had been forced to build the pyramid. Historians now know that Herodotus' account is incorrect. At the time of his visit, the pyramid had been standing for over 2000 years and its construction was almost certainly not achieved with the use of slave labour as he described.

Modern historians have excavated skeletons and believe that the pyramid was built by Egyptian labourers who worked on it during flood time, when they were unable to farm. They lived in specially constructed villages near the worksite. Graffiti etched into stonework indicates that at least some of the workers took pride in their labours, calling themselves 'Friends of Khufu' ('Khufu' was the birth name of Cheops).

Why might Herodotus have written his account in this way? Was it deliberate or an honest mistake? As a citizen of Athens, a city-state famous for its democracy, Herodotus' view of the world was shaped by his context. He resented the fact that so much power was held by one man, the pharaoh, and may have been trying to discredit him by blackening his name.



Source 7 The Great Pyramid at Giza, Egypt

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Since Herodotus, theories about the building of the Great Pyramid have ranged from the use of a huge ramp, to a system of levers, rollers and steps, to one that claimed that visitors from outer space had provided the Egyptians with the skills and perhaps even the equipment needed to build the Great Pyramid.

HT.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

1 Listed below are the types of questions historians ask to decide if events, discoveries, people or sites are historically significant:

- How important was this to people who lived at that time?
- How many people were affected?

- To what degree were people's lives affected?
- How widespread and long-lasting were the effects?
- Can the effects still be felt today?

Use each of these questions to determine the historical significance of an event, discovery or individual of your choice.

HT.2 HISTORICAL SKILLS

To conduct any historical inquiry, historians need to apply a range of different skills (see Source 8). Each skill area has a number of specific skills that you will learn during your study of history.



Source 8 Historical skills

Comprehension: Chronology, terms and concepts

Comprehension: Chronology, terms and concepts

Chronology

chronology

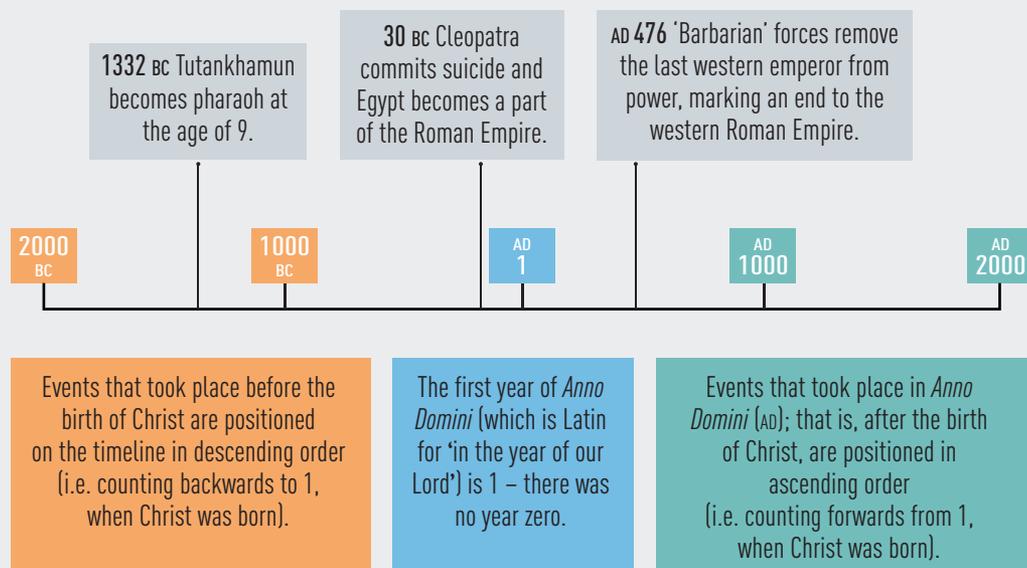
a record of events in the order they took place

timeline

a graphical representation of events over a set period of time, arranged in the order in which they occurred

Historians organise events in the order they happened. This is known as **chronology**, and it helps to provide an overview of the past. Drawing a **timeline** is a useful way to visually represent the scope of the time period, as well as the order of events. We can use chronology to look at events that happened in one place or society, or compare events across many different places and societies.

Once events have been placed in chronological order, historians can use a range of historical concepts to analyse them. These include cause and effect, significance, and continuity and change.



Source 9 A simple timeline, with some key points to be aware of when ordering events

Chronological terms and concepts

You should be familiar with the terms used to describe historical time periods before you begin your depth studies. Reference tables for time periods BC and AD, divided into centuries, are provided below.

Source 10 More than 2000 years 'before Christ', divided into centuries; when ordering time measured with BC, remember to count backwards to 1.

Century BC	Time period	Century BC	Time period	Century BC	Time period
21st century BC	2100 to 2001	14th century BC	1400 to 1301	7th century BC	700 to 601
20th century BC	2000 to 1901	13th century BC	1300 to 1201	6th century BC	600 to 501
19th century BC	1900 to 1801	12th century BC	1200 to 1101	5th century BC	500 to 401
18th century BC	1800 to 1701	11th century BC	1100 to 1001	4th century BC	400 to 301
17th century BC	1700 to 1601	10th century BC	1000 to 901	3rd century BC	300 to 201
16th century BC	1600 to 1501	9th century BC	900 to 801	2nd century BC	200 to 101
15th century BC	1500 to 1401	8th century BC	800 to 701	1st century BC	100 to 1

Source 11 More than 2000 years *Anno Domini* ('in the year of our Lord') divided into centuries; when ordering time measured with AD, remember to count forwards from 1.

Century AD	Time period	Century AD	Time period	Century AD	Time period
1st century AD	1 to 100	8th century AD	701 to 800	15th century AD	1401 to 1500
2nd century AD	101 to 200	9th century AD	801 to 900	16th century AD	1501 to 1600
3rd century AD	201 to 300	10th century AD	901 to 1000	17th century AD	1601 to 1700
4th century AD	301 to 400	11th century AD	1001 to 1100	18th century AD	1701 to 1800
5th century AD	401 to 500	12th century AD	1101 to 1200	19th century AD	1801 to 1900
6th century AD	501 to 600	13th century AD	1201 to 1300	20th century AD	1901 to 2000
7th century AD	601 to 700	14th century AD	1301 to 1400	21st century AD	2001 to 2100

Analysis and use of sources

Historians use two types of sources to gather evidence about the past:

- **primary sources:** objects created or written at the time being investigated; for example, during an event or very soon after
- **secondary sources:** accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated, and that often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation.

primary source
a source that existed or was made at the time being studied

secondary source
a source created after the time being studied

Assessing the value and limitations of sources

Both primary and secondary sources are valuable or useful, even though they almost always reflect the perspective of the person who created them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of that time. It is important for historians to understand the context of the source and consider this before determining the value and limitations of the evidence. This includes examining:

- the origin: where the source came from
- the purpose: why the source was created.

bias

prejudice for or against a person, group or thing (especially in a way considered to be unfair)

The best historians always assume that the creator of a source has some kind of **bias** or preference. Even with bias, sources can have great value because historians can learn about the preferences of particular groups or individuals, or gain insight into what some people thought or felt. With written sources, the author might have been paid or forced to write in a particular way or ignore certain facts. This is still valuable because it tells historians that a particular viewpoint was desired or preferred by the people commissioning the source.

However, it is important to remember that all sources have limitations. This could relate to bias, as only one perspective is addressed, but could also relate to limitations regarding content. For example, a photograph of the Colosseum has value for telling historians the size of the arena and some of the building materials. The same photograph is limited because it doesn't tell historians when the Colosseum was built, how much it cost to attend events and what types of entertainment took place. Therefore, it is important for historians to consult a range of sources to build a comprehensive understanding.

Analysing sources by asking 'who', 'what', 'when', 'how', 'where' and 'why' questions will help you to identify the origin and purpose of the sources, which in turn will assist in determining the value and limitations. Questions historians ask to identify the origin and purpose of sources include the following:

- Who wrote, produced or made the source? (context)
 - Is the creator's personal perspective obvious in the source? Are they trying to be fair?
 - Is the creator a member of a particular group, religion or organisation?
- What type of source is it?
 - Was the source created at the time of the event or afterwards? (primary or secondary source)
- When was the source written, produced or made? (context)
 - How old is the source? (context)
 - Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date? (primary or secondary source)
 - Is the version of the past in the source confirmed (supported) by other sources? (reliable)
- Is the source complete? What is it missing? (limitations)
- Why was it written or produced? (context and possible motive)
 - Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view? (motive)
 - Does the creator have anything to gain personally from the source? (context and motive)
 - What other events may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the author or source? (context)

Locate, compare, select and use information from a range of sources as evidence

After initial research into a topic, it is time to compare and select the most relevant information that you will use as evidence to support your **hypothesis**. There are a number of different ways to organise large amounts of information so that you can decide quickly and easily which sources provide the most valuable, relevant and reliable evidence. Organisation charts are very helpful tools for collecting, comparing and selecting suitable resources that you have located. An example is a decision-making chart (see Source 13).

hypothesis

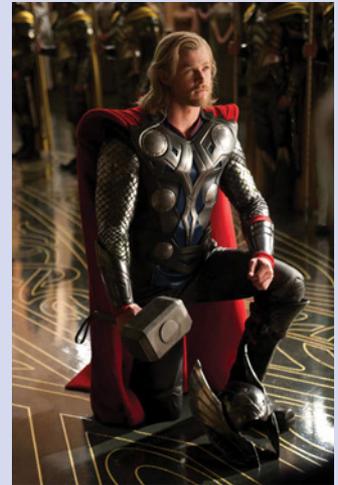
a considered opinion, theory or statement, based on research and evidence, about something that has not been proven

HT.2 SOURCE STUDY

When starting research, it can be helpful to start with a general search. If looking up the Viking god Thor, you'll come across images like the ones in Source 12. It's important to analyse the sources to understand their origin and purpose.

INTERPRET

- Which of the following is an example of a primary source?
 - a bronze statue of the Viking god Thor created in AD 1000
 - the film *Thor* released in 2011



Source 12 The origin and purpose of these primary and secondary sources are very different, even though they are both related to Viking mythology: (left) A northern Icelandic bronze statue of the Viking god Thor holding his hammer (known as Mjolnir) dating back to around AD 1000; (right) Actor Chris Hemsworth as Thor holding Mjolnir in the 2011 Marvel Studios production of *Thor*.

RESEARCH TOPIC: The Viking god Thor – how important was he?

HYPOTHESIS: Thor played a central role in Viking society and warrior culture.

Source 1: 'Thor' Encyclopaedia Britannica	Pros: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The entry is current and based on reliable evidence. The entry is written by a reputable organisation – Encyclopaedia Britannica. The entry provides detailed information about Thor's importance to Viking society in general. Cons: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The entry gives no specific information about Thor's importance for Viking warriors. 	Category of source: Secondary source – Encyclopaedia entry	Reference information: http://kids.britannica.com/comptons/article-9313835/Thor (accessed 17 April 2020)
Source 2:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information
Source 3:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information
Source 4:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information
Source 5:	Pros: Cons:	Category of source:	Reference information

Recommended sources in order of relevance and value:

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5

Source 13 A decision-making chart showing an example of how you might compare and select sources

Draw conclusions about the value of sources

A valuable source, whether primary or secondary, is one that will add to your understanding of a historical inquiry. The source needs to be relevant to the topic or question asked and must also be reliable. Ask yourself the following questions to determine the usefulness of a source:

- Is it a reliable source?
 - Is there enough information and detail to help me answer the inquiry question?
 - Does the information support and reinforce evidence from other sources?
- Does it appear to be fair?
- Is it based on fact or opinion?
- Is the information current?

Separating fact from opinion

The conclusions you draw about the sources you have found will determine their value to your investigation. In many cases, this means separating fact from opinion. A fact is something that can be proved: when an event took place, what happened and who was involved. An opinion is based on what a person, or persons, may believe to be true. A simple way to detect whether a statement is fact or opinion is to look closely at the language used. The use of words such as ‘might’, ‘could’, ‘believe’, ‘think’ and ‘suggests’ all indicate that an opinion is being expressed. For example:

- Fact: The inhabitants of Easter Island, the Rapa Nui, carved and transported huge stone statues known as *moai*.
- Opinion: Many historians believe these statues represent the ancestors of the Rapa Nui.

Perspectives and interpretations

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different points of view, attitudes and values. These may include biases: personal, social, political, economic or religious points of view. For example, an extract translated from the *Historica Regum*, written by an English monk, Simeon of Durham, in the twelfth century, provides the following description of the Vikings:

Source 15

[The Vikings] ... came to the church of Lindisfarne [in north-eastern England], laid everything to waste with grievous plundering, trampled the holy places with polluted steps, dug up the altars and seized all the treasures of the holy church. They killed some of the brothers [monks], took some away with them in chains, many they drove out naked and loaded with insults, some they drowned in the sea ...

Translated extract from Historia Regum by the twelfth-century English monk Simeon of Durham. It was said to be a careful copy of a lost version of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

This account is one of many that form an image of the Vikings as fierce and merciless warriors who attacked vulnerable villages and monasteries. Although many of these accounts are accurate, they do not always present a complete picture of events. It is also important to take into account the fact that many written sources from the time were recorded only by the people who could write – Christian monks. These monks were often the direct victims of Viking attacks that targeted monasteries for their gold. Other sources have shown that the Vikings were also skilled silversmiths, carpenters, poets, wood and ivory carvers, jewellery makers, weavers and musicians.

Source 14 The detailed wood carvings on the prow (front end) of the Oseberg ship provide evidence of the skill and craftsmanship of Viking ship builders.



It is only when we consider a range of different perspectives revealed through all of the available sources that we can begin to form a fairer and more accurate picture of who the Vikings were as a people. Each of these sources has value, but each also has its limitations.

Empathetic understanding

The concept of empathetic understanding was discussed in the ‘Historical concepts’ topic. In your study of the ancient world and the medieval to early modern world, you will apply this concept by interpreting why people in the ancient past acted or behaved in particular ways. To do this with empathetic understanding, you will need to keep in mind the values and attitudes of the society they lived in.

Research

Historians begin any historical inquiry by asking questions. From these questions, they develop a hypothesis (a theory) about who, what, when, how, where and why certain events took place. These questions help to frame the process of inquiry, and act as a guide for the type of evidence that needs to be collected.

Generating questions to inform a historical inquiry

Look closely at one of the stone heads of Nemrut at the site of the tomb of King Antiochus I (Source 16), who ruled a territory north of Syria after the break-up of Alexander the Great’s empire in the first century BC. The statues, including the heads that have been detached, would have been 7 metres high. As well as figures representing gods, there are eagles and lions, all with their heads detached and scattered over the site.

A historian investigating the stone heads of Nemrut would start by asking questions (‘who’, ‘what’, ‘when’, ‘how’, ‘where’ and ‘why’). A good question will help to open up an exciting area to explore, such as ‘Who do the statues represent?’

Identify and locate relevant sources

Sources provide information for historians. They can take many different forms, from historical artefacts to written records in books or online. Sources include human remains, coins, cave paintings, textbooks, journals, online databases, newspapers, letters, cartoons and diaries. Locating a range of relevant sources is a valuable skill that usually involves a number of different search methods, such as:

- checking catalogues and databases at your school and local library
- using online search engines such as Google, Yahoo and Bing
- visiting museum and government websites
- looking at newspaper and magazine archives, or digital archives such as the National Archives of Australia
- contacting local historical societies
- interviewing family members about the past, and examining family keepsakes.



Source 16 One of the stone heads at the World Heritage-listed site of Mount Nemrut in Turkey

Using ICT to locate relevant sources

Although printed books and newspapers are valuable sources of information, most research today is conducted online. In order to ensure that sources gathered online are accurate, reliable and relevant, a number of guidelines should be followed.

Search engines are useful research tools, but much of the material online is not reliable and may contain inaccuracies, false and misleading information, or material that is out of date. When searching online, be sure to define your search using keywords. Your librarian is a good person to ask for help and information. Most schools also have guidelines about how to develop effective research skills.

Sites linked to educational institutions, government departments, reputable companies, museums and universities are usually reliable. A quick way of telling if a site is reputable is to look at the domain name in the URL (see Source 17).

Avoid blogs posted by unknown individuals. If you happen to find information relevant to your investigation on a blog or social media site, always verify it by using a more reliable source. Historians rarely, if ever, rely on a single source and always seek confirmation from other sources.

Never cut and paste information from the internet straight into your own work. Taking someone else's work, ideas or words and using them as if they were your own is called plagiarism and can result in very serious consequences.

Source 17 Some domain names and their characteristics

Domain name	Description
.edu	The site is linked to an educational institution such as a university or school. These sites are generally very reliable.
.gov	The site is linked to a government institution. These sites are generally very reliable.
.net	The site is linked to a commercial organisation or network provider. Anyone is able to buy this domain name and generally there is no one to regulate the information posted on the site. As a result, these sites may be unreliable.
.org	The site is linked to an organisation. Generally, these organisations are not-for-profit (e.g. Greenpeace, World Vision International, British Museum). If the organisation is reputable and can be contacted, this generally means that the information provided has been checked and verified by that organisation. You need to be aware of any special interests that the organisation may represent (e.g. particular religious, commercial or political interests), as this may influence what they have to say on a particular issue. If you are unsure about the reliability of information found on a website with this domain name, check with your teacher or librarian.
.com	The site is linked to a commercially based operation and is likely to be promoting certain products or services. These domain names can be bought by anyone, so the content should be carefully checked and verified using another, more reliable source.

Recording relevant sources

As you identify and locate relevant sources, it is essential that you record details to include in your list of references or bibliography. A summary of the details to include when citing (mentioning) a book or online source in a bibliography is shown in Source 18.

	Details to include (in this order) if available	Example
Citing a book	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 author surname(s) and initial(s) 2 year of publication 3 title of book (in italics) 4 edition (if relevant) 5 publisher 6 place of publication 7 page number(s). 	Dennett, B., Howitt, B., Shanahan, E. & Dixon, S., 2021, <i>Oxford Insight History 7</i> , Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19.
Citing online sources	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 author surname(s) and initial(s) or organisation name 2 year of publication or date of web page (last update) 3 title of document (article) enclosed in quotation marks 4 date of posting 5 organisation name (if different from above) 6 date you accessed the site 7 URL or web address enclosed in angle brackets <...>. 	British Museum, 14 July 2017, 'Everything you ever wanted to know about the Rosetta Stone', accessed 30 July 2020, < https://blog.britishmuseum.org/everything-you-ever-wanted-to-know-about-the-rosetta-stone/ >.

Explanation and communication

Historical writing in the modern context requires you to produce an account of the past using evidence from a range of sources. The best historical writing is based on:

- 1 a rigorous interrogation of evidence; this means collecting evidence you can trust that is relevant to your investigation
- 2 drawing logical conclusions based on the evidence
- 3 presenting your argument clearly.

This approach was developed in the nineteenth century by the famous German historian Leopold von Ranke and is referred to as 'the Rankean paradigm'.

You will often be required to outline the significance of a past event while providing reasons for the event and referring to relevant evidence. Different types of sources need to be used to ensure that historical writing presents a fair view and is supported by reliable evidence and a logical argument. The two most common text types you will be expected to use are descriptions and explanations.

Writing historical descriptions

The purpose of descriptions is to give clear information about people, places or objects at particular moments in time. Descriptions focus on the main characteristics or features of particular people or things. They 'paint a picture' in words for readers to increase their understanding.

Descriptions must be well planned, with events organised in a chronological order. Use a set structure such as the outline in Source 19 or instructions from your teacher.

Source 19 A guideline for writing a description

Structure of a description	
Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Introduce the subject.• State the name of the person, place or event.• Outline why the topic is important.
Body	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Provide details about the person, place or event (including dates and important facts).• Organise the information in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail.• Use quotations and descriptive words where relevant.
Conclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Revisit the most important details and provide a concluding statement.

Writing historical explanations and historical arguments

The purpose of an explanation is to tell how or why something happened. In a historical argument you are presenting a hypothesis that you can support with primary and secondary sources. Your writing in explanations and historical arguments must be clear and factual. In both types of writing you must provide supporting evidence from a variety of sources for each point made. All sources should be acknowledged in a bibliography using the correct referencing format, as outlined earlier in this chapter.

Source 20 A guideline for writing an explanation

Structure of an explanation	
Introduction	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Clearly state the main idea or aim.• Briefly outline the reason/s and effect/s.
Body	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Support each idea with evidence. There should also be some analysis of the evidence to explain its significance and importance.• Organise the information in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail.• Ensure that language is precise and does not contain emotional words. Personal opinions (e.g. 'I think ...' or 'my opinion ...') are not appropriate.
Conclusion (optional)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Provide a short and clear overview of the main ideas presented in the body.• State a conclusion drawn from the evidence.

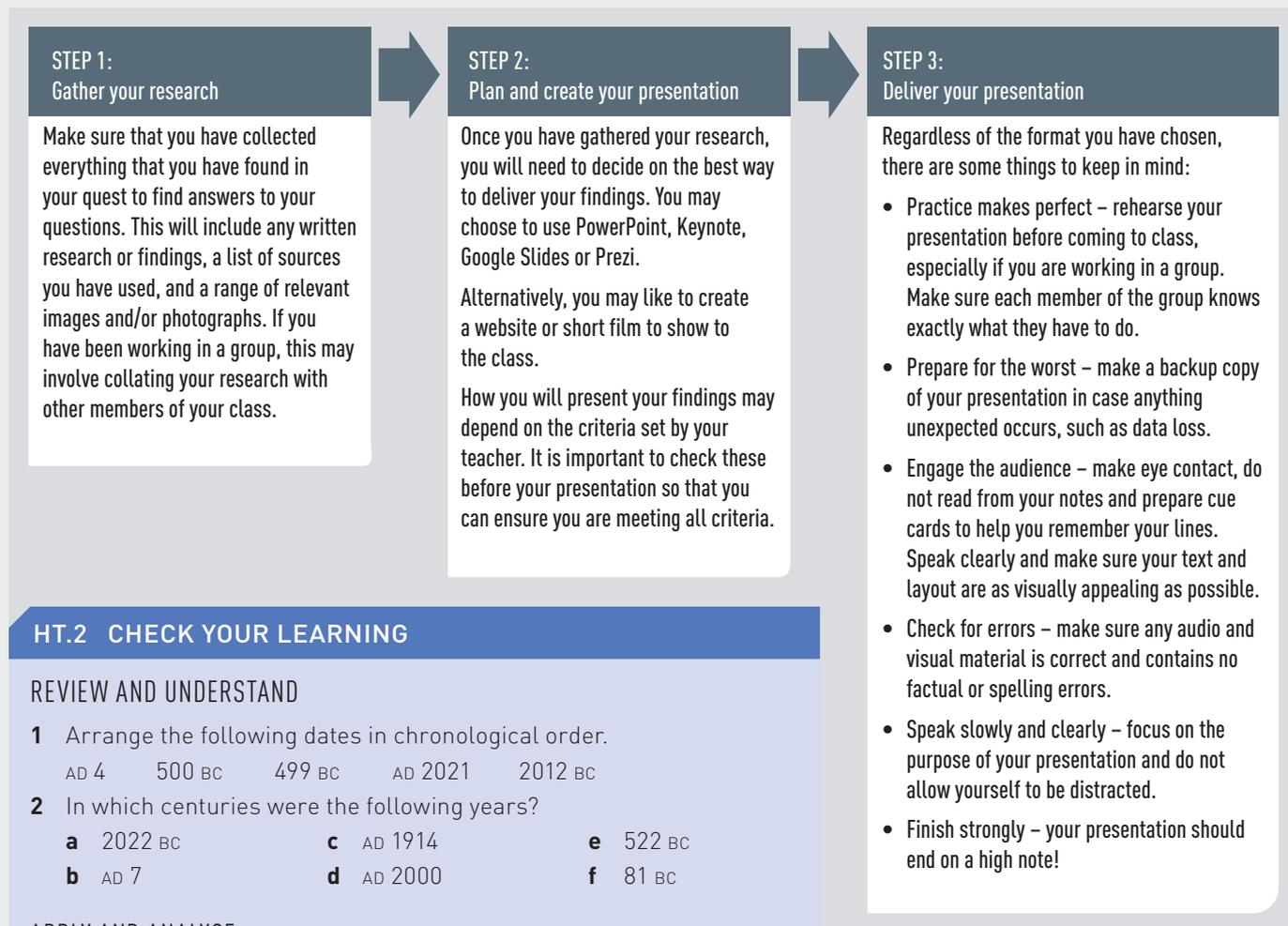
Select and use a range of communication forms and digital technologies

The final stage of any historical inquiry is the presentation of your findings. This is one of the most important aspects of your inquiry because it draws together all of the sources, evidence and findings of your investigation. There are a number of ways to effectively communicate your findings and add colour and life to the presentation.

For example:

- oral – speeches, class presentations, re-enactments, interviews, podcasts, vlogs and role plays
- graphic – posters, cartoons, infographics and models
- written – descriptions, explanations, class newspapers, scripts, letters and diaries
- digital – multimedia presentations, websites, films, blogs, wikis and apps.

One of the most popular ways to present the findings of a historical inquiry is to create a multimedia presentation. To prepare and present a successful multimedia presentation, there are several steps to follow, as shown in Source 21.



HT.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

1 Arrange the following dates in chronological order.

AD 4 500 BC 499 BC AD 2021 2012 BC

2 In which centuries were the following years?

- | | | |
|-----------|-----------|----------|
| a 2022 BC | c AD 1914 | e 522 BC |
| b AD 7 | d AD 2000 | f 81 BC |

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 Review your understanding of the difference between a fact and an opinion by writing definitions for these terms in your own words. Share your definitions with a partner and discuss any differences.
- 4 Based on what you have read and what you have seen in Source 13, generate four questions that would lead to an interesting area for a historical inquiry.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

5 Present a brief description and explanation of a historical event that interests you. Use whichever presentation method you prefer.

GO DEEPER

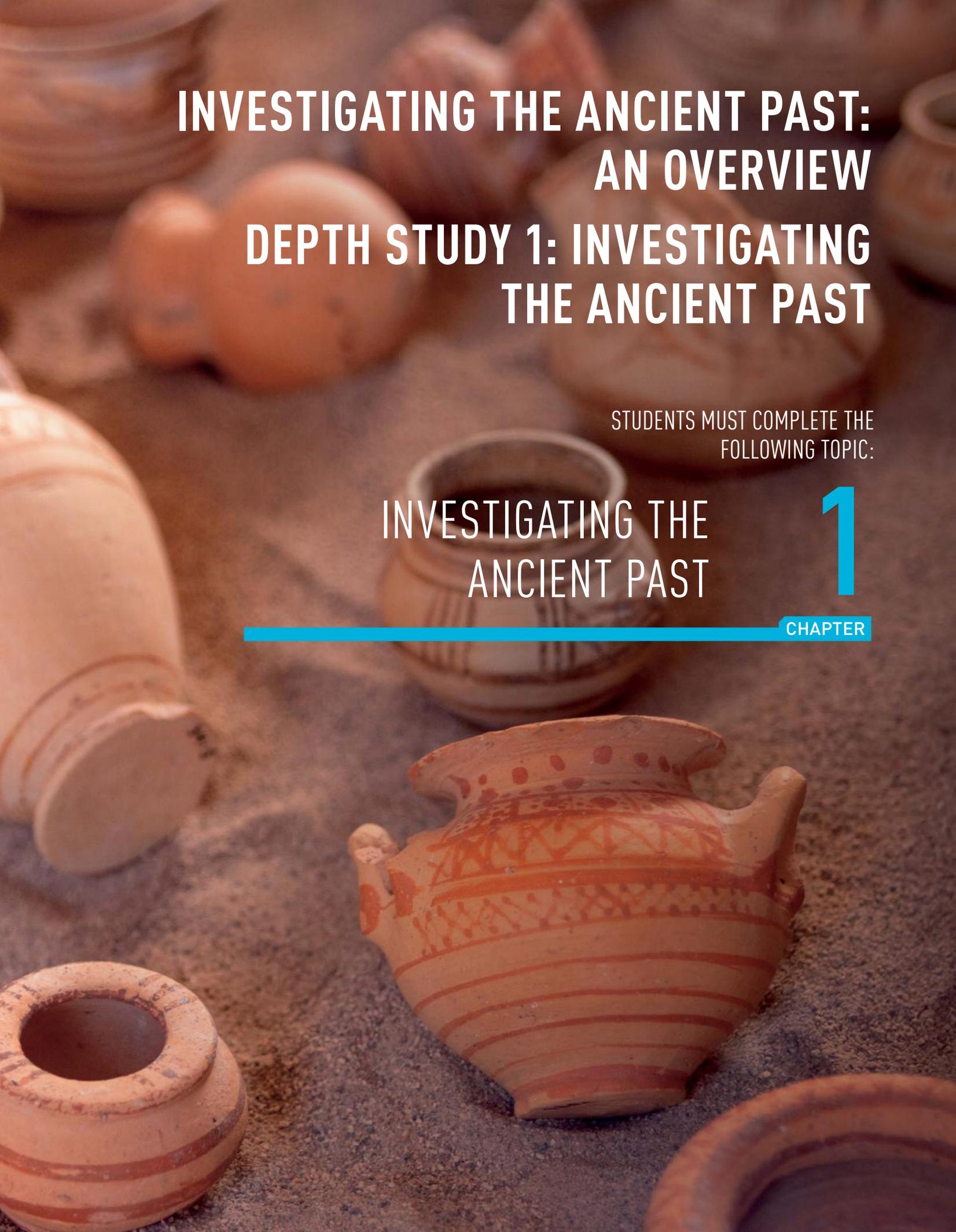
- 6 Choose a person of interest to you and create a timeline of their life. The person can be an important historical figure, a person who has made an important discovery or invention that changed history, or even your favourite actor or musician.
- a Your timeline should include at least six significant events. Each entry must include a date and brief description of that event.
- b You should also include images related to at least two of the entries on your timeline.
- c Present your timeline digitally or as a poster.

Source 21 Steps required to create your presentation

PART

A

Ancient clay pots found in Greece



INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 1: INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST

STUDENTS MUST COMPLETE THE
FOLLOWING TOPIC:

INVESTIGATING THE
ANCIENT PAST

1

CHAPTER

OVERVIEW OF THE ANCIENT WORLD 60 000 BC–AD 650

0.1 OUT OF AFRICA?

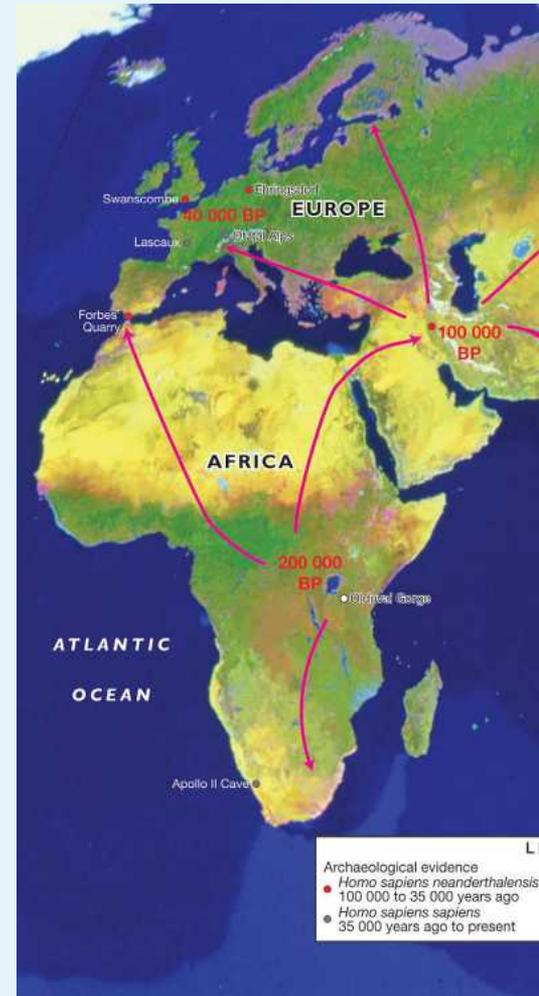
Modern humans have lived on Earth for about 200 000 years. Over time and across the globe there have been two major changes in human history:

- the move from hunting and gathering for food (foraging) to the earliest stages of conventional farming
- the move from farming or agriculture to manufacturing or industry.

These critical changes in human history took place between 60 000 BC and AD 650. During this time, people began to live in villages, and then towns, and then cities. The people of the ancient world developed cultural practices and organised societies that influence how we live today.

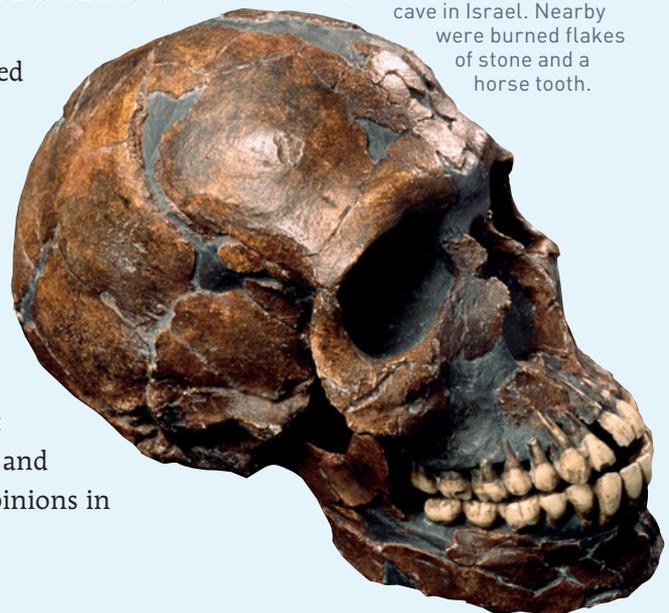
There is still argument among the experts about when modern humans first appeared and then spread to different parts of the world. Since the 1990s, most historians have favoured an explanation known as the **'Out of Africa' theory**. This theory states that early humans originally appeared in Africa about 200 000 years ago. Then about 100 000 years ago, migrating groups left Africa in waves, initially arriving in the Middle East. These waves of **migration** continued until around 12 000 years ago. Source 1 shows the spread of humans from their beginnings in East Africa to other parts of the world.

In the past, some scholars believed that early humans developed at the same time in different parts of the world. However, **fossil** and genetic evidence strongly supports the 'Out of Africa' theory. This is an example of the difference between knowledge and belief. In this case, knowledge is understanding how and why beliefs about the 'Out of Africa' theory have been formed, and being willing to change beliefs or opinions in light of new evidence.



Source 1 This satellite image of Earth shows the likely migration routes and settlement patterns of modern humans (*Homo sapiens*) according to the 'Out of Africa' theory.

Source 2 This *Homo sapiens* skull, dated at around 100 000 years ago, was found in the Qafzeh cave in Israel. Nearby were burned flakes of stone and a horse tooth.



'Out of Africa' theory

the most widely accepted theory explaining the origin and early migration patterns of modern humans (*Homo sapiens*); based on the idea that humans evolved in Africa then spread to other places

migration

the movement of people from one place to another

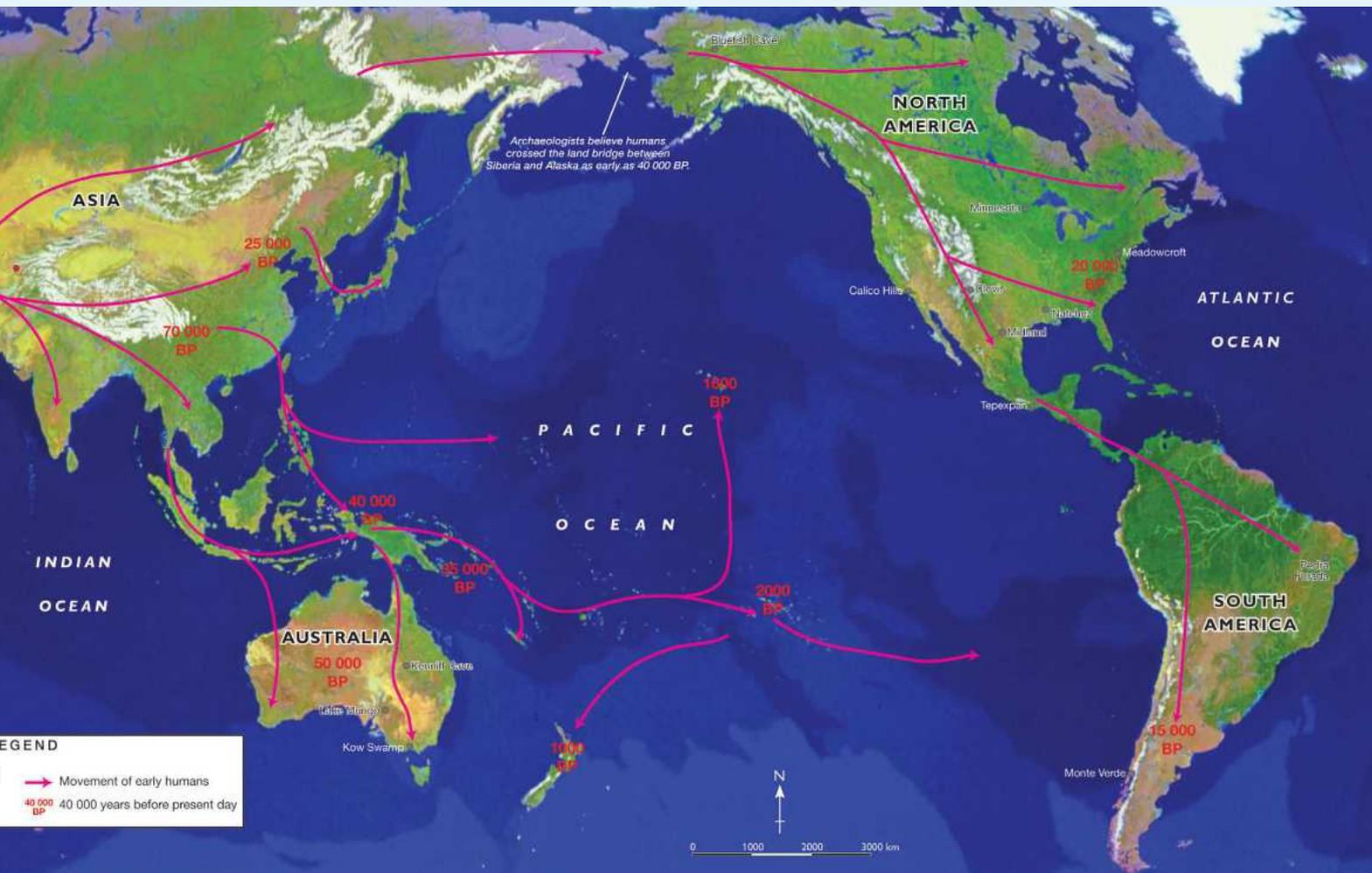
fossil

the preserved remains (or impressions) of a plant or animal that lived long ago

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

As science continues to develop, historians must remain open to new interpretations. For example, teeth found in the Luna Cave in China in 2014 question the validity of the 'Out of Africa' theory, as the teeth are older than the suggested time of migration from Africa.



Indigenous peoples in Australia

Some Indigenous Australians have traditionally claimed that their ancestors originated in Australia rather than migrating from elsewhere. By contrast, other Indigenous groups, especially in northern Australia, have stories about their ancient ancestors making journeys by sea. What we do know, however, is that the famous Australian Mungo Man skeleton is the oldest ritually buried human found anywhere in the world, and dates back around 42 000 years. Furthermore, in 2018, with the cooperation of Indigenous Australian elders, **DNA** tests were completed that indicated that Australia's first peoples are the oldest continuous civilisation and cultures on Earth.

DNA

the abbreviation of deoxyribonucleic acid; DNA is found in the cells of all known living organisms; it is the unique genetic code of each living thing

0.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 In your own words, outline the 'Out of Africa' theory.
- 2 What does archaeological evidence such as Source 2 reveal about this theory?
- 3 What are the problems or limitations with this theory?
- 4 What are the different views of Indigenous Australians about their origins?

0.2 FROM FORAGING TO FARMING

hunter-gatherer

a member of an ancient group of people who survived by hunting animals and gathering (foraging) plants in the wild

prehistory

the period of time before written records

nomad

a person who lives by moving from place to place rather than staying in a fixed place; people who are nomads are said to be 'nomadic'

Neolithic Revolution

the period in human history when people stopped hunting and gathering for food, instead choosing to settle and farm the land; this change resulted in a huge increase in human populations and many cultural advances

Our ideas about **hunter-gatherers** in the distant past have been put together by experts who have observed modern hunter-gatherers living in Africa, Australia and South America. They have assumed that the distant ancestors of these people lived in similar ways. Based on these observations, and the few archaeological finds from this period of **prehistory**, experts have concluded that the lives of these communities would have been very difficult. Every day would have been a struggle to find enough food. It is likely that people lived in small, **nomadic** groups, walking long distances each day to hunt and find food.

Gradually, some hunter-gatherer communities developed techniques that allowed them to grow food and locate more resources from the land around them. As a result, these communities started to become more settled. The shift in human behaviour – from hunting and gathering to farming – took place in many societies at different times. It was such a significant development that it is often called a revolution: the **Neolithic Revolution**. These changes took place around 15 000 years ago in Mesopotamia, near the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in modern Turkey and Iraq, and along the Nile Valley. In recent years, Australian writers such as Bill Gammage and Bruce Pascoe have revealed that settled agriculture may have been taking place in Australia well before this. Early accounts by European explorers of Australia included observations of permanent housing and crop management. However, this was largely overlooked as British colonisers sought to ignore Indigenous achievements to justify the occupation of an 'empty land'.

Source 3 Paintings found in the Lascaux caves in France were painted by hunter-gatherers who lived in Europe between about 20 000 and 9000 years ago.





Source 4 When early farming communities worked together to produce enough food, they had more time to spend on learning and cultural activities.

Settled farming communities began to appear in a number of fertile regions between 8000 and 7000 BC. Communities growing crops and keeping domesticated animals could produce a surplus of food. This allowed time for building, studying, creating art and sharing knowledge. These in turn led to the development of more organised trade, government, the rule of law and religion. Some of these early farming communities developed into the first great **civilisations** of the ancient world:

- the ancient Egyptian civilisation, which grew from the early farming communities that appeared along the fertile banks of the Nile River
- the ancient Chinese civilisation, which grew initially from the farming communities that sprang up in valleys along the Huang He (Yellow River)
- the ancient Indian civilisation, which emerged from the early farming communities that appeared along the fertile valley of the Indus River.

New research is under way, using **radiocarbon dating**, to find which was the oldest of these river-based civilisations. The findings suggest that the earliest of these might have been in the Indus Valley in the area of modern-day India and Pakistan.

civilisation

a highly organised and complex culture and way of living; there are different forms of civilisation in different places and at different times

radiocarbon dating

a method used to estimate the age of something that was once alive; the amount of radioactive carbon in the remains of the object is tested and gives a good indication of age because carbon breaks down over time at a known rate

0.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1** What evidence does Source 3 tell us about early hunter-gatherers in Europe?
- 2** Why did some hunter-gatherers become more settled?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3** What do the origins of the ancient Egyptian, Chinese and Indian civilisations have in common?

0.3 EVIDENCE OF ANCIENT SOCIETIES

society

a community of people living in a particular area who have a shared culture, customs and laws

culture

the customs and traditions that a community, society or civilisation develops over time that are passed down from generation to generation

artefact

any object that is made or changed by humans (e.g. a primitive tool, remains of a building)

archaeologist

a person who uncovers and interprets sources from the past, such as the remains of people, buildings and artefacts

As early farming communities developed into **societies**, interaction between people increased, and they had more opportunities to think about and discuss matters that puzzled or frightened them. These might have included birth and death, day and night, the seasons, fertility, natural disasters, eclipses and so on. Beliefs and behaviours evolved to explain such events, and **cultures** began to take shape. Some ways in which ancient people expressed their cultures are evident in their tools and utensils, art, writings, rituals, sacred sites and monuments.

Tools and utensils

Archaeological evidence indicates there was a significant increase in the creation of **artefacts**, such as pottery, from around 5000 years ago. They include tools and utensils to hold water, oil or grain.



Source 5 Ancient Greek *amphorae* (pottery containers) for holding oil

Art

Archaeologists think early rock art, such as the example shown in Source 3, may have been a ‘magical’ ritual to ensure success in an important activity, such as a hunt. Later, as Source 6 shows, ancient art often became more elaborate and symbolic. For many societies, it became an important part of funeral and religious rituals.



Source 6 Detail from a decorated panel found in a royal tomb at Ur, a city in ancient Sumer

Writing

Scholars think that writing began as an attempt by people to keep visible records of trading. These might be notches made on bones, or arrangements of pebbles or sticks. The ancient Sumerians produced the first script around 3500 BC. Other scripts developed in Egypt, China, India and Mesoamerica (the area from modern-day central Mexico to northern Costa Rica). As scripts developed, inscriptions might have been made on the tombs of the more privileged people in different societies. These inscriptions, as well as tomb paintings and figurines, have provided historians with a wealth of information about the beliefs and everyday lives of ancient peoples.



Source 7 A clay tablet displaying a cuneiform script used by the ancient Sumerians

Rituals and ceremonies

As thinking evolved to explain the mysteries of life, people began to share those ideas through myths, legends and stories. Rituals and ceremonies helped to reinforce these ideas. These ceremonies could involve:

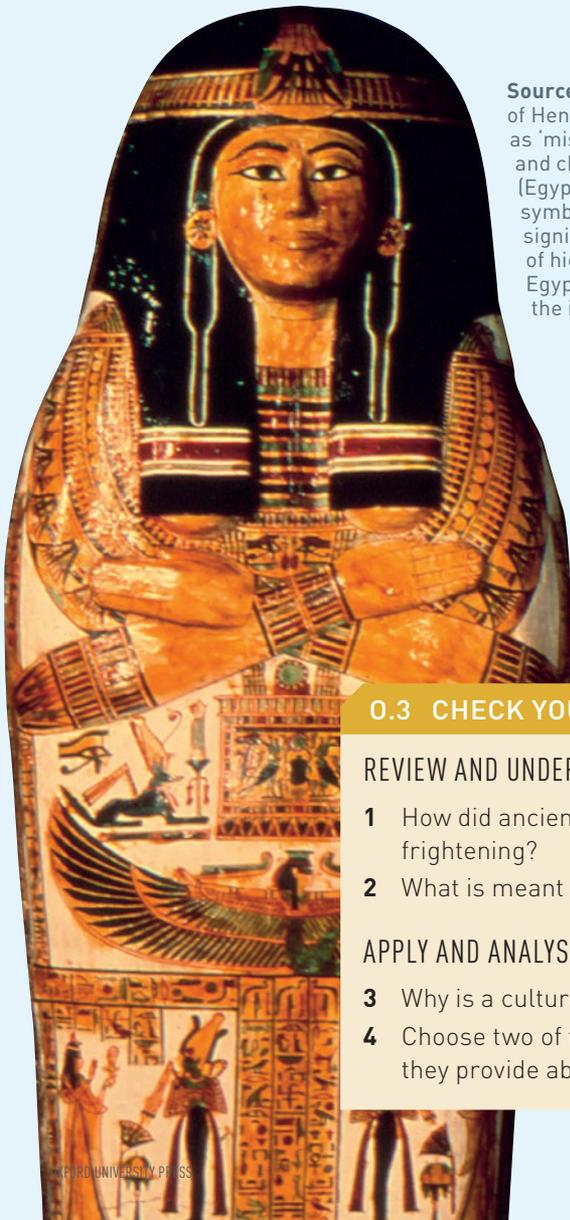
- the making of talismans (small objects like lucky charms) that people hoped would protect them from things they could not control
- sacrifices
- singing, chanting or dancing
- certain places being treated as shrines where people could reflect on the spirits or gods
- the building of monuments or temples in or near people's sacred sites to support their beliefs
- the observation of laws and taboos to ensure certain behaviours (such as a punishment for killing an animal regarded as sacred)
- particular funeral practices (such as preparing the dead for an afterlife).



Source 8 The traditional smoking ceremony performed by Indigenous Australians involves burning plants to produce smoke believed to have cleansing properties.



Source 10 Stonehenge is a prehistoric monument in southern Britain. Experts believe it was a holy place, and that its pattern of stones has astronomical significance. The precise placement of the huge stones suggests an ancient society with advanced engineering skills that chose to spend an enormous amount of time and energy to construct the monument.



Source 9 The outer coffin of Henettaway, identified as 'mistress of the house and chantress of Amun-Re' (Egypt's main god). The symbols all have religious significance and panels of hieroglyphs (ancient Egyptian writing) divide the illustrations.

0.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 How did ancient peoples respond to events in their lives that seemed mysterious or frightening?
- 2 What is meant by the term 'culture'?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 Why is a culture more likely to evolve when small communities develop into societies?
- 4 Choose two of the examples of evidence from ancient societies. What evidence do they provide about the ancient peoples who created, performed or used them?

0.4 FEATURES OF ANCIENT SOCIETIES

Social classes

As societies flourished, distinct social groups began to form. A group's rank or class reflected the value that society placed on their roles. This way of organising people from most to least important is known as a **hierarchy**. Rulers came from social groups with the most wealth and prestige, often from landowners, warriors or religious leaders. There were also administrative groups (such as tax collectors and law makers), traders and merchants, soldiers, artisan groups (such as potters, weavers and tool makers) and farmers. Many ancient societies had slaves, the lowest social class, whose role was to provide a vital source of labour.

hierarchy

a way of organising things (or people) from the top down in order of importance or significance; ancient societies had strict hierarchies with a ruler at the top and peasants at the bottom

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The art form we know as drama evolved from an ancient Greek festival to celebrate the god Dionysus. This happened when dialogue – an innovation at the time – was added to the songs and dances that told the myths and legends of the god.

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

Religion is a great example of how different views shape experiences. Frequently throughout history, people of all classes have made decisions based on their religious perspective.

Silk Roads

a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

The growth of farming

Farmers in different parts of the world farmed crops and animals that were best suited to their environment. The earliest evidence of farming comes from the Fertile Crescent, an area from the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea to the Persian Gulf, which includes Mesopotamia, an area of rich soil between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in Iraq (*mesopotamia* means 'between rivers'). Farmers there adapted native grasses and other plants to create crops that could be harvested. Barley and einkorn, a type of wheat, were among the first crops to be grown. Sheep and goats were among the first animals to be domesticated.

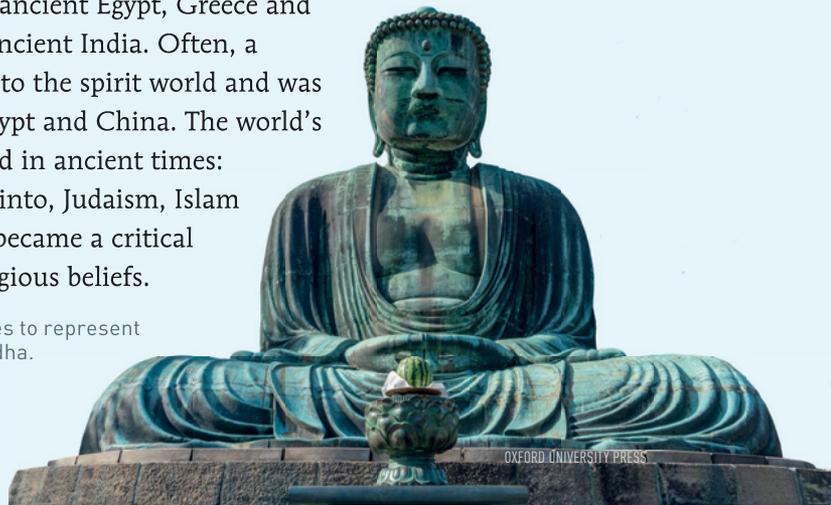
Trade

Growing villages and towns began to exchange their surplus crops and manufactured goods for other goods that they needed. Grain and stone, which was useful for making tools, were among the earliest goods traded. Trade introduced settlements not only to new goods, but also to new ways of conducting business and new ways of thinking. Trading towns became prosperous, and the first economies took shape.

Religion

Belief systems explained the many things that frightened or mystified ancient peoples. The idea that spirits or forces were responsible gave people comfort that 'someone' was in control. Societies created images to represent these spirits or gods, and behaviours such as prayer and rituals emerged. In many societies, a social group developed whose role was to provide a link between ordinary people and these beings or spirits. These were the priests and priestesses of ancient Egypt, Greece and Rome, and the Brahmin caste in ancient India. Often, a ruler was seen to be closely linked to the spirit world and was regarded as a god, as in ancient Egypt and China. The world's major religions emerged and spread in ancient times: Hinduism, Buddhism, Daoism, Shinto, Judaism, Islam and Christianity. The **Silk Roads** became a critical pathway for this movement of religious beliefs.

Source 11 Ancient societies created images to represent spirits or gods, such as this statue of Buddha.



The rule of law

As societies developed and became more complex, people's day-to-day customs became 'rules' about how people should behave. The first written laws were recorded about 4000 years ago by a king of Ur, in ancient Sumer. About 300 years later, Hammurabi, the king of Babylon, recorded a detailed set of 282 laws known as the Code of Hammurabi. The laws dealt with a range of issues including theft, treatment of slaves and maintenance of property. The law codes of some ancient societies were framed around religious practices; for example, Judaism has the law of Moses (which includes the Ten Commandments), and Muslims have the law of the Five Pillars, based on the teachings of the Prophet Muhammad.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Many laws from the Code of Hammurabi are still relevant today, demonstrating continuity with legal systems. However, many laws are updated and changed depending on the needs and culture of a society.

0.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Create a concept map to summarise the key features of ancient societies.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 2 In groups, choose one key feature of societies and investigate this in relation to one or more ancient societies. Share the results of your investigation with the class, making sure you include interesting facts and relevant images.

GO DEEPER

- 3 Locate a map of the region where farming is thought to have first begun. Conduct some research to find out why this region was called the Fertile Crescent.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Some of Hammurabi's laws were very harsh. For example, law 195 states, 'If a son hits his father, his hands shall be cut off'.

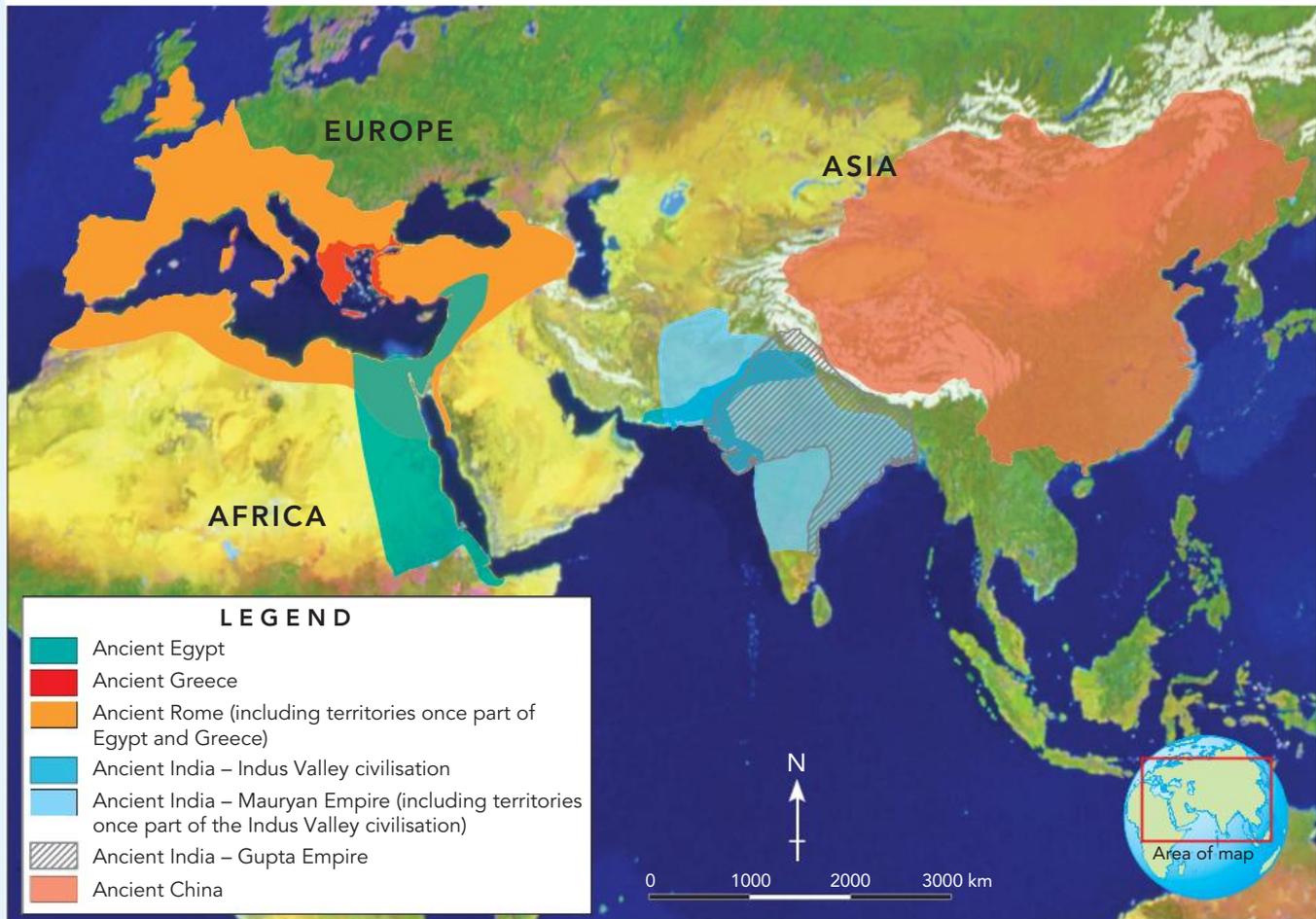
Source 12 Part of the Silk Roads, the trading route between China and India



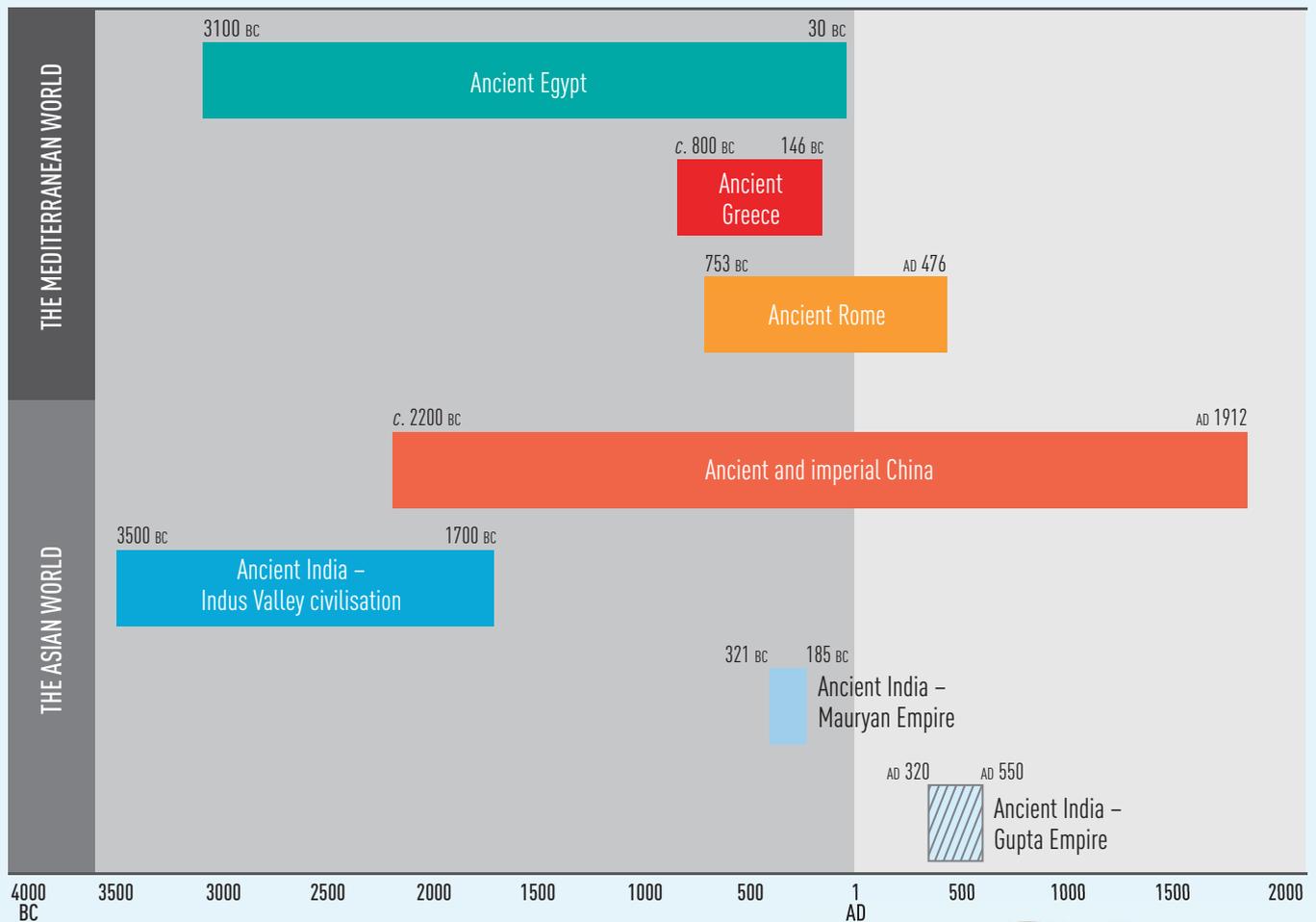
0.5 ANCIENT CIVILISATIONS

Some of the world's most significant ancient civilisations developed on the continents we know as Africa, Europe and Asia. Source 13 shows the location, size and key information about these ancient civilisations. Source 14 shows the dates of their rise and fall. Note that not all of these ancient civilisations existed in the same time periods.

Ancient Egypt (c. 3100–30 BC)	Ancient Greece (c. 800–146 BC)	Ancient Rome (753 BC–AD 476)	Ancient India (3500 BC–AD 550)	Ancient and imperial China (c. 2200 BC–AD 1912)
<p>Ancient Egypt was a civilisation based around the Nile River in northern Africa. It was one of the world's first civilisations. For much of its history, ancient Egypt was ruled by one government, with a pharaoh as the ultimate authority. Between 3100 BC and 30 BC, when the last pharaoh died, there were 31 dynasties (ruling families) and 70 pharaohs.</p>	<p>Ancient Greece covered all of modern-day Greece as well as parts of Turkey and other settlements around the Mediterranean and Black seas. The civilisation lasted only about 650 years, before becoming part of the empires of Alexander the Great and then Rome, but its legacy (including democracy) influences the Western world to this day.</p>	<p>The civilisation of ancient Rome lasted approximately 1300 years. It was centred on the city of Rome, in modern-day Italy. The Romans conquered the ancient Egyptians and Greeks, as well as many other peoples. During its history, Rome was ruled as a monarchy, a republic and an empire. It was a powerful civilisation with a strong military and an advanced culture.</p>	<p>Civilisation in India began in the Indus Valley in 3500 BC. For much of its history, ancient India was a collection of separate regions and kingdoms, some of which were at war with one another. At different times, some of these were ruled as part of dynasties or empires; these included the Mauryan Empire, whose authority rose and fell in just 135 years, and the Gupta Empire.</p>	<p>Imperial China was ruled for 3600 years by dynasties. The Han Dynasty ended in AD 220, and the last dynasty – the Qing – ended in 1912. Chinese society was one of the earliest in the world to establish towns and cities. It also contributed important technological developments to the rest of the world, such as gunpowder and printing.</p>



Source 13 The location and size of key ancient civilisations when they were at their peak



Source 14 A timeline showing the rise and fall of key ancient civilisations

0.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- Use the map and timeline to order the ancient civilisations by:
 - size
 - length of time they existed.
- Suggest how these ancient civilisations may have influenced each other. Explain your reasoning.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- Consider the ancient civilisations mentioned above.
 - Use bullet points to list five things you know about each civilisation. Share this in a class discussion.
 - Which civilisation is best and least known among your classmates? Propose why this might be the case.

Source 15 This terracotta warrior was created in ancient China in the third century BC to honour Qin Shi Huang, the first emperor of China.



1

INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST

History is the investigation of the past. Studying the past allows us to appreciate what has been left to us by our ancestors. It helps us to understand how they have shaped and changed the world in which we live. A better understanding and appreciation of ourselves and our world can also help us to shape our future.

Historians are time detectives, always asking questions. They investigate historical mysteries and piece together accurate pictures of what life was like in days gone by. They also look for patterns, to understand what has remained the same, what has changed, and why. In their investigations, historians follow a process of historical inquiry – they ask questions, form opinions and theories, locate and analyse sources, and use evidence from these sources to develop an informed explanation about the past. As a student of history, it's now your turn to do the same.

1A

HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORY?

1.1 HISTORY IS INVESTIGATION

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline the main features of history and archaeology
- outline the role of historians and archaeologists
- describe and explain the different approaches to historical investigation taken by archaeologists and historians.

artefact

any object that is made or changed by humans (e.g. a primitive tool, remains of a building)

A note on ethical approaches to studying history

When studying the past, historians and archaeologists encounter not only **artefacts**, but also human remains. These remains can provide great insight into how people lived, what they ate, their health and how they died. In this chapter there are images of ancient human remains. Different cultures have different views on such images; for example, Indigenous Australians have rules about who is allowed to look at these kinds of images. It is essential that these views and images are treated with respect.

Historians use a process of historical inquiry to investigate the past. This section will introduce the process of historical inquiry and familiarise you with the key skills and concepts that historians use. We also look at the work of archaeologists and other experts.

The word 'history' comes from the ancient Greek word *historia*, which means 'investigation'. Understanding that history is an ongoing investigation (or inquiry) is the key to the subject. History is not about memorising a list of dates or facts; it is about thinking, understanding and developing research and other skills that are useful in life.

Historians use an inquiry approach when they investigate controversies and mysteries of the ancient past. They:

- develop an inquiry question to clearly identify the problem or issue they want to investigate
- form theories known as **hypotheses** (by stating what they think the likely answer might be)
- conduct research to gather **evidence** from a range of **sources**
- assess the value of the sources and analyse the evidence they gather from them
- confirm or modify their hypotheses on the basis of this evidence.

In many cases, when investigating the ancient past, some of the evidence is missing. For this reason, historians need to piece together the past – kind of like putting together a giant jigsaw puzzle that is missing some of its pieces.

hypothesis

a considered opinion, theory or statement, based on research and evidence, about something that has not been proven ('hypotheses' is the plural form)

evidence

the information or clues gathered from a historical source; evidence can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

source

evidence that historians use when investigating the past

Investigating the mysteries of the Sphinx

The Great Sphinx is an ancient monument located near the pyramids at Giza in Egypt. It has the body of a lion and the head of a man, and was carved from large blocks of limestone. It is the largest sculpture made in ancient times that still survives today. It measures 73 metres long and 20 metres high.

Historians who have studied the Sphinx have gathered a lot of information about it and developed a number of hypotheses about why it was created, including:

- its age and the materials it is made from
- who built it and why
- an understanding of the creature it represents
- how it was damaged and why
- its social and religious importance to ancient Egyptians.

Despite these investigations, certain facts about the Sphinx remain a mystery. Uncovering the secrets of the past is not always easy, and historians do not always agree. This is referred to as **contestability**.

When was the Sphinx built?

The Sphinx has been buried in sand many times, and was last dug out in 1905. Between its front paws are a number of stones that are covered with **hieroglyphs**. These carved pictures, which relate a dream of the ancient Egyptian king Thutmose IV, say the Sphinx was made ‘in the days of Khafre, when the world was young’. Not all historians agree that the Sphinx was built around 2500 BC on the orders of the **pharaoh** Khafre. Some say it was built much earlier – around 10 000 years ago. They base their opinion on the different erosion patterns visible on the Sphinx. Others say there were different erosion patterns because the limestone blocks had both hard and soft layers in them. More recently, it has been discovered that environmental pollution, in particular acid rain, is eroding the surface of the Sphinx.

contestability

a key concept in history: an appreciation of the fact that some historians may challenge or dispute particular interpretations of sources, events or issues put forward by other historians

hieroglyphs

picture-like symbols used in the original writing system of the ancient Egyptians

pharaoh

the leader of ancient Egypt who was believed to be a god; the pharaoh had absolute power and total control

Source 1 The Great Sphinx of Giza



STRANGE BUT TRUE

Bill Gates, the founder of Microsoft and one of the richest people in the world, has often employed history graduates. Gates has preferred history graduates because of the way historians learn to think and because they are able to consider many different factors at once.

Whose face is on the Sphinx?

Many historians say the Sphinx's face is the face of the pharaoh Khafre himself. Others disagree: they say it does not look anything like the face on Khafre's statue. Is this proof?

Are there secret chambers and tunnels under the Sphinx?

Three short passageways have been found under the Sphinx, but they lead nowhere. They may have been dug by robbers. The Roman historian Pliny wrote that local people believed the Sphinx was a king's tomb. Recent technical investigations suggest there is good reason to believe there may be chambers well below the Sphinx yet to be discovered.

Where have the Sphinx's nose and beard gone?

A common view is that the face was damaged when troops of the French general Napoleon used it for target practice in 1798. But a sketch by a French architect in 1737 clearly shows a missing nose. The historian Muhammad al-Husayni Taqi al-Din al-Maqrizi, writing in the early 1400s, said the face was vandalised in AD 1378 to fix up some 'religious errors'. But he said both the nose and ears were knocked off – however, we can see the ears quite clearly on photographs of the Sphinx today. Can his report be trusted if the ears are still there? Marks on the face do suggest that the nose was hacked off. Most experts think that the beard fell off. An archaeologist named Caviglia found what he thought were pieces of it in 1816. Some of these are now in the British Museum.

The role of archaeologists and other experts

Historians use all the tools of science, maths, literature, economics, geography and a range of the humanities to help solve the riddles of the past. They also rely on the work of many other experts. These include:

- archaeologists – experts who uncover and interpret sources from the past, including the remains of people, buildings and artefacts
 - anthropologists – experts who study the behaviours and customs of human societies
 - biologists – scientists who study living things
 - linguists and cryptographers – experts in languages and symbols who are able to read some of the ancient languages or decode unknown or secret writing
 - forensic pathologists – specialists in the causes of death, who are called upon when historians are investigating ancient bodies
 - geophysical surveyors – experts who use tools and techniques to locate something underground or underwater
 - geneticists – scientists who study a living thing's unique genes
 - palaeontologists – scientists who study the fossilised remains of plants and animals.
- Archaeologists locate and uncover sources of evidence of past peoples, including:
- their skeletal remains
 - places where they lived or travelled
 - the ruins of their temples, towns and tombs
 - artefacts they made, such as pottery, weapons, tools and coins
 - inscriptions and stone reliefs they carved
 - rubbish dumps (referred to by historians as **middens**) and fire sites.

Some archaeologists work underwater, scouring the sea bottoms for sources on or beneath the sea bed, such as ancient shipwrecks.

midden

a rubbish heap made up of food scraps, broken pottery and shells found near ancient sites; archaeologists use these to learn more about the people who lived at these sites

Excavating archaeological sites

Most sources found on land are buried. They might be covered by the silt of past floods, by sand blown by the wind or by dense jungle that has grown over them. Some lie beneath the ruins of other settlements built over time on the site. Archaeologists work to locate and then **excavate** artefacts and other sources of evidence.

Once archaeologists have located a historical site that they think may contain important artefacts, it is roped off from the public. These sites are referred to as archaeological digs. The area is then divided up and marked off in grid sections so that the precise location of items found can be recorded and catalogued. After surveying the site, archaeologists remove overlying rocks and dirt with great care, sometimes using teaspoons, small brushes, dental tools, sieves – even toothpicks. Once a source is fully exposed and excavated, the archaeologist photographs and numbers it, and records details of its description and the exact location where it was found.

excavate
to dig up

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Across time, people have investigated the past to find out about other societies, and they continue to do so. However, while people used to investigate because they were looking for treasures, now they excavate to learn, understand and educate.

1.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Why are archaeological sites often buried underground?
- 2 Look at Source 2. Explain what the archaeologist is likely to do with any artefacts they bring to the surface.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 Develop three inquiry questions about any aspects of the Sphinx that especially interest you. Before you write down your questions:
 - think about what you already know about the Sphinx, as well as what you want or need to know
 - focus your thinking by using words such as *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, *why* and *how* as your question starters.

GO DEEPER

- 4 Use the process of historical inquiry to investigate the question 'What issues are most important to people today?'

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the work of historians and archaeologists and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

Source 2 An archaeologist exploring the wreck of a ship that sank in the Mediterranean Sea during the eleventh century



1.2 TIME IN HISTORY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- define the terms and concepts relating to historical time.

chronology

a record of events in the order they took place

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION: CHRONOLOGY, TERMS AND CONCEPTS

Historians use specific terms to communicate about the past. This helps them sequence events in the order in which they happened.

To help us understand the past, it is useful to know when, and in what order, events happened. Arranging events in the order that they happened is known as **chronology**.

Time terms and concepts

It is important to understand the terms and abbreviations that historians use when they are talking about historical time. These are terms and abbreviations that you will encounter in every history text you read, so it is important to know them and understand how they work.

Representing time: BC and AD, BCE and CE

In the ancient world, time was measured with the rise and fall of the sun. Over generations, different societies devised their own ways of measuring time, such as the sundial shown in Source 3, which was used by the ancient Maya Empire of Mesoamerica (Central America).

As societies became more advanced they developed systems – such as calendars – to plan and record time, not only in days, but also in weeks, months and years. Today, the most commonly used calendar is the Gregorian calendar. Despite the popularity of the Gregorian calendar, it is not the only way we record time. There are a number of other calendars used around the world, including the Jewish, Islamic and Lunar calendars.



Source 3 A sundial used to measure time by the Maya

January	February	March	April
S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28	S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30
May	June	July	August
S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30	S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31
September	October	November	December
S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30	S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31	S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30	S M T W T F S 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31

Source 4 Most countries around the world today use the Gregorian calendar, which was introduced by Pope Gregory XIII in 1582.

The Gregorian calendar is a Christian-based calendar. It is broadly broken into two eras (specific periods of time):

- time before the birth of Christ – **BC** (Before Christ)
- time since the birth of Christ – **AD** (from the Latin expression *Anno Domini*, which means ‘in the year of our Lord’).

The abbreviation **BC** is placed after the date (for example, 1025 **BC**), and the abbreviation **AD** is placed before the date (for example, **AD** 1678).

You may also come across texts and references that use the alternative terms **BCE** (Before the Common Era) instead of **BC**, and **CE** (Common Era) instead of **AD**. Both of these terms are placed after the date (for example, 1025 **BCE** and 1678 **CE**).

Sometimes we are not able to discover the exact date that an event took place. When this happens, historians use the symbol *c.* before a date, for example *c.* 1450 **BC**. The *c.* is an abbreviation of the Latin word **circa**, which means ‘about’ or ‘around’.



Source 5 Detail of the Fasti Praenestini calendar from ancient Rome, AD 20–23

BC
the abbreviation of Before Christ, used to indicate any time before the birth of Christ

AD
the abbreviation of *Anno Domini* (in the year of our Lord), used to indicate any time after the birth of Christ

BCE
the abbreviation of Before the Common Era, used to indicate any time before the birth of Christ

CE
the abbreviation of Common Era, which refers to any time after the birth of Christ

circa
a Latin word meaning ‘around’ or ‘approximately’

decade
a period of 10 years

century
a period of 100 years

millennium
a period of 1000 years

Measures of time: decades, centuries and millennia

There are 10 years in a **decade**, 100 years in a **century** and 1000 years in a **millennium**. Source 6 shows examples of the start and end dates of centuries, using the terms **BC** and **AD**. The first century **BC** ends with 1 **BC** and we count further back to the past. The first century **AD** begins with **AD** 1 and we count forward to the present.

Much larger (though less exact) chunks of time are often described as eras, epochs or ages.

Source 6 Examples of the start and end dates of centuries

Century	Year it started	Year it ended
1st century BC	100 BC	1 BC
7th century BC	700 BC	601 BC
16th century BC	1600 BC	1501 BC
1st century AD	AD 1	AD 100
7th century AD	AD 601	AD 700
16th century AD	AD 1501	AD 1600

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

The birth of Jesus Christ is enormously significant – even for non-Christians – because the majority of the world measures time against this event.

Timelines

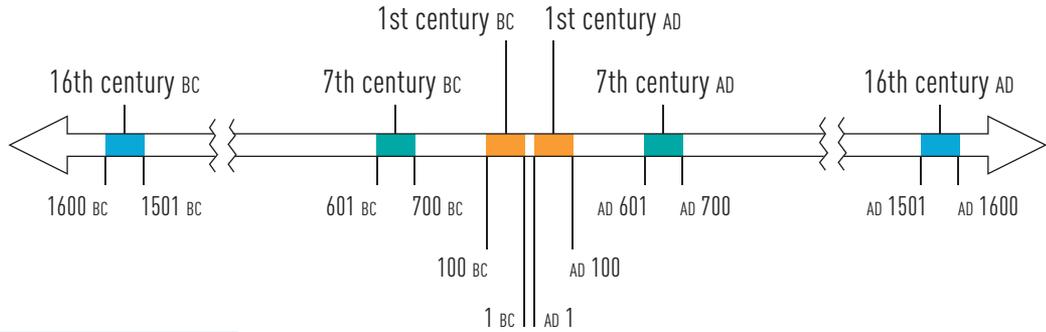
timeline

a visual representation of time showing a sequence of related historical events in chronological order

Timelines are a useful way to visually represent the scope of a time period, and to show the sequence of events. Source 7 gives a more immediate idea of the scope of time than the same dates presented in the table format of Source 6.

Source 8 gives a step-by-step guide to constructing timelines, including common timeline features. (A further example can be found in 'The historian's toolkit'.)

Source 7 A timeline can give an immediate idea of the scope of time periods. Note that the year before AD 1 is 1 BC; there is no Year 0.



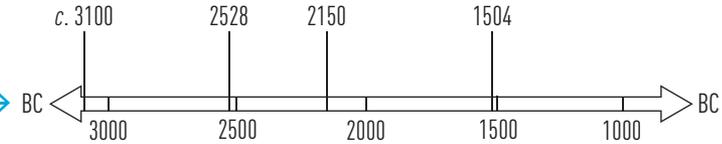
Step 1

Work out the length of time you want to represent on your timeline, such as from 3000 BC to 1000 BC. Then divide the timeline evenly into suitable blocks of time – in this case, 500 years. A timeline showing what you did yesterday might be divided into hours; one showing key events in the twentieth century might be divided into decades.



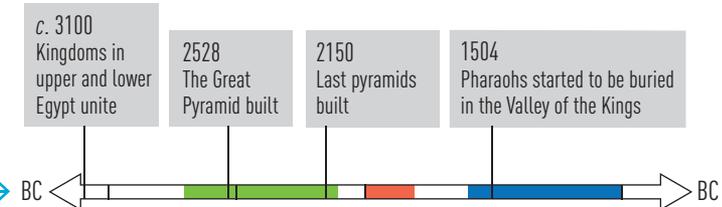
Step 2

Mark specific dates onto the timeline. These dates need to be accurately plotted so that they appear in chronological order. If an exact date is not known, the abbreviation *c.* (from the Latin word *circa*, meaning 'around') is placed in front of it (e.g. *c.* 3100).



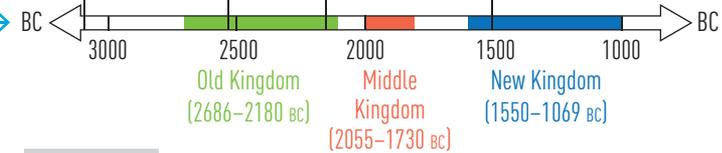
Step 3

Add a brief description for the dates plotted on the timeline, describing the events that took place.



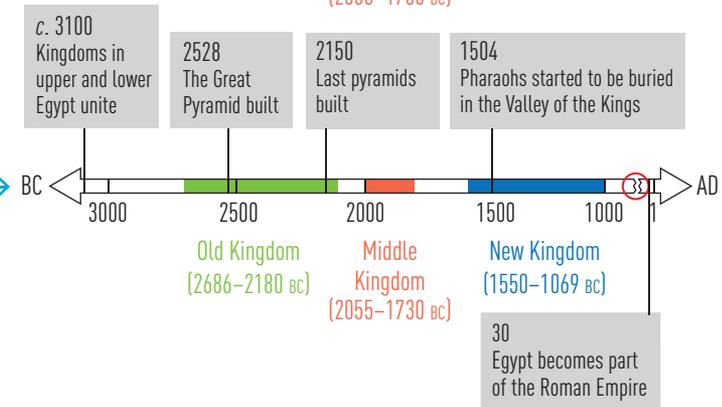
Step 4

Sometimes, sections on a timeline are shaded in different colours and labelled to indicate a period or block of time, such as the different kingdoms in ancient Egypt.



Step 5

To represent a huge span of time, you may need to break your timeline into sections using a jagged line. This break shows that a section of time has been left out and will ensure that your timeline will fit on the page! Just make sure no important events fall in the time you are leaving out.



Source 8 A step-by-step guide to drawing timelines

Dating in history

Historians use various methods to date past events. For the recent past and where there are written sources dating is fairly easy, but it can be more difficult the further back we go. When there is no written record, archaeologists, palaeontologists and other scientists use a range of techniques to date ancient remains. (We examine these methods in more detail in section 1B ‘What types of sources are used in historical investigations?’) Many of these techniques determine whether an artefact or fossil is older or younger than other objects. This is known as **relative dating**. Some scientific techniques can provide an **absolute dating**. They can determine the age of an object in years, as precisely as current technologies allow.

Relative dating can also involve the historian working out the logical relationship between two events to decide which one came first. The two examples below show how the order of two events could be logically arranged.

Example 1: Which came first?

- the use of chariots by the ancient Egyptians
- the invention of the wheel.

Logically, the wheel came before the chariot, because you could not have built a chariot before the invention of the wheel.

Example 2: Which came first?

- the construction of the Great Wall of China
- the beginning of agriculture in China.

Logically, the appearance of agriculture in China was followed by the construction of the Great Wall of China. It is reasonable to assume that the construction of the wall would require much labour and time, which would not have been available to hunter-gatherers who had to spend most of their time and energy finding food.

relative dating

the process of determining the age of different objects or artefacts by comparing them with each other

absolute dating

the process of determining the age of an object or artefact in years based on its physical or chemical properties



Source 9 A relief from ancient Egypt showing a battle using horse-drawn chariots



Source 10 An artist's impression of the building of the Great Wall of China

1.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 What is the Gregorian calendar?
- 2 Identify the two alternative ways of listing dates, based on the two eras of the Gregorian calendar.
- 3 What are the start and end dates of the following centuries?
 - a third century BC
 - b twentieth century AD
- 4 In which centuries were the following dates?
 - a AD 2020
 - b AD 1066
 - c AD 33
 - d 753 BC
- 5 Why are timelines useful for studying history?
- 6 Draw a timeline to show a decade, a century and a millennium.
- 7 Explain the difference between relative and absolute dating.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 8 The list below includes pairs of related events. Match the pairs correctly and then order the events in each pair. Write a sentence or two explaining the reasons for your decision on each pair.
 - the beginning of agriculture around the Nile delta in Egypt
 - the first space flight
 - the discovery of electricity
 - horses are tamed and used for transport and labour
 - construction of the first Egyptian pyramids
 - the first Moon landing
 - discovery of the atom
 - permanent settlement by the British in Australia
 - the appearance of horse shoes
 - electric fans
 - the explosion of the first atomic bomb
 - the opening of your school
- 9 Use the step-by-step guide in Source 8 to construct a timeline that shows these key discoveries and inventions. Then, add three more events from your own knowledge or research.
 - wheel – 3500 BC
 - silk – 2700 BC
 - alphabet – 1100 BC
 - paper – AD 900
 - rocket – AD 1232
 - car – AD 1885
 - personal computer – AD 1964
 - DVD – AD 1998
- 10 Investigate and report on the number of different calendars used in the world, such as the Jewish calendar, the Islamic calendar and the Lunar calendar.
- 11 During the French Revolution, beginning in 1789, the revolutionaries attempted to create new calendar months. What names did they choose, and why?

GO DEEPER

- 12 Locate an artefact, document or other source of evidence that interests you, either at home or in your local area. Conduct a mini historical investigation to find out more about it, following the process of historical inquiry outlined in this section.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

This is a great opportunity to conduct your first historical investigation.

HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORY?

» Outline the main features of history and archaeology

- 1 Explain the purpose and importance of the study of history. (3 marks)
- 2 What is the difference between the study of history and the study of archaeology? (3 marks)

» Outline the role of historians and archaeologists

- 3 What are the responsibilities and tasks performed by historians?
In your answer, be sure to include some information about:
 - what historians investigate
 - why historians are important for us today. (5 marks)
- 4 What are the responsibilities and tasks performed by archaeologists?
In your answer, be sure to include some information about:
 - what archaeologists investigate
 - why archaeologists are important for us today. (5 marks)

» Describe and explain the different approaches to historical investigation taken by archaeologists and historians

- 5 Which two experts should an archaeologist employ to assist after finding an unopened coffin covered in writing in an ancient language? Give reasons for your answer. (5 marks)
- 6 Outline the skills and technologies employed by historians and archaeologists during a historical investigation. (10 marks)

» Define the terms and concepts relating to historical time

- 7 Define the following terms:
 - a chronology (1 mark)
 - b BC and AD (2 marks)
 - c BCE and CE (2 marks)
 - d *circa* (1 mark)
 - e decade, century and millennium (3 marks)
 - f timeline (1 mark)
 - g relative dating and absolute dating. (4 marks)
- 8 Explain why some people use BC/AD and others use BCE/CE. Give examples to support your response. (5 marks)

Total marks [/50]

1A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student **obook** **assess** for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher **obook** **assess** for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Rich task

Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills

1B

WHAT TYPES OF SOURCES ARE USED IN HISTORICAL INVESTIGATIONS?

1.3 GATHERING EVIDENCE FROM A RANGE OF SOURCES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- list a range of sources used by archaeologists and historians in historical investigations.

SPOTLIGHT

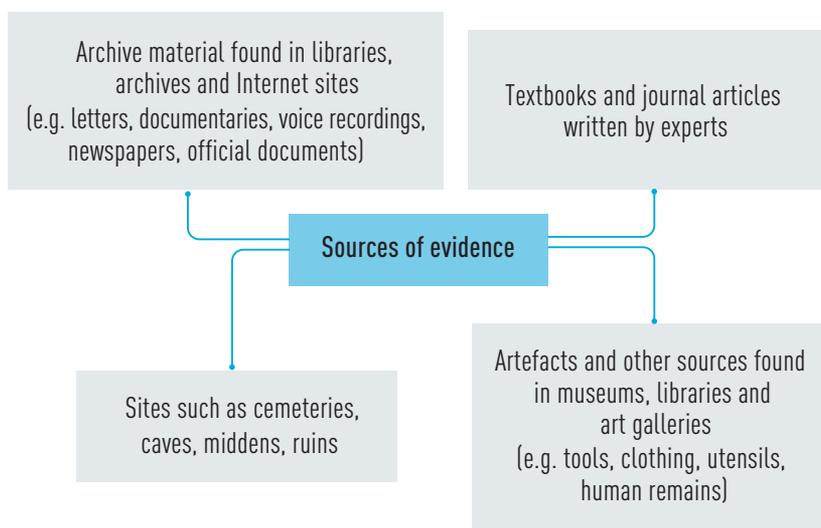
PERSPECTIVES

Historians must consider a variety of perspectives to inform their understanding. They do this by examining different sources of information.

A historian is constantly looking for and checking clues. This means looking for evidence, the information gathered from historical sources. Historians do not always agree on what the evidence is telling them, even when it is gathered from the same source. This is why historians are always searching for new sources of evidence, checking and re-checking the evidence they already have. They need to use a range of different sources to help them gain a more complete picture of the past.

Types of sources

The types of sources that historians might use to gather evidence are summarised in Source 1. These can include the written evidence of eyewitnesses who observed an event. Evidence can also come in the form of artefacts and objects – tools, weapons and household items – or in the form of buildings and other physical remains from the past. Evidence from the more recent past can be found in photographs, films and sound recordings.



Source 1 Some sources of evidence for a historical inquiry

Evaluating sources

Historians evaluate a source by asking questions such as:

- How old is the source?
- Who made or created it, or where did it come from?
- Is it from a trustworthy source?
- What motives might have been behind its creation?
- Are there any gaps and silences in the evidence it presents? (Is there anything missing, has it been damaged, has the creator deliberately left something out – if so, what and why?)

They also consider whether the source is a primary source or a secondary source.

Primary and secondary sources

Historians classify sources of evidence into two categories:

- **Primary sources** are objects created or written at the time being investigated, such as during an event or very soon after. Examples of primary sources include official documents, such as laws and treaties; personal documents, such as diaries and letters; and stone carvings and other artefacts. **Oral history** is also considered a primary source, even if it is being told many years later. This is because the memory was created at the time.
- **Secondary sources** are written accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated, or objects that were created after the event. They often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation. Examples of secondary sources include writings of historians, encyclopaedia entries, documentaries, history textbooks and websites.

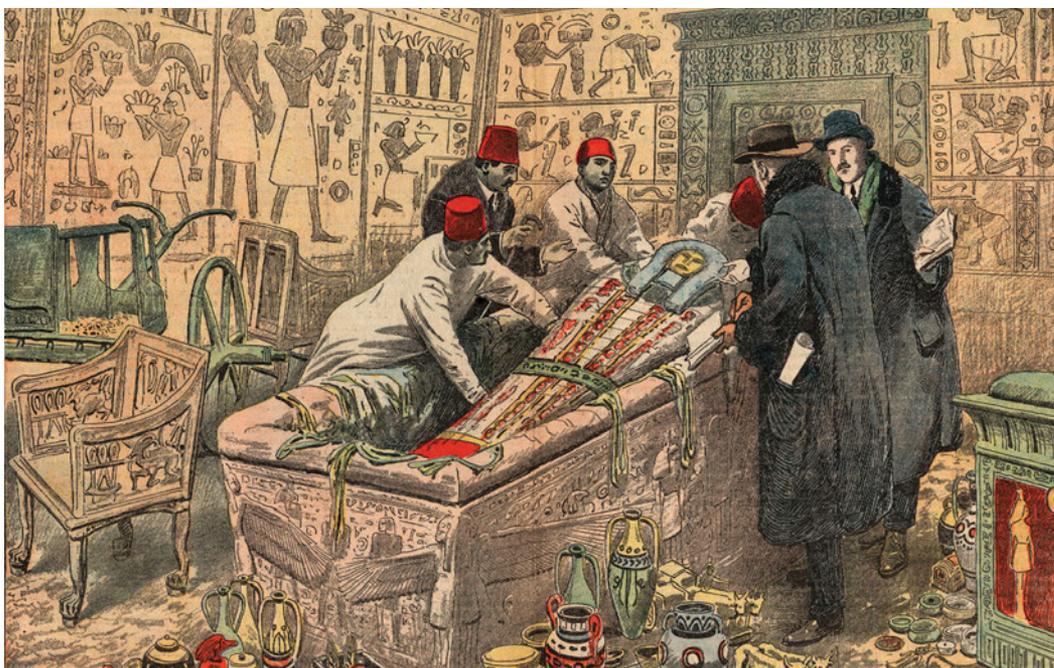
primary source
a source that was created during the time being studied

oral history
the collection of historical information through interviews or recordings of people telling their story or memory of the past

secondary source
a source that was created after the time being studied



Source 2 A photograph taken in 1922 shows British archaeologist Howard Carter leaving the tomb of Tutankhamun. The artefacts shown in the photograph and the photograph itself are primary sources because the artefacts were made during the rule of the ancient Egyptians and the photograph was taken at the time of the discovery of the tomb.



Source 3 An illustration shows Howard Carter inside the tomb of Tutankhamun. The illustration is a secondary source because it was drawn by an artist long after the discovery of the tomb in 1922. It is only a representation of the inside of Tutankhamun's tomb, even though it is based on a photograph taken at the time of its discovery. If the artist had been present inside the tomb, then the illustration could be considered a primary source.

Oral history

Some cultures have oral cultures. This means that their records were not written but were preserved in other forms. With no form of writing, their records were preserved in the paintings they left, as well as the ceremonies, rituals, stories, laws and traditions that they have passed on. Historians and anthropologists rely on sources such as these when searching for evidence of their history.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

It can be difficult to determine which sources are accurate and which are problematic. Reading widely helps uncover the most accurate information.

Digital sources

An internet search can provide a huge amount of possible source material for historians and researchers. However, as anyone can post material online, the reliability of the material needs to be evaluated, in the same way that any historical source would be evaluated and checked against other sources. More reliable sources may be found at websites of government organisations (.gov), academic institutions (.edu), museums and libraries. These websites have material that has been written, edited and reviewed by experts.

1.3 SOURCE STUDY

Evaluating sources

In the digital age, where so much information is available, it is even more important to gather information from a variety of reliable historical sources when seeking an answer to a question. Look carefully at the following sources related to the Colossus of Rhodes, reportedly the tallest statue built in ancient times and one of the Seven Wonders of the ancient world. It was built on the Greek island of Rhodes.

Source 4

The project was commissioned by the Rhodian sculptor Chares of Lindos. To build the statue, his workers cast the outer bronze skin parts. The base was made of white marble, and the feet and ankle of the statue were first fixed. The structure was gradually erected as the bronze form was fortified with an iron and stone framework. To reach the higher parts, an earth ramp was built around the statue and was later removed. When the colossus was finished, it stood about 33 m (110 ft) high ... The construction of the Colossus took 12 years and was finished in 282 BC. For years, the statue stood at the harbor entrance, until a strong earthquake hit Rhodes about 226 BC.

Rhodos travel service, www.rodos.com/index.htm

Source 5

Even as it lies it excites our wonder and admiration. Few men can clasp the thumb in their arms, and its fingers are larger than most statues. Where the limbs are broken asunder, vast caverns are seen yawning in the interior. Within it, too, are to be seen large masses of rock, by the weight of which the artist steadied it while erecting it.

Pliny the Elder, Roman author (AD 23–79)



Source 6 A modern artist's interpretation of the Colossus of Rhodes

Source 7

As fate would have it, however, an untimely end was destined for the Colossus. In 224 BC, only sixty-five years after its completion, the statue was toppled by a strong earthquake, crushing many houses as it fell. King Ptolemy III immediately offered to pay for it to be rebuilt, but the Rhodians had been warned by an oracle to let it lie and so declined his generous offer. The statue lay where it fell for over 875 years until Arab invaders pillaged its remains and sent the scrap metal to Syria, where it was carried off on the backs of 900 camels to be melted down – probably into bronze lamps. Nothing of the Colossus remains today, and the site upon which it once stood has not been securely identified.

www.amazingart.com/seven-wonders/colossus.html

Source 8

Colossus of Rhodes (Gk. *kolossos*, ‘a more than life-size statue’), a bronze statue of the Greek sun-god Helios, one of the Seven Wonders of the ancient world. Erected to commemorate the successful defence of the city against a siege in 305–304 BCE, it stood at the entrance of the harbour (the tradition that it stood astride the entrance is discredited), and was 70 cubits high (30–35 m, 100–115 ft). It was completed c. 280 BCE and overthrown by an earthquake c. 224 BCE.

Oxford Companion to Classical Literature, *Oxford University Press*

INTERPRET

- 1 Create a table with headings as shown below. Rank the sources from most (1) to the least (5) reliable or trustworthy (think about who created them, and why). Justify your choices.

Source number	Creator	Date created (if known)	Primary/Secondary	Rank

- 2 Form small groups to answer the following questions, based on your evaluation of the sources' reliability.
 - a When was the statue built?
 - b How tall was it?
 - c When did the statue fall and why?
- 3 Which is the primary source? At what point in the history of the statue was it written?
- 4 What are the limitations of the sources? Consider what historians still don't know.

1.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 List some of the types of sources used by historians.
- 2 What is the difference between a primary source and a secondary source?
- 3 Classify each of the sources below as either a primary source or secondary source. Explain the reasons for your answers.
 - a program from the opening of the Sydney Harbour Bridge in 1932
 - b an interview in 1982 on the 50th anniversary of the Sydney Harbour Bridge's opening with one of the people who was there in 1932
 - c a newsreel film taken at the time Dawn Fraser won the 100-metre freestyle at the Melbourne Olympics in 1956
 - d scenes from the film *Dawn* made in 1978 about the life of Dawn Fraser
 - e the film *Marco Polo* made in 2000
 - f an interview in 2009 with the actor Harrison Ford about the making of the film *Raiders of the Lost Ark* in 1981
 - g the Sydney Harbour Bridge
 - h a painting of the Sydney Harbour Bridge created by a 20-year-old artist in 2018
 - i a television debate in 2007 between historians about the Japanese midget submarine attack on Sydney Harbour in 1942
 - j a DVD of a silent film taken in 1927 of the opening of Parliament House in Canberra in 1927.
- 4 What methods and sources do you think historians and other scholars would use when investigating the history of a people with an oral culture?
- 5 Explain why material on the internet needs to be carefully evaluated.

1.4 METHODS AND SOURCES USED IN HISTORICAL INVESTIGATIONS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- list a range of sources used by archaeologists and historians in historical investigations.

Sometimes historians (or just ordinary people) accidentally find something of historical importance. For example, they might notice something unusual about the landscape that suggests that something intriguing lies beneath the surface of the earth, or they may stumble across an interesting and unexpected artefact that leads them to investigate a site more closely. Other times, historians know exactly what they are looking for, but they have to use a variety of methods to uncover and correctly identify the historical treasures they are seeking.

Locating archaeological sites

Earlier, we looked at the approach taken by archaeologists when excavating archaeological sites underwater and underground. Sometimes these sites are located during a search, with help from aerial photographers, geophysical surveyors, sonar technologists and other specialists. One site that is easy to locate from the air is the Serpent Mound of Ohio in the United States (see Source 10). Historians believe it may have been built by the Native American Adena people who are thought to have lived in the area for a millennium from about 800 BC.

Archaeological sites are sometimes found by accident, when a field is being ploughed or when the foundations of a building are being dug. Sometimes artefacts are revealed after they are uncovered by floods, landslides or erosion.

The 5000-year-old remains of Ötzi the Iceman (see Source 9) were found by hikers in 1991, after an unusually warm summer melted ice high up in the Ötztal Alps on the border between Austria and Italy.



Source 9 The remains of Ötzi the Iceman

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at Source 10.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?



Source 10 The Serpent Mound

Dating methods

Many of the experts called on to help historians and archaeologists with their investigations use the latest technologies to work out the likely age of sources. Some techniques are absolute dating techniques, which assess the age of the source as precisely as possible. Others are relative dating techniques, assessing whether sources are older or younger than other sources.

Stratigraphy

Stratigraphy is a relative dating technique. It involves looking at the different layers of earth (known as strata) where an artefact or fossil is found. The assumption is that – like at the local rubbish tip or in an untidy bedroom – the oldest objects are at the bottom of the pile and the most recent objects are closer to the top (see Source 11). Note that a thicker layer (or stratum) would indicate a longer time period than a very thin layer.

Stratigraphy is not an exact science, however, because natural disasters such as earthquakes and landslips can change the way strata are arranged.

stratigraphy

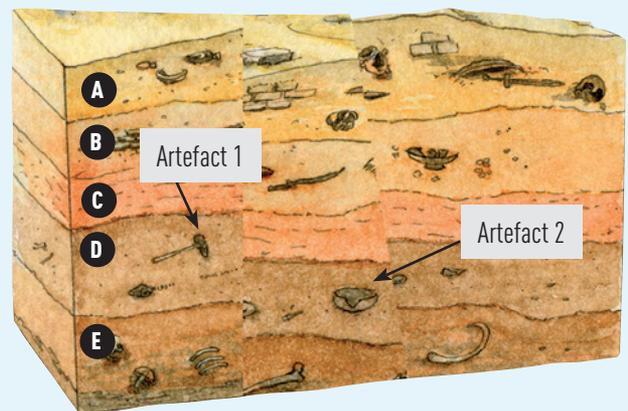
a method used to determine the approximate (or likely) age of remains from the past based on the strata (or layers) of earth or rock in which they were found

1.4 SOURCE STUDY

Stratigraphy



Source 11 A diagram showing how different artefacts can be found in different strata, generally arranged according to their age



Source 12 A diagram showing how strata can be disrupted as a result of an earthquake

INTERPRET

Look carefully at Source 11.

- 1 Which layer is likely to provide the oldest sources?
- 2 Which layer do you think is likely to have the more recent sources: D or B?
- 3 Why do you think layer C contains no historical sources?
- 4 Imagine there was an earthquake. It affected the middle section of this part of earth. Look carefully at Source 12. Explain why it would be misleading for an archaeologist to say that Artefact 2 was older than Artefact 1.

Radiocarbon dating

Radiocarbon dating is an absolute dating technique. It uses complex instruments to work out how much Carbon-14, a particular form of carbon, is still present in once-living remains. All objects that were once living things – plants, wood, human remains, parts of animals – contain Carbon-14. The Carbon-14 drops at a constant rate after the object dies. Scientists can determine when an organism died and therefore how old it is by measuring the amount of Carbon-14 left in the organism's remains.

dendrochronology
a method used to estimate the age of trees by counting the rings in the cross-section of tree trunks once they have been cut down

thermoluminescence dating
a scientific method used to estimate the age of objects; it involves heating an object to help experts measure how much radiation the object can store and therefore judge how old it is

fluorine dating
a scientific method used to estimate the age of objects by measuring the amount of fluorine they contain

DNA
the abbreviation of deoxyribonucleic acid; DNA is found in the cells of all known living organisms; it is the unique genetic code of each living thing



Source 13
A cross-section of a tree trunk, showing the new rings that grow each year

Dendrochronology

Dendrochronology dates a tree by counting the rings in a cross-section of its trunk. For each year in a tree's life, a new ring forms. The rings vary in shape and width depending on climate and weather conditions. Sometimes experts can calculate the relative age of wooden artefacts, such as bowls or floorboards, by matching the ring patterns with the same species of locally growing trees.

Thermoluminescence dating

Thermoluminescence dating is used to date objects that contain particles of crystal, such as clay pots and stone objects. Scientists heat the objects to very high temperatures and measure the light that is released. They can then use these measurements to work out the relative age of the material.

Fluorine dating

Bones can be dated using **fluorine dating**. Bones absorb fluorine from the surrounding soil and groundwater (water that lies below the surface of the ground). The longer they are immersed, the more fluorine they absorb, allowing scientists to assess their relative age.

DNA analysis

Historians often rely on **DNA** analysis to explore genetic links between ancient remains. For example, DNA analysis has been used as evidence to support theories about early human migration or family links when investigating the remains of bodies such as Egyptian mummies. More recently, new methods of DNA testing have identified plant DNA from the *amphorae* (ancient storage jars) found in ancient shipwrecks. This new evidence has enabled archaeologists to change their theories about the types of goods carried by traders in ancient Greece.

1.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Identify the experts whose skills can be used to locate an archaeological site.
- 2 Identify dating methods that determine:
 - a an absolute dating
 - b a relative dating.
- 3 Identify the techniques that would be useful in analysing:
 - a the ancient human remains found in Source 9
 - b *amphorae* found in ancient shipwrecks.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 4 Draw a concept map to summarise your knowledge about techniques used by archaeologists and scientists to analyse sources of evidence. Include sketches and information about the types of sources relevant to each method and the evidence that can be gained.
- 5 With a partner, study the cross-section of the tree trunk shown in Source 13. Estimate how old this tree is and share your findings with your partner. Discuss any differences.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 6 Draw and label a diagram to show your understanding of what radiocarbon dating involves.

1B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 3 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

WHAT TYPES OF SOURCES ARE USED IN HISTORICAL INVESTIGATIONS?

» List a range of sources used by archaeologists and historians in historical investigations

- 1 List the different types of sources used by archaeologists and historians in their investigations, including examples of tools and techniques used to identify and classify these sources. (10 marks)
- 2 What are three benefits of artefacts for historians studying an ancient society? (3 marks)
- 3 What are three limitations of artefacts when studying history? (3 marks)
- 4 What are three questions historians might ask to evaluate a source? (3 marks)
- 5 What does it mean if a site is found by accident? Give an example to support your answer. (4 marks)
- 6 How does technology help historians and archaeologists to study the past? (3 marks)
- 7 How can written and archaeological sources work together to enhance our understanding of history? (4 marks)
- 8 Explain the value and limitations of oral histories. (10 marks)
- 9 Identify whether the following statements are true or false. (10 marks)
 - a All sources are useful, even if they only tell one part of the story.
 - b Secondary sources have more value to historians than primary sources.
 - c Oral histories are usually unreliable.
 - d Indigenous rock paintings are primary sources.
 - e Oral histories are primary sources.
 - f Stratigraphy can be useful for studying chronology.
 - g *The Diary of Anne Frank* is a secondary source.
 - h Good historians study a range of sources.
 - i Egyptian mummies are an example of a secondary source.
 - j Primary and secondary sources have limitations.

Total marks [/50]

Check your Student [ebook](#) [access](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Rich task

A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher [ebook](#) [access](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Answers

Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

1C

HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORICAL MYSTERIES?

1.5 INVESTIGATING HISTORICAL MYSTERIES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- use the process of historical investigation to examine a historical controversy or mystery.

In this topic we will look at some historical mysteries that have puzzled modern historians and archaeologists. In doing so, we can learn how historians and archaeologists went about solving some of the mysteries of the ancient past. We will also consider the key historical concepts that helped historians investigate and understand the past in order to solve these mysteries.

The mystery of Tollund Man

Tollund Man was found more than 2 metres below the surface of a **peat** bog near the village of Tollund, Denmark, in 1950. The eyes and mouth of the man were closed. He was about 150 centimetres tall, and appeared to have died around the age of 40. He was found wearing a pointed sheepskin cap and a belt made from animal hide. His body was in a foetal position (with his knees drawn up and his arms tucked in). A narrow strip of leather was tied around his neck. Historians are not completely sure why Tollund Man died, though most think he was sacrificed. Various scientific methods have been used to test the remains in an effort to find out more about this historical mystery. Some of the findings of this research and testing are detailed in Source 2.

peat

decomposed vegetable matter that can be dried and burned as fuel

Source 1 Tollund Man's remains were so well preserved by the peat that the people who found him thought he was a recent murder victim. What is left of his remains is displayed in the Silkeborg Museum in Denmark.



1.5 SOURCE STUDY

Investigating Tollund Man

Source 2 Some of the findings about Tollund Man

Source of evidence	Findings based on historical investigations and dating methods
His remains	Radiocarbon dating confirmed he died about 350 BC.
Vegetable soup containing barley, weeds and seeds in his stomach	The food was in the large intestine, suggesting it was eaten less than 24 hours before death. Some of the seeds appear in the region only in spring.
Position of the body	The body was placed in a foetal position, with eyes and mouth closed after death – such care and respect is unlikely for a murder victim or an executed criminal.
Text of Roman writer Tacitus (AD 56–117) – he said of Germanic people ‘to the north’: ‘They hang traitors and renegades in trees; cowards, evaders and unnaturally immoral people they lower into filthy swamps and cover them with branches’	Further research has confirmed that these same Germanic people worshipped a goddess of spring during ceremonies at which slaves were sacrificed.
Peat around the body	Radiocarbon dating confirmed this to be about 2000 years old.
Scars on the soles of his feet	He sometimes went barefoot.
Location of the body	Ancient Germanic people regarded watery marshes as places where they could talk to their gods and goddesses.

INTERPRET

Read the information in Source 2 to answer the following questions.

- Tollund Man appears to have been strangled.
 - What evidence is there that Germanic people hanged traitors?
 - Does the treatment of the body after death suggest Tollund Man was a traitor? Explain why or why not.
- It is believed that Tollund Man died in the spring.
 - How did researchers determine that he died in the spring?
 - Why was that timing significant when trying to understand why this man might have died?

Key concepts for historical inquiry

Historians use six concepts to help them investigate and understand the past. These are very useful when they are developing their inquiry questions, analysing sources of evidence, and forming their opinions and hypotheses.

Sometimes you will use one of these concepts to help with your historical inquiry, while at other times you may use several at once. As you learn to apply each concept, you will begin to think like a historian. The six historical concepts are:

- continuity and change: aspects of the past that have remained the same or have changed over time
- cause and effect: the reasons for a historical event or development, and the effects or outcomes of the event as a result
- perspectives: the points of view of historians analysing historical events or issues, which may lead to differing interpretations of the same event; historians also take into account the perspectives of people who wrote or created the source material they are analysing



SPOTLIGHT

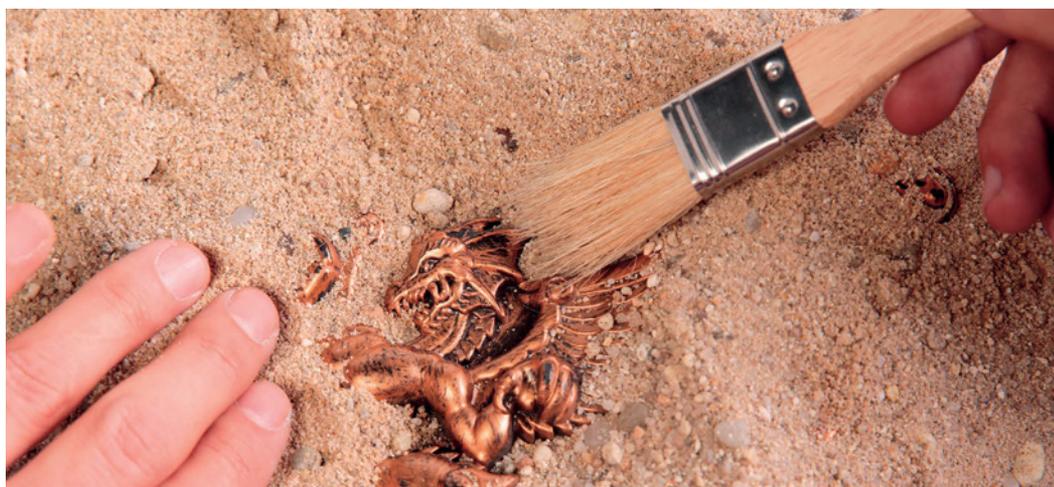
EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Historical inquiry can only be effective if historians learn to develop an argument, supporting it with evidence from a range of sources.

- empathetic understanding: the ability to understand the points of view of others, which allows historians to enter into the world of the past and appreciate motivations and values that may be different from their own
- significance: the importance of an aspect of the past, such as an archaeological site or a past event
- contestability: different interpretations of the past.

These historical concepts are explained in more detail in 'The historian's toolkit' chapter, which you can refer to throughout the year to help you with your study and understanding of historical inquiries.

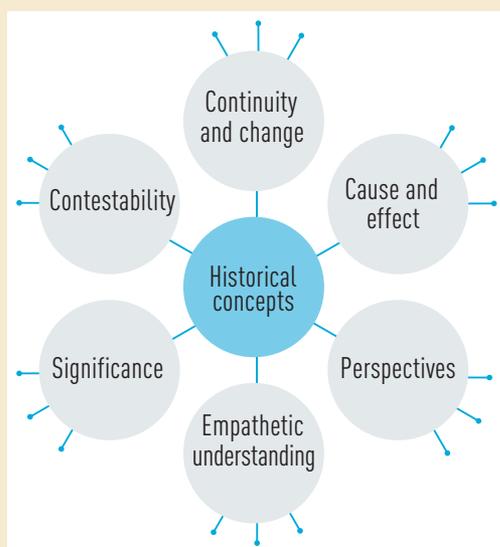
Source 3 Archaeologists carefully remove dirt to uncover buried artefacts.



1.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Copy the graphic organiser in Source 4 and provide at least one example that relates to each of the historical concepts. Examples could come from investigations and material from this chapter. Add to your organiser as you progress through your depth study topics this year.



Source 4 Key historical concepts

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 2 Understanding perspectives: write two or three paragraphs about what you remember happening in the classroom during your previous history class. Share what you have written with others in a small group. Then discuss what this exercise taught you about the situation historians face when presented with different recounts.

GO DEEPER

- 3 Conduct research to find out how historians and archaeologists have investigated other ancient human remains and write a 200-word report that summarises:
 - how they were discovered
 - theories about how they died
 - sources used in the investigation.
 Suggestions include Lindow Man, Juanita the Ice Maiden, the Chimú Children of Huanchaco Peru, Windeby Girl and Narrabeen Man.

HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORICAL MYSTERIES?

» Use the process of historical investigation to examine a historical controversy or mystery.

- 1 Identify two issues about Tollund Man that remain a mystery to historians. (2 marks)
- 2 What are four questions historians might have asked when first examining the remains of Tollund Man? (4 marks)
- 3 What evidence is there that Tollund Man's society used animals for resources? (4 marks)
- 4 Explain why historians suggest that Tollund Man's death is connected to religious practices. (5 marks)
- 5 Explain why historians think it is unlikely that Tollund Man was a traitor. (5 marks)
- 6 Earlier in this chapter you developed three inquiry questions about aspects of the Sphinx that particularly interested you.
 - a Choose one of the questions and write a hypothesis stating the most likely explanation in answer to it.
 - b Use the internet or library to locate and select sources that will be useful in providing evidence that will test your hypothesis.
 - c Classify your sources as either primary or secondary sources.
 - d Summarise the key points of any evidence that your sources provide.
 - e Confirm or modify your hypothesis, and present your findings and conclusions in the form required by your teacher. This may be an essay, oral presentation, PowerPoint display, multimedia presentation or some other form. (10 marks)
- 7 Select one historical mystery of your choice and find out how the historians and archaeologists who have studied it so far have gone about conducting their investigations. Suggestions include the Pharos Lighthouse, Angkor Wat, Teotihuacan and Atlantis. Consider:
 - their hypotheses
 - the tools and methods they used
 - the sources of evidence they used. (20 marks)

Total marks [/50]

1C

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student [ebook](#) [access](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz

Check your Teacher [ebook](#) [access](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Checkpoint worksheets

Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

1D

WHAT DO SOURCES REVEAL ABOUT AUSTRALIA'S ANCIENT PAST?

1.6 SOURCES FROM ANCIENT AUSTRALIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- locate and describe a variety of sources for ancient Australia
- investigate what these sources reveal about Australia's ancient past.

The study of ancient Australia includes the stories and artefacts of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, who have the world's oldest continuous cultures. There are two types of sources that can be used to investigate Australia's ancient past: oral accounts and archaeological evidence.

Oral accounts of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

Oral accounts are the collected stories that Indigenous peoples used to tell their story and record their customs, rituals and laws. This oral tradition does not operate on a timeline from the oldest to the most recent; rather the history of Indigenous peoples centres on the importance of home, place and Country. It tells stories about places rather than times or historical periods. For example, **Dreaming** stories explain the origins of life and are passed on from generation to generation (see Source 1).

Dreaming

the time of creation and the origin of all things, according to the beliefs of Aboriginal peoples

Source 1

The story I am telling is about my fathers in the Dreamtime who made the stars travel across the sky ... They were not made randomly, but by the Japaljarri-Jungarrayi Dreaming who created the Milky Way and carried stars and witi poles [logs, set on fire at one end to provide light] as he travelled ... We were taught about these Dreamings by our grandfathers, fathers and elder brothers. The [people to the north and west of Alice Springs] instructed us in the Warlpiri law and told us not to forget what we had been taught ... I am now telling the Dreaming of the Milky Way, all of those millions of stars up above us, as I was told it by our old men.

Paddy Japaljarri Sims, 'Yiwarrakurlu/Milky Way' in Warlukurlangu Artists, Kuruwarri/Yuendumu Doors, Australian Institute of Aboriginal Studies, Canberra, 1987, Door 29, p. 127

Archaeological evidence

Because there is no written evidence in the traditional Western understanding, archaeologists also rely on archaeological evidence. Sources of evidence include burial sites and middens, rock engravings and rock paintings, and artefacts such as tools and fossils. Sources 2 and 3 are examples of these archaeological sources. (Examples of ancient paintings can be seen in Source 8.)

1.6 SOURCE STUDY

Archaeological evidence of ancient Australia



Source 2 Middens, such as this one at Boulder Point in Tasmania, are places where people have left the remains of their meals, such as shells and bones. The charcoal remains of fireplaces and artefacts such as tools can also be found at these sites.



Source 3 Rock engravings at West Head near Sydney's northern beaches. This engraving depicts fish and an eel.

INTERPRET

Study Sources 2 and 3.

- 1 Describe each source in your own words.
- 2 Which scientific dating techniques could be useful in analysing each of these sources?
- 3 What is the value of these sources for educating historians about life in ancient Australia?
- 4 What aspects of society aren't represented in these sources?
- 5 Use the sources and question starters such as *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, *why* and *how* to develop three inquiry questions about ancient Australia.

1.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 What are the two types of sources used to investigate the history of Australia's Indigenous people?
- 2 What are Dreaming stories?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 How is the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tradition of recording history different from the Western/European tradition?

1.7 MYSTERIES OF ANCIENT AUSTRALIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- locate and describe a variety of sources for ancient Australia
- investigate what these sources reveal about Australia's ancient past.

Human occupation in ancient Australia

It is important to note that some Indigenous Australians believe that their ancestors originated here, rather than that they arrived from elsewhere. Non-Indigenous Australian experts now agree that Australia has been occupied for at least 60 000 years. This theory is based on the idea that Indigenous peoples came to Australia from South-East Asia during one of the last ice ages. During the ice age, sea levels were lower and it would have been easier for people to move from islands around what is now Indonesia into northern Australia.

Archaeological evidence of humans in Australia

In the 1960s, experts suggested that Indigenous peoples had lived in Australia for 9000 years. By 1980, that figure had extended to between 35 000 and 40 000 years, and since then archaeologists have continued to revise this estimate. As noted above, archaeologists today generally agree that the evidence for human occupation in Australia dates back to around 60 000 years ago. However, thermoluminescence dating in the Northern Territory suggests that it could even be up to 120 000 years ago. Rising sea levels have covered what would have been the earliest occupation sites, meaning that we may never know for sure. New technologies or discoveries could provide further evidence in the future. Without written records, historians must rely on archaeological evidence to reconstruct the past.

Important sources of evidence about ancient Australia are human remains found at Lake Mungo in New South Wales and Kow Swamp in Victoria, as well as the Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw paintings located in Western Australia's Kimberley region.

Source 4 The Willandra Lakes, including the ancient lake bed called Lake Mungo, is one of Australia's World Heritage-listed sites. Archaeologists have uncovered ancient burial and cremation sites and the fossils of giant marsupials at Lake Mungo.



Lake Mungo

In 1969, some burned bones were spotted by chance by a motorcyclist in the Willandra Lakes World Heritage Area in far western New South Wales. As the motorcyclist was also a scientist, he decided to investigate. The remains, later called Mungo Woman, were scientifically dated to about 25 000 years ago. The woman had been cremated and her bones buried, with evidence of ceremony. Five years later, another skeleton was found, this time intact. It was called Mungo Man. The man had been buried ritually after his remains were first smeared with red ochre. At first it was thought that Mungo Man lived 28 000 to 32 000 years ago, but new technologies in 1999 estimated that he lived up to 62 000 years ago. This was considered impossible by many scientists who accept the 'Out of Africa' theory, so a panel of experts met in 2003 to examine the evidence. They used optically stimulated luminescence dating methods across four different laboratories and determined that both Mungo Man and Mungo Woman lived 40 000 to 42 000 years ago.



Source 5 Mungo Man

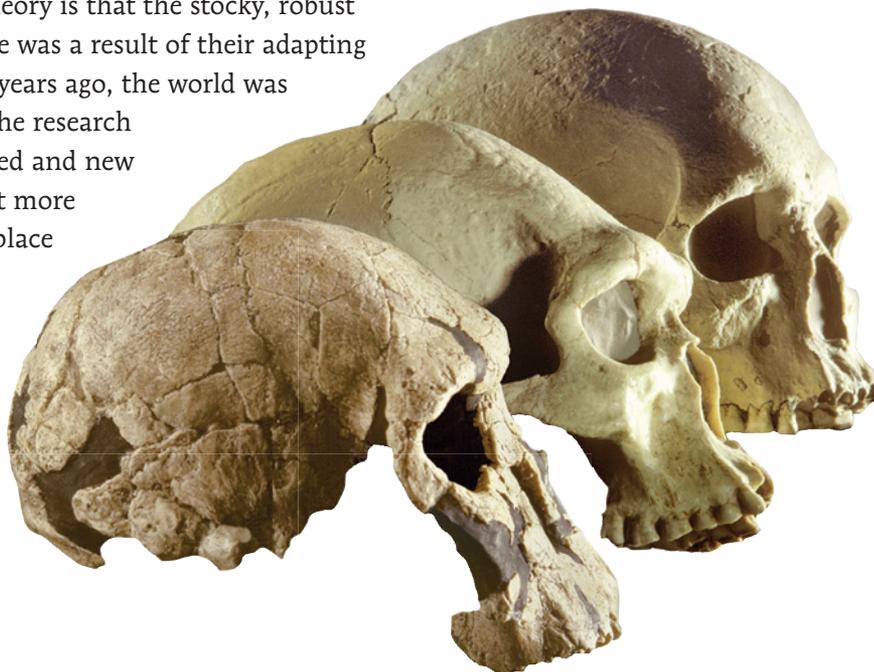
Kow Swamp

Kow Swamp is the location of the biggest ancient burial site found in Australia so far. Optically stimulated luminescence has found that the remains are around 20 000 years old, which is older than previously thought. About 10 000 to 12 000 years ago, Kow Swamp was a large lake. The grave site was located on its then south-eastern edge. The first of the remains (a partial skeleton) was found in 1968. Within four years, archaeologists had uncovered the remains of about 40 people.

The physical appearance of the Kow Swamp skulls puzzled scholars. They had wide faces, prominent jaws and teeth, flat and receding foreheads, and heavy brow ridges. In fact, they more resembled the distant human ancestor scientists call *Homo erectus*. The reality is that they are much younger than the remains found at Willandra Lakes. One recent theory is that the stocky, robust shape of the Kow Swamp people was a result of their adapting to climate stress. Some 20 000 years ago, the world was at the peak of its last **glacial**. The research continues, with new tests applied and new theories put forward to find out more about these remains and their place in Australia's past.

glacial

a period of extreme cold during an ice age



Source 6 Three skulls – front: *Homo habilis*, 1.88 million years old, from Kenya; centre: *Homo erectus*, 13 000 years old, from Kow Swamp, Victoria, Australia; back: *Homo sapiens*, 13 000 years old, from Keilor, Victoria

CONTESTABILITY

The Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings have been interpreted in different ways by historians, even though they are examining the same evidence.

The Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings

The Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings are located in Western Australia's Kimberley region. Gwion Gwion is the name local Aboriginal people use for the area. A European cattleman, Joseph Bradshaw, spotted the paintings in 1891 while looking for land for his animals. He noticed that they were quite different from other Indigenous art he had seen. In fact, he said, '[l]ooking at some of the groups, one might think himself viewing the painted walls of an Egyptian temple'.

Thermoluminescence dating indicates some of the paintings could have been made 17 000 years or more ago. Some experts think they are three times as old. They are dispersed over what scientists think could be up to 100 000 sites. Scholars contest who created these paintings. Many insist they were painted by ancient Indigenous people. Some argue that they reveal evidence of a farming culture, perhaps an ancient Asian culture pre-dating the last glacial.

The amateur archaeologist Grahame Walsh, who has studied these paintings in detail over a long period, holds this latter view. Some argue that his position is racist. His claims have upset some Indigenous groups and are strongly contested by some academic scholars.

1.7 SOURCE STUDY

The Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings

Source 7

... And the first site, I actually went to with a traditional owner. I knew it was a deeply religious ... experience to go there. As he approached the site he'd stop and he'd talk to stones – just boulders. Then I heard him mention my name ... He was giving my background to the Wandjinas [creator spirits of some Indigenous groups, which were believed to bring rain], as it turned out. Wandjina art ... [is] relative to living cultures of today, so it's the art that was practised at the time of European contact ... the Bradshaw art represents a culture of an unknown, vastly different time and different resources.

Grahame Walsh,
www.abc.net.au/austory/transcripts/s696261.htm

Source 8 This is an example of the Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings. Some depict people with hair decorations, tassels and perhaps clothing. Some depict boats with rudders.



Source 9

'No', they said 'no'. That was human long, long time before our time. But we can't tell the truth because we don't know they said. Not any Aborigines in the Kimberley know about Bradshaw painting.

Billy King, Ngarinyin Elder, www.abc.net.au/austory/transcripts/s696261.htm

Source 10

... I, as an academic, would certainly say that we have two distinct groups of styles of art. I wouldn't doubt that both were painted by Aboriginal people ... Grahame does certainly genuinely believe that he's recording the art and he's interested in its conservation, preservation, and all else is outside it. But living in Australia in these years, that's just about impossible. In an area where there are land claims, where there are traditional Aborigines still living, I think to say that nothing else impinges [has an impact] is an impossibility. And a bit naive, and a totally different world to, say, [the one] we were both living in when I met him in the 1960s.

John Mulvaney, <http://www.abc.net.au/austory/transcripts/s696261.htm>

Source 11

Well, this, they call them Bradshaws, but by right it's Gwion Gwion. That's the figure – that word now people used to call them before white man came. Gwion Gwion. The people put it up there – our great, great ancestors, before you know. Through the past generation that picture was there before any European people came, and then they pass them from generation to generation. And now it's with us, in the 20th century.

Donny Woolagoodja, a Warwa man from Mowanjum, in the far north-west of the Kimberley, http://www.abc.net.au/dimensions/dimensions_in_time/Transcripts/s578480.htm

Source 12

An indication of the types of boats that were used by Aboriginal people during the peak of the ice age can be gained from the ancient Kimberley rock paintings known as Bradshaw or Gwion Gwion art ... The Bradshaw paintings include graceful images of people, often with bent knees, long head-dresses, and decorative adornments, and commonly holding boomerangs or other objects ... The dancers in a corroboree photographed at Pago (in the north Kimberley, near Kalumburu) during the 1930s are strikingly similar to those shown in Bradshaw paintings ... It therefore seems reasonable to conclude that the Bradshaw people were among the ancestors of modern Aborigines ...

Dr Phillip E. Playford, Aboriginal Art and Culture in the Kimberley and Adjoining Areas: A Historical Perspective, <http://www.kimberleysociety.org/past08.html>, 2 April 2008

INTERPRET

- 1 What is Grahame Walsh's view about the origins of these paintings? Why does he have this opinion?
- 2 Donny Woolagoodja contests Walsh's view. What is his perspective on the paintings?
- 3 What evidence does Dr Phillip Playford use to support a view that the people in the Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw paintings were the ancestors of Aboriginal people?
- 4 Source 10 is a quote from John Mulvaney.
 - a What is his perspective on this issue?
 - b As a class, discuss why he might say that Walsh is being a 'bit naive'.
- 5 What is Billy King's perspective?
- 6 Discuss the value of each perspective presented in this source study.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Although there is dispute about the cause of the megafauna's extinction, the effect is the same. Either human behaviour or climate change caused the eradication of Australia's megafauna.

The fate of Australia's megafauna

The Australian megafauna were giant marsupials – wombats, emus and kangaroos – that once lived in Australia but became extinct about the same time as the appearance of Indigenous peoples. Source 13 shows an example of megafauna – the diprotodon (di-PRO-toe-don). Its name means 'two forward teeth'. The diprotodon was a herbivore measuring 3 metres long and 2 metres high. It is believed to have been widespread in Australia 1.8 million years ago, disappearing about 40 000 years ago.

In recent years, one of the most intense debates associated with Australia's ancient past has been the question of how the megafauna died out: were Indigenous hunters responsible, or was it caused by climate change? Source 15 presents the arguments for both sides of the debate.



Source 13 A diprotodon fossil, discovered at Lake Callabonna, South Australia



Source 14 An artist's impression of Australian megafauna, with a diprotodon shown centre rear

Source 15 Arguments for and against the view that human activity was responsible for the extinction of megafauna in ancient Australia

The case for human activity	The case for climate change
<p>We have clear proof that human activity in the form of hunting led to the extinction of megafauna in other parts of the world, especially in North America.</p> <p>Even if the Indigenous peoples in Australia didn't hunt and kill off the megafauna, their practice of fire-stick farming (burning off large areas of bush) changed the environment to one less favourable for large animals.</p> <p>There is an archaeological site at Cuddie Springs in New South Wales that seems to offer evidence that Indigenous people cut up megafauna for food. We have bones with cut marks on them.</p>	<p>Drastic climate change during the last ice age resulted in extremely dry and windy conditions. It was a very cold drought. The megafauna had to stay close to the remaining limited supplies of water in order to survive. The result was that they ate all the food available near the water. This led directly to their extinction.</p> <p>Humans arrived in numbers around 50 000 to 60 000 years ago, but the megafauna only died out 25 000 years ago. That meant that megafauna and humans had lived together for 25 000 to 30 000 years before the megafauna became extinct. We need to look at something other than the arrival of human hunters to explain the extinction.</p> <p>All that the site at Cuddie Springs proves is that megafauna died there. It does not mean that they were killed by hunters. The animals could have died near the springs due to lack of food.</p>

1.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 According to the archaeological evidence, what is the earliest agreed-upon date of Indigenous occupation of the Australian continent? How is this different from the version offered by the oral tradition of Indigenous peoples?
- 2 Outline three instances where archaeologists, historians or Indigenous peoples have differing perspectives or interpretations about ancient sources in Australia.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 How has technology enhanced our understanding of the human remains at Lake Mungo?
- 4 Conduct research on Australian megafauna.
 - a What are megafauna?
 - b Find out about three different megafauna that lived in ancient Australia.
 - c Review the arguments set out in Source 15 that offer key parts of the case for both sides of the argument on how Australian megafauna died out. Identify the strongest and weakest argument for each side, giving reasons for your answer.
 - d Write a 100- to 200-word informative and persuasive text answering the question 'What caused the extinction of the Australian megafauna?'

GO DEEPER

- 5 The Willandra Lakes Region is one of Australia's World Heritage-listed sites. On UNESCO's World Heritage website, find the description and video for the Willandra Lakes Region and then complete the following activities.
 - a List the types of archaeological evidence found in this region.
 - b What does this evidence tell archaeologists about the lives and beliefs of Australia's earliest inhabitants?

SITE STUDY: ANCIENT AUSTRALIA

With your class or family, visit a historical Aboriginal site to see firsthand a source of evidence such as the rock engraving shown in Source 16. Write a report to describe the site and source, including sketches or photos, and develop some inquiry questions that could lead to further investigations.

To find a site, you can search online for appropriate places to visit. Try using search terms such as 'Aboriginal historical sites New South Wales', 'Aboriginal culture New South Wales' or similar. The New South Wales government site Environment and Heritage has excellent resources, such as the 'NSW Atlas of Aboriginal Places'. This interactive map shows a large number of Aboriginal places of interest that will be a good start to your site study.

Source 16 This Aboriginal rock engraving located north of Sydney depicts an ancestral hero wearing a headdress and carrying a club or woomera at his waist.



Source 17 Kow Swamp, Victoria

1D

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 15 marks = 500 to 600 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

WHAT DO SOURCES REVEAL ABOUT AUSTRALIA'S ANCIENT PAST?

» Locate and describe a variety of sources for ancient Australia

- 1 Describe the archaeological evidence of humans in ancient Australia. (5 marks)
- 2 How has technology changed our understanding of ancient Australia at the following sites?
 - a Lake Mungo (5 marks)
 - b Kow Swamp (5 marks)
 - c Gwion Gwion (5 marks)
- 3 Explain why climate change might have been responsible for the extinction of megafauna in ancient Australia. (5 marks)

» Investigate what these sources reveal about Australia's ancient past

- 4 Choose one specific source of evidence from ancient Australia and develop a series of inquiry questions. Create a table, such as the one below, and use the question starters in the left-hand column to focus your thinking. (10 marks)

Question starters	Inquiry questions
Who	
What	
Where	
When	
Why	
How	

- 5 Explain what evidence reveals about ancient Australia. In your response, refer to Lake Mungo, Kow Swamp and the Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw rock paintings. (15 marks)

Total marks [/50]

Check your Student [eBook](#) [Assess](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Rich task

A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Assess quiz

Interactive auto-marking multiple-choice quiz to test student comprehension

1E

WHY IS IT IMPORTANT TO CONSERVE THE REMAINS OF THE ANCIENT PAST?

1.8 CONSERVING THE REMAINS OF THE ANCIENT PAST

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify ancient sites that have disappeared, are threatened or have been protected and preserved
- identify some methods of preserving and conserving archaeological and historical remains
- describe an Australian site which has preserved the heritage of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples
- examine the UNESCO World Heritage criteria and explain why it is important for an ancient site to be preserved and conserved.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples have a unique connection with the past, which is why caution must be taken when investigating the land. In some ways, most of Australia is a rich archaeological site for learning about Indigenous cultures.

UNESCO

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

World Heritage site

a natural or built site, structure or feature deemed to be of international importance and worthy of special protection

When people are affected by natural disasters such as fires, floods or earthquakes, they are often most upset by the loss of old family photos and other mementos. These items are part of every family's heritage and cannot be replaced. In a similar way, remains and sources from the ancient past are part of our world heritage. They reflect the hopes and dreams of past generations. They remind us where we have come from, and what has shaped our societies and cultures. They give us a sense of who we are as a people. Conserving these remnants of the past ensures that future generations will also be able to enjoy the same appreciation of their heritage.

Preserving the heritage of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

In the case of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples, their links to the remains of the past are perhaps even deeper and more spiritual. Indigenous Australians have a special connection with Country and places. They associate these places with the spirits of all of their ancestors. The physical remains of the ancient past are, for them, forever linked to family, no matter how distant in time.

The World Heritage List

UNESCO identifies **World Heritage sites** around the world to help safeguard them for future generations. Sites are nominated by countries that have signed an international agreement on the protection of the world's cultural and natural heritage. Currently, there are more than 1100 sites on the World Heritage List, including 20 sites in Australia that have been identified as cultural, natural or mixed sites. The Sydney Opera House and convict sites around Australia are cultural sites on the World Heritage List.



Source 1 The Budj Bim Cultural Landscape, in south-eastern Australia

Natural sites in Australia include the Greater Blue Mountains, the Great Barrier Reef and Kakadu National Park. The Willandra Lakes Region is on the list to protect both the natural environment and archaeological remains.

In 2019, a new Australian site was added to the list: the Budj Bim Cultural Landscape in south-eastern Australia. This site provides evidence that the Gunditjmara people used a system of waterways to trap, store and harvest eels, making it one of the world's oldest and most extensive aquaculture systems. This evidence supports the argument by authors such as Bill Gammage in *The Biggest Estate on Earth* and Bruce Pascoe in *Dark Emu* that Indigenous peoples in Australia created settled agricultural societies that managed the Australian landscape in a sustainable way.

Protected sites

Threats to World Heritage sites have been successfully averted. A proposed highway near the Giza Pyramids was not built after negotiations between UNESCO and the Egyptian government in 1995. Similarly, a planned aluminium plant near the archaeological site of Delphi in Greece in 1987 was moved elsewhere.

Angkor Wat is an example of a successful restoration that has saved one of the most important sites in South-East Asia from problems such as unauthorised excavations, theft and landmines. Other restoration projects have been international, multimillion-dollar campaigns, such as the Abu Simbel project in the 1960s (see Source 2). The UNESCO-led campaign relocated the entire temple and monuments to save them from being submerged after the construction of a dam on the Nile River. It remains one of Egypt's most popular tourist destinations and is a significant part of Egypt's, and the world's, archaeological heritage.



Source 2 The temple of Rameses II at Abu Simbel in southern Egypt

Ancient sites under threat

Historical sources can be very fragile. Pollution and humidity (water vapour in the air) can cause them to deteriorate over time. Artefacts and archaeological sites can also be lost or damaged for other reasons, from theft and careless handling, to natural disasters and climate change. The number of tourists visiting popular sites, such as Egyptian tombs and the ruins of Pompeii, can also be a threat to their conservation.

In recent times, important sites in Iraq and Syria have been lost or irreparably damaged by warfare and looting. In Iraq, the site of the once-great city of Babylon has been used as a military base. Relics and archaeological fragments have been damaged or destroyed as areas were levelled for parking lots; heavy vehicles crushed relics buried near the surface; and sandbags were filled with soil that included archaeological fragments. A reproduction of the Ishtar Gate has also suffered damaged since the Iraq War.

One of the greatest examples of destruction in recent times is Palmyra, a city on the Silk Roads that had some of the best-preserved ruins of antiquity until the militant group ISIS occupied and destroyed important parts of the site. In August 2015, the Temple of Baal Shamin and the Temple of Bel were blown up, followed by the destruction of the Arch of Triumph in October 2015. ISIS lost control of the city in 2016 and archaeologists were able to salvage some artefacts and move them to safety in Damascus. However, ISIS reclaimed Palmyra and destroyed both the Tetrapylon and the Roman Theatre in January 2017. In times of war, the focus is on establishing safety and security for civilians, meaning that archaeological sites become vulnerable.



Source 3 Satellite images of Palmyra before and after destruction by ISIS

How are sources conserved?

Many important sources are stored in museums, galleries and libraries around the world. For example, the Mitchell Library in the State Library of New South Wales houses a huge collection of Australian historical sources. These venues provide security and proper storage conditions. For example, paper records can rot or deteriorate unless they are stored at the right temperature and humidity, and away from pests and ultraviolet light. Conservators working at museums and libraries can also restore and repair damaged items.

The following case study describes how archaeologists and conservators have worked to preserve sources from the ancient past in Iraq and Egypt.



Source 4 Conservators can restore fragile items, or ensure that they don't deteriorate further.

Conserving ancient sites

THE RUINS OF ANCIENT BABYLON

Reconstruction is one way of conserving the remains of the past. This has happened in the case of the Ishtar Gate, a double gateway to the ancient walled city of Babylon. Babylon was the busy hub of the neo-Babylonian and Persian empires, and its ruins are a vital part of Iraq's heritage.

The Ishtar Gate was built around 2500 years ago. The gate's foundations were excavated in the twentieth century. The front gate was reconstructed in Berlin's Pergamon Museum, using the glazed bricks that could be found on the site. These glazed bricks recreated a blue wall with rows of bulls and dragons – symbols of two Babylonian gods. Because not all bricks were recovered, the Berlin reconstruction is shorter than the original front gate. A smaller reproduction of the front gate was also built in Iraq by the former leader Saddam Hussein.

Computer scans have identified that the original gate foundations that remain are under threat. Salts in groundwater are eroding the brick reliefs at the base of the mud-brick gate. Under a conservation plan developed by the World Monument Fund and Iraq's State Board of Antiquities and Heritage, water is being diverted away from these ruins. In the longer term, they hope to generate wide-scale interest in the conservation of the ancient area of Mesopotamia and attract scholars and tourists.



Source 5 The paved Processional Way that ran through the Ishtar Gate was lined with glazed-brick reliefs of animals, including this lion. Some of these reliefs are now housed in various museums around the world.

Source 6 The reconstructed front gate of the Ishtar Gate in the Pergamon Museum, Berlin



THE TOMB OF MENNA, EGYPT

The Tomb of Menna is one of 146 tombs dug into a hill on Egypt's West Bank at Luxor (formerly the ancient city of Thebes). They are the tombs of nobles and officials. Menna died about 3400 years ago, during ancient Egypt's eighteenth dynasty. As a scribe, he had high social status and probably a great deal of wealth. This conclusion is supported by the evidence found in his tomb, which is beautifully painted. Scenes throughout the tomb feature detailed depictions of members of his family. There are also many farming and riverside scenes that provide information about agricultural practices and about life along the river at that time.

The Tomb of Menna has proved to be very popular with tourists. Over time, the continual stream of visitors and changing environmental conditions have begun to damage the precious wall paintings. The Tomb of Menna Project began in 2006. It aimed to document, and so help to preserve, the tomb's art. A number of universities and conservation agencies were involved. Using advanced scientific methods, the conservators' strategy included:

- cleaning parts of the paintings
- analysing the properties of the paint used on the wall
- taking high-resolution digital photos and joining them to create an exact visual record of the tomb's art; conservators are able to compare this photographic record with the paintings to quickly detect any deterioration
- building a new wooden floor and rails to stop people getting too close to the paintings
- installing low-impact lighting.



Source 7 One of the paintings from the wall of the Tomb of Menna



Source 8 Restoration work on the Tomb of Menna

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 1 What are the benefits of reconstructing the front gate of the Ishtar Gate?
- 2 How has technology assisted with conservation of the Tomb of Menna?

1.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Why are the remains of the ancient past important?
- 2 What is the World Heritage List?
- 3 Identify Australian sites on the World Heritage List.
- 4 Identify methods used by archaeologists and conservators to preserve the remains of the ancient past.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 Explain why the physical remains from ancient Australia are significant for all Australians.
- 6 What roles do museums, galleries and libraries play in conserving the remains of the past?

GO DEEPER

- 7 To be included on the World Heritage List, sites must be of 'outstanding universal value' and meet at least one out of the 10 selection criteria.
 - a Go to the UNESCO website and look for the selection criteria for inclusion on the World Heritage List.
 - b Select three examples of ancient sites, either from the text or your own research. Use the World Heritage criteria to propose why they should or should not be selected as World Heritage sites.
- 8 Conduct research using digital sources to identify ancient sites that have disappeared or are in danger of being lost through decay and deterioration.
- 9 On the UNESCO website, go to the current World Heritage List and find the interactive map of the sites. Select an ancient site and conduct research to find out why it is significant to world heritage. Present your findings as a written, digital or oral presentation.



WHY IS IT IMPORTANT TO CONSERVE THE REMAINS OF THE ANCIENT PAST?

» Identify ancient sites that have disappeared, are threatened or have been protected and preserved

- 1 Identify three ways that sites have been threatened. (3 marks)
- 2 Select and give a brief report about three ancient sites that are of interest to you. For each site, provide information about its location and current status (what condition it is in and why).
 - a one that has disappeared (4 marks)
 - b one that is threatened (4 marks)
 - c one that has been protected (4 marks)

» Identify some methods of preserving and conserving archaeological and historical remains

- 3 Outline how archaeological sites can be preserved. (5 marks)
- 4 Outline how historical records and artefacts can be preserved. (5 marks)

» Describe an Australian site which has preserved the heritage of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

- 5 Identify a site that has preserved the heritage of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples (refer to section 1D 'What do sources reveal about Australia's ancient past?'). Include:
 - a its location
 - b a brief description of the sources found there
 - c what it reveals about life in ancient Australia. (10 marks)

» Examine the UNESCO World Heritage criteria and explain why it is important for an ancient site to be preserved and conserved

- 6 Select one ancient site and explain why and for whom it is important to preserve and conserve it. (10 marks)
- 7 Outline the criteria for a site to be included on the World Heritage List. (5 marks)

Total marks [/50]

1E

CHECKPOINT

MARKING GUIDE

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student [ebook](#) [access](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet

Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher [ebook](#) [access](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

QuizletLive

Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.

PART

B



The remains of the Roman Forum, which was the site of important political, religious and social activities in the centre of ancient Rome

THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 2: THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

STUDENTS CHOOSE FROM ONE OF
THE FOLLOWING OPTIONS:

ANCIENT EGYPT

2

CHAPTER

ANCIENT GREECE

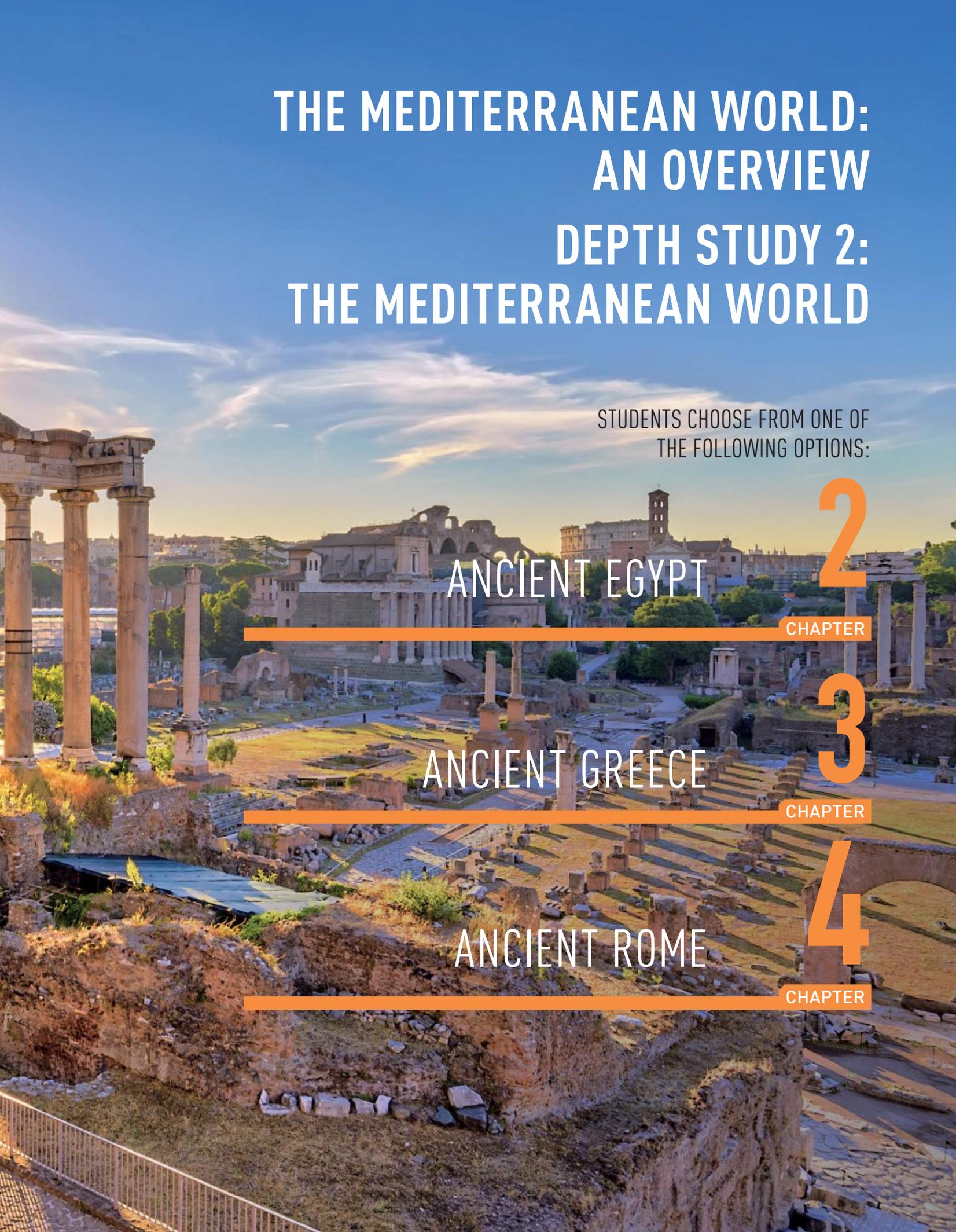
3

CHAPTER

ANCIENT ROME

4

CHAPTER



OVERVIEW OF THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

society

a community of people living in a particular area who have a shared culture, customs and laws

civilisation

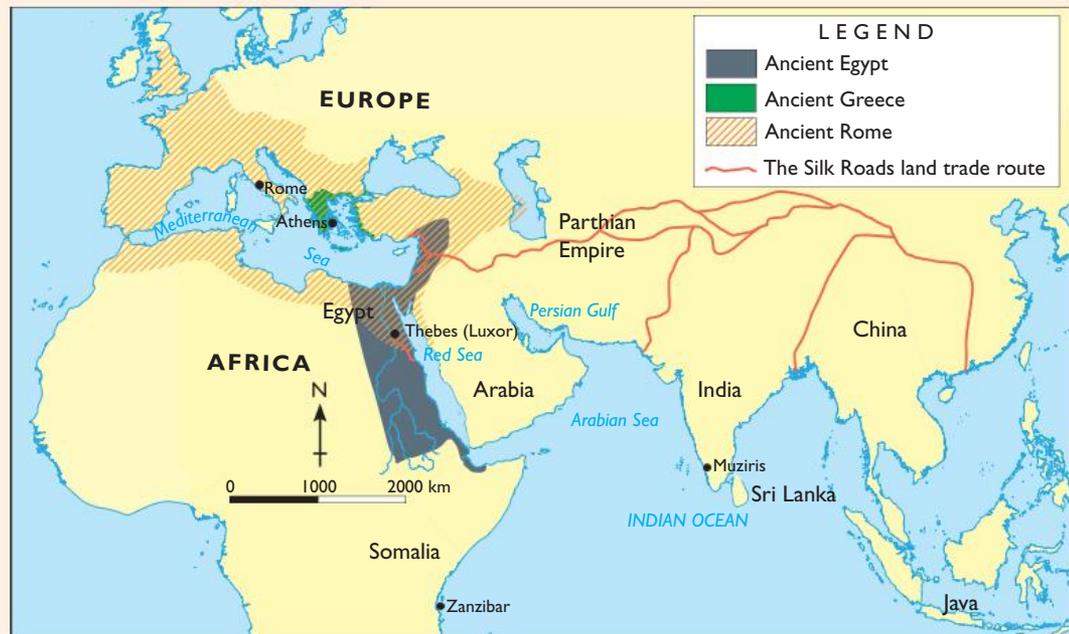
a highly organised and complex culture and way of living; there are different forms of civilisation in different places and at different times

Silk Roads

a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

Source 1 Egypt, Greece and Rome were three of the great civilisations of the Mediterranean world. They were linked to civilisations further east by the Silk Roads.

The Mediterranean Sea has been called ‘The Great Sea’ by Professor David Abulafia, not because of its size, but because of the central role it played in the **societies** and **civilisations** that developed around it. The Mediterranean world, as the region became known, and the **Silk Roads** influenced the course of history. The Mediterranean was the location of three significant and influential civilisations: ancient Egypt, ancient Greece and ancient Rome.



In the Mediterranean world, goods, ideas and customs were exchanged. The people of ancient Rome borrowed many ideas, and even the names and characteristics of gods, from the Greeks. Both the Greeks and Romans had extensive contact with Egypt. The people of ancient Egypt traded to the west with the Minoans on the island of Crete. To the east, the Egyptians had contact with the great civilisations of the Fertile Crescent via the Silk Roads. The Mediterranean was near the end of the Silk Roads and was literally a place where East met West – a hub through which products and ideas imported from Asia reached Europe. In this course, you will study one of the Mediterranean civilisations in depth, learning about its:

- geography
- social structure and government
- religious beliefs
- everyday life
- contacts and conflicts within its society, and with other societies.



Source 2 A sitting colossus at Luxor Temple (ancient Egypt)



Source 3 A marble relief from the Parthenon (ancient Greece)



Source 4 A tile mosaic from the ancient city of Herculaneum, Italy (ancient Rome)

0.1 KEY FEATURES OF THE MEDITERRANEAN CIVILISATIONS

Geographical features

The geographical features of the Mediterranean region were critical in influencing how early societies developed there.

Source 5 The geographical setting and natural features of the Mediterranean civilisations

Ancient Egypt	Ancient Greece	Ancient Rome
The Nile River in northern Africa was the lifeblood of this civilisation. Without it, Egypt would never have developed as a great civilisation. It provided the water critical for irrigating crops that fed the early Egyptians. The deserts to the west and the seas to the north and east provided protection from enemy invaders. Egyptians lived in a hot, dry climate.	The ancient Greek civilisation sprang up in an area known as the Peloponnese, on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea. The fertile coastal plain allowed agriculture, but much of the land is mountainous. The mountains and many islands separated early settlements, which meant that they developed and formed separate city-states, each with its own ruler and customs – unlike Egypt and Rome, which each had one ruler.	Ancient Rome was settled on the Italian Peninsula. Its landscape was varied, with mountains and fertile plains. A rugged mountain range that ran down the peninsula's centre made inland expansion difficult. However, Rome had easy access to coastal settlements and other foreign territories around the Mediterranean, which the Romans gradually conquered with their strong navy and army.

Social organisation and government

Ancient Egypt, Greece and Rome all had very clear social structures (known as **hierarchies**), with strict social classes. Despite this similarity, all three societies had very different social customs and forms of government that developed and changed over time.

Source 6 The social organisation and government of the Mediterranean civilisations

Ancient Egypt	Ancient Greece	Ancient Rome
Ancient Egypt was ruled by a pharaoh who owned all the land and its resources. His power was passed on to his son. Other social groups were defined by their jobs, such as priests, merchants and scribes. The role of women was generally to care for the home and raise children. Despite this, women had relatively strong rights for that time.	In the early days of Greece's history, most city-states were ruled by kings. Over time, power passed from these kings to small groups of aristocrats (noblemen). In the sixth century BC, the people of Athens developed a democratic system of government, which gave citizens some power in running the state. Citizenship was restricted to adult men. Women, slaves and foreigners were not 'citizens' and could not vote. Women were expected to stay at home, regardless of their status.	For much of its history, Rome was a republic, which meant that political decisions were made by a small group of people in the Senate and Citizens' Assembly. All the powerful positions were held by members of wealthy, aristocratic families. Foreigners and slaves could not have full citizenship. Roman women had few rights and led restricted lives around home and family. After 27 BC, Rome became an empire and was ruled by a long line of emperors. These emperors held enormous power.

hierarchy

a way of organising things (or people) from top down in order of importance or significance; ancient societies had strict hierarchies with a ruler at the top and peasants at the bottom





Source 7 A depiction of the Egyptian goddess Bastet; many Egyptian gods were represented as animals or as humans with animal parts.

Religious beliefs

Religion played a central role in all three civilisations across the Mediterranean world. The ancient Egyptians, Greeks and Romans all had complex religious belief systems. They worshipped multiple gods whom they believed were responsible for things such as the weather, love, health, the harvest, natural disasters and the outcomes of wars.

Source 8 Religious beliefs of the Mediterranean civilisations

Ancient Egypt	Ancient Greece	Ancient Rome
Religion dominated society and the pharaoh was seen as a deity (god). Priests and priestesses were at the top of the social hierarchy. Deities were used to explain the forces of nature. Many of the most famous features of ancient Egypt, such as pyramids and mummies, were the result of religious practices connected with death.	Ancient Greek religion involved many deities. Myths and legends about the gods and goddesses were used to explain the world. Religion was important but, unlike Egyptian pharaohs, the head of the government was not a religious figure. Religious beliefs influenced many aspects of Greek culture, including architecture and even the Olympic Games.	The Romans worshipped many gods, and most were adapted from Greek deities. Romans also incorporated deities from civilisations they conquered, such as the Persian god Mithras and the Egyptian goddess Isis. Christianity spread to Rome and, despite 300 years of brutal persecution, by 394 BC Christianity had become its official religion.



Source 9 The Egyptian pharaoh Ramses II fighting his enemies, carved into a wall at Abu Simbel

Conflicts

Wars with other societies and conflicts within their own societies had consequences for all the Mediterranean civilisations.

Source 10 Conflicts involving the Mediterranean civilisations

Ancient Egypt	Ancient Greece	Ancient Rome
In its early years, Egypt was a peaceful society, but by 1550 BC it had built up a very powerful army, which included foot soldiers and charioteers. The pharaoh used the army to protect Egypt from attack, and various pharaohs also used the military to expand Egypt's territory and influence events in the region.	Greek city-states often fought against one another. A long period of wars between Greek states ruined much of Greece's farmland and weakened the city-states. Eventually, the king of Macedon, Philip II, conquered all of Greece's city-states. His son, Alexander the Great, maintained control of the region and also conquered Egypt in 332 BC.	Rome controlled a powerful army. Military service was an important part of life for most citizens and was crucial to expanding and defending the empire. Through wars with neighbouring societies, Rome expanded its empire around the Mediterranean Sea. It conquered both Greece and Egypt, making these lands part of the Roman Empire.

0.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Identify three features common to all Mediterranean societies in the ancient world.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 2 Use a Venn diagram to show some of the similarities and differences between the form of government in Athens in the sixth century BC and the form of government in Rome before its rule by emperors.
- 3 Use a concept map to summarise the ways religious beliefs have influenced behaviours and practices in ancient Mediterranean civilisations.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 4 Create a mind map of conflicts and conquests in the ancient Mediterranean world.

0.2 LEGACIES OF THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

Ancient societies across the Mediterranean world have heavily influenced the development of modern-day societies. Many of these influences were brutal and immediate (such as war and invasion), while others were taken place over generations (such as the adoption of language and beliefs). Today, the **legacies** of ancient Mediterranean civilisations can be seen in almost all aspects of our daily life.

Belief systems

A number of the world's largest and most influential religions and belief systems – including Judaism, Christianity and Islam – have links to the Mediterranean world. Christianity, for example, had its beginnings in the Middle East, and then became an official religion in Rome. The Roman Empire was also central to the spread of Christianity. Today, the Pope, who is the head of the Catholic Church, is still based in Rome.

Government

A major legacy of the ancient world is **democracy**, which developed in ancient Greece. Many countries (including Australia) have adopted democracy as their system of government. Some things have changed about the way it works, but its central ideas continue.

Science, mathematics, medicine and philosophy

Many ideas from ancient Greece and Rome are still influential today. We still use Archimedes' mathematical formulas, and the writing of Greek philosophers such as Socrates, Plato and Aristotle continue to influence our thinking. The ancient Egyptians employed complex mathematics in their architecture, and understood decimals, fractions and geometry. They also had relatively advanced medicine. The ancient Greeks learned a lot about medicine from the Egyptians, such as the use of hot knives during surgery to seal blood vessels.

Sports and the arts

Many forms of modern entertainment also originated in the ancient Mediterranean world, such as sport and theatre. Western drama has its origins in ancient Greece, and its auditoriums were a model for modern concert halls and movie theatres. Our modern Olympic Games had their beginnings in ancient Greece nearly 3000 years ago. The massive sports stadiums of today are designed using the same planning concepts that inspired the Colosseum in ancient Rome.

legacy

something passed down or received from an ancestor or predecessor (e.g. a language, a way of doing something)

democracy

a political system based on the idea that the citizens of a society should have control over the way in which they are governed



Source 11 The Colosseum in Rome

0.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 1 Which legacy of the Mediterranean world do you think is the most important? Write a persuasive text giving reasons for your view.



Source 1 The pyramids and the Sphinx, built by the ancient Egyptians, are among the most famous sights in the world.

ANCIENT EGYPT

The history of ancient Egypt has long fascinated people all over the world. As a result, most people know something about it, whether it is knowledge about the Nile, the pyramids, the Sphinx, mummification or the pharaohs.

Ancient Egypt was one of the world's oldest civilisations, lasting for thousands of years. Egyptologists (archaeologists who specialise in the study of ancient Egypt) divide its history into a series of time periods, allowing for an understanding of chronology. Evidence of continuity exists when strong, central governments controlled Egypt; at other times, change took place when society broke down and went into decline. Ancient Egypt finally became part of Alexander the Great's empire, and later an important province of the Roman Empire. The magnificent monuments and temples that remain are a part of our world's heritage. The legacy and significance of ancient Egypt also lives on in the ideas that influenced other ancient societies.



HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT EGYPT?

2A

In this section you will:

- » describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Egypt
- » explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of ancient Egyptian society.

||||| CHECKPOINT 2A

HOW WAS ANCIENT EGYPTIAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

2B

In this section you will:

- » describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Egypt
 - » outline how ancient Egyptian society was organised and governed including the roles of law and religion
- » describe the roles of key groups in ancient Egyptian society, such as the rulers, officials, women and slaves.

||||| CHECKPOINT 2B

WHAT DID ANCIENT EGYPTIANS BELIEVE?

2C

In this section you will:

- » explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Egypt are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

||||| CASE STUDY: CONSTRUCTION OF THE GREAT PYRAMID

||||| CHECKPOINT 2C

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE EGYPT AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

2D

In this section you will:

- » assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Egypt
- » identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within the ancient world
- » describe significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest
 - » explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts with other societies
 - » explain the legacy of the ancient Egyptians.

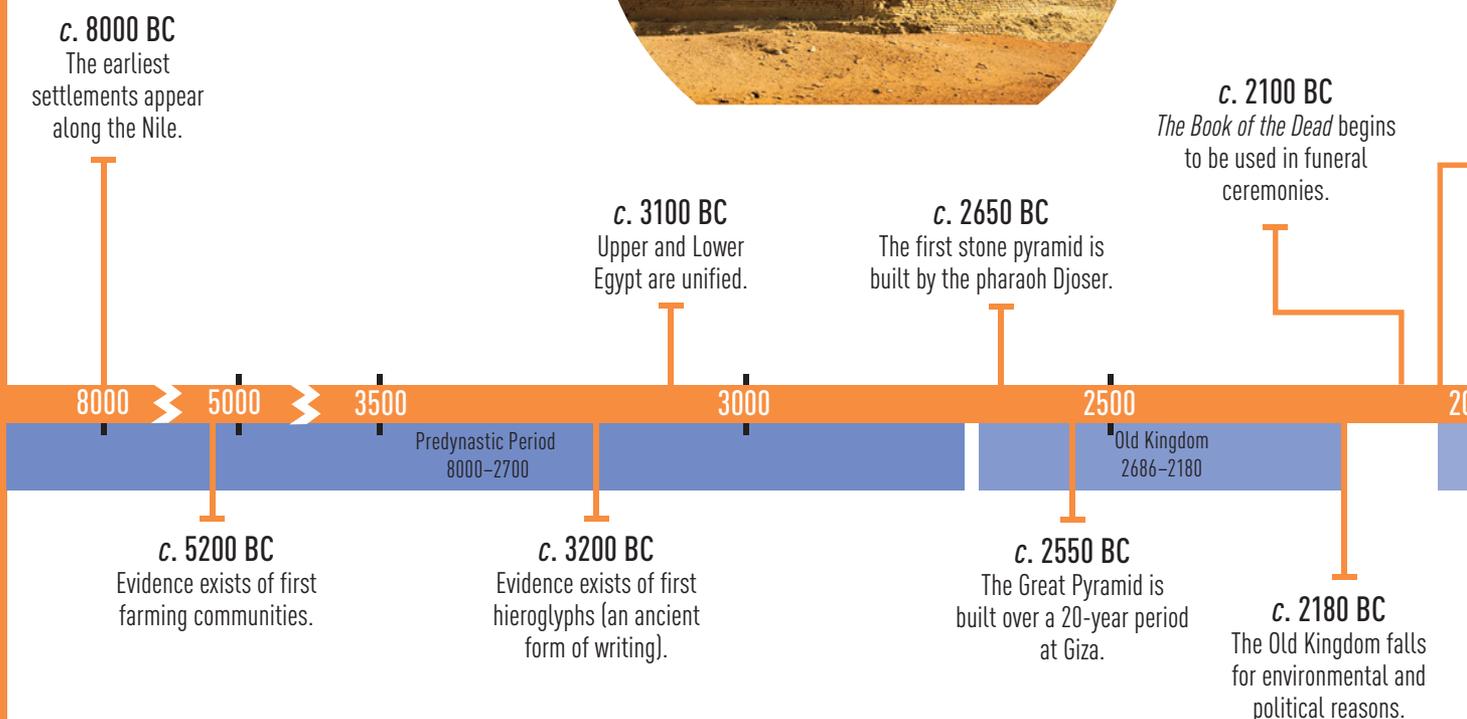
||||| CHECKPOINT 2D

ANCIENT EGYPT – A TIMELINE



Source 2 The Djoser pyramid is the oldest building in the world made from cut blocks.

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TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- Use the timeline to place the following events in chronological order.
 - Alexander the Great occupies Egypt.
 - The Hyksos kings rule.
 - Mentuhotep II rules.
 - The first pyramid is built.
 - Rameses II claims victory over the Hittites at the Battle of Kadesh.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- Use the timeline to identify three examples of religious practice in ancient Egypt.
- Look at the events in c. 1473 BC and c. 1352 BC. What conclusions can be made about political life in the New Kingdom?
- Use the timeline to identify evidence of expansion or contact with other cultures.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

This timeline shows that there are many different layers of history within ancient Egypt. It is important to understand the unique features within the different kingdoms.



Source 3 The Rosetta Stone

c. 1630–1523 BC

The Hyksos kings rule in the north, during a period when Egypt is again split into separate kingdoms.

c. 2055 BC

Egypt is ruled from separate capitals in the south and the north. Egypt is restored as a single kingdom under Mentuhotep II.

c. 1352 BC

The reign of Akhenaten begins; his main wife and possible successor was Nefertiti.

c. 1333 BC

Tutankhamun becomes pharaoh, aged 8 or 9.

c. 1213 BC

Pharaoh Rameses II dies.

c. 1290–1279 BC

Seti I reigns.

c. 404 BC

A brief period of Egyptian independence starts.

c. 196 BC

The Rosetta Stone is created.



c. 1730 BC

The Middle Kingdom ends.

1500

New Kingdom
1550–1069

1000

Late Dynastic Period
750–332

BC AD

Greco-Roman Period
332–30

c. 1550 BC

Egypt is reunified as a single kingdom under Thutmose III.

c. 1473 BC

A woman, Hatshepsut, becomes pharaoh.

c. 1279 BC

Rameses II (also known as Rameses the Great) becomes pharaoh.

c. 716 BC

Egypt is invaded by the Nubians (a rival civilisation to the south).

c. 332 BC

Egypt is made part of the empire of Alexander the Great.

c. 30 BC

Cleopatra, the last pharaoh of Egypt, commits suicide and Egypt becomes a province of the Roman Empire.

c. 1275 BC

Battle of Kadesh; pharaoh Rameses II claims a great victory over the neighbouring Hittites, a rival empire to the north of Egypt.



Source 4 A sculpture of Akhenaten and Nefertiti



Source 5 A stone relief in the Abu Simbel temple, showing Rameses II on the attack at the Battle of Kadesh

2A

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT EGYPT?

2.1 THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT EGYPT

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Egypt
- explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of ancient Egyptian society.

delta

a fertile area of land that forms at the mouth of a river

Silk Roads

a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

society

a community of people living in a particular area who have a shared culture, customs and laws

Egypt is located in north-east Africa, in an area surrounded by deserts and with coastlines on the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea. Egypt is famous for its Nile River, which runs through its entire length, draining to the north into the Mediterranean Sea. The Greek historian Herodotus visited Egypt around 450 BC and described it as 'the gift of the Nile'. The Nile River's fertile **delta** provided the food and other resources needed for the Egyptian people to survive and prosper. The Mediterranean Sea gave Egypt access to Europe and profitable trade markets. Egypt also had access to land routes in what became known as the **Silk Roads**, so they were influenced by cultures from the east.

In 1959, the German scholar Karl Wittfogel developed a theory that explained the origins of Egypt and other ancient **societies**. In each case, the ancient societies owed their existence to a river.

- Egyptian society developed along the Nile River.
- Chinese society began in the valley of the Huang He (Yellow) River.
- Early communities in India appeared along the Indus River.
- Early civilisations in the Middle East were centred on the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers.

Source 1 The city of Aswan, in modern-day Egypt, is located on the banks of the Nile River. The boats and houses are modern, but this Nile scene is much as it would have been in ancient times.



According to this theory (called the **hydraulic theory**), the river ensured a reliable supply of water, fertile soil, and a means of transport at a time when it was quicker and easier to travel by boat. An interesting perspective provided by Professor Peter Frankopan at Oxford University is that none of these civilisations emerged in complete isolation but were connected through trade, ideas and religion via the Silk Roads.



In 2008, a team of archaeologists uncovered **evidence** of domesticated animals and crops in the Faiyum region, 80 kilometres from Cairo. **Radiocarbon dating** carried out on grain found in ancient storage pits indicated that there was farming activity as far back as 5200 BC. This exciting find provided evidence of the earliest known farming settlement in ancient Egypt. The Faiyum discovery means that the origins of ancient Egypt were part of the **Neolithic Revolution**. During this period, humans started to settle on farms, rather than move around in search of food, and populations began to rise.

The importance of the Nile

The desert environment made the Nile a critical geographical feature of ancient Egypt. It was so essential for the society's survival that the people worshipped it as a god (see Source 3).

Source 3

He [the Nile, seen as the god Hapi] is the creator of all good things, as master of energy, full of sweetness in his choice. If offerings are made it is thanks to Him. He brings forth the herbage [grass] for the flocks, and sees that each god receives his sacrifices ... He spreads himself over Egypt, filling the granaries [grain storehouses] ... watching over the goods of the unhappy.

From an ancient hymn to the Nile

hydraulic theory
a theory that tries to explain the settlement patterns of ancient societies in terms of their closeness to sources of water (e.g. rivers)

Source 2 Faiyum, the site of Egypt's earliest known farming settlement, is largely desert today.

evidence
the information or clues gathered from a historical source; can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

radiocarbon dating
a method used to estimate the age of something that was once alive; the amount of radioactive carbon in the remains of the object is tested and gives a good indication of age because carbon breaks down over time at a known rate

Neolithic Revolution
describes the period when people stopped hunting and gathering food, instead choosing to settle and farm the land; this change resulted in a huge increase in human populations and many cultural advances

tributary

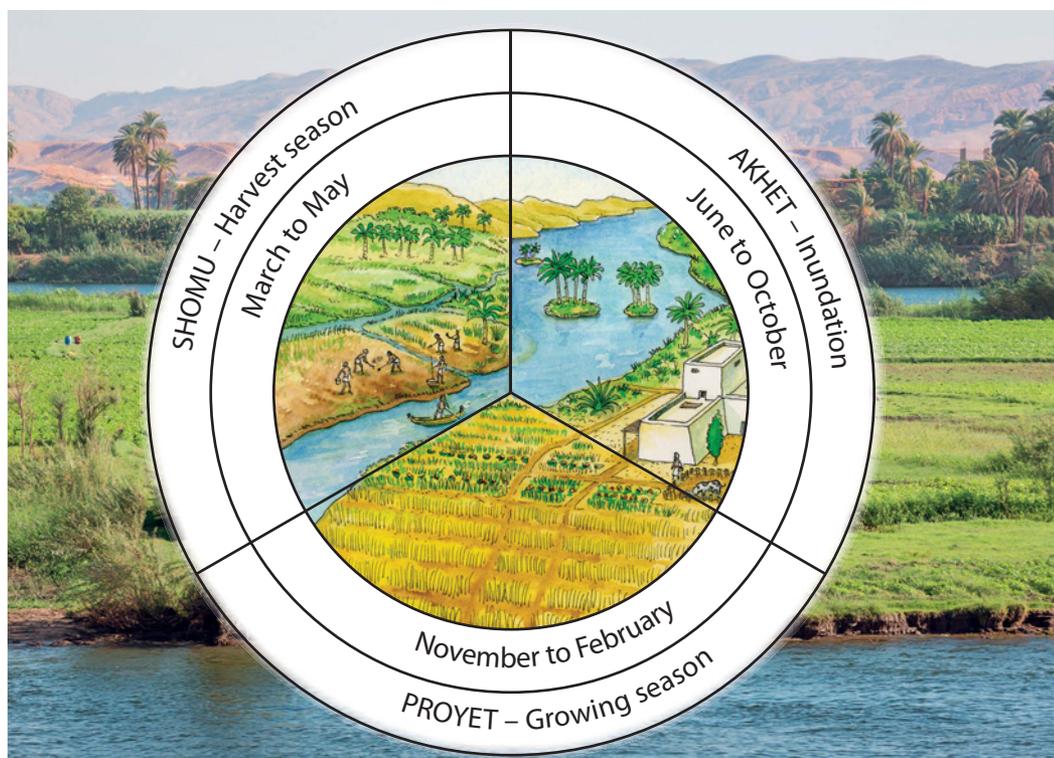
a river or stream that flows into a larger river or lake

Inundation, the

the yearly great flooding of the Nile River in Egypt; an inundation is a flood

Two of the Nile River's main **tributaries**, the Blue Nile and the Atbara River, begin in the highlands of central Africa. Every summer, melting snow and torrential rains from these tributaries gush into the Nile, carrying a load of dark mountain silt that is rich in nutrients. Today, dams (such as the Aswan Dam) catch much of this overflow. In the days of ancient Egypt, the swollen river flowed freely over the river's flood plain.

Each year the Nile River floods in August and September, a time known as the **Inundation**. When the flood waters drop, thick new layers of rich soil are left behind, ensuring good crops in the growing season. Source 4 shows the farming cycle in ancient Egypt, with growing and harvesting seasons that rely on the Inundation. During the period of the Old Kingdom (c. 2649–2130 BC), Egypt was known as *kemet* or 'black land', referring to the rich black soil that was renewed each year by the Nile floods.



Source 4 The ancient Egyptian seasons, based on the flooding of the Nile in August and September each year

artisan

a person who is skilled at working with their hands in some specialised way (e.g. a potter, metalworker)

scribe

a highly educated person in ancient Egypt who was able to read and write

pyramid

a geometrical shape with triangular sides that slope up to a single point from a square base; in ancient Egypt, stone pyramids were built as royal tombs for pharaohs

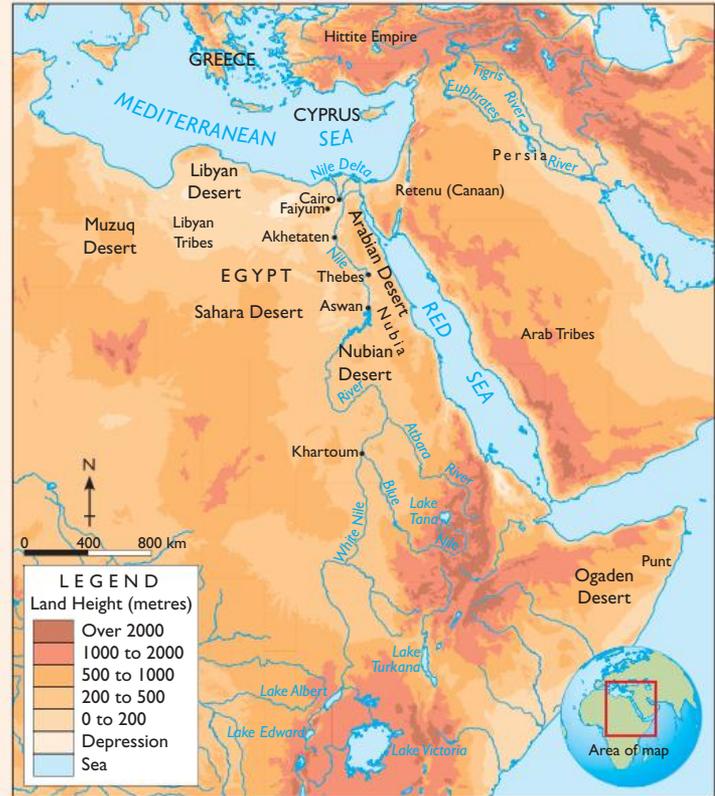
The Nile River was important for ancient Egypt's wealth and power. The rich soil and good crops meant that more people could be spared from the tasks of producing food. New skills could be developed, leading to the emergence of **artisans** and **scribes**. This class of people produced ancient Egypt's scientists, doctors, artists, priests, architects and engineers. The Inundation also meant that farmers, who were unable to work in flooded fields, were freed up for part of the year to fight in the army or work on major projects such as the building of the **pyramids**. They provided the labour force that helped to expand Egypt's wealth and territories, and built the pyramids and monuments that are part of Egypt's heritage today.

The expanses of desert on either side of the Nile, known as *deshret* or 'red land', also meant that early Egyptians lived mostly along the banks of the river. This concentrated population made it easier to organise the people, and was a factor in the creation of the Egyptian state.

Egypt's geographical setting and natural features



Source 5 This satellite view shows the Nile River flowing northwards towards the Mediterranean Sea, through the fertile, fan-shaped Nile Delta.



Source 6 Ancient Egypt with location map

INTERPRET

- Study Sources 5 and 6. On each, find and identify:
 - the Nile River and its delta
 - the Mediterranean Sea and Red Sea
 - the deserts that surround ancient Egypt.
- On Source 6, locate the three main tributaries that run into the Nile: the White Nile River, Blue Nile River and Atbara River.
- What is the height of the land through which the Nile River or its tributaries flows:
 - at Khartoum
 - at Cairo
 - near Lake Tana?
- What other ancient societies were geographically close to Egypt?
- Use an atlas to identify the current names of countries in the territories that were once ancient Egypt and its neighbouring civilisations.

Egypt's natural defences

The Nile delta, which is the part of the Nile that splits into a series of smaller rivers before flowing into the Mediterranean Sea, proved to be a natural barrier against invaders from the north. To the east and west, the desert was Egypt's first line of defence against possible enemies.

Egypt's natural resources

Egypt's desert environment was a source of metals and minerals. Copper, gold and iron were extracted from desert mines for use in jewellery, utensils and furniture. Rocks such as granite, sandstone and alabaster were quarried for use in the building of pyramids, statues and temples.

papyrus

a type of paper that the ancient Egyptians made from the crushed pulp of a riverside plant; the plant itself is also known as papyrus

Resources produced in the Nile's fertile 'black lands' included grain, **papyrus** and linen cloth. These resources were used in everyday life and could also be traded for luxury goods such as spices, cedar wood, incense and semi-precious stones. Farmers produced a wide variety of food crops around the Nile, and wildlife around the river was also a plentiful source of food. Desert animals such as gazelles, hares and foxes were hunted for food.

Egypt's access to such resources had an impact on its trade and wealth. It also influenced the materials used to construct its buildings and monuments, and the materials used to make jewellery, utensils, furniture and other artefacts.

Desert animals influenced aspects of Egyptian beliefs as well. Feared desert creatures, such as snakes and scorpions, found their way into magic spells. Some Egyptian gods and goddesses are depicted with characteristics of desert animals. For example, the Egyptian god of death, Anubis, is depicted with a jackal's head. (Jackals feed on dead flesh, and are attracted to places of burial.)

2.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 What was the significance of the archaeological find at Faiyum?
- 2 What is the hydraulic theory and how does it explain the origins of ancient societies?
- 3 How did Egypt's geographical setting protect it from possible enemies?
- 4 Explain how Egypt's natural resources influenced:
 - a the everyday life of ancient Egyptians
 - b ancient Egyptian beliefs.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 Conduct research to find out more about the discoveries at Faiyum. Write a short report (200 words) that includes the types of artefacts that have been unearthed, and the methods and techniques used by archaeologists to locate and date these sources of evidence. Make sure you identify the strengths of the discoveries, indicating what they reveal about society, but also the limitations. What information is still missing?

- 6 If you were living in ancient Egypt, what season would it be now and what activities would farmers be engaged in?

GO DEEPER

- 7 Ancient Egyptians built structures known as nilometers to help them understand features of the Nile. Conduct research to find out about nilometers. Write a paragraph explaining how they were used and why they were important to ancient Egyptians.
- 8 Use Google Earth or a digital atlas to explore the Nile River and its delta.
 - a Zoom in on the Suez Canal, which links the western upper fork of the Red Sea to the Mediterranean Sea.
 - b The canal was opened in 1869, but ancient writers such as Aristotle report that the idea of linking the Mediterranean and Red Seas was considered around 4000 years ago, and was explored at various times in ancient Egypt's history. Why might ancient and modern governments in Egypt have pursued this idea?

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT EGYPT?

» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Egypt

- 1 Describe the three key elements of ancient Egypt's geographical setting. (5 marks)
- 2 Identify the natural features in and around ancient Egypt. (5 marks)

» Explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of ancient Egyptian society

- 3 Explain the relationship between Egypt's natural features and the origins of human settlement in Egypt. (10 marks)
- 4 Explain how Egypt's geographical setting and natural features influenced the way Egyptian society developed in ancient times. (10 marks)

Total marks [/30]

2A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student [obook](#) [access](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz

Check your Teacher [obook](#) [access](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Rich task

Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills

2B

HOW WAS ANCIENT EGYPTIAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

2.2 LIFE ON THE NILE RIVER

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Egypt.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

The Nile River was the source of life in ancient Egypt. This caused the development of civilisation along its banks. The annual flooding resulted in fertile soil, allowing for rich agricultural production.

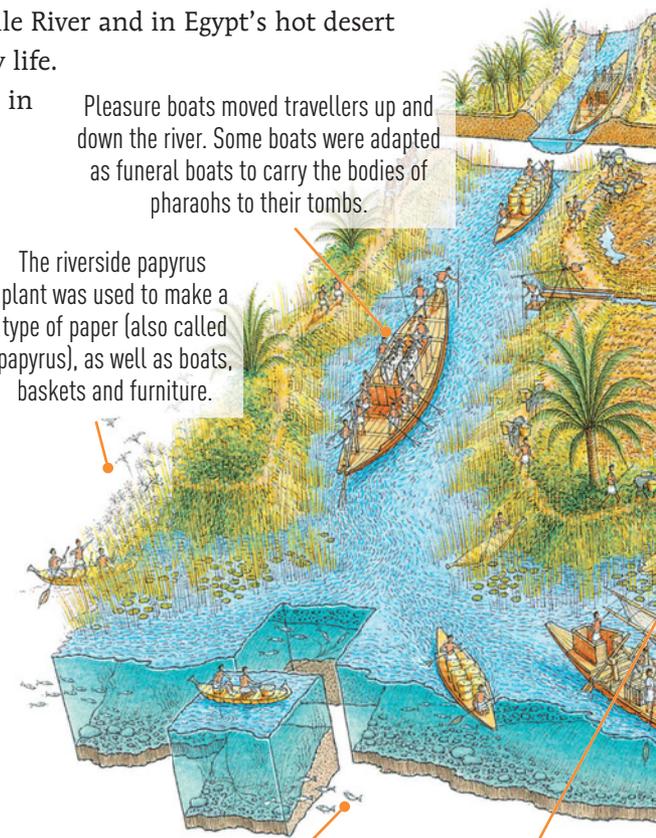
The Nile River was the focal point of Egyptian life. Source 1 is an artist's impression of life along a section of the Nile

In a society that lasted thousands of years, there were many different ways of life. However, historians are able to make some generalisations about daily life in ancient Egypt, based on written evidence and archaeological sources such as tomb paintings. In this topic we will explore how life along the Nile River and in Egypt's hot desert environment influenced many aspects of everyday life.

We also look at the class structure that developed in ancient Egypt, with its clear roles and social responsibilities.

Pleasure boats moved travellers up and down the river. Some boats were adapted as funeral boats to carry the bodies of pharaohs to their tombs.

The riverside papyrus plant was used to make a type of paper (also called papyrus), as well as boats, baskets and furniture.



River wildlife included fish, birds, frogs, crocodiles, eels, hippopotamuses and snakes. Ducks and geese were hunted with wooden stocks or caught in nets.

Severe floods could wash away all traces of farm boundary lines (usually marked with stones). Officials known as 'rope stretchers' re-measured and re-marked any lines that had disappeared,

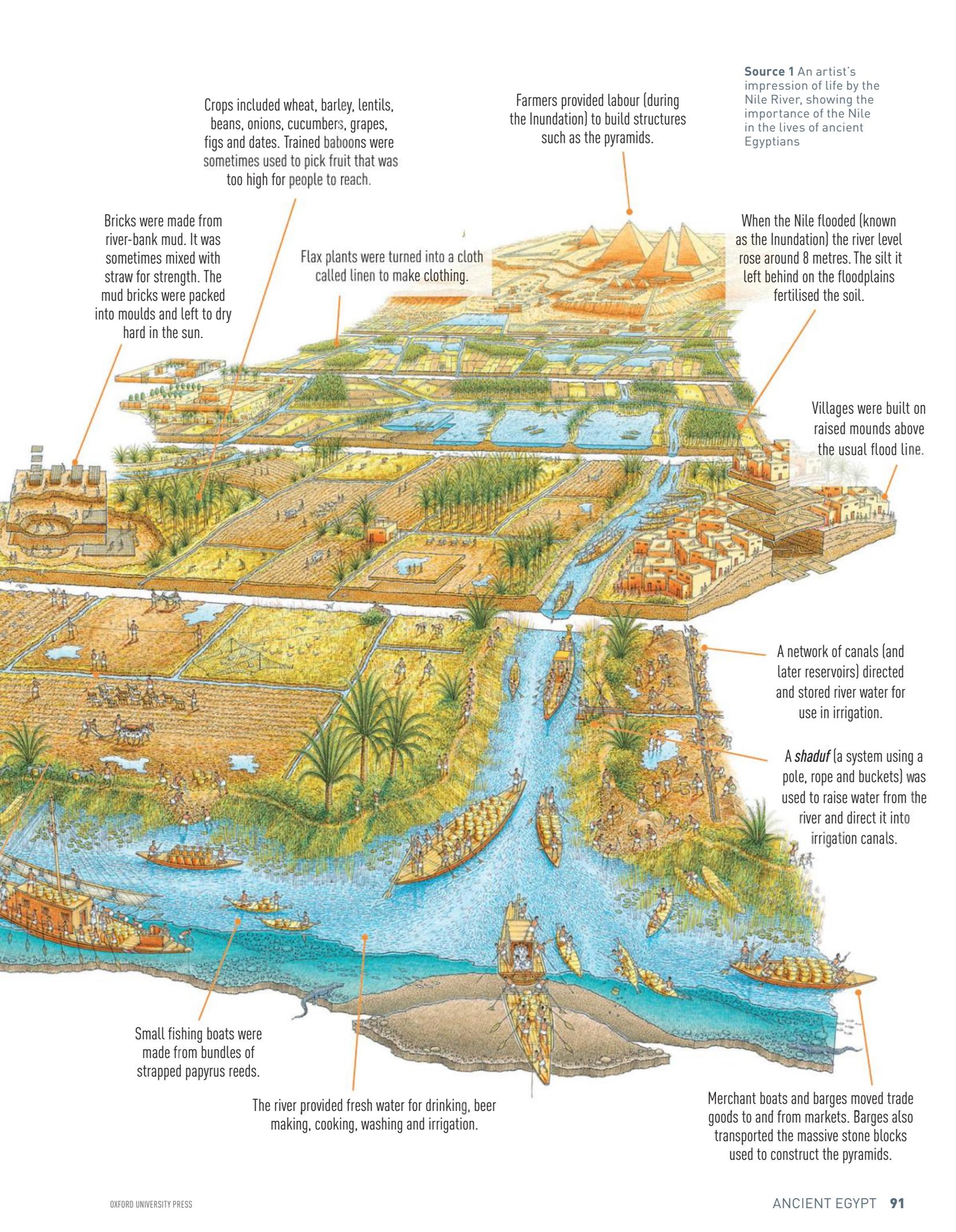
2.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Study Source 1. Describe the features in detail. Draw conclusions about ancient Egyptian society from what you have seen. Outline what more you want to know.
- 2 The Inundation was an important event in the lives of the people of ancient Egypt.
 - a What was the Inundation and how did it influence Egyptian society?
 - b List the precautions the Egyptians took to control the Inundation.
 - c List the different kinds of crops the Egyptians grew, and other sources of food.
 - d Aside from the Inundation, what were some of the other dangers associated with life on and near the river?
 - e What did the Egyptians do to help make their houses safer during bigger-than-usual floods?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 Explain how the kind of life shown in Source 1 needed a strong, centralised government. Could the pyramids, the canals or the irrigation systems have been built by small groups? Why or why not?



Source 1 An artist's impression of life by the Nile River, showing the importance of the Nile in the lives of ancient Egyptians

Crops included wheat, barley, lentils, beans, onions, cucumbers, grapes, figs and dates. Trained baboons were sometimes used to pick fruit that was too high for people to reach.

Farmers provided labour (during the Inundation) to build structures such as the pyramids.

When the Nile flooded (known as the Inundation) the river level rose around 8 metres. The silt it left behind on the floodplains fertilised the soil.

Bricks were made from river-bank mud. It was sometimes mixed with straw for strength. The mud bricks were packed into moulds and left to dry hard in the sun.

Flax plants were turned into a cloth called linen to make clothing.

Villages were built on raised mounds above the usual flood line.

A network of canals (and later reservoirs) directed and stored river water for use in irrigation.

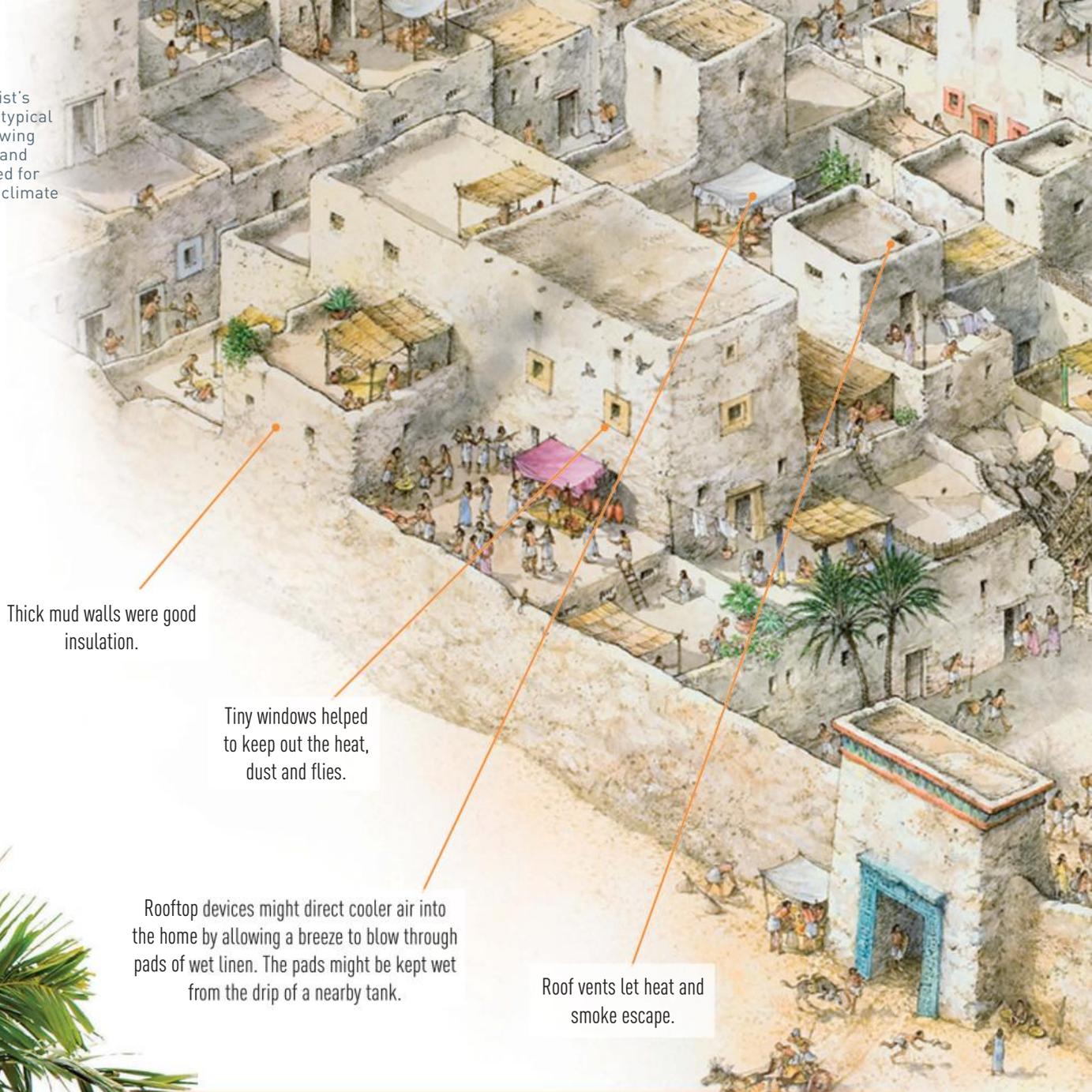
A *shaduf* (a system using a pole, rope and buckets) was used to raise water from the river and direct it into irrigation canals.

Small fishing boats were made from bundles of strapped papyrus reeds.

The river provided fresh water for drinking, beer making, cooking, washing and irrigation.

Merchant boats and barges moved trade goods to and from markets. Barges also transported the massive stone blocks used to construct the pyramids.

Source 2 An artist's impression of a typical settlement, showing building design and activities adapted for Egypt's hot, dry climate



Thick mud walls were good insulation.

Tiny windows helped to keep out the heat, dust and flies.

Rooftop devices might direct cooler air into the home by allowing a breeze to blow through pads of wet linen. The pads might be kept wet from the drip of a nearby tank.

Roof vents let heat and smoke escape.

2.3 LIFE IN A HOT CLIMATE

KEY CONTENT

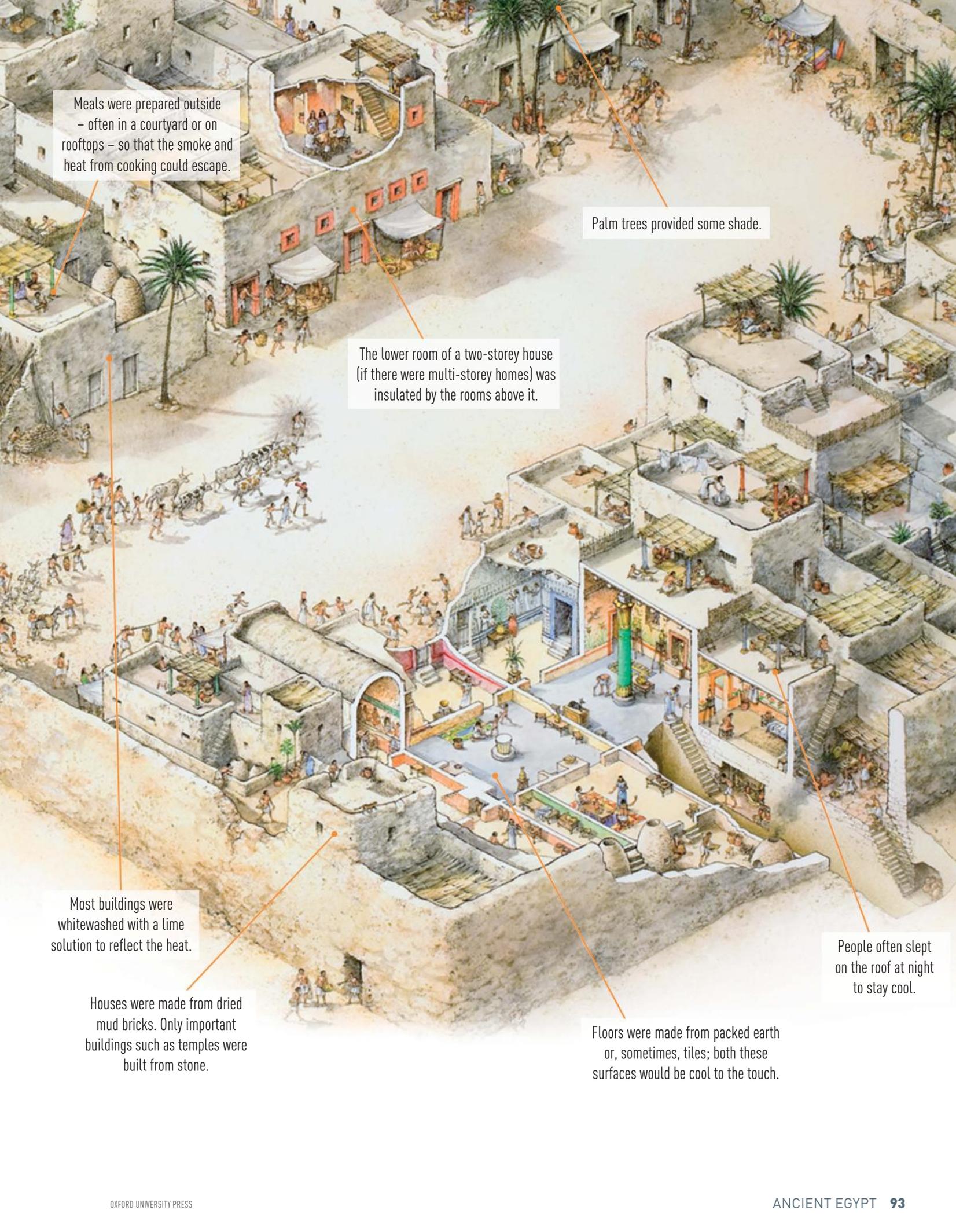
In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Egypt.

Egypt's hot desert environment influenced aspects of daily life such as where people lived, what they wore and how they spent their time.

Egyptian housing

The ancient Egyptians lived in a hot, dry climate. Source 2 shows how Egyptian houses were designed to keep their occupants cool. Houses were made from mud bricks and were multi-storeyed to provide cooler, insulated rooms on the lower storey. Meals were cooked outside and people often slept outside to escape the heat.



Meals were prepared outside – often in a courtyard or on rooftops – so that the smoke and heat from cooking could escape.

Palm trees provided some shade.

The lower room of a two-storey house (if there were multi-storey homes) was insulated by the rooms above it.

Most buildings were whitewashed with a lime solution to reflect the heat.

Houses were made from dried mud bricks. Only important buildings such as temples were built from stone.

People often slept on the roof at night to stay cool.

Floors were made from packed earth or, sometimes, tiles; both these surfaces would be cool to the touch.

Egyptian clothing

Clothing worn by ancient Egyptians was usually light-coloured to suit the hot, dry climate. Men were often bare-chested and children were usually naked. Tunics and dresses were made from linen, a fabric made from the flax plants that grew along the Nile. The linen made for wealthy Egyptians was very fine and see-through, as shown in the Source 3 image of Nefertari.

Men and women shaved their heads to keep cool, so they wore wigs when not at home. On special occasions, a cone of solid, perfumed fat could be worn on top of the wig, as shown in Source 4. The fat would melt in the heat so that a sweet-smelling, cooling liquid dripped down the wearer's face and upper body. Most people went barefoot, or wore sandals made from papyrus or leather.

2.3 SOURCE STUDY

Keeping cool, Egyptian style

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The desert sand, dust and glare meant that eye infections were a common ailment in ancient Egypt. Ancient papyrus texts tell of treatments that involved rubbing ointments on the eyes of affected people. Some of these ointments were made from bat's blood, while others were a combination of mashed human brain and honey.



Source 3 A tomb painting of Nefertari (1290–1254 BC), who is shown wearing a tunic made of fine linen, worn to keep cool



Source 4 Detail from an ancient tomb painting showing a woman wearing a cone of cooling fat on top of her wig



Source 5 Papyrus sandals like these kept feet cool and protected them from the hot ground.

INTERPRET

Read the text and study Sources 3 to 5 to answer the following questions.

- 1 Do you think that the woman in Source 3 was wealthy? Give three reasons to justify your answer.
- 2 What are the limitations of these sources for understanding women in Egyptian society? Consider whether they represent all women, or only the wealthy or important women.
- 3 What are the strengths of these sources for historians studying the way ancient Egyptians lived in a hot climate?

Leisure activities

Most of the evidence in tomb paintings and reliefs shows the activities of wealthy Egyptians. However, we also know that some outdoor activities were common for both rich and poor. Egyptian leisure activities included hunting, sailing, swimming and fishing along the Nile.

Music and board games were also popular. Senet, a similar game to backgammon, but using casting sticks rather than dice, was enjoyed by all (Source 3 shows Nefertari playing the game). Egyptian musical instruments included harps, drums, tambourines, bells, lutes and **sistra** (see Source 6).

sistra
metal musical instruments
in ancient Egypt that rattled
when shaken



Source 6 An old engraving of a *sistrum*; *sistra* were shaken to make a clanging sound as the moving metal parts banged into each other. People of ancient Egypt believed the sounds kept away evil spirits.



Source 7 A wall painting from the Tomb of Menna shows Menna (the main figure on the left, with a damaged face) and members of his family hunting birds in the marshes. He holds a throwing stick to strike the birds, and grasps two waterfowl that were possibly used as bait.

2.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

Look carefully at Source 2 and answer the following questions.

- 1 Where did people often cook and sleep? Why?
- 2 Why were walls whitewashed?
- 3 What building materials have been used in this settlement?
- 4 What does the source reveal about Egyptian society? In your answer, consider technology (such as construction materials and techniques), climate and living conditions.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 List the different ways we keep cool in Australia.
- 6 Create a Venn diagram to compare similarities and differences between your list from question 5 and the housing design, clothing and lifestyle that people of ancient Egypt developed for their climate.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 7 Create a concept map to summarise how the ancient Egyptians kept cool in a desert environment, including aspects such as housing, clothing and leisure.
- 8 Do you think this was the same for rich and poor people in society? Give reasons to support your argument.

GO DEEPER

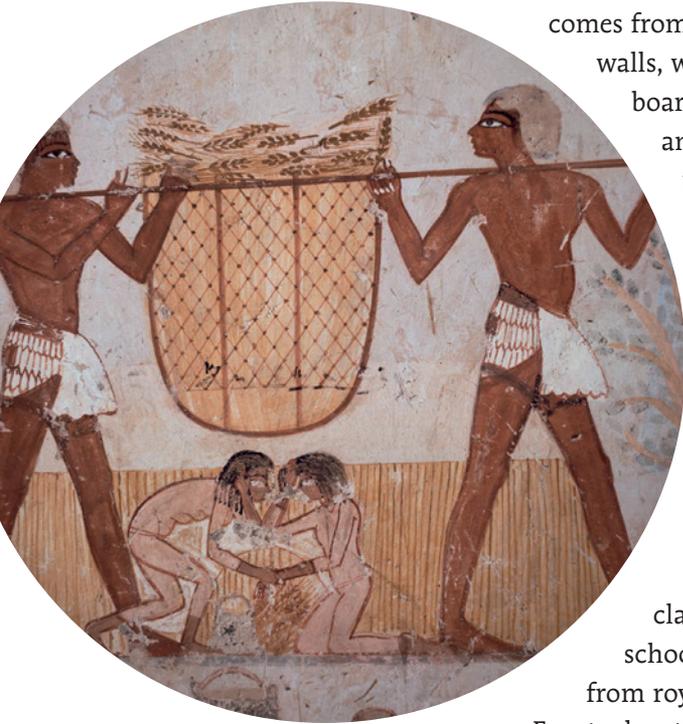
- 9 Research 'sistra and religion'. What particular religious cults in Egypt were known for using *sistra*? Create an infographic highlighting key features of the beliefs and practices of these cults.

2.4 GROWING UP IN ANCIENT EGYPT

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Egypt.



Source 8 Detail from a painting in the Tomb of Menna in Thebes showing girls fighting or wrestling during the wheat harvest

literacy

the ability to read and write

Our understanding of the upbringing and education of children in ancient Egypt comes from a range of sources, such as the images that survive on tomb walls, written texts and artefacts that have been found (such as toys and board games). Egyptian children played ball games, juggled, kept pets and played with dolls. Boys would participate in various sports; there are scenes of acrobatics, a kind of tug-of-war, tumbling, wrestling and group balancing acts. The girls are often shown dancing. Boys and girls are rarely shown playing together. This suggests that they were educated in very different ways and for very different roles.

When it came to formal education, only a handful of the boys and very few girls attended school. Young boys and girls learned their future roles in life by watching and working with their parents and older relatives around the home, and in the fields and workplaces.

Literacy was the mark of the professions and the ruling class, and the sons of the ruling class went to school. Even though schooling was normally reserved for boys, some Egyptian women from royal households were literate. As in other societies, in ancient Egypt education was the key to both wealth and power.

Schooling during the Middle Kingdom

Ancient Egyptian civilisation existed continuously for thousands of years, and the ways in which things were done, such as schooling, changed over time. At the time of the Old Kingdom, for example, boys seem to have been educated by their fathers. It was not until much later, during the Middle Kingdom (2040–1782 BC), that schools as we think of them today started to appear. In fact, it was only during this period that we find the first use of the Egyptian word for school, which translated as ‘house of instruction’.

More written evidence is available about schooling during the time of the New Kingdom (1550–1069 BC).

- School began for boys between the ages of 5 and 10.
- Parents decided when they thought their children were ready for school.
- Girls rarely went to school.
- The main subjects taught were reading, writing and arithmetic.
- Teachers were encouraged to use physical punishment as part of teaching; one old Egyptian expression was ‘a boy hears when he is beaten’.
- Schooling involved a great deal of rote learning or memorising of many old texts.
- There was no provision for physical education or sport of any kind.

2.4 SOURCE STUDY

Education in ancient Egypt



Source 9 A relief depicting scribes at work, from the Tomb of Horemheb, c. 1300 BC



Source 10 A pupil's wooden tablet from the Middle Kingdom

INTERPRET

- 1 Describe the scene shown in Source 9. What does it tell you about the life of an educated person in ancient Egypt?
- 2 What evidence in the image suggests that Horemheb lived after the Old Kingdom?
- 3 Source 10 shows a wooden tablet that students would use to practise their writing. The tablet would be covered with a layer of plaster that could be wiped off. Why do you think that young students would write on a wooden tablet (or shard of pottery) rather than papyrus?

2.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 What sources of evidence are available about the activities and education of children in ancient Egypt?
- 2 Much of the evidence we have about leisure and education comes from large tombs belonging to wealthy or important people. Which groups in society might not be represented by this evidence?
- 3 What factors influenced a child's level of education in ancient Egypt?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 4 Being educated and having a role as a scribe was highly desirable. What does this tell us about Egyptian society?
- 5 Students in ancient Egypt were required to memorise a lot of material. Suggest why this might have been the case.

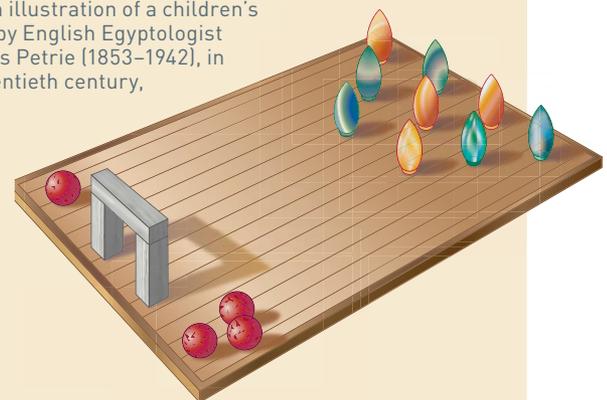
EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 6 An archaeologist discovered pieces of a game in a child's grave in ancient Egypt, with the pieces found loose in the earth. Source 11 is an illustration

based on his sketch, showing his hypothesis of how the pieces would have been arranged as a form of skittles, where the balls are driven through the wooden gate. Either:

- make a model of the game as presented and play the game
- or:
- make your own hypothesis using the same pieces. Sketch your arrangement of the pieces, and outline the aim and rules of the game.

Source 11 An illustration of a children's game found by English Egyptologist W.M. Flinders Petrie (1853–1942), in the early twentieth century, in Egypt



2.5 THE POWER OF THE PHARAOHS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline how ancient Egyptian society was organised and governed including the roles of law and religion.

pharaoh

the leader of ancient Egypt who was believed to be a god; the pharaoh had absolute power and total control

monarchy

rule by a king or queen

theocracy

a system of rule in which the ruler's authority was based on religious beliefs

The head of Egyptian society was the **pharaoh**, who was believed to be both a king and a god in human form. Most pharaohs were men. The pharaoh was the ultimate authority in Egypt. The basis of the pharaoh's power was his wealth, the strength and loyalty of his army, and the fact that he was seen as a god, or at least the earthly representative of the Egyptian god Horus. This means that the Egyptian system of government was a **monarchy** and a **theocracy**.

- 1 A crown symbolised the pharaoh's position as ruler. Its design is a combination of the white crown of Upper Egypt and the red crown of Lower Egypt that merged to form a united Egypt.
- 2 A uraeus (gold headpiece shaped like an upright cobra) symbolised magical powers and a readiness to strike.
- 3 A false beard made from goat's hair symbolised the pharaoh's status as a god.
- 4 A heavy jewelled collar symbolised great wealth.
- 5 A flail (whip) symbolised total authority.
- 6 A crook symbolised the pharaoh's role as a shepherd of the people.
- 7 An animal tail (usually from a bull) symbolised strength and fertility.



Source 12 An artist's impression of a pharaoh and his symbols of power



Source 13 An ancient carving of Hatshepsut, the woman who became pharaoh c. 1473

The pharaoh's duty was to ensure law and order, and to protect the people from foreign enemies and natural disasters. The two most common natural disasters that threatened Egypt were floods and droughts. This meant that to keep the confidence of his people, the pharaoh had to make sure that the army was strong and ensure the safety of the people by building and maintaining dams along the river. This gave protection from flooding, as well as an irrigation system that provided water during dry seasons.

The laws of Egypt were made by the pharaoh by royal decree (order) and enforced by his soldiers and officials. The pharaoh also made decisions about taxation.

The people of ancient Egypt did not use the term 'pharaoh' when referring to their kings or queens. The word 'pharaoh' comes from the Greek language, based on the Egyptian words *per aa* meaning 'great house'. Pharaohs in ancient Egypt often dressed in ceremonial costumes and carried important objects that symbolised their power and position in society. Source 12 shows a number of these items.

Source 14 Responsibilities of the pharaoh

Earthly responsibilities (shaped by the law)	Divine responsibilities (shaped by religion)
<p>The pharaoh was responsible for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • directing the government • commanding the army and leading them into battle • protecting the people and keeping peace and order • making all laws, and sometimes making decisions in the courts • managing building, mining, trade and irrigation. 	<p>The pharaoh was responsible for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • acting as chief priest • keeping the gods happy so the Nile flooded every year and harvests were plentiful • choosing priests • overseeing religious ceremonies and festivals • building temples to honour the gods • performing religious duties.

Narmer (Menes)

Narmer, who lived around 3150 to 3100 BC, is also known as Menes. He was the first pharaoh to unify the upper and lower kingdoms of ancient Egypt. This was an important step because he brought all the resources of the state under his strong central rule. Narmer extended the system of canals that spread out from the Nile. This did two important things.

- It extended the amount of land under irrigation.
- It meant that when the Nile flooded, the flood waters carrying the new rich soil spread further, adding to the total area of good farmland and enabling Egypt to grow even more crops and add to its food surpluses.

The Narmer Palette

The Narmer Palette is an engraved stone that was discovered in 1897 and dates from the time of Narmer's rule. It is important because it contains the earliest **hieroglyphic** inscriptions ever found. It has been described by Egyptologist Professor Bob Brier as the oldest document in the world. The palette is 63 centimetres tall and includes images of the pharaoh Narmer. On one side he is wearing the crown of Upper Egypt and on the other, the crown of Lower Egypt. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that it was intended to record the unification of the two kingdoms.

There is ongoing debate among archaeologists and historians about the significance of the palette. The debate is about whether it records an actual event or whether it was an idealised or imagined origin story for the kingdom of Egypt. It is also possible that the sides were carved years apart and by different people. Both the palette and the story of Narmer are examples of issues with the significance and contestability of evidence. It is an example of history as a 'problem-solving discipline'.

hieroglyphs

picture-like symbols used in the original writing system of the ancient Egyptians

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

The Narmer Palette is significant because even if it is idealised rather than factual, historians can learn that military victories were important to Egyptians at this time, and they can see the image and narrative that Egyptians wanted others to know.



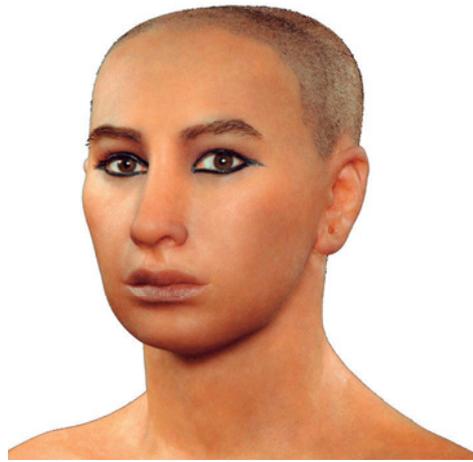
Source 15 The front and back of the Narmer Palette, showing the pharaoh wearing the crown of Upper Egypt (left) and the crown of Lower Egypt (right)

Tutankhamun: the boy pharaoh

Tutankhamun's reign as pharaoh was short. He became pharaoh as a young boy and died when he was only 19. Tutankhamun is significant because his is the only tomb from ancient Egypt that has been found undisturbed by robbers. It was discovered by the English archaeologist Howard Carter in 1922, in the Valley of the Kings. Thousands of artefacts were found along with Tutankhamun's mummified body. These discoveries provided archaeologists with new evidence about Tutankhamun's life as well as the burial practices of ancient Egyptians.



Source 16 The mummy of Tutankhamun



Source 17 The reconstructed head of Tutankhamun



Source 18 The gold mask found fused to Tutankhamun's mummified head and upper body

2.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 What was the basis of the pharaoh's power?
- 2 What is meant by the term 'theocracy'?
- 3 Outline the pharaoh's responsibilities.
- 4 Use a table format to summarise what each item shown in Source 12 symbolised about the pharaoh's role.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 Tutankhamun died very young and therefore did not reign for long or leave a lasting legacy. Why, then, was the discovery of his tomb such an important event for historians?

GO DEEPER

- 6 Conduct research on one of ancient Egypt's pharaohs, such as:
 - Akhenaten
 - Mentuhotep II
 - Rameses II
 - Cleopatra.
 - Khufu
 - Amenhotep III
 - Hatshepsut

Present your research in a PowerPoint presentation or poster, including an image of the pharaoh, a timeline showing the dynastic period in which he or she reigned, the pharaoh's achievements and your assessment of that pharaoh's importance in the ancient world.

- 7 Theories about how Tutankhamun died have been contested by historians for decades. Conduct research on the different theories that have been put forward, including methods and new technologies used by archaeologists in recent years. Write an exposition to present your views on the question 'How did Tutankhamun die?'

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Historical inquiry starts with asking different kinds of questions about the past, drawing on evidence from a range of sources. Planning is essential, as is interrogating the evidence to find gaps in your research.

2.6 ROLES OF KEY GROUPS IN ANCIENT EGYPTIAN SOCIETY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the roles of key groups in ancient Egyptian society, such as the rulers, officials, women and slaves.

hierarchy

a way of organising things (or people) from top down in order of importance or significance

Ancient Egyptian society was organised according to a strict social **hierarchy** – in other words, there were clear social divisions or classes where the people at the top held power over those lower down. Some of these roles were shaped by laws, traditions and religious beliefs, as well as by people's wealth and abilities.

Vizier

I am the pharaoh's second-in-command. I supervise the other officials and judge law-breakers. I also make sure people pay their taxes, in grain or goods. Sometimes people provide their labour as a tax payment.

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

History is often studied from the perspective of the leaders of the time. By studying different groups in society, we consider the varied experiences of groups and individuals, including women and slaves.

Nomarch

I govern one of our country's 42 nomes (provinces). I keep the vizier happy by collecting lots of taxes. Like other important and wealthy people, I wear garments made from the finest linen and lots of gold jewellery.



Scribe

I am one of the very few people in Egypt who can read and write. I record the pharaoh's orders and decisions, and help the vizier and the Director of the Seal to keep tax records. I also keep accounts for the army, write letters for local people and prepare inscriptions for tomb walls and sculptures. I hope one day to become a doctor or an architect.



Merchant

I am a trader. I am constantly sailing up and down the Nile with goods from Egypt, such as linen, papyrus, pottery, grain and gold. Goods I bring back from other places include ebony wood, ivory, incense, copper and baboons. Every now and then, I sail north, across the Mediterranean Sea.



Linen workshop supervisor

I was at home for many years raising my seven children. To help out, I made linen from flax. My husband used to trade it in the local market for other things that we needed. I now have a supervisor's job, managing women in a linen workshop.



Slave

I was born in Libya, but was captured as a prisoner of war. Other slaves come from Syria and Nubia. My master uses me as a field hand. Some of the lucky slaves work in the palace of the pharaoh – much better than working in the quarries or mines out in the hot desert.



Source 19 The social hierarchy in ancient Egypt

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about which group in society would have the most freedom.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.



Pharaoh

My main duty is to keep life in balance – on this Earth and beyond. I govern with a large team of officials.



Director of the Seal

I am the treasurer. I manage all the goods (food and other products) that come into the pharaoh's storehouses. Most of these goods are tax payments, but some items are imports from other countries.



Priestess

My husband is a nomarch. In fact, most of my fellow priestesses are married to senior officials – the high priestess in our temple is a daughter of the pharaoh. My main role is to help look after the temple goddess and to sing and play music if the pharaoh visits our temple. I report to the chief priest.



Chief priest

I represent our country's top priest, the pharaoh, and look after the gods. I enter the inner part of the temple where the statue of the god is kept. Each day I wash it, wrap it in clean linen and bring it food. If I didn't do this, bad things would happen. On special days, I take it out to show the people. My priests and I don't wear clothing made from animal products because that would be unclean. We wear only the finest white linen. We shave all our body hair and wash many times each day.



Soldier

I am a soldier. I am very skilled at using a pike (spear). I march on foot but our army also has charioteers. Our army divisions – all named after gods – usually consist of about 5000 men. Often, I fight alongside mercenaries – men from other countries who are paid to fight for us. Many of them come from Nubia. When not at war, I help out by supervising building projects.



Stonemason

I spend my days making stone statues (usually of my pharaoh), carving the blocks used to build temples and pyramids, and engraving the walls of tombs. My father was a stonemason, too, of course. Until she went blind, my mother made wigs from real hair.



Potter

I am a member of the middle class – not too poor, but not too rich either! I give some of the pots I make to the pharaoh as tax payment. Some of my pots are exported to other countries. Most of my friends are craftsmen, too. We learnt our trades from our fathers. Some make jewellery; others make papyrus, boats or furniture. I wish I was smart enough to be a scribe.



Farmer and his wife

Except for slaves, we are at the bottom of the social ladder (along with tomb builders, pig herders and beggars). I grow wheat and barley, and flax used to make linen. My wife here helps me in the field when she can. I work very hard, digging canals for irrigation and preparing the soil. During the Inundation, I often help out with the pharaoh's building work. I pay over half of the grain I produce as tax.

The role of women in ancient Egypt

Egyptian women appear to have had greater equality with men than in many other society in the ancient world. Motherhood was seen as an important role and women had significant financial equality. Women could own businesses and land, as well as testify in court and bring legal actions against men. In many occupations, they received the same pay as men. The most common career for an upper-class Egyptian woman was the priesthood. Men were accepted as the head of the household, and even the power of the rich and aristocratic Egyptian women depended on their male relatives. There were not many female pharaohs, but it was possible for a woman to have the most important position in the Egyptian state.

The vast majority of Egyptian women, however, spent their time in the fields and lived out their lives as wives and mothers. Egyptian women generally married as teenagers to men chosen by their parents. Because marriage was often linked to business and control of land, there were times when an Egyptian girl might be expected to marry her own brother to keep wealth in the family. The life expectancy of Egyptian women was thought to be around 40, largely because of the risks associated with childbirth in the ancient world.

Nevertheless, it is hard to ignore the fact that the history of ancient Egypt is full of famous and powerful women, such as Nefertiti, the wife of the pharaoh Akhenaten, who may have been pharaoh for a short time after her husband died; Hatshepsut; and Cleopatra, the last pharaoh of Egypt.



Source 20 This bust of Cleopatra was created during her time as the last pharaoh of Egypt.

2.6 SOURCE STUDY

Egyptian women



Source 21 Tomb art showing Egyptian women celebrating at a feast

INTERPRET

- 1 Look at Source 21. Identify the wealthy women and the attending slaves or servants in this image and write a short description of the scene.

Slaves in ancient Egypt

Slaves became increasingly common from the time of the Middle Kingdom, either captured during battles or traded by slave merchants. The tomb relief in Source 22 provides evidence of slaves captured during a battle with a rival civilisation to the south of Egypt known as Nubia. Slaves worked as labourers, government administrators, and servants for wealthy Egyptians, or served in temples and royal households. The slaves who suffered the most were those sent to mine gold and copper in the desert mines of northern Africa, where a great many died from malnutrition (lack of proper food), overwork and dehydration.

Contrary to popular belief, the pyramids were not built by slave labour. As mentioned earlier, the evidence suggests that the source of labour for building pyramids and other major projects was farmers and other workers who were employed during flood seasons.



Source 22 A stone relief from a tomb showing Nubian slaves, Egyptian guards and Egyptian scribes



SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

When communicating an effective explanation, it's essential to include sources as supporting evidence. Develop a persuasive response so that the audience is convinced that your argument is foolproof.

2.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Who is at the top of Egyptian society and who is at the very bottom?
- 2 What are the duties of the chief priest?
- 3 How was the role of the vizier different from that of a nomarch?
- 4 List the people who you think were members of the Egyptian middle class.
- 5 Even though Egyptian women had a great deal of equality with men, there were limits to what they could do. What were they?
- 6 How could people from other societies become slaves in Egypt?
- 7 List the type of work that slaves undertook in ancient Egypt.

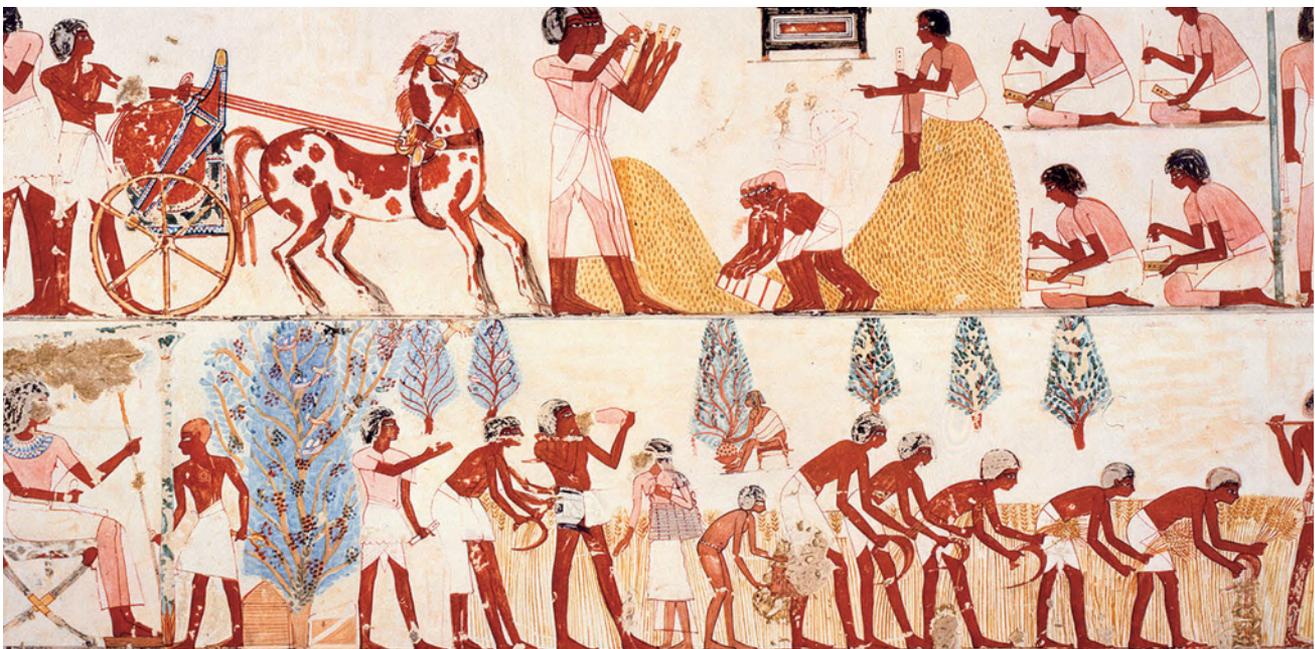
APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 8 Using Source 19 as a reference, write a paragraph that describes the structure of ancient Egyptian society.
- 9 What does this hierarchy reveal about Egyptian society? In your response, consider the importance of religion, the economy and whether or not the social structure was fair.

GO DEEPER

- 10 Conduct research and write a 250-word biography of one of the famous Egyptian women listed below. In the biography, note how they came to power, list their achievements and make a judgment about their performance as rulers. You will therefore divide your biography into informative and persuasive text. Include two primary sources as supporting evidence.

- Hatshepsut
- Nefertiti
- Twosret
- Cleopatra VII



Source 23 A painting from the Tomb of Menna showing farming activities: (top) measuring and recording of the processed wheat by scribes; (bottom) harvesting wheat with sickles, with Menna attending at the far left

2B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 15 marks = 500 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW WAS ANCIENT EGYPTIAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Egypt

1 Write a paragraph on each of the following aspects of everyday life in ancient Egypt, to describe the experiences of men, women and children. Consider:

- the role of the Nile in people's lives
- housing, clothing and leisure pursuits
- education. (15 marks)

» Outline how ancient Egyptian society was organised and governed including the roles of law and religion

2 Outline the social hierarchy in ancient Egypt, including the key social groups. (10 marks)

» Describe the roles of key groups in ancient Egyptian society, such as the rulers, officials, women and slaves

3 Describe the roles of the pharaoh and explain the importance of the pharaoh. (5 marks)

4 Outline the roles and responsibilities of the pharaohs' officials. (5 marks)

5 In ancient Egypt, what were the roles of:

- a women (5 marks)
- b slaves? (5 marks)

Total marks [/45]

Check your Student [ebook](#) [access](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Rich task

A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher [ebook](#) [access](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Answers

Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

WHAT DID ANCIENT EGYPTIANS BELIEVE?

2.7 RELIGIOUS BELIEFS IN ANCIENT EGYPT

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Egypt are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

mummification

the process of preserving a dead body by preventing its natural decay; a body was mummified by removing internal organs and drying out the remaining body tissue

polytheism

a belief in many gods

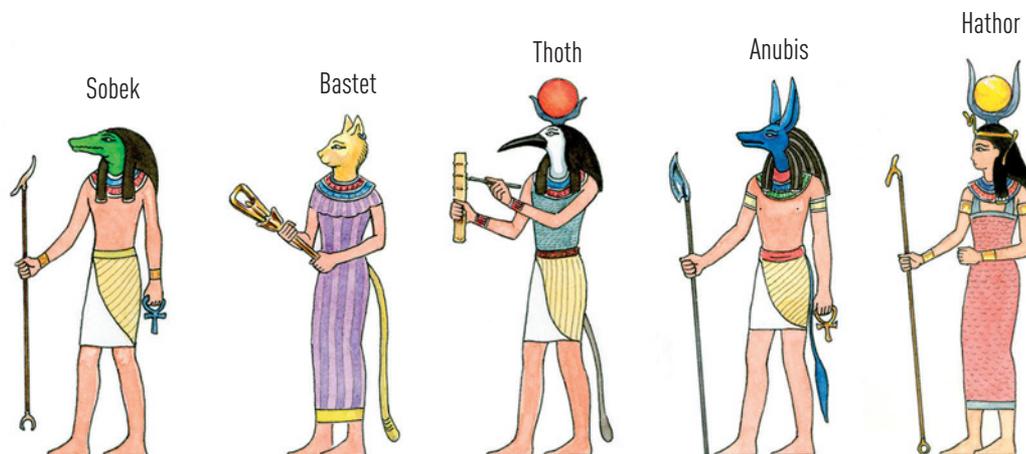
The people of ancient Egypt believed in gods and goddesses who created the world and controlled the forces of nature. Their religious beliefs influenced their daily lives and affected aspects of Egyptian warfare. They played a central role in ancient Egyptian burial and funerary customs, including **mummification** and the building of the pyramids as tombs for their pharaohs.

The ancient Egyptians were **polytheistic**, meaning that they believed in many different gods and goddesses. Religion dominated the lives of ancient Egyptians. They believed their pharaoh was a living god on Earth and their link to the spirit world.

Gods and goddesses

Egyptians believed in hundreds of gods and goddesses who controlled almost every aspect of their lives, including fertility, wisdom, love, music and dance, health and childbirth. Gods and goddesses were sometimes depicted as animals in human form, as shown in Source 1. The main god in Egyptian mythology was Ra (or Re), the Sun god. It was thought the Sun was a boat that Ra rowed across the sky each day (see Source 2).

The ancient Egyptians built many temples to honour their gods. In these temples, priests and priestesses served the deities who were believed to live there. They burned incense and made offering to the gods, which often involved the ritual sacrifice of animals.



Source 1 A modern artist's illustration of some of the most popular Egyptian gods

The depiction of Egyptian gods



Source 3

In the beginning there was a huge ocean called Nun. Ra, the creator god, let out a deep breath and created his son Shu, the god of the air. From his saliva, he created his daughter Tefnut, the goddess of moisture. He then moved across the water and land appeared. He stood on the land and ordered animal and plant species to come out of the ocean. Later, he created people from his tears.

From a translated legend of the ancient Egyptians

INTERPRET

- 1 What did ancient Egyptians believe, according to the evidence provided by Sources 2 and 3?
- 2 What is the value of these sources for historians studying religion? Consider the central positioning of Ra, Nut and Geb in Source 2 and the representation of both men and women.
- 3 What are the limitations of these sources? Consider whether or not all gods have been represented and whether there could be other religious beliefs and rituals that aren't shown here.

Source 2 This ancient painting shows some of the main gods of ancient Egypt. Ra is the figure in the green boat; a symbol of the Sun is shown on his head. The figure arched over Ra is Nut, the universal mother. The Earth god Geb is stretched underneath her; his angled limbs suggest the mountains and valleys of the land.

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Different sources provide contrasting perspectives or insights. As historians, it's important to consider how useful or valuable sources are, but also to think about what evidence is missing.

2.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 List some of the main gods of ancient Egypt.
- 2 How important was religion to the ancient Egyptians? Think about whether religion extended to every aspect of life (the home, love, natural resources, war) and what this indicates.

GO DEEPER

- 3 Use digital and other resources to research the deities shown in Source 1. Present your findings in a table format that shows:
 - the deities' names
 - the animals they were linked to and how they were depicted
 - their qualities and what the ancient Egyptians believed they controlled.
- 4 Monotheistic (single-god) religions are widespread in the world today. As a class, discuss how you think a polytheistic culture would be different from a monotheistic culture.

EMPATHETIC
UNDERSTANDING

We're often fascinated by the Egyptian afterlife beliefs and practices. However, mummification and following strict burial procedures were extremely important to the people of the time.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Cats were sacred animals in Egyptian mythology. Egyptians would go into deep mourning when a cat died, shaving their eyebrows to show their loss. Cat mummies and cat cemeteries from ancient times have been found along the Nile River.



Source 4 A mummified cat

2.8 BURIAL RITUALS AND BELIEFS
ABOUT DEATH

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Egypt are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

To ancient Egyptians, death was not seen as the end. They believed that those who were worthy would journey to a different existence in the afterlife, so the proper preservation of bodies by mummification and burial rituals were very important. Source 5 shows how bodies were preserved using the process of mummification.

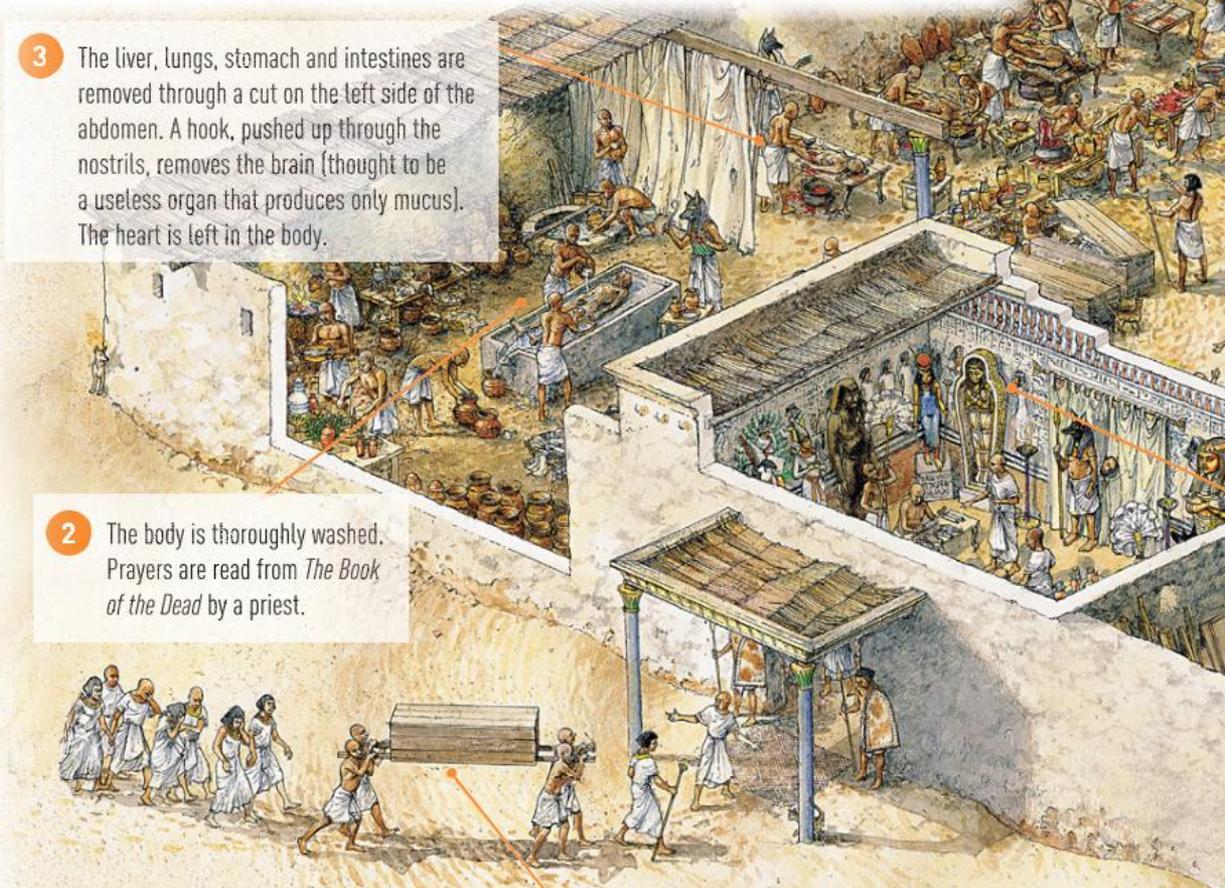
Proper burial rituals were so important that Egyptian soldiers were afraid to die on foreign soil, where their bodies would be left to rot in the open. To avoid this, mercenaries (foreign soldiers paid to fight) were typically used in Egypt's battles away from their territories.

The special prayers and spells needed to protect the dead and allow them to reach the afterlife were documented in *The Book of the Dead*. A copy would be buried with the body so the dead person would have the secret knowledge needed to reach the afterlife. Spells were also carved on tomb walls and inside coffins.

3 The liver, lungs, stomach and intestines are removed through a cut on the left side of the abdomen. A hook, pushed up through the nostrils, removes the brain (thought to be a useless organ that produces only mucus). The heart is left in the body.

2 The body is thoroughly washed. Prayers are read from *The Book of the Dead* by a priest.

1 The dead body is followed by mourners as it is brought for mummification.



Source 5 An artist's impression of the mummification process used in ancient Egypt

2.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Explain why religion affected so many aspects of the ancient Egyptians' everyday life.
- 2 Explain why the people of ancient Egypt placed great importance on mummification and other burial rituals.
- 3 Create a flow chart to summarise the process of mummification.

4 The internal organs are dried in natron (a natural powder, a bit like salt), rubbed with fragrant oils and put into four **canopic jars**. Each jar's lid is shaped like the head of a different god, who acts as the guardian of the organ within; the liver has a lid like a man's head; the lungs, a baboon's head; the stomach, a jackal's head; and the intestines, a falcon's head.

5 The body is then covered with salt for 70 days. This, and the dry air, sucks out any moisture. The body is washed again in water and smeared with fragrant oil.

6 Once the body has been **embalmed**, it is wrapped with rolls of fine linen (similar to bandages), starting with the head and neck. Toes and fingers are wrapped separately, and sometimes covered with gold caps. Sacred **amulets** such as the scarab are wound into the bandaging. During the wrapping, prayers from *The Book of the Dead* are said over the body.

7 The fully bandaged **mummy** is painted with sticky resin and then more cloth is wrapped around it.

8 The mummy is put into a body-shaped coffin. Often more than one coffin is used, each one sitting inside the next. For important people such as a pharaoh, the nest of coffins is placed inside a stone box, called a **sarcophagus**.

canopic jar

a jar used in ancient Egypt to store body parts removed during the mummification process

embalm

to preserve from decay with spices

amulet

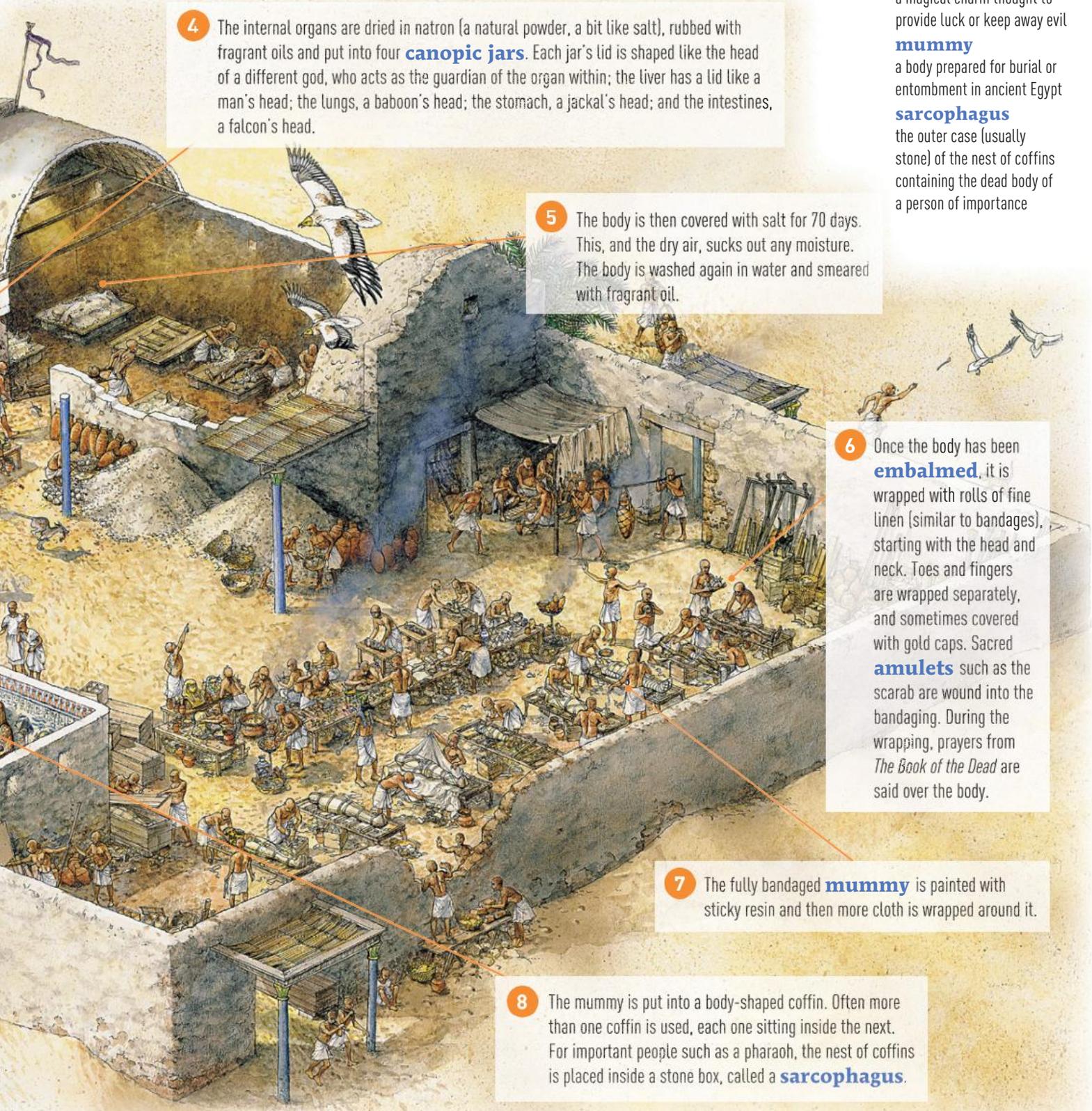
a magical charm thought to provide luck or keep away evil

mummy

a body prepared for burial or entombment in ancient Egypt

sarcophagus

the outer case (usually stone) of the nest of coffins containing the dead body of a person of importance



2.9 THE PYRAMIDS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Egypt are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

The burial rituals of pharaohs were elaborate, and from the beginning of the Old Kingdom to the end of the Middle Kingdom, pyramids were built as tombs for the pharaohs. More than 160 pyramids have been found. The Great Pyramid at Giza is the only remaining wonder of the ancient world. It was built as the tomb of the pharaoh Khufu over a period of 20 years and completed around 2550 BC (see Source 6).

Entombing the mummified body and artefacts of the pharaoh was meant to ensure they would remain undisturbed for eternity. Barriers were built in the pyramids to stop robbers from stealing the pharaoh's treasures. These included false doors, dead-end passages, very low ceilings, tunnels blocked with rubble or massive rocks, deep pits and the statues of the most-feared gods at doorways. However, tomb robbers became a problem and later pharaohs were buried in tombs that were carved into the hillsides of the Valley of the Kings.

Source 6 An artist's impression of the building of the Great Pyramid at Giza; it was originally over 146 metres high and was the world's tallest building for more than 3000 years.

It was generally thought that ramps were used, possibly built around the pyramid or zig-zagging up one side. Recently, a scientific technique called microgravity was used to measure the thickness of parts of the Great Pyramid. It revealed what could be evidence of internal spiral ramps used during construction.

There is some contention among historians about how the Great Pyramid was constructed and this is the focus of the case study in this chapter. There are no surviving texts or manuals on the art of pyramid building. Archaeologists and engineers have worked together to test theories by means of 'experimental archaeology'. This means building small-scale versions of the pyramids using ancient tools and methods.

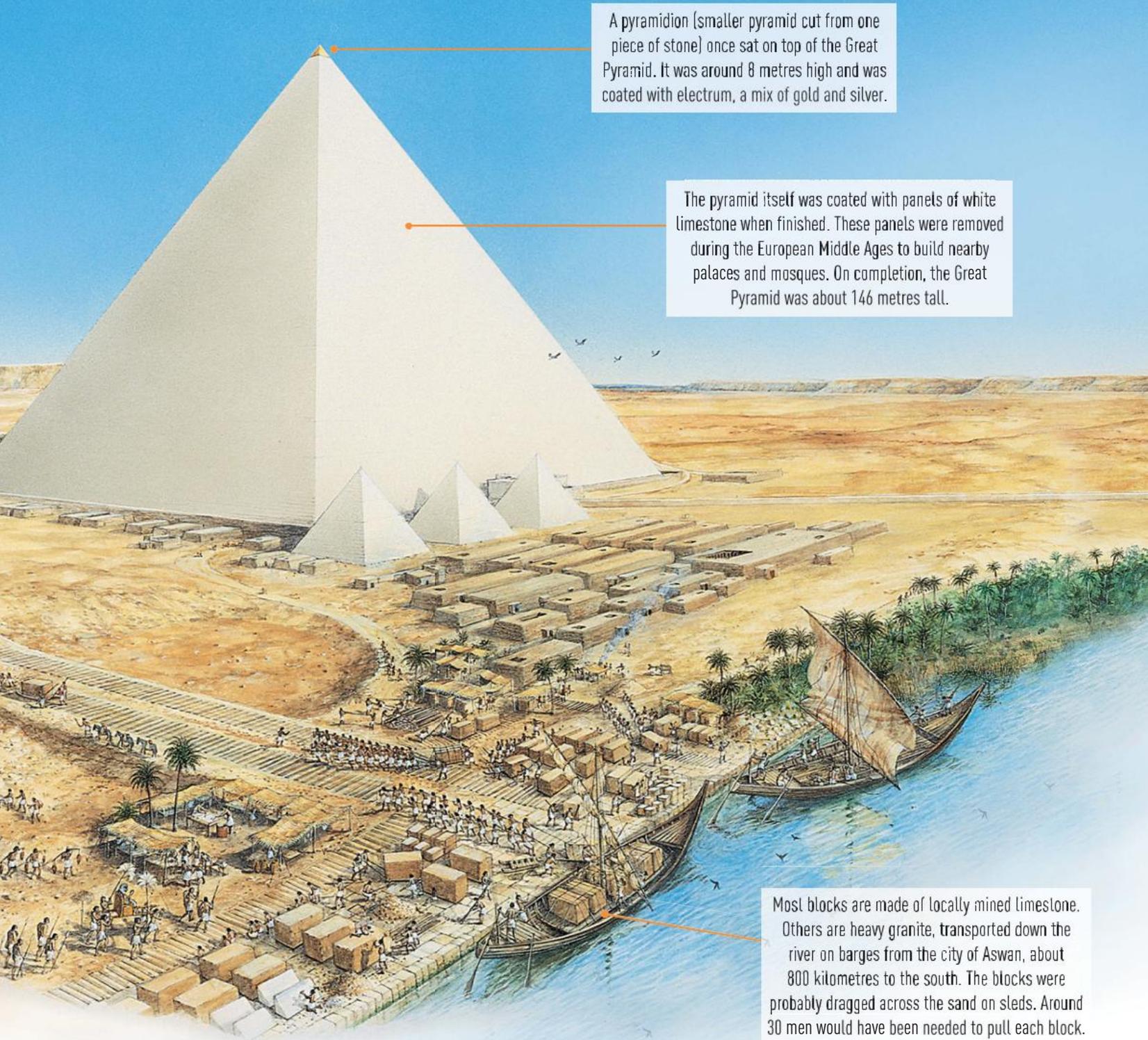
2.9 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Why were pyramids built?
- 2 Where did the materials for the Great Pyramid come from, and how were they transported?

GO DEEPER

- 3 Investigate how pyramid building developed from mastabas (rectangular structures with a flat roof) to pyramids with smooth sides such as the Great Pyramid. Present your findings as a flow chart with detailed labels.



A pyramidion (smaller pyramid cut from one piece of stone) once sat on top of the Great Pyramid. It was around 8 metres high and was coated with electrum, a mix of gold and silver.

The pyramid itself was coated with panels of white limestone when finished. These panels were removed during the European Middle Ages to build nearby palaces and mosques. On completion, the Great Pyramid was about 146 metres tall.

Most blocks are made of locally mined limestone. Others are heavy granite, transported down the river on barges from the city of Aswan, about 800 kilometres to the south. The blocks were probably dragged across the sand on sleds. Around 30 men would have been needed to pull each block.

Construction of the Great Pyramid

History is an investigation. This case study gives you the opportunity to investigate and assess the explanations or theories about the construction of the Great Pyramid.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

The pyramids are a construction marvel. Historians have long disputed various theories regarding how the pyramids were built. As new technologies are developed, new interpretations come to light, challenging earlier beliefs.



Source 7 The pyramids at Giza

The giant ramp theory

One of the earliest theories about the building of the Great Pyramid was that a large, single ramp was used to move stones up to each new level of the pyramid. The key criticism of such a ramp is that it would have been a bigger building project than the construction of the pyramid itself. A single, linear ramp might have worked in the early stages of construction for the lower levels, as shown in Source 6, but it is unlikely to have been used later for the higher levels. Although there is evidence of many smaller ramps, there is no archaeological evidence of this kind of giant ramp.

Erich von Daniken's theory

In 1967, a Swiss hotel manager named Erich von Daniken presented his theory that aliens built the Great Pyramid. In his book *Chariots of the Gods*, he exploited the fact that there were many questions but a lack of evidence about how the pyramid was built. He rejected all the existing research and claimed that the Great Pyramid was the work of an alien people from outer space. Von Daniken offered no explanation about how aliens could have achieved this.

Von Daniken doesn't account for the changes in pyramid styles. He ignores the fact that Pharaoh Khufu had seen his father, Sneferu, try different construction techniques with the Meidum, Bent and Red Pyramids. Sneferu had abandoned the first two due to construction problems, meaning that there is evidence of humans refining techniques before building the Great Pyramid. Von Daniken ignores this evidence.

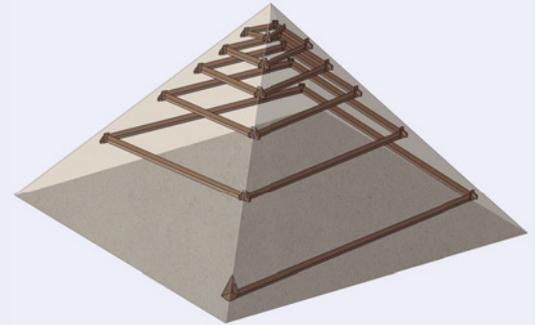
The book was followed by a film documentary in 1970, seen by millions of people, and another book, *Gods from Outer Space*, published in 1971. Not only has von Daniken's theory been sensational, it has been personally profitable for him, and he continues to promote his theory at conferences, claiming alien intervention in ancient civilisations.

Spiral or zig-zag ramps

Recently, historians have updated theories about how the pyramids were built. For a long time it was thought that a spiral ramp was built to wrap round the pyramid, or that zig-zag ramps were built up one side. Newer interpretations suggest that instead of one large ramp, small ramps were used for each stage of the pyramid's construction. The debate is now about what kind of smaller ramps were used. One side of the debate is based on external ramps, with the other side suggesting an internal ramp.

Jean-Pierre Houdin's theory

In 2006 French architect Jean-Pierre Houdin suggested that an internal ramp that became part of the interior core of the pyramid was a possible part of the construction process. His view was supported in 2008 by Egyptologist Professor Bob Brier in a book called *The Secret of the Great Pyramid*. The idea is that at the end of the ramp a space would have been temporarily left open in the outer wall of the pyramid and then sealed as the stones were put in place. Houdin's idea remains a theory, due to a lack of conclusive evidence.



Source 8 Interior ramps may have been used in the construction of the pyramids. Thermal imaging suggests a different density of stone and the possibility of a ramp inside the pyramid.

The find at Hatnub

In 2018, a ramp contraption was found at an alabaster quarry at Hatnub, about 350 kilometres south of the Great Pyramid. The ramp is short and very steep, with steps and post holes on either side of it. The conclusion drawn by Dr Yannis Gourdon from the French Institute of Oriental Archaeology was that workers using the steps and posts set in the post holes would have had enough leverage to be able to move heavy stones up short, steep ramps. Because the quarry was in use at the time of the construction of the Great Pyramid, researchers have drawn conclusions that the same method may have been used in building the pyramid.



Source 9 This 4500-year-old ramp contraption, discovered at Hatnub, may shed light on how ancient Egyptians hauled massive blocks into place when building the Great Pyramid.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

GO DEEPER

- 1 Consider the arguments in the case study and conduct your own research to decide how the Great Pyramid was built. While doing so, reflect on why von Daniken's ideas continue to appeal to a wide audience. In the process consider: 'How did the Egyptian pyramid builders move stones to the top of the Great Pyramid?' Could they have used:
 - a long straight ramp built outside the pyramid
 - spiral or zig-zag ramps built outside the pyramid
 - cranes based on the design of the *shaduf* to lift stones
 - an internal spiral ramp built into the pyramid?

When investigating historical mysteries, there is rarely a single or simple explanation. You will need to research, think and provide reasons for your response.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the construction of the pyramids and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

2C

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

WHAT DID ANCIENT EGYPTIANS BELIEVE?

» Explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Egypt are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs

- 1 Identify the term used to describe religion in ancient Egypt and explain its meaning. (3 marks)
- 2 Explain Egyptian beliefs about the role of gods and goddesses in their everyday life, including examples. (10 marks)
- 3 What did Egyptians believe about death? (5 marks)
- 4 Explain how beliefs about death influenced:
 - a burial rituals in ancient Egypt (5 marks)
 - b the burial of pharaohs in ancient Egypt (5 marks)
 - c warfare in ancient Egypt. (2 marks)

Total marks [/30]

Check your Student [eBook](#) [Assess](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz

Check your Teacher [eBook](#) [Assess](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Checkpoint worksheets

Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

Source 10 Egyptian mummies were wrapped in several layers of cloth.

2D

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE EGYPT AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Despite significant religious changes during the reign of Akhenaten, the evidence suggests that traditional polytheistic beliefs and practices continued in private. Akhenaten's son, Tutankhamun, has elements of the traditional and new religions in his tomb.

monotheism
a belief in one god

Source 1
A statue of the pharaoh Akhenaten



2.10 AKHENATEN'S ONE GOD: ATEN

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Egypt.

Exchanges of ideas and goods between ancient Egyptians and other societies were common in times of peace, through trade and migration. At other times, Egyptians went to war to expand their influence, creating empires and increasing trade. They also suffered invasion and rule by other peoples. Conflict within Egypt's own borders divided the rule of Egypt, which later reunited under one pharaoh. Under the rule of the pharaoh Akhenaten, Egyptian religion underwent a revolutionary change, affecting the beliefs and lives of the people he ruled.

Akhenaten is one of the most mysterious and fascinating of all the Egyptian pharaohs. He ruled between c. 1352 and 1336 BC. His wife Nefertiti is equally well known. The people of ancient Egypt worshipped many gods, but during his reign Akhenaten declared that there was to be only one god, the Sun god Aten. This revolutionary change from a polytheistic religion to a **monotheistic** religion in Egypt is known as the Amarna period.

The Sun, represented by the god Ra, had been part of Egyptian religion for generations. However, Akhenaten changed the traditional nature of Sun worship. Aten, who was considered one aspect of Ra, was portrayed as the Sun's disc, with rays coming from the disc ending in hands to symbolise the giving of life (see Source 2). Surviving images show Akhenaten and the royal family as the focus of Aten's rays, so some experts have suggested that Akhenaten and his family were to be worshipped as the one link between Aten and the people.

Consequences for the people

With Aten as the one true god, all of the old gods were to be abandoned. Their shrines were to be removed from homes and replaced by shrines to Akhenaten and his family. Temples to the old gods were closed down, and new temples were built to Aten.

Akhenaten moved the centre of power from Memphis and Thebes to a new city built in the desert, called Akhetaten, which means 'the horizon of Aten'. This would have caused major social and economic changes. Cities such as Thebes had depended on the wealth generated by worship of the gods, where temples were regularly given donations from people who wanted to gain the blessing of the gods.

Craftsmen, such as stone masons and wood carvers, had made a living by producing statues and shrines for the different gods. Akhenaten's new religion also affected traditional Egyptian beliefs about the afterlife. People worried that there might not be a next life if the old gods were abandoned.

Despite Akhenaten's changes, it is unlikely that the ordinary Egyptian people suddenly changed the habits and beliefs of a lifetime. There is evidence that the old gods continued to be worshipped in private. Even in Akhetaten, archaeologists have found statues, rings and pendants devoted to the old gods.

2.10 SOURCE STUDY

Images of Akhenaten



Source 2 A stone carving showing Akhenaten, Nefertiti and their children under the rays of the Sun god, Aten

One of the most intriguing things about Akhenaten and this period in Egyptian history was the radical change in artistic styles, particularly the way that the pharaoh and his family were depicted. In the past, pharaohs had been shown as powerful, good-looking figures. Akhenaten was depicted as being at equal level with his surroundings, and shown with a pot belly and an unusually long head and nose. Unlike traditional portrayals of royal families, Akhenaten's family are shown displaying affection for each other.

INTERPRET

- 1 Look at Source 2.
 - a How does this portrayal of the royal family differ from the way pharaohs had been portrayed before this?
 - b What does the image of Aten symbolise in terms of ancient Egypt's religion in this period?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Akhenaten's son was named Tutankhaten so that they both had a reference to Aten in their name. After Akhenaten's death, Tutankhaten's name was changed to Tutankhamun, reflecting the worship of Amun, the god who created the universe.

After Akhenaten

Akhenaten reigned for about 16 years, and not long after his death the old gods and old ways returned. Akhetaten was abandoned, and Memphis and Thebes again became centres of government and religion. Akhenaten was succeeded by Smenkhkare, a shadowy figure whom some believe might have been Nefertiti. Smenkhkare was followed by Akhenaten and Nefertiti's son Tutankhamun. All traces of Akhenaten were removed from monuments and the city of Akhetaten gradually crumbled back into the desert. Akhenaten and his immediate successors remained virtually unknown until the archaeological discoveries of Akhetaten and Tutankhamun's tomb.

2.10 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 What changes did Akhenaten make to ancient Egypt's religion?
- 2 Why were the changes unpopular among ordinary Egyptians?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 Why do you think Akhenaten made these changes?

2.11 CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS WITH OTHER SOCIETIES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within the ancient world
- describe significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts with other societies
- explain the legacy of the ancient Egyptians.

Trade

Egyptian traders exchanged goods with other ancient societies to bring in goods and resources that could not be produced along the Nile or in the deserts of Egypt. Trade routes were established along the Mediterranean Sea, overland to Nubia and other parts of Africa, and to Retenu (the region known to Egyptians as Canaan and Syria), as shown in Source 4.

Ancient Egypt had abundant resources to trade. In exchange for goods such as grain, papyrus, flax, fish, and stone for building, Egyptian traders brought back exotic goods such as incense, ivory, and ostrich eggs and feathers. Trading contacts also brought back resources such as gold, horses and camels that helped ancient Egypt to develop and prosper.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

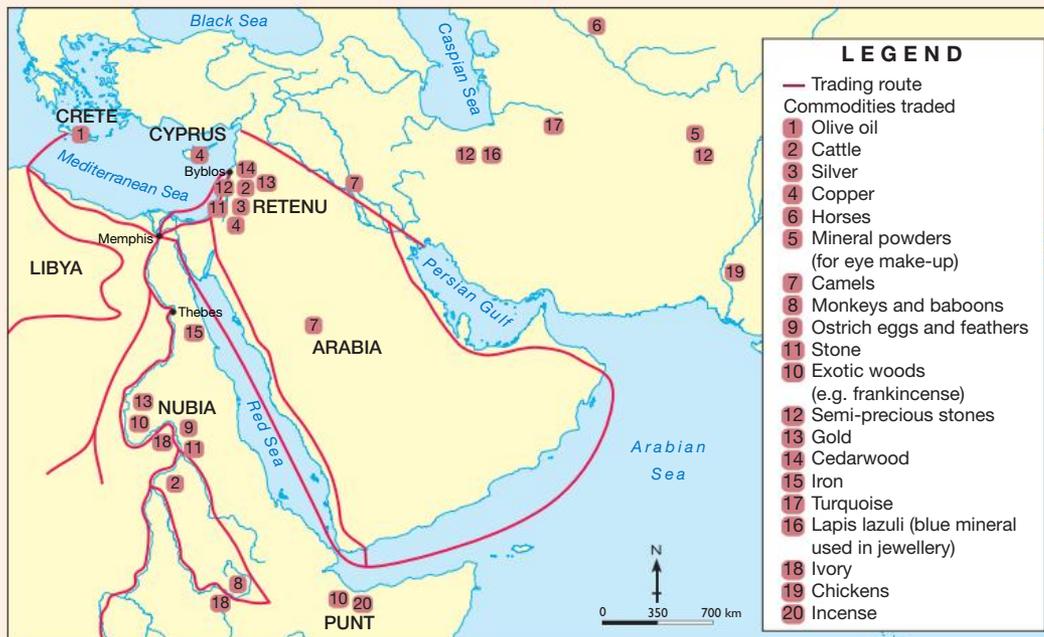
A dagger made from extra-terrestrial material was found in Tutankhamun's tomb. This doesn't mean that the Egyptians traded with people from other planets! Scientists believe that the dagger was made from a meteorite that landed 240 kilometres west of Alexandria.



Source 3
Tutankhamun's dagger made from meteoritic iron

2.11A SOURCE STUDY

Trade routes of the ancient Egyptians



Source 4 Some of the key trade routes and goods that were imported to ancient Egypt

INTERPRET

- 1 Which goods were brought to Egypt from Nubia and Retenu?
- 2 Conduct research using an atlas or online map and list the modern countries in these two regions.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Rameses II lived to be 96 years old. He had 200 wives and mistresses. With these women he is believed to have fathered 156 children.

The rule of the Hyksos

The Hyksos (which means 'foreign rulers') were a group of people who seized power in the north of Egypt when Egypt's Middle Kingdom pharaohs were less powerful. It is disputed whether the Hyksos invaded Egypt, or whether a Hyksos population already existed in Egypt as immigrant settlers, possibly from the region of Canaan (see Source 5).

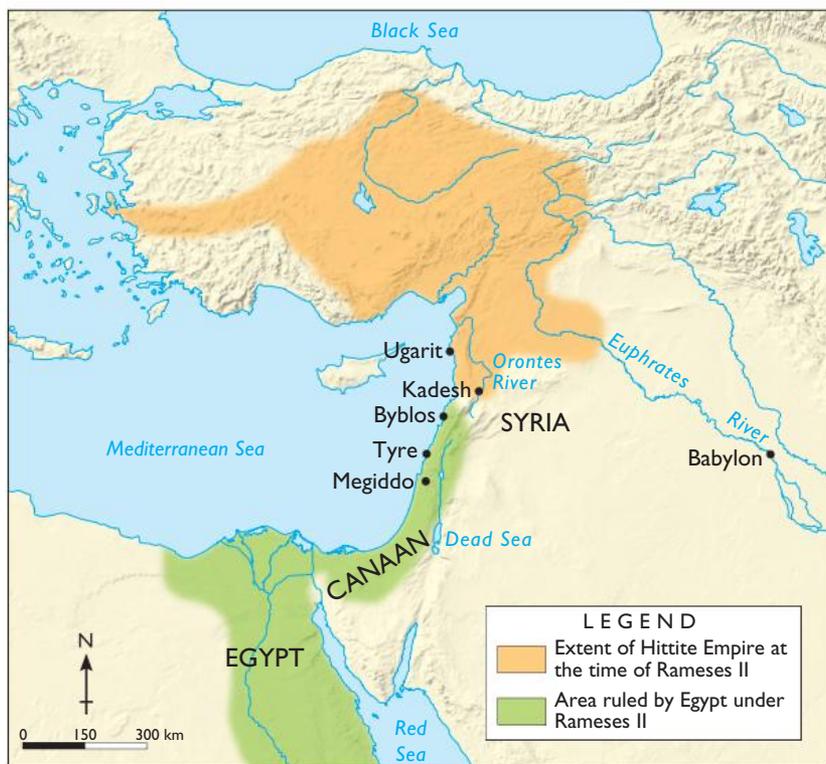
The Hyksos brought new ideas about warfare to the ancient Egyptians. They introduced new military equipment and weapons, and new techniques in warfare, including the use of horses. Pharaoh Thutmose III used these innovations and developed Egypt's first professional army. These advances would become a significant influence in Egypt's military success during the New Kingdom.

Expansion of Egypt under Seti I and Rameses II

The period of Egyptian history known as the New Kingdom, from around 1500 to 1069 BC, was a time of great expansion for Egypt. This is considered to be the height of Egypt's power and influence. Two of its greatest leaders were Seti I and Rameses II.

The pharaoh Seti I fought battles in Canaan, Syria, Libya and Nubia in a bid to increase Egypt's power and prestige. He temporarily reclaimed the city of Kadesh, which had been lost to the neighbouring Hittite Empire since the time of Akhenaten.

One of the high points of Egyptian military power came during the reign of Rameses II, the son of Seti I. He would become known as Rameses the Great because of his military feats. In 1275 BC, Rameses II proclaimed victory over the Hittite Empire at the Battle of Kadesh, in what is thought to be the largest chariot battle in history.



Source 5 Egypt's expanded territory during the reign of Rameses II

In the years that followed, Rameses II extended the scope of his military power south into Nubia in southern Egypt and the Sudan. He also expanded Egyptian influence westward into modern Libya.

Rameses II was a great warrior, and also a master at promoting his image as a leader who always won his wars. He built many great monuments and temples to himself, including the Abu Simbel temple and monuments that were carved out of solid rock.

Historians have questioned whether Rameses II was as great as the monuments and images suggest, with recently discovered artefacts, reflecting the perspective of the Hittites, mocking his claims of a victory at Kadesh.

Rameses II – the great self-promoter

Source 6

Two thousand and five hundred pairs of horses were
around,
And I [Rameses II] flew into the middle of their ring,
By my horse-hoofs they were dashed all in pieces to
the ground,
None raised his hand in fight,
For the courage in their breasts had sunken quite;
And their limbs were loosed for fear,
And they could not hurl the dart,
And they had not any heart
To use the spear;
And I cast them to the water,
Just as crocodiles fall in from the bank,
So they sank.

*Translated extract from a poem by Pen-ta-ur, 'The Victory of
Rameses II over the Khita', written about 1326 BC*



Source 7 A tomb painting of Rameses II

INTERPRET

Rameses II portrayed himself as a great leader in the images he ordered to be created in stone carvings and paintings, as well as texts such as the poem in Source 6. Study Sources 6 and 7 to answer the following questions.

- 1 What symbols in Source 7 show that the image portrays a pharaoh?
- 2 How do the sources in this chapter portray Rameses II?
- 3 What message did Rameses II send to the ancient Egyptians in the way he is portrayed in these sources?
- 4 Why must historians be cautious when using evidence from Rameses II?

Ancient Egypt's decline

Egypt came under the rule of invaders during the Late Dynastic period (1070–332 BC), all of whom left their cultural influences on Egypt. Rule by Libyans and invaders from Nubia, Assyria and Persia came to an end in 323 BC when Alexander the Great defeated the Persians. Alexander set up the Ptolemaic Dynasty, Egypt's last pharaohs.

Ancient Egypt's legacy

Ancient Egyptian society left behind reminders of its greatness in its monuments, pyramids and temples. Even greater legacies than the physical remains are the new ideas, inventions and refinements in technology that influenced other ancient societies, including the Greeks, Romans and further generations long after the desert sands had reclaimed Egypt's material wealth. In order to build an empire that dominated the region for centuries, the ancient Egyptians needed a solid economic, social and administrative foundation. The development of the plough, irrigation and flood control in ancient Egypt ensured plentiful and reliable sources of food. The first **legacy** of the Egyptians was a prosperous and stable society that made all their other achievements possible. Their ideas,

legacy

something passed down or received from an ancestor or predecessor (e.g. a language, way of doing something)

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Egyptian hieroglyphs were not deciphered until the nineteenth century. Only with the discovery of the Rosetta Stone in 1799 and its translation in 1822 by Frenchman Jean-François Champollion was their meaning finally unlocked.

aspects of philosophy and religion, and their understanding of mathematics and the sciences are likely to outlast Egypt's legacy in stone:

- Egyptians developed one of the world's earliest forms of writing. The refinement of hieroglyphs and use of papyrus made record-keeping easier.
- Egyptian craftsmen led the world in stonework and metalwork.
- The pharaohs' architects and engineers took building to new levels. The pyramids – perhaps the best-known symbol and legacy of ancient Egypt – were the product of advanced mathematics and geometry.
- The ancient Egyptians were keen observers of the heavens and left records reflecting an understanding of astronomy.
- Egyptian doctors, dentists and veterinarians displayed advanced skills. Egyptian medicine reflected a sophisticated understanding of anatomy and used physicians' drugs and surgery to treat illness and injury.
- The first recorded example of monotheistic religion is found in the Amarna period under the pharaoh Akhenaten. Monotheism was a revolution in the way people thought about religion.



Source 8 A medical prescription written on papyrus from c. 1500–1300 bc

2.11 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Create a concept map to summarise your knowledge about Egypt's contacts with other societies.
- 2 What was the foundation of Egypt's legacy?
- 3 List the key aspects of Egypt's legacy.
- 4 What do you think was Egypt's greatest legacy? Explain your answer.

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE EGYPT AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

» Assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Egypt

- 1 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of their role in ancient Egypt. Consider aspects of their rule, such as:
 - military career and victories
 - influence on religious beliefs
 - changes to laws and government
 - changes to the structure of society
 - influence on social organisation and customs. (20 marks)

» Identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within the ancient world

- 2 Identify a time of revolutionary change in ancient Egypt's religious beliefs and practices, including the reasons for the change and the pharaoh responsible for the change. (5 marks)
- 3 What were the consequences of this period for ancient Egypt? (10 marks)

» Describe significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest

- 4 Identify trade routes that existed between ancient Egypt and other societies. (5 marks)
- 5 Identify the types of goods that were exchanged. (5 marks)
- 6 Describe a period of warfare between ancient Egypt and other societies. (10 marks)
- 7 Identify and describe periods when ancient Egypt came under the rule of invaders from other societies. (5 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts with other societies

- 8 What were the consequences of trade contacts between ancient Egypt and other societies? (5 marks)
- 9 What were the consequences of ancient Egypt's warfare with other societies? (5 marks)

» Explain the legacy of the ancient Egyptians

- 10 Identify and describe four ideas, technologies or physical remains that are legacies of the ancient Egyptians. Explain how each of these legacies has influenced the modern world. (20 marks)

Total marks [/90]

20

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student [ebook](#) [access](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet

Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher [ebook](#) [access](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

QuizletLive

Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.



Source 1 The ancient Greek Temple of Concordia was built in the fifth century BC.

3 ANCIENT GREECE

Ancient Greece was not a unified country with a single national government. Instead, it was a collection of small independent city-states. The most famous of these were Athens, Sparta and Corinth. The city-states all shared a common language and culture. From c. 800 BC, the Greeks set out to establish colonies in new lands. In doing so, they spread Greek culture well beyond the shores of Greece. Our understanding of ancient Greece comes mainly from accounts by Herodotus (c. 484–425/413 BC) and Thucydides (c. 460–400 BC). Between them, they built the foundation for recording the past in the Western tradition. Although Herodotus and Thucydides wrote about different events and were separated by more than 50 years, they spent most of their time in Athens. So it is important to note that they both wrote from an Athenian perspective. It is fair to say that much of what we call ancient Greek history is really ancient Athenian history.

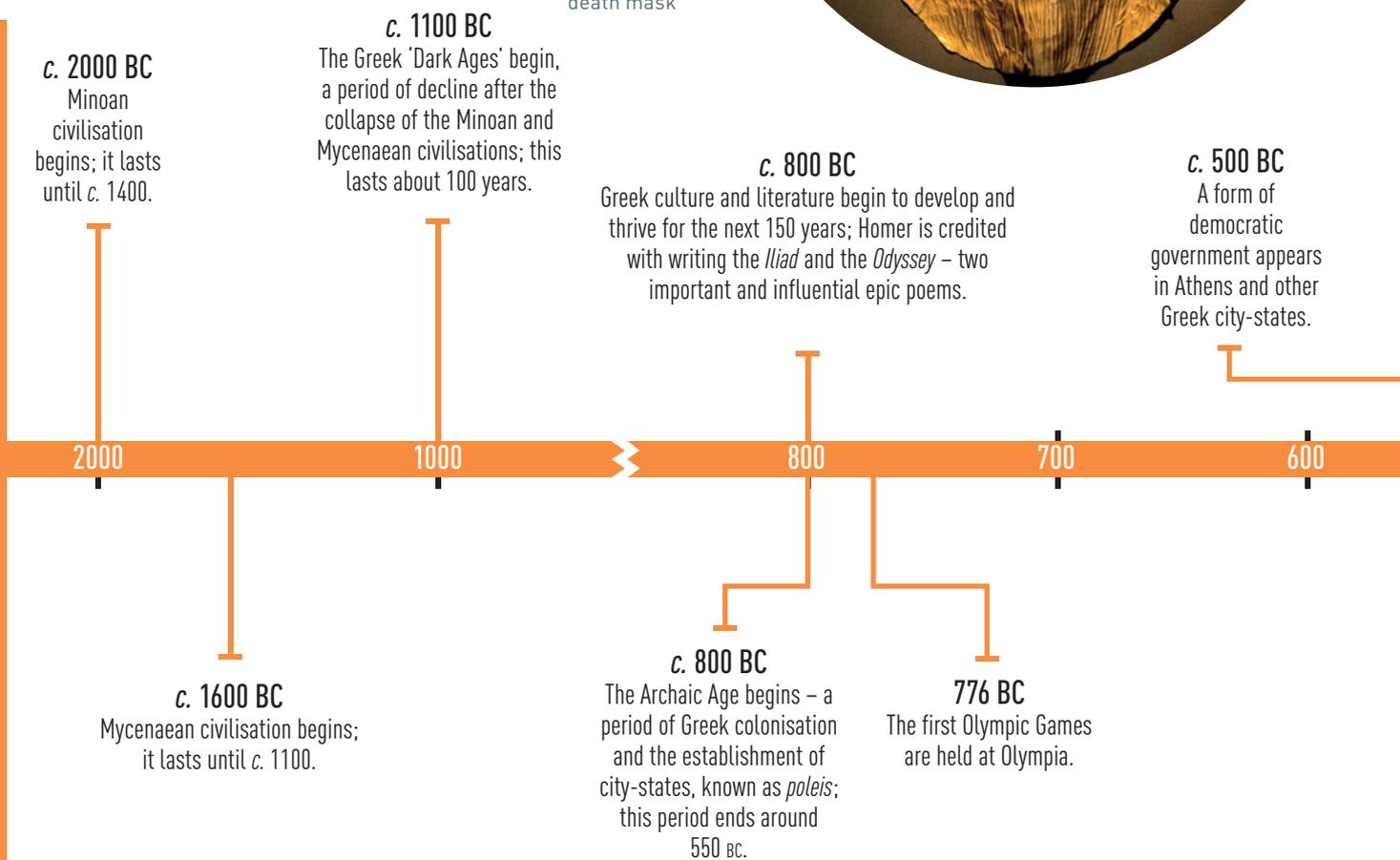
The legacy of ancient Greece is all around us. Our ideas about democracy, education, the arts, sciences, philosophy (the formal ways we think and argue), architecture, medicine, the law, the theatre and parts of our language can all be traced back to the ancient Greeks.

ANCIENT GREECE – A TIMELINE



Source 2 A Mycenaean death mask

T I M E L I N E



TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- Place the following events in chronological order:
 - Alexander the Great conquers a vast empire
 - the Persians attempt to conquer Greece
 - Homer writes the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*
 - Athens establishes democracy
 - the Greek 'Dark Ages'
 - the collapse of Mycenaean civilisation
- Using the information on the timeline, match the clues in Column A with the correct answers in Column B.

Column A	Column B
Peloponnesian Wars	began in Athens
Homer	490 BC
776 BC	431–405 BC
Philip of Macedon	writer of the <i>Iliad</i> and the <i>Odyssey</i>
Democracy	conquered Greece in 338 BC
Greece became part of the Roman Empire	146 BC
2000–1400 BC	Minoan civilisation
Battle of Marathon	first Olympic Games

Source 3 Detail from an ancient Greek vase depicting Nike, goddess of victory, crowning an Olympic athlete with an olive branch



460 BC
Greek historian Herodotus writes his account of the Persian Wars.

431 BC
The Peloponnesian Wars begin, a conflict between the two most powerful Greek city-states: Athens and Sparta; the wars end in 405 BC.

336 BC
Alexander the Great (son of Philip of Macedon) begins his conquest of a vast empire across the eastern Mediterranean and as far as India.

500

400

300

200

100

BC

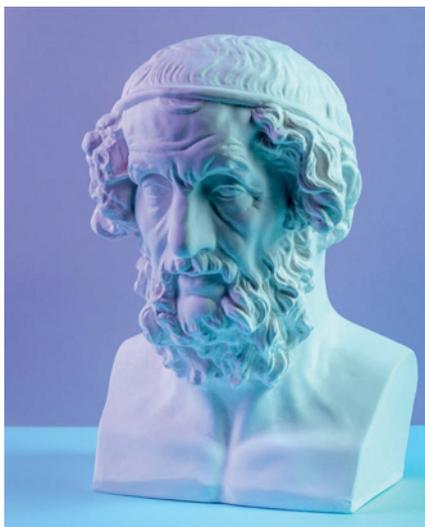
AD

490 BC
The Persian Wars begin, including the defeat of Persia at the Battle of Marathon in 490 BC and ending with the Battle of Salamis in 479 BC.

c. 450 BC
Athenian power reaches its height; construction of the Parthenon on the Acropolis of Athens begins.

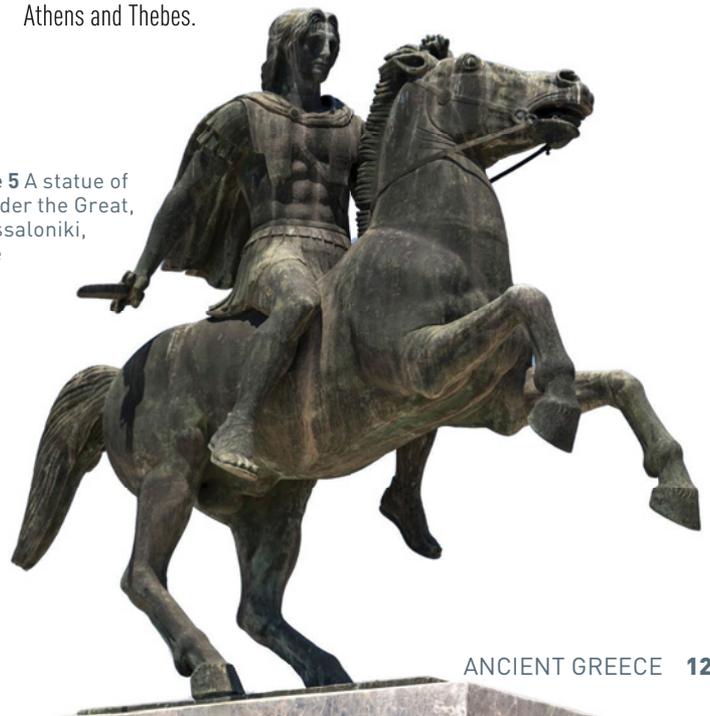
338 BC
Philip II, king of Macedon, takes control of Greece after the decisive Battle of Chaeronea against the combined forces of Athens and Thebes.

c. 197 BC
Rome defeats Macedon and conquers all the Greek city-states by 146; Greece becomes part of the Roman Empire.



Source 4
A marble bust of Homer, who wrote several epic poems

Source 5 A statue of Alexander the Great, in Thessaloniki, Greece



3A

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT GREECE?

3.1 THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT GREECE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Greece
- explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of ancient Greek society.

society

a community of people living in a particular area who have a shared culture, customs and laws

civilisation

a highly organised and complex culture and way of living; there are different forms of civilisation in different places and at different times

city-state

an independent settlement (typical of those in ancient Greece) made up of an inner fortified city surrounded by houses and farmland

colonisation

the process of setting up outposts or settlements in other lands by a country, kingdom or empire, often for reasons of trade or defence

Source 1 A landscape of valleys and mountains in Thessaly, one of the first areas of settlement on mainland Greece

Greece is located in the area around the Aegean Sea, in south-eastern Europe. The first known settlements on Greece's mainland were on the Peloponnesian Peninsula and on the fertile plains of Thessaly. Scattered mud-brick villages built around 7000 BC are evidence of these settlements.

Unlike ancient **societies** in Egypt, Rome and China, the first appearance of Greek **civilisations** was not linked to a major river and fertile river valley. Away from the coastal plains, much of Greece's landscape is rugged and mountainous. This landscape is marked by steep mountains, deep valleys and rivers that are not easily travelled. Settling there would have been very difficult. The Peloponnesian Peninsula is connected to the mainland only by a narrow stretch of land known as the Isthmus of Corinth (see Source 2). This geographical division of Greek settlements encouraged the growth of independent **city-states** on the Greek mainland and islands. They shared a common language and culture, but did not develop into a unified country with one ruler, as was the case in other societies such as ancient Egypt. Source 3 shows the location of Athens, Sparta and other city-states of ancient Greece.

Lack of fertile farmland meant that mainland Greece could not feed its people when the population grew between 1000 BC and 800 BC. As a result, the Greeks had to look beyond the mainland for food and other resources, and this led to **colonisation**.



One of the primary effects of colonisation was the spread of Greek culture well beyond the Greek mainland, across the islands of the Aegean Sea, to areas we now know as Turkey and southern Russia, to north Africa, Sicily and southern Italy, and as far west as Spain and southern France (see Source 2). The Greeks called the colonies *apoikia* or ‘away homes’.

The mountainous terrain of Greece meant it was often easier to travel by sea rather than over land, so the people of ancient Greece became skilled sailors and shipbuilders. This aspect of Greek culture, and the willingness of the ancient Greeks to colonise, was the key to the success of the Greek civilisation. It increased opportunities for trade and added to the wealth of its city-states.

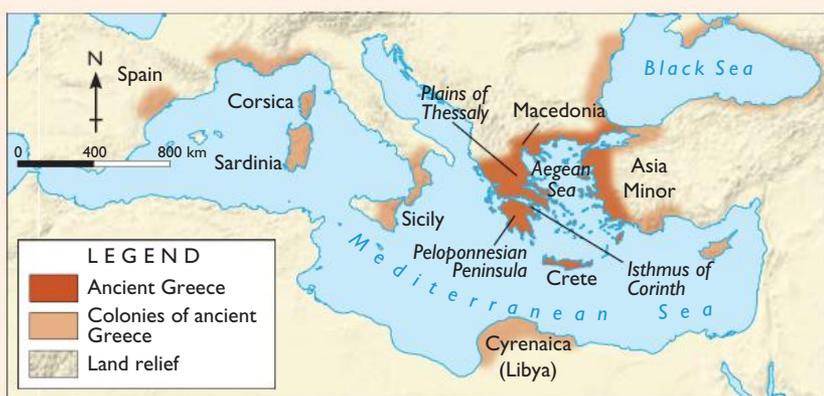
SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

Civilisations need food and water for their societies to flourish. A lack of resources can cause a society to move to a new location or expand their territory in order to survive.

3.1 SOURCE STUDY

The geographical setting of ancient Greece



Source 2 The location of ancient Greece and its colonies

INTERPRET

- Locate the following sites on Sources 2 and 3.
 - Peloponnesian Peninsula
 - Crete
 - Athens
 - Sparta
 - Plataea
 - Marathon
 - Olympia
 - Mycenae
- Use the scales and study the maps to answer these questions.
 - What was the furthest away from the sea that the people of ancient Greece lived?
 - In kilometres, approximately how wide (from west to east) was the territory colonised by the Greeks?



Source 3 Some of the city-states of ancient Greece

CONTESTABILITY

Sometimes historians disagree with interpretations of the past, but history can also be contested when there is a lack of evidence, with historians completing the story through inferences that may or may not be accurate.

Bronze Age

a period in human history after the Stone Age characterised by the use of bronze tools

archaeologist

a person who uncovers and interprets sources from the past, such as the remains of people, buildings and artefacts; archaeologists often take part in archaeological digs

fresco

a type of artwork created by applying paint directly onto fresh, moist plaster

evidence

the information or clues gathered from a historical source; evidence can be used to support a hypothesis (theory) or prove it wrong

artefact

any object that is made or changed by humans (e.g. a primitive tool, remains of a building)

Source 4 Part of the reconstructed Palace of Knossos; bulls feature prominently in decorations in Knossos, perhaps in reference to the legendary minotaur.

The earliest civilisations of Greece

Our study of ancient Greece spans the period from 800 BC to 146 BC, but it is also important to learn about the earlier Minoan and Mycenaean civilisations because many historians agree that the roots of ancient Greek civilisation lay in the **Bronze Age** cultures of the Minoans and the Mycenaeans. These impressive early civilisations are clear examples of the limits of historical knowledge about the past. Aspects of both civilisations are still unknown to us, and may never be known. Other aspects are contested by historians and archaeologists and are open to further investigation; for example:

- There is debate about the causes of the end of Minoan civilisation. Some have argued that the collapse of this great maritime civilisation was triggered by damage done by the eruption of the Thera volcano, on the modern-day island of Santorini, around 1450 BC. Others argue that it was due to civil war, while others suggest that the Minoans were invaded by the Mycenaeans.
- There is also ongoing speculation that the story about the fate of Minoan Crete was the basis for the legendary tale of the lost city of Atlantis.

We do know that the Minoan civilisation centred on the island of Crete, and is believed to have existed between c. 2000 BC and 1400 BC. Much of what we know about it is due to the efforts of British **archaeologist** Sir Arthur Evans. He named the civilisation after King Minos, the legendary king of Crete. Much of Evans' work was the restoration of the massive royal palace at Knossos, which was first built around 1700 BC (see Source 4).

Historians believe that they have learnt some things about the Minoans from the **frescoes** on palace walls. These frescoes provide **evidence** that the Minoan people were regular sea traders. They also suggest that bulls and double-headed axes were important religious symbols, even though archaeology is not always reliable when it comes to speculating about religious beliefs. Some **artefacts** provide evidence that the Minoans had their own language, known as Linear A. This language has so far not been decoded by historians, meaning that many records cannot be translated. As a result, much of Minoan history is unknown to us.



The Mycenaean culture developed on the Peloponnesian Peninsula, on mainland Greece, from about 1600 BC. Because they lived close to the water, the Mycenaean people (like the Minoans) were sea traders. Based on archaeological evidence of the Mycenaeans' weapons, some historians and archaeologists have argued that they were more war-like than the Minoans. However, this inference is contested. Large quantities of weapons and armour have been found in tombs. Like the Minoans, it appears the Mycenaeans believed in an afterlife, with goddesses playing a significant role in their religious beliefs.

The Mycenaean language has been given the name Linear B (see Source 5). Linear B scripts have been found on tablets in Mycenae and other sites on the Peloponnesian Peninsula, as well as Chania in Crete. Unlike the language of the Minoans, the Linear B script was decoded in 1953 by John Chadwick and Michael Ventris, and identified as an early form of Greek. They were able to do this because a further 600 Linear B tablets were found by Carl Blegen in the Mycenaean palace of Pyros, shortly before the outbreak of the Second World War. This is an example of how our understanding of the past can change when historians find new evidence.



Source 5 A stone tablet bearing the Mycenaean script, known as Linear B

3.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 What is the time span for our study of ancient Greece?
- 2 Identify the areas where the ancient Greeks established colonies.
- 3 What was a key to success in the rise of the ancient Greek civilisation?
- 4 Where were the centres of Minoan and Mycenaean societies located?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 Use the zoom-in tool for Google Earth, or switch to Earth view of Google Maps, to study the topography of mainland Greece and answer the following questions:
 - a Approximately what percentage of the terrain do you think is mountainous? Compare your estimate with a partner and discuss any differences.
 - b Locate the Isthmus of Corinth and identify a feature there that would not have existed in ancient times.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 6 Create a Venn diagram to compare and contrast what you have learnt about the Minoan and Mycenaean societies.

GO DEEPER

- 7 Conduct research to find out why the Minoan and Mycenaean societies 'disappeared', according to the theories of archaeologists and other historical experts. Write a report to discuss the theories, including any variations and relevant sources of evidence.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Effective research starts with asking questions to find sources. It's important to consult a number of books and websites so that you can draw reasonable conclusions from the evidence about facts, myths and opinions on the topic.

3A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT GREECE?

» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Greece

- 1 Describe the location and geographical setting of the mainland settlements and colonies of ancient Greece. (3 marks)
- 2 Describe the geographical setting of the earlier Minoan and Mycenaean civilisations. (5 marks)

» Explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the development of ancient Greek society

- 3 Explain how the geographical setting and natural features influenced the way ancient Greek society developed. (10 marks)
- 4 How did the geographical setting influence one aspect of the Minoan and Mycenaean societies? (2 marks)

Total marks [/20]



Source 6 Part of the coastal landscape of Greece, on the Peloponnesian Peninsula

Check your Student [obook](#) [assess](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher [obook](#) [assess](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Checkpoint worksheets

Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

3B

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT GREEKS BELIEVE?

3.2 BELIEF IN GODS AND GODDESSES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient Greeks are evident in practices related to their death and funerary customs.

The ancient Greeks lived in a difficult and dangerous world. Death, injury and illness were ever-present. This made people think often about fate, luck and the gods. It also encouraged them to value the good times and live life to the fullest.

The ancient Greeks believed in many **deities**. Their religion was **polytheistic**, which means they believed in many gods. Each deity was seen to be in charge of different aspects of life or natural processes. For example, Poseidon was god of the sea, and Artemis was goddess of the hunt. Chief among the deities were the Olympians, whose 'family home' was on Mount Olympus. It was believed the gods sometimes visited the world of mortal people to dwell in the temples made for them, and even have children with humans!

Every morning, families in ancient Greece would pray at their household **shrine**. The deity they prayed to depended on what was happening. A man travelling to sell his goods might pray to Hermes, god of travel. A woman tending a garden might pray to Hegemone, goddess of plants. Offerings, frequently of wine or food, would be left on the shrine.

The people of ancient Rome also worshipped a large number of deities before they officially became a Christian people. Many of the Roman deities were versions of Greek deities, whose characteristics and powers were adapted to the Roman belief system. For example, Aphrodite, the Greek goddess of love, became Venus for the Romans. The Greek god Ares, the god of war, became Mars. Both Aphrodite and Ares were Olympians, who lived on Mount Olympus.

deity

a supernatural being, often in the form of a god or goddess

polytheism

a belief in many gods

shrine

a place or building where respect and devotion is paid to a god or goddess; shrines often house relics (religious objects)

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the image in Source 1.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?



Source 1 Sean Bean as Zeus, the king of the gods, from the movie *Percy Jackson and the Lightning Thief* (2010), one of the many movies and books inspired by the ancient Greek deities



Source 2 A restored statue of the deities Venus and Mars, made in around AD 175

Temples

Prayers and offerings such as sacrifices of slaughtered animals could also be made at temples. Temples in ancient Greece were built as ‘homes’ for the deities whenever they were on Earth. The Parthenon in Athens, for example, was dedicated to the city’s protector, Athena, the goddess of war and wisdom (see Source 3). The design of temples reflected this function – they were impressive, spacious structures. Usually, they were built on the highest hill, called an **acropolis** (from the Greek *akron*, which means ‘summit’, and *polis*, which means ‘city’). Greek temples were decorated, inside and out. A statue of the deity for whom the temple was built was always featured inside.

acropolis

a raised and fortified area (often on a rocky hill) within a Greek city-state on which public structures such as temples were built



Source 3 The remains of the Parthenon, built on the Acropolis of Athens

Oracles and seers

Sometimes, people felt a need to contact a deity more directly than was possible through rituals such as sacrifices and festivals. For example, a ruler might wish to ask a god about whether he should go to war. To make such contact, one had to consult an **oracle** or a **seer**. The most famous oracle was the Delphic Oracle – the priestess to the god Apollo at Delphi.

An oracle was believed to be able to talk directly to the gods. If the oracle’s message was confusing, it would be interpreted by priests. The oracles were always believed to be right, so if there were any inconsistencies between the ‘advice’ given and what happened later, the conflicting advice would be explained away. The oracles, especially the Delphic Oracle, were often excellent sources of information. This was because leaders of many different city-states regularly visited oracles, asked questions and, in doing so, shared their plans with the oracles. The result was that oracles became a kind of ‘clearing house’ for information – a source of intelligence. Their insights and power were therefore based on being trusted and offering good advice.

In contrast, seers did not claim to have direct contact with the gods. Rather, they interpreted a deity’s wishes by analysing dreams and interpreting signs. For example, seers might interpret what they saw in the guts of sacrificed animals, or in the pattern of leaves.

oracle

a person who was believed to be able to talk directly with the gods

seer

a person who was believed to be able to interpret messages from the gods by way of dreams and signs

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Oracles and seers did not have to explain their opinions or interpretations; their word was accepted as being true. They often played a significant role in the fate of city-states.

Death and funerary customs

Religious beliefs and traditions also influenced what people did when someone died. Death was thought to be the start of a long spiritual journey through Hades, the **Underworld**. Hades was also the name of the god of the dead (the Romans called him Pluto), who was believed to rule the Underworld. The River Styx separated the world of the dead from the world of the living. A three-headed dog named Cerberus guarded the entrance to Hades to stop the dead from leaving or the living from entering.

When someone died, the body was carefully washed and then wiped with sweet-smelling oil. It was then wrapped in white garments. The soul of the dead person would need to pay the ferryman to cross the River Styx, so a coin was placed in the corpse's mouth. Once they reached the other side, dead souls were judged by deities according to the life they had led. The souls of 'good people' would eventually reach the Elysian Fields; the souls of 'bad people' would be tossed into a place of torment called Tartarus, even deeper into the Underworld.

As in ancient Egypt, in ancient Greece the person was typically buried with possessions, food and drink. There might also be professional mourners, who would wear black. Family members were expected to make regular offerings to those who had died.

Underworld

a mythical place where the spirits of the dead were believed to reside according to ancient Greek and Roman beliefs

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Families returned to the graves of loved ones often. Rituals observed by ancient Greeks included leaving offerings of oil, food and wine, and a tube might be pushed into the dirt to allow the dead person to 'drink' the wine offered.



Source 4 A seventeenth-century artist's portrayal of Hades

3.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

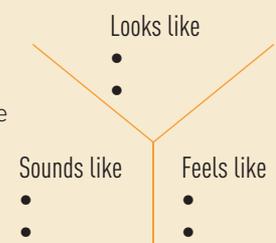
REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- Identify the ancient Greek gods responsible for each of the following:
 - love
 - war
 - the sea
 - travel
 - the Underworld.
- Why did ancient Greeks regard Mount Olympus with a degree of awe?
- Why was the Parthenon built?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- Explain what each of the following might do when consulted by a ruler in ancient Greece:
 - an oracle
 - a seer.

- Look carefully at Source 4 and use it to complete a Y chart to detail what you think the Underworld of the ancient Greeks might have looked like, sounded like and felt like.



GO DEEPER

- Conduct some research on the Olympian gods and goddesses and create a 'family tree' that identifies their responsibilities and relationships to each other.

3.3 THE OLYMPIC GAMES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient Greeks are evident in practices related to their death and funerary customs.

pagan

a person who is not a Christian and worships non-Christian gods

pankration

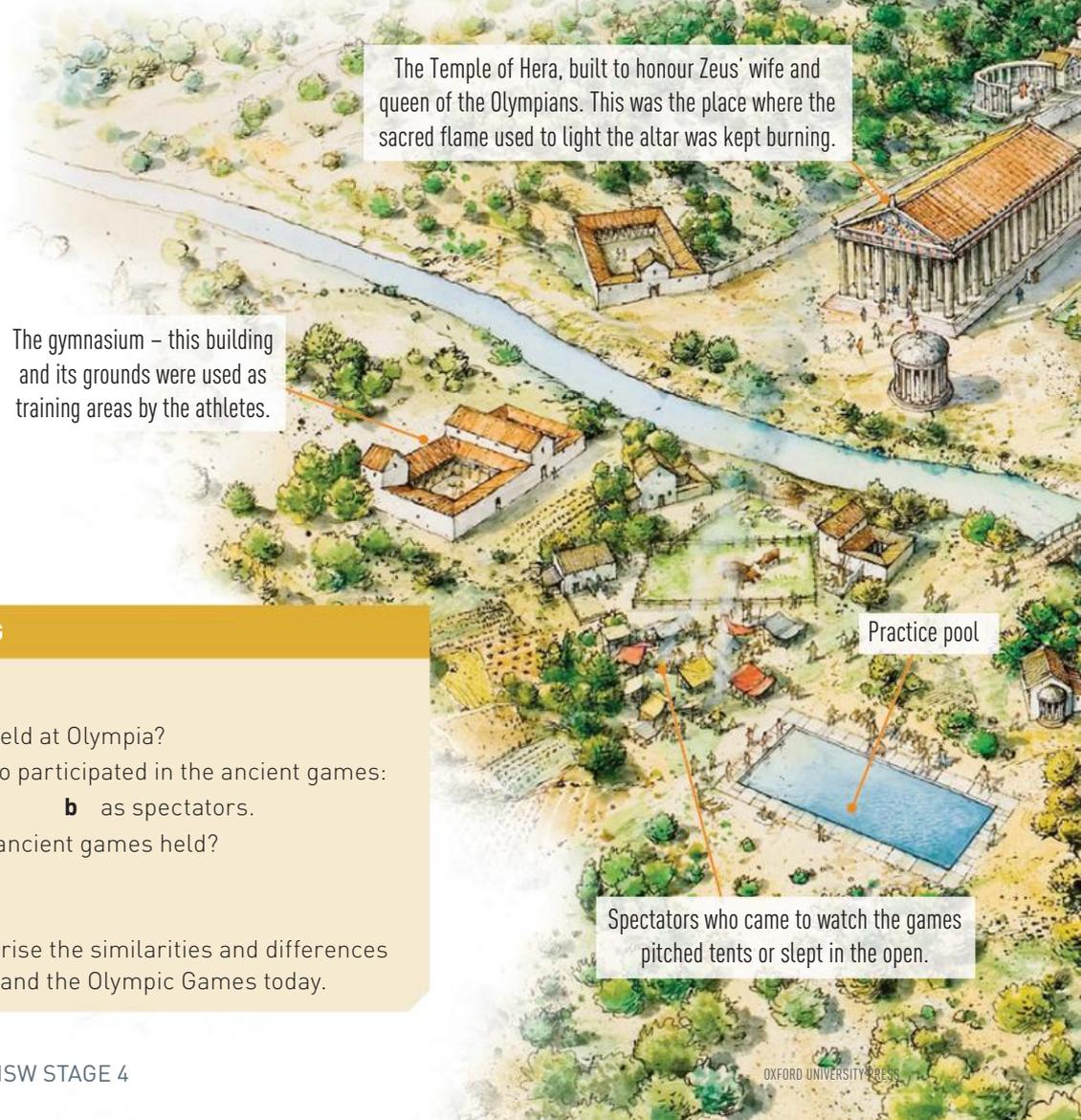
a dangerous fighting event with almost no rules held as part of the Olympic Games

Source 5 An artist's impression of the site of the ancient Olympic Games

The main reason why festivals were held in ancient Greece was to honour the gods. One of the most significant festivals was the games held in the city-state of Olympia to honour Zeus, the king of the gods. The first ancient Olympic Games were held in 776 BC. The five-day games were held every four years until AD 394, when they were stopped by the Christian Roman emperor Theodosius I, who regarded them as a **pagan** event.

Only free men who spoke Greek could take part in the Olympic events, initially competing for no more than a wreath of olive leaves. The first games only had one event: a running race. Later, other events were added, such as spear- and discus-throwing, wrestling, the marathon, the pentathlon, chariot racing and **pankration**. Contestants competed in the nude and were often injured or killed.

Source 5 shows an artist's impression of the ancient site at Olympia. Spectators stood on the grassy slopes on three sides of the track, while the seating on the south-east side was reserved for judges.



The Temple of Hera, built to honour Zeus' wife and queen of the Olympians. This was the place where the sacred flame used to light the altar was kept burning.

The gymnasium – this building and its grounds were used as training areas by the athletes.

Practice pool

Spectators who came to watch the games pitched tents or slept in the open.

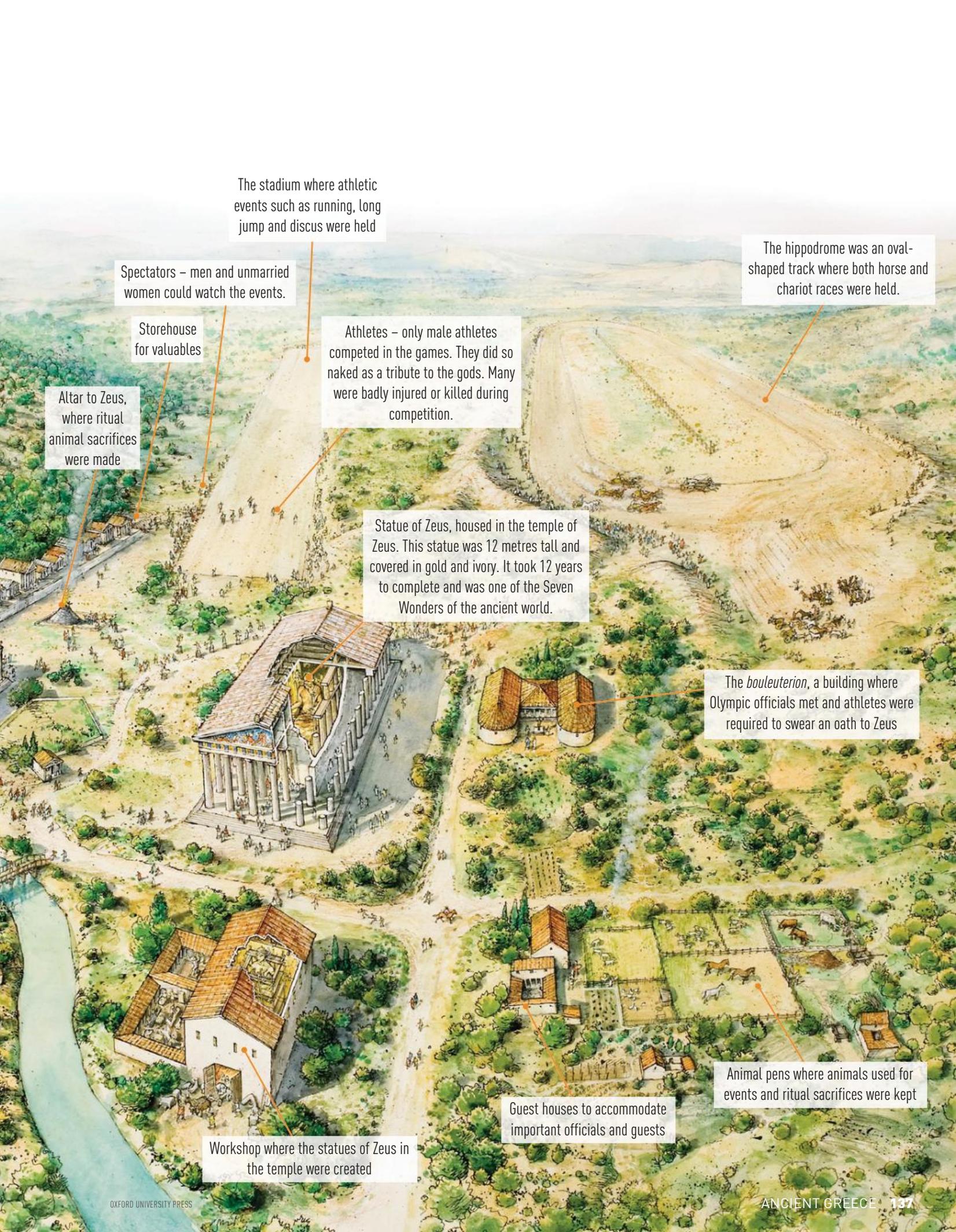
3.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Why were the ancient games held at Olympia?
- 2 Identify the types of people who participated in the ancient games:
a as competitors **b** as spectators.
- 3 For how many years were the ancient games held?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 4 Use a Venn diagram to summarise the similarities and differences between the ancient Olympics and the Olympic Games today.



The stadium where athletic events such as running, long jump and discus were held

The hippodrome was an oval-shaped track where both horse and chariot races were held.

Spectators – men and unmarried women could watch the events.

Athletes – only male athletes competed in the games. They did so naked as a tribute to the gods. Many were badly injured or killed during competition.

Storehouse for valuables

Altar to Zeus, where ritual animal sacrifices were made

Statue of Zeus, housed in the temple of Zeus. This statue was 12 metres tall and covered in gold and ivory. It took 12 years to complete and was one of the Seven Wonders of the ancient world.

The *bouleuterion*, a building where Olympic officials met and athletes were required to swear an oath to Zeus

Animal pens where animals used for events and ritual sacrifices were kept

Guest houses to accommodate important officials and guests

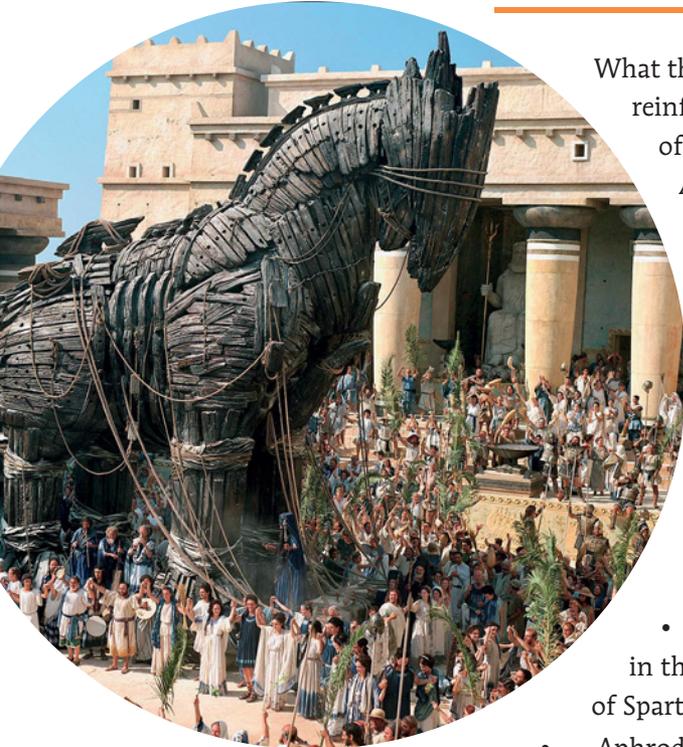
Workshop where the statues of Zeus in the temple were created

3.4 GREEK MYTHS AND LEGENDS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient Greeks are evident in practices related to their death and funerary customs.



Source 6 A still from the film *Troy* (2004) showing the wooden horse entering the city

What the people of ancient Greece believed about their deities was reinforced by myths and legends, such as the Trojan War. Details of the legend of the wooden horse are found in Virgil's poem the *Aeneid* written in the first century BC. The 10-year siege of Troy and final battle is said to have taken place about 3200 years ago. The story of the legend is outlined below.

- Zeus gave a banquet to celebrate the marriage of Peleus and the goddess Thetis. Many deities were invited to the wedding, but not Eris, the goddess of strife. Angry at being snubbed, she showed up uninvited at the reception.
- Eris tossed a golden apple among the guests. On it were the words, 'To the most beautiful'. The goddesses Hera, Athena and Aphrodite each assumed she was the most beautiful. Paris, son of the king of Troy, was asked to choose.
- Paris chose Aphrodite. His reward was the most beautiful woman in the world, Helen. But Helen was already married to King Menelaus of Sparta. He was the brother of Agamemnon, king of Mycenae.
- Aphrodite used her magic to allow Paris to whisk Helen off to the city of Troy. Menelaus, Agamemnon and other Greek kings set out with a massive fleet of ships to get her back.
- For nearly 10 years, the Greeks laid siege to the walled city of Troy. Then Odysseus, king of Ithaca, suggested they build a huge, hollow wooden horse. He proposed that it be left outside Troy's walls, and the Greek army would then sail away.
- It was hoped that the Trojans would see the horse as a parting gift and assume the war was over. It worked. The Trojans dragged the horse into the city and celebrated into the night.
- The Trojans, however, did not know that the Greeks had hidden warriors inside the hollow horse. Later, these hidden men crept out of the horse and opened the gates to the returning Greek army, which had not sailed away at all.
- The Greeks burned and ruined the city of Troy. Paris was killed, as was the Trojan hero Hector and the Greek hero Achilles. The Greek army, under Odysseus, took 10 years to return home.

3.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 1 In groups, present the legend of the Trojan War in another way. Choose from the following options: a puppet show or role play with music and special effects; a comic strip; or a children's storybook using digital or hand-drawn illustrations.

3B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT GREEKS BELIEVE?

» Explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient Greeks are evident in practices related to their death and funerary customs

- 1 Identify the term used to describe the kind of religion practised in ancient Greece, and explain its meaning. (2 marks)
- 2 Explain what the ancient Greeks believed about the role of gods and goddesses in their everyday lives, and in their festivals. Include examples. (10 marks)
- 3 What did the ancient Greeks believe about death? (5 marks)
- 4 Explain how beliefs about death influenced burial practices in ancient Greece. (3 marks)
- 5 Use Sources 7, 8 and 9 to answer the following questions.
 - a What do you think is the purpose of the stone line in Source 7? (2 marks)
 - b Describe the scene shown in Source 8. (3 marks)
 - c Read Source 9, which suggests how the Olympic Games gave Greeks from independent city-states a sense of unity as a people. Do you think the addition of team events would have added to the rivalry between city-states? Explain why or why not. (5 marks)
 - d These sources provide different information on the ancient Olympic Games. Identify the strengths and limitations of each source in a table. (5 marks)



Source 7 The site of the ancient Olympic stadium



Source 8 A Greek pot showing a boxing match, ancient Olympic-style

Total marks [/35]

Source 9

The Panhellenic [all-Greek] contests and rituals fostered the idea of Greekness, of sharing the same language, religion, customs, and values. Indeed they had the avowed purpose of knitting together the Greeks in peaceful celebration. During the Olympic Games, for example, a sacred truce banning war throughout the Greek world was declared for the month in which the games were held ... There were no team events, only individual contests. Thus the games kept alive the ancient ideal of the individual hero ...

S.B. Pomeroy et al., Ancient Greece: A Political, Social and Cultural History, Oxford University Press, UK, 1998, p. 128

Check your Student [obook](#) [assess](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Rich task

A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher [obook](#) [assess](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



assess quiz

Interactive auto-marking multiple-choice quiz to test student comprehension

3C

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT GREECE?

3.5 POLITICAL SYSTEMS IN ANCIENT GREECE

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

Sometimes studying history means studying another language. This topic uses many ancient Greek terms that influenced words we use in English today.

oligarchy

a political system in which a small group of wealthy nobles or aristocrats rule over the wider population

democracy

a political system based on the idea that the citizens of a society should have control over the way in which they are governed

citizen

a person who through birth (or by meeting certain conditions) is a recognised legal member of a community

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about politics and politicians today and compare these with the image portrayed in Source 1. What is similar and what is different?

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline how society in ancient Athens and Sparta was organised and governed including the roles of law and religion
- assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece.

Democracy in Athens

Around 1100 BC, Athens gained control of Attica, the large area of country surrounding the city. It became the biggest and wealthiest city-state in ancient Greece. As in other Greek city-states, the king at first had total power in Athens. Over time, he became more of a figurehead. Real power was passed to a small group of wealthy, privileged landowners who ruled Athens as an **oligarchy**. A new way of governing developed in Athens during the sixth century BC: **democracy**. The word 'democracy' comes from two Greek words: *demos* ('people') and *kratos* ('rule'). Under Athenian democracy, every **citizen** over the age of 18 could be involved in the political process. Because citizenship was restricted to free adult males born in Attica, most of the population of Athens – women, *metics* (foreigners) and slaves – was excluded.



Source 1 An artist's impression of the Greek leader Pericles

Historians give most of the credit for the development of democracy to the Athenian leaders Solon (c. 638–558 BC) and Cleisthenes (c. 570–507 BC). The most famous democratic leader of Athens was Pericles (495–429 BC). He ruled during the Golden Age of Athens. In Athens, participating in politics was seen as a civic duty by its citizens. However, the actual role that individuals had in politics depended on their position in society; in other words, on their wealth and land ownership.

The *Ekklesia* and the *Boule*

Cleisthenes led a reform of Athens' **constitution** around 508 BC. Source 3 summarises the political structure of Athens in this period.

Any Athenian citizen could speak and vote at the *Ekklesia* or Assembly. The *Ekklesia* decided on matters that the *Boule* (the Council of 500) asked it to consider. This might include whether or not to go to war. It is known that some decisions required at least 6000 citizens be present to vote. The Greek **philosopher** Plato (c. 427–347 BC) wrote that those who talked too long at the *Ekklesia* about things they knew little about were laughed at, shouted down or carried off. This treatment was given out to even the wealthy or popular.

The *Boule* was a council of 500 citizens who met every day. They were responsible for the day-to-day administration of Athens, putting into practice the laws passed by the *Ekklesia*.

constitution

the political principles on which a country or society is based and that guide its government; also, a written document that outlines these principles

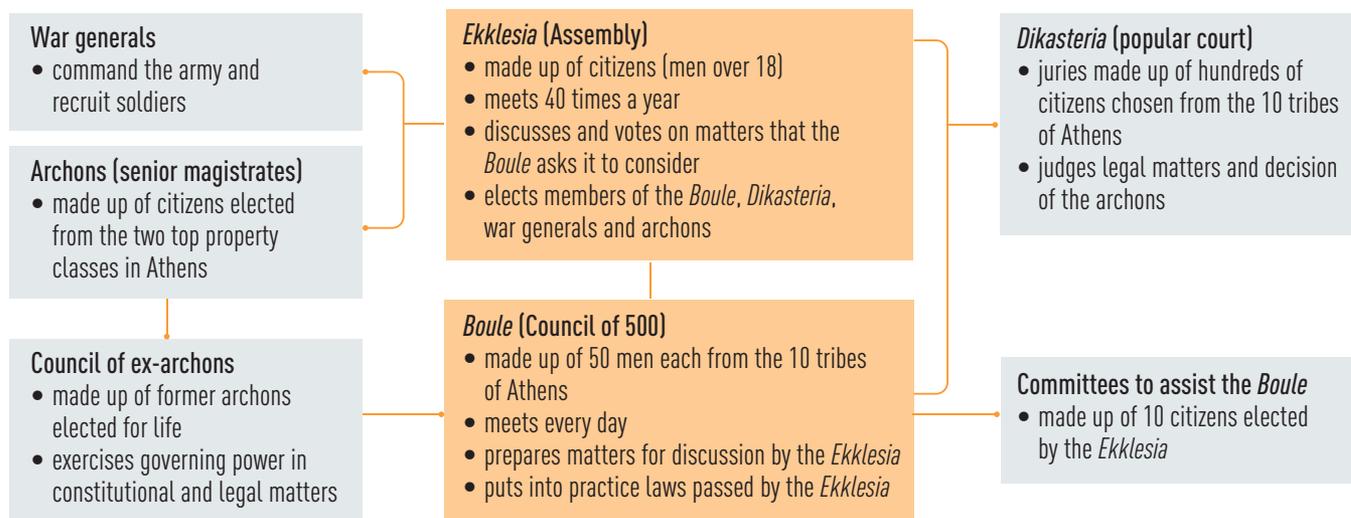
philosopher

a person who specialises in the discipline or study of philosophy (i.e. the investigation of the truths and principles of knowledge)

Source 2

[But] the man who rises to advise them [a meeting of the *Ekklesia*] on [non-technical matters to do with the government of the city-state] ... may equally well be a smith, a shoemaker, a merchant, a sea-captain, a rich man, a poor man, of good family or none.

From a translated extract of Protagoras by Plato



Source 3 The political structure of Athens in the fifth century BC

Military rule in Sparta

militarism

the belief that a society should build a strong military force and use it to protect its interests

monarchy

a state where power is held by a monarch

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In Sparta, baby boys were washed with wine because it was believed this would make them strong. Then they were inspected by members of the *Gerousia* who would determine if they were strong and healthy enough to be allowed to live.

Many believe that they know the nature of Spartan society. However, in reality, our knowledge and understanding of ancient Sparta is shrouded in uncertainty. The path to understanding starts with acknowledging the mystery. This mystery is often called 'the Spartan Myth' or 'the Spartan Mirage'. The Spartans were a secretive people and were very careful about how they were seen by outsiders. Their reputation for fierce and ruthless **militarism** was designed to intimidate potential rivals. Sparta was mainly, but not totally, a military state, and it retained the role of king. According to the philosopher Aristotle, Sparta had a 'mixed' constitution. By that he meant that the Spartan system had elements of **monarchy**, oligarchy and democracy. Aristotle was impressed by what he had heard about the Spartan system and wrote favourably about its stability. The mixed Spartan system included two kings, five elected men (*Ephorate*), a council of elders (*Gerousia*) and an assembly of citizens (*Apella*). The political structure of ancient Sparta is shown in Source 5.

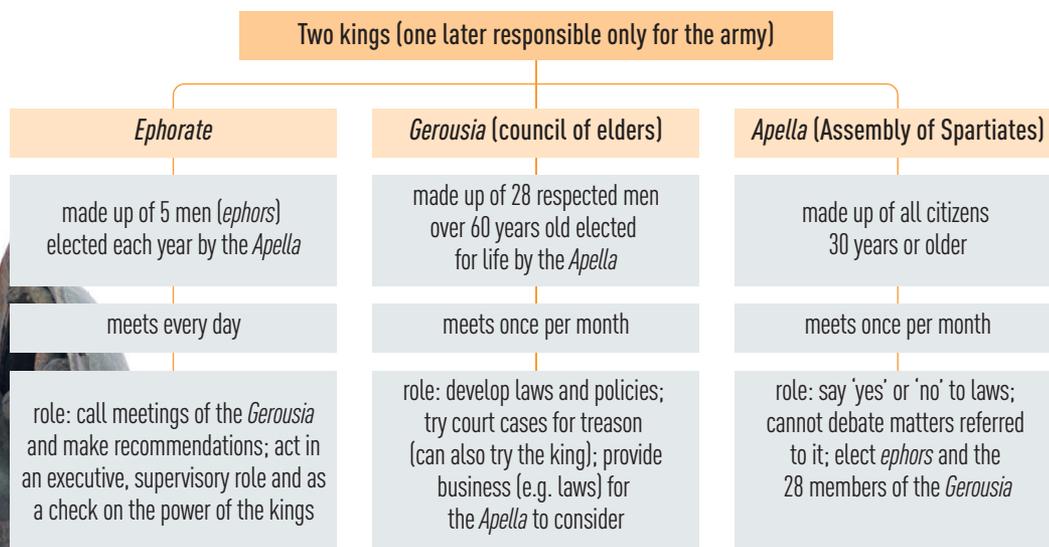
The Spartans developed their militaristic society out of need. The first Spartans appeared in the valley of the Eurotas River in Laconia around 1000 BC. As mentioned earlier, by 750 BC Athens and other city-states were colonising areas outside mainland Greece because of the lack of farmland needed to feed their people. The Spartans solved the problem by conquering the neighbouring region of Messenia. The conquered Messinians (the inhabitants of Messenia) became Spartan slaves, known as *helots*. The *helots* outnumbered the Spartans by as many as 10 to one, which meant that from this period the Spartans were constantly on the alert in case of a revolt. They specialised in war and constantly trained as soldiers in order to maintain control over the larger *helot* population.

The people of Sparta were suspicious of outsiders and were always concerned about the threat of a *helot* revolt. Spartans were not permitted to travel to other city-states, except for military reasons, and few people from outside Sparta were allowed to enter its borders. This was to prevent Spartans from picking up foreign ideas that might weaken their military discipline.

Source 4 A statue of King Leonidas in Sparta, Greece



Source 5 The political structure in ancient Sparta; it can be described as an oligarchy, but it also included rule by kings and the election of the Council of Elders by an assembly of citizens.



The ephors

Every nine years this small group of Spartan elders went out to look at the night sky, to look for signs that the gods were unhappy with either of the two Spartan kings. One interpretation of this ritual is that it provided inbuilt flexibility in the Spartan system. If the *ephors* agreed, for any reason, that it was time for a change of monarchs, they could 'see' something in the skies that indicated the need to change either or both of the kings. In this way, part of the role of the *ephors* was to limit the powers of the kings.

Rule by tyrants

Other city-states were aristocracies, meaning they were ruled by a small group of wealthy landowners. At different times some city-states, such as Corinth and Megara, were controlled by rulers known as **tyrants**. Greek tyrants were not, as the modern use of the word suggests, bad or ruthless rulers. They were men of common birth who overthrew the existing monarchies or aristocracies. Some tyrants were in fact good rulers.

tyrant

a ruler of a city-state in ancient Greece who was not born as an aristocrat (i.e. a commoner)

3.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Write your own definition of 'democracy' as a system of government.
- 2 In your own words, describe the role of the *Ekklesia*, the *Boule* and the *Dikasteria* in Athens in the fifth century BC.
- 3 Outline the reasons why ancient Sparta's development as a military state is an example of cause and effect.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 4 Modern democracy was described by US President Abraham Lincoln (1809–75) as 'government of the people, by the people, and for the people'. How does this definition compare with democracy in ancient Athens?
- 5 Conduct research to find out about citizenship in Australia today.
 - a Summarise your findings in a paragraph, including who is eligible to be a citizen of Australia, and how people who are not citizens can qualify for Australian citizenship.
 - b What aspects of democracy have changed in respect to citizenship in ancient Athens and citizenship in modern Australia? What aspects have continued?
- 6 Write two paragraphs to compare and contrast Athens' style of government with Sparta's.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 7 Conduct some research to learn about the *Dikasteria*, the law courts in ancient Athens,

where trials were initially held. Have a class discussion about the similarities and differences between the workings of the *Dikasteria* and Australian law courts, then decide which system is more effective.

- 8 Conduct research to find out more about one of these Greek tyrants:
 - Cypselus of Corinth
 - Theagenes of Megara
 - Thrasybulus of Miletus.

Note any achievements and evaluate your tyrant's leadership. Create an infographic on his strengths and weaknesses.

GO DEEPER

- 9 Conduct research about the life of Pericles to answer the question 'Why is Pericles a significant individual in ancient Greece?' Present your findings in any format that you choose, as long as you communicate your findings effectively. For example, it could be a piece of writing or a speech, or a recorded or live role play as Pericles. Keep a record of the sources you have used as a basis for your presentation.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

An important part of being a historian is being able to present findings of research in a range of communication forms.

3.6 THE SOCIAL ORGANISATION OF ANCIENT GREECE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the roles of key groups in Athenian and Spartan society, such as citizens, women and slaves.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Just as life in ancient Greece varied from one city-state to another, it also varied depending on a person's place in society.

Ancient Greek society had a number of broad social divisions. There was the division between those who lived on the Greek mainland and nearby islands and those who lived in the colonies. There were social divisions between citizens and non-citizens, men and women, and between those who were slaves and those who were free. As we have seen, in Athens only free adult men who were born in the region could be citizens.

Slaves in ancient Greece

Slavery was a key feature of ancient Greek society and slaves contributed greatly to the economy because they were a source of cheap labour. We do not know much about Greek slaves, as they are rarely mentioned in the written sources. It is likely that wealthy landowners used slave labour to work on their farms. Slaves also worked as

craftsmen, builders, stone masons, carpenters and potters. If they were highly educated, they might teach the male children in a wealthy household. Slave women often worked in the textile industry.

Slaves were often rented out by their owners to other free men. There are surviving records of slaves who worked to build the Acropolis of Athens. The records show that the slaves on the project were paid the same rate as free men, but their wages were given to their owners. In some of the city-states, slaves managed the banks because many free men thought that commerce and trade were beneath them.

In Athens, slaves made up about 30 per cent of the population. They may have been prisoners of war, 'trade goods', people sold by very poor families

or abandoned babies. As mentioned earlier, in Sparta the *helots* were like slaves. They were the descendants of neighbouring peoples that the early Spartans had conquered. Spartan men had the time to train as soldiers because most of the hard physical labour associated with farming, building and trade was done by the *helots*.

The role of women

The experiences of women in ancient Greece varied depending when they lived, their class and where they lived. However, many women in ancient Greece were expected to stay at home. They rarely had the same kind of educational opportunities or responsibilities as men, with the exception of women in Sparta. Women were generally expected to run the household, have children, care for their families and obey the men in the household. This applied to both wealthy and poor women.



Source 6 An artist's impression of slaves being sold in a Greek marketplace

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about women in ancient Greece and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

If there was a desperate need for money, free women would hire themselves out as nursemaids, and older free women were sometimes part of a 'rent a crowd' at funerals for rich families.

Spartan women generally had much greater freedom than any other women in ancient Greece and had more power and independence. Their first duty was as wives and mothers; they were expected to breed the next generation of Spartan warriors. It was assumed that a fit, strong and healthy mother would give birth to fit, strong and healthy children. As a result, Spartan girls played sport and were involved in all forms of physical education. As wives, Spartan women controlled the home and took care of money matters; for example, Spartan wives were in charge of the *helots* who worked the land for Spartan families. Although they, like other Greek women, could not be citizens, these roles gave Spartan women both power and influence in daily life.

3.6 SOURCE STUDY

Women in ancient Greece

INTERPRET

- 1 Examine Sources 7 and 8. Create a Venn diagram to show similarities and differences in the way the women are portrayed. Take particular note of what they are doing and what they are wearing.



Source 7 A fifth-century-BC painting of a Greek woman



Source 8 A sculpture of a Spartan woman

The *metics*

Metics were foreigners. They were free people who worked and lived in a city-state but were not citizens. We know most about the *metics* in Athens, where they made up a significant percentage of the population. In other city-states there is evidence of a similar class of people. As non-citizens, the *metics* could not vote, hold office or own property. Aside from those restrictions, however, they mixed as near equals with the Athenian citizens. The *metics* were seen as useful to Athens and in times of danger they could be drafted into the army. There is evidence of a number of very rich *metics* in Athens.

3.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 What types of people could become citizens in ancient Greece?
- 2 Who were excluded from becoming citizens in ancient Greece, and what did this mean for them?
- 3 What jobs did slaves usually do?
- 4 What was the role of most women in ancient Greece?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 How did the role of Spartan women differ from other women in ancient Greece?
- 6 Why were slaves important in the Athenian and Spartan societies?

3.7 EVERYDAY LIFE IN ANCIENT GREECE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

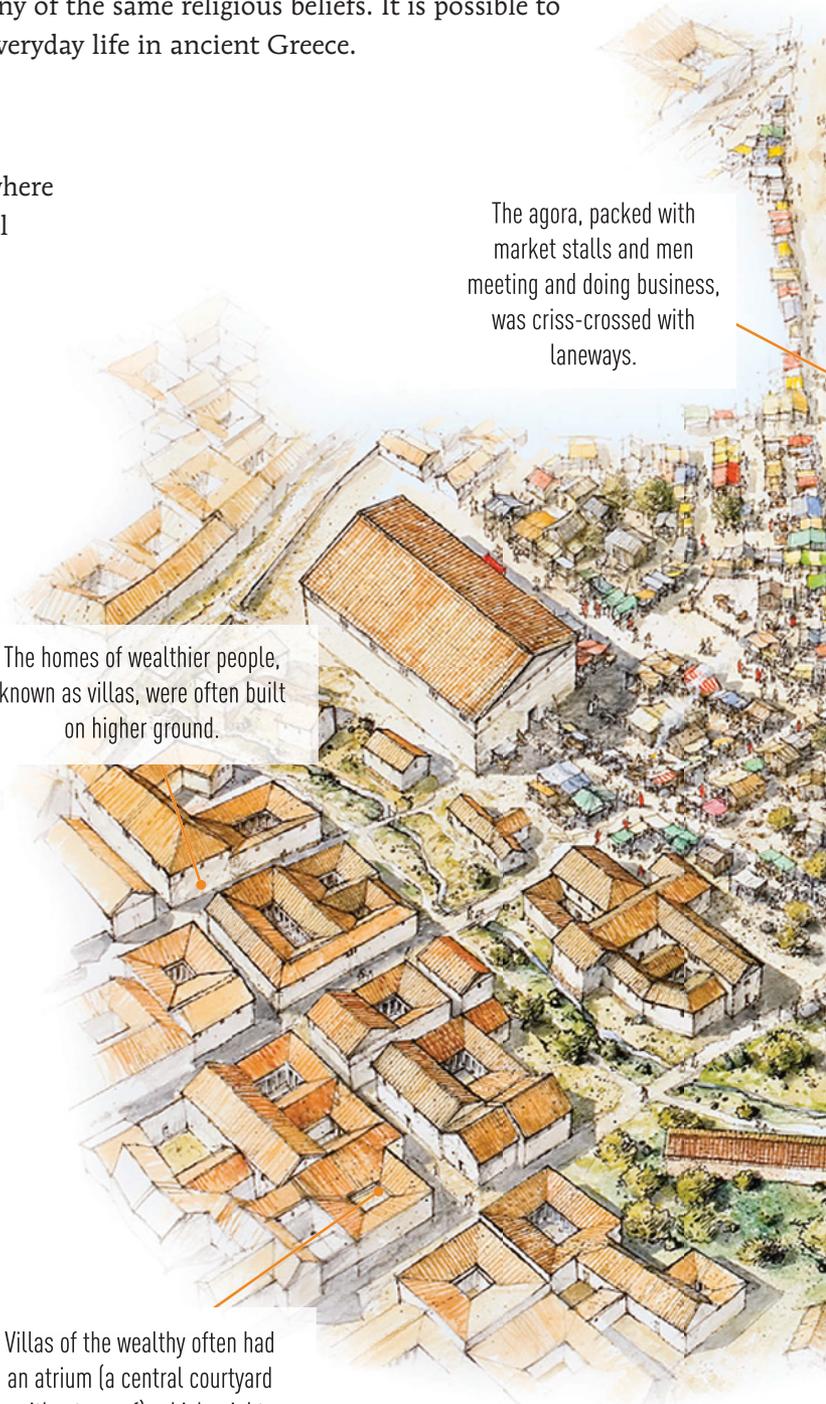
- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Athens and Sparta.

The Greeks living in each of the city-states were fiercely independent, and there were differences between city-states. Despite this, the people of ancient Greece shared a common language, culture and many of the same religious beliefs. It is possible to make some generalisations about everyday life in ancient Greece.

Life in a Greek city

A city-state typically had one city, where most political, religious and cultural activities took place. Source 9 is a modern artist's impression of a typical city in ancient Greece. It shows key areas in the city:

- the agora – a large public meeting space; this was also where the markets were located, and where people did business and were entertained
- the acropolis – a mound or hill on which temples, palaces and other important buildings were built
- a band of houses surrounding the city centre, where the people lived
- beyond the houses, an area of countryside that provided the population with food.

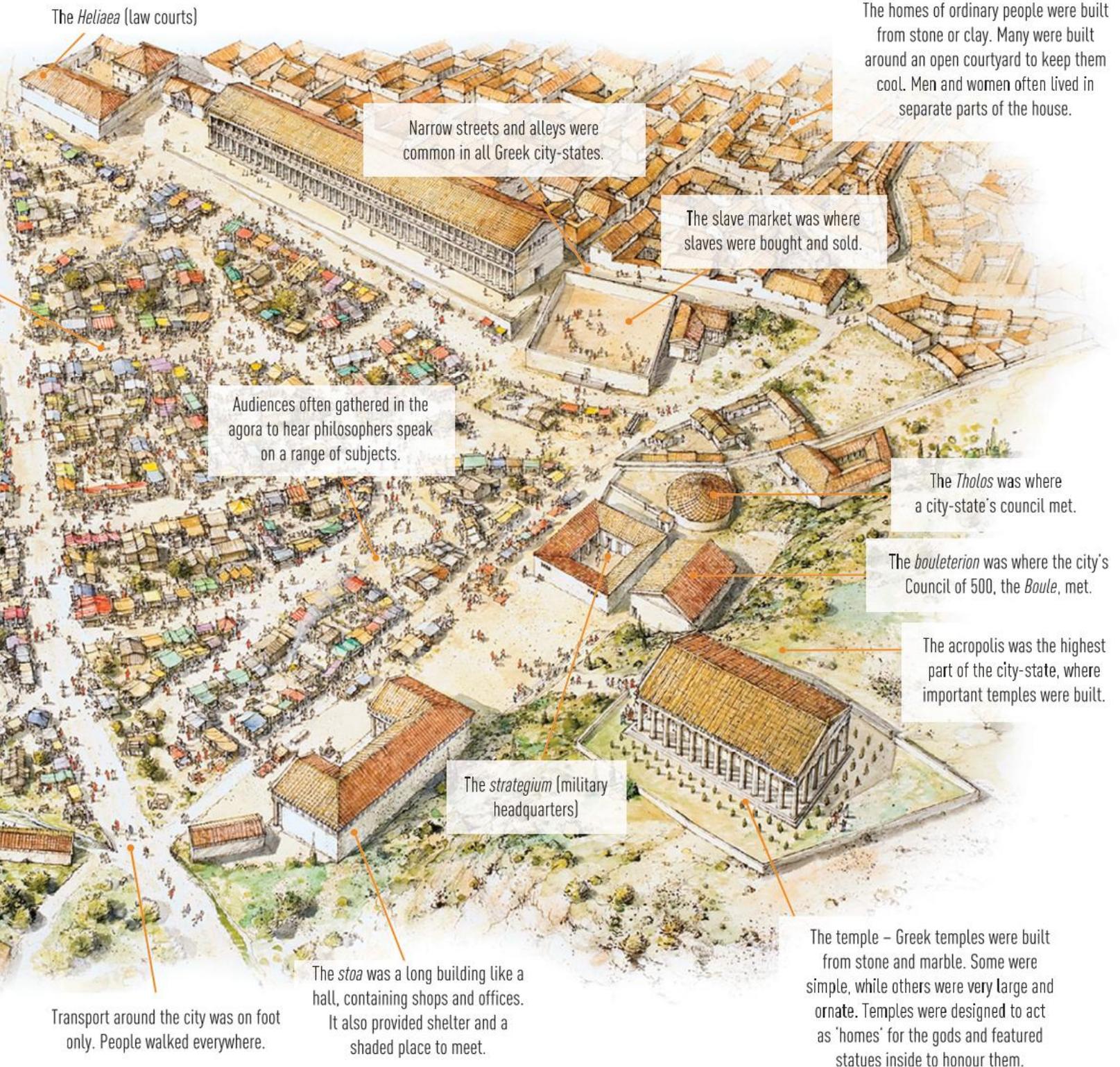


The agora, packed with market stalls and men meeting and doing business, was criss-crossed with laneways.

The homes of wealthier people, known as villas, were often built on higher ground.

Villas of the wealthy often had an atrium (a central courtyard without a roof), which might have contained a pool.

Source 9 An artist's impression of a city centre in ancient Greece



The *Heliaea* (law courts)

Narrow streets and alleys were common in all Greek city-states.

The slave market was where slaves were bought and sold.

Audiences often gathered in the agora to hear philosophers speak on a range of subjects.

The *Tholos* was where a city-state's council met.

The *bouleterion* was where the city's Council of 500, the *Boule*, met.

The acropolis was the highest part of the city-state, where important temples were built.

The *strategium* (military headquarters)

The temple – Greek temples were built from stone and marble. Some were simple, while others were very large and ornate. Temples were designed to act as 'homes' for the gods and featured statues inside to honour them.

The *stoa* was a long building like a hall, containing shops and offices. It also provided shelter and a shaded place to meet.

Transport around the city was on foot only. People walked everywhere.

Living in a Mediterranean climate

Generally, Greece has a 'Mediterranean climate'. This means that it has sunshine year-round, with wet, mild winters and dry, warm summers.

3.7A SOURCE STUDY

Life in a Mediterranean climate

Source 10

The social effects of the climate must not be forgotten. For most of the year, the Greek could work and eat and talk in the open air, somewhat scantily clad, seeking the shade rather than the sun; and this had a large effect on his way of life. Farming left some time to spare ... the ancient Greek [Hesiod] spent most of it talking with his fellow farmers ... The townsmen felt the same need ... Consequently the Greeks lived a very public life. The pressure of the community on the individual was greater than it is in climates where man must shelter indoors for most of his leisure time. It was harder to hide from disapproval, more essential to display what might earn praise.

Anthony Andrews, Greek Society, Penguin Books, Hammondsworth, 1984, p. 12

Average maximum and minimum temperatures for Athens, Greece



Average maximum and minimum temperatures for Sydney, Australia



Source 11 The yearly average minimum and maximum temperatures in Athens, Greece, and Sydney, Australia

INTERPRET

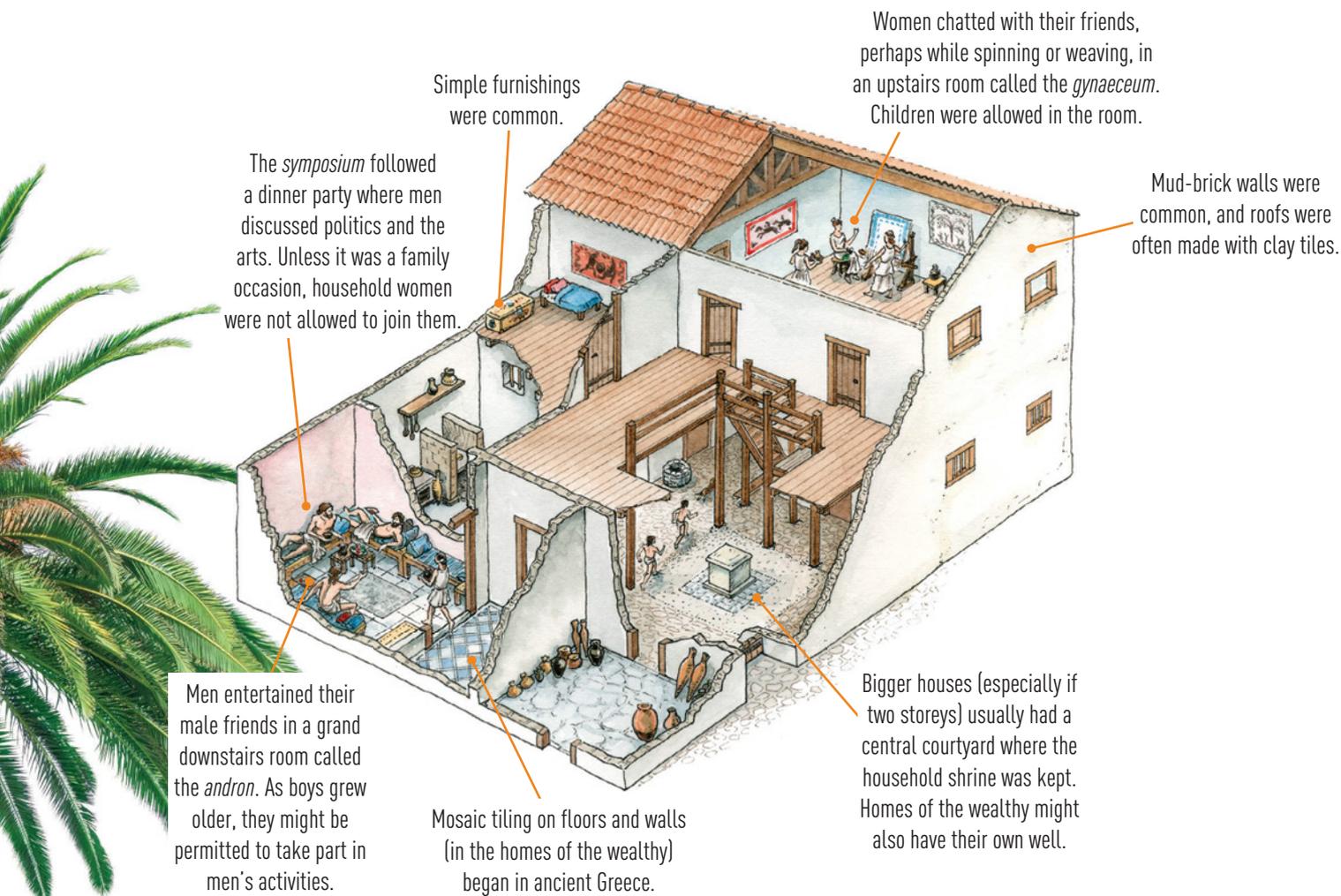
- 1 According to Source 10, how did the mild climate influence the Greek way of life?
- 2 Look at Source 11 and compare the climates of Athens and Sydney. With this information, how would you describe the climate of Sydney? (Note the different temperature scale in each graph.)
- 3 How has Australia's climate affected our way of life? Do you think technologies such as air-conditioning for cooling and heating our homes have made climate a less important influence on society and the way people live?

Social divisions at home

As mentioned earlier, women in ancient Greece were generally confined to the home. Wealthy married women usually led more pleasant lives than did poor women. For them, there were occasional outings to a religious festival, wedding or funeral, or a visit to another woman at her home. There is some evidence suggesting women may have occasionally attended the theatre. Life for a poor woman consisted mostly of looking after the family, fetching water, cooking food, and spinning and weaving cloth.



The social divisions between men and women, and between wealthy families and their slaves, are evident in the layout of homes in ancient Greece. An area for women only was at the back, often upstairs. Similarly, only men could relax in the large downstairs room that was used for entertainment and discussion. The living areas of slaves were separate from those of the family. Slaves would typically work in the kitchen or gardens and would not be seen in the house unless serving their master and family.



Source 12 An artist's impression of a wealthy family's house in ancient Greece

Marriage and divorce

Girls were married at around 13, often to men twice their age. Their husbands were chosen by their fathers; girls had no say in the matter. The first time a young girl met her new husband was often the day she married him. After the wedding, a new bride would live in her husband's family home and accept all his family's rules and beliefs. He would expect her to obey him and be loyal, and to have children soon. He could divorce her easily if that was not so, or if she could not have children.

Marriage did not affect a man's public life and social freedoms, but women in ancient Greece had a different experience of marriage. For a teenage girl, marriage meant giving away her toys as an offering to the goddess Artemis (protector of young girls). Her life after marriage would be controlled by her husband, as it had been by her father until then. She knew she might be denied access to her children if her husband chose to divorce her.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Even marriage was different for Spartan women. They usually married around the age of 18 and shaved their head in preparation for the marriage, keeping it short afterwards. Because the husband lived in the army barracks, he would have to sneak away to visit his wife.

Fashion and beauty

Evidence for the clothing and footwear worn by men and women includes what is shown in sculptures, stone reliefs and the paintings on pottery. Garments were loose fitting and simple, and shoes (if worn) were typically sandals. Rich women had the time and wealth to pamper themselves. They would admire their faces in mirrors of polished bronze (as shown in Source 16). Powdered lead and chalk were used to acquire the pale skin that marked an upper-class woman. Eyebrows were darkened (and sometimes joined in the middle, over the nose). Cheeks and lips were rouged.

A garment called a *chiton* was worn by men and women. *Chitons* were knee-length for young men and floor-length for women and older men (see Source 13). *Chitons* were long, lightweight pieces of cloth, either draped around the body and secured with a belt and brooches so the cloth fell in a fold over the waist, or sewn at the sides and pinned along the top to create sleeves. Women always covered their head with a veil when they left the home.



Source 13 A statue of a Greek woman wearing a *chiton*

Education

Girls were generally not educated in ancient Greece, although girls in Sparta were given formal physical education so they would be fit and healthy mothers. For boys, education started at age seven. In Athens, boys learnt how to read and write, studied mathematics, and learnt to appreciate dancing, music and poetry. Physical development was also very important, and boys attended a gymnasium from an early age. Once boys reached the teenage years, especially if they were from a wealthy family, they might have a mentor. This was someone, such as a philosopher or highly educated man, who gave them individual instruction.

After the Spartan society became driven by military obligations and duties in the seventh century BC, its education system emphasised physical fitness and the arts of war. Spartan boys left home at age seven and went into military barracks. The aim was to replace family ties and loyalty with ties to the Spartan state. Their education prepared them for a future as soldiers and was often brutal, training the boys to deal with physical pain and hardship, as observed by the Greek philosopher Plutarch. At 20, Spartans officially became warriors or **hoplites** and continued to live in the soldiers' barracks. At 30, they became full citizens, but were still required to live most of the time in barracks rather than at home with their wives and families.

hoplite

an ancient Greek warrior

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Archaeological and written accounts reveal different aspects of a study, allowing historians to reconstruct the past more effectively.

3.7B SOURCE STUDY

Education in ancient Greece

Source 15

[Apart from reading and writing] ... their whole education was aimed at developing smart obedience, perseverance under stress and victory in battle ... From the age of twelve, they never wore a tunic, and were given only one cloak a year. Their bodies were rough and knew nothing of baths or oiling.

Observations about Spartan boys, by the Greek historian Plutarch

Source 14 Detail from ancient Greek pottery showing a Greek youth learning to dance

INTERPRET

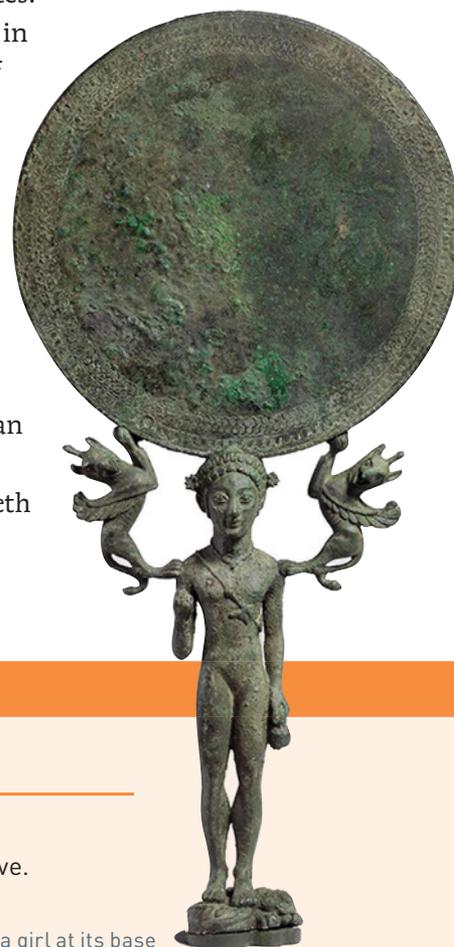
- 1 Explain why Source 14 is unlikely to be a scene from Spartan society.
- 2 According to Plutarch, in Source 15, what were the aims of Spartan education?



A Spartan myth?

The common belief about ancient Sparta is that Spartan families were opposed to luxuries and leisure time. However, there is evidence that indicates Spartans were in some ways just like their neighbours from Athens and other city-states. Archaeologists have found painted pottery, marble sculptures, carvings in bone and ivory, and bronze figurines across Sparta. One explanation of this 'Spartan myth' is that Spartans themselves wanted to be seen as tough, harsh and ruthless. In other words, this view of Spartans by other peoples could have been the result of stories spread by Spartans themselves!

According to a legend that may be part of the Spartan myth, to encourage self-reliance and mental toughness, Spartan boys were often underfed so they would be forced to steal food. If they were caught, they were punished – not for stealing, but for being caught stealing. This Spartan value was illustrated in a story written by Plutarch about a Spartan boy who stole a fox for his dinner and hid it in his cloak. The fox bit and clawed at the boy, but the child 'let [the fox] tear out his guts with his teeth and claws and died right there, rather than let it be seen'.



3.7C SOURCE STUDY

INTERPRET

- 1 Identify three decorative features of the mirror in Source 16.
- 2 Consider the purpose of a mirror, along with the features identified above. How does this source challenge the 'Spartan myth'?

Source 16 A bronze mirror with a figure of a girl at its base

3.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 In a Greek city, what were typical activities carried out at the agora? What types of activities were done at the acropolis?
- 2 How did life change for a new bride, and how was it similar to her old life?
- 3 Why do you think *chitons* were loosely worn and made from lightweight material?
- 4 Explain how the roles of men and women in ancient Greece influenced the way they were educated.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 Study Source 9 and use a table to compare and contrast an ancient Greek city with a modern city. In one column, list the things that are similar; in a second column list the things that are different.

- 6 Look closely at Source 12.
 - a What conclusions can you draw about life for the people who lived in this house?
 - b List the features of the house that are similar to modern houses, then list the differences.
- 7 What evidence challenges a common belief that Sparta sacrificed everything for the military way of life?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 8 Think about the different roles of men, women and slaves.
 - a How were these roles reflected in the design of houses in ancient Greece?
 - b From the perspective of either a man, woman or slave, write a diary entry outlining a typical day both within the house and any roles undertaken away from the house.

3C

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 15 marks = 600 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT GREECE?

» Outline how society in ancient Athens and Sparta was organised and governed including the roles of law and religion

- 1 How were people classified or distinguished in ancient Greek society? (10 marks)
- 2 Outline the political systems of ancient Greece in the fifth century BC, in:
 - a Athens (5 marks)
 - b Sparta (5 marks)
 - c other city-states with political systems that differ from Athens and Sparta. (5 marks)

» Assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece.

- 3 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in ancient Greece. (10 marks)

» Describe the roles of key groups in Athenian and Spartan society, such as citizens, women and slaves

- 4 Distinguish between the following groups in ancient Greek society, including a description of their rights and expected roles:
 - a men and women (10 marks)
 - b citizens and non-citizens (5 marks)
 - c slaves and free-born people. (5 marks)

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Athens and Sparta

- 5 Describe the experiences of men, women and children in ancient Athens and Sparta. Include a paragraph on each of the following aspects:
 - family life
 - schooling
 - fashion and beauty
 - life in a Greek city. (15 marks)

Total marks [/70]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Rich task

Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills

3D

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE GREECE AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

3.8 TRADING GOODS AND IDEAS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe significant contacts with other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts for ancient Greece and other societies.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Trade remained a constant feature of all Greek city-states. As populations grew and new ideas advanced along the Silk Roads, the nature of trade changed.

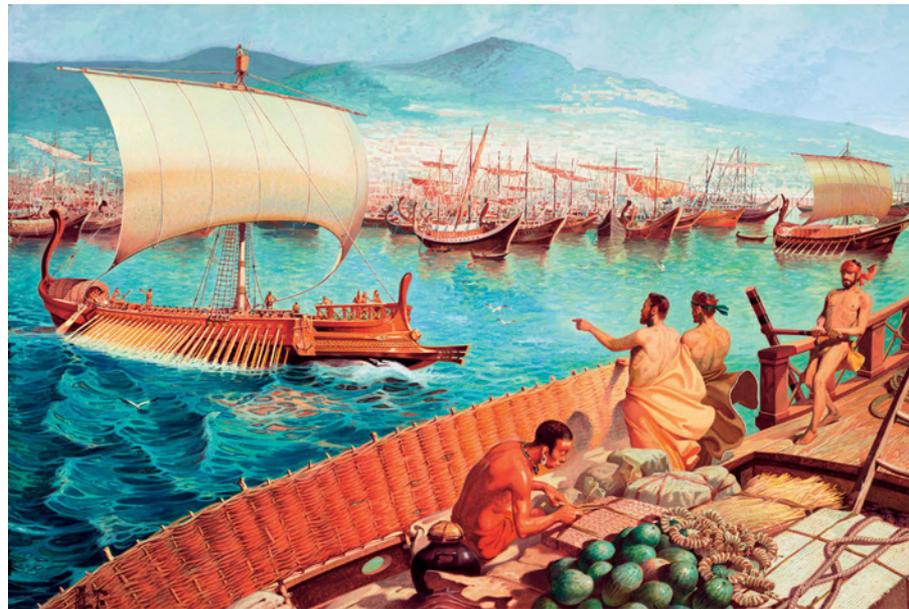
Greece's soil was fertile for growing olives and grapes, and timber was in plentiful supply for boat-building. However, a shortage of farmland meant a shortage of grain crops. Metals other than silver were also in limited supply.

Ancient Greece's colonies provided much of the grain they needed, and trade links were set up all around the Mediterranean to trade for other resources. Its widespread trading partners,

including ancient Egypt and Rome, exposed Greece to a wide range of different **cultures**. Trade also gave the ancient Greeks the opportunities to advance and acquire great wealth. Sea trade became very important to ancient Greece. Ports sprang up along the coastline and many Greek merchants became very rich.

Through sea trade, the Greeks improved their navigation and ship-building skills. They were also introduced to new ideas and learnt skills from those they traded with. These included:

- ideas about astronomy, building methods and mathematics from ancient Egypt (Egyptian design also influenced pottery design during Greece's so-called Oriental period; until then, symbols used for pot decoration in Greece were geometric)
- ways to cook with spices from parts of Asia
- metal technologies from the ancient Syrians.



Source 1 An artist's impression of Greek trading ships (*triremes*) at the Greek island of Delos

culture

the customs and traditions that a community, society or civilisation develops over time that are passed down from generation to generation

radiocarbon dating

a method used to estimate the age of something that was once alive; the amount of radioactive carbon in the object gives a good indication of age because carbon breaks down over time at a known rate

Evidence of the increase in Mediterranean Sea traffic at this time is provided by shipwrecks discovered by marine archaeologists. **Radiocarbon dating** of ancient shipwrecks confirms that two sank during the eighth century BC, and 46 during the fourth century BC.

3.8 SOURCE STUDY

Evidence of trade in ancient Greece



Source 2 This image shows ancient *amphorae*, which provide evidence of the type of cargo carried by a trading ship that sank in the fourth century BC in the Aegean Sea.



Source 3 Dr Maria Hansson, testing for ancient DNA in samples collected from a Greek *amphora*

A new type of DNA analysis has given new insights into centuries-old trade in the Mediterranean. Usually, *amphorae* (ancient storage jars) are empty when found in shipwrecks. Many archaeologists had previously believed that *amphorae* were mainly used to transport wine. However, a new method that analyses ancient DNA molecules from inside the *amphorae* has revealed traces of olive, ginger, walnuts, herbs and grapes (as expected). This suggests that the ancient Greeks produced and traded a wide range of foods, and the economy of the time was much more sophisticated than previously thought. Archaeologist Brendan Foley says that the new research will allow us to ‘see who traded what with whom; what people were eating; how they prepared and preserved food; what crops were grown where and when’. One of the researchers, biologist Maria Hansson said: ‘It’s a feat no one thought was even possible ... it opens up a whole new field of molecular archaeology.’

INTERPRET

- 1 Identify two examples of technology being used by historians and archaeologists.
- 2 Researchers discovered that the Greeks traded more than just wine. Why is this discovery significant?
- 3 Why do you think *amphorae* from shipwrecks are usually empty?
- 4 According to archaeologist Brendan Foley, what new evidence about life in ancient Greece could become available as a result of this scientific technique?

3.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Why were resources in short supply in mainland Greece?
- 2 Identify some of the skills and ideas gained by ancient Greece from its contact with other societies.
- 3 What does evidence reveal about trade in the Mediterranean?

3.9 ANCIENT GREECE AT WAR

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

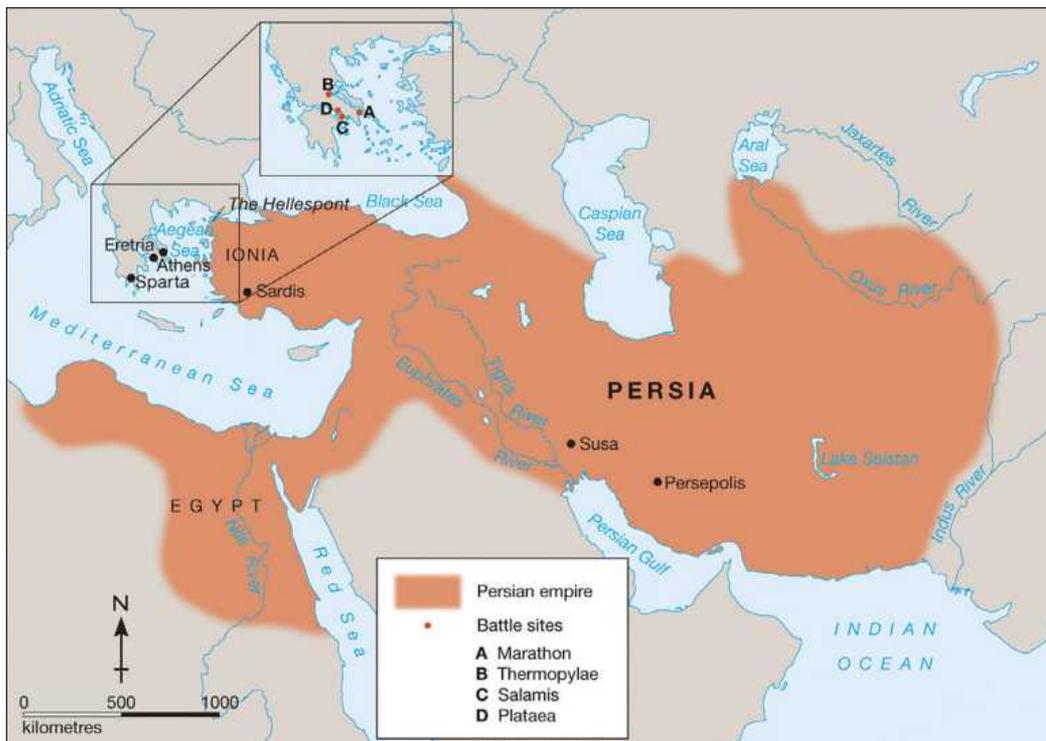
- identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within ancient Greek society
- assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece.

The ancient Greeks united against attacks from the Persian Empire and also fought among themselves. Wars meant that loyalties between city-states changed, and new military strategies developed. Ultimately, these conflicts weakened the once-powerful city-states of Athens and Sparta, depleting their wealth and populations. Foreign powers such as the Macedonians, and later the Roman Empire, were able to take control of Greece.

The Persian Wars

Our understanding of the Persian Wars relies largely on the work of Herodotus. His version is overwhelmingly 'pro' Greek. Herodotus believed that the Greek victory was partly because the Greeks were favoured by the gods.

The Persian Wars were attempts made by the Persian kings Darius I and Xerxes I to extend their empire. Greece was seen as a potential valuable addition to the Persian Empire. The Persians also saw how useful aspects of Greek culture such as engineering and the sciences could be. The Persian Wars were fought in 490 BC and then again in 480–479 BC. Two of the battles from these wars, the Battle of Marathon and the Battle of Thermopylae, have become famous in history, fable and myth.



Source 4 The extent of the Persian Empire at the time of the wars with ancient Greece

STRANGE BUT TRUE

After the Battle of Marathon, the Greek leader Miltiades knew that the retreating Persian fleet would head to Athens. He ordered a young man to run 42 kilometres ahead to warn the city. The runner succeeded, but died of exhaustion. Although this story may be a myth, it is the basis of the modern-day marathon race.

Persia's first invasion and the Battle of Marathon

The Persian Empire extended from India to Egypt. In 521 BC, Darius I became ruler and extended Persian control to a number of Greek city-states in Ionia, a region now in modern Turkey. In 499 BC, these Ionian Greek states rebelled against the Persians, and two Greek city-states, Athens and Eretria, sent warships to help the rebellion. Despite their help, the Greek rebellion against the Persians was crushed. According to Herodotus, Darius not only wanted to extend his empire, he also wanted to punish the Greeks. He sent his army out against the Greeks in 490 BC, attacking and destroying Eretria. Darius then ordered a Persian fleet to sail to Marathon, close to Athens. The battle that resulted is one of the most important in Greek history. It is known as the Battle of Marathon. This battle was fought between the Greek hoplites and the more lightly armoured Persians.

The Persian army was used to fighting in the vast open plains of their homelands. Their tactics relied on vast numbers, with archers and cavalry who could march long distances to battle. Unfortunately for the Persians, their battles on the Greek mainland were generally fought in very mountainous country. These conditions were better suited to the more heavily armoured Greek hoplites and their battle tactics.

3.9A SOURCE STUDY

The Battle of Marathon

Source 5

Amongst the Athenian commanders opinion was divided: some were against risking a battle, on the ground that the Athenian force was too small to stand a chance of success; others – and amongst them Miltiades – urged it. It seemed for a time as if the more faint-hearted policy would be adopted ... Miltiades' words prevailed, and ... the decision to fight was made.

One result of the disposition of the Athenian troops before the battle was the weakening of the centre by the effort to extend the line sufficiently to cover the whole Persian front; the two wings were strong, but the line in the centre was only a few ranks deep. The dispositions [were] made ... word was given to move and the Athenians advanced at a run towards the enemy, not less than a mile [1600 metres]) away ... they were the first Greeks, so far as we know, to charge at a run, and the first to look without flinching at Persian dress and the men who wore it ... The struggle at Marathon was long drawn out. In the centre ... the advantage was with the foreigners ... but the Athenians on one wing and the Plataeans on the other were both victorious ... drawing the two wings together into a single unit, they turned their attention to the Persians who had broken through the centre. Here again they were triumphant, chasing the routed enemy, and cutting them down. ... In the battle of Marathon some 6400 Persians were killed; the losses of the Athenians were 192.

An account of the Battle of Marathon by the Greek historian Herodotus, in The Histories, Penguin Books, London, 1996 pp. 362-4

INTERPRET

- 1 Who was the Athenian leader?
- 2 Write a narrative text outlining the key events in the battle.
- 3 What were the Persian and the Greek losses in the battle?
- 4 According to the source, which factors contributed most to the Greek victory?

3.9B SOURCE STUDY

- 1 Helmet; some curved out at the bottom to deflect slipping blades away from the body. It covered everything but the eyes.
- 2 Chest plate called a cuirass, made from bronze or leather; sometimes it was moulded to look like a bare torso (abs and all). Armour was heavy (about 30 kilograms) and hot to wear in the summer.
- 3 Double-edged sword, with a curved blade
- 4 Concave round shield, usually decorated
- 5 Metal greaves, which guarded the shins
- 6 Red cloak; some researchers suggest that this was not worn in battle.
- 7 Spear, over 2 metres long, with an iron blade at one end and bronze spike at the other
- 8 Long hair, usually combed and decorated before a battle



Source 6 An artist's impression of a Greek hoplite



Source 7 An artist's impression of Persian soldiers

- 1 A thanvabara or archer wears a loose-fitting tunic and trousers under his leather armour. His bow is made from wood, bone and animal sinew and has a range of over a 100 metres. He carries a secondary weapon, a sword, in case he is required to fight the enemy at close quarters.
- 2 Bows and arrows used for enemies at a distance
- 3 A Persian soldier wears leather armour and is armed with a war hammer. He carries a shield made of fabric-covered wood.
- 4 The sparabara or 'shield bearers' were the frontline infantrymen. This soldier wears an embroidered tunic and Scythian-style headdress. In battle, several sparabara form a shield wall using their large, wicker shields and 2-metre spears to protect the archers and other soldiers. The wicker shields were light and manoeuvrable, but did not provide protection against heavily armoured opponents.

INTERPRET

- 1 Sources 6 and 7 are artists' impressions of a Greek hoplite and Persian soldiers at the time of the Battle of Marathon. Compare and contrast the armour and weapons of the two soldiers. Which would best suit a battle fought at close quarters? Explain your reasoning.

The Battle of Marathon and the role of Miltiades



Source 8 A statue of Miltiades in Athens

The Athenian leader Miltiades is linked to the famous Greek victory at Marathon. His role in the victory, however, may have been an exaggeration and a convenient political invention. Our understanding is based on the controversial account by Herodotus (see Source 5) and archaeological research.

There is a consensus that the Persians landed at the Bay of Marathon north of Athens with a force of around 20 000. The site was a plain 10 kilometres long and 5 kilometres wide. This open ground was suited to Persian tactics. When news of the landing reached Athens, the Athenians knew that there would be no military aid from Sparta for weeks. Athens did, however, have help from 1000 hoplites from the neighbouring city of Plataea, and this is often ignored in the story.

The Greeks marched to meet the enemy. After several days' delay, with the Greeks on the high ground and the Persians on the plain near the beach, the battle began. According to Herodotus, one of the reasons for the delay was that the Athenians were waiting for Miltiades' turn to command in a rotating system among the leaders or *strategoï*. However, there is a lack of evidence for this assertion and modern scholars doubt the claim.



Source 9 The plain of Marathon as it is today

According to Herodotus, Miltiades made the key decisions, including when and how to attack. He is said to have extended the line of Greek soldiers, spreading them out to match the Persian line. However, this meant the line was thinner, so instead of being 10 to 12 soldiers deep, it was five to six soldiers deep in the middle, making the centre weaker. Herodotus also claimed Miltiades ordered a dramatic advance at the run, covering approximately 1600 metres. This run would have been difficult, if not impossible, for soldiers in heavy armour. The consensus is that if they did run, it was only for the last part.

The result was a Greek victory but can Herodotus' version of the critical role of Miltiades be trusted? Herodotus always emphasised the roles of great men. Therefore, it is not surprising that Miltiades was given undue credit for the Greek victory.

Professor James Lacey wrote in 2011 that there were reasons to argue that the Athenian commander Callimachus played a more important role at Marathon than Miltiades. Callimachus was both more experienced and better regarded than Miltiades at the time. Lacey argues that Herodotus' version is a distortion arising from three factors:

- 1 Callimachus was killed in the battle, and was therefore not able to offer his version of events. He also came from a region of Attica that had supported a former leader, Peisistratus, who was unpopular when Herodotus was writing.
- 2 Miltiades' son Cimon became a powerful political leader in Athens. Cimon built much of his political reputation on the fame of his father.
- 3 Herodotus was earning a living in Athens giving public readings of his history at the height of Cimon's power and he wanted to keep the powerful Cimon happy.



Source 10 The Athenian funeral mound at Marathon, where 192 dead Athenians were cremated and then buried; the mound is thought to mark the area of the most intense fighting.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

GO DEEPER

- 1 Using the case study, as well as your own research, write an account of the Battle of Marathon in your own words. You will need to write around 500 words to cover all the important information.

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES AND CONTESTABILITY

The ancient record presents a different perspective to the archaeological record. Modern historians have to interpret meaning from the different accounts to determine the truth.

Persia's second invasion

The mighty Persian Empire made another attempt to conquer Greece in 480 BC. The son of Darius, Xerxes I, led a much bigger army than the one that his father had sent 10 years earlier. This time, however, the Athenians and the Spartans worked together to defend Greece.

King Leonidas of Sparta moved north to hold the narrow pass at Thermopylae and block the Persian army's advance. The Spartans, in a heroic and renowned stand, held the pass until they were betrayed by a fellow Greek who told the Persians how to find a way around their lines. Leonidas still refused to retreat. Although he died along with the 300 Spartans of his personal guard, they inflicted huge losses on the Persians.

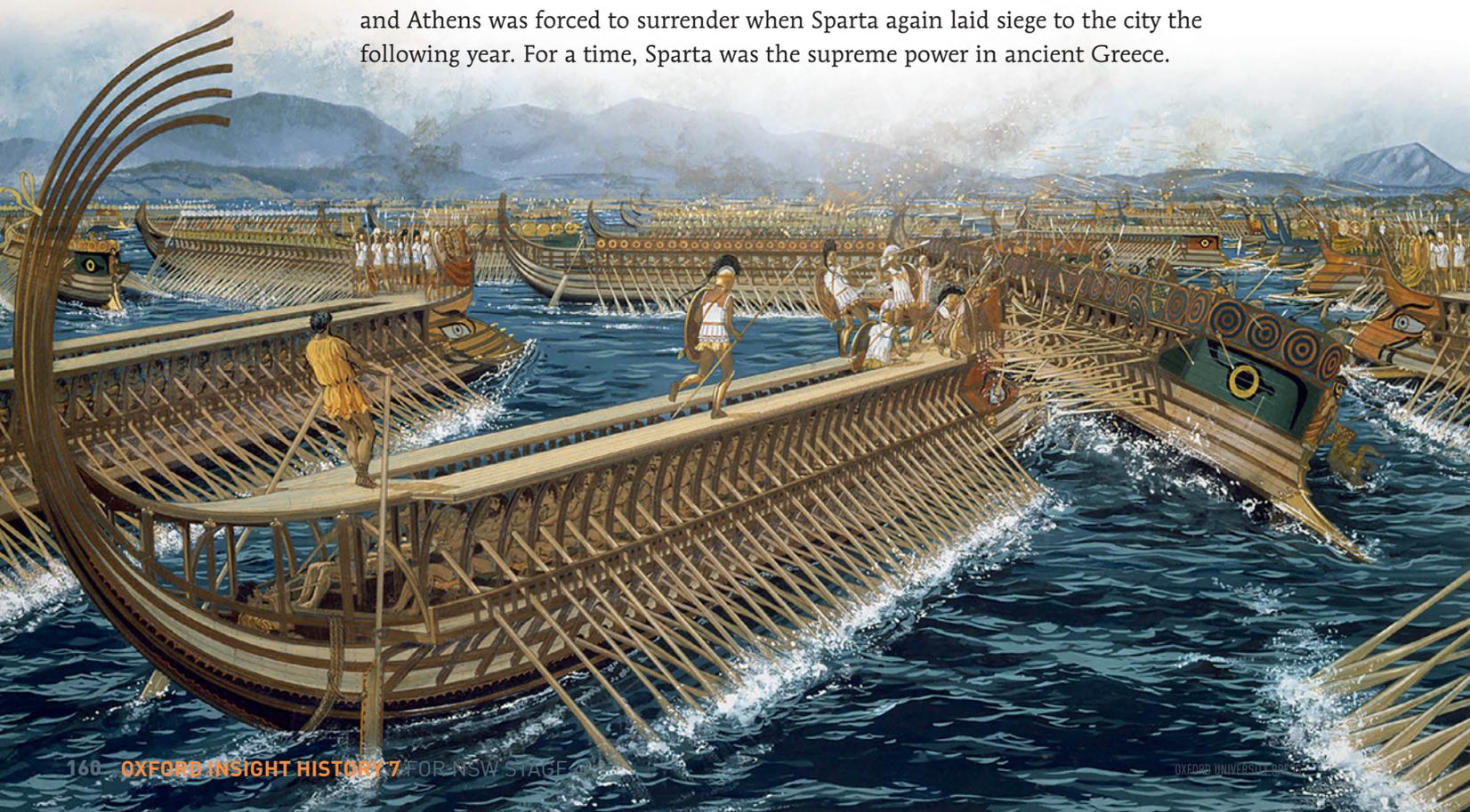
The Persians reached Athens, but the 'last stand' of Leonidas at Thermopylae gave the Greeks enough time to regroup as a force on the Peloponnesian Peninsula. A sea battle later that year – the Battle of Salamis – gave the Athenian navy an important victory, in which they sank or captured 300 ships in the narrow straits of Salamis, near Athens. But the Persian threat did not end until another Spartan army defeated the Persians at Plataea one year later, in 479 BC.

The Peloponnesian Wars

Our knowledge of the Peloponnesian Wars comes mainly from the account left by Thucydides. He was an Athenian and wrote that his account could be trusted because he lived through the events that he recorded.

Long-held tensions between Sparta and Athens resulted in a conflict between them and their allied city-states. This conflict, known as the Peloponnesian Wars, lasted from 431 BC to 405 BC. It started with an attack by the Spartan army and a 10-year siege of the walled city of Athens that wore out both sides. A truce was called in 421 BC, but fighting soon resumed. A huge sea battle was fought in 406 BC at Aegospotami, ending in a stunning victory by Sparta. The once-great Athenian navy was largely destroyed, and Athens was forced to surrender when Sparta again laid siege to the city the following year. For a time, Sparta was the supreme power in ancient Greece.

Source 11 An artist's impression of a sea battle during the time of the Peloponnesian Wars



Conflict with Macedon

For Athens and other city-states, the consequences of the wars was the loss of their wealth, as well as a great deal of social upheaval. Much of the farmland in ancient Greece was ruined and trade was disrupted, which affected food supplies and the general economy. Sparta's closed society, which only allowed the descendants of original Spartans to become citizens, meant that its population had seriously declined from battle losses. This, in turn, would have affected the social structure.

While ancient Greece was starting to crumble, a new power was gaining strength in the north: Macedon. Under the rule of King Philip II, the army of Macedon brought most of Greece under Macedonian control by 338 BC. Philip was assassinated in 336 BC and his 20-year-old son Alexander took control. He would become known as Alexander the Great.

In the 13 years of his rule, Alexander's army defeated the Persians, ending their empire and creating his own empire, which stretched from Egypt to what is now Pakistan. Alexander greatly admired Greek culture and had been educated in its traditions. In the lands he conquered, he set up Greek rulers and introduced Greek customs, belief systems and practices. This widespread Greek influence, which survived for centuries, is referred to as the region's Hellenistic period (*Hellene* is the Greek word for 'Greek').

3.9 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Create a flow chart or timeline of the key events of the Persian Wars.
- 2 Why was Athens forced to surrender to the Spartans, ending the Peloponnesian Wars?
- 3 Explain the consequences suffered by Greece as a result of the Persian and Peloponnesian wars.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 4 Use digital and other resources to investigate the life and achievements of Alexander the Great. Write a report to present your findings about his upbringing and how he created an empire. Remember to include any relevant sources.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 5 Based on your investigation of Alexander the Great, create a 2- to 3-minute video on why he is considered to be a significant individual in the ancient world. Your video can include images with voice recording, or can be acted out in scenes. Remember to use a range of evidence to support your argument.

Source 12 A statue of Alexander the Great



3.10 THE LEGACY OF ANCIENT GREECE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain the legacy of ancient Greece.

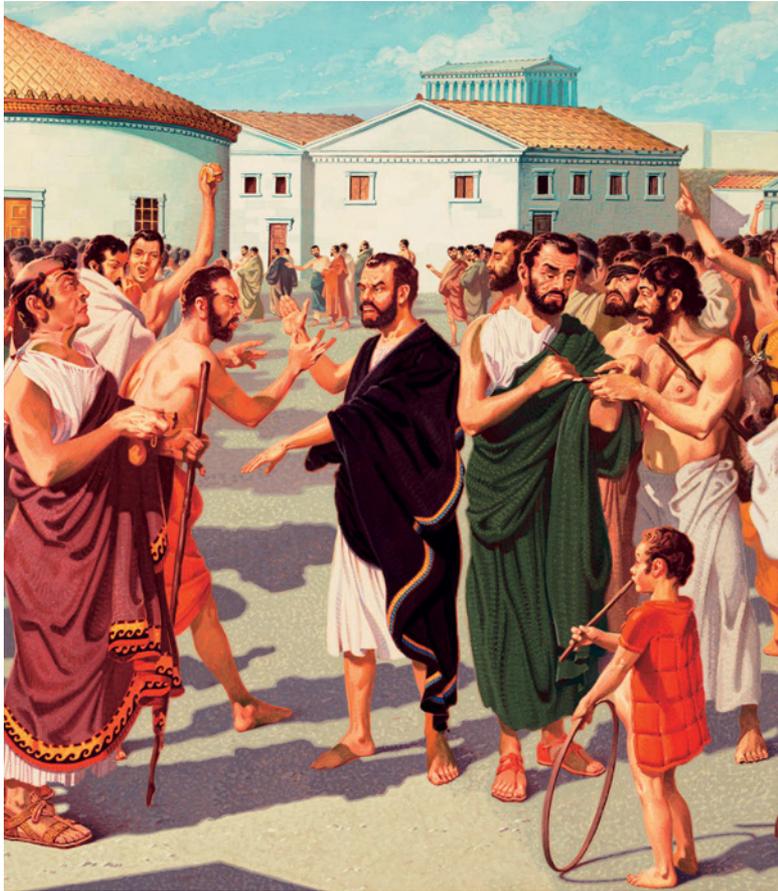
Legacy

something passed down or received from an ancestor or predecessor (e.g. a language, way of doing something)

The **legacy** of ancient Greece means it is sometimes called the ‘cradle of Western civilisation’ because many of the Western world’s founding ideas and traditions have come from the period known as the Golden Age or Classical period of Athens. These include democracy as a form of government, Western drama, aspects of modern architecture and sculpture, and the work of Greek mathematicians, philosophers and storytellers who continue to inspire.

Democratic government and the rule of law

Athens is acknowledged as the birthplace of the ideals of democracy, and some features of ancient Greek law remain in modern court systems. The Greek philosopher Plato and his student Aristotle wrote a great deal about government and the importance of the rule of law. Their ideas are still valued and continue to be studied today.



Source 13 Greek philosophers often debated their ideas in the marketplace.

Philosophy and education

Philosophers concern themselves with key issues about truth (the nature of reality) and ethics (what is right and wrong). They also study logic (the organisation of thinking and argument). Western philosophy owes something to Socrates, a pioneer of both Western philosophy and teaching, but perhaps even more to his student Plato. Plato established a school in Athens called the Academy, which provided the basis for our word ‘academic’.

When teachers ask questions meant to make students think and ask further questions, rather than just test their memory for facts, they are using what is called the ‘Socratic method’, which has its basis in the ideas of Socrates.

Drama, language and literature

Ancient Greece provided the foundation of modern theatre, which in turn led to film and television dramas. Many of our traditions about the theatre and about comedy and tragedy date back to the Greeks. Actors are also known as thespians, from the name of the Greek poet Thespis, who is said to have pioneered the use of actors on stage.

Well-known playwrights and writers in ancient Greece include Sophocles, Aeschylus, Aesop and Aristophanes.

All Western alphabets can be traced back to the alphabet that the ancient Greeks themselves adopted from the Phoenicians in about 800 BC. Even the word 'alphabet' comes from the first two letters of the ancient Greek alphabet – *alpha* and *beta*. Many English words have Greek origins.

Western culture owes much to the mythology of ancient Greece. The legends and myths about its gods and heroes, such as those told in the epic poems of Homer, continue to inspire and entertain us through modern versions in novels and films.



Source 14 A mask used by actors in ancient Greece

Architecture and sculpture

The ancient Greeks were famous for their impressive public buildings and their temples. A key feature of these buildings was their use of stone columns, which formed the basis of architecture in the classical style.

The ancient Greeks made life-like sculptures of people, often in the nude, to show the beauty of the human body. This classical style was later brought back into favour by Renaissance artists such as Michelangelo and Leonardo da Vinci.



Source 15 Australia's democratic system of government, and even the architecture of its federal parliament building, is a legacy of the ancient Greek civilisation.

Mathematics, science and medicine

Archimedes was a Greek mathematician who invented, among other things, a water-pumping device known as the Archimedes screw. Other important Greeks include Pythagoras and Euclid, who were pioneers of mathematics and geometry. All doctors take a version of the Hippocratic Oath, a promise to care for the sick, to respect human life and the privacy of patients. This idea comes from the Greek scholar Hippocrates, who is sometimes called ‘the father of Western medicine’.



Source 16 Agnodice is believed to have been the first female physician and midwife in ancient Greece

3.10 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Which aspects of Western civilisation originated in ancient Greece?
- 2 Where does the word ‘alphabet’ come from?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 Which of ancient Greece’s legacies do you think has been the most important for the modern world? Write a persuasive text to explain your answer.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 4 In Athens, plays were first held in the agora, then in open-air auditoriums as their popularity grew. Investigate how plays originated, and how they were structured and performed in ancient Greek auditoriums. Use a model or sketch to present your findings.

GO DEEPER

- 5 The exercise of mind and body is a Greek legacy. One of Socrates’ students, Plato, wrote: ‘In order to succeed in life, God provided two means: education and physical activity.’ Have a class discussion about what this statement means.
- 6 Copy the table below, which lists Greek words (or root words), their general meaning and an English word that has developed from the Greek. In each case, add other English words to the third column, using that same root. You may find a dictionary helpful.

Greek word	General meaning	English word
<i>demos</i>	the people	democracy
<i>anti</i>	against	anticlockwise
<i>geo</i>	earth	geography
<i>bios</i>	life	biology
<i>therm</i>	heat	thermometer
<i>logos</i>	word	dialogue

3D

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 15 marks = 500 to 600 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE GREECE AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

» Identify contacts and conflicts of peoples within ancient Greek society

- 1 Identify the major conflict between Athens and Sparta, and describe the course and the result of this conflict. (10 marks)
- 2 What consequences did this conflict have for Athens and Sparta, and for ancient Greek society as a whole? (5 marks)

» Describe significant contacts with other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest

- 3 Identify trading and other contacts between ancient Greece, its colonies and other societies. (5 marks)
- 4 Identify the major conflict fought between Greek city-states and the Persian Empire, and describe the course and result of this conflict. (10 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts for ancient Greece and other societies

- 5 What consequences did trading and other contacts have for ancient Greece, its colonies and other societies? (5 marks)
- 6 What consequences did the major conflict have for ancient Greece and the Persian Empire? (5 marks)
- 7 What consequences did the conflict between ancient Greece and its neighbouring power have for Greece and the ancient world? (5 marks)

» Assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece

- 8 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in ancient Greece. (10 marks)

» Explain the legacy of ancient Greece

- 9 Identify and describe four ideas, technologies or cultural traditions that are legacies of the ancient Greeks. Explain how each of these legacies has influenced the modern world. (15 marks)

Total marks [/70]

Check your Student [ebook assess](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet

Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher [ebook assess](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

QuizletLive

Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.



Source 1 The Colosseum was used to stage gladiatorial fights during the Roman Empire.

4 ANCIENT ROME

The civilisation of ancient Rome lasted around 1300 years. At its heart was the city of Rome, which grew out of settlements in the seven hills near the Tiber River. Fuelled by trade and important links to the Silk Roads, alliances and the strength of its army, Rome grew in size and strength. By 201 BC, Rome had become a vast empire that included mainland Italy and the islands of Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica. Within another 300 years, the Roman army had conquered lands as far north as England and as far east as Egypt. Many of Rome's traditions, beliefs, cultural practices and technical skills have heavily influenced Western civilisation. The Romans built cities, roads, sanitation facilities and even central heating systems. The language of the Romans – Latin – also became the basis for most Western European languages. Today, the remains of ancient Rome are some of the most important cultural sites in the world and among the most visited.

ANCIENT ROME – A TIMELINE

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753 BC
According to legend, Rome is founded by Romulus.

Source 2 According to Roman legend, Romulus and his brother Remus were raised by a wolf. Romulus is said to have killed his brother before founding Rome.

264 BC
The first gladiator show is presented in Rome.

149 BC
Rome's third and final battle of the Punic wars ends in 146 BC, destroying Carthage.

700

500

400

300

200

100

509 BC
The Romans throw out the last Etruscan king and set up the Roman Republic.

312 BC
The first major Roman road (the Via Appia) and the first aqueduct are built.

250 BC
Rome controls most of Italy.

218 BC
The Carthaginian leader Hannibal invades Italy.

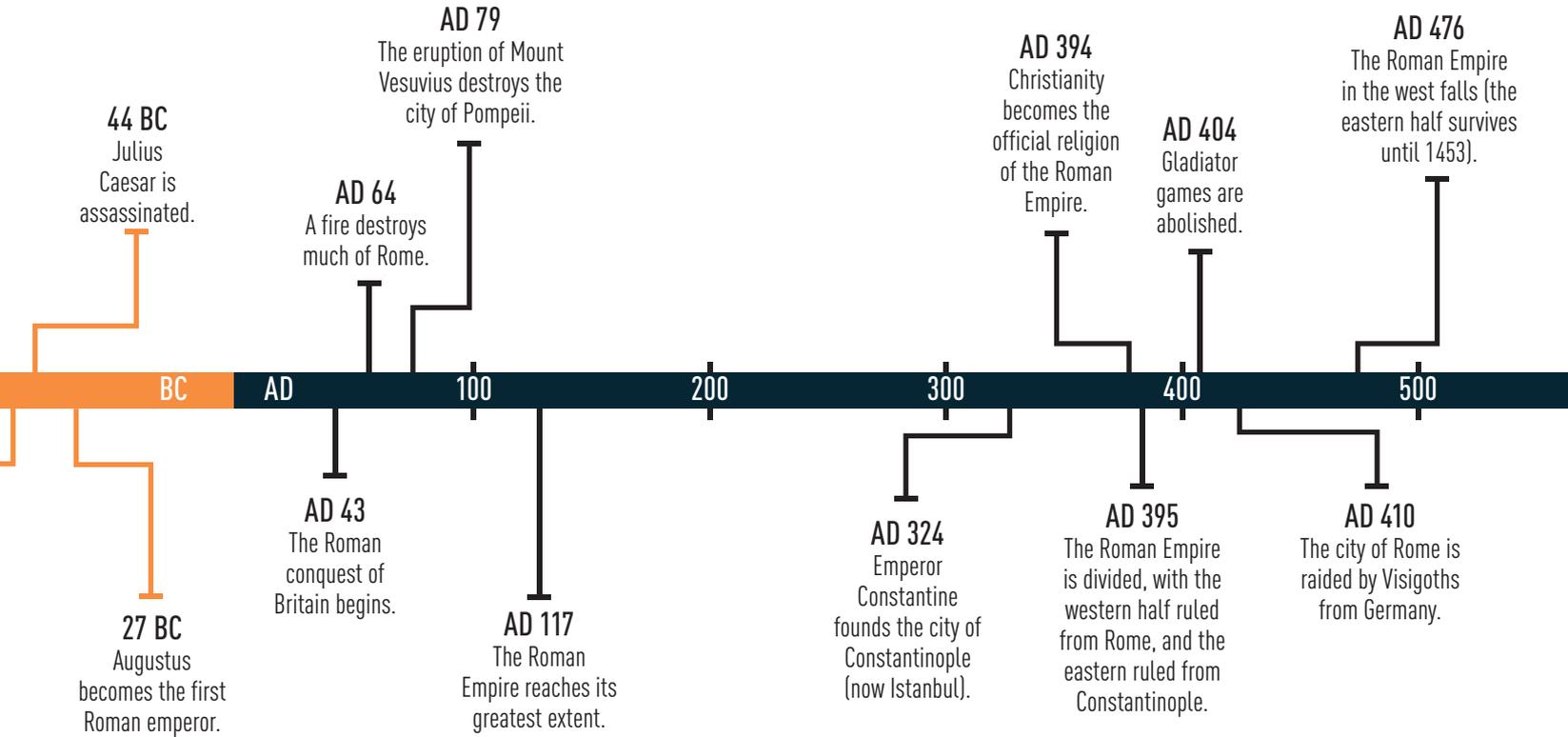
55–54 BC
Julius Caesar raids Britain but does not stay.



Source 3
A coin depicting Hannibal, famous for marching elephants across the Alps



Source 4 A cast of a victim of the Mount Vesuvius eruption found in the ruins of Pompeii



Source 5 An artist's impression of the assassination of Julius Caesar

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 How long did gladiator games exist in Rome?
- 2 Which modern capital city was founded by a Roman emperor?
- 3 When was the Roman Empire at its greatest extent?
- 4 Who was the first emperor of Rome?
- 5 When did Rome become a republic?

4A

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT ROME?

4.1 THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT ROME

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Rome
- explain how these features influenced the development of Roman society.

Rome began as a small settlement on one of seven hills beside the Tiber River, in what is now central Italy. The Roman writer Varro calculated that Rome was first settled in 753 BC, which has now become the accepted official date. However, the first small settlements on the Roman hills have been dated by archaeologists as being from the tenth century BC.

Rome's position was excellent for future growth and trade, about 25 kilometres inland from the Mediterranean Sea at the first point where the Tiber River is narrow enough for bridges to be built. The Tiber at this point could still be accessed by seagoing ships, and the crossings allowed easy access to overland trade routes. The site was also well provided with natural springs for fresh water.

Source 1 The site of the original crossing of the Tiber River; the left-hand span of the bridge dates back to 62 BC.



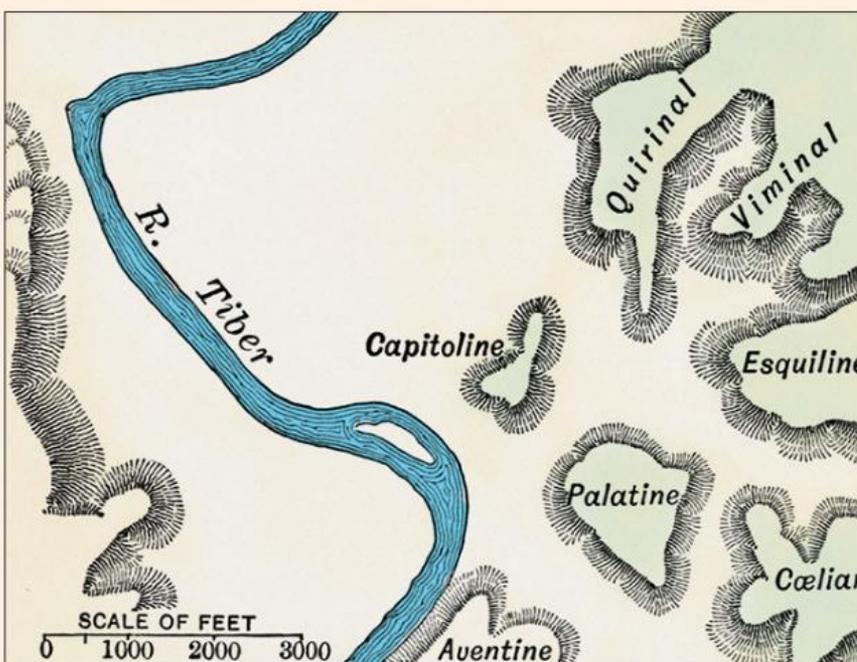
Other geographical features on the Italian Peninsula played an important part in Rome's history. Rome's earliest settlements developed in the region's western plains, but much of the region is mountainous. A rugged mountain range, the Apennines, runs down most of the length of the Peninsula. To the north, the Alps form a natural barrier to the rest of Europe, as shown in Source 2.

4.1 SOURCE STUDY

The geographical setting of ancient Rome



Source 2 Rome's location in the Mediterranean



Source 3 An illustrated map of the seven hills of Rome

INTERPRET

Study Sources 2 and 3 and answer the following questions.

- 1 Identify the mountain ranges in and around the Italian Peninsula.
- 2 Identify the seas surrounding the Italian Peninsula.
- 3 List the seven hills surrounding Rome.

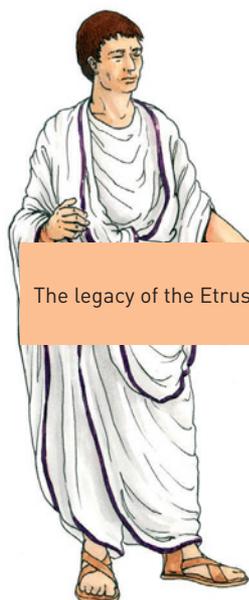
Rome's mythical origins

Romans developed myths about their origins, the most famous of which is about the twin brothers Romulus and Remus. According to the story, they were the sons of Mars, the Roman god of war, and a princess. A jealous uncle who wanted to take power from Mars ordered a servant to drown the boys in the river, but the servant took pity on them and set them afloat in a wooden cradle. When they were washed up on the shore, a female wolf fed the boys with her milk. They were later found by a shepherd.

As adults, Romulus and Remus agreed to build a new city near where the wolf had found them, but argued over the site. Romulus chose the Palatine Hill and Remus the Aventine Hill. Romulus began to build a wall but Remus mockingly jumped over it, at which the angry Romulus killed his brother. He then built the city, which he named after himself.

Historians treat this story with caution, because there are many examples throughout history of brothers falling out and one killing the other. The story of Romulus and Remus was probably intended as a lesson to all Romans that the city of Rome and defence of its walls was more important than family.

Source 4 Some achievements and customs of the Etruscans that were adopted and developed further by the Romans



Early rule by the Etruscans

Long before the city of Rome became a powerful force in the Mediterranean world, the Roman people were ruled by the kings of a neighbouring **civilisation** known as the Etruscans. In 509 BC, a revolt by the Romans drove out the Etruscan king Tarquin the Proud and it was declared that Rome would have no more kings. However, some elements of Rome's Etruscan heritage influenced the development of Roman civilisation (see Source 4).

civilisation

a highly organised and complex culture and way of living; there are different forms of civilisation in different places and at different times

4.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 How did Rome get its name?
- 2 Identify three aspects of Roman society that had their origins in Etruscan heritage.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 3 Create an infographic summarising some of the advantages of Rome's geographical setting and natural features.

GO DEEPER

- 4 Use Google Earth to study the site of modern Rome. Identify some of the hills of Rome, particularly the Capitoline Hill. Describe your observations and then conduct research to find out about its uses through history, and what can be seen there today.

4A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT ROME?

» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Rome

- 1 Describe ancient Rome's geographical setting. (5 marks)
- 2 Look at Source 5 to identify the natural features in and around ancient Rome. (5 marks)



Source 5 The natural features around ancient Rome

» Explain how these features influenced the development of Roman society

- 3 Explain how its geographical setting and natural features influenced the way Roman society developed in ancient times. (10 marks)

Total marks [/20]

Check your Student [ebook](#) [access](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher [ebook](#) [access](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Checkpoint worksheets

Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

4B

HOW WAS ANCIENT ROMAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

4.2 ROMAN SOCIETY DURING THE REPUBLIC

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline how society in ancient Rome was organised and governed, including the roles of law and religion
- describe the roles of key groups in Roman society, such as citizens, women and slaves.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

In order to understand life in ancient Rome, it is important to understand the experiences of different classes and groups.

republic

a system of government in which the power lies with a group of elected officials rather than a king or queen

Roman Senate

a group of officials (senators) with ruling power in ancient Rome; the Senate had a lot of power during the republic; it continued to function during the empire, but its power was reduced

patrician

an educated and usually influential male member of one of ancient Rome's aristocratic families; usually a wealthy landowner

consul

the top official in ancient Rome; there were two consuls, each with different responsibilities

plebeian

one of the many poor and uneducated people in ancient Rome

The society of ancient Rome was highly structured and governed by a complex set of rules and customs. People knew their place – there were clear distinctions between men and women, between the wealthy and the poor, between slaves and freeborn people, and between the rulers and those they ruled.

Rule in the Republic

Following the overthrow of Etruscan rule, the Romans set up a **republic**. The Roman Republic, which lasted from 509–27 BC, was ruled by the **Roman Senate**, which was made up of rich citizens from powerful families, called **patricians**. Each year two **consuls** were elected from the Senate to exercise power. Source 1 outlines the role and responsibilities of the consuls and other magistrates or government officials.

Source 1 Government officials of ancient Rome

Official	Number appointed	Role and responsibilities
Consuls	2 (for 1 year)	Top ruling officials who shared power; they called and oversaw meetings of the Senate, and managed armies
Praetors	Up to 16	Managed the legal system; they appointed (or were) judges, and could be appointed as governors in the provinces
Aediles	2	Looked after food supply, games, public buildings, city maintenance and markets
Quaestors	Up to 40	Looked after financial matters within cities and the army
Censors	2 (every 5 years)	Reviewed Senate membership, enrolled new citizens, conducted census, and oversaw tax collection and public work contracts

Ordinary citizens, known as **plebeians**, could meet in assemblies to discuss issues and vote to elect magistrates, but in reality they had little political power. As Rome grew, the plebeians grew discontented by their lack of influence and rebelled, refusing to serve in the army. It was agreed that they could elect two representatives called tribunes who could stop any action of the Senate by calling out '*veto*' (Latin for 'I forbid'). This word is now part of our English language and is used to mean putting a stop to something. By the early first century BC, the Senate had around 300 members, all of whom were current and former government officials. If they behaved appropriately, they were members for life.



Source 2 A nineteenth-century painting of a meeting of the Roman Senate

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the image in Source 2.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

Citizens of Rome

Roman citizenship was highly prized. Roman citizens had more rights and much more social power and influence than non-citizens. Once they turned 25, they could vote, be elected as magistrates, serve in the army and draw up contracts. They could also legally defend themselves and did not have to pay certain taxes. They could not be tortured or **crucified** as punishment for breaking the law.

Only men could be citizens – and even then, only certain men. In addition to patricians and plebeians, there was a third social class (based on birth and wealth), called equites, as shown in Source 3.

Slaves could not be citizens. In fact they had no freedoms or rights at all. Their master could do with them as he wished, including killing them. Some slaves were given their freedom and a few became very wealthy. Any sons born to freed slaves could become citizens. Foreigners (free men born outside Rome) had some rights but were not full citizens. This changed in AD 212 when it was declared that all freeborn men throughout the **empire** could be citizens.

crucify

to put a person to death by nailing or binding his or her hands and feet to a wooden cross; this punishment was called 'crucifixion'

empire

a group of countries and/or areas, often with different languages and cultures, that are ruled by a central power or leader (known as an emperor or empress)

Source 3 Classes of citizen in ancient Rome

Patricians	Equites	Plebeians
<p>These men could trace their line of descent back to very important families. They were also very wealthy landowners. For a long time, they had all the controlling power.</p> 	<p>These men were descended from farmers who had provided the money and horses for military service in the early Roman army. Over time, they became Rome's wealthy merchants and businessmen.</p> 	<p>These were the common men, including poor townsmen and poorer rural workers. At first, they had very little say in what happened in ancient Rome. This changed over time.</p> 

The role of women in ancient Rome

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In a Roman household the father had absolute power. He could even condemn his wife and children to death if he wished.

Vestal Virgin

a virgin priestess in ancient Roman times whose life was dedicated to the goddess Vesta, and to maintaining the sacred fire in her temple

In ancient Rome, women were expected to be good wives and mothers. Many were highly respected but they had no real power and they could not vote or own property. Legally, they had no control over their children. They, their children, their sons' wives and children, and any slaves were all strictly controlled by the senior male in the extended family. Women had to have a male guardian with them in public (such as their father, husband or a brother). Among women there was a 'pecking order'; young, newly married women were very much controlled by their mothers-in-law.

Women's prime role was to raise children and run the household. Wealthy women had slaves to help them with these tasks. Girls could marry at the age of 12. The usual age was around 14, but some waited until their late teens or twenties. A husband was chosen by a girl's parents, particularly her father, and they were often much older than their brides.

A few women, especially those who were older, did work outside the home. This usually involved helping with the husband's work, or working in jobs that were typically female activities, such as cooking and haircutting. A public role that was open to a number of women was to be a **Vestal Virgin**. Chosen when they were young girls, these priestesses spent 30 years ensuring, among other duties, that the fire in the Temple of Vesta in Rome's Forum never went out. This was an important religious honour at the time. They were buried alive if they were ever found to have broken their vow to remain virgins.

Later in the republic, women had a little more freedom. Many women regularly went to the public baths, and attended gladiator fights, chariot races and religious festivals. Not all men were happy about this though, as shown in Source 4.

4.2A SOURCE STUDY



Source 4 A sculpture of a Roman woman and her two sons

Women in ancient Rome

Source 5

If you give women equal freedom with men, do you think this will make them easier to live with? Far from it! If women have equality, they will become men's masters.

Translated extract from the writing of Livy, a Roman historian (59 BC–AD 17)

INTERPRET

- 1 Explain how the sculpture shown in Source 4 relates to Roman expectations of the role of women.
- 2 What evidence does Source 5 provide about what Livy thought of women?
- 3 Why is it problematic for historians that most sources on Rome are from a male's perspective?

imperial

relating to the emperor or empress

emperor

someone who rules an empire, such as in ancient Rome and China; a female emperor is an empress

Women in the **imperial** and senatorial families were often deeply involved in the world of political scandal and intrigue. Livia, the wife of the first **emperor**, Augustus, and the mother of the second emperor, Tiberius, was said to have exercised enormous power in the royal household. It was rumoured that she murdered her husband by feeding him a dish of poisoned figs. Another woman of the imperial household, Agrippina the Younger, married her uncle, the emperor Claudius, then persuaded him to adopt her son from a previous marriage. It is possible that she then poisoned Claudius so that her son would rule, as he did under the name Nero. However, her desire for power soon irritated Nero and he had her killed.

Slaves in ancient Rome

As in most ancient societies, slaves provided a vital source of labour, especially on farms and in mines and quarries. Their efforts, though often costing their lives, helped to increase the prosperity of Rome.

Most slaves were captured during battle and taken as prisoners of war, although some were bought as 'goods'. A few were abandoned or used as payment for people who could not pay their debts. Less fortunate slaves could be forced to fight to the death as **gladiators**. Clever, well-educated slaves might become tutors in wealthy households, or even work in powerful positions for emperors. Some slaves were given their freedom, or earned enough money to buy it.

gladiator

a person (usually male) who fought to the death in the amphitheatres of ancient Rome for the entertainment of the crowds

4.2B SOURCE STUDY

The treatment of slaves in ancient Rome

Source 6

Clothing for the slaves: A tunic weighing three and one half pounds and a cloak in alternate years. Whenever you give a tunic or a cloak to any of them, first get the old one back to make patchwork cloaks of. Good wooden shoes should be given to them every second year.

Rations for the slaves: The chain-gang should receive four pounds of bread a day in winter, five from the time when they begin to dig the vines until the figs start to ripen, and then back to four again. The total wine issue per man for a year should be about forty-two gallons. An additional amount can be given as a bonus to the chain-gang, depending on how well they work. A reasonable quantity for them to have to drink per annum is about sixty gallons. While slaves were ill they ought not to have been given as much food.

Extract from On Agriculture by Cato the Elder (234–149 BC) that provides advice on managing slaves on an estate



Source 7 Slaves who were strong or physically attractive, such as the slave shown in this ancient mosaic, were prized as workers in households of the wealthy.

INTERPRET

- 1 Identify Sources 6 and 7 as either primary or secondary sources.
- 2 What evidence do the sources provide about the lives of slaves in Rome?

4.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Use Source 1 to answer the following questions:
 - a Which officials looked after economic matters?
 - b Why do you think two consuls shared power?
- 2 Explain the main differences between a patrician and a plebeian.
- 3 Explain why Roman citizenship was something worth having.
- 4 At what age could Roman girls be legally married?
- 5 Outline the ways in which a woman's position in Roman society was worse than a man's.
- 6 What was the role of the Vestal Virgins?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 7 Why were slaves important in ancient Rome?
- 8 In the modern United Nations organisation, some countries have a 'power of veto' over proposed actions by United Nations forces. What do you think this allows them to do, and how did this phrase originate?

GO DEEPER

- 9 Conduct some research to find five examples of monarchies and five examples of republics around the world today, and mark these on a world map.

4.3 FROM REPUBLIC TO EMPIRE

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Rome.

The life and death of Julius Caesar

quaestor

the lowest ranking elected official; usually looked after public expenditure and revenue

praetor

an official under the consuls; one praetor commanded the army while the other was a magistrate

dictator

a magistrate of the Roman Republic with almost absolute power

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Across time, Rome had many different rulers. Each one had an impact, for better or for worse, not only on the people they served, but also on future generations.

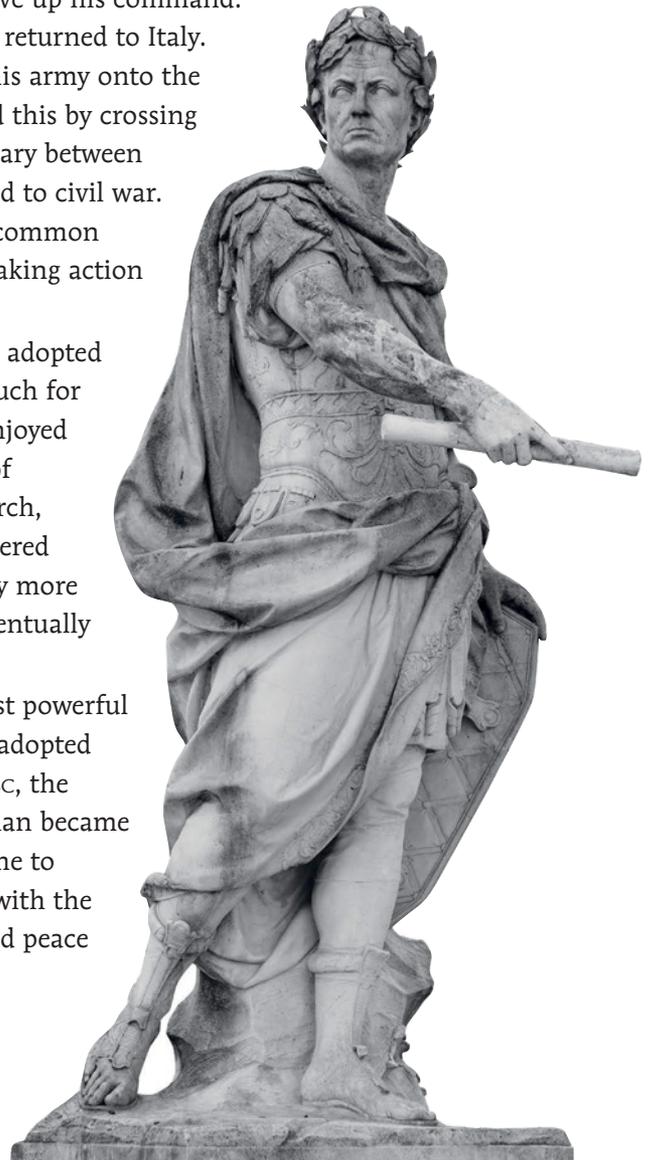
Julius Caesar was born into a patrician family in 100 BC. He was elected as a **quaestor** in 68 BC; by 64 BC he was a **praetor** and then governor of the Roman province of Spain. In 59 BC, he was elected as one of Rome's two consuls.

Caesar was a brilliant military commander, even though a great deal of this reputation was based on his campaigns in Gaul (modern-day France) where the most detailed accounts we have were written by Caesar about himself. He was popular with the people and his troops. Aside from the campaign where he conquered much of Gaul, Caesar twice raided England, though he did not stay there.

By 49 BC, many senators were concerned about Caesar's rising popularity and military successes. He was ordered to give up his command. Instead, Caesar left Gaul with his army and returned to Italy. No Roman general was permitted to bring his army onto the home territory of Rome, so when Caesar did this by crossing the Rubicon River, which formed the boundary between Rome and Gaul, this was a challenge that led to civil war. The phrase 'crossing the Rubicon' is now a common expression, meaning making a decision or taking action from which there is no going back.

Caesar won the civil war and in 45 BC he adopted the role of **dictator** for life. This was too much for the republican senators. Although Caesar enjoyed strong popularity with the people, a group of senators decided to murder him. On 15 March, 44 BC, he was stabbed 23 times when he entered the Senate House. His death was followed by more than a decade of further civil war, which eventually brought an end to the republic.

When the fighting finally ended, the most powerful man in Rome was Octavian, who had been adopted by Julius Caesar and named his heir. In 27 BC, the Roman Republic came to an end and Octavian became the first emperor. Octavian changed his name to Augustus. He ruled wisely and worked well with the Senate. He expanded the empire and restored peace and prosperity to Rome.



Source 8 A statue of Julius Caesar

Between 27 BC and AD 395 there were 147 emperors. The empire that they ruled was then the largest in the world, eventually stretching across Europe to the western regions of Asia. After AD 395, the empire was divided into two parts, the Western Empire and the Eastern Empire. This division was designed to make it easier to rule over the enormous empire. Another 23 emperors ruled in the Western Empire before its collapse in AD 476 and another 94 in the Eastern Empire before its takeover by the Ottoman Turks in AD 1453. Some of the emperors were known for their great leadership, but some behaved strangely. Following are the stories of four emperors.

Four emperors of Rome

Caligula (AD 12–42)

I am Caligula (Gaius Julius Caesar Augustus Germanicus to be precise). I was Rome's third emperor, ruling from AD 37 to AD 41. Historians say I started well. I abolished sales tax and put on lots of games to entertain the people. Then I became very ill. Some say that's when I went mad. But did I really go mad? Maybe I just wanted people to think that I was mad, so that they would fear me and I could use my supposed madness as an excuse. I did often publicly order the Sun to rise, and tried get my horse elected as consul. I loved humiliating the senators and I loved money. I had beautiful silk clothes and jewelled shoes. I made it law that wealthy men leave me their fortunes in their will. Why not? I was a god. The Roman writer Suetonius said I was cruel and depraved. True – I loved watching gladiators die and the odd bit of slow torture. I was 29 when the Praetorian Guards murdered me. They were meant to protect me!

Nero (AD 37–68)

I am Nero. I became emperor in AD 54 when I was 17. The first few years went smoothly, although I was mostly interested in the arts. I was a writer, musician and actor. I liked chariot racing, too. I had my mother murdered when I was 21 because she thought that she was the real power behind the throne. There were military campaigns in Britain and Judea, but it was the fire in Rome in AD 64 that caused the most fuss. It was said I started it and played the fiddle while Rome burned. I blamed the Christians; they made good scapegoats. We fed some to the lions in the arena and painted others with tar and set them alight. I built a new palace on the city ruins. The Senate plotted to get rid of me, but the army revolts in AD 68 were the final straw. I lost the throne to Galba, a provincial from Spain! So I took my own life.



Source 9 A bust of Caligula



Source 10 A bust of Nero



Source 11 A bust of Hadrian

Hadrian (AD 76–138)

I am Hadrian. I was emperor between AD 117 and AD 138. I gained a reputation as a military organiser by building fortifications along the borders of the empire to make the provinces safer. The best known of these was the long wall, named after me, built to protect Britannia from the wild tribes to the north.

Back in Rome, I supported the arts. I liked architecture and rebuilt the Pantheon, the huge temple to the gods that had been destroyed by fire. I gave it a huge dome, which was admired for centuries afterwards.

I liked reading Greek philosophy and wrote poetry in Latin and Greek. I made the laws more humane and banned torture. I built libraries, aqueducts, baths and theatres. I was widely thought to be just, even though I did have a bit of a temper. I did not like to be interrupted when I was working in my study, and I once poked out a slave's eye with a pen when he disturbed me. I started a fashion for beards. Only Nero before me had a beard, but afterwards most of the emperors copied me! Unfortunately, my health failed and I died of heart failure, aged 62.



Source 12 A bust of Marcus Aurelius

Marcus Aurelius (AD 121–180)

I am Marcus Aurelius. I was 40 when I became emperor, ruling between AD 161 and AD 180. Historians say I ruled well, the last of five good rulers. I increased the size of the army and introduced a number of social reforms. For most of my reign, I had a co-emperor (my stepbrother Verus). We fought the barbarians, he in Parthia (towards Asia) and I in Germanica. His troops brought the plague back to Rome and thousands died. I was a thinker and philosopher, even if I did persecute Christians rather cruelly. I wrote a book called *Meditations*, a guide for living. I eventually fell ill with the plague and died. My son Commodus ruled after me. Historians say he was unbalanced and undid a lot of the good work that I had done.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about these four emperors and order them from least to most effective.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your thoughts with the class.

4.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Outline how Julius Caesar gained his reputation as a military commander.
- 2 Who was the first emperor of Rome?
- 3 When did the Roman Empire finally collapse in Western Europe?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 4 Do you think Julius Caesar should have crossed the Rubicon with his army? Explain your reasoning.
- 5 Suggest why Julius Caesar was killed.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 6 It is 45 BC and Julius Caesar is about to take power as sole ruler. Create a poster to persuade the Roman people that this would be either a good idea or a bad idea for Rome.

GO DEEPER

- 7 Research to find out the modern-day meaning of 'crossing the Rubicon'. What does this indicate about Julius Caesar's actions if we're still referring to them in the English language today?

4.4 EVERYDAY LIFE IN THE ROMAN WORLD

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.

Everyday life in ancient Rome varied according to people's position in society and where they lived.

Family life and education

Education in ancient Rome was reserved for the wealthy, usually only for boys. Girls were taught skills that would be useful in the household, such as spinning and weaving.

In early Roman days, schooling was done in the home. Younger boys up to the age of seven would be taught by their fathers, and then by teachers or tutors, who were often educated slaves. Boys typically studied history, geography, astronomy, mathematics, reading, writing, and Greek and Latin. Older boys would learn the art of oratory (public speaking), which was considered to be essential for a career in public life. A boy would 'graduate' from his schooling around the age of 17. This occasion was a family celebration, marked by his putting on a new **toga** for his entry into public life.

Later in the Roman Republic, schools opened by freed slaves gave less wealthy boys some form of education where they learnt to read and write. Boys were frequently beaten, as there was a belief that fear would make students learn correctly.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Education remained a constant throughout ancient Rome, but the way in which it was conducted changed over time.

toga

an item of clothing worn by the male citizens of ancient Rome

4.4 SOURCE STUDY

Roman schooling



Source 13
A stone carving from AD 3 showing a father with his child



Source 14 Writing implements from ancient Rome



Source 15
A fresco of a woman, possibly the Greek poet Sappho, holding a wax tablet and stylus

INTERPRET

- 1 Look at the scene in Source 13. Which social class do the father and son belong to? Explain your reasoning.
- 2 Source 14 shows writing implements that would have been used by Roman students. The surfaces of the wood tablet were covered in wax. The sharp end of the stylus was used for writing and the blunt end for erasing by smoothing out the wax. Suggest why wooden tablets were used in schools in ancient Rome.
- 3 Source 15 depicts a woman holding a stylus and wax tablet. What does this suggest about the education of at least some women?
- 4 Why would a historian have to be careful when drawing conclusions about Source 15?

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Often the evidence available to historians provides an incomplete picture. This means a range of sources must be consulted and caution must be taken when drawing conclusions from rare types of sources.

Roman weddings

A wedding was an important family celebration in ancient Rome. Many of today's marriage ceremonies and rituals are derived from Roman practices. A wedding ring was placed on the third finger of the left hand because a nerve was thought to run from there directly to the heart. The bride wore a white dress with an orange-coloured veil and a feast was held at the home of the bride's father, where a wedding cake was served to the guests. The bride's parents were normally expected to give a **dowry** to the groom's family, and a wedding contract was drawn up between the two families setting out the financial arrangements. Most women were considered to be the property of their husbands.

dowry

an amount of property or money given by a bride's family to her husband on their marriage

After the ceremony, a party was held at the bride's father's house. Then the noisy, happy guests walked to the couple's new home (often the home of the groom's family). The husband carried his new bride over the threshold.



Source 16 A carving of a wedding ceremony in ancient Rome; the groom holds the wedding contract.

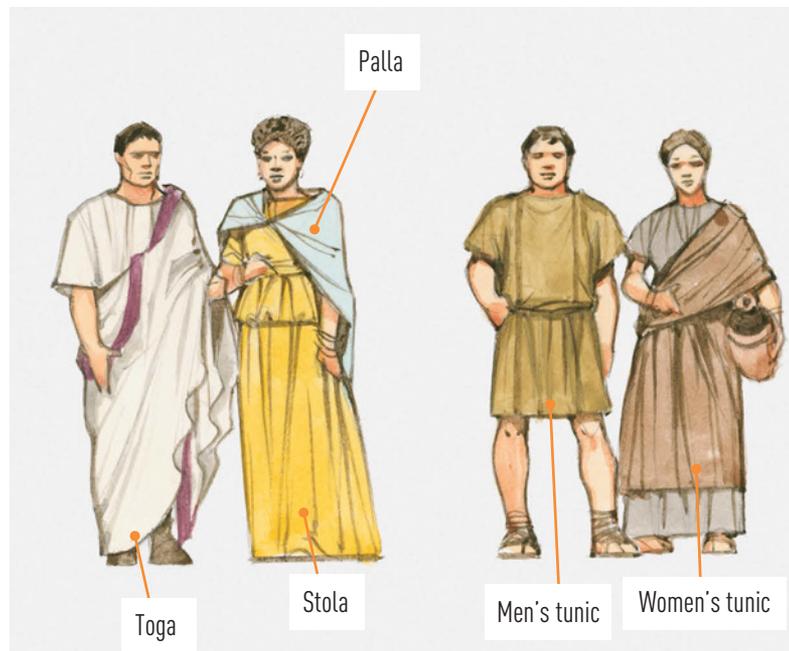
Clothing and fashion

Men and women wore tunics made from linen or wool. Women's tunics (known as *stola*), were ankle length. Men's tunics were shorter. Only citizens (men) could wear a toga over their tunic, which they did when in public. When women in ancient Rome went out, they covered their head with a veil or with part of a *palla*. This was a long rectangle of cloth that could be draped across the shoulders like a shawl, pulled up over the head like a cloak, or folded and worn around the neck and shoulders like a scarf. Slaves and children, and poorer people, wore only tunics.

Wealthy women spent time caring for their hair and skin. Roman women favoured hair that was pinned back and held in place with a comb. It was fashionable to have a pale complexion. Many women covered their faces as much as possible, while others applied chalk dust as face powder. As the empire grew, the fashions of rich women became more stylish. Leather sandals and boots replaced wooden sandals and bare feet. Silks, fur and felt were added to some wardrobes. Jewellery made from gold, ivory and polished glass became more common.



Source 17 Jewellery and other grooming accessories discovered in a villa in Pompeii



Source 18 Clothing of Roman men and women

4.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 1 Create two tables, such as those below, listing the similarities and differences between ancient Roman and modern Australian schooling and wedding customs.

Schooling	
Ancient Rome	Modern Australia

Weddings	
Ancient Rome	Modern Australia

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 2 Consider everyday life in ancient Rome from the perspective of one group or level in society. Create a series of diary entries detailing your typical day, including at least one reference to schooling and one reference to a wedding. Include specific historical terms when describing the clothes you are wearing and the activities you are doing.

4.5 LIFE IN A ROMAN TOWN

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

Studying ancient Rome often includes the study of Latin. Buildings and everyday objects have specific terms to describe them. However, some terms are the same or similar to what we use in English because they have been adopted into the English language.

forum

an open area in the centre of a Roman town or city where people met, debated and sold things

circus

an open-air stadium (shaped like an oval) built to host chariot races

amphitheatre

a circular building with tiers of seats rising from a central open arena, built to host gladiator fights

As their empire expanded, the Romans built more and more towns. Most of these towns followed the same basic design (see Source 20). All towns were protected by a town wall. People entered the town through a large gateway that could be closed during an attack. Inside, the town's streets were neatly laid out in a grid pattern. The remains of Roman towns and streets can still be seen across the countryside in Britain. Every town featured the necessities of Roman life.

- At the heart of most Roman towns was a **forum** that served an important social function. This is where people met for a variety of reasons – everything from conducting business to discussing important political matters.
- Temples to various gods were scattered around each Roman town. The god or goddess to whom each temple was dedicated influenced the size and design of the building. Large temples were common for major gods, such as Jupiter, and smaller temples were more common for minor gods.
- A **circus** was a large, oval track used for chariot races (from which we get the English word 'circuit').
- Gladiator fights were held in round open-air stadiums known as **amphitheatres** that could accommodate a large number of spectators in their steeply sloped stands. Amphitheatres were often located outside the town walls.
- Public baths were large buildings with indoor and outdoor pools. They had an important social function in Roman towns. Romans did not only go to the baths to get clean, they went there to meet friends, discuss business and argue about politics.



Source 19

The remains of Roman towns and streets can still be seen across the countryside in Britain, such as these ancient city walls of Silchester, a Roman town founded around AD 1 and abandoned sometime after AD 400.



Source 20 An artist's impression of a typical Roman town

- A raised stone channel for moving water from the hills to the town, known as an **aqueduct**, was vital for Roman towns that were not settled close to fresh water.
- Because the power of the Roman Empire depended on a large army, towns across the empire needed barracks to house soldiers who lived away from their own homes for years while serving in the army. Barracks were often located close to the city gates in case of attack.
- Foods and household goods were sold at open-air stalls in markets surrounded by walls.
- The homes of wealthy citizens were often large compounds with several smaller buildings inside their walls.
- Dramatic presentations were held in theatres that featured tiered seating arranged around the stage in a semi-circle.
- Romans considered dead bodies to be dirty and those who tended to them were thought to be 'polluted'. As a result, cemeteries were always located outside Roman town walls.

aqueduct

a channel (often on top of arches; other times underground) that carried water, by gravity, from distant mountain springs to settlements

- 1 the circus for chariot races
- 2 the public baths
- 3 a gateway to the city
- 4 the forum
- 5 temples
- 6 a rich man's house
- 7 the amphitheatre for gladiator fights
- 8 a temple
- 9 an aqueduct
- 10 soldiers' barracks
- 11 the cemetery
- 12 a shopping area with open-air stalls
- 13 a theatre for dramatic performances



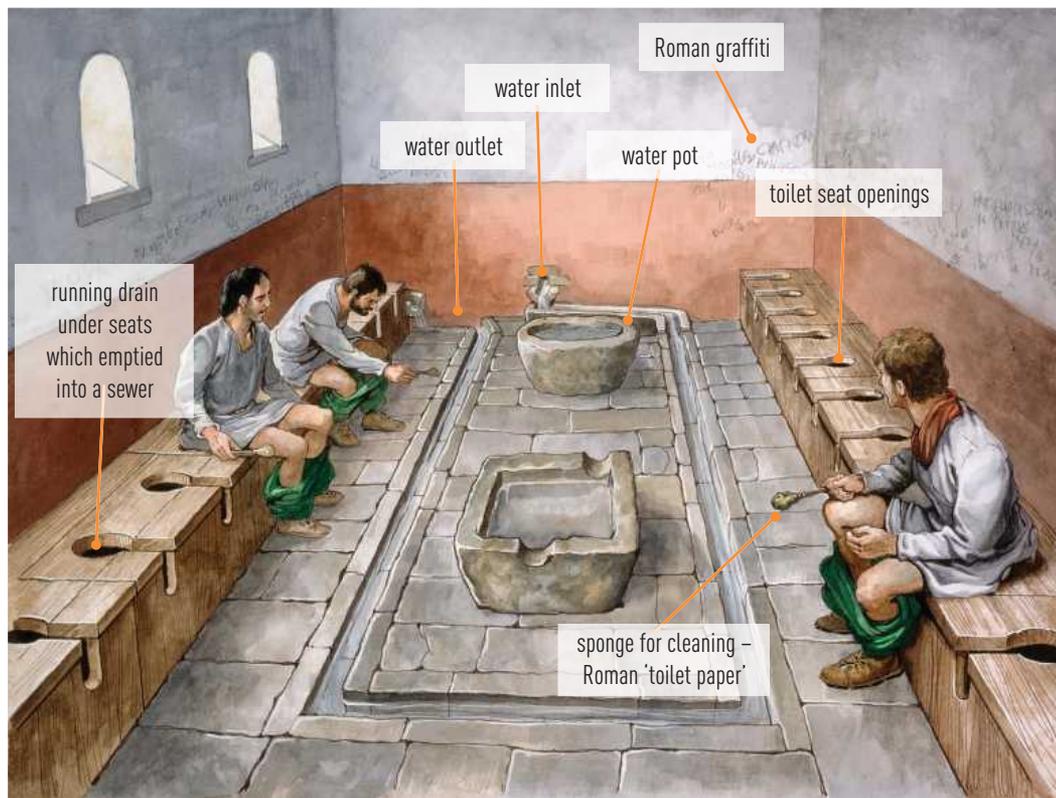
Water and sanitation

As shown in Source 20, a Roman town's water supply was brought in by a system of aqueducts. These would bring fresh water from streams, often from many kilometres away, travelling along tunnels through hillsides and crossing steep gorges on high arches. The slope had to be carefully controlled to ensure a steady flow and the surveying of aqueducts had to be very precise. The top of the channel was sealed to prevent evaporation and contamination.



Source 21 The Pont du Gard aqueduct, at Nîmes in France, was built between AD 40 and AD 60.

Once it reached the town, the water was distributed in lead, timber or terracotta pipes to the various baths, public fountains and private houses of the rich. (The Latin word for lead is *plumbum*, which is the name of this element in the periodic table and the source of our word 'plumbing'.) The poor would fetch their water from a central fountain or trough. Water was also used for the public toilet blocks, which had constantly flushing toilets but no cubicles. Unlike in modern cultures, visiting the toilet could be a social occasion or even a place to conduct business meetings.



Source 22 An artist's impression of a public toilet in ancient Rome

Roman central heating

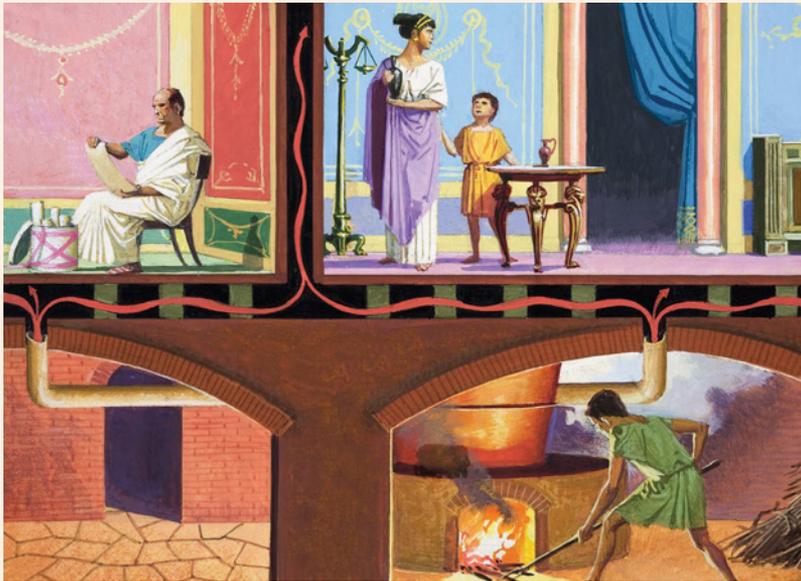
The homes of the rich and middle class were carefully laid out around a central courtyard. These homes had gardens, toilet facilities and often fine **mosaic** floors made up of hundreds of small coloured pieces of stone, glass or tile. Rooms were heated by a hypocaust system, which was the first form of central heating.

mosaic

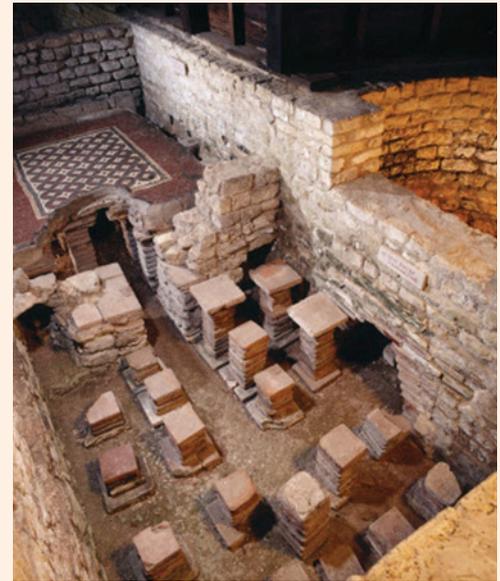
a design made up of small pieces of tile and glass to create an image or pattern; commonly found on the floors and walls of buildings across the ancient world

4.5 SOURCE STUDY

The Roman hypocaust



Source 23 A small hypocaust was a typical feature of Roman villas – spacious homes lived in by wealthy families



Source 24 The remains of a mosaic floor and hypocaust from Chedworth Roman villa; the stacks of tiles supporting the floor and the hole to the furnace can be seen.

INTERPRET

- 1 Study Sources 23 and 24 and, in your own words, explain how the Roman hypocaust system worked to heat a building.

4.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Explain the following features of a Roman town.
a the forum **b** the circus **c** aqueducts.
- 2 List some of the ways in which life in a Roman town resembles life in a modern town. What are some of the major differences?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 3 On your own or in small groups, make your own mosaic. Use a rectangle of cardboard 8 centimetres x 10 centimetres and, with a pencil, divide it into 1-centimetre squares. This is your 'floor'. Use coloured cardboard (three colours should be enough) and cut it into 1-centimetre squares. Conduct research to find some typical Roman mosaic patterns for inspiration, then decide on your pattern. Stick the pieces onto your 'floor' to make a pattern. You can cut the coloured squares further – into rectangles or triangles (but not circles) – to vary your pattern.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about life in a Roman town, including the geography, architecture, and water and heating supply. Complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

4.6 LIFE IN ROME

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The first ever shopping mall was built by the Emperor Trajan in Rome. It had more than 150 shops arranged over several levels.

While some of the provincial towns would have been quite spacious and pleasant places to live, by AD 1 more than one million people lived in Rome. The city had become an extremely cramped, dirty and noisy place. Julius Caesar introduced a law in Rome saying that carts were only allowed to pass through the streets at night.

Although the rich lived in fine houses, the majority of the people were poor and lived in badly built apartment blocks that had no heating or running water. All water had to be fetched from a public fountain, and because there were no proper cooking facilities the poor frequently ate at 'fast food' stalls in the markets. The apartment blocks were often built by greedy landlords who used cheap materials and cut corners during construction. As a result, building collapses and fires were common. Despite these problems, the residents of ancient Rome also enjoyed aspects of city life that would be familiar to people living in towns or cities today:

- large apartment blocks, with shops and businesses on the ground floor
- paved main streets, footpaths and pedestrian crossings
- parks and recreation grounds
- good water supply, sewerage systems and public toilets
- police and fire services, and street cleaners
- public notices and advertisements
- social benefits, such as free food, for poor citizens
- public libraries.

4.6A SOURCE STUDY

City life in Rome

Source 25

The sick die here because they can't sleep,
Though most people complain about the food
Rotting undigested in their burning guts.
For when does sleep come in rented rooms?
It costs a lot merely to sleep in this city!
That's why everyone's sick: carts clattering
Through the winding streets, curses hurled
At some herd standing still in the middle of
the road,
Could rob Claudius or a seal of their sleep!
When duty demands it, crowds fall back to allow
The wealthy to pass, while on the way

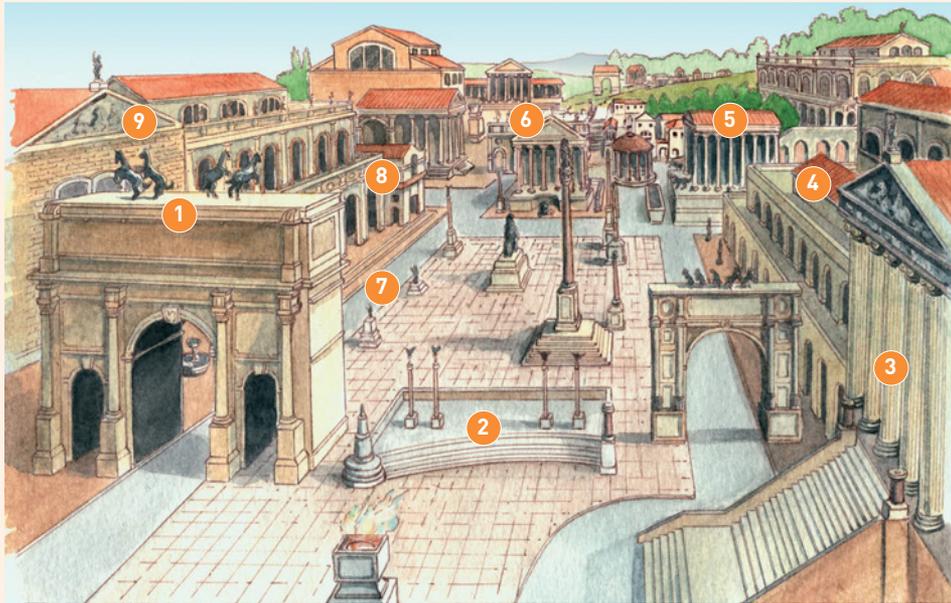
They read or write or even take a nap,
For the litter and its shut windows bring on sleep.
Yet he still arrives first; while we are blocked
In our hurry by a wave before us, while the great
crowd
Crushes our backs from behind us; an elbow or
a stick
Hits you, a beam or a wine-jar smacks you on
the head;
My leg is covered in filth, from every side
I'm trampled by shoes, and some soldier spears
My foot with his spiked shoes.

The Roman poet Juvenal, *On the City of Rome*

INTERPRET

- 1 Make a list of the complaints that Juvenal has about living in Rome.

The Roman Forum



Source 26 An artist's impression of the Roman Forum in ancient times

- 1 The Arch of Septimus Severus (not built until AD 202)
- 2 The Rostra
- 3 The Temple of Saturn
- 4 The Basilica Julia
- 5 The Temple of Castor and Pollux
- 6 The Temple of Vesta
- 7 The Via Sacra
- 8 The Basilica Aemilia
- 9 The Curia



Source 27 A modern-day photograph of the ruins of the Roman Forum

INTERPRET

- 1 Study Source 26 and identify the buildings and structures in Source 27, which shows the Roman Forum as it is today.

4.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 1 Create a 'Plus, Minus, Interesting' table such as the one below to list the advantages, disadvantages and interesting points of living in the city of Rome in ancient times.

Living in the city of Rome		
Plus	Minus	Interesting

4.7 PUBLIC BATHS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

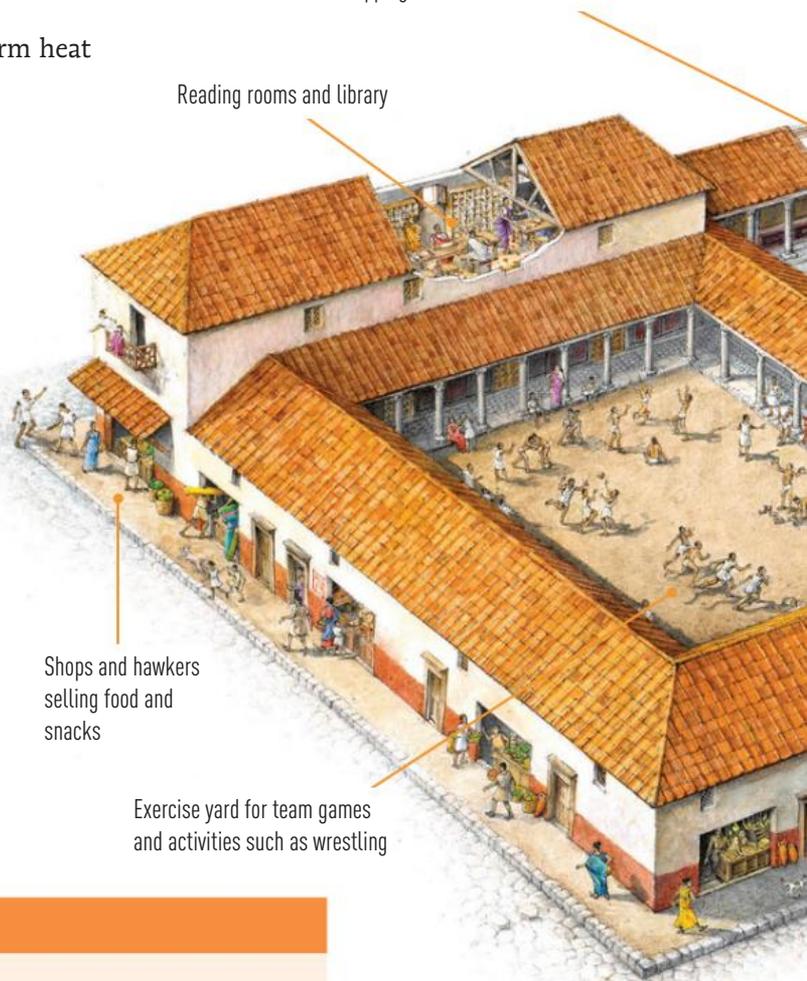
- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.

Houses did not have bathrooms, so bathing was a public event. Towns would have at least one public bathhouse, and going to the public baths was a regular part of a Roman's life. But the bathhouse was not just a place to get clean. It was a place for exercise, conducting business, eating and drinking, and catching up with friends.

After exercising, Romans would undress and enter the warm heat of the *tepidarium* before making their way to sit and sweat in the *caldarium*. The Romans did not use soap, so they would cover themselves with oil. They then scraped off the oil and dirt with a curved instrument called a *strigil*, which they could do themselves or hire a slave to do for them. After a hot bath, Romans would complete the process by plunging into a cold bath in the *frigidarium*. The simplest baths would always have these three main rooms. Larger baths would have all the facilities you see in Source 29.

While you bathed, there would be food sellers calling out their wares, such as sausages or roasted dormice (small rodents, like mice), slaves running around at the bidding of their masters, entertainers playing instruments or juggling, and the general chatter of people doing business or enjoying a conversation. Bathing was a noisy, lively activity. Meanwhile, out of sight, slaves fed the fire that fuelled the hypocaust system to heat the warm rooms and bathwater.

Hair care – barbers, hair pluckers and hairdressers; scissors (invented in ancient Rome), heated tongs and hair combs kept hair and wigs neat. One lotion used to regrow lost hair was a mix of vinegar, spices and mouse droppings.



4.7 SOURCE STUDY

The Roman baths

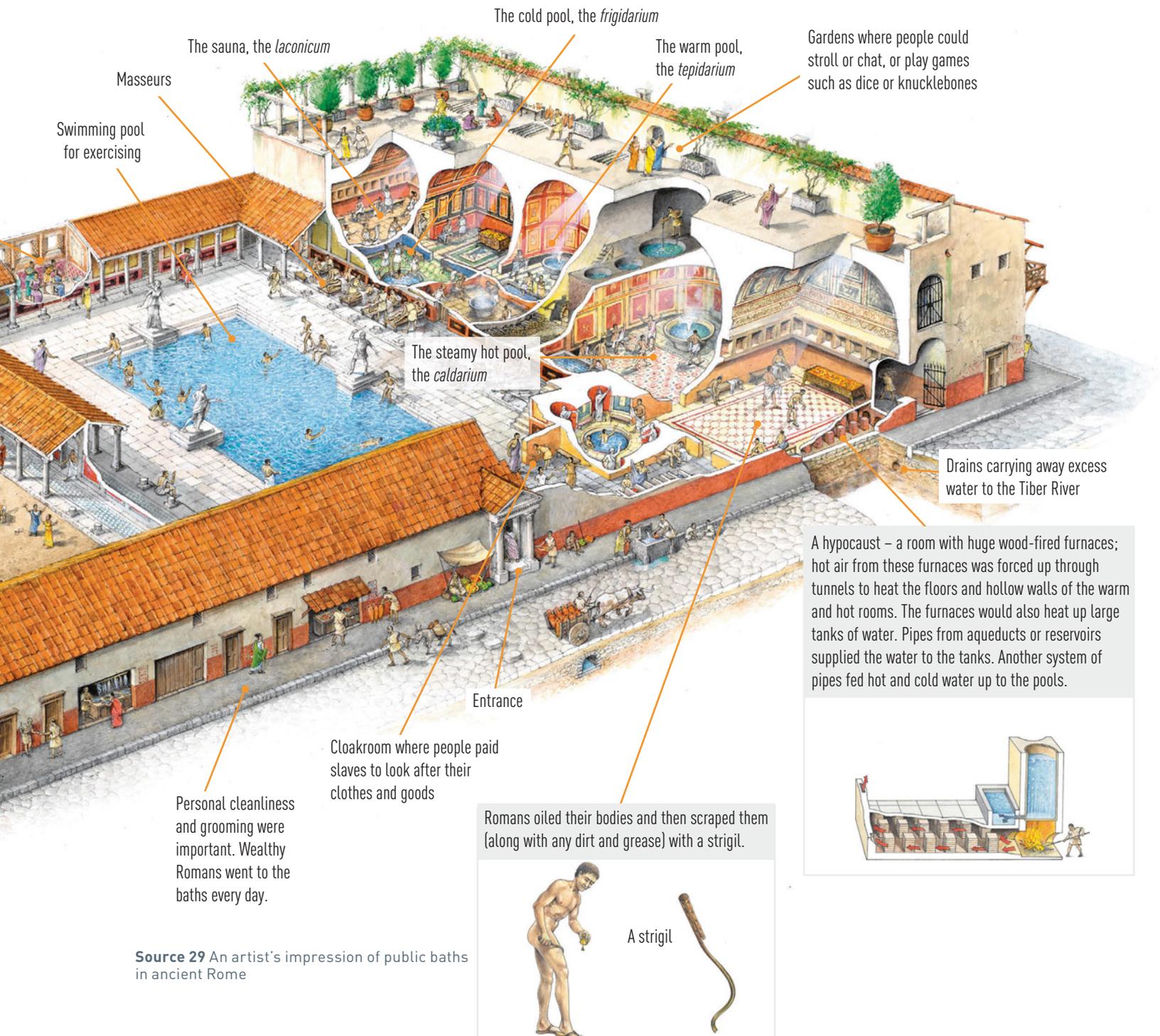
Source 28

I live over the public baths – you know what that means. Ugh! It's sickening. First there are the 'strongmen' doing exercises and swinging heavy weights about with grunts and groans. Next the lazy ones having a cheap massage – I can hear someone being slapped on the shoulders. Then there's the man who always likes the sound of his own voice in the bath.

Excerpt from the Roman philosopher Seneca, AD 63

INTERPRET

- 1 Why does Seneca complain about his accommodation?



The cold pool, the *frigidarium*

Gardens where people could stroll or chat, or play games such as dice or knucklebones

The warm pool, the *tepidarium*

The sauna, the *laconicum*

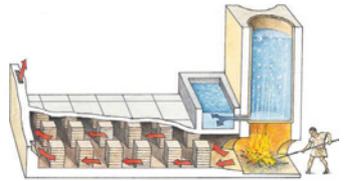
Masseurs

Swimming pool for exercising

The steamy hot pool, the *caldarium*

Drains carrying away excess water to the Tiber River

A hypocaust – a room with huge wood-fired furnaces; hot air from these furnaces was forced up through tunnels to heat the floors and hollow walls of the warm and hot rooms. The furnaces would also heat up large tanks of water. Pipes from aqueducts or reservoirs supplied the water to the tanks. Another system of pipes fed hot and cold water up to the pools.



Entrance

Cloakroom where people paid slaves to look after their clothes and goods

Personal cleanliness and grooming were important. Wealthy Romans went to the baths every day.

Romans oiled their bodies and then scraped them (along with any dirt and grease) with a strigil.



A strigil

Source 29 An artist's impression of public baths in ancient Rome

4.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 List the variety of activities you can see happening in Source 29.
- 2 Describe the appearance and use of the strigil.

4.8 GLADIATORS

KEY CONTENT

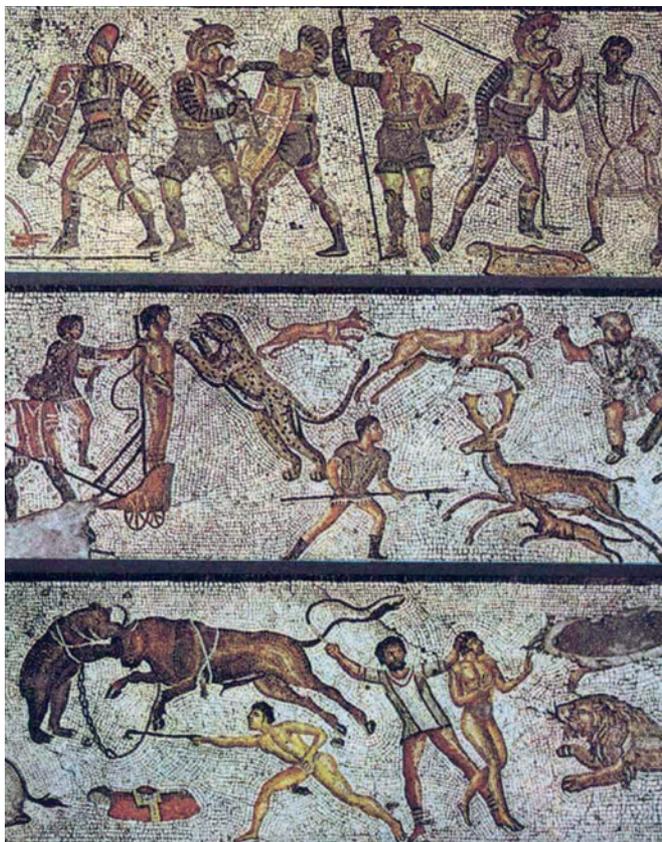
In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Using a wooden sword, Emperor Caligula once fought a gladiator. When the gladiator deliberately fell and asked for mercy (thinking it was a good idea to let the emperor win), Caligula pulled out a real knife and killed him. Caligula then ran round the arena demanding a prize for his 'victory'.

Source 30 An ancient mosaic showing gladiators and beasts in the arena



Throughout the Roman Empire, one of the favourite sources of entertainment was the gladiator games. Sometimes, especially in Rome itself, the games would last for several weeks and involve the deaths of thousands of men and animals. Gladiator games originated in pre-Roman times, when the practice of sacrificing prisoners of war to the gods by making them fight each other was common in Italy. It is thought that the Romans simply carried on and expanded this tradition. Religion also played a part as it became the custom for men to put money aside in their wills to pay for funeral games. It also became customary for gladiator games to be put on by successful generals and by officials seeking popularity; in Rome, the emperors could afford to put on lavish shows. The first gladiator games in Rome began in 264 BC at a funeral, and grew from there.

Who were the gladiators?

Gladiators came from a range of backgrounds, including:

- slaves, prisoners of war and condemned criminals
- victims of religious persecution, particularly Christians
- retired gladiators returning to the profession who could expect to earn large sums
- freemen who became gladiators as a 'career', including a few noblemen and Roman citizens.

Even noblewomen fought in the arena until Emperor Septimus Severus (AD 145–211) banned female gladiators altogether. One emperor, Commodus (who was murdered in AD 192), had fought in no fewer than 1000 bouts of one kind or another, against animals and men. It is believed, however, that the animals he fought were injured or drugged first to make them easier to kill. The men he fought were all slain because the emperor could not be allowed to lose!

There were many different types of gladiators and each fought and dressed in a different way.

Alongside the true gladiator contests, which were between men, there were fights between wild animals, and between animals and men. Those who fought animals were called *bestiarii* and were divided into two categories: those who were condemned to be killed by the beasts, and those who fought them for money and glory. A condemned man would be sent into the arena naked and without weapons to defend himself. If he managed to kill the animal set against him, another animal would be sent in until he was killed. The writer Cicero tells of a single lion that killed 200 *bestiarii*.



Source 31 Inside the Colosseum in Rome

The arenas

At first, gladiator contests were held in whatever public space a town had available. Eventually, wooden amphitheatres were set up. These could be highly dangerous and the Roman historian Tacitus tells of the collapse of a wooden theatre at Fidenae, just north of Rome in AD 27, where 50 000 people were killed. The most famous stone-and-concrete amphitheatre, the **Colosseum** in Rome, was opened by Emperor Titus in AD 80 and had seating for 45 000 and standing room for a further 5000. Spectators entered through 76 numbered entrance arches, just like a modern sports stadium. Emperor Domitian even flooded the Colosseum to accommodate sea fights, complete with ships and thousands of gladiators to crew them.

The end of the gladiators

In AD 326, Emperor Constantine created a new law that was supposed to make gladiator games illegal, but it had little effect. Even Constantine himself attended further shows. In AD 404, a Christian monk called Telemachus rushed into the Roman arena to put a stop to a gladiator battle and was torn to pieces by the angry crowd. This caused Emperor Honorius, who had already closed the gladiator schools in AD 399, to abolish gladiator games once and for all.

Colosseum

a large amphitheatre built and used during the Roman Empire to stage gladiator fights and other forms of public entertainment

4.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 How did the gladiator games originate?
- 2 How did gladiators and *bestiarii* differ?
- 3 In your own words, briefly describe the Colosseum and how it was used.
- 4 Name two of the more surprising types of people who became gladiators.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Lions and panthers were once quite common in south-eastern Europe but the Roman appetite for wild beasts for the arena led to their extinction across the continent.

4.9 POMPEII

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

The eruption of Mount Vesuvius caused the deaths of many people in nearby regions, and buried the cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum. This resulted in modern historians having well-preserved Roman towns and villas to excavate and analyse.

In AD 79, death came suddenly to an entire Roman town. Pompeii, along with the neighbouring port of Herculaneum, lay in the shadow of the volcano Vesuvius. This did not worry anyone as it was thought that Vesuvius was inactive. However, the city had been badly damaged in a major earthquake in AD 62, which is now thought to have been a linked to volcanic activity from Vesuvius. Although it is generally agreed that the volcano erupted in AD 79, the exact date is contested by historians and archaeologists.

Beginning with a short outpouring of steam and smoke, an eruption of pumice (volcanic rock) and ash sent a pillar of volcanic debris 32 kilometres into the air. An avalanche of mud, poison gas and ash raced down the mountain, burying Herculaneum. Another avalanche of pumice, gas and ash overwhelmed Pompeii and buried it, and many of its inhabitants, under 6 metres of volcanic rubble.

By the time the eruption had finished three days later, around 2000 of Pompeii's population of 20 000 had been killed. Many people died in the middle of their day-to-day work; others hid in basements and storerooms, desperate to avoid the catastrophe.

Pompeii and Herculaneum remained lost and forgotten until 1594, when workers searching for ancient treasures came upon the site. Archaeological investigations did not begin until 1748, though at first the object was to find treasures and valuable objects rather than conduct a historical investigation.

Since that time, the excavation of Pompeii and Herculaneum has been an ongoing project. When Pompeii was excavated, archaeologists discovered cavities in the ash that once contained the bodies of people and animals. These cavities were then filled with plaster (see Source 34), creating eerie reminders of the terrible event. In addition to these gruesome finds, archaeological investigations have also revealed whole streets, houses, wall paintings and even graffiti on a wall that says 'Successus the cloth-weaver loves Iris, the inn-keeper's slave girl'.



Source 32 An artist's impression of the eruption of Mount Vesuvius



Source 33 A street today in the excavated ruins of Pompeii; Mount Vesuvius is in the distance.

Pompeii is now a time capsule that allows thousands of tourists who visit it each year to gain insight into an ancient Roman town. The discoveries that archaeologists have excavated have provided a wealth of evidence about ancient Roman lifestyles.

4.9 SOURCE STUDY

An eyewitness at Pompeii

Source 34

We saw the sea sucked away and apparently forced back by the earthquake: at any rate it receded from the shore so that quantities of sea creatures were left stranded on dry sand. On the landward side a fearful black cloud was rent [torn] by forked and quivering bursts of flame, and parted to reveal great tongues of fire ...

Ashes were already falling, not as yet very thickly. I looked round: a dense black cloud was coming up behind us, spreading over the earth like a flood. 'Let us leave the road while we can still see,' I said 'or we shall be knocked down and trampled underfoot in the dark by the crowd behind.' We had scarcely sat down to rest when darkness fell ...

A gleam of light returned, but we took this to be a warning of the approaching flames rather than daylight. However, the flames remained some distance off; then darkness came on once more and ashes began to fall again, this time in heavy showers. We rose from time to time and shook them off, otherwise we should have been buried and crushed beneath their weight ... At last the darkness thinned and dispersed into smoke or cloud; then there was genuine daylight, and the sun actually shone out, but yellowish as it is during an eclipse. We were terrified to see everything changed, buried deep in ashes like snowdrifts.

An eyewitness account by Pliny the Younger; his uncle, Pliny the Elder, had sailed across the bay to Pompeii during the initial stages of the eruption and died there, suffocated by sulphur fumes.



Source 35 A plaster cast of a Pompeian at the moment of death

INTERPRET

- 1 Describe what Pliny saw on the seashore.
- 2 What did he see on the landward side of the road?
- 3 Why did Pliny decide to leave the road?
- 4 What caused the light that Pliny saw?
- 5 Why did Pliny and his companions find it necessary to rise from time to time?

4.9 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 1 Examine Sources 32 to 35. Which are primary sources for a study of Pompeii? Give reasons to support your answer.
- 2 Explain why the discoveries at Pompeii have been so significant for historians.

GO DEEPER

- 3 Use Google Earth to explore Pompeii. Look at some of the streets and buildings, and take note of the appearance of Mount Vesuvius. Write a summary of what you see and any aspects that you would like to explore further.

4B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW WAS ANCIENT ROMAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

» **Outline how society in ancient Rome was organised and governed, including the roles of law and religion**

- 1 Outline the ways in which people were classified or distinguished in ancient Roman society. (5 marks)
- 2 Outline how Rome was governed during the Roman Republic. (5 marks)

» **Describe the roles of key groups in Roman society, such as citizens, women and slaves**

- 3 Describe the roles of key groups in ancient Roman society, writing one paragraph for each:
 - a citizens
 - b patricians and plebeians
 - c women
 - d slaves. (20 marks)

» **Assess the role of a significant individual in ancient Rome**

- 4 Research a significant individual and assess the importance of their role in ancient Rome. (20 marks)

» **Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome**

- 5 Choose four aspects of Roman life from the list below, and write a paragraph on each one to describe the everyday experiences of Roman men, women and children:
 - family life
 - clothing and fashion
 - social life and entertainment
 - living in the city of Rome
 - schooling
 - water and sanitation
 - design of Roman towns. (20 marks)

Total marks [/70]

Check your Student **obook assess** for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Rich task

A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher **obook assess** for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Answers

Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

4C

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT ROMANS BELIEVE?

4.10 ROMAN BELIEFS AND CUSTOMS

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Rome are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

Roman customs and religious beliefs, whether inherited from their ancestors over the centuries or taken from other cultures, influenced the behaviour of ancient Romans in their everyday life, military life, and death and burial customs.

Roman gods and goddesses

The religion of the ancient Romans was **polytheistic**. They believed in a family of gods and goddesses, each with their own responsibilities. Many of the **deities** were simply adapted from the myths of ancient Greece and renamed, as you can see in Source 1.

polytheism
a belief in many gods

deity
a supernatural being, often in the form of a god or goddess

Source 1 The main Greek gods and their Roman equivalents

Greek god/goddess	became	Roman god/goddess
Zeus (supreme god)	→	Jupiter
Hera (women and marriage)	→	Juno
Artemis (wild things, hunting)	→	Diana
Athena (arts and crafts and war)	→	Minerva
Ares (war)	→	Mars
Hermes (the gods' messenger)	→	Mercury
Aphrodite (love)	→	Venus

In addition to these main gods there were also household gods such as Vesta, the goddess of the hearth; Janus, the god of the doorway; the Lares, gods who looked after the family and home; and the Penates, gods who looked after the store cupboard. Every day the family, including the children, would make an offering to the gods at their own household shrine.

As the empire grew, the Romans were happy to adopt new gods from conquered territories, such as Mithras from Persia (who was very popular among the soldiers) and Isis from Egypt. Eventually even the emperor came to be worshipped as a god.



Source 2 A statue of a household god from a family shrine



Source 3 The Pantheon was built by the emperor Hadrian in AD 125 on the site of an earlier temple that had burned down. As its name implies (*pan* = everything, *teon* = divine), it was dedicated to every known god.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In ancient Rome, sacred chickens were kept and carefully watched because people believed that the way they ate their food showed whether or not the gods approved of a plan or decision.

Romans were very superstitious and lived in fear of the gods. But the Romans did not have regular religious meetings and services. Instead, temples to the various gods could be found around town and people would visit them as and when needed, such as before setting off on a journey or making an important decision. The Pantheon, a temple to all the gods of ancient Rome, is one of the best preserved ancient buildings in Rome (see Source 3).

Each god had a festival day, which was usually a holiday when the god's temple would be visited and priests would kill animals to be offered as sacrifices. There was a high priest in Rome, known as the *Pontifex Maximus*, and this title was often given to the reigning emperor. There were also the augurs, who foretold the future by watching the flight of birds or flashes of lightning, or by examining the entrails of sacrificed animals.

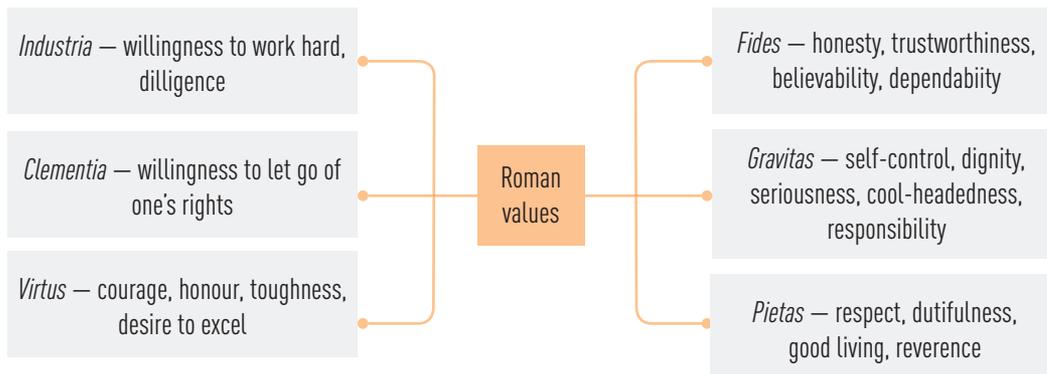
Christianity

For a time, the one religion the Romans did not accept was Christianity, mainly because its believers refused to worship the emperor as well as their own god. There are stories about Christians being persecuted, by being thrown to wild animals in the arena or crucified. These stories may have been exaggerated by Christian monks in the Middle Ages who copied ancient Roman texts that they thought were important.

Gradually, however, Christianity was increasingly tolerated as long as Christians paid their taxes and obeyed the law. It then gained acceptance, and when Emperor Constantine adopted Christianity it became the official religion of the empire. Eventually, the centre of the Catholic Church, Vatican City, was established in Rome.

Roman values

The key values of the ancient Romans, which are shown in Source 4, influenced their behaviours and attitudes in everyday life, in warfare, and in their death and burial customs.



Source 4 Some of the key values of ancient Romans

Death and burial customs

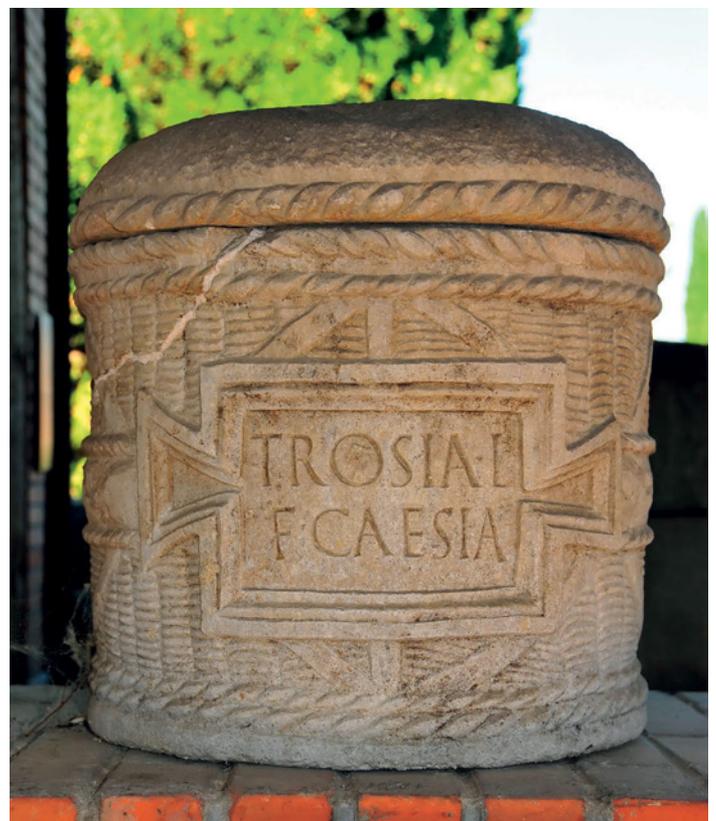
Until Christian ideas began to dominate, Romans had no set beliefs about what happened after death. Myths and beliefs from conquered peoples influenced some peoples' lives, and a common influence about death also came from Greek mythology. Many believed, as the Greeks did, that there was a gloomy **Underworld**: Hades (see Source 6). Dead souls reached it by paying the ferryman, Charon, to row them across the River Styx. Only the bravest of heroes made it to the Elysian Fields. Very wicked people wound up in the deepest, darkest dungeons of Hades: Tartarus.

Despite having no certainty about life after death, the ancient Romans were uneasy about their dead. Many believed the spirits (or souls) of the dead roamed around haunting them. Rituals such as *decursio* were carried out to prevent this, which involved circling the funeral pyre (a pile of wood set on fire) of an important person as their dead body was cremated (burned). Wandering souls could be a good or bad thing. Hence, the people of ancient Rome showed a great deal of the value *pietas* towards those who had died. They worshipped their ancestors, and often kept death masks or stone busts of them in their houses.

Cremation was the preferred procedure for disposing of a dead body during Etruscan times and the Roman Republic. By the end of the first century AD, however, burial was more common because of the spread of Christian beliefs. Wealthy Romans were buried in graves or tombs. Those who could not afford a burial plot were usually buried in mass graves on the Esquiline Hill outside of Rome.

Underworld

a mythical place where the spirits of the dead were believed to reside, according to ancient Greek and Roman beliefs



Source 5 An ancient Roman burial urn carved with the name of the deceased person

4.10 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 From which other cultures did Romans derive some of their own gods?
- 2 The Pantheon was built as a temple to which of the Roman gods?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 Source 4 summarises values that were important to Roman society. In table form, explain each value in your own words, including an example of how you would show this value in your own life.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 4 Creative writing: You are an augur. Write a report for a client who has asked you whether now is a good time to begin a new business venture in the provinces. You will need to explain how the different natural phenomena, or animal parts, helped you to come to your decision.

GO DEEPER

- 5 Conduct research to find the Roman equivalents of the following Greek gods. Indicate their names and their roles. Draw a chart to demonstrate the relationship between these gods and other gods you come across in your research.
 - a Poseidon
 - b Hades
 - c Dionysus
 - d Haphaestus
 - e Apollo. (What is unique about him?)
- 6 Conduct research to find out about the catacombs of Rome and how they were used by Christians.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Knowledge and understanding can be conveyed in a range of ways, including through creative writing or historical fiction.



4C

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT ROMANS BELIEVE?

» Explain how the beliefs and values of ancient Rome are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs

- 1 Identify the term used to describe religion in ancient Rome and explain its meaning. (2 marks)
- 2 Identify the origins of gods and goddesses in Roman religion, and explain the role of gods and goddesses in people's everyday life. (8 marks)
- 3 Identify the key values of the ancient Romans. (6 marks)
- 4 What did the ancient Romans believe about death? (4 marks)
- 5 Explain how beliefs about death and key values influenced Roman burial rituals and other customs. (10 marks)

Total marks [/30]



Source 6 A sixteenth-century painting of the Underworld, based on ancient Greek and Roman mythology; the ferryman shown was known as Charon. He was believed to row the souls of the dead over the River Styx to Hades. Coins were often placed in the mouths of the dead in order to pay Charon for the journey.

Check your Student [ebook](#) [access](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint



A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher [ebook](#) [access](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support



Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Rich task



Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills

4D

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE ROME AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

4.11 THE SPREAD OF ROMAN POWER

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify conflicts within ancient Roman society
- explain the consequences of these conflicts for Roman society.

Silk Roads

a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

Trade all around the Mediterranean and via the **Silk Roads** played a role in expanding Roman influence, but control of this vast area depended on the power of the Roman army. As Roman territory expanded through conquest, Roman culture and lifestyle spread.

As the Roman army began to conquer other Italian cities, Italy became 'Romanised' and Latin became the standard language of the whole region. In time, Roman influence was to extend far beyond the boundaries of what we now know as Italy, as Source 1 shows.

Roman citizenship was often extended to people outside the Italian peninsula. This meant that even foreign-born people could enjoy the full protection of Roman law, and citizenship became highly prized. In other places, people were left to govern themselves as long as they agreed to supply soldiers to the Roman army.

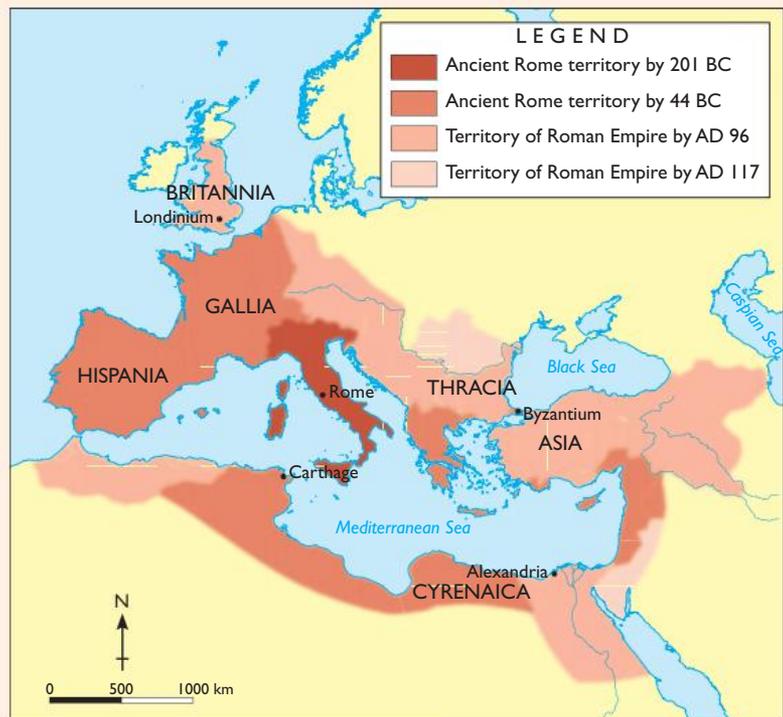
4.11 SOURCE STUDY

The Roman Empire

INTERPRET

- 1 Using Source 1 and an atlas, list as many modern countries as you can find that were wholly or partly included in the Roman Empire.
- 2 Write a paragraph to describe the expansion of the Roman Empire from 201 BC to AD 117, using the names of modern-day countries.

Source 1 The growth of the Roman Empire, which reached its height in AD 117



The Punic Wars

The expansion of Roman power brought Rome into conflict with Carthage, another great Mediterranean trading city. Because the Carthaginians were originally from Phoenicia (modern-day Lebanon), the three resulting wars were known as the Punic Wars (from the Latin word *Poeni*, which means Phoenician).

The First Punic War 264–241 BC

Before the Punic Wars, most of Sicily was controlled by the Carthaginians, as Source 2 shows. When the Sicilian city of Messana revolted against the Carthaginians, the Romans intervened, and the first Punic War erupted. To fight Carthage, the Romans, who were used to fighting on land, had to develop a navy for the first time. They did this by capturing a Carthaginian warship and copying it, then adding two new features that enabled them to win sea battles: the **battering ram** and the corvus (see Source 3).

The battering ram allowed Roman ships, known as galleys, to punch a hole in the hull of an enemy ship. The corvus was simply a kind of bridge that would be dropped onto an opponent's deck so that Roman soldiers could cross and fight, as if on land. Roman galleys were crewed by slaves and prisoners of war.

In 241 BC, the two sides signed a peace treaty, with Carthage surrendering the island of Sicily to the Romans.

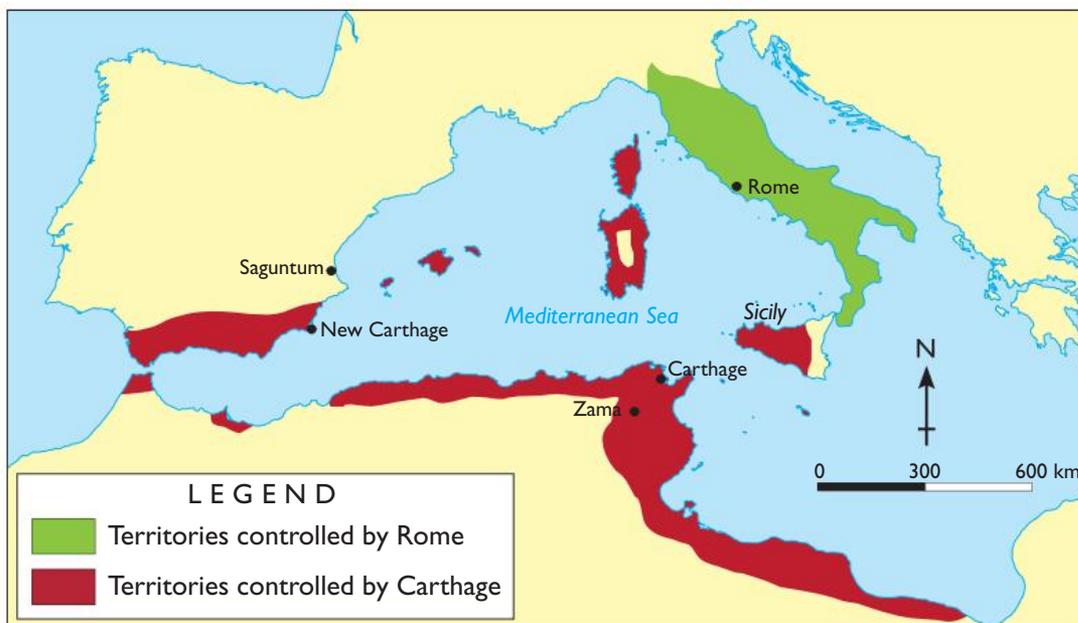
SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

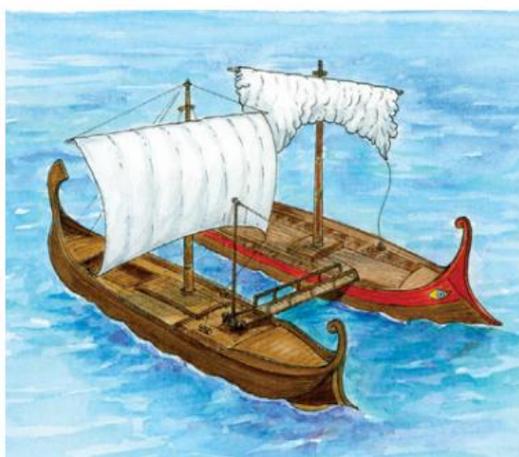
There are many objective truths about where and when different battles were fought during the Punic Wars. However, the Romans and Carthaginians had vastly different perspectives on the causes of the wars, particularly in relation to breaches of the Ebro River Treaty and the city of Saguntum, which sparked the Second Punic War.

battering ram

a long, heavy pole (often a tree trunk) used to knock through enemy fortress doors



Source 2 The territories controlled by Rome and Carthage, the rival powers in the Mediterranean, before the Punic Wars



Source 3 An artist's impression of a Roman sea battle showing two of the devices added to Roman warships: the battering ram (on the left) and the corvus (on the right).

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Historians still argue over whether Hannibal's elephants were of the African (more fierce) or Indian (more easily trained) variety. It seems that only one survived the war. This was the elephant Hannibal himself had often ridden. Its name was Surus, meaning 'the Syrian', which suggests an eastern or Indian origin.

The Second Punic War 218–202 BC

After several years of uneasy peace, trouble broke out in Spain, where Carthage had been building up its empire. A 25-year-old Carthaginian named Hannibal, who is the focus of the case study in this chapter, took command in Spain, captured the Roman town of Saguntum and began a march towards Italy.

Hannibal's army consisted of 46 000 soldiers and 37 elephants. Its long march from Spain to Italy involved crossing rivers and, most famously, crossing the Alps of northern Italy in freezing weather. Rockfalls, attacks from mountain tribes and severe winter weather meant that Hannibal arrived in northern Italy with 26 000 men and at least some of his elephants.



Source 4 An artist's impression of Hannibal's army crossing the Alps; note that in this image the elephants are depicted with the larger ears of African elephants. The type of elephants in Hannibal's army is contested.

At first, things went well for Hannibal. He won victories over Roman armies at Trebbia and Lake Trasimene, and over 50 000 Gauls – a tribe from northern Italy – joined his army. However, he was far from home and could not receive supplies or further reinforcements, and he lacked the large catapults and siege towers needed to capture large towns like Rome. He had hoped to persuade the various Italian towns to join him, but they stayed loyal to Rome. All he could do was rampage around Italy, doing damage and tempting the Romans to engage in battle.

The Romans argued among themselves over what to do. Some argued that Hannibal had to be quickly beaten in battle, but for a time they followed the advice of Quintus Fabius Maximus, nicknamed 'the Delayer'. He said that the best tactic was not to have a big battle, considering that Hannibal had already beaten Roman armies twice. He proposed instead that they should mount only small, niggling attacks on Hannibal's army while waiting for it to grow weaker, as it surely would without reinforcements or supplies. Many Romans disagreed with Fabius' tactics and finally lost patience. In 216 BC, the Roman consul Varro was sent against Hannibal's army of 45 000 troops with a Roman army of 86 000 men. At Cannae, despite being heavily outnumbered, Hannibal won a great victory. Fabius had been right after all.

The Romans resumed their 'Fabian' tactics of waiting, but even when Hannibal arrived outside the walls of Rome in 211 BC, they would not fight him. Hannibal still lacked the equipment to besiege large towns so, again, all he could do was roam and do damage in the Italian countryside.



Source 5 Hannibal's three major victories against Rome

Source 6 A stone bust of Scipio



The Romans now tried a new tactic. They sent a general, Publius Cornelius Scipio, to attack the Carthaginian possessions in Spain. When he had conquered them, he sailed to Carthage itself. Hannibal, despite never having been beaten in Italy, was recalled to defend his home city.

In 202 BC, at Zama in northern Africa, Hannibal and Scipio came face to face in battle. Here Hannibal met his first defeat. One condition of the peace was the destruction of the Carthaginian fleet: 500 ships were towed out into the sea and burned. The Romans wanted to capture Hannibal but he fled and managed to stay one step ahead of his enemies until, tired of running, he committed suicide in 183 BC. Meanwhile, Rome reduced Carthage to a dependent state and now controlled the whole of the western Mediterranean, including Spain and northern Africa.

The Third Punic War 149–146 BC

For some Romans, the very existence of Carthage was a threat. One senator, named Cato, became known for ending every speech in the Senate, no matter what he had been talking about, with the phrase 'Carthage must be destroyed'. Finally, the Roman Senate declared war, and Rome attacked Carthage itself. After a siege, the Romans stormed the town and slaughtered many of the inhabitants. Those who were not killed were sold into slavery. The harbour and the city were demolished. The final outcome of the Punic Wars was that Rome greatly expanded its territories.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Between the Battles of Trasimene and Cannae, Hannibal's army were trapped in Campania by the Roman army. Hannibal gathered 2000 oxen and his army tied bundles of kindling wood to their horns, lighting them during the night and driving them up the slope above the Roman encampment. The Romans abandoned their position, thinking the Carthaginians were escaping, allowing Hannibal's army to march to freedom.

4.11 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Why were Rome and Carthage rivals?
- 2 How did the Romans alter their sea warfare tactics to enable them to use their experience as land fighters?
- 3 What was meant by 'Fabian' tactics? Who originated them and why were they used?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 4 Provide three reasons for Hannibal's failure to conquer the Romans in Italy.
- 5 Provide three reasons why the battle of Zama can be called a significant event.
- 6 What words would you use to describe the Roman attitude towards Carthage after reading about the Third Punic War? Explain your choice of words.

Hannibal

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Historians only have Roman accounts to understand the life and times of Hannibal. They have different opinions on the motives of the Roman authors, drawing different conclusions about Hannibal.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Hannibal seemed to be indestructible to the Romans, and people feared him so much that a children's game was adopted where they would call out 'Hannibal at the Gates!' and the players would run away to hide.

Hannibal Barca is famous for his use of elephants and superior battle tactics throughout the Second Punic War. However, historians disagree on whether Hannibal was an outstanding general, or whether the Romans have written about him favourably to make their victory look even grander.

The two main sources we have about Hannibal and the Second Punic War were written by the Roman historian Livy and the Greek historian Polybius. Both had strong links to the Roman aristocracy, meaning that they would only write positive accounts of the Roman army. Livy and Polybius both write of Rome's unbreakable fortitude and determination, while glorifying Hannibal's successes. Modern historians view Hannibal differently, with disagreement regarding a number of key areas in his life. Ultimately, Hannibal lost the Second Punic War and he failed to conquer Rome.

Contestability about the start of the Second Punic War

Saguntum was an independent Greek city in Spain. The Romans had an alliance with Saguntum, just in case they needed an ally to assist them during times of war. In 226 BC, the Carthaginians and Romans signed the Ebro River Treaty, allowing Carthage to control the area south of the Ebro River in Spain, while the Romans could take control of any land north of the Ebro River. Source 8 shows that Saguntum is south of the Ebro River. Hannibal wanted Rome to withdraw troops from there, seeing them as a direct threat to Carthaginian interests. Rome, however, claimed that Saguntum had always been a friend of Rome, and was excluded from the treaty. Carthage and Rome went to war because Hannibal attacked Saguntum to drive the Romans out. Rome declared war on Carthage because Hannibal would not withdraw his troops. Without further evidence on the details of the treaty, the facts about how the war started remain contested.

Contestability about Hannibal as a leader

Both Livy and Polybius identify key leadership traits in Hannibal, such as his ability to arrange to march an army of elephants over the Alps during winter, and his humility, illustrated by him eating with his troops, serving others before himself and wearing the same types of clothing as the soldiers. Livy and Polybius also describe times of great cruelty, with Hannibal inflicting harsh punishments on soldiers who tried to run away. When looking at the ancient evidence for Hannibal, modern historians such as Nigel Bagnall have argued that Hannibal is a role model for anyone involved in diplomacy or foreign relations today, with great mental and physical strength. Other historians, such as Arthur Eckstein, argue that Hannibal didn't think through the war, but instead acted out of resentment after the First Punic War, leading to ultimate disaster for Carthage.



Source 7 A statue of Hannibal

Contestability about Hannibal as a military commander

Hannibal is often admired for his extraordinary tactical skill. The military historian Theodore Dodge claims that his tactics at Cannae are the best in history. In contrast, another military historian, Richard Gabriel, states that Hannibal failed in the oath he swore to his father to destroy Rome, meaning that he failed as a military commander. When looking at the Second Punic War, Hannibal won every major battle except the Battle of Zama. He continued to have military successes after the Second Punic War, working with leaders in the eastern Mediterranean. These successes prompt many historians to view Hannibal as a supreme military tactician, which is why he is often studied in modern military academies. However, it is important to remember that he failed in his attempt to conquer Rome, which is why his success is contested, with many historians criticising his work.



Source 8 The Mediterranean at the time of Hannibal

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Hannibal devised a tactic of throwing clay jars filled with snakes across to enemy ships. The jars broke open on impact, releasing snakes. Hannibal's enemies were terrified, and retreated to safety, allowing Hannibal's crew to push forward.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Who are the two main Roman historians who write about Hannibal and the Second Punic War?
- 2 Identify problems with the evidence relating to Hannibal.
- 3 Outline Hannibal's key strengths.
- 4 Describe two of Hannibal's failures.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 Explain why Hannibal's tactics are still used in military training today.
- 6 Do you think Hannibal was a success or a failure? Provide reasons to support your answer.

GO DEEPER

- 7 Hannibal was famous for his role in the Second Punic War, even though he lost. After losing to the Romans, Hannibal continued to antagonise them by working with leaders in the eastern Mediterranean. Research Hannibal's life *after* the Second Punic War and write an obituary about his key achievements. Include information on:
 - his military role before, during and after the Second Punic War
 - his political role after the Second Punic War
 - his attitude towards Rome after the Second Punic War
 - his death.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Even though sources on Hannibal are mostly from the Roman perspective, there are a number of sources from other ancient societies. General research will often reveal the Roman interpretation of Hannibal, but reading more widely will open up a range of other sources.

4.12 THE ROMAN ARMY

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain the consequences of these conflicts for Roman society.

legionary

a Roman soldier who fought in a military unit known as a legion; legionaries had to be Roman citizens under the age of 45

auxiliary

a soldier who fought in the Roman army but who was not Roman; often recruited from a faraway province

Military service was a part of life for Roman citizens. It was needed at first to increase Rome's territory and then to defend it. Through intense and disciplined training, Rome's army became very strong, fuelled by a belief in Rome and particularly by the Roman value *virtus* – meaning courage, honour, toughness and a desire to excel.

The Roman army was divided into about 30 legions. A legion was a fighting force of about 6000 men, and was made up of soldiers called **legionaries** and **auxiliaries**. Legionaries had to be Roman citizens under 45 years of age.

Source 9 The Roman army

Each legion was made up of units known as centuries made up of around 100 soldiers. Each century was led by an officer known as a centurion.

Every legion was commanded by an officer known as a *legate*.

Soldiers known as legionaries were the main fighting force of every legion and formed the backbone of the Roman army. Legionaries fought on foot and carried a variety of weapons.



Trumpeters and standard-bearers marched at the front of each legion and often wore animal furs. Standards were decorated poles, carried by standard-bearers. The decorations on these standards identified the different legions. To lose the standard was a great disgrace for a legion.

Auxiliaries were recruited from the **provinces**. To reduce the likelihood of rebellion, it was Roman policy never to use auxiliaries in their home provinces. For example, an auxiliary from Syria might be used to fight in Britain, but not in Africa, and an auxiliary from Britain might be used to fight in Africa, but not at home in Britain. When soldiers retired they often went to live in a *colonia* – a settlement in one of the Roman provinces. This was a good way to spread Roman influence and also to have experienced soldiers available in case there was a rebellion.

provinces
the lands captured and ruled by the Romans

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about the Roman army, including during the Punic Wars, and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

4.12 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Complete the following sentences:
 - a The Roman army was divided into ...
 - b The *pilum* was a ...
 - c Helpers known as auxiliaries ...
 - d Soldiers known as legionaries ...

Helpers known as *auxiliaries* assisted legionaries and often came from the lands that Rome had conquered. After serving in the army for 25 years, auxiliaries could become Roman citizens. The auxiliaries provided special fighting skills that the legionaries lacked. Some fought on horseback, others with sling shots.

The baggage train was made up of carts and horses that carried food and equipment for the soldiers. Traders, camp followers and other servants also followed the legion and carried equipment



The Romans constructed a system of stone roads to link the empire and to enable legions to move wherever they were needed quickly. For this reason, most Roman roads were built to be as straight as possible and distances were marked with milestones. When completed, the network of roads across the Roman Empire stretched from Britain in the north to cities in Africa and the Middle East.

4.13 ROMAN TRADE AND CONTACTS WITH ASIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe contacts and conflicts between ancient Rome and other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for Rome and other ancient societies.

Trade routes to the east

By around AD 100, the Roman Empire encircled the Mediterranean Sea, and there was a constant flow of trade across its waters. Egypt was especially important as it was ‘the granary of Rome’, meaning that Rome depended on a regular supply of food (wheat and other grains) from its provinces in Africa, where the warm climate was ideal for growing large quantities of crops. The sea and land routes to Egypt and the east are shown in Source 11.

At the height of the Roman Empire, hundreds of merchant ships left Egypt each year to sail down the Red Sea into the Arabian Sea. In exchange for products from Europe, such as pottery and gold, the ships brought back spices, fabrics, precious stones, slaves, pepper (sometimes referred to as ‘black gold’) and exotic animals from the East. These trade links, some via the Silk Roads, became so important that Emperor Augustus often met with the ambassadors of Indian princes seeking treaties of trade or alliance.

As trade grew, so did the desire to find the quickest route to India. Around this time, many believed that the coastline of India ran from west to east, leading to the edge of the world. As a result, ships from Egypt sailed around the Arabian Peninsula and the Persian Gulf, hugging the coast, until they reached their destination. As knowledge improved and it was realised that the Indian coast ran roughly north–south, traders began sailing from the mouth of the Red Sea out across the open ocean – a more direct route that saved time. By AD 50, Roman ships were regularly using the direct route to reach India from Egypt in around 70 days. Not only Roman goods travelled. Ancient Indian sources show that

Roman tradesmen and mercenary soldiers found employment in India. In recent years, archaeologists have excavated an ancient Roman port called Muziris on the southern coast of India. Among the finds have been many *amphorae* (large pottery containers for wine or grain) and Roman coins.

At first, trade with India was restricted to the western coast. Around AD 54, a Roman merchant ship from Egypt was blown off course and landed in Sri Lanka. Soon the Romans were not only trading with Sri Lanka, but also sailing north along India’s eastern coast to trade for precious stones, spices and fabrics.

On the east African mainland, merchant ships regularly visited Somalia and other African nations. The Romans called these the ‘Aromatic Lands’ because of the large amounts of strong-smelling incense to be found in the region. Gradually, Roman ships travelled further south down the African coast until they reached a settlement near the island of Zanzibar (see Source 11).

Source 10 Roman merchant vessels were powered by sails and had deep hulls to maximise cargo space.



Rome and China

For almost 300 years, the two huge empires of Rome and China ruled over half the world's population at the same time, but what did they know of each other? Though goods travelled between them from the first century BC, each knew very little about the other. One reason for this was the vast distance separating them; another was the presence and location of the Parthian Empire, Rome's sworn enemy, blocking the main land trade routes that linked Europe with Asia, known as the Silk Roads (see Source 11).

Silk was brought to the Mediterranean by a people the Romans called the *Seres* (or 'Silk people'). Some historians have assumed that these were Chinese, but Pliny's description of them as tall, red-haired and blue-eyed suggests otherwise. They probably came from the desert region to the north of the Himalayas, well to the west of China.

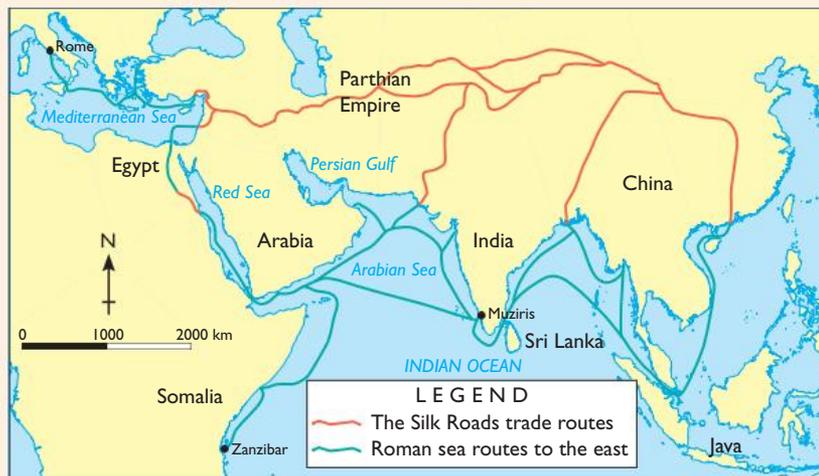
Direct contact between Rome and China came in AD 166, when a group of Roman traders reached Vietnam and from there were brought to the Chinese capital for a meeting with the emperor. However, when they returned to Rome with news of this new contact, they found that smallpox had ravaged the city, killing about one-third of Rome's population. This had a crippling effect on trade and the possibilities for further contacts with China were no longer considered a priority.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The Romans were fascinated by silk. Some Romans wrongly thought silk was harvested from forests in distant Asia, while the writer Pliny thought it was the 'hair of the sea-sheep'. So great was the demand for silk in Rome that Emperor Tiberius tried to ban importing it because it was costing the Roman treasury too much.

4.13 SOURCE STUDY

Roman trade routes



Source 11 Roman trade routes

INTERPRET

- 1 Examine Source 11.
 - a Use the scale to estimate the distances sailed by merchants from Egypt to Muziris on the coast of southern India if they travelled:
 - around the Arabian Peninsula and Persian Gulf
 - directly across the Arabian Sea.
 - b How much travelling distance was saved by using the direct route?

4.13 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 1 Explain why Egypt was such an important part of the Roman Empire.
- 2 How does a Roman naval warship (see Source 3) differ from the merchant ship shown in Source 10?
- 3 What is the significance of the following dates in Roman trade and exploration?
 - a AD 54
 - b AD 166

- 4 Why did trade between Rome and China fail to develop after early contacts?

GO DEEPER

- 5 Investigate Roman India. Indicate the points of contact, details of archaeological finds to date, evidence of India on Roman maps, and other relevant items of interest to a historian.

4.14 THE DOWNFALL AND LEGACY OF ROME

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain the legacy of ancient Rome.

All great empires eventually decline. For the Roman Empire, the end did not come suddenly, but the cracks began to appear after AD 200, due to a number of factors.

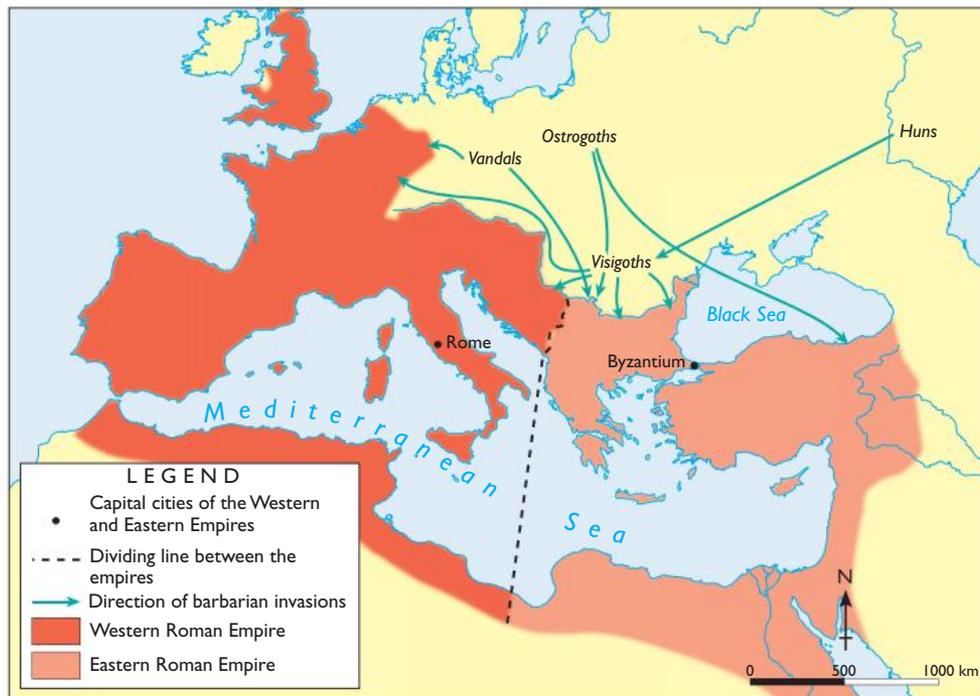
- Competing generals began to fight for the right to become emperor, and these civil wars destroyed the unity of the people.
- Economic conditions began to worsen as trade declined, and the population of Italy suffered from attacks of **plague** brought back by soldiers from the campaigns in the East.
- The systems of government that ran the empire became inefficient and corrupt.
- The empire was too large to protect from the **barbarian** tribes trying to invade along its north-western borders (see Source 12).

plague

a contagious bacterial disease, usually with fever and delirium

barbarian

a term used by ancient Romans to describe someone living outside their borders



Source 12 The division of the Roman Empire and the direction of threats from barbarian tribes

pagan

a person who is not a Christian and worships non-Christian gods

Diocletian, one of the last **pagan** emperors, persecuted Christians across the empire. But he brought stability to the empire for about 20 years, starting in AD 284. He knew that the empire was too large for centralised rule, so he divided the empire into two parts, each with its own emperor, but the western emperor maintained control. He appointed himself emperor of the eastern part of the empire, known as Byzantium. The Roman Empire remained strong because of this.

After Diocletian retired, there was some conflict over who would succeed him. Eventually, Constantine would be declared emperor and reunite the empire. Constantine believed that he came to power with the help of the Christian god and, by the time of his death in AD 337, Christianity had become the state religion.

By AD 395, the empire had again split in two. The Western Roman Empire itself began to break up again under the strain of military defeat and economic crisis. In AD 406, the Western Roman Empire was becoming overrun by barbarian tribes, such as Vandals and Visigoths. In AD 410, the city of Rome itself was looted by the barbarian Goths, and in AD 476, the last western emperor was overthrown by German troops within the Roman army. As the Western Roman Empire collapsed, a group of people known as the Franks invaded the province of Gaul, soon to be called France. The Angles and Saxons invaded Roman Britain, turning it into Saxon England. The Eastern Roman Empire survived until 1453, when it fell to the Turks and became known as the Byzantine Empire.

Legacy of the Romans

Although the Roman Empire ended about 1500 years ago, its legacy is still with us in many ways. The Roman Empire made it safe to travel across the region, allowing skills and ideas to spread as never before.

- Despite many years of opposition, Christianity eventually spread and became a 'world' religion because of the Roman Empire.
- The Roman language, Latin, became the basis of the French, Spanish, Italian and Portuguese languages, and is also central to the English language.
- Rome's system of government during the republic has served as a model for modern political systems. Roman law codes are the basis of legal systems in many European countries and a number of our legal principles evolved from ancient Rome, such as the right to a fair trial, contracts and property rights.
- Western architecture owes much to the Romans. The arches, vaults and domes used widely by the Romans, in their aqueducts, bridges and great public buildings such as baths and temples, are a feature of Western architecture.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Octo is eight, and *decem* is 10 in Latin. Why then are October and December the 10th and 12th months of the year? This is because the Romans altered the calendar to add July (named after Julius Caesar) and August (named after the Emperor Augustus).

Source 13 The architecture of the Jefferson Memorial in Washington DC draws on ancient Roman building designs.



- Romans were the first great town planners and were skilled engineers. They developed sophisticated plumbing, sewerage and heating systems. Many towns founded by the Romans still exist, and modern roads have been built over the remains of Roman roads.
- Roman poets, historians and philosophers, such as Livy and Emperor Marcus Aurelius, although largely influenced by ancient Greece, produced great writing and literature.
- The calendar that we use every day has links to ancient Rome. The Julian calendar, introduced by Julius Caesar in 45 BC, was the main calendar used throughout Europe until changes made by Pope Gregory in 1582.
- The Romans invented concrete, which they made from a mixture of lime and volcanic soil.



Source 14 A surviving section of the Via Appia (sometimes called the Appian Way), a road built by the Romans from 312 BC to connect Rome to the south-east of Italy

4.14 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 What decision was made by Emperor Diocletian to try to preserve the empire?
- 2 Which emperor was responsible for the introduction of Christianity into the empire?
- 3 When and how did the Roman Empire end in the west and in the east?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 4 Why might the end of the empire be described as 'the Romans' own fault'? Which things could be considered outside their control?

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE ROME AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

» Identify conflicts within ancient Roman society

- 1 Identify and describe conflicts that occurred within ancient Rome. (Also refer to topic 4.3 'From republic to empire'.) (10 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these conflicts for Roman society

- 2 What consequences did these conflicts have for Rome, and for the ancient world? (10 marks)

» Describe contacts and conflicts between ancient Rome and other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest

- 3 Identify and describe trading contacts that existed between Rome and other ancient societies. (10 marks)
- 4 Identify and describe ancient societies that came into conflict with Rome as it expanded its empire. (10 marks)
- 5 Describe the course and result of major conflicts between ancient Rome and another Mediterranean power. (20 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for Rome and other ancient societies

- 6 What consequences did trading contacts have for ancient Rome and other societies? Include examples. (5 marks)
- 7 What consequences did conflicts between the Roman Empire and other societies have, for Rome and for the other societies? (5 marks)

» Explain the legacy of ancient Rome

- 8 Explain the legacy of ancient Rome that has been left to the modern world. (10 marks)

Total marks [/80]

4D

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student [ebook](#) [access](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet

Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher [ebook](#) [access](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

QuizletLive

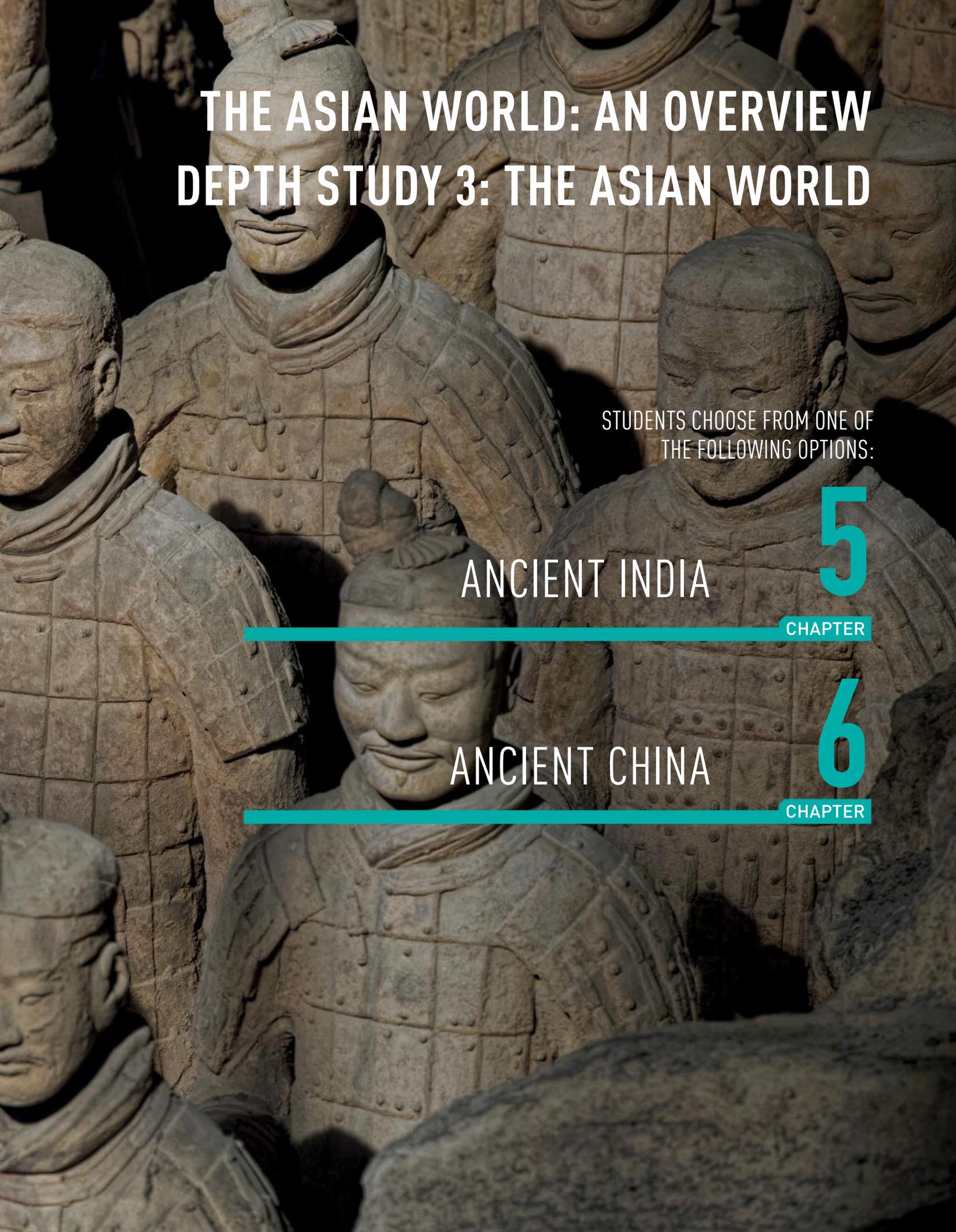
Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.



PART

C

An army of more than 8000 terracotta warriors was found in the tomb of Chinese Emperor Qin Shi Huang Di. Every one of them is different.

The background of the entire page is a photograph of several terracotta warrior statues from the Qin Dynasty in China. The statues are shown from the chest up, wearing detailed armor with visible rivets and straps. They have various hairstyles and facial features, and are arranged in rows, some slightly behind others, creating a sense of depth. The lighting is dramatic, with strong highlights and deep shadows.

THE ASIAN WORLD: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 3: THE ASIAN WORLD

STUDENTS CHOOSE FROM ONE OF
THE FOLLOWING OPTIONS:

ANCIENT INDIA

5

CHAPTER

ANCIENT CHINA

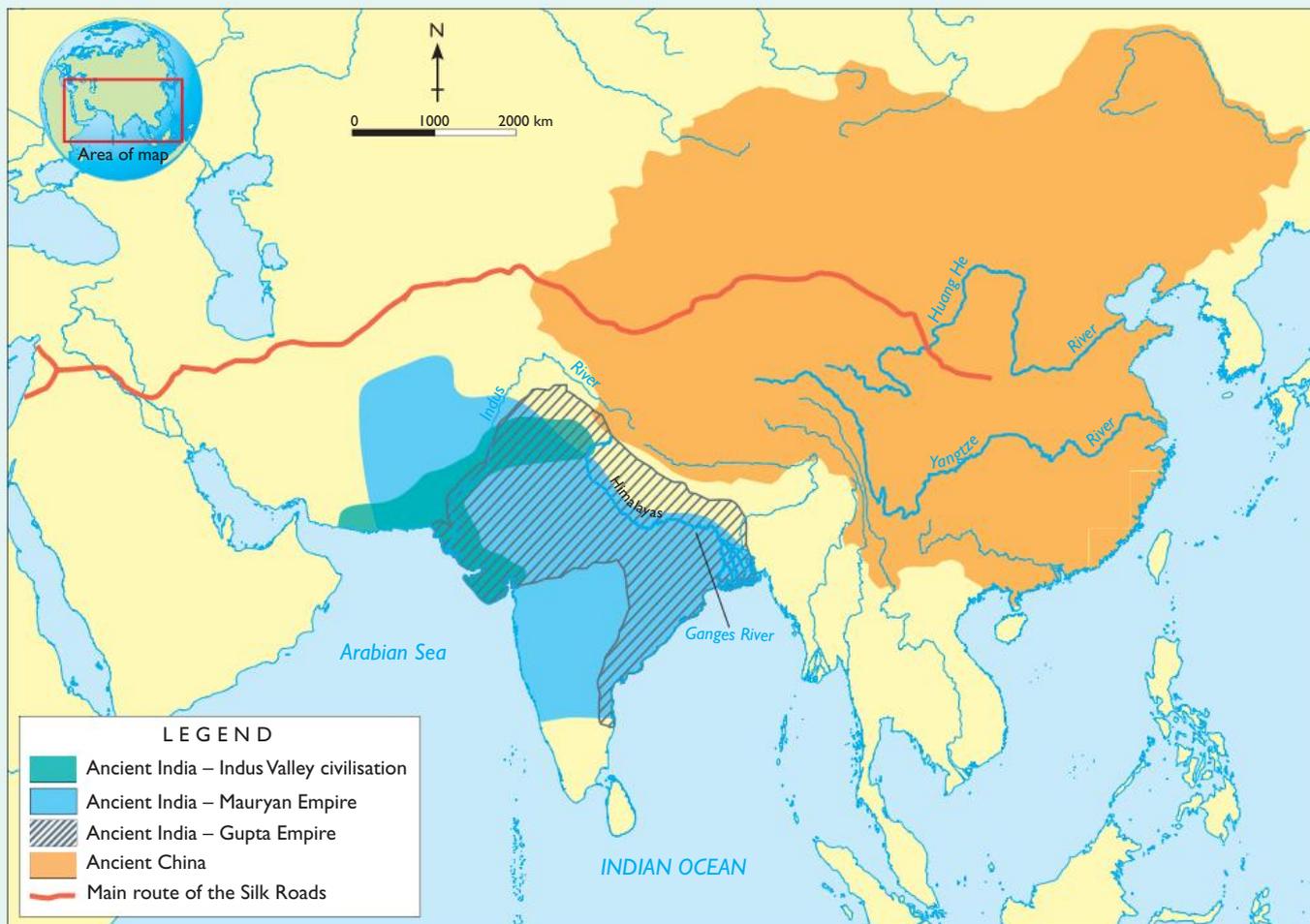
6

CHAPTER

OVERVIEW OF THE ASIAN WORLD

Historians such as Professor Peter Frankopan have argued that, for a very long time, school history has mostly been about studying the ‘rise of the West’. If this is the only history that we learn, it is incomplete. It is also essential to study the history of the Asian world.

From the earliest times, the Asian world was dominated by two great civilisations: ancient China and ancient India. These culturally rich societies are among the world’s oldest. Both China and India were exploited by European powers during the nineteenth century for their raw materials before reasserting themselves. Today, China and India have the world’s largest national populations, and have emerged as global economic powers. Australia is a geographically close neighbour, so it is especially important that we look beyond a Eurocentric view of history and also learn about these great Asian civilisations.



Source 1 China and India: two of the great civilisations of the Asian world

In this depth study, you will learn about one of the Asian civilisations in depth, including its:

- geography
- social structure and government
- contacts and conflicts within this society, and with other societies.
- religious beliefs
- everyday life

Sources 2 to 5 outline key aspects of the Asian civilisations you will be learning about in this depth study. These sources highlight some of their similarities and differences, and will help you to make connections between them.

0.1 KEY FEATURES OF THE ASIAN CIVILISATIONS

Geographical features

The geographical features of China and the Indian sub-continent were critical in influencing the way these societies developed.

Source 2 Geographical setting and natural features of the Asian civilisations

Ancient China	Ancient India
<p>Located entirely on the Asian continent, for much of its history China was largely unknown to societies in the West. This was mostly because of its geography. The Pacific Ocean lies to the east, dense forests to the south, the Himalayan mountain range to the west, and large deserts to the north-west.</p> <p>China's large area means it has very different climates in different regions. Chinese society was based on agriculture; as a result, many early Chinese settlements were located in the fertile plains along the Huang He (or Yellow) River and the Yangtze River.</p>	<p>To the north of the Indian sub-continent, deserts and the Himalayan mountains provided a natural barrier. There was plenty of fertile land for people to settle on, including coastal regions, plains and river valleys. India was well placed for trade, midway between East and West on one of the branches of the Silk Roads.</p> <p>India's earliest civilisation (the Harappan) emerged in the Indus River Valley. Much later, India's first empire, the Mauryan Empire, began near the Ganges River. Later still, the Gupta Empire brought a 'golden age' to India, with the introduction of many inventions and discoveries in mathematics, sciences and the arts.</p>

Silk Roads

a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

Social organisation and government

Ancient China and India had strict social hierarchies. In both societies, the strict class structure was influenced by belief systems and values popular at the time. In China, social structure and the approach to recording history were reinforced by the ideas of the great teacher and philosopher Confucius, who taught that a society could not be successful without respect for the past, strict social order and discipline. In India, a **caste system** developed that was connected to Hindu beliefs. These beliefs also influenced the concepts and methods of the earliest Indian historical accounts, where stories from the past were chosen to serve the needs of the present. This meant that legendary stories of the lives of great men were regularly featured. In terms of government, China was ruled by a series of **dynasties** throughout much of its ancient period, some lasting for hundreds of years. India's dynasties were more short-lived.

Source 3 Social organisation and government of the Asian civilisations

Ancient China	Ancient India
<p>China was governed by powerful dynasties for much of its history. Its emperors came from wealthy and influential families, and passed the leadership to their children. Dynasties sometimes changed after a power struggle between rival families, or if a ruler became unpopular with the people because of floods or famine.</p> <p>China had a strict social hierarchy. Rulers, scholars and nobles were wealthy and powerful at the top of the hierarchy. Farmers, artisans and merchants were below them. Chinese women had a lower status than men and had few freedoms. Their life was mostly restricted to the home.</p>	<p>India had a strict social hierarchy with roots in the Hindu religion: the caste system. It divided people into social groups that determined their status, responsibilities and privileges. There were four main castes, with Brahmins at the top. Outside the caste hierarchy were the Untouchables, who were the most deprived group.</p> <p>Women in ancient India seem to have had a similar status to men for part of its history.</p> <p>After the Harappan civilisation declined, India was ruled as separate kingdoms, other than two periods when Indian dynasties established the Mauryan Empire and Gupta Empire.</p>

caste system

a social system in which people are born into a social group (called a caste); the caste system is generally associated with the Hindu religion in India and is still used today

dynasty

a period of rule by members of the same family who come to power one after the other; power is often passed from father to son

Religious beliefs

The societies of ancient China and India were influenced by a complex mix of religious beliefs, cultural values and traditions.

Source 4 Religious beliefs of the Asian civilisations

Ancient China	Ancient India
<p>The people of ancient China worshipped their ancestors, as well as gods and goddesses. Chinese deities (gods) were believed to control the forces of nature.</p> <p>China had a number of organised religions. Daoism focused on the spiritual struggle between the yin (female) and yang (male) forces of the world.</p> <p>Buddhism was brought to China from India in the first century AD and focused on a pathway to spiritual meaning and enlightenment.</p> <p>Confucianism was also a significant influence on Chinese beliefs. It was more a code of behaviour rather than a religion.</p>	<p>The people of ancient India worshipped deities, but also believed in other supernatural beings. Hinduism was the major religion in India. Hinduism had multiple gods and, like Buddhists, Hindus believed in reincarnation (rebirth). Buddhism was founded by a wealthy Indian prince in the fifth century BC and was an established religion in India before it spread to China.</p> <p>Ashoka, a ruler during the Mauryan Empire, was responsible for sending Buddhist missionaries to other societies across Asia. Over time, it became a major world religion. During the time of the Gupta Empire, there was a renewed interest in Hinduism, and Buddhism declined in the northern regions of India.</p>

Conflicts

Ancient China and India both experienced conflicts between warring kingdoms in their own territories, as well as threats from outside invaders.

Source 5 Conflicts involving the Asian civilisations

Ancient China	Ancient India
<p>Emperor Qin Shi Huang Di defeated warring states to rule a united China for the first time in 221 BC. China did not have a permanent army until relatively late in its history, during the Han Dynasty. The Chinese used a range of tactics and equipment to fight, and these changed over time. Early on, chariots were important, but these were gradually replaced by cavalry (soldiers on horses).</p> <p>The permanent army allowed China to combat tribes of invading Mongols from the north.</p>	<p>One of India's invaders was Alexander the Great (a powerful king from ancient Macedonia). After conquering Greece, Egypt and Persia, he briefly held territories around the Indus Valley.</p> <p>Throughout its history, India fought many invaders, and different kingdoms within India also went to war with one another. The army under the Mauryan Empire had a highly organised structure and hierarchy, and was strong enough to unite most of the country.</p> <p>Indian armies were the first to use elephants in battle. They also had foot soldiers, cavalry and chariots.</p> <p>The Gupta Empire was generally a very peaceful time, but the empire was greatly diminished when invaders from the north-west reduced the kingdom substantially in the fifth century, eradicating it completely by the sixth century.</p>

0.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Outline the similarities between the ancient Chinese and ancient Indian civilisations in terms of their origins and geographical settings.
- 2 Ancient China and ancient India both had strict social hierarchies, but how did India's differ in terms of its origins?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 Create a concept map to outline the major religions in ancient Asian societies, including any links between them.
- 4 Draw up a table to show similarities and differences between ancient China and ancient India with regard to conflicts and conquests.

0.2 LEGACIES OF THE ASIAN WORLD

Ancient societies across the Asian world, such as China and India, have gone on to influence the societies and cultures of modern-day civilisations both in the East and the West. With the establishment of the Silk Roads, travellers from East and West exchanged ideas, inventions and beliefs. In later centuries, explorers were motivated by a desire to trade with China and India. Today, the **legacies** of these ancient Asian civilisations can be seen across many areas of our daily life.

legacy

something passed down or received from an ancestor or predecessor (e.g. a language, way of doing something)

Belief systems

The belief systems of ancient China and ancient India are still influential all around the world. These belief systems included religion as well as other less formal beliefs. Hinduism and Buddhism, which originated in ancient India, are now major world religions. Some of the principles of those religions have had a wider impact, such as the principle of not harming living beings. The principles of Confucianism also continue to be important in modern China. Yoga and meditation grew out of ancient Indian belief systems and are commonly practised in many countries around the world today.



Source 6 A giant statue of Buddha in Hong Kong

Science and technology

Ancient China and ancient India made important contributions to mathematics and other areas of scientific and medical knowledge. The first use of the decimal system, which is the basis of modern mathematics, is credited to the fifth-century Indian astronomer and mathematician Aryabhata. The Chinese were also advanced mathematicians and developed a number of mathematical systems that were later adopted by Western civilisations. Many inventions that were crucial to the development of the modern world arose in China. The ancient Chinese developed printing, using flat wooden blocks carved so that the character to be printed stood above the rest of the block. Magnetic compasses, which became very important for navigation, were invented in China. Gunpowder was invented by a Chinese scientist in AD 850 and became a powerful weapon in warfare.



Source 7 An ancient Chinese nautical compass

0.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 1 Which legacy of the Asian world do you think is the most important? Write a short explanation of 150 words to account for your view.



Source 1 The Khas Mahal is located inside the Red Fort in Old Delhi. It served as the private residence for the Mughal emperor.

5

ANCIENT INDIA

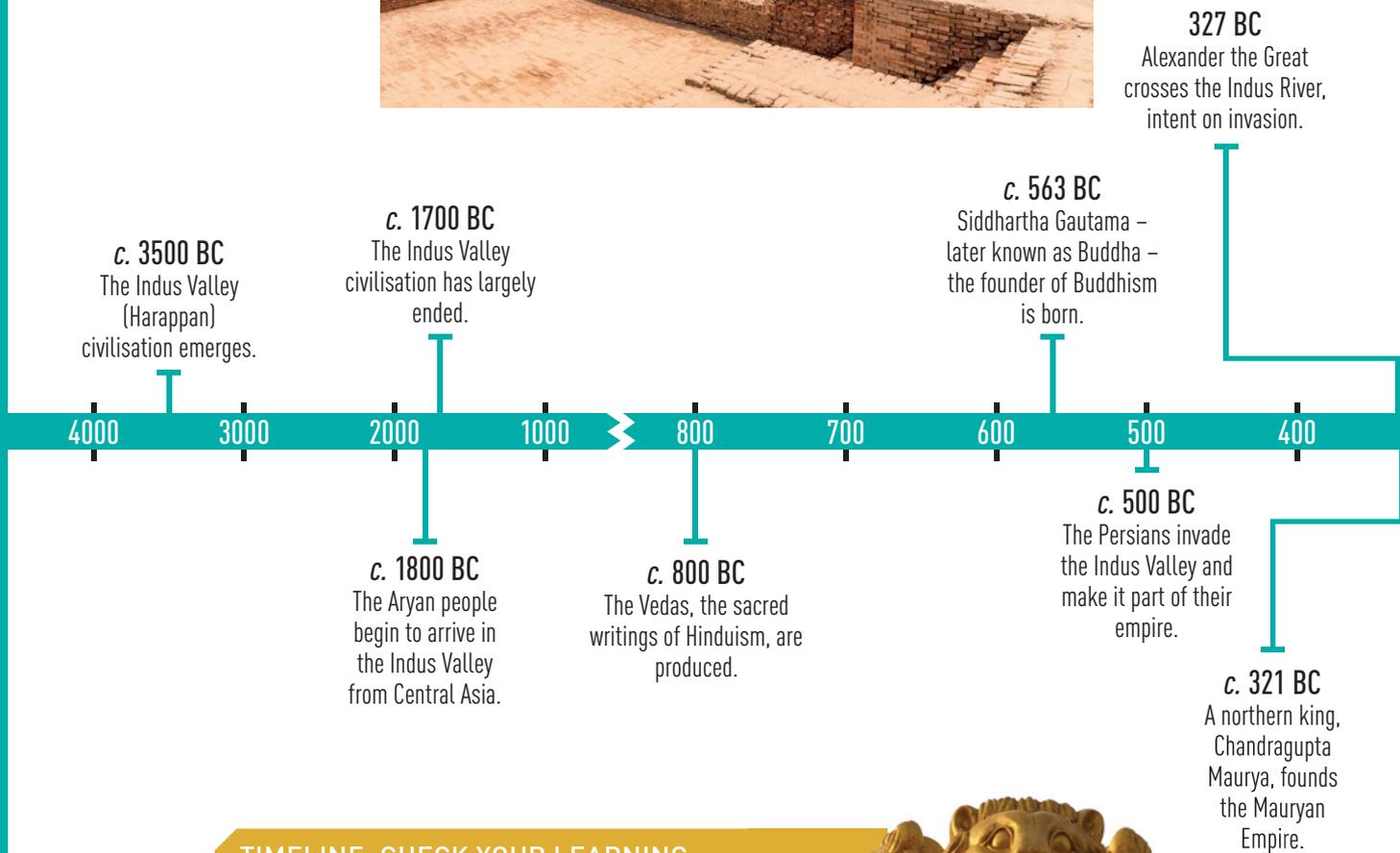
At the foot of the Himalayas, a rugged mountain range separating China from the Indian sub-continent, two mighty rivers flow to the sea. These are known as the Indus River and the Ganges River. One of the world's oldest civilisations was founded in the Indus Valley. There, well-planned cities developed while Europeans still lived in primitive huts. Along the Ganges River, a great empire grew, and inscriptions left by its kings have given historians a unique insight into this ancient world. From ancient India, two of the world's major religions – Hinduism and Buddhism – came into being. The people of ancient India are also believed to have begun the development of modern mathematics, and were the first to use the concept of zero.

ANCIENT INDIA – A TIMELINE

Source 2 The remains of the Great Bath in Mohenjo-Daro, the largest city of the Indus Valley civilisation; it is thought to have been a centre for ritual bathing.



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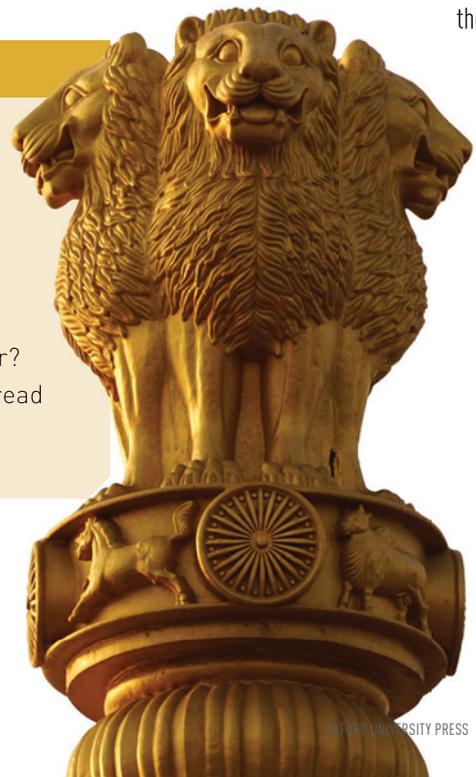


TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 How long did the Mauryan Empire last?
- 2 What is the name for the sacred writings of Hinduism?
- 3 What religion is associated with a man called Siddhartha Gautama?
- 4 When did the Indus Valley civilisation disappear?
- 5 When did the religion of Buddhism begin to spread beyond its Indian birthplace?

Source 3 The four lions on Ashoka's stone pillar at Sarnath; they are now the official symbol of the modern Republic of India.



269 BC
Ashoka Maurya,
Chandragupta
Maurya's grandson,
becomes emperor of
the Mauryan Empire.

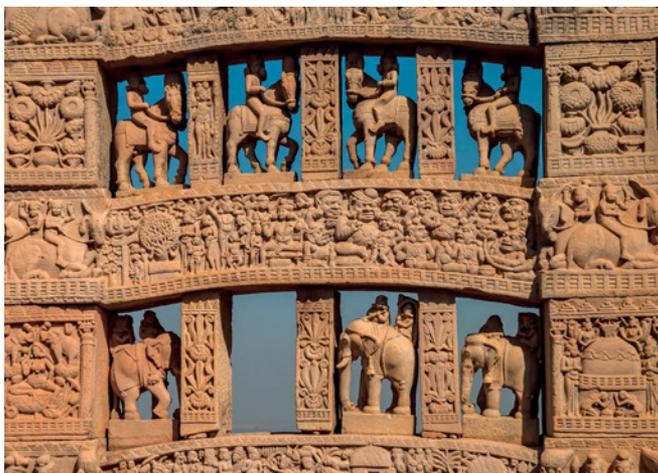
185 BC
The death of Emperor
Brihadratha brings the Mauryan
Empire to an end; for the next
300 years India is divided into
small kingdoms.

232 BC
Emperor
Ashoka dies.

50 BC
The first Buddhist stupa
(religious structure) is
built at Sanchi in India.

250 BC
Ashoka sends missionaries
across Asia to spread Buddhist
beliefs.

261 BC
Ashoka leads a
destructive military
campaign against Kalinga,
a rival civilisation.



Source 5 Part of a stone relief from Great Stupa at Sanchi, Bhopal



Source 4 The Hindu god Vishnu, whose four arms indicate that he is everywhere and all powerful

AD 320
The Gupta Empire
begins, a period in
which the arts and
sciences flourish.

AD 470
Aryabhata, the
first in a long line
of great Indian
astronomers and
mathematicians, is
born.

c. AD 550
The Gupta Empire
ends.



Source 6 An artist's impression of invading Huns (a rival civilisation from the West) who helped bring an end to the Gupta Empire

5A

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT INDIA?

5.1 THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT INDIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient India
- explain how they influenced the development of ancient Indian society.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

As ancient India developed, there were elements of society that remained the same, while other elements emerged and developed.

Silk Roads

a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

plateau

a large section of flat land

Source 1 Ancient ruins overlooking part of the fertile Indus Valley

India's location and geographical features have helped to shape its history. Its fertile river valleys were natural places for human settlement. Its northern mountains and deserts were natural barriers along its borders, and its rivers and extensive coastline ideal for sea trade. Ancient India was located about halfway between the ancient societies of the Mediterranean and Asian worlds, and was a key section of the **Silk Roads**.

The Indian sub-continent includes modern-day Pakistan, India and Bangladesh. Based on the 'Out of Africa' theory, historians estimate that people first reached the Indian sub-continent 60 000 years ago. From around 9000 years ago, farming communities began to emerge, such as the Mehrgarh culture in today's Pakistan.

Like most major civilisations across the ancient world, the earliest settlements in India developed in river valleys. The Indus Valley, a vast flood plain, became the location of many of ancient India's earliest and largest communities. The Indus River lies in the north-west of the sub-continent, in modern-day Pakistan. It begins high in the Himalayas and flows south 3180 kilometres to the Arabian Sea. The Thar Desert lies to the south-east of the Indus River, providing a natural barrier and protecting settlements from invaders. Further south, a large **plateau** called the Deccan Plateau makes up the majority of India's southern region. The flat land of the Deccan Plateau is good for farming and animal grazing. The Deccan Plateau slopes down to the Indian Ocean in the west, and the Bay of Bengal in the east (see Source 2).



India's geographical setting and natural features



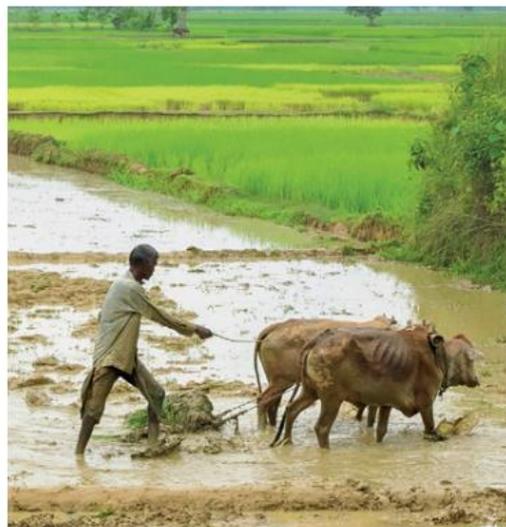
Source 2 The geographical features of the Indian sub-continent, and the borders of modern-day nations

INTERPRET

Refer to Source 2 to answer the following questions.

- 1 What four important physical features shaped the history of the Indian sub-continent?
- 2 Which physical feature is dominant? How might it have influenced human settlement?

India is a warm to very hot place year-round. Temperatures as high as 49°C have been recorded in some places, especially between March and June. The heavy **monsoon** rains usually arrive in June, with rain then falling most of the time until September. Most of the year's rainfall is during these few months. India's agriculture relies on monsoon rains arriving before its fields and crops dry up in the hot, dry months leading up to the monsoon. During the monsoon months, farmers store water supplies so they can irrigate crops during the rest of the year.



monsoon

a seasonal wind that brings heavy rainfall and warmer temperatures

Source 3 A farmer prepares his fields for planting after the first rains of the annual monsoon season.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

After Harappa was discovered, enough bricks were taken from there and other ancient ruins to lay the base of about 160 kilometres of track for the Lahore to Karachi railway line.

Ancient India's early civilisation

India's ancient society is often referred to as the Indus Valley civilisation, named for the Indus River around which that civilisation developed. Knowledge of this civilisation came to light with the discovery and excavation by archaeologists of its second largest city, Harappa, so some historians also refer to it as the Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation. The Indus Valley civilisation developed from early farming communities that depended on the river waters for irrigation. Wheat and barley were their staple crops and rice was also grown. It lasted from about 3500 BC to 1700 BC, but was at its height from about 2600 BC to 1900 BC.

The discoveries of Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro

Countries in the West first came to know of an early Indian civilisation through the writings of a British army deserter named James Lewis. He had come upon the ruins of Harappa in 1826 while travelling through the marshy woodlands of what is now the Punjab region of Pakistan. By the time the archaeologist Sir Alexander Cunningham visited the site in 1873, many of the walls and buildings of Harappa had disappeared. British engineers had taken the bricks from the ancient ruins to use for the building of a railway line.

Source 4 The ruins of Mohenjo-Daro

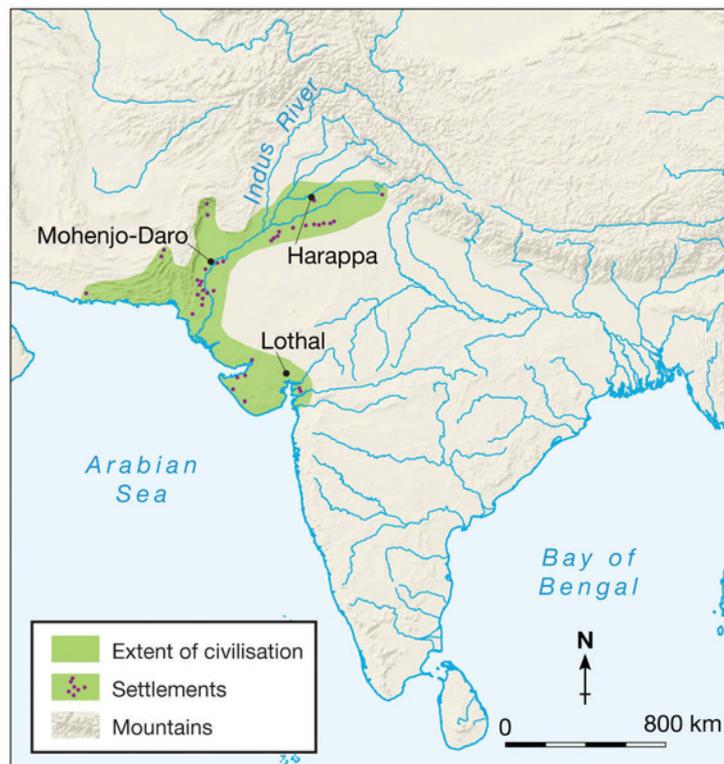


For many years, because of the preference for Western or European history, there was little archaeological interest in the site. This changed in 1919 when Indian archaeologist R.D. Banerji investigated an ancient Buddhist **stupa** about 500 kilometres south of Harappa. Banerji noticed that the stupa was surrounded by mounds of crumbling bricks. He began digging and found, among other things, three soapstone **seals**. These seals were similar to one that had previously been found at Harappa, and were engraved with the same unknown writing that could not be decoded. Banerji had stumbled across the remains of the other great city from the Indus Valley civilisation: Mohenjo-Daro.

stupa
a dome-shaped religious building used to store important Buddhist relics (religious objects)

seals
engraved stamps

Archaeologists made a thorough excavation of both Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro in the early 1920s. It was found that Mohenjo-Daro covered an area of 1.5 square kilometres. Archaeologists estimate that the city housed more than 35 000 people. Harappa was a little smaller, with approximately 30 000 people. Since the 1920s, archaeologists have uncovered more than 1052 sites whose planned cities of brick, similar pottery and elaborately carved seals confirm they were part of the Indus Valley civilisation. The settlements were spread in a broad crescent across parts of Pakistan and northern India. Although most of the sites were found along the banks of the Indus River, some have also been excavated along the coastline near the ancient city of Lothal (see Source 5). At the civilisation's height in the late third millennium BC, Indus Valley cities and towns covered a region of almost 1.25 million square kilometres of land which is today part of Afghanistan, Pakistan and north-western India.



Source 5 The extent of the Indus Valley civilisation

5.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Outline the factors that made ancient India an important trading nation.
- 2 Why does agriculture in India depend on the monsoon season?
- 3 How were the ruins of Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro discovered?
- 4 In which modern-day countries was the Indus Valley civilisation located?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 As a class, brainstorm any problems you think a severe monsoon might have caused for an ancient settlement in the Indus Valley.
- 6 The timing and amount of rainfall in the monsoon season has always been significant for Indian agriculture. Why might modern India's economy rely less on the monsoon season now, compared to ancient times?

5.2 INDUS VALLEY CITIES

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient India
- explain how they influenced the development of ancient Indian society.

As the centuries of mud, soil and sand were cleared away from Harappa and Mohenjo-Daro, a sophisticated civilisation was revealed. As well as large protective walls, archaeologists discovered dockyards, grain storage buildings and warehouses. However, no large palaces or temples were found. In other ancient civilisations, evidence from these sites would have provided clues about the identity of important people in the ancient society, and how the civilisation was ruled. The lack of these types of buildings has led archaeologists to conclude that people in Indus Valley societies must have been more egalitarian (meaning that all people were treated equally) than those in other societies across the ancient world at that time.

The cities showed a well-developed sense of civic planning and organisation, including:

- huge brick platforms that formed the foundation of some major buildings
- roads set out on a grid pattern, with a 10-metre-wide main street in Mohenjo-Daro
- a well-developed system of sanitation and drainage, which has been described as the most advanced in the ancient world.

Sanitation and drainage

The residents in Mohenjo-Daro could obtain water from communal wells in the main street, as well as from wells in their own houses. House drains were linked to those in the street, which were built with a slight slope to allow water to drain away from the city. Some of the underground drains were large enough for people to walk in, which would have enabled them to be unblocked when necessary. This drainage system, found in every city of the Indus Valley civilisation, was extremely sophisticated and advanced among ancient civilisations.

Source 6 A domestic well from the ruins of a house in Mohenjo-Daro



Housing

Houses of varying sizes were found in Indus Valley cities. Even after about 4000 years, their walls were still standing. On the ground floor most houses did not have windows, as these would have looked directly onto the busy streets. The main door, located in an alley behind the house, opened onto a spacious hallway and a courtyard beyond. Lining the courtyard and opening onto it were the individual rooms of the house, with a brick stairway leading to upper rooms and the roof. Windows had screens made of wood, terracotta or alabaster (a white stone) for privacy. The evidence suggests that most city-dwellers were traders or **artisans**, who lived with others belonging to the same occupation in well-defined neighbourhoods.

artisan

a person who is skilled at working with his or her hands in some specialised way (e.g. a potter, metalworker)

Artefacts from the Indus Valley

The most common, and in some ways most puzzling, archaeological finds from the Indus Valley civilisation are numerous seals made from soapstone. These seals may have been used to stamp trade goods or other property to show ownership. To this day, the inscriptions on these seals have not been deciphered. The animal most commonly found on the seals is thought to be a unicorn. About a dozen Indus Valley seals have been excavated from sites as far away as Iraq and Iran.

The most distinctive single object found at Mohenjo-Daro is a stone sculpture known as the 'Priest-King', despite the fact that there is no supporting evidence that the figure represents either a priest or a king. The sculpture, found in 1927, is only 18 centimetres tall. The figure wears a headband, and has a similar band on his right arm. His upper lip is shaved and his beard is combed. His eyes are deeply cut into the stone, and some archaeologists think there may have been carved shell set into them. He is wearing a cloak decorated with a three-leafed design, which was once coloured red.

SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the artefact in Source 7.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?

5.2 SOURCE STUDY

Artefacts from the Indus Valley

Source 7 Some of the Indus Valley seals have a symbol called a swastika (which means 'well-being') engraved on them, such as this example from Mohenjo-Daro.



Source 8 A seal from the ruins of Mohenjo-Daro features a picture of a unicorn.

Source 9 The 'Priest-King' of Mohenjo-Daro

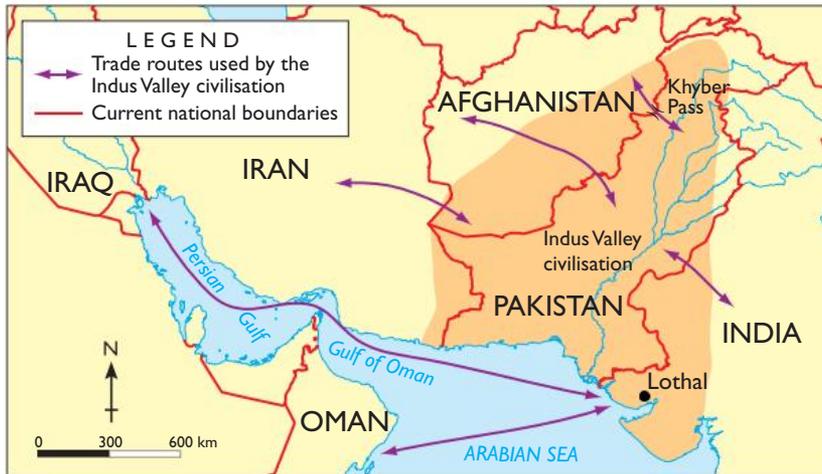


INTERPRET

- 1 The writing shown in Source 8 has never been deciphered. How does this limit the source for historians studying the Indus Valley civilisation?
- 2 Look at Source 9.
 - a What evidence does it provide about how men in Mohenjo-Daro wore their clothing and groomed their beards and hair?
 - b As a class, discuss why this artefact may have been called the 'Priest-King'.

Indus Valley traders

Trade seems to have been the major occupation of the people of the Indus Valley civilisation. Their cities were centres of production of crafted items that were traded both overseas and overland. The city of Lothal was an important port where archaeologists have discovered an enormous dredged canal and docking facility. From here precious beads, ivory and jewellery were sent to faraway lands. Numerous finds



Source 10 Trade routes used by the Indus Valley civilisation

of beads, pottery and bronze weapons of Indus Valley design in Oman have provided evidence of trade links across the Arabian Sea. Indus Valley traders also used coastal shipping along the Gulf of Oman and the Persian Gulf to the Tigris–Euphrates delta (now in Iraq). They travelled overland to Afghanistan and Iran, other parts of the Indian sub-continent, and through the Khyber Pass to link up with the Silk Roads that stretched from China to the Mediterranean.

The decline of the Indus Valley civilisation

By 1700 BC, most of the cities of the Indus Valley had been abandoned. It was once thought that this was because of invasions by the Aryans, a people from the north-west of Central Asia. Although it has been established that the Aryans did migrate to the Indus Valley and dominate the region, historians now believe that environmental factors played a key role in the decline of Indus Valley cities. These factors include heavy flooding of the valley and changes in the course of rivers due to earthquakes. The course of the Indus River itself was changed, and another ancient river, known as the Sarswati or Chagger Hakra, dried up entirely. Cities that had been built on the river banks would have been left without any water, and river trade would have ended as well.

The major influence in ancient Indian society then came from the Aryan people, who mingled with the existing population over time. Among their many achievements, the Indo-Aryans produced the language and script of Sanskrit, from which comes Hindi, the official language of modern India.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

For a great civilisation to cease existing, something has to happen to cause change and stop it from thriving.

5.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 1 Create an infographic that includes some simple sketches to summarise aspects of the Indus Valley cities that historians have studied. Compare aspects such as urban planning, occupations of people who lived there, and their decline. Include sources of evidence that have been discovered. Which aspects of these cities and society are unknown to historians? Add these to the infographic.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 2 Conduct research on the swastika symbol (see Source 7) to discover its different uses and meanings over time. For example, swastikas have been found in religious buildings and temples; two Canadian ice-hockey teams in the early twentieth century used swastikas on their uniforms; and Adolf Hitler's Nazi party adopted the symbol in the 1930s. Write a 250-word report, with pictures, to summarise your findings. Explain why the swastika is now regarded as inappropriate and offensive by many people.

The decline of the Indus Valley civilisation

CASE STUDY

There is general agreement among historians and archaeologists that Harappan cities of the Indus Valley civilisation declined and some centres were abandoned around 1700 BC. Theories about the causes of the decline are an example of the concept of contestability. This is also an excellent example of how historical explanations change in the light of new evidence. In this case, new scientific techniques and developments in forensic science have led to the revision of old ideas. A range of theories has been offered, and these are examined below.

Foreign invasion

In 1953, British archaeologist Sir Mortimer Wheeler, who was the director of archaeology for the Indian Government between 1944 and 1947, proposed the theory that the collapse of the Indus Valley civilisation was caused by a foreign invasion. He based this conclusion on a find of a number of skeletons at Mohenjo-Daro, which he suggested was evidence of a massacre. Wheeler claimed that marks on the skulls were evidence of violent deaths.

Even though the skeletons have often been used to add credibility to the theory of invasion, there are major disputes about this evidence. In 1994, Professor Kenneth Kennedy of the University of California determined that the marks were the result of erosion. Also, not all the skeletons at the site appear to date from the same period. They are likely to have been placed there at different times and may even have had different causes of death. The skeletons were found in a residential part of the city and not near the fortified part of the city where a defensive stand against invaders might have been expected.

Sir Mortimer also referred to passages in the Rigveda, an ancient text, about aggressive and ruthless invaders. However, these passages may be pure myth or they may be stories based on memories of real events.

Environmental factors

Archaeological research and new techniques have shifted the focus of the investigation. A number of new explanations have been put forward, combining the impact of droughts and floods, and changes in sea levels and the course of rivers. There is evidence of major flooding at Mohenjo-Daro and other sites. In fact, the rise of the Indus Valley cities seems to have coincided with higher-than-normal rainfall, but then there was a dramatic drop in rainfall. A number of investigations by experts who study ancient climates have offered evidence of a prolonged drought. Not only that, earthquakes might have caused changes to the flow and direction of the Indus River, which would have had a disastrous effect on the Indus Valley cities. In addition, there is evidence that another river in the region, known as the Sariswati or Chagger Hakra, went dry and that cities along its banks were abandoned.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

Until a theory is absolutely proven, historians may dispute interpretations of the evidence, even if they agree on some aspects of the topic.



Source 11 One of the Mogenjo-Daro skeletons

Decline in trade

Trade was a key factor in the rise of the Indus Valley civilisation, but there is evidence that this vital source of prosperity dropped dramatically around the time of the decline. The Indus Valley cities depended heavily on trade with the Mesopotamian civilisation (in parts of modern-day Iraq, Kuwait, Syria and Turkey), so when Mesopotamia went into decline, trade dwindled and both merchants and craft manufacturers in the Indus Valley suffered a dramatic loss of income.



Source 12 An artist's impression of Indus Valley merchants shows a local trader weighing beads. Bead and jewellery making – using gold, ivory, copper, shells and semi-precious stones – was a key industry.

Internal decline

Professor Gregory Possehl argued that changes that triggered the collapse came from within the Harappan society. This was linked to expanding trade and growing internal class conflict. These domestic stresses are likely to have been accelerated by the decline in trade and the environmental changes noted above. The relative unity of the early years seems to have broken down. There is good archaeological evidence for this theory, for example there appears to have been overcrowding in the cities. The buildings had been well ordered, but around the time of decline, houses were jammed together. One of the most impressive public buildings in Mohenjo-Daro, the Great Bath, fell into disuse and was built over. There is also evidence that the impressive system of drainage fell into disrepair, drains became blocked and were not cleared. All this adds up to a breakdown in civil society and government.

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 1 What types of evidence are historians likely to have used, including the use of technologies, to contest the earlier belief that an Aryan invasion caused the end of the Indus Valley civilisation? Discuss this in class.

GO DEEPER

- 2 Using the information in this case study and some research of your own, consider the most likely explanation (or explanations) for the cause of the

decline of the Indus Valley civilisation. Note that the earliest theory of foreign invasion linked to Sir Mortimer Wheeler is now very much out of favour. As you work towards your answer to this question, try to separate the primary cause or causes from the secondary causes. When in doubt, look for the most likely option. Finally, remember that this remains a contested area of history and is an excellent example of how old beliefs have had to give way as historians work towards a better knowledge of the past.

5A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 15 marks = 500 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT INDIA?

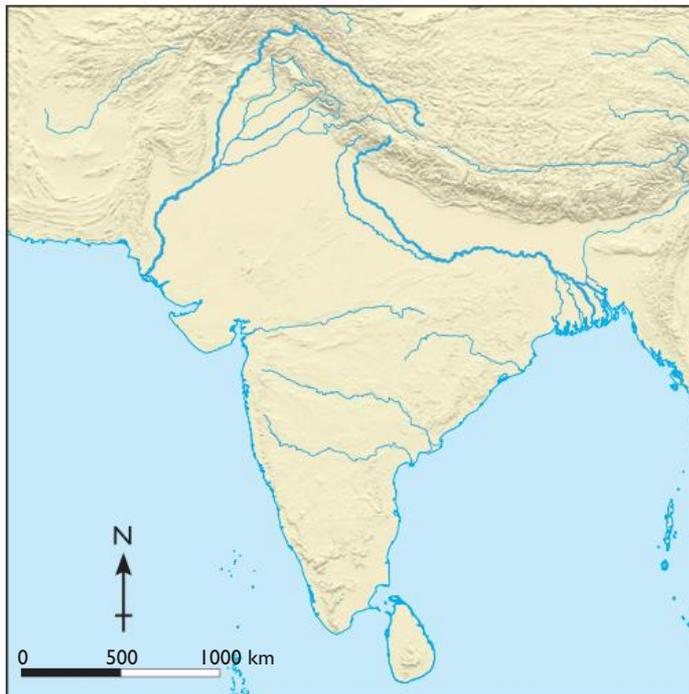
» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient India

- 1 Describe the geographical setting of India's earliest civilisation. (5 marks)
- 2 Copy Source 13, then identify and add the natural features in and around the Indian sub-continent. Use shading to mark the extent of the Indus Valley civilisation. Add a legend. (5 marks)

» Explain how they influenced the development of ancient Indian society

- 3 Explain how India's geographical setting and natural features influenced:
 - a the origins of India's earliest civilisation (5 marks)
 - b the way India's earliest civilisation developed and declined. (15 marks)

Total marks [/30]



Source 13 The geographical features of the Indian sub-continent

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Answers

Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

5B

WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT INDIA BELIEVE?

5.3 RELIGIONS AND BELIEFS IN ANCIENT INDIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how the beliefs and values of ancient India are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

Religious beliefs had an important role in the culture of ancient India. Three major religions originated in India – Hinduism, Jainism and Buddhism. Over centuries, Hinduism and Buddhism developed into major world religions, while across the Indian sub-continent Hinduism and Jainism are the most significant religions. Buddhism has declined in popularity in India, but has flourished elsewhere in South-East Asia.

Besides **deities**, Indians believed in many other supernatural beings, such as spirits and the ghosts of people who had died a violent death. Goblins carried out wicked deeds, vampires ate raw flesh, and female ogres took possession of newborn babies and made them die. There were also kindly spirits who lived in springs, rivers, hills, crossroads and trees – even in the domestic hearth (fireplace).

deity

a supernatural being, often in the form of a god or goddess

Hinduism

Hinduism is the oldest major religion in the world. According to religious scholars, it originated 5000 or more years ago, before the arrival of the Aryans. The Aryans both influenced, and were influenced by, the religious practices of the original Indus Valley peoples who were known as the 'Hindus'. As well as developing the Sanskrit language, the Indo-Aryans created a body of literature called the Vedas, based on hymns and other sacred poems from their gods. Over time, the Vedas became the most sacred texts in Hinduism and now form the basis of the Hindu faith.

Hindus believe in an original being, Brahman, who takes the form of many other deities. Hindus also believe in **reincarnation**. Hinduism requires that believers:

- live according to the 'rules' of the **caste system**
- worship their deities (with offerings made to gods in temples and holy places)
- cremate (burn) rather than bury their dead
- make pilgrimages to holy places such as the Ganges River (see Source 1).

reincarnation

the process of being born again; to live again in another body (human or animal)

caste system

a social system in which people are born into a social group (called a caste); the caste system is generally associated with the Hindu religion in India and is still used today

Jainism

Jainism developed as an offshoot to Hinduism and teaches that one should do no harm to any living thing. Jains, like Hindus, believe in karma, which teaches that the effects of a person's actions determine their destiny in the next life – no repentance can save someone and no god can forgive or forget past actions.

Hindu beliefs and rituals



The Ganges River is considered holy in India. Despite its high pollution levels, people today still risk their health to bathe in it or drink from it. At the festival of Kumbha Mela, held every 12 years, Hindu pilgrims take a ritual bath in the Ganges, which is thought to guarantee an end to reincarnation and the beginning of eternal happiness.

Source 1 Hindu pilgrims bathing in the Ganges

INTERPRET

- 1 Conduct research to find out about the mystical origins of the Kumbha Mela festival and write a paragraph of 50 words to summarise your findings.

Buddhism

Buddhism stemmed from the life and teachings of Siddhartha Gautama. He was born to a noble family around 563 BC in modern-day Nepal. Over time, he grew disillusioned with his privileged life and left to pursue a simple existence in the search for truth. After various experiences, including nearly starving to death, he sat under a tree, vowing to stay there until he had found the truth about life. After 49 days of meditation he is said to have reached a state of enlightenment. He came to be known by his followers as the Buddha, meaning 'the enlightened one'.

Buddhists do not worship deities. Instead they strive for a deeper insight into the true nature of life, with a focus on personal spiritual development. Buddhism teaches that greed and violence can never make people happy. The way to find peace of mind is through honest work, truthfulness, kindness and respect for the lives of all creatures – human and animal. The Eightfold Path laid out by Siddhartha Gautama describes the way to the end of suffering.

Wisdom	Ethical conduct	Mental discipline
Right view	Right speech	Right effort
Right intentions	Right action	Right concentration
	Right livelihood	Right mindfulness

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about what Source 1 reveals about Hinduism today in India.

Discuss your ideas with a partner.

Share your ideas with the class.

Source 2 The Eightfold Path is a practical guideline to ethical and mental development leading to understanding the truth about all things.

Death and funerary customs

Customs related to death and funerals in ancient India were influenced by people's beliefs and traditions, as described in Source 3.

Source 3 Typical rituals for a Hindu funeral in ancient India

- When a man was close to death, he was placed on the ground so that he could die close to the earth.
- After death, undertakers cut the dead man's hair, beard, body hair and nails, rubbed the body with perfumed oils and dressed it in new garments.
- Professional female mourners would be paid to surround the corpse and wail and cry, beating their chests and tearing at their hair.
- A sacrificial cow was chosen; it followed directly behind the corpse in the funeral procession.
- A pyre (a heap of wood) was constructed and the body was placed on top of it. Three fires were placed around it – at the north-west, south-west and south-east corners. The widow was led up to the corpse from the north and stretched herself out by his side. She was then helped to her feet and got down from the pyre.
- The priest arranged all the sacrificial objects that had belonged to the dead man on the corpse. The cow was then killed by the priest and its vital organs were placed on the body of the dead man.
- The fires were simultaneously lit and the priest watched carefully. If the flames from all three fires reached the body simultaneously it was a sign of supreme good fortune.
- The funeral was followed by a 10-day period of mourning. On the eleventh day the dead man's bones, which were left on the pyre to be picked clean by birds, were taken to be buried in the cemetery in a clay funerary urn.

Source 4 A memorial representing the handprints of widows who were burned with their dead husbands on the funeral pyre – a practice known as *sati*



Around AD 400, the practice of *sati* began to appear. This involved a widow climbing, or being placed, on the funeral pyre to be burned alive with her husband. By choosing (or being forced) to practise *sati*, the widow would be greatly respected as a pure woman, and declared a 'true wife'. It was believed that her agonising death ensured that she, her husband and seven generations of her family would all go straight to heaven.

I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about religion in ancient India and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

5.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Using bullet points, summarise the key beliefs of the Hindu and Buddhist religions.
- 2 What does karma teach?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 Conduct research to find out what is required of a Buddhist following the Eightfold Path. For example, what do you think is meant by 'right speech' or 'right livelihood'?
- 4 Why do you think Hindus cremate (burn) rather than bury their dead?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 5 Conduct research to find out why cows are sacred to Hindus and followers of other religions. Create a Venn diagram showing the similarities and differences in their belief systems in relation to cows.
- 6 The practice of *sati* is outlawed in modern India, yet some widows continue to choose to carry it out when their husband dies. Using your understanding of Indian beliefs, and historical empathy, propose why a woman might be motivated to choose this option.

5B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 15 marks = 500 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT INDIA BELIEVE?

» Explain how the beliefs and values of ancient India are evident in practices related to death and funerary customs.

- 1 Identify the three major religions in India and outline what followers of these religions believe. In your response, refer to Source 5. (15 marks)
- 2 Explain how Hindu beliefs influenced burial rituals in India, and describe the rituals practised at a typical Hindu funeral. (15 marks)

Total marks [/30]

Source 5 Characteristics of the major Indian religions

Characteristics	Hinduism	Buddhism	Jainism
Origins	c. 1800 BC with more ancient roots	c. 450 BC	c. 570 BC
Key beliefs	Existence is a cycle of birth, death and rebirth, governed by karma. Reincarnation is dependent on how the previous life was lived. One of the goals in life is to release the soul from the cycle of rebirth by gaining spiritual knowledge.	The focus is on personal spiritual development. The path to enlightenment is through the practice and development of morality, meditation and wisdom. The aim is to achieve nirvana, which is best understood as a state of profound spiritual joy, without negative emotions and fears.	All animals and plants, as well as humans, have living souls, which are of equal value and should be treated with respect. Souls are reincarnated. 'Right belief', 'right knowledge' and 'right conduct' are the three guiding principles.
God/s	Brahman, who takes the form of other deities responsible for the creation, upkeep and destruction of the world, including the gods Vishnu and Shiva	None	None
Sacred texts	<i>Bhagavad Gita</i> and the Vedas	The Tripitaka, the Mahayana Sutras and the <i>Tibetan Book of the Dead</i>	The Agamas, which contain the teachings of Mahavira
Sects or branches	Nine major sects including Brahmanism, Krishna Consciousness and Vishnuism	Twelve major sects including Falun Gong, Theravada, Mahayana and Zen	Two sects: Digambaras and Svetambaras
Number of followers today	1.15 billion	535 million	6 million

Check your Student obook access for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Rich task

A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher obook access for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Checkpoint worksheets

Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

5C

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED IN ANCIENT INDIA?

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

Unlike some other ancient societies, where there could be some movement among the classes, the caste system was inflexible, with chance defining each person's quality of life.

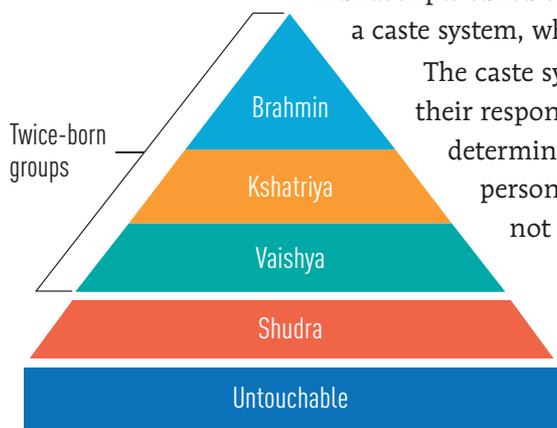
5.4 THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF ANCIENT INDIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline the main features of the social structures of ancient India, including the roles of law and religion
- describe the roles of key groups in ancient India.

As we have seen, Indo-Europeans (commonly known as Aryans, or Vedic people) began moving into northern India from about 1800 BC. They produced four religious manuscripts called the Vedas, which became the holy books of Hinduism. The concept of a caste system, which divided Indian society into groups, developed within Hinduism.



Source 1 The caste system in ancient India

The caste system in India enforced rigid limits on a person's life, dictating their responsibilities and privileges within society. The caste you were born into determined the sort of life you would lead, including the job you did, the person you married, and the people you socialised and ate with. You could not change your caste.

There were four main castes. The first three – Brahmins, Kshatriyas and Vaishyas – were the so-called 'twice-born'. This was because children took part in a 're-birth' ceremony around the age of 12, when they came of age. The fourth caste, the Shudras, did not have these spiritual privileges. Below these castes were the lowest of the low with no rights or privileges: the Untouchables.



Source 2 Brahmins perform a prayer ceremony at a Hindu festival in Varanasi.

Brahmins

The Brahmins were the most privileged caste. They were the priests, teachers, and performers of the religious rituals. They were also the group that selected the stories to record and produced the early history of India. Their accounts were designed to justify their own right to rule, and included almost nothing about the lives of ordinary people. They alone memorised and passed on teachings from the Vedas. They even exerted authority over the powerful tribal chiefs. Brahmins were expected to lead a religious, intellectual and saintly life, and to develop all ideal qualities, especially honesty, integrity, cleanliness, purity, austerity, knowledge and wisdom. To enable them to do this, they were not expected to accept paid employment but could receive gifts. Although Brahmins were expected to live simply, relying on donations from others, they sometimes came to possess large estates and large sums of money. Legally, Brahmins could not be sentenced to death, or receive torture or physical punishment. They also did not have to pay taxes.

Kshatriyas

The Kshatriyas were the noble caste. They were the leaders and protectors of society. They served as kings, warriors and tribal chiefs. Their responsibilities included protecting citizens from harm, especially women, children, Brahmins and the elderly. In times of war, they were expected to be the first into battle and never to flee the battlefield. As leaders, they were to ensure that the citizens performed their duties, enforce law and order, and collect the taxes from the main tax-paying caste, the Vaishyas. Spiritually, they were to be concerned with advancing their own spiritual awareness by knowing the scriptures and by taking counsel from the Brahmins.

Traditionally, only men from the Kshatriya class undertook military training. Reforms in modern India have allowed other castes to join the military. However, the majority of the Indian army is still made up of soldiers from the Kshatriya caste.



Source 3 Indian soldiers from the Kshatriya caste, on parade

Vaishyas

The Vaishyas were the farmers and merchants. Economically they were the most productive of all the castes. As time passed they became the business class and could become very wealthy. Their original function was to work and earn money to maintain the Brahmins, who were not required to work on the land, and the warrior caste, who were often busy conquering new territory. As a result, they paid heavy taxes. Though lower than the Brahmins and the Kshatriyas in the social order, they were classed as 'twice-born' and retained certain spiritual privileges, which involved performing rituals and rites of passage.



Source 4 Merchants were members of the Vaishya caste.



Source 5 These men from the Shudra caste are employed to work in a factory belonging to a merchant from the Vaishya caste.

Shudras

The Shudras were the workers, and it was their duty to serve the other three castes. They were the only section of society allowed to accept employment from members of the other castes. The Shudras paid taxes, though these were not as heavy as those paid by the Vaishyas. Although theirs was a life of labouring for others, it was not necessarily an unbearable existence. Employers (from the Vaishya caste) were obliged to supply a worker's tools, and sometimes a regular wage if the employer were wealthy.

Dalits

At the bottom of society, with no rights or privileges, was the group that came to be known as the 'Untouchables'. Untouchables did the jobs that were despised or considered spiritually unclean, such as sanitary workers, road sweepers and funeral attendants. They were not allowed to live within the confines of regular village life, or to share public facilities such as wells and temples. Emphasising their lowly status, Untouchables were supposed to dress in clothes stripped from corpses and eat only from cracked bowls and dishes. If they had jewellery, it could only be made from iron.

In modern Indian society, the term 'Untouchable' is no longer used. In fact, the Indian Constitution of 1950 outlawed Untouchability and gave equal status to all citizens. Untouchables are now referred to as Dalits. In practice, however, many rigid caste values continue and the role of caste in modern Indian society is often debated among Hindu scholars.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

Although the caste system is considered to be rigid and confining, there are clear examples where society has broken with tradition.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

In the past, a Brahmin who killed an Untouchable received the same penalty as someone would for killing a dog. An Untouchable had to avoid 'polluting' members of other castes by any kind of contact or even by coming within their sight.



Source 6 Work being carried out in a sewer in Kolkata; for over 2000 years, Hindu beliefs required that such work be carried out only by Untouchables.

The status of Dalits

In recent years, Dalits have been speaking out and demanding rights. For the first time, men from the Dalit caste have held high office in modern India. In 1997, K.R. Narayanan was elected as President of India, and in 2007 K.G. Balakrishnan was sworn in as India's Chief Justice – both men were born Dalits. Despite advances, however, there are still a number of crimes carried out against Dalits by members of higher castes. An attack against a Dalit farmer named Girdharilal Maurya provides one example of this.

Source 7

The sins of Girdharilal Maurya are many, his attackers insisted. He has bad karma. Why else would he, like his ancestors, be born an Untouchable, if not to pay for his past lives? Look, he is a leatherworker, and Hindu law says that working with animal skins makes him unclean, someone to avoid and revile. And his unseemly prosperity is a sin. Who does this Untouchable think he is, buying a small plot of land outside the village? Then he dared speak up, to the police and other authorities, demanding to use the new village well. He got what Untouchables deserve. One night, while Maurya was away in a nearby city, eight men from the higher Rajput caste came to his farm. They broke his fences, stole his tractor, beat his wife and daughter, and burned down his house. The message was clear: Stay at the bottom where you belong.

The punishment of Girdharilal Maurya (c. 2003) from National Geographic online news



Source 8 These two women are taking part in a protest march by Dalits in Mumbai.

INTERPRET

- 1 Read Source 7 and answer the following questions.
 - a What were Girdharilal Maurya's 'crimes'?
 - b Why did his attackers think they had the right to punish him?
 - c Is the source credible (reliable)? Justify your answer.
- 2 Look at Sources 7 and 8.
 - a What evidence do these sources provide about the status of the Dalits in India?
 - b Outline the limitations of these sources. What other evidence would historians need to form a comprehensive understanding of Dalits?

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND THE USE OF SOURCES

The origin and purpose of a source must be considered before drawing conclusions about how useful or accurate it is.

Slaves in ancient India

Written sources from the first century BC confirm there was slavery in ancient India. However, unlike slavery in ancient Greece and Rome, it was rarely a life sentence. Slaves were brought to India by traders, or became slaves as punishment for certain crimes or to pay off a debt. Some slaves worked in mines, but most appeared to have worked as domestic servants. Many would have probably have had a better life as slaves than as Untouchables, as slavery was governed (as least officially) by laws. For example, if a female slave bore her master a son, she became legally free and the child had the legal status of a son of the master. Slaves were allowed to buy back their freedom or could be voluntarily released by their masters.

5.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Why were the Aryans sometimes called the Vedic people?
- 2 Based on the information provided, identify if each of the following statements is true or false:
 - a The Kshatriyas were the princes so this made them the spiritual leaders of society.
 - b The Vaishya caste paid more taxes than the Shudras, who were a lower caste.
 - c Members of all castes had to pay taxes, though some paid more than others.
 - d Brahmins, being the highest caste, dressed more elegantly than the others.
 - e Shudras provided the main workforce in society.
- 3 Identify the caste to which each statement refers:
 - a They were the carpenters and the metalworkers.
 - b They lived simply and memorised the Vedas.
 - c They kept the drains and the streets clean.
 - d They were the tax collectors and warriors.
 - e They were the main business class.
- 4 Write a paragraph that outlines how the status of Dalits is an example of continuity and change from ancient to modern India.



5.5 EVERYDAY LIFE IN ANCIENT INDIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient India.

As we have seen, the caste system in India determined the sort of life a person could lead. Daily experiences of people in ancient India would also depend on whether they were male or female, and where they lived. Nonetheless, some general observations can be made about everyday life in ancient Indian towns and villages.

Town and village life

The well-planned cities and towns of ancient India were divided into distinct districts. Each caste was supposed to occupy a different district. In addition to the main streets, each district included smaller streets and lanes, which were often narrow and winding. These led to the houses of the poor and were used by members of the lower castes, especially the Untouchables, as they moved from one part of the city to another to carry out their necessary but despised jobs, such as street sweeping.

It was considered unacceptable for a member of a higher caste to come face-to-face with an Untouchable. While the upper castes strode proudly through the wide streets, or travelled in **palanquins**, the poorest of the poor scurried along the lanes. Half-naked Brahmins walked with a stick to ward off evil spirits and carried an umbrella to emphasise their dignity.

Religious beggars, known as *sadhus*, sat naked, their bodies smeared with ashes as the people moved among the street stalls and entertainers, such as snake charmers. Large towns had pleasure gardens, public parks and fountains.



Source 9 A snake charmer in Jaipur, charms two deadly cobras, continuing a long cultural tradition.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Ancient India had a complex variety of groups in society. It is important to understand the perspective of the different levels in the caste system.

palanquin

an enclosed chair, carried on poles by servants

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Venomous cobras are the preferred snakes used by snake charmers. A charmer will know the snake's striking range (distance) and sit just outside it – though some charmers also extract the poison glands just to be sure! Snakes cannot hear as we do; they respond to the swaying of the flute used by the charmer rather than its sound.

Rich and poor in ancient India



Source 10 Palanquins, like this one, were used to carry wealthy members of society.



Source 11 A woman sweeping a dirt road – a common sight in Indian towns, past and present

INTERPRET

- 1 To which castes do you think the man in the palanquin in Source 10 and the woman sweeping the road in Source 11 might belong? Use evidence from the sources to explain your reasoning.

Food and diet

Source 12 A single piece of cloth is wound in different ways to form a sari, worn by women, and a *dhoti*, worn by men.

In ancient times, Indus Valley populations would have eaten the grain crops they grew (such as rice, lentils and wheat) and the meat of the animals they herded, which included sheep, pigs, cattle and goats. Diets changed over time, often for religious reasons. For example, not eating meat became more common during the Mauryan Empire. This was because animal sacrifice had become less common under Emperor Ashoka, who had converted to Buddhism. By the time of the Gupta Empire, the cow had become sacred and Hindus did not eat beef at all. Much later, with the arrival of Islam, pork also became a forbidden food for many.

Clothing

Cotton was grown in ancient India by Indus Valley farmers. Fabric made from cotton was cool to wear in India's climate. It was used to make the saris (the Sanskrit word for 'cloth') worn by women, and the *dhoti* worn by men. Both these garments were a single piece of cloth wound in different ways around the body. Men wound the *dhoti* between their legs to form loose pants. Some men also wrapped a length of fabric around their head to form turbans.

Saris later became vibrantly coloured garments, especially for young women; for wealthy women, they were often made from richly decorated silk. Typically, lots of jewellery was worn by those who could afford it.



Housing

The houses of the rich were several storeys high, with whitewashed walls and private gardens where a stream of water often ran, permitting daily washing rituals to be carried out. Rooms were generally separated by hanging mats or tapestries. Floors were laid with polished tiles or **mosaics**. Each day, rooms were perfumed by burning incense sticks and hanging up garlands of flowers. Everyday life centred on the garden, where herbs were grown for treating the family's ills. Furniture was elegant and varied. The master bedroom would contain a soft bed with a white bedspread and a decorated canopy, along with tables, chairs, and baskets of flower garlands to wear.

In small towns and villages, living conditions were simpler. Houses were usually single storey with walls covered with a mixture of lime, earth and cow dung. Floors were made of beaten earth, and there was usually only one window. Furniture was extremely sparse and there were no seats of any kind, since everyone sat on the ground. The main piece of furniture was a bed with a wooden or bamboo frame. Domestic utensils were restricted to pots of various sizes.

Indian households

The Indian household was made up of the extended family composed of grandparents, uncles, aunts and other relatives all living together under the authority of the head of the household. The numbers could be increased by the practice of **polygamy**. Polygamy was permitted in all castes but was practised mainly by Kshatriyas. Its main purpose was to increase the chances of having sons who could preserve the family line (*gotra*). Custom required that a man should wait 8 to 12 years before taking a second wife, this being enough time to see if his first wife could bear him a son.



Source 13 Inside a home in India; this style of housing is typical for a poor family in India.

Education

During the Indus Valley civilisation, formal education was limited to the upper castes. Education focused on the Sanskrit language and religious training, such as learning the Vedas and ritual practices. Traditionally, students lived and studied with their teacher or guru in a forest location away from towns, called an ashram. Education started as young as 8 years of age, depending on a child's intellectual abilities. Upper-caste women were educated during the Indus Valley civilisation, and ancient Hindu scriptures provide evidence of women scholars who were teachers and took part in philosophical debates.

The sons of traders and merchants would be taught reading, writing and basic arithmetic in village schools, using their local dialect. Other boys and girls from the lower castes, the workers and farmers, would not have received any formal schooling.



Source 14 A student recites from the Vedas.

mosaic

a design or decoration made up of small pieces of tile and glass to create an image or pattern; commonly found on the floors and walls of buildings across the ancient world

polygamy

one man having several wives at the same time

Marriages

Marriages were arranged between families and planned over a long period. Sometimes the negotiations were directly between the families; sometimes the services of professional matchmakers (*ghataka*) were used. Astrologers were consulted to find the most favourable time for the wedding. The father of the bride was obliged to supply a dowry or wedding gift to the family of the groom. The bride would often be very young by today's standards, and some religious texts permitted the marriage of girls as young as 8 years old. Others preferred a later age of 12. When a girl or woman was married, she cut all ties with her family and became part of her husband's household and *gotra*.



Source 15 A wedding in an Indian village today continues old traditions. The bride is washed in front of a sacred Mahuwa tree, known as the 'tree of life'. The tree provides edible fruit, wood, oil (pressed from seeds), flowers, fertiliser (seed husks) and alcohol (made from fermented flowers).

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Historians write for different audiences. It is important to consider the style and tone of a response to ensure it is suitable.

5.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Explain how the caste system influenced the design of towns and cities in ancient India.
- 2 At what age were Indian girls usually married?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 How did the homes of the wealthy and the poor differ?
- 4 What do you consider to be some of the most important differences between marriage and family life in ancient India compared to today in your culture?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 5 Write a short article that expresses your feelings about Dalits in modern India. It needs to be suitable in tone, expression and presentation for publication in a magazine.

GO DEEPER

Most historians think that, during the Indus Valley civilisation, upper-caste women enjoyed much the same status as men and played an active role in society. They were educated, and they were respected by men for their spiritual and intellectual abilities. They could marry anyone they chose and have a say in what happened in the family. The status of women declined later in the Indus Valley civilisation, particularly after the arrival of both Islam and Christianity. Women began to lose their earlier independence and become more socially repressed by men.

- 6 Conduct research to find out more about the changing role and experiences of women in ancient India, and use a timeline with detailed labels to summarise your findings.
- 7 How would the changing status of women in ancient India have affected their daily experiences?

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED IN ANCIENT INDIA?

» **Outline the main features of the social structures of ancient India, including the roles of law and religion**

1 Identify the system that dictated a person's place in Indian society, and outline some of the ways in which this system influenced people's lives. (5 marks)

» **Describe the roles of key groups in ancient India**

2 Identify four key groups in India's social hierarchy, and describe the occupations, responsibilities and privileges of people who belonged to these groups. (10 marks)

3 Identify another group in Indian society that was considered to be beneath the accepted social hierarchy. Describe the types of duties the people in this group were expected to carry out and how were they treated. (5 marks)

4 Describe the work done by slaves in ancient India, and describe their status in Indian society. (5 marks)

» **Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient India**

5 Write a paragraph on each of the following aspects of everyday life in ancient India:

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| a life in an Indian town or village | d clothing, food and diet |
| b education | e housing. (25 marks) |
| c family households and marriage | |

Total marks [/50]

50

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student **obook assess** for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher **obook assess** for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Rich task

Open-ended inquiry task to engage students and develop their historical skills



5D

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE INDIA AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

5.6 ANCIENT INDIA'S EMPIRES

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

In order to fully understand a society, it is important to know its historical context and key terms used to describe important people, places and events. Ancient India's society was significantly changed by contact with other peoples. Some contacts were peaceful, through traders and missionaries, while other contacts came through invasion and war.

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify contacts and conflicts within ancient Indian society
- explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient Indian society
- outline significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient India and other societies
- outline the main features of government in ancient India, including the roles of law and religion
- assess the role and importance of a significant individual in ancient India.

As discussed earlier, the Ayrans established control across much of India's north about 3500 years ago, before extending their influence into the Ganges River Valley. The fertile Indus Valley was also attractive territory to other civilisations. The Persians made it part of their empire around 500 BC, but did not hold it for long. Later, the Indus Valley and surrounding regions became part of the Hellenistic Empire under Alexander the Great in 326 BC, following the defeat of the Indian King Porus.

Two great Indian empires then emerged during ancient times. India's first empire, the Mauryan Empire, was established in 321 BC by its conquering king Chandragupta Maurya.

A later king, Ashoka Maurya (Chandragupta's grandson), changed the face of India, first through war, and then by peaceful means. After the Mauryan Empire ended around 185 BC, India was again a mix of independent kingdoms. The Gupta Empire largely united India in AD 320, and was a time of cultural and intellectual advances. It too ended in conflict, with the fifth-century invasion by the Huns.

Source 1 An artist's impression of Alexander the Great defeating the Indian army of King Porus (and his elephant troops) at the battle at Hydaspes River in 326 BC



The Mauryan Empire

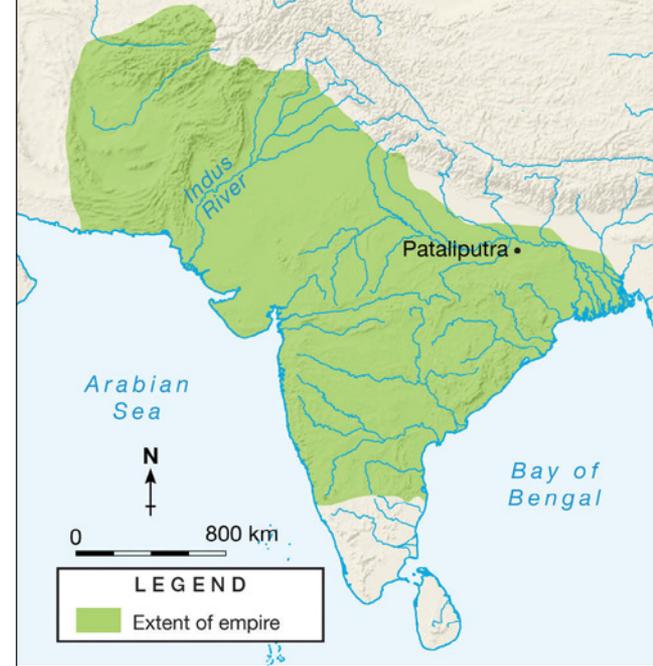
In 321 BC, a leader emerged in northern India who founded a great empire, stretching from modern Afghanistan to the Bay of Bengal. His name was Chandragupta Maurya and he ruled from his capital, Pataliputra. The ancient city now lies under the modern city of Patna, and the site is regarded as one of the oldest continuously inhabited places in the world.

By the time Ashoka came to power in 269 BC, a large part of the Indian sub-continent was under Mauryan control. The exception was Kalinga (now the Indian state of Odisha) on the east coast. In 261 BC, Ashoka led a lengthy campaign against the people of Kalinga, which ended in a victory for the Mauryan Empire. However, he was horrified at the devastation he had caused. He recorded how 150 000 Kalingan people had been carried away as prisoners, 100 000 had been killed, and many times that number had died as a result of the war. He vowed never to wage war again and turned to the newer religion of Buddhism for his inspiration and guidance. As a result, Buddhism became the empire's official religion in 260 BC.

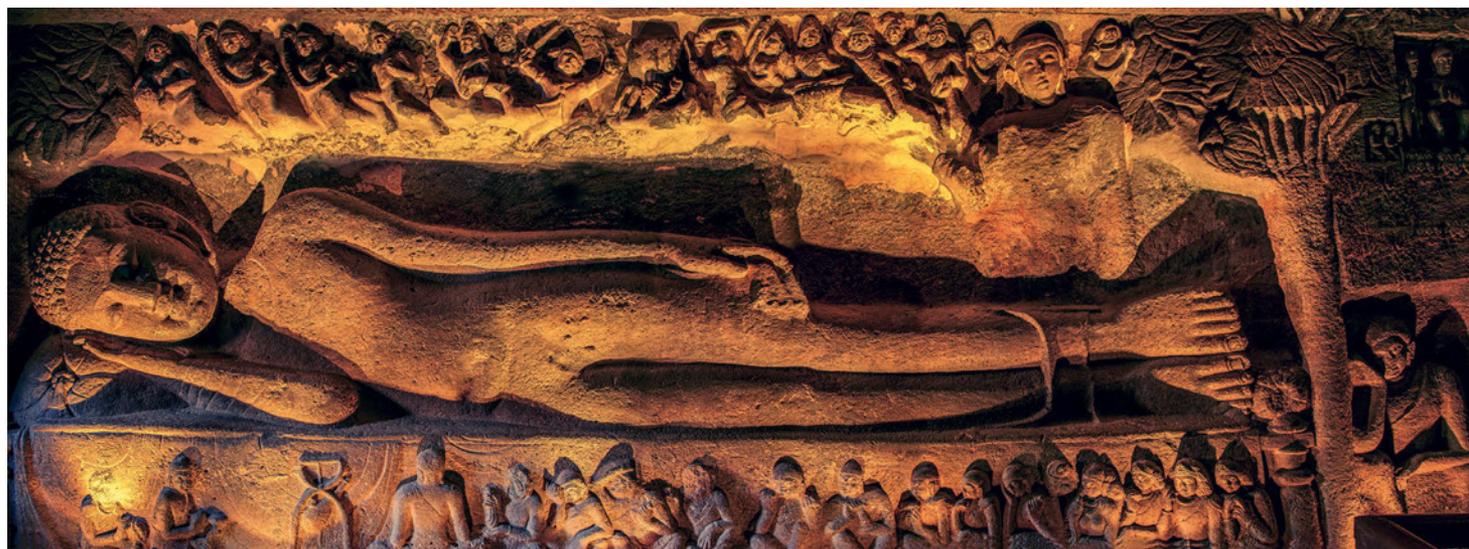
Ashoka and the spread of Buddhism

Ashoka wanted the teachings of Buddhism to be spread beyond their birthplace in northern India. He sent Buddhist missionaries to various parts of the sub-continent and beyond to carry the teachings of Buddhism and win people over to this new faith. Missionary expeditions were sent to Tibet, southern India, Burma and Sri Lanka. The mission to Sri Lanka was led by Prince Mahinda, Ashoka's son, and was the most successful of all. Prince Mahinda and the king of Sri Lanka, King Tissa, converted almost all the inhabitants to Buddhism and built spectacular monuments. Altogether, Ashoka built 84 000 stupas across the Mauryan Empire.

Although Buddhism later declined in popularity in India, the descendants of missionaries sent to Sri Lanka by Ashoka carried Buddhism to Burma and Thailand. From there, it spread to the islands of modern-day Indonesia, Cambodia and Vietnam, and travelled overland through central Asia to China, Korea and finally to Japan.



Source 2 The Mauryan Empire at its greatest extent



Source 3 A rock-cut sculpture of the reclining Buddha in the Ajanta Caves, Aurangabad

Government during the Mauryan Empire

The Mauryan Empire was divided into provinces, each governed by a prince or member of the royal family, their chief ministers and other officials. The only exception was the metropolitan area (known as the state of Magadha), which was directly governed by the emperor. Each village in a **province** had a headman who was both the local accountant and tax collector. Agriculture was the main activity within the Mauryan Empire, and taxes provided by farmers were the main source of income for the government.

Ashoka built schools, universities and hospitals using public money. One of the most impressive public works was the Great Royal Highway linking the city of Taxila in the north-west of the empire to the capital of Pataliputra. It continued on to the Bay of Bengal – a distance of more than 2500 kilometres. It was provided with signposts, roadside trees for shade, and bridges and ferries to cross the rivers on route. Ashoka had banyan trees planted (because of their significance in Buddhism), wells dug and rest houses built every 14 kilometres along the road for the comfort of travellers.

Ashoka's *dhamma*

Perhaps the most significant aspect of Ashoka's reign was his effort to convey to his people his ideas about how life should be lived. These ideas were known as his *dhamma*. The word came from the Sanskrit word *dharma*, which means the universal law, or righteousness. In Buddhism, it was used for the teachings of the Buddha, but Ashoka gave the word a wider meaning beyond religious matters to include questions of ethics and social behaviour.

To convey his ideas to his people, Ashoka had edicts (similar to instructions or laws) inscribed in stone throughout the empire. Some of these inscriptions were made on large rocks and boulders; others were cut into the walls of caves. The finest were cut into specially built stone pillars crowned with lions (see Source 3 on the timeline at the beginning of this chapter). The pillar edicts were placed wherever people were known to gather. Because very few people could read, the edicts would often be read aloud by an official.

Ashoka asked people to be tolerant of each other. This meant that people should be considerate to slaves and servants, respect teachers, obey parents, be generous towards friends and relatives, show concern for all living beings, and refrain from killing or behaving violently. For leaders such as himself, this meant renouncing war and conquest. This teaching of non-violence also extended to the treatment of animals. Ashoka's edicts tell us that he set up hospitals for animals as well as for people.

province

a territory or region governed or controlled by a foreign empire or country



Source 4 A bust of Ashoka, third ruler of the Mauryan Empire

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Ashoka reduced the number of animals destined for the butchers of the royal palace from 'several hundred thousand' every day down to just two peacocks and one gazelle – his favourite meats. By the end of his reign, even this limited killing had been stopped.



Source 5 The remains of a pillar built by Ashoka, showing engraved edicts



Source 6 The Wheel of Law



Source 7 The Indian flag

Ashoka's Wheel

The Wheel of Law was one of the earliest Buddhist symbols, and over the centuries many designs of the eight-spoked wheel have been made. A form of the Wheel of Law can be seen on the current Indian flag. This version is normally referred to as Ashoka's Wheel.

End of the Mauryan Empire

Ashoka ruled for 37 years and died in 232 BC. His policy of *dhamma* was not completely successful, as social and religious tensions throughout the empire continued. Decline set in and the empire broke down when the last of the Mauryan kings, Brihadratha, was assassinated in 185 BC. Although the empire had ended, the rule of Ashoka had left an important legacy. He had left behind the greatest historical records of an ancient Indian civilisation through his rock-and-pillar inscriptions, and been responsible for the spread of Buddhism across South-East Asia.

The Gupta Empire

More than 100 years after the end of the Mauryan Empire, ancient Indian civilisation was to reach new heights – this time under the rule of the Gupta Empire (AD 320–480). The Gupta Empire was founded by Chandragupta I, and although the reigns of the five Gupta emperors lasted only about 150 years, they oversaw great changes and advances in many fields. This was a period when Indian arts and sciences flourished. Great Indian writings took on their final form at this time, including the Sanskrit epic tales that are still central to Indian literature, culture and society today.

Trade also blossomed, with close contacts formed not only with Asian neighbours, but also with the Roman Empire in the west. Ancient India's geographical location – roughly midway along the Silk Roads between China and the Mediterranean societies of Rome, Greece and Egypt – also helped to develop exchanges of goods, ideas and religions.



Source 8 The extent of the Gupta Empire

During the Gupta Empire, Buddhism was replaced by Hinduism as the official state religion. Despite this change, followers of Buddhism, Hinduism and Jainism coexisted peacefully and exchanged ideas. The Gupta rulers were followers of the Hindu god Vishnu, but they were generous towards Buddhist monasteries and universities. They encouraged the works of Buddhists and Jains. Today, Buddhist sculptures carved into rock faces and paintings on temple caves from this time are evidence of this.

Tensions and divisions in Indian society appeared under the rule of the last Gupta ruler, Kumara Gupta, and the invading Huns ultimately ended what remained of the empire's unity. By the mid-sixth century AD, India was again ruled as a number of small kingdoms.

5.6 SOURCE STUDY

Ancient Indian society during the Gupta Empire

A Chinese Buddhist monk named Fa Hsien provided evidence of Indian society during the Gupta Empire. Fa Hsien toured the Gupta Empire to collect copies of Buddhist scriptures; his writings (AD 394–414) were first translated by French scholars in the nineteenth century.

Source 9

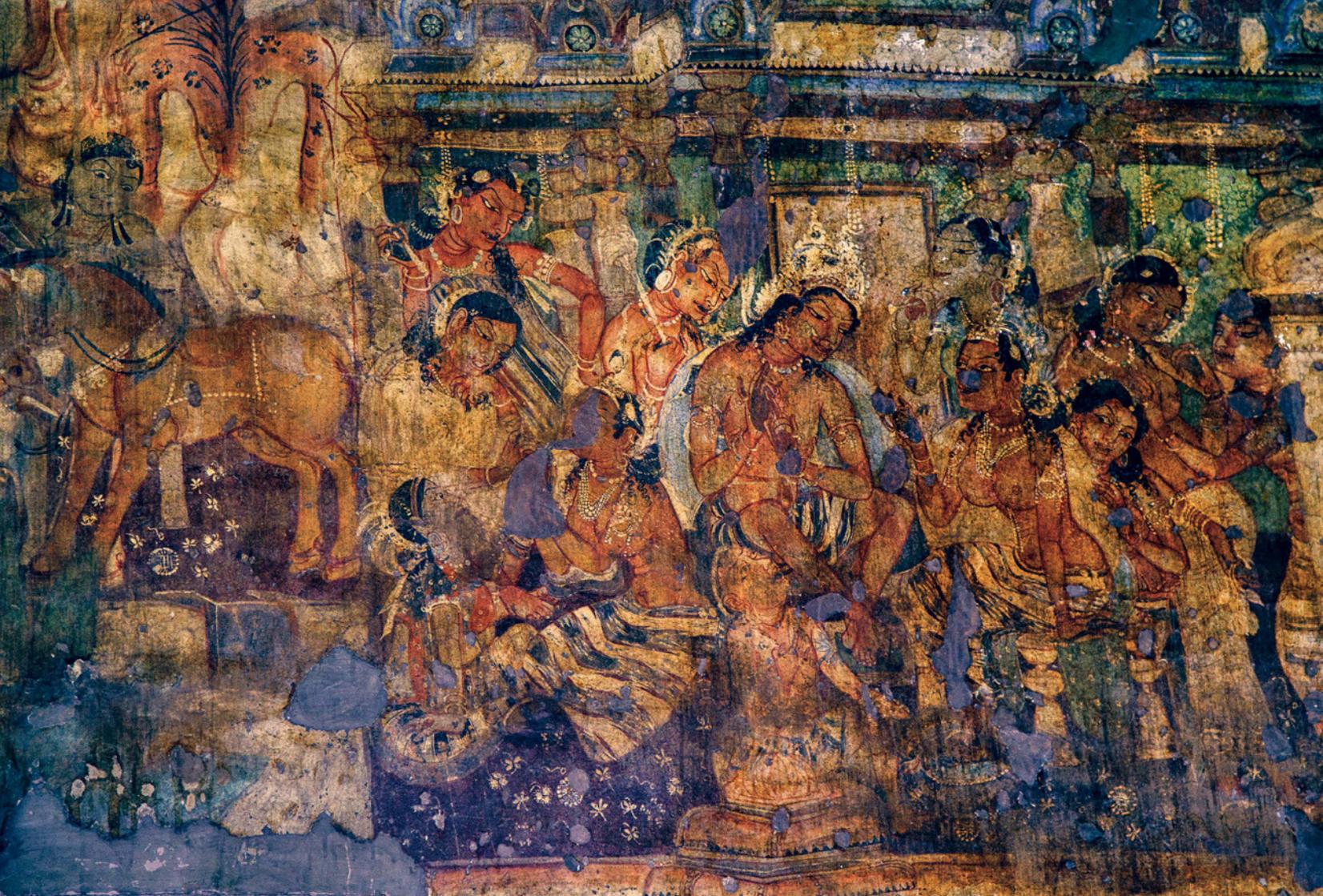
[In this land] ... the people are numerous and happy; they have not to register their households, or attend to any magistrates and their rules; only those who cultivate the royal land have to pay [a portion of] the gain from it. If they want to go, they go; if they want to stay on, they stay. The king governs without decapitation or [other] corporal punishments. Criminals are simply fined, lightly or heavily, according to the circumstances [of each case]. Even in the cases or repeated attempts at wicked rebellion, they only have their right hands cut off ... Throughout the whole country the people do not kill any living creature, nor drink intoxicating liquor, nor eat onions or garlic ... they do not keep pigs and fowls, and do not sell live cattle; in the markets there are no butchers' shops and no dealers in intoxicating drink.

The Heads of the Vaishya families ... establish in the cities houses for dispensing charity and medicines. All the poor and destitute in the country, orphans, widowers, and childless men, maimed people and cripples, and all who are diseased, go to those houses, and are provided with every kind of help, and doctors examine their diseases. They get the food and medicines which their cases require, and are made to feel at ease.

Fa Hsien, A Record of Buddhistic Kingdoms, trans. James Legge, 1886

INTERPRET

- 1 According to Source 9, the Indians under the Gupta Empire enjoyed a degree of freedom not often seen in the ancient world. What evidence does Fa Hsien give of this?
- 2 What does the evidence reveal about the legal system and health system available for Indians living under Gupta rule?



Source 10 Detail from an early Buddhist rock painting from the Ajanta caves (north-east of Mumbai), which was created during the Gupta Empire

5.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Who were Chandragupta Maurya and Ashoka Maurya?
- 2 List four achievements of Ashoka's rule that benefited the people of the empire.
- 3 What was the purpose of Ashoka's rock-and-pillar edicts?
- 4 The Kalingan campaign was a turning point in the life of Ashoka.
 - a What was it about the Kalingan campaign that had an effect on Ashoka?
 - b What were the consequences for people in his empire and beyond?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 What would you describe as Ashoka's greatest legacy?
- 6 What were the Gupta kings' attitude to people with religious beliefs different from their own, and what evidence shows this?

GO DEEPER

- 7 Choose a significant individual in ancient India and investigate his or her life and achievements. Assess this individual's importance to India and, if relevant, to the ancient world. Present your findings in a piece of writing, a speech, or a recorded or live role play. Keep a record of the sources you have used as a basis for your presentation.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Historians develop questions to guide their research, consulting a range of sources.

5.7 THE LEGACY OF ANCIENT INDIA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain the legacy of ancient India.



Source 11 The Iron Pillar of Delhi

Ancient India has left many legacies for our modern world. As we have already seen, it was where two of the world's major religions, Hinduism and Buddhism, began. The town planning and public hygiene in ancient cities set standards of cleanliness that were not achieved again until many centuries later. India's cultural heritage includes unique forms of architecture, art, music and dance. Perhaps less widely realised are the astonishing advances India's ancient people made in the fields of science and mathematics.

Technology

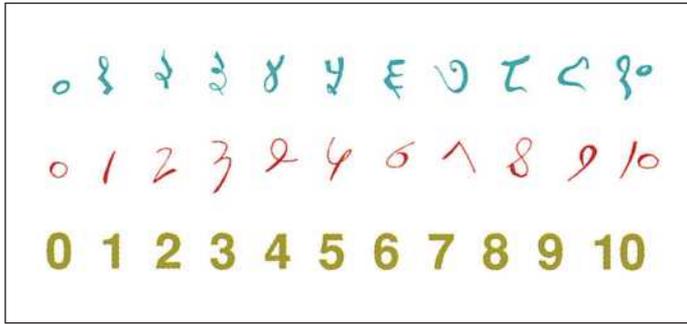
By 1000 BC, Indian craftsmen had begun forging iron, and in the centuries that followed they became the most skilled ironworkers in the world. Indian ironware was in demand in both Europe and Asia as first the Greeks, then the Romans, then the Chinese traded for the skilfully worked products of the Indian ironmasters.

The Iron Pillar of Delhi (see Source 11) is over 7 metres high and is made from sections of wrought iron hammered together. Though the date of its construction is not precisely known, it is generally acknowledged that it has stood, exposed to the tropical heat and monsoon rains, for about 1700 years without showing any sign of rust or corrosion.

Science and mathematics

The ancient Indian civilisations clearly knew geometry, which was used in planning the layout of their cities and shrines, and their mathematicians were the first to use the concept and figure of zero in their calculations. This numbering system of nine digits and a zero was later learnt by the Arabs who referred to mathematics as the 'Indian science'. This later passed to Western Europe, and we now describe our mathematical system as relying on 'Arabic' numerals, although their origin lies in ancient India.

Scholars of ancient India practised astrology and were skilled astronomers. Without the aid of telescopes, they listed hundreds of stars and constellations and accurately plotted the course of the Sun across the sky through 12 sections or months of the year, providing the basis for the modern calendar. Aryabhata, who was born around AD 470, was the greatest Indian astronomer and mathematician. He wrote his first great work at the age of 23, detailing innovations in astronomy and mathematics, written in verse couplets. He described the Earth as a sphere, rotating on its own axis and revolving around the Sun, so explaining day and night and the seasons of the year. He also understood that lunar eclipses were caused when the Earth's shadow fell across the Moon.



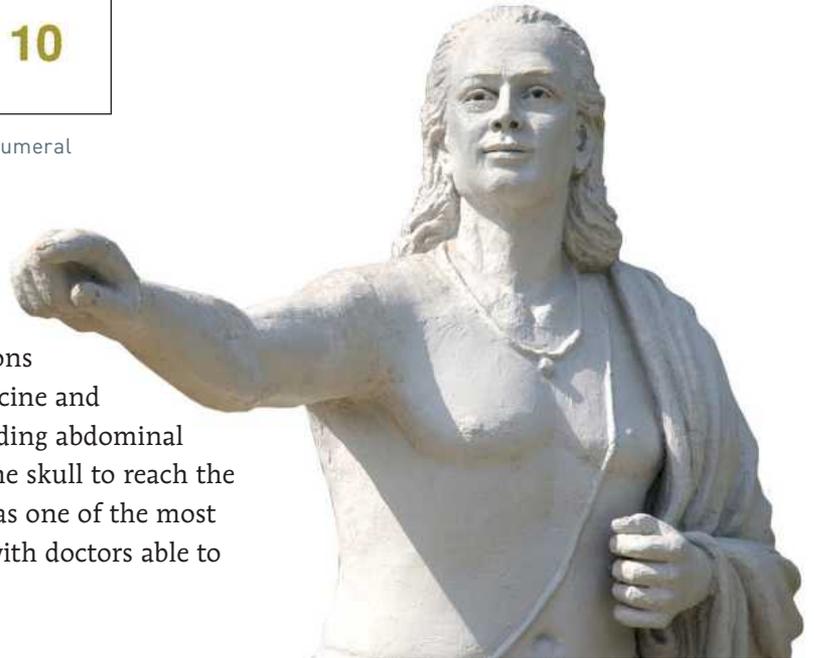
Source 12 Our system of Arabic numerals is founded on a numeral system developed in India.

Medicine

India was ahead of most other ancient civilisations in having a highly developed knowledge of medicine and surgery. Physicians could perform surgery, including abdominal operations, setting broken bones, drilling into the skull to reach the brain, and removing cataracts. Plastic surgery was one of the most advanced areas of knowledge in ancient India, with doctors able to regraft split noses and re-attach torn earlobes.

Literature

Ancient Indian literature provides the basis of Hindu beliefs and philosophies. The two great epics of ancient Indian literature are the *Mahabharata* and *Ramayana*. These epic poems were developed and handed down orally over centuries, before being written down in the second century AD. The *Mahabharata* is the longest single poem in the world, containing about 100 000 verses. Stories in the *Mahabharata* and the *Ramayana* provide the basis of Hindu mythologies and rituals that are still practised today.



Source 13 A statue of the Indian astronomer and mathematician Aryabhata



STRANGE BUT TRUE

Surgeons of ancient India developed a method of 'stitching' wounds using giant ants. They brought the ants to the edges of the wound and made them bite at regular intervals, cutting the ant's body off when the pincers had clamped; the head and pincers remained embedded in the flesh, holding the lips of the wound together.

Source 14 A twelfth-century carving from the Hindu epic *Mahabharata*

Architecture

Ancient followers of Buddhism and Hinduism gave the world magnificent examples of religious architecture – from the Buddhist carvings of the Mauryan Empire to the establishment of Buddhist monasteries during the Gupta Empire. One of the most famous of these was at Nalanda in northern India, which attracted students from far away. The most breathtaking examples of the achievements of India’s stonemasons and sculptors are temples and shrines cut into cliffs, such as the one at Ellora, located north-east of Mumbai. Its halls, cloisters and columns were carved out of a solid granite mountain (see Source 15).



Source 15 The temple at Ellora, built during the Gupta Empire

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

Different experiences of individuals shape different views. This means that sources won't always provide the same perspective or view.

5.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 1 The numbers we use today are called Arabic numerals rather than Indian numerals. Why do you think this is the case?
- 2 Collate a portfolio of pictures of ancient Indian painting, sculpture or architecture. Assemble these as a digital presentation, giving brief details about the origin and purpose of each example, and the meaning of religious symbols.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 3 Create an infographic summarising ancient India’s achievements and legacy to the world.

GO DEEPER

- 4 Research to find out more about the epic poems the *Mahabharata* and *Ramayana*. Summarise one of their stories using a flow chart or storyboard.

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE INDIA AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

» Identify contacts and conflicts within ancient Indian society

- 1 Identify the time periods when conflicts within ancient India resulted in the emergence of two great empires. Name these empires and their rulers. (2 marks)
- 2 Explain the nature of contacts between the king and his people during the rule of Ashoka. (3 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient Indian society

- 3 Explain how conflicts within India resulted in the emergence of empires. (5 marks)
- 4 Explain the consequences of the conflict that occurred in 261 BC. (5 marks)

» Outline significant contacts with other societies through trade, warfare and conquest

- 5 Describe contacts that occurred between ancient India's earliest civilisation and other societies through trade and migration. (5 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient India and other societies

- 6 What were the consequences of contacts between India's earliest civilisations and other societies through trade and migration? (3 marks)
- 7 What were the consequences of the conquest of Indian territories around 500 BC and 326 BC? (2 marks)

» Outline the main features of government in ancient India, including the roles of law and religion

- 8 Outline how India was governed during the Mauryan Empire, and identify public works built during this period. (5 marks)

» Assess the role and importance of a significant individual in ancient India

- 9 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in India. Outline his or her achievements. Explain the impact this person had on his or her own society as well as other ancient societies. Explain the significance of his or her achievements or legacy for the modern world. (15 marks)

» Explain the legacy of ancient India

- 10 Select two ideas or inventions from ancient India that you think had the greatest impact on other societies, giving reasons for your choices. (10 marks)

Total marks [/55]

5D

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 15 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student [ebook](#) [access](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet

Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher [ebook](#) [access](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live

Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.

6

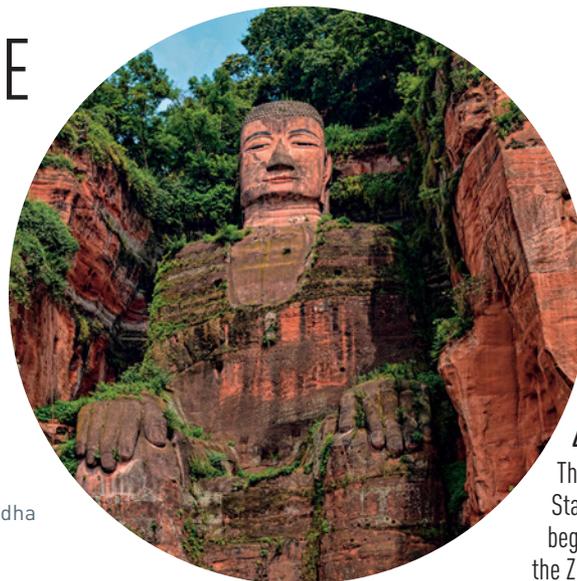
Source 1 Construction of the Great Wall of China began in 220 BC, and continued for more than 1500 years.

ANCIENT CHINA

Ancient China is one of the world's oldest and most complex societies. Like many of the earliest civilisations, ancient China had its roots in farming. By about 8000 BC, the Chinese were growing crops such as rice and millet in the fertile valley of the Huang He (Yellow River). Villages formed from these settlements, with some becoming cities. Over time, complex belief systems, customs and traditions formed. Many of these continue to influence the modern world.

It has only been in the last 50 years that Western societies have gained a better understanding of China and its history. With a current population of well over a billion people, modern China is home to around 20 per cent of all people on Earth. In recent years, it has also re-emerged as a major global power. An appreciation of the role China plays in our modern world has never been more important, and this can only be developed through an understanding of its culture and history.

ANCIENT CHINA – A TIMELINE



Source 2 The Giant Buddha of Leshan in Sichuan province, China

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10 000 BC
Early settlements appear in the Huang He (Yellow River) Valley of northern China.

7000 BC
Evidence appears of the first stages of simple farming.

c. 2205 BC
The Xia Dynasty begins, a time of transition from stone-age to bronze-age tools and weapons.

c. 1766 BC
The Shang Dynasty begins.

c. 1122 BC
The Zhou Dynasty begins.

563 BC
Siddhartha Gautama (later known as Buddha) is born in India.

481 BC
The Warring States period begins, during the Zhou Dynasty.

551 BC
Confucius is born.

TIMELINE: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- Place the following events in chronological order, from the earliest to the most recent:
 - invention of paper
 - China split into three kingdoms
 - start of the Xia Dynasty
 - start of the Qin Dynasty
 - construction of the Great Wall.
- How many years elapsed between the start of the Xia Dynasty and the end of the Qing Dynasty?
- Which Chinese dynasty lasted the longest time? Which lasted the shortest time?
- Which Chinese dynasty was in power when:
 - democracy was introduced in Athens, Greece (508 bc)?
 - Cleopatra committed suicide, ending the civilisation of ancient Egypt (30 bc)?
 - the Byzantine Empire (formerly the eastern part of the Roman Empire) ended in 1453?

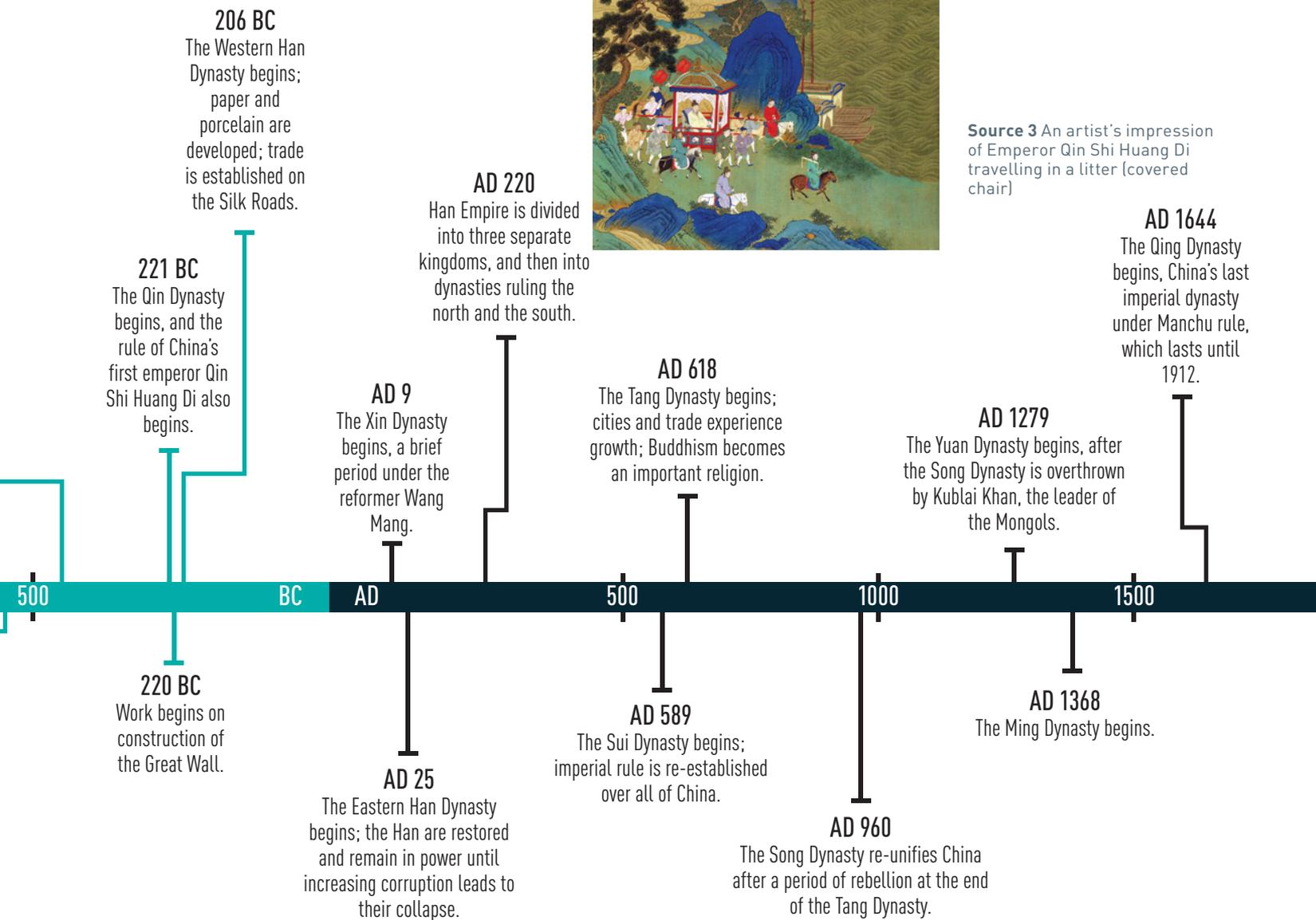
SEE, THINK, WONDER

Look at the statue in Source 2.

What do you see?

What do you think?

What does it make you wonder?



Source 3 An artist's impression of Emperor Qin Shi Huang Di travelling in a litter (covered chair)



Source 4 The royal entourage of Gaozu, the first emperor of the Han Dynasty

Source 5 Pronunciation guide

Chinese name	English pronunciation
Xin	shin
Zhou	joe
Qin	chin
Qin Shi Huang Di	chin sheh hwang dee
Wu Zhao	woo jow
Sui	sway
Qing	ching

6A

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT CHINA?

6.1 THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT CHINA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient China
- explain how they influenced the development of Chinese society.

Modern China has an area of 9.6 million square kilometres, making it the world's third-largest country after Russia and Canada – with Australia being the sixth largest. Despite its immense size today, China began as a small settlement in the Huang He (Yellow River) Valley.

Ancient China developed along the banks of major rivers, including the Huang He in the north of China and the Yangtze River further south. These rivers, like the Nile River in Egypt, would regularly flood. As floodwaters receded, the thick layer of rich soil left behind was ideal for growing crops. Ancient China is another example supporting the **hydraulic theory**, which tries to explain the settlement patterns of ancient societies in terms of how close they were to sources of water. According to the theory, rivers provided early settlements with a reliable supply of water and a means of transport at a time when it was quicker and easier to travel by boat.

Floodwaters in ancient China were both a blessing and a curse. A Chinese nickname for river is 'Great Sorrow', which reflects the many times that homes and lives were destroyed during flood seasons. During the floods, river levels had to be monitored and controlled by the building of canals and levees (raised areas along the banks). This was particularly vital in the case of the Huang He floods. The result was greater cooperation among the settlements along the river, leading to the development of centralised control and government.

hydraulic theory

a theory that tries to explain the settlement patterns of ancient societies in terms of their closeness to sources of water (e.g. rivers)

Source 1 The fertile soil of the Yangtze River Valley is ideal for growing crops.





China's greatest resource has always been its agricultural land, even though much of its area is mountainous and only 70 per cent is useful for farming. Reliable harvests ensured that surpluses of food were often possible. This meant that less time and fewer people were needed to grow and harvest food. Instead, these people could spend their time providing labour for China's armies and large building projects, and developing ideas and skills in manufacturing, and the arts and sciences.

Source 2 A section of the Great Wall in northern China from the Ming Dynasty

China's geographical divides

China is located entirely on the continent of Asia. Its geographical setting and natural features provided natural defences, and were also the reason why ancient societies to the west knew very little about China. Ancient China was surrounded by:

- the South China Sea, East China Sea and Yellow Sea to the east
- dense tropical forests, in places that are now in Laos, Vietnam and Myanmar (formerly Burma), to the south
- the Himalayas, the Tibetan Plateau and the mountainous country in parts of modern-day Pakistan and Afghanistan to the west
- vast deserts to the north-west.

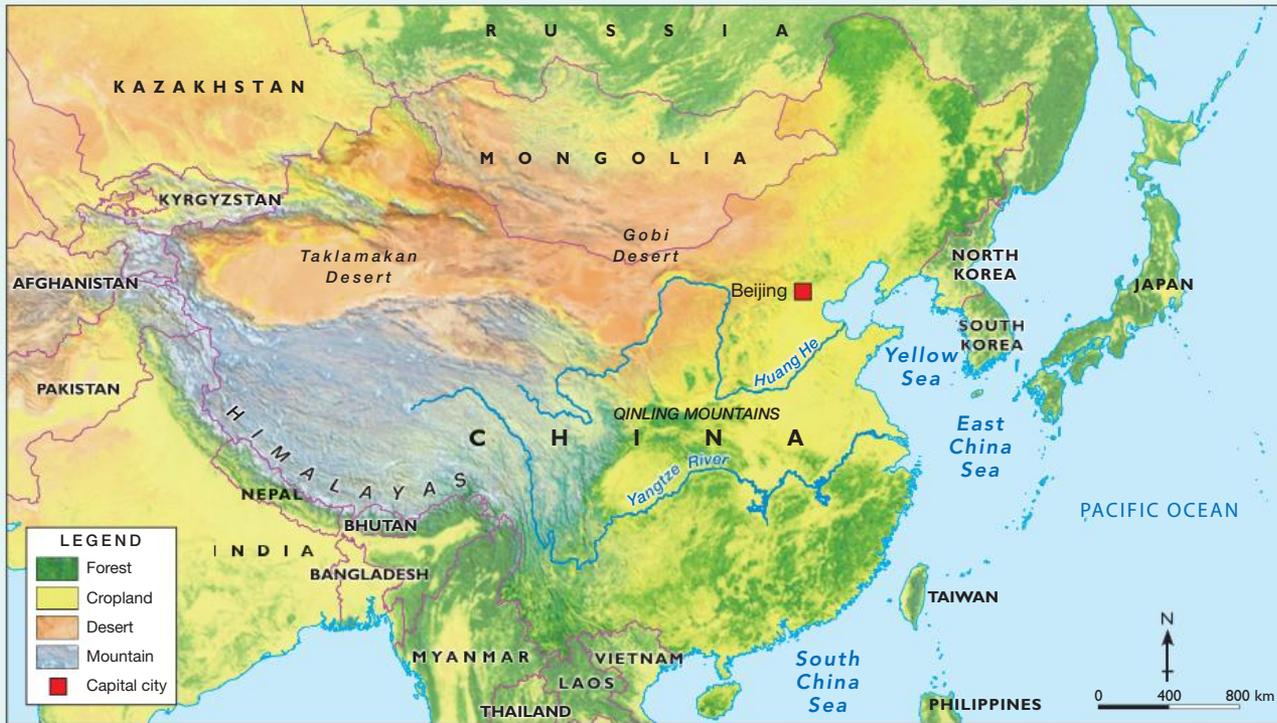
It was only China's northern border that was less protected by natural geographical barriers. To secure this border against invaders, over 2000 years ago, work began on a series of walls now known as the Great Wall of China.

Because of China's isolation from the West, and its dominance across East Asia, for centuries the Chinese viewed themselves as being at the centre of the world. The Chinese name for their country is *Zhong Guo*, which translates as 'Centre (or Middle) Kingdom'. This view influenced the way China saw itself and other societies. The Chinese believed, for example, that they were the centre of learning and culture.

China is divided by a number of rivers and mountain ranges that criss-cross the entire country. Major rivers include the Huang He and the Yangtze River. The Qinling Mountains running across the country act as a dividing line between north and south. To the north of the Qinling Mountains there is low rainfall and the main grain crop grown is wheat. To the south of the Qinling Mountains there is high rainfall and the main grain crop is rice. Large amounts of rain are required for rice cultivation. This part of China feeds two-thirds of the Chinese population.

This geographical division of China into separate regions meant that there were many periods in its history where the country was also politically divided. For example, between AD 220 and AD 589, China was divided into north and south, with each region ruled as a separate state.

China's geographical features



Source 3 A map of East Asia, including China

INTERPRET

- Look at the different environments and physical features of China shown in Source 3, using the legend for reference. Write a paragraph to summarise your observations.
Note:
 - the extent of different landforms, such as deserts
 - the length of natural features, such as rivers
 - the places best suited for human settlement.
- List features in Source 3 that you think might have contributed to the isolation of China's early settlements.
 - Identify possible barriers that may have contributed to the political divisions.
 - Determine how people in specific regions within China may have been affected by the divisions, in terms of politics, language, diet, etc.
- Using your summary from question 1, in your own words explain why you think ancient China considered itself to be the centre of the world.

Early cultures in ancient China

Around 5000 years ago, the Yangshao culture (an early farming society) had become dominant in northern China. The settlements of the Yangshao people spread out from the banks of the Huang He. Over time, two of China's earliest ruling families (known as **dynasties**), the Xia Dynasty and Shang Dynasty, developed out of this culture.

The Xia Dynasty (c. 2055–1765 BC), China's first dynasty, is said to have been founded by Yu the Great. Yu was a legendary figure, renowned for his virtue and high sense of morality. Although there are no written records of him, stories of Yu's accomplishments handed down through the generations have survived.

dynasty

a period of rule by members of the same family who come to power one after the other; power is often passed from father to son

The biggest problem of Yu's time was the destructive effects of the Huang He floods. Yu is famous in Chinese history for organising people from different tribes to build a system of canals, which stopped the flooding of farms and houses. The canals also provided irrigation for farmers.

The Shang Dynasty (c. 1766–1122 BC) was the first group to conquer the entire Huang He Valley. They also built China's first cities. Much of what is known about the Shang Dynasty comes from oracle bones (see Source 7). More than 100 000 oracle bones were found at Anyang, the Shang capital. These bones (or pieces of turtle or tortoise shell) were heated by a shaman (religious man) until they cracked. The cracks were seen as messages from the gods. The shaman then interpreted what the gods had 'said'. Sometimes a question was first carved on the bone before it was heated, as shown in Source 7. This form of writing, known as oracle script is considered to be the oldest form of writing in China.

China's first dynasty?

For a long time, evidence of the Xia Dynasty came from the oral traditions of ancient myths and legends. There are no written records of China's history before about 1300 BC, and descriptions of the Xia Dynasty from ancient Chinese historians were written long after it is believed to have existed.

In 1959, archaeological evidence of the Xia Dynasty was finally unearthed from a site at Erlitou in Henan province, which is located in the central-eastern part of China. Some archaeologists believe this was the site of the Xia capital. The tombs and palace-like structure found there date from about 2100 BC. Bronze artefacts on the site (such as the one shown in Source 5) are the oldest in China.

Despite this evidence, some historians still contest that this is not enough to confirm the existence of the Xia Dynasty. They argue, instead, that the Shang Dynasty should be considered China's first dynasty. Their interpretation of the artefacts from Erlitou is that they are evidence of a transition culture between earlier cultures and the Shang Dynasty, or that the Shang Dynasty may have begun much earlier. In spite of this, many Chinese historians now accept that the Xia Dynasty did indeed exist.

Source 4 Terraced rice fields are crucial for feeding the Chinese population.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTINUITY AND CHANGE

As early Chinese civilisations emerged, closeness to water was a common factor, but political focus and new technologies resulted in different societies.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

According to legend, Yu the Great spent 13 years working on the problem of the Huang He floods. He travelled all over the country and was so dedicated in his mission that, although he sometimes passed by his house, he did not enter or talk to his family until the problem was solved.

SPOTLIGHT

CONTESTABILITY

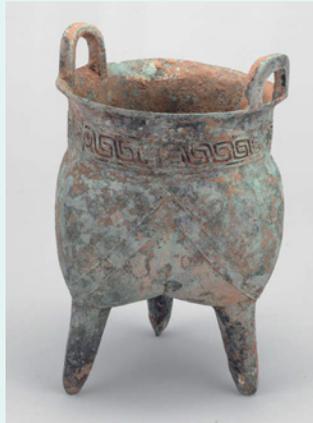
Without comprehensive written records, history can be interpreted in different ways.



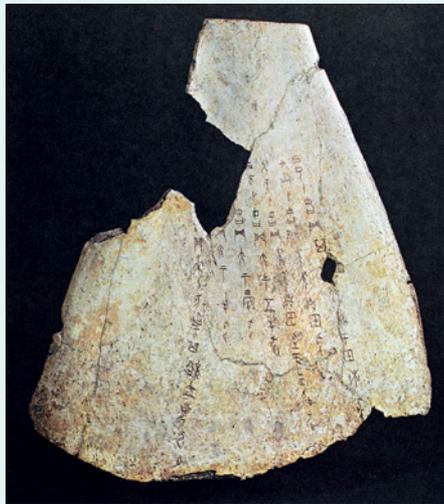
China's earliest dynasties



Source 5 A bronze wine beaker said to be from the Xia Dynasty



Source 6 A bronze food container from the Shang Dynasty



Source 7 A cracked oracle bone from the Shang Dynasty

INTERPRET

- 1 What evidence can Sources 5 to 7 provide about the Xia and Shang Dynasties?
- 2 In what ways are these sources limited? What don't they reveal about society?

SPOTLIGHT

ANALYSIS AND USE OF SOURCES

Sources from an ancient society are always useful for understanding an aspect of that society. Historians need to analyse many sources to form a more complete picture.

6.1 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 What is the link between the origins of the ancient Chinese and Egyptian civilisations?
- 2 Why was the Great Wall built?
- 3 What is the main difference in climate between northern and southern China?
- 4 What benefits did canal building have for farmers in ancient China?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 What does the Chinese name for their country indicate about the view of the ancient Chinese of themselves and other societies?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 6 Create a concept map about the geographical features of China.
 - a Summarise:
 - the geographical features that isolated China from the Western world in ancient times
 - the geographical features that acted as dividers within China.
 - b What were the consequences of these geographical features for Chinese society? Add these to your concept map.

6A

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT CHINA?

» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient China

- 1 Describe the geographical setting of China. (3 marks)
- 2 Outline the natural features in and around ancient China. (5 marks)

» Explain how they influenced the development of Chinese society

- 3 Explain how China's natural features influenced the origins of human settlement in ancient times. (5 marks)
- 4 Explain how China's geographical setting and natural features influenced the ways in which Chinese society developed in ancient times. (12 marks)

Total marks [/25]



Source 8 The Tibetan Plateau

Check your Student [obook](#) [assess](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher [obook](#) [assess](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Checkpoint worksheets

Differentiated worksheets for use in class or as homework

6B

WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT CHINA BELIEVE?

6.2 RELIGIONS AND PHILOSOPHIES IN ANCIENT CHINA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- explain how beliefs in ancient China were reflected in death and funerary customs.

deity

a supernatural being, often in the form of a god or goddess



Source 1 A portrait of Confucius

The civilisation of ancient China was influenced by a complex mix of beliefs, values and traditions. Some were religious beliefs, while others provided a code of behaviour. Closely tied in with these beliefs were many rituals that related to all aspects of daily life, including what people ate, how they were buried, how they arranged their homes, and so on.

Like people in many other ancient societies, the Chinese worshipped their ancestors and believed in **deities** who controlled the forces of nature. People did everything they could to keep their ancestors and the deities happy, as they believed that events such as floods or poor harvests were signs that their ancestors and gods were angry. In addition to these beliefs, three main religions or philosophies played a dominant role in ancient Chinese society: Confucianism, Daoism and Buddhism. They existed side by side, varying at different times in their popularity and influence.

Confucianism

Confucianism is not a religion, but a code of behaviour that came to influence almost every aspect of life in China. Its founder, Confucius (c. 551–479 BC), lived during the Zhou Dynasty when a number of states were at war with one another. Confucius believed peace and happiness were only possible if certain behaviours were followed between husband and wife, parents and children, and rulers and subjects. These included being respectful, moral, fair, obedient, courteous and self-disciplined. He said that an emperor should be guided in all his decisions by doing what was best for his people, in the same way that a father did what was best for his family. Confucius also believed in the value of education, and that people could improve and change with education and the support of their family.

Daoism

Daoism offered a contrast and a balance to Confucianism, placing greater value on spirituality and links to nature. Daoism is said to have begun with the teachings of the Chinese philosopher Laozi (600–531 BC). He believed yin (female) and yang (male) forces made up everything in the world. He also believed that people had to become one with the life force (the Dao or 'the Way') if they wanted to live forever, and that this required constant change to balance the yin and yang forces within oneself. Two things helped this spiritual struggle. The first was meditation, usually at shrines built in beautiful natural spots. The second was exercise, such as kung fu and tai chi.



Source 2 The yin–yang symbol represents the two equal and opposite forces that together control the world.

Ancient beliefs in modern China

Source 3

Confucius says ...

What you do not want done to yourself,
do not do to others.

Before you start out on a journey of revenge,
dig two graves.

Respect yourself, and others will respect you.

It does not matter how slowly you go, as long as you do not
stop.

To learn without thinking is useless; to think without
learning is dangerous.

A person who knows what is the right thing to do and does
not do it is a coward.

You cannot tell others what they should be doing if you do
not do it yourself.

Strong individuals and strong families make strong
nations.

Translation of some of the sayings of Confucius



Source 4 Chinese students dress in ancient costume during a ceremony to mark the 2560th birthday of Confucius on 28 September 2009.



Source 5 People practising tai chi in an outdoor setting in modern China

INTERPRET

- 1 What do Sources 4 and 5 tell us about the influence of Confucius and Daoism in modern China?
- 2 Select two sayings of Confucius from Source 3 that interest you, and explain them in your own way. For example, rewrite them in your own words, draw a sketch or role-play a situation that illustrates the idea or behaviour that Confucius would approve of.

Buddhism

Buddhism was founded by an Indian prince, Siddhartha Gautama (born 563 BC), who became known as Buddha (meaning 'Enlightened One'). Buddha was upset by the suffering and poverty he saw as a young man, and turned his back on his wealth to search for more spiritual meaning. His teachings were brought to China from India during the first century AD and, for some periods, Buddhism was the official state religion. Teachers of Buddhism and Daoism in ancient China borrowed elements from each other, and many Chinese believe in aspects of both religions. Some historians have argued that Buddhism was accepted in ancient China at a time of disunity and weakness, following the decline of the Han Dynasty, but that its influence lessened during times of stronger rule.

Buddhism teaches that life is suffering, caused by desires. By following the Eightfold Path, followers can liberate themselves from their desires to achieve the state of Nirvana, where there is no more hurt or pain. Buddhists follow the Eightfold Path by accepting the teachings of Buddha, behaving ethically and meditating. To reach Nirvana, a person might have to be **reincarnated** many times, learning from their experiences in each life.

- 1 Right understanding
- 2 Right intention
- 3 Right speech
- 4 Right action
- 5 Right livelihood
- 6 Right effort
- 7 Right mindfulness
- 8 Right concentration

Source 6 The Eightfold Path

reincarnation

the process of being born again; to live again in another body (human or animal)

concubine

a woman kept for the entertainment and pleasure of a ruler or emperor

mummification

the process of preserving a dead body by preventing its natural decay; there are various forms of mummification across different societies, both artificial and natural

Source 6 In China and other Asian countries, paper money and fake items made of paper (for example, houses, cars and furniture) are still burned in honour of ancestors and deceased loved ones. In recent years, in keeping with the latest technology, paper replicas of iPads and iPhones have also been burned.

Death and funerary customs

Like other ancient societies, the Chinese believed in an afterlife. They believed that the burial site was the place where the spirit of the dead person 'lived', and they were usually buried with items they might need in the afterlife, such as food, clothing and weapons. Rulers had more elaborate tombs than ordinary people, and were often buried with hundreds of items including furniture and chariots. Frequently, wives and **concubines** were buried alive in the tomb, so they could accompany the ruler to the afterlife. Later, the practice was to replace living people with models made from wood or clay. Like the Egyptians, the ancient Chinese **mummified** some of their dead, although they used different processes.

It was very important for people in ancient China to honour their ancestors by observing the proper rituals at funerals. This included gift-giving to mourners and making offerings at the home shrine. The burning of 'spirit money' (known as joss paper) was also a custom of ancient China. Joss paper, originally made from bamboo or rice paper, was burned at the funeral and at special festivals, as offerings to the gods and ancestral spirits.



I USED TO THINK, NOW I THINK

Reflect on your learning about religion in ancient China and complete the following sentences.

I used to think ...

Now I think ...

What has changed in your understanding?

6.2 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Using bullet points, summarise your knowledge of the beliefs and values in ancient China.
- 2 Identify examples of continuity and change in Chinese burial and funerary customs from ancient to modern times.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 Why do you think the burning of joss paper would not be a tradition at Buddhist funerals in ancient China?

GO DEEPER

- 4 Conduct research using digital and other resources to find out more about the teachings and practices of Confucianism OR Daoism OR Buddhism. Present your findings as a written report, poster or PowerPoint presentation, including relevant sources, about its:
 - origins
 - main beliefs or values
 - influence on attitudes or practices in ancient Chinese society
 - influence and popularity in China today.

6B

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT CHINA BELIEVE?

» Explain how beliefs in ancient China were reflected in death and funerary customs

- 1 Identify the three main religions or philosophies in Chinese society, and outline their key beliefs. Your response should include one paragraph for each religion. (15 marks)
- 2 What did people in ancient China believe about their ancestors, and how did this influence their burial rituals? (5 marks)
- 3 What did people in ancient China believe happened after death, and how did this influence their burial rituals? Include examples. (10 marks)
- 4 Identify the different types of sources about beliefs in ancient China. (For example, do we have written accounts? Artefacts?) In your response, provide specific examples. (4 marks)
- 5 Choose three sources about ancient Chinese beliefs from the text and answer the following questions.
 - a Identify one strength of each of your sources. (3 marks)
 - b Identify one limitation of each of your sources. (3 marks)
 - c Explain what your three sources reveal about beliefs in ancient China. (10 marks)

Total marks [/50]

Check your Student obook assess for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



Rich task

A write-in worksheet for the Rich task questions

Check your Teacher obook assess for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Assess quiz

Interactive auto-marking multiple-choice quiz to test student comprehension

Source 7 The Leshan Giant Buddha, the world's largest stone Buddha statue, in Leshan, China

6C

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT CHINA?

6.3 THE SOCIAL HIERARCHY IN CHINA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- outline how society in ancient China was organised and governed
- describe key groups in Chinese society.

SPOTLIGHT

EMPATHETIC UNDERSTANDING

Social groups in ancient China focused on their contribution to society, rather than their wealth, to determine their status.

hierarchy

a way of organising things (or people) from top down in order of importance or significance

imperial

relating to the emperor or empress

eunuch

a man who had his testicles removed as a young boy; often employed to guard the wives of rulers or emperors

artisan

a person who is skilled at working with their hands in some specialised way (e.g. a potter, metalworker),

litter

a covered chair or bed carried on poles and used to transport important people such as emperors and officials

Social order and harmony were highly valued in ancient China, and each social group knew what was expected of them, and how to behave with other groups. Society was dominated by loyalty to the family unit. The group was more important than the individual. Like most ancient societies, China had a strict social **hierarchy**. At the top were the wealthy and privileged – the emperor and **imperial** family. Next came the scholars, eunuchs and officials (*shi*). This social class arose to provide the large number of educated officials needed to govern an empire the size of China. In spite of their wealth, merchants were not next in line in the social hierarchy. That place was held by peasants and farmers (*nong*), who were considered more socially important, as they provided the food for all in the community. Next in line were the artisans and craftsmen (*gong*) who created items for general use and beauty. The merchants (*shang*), whose only role was to make money, were last on the list.

According to scholars, soldiers were excluded from this ranking of the social classes. The military was not highly valued. At times, this proved to be a weakness in China's history because cooperation was required between officials and generals to protect China against foreign invasion or internal rebellion.

I'm the First Wife of a noble. Our palace is three storeys high and very elegant. We have lots of servants. I travel in a **litter** when I go out so people can't see me. I wear silk clothes and jewellery made from gold and jade. My hair is tied up on top of my head so I look taller.



I'm a Han official, known as a mandarin. I'm a scholar, of course, and I can read and write. Along with thousands of others, I had to pass an exam lasting 60 hours to become an official. I passed first time because, like most officials, I am clever. Many try to cheat, and some kill themselves if they fail the exam.



I'm one of the emperor's closest advisers, and a **eunuch**. The emperor trusts me because I cannot father children or threaten his relationship with his wives. My testicles were removed when I was a boy. My parents sold me to the palace because they were so poor. Some people bribe me to pass on information to the emperor as I am one of the very few who speak to him directly.



I'm a Tang potter – an **artisan**, if you like. Merchants buy my pots and transport them west in camel caravans and in carts pulled by oxen. For all their money, merchants are not as well respected as I am. I have skills, learnt from my father. I will pass them on to my son.

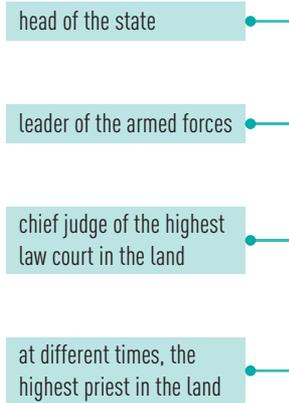


Source 1 Some of the social roles of people in ancient China

The emperor and imperial family

The rulers at the top of ancient China's social structure were powerful family groups, as in ancient Egypt. A period ruled by the same family is known as a dynasty, and China was ruled by a series of dynasties for almost 4000 years. From 221 BC, when China was united under Qin Shi Huang Di, China's rulers were emperors. The personality of the emperor, his intelligence and energy (or lack of it) had a major influence on the age. Often, a dynasty ended because the ruler was corrupt, cruel or weak. A ruler had a problem if there was flood, famine or defeat in war. The people would see this as a sign from heaven that the emperor (the 'son of heaven') no longer had divine permission to rule. This idea is known as the **Mandate of Heaven**. At these times, it was considered natural that the people should rebel, and that a new dynasty would be installed.

Some dynasties, such as the Zhou Dynasty, were marked by extended conflict. Others, such as the Han and the Tang Dynasties, brought long periods of peace and prosperity to China. Later in its history, China was ruled by dynasties that came from outside China, such as the Mongol rulers of the Yuan Dynasty in the thirteenth century, and the Manchurian rulers of the Qing Dynasty, which lasted from the seventeenth to the twentieth century.



Source 2 The emperor's role in ancient China

Mandate of Heaven

a traditional Chinese belief based on the idea that the emperor was chosen to rule by the gods; the Mandate of Heaven also outlined the privileges and responsibilities of the emperor

Scholars, eunuchs and officials (*shi*)

Chinese scholars were the administrators who ran the day-to-day government of the empire. Scholars had to pass difficult examinations (open to men only) and were schooled in the teachings of Confucius.

During some of the later Chinese dynasties, power struggles developed in the court of the emperor between the civil scholars (similar to today's public servants) and the eunuchs. Eunuchs were originally part of the emperor's palace staff, and their role was to guard his many wives. Boys were brought up specifically to be eunuchs. As children, they had their testicles removed to ensure that they would not pose a sexual threat to the emperor's wives. Living in the palace, they became close to the imperial family and some eunuchs gained great political influence. They often became the political rivals of the scholars, because both competed for influence over the emperor's decisions. Hostility from scholars also came from their resentment of the eunuchs' influence without having gone through the rigorous examinations. Eunuchs generally came from poorer, uneducated backgrounds.

Records were kept by civil scholars, who also wrote the histories of ancient China. Generally, these records praised other civil scholars, while eunuchs were often depicted as evil and dishonest, and were blamed for periods of bad government. Many of the surviving historical accounts dealing with the eunuchs are biased. This is another example of why historians must always read their sources carefully and look for potential bias in historical reports.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Examinations to become government officials lasted from one to three days. Candidates sat alone in a small room with only a bed and desk. If they failed, they were allowed to take the examination again in three years. Some men took their first exam in their 20s and, after failing, came back again and again well into their 60s.

The civil scholars of ancient China



INTERPRET

Look at Source 3 and answer the following questions.

- 1 Is this a primary or secondary source? Provide a justification for your answer.
- 2 Describe the scene, giving details of what is happening.
- 3 What evidence does this provide about the role and social status of scholars in ancient China?
- 4 How would the perspective of someone with this role and social status influence their writing of court records?

Source 3 A seventeenth-century silk painting of the last Han Emperor, Xian, showing scholars translating classical texts

Peasants and farmers (*nong*)

Peasant farmers in ancient China were poor, but their role and work ethic were highly respected. They worked hard to provide the country's people with food. Planting and harvesting rice, in particular, is back-breaking work. By contrast, wealthier merchants were seen to contribute very little to society.

Land in ancient China was owned by the emperor or nobles. Farmers could live on the land in return for working it. They also had to pay heavy taxes (in the form of produce, such as rice), and provide other services such as serving in the army or labouring on building projects and in salt mines.

Artisans and craftsmen (*gong*)

At various times in China's history, its arts and crafts were admired beyond its borders. Craftsmen were generally held in higher regard than merchants and traders. They were respected for their skills and the quality of their products. From the time of the Han Dynasty, Chinese craftsmen produced porcelain. Chinese porcelain became so well known that in many English-speaking countries, porcelain tableware has always been called 'china'. Chinese craftsmen also produced silk, and invented and produced a range of other important manufactured goods, including paper and the printing press.



Source 4 Ancient Chinese porcelain from the time of the Han Dynasty

Merchants (*shang*)

The merchant class included traders, animal breeders and moneylenders. They were a wealthy group, but were considered the lowest social class in ancient China. People believed that they did not contribute to the whole society but worked only for their own gain. Some merchants would buy farming land to improve their social status.

The life of Chinese peasant farmers



Source 5 A painting showing Chinese peasants planting rice seedlings, ankle-deep in the water of a rice paddy



Source 6 Chinese farmers in modern-day China

INTERPRET

- 1 Describe the scenes shown in Sources 5 and 6.
- 2 Is this farming activity more likely to be found in northern or southern China? (Hint: see Source Study 6.1A.)
- 3 Compare the images of farmers planting rice in ancient and modern China. What has changed? What has stayed the same?
- 4 Do you think that Source 5 is a reliable source? Why or why not?

6.3 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Create a concept map to summarise your knowledge about the social structure in ancient China, including:
 - the role of key social groups
 - how and why different groups were more valued or respected.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 2 Draw two diagrams representing the social structure of ancient China:
 - a on the basis of wealth
 - b on the basis of 'respectable' occupations
- 3 Which aspects of the diagrams you created in question 2 are similar and which are different?

- 4 Why is it possible that written evidence from ancient China may depict eunuchs and the military negatively?
- 5 Chinese emperors believed they were gods or 'sons of heaven'. How would this influence their behaviour towards their people, and the attitude of the people towards the emperors?

GO DEEPER

- 6 Research Empress Wu Zhao, the only woman to rule in her own right in China. Write a one-page biography of Wu Zhao, including how she came to power, the length of her reign, and a brief description of her rule.

6.4 THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN ANCIENT CHINA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe key groups in Chinese society
- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient China.

SPOTLIGHT

PERSPECTIVES

Our understanding of many ancient societies comes from the male perspective. Even when a woman's perspective is available, it is important to remember that she still would be constrained by her society's values about men and women.

Ancient China was very much a male-dominated society. The family name and family line could only be carried on by sons. A woman and her family would always hope for a 'good' pregnancy where the baby would be a boy.

During the Han Dynasty, a well-educated woman named Ban Zhao wrote a text called *Lessons for Women*. The lessons were based on the idea that women should obey men, and their own wishes should take second place to those of men. They included this set of rules:

- As young girls, women are first meant to obey their fathers.
- As grown women, they are then meant to obey their husbands.
- As widows in later life, they are meant to obey their sons.

In ancient China, it was felt that the best age for a girl to marry was 16. Once a couple was married, there were seven acceptable reasons why a man could divorce his wife:

- 1 disobedience: a woman had to obey her husband and her parents-in-law
- 2 infertility: a woman was obliged to have children, especially boys
- 3 adultery: a woman had to be faithful to her husband
- 4 jealousy: a woman could not act in a jealous manner
- 5 illness: if a woman had an incurable illness, her husband could find a new wife
- 6 theft: if a woman stole anything, her husband could demand that she leave him
- 7 talking too much: a quiet wife was always preferred.

Women had more respect in families where their work was important to the survival and prosperity of the family group. In peasant families, women earned respect as workers, although they were still valued less than men. In richer families, women were seen more as servants and even entertainment for men.

The status of women in wealthy families can be understood by learning about the practice of foot binding. The introduction of foot binding for women began at the time of the Song Dynasty.



Source 7 A Tang Dynasty painting of court ladies preparing silk

Foot binding in ancient China

Source 8

Imagine yourself a girl child who – for some six to ten long years, beginning at age 5 to 8 ... has her feet always bound in long strips of binding cloth night and day with no letup in order to reform them into 3-inch [7.6-centimetre] long 'golden lilies'. To make your feet thinner ... your four minor toes on each foot are pushed down around and under the balls of your feet. ... Under the constant pressure your arches have gradually been broken and bowed upward so only the back edge of your heels can support your weight ... The result is that you will never run again and can walk on the base of your heels only with difficulty. Even standing will be uncomfortable ... This self-inflicted pain in your formative years is welcome in theory as a way to get a good marriage that will help your family with a fine bride price. Your mother went through it all and helps you do the same.

From John King Fairbank, China: A New History, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA, p. 174



Source 9 A painting showing a young Chinese woman binding her feet with bandages

INTERPRET

- Read Source 8 and answer the following questions:
 - At what age did the process of foot binding begin?
 - After the process was complete, what would be the length of a girl's foot?
 - Why did girls go through with the ordeal of foot binding?
- Compare the painting in Source 9 with the description in Source 8. Why do you think the artist who painted the image in Source 9 portrayed foot binding in this way?



Source 10 A Chinese woman who has had her feet bound



Source 11 This small red shoe was once worn by a wealthy Chinese woman.

Marriage in ancient China

Source 12

A wedding was arranged by parents in an effort to advance themselves socially, politically, or financially. In traditional Chinese society a girl married into her husband's family and gave up all contact with her own parents. A bride was subservient to [inferior to or below] everyone in the new household but especially to her husband's mother, for whom she toiled [worked] without rest. Wife and mother-in-law were jealous rivals for the affection of the husband/son. Publicly a husband and wife were indifferent toward each other, never openly acknowledging the existence of the other. In private the wife would have to struggle to win her husband's respect, and only through her grown sons did she have any real hope of security. No wonder she then exhibited little affection toward her son's bride, and the cycle repeated itself.

From Sterling Seagrave, Dragon Lady: The Life and Legend of the Last Empress of China, Vintage Books, New York, 1992, p. 30



Source 13 A modern Chinese couple wed, with Han Dynasty ceremonial rituals and wearing traditional Han Dynasty wedding clothes.

INTERPRET

- 1 Read Source 12 and answer the following questions.
 - a Who arranged marriages in ancient China, and why?
 - b How did husbands treat their wives in public?
 - c What was the only way for a married woman to gain security?

6.4 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Write a short paragraph to summarise the role of women in ancient China.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 2 People in ancient China considered small feet to be symbols of beauty and status, but foot binding caused pain and discomfort. In groups, think about and list procedures that women and men undergo today, and the reasons they do so.

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 3 Write a persuasive text to answer the question 'Can foot binding be justified in any way?' Begin by discussing the question at home and in class. Think about it from the point of view of your own culture and time, and from the perspective of a person living in ancient China.

6.5 EVERYDAY LIFE IN ANCIENT CHINA

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient China
- investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China.

The daily experiences of people in ancient China depended on whether they were male or female, wealthy or poor, and whether they had the opportunity to receive an education. It also depended on where they lived, considering the range of climates and geographical features across China; and when they lived, considering the long span of China's ancient history. However, some generalisations can be made about everyday life in ancient Chinese society.

The Chinese extended family

The family was the basic social unit of ancient China. It included all generations and in-laws. In wealthy households, many generations lived together. Old people were treated with great respect, especially by younger family members. The oldest male was the family head. He probably had more than one wife, in the hopes of ensuring that he would have many sons. If rich, he also had concubines. His decisions had to be obeyed, including decisions about whom and when his daughters would marry.

Lifestyles of the rich and the poor

Although many emperors lived in constant fear of being murdered or challenged for the throne, they usually enjoyed a pampered life of great luxury. Food was plentiful, as were priceless treasures and beautiful embroidered or painted silk garments. It was not unusual for emperors to have several wives and concubines.

Nobles and their families also led very privileged lives. Their palaces were likely to be two storeys or more in height, and have bathrooms and bedrooms. The price paid for such wealth and comfort was total obedience to the emperor. Leisure time might be spent drinking tea or rice wine while playing board games or being entertained by dancers and musicians. Music, thought to have special powers, was a regular part of palace life. Instruments included bronze bells, chimes, harps, flutes, drums and a stringed instrument called a zither.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

It was customary for an emperor to have many wives and concubines; consequently they tended to have very large families and many descendants. Researchers using genetic evidence in north-eastern China and Mongolia identified about 1.5 million men who were direct descendants of a single Qing Dynasty emperor.



Source 14 A traditional dress of the Qin Dynasty

6.5A SOURCE STUDY

Noble lifestyles



Source 14 A painting from the Tang Dynasty depicting court ladies and their maidservants

Source 15

Although my brother is a lord, he spends all his time doing the work of his officials. A proper lord should spend his day listening to music and delighting himself with beautiful sounds.

Statement of Liu Shen, son of the Han Emperor Ching (157–141 BC)

INTERPRET

- 1 Study Source 14 and answer the following questions.
 - a Which figures depict court ladies, and which are their servants? Explain your reasoning.
 - b Describe the fashion for hair and clothing among noblewomen in Tang Dynasty China, based on this source.
- 2 What do Sources 14 and 15 tell us about the daily life of noblemen and women in ancient China?
- 3 Identify three aspects of daily life that Sources 14 and 15 don't tell us about.

6.5B SOURCE STUDY

A farmer's life

The poor were mostly the peasant farmers. They wore simple clothing that was practical for farm work, made out of hemp or cotton in summer and wool in winter. Farmers typically lived in single-storey mud-brick huts with straw roofs. Usually there was only one room and sanitation was poor. Farmers used a *jiegao*, which has levers and weights, to raise water from rivers and canals. Very few could afford an ox or horse to help them plough the fields, so much of the work had to be done by hand.



Source 16 A terracotta (clay) model of farmhouses from the Han Dynasty



Source 17 A terracotta model of a grain mill from the Han Dynasty

INTERPRET

- 1 Based on the information provided by Source 16, describe the housing of peasant farmers.
- 2 Look at the model of the grain mill shown in Source 17.
 - a How do you think the mill was used?
 - b What evidence does the source provide about farming in ancient China, and about the daily lives of peasant farmers?
- 3 Where do you think these terracotta models may have been discovered?

Growing up in ancient China

In farming villages, girls and boys would work – planting and harvesting in the fields, feeding animals and looking after younger brothers and sisters. Girls in poorer households would spend their childhood learning to cook, weave cloth and help around the house. Boys who could be spared from the fields would be educated in village schools or in a town. They would learn to read and write, compose essays and poetry, and spend many hours memorising the teachings of Confucius. This was their preparation for the rigorous examinations to become a scholar, with a new life as a government official if they passed. Poorer boys could also increase their social status by becoming a eunuch in the emperor's court (palace). Boys from wealthy families were educated at home by a tutor.

Although education was valued in ancient China, for much of its history the Chinese did not think it was important to educate women. In earlier dynasties, girls were not typically educated. But later, in the sixth century AD, Buddhist temples established schools for boys and girls. Here they learnt to read and write, and were taught about Buddhist ideas. Much later, during the Ming Dynasty, many women in wealthy households learnt to read and write.

Food and diet

In southern China, rice was the staple crop. It was eaten and it was made into wine. In the cooler, drier north, millet (a type of grain) and sorghum (a cereal grass) were harvested. Wheat took much longer to become part of the Chinese diet. About 1500 years ago it became a popular food, second only to rice.

Meat was expensive and was a common dish only for the wealthy. For the poor, meat was eaten on special occasions. The daily diet was simple: grains such as wheat, millet or rice mixed with soy beans, vegetables and sometimes fish. Chopsticks were used as an eating utensil in ancient China, possibly since stone-age times. They were made from bamboo, ivory or bones. In wealthy households, they were made of precious metals.

Fresh water was stored in communal wells, and cooking was done in the open. Because timber was in short supply in many parts of China, food was typically chopped into smaller pieces, which needed less heat to cook quickly, and therefore used less fuel. This resulted in the creation of meals such as stir-fries.

The diet of people in ancient China was also influenced by their beliefs. For example, in some forms of Buddhism it was forbidden to eat meat, so their protein came from foods such as soy bean curd (tofu). Eating habits were also linked with Daoist beliefs about the balance in nature – the yin and yang. Foods were categorised as 'heating' or 'cooling', and were eaten and combined in ways that were thought to preserve a balance in the body.

Tea has been drunk in China for more than 2000 years. It was first drunk for medicinal qualities, and became more of a social tradition from the time of the Tang Dynasty.



Source 18 Before the invention of paper, people in China wrote on bamboo strips bound together in a scroll.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Archaeologists excavating a village in the Yangtze River Valley that had been devastated by an earthquake in about 2000 BC discovered the preserved remains of a meal still in its bowl. Scientists confirmed they had discovered 4000-year-old noodles!



Source 19 Noodles from 4000 years ago



Source 20 A warrior monk from the Shaolin Temple, in Henan province

Martial arts

Martial arts or kung fu can be traced back to the Xia Dynasty, and were originally self-defence and combat techniques practised by the military. 'Kung fu' can be translated as 'skill achieved through hard work'. Confucius considered martial arts to be one of the ideal practices, and his influence spread the practice of martial arts outside of the military.

Different schools and styles of martial arts developed over time, influenced by other aspects of Chinese culture such as religious beliefs. Martial arts took in

the Daoist belief in seeking a balance of yin and yang. Kung fu masters strive to keep opposites in balance – fast and slow, sharp and gentle, loud and soft – and learn to use the *chi* (the energy force of the universe).

One of the most famous styles of kung fu originated from a travelling Buddhist monk from India. Legend has it that he reached the Shaolin Temple (a Buddhist monastery) soon after it was established in the fifth century AD. He taught martial arts to the monks to improve their health, and the temple and its warrior monks have been famous throughout China ever since.

In later dynasties, weapons and fighting techniques were modified so that kung fu became a common activity, as a sport or exercise. Various forms are now practised in China and around the world.

6.5 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Use a table format to summarise the daily life of nobles and farmers, including housing, diet and daily occupations.
- 2 What was the purpose of education in ancient China?
- 3 How did the lack of education for girls reflect their role in society?
- 4 List some ways that religions or philosophies in ancient China influenced:
 - a diet or eating habits
 - b the practice of martial arts.

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 5 In ancient China, total obedience was given to the head of the family. Who would that be in your extended family?

- 6 Why do you think chopsticks are used as the main eating utensil in China? (Hint: think about the style of cooking discussed.)

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 7 Read about schooling in ancient Egypt *or* Greece *or* Rome. Write a 100-word paragraph comparing the opportunities for education in ancient China and the Mediterranean society you have chosen:
 - for boys from higher status or wealthy families
 - for boys from poorer families
 - for girls.

6.6 ANCIENT CHINA'S CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China.

The centralised system of government in ancient China can be traced to the Qin Dynasty and the rule of China's first emperor, Qin Shi Huang Di. When he won victory over the warring states and united China under his rule, Qin Shi Huang Di did not share the spoils of government among his relatives. Instead, he set up a centralised system of government, run by officials who were appointed on the basis of their ability. China was divided into provinces, and run by local governors appointed by the emperor. The emperor would take advice from his officials, but he had the final say in all government matters.

The concept behind this model of government is known as **legalism**. Legalism was based on the idea that people were weak and selfish by nature, and a strong central government that provided strict discipline was needed. The consequence of this model is that the state would rule over all aspects of life in ancient China. Legalism in China therefore was not like the Western idea of law as we understand it; it was all about the wishes of the emperor. This system of government did undergo some changes, but the basic structure lasted for the next 2000 years.

The legacy of Qin Shi Huang Di

The original name of China's first emperor was Ying Zheng. He was the King of Qin, one of a number of rival kingdoms in China that were frequently in conflict. Following a series of wars he emerged victorious, and renamed himself Qin Shi Huang Di (meaning 'first magnificent god of the Qin'). Qin Shi Huang Di is a significant figure in Chinese history because he united the country and established the tradition of strong centralised government, which is one of the reasons for China's emergence as a major power in the modern world. The name 'China' comes directly from the Qin Dynasty.

Qin Shi Huang Di was a powerful and ruthless ruler, who could be cruel. He wanted uniformity in thoughts and ideas, and did not like it when scholars expressed different ideas about government and life. He saw past traditions, such as the teachings of Confucius, as a threat to his rule. Some ancient Chinese historians who were critical of Qin Shi Huang Di accused him of burning books that he disagreed with and burying their authors alive. More recently, historians have rejected the idea that people were buried alive by the emperor. But they do accept that the first emperor had those who criticised him killed, and that he burned the books of rival states so that only the Qin version of history survived.

SPOTLIGHT

CAUSE AND EFFECT

Sometimes, there are long-lasting effects after an event. The first emperor's opinion of his people caused the establishment of a system of government designed to control all aspects of society.

legalism

a philosophy that emphasises the importance of strictly obeying the law

- Unified previously independent states to create the nation of China
- Created an efficient system of centralised government
- Standardised the written language used throughout China
- Introduced a uniform currency and a uniform system of weights and measures
- Built a network of roads, canals and bridges; regulated cartwheel widths and road widths
- Started construction of the Great Wall
- Built grand public buildings and palaces, and his great tomb at Xian



Source 21 The legacy of Qin Shi Huang Di

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Qin Shi Huang Di punished his own son for publicly expressing views that differed from those of the government. He did this by sending him to work on the Great Wall.

THINK, PAIR, SHARE

Think about whether the information in Source 22 praises or criticises the first emperor.

Discuss your ideas with a partner, determining what kind of person Qin Shi Huang Di seemed to be.

Share your thoughts with the class.

Qin Shi Huang Di was feared by his people. He taxed people heavily and thousands died working on his building programs. Strict laws were introduced, and people could be burned alive, branded or have their noses, feet or heads cut off for breaking them.

Source 22

Under the Qin, the First Emperor's ruthless exactions [demands] of men and taxes year after year exhausted the people and the state's other resources. After 37 years as ruler of the Qin state [15 as emperor of a unified China], he suddenly died at 49 in 210 BC. His empire quickly disintegrated. Aside from unity of the known world, the First Emperor had sought mainly an elixir [a drug] of immortality for himself. His five royal journeys to sacred mountains had been part of his search.

John King Fairbank, China: A New History, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA, p. 57

6.6 SOURCE STUDY

Qin Dynasty China

Source 23

China was divided into thirty-six (later forty-two) commanderies [areas of government control, like a state] and these subdivided into prefectures [smaller areas, like local councils]. Over each commandery was placed a Civil Governor (*shou*), a Military Governor (*chun-wei*), and a third office known as an Overseer (*chien-yu-shih*), who represented the central government and helped keep the balance between the other two.

Edwin O Reischauer and John K Fairbank, East Asia: The Great Tradition, George Allen & Unwin, London, 1960, p. 87



Source 24 The territorial borders of Qin Dynasty China; at its greatest extent, Qin Shi Huang Di ruled over 2 million square kilometres.

INTERPRET

- 1 Read Source 23 and answer the following questions.
 - a How was China divided?
 - b Who were the main government officials in each area?
 - c Do you think that it was a good idea to have three officials in each area? Give reasons for your answer.
- 2 Use the scale in Source 24 to compare the size of Qin Dynasty China to present-day China, as an estimated percentage. Share your estimate with a partner and discuss any differences.

The terracotta army

During his lifetime, Qin Shi Huang Di built an underground tomb for himself in what is now the modern-day city of Xian, near his capital city Xianyang. The tomb lay undiscovered until 1974. Like the tombs of the Egyptian pharaohs, it contained priceless treasures as well as everything the emperor would need in the afterlife. The site covers more than 10 square kilometres and has still not been fully excavated. One part that has been excavated is the spectacular terracotta army. It is thought that a total of 8000 figures were buried with Qin Shi Huang Di to protect and entertain him in the afterlife. Archaeologists estimate that 700 000 labourers worked to create the warriors and the great tomb. In 2012, archaeologists unearthed more of the life-size soldiers, along with their terracotta shields, horses and chariots (see Sources 25 to 27).

The terracotta army is still being carefully excavated. The roof that had originally covered it collapsed soon after Qin Shi Huang Di's burial. The dirt that fell in around the statues protected them for over 2000 years.



Source 25 A trench of partially excavated terracotta warriors and horses at the Terracotta Warriors and Horses Museum in the city of Xian



Source 26 Archaeologists work to excavate one of the 120 terracotta warriors unearthed in June 2012.

Source 27 Some of the excavated terracotta warriors



The Great Wall of China

Most people think that the Great Wall of China is a single wall, but in fact, it is made up of a number of walls built across different parts of northern China at different times. The first stages of connecting some of the earlier separate sections of wall were begun by Qin Shi Huang Di from 220 BC, building on, extending and connecting existing packed-earth walls that had been built during the Zhou Dynasty and earlier. The most commonly seen image of the Great Wall is the Jinshanling section of the Ming Dynasty Wall, built from AD 1368: see Source 28.

SPOTLIGHT

SIGNIFICANCE

The Great Wall of China is a key example of architectural significance. It had a great impact not only on the people at the time, but also on people in later periods.

Archaeologists are still excavating sections of packed-earth wall, and beliefs about the wall have changed as new evidence has been found. In total the Great Wall was more than 8000 kilometres in length. However, if we add up all the separate sections of wall that have been discovered, the combined length is more than 21 000 kilometres.

Although the Great Wall helped to protect China's northern borders, it was not the only strategy used against the war-like, nomadic tribes to the north of China. Sometimes the Chinese dynasties would use diplomacy (make deals with tribes to prevent them from attacking) or, on other occasions, they would go to war with them.

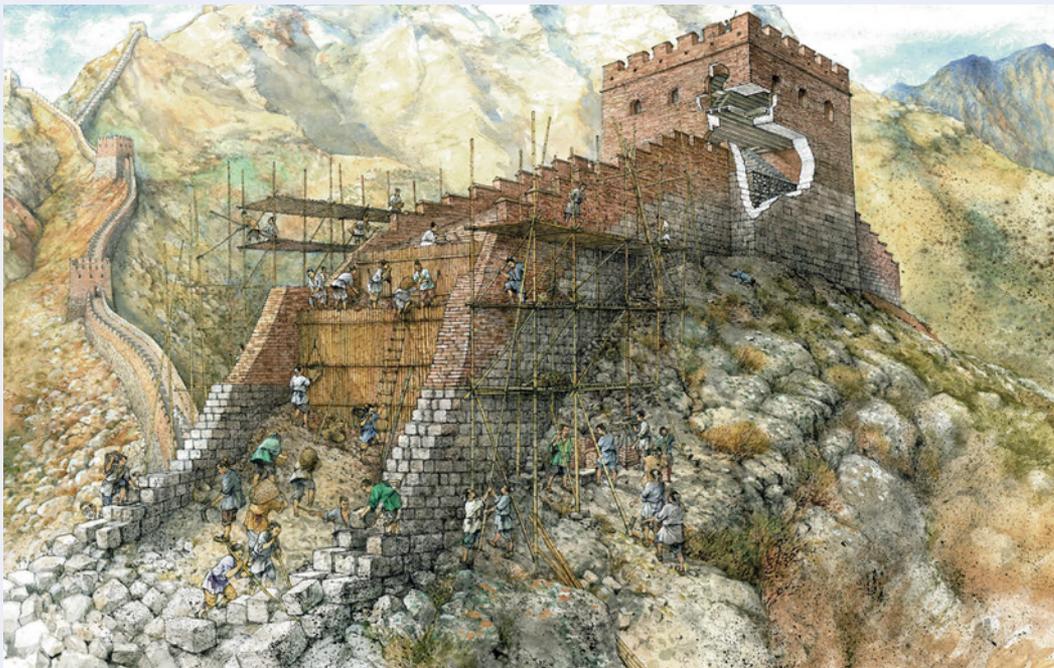
Source 28 The Jinshanling section of the Great Wall was built during the Ming Dynasty and is in the Hebei province.





Source 29 Parts of the Great Wall were made from packed earth.

The success of the Great Wall in defending northern China was limited by the strength of Chinese forces and the stability of the dynasty that held power. The Chinese understood that it was not just a matter of building a physical barrier. Diplomacy, trade and engagement with the nomads north of China went hand in hand with troops and Chinese settlements established all along the wall. The wall did help defend key parts of China from random nomadic raids, but did not halt major invasions. A weak dynasty could not be saved by the Great Wall.



Source 30 An artist's impression of construction on part of the Ming Dynasty Wall

CASE STUDY: CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Why is it more accurate to refer to the Great Walls, rather than the Great Wall of China?
- 2 Why did the dynasties over the years feel a need to repeatedly build walls?
- 3 What kind of social organisation do you think was needed to enter into major building programs like the walls?

6.6 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 In your own words, define 'legalism' as it was used in the government of ancient China.
- 2 What does the burial of the terracotta warriors with Qin Shi Huang Di tell us about his beliefs and fears?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 3 Consider each of the changes made to Chinese government and society under Qin Shi Huang Di's rule, as listed in Source 21. For each one, explain why you think the change was made, and what you think the consequences would have been for ancient China.
- 4 What do historians need to consider when analysing written records from the Qin Dynasty?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 5 Consider what you already know about Qin Shi Huang Di and add to your knowledge with your own research. Think about the negative and positive aspects of his rule, and find out more about his last years, including his search for immortality and the circumstances of his death. Summarise your thinking about Qin Shi Huang Di with a PMI table (Plus, Minus, Interesting).

The rule of Qin Shi Huang Di		
Plus	Minus	Interesting

GO DEEPER

- 6 To which social group in ancient China would you have liked to belong? Choose one from the list below:
 - emperor or empress
 - nobleman or nobleman's wife, son or daughter
 - peasant farmer or peasant farmer's wife, son or daughter

Use information and sources from the text and your own research to present 'My life in ancient China'. Your presentation could be in the form of a series of diary entries, a letter to a friend or relative, a storyboard, or another format approved by your teacher. Include relevant sources in your presentation whenever possible as 'snapshots' from your life.

Note: Provide a brief biography to introduce your imaginary self, including your age, gender, the city or part of China where you live, a description of your family and their place in society. Also, keep a record of all the evidence you have used as a basis for the events and descriptions in your presentation. Make sure you have evaluated them for relevance and reliability.

SPOTLIGHT

EXPLANATION AND COMMUNICATION

Historians need to evaluate the evidence and analyse its meaning in order to explain key aspects of people, places and events of the past.

Source 31 A painting from the Tang Dynasty showing the emperor, seated, surrounded by maids of honour



HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT CHINA?

» Outline how society in ancient China was organised and governed

- 1 Outline the social hierarchy in ancient China and describe the key groups. (5 marks)
- 2 Outline how ancient China was governed after Qin Shi Huang Di united China and declared himself emperor. (5 marks)
- 3 Describe the rule of Qin Shi Huang Di, including changes he made to unify Chinese society.
 - a Outline the steps Qin Shi Huang Di took to make China easier to rule. (5 marks)
 - b Why do you think that Qin Shi Huang Di resorted to cruelty at the same time as he made great improvements in Chinese society? (5 marks)

» Describe key groups in Chinese society

- 4 Describe the roles and responsibilities of the following key groups in Chinese society, and give reasons for their status:
 - a emperors
 - b scholars
 - c artisans
 - d peasant farmers. (20 marks)
- 5 Outline the status and role of women in ancient China. Include examples of practices that illustrate their role in Chinese society. (10 marks)

» Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient China

- 6 Write a paragraph on the following aspects of everyday life in ancient China:
 - a housing, clothing and leisure
 - b education
 - c food and diet. (15 marks)
- 7 List three everyday activities and responsibilities carried out by men, by women and by children in ancient China. (10 marks)

» Investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China

- 8 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in ancient China.
 - a Outline his or her achievements.
 - b Explain the impact this person had on his or her own society.
 - c Explain the significance of his or her achievements or legacy for the modern world. (20 marks)
- 9 Choose two sources relating to your significant individual. Assess the value of these sources to a historian studying their life. (5 marks)

Total marks [/100]

6C

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 20 marks = 600 to 800 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student [ebook](#) [assess](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section



assess quiz

Test your knowledge with this multiple-choice quiz.

Check your Teacher [ebook](#) [assess](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas



Answers

Answers to every Check Your Learning, Interpret and Checkpoint question in this section

6D

HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE CHINA AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

6.7 ANCIENT CHINA AT WAR

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- identify conflicts within Chinese society
- explain the consequences of these conflicts for ancient China.

Throughout its long history, ancient China had a variety of contacts with other societies as it defended its borders, extended its trade with other civilisations and conquered new territories. Within ancient China, conflict marked the beginning and end of China's dynasties, brought on by either internal power struggles or foreign threats.

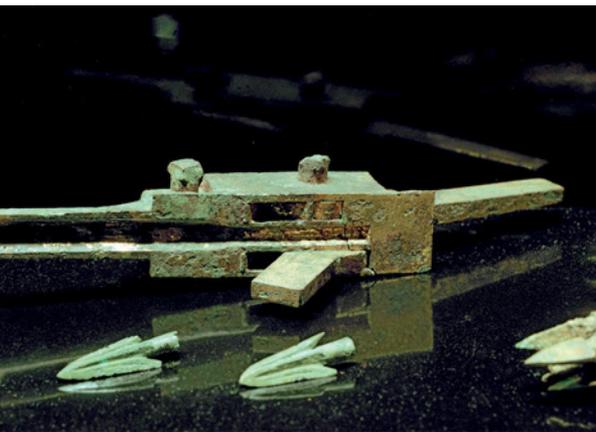
Internal conflicts and rebellions

Ancient China's history is marked by a series of internal wars and rebellions. Rival states and kingdoms across China were frequently at war to expand or defend their territories. As a result, Chinese armies and navies developed sophisticated weapons and military tactics, including the famous theories of the general Sun Tzu – a military leader and author of *The Art of War*, a book still used by armies around the world.

After the Qin kingdom's defeat of rival states, China became a unified nation. However, a number of major rebellions broke out against ruling dynasties in the centuries that followed. The Qin Dynasty itself did not last long after the death of Qin Shi Huang Di in 210 BC. His rule had been deeply unpopular because of his harsh laws and the deaths of thousands of people forced to work on his grand constructions, such as parts of the Great Wall. After Qin Shi Huang Di's death, his younger son, Qin Er Shi, became emperor, but increasing uprisings led to the overthrow of the dynasty in 206 BC. The peasant leader Liu Bang became the first Han Dynasty emperor, and was renamed Gao Zu.

As we have seen, the Mandate of Heaven meant it was accepted that there would be times when the people would and should stage a rebellion against a bad ruler. The most famous rebellions in the ancient period were the Rebellion of the Seven States against the Han Dynasty in 154 BC and the second Yellow Turban Rebellion against the Han Dynasty in AD 184.

Although each of these rebellions was different, both began as peasant rebellions, triggered by the discontent of the ordinary peasant farmers. Most often these grievances were against government taxes that were thought to be too high or unfair, hardship in the countryside due to famine following drought, or loss of life and homes after floods.



Source 1 The remains of a crossbow and bolt heads from the Han Dynasty

Ancient China's military strength

Armies made ancient China very strong. Its rulers used them to conquer new territory and hold back nomadic raiders from the north. The first permanent, professional army was created during the Han Dynasty, and Han Emperor Wudi greatly increased its territory through the victories of its armies. As well as expanding territory within present-day China, Wudi's army invaded territories in northern Korea in 108 BC and northern Vietnam in 111 BC, making them a part of the Han Empire. The Han and successive dynasties governed territories in Vietnam for just over 1000 years, imposing Chinese culture, religion and language. China later came under the control of the Mongols in AD 1279 and the Manchus in 1644. In this chapter we cover only the period up to the end of the Han Dynasty, which is commonly considered to mark the end of China's ancient period.



Source 2 Detail of a tapestry showing kneeling prisoners and soldiers from the time of the first emperor of the Han Dynasty

6.7 SOURCE STUDY

The expanding territory of China's ancient dynasties



Source 3 The territorial borders of some past dynasties and present-day China

SPOTLIGHT

COMPREHENSION

Historians interpret meaning from historical texts before sequencing historical events and periods. Ancient societies use different terms, meaning historians often have an understanding of another language.

INTERPRET

- 1 Using Source 3, write a paragraph to describe and summarise the changes to ancient China's territorial borders from the Qin Dynasty through to the Tang Dynasty.

6.7 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 Create a timeline with the title 'Conflict in ancient China' to summarise your knowledge about this topic. Along with key dates, include information about:
 - the causes of the conflicts
 - the consequences of the conflicts
 - the key individuals involved.

GO DEEPER

- 2 Find out more about the Rebellion of the Seven States or the second Yellow Turban Rebellion. Write a one-page report summarising the key events of the rebellion, including its causes and consequences.

6.8 CHINA'S CONTACTS WITH THE ANCIENT WORLD

KEY CONTENT

In this topic you will:

- describe contacts and conflicts between ancient China and other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest
- explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient China and other societies
- investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China
- explain the legacy of ancient China.

Since the earliest records, trade within China had existed along its rivers and vast network of canals. However, trade outside of China's borders did not begin until the Han Dynasty.

The Han Dynasty was the longest-lasting dynasty in China. It continued for nearly four centuries, from 202 BC to AD 220, broken only by a brief takeover by the Xin Dynasty. As well as the establishment of the first full-time army, the arts and sciences flourished in China during this period and there was trade and economic prosperity. Today, the Chinese people still call themselves the 'Han', reflecting this dynasty's huge impact on Chinese history.

During the rule of Han Emperor Wudi, China's influence increased through military conquest, trade and strategic alliances with other countries and foreign rulers. Emperor Wudi made allies of the tribes living in the lands surrounding China, with long-term impacts. He also sent official messengers on great journeys to make alliances with countries to the west of China. The messengers and later diplomatic missions came back with stories of strange customs and products, such as furs and large horses.



Source 4 The horses from Persia and Eastern Europe were larger stronger than the horses in China during the Han Dynasty. They were given the name 'heavenly horses'.

These so-called ‘heavenly horses’ from Persia and Eastern Europe were larger than the Chinese breeds of the time and they made better ‘war horses’. China was able to obtain huge numbers of ‘heavenly horses’ from outside China, which greatly improved the strength of its army and cavalry. Emperor Wudi also sent Chinese merchants on trading expeditions that laid the foundation for trade with the West along the **Silk Roads**.

Silk Roads

a network of trade routes stretching west from China to the Mediterranean Sea; it was the main way in which silk was transported to the West

The Silk Roads

The Silk Roads were a network of roads heading in the same general direction, running through mountains, deserts and plains. Eventually, the Silk Roads stretched westwards from the city of Changan (Xian) to the coast of the Mediterranean Sea. There were many branches leading to places such as India (see Source 8). Few merchants travelled the entire distance. More typically, goods were exchanged with local communities along the way, who would trade with other merchant travellers. Once the Silk Roads reached the Mediterranean Sea, China came into contact with Western societies, such as ancient Rome.

Silk was ancient China’s most important trade good. For a long time, only the Chinese knew how to make it. It is spun from silkworm cocoons. It became so highly prized by the people of ancient Rome that they exchanged large amounts of gold for it. Through its export of silk (and later silk-making techniques), ancient China became very wealthy.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Silk was such a valuable resource to the Chinese that people were executed if caught stealing silkworm eggs or cocoons.



Source 5 The Chinese traded silk and the Romans prized it, not knowing that it came from a silkworm.

Source 6

Goods exchanged along the Silk Roads

From China	silk, tea, cattle, porcelain, pearls, lacquer ware, iron
To China	horses and camels, jade, gold and silver, furs, dyes, perfumes, spice

Exchange of ideas between East and West

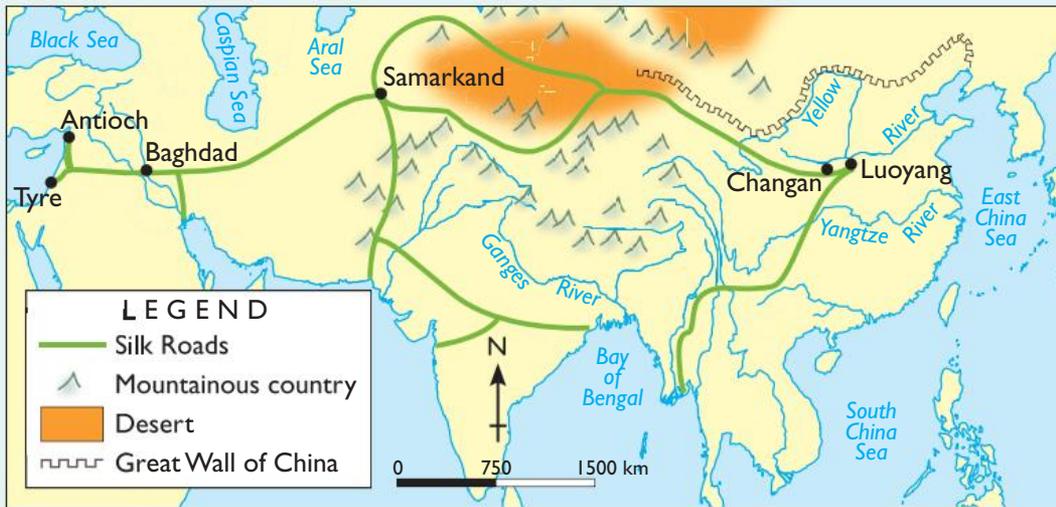
Trade between ancient China and other societies also helped the transfer of ideas between the East (civilisations across the Asian world) and the West (civilisations across the Mediterranean world). People who travelled on the Silk Roads from east or west were exposed to different cultures and religions. It was along this road that metalworking technologies and Buddhism were introduced into China. It was also the route followed by those who passed China’s silk-making secrets to the West. In addition, the route was the means by which terrible diseases were introduced to new populations, such as the bubonic plague in medieval times.

The Silk Roads

Source 7

There were some who ... have seen a host of men [spirits] coming towards them and, suspecting they were robbers, returning, have gone hopelessly astray ... Even by daylight men hear these spirit voices ... For this reason bands of travellers keep very close together. Before they go to sleep they set up a sign pointing in the direction in which they have to travel. Round the necks of all their beasts they fasten little bells, so that by listening to the sound they may prevent them from straying off the path.

Translated extract from Marco Polo, The Travels (c. 1254–1324), describing the Silk Roads crossing



Source 8 The main routes of the Silk Roads



Source 9 A fifteenth-century artist's impression of the Silk Roads; the painting is titled *Abduction of a lady with her porcelain*

INTERPRET

- 1 Examine Source 7.
 - a What were some of the dangers for merchants travelling the Silk Roads?
 - b Why do you think merchants continued to travel the Silk Roads despite these dangers?
- 2 Study Source 8 and complete the following activities.
 - a Use the scale to estimate the length of the Silk Roads from Changan to Tyre on the Mediterranean coast, and then check your estimate using digital resources.
 - b Use an atlas to identify the modern-day countries on the main routes and offshoots of the Silk Roads.
- 3 Look at Source 9.
 - a The goods being transported on the Silk Roads in this case are a princess's dowry rather than trade goods. (A dowry is money or goods that the bride's family brings to the husband.) Describe the scene, identifying the princess, her dowry and her guards.
 - b What does this painting reveal about the exchange of cultures along the Silk Roads?

Ancient China's legacy

Sir Francis Bacon, a seventeenth-century English scholar, thought that the magnetic compass, gunpowder and printing were the three most important inventions that changed the world. Each had a significant impact on societies around the globe. They made possible the voyages of discovery, affected the outcome of wars and transformed the spread of information. All were invented in China, along with other significant inventions and discoveries. Like the ancient Egyptians, the ancient Chinese were skilled scientists, mathematicians and astronomers.

Magnetic compass

About 2000 years ago, the Chinese noted that a magnetic rock (called a lodestone) always pointed the same way (north–south) when suspended on a string or floated in water. It was then discovered that by rubbing fine metal pointers on a lodestone, its magnetic properties were transferred to the pointers. It is unknown when this knowledge was used to create the first magnetic compass, but it is thought that the concept was brought to Europe by the tenth century AD, through Arab traders travelling along the Silk Roads. Until then, consulting the stars was the only way of working out directions at sea, so the magnetic compass revolutionised the way sailors plotted their courses.



Source 10 Two magnetic compasses made by the ancient Chinese

Gunpowder

Around AD 850, a Chinese scientist made a mixture he hoped would give him everlasting life. Instead, it exploded, burning his beard. He had accidentally discovered gunpowder. Fifty years later, gunpowder was being used by the Chinese as a powerful weapon in warfare, with the development of bombs, cannons and rockets. It allowed the Chinese to keep Mongol invaders out of their territories for a time. However, the Mongols were eventually able to use gunpowder against the Chinese and establish control over China. Like the compass, knowledge of gunpowder eventually reached Europe by way of the Silk Roads.



Source 11 Fireworks – a more peaceful use of gunpowder, and possibly its first use in ancient China

Paper and printing

The Chinese first wrote on silk or strips of bamboo. By the end of the first century AD, however, a thin paper was being used. The royal eunuch Cai Lun (c. AD 50–121) is usually given credit for this invention, making a paper pulp with mashed bamboo and mulberry bark. Later, pulp was made by mashing together bark, rags, plant stalks and water. Bamboo trays were dipped into the pulp until their fine grids were fully coated. When partially dry, the paper was gently peeled off and hung up to dry.

Books were printed in China centuries before the invention of printing in Europe. The Chinese used the block method. Flat wooden blocks were carved so that the characters or illustration to be printed stood higher than the rest of the block. When paper was pressed onto the inked block, only these higher parts printed. The details to be printed were carved in reverse so they would print the right way on the paper.



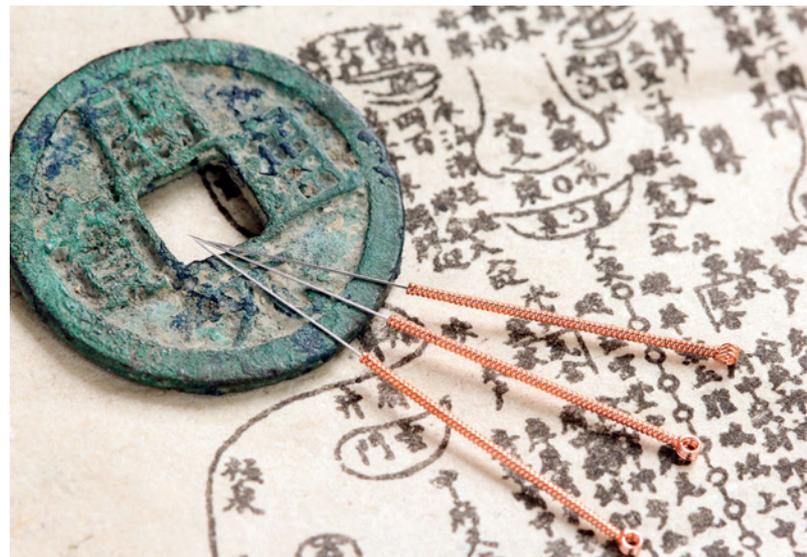
Source 12 Part of a page from the *Diamond Sutra*, the earliest surviving printed book; this Buddhist text was printed around AD 868 using the block method. It was made 500 years before the first book (the Bible) was printed in Europe.

Other Chinese inventions and discoveries

Other inventions and discoveries from ancient China also spread to other societies through trade and other contacts. For example:

- the first seismograph (a device to detect earthquakes), made by the astronomer Zhang Heng (AD 78–139), who is also said to have been the first to use a grid system on maps
- cast iron, first made around 600 BC
- the rudder (before this time, Egyptians and Greeks used steering oars on their boats)
- mechanical clocks (made in China six centuries earlier than in Europe)
- acupuncture (a treatment that involves pushing small needles into the body to treat illness and promote health) and herbal medicines
- matches, the umbrella, the kite, the wheelbarrow.

Source 13 Acupuncture is part of traditional Chinese medicine. Needles are inserted into pressure points to relieve pain and other ailments.



Source 14 Cast iron has been used for more than 2500 years in China, for items such as woks and teapots.



6.8 CHECK YOUR LEARNING

REVIEW AND UNDERSTAND

- 1 What were the Silk Roads and how did they get their name?
- 2 How did trade along the Silk Roads increase the prosperity of ancient China?
- 3 What did Francis Bacon consider to be world-changing inventions and why?

APPLY AND ANALYSE

- 4 Why do you think there are extensive written records that provide evidence about ancient China?

EVALUATE AND CREATE

- 5 Research ways of making either paper or a simple magnetic compass. Create either of these at home or in class, and

write a brief report to describe your method, experience and the result. Include photos or sketches in your report.

GO DEEPER

- 6 Conduct research on the rule of Han Emperor Wudi to find out more about his achievements. Write a one-page persuasive text to argue that he is one of the most significant individuals in ancient China.
- 7 Find out more about one of the inventions or discoveries listed on the previous page that particularly interests you. Share your knowledge about this Chinese invention or discovery with members of your class.

SPOTLIGHT

RESEARCH

Historians often learn about societies by first gathering a wide range of information. After this, they can choose an area of interest to research in more depth.



HOW DID CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE CHINA AND OTHER ANCIENT SOCIETIES?

» Identify conflicts within Chinese society

- 1 Identify the reasons why the following types of conflicts occurred within ancient China:
 - a warfare between rival states
 - b rebellions against dynasties. (10 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these conflicts for ancient China

- 2 What were the consequences of the conflicts you identified in question 1? Include examples. (5 marks)

» Describe contacts and conflicts between ancient China and other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest

- 3 Identify territories outside China that were invaded by China's military during the Han Dynasty. (2 marks)
- 4 Identify and describe the trade route that connected East and West during ancient times, including examples of goods that were typically exchanged. (10 marks)
- 5 What other types of exchanges were made between East and West as a result of this trade route? (10 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient China and other societies

- 6 What were the consequences of trading contacts between East and West, for China and other ancient societies? Include examples. (10 marks)

» Investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient China

- 7 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of their role in China and the ancient world.
 - a Explain the impact this person had on his or her own society, as well as other ancient societies. (5 marks)
 - b Explain the significance of his or her achievements or legacy for the modern world. (10 marks)

» Explain the legacy of ancient China

- 8 Explain the legacy of ancient China, including the impact of significant discoveries and inventions.
 - a Identify three discoveries or inventions from ancient China. (3 marks)
 - b Explain how the world might be different today without these discoveries or inventions. (15 marks)

Total marks [/80]

6D

CHECKPOINT

Marking guide

Questions with higher marks need answers with greater depth. For example:

- » 5 marks = a paragraph
- » 10 marks = 400 words
- » 15 marks = 600 words

Include historical terms and concepts and give detailed examples to show your understanding.

Check your Student [ebook](#) [access](#) for these digital resources and more:



Checkpoint

A write-in answer sheet for the Checkpoint questions for this section

Quizlet

Test your knowledge of this topic by working individually or in teams.

Check your Teacher [ebook](#) [access](#) for these resources and more:



Teacher support

Teaching program and notes for this chapter, including syllabus connections, weblinks and differentiation ideas

Quizlet Live

Launch a game of Quizlet Live for your students.

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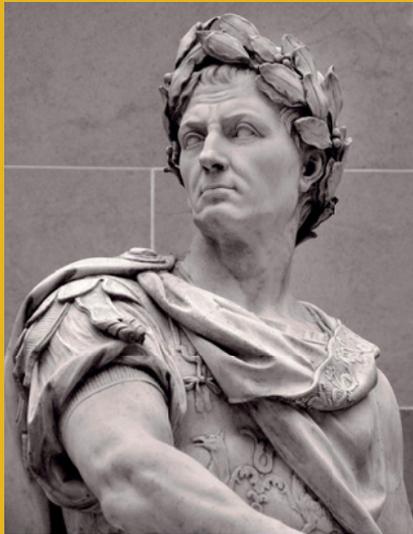
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Main image: This photograph shows a marble statue of Julius Caesar, created by the French sculptor Nicolas Coustou (1658–1733). The statue was commissioned in 1696 and is now housed in the Louvre Museum in Paris. Caesar was a brilliant Roman military commander and emperor who lived from 100 to 44 BC. Despite being very popular with the Roman people, Caesar was murdered by a group of senators who were concerned about his popularity and military successes.



Background image: A traditional painting of a Chinese dragon. Dragons were significant in ancient Chinese culture as a symbol of imperial authority and power.

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