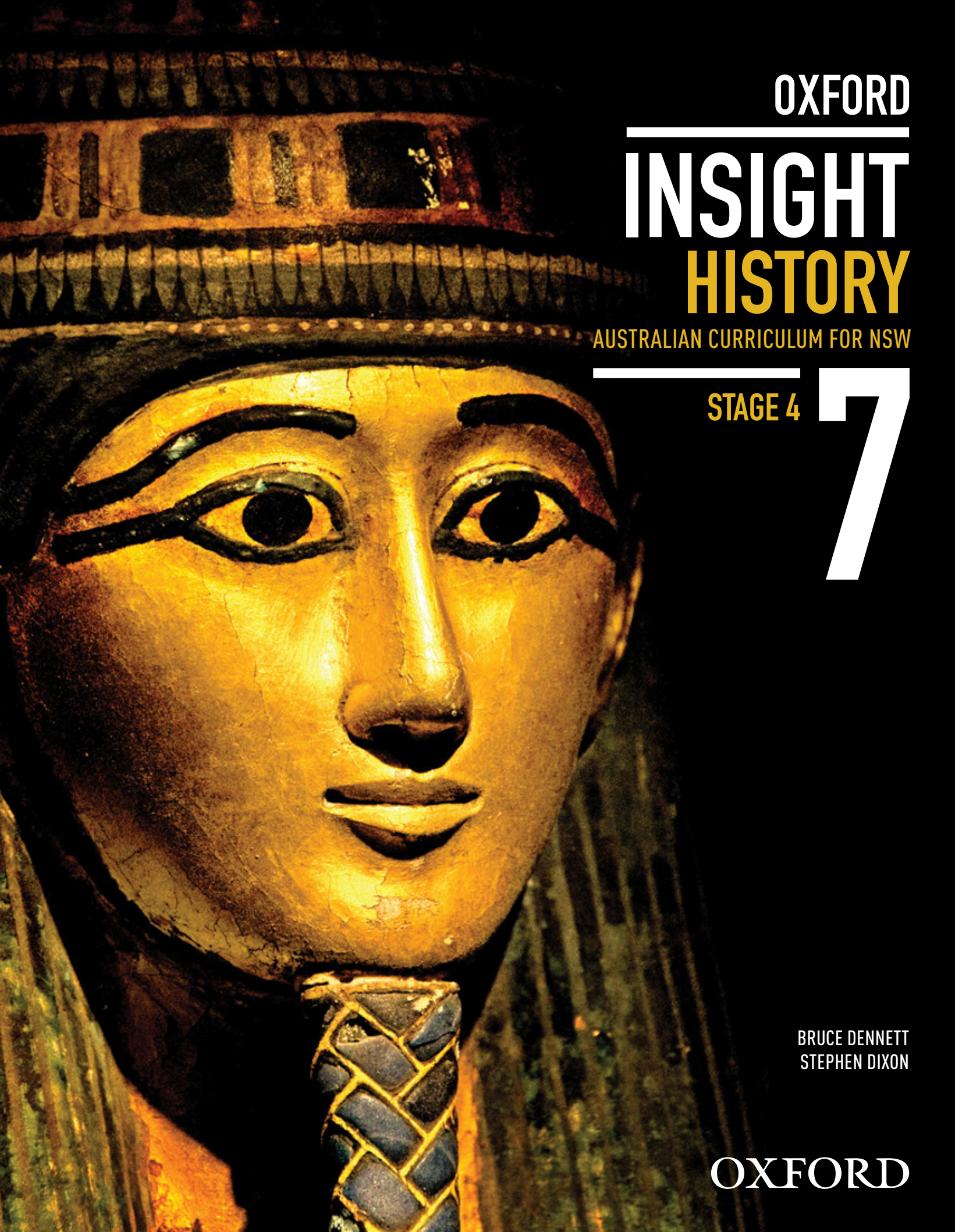




OXFORD

INSIGHT HISTORY

AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM FOR NSW

STAGE 4

7

BRUCE DENNETT
STEPHEN DIXON

OXFORD

OXFORD

INSIGHT HISTORY

AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM FOR NSW

STAGE 4

7

BRUCE DENNETT
STEPHEN DIXON

CONTRIBUTIONS BY ANGELA WONG

OXFORD

Oxford University Press is a department of the University of Oxford. It furthers the University's objective of excellence in research, scholarship, and education by publishing worldwide. Oxford is a registered trademark of Oxford University Press in the UK and in certain other countries.

Published in Australia by
Oxford University Press
253 Normanby Road, South Melbourne, Victoria 3205, Australia
© Bruce Dennett and Stephen Dixon 2013

The moral rights of the author have been asserted

First published 2013
Reprinted 2014 (twice), 2017

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, without the prior permission in writing of Oxford University Press, or as expressly permitted by law, by licence, or under terms agreed with the reprographics rights organisation. Enquiries concerning reproduction outside the scope of the above should be sent to the Rights Department, Oxford University Press, at the address above.

You must not circulate this work in any other form and you must impose this same condition on any acquirer.

National Library of Australia Cataloguing-in-Publication data

Dennett, Bruce, 1948-
Oxford Insight History 7
Australian Curriculum for NSW Stage 4 / Bruce Dennett / Stephen Dixon.
ISBN 9780195577747 (paperback)
Includes index.
For secondary school age.
World history – Study and teaching (Secondary) – Australia.
Dixon, Stephen, 1950-, author.
909

Reproduction and communication for educational purposes

The Australian *Copyright Act 1968* (the Act) allows a maximum of one chapter or 10% of the pages of this work, whichever is the greater, to be reproduced and/or communicated by any educational institution for its educational purposes provided that the educational institution (or the body that administers it) has given a remuneration notice to Copyright Agency Limited (CAL) under the Act.

For details of the CAL licence for educational institutions contact:

Copyright Agency Limited
Level 15, 233 Castlereagh Street
Sydney NSW 2000
Telephone: (02) 9394 7600
Facsimile: (02) 9394 7601
Email: info@copyright.com.au



Illustrations by Kerry Cooke, Dimitrios Prokopis, Richard Bonson,
MAPGraphics Pty Ltd and Claudia Saraceni www.the-art-agency.co.uk
Typeset by Polar Design
Proofread by Natasha Broadstock
Indexed by Neil Daly
Printed in Hong Kong by Paramount Printing Company Limited

Disclaimer

Indigenous Australians and Torres Strait Islanders are advised that this publication may include images or names of people now deceased.

Links to third party websites are provided by Oxford in good faith and for information only. Oxford disclaims any responsibility for the materials contained in any third party website referenced in this work.



CONTENTS

Using <i>Oxford Insight History</i>	vi
NSW Syllabus for the Australian Curriculum: History Stage 4 – Scope and sequence	x

THE ANCIENT WORLD

PART 1 INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST: AN OVERVIEW 2

DEPTH STUDY 1: INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST

CHAPTER 1 INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST 12

1.1	How do historians and archaeologists investigate history?	14
1.2	What types of sources are used in historical investigations?	24
1.3	How do historians and archaeologists investigate historical mysteries?	32
1.4	What do sources reveal about Australia's ancient past?	36
1.5	Why is it important to conserve the remains of the ancient past?	46

PART 2 THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD: AN OVERVIEW 52

DEPTH STUDY 2: THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

CHAPTER 2 ANCIENT EGYPT 58

Ancient Egypt – A timeline		60
2.1	How did geography influence the development of ancient Egypt?	62
2.2	How was ancient Egyptian society organised and governed?	68
2.3	What did ancient Egyptians believe?	84
2.4	How did contacts and conflicts change Egypt and other ancient societies?	92

CHAPTER 3 ANCIENT GREECE **100**

Ancient Greece – A timeline	102
3.1 How did geography influence the development of ancient Greece?	104
3.2 What did the ancient Greeks believe?	108
3.3 How was society organised and governed in ancient Greece?	116
3.4 How did contacts and conflicts change Greece and other ancient societies?	130

CHAPTER 4 ANCIENT ROME **140**

Ancient Rome – A timeline	142
4.1 How did geography influence the development of ancient Rome?	144
4.2 How was ancient Roman society organised and governed?	148
4.3 What did the ancient Romans believe?	170
4.4 How did contacts and conflicts change Rome and other ancient societies?	174

PART 3 THE ASIAN WORLD – AN OVERVIEW **186**

Depth study 3: The Asian world

CHAPTER 5 ANCIENT INDIA **190**

Ancient India – A timeline	192
5.1 How did geography influence the development of ancient India?	194
5.2 What did people in ancient India believe?	202
5.3 How was society organised in ancient India?	206
5.4 How did contacts and conflicts change India and other ancient societies?	216

CHAPTER 6 ANCIENT CHINA **226**

Ancient China – A timeline	228
6.1 How did geography influence the development of ancient China?	230
6.2 What did people in ancient China believe?	236
6.3 How was society organised and governed in ancient China?	240
6.4 How did contacts and conflicts change China and other ancient societies?	256
The historian's toolkit	264
Glossary	278
Index	281
Acknowledgements	284

THE ANCIENT TO THE MODERN WORLD

PART 4 THE WESTERN AND ISLAMIC WORLD: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 4: THE WESTERN AND ISLAMIC WORLD

CHAPTER 7 THE VIKINGS

CHAPTER 8 MEDIEVAL EUROPE

CHAPTER 9 THE OTTOMAN EMPIRE

CHAPTER 10 RENAISSANCE ITALY

PART 5 THE ASIA—PACIFIC WORLD: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 5: THE ASIA—PACIFIC WORLD

CHAPTER 11 ANGKOR/KHMER EMPIRE

CHAPTER 12 JAPAN UNDER THE SHOGUNS

CHAPTER 13 THE POLYNESIAN EXPANSION ACROSS THE PACIFIC

PART 6 EXPANDING CONTACTS: AN OVERVIEW

DEPTH STUDY 6: EXPANDING CONTACTS

CHAPTER 14 MONGOL EXPANSION

CHAPTER 15 THE BLACK DEATH IN ASIA, EUROPE AND AFRICA

CHAPTER 16 THE SPANISH CONQUEST OF THE AMERICAS

CHAPTER 17 ABORIGINAL AND INDIGENOUS PEOPLES, COLONISATION AND CONTACT HISTORY

THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT: CONCEPTS AND SKILLS

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 of the required outcomes. The features, structure and design of the Student Book, *obook* and Teacher Kit will help you:

- » optimise student understanding
- » personalise teaching and learning
- » deliver better results.

OPTIMISE STUDENT UNDERSTANDING

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.

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

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT ROME?

- » describe ancient Rome's geographical setting and how it influenced the development of the city
- » explain how these features influenced the development of the city

HOW WAS ROMAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

- » outline how the society in ancient Rome was organised
- » describe key groups in Roman society, such as citizens, slaves and the military
- » describe the everyday life of men, women and children
- » investigate the role of a significant individual in Roman society

WHAT DID THE ROMANS BELIEVE?

- » explain how beliefs and values were evident in ancient Roman death and burial practices

HOW DID ROMAN CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS CHANGE SOCIETIES?

- » identify conflicts with other societies
- » explain the consequences of these conflicts for Roman society
- » describe contacts and conflicts between Rome and other societies
- » explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for Roman society

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

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, 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. They 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.

Source 4.1A 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.

Each topic covered in the Student Book is supported by a range of primary and secondary source materials designed to engage and challenge a range of students. A combination of primary and secondary sources – from artefacts, historical illustrations, photographs, timelines, and maps to songs, videos and digital interactives – provide rich learning opportunities and encouraging students develop deep understandings and transferable skills.

POMPEII

APPLY 4.3

1 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.

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. Around 1pm on 24 August all that changed. 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 and enveloped Herculaneum. Another avalanche of pumice, gas and ash overwhelmed Pompeii and buried it, and many of its inhabitants, under six metres of volcanic debris.

By the time the eruption had finished three days later, around 2000 of Pompeii's population of 20 000 had been killed. Many people fell in the middle of their day-to-day work; others found refuge in basements and storerooms, desperate to avoid the catastrophe. Centuries later, when Pompeii was excavated, there were cavities in the ash that once contained the bodies of people and animals. These cavities have been filled with plaster by preservationists (see Source 4.44), creating eerie and moving reminders of the terrible event.

Pompeii and Herculaneum remained lost and forgotten until 1594, when workmen 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 has been an ongoing project and has revealed whole streets, houses, wall paintings and even graffiti, such as 'Succensus the cloth-weaver loves Iris, the inn-keeper's slave girl'.

Source 4.41 An artist's impression of the eruption of Mount Vesuvius.

Source 4.42 A street today in the excavated ruins of Pompeii. Mount Vesuvius is in the distance.

Source 4.43 An eyewitness account by Pliny the Elder, written by his nephew, Pliny the Younger, of the eruption of Vesuvius in AD 79.

Source 4.44 The plaster shapes of Pompeian's at the moment of their death.

INTERPRET 4.3

- Describe what Pliny saw on the sea side of the road.
- What did he see on the land side of the road?
- Why did Pliny decide to leave the road?
- What caused the light which Pliny saw?
- Why did Pliny and his companions find it necessary to rise from time to time?
- What changes had taken place in the city when daylight finally broke through?

Pompeii is now a time capsule that allows thousands of tourists who visit Pompeii each year to have a unique insight into an ancient Roman town. The discoveries that archaeologists have excavated have provided a wealth of evidence about ancient Roman lifestyles.

REVIEW 4.10

- Examine Sources 4.41 to 4.44. Which are primary sources for a study of Pompeii?
- Explain why the discoveries at Pompeii have been so significant for historians.

Source study activities expose students to a range of primary and secondary sources designed to bring the past to life. All sources are accompanied by activities that challenge students to engage with the past and develop a range of historical skills.

Chapter content is organised into two- or four-page units to support teaching and learning.

ROMAN TRADE AND CONTACTS WITH ASIA

Trade routes to the east

The Roman Empire encircled the Mediterranean Sea, and there was a constant flow of trade across these waters. Egypt was especially important as it was regarded as 'the granary of Rome', meaning that Rome depended on a regular supply of food from its African possessions. The sea and land routes to Egypt and the east are shown in Source 4.40.

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 the products of Europe, such as pottery, stones, slaves, pepper (sometimes referred to as 'black gold') and exotic animals from the east, the emperor Augustus received ambassadors from Indian princes seeking treaties of trade or alliance.

As trade grew, so did the desire to find the quickest route to India. Originally, it was believed that the coastline of India ran from west to east along 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 struck out from the mouth of the Red Sea across the open ocean. By AD 50, Roman ships were regularly using the direct route to reach from Egypt to India in around 70 days.

Not only Roman goods travelled – ancient Indian sources show that Roman traders and mercenaries found employment in Indian society. In recent years, archaeologists have excavated an ancient Roman port called Muziris on the western coast of India. Among the finds have been many amphorae (large earthenware containers for wine or grain) and a hoard of 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 made landfall in Sri Lanka. Soon the coast to trade for precious stones, spices and fabrics.

On the east African mainland, merchant ships regularly visited Somalia and the lands around the Horn of Africa. The Romans called these the 'Aromastir Lands' because of the large amounts of incense to be found in the region. Gradually, Roman vessels reached southwards down the African coast until they reached a settlement they called Rhapta, near the island of Zanzibar.

Rome and China

For almost 300 years, two huge empires – 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 1st 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 routes that linked Europe with Asia (see Source 4.60).

Silk was brought to the Mediterranean by a people the Romans called the 'Sina' (or 'Sik 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.

Roman trade routes

INTERPRET 4.11

- Examine Source 4.40.
- 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
- How much travelling distance was saved by using the direct route?

Source 4.40 Roman trade routes

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 an audience with the emperor. However, when they returned to Rome with news of this new contact, this had a crippling effect on trade and the possibilities for further contacts with China.

REVIEW 4.14

- Explain why Egypt was such an important part of the empire for the Romans.
- How does a Roman naval warship (see Source 4.53) differ from the merchant ship shown in Source 4.59?
- What is the significance of the following dates in Roman trade and exploration?
 - a. AD 54
 - b. AD 166
- Why did trade between Rome and China fail to develop after early contacts?

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 it that Emperor Tiberius tried to ban its import because it was costing the Roman treasury too much.

Review, Interpret, Apply and Extend tasks appear throughout each chapter providing a range of activities suited to different abilities and learning styles.

Strange but true boxes present a range of weird and wonderful historical facts designed to entertain and provoke discussion.

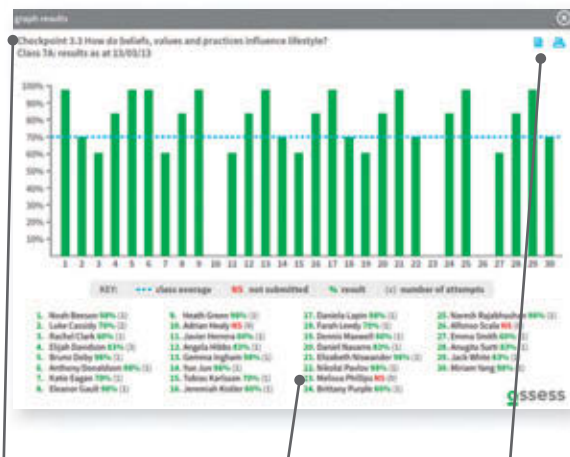
PERSONALISE TEACHING AND LEARNING

The new syllabus demands contemporary online learning for all students in NSW. *Oxford Insight History* delivers new opportunities for teachers and students to personalise teaching and learning through *obook* and *assess*:

» *obook* provides an electronic version of the Student Book with note-taking, highlighting, bookmarking. It includes videos, interactive learning modules and weblinks, and can be accessed both online and offline.



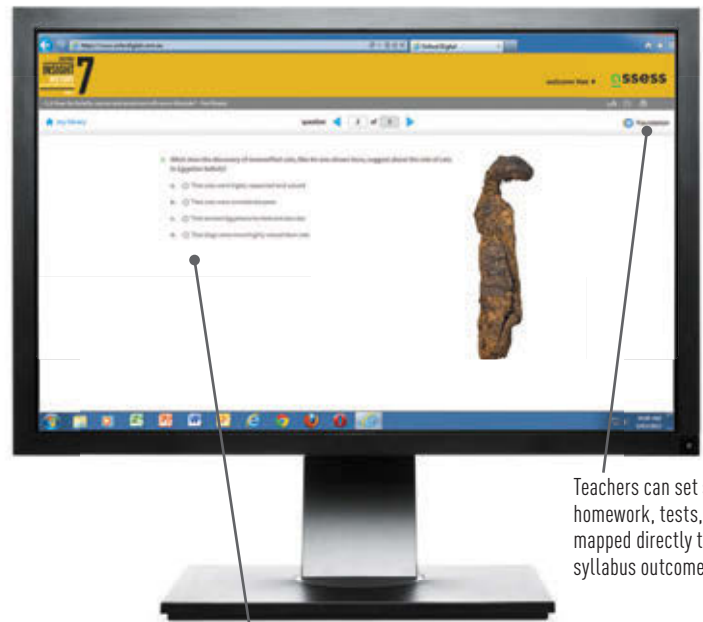
» assess provides 24/7 online assessment designed to support individual student progression and understanding.



Select from hundreds of auto-marking assessment tasks at various difficulty levels – foundation, standard and advanced

Monitor student participation and track performance by graphing and comparing individual and group results

Communicate with students through email and notes shared via the obook



Teachers can set students homework, tests, and tasks mapped directly to NSW syllabus outcomes

Create your own tests tailored directly to the needs of your students or assign ready-made tests complete with marking guidelines and suggested solutions

DELIVER BETTER RESULTS

Checkpoint questions appear at the end of every section. They are linked to a content dot point in the NSW History syllabus and are designed to help you identify areas of weakness in student understanding. They can be used flexibly – completed orally in class (to support formative assessment) or set as written tests (to support summative assessment).

Oxford Insight History helps you to deliver better results for you and your students by ensuring that student progress on all syllabus outcomes and content can be carefully monitored throughout every depth study. Features contained at the end of every section of every chapter allow you to easily identify gaps in student understanding and target further development in these areas. Student progress can be measured directly against syllabus outcomes – either formally or informally – with regular diagnostic tests and more open-ended tasks that focus on engagement and skill development.

Rich Tasks appear at the end of every section. They are open-ended, inquiry-based tasks that often involve an element of fun. They are designed to engage students to develop their specific historical skills.

4.2 CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS ROMAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

Outline how the society in ancient Rome was organised and governed.

- Outline the ways in which people were classified or distinguished in ancient Roman society. (10 marks)
- Outline how Rome was governed during the Roman Republic. (10 marks)
- Describe key groups in Roman society, such as citizens, women and slaves. (10 marks)
- Describe the roles of key groups in ancient Roman society. (10 marks)
- Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome. (10 marks)
- Choose four aspects of Roman life from the list below, and write a paragraph on each aspect to describe the everyday experiences of Roman men, women and children. (40 marks)
- Investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient Rome. (10 marks)
- Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of their role in ancient Rome. (20 marks)

RICH TASKS

A guide to the Roman World

- Create a guide to the Roman world to attract ancient tourists. It can be in the form of a poster, PowerPoints presentation or web page. Remember to use your creativity or that of others. PowerPoints presentation or web page. Make up a suitable title and include images, quotations and information gathered from your own research, using ICT and other resources. For example, you could:
 - provide a list of imaginary 'testimonials' – written or video quotations from different groups in Roman society from citizens, non-citizens, women, children and slaves
 - include a historical section, including your own timeline of important events up to the time of the Roman Republic
 - conduct research to include aspects of Roman life that we not covered in this chapter, such as food and dining
- Slaves in Rome
 - The setting is ancient Rome. The time is the day before the harvest. Many slaves will have to work hard to bring in the wheat crop that the landowner hopes will make him a lot of money. Record the thoughts about tomorrow from two different perspectives: that of the landowner and that of one of his slaves.
 - Conduct research to find out who Spartacus was, then write a short summary to explain why he is regarded as significant by historians.

The Colosseum Times

1 Create an edition of The Colosseum Times using information and images from this chapter and your own research. Find out more about the different types of gladiators, their weapons, armour and fighting styles. A few are described and shown in Source 4.45. Create a web page or design a one-page news sheet about the gladiator fights. As the 'sports reporter' you should plan your main story, smaller stories and headlines. You could:

- Include interviews or statements from characters such as the emperor, spectators, gladiators and animal handlers, showing their differing viewpoints.
- Give names to your characters. Roman male names often ended in -us, such as Porcia, Julia and Paulus.

A gladiator was armed with a short dagger, a shield and a weighted net. The net was used to entangle the opponent's weapons, hands or feet. He had no armour left on his body. If he was the fight, he would hit his opponent with the dagger or sword.

A gladiator was usually pitted against the three-headed boar. The boar was trained to kill the gladiator by using its tusks. A gladiator had to kill quickly before he lost from the lack of oxygen inside the arena.

A gladiator carried a short sword or dagger and a shield. The sword was used to kill the opponent. The gladiator's legs were protected by greaves and his thighs with padding. The helmet's grille protected his face and eyes, and a deep collar protected his neck.

A gladiator carried a short, curved sword and a small shield. His lower leg was protected by greaves and his thighs with padding. The helmet's grille protected his face and eyes, and a deep collar protected his neck.

Each **Checkpoint** is supported by a set of three separate student worksheets available electronically (as part of the Teacher obook). These worksheets are graded to **support, consolidate or extend** students of different abilities and personalise learning in your class. Like Checkpoint questions, student worksheets are linked to content dot points and skills from the syllabus with the goal of providing tailored support to ensure better results.

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	DEPTH STUDY 1 Investigating the Ancient Past (including ancient Australia). Core study – mandatory for all students	DEPTH STUDY 4 The Western and Islamic World. ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 4a > The Vikings Topic 4b > Medieval Europe Topic 4c > The Ottoman Empire Topic 4d > Renaissance Italy
	DEPTH STUDY 2 The Mediterranean World. ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 2a > Egypt Topic 2b > Greece Topic 2c > Rome	DEPTH STUDY 5 The Asia-Pacific World. ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 5a > Angkor/Khmer Empire Topic 5b > Japan under the Shoguns Topic 5c > The Polynesian expansion across the Pacific
	DEPTH STUDY 3 The Asian World. ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 3a > India Topic 3b > China	DEPTH STUDY 6 Expanding Contacts. ONE of the following to be studied: Topic 6a > Mongol expansion Topic 6b > The Black Death in Asia, Europe and Africa Topic 6c > The Spanish Conquest of the Americas Topic 6d > Aboriginal and Indigenous Peoples, Colonisation and Contact History
HISTORICAL CONCEPTS	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	Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts	• read and understand historical texts • sequence historical events and periods (ACHHS205, ACHHS148) • use historical terms and concepts (ACHHS206, ACHHS149)
	Analysis and use of sources	• 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)
	Perspectives and interpretations	• identify and describe different perspectives of participants in a particular historical context (ACHHS212, ACHHS155)
	Empathetic understanding	• interpret history within the context of the actions, attitudes and motives of people in the context of the past (ACHHS212, ACHHS155)
	Research	• 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
	Explanation and communication	• 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)

PART

1



THE ANCIENT WORLD: AN OVERVIEW DEPTH STUDY 1: INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST

STUDENTS MUST COMPLETE
THE FOLLOWING TOPIC:

INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST

1

CHAPTER



This engraved bone tool from northern Italy (c. 5 BC) is the kind of artefact that interests historians and archaeologists because of what it can tell us about human origins.

OVERVIEW OF THE ANCIENT WORLD

60 000 BC–AD 650

Modern humans have existed on Earth for about 200 000 years. Over this immense stretch of time, there have been two major changes in all of human **history**:

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

These critical changes in human history took place from 60 000 BC to AD 650. This is the period of history that you will be studying this year. 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.



OUT OF AFRICA?

There is still argument among the experts about when modern humans first appeared and then spread to different parts of the world. Most historians currently favour 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 O.1 shows the spread of humans from their beginnings in East Africa to other parts of the world.

Some scholars argue that early humans developed simultaneously in different parts of the world. However, **fossil** and genetic evidence strongly supports the ‘Out of Africa’ theory.

Indigenous Australian traditions

Indigenous Australians have traditionally claimed that their ancestors originated in Australia rather than migrating from elsewhere. Are they correct in rejecting the ‘Out of Africa’ theory? In 2001, **DNA** test results indicated that remains found in Australia were older than anything found in Africa. Not all experts agree with this research and argument continues. What we do know, however, is that the famous Australian Mungo Man skeleton is the oldest ritually buried human found anywhere in the world.



Source 0.1 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 0.2 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.



REVIEW 0.1

- 1 In your own words, outline the 'Out of Africa' theory.
- 2 How does archaeological evidence such as Source 0.2 support this theory?
- 3 What is the traditional view of Indigenous Australians about their origins?

FROM FORAGING TO FARMING

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** (the time before recorded events), experts tell us that the lives of these communities would have been exceptionally 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.

Source 0.3 One of the paintings found in the Lascaux caves in France. They were painted by hunter-gatherers who lived in Europe between about 20 000 and 9000 years ago.



REVIEW 0.2

- 1 What evidence does Source 0.3 provide about early hunter-gatherers in Europe?
- 2 Why did some hunter-gatherers become more settled?
- 3 What do the origins of the ancient Egyptian, Chinese and Indian civilisations have in common?

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 were found around 15 000 years ago in Mesopotamia, around the Tigris and Euphrates rivers in modern Turkey and Iraq, and along the Nile valley.

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 surpluses of food. This allowed time for building, for study, for art and for 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 grew from the early farming communities that appeared along the fertile banks of the Nile River.
- The ancient Chinese civilisation grew initially from the farming communities that sprang up in valleys along the Yellow River.
- The ancient Indian civilisation emerged from the early farming communities that appeared along the fertile valley of the Indus River.

EVIDENCE OF ANCIENT SOCIETIES

As early farming communities developed into **societies**, interaction between people increased, and people 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.

Art

Archaeologists think early rock art, such as the example shown in Source 0.3, may have been a 'magical' ritual to ensure success in an important activity, such as a hunt. Later, as Source 0.5 shows, ancient art often became more elaborate and symbolic. For many societies, it became an important part of funeral and religious rituals.

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, the more privileged people in different societies might have had inscriptions made on their tombs. 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.

APPLY 0.1

- 1 Look up three definitions of the term 'culture', then write a definition in your own words.



Source 0.4 A reconstructed beaker from Bronze Age Britain



Source 0.5 Detail from a decorated panel found in a royal tomb at Ur, a city in ancient Sumer



Source 0.6 Clay tablet displaying a cuneiform script used by the ancient Sumerians

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 performed during the festival that told the myths and legends of the god.

Rituals and ceremonies

As beliefs evolved to explain the mysteries of life, people began to share myths and legends to spread and share those beliefs, such as the Dreaming stories in ancient Australia. Rituals and ceremonies helped to reinforce these beliefs. These ceremonies could involve:

- the making of talismans (small objects like lucky charms) that people believed could protect them from things they could not control
- sacrifices
- ceremonies involving 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
- laws and taboos to ensure certain behaviours would be observed (such as a punishment for killing an animal regarded as sacred)
- particular funeral practices (such as preparing the dead for an afterlife).

Source 0.7

Children from the Aboriginal Mona Mayiwumba performing a traditional ceremony

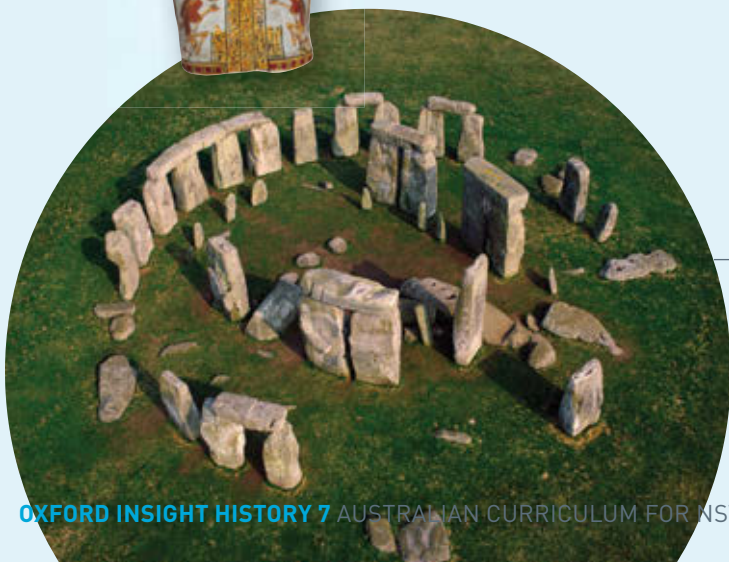


Source 0.8 The outer coffin of Henettaway, identified as 'mistress of the house and chantress of Amun-Re (Egypt's main god). The symbols all have religious significance and panels of hieroglyphs (ancient Egyptian writing) divide the illustrations.

REVIEW 0.3

- 1 How did ancient peoples respond to events in their lives that seemed mysterious or frightening?
- 2 Why is a culture more likely to evolve when small communities develop into societies?
- 3 Pick two of the examples of evidence from ancient societies. What evidence do they provide about the ancient peoples who created, performed or made use of them?

Source 0.9 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, and one which chose to spend an enormous amount of time and energy to construct the monument.



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.

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 trade goods. 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

As mentioned earlier, 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 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 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.

APPLY 0.2

- 1 Conduct research to locate a map of the region where farming is thought to have first begun, and find out why this region was called the Fertile Crescent.

APPLY 0.3

- 1 Create a concept map to summarise the information on this page about the key features of ancient societies.
- 2 In groups of five, choose one of the features and investigate this in relation to one or more ancient societies. Share the results of your investigation with the group, making sure you include interesting facts and relevant images.
- 3 Use this group information to expand upon your original concept map.

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'.

ANCIENT CIVILISATIONS

Some of the world's most significant ancient civilisations developed on the continents we know as Africa, Europe and Asia. Source O.10 shows the location, size and key information about these ancient civilisations. Source O.11 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 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 under one government, with a pharaoh as the ultimate authority. Between 3100 BC and 30 BC, when the last pharaoh died, there were 31 dynasties and 70 pharaohs.

Ancient Greece (c. 800–146 BC)

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 400 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.

Ancient Rome (753 BC–AD 476)

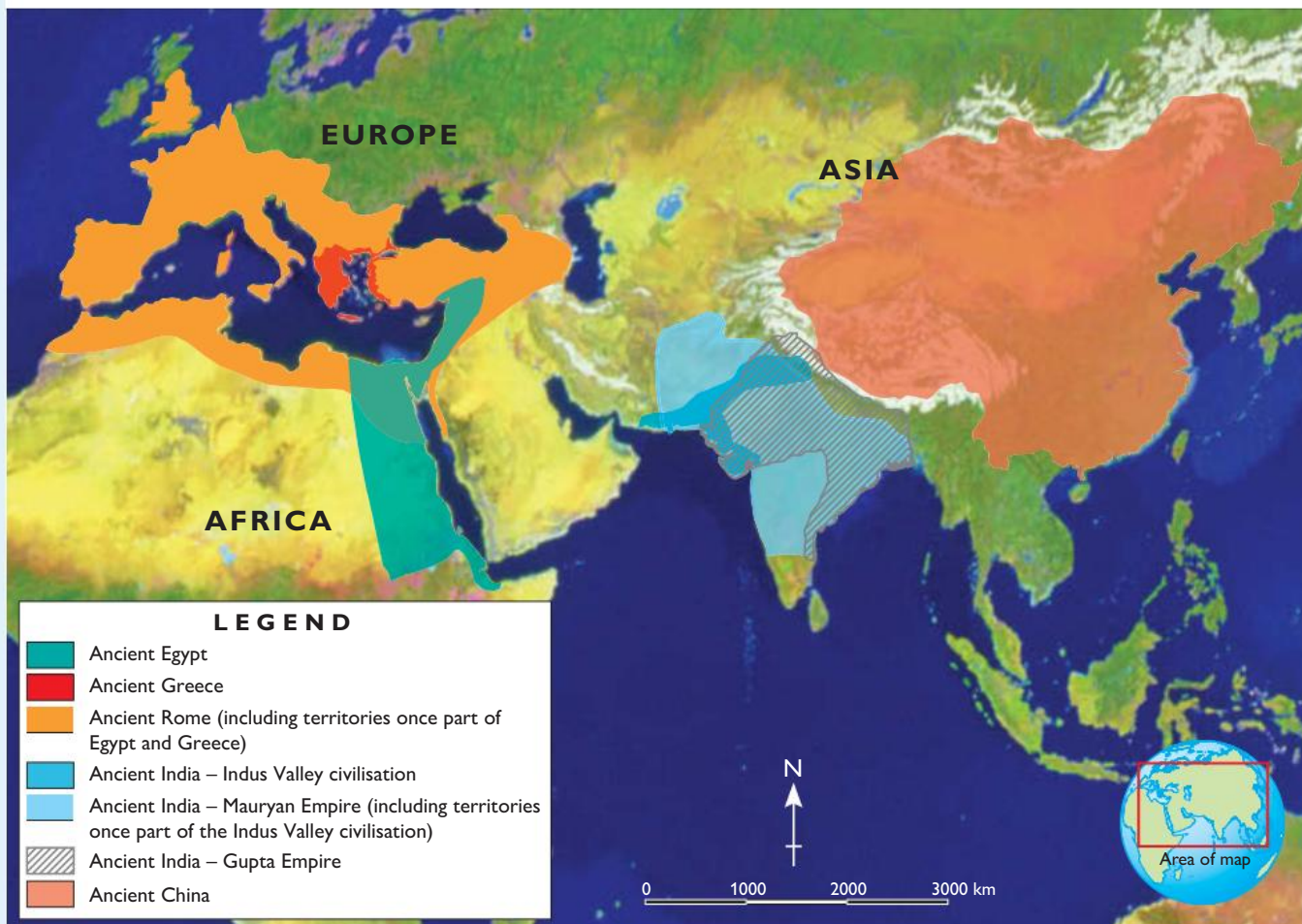
The civilisation of ancient Rome lasted approximately 1300 years. It was centred around the city of Rome, in modern-day Italy. The Romans conquered the ancient Egyptians and Greeks, as well as many other peoples. During its history, Rome was ruled as a monarchy, a republic and an empire. It was a powerful civilisation with a strong military and an advanced culture.

Ancient India (3500 BC–AD 550)

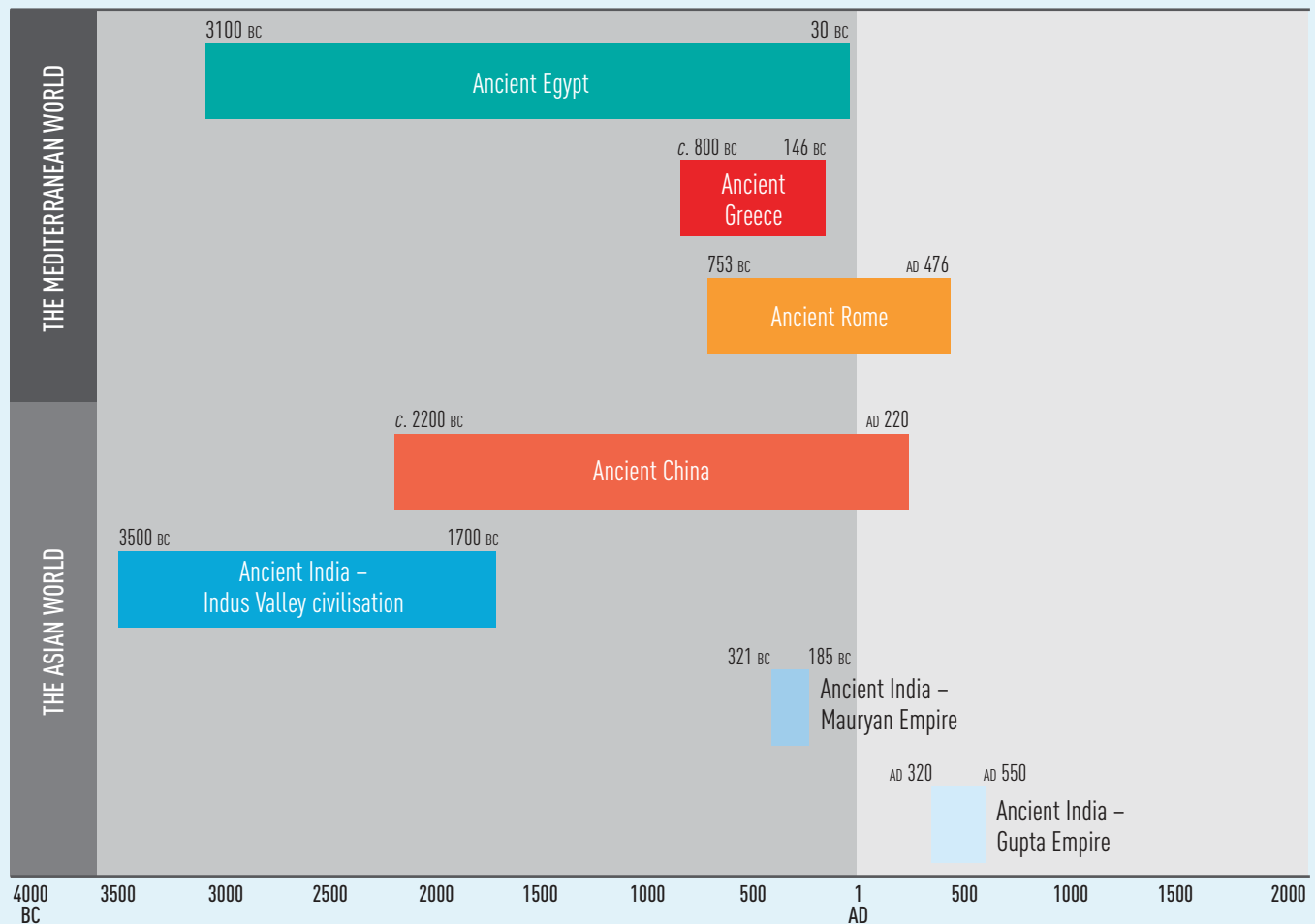
Civilisation in India began in the Indus Valley in 3500 BC. For much of its history, ancient India was a collection of separate regions and kingdoms, some of which were at war with one another. At different times, some of these were ruled as part of dynasties or empires; these included the Mauryan Empire, whose authority rose and fell in just 120 years, and the Gupta Empire.

Ancient China (c. 2200 BC–AD 1912)

Ancient China was ruled for 3600 years by dynasties (families). The Han Dynasty ended in AD 200, 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.



Source O.10 The location and size of key ancient civilisations when they were at their peak



APPLY 0.4

- 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.
- Consider the ancient civilisations we are looking at.
 - 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 0.11 A timeline showing the rise and fall of key ancient civilisations

In this course you will study three Depth Study options, as well content from the Overview sections.

DEPTH STUDY 1: Investigating the ancient past

This is the core study and is mandatory for all students.

DEPTH STUDY 2: The Mediterranean world

This depth study offers a choice of three options:

- ancient Egypt
- ancient Greece
- ancient Rome.

You are required to study one of these options.

DEPTH STUDY 3: The Asian world

This depth study offers a choice of two options:

- ancient China
- ancient India.

You are required to study one of these options.



Source 1.1 This *Homo sapiens* skull – about 100 000 years old – was found in Israel in 1988.

INVESTIGATING THE ANCIENT PAST

History is the study 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. They investigate historical mysteries and piece together accurate pictures of what life was like in days gone by. They also look for patterns – 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.

1.1

SECTION

- » outline the main features of the study of history and archaeology
- » outline the role of historians and archaeologists
- » describe the different ways that archaeologists and historians approach historical investigations
- » define terms and concepts of historical time

CHECKPOINT 1.1

1.2

SECTION

- » list a range of sources used by archaeologists and historians

CHECKPOINT 1.2

1.3

SECTION

- » examine a historical controversy or mystery using the process of historical investigation

CHECKPOINT 1.3

1.4

SECTION

- » locate and describe a variety of sources for ancient Australia
- » pose questions to investigate what these sources reveal about Australia's ancient past

CHECKPOINT 1.4

1.5

SECTION

- » identify ancient sites that have disappeared, are threatened or have been protected
- » identify how archaeological and historical records are preserved
- » describe an Australian site that has preserved the heritage of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples
- » examine the UNESCO World Heritage criteria and explain why it is important to preserve and conserve an ancient site

CHECKPOINT 1.5

1.1

SECTION

HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORY?

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 every day. We also look at the work of archaeologists and other experts, and explore how time is measured and talked about in history.

HISTORY IS INVESTIGATION

STRANGE BUT TRUE

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

The word 'history' comes from the ancient Greek word *historia*, which means 'investigation'. Understanding that history is an on-going 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
- evaluate the usefulness 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.

APPLY 1.1

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

- 1 Consider some issues that you think are of interest to people today.
 - a Hold a class discussion and come up with a list. Three examples are:
 - global warming and the challenges to our environment
 - violence and wars caused by racial and religious hatred
 - the cost of living.
 - b In one sentence, write down your own theory or hypothesis.
- 2 Watch the television news or study newspaper articles over the course of a week. Make a list of the main news stories and how often they are included in the news. Compare your results with your hypothesis.
- 3 Confirm or modify your hypothesis based on the evidence you have gathered.

Investigating the mysteries of the Sphinx

The Great Sphinx is an ancient monument located near the pyramids at Giza in Egypt. It features the body of a lion and the head of a man, 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 much 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 still remain a mystery. Uncovering the secrets of the past is not always easy, and historians do not always agree.



Source 1.2 The Great Sphinx

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 Thutmosis 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.

Whose face is on the Sphinx?

Many historians say it 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.

APPLY 1.2

- 1 Develop three inquiry questions about any aspects of the Sphinx that especially interest you. Before you write down your questions:
 - read the information in the text about previous findings and theories about the Sphinx and do your own research on the internet or in the library
 - 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 (this will also help you to select sources to continue your investigation later on in the topic).

The role of archaeologists and other experts

Historians rely on the work of many other experts when conducting their investigations. These include:

- **anthropologists** – study the behaviours and customs of human societies
- **archaeologists** – uncover and interpret sources from the past, including the remains of people, buildings and **artefacts**
- **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, called upon when investigating ancient bodies
- **geophysical surveyors** – 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.

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.

Archaeologists locate and uncover sources of evidence of past peoples. This can include 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; even 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.

Excavating archaeological sites

Most sources found on land are buried. They might be covered by the silt of past floods, covered 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.



Source 1.3

Archaeologists exploring the wreck of a ship that sank in the Mediterranean Sea during the 11th century.



Source 1.4 A photo of an archaeological dig

REVIEW 1.1

- 1 Use a flow chart to outline the process of historical inquiry.
- 2 What types of experts do you think may have been involved in studying the Sphinx?
- 3 Why are archaeological sites often buried underground?
- 4 Look at Source 1.3.
 - a In the photo there is a grid-like outline on the sea bed. What do you think is its purpose?
 - b Explain what the archaeologists are likely to do with any artefacts they bring to the surface.

TIME IN HISTORY

EXTEND 1.1

- 1 Investigate and report on the number of different calendars used in the world, such as the Jewish calendar, the Islamic calendar and the Chinese calendar.
- 2 During the French Revolution, beginning in 1789, the revolutionaries attempted to create new calendar months. What names did they choose, and why?

To help us understand the past it is useful to know when, and in what order, events happen. 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 will 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 1.5, which was used by the ancient Maya Empire of Mezoamerica (Central America).

As societies became more advanced they developed systems – such as calendars – to both plan and record time, not only in days, but 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 to we record time. There are also currently a number of other calendars used around the world, including the Jewish, Islamic and Chinese calendars.

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).

Source 1.5 A sundial used to measure time by the Maya



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

Source 1.6 Most countries around the world today use the Gregorian calendar, which was introduced by Pope Gregory XIII in 1582.

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'.

Measures of time – decades, centuries and millennia

There are 10 years in each **decade**, 100 years in a **century** and 1000 years in a **millennium**. Source 1.7 shows examples of the start and end dates of centuries, using the terms **BC** and **AD**. The 1st century **BC** ends with 1 **BC** and we count further back to the past. The 1st 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.

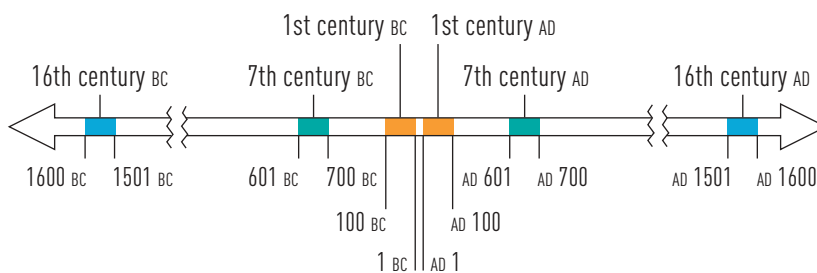
Source 1.7 Examples of the start and end dates of centuries

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

Timelines

Timelines are a useful way to visually represent the scope of a time period, and to show the sequence of events. Source 1.8 gives a more immediate idea of the scope of time than the same dates presented in the table format of Source 1.7.

Source 1.11 gives a step-by-step guide to constructing timelines, including common timeline features. (A further example and activities on timelines can be found in 'The historian's toolkit'.)



Source 1.8 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.

Dating in history

Historians use a range of methods to date past events. For the recent past and where there are written sources it is fairly easy, but dating 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 the next section.) 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.



Source 1.9 A wall painting from ancient Egypt showing a battle using horse-drawn chariots



Source 1.10 An artist's impression of the building of the Great Wall of China

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, the reason being that you cannot build 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 is 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 be available to hunter-gatherers who had to spend most of their time and energy finding food.

APPLY 1.3

1 The list below includes pairs of related events. Find the pairs and then order the events in each pair as shown in the relative dating examples above. 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 Moon landing |
| • the first space flight | • discovery of the atom |
| • the discovery of electricity | • permanent settlement by the British in Australia |
| • horses are tamed and used for transport and labour | • the appearance of horse shoes |
| • construction of the first Egyptian pyramids | • electric fans |
| | • the explosion of the first atomic bomb |
| | • the opening of your school. |

2 Use the step-by-step guide shown in Source 1.11 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 | • rockets – AD 1232 |
| • silk – 2700 BC | • car – AD 1885 |
| • alphabet – 1100 BC | • personal computer – AD 1964 |
| • paper – AD 900 | • DVD – AD 1998 |

Source 1.11 Step-by-step guide to drawing timelines

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-year blocks. A timeline showing what you did yesterday might be divided into hours; one showing key events in the 20th 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

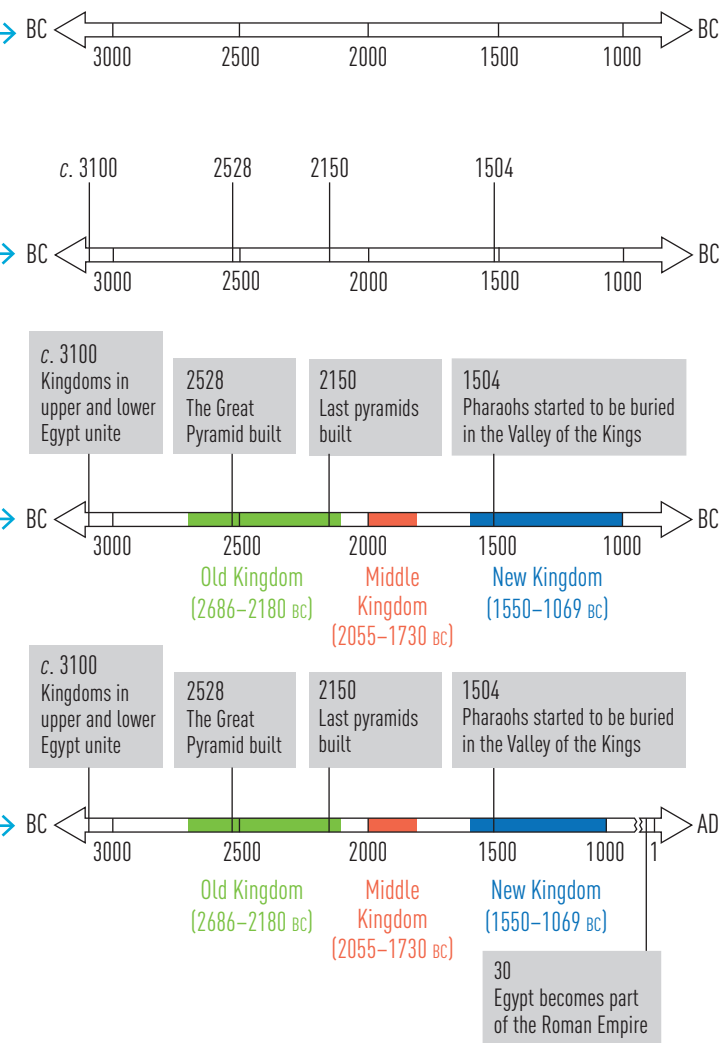
Provide a brief description of the dates plotted on the timeline, describing the events that took place.

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.



REVIEW 1.2

- 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 3rd century BC
 - b 20th century AD
- 4 In which centuries were the following dates?
 - a AD 1996
 - 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.

1.1

CHECKPOINT

HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORY?

» Outline the main features of the study of history and archaeology

- 1 Explain the purpose and importance of the study of history. (10 marks)
- 2 What is the difference between the study of history and archaeology? (5 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. (15 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. (15 marks)

» Describe the different ways that archaeologists and historians approach historical investigations

- 5 Outline the skills and technologies employed by historians and archaeologists during a historical investigation. (20 marks)

» Define terms and concepts of historical time

- 6 Define the following terms:
 - a chronology
 - b BC and AD
 - c BCE and CE
 - d *circa*
 - e decade, century and millennium
 - f timeline
 - g relative dating and absolute dating. (15 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/80]

RICH TASKS

Your own investigation

Locate an artefact, document or other source of evidence that interests you, either found 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.

Thinking about history

Source 1.12 is a collection of quotes about history from well-known philosophers, scholars, politicians and others.

- 1 Read and talk about the quotes in class and at home. Consider what you think each of them means. Open a document or copy each of them in to your notebook and then underneath re-write them in your own words to make sure that the meaning is clear.
- 2 Make a brief note under each quote indicating whether or not you agree with the statement and the reason for your view.
- 3 Next, approach these sources like a historian and do some research on each of the people who made these comments about history. Finding out about the people might provide clues about their perspectives – their biases, likes and dislikes and qualifications.

- 4 Has your view of any of the quotes changed after talking about them in class or as a result of your finding out about the people who made them?



History is ... the study of questions.

W.H. Auden, English poet



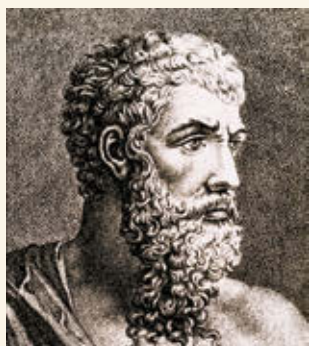
History is more or less bunk [useless].

Henry Ford, American industrialist



There is nothing new except what has been forgotten.

Marie Antoinette, wife of Louis XVI of France



If you would understand anything, observe its beginnings.

Aristotle, philosopher of ancient Greece



What is history but a fable agreed upon?

Napoleon Bonaparte, French general and emperor



History teaches everything, including the future.

Lamartine, French writer



It's just one damned thing after another.

Arnold Toynbee, English historian



To be ignorant of what happened before you were born is to be ever a child.

Cicero, Roman writer and politician

Source 1.12 What some famous people have had to say about history

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

1.2

SECTION

WHAT TYPES OF SOURCES ARE USED IN HISTORICAL INVESTIGATIONS?

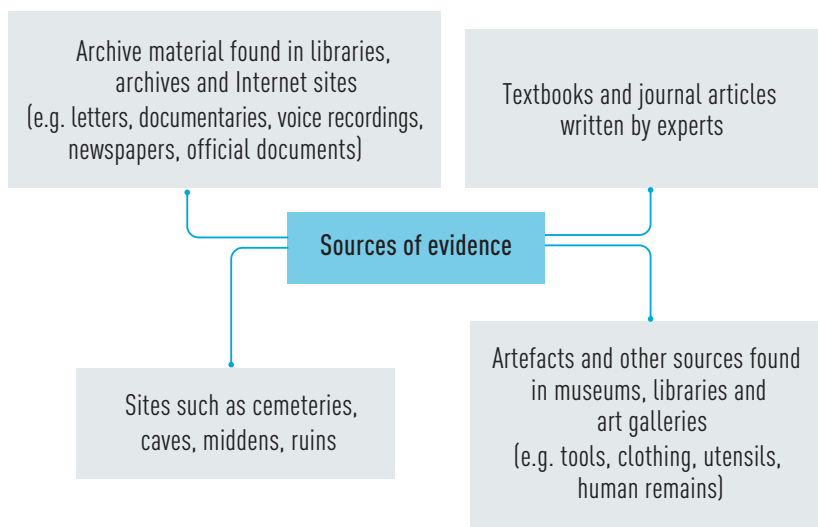
A historian is constantly looking for and checking clues. This means looking for **evidence**, the information gathered from historical **sources**. In this section we look at the sources of evidence used by historians, and the dating methods used by archaeologists to provide evidence about the age of ancient sources.

GATHERING EVIDENCE FROM A RANGE OF SOURCES

Historians do not always agree on evidence, even when it is gathered from the same source. They often have different opinions or points of view. 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 1.13. 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 1.13 Some sources of evidence for a historical inquiry

Evaluating sources

Historians evaluate a source by asking questions such as:

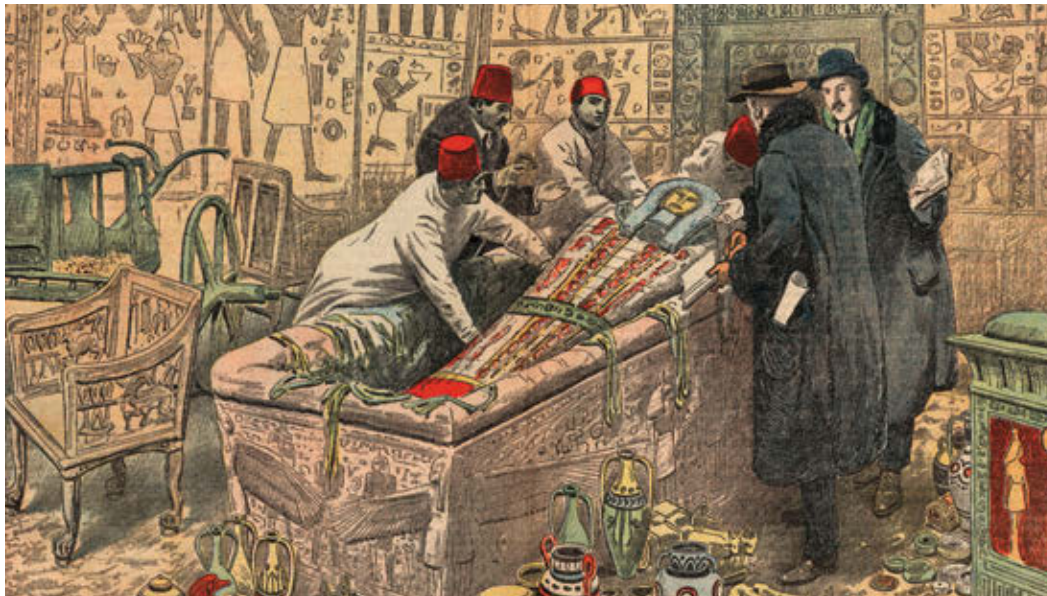
- How old is the source?
- Who made or created it, or where did it come from?
- Does it come from a trustworthy source?
- What motives might have been behind its creation?
- Are there any gaps and silences in the evidence it presents? (That is, is there anything missing, has the source been damaged, is there something that the creator has deliberately left out, and, 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; stone carvings and other artefacts.
- *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.



Source 1.14

A photograph taken in 1922 shows British archaeologist Howard Carter leaving the tomb of Tutankhamun. He is holding a box of artefacts made by ancient Egyptians. Both 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 1.15

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.

Oral history

Some cultures, such as that of the Indigenous peoples of Australia, 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.

Digital sources

A web search can provide a huge amount of possible source material for historians and researchers. However, as anyone can post material on the Internet, 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, academic institutions, museums and libraries. These websites have material that has been written, edited and reviewed by experts.

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 1.16

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 1.17

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 1.18

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 1.19 A modern artist's interpretation of the Colossus of Rhodes

Source 1.20

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 1.1

- 1 In your notebook, create a table like the one below. Rank the sources from most (1) to the least (5) reliable (think about who created them, and why). Justify your choices for the highest-ranked and lowest-ranked sources.

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.
 - When was the statue built?
 - How tall was it?
 - When did the statue fall and why?

Which is the primary source? At what point in the history of the statue was it written?

REVIEW 1.3

- 1 List some of the sources of evidence used by historians.
- 2 What is the difference between a primary and a secondary source?
- 3 Classify the list of sources set out below as either primary sources or secondary sources. Explain the reasons for your answers.
 - a program from the opening of the Sydney Harbour Bridge in 1932
 - 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
 - a newsreel film taken at the time of Dawn Fraser winning the 100 metres freestyle at the Melbourne Olympics in 1956
 - scenes from the film *Dawn* made in 1978 about the life of Dawn Fraser
 - the film *Marco Polo* made in 2000
 - an interview in 2009 with the actor Harrison Ford about the making in 1981 of the film *Raiders of the Lost Ark*
 - the Sydney Harbour Bridge
 - a painting of the Sydney Harbour Bridge painted by a 20-year-old artist in 2009
 - a TV debate in 2007 between historians about the Japanese Midget Submarine attack on Sydney Harbour in 1942
 - 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.

METHODS AND SOURCES USED 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 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.



Source 1.21 The Serpent Mound

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 1.21). 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 by erosion. The 5000-year-old remains of Ötzi the Iceman were found in 1991, after an unusually warm summer melted ice high up in the Ötztal Alps on the border between Austria and Italy (see Source 1.22).



Source 1.22 The remains of Ötzi the Iceman

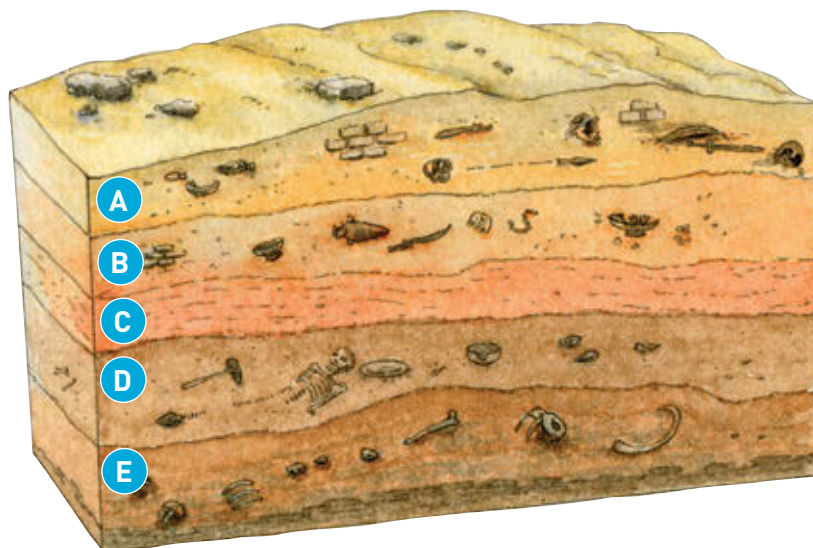
Dating methods

Many of the experts called on to help historians and archaeologists with their investigations use state-of-the-art technologies to work out the likely age of sources. As we defined in the unit 'Time in history', some techniques described 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, as 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 1.23). 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.



Source 1.23 A diagram showing how different artefacts can be found in different strata, generally arranged according to their age

INTERPRET 1.2

Look carefully at Source 1.23.

- 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 right-hand side of this section of earth. Layer A on the right-hand side dropped down to align with Layer D on the left-hand side.
 - a Draw a simple sketch to represent this drop in your workbook.
 - b Explain why it would be misleading for an archaeologist to say that the smashed disc on the right-hand side was older than the skeleton on the left-hand side.

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 item 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.



Source 1.24 Radiocarbon dating can determine the likely age of once-living remains, such as this mummified corpse.



Source 1.25 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 wood 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 have identified plant DNA from the amphorae 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.



Source 1.26 A krater, a large pot from ancient Greece used to dilute wine by mixing it with water.

EXTEND 1.2

- 1 With a partner, study the cross-section of the tree trunk shown in Source 1.25. Work out how old this tree is and share your findings with your partner. Discuss any differences.

REVIEW 1.4

- 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 Draw and label a diagram to show your understanding of what radiocarbon dating involves.
- 4 Identify the techniques that would be useful in analysing:
 - a the ancient human remains and possible artefacts found in Source 1.24
 - b the artefact shown in Source 1.26.
- 5 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.

1.2

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

WHAT TYPES OF SOURCES ARE USED IN HISTORICAL INVESTIGATIONS?

» List a range of sources used by archaeologists and historians

- 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. (50 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASK

Unearthing Richard III

In February 2013, experts confirmed that a 500-year-old skeleton found under a car park in Leicester, England, was that of King Richard III, the last English king to die in battle. The burial place of the king had been long forgotten. In September 2012, archaeologists who had been searching for Richard discovered and excavated the battle-scarred skeleton.

Conduct research to find out how historians, archaeologists and scientists discovered and identified the remains of Richard III. Present your findings in a written report, including information and sources about:

- the range of experts involved in this investigation
- the dating and other techniques that were used to identify the remains..



Source 1.27 Michael Ibsen, a descendant of King Richard III, with a facial reconstruction made from the recently discovered skull of the king



Source 1.28 A skeleton found buried under a car park in September 2012 was identified as the remains of England's King Richard III, after investigations by the experts at the University of Leicester.

1.3

SECTION

HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORICAL MYSTERIES?

In this section we will look at some of the historical mysteries that have puzzled modern historians and archaeologists. By examining these investigations, we can learn how historians and archaeologists went about solving some of the mysteries of the ancient past – in particular, those relating to the remains of ancient bodies. We also consider the key historical concepts that helped historians investigate and understand the past in order to solve these mysteries.

INVESTIGATING HISTORICAL MYSTERIES

EXTEND 1.3

1 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.

The mystery of Tollund Man

Tollund Man was found more than 2 metres below the surface of a peat bog near Tollund, Denmark, in 1950. (Peat is decomposed vegetable matter that can be burned as fuel when dried.) The eyes and mouth of the man were closed. He was about 150 cm 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 further research and testing are detailed in Source 1.30.



Source 1.29 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.

Investigating Tollund Man

SOURCE STUDY

Source 1.30 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 1.3

Read the information in Source 1.30 to answer the following questions.

- 1 Tollund Man appears to have been strangled.
 - a What evidence is there that Germanic people hanged traitors?
 - b Does the treatment of the body after death suggest Tollund Man was a traitor? Explain.
- 2 It is believed that Tollund Man died in the spring.
 - a How did researchers determine that he died in the spring?
 - b 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

At times 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

- **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 about the past.

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

APPLY 1.4

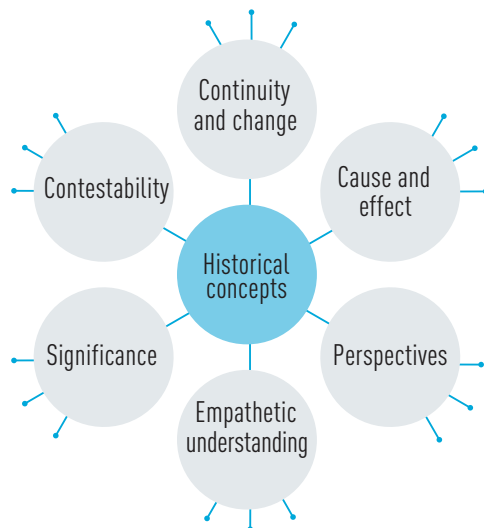
- 1 Understanding *perspectives*: write two or three paragraphs about what you remember happening in the classroom during your previous history class. Share what you have written with others in a small group. Then discuss what this exercise taught you about the situation historians face with presented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



APPLY 1.5

- 1 In Apply 1.2 you developed 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 the question.
 - 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, audiovisual presentation or some other form.

REVIEW 1.5



- 1 Copy the graphic organiser on the left into your notebook and add an outer ring of bubbles in which you provide at least one example that relates to each of the historical concepts. Examples could come from your research into the Great Sphinx, or other investigations and material from this chapter. Add to your organiser as you progress through your depth study topics this year.

Source 1.31 Key historical concepts

HOW DO HISTORIANS AND ARCHAEOLOGISTS INVESTIGATE HISTORICAL MYSTERIES?

» Examine a historical controversy or mystery using the process of historical investigation

- 1 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. Consider:
 - their hypotheses
 - the tools and methods they used
 - the sources of evidence they used. (50 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/50]

RICH TASKS

Key historical concepts

Read about the key concepts *cause and effect*, *continuity and change* and *perspectives*. As a class, select any recent major event in the news that all class members are reasonably familiar with. Through discussion, identify:

- how this event might demonstrate the principles of cause and effect
- to what extent it is an example of continuity and change
- what different perspectives, or points of view, there might be about the event.

A history mystery: the Minoans and the bull-leaping fresco

The ancient Minoan civilisation flourished on the island of Crete between around 2000 and 1400 BC. Because we cannot read the written language of the ancient Minoans, their civilisation remains one of the great mysteries of the ancient world. The image below, known as the bull-leaping **fresco** (an image painted onto wet plaster), was found in the Knossos Palace on Crete.

- 1 Conduct research to find out more about the culture and customs of the Minoans.



Source 1.32

The bull-leaping fresco painted by Minoans around 3500 years ago.

- 2 Look at Source 1.32 and write a paragraph describing what you see.
- 3 Write a hypothesis stating your view on the question, 'Did bull-leaping actually take place in ancient Minoan society or is it a legend?'
- 4 Have a class discussion to share your ideas.
- 5 Confirm or modify your hypothesis and write a persuasive text based on your research, setting out what you think is being shown in the fresco.

1.3

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

1.4

SECTION

WHAT DO SOURCES REVEAL ABOUT AUSTRALIA'S ANCIENT PAST?

In this section, we will consider the particular issues involved in the study of ancient Australia, including the stories and artefacts of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples who have the world's oldest continuous culture.

SOURCES FROM ANCIENT AUSTRALIA

There are two types of sources that can be used to investigate Australia's ancient past: oral accounts and archaeological evidence.

Oral accounts of the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples

These are the collected stories that the first Australians used to tell their story and record their customs, rituals and laws. This oral tradition does not operate on a timeline from oldest to the most recent, rather their history centres on the importance of home, place and country. It tells stories about places rather than times or historical periods. For example, **Dreamtime** stories explain the origins of life and are passed on from generation to generation (see Source 1.33).

Archaeological evidence

Because there is no written evidence, archaeologists also rely on the remaining archaeological evidence. Sources of evidence include burial sites and middens, rock engravings and rock paintings, and artefacts such as tools and fossils. Sources 1.34 and 1.35 are examples of these archaeological sources. (Examples of ancient paintings can also be seen in Source 1.39.)

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, Kururwarri/Yuendumu Doors, Australian Institute of Aboriginal Studies, Canberra, 1987, Door 29, p. 127



Source 1.34 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 1.35 Rock engravings at a site on the central coast, north of Sydney. This engraving depicts fish, an eel and a shield.

INTERPRET 1.4

Study Sources 1.34 and 1.35.

- 1 Describe each source in your own words.
- 2 Which scientific dating techniques could be useful in analysing each of these sources?
- 3 What might each source tell us about life in ancient Australia?
- 4 Use the sources and question starters such as *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, *why* and *how* to develop three inquiry questions about ancient Australia.

REVIEW 1.6

- 1 What are the two types of sources of evidence used to investigate the history of Australia's Indigenous people?
- 2 How is the Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander tradition of recording history different from the Western/European tradition?
- 3 What are Dreamtime stories?

MYSTERIES OF ANCIENT AUSTRALIA

Human occupation in ancient Australia

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 Australians 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. It is important to note that Indigenous Australians believe that their ancestors originated here, rather than that they arrived from elsewhere.

Archaeological evidence of humans in Australia

In the 1960s, experts suggested that Indigenous Australians had lived here 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. Archaeologists today generally agree that the evidence for human occupation in Australia dates back to around 60 000 years ago. The results of thermoluminescence dating on rock sediments found around artefacts in the Northern Territory have even suggested a doubling of this estimate to around 120 000 years. We may never know for sure, as rising sea levels have covered what would have been the earliest occupation sites in northern Australia. However, new technologies and discoveries could provide new evidence in the future.

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 Bradshaw/Gwion Gwion paintings located in Western Australia's Kimberley region.

Source 1.36 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. Some, but not all, scientists think that Mungo Man is about 60 000 years old.



Source 1.37 Mungo Man

Kow Swamp

Kow Swamp is the location of the biggest ancient burial site in Australia so far found. A recent dating method called 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 human-looking 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** (an extremely cold time within an ice age). 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.

Source 1.38 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



The Bradshaw or Gwion Gwion rock paintings

The Bradshaw or Gwion Gwion rock paintings are located in Western Australia's Kimberley region. (Gwion Gwion is the name local Indigenous people use for the area.) A European cattleman, Joseph Bradshaw, spotted them 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, '[I]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 time, holds this latter view. Some argue that his position is racist. His claims have upset some Aboriginal groups and are strongly contested by some academic scholars.

SOURCE STUDY

The Bradshaw or Gwion Gwion rock paintings

Source 1.39

... 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 1.40 An example of the Bradshaw or Gwion Gwion rock paintings. Some show people with hair decorations, tassels and perhaps clothing. Some show boats with rudders.

Source 1.41

'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 1.42

... 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 naïve, 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 1.43

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 Mowanjumb, in the far north-west of the Kimberley, http://www.abc.net.au/dimensions/dimensions_in_time/Transcripts/s578480.htm

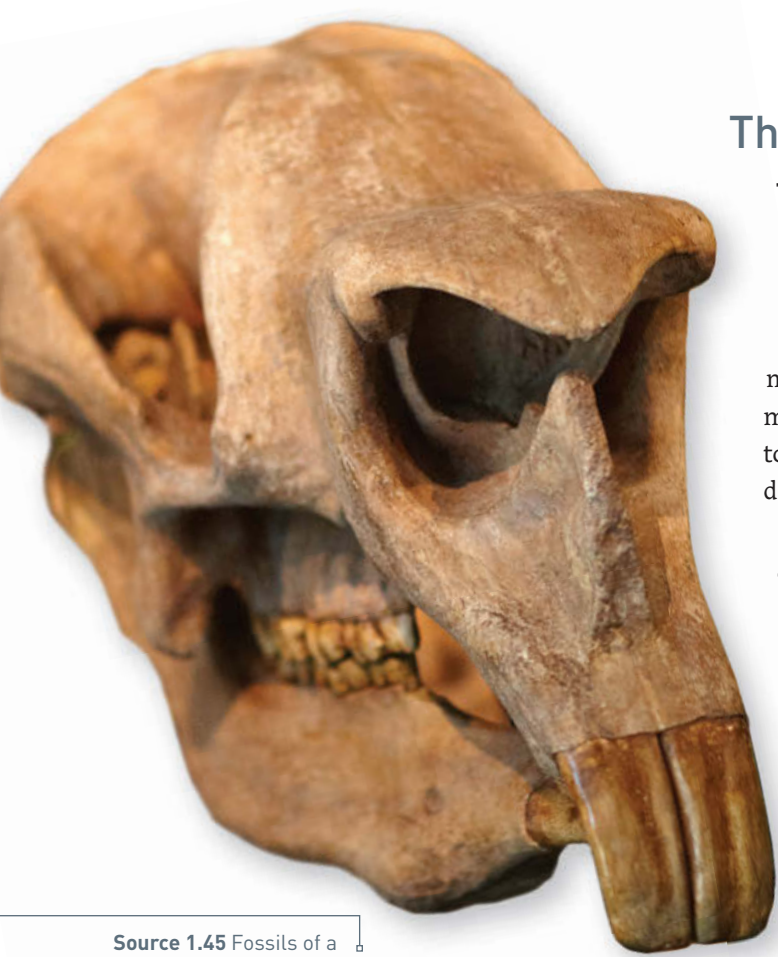
Source 1.44

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 1.5

- 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 Bradshaw people were among the ancestors of Aboriginal people?
- 4 Source 1.42 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 naïve'.
- 5 What is Billy King's perspective?



Source 1.45 Fossils of a Diprotodon, discovered at Lake Callabonna, South Australia

The fate of Australia's megafauna

The second mystery is the fate of the Australian megafauna, which were the giant marsupials – wombats, emus and kangaroos – that once lived in Australia but then became extinct. Source 1.45 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 the past decade, one of the most intense debates associated with Australia's ancient past was the question of whether or not Indigenous Australian hunters were responsible for the disappearance of Australian megafauna. As noted above, megafauna were the giant marsupials that lived in Australia and died out around about the same time as the appearance of Indigenous Australians.

There are two sides to the debate about the fate of megafauna. On one side, it is thought that the evidence points to megafauna being hunted to extinction by the first Australians. The other view claims that the disappearance of megafauna had more to do with climate change.



Source 1.46 An artist's impression of Australian megafauna, with Diprotodon shown centre rear

Source 1.47 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
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. Even if the Indigenous Australians didn't hunt and kill off the megafauna, the Indigenous Australian practice of fire-stick farming (burning off large areas of bush) changed the environment to one less favourable for large animals. There is an archaeological site at Cuddie Springs in New South Wales that seems to offer evidence that Indigenous Australians cut up megafauna for food. We have bones with cut marks on them.	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. 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 without the megafauna becoming extinct. We need to look at something other than the arrival of human hunters to explain the extinction. All that the site at Cuddie Springs proves is that megafauna were butchered. It does not mean that they were killed by hunters. The animals could have died near the springs due to lack of food.

APPLY 1.6

- 1 Conduct research to find out how Australian megafauna died out.
 - a Review the arguments set out in Source 1.47 that offer key parts of the case for both sides of the argument.
 - b Identify the strongest argument for each side and what you think is the weakest argument for each side.
- 2 Discuss the topic in class and at home. Share your thoughts and listen to the views of others.
- 3 Write a 100- to 200-word informative and persuasive text answering the question 'What caused the extinction of the Australian megafauna?'

EXTEND 1.4

- 1 The Willandra Lakes Region is one of Australia's World Heritage listed sites. On UNESCO's World Heritage List website, find the description and video for the Willandra Lakes Region 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?

REVIEW 1.7

- 1 According to the archaeological evidence, what is the earliest agreed-upon date of Indigenous Australian occupation of the continent? How is this different from the version offered by the Indigenous Australian oral tradition?
- 2 Conduct research on Australian megafauna.
 - a What are megafauna?
 - b Find out about three different megafauna that lived in ancient Australia.
- 3 Outline three instances where archaeologists, historians or Indigenous peoples have differing perspectives or interpretations about ancient sources in Australia.

1.4

CHECKPOINT

WHAT DO SOURCES REVEAL ABOUT AUSTRALIA'S ANCIENT PAST?

» Locate and describe a variety of sources for ancient Australia

- 1 What types of sources have been found for evidence of ancient Australia's earliest people and animals? Give examples for each type and state where they were located. (20 marks)

» Pose questions to investigate what these sources reveal about Australia's ancient past

- 2 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 (or others) to focus your thinking. (10 marks)

Question starters	Inquiry questions
Who	
What	
Where	
When	
Why	
How	

TOTAL MARKS [/30]

RICH TASKS

Investigating sources from ancient Australia

- 1 Read the information in this chapter about archaeologist evidence of ancient Australian people found at Lake Mungo in New South Wales, Kow Swamp in Victoria, and the Kimberley in Western Australia. Then conduct research to find out about five other significant sites.
- 2 Locate all the sites on a map of Australia. Add labels to provide a brief outline of each site, including the type of source found at the site, its estimated age and what it reveals about Australia's ancient past.
- 3 Work with a partner to conduct research about an Australian site that you both find interesting and want to learn more about.
 - a Choose one site to research and develop some inquiry questions.
 - b Conduct a historical investigation based on one of your inquiry questions, using the process of historical inquiry. Present the results of your investigation in a format approved by your teacher.

Ancient Australia site study

With your class or family, visit a historical Aboriginal site to see first-hand a source of evidence such as the rock engraving shown in Source 1.48. 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 an Aboriginal site, you can use a search engine to locate appropriate places to visit. Try using search terms such as 'aboriginal historical sites new south wales', 'aboriginal culture new south wales' or similar words. For example, 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 1.48 An Aboriginal rock engraving located north of Sydney. It depicts an ancestral hero wearing a headdress and carrying a club or woomera at his waist.

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

1.5

SECTION

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

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 entitled to enjoy the same appreciation of their heritage.

CONSERVING THE REMAINS OF THE ANCIENT PAST

The World Heritage List

UNESCO (the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization) 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 over 900 sites on the World Heritage List, including 19 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. 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.

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 and their relatives, no matter how distant in time.

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 1.49). 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.

Ancient sites under threat

Historical sources can be very fragile. Once exposed to the open air, pollution and humidity (water vapour in the air) can lead to deterioration 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 crush relics buried near the surface and sandbags are filled with soil that includes archaeological fragments. A reproduction of the Ishtar Gate has also suffered damaged since the Iraq War.

APPLY 1.7

- 1 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 Use a search engine to go to the UNESCO website. Once there, look for their selection criteria for inclusion on the UNESCO 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.
- 2 Conduct research using digital sources to identify ancient sites that have disappeared or are in danger of being lost through decay and deterioration.

Source 1.49 Detail from the temple of Rameses II at Abu Simbel in southern Egypt



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 studies describe how archaeologists and conservators have worked to preserve sources from the ancient past in Iraq and Egypt.

Conservation case study: 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 in 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 20th 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.

Source 1.50 A 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 1.51 The remains of the Processional Way at the start of the 20th century

Source 1.52 The reconstructed Ishtar Gate in the Pergamon Museum, Berlin

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. A conservation plan developed by the World Monument Fund and Iraq's State Board of Antiquities and Heritage includes diverting water 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.

Conservation case study: 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 18th 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.



Source 1.53 One of the paintings from the wall of Menna's tomb

Menna's tomb has proved to be very popular with tourists. Over time, the continuing 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.

REVIEW 1.8

- 1 Why are the remains of the ancient past important?
- 2 Explain why the physical remains from ancient Australia are significant for Indigenous Australians.
- 3 What is the World Heritage List?
- 4 Identify sites on the World Heritage List in Australia.
- 5 What roles do museums, galleries and libraries play in conserving the remains of the past?
- 6 Identify methods used by archaeologists and conservators to preserve the remains of the ancient past.

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

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

- 1 Select and give a brief report about three ancient sites that are of interest to you:
 - a one that has disappeared
 - b one that is threatened
 - c one that has been protected.For each site, provide information about its location and current status (what condition it is in and why). (30 marks)

» Identify how archaeological and historical records are preserved

- 2 Outline how archaeological sites can be preserved. (10 marks)
- 3 Outline how historical records and artefacts can be preserved. (10 marks)

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

- 4 Identify a site that has preserved the heritage of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples (refer to section 1.4 'What do sources reveal about Australia's ancient past?'). Include information about:
 - 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 to preserve and conserve an ancient site

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

TOTAL MARKS [/80]

RICH TASK

World Heritage List

Using a search engine, go to the current World Heritage List, and find the interactive map of the sites.

- 1 Select an ancient site and conduct research to find out why it is significant to world heritage.
- 2 Present your findings as a written, digital or oral presentation.

1.5

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

PART

2



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

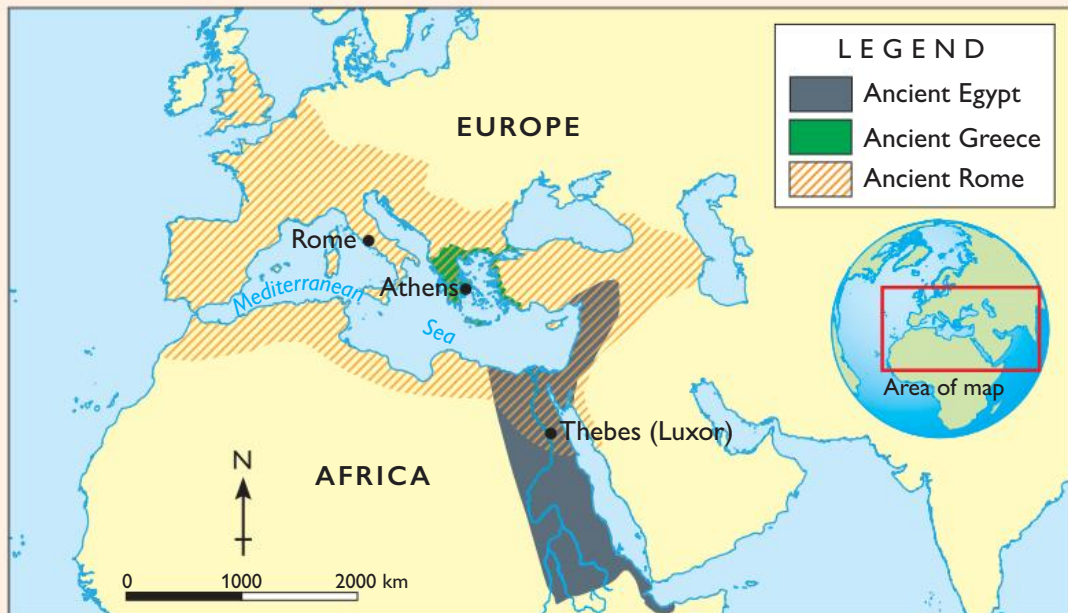
CHAPTER

*This gold wreath from Athens (c. 2 BC), is an example
of the workmanship and skills of people from the
Mediterranean world in ancient times.*

OVERVIEW OF THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

The Mediterranean Sea has been called 'The Great Sea' by many historians, 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, influenced the course of history. It is the location of three great and influential civilisations: ancient Egypt, ancient Greece and ancient Rome.

Source 0.12 Egypt, Greece and Rome: three of the great civilisations of the Mediterranean world



Source 0.13 The Great Pyramid at Giza



Source 0.14 Detail from a vase depicting Nike (Victory) crowning an athlete with an olive branch



Source 0.15 Stone relief of officers and soldiers of the Praetorian Guard, Rome, 2nd century BC

The Mediterranean world was a place of exchange, not just in terms of the goods traded but in terms of the exchange of ideas and customs. The people of ancient Egypt traded with the Minoans on the island of Crete, and 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 Mediterranean coast 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.

Along the way, you will learn about the mysteries of the pyramids, the birth of the Olympic Games, or the immense power of the Roman Empire. Sources O.16, O.17, O.18 and O.21 outline key aspects of the Mediterranean 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.

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 0.16 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 is varied, with mountains and fertile plains. A rugged mountain range that runs 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

Egypt, Greece and Rome each 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 0.17 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 6th 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.

APPLY 0.5

1 Use a Venn diagram to show some of the similarities and differences between the form of government in 6th-century Athens and the form of government in Rome before its rule by emperors.



Source 0.19 A depiction of the Egyptian god Anubis. Many Egyptian gods were represented as animals or as humans with animal parts.



Source 0.20 A marble carving showing the Greek god Apollo and the hero Heracles

Religious beliefs

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

Source 0.18 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	Like the ancient Greeks, Romans worshipped many gods. Most Roman deities were adapted from Greek deities. Over time, Roman beliefs were blended with those of ancient Greece. Romans also incorporated deities from civilisations they conquered, such as the Persian god Mithras and the Egyptian goddess Isis. Roman deities were worshipped in temples and at home, and often involved the sacrifice of animals. Christianity spread to Rome and, despite 300 years of brutal persecution, by 394 bc Christianity had become the official religion of ancient Rome.

APPLY 0.6

- 1 Use a concept map to summarise the ways religious beliefs have influenced behaviours and practices in the Mediterranean civilisations.

Conflicts

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

Source 0.21 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 wars 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 large and powerful army. Military service was an important part of life for most Roman citizens and was crucial to expanding and defending the empire. The Roman army was highly structured and disciplined. Through wars with neighbouring societies, Rome was able to expand its empire around the entire Mediterranean Sea. It ultimately conquered both Greece and Egypt, making these lands part of the Roman Empire.

APPLY 0.7

- 1 Draw a concept map to show similarities among the three Mediterranean civilisations with regard to conflicts and conquests.

LEGACIES OF THE MEDITERRANEAN WORLD

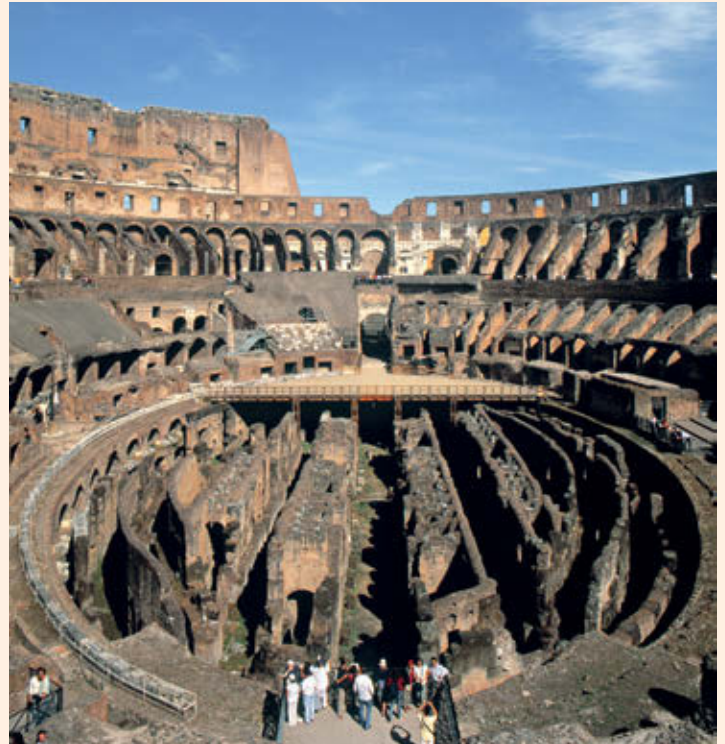
Ancient societies across the Mediterranean world, such as Egypt, Greece and Rome, have heavily influenced the development of modern-day societies across the globe. Many of these influences were brutal and immediate (such as war and invasion), while others were more subtle and took place over generations (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 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, a form of government that developed in ancient Greece. Many countries today (including Australia) have adopted democracy as their system of government. Some things have changed about the way it works, but its central ideas continue.



Source 0.22 The remains of the Colosseum in Rome

Science, mathematics, medicine and philosophy

Many of the ideas – about mathematics, astronomy, science and history – of philosophers and scholars 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 thinking in the modern world. The people of ancient Egypt employed complex mathematics in their architecture, and understood decimals, fractions and geometry. They also had relatively advanced medicine. The people of ancient Greece 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.

APPLY 0.8

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

2

Source 2.1 The gold funeral mask of the pharaoh Tutankhamun



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 periods. At times strong, central governments controlled Egypt; at other times society broke down and went into decline. Ancient Egypt finally became part of Alexander the Great's empire, and later a province of the Roman Empire. The magnificent monuments and temples that remain are a part of our world's heritage. The legacy of ancient Egypt also lives on in the ideas that influenced other ancient societies.

2.1

SECTION

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

|||||

2.2

SECTION

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

|||||

2.3

SECTION

- » explain how the beliefs of the ancient Egyptians were reflected in the areas of warfare, or death and funerary customs

|||||

2.4

SECTION

- » identify a conflict within ancient Egyptian society
- » explain the consequences of this conflict for ancient Egypt
- » describe contacts and conflicts between Egypt and other ancient societies, through trade, warfare and conquest
- » explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for Egypt and other ancient societies
- » investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient Egypt
- » explain the legacy of the ancient Egyptians

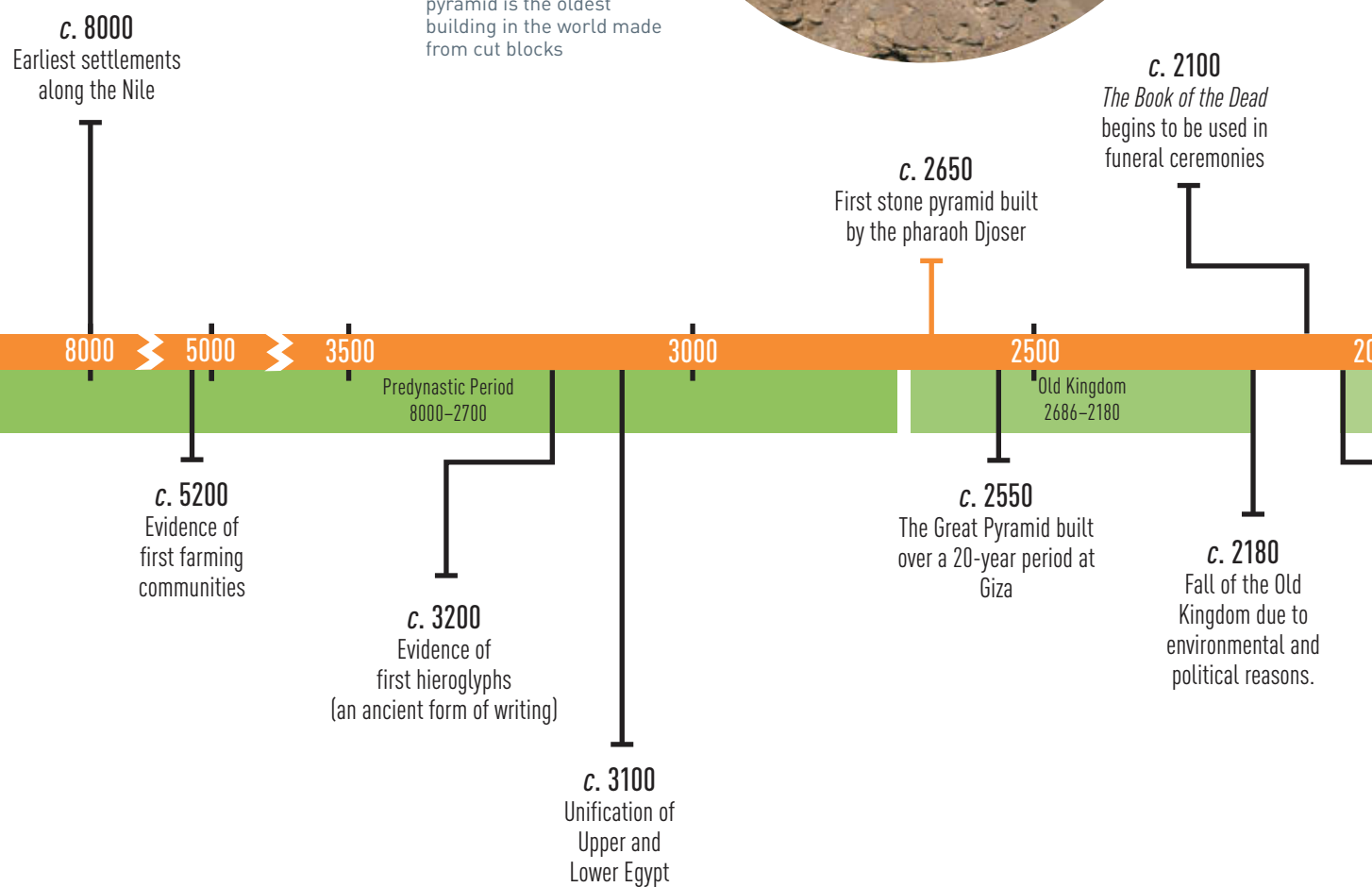
|||||

ANCIENT EGYPT – A TIMELINE



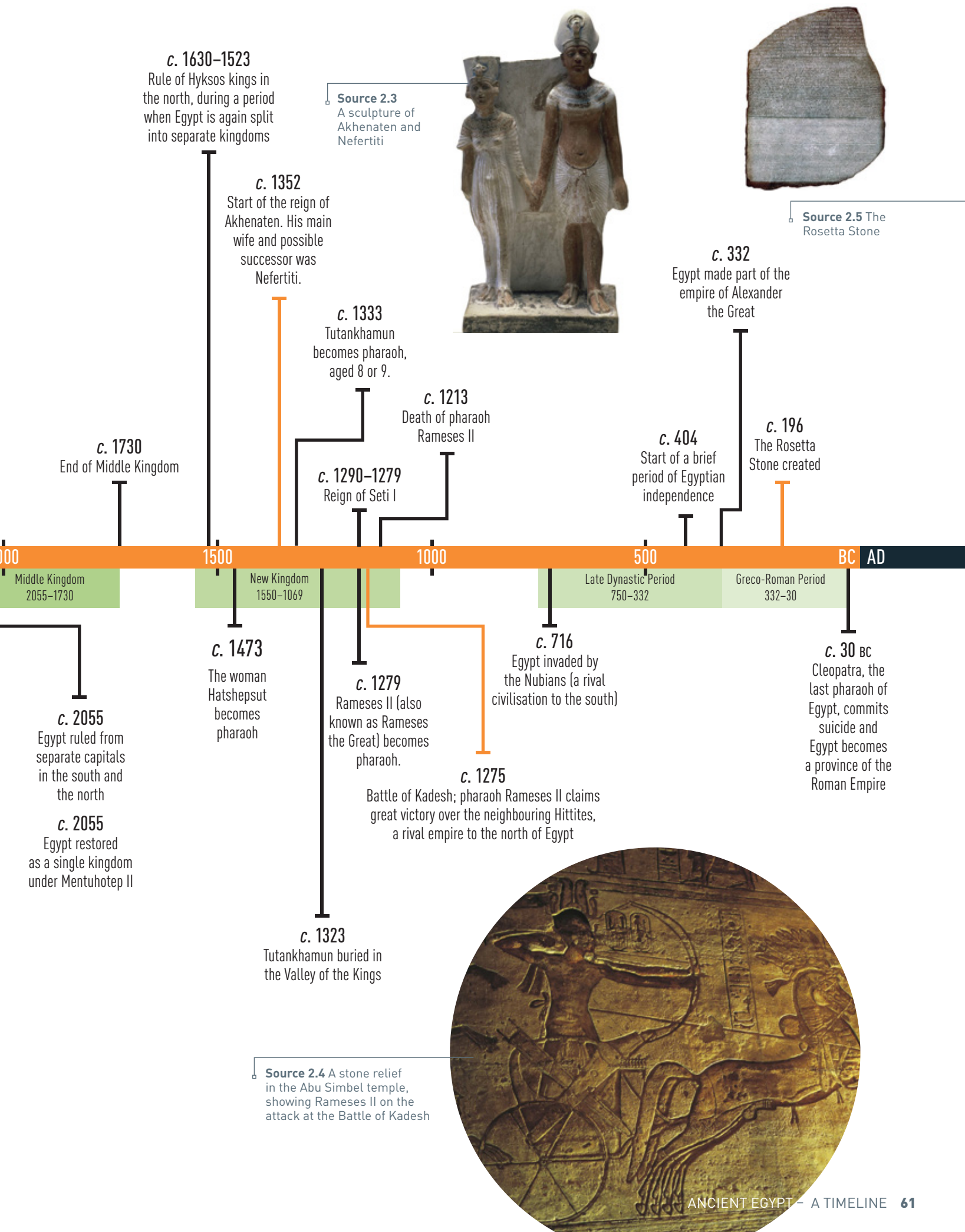
Source 2.2 The Djoser pyramid is the oldest building in the world made from cut blocks

T
I
M
E
L
I
N
E



REVIEW 2.1

- Use the timeline to put the following events in chronological order, from the oldest to the most recent event.
 - Alexander the Great occupies Egypt
 - the Hyksos Kings ruled
 - Mentuhotep II ruled
 - first pyramid was built
 - Rameses II claims victory over the Hittites at the Battle of Kadesh



2.1

SECTION

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT EGYPT?

Geographical setting and natural features play a vital role in the settlement and development of ancient societies. The ancient Egyptian civilisation depended on its location on the Nile River. The Nile River's fertile **delta** (the area at the mouth of the river where fertile silt and mud is deposited) provided the food and other resources needed for the Egyptian people to survive and prosper. In this unit we discuss how life along the Nile and surrounding desert environment influenced the development of ancient Egyptian society.

THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT EGYPT

Egypt is located in north-east Africa, in an area surrounded by **deserts** and with coastlines on the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea. The Nile River runs through its entire length, draining to the north into the Mediterranean Sea.

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. For instance:

- Egyptian society developed along the Nile River
- Chinese society began in the valley of the Yellow River
- early communities in India appeared along the Indus River
- early civilisations in the Middle East were centred around the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers.

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.

Source 2.6 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 was in ancient times.





Source 2.7 Faiyum, the site of Egypt's earliest known farming settlement

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 around 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 2.8).

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 2.9 shows the farming cycle in ancient Egypt, with growing and harvesting seasons that rely on the Inundation. During the period of the Old Kingdom, Egypt was known as *kemet* or 'black land', referring to the rich black soil that was renewed each year by the Nile floods.

APPLY 2.1

- 1 Conduct research to find out more about the discoveries at Faiyum. Write a short report 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.

Source 2.8

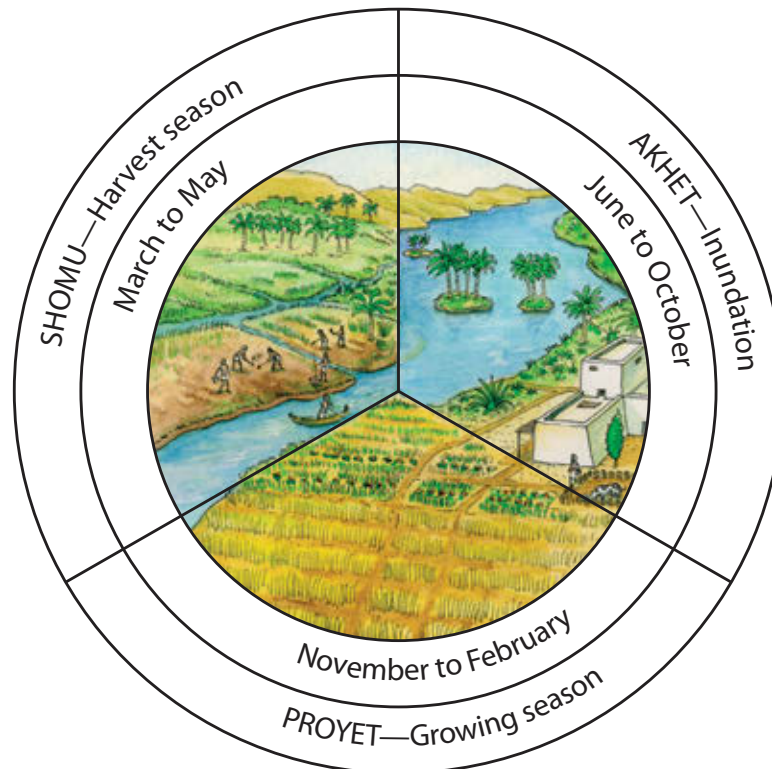
He [the Nile, seen as the god Hapi] is the creator of all good things, as master of energy, full of sweetness in his choice. If offerings are made it is thanks to Him. He brings forth the herbage [grass] for the flocks, and sees that each god receives his sacrifices ... He spreads himself over Egypt,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

From an ancient hymn to the Nile

Source 2.9 The ancient Egyptian seasons, based on the flooding of the Nile in August and September each year

APPLY 2.2

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



The Nile River was the basis of 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 appearance of **artisans** (specialist craftspeople) and **scribes** (government officials who kept records and made plans). 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 the fields when flooded, 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 *desret* or 'red land', also meant that early Egyptians were concentrated 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.

EXTEND 2.1

- 1 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.

Egypt's geographical setting and natural features

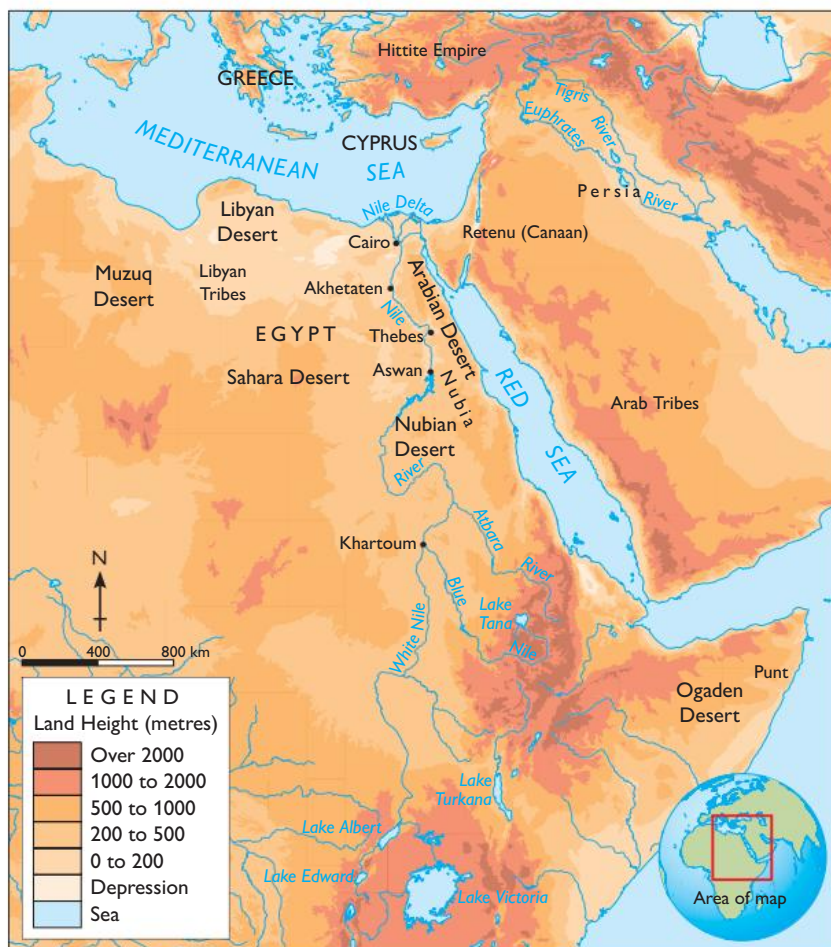
SOURCE STUDY



Source 2.10 This satellite view shows the Nile River flowing northwards towards the Mediterranean Sea, through the fertile, fan-shaped Nile Delta.

INTERPRET 2.1

- Study Sources 2.10 and 2.11. 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 2.11, locate the three main tributaries that run into the Nile: the White Nile River, Blue Nile River and Atbara River.
- What is the land 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.



Source 2.11 Ancient Egypt with location map

APPLY 2.3

- 1 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?

Egypt's natural defences

The Nile delta, 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.

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.)

REVIEW 2.2

- 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 List the ways in which the Nile was the basis of Egypt's society.
- 4 How did Egypt's geographical setting protect it from possible enemies?
- 5 Explain how Egypt's natural resources influenced:
 - a the everyday lives of ancient Egyptians
 - b Egyptian beliefs.

2.1

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT EGYPT?

» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Egypt

- 1 Describe ancient Egypt's geographical setting. (5 marks)
- 2 Identify the natural features in and around ancient Egypt. (10 marks)

» Explain how they influenced the development of ancient Egyptian society

- 3 Explain how Egypt's natural features influenced the origins of human settlement in Egypt. (5 marks)
- 4 Explain how Egypt's geographical setting and natural features influenced the way Egyptian society developed in ancient times. (20 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/40]

RICH TASK

Red lands, black lands

Conduct research to find out more about:

- the red lands – the deserts in and around Egypt
- the black lands – the fertile areas in the Nile delta and along the shores of the Nile River.

Use the images below, as well as others collected from your own research, to create a 'Red lands, black lands' presentation that includes the following information:

- a description of the different landscapes and their natural features
- the types of crops, wildlife and other resources in these areas.



Source 2.12 A scene on the Nile River



Source 2.13 The desert landscape in the west of Egypt

2.2

SECTION

HOW WAS ANCIENT EGYPTIAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

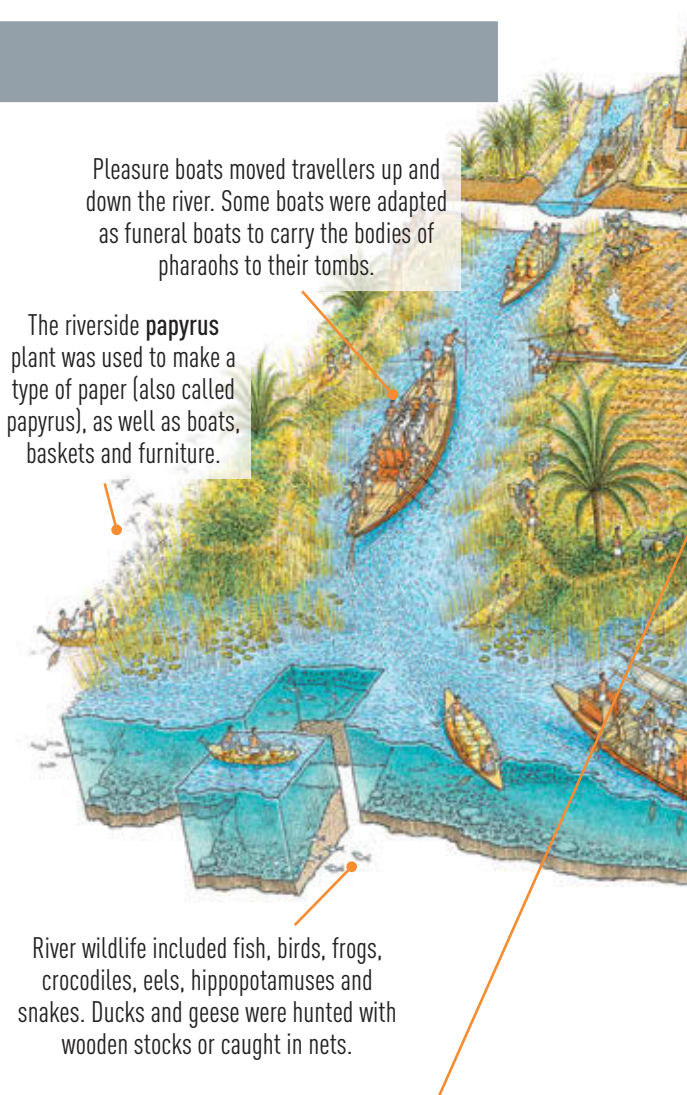
In a society that lasted thousands of years, there were many different ways of life. However, historians are able to make some generalisations about daily life in ancient Egypt, based on written evidence and archaeological sources such as tomb paintings. In this section we will explore how life along 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.

LIFE ON THE NILE RIVER

The Nile River was the focal point of Egyptian life. Source 2.14 is an artist's impression of life along a section of the Nile

REVIEW 2.3

- 1 Write a brief summary of what you see in Source 2.14. Your summary should only be a half page to a page in length, so you will need to pick out what you think are the most important bits of information and evidence in the illustration.
- 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 things that the Egyptians did to control the Inundation.
 - c List all 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?
- 3 Explain how the kind of life shown in Source 2.14 needed a strong, centralised government. Could the pyramids, the canals or the irrigation systems have been built by small groups? Why or why not?



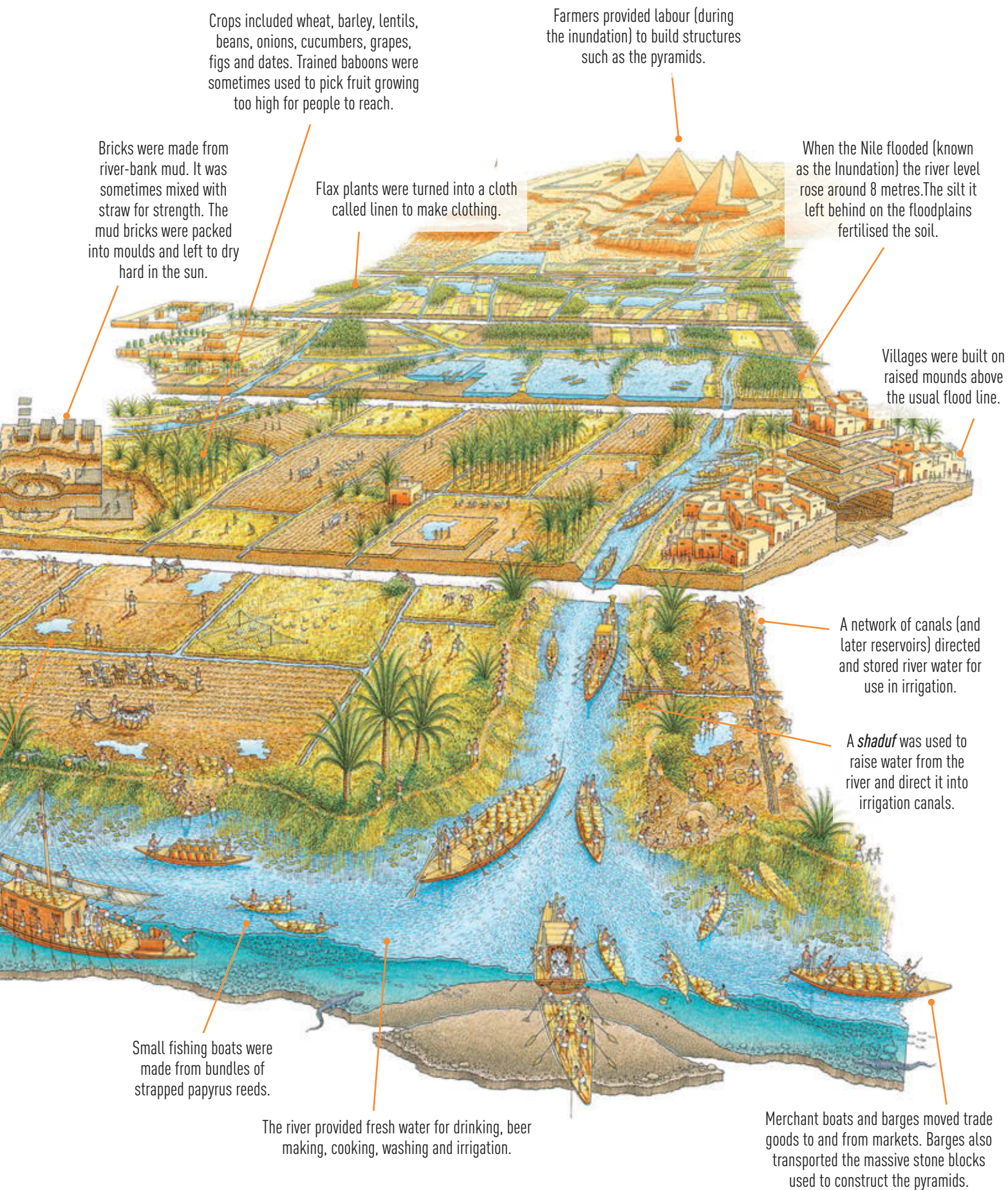
Pleasure boats moved travellers up and down the river. Some boats were adapted as funeral boats to carry the bodies of pharaohs to their tombs.

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,

Source 2.14 An artist's impression showing the importance of the Nile River 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 growing 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.

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

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.

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* 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.

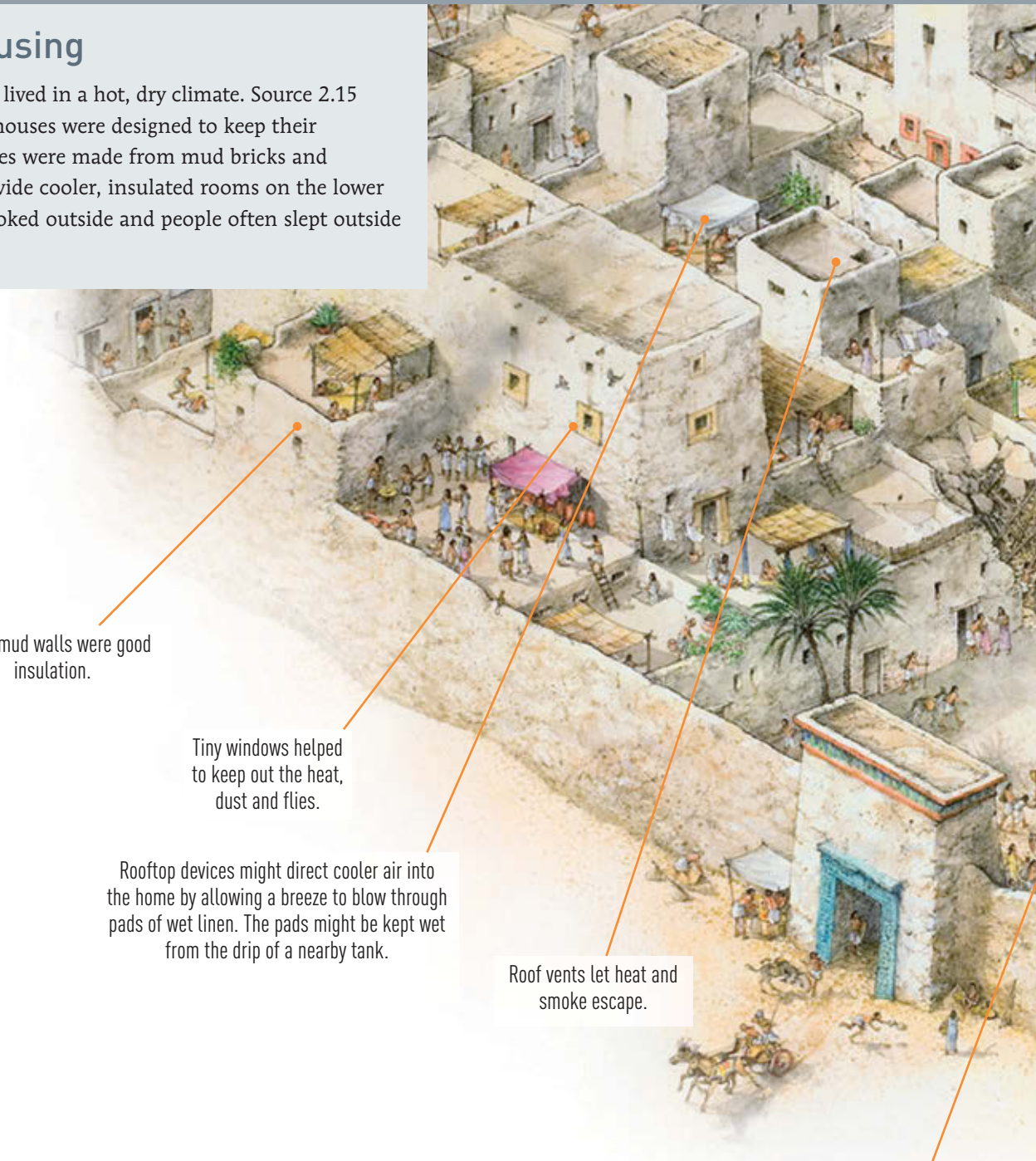
The river provided fresh water for drinking, beer making, cooking, washing and irrigation.

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

LIFE IN A HOT CLIMATE

Egyptian housing

The ancient Egyptians lived in a hot, dry climate. Source 2.15 shows how Egyptian houses were designed to keep their occupants cool. Houses were made from mud bricks and multi-storeyed to provide cooler, insulated rooms on the lower storey. Meals were cooked outside and people often slept outside to escape the heat.



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.

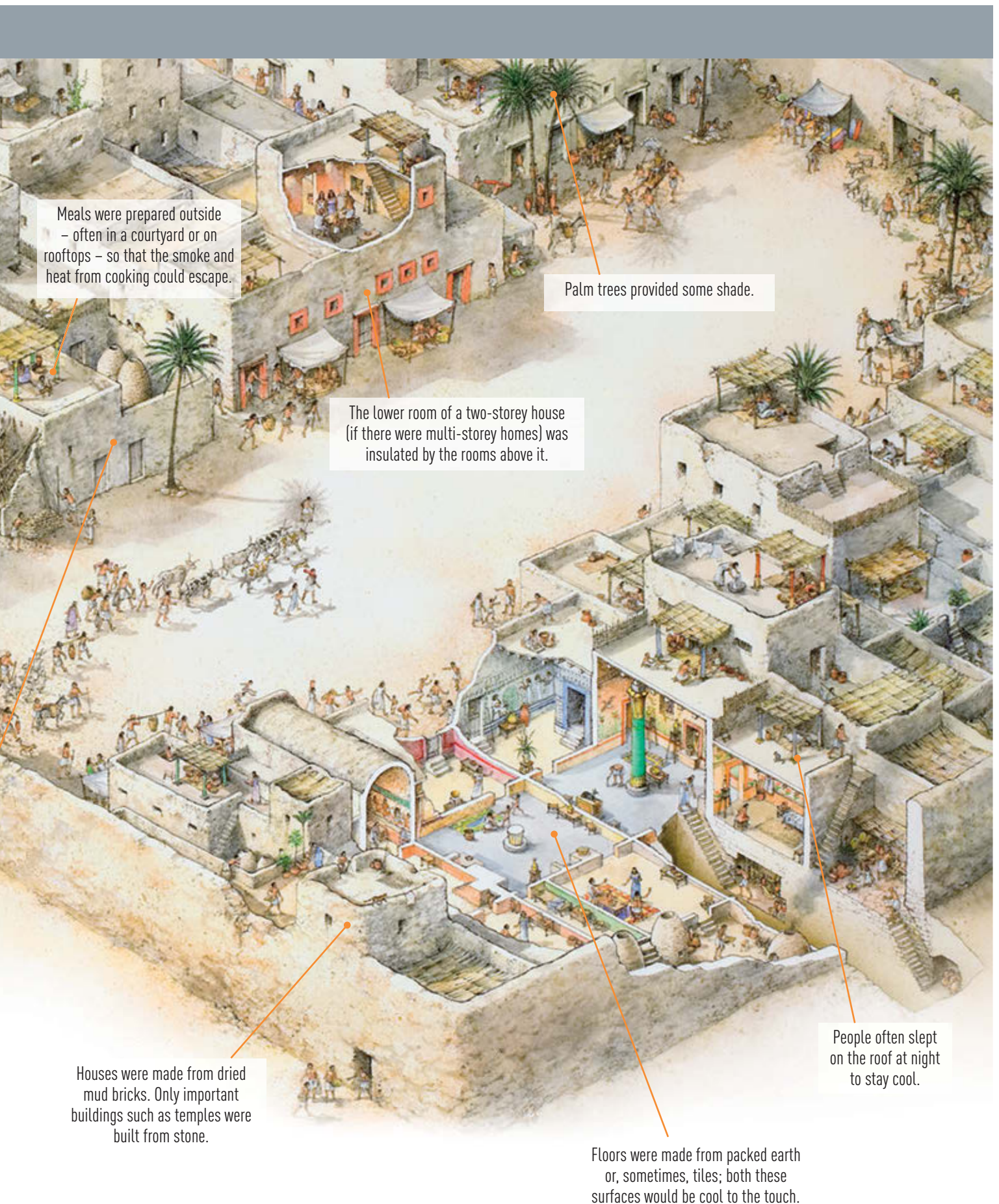
Most buildings were whitewashed with a lime solution to reflect the heat.

REVIEW 2.4

Look carefully at Source 2.15 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?

Source 2.15 An artist's impression of a typical settlement, showing building design and activities adapted for Egypt's hot, dry climate



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.

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 2.16 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 2.17. 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.

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 2.18 Papyrus sandals like these kept feet cool and protected them from the hot ground



Source 2.16 Tomb painting of Nefertari (1290–1254 BC), who is shown wearing a tunic made of fine linen, worn to keep cool



Source 2.17 Detail from an ancient tomb painting showing a woman wearing a cone of cooling fat on top of her wig

INTERPRET 2.2

Read the text and study Sources 2.16 to 2.18 to answer the following questions.

- 1 Give three reasons why we can say that the woman portrayed in Source 2.16 was wealthy or important.
- 2 What evidence do these sources provide about the way ancient Egyptians lived in a hot climate?

Leisure activities

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

Music and board games were also popular. Senet, a game with similarities to backgammon using casting sticks rather than dice, was enjoyed by all (as shown in Source 2.16, which shows Nefertari playing the game). Egyptians musical instruments included harps, drums, tambourines, bells, lutes and *sistra* (see Source 2.19).



Source 2.19 These musical instruments, known as *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 2.20 A wall painting from the tomb chapel of Menna shows Menna (the main figure with 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.

APPLY 2.4

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

REVIEW 2.5

- 1 Create a concept map to summarise how the people of ancient Egyptians kept cool in a desert environment, including aspects such as housing, clothing and leisure.

GROWING UP IN ANCIENT EGYPT

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 did go to school. Even though schooling was normally reserved for boys, some Egyptian women from royal households were literate (could read and write). As in other societies, in ancient Egypt education was the key to both wealth and power.



Source 2.21 Detail from a painting in the tomb of Menna in Thebes showing girls fighting or wrestling during the wheat harvest

Schooling during the Middle Kingdom

Because ancient Egyptian civilisation existed continuously for thousands of years, 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, 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). During this time:

- 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 – memorising lots of old texts
- there was no provision for physical education or sport of any kind.

Education in ancient Egypt

SOURCE STUDY



Source 2.22 Relief depicting scribes at work, from the tomb of Horemheb c. 1300 BC



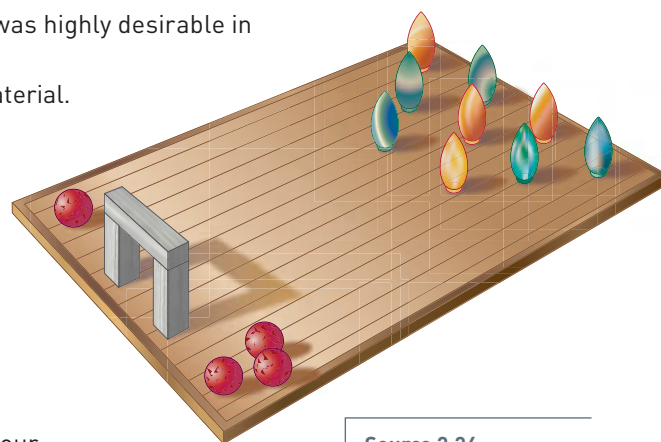
Source 2.23 A pupil's wooden tablet from the Middle Kingdom

INTERPRET 2.3

- 1 Describe the scene shown in Source 2.22. What does it tell you about the life of an educated person in ancient Egypt?
- 2 Source 2.23 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?

APPLY 2.5

- 1 Why do you think being educated and having a role as a scribe was highly desirable in ancient Egypt?
- 2 Students in ancient Egypt were required to memorise a lot of material. Suggest why this might have been the case.
- 3 An archaeologist discovered pieces of a game in a child's grave in ancient Egypt, with the pieces found loose in the earth. Source 2.24 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 2.24
An illustration of a children's game found by English Egyptologist W.M. Flinders Petrie (1853–1942), in the early 20th century, in Egypt

REVIEW 2.6

- 1 What sources of evidence are available about the activities and education of children in ancient Egypt?
- 2 What factors influenced a child's level of education in ancient Egypt?

THE POWER OF THE PHARAOHS

STRANGE BUT TRUE

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'.

The head of Egyptian society was the **pharaoh**, who was believed to be both a king and a god in human form. 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 (rule by a king or queen) and a **theocracy** (a society in which the rulers' authority was based on religious beliefs).

The pharaoh's duty was to ensure law and order, and to protect his 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 provided 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.

Pharaohs in ancient Egypt often dressed in special ceremonial costumes and carried important objects that symbolised their power and position in society. Source 2.25 shows a number of these items.



Source 2.25 An artist's impression of a pharaoh and his symbols of power

- 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 The 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 The heavy jewelled collar symbolised great wealth.
- 5 The flail (whip) symbolised total authority.
- 6 The crook symbolised the pharaoh's role as a shepherd of the people.
- 7 An animal tail (usually from a bull) symbolised strength and fertility.

EXTEND 2.2

1 Conduct research on one of ancient Egypt's pharaohs, such as:

- Khufu
- Mentuhotep II
- Amenhotep III
- Rameses II
- Cleopatra.

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.

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



Source 2.27 The mummified head of Tutankhamun



Source 2.28 The reconstructed head of Tutankhamun

EXTEND 2.3

- 1 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 technologies used by archaeologists in recent years. Write an exposition to present your views on the question 'How did Tutankhamun die?'

REVIEW 2.7

- 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 2.25 symbolised about the pharaoh's role.
- 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?

ROLES OF KEY GROUPS IN ANCIENT EGYPTIAN SOCIETY

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.

APPLY 2.6

- 1 Using Source 2.29 as a reference, write a paragraph that describes the structure of ancient Egyptian society.
- 2 Draw a diagram to represent what you regard as the social structure in Australia.
- 3 Compare your paragraph description and diagram with a partner and discuss any differences.

REVIEW 2.8

- 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.

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.

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 2.29 The social hierarchy in ancient Egypt



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! Some of the pots I make I give to the pharaoh as tax payment. Some of my pots are exported to other countries. Most of my friends are craftsmen, too. We learned 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 any 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. Although Egyptian women had more equality than women in many other ancient societies, it was accepted that the man was 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, the result was that 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 difficulties associated with childbirth in the ancient world.

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

SOURCE STUDY

Egyptian women



Source 2.30 Tomb art showing Egyptian women celebrating at a feast

INTERPRET 2.4

- 1 Look at Source 2.30. Identify the wealthy women and the attending slaves or servants in this image and write a short description of the scene.

EXTEND 2.4

1 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 judgement about their performance as rulers. You will therefore divide your biography into informative and persuasive text.

- Hatshepsut
- Nefertiti
- Tawosret
- Cleopatra VII

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 2.32 provides evidence of slaves captured during a battle with rival civilisation to the south of Egypt known as Nubia. Slaves worked as labourers, government administrators, servants for wealthy Egyptians, or served in temples and royal households. The most unfortunate slaves were those sent to mine gold and copper in the desert mines of northern Africa, where a great many died from exhaustion 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 were farmers and other workers who were employed during flood seasons.

REVIEW 2.9

- 1 Even though Egyptian women had greater equality than in any other civilisation in the ancient world, there were limits to what they could do. What were they?
- 2 How could people from other societies become slaves in Egypt?
- 3 List the type of work that slaves undertook in ancient Egypt.



Source 2.31 An ancient carving of Hatshepsut



Source 2.32 Stone relief from a tomb showing Nubian slaves, Egyptian guards and Egyptian scribes

2.2

CHECKPOINT

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. (30 marks)

» Outline how ancient Egyptian society was organised and governed

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

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

- 3 List and explain the duties and responsibilities of:
 - a the pharaoh
 - b the pharaohs' officials. (20 marks)
- 4 In ancient Egypt, what were the roles of:
 - a women
 - b slaves? (20 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/80]

RICH TASK

Farmer or pharaoh for a day?

Which social group in ancient Egypt interests you the most? What might a typical day in their life been like? Choose one social group from the list below, and use information and sources from the text and your own research to present 'A day in the life of ...'

- pharaoh or pharaoh's wife
- priest or priestess
- scribe
- nomarch or nomarch's wife, son or daughter
- farmer or farmer's wife, son or daughter
- slave.

Your presentation could be in the form of a series of diary entries, a storyboard, a short story or other format approved by your teacher. You will need to particularly research aspects of Egyptian life not covered in this chapter, such as food and dining, hygiene and medicines.

Include relevant sources in your presentation where possible. In any case, keep a record of all the evidence you have used as a basis for the events and descriptions in your typical day. Make sure you have evaluated them for relevance and reliability.



Source 2.33 A painting from the Tomb of Menna showing farming activities: (top) measuring and recording of the processed wheat by scribes; (second level) harvesting wheat with sickles, with Menna attending at the far left; (third level) Menna being served wine or water by a servant, while grain is being threshed and winnowed, and crushed by oxen; (fourth level) harvesting wheat being carried in nets suspended on poles.



Source 2.34 An artist's impression of Cleopatra, Egypt's last pharaoh. In the painting, Cleopatra watches as a poison is tested on prisoners.

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

2.3

SECTION

WHAT DID ANCIENT EGYPTIANS BELIEVE?

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.

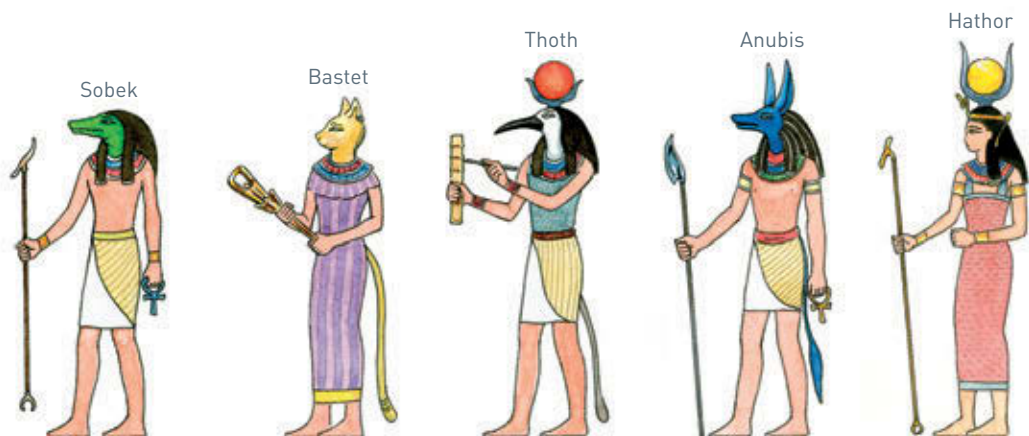
RELIGIOUS BELIEFS IN ANCIENT EGYPT

The people of ancient Egypt 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 that he was 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 depicted as animals in human form, as shown in Source 2.35. The main god in Egyptian mythology was Ra, the sun god. It was thought the Sun was a boat that Ra rowed across the sky each day (see Source 2.36).

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

APPLY 2.7

- 1 Investigate beliefs about death in other ancient societies, such as ancient Greece, Rome, China and India. Present your findings in a table, then write a paragraph summary of the similarities and differences in the beliefs of these ancient societies.

The depiction of Egyptian gods

SOURCE STUDY



Source 2.36 Ancient painting of 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.

Source 2.37 Extract from an ancient Egyptian legend

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 2.5

- 1 What did ancient Egyptians believe according to the evidence provided by Sources 2.36 and 2.37?

EXTEND 2.5

- 1 Use digital and other resources to research the deities shown in Source 2.35. 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.
- 2 Monotheistic (single-god) religions are widespread in the world today. As a class, discuss the following:
 - a What are the main monotheistic religions?
 - b How do you think a polytheistic culture would be different from a monotheistic culture?

REVIEW 2.10

- 1 What is a polytheistic religion?
- 2 List some of the main gods of ancient Egypt.

BURIAL RITUALS AND BELIEFS ABOUT DEATH

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. The proper preservation of bodies by **mummification** and burial rituals were very important to the people of ancient Egypt because of this. Source 2.39 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 also have the secret knowledge needed to reach the afterlife. Spells were also carved on tomb walls and inside coffins.

Source 2.38
A mummified cat

STRANGE BUT TRUE

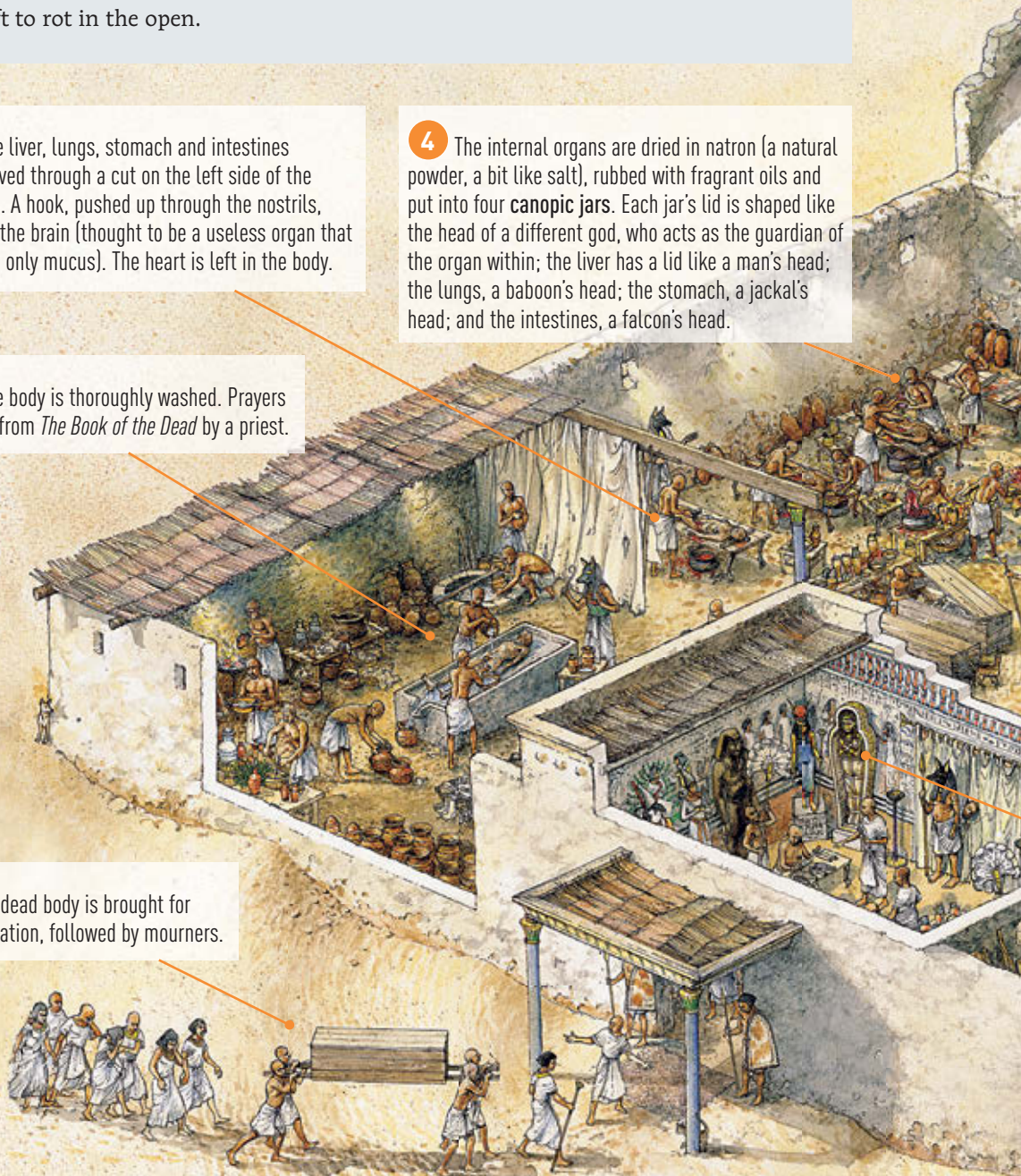
Cats were sacred animals in Egyptian mythology. Egyptians would go into deep mourning when a cat died, shaving their eyebrows to show their loss. Cat mummies and cat cemeteries from ancient times have been found along the Nile River.

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.

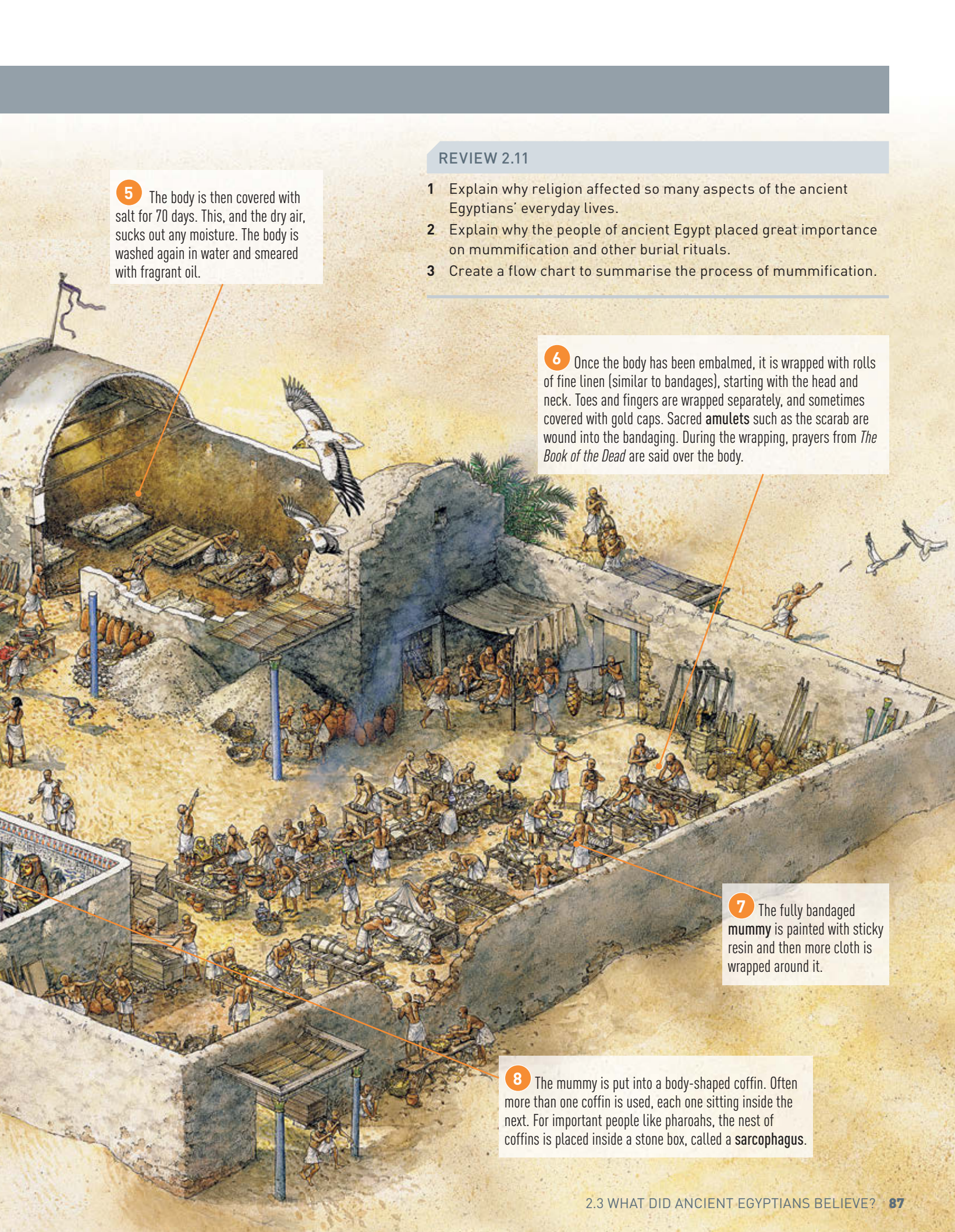
4 The internal organs are dried in natron (a natural powder, a bit like salt), rubbed with fragrant oils and put into four **canopic jars**. Each jar's lid is shaped like the head of a different god, who acts as the guardian of the organ within; the liver has a lid like a man's head; the lungs, a baboon's head; the stomach, a jackal's head; and the intestines, a falcon's head.

2 The body is thoroughly washed. Prayers are read from *The Book of the Dead* by a priest.

1 The dead body is brought for mummification, followed by mourners.



Source 2.39 The mummification process used in ancient Egypt



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.

REVIEW 2.11

- 1 Explain why religion affected so many aspects of the ancient Egyptians' everyday lives.
- 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.

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 like pharaohs, the nest of coffins is placed inside a stone box, called a **sarcophagus**.

THE PYRAMIDS

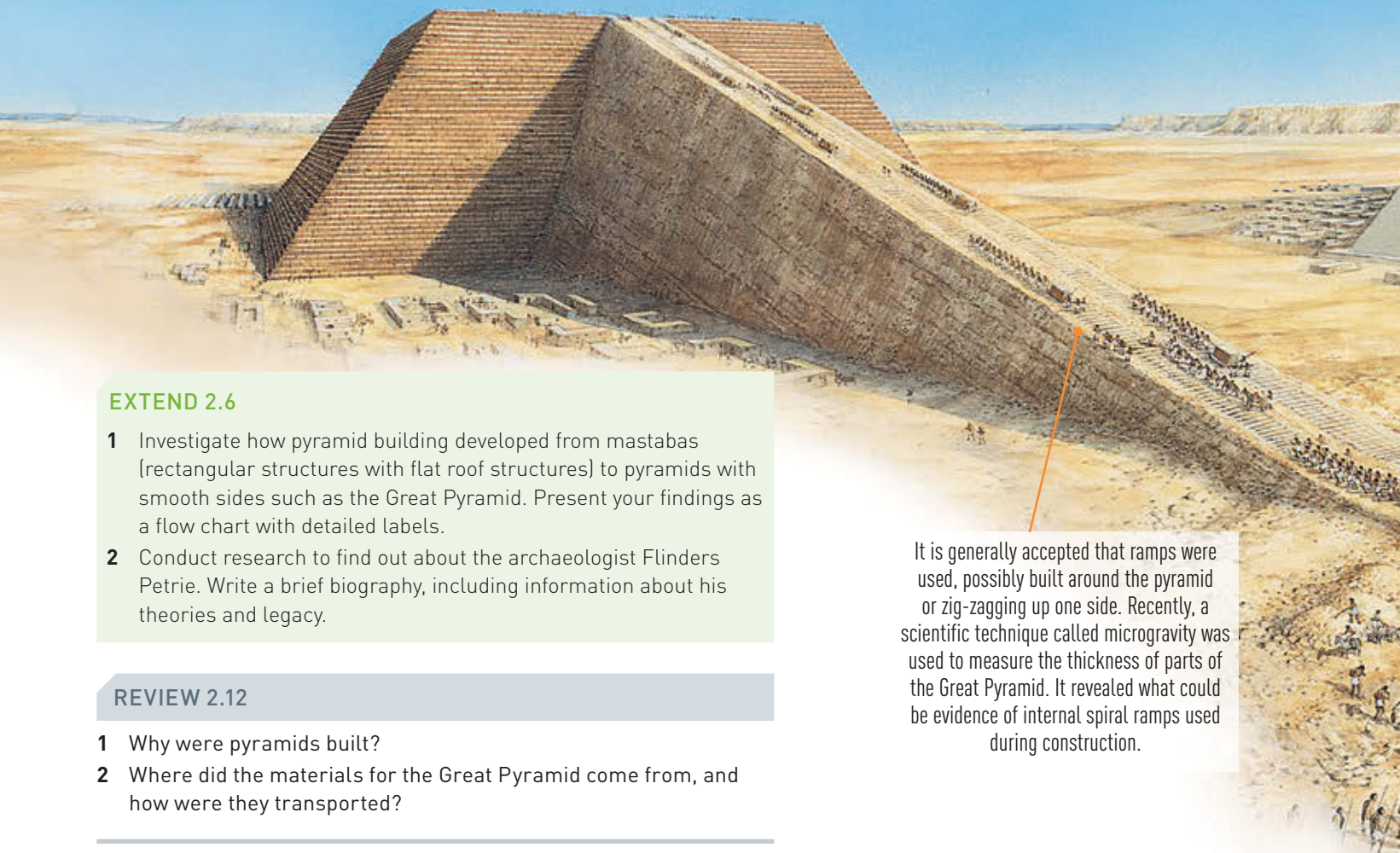
The burial rituals of pharaohs were elaborate, and from the beginning of the Old Kingdom to the end of the Middle Kingdom, **pyramids** were built as tombs for the pharaohs. More than 160 pyramids have been found. The Great Pyramid at Giza is the only remaining wonder of the ancient world. It was built as the tomb of the pharaoh Khufu over a period of 20 years and completed around 2550 BC (see Source 2.40).

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.

There is some contention among historians about how the pyramid was constructed. It was accepted for a long time that a single ramp was used to move stones up to each new level of the pyramid. If you take a little time to think about it, however, such a method has problems. A single, linear ramp might have worked in the early stages of construction for the lower levels, as shown in Source 2.40 but it is unlikely to have been used later for the higher levels.



EXTEND 2.6

- 1 Investigate how pyramid building developed from mastabas (rectangular structures with flat roof structures) to pyramids with smooth sides such as the Great Pyramid. Present your findings as a flow chart with detailed labels.
- 2 Conduct research to find out about the archaeologist Flinders Petrie. Write a brief biography, including information about his theories and legacy.

REVIEW 2.12

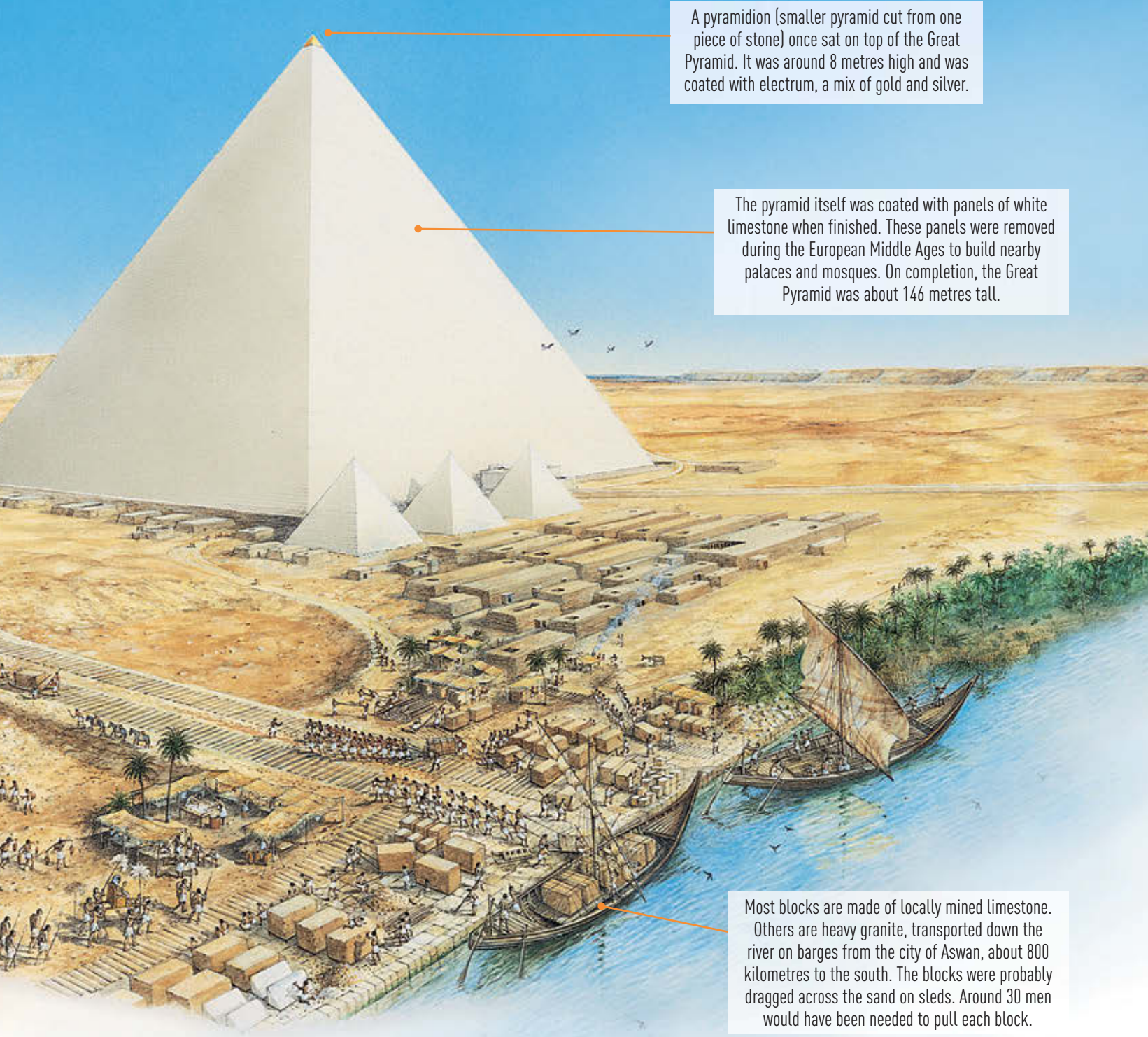
- 1 Why were pyramids built?
- 2 Where did the materials for the Great Pyramid come from, and how were they transported?

It is generally accepted 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.

Source 2.40 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 over 3000 years.

The fact is that the ramp could not be too steep; so the higher it went, the longer it would have to be. By the time stones were being moved to the upper levels, the ramp would have been so long that it would have taken almost as much effort to build as the pyramid itself. No evidence of such a massive structure has been found.

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.



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.

2.3

CHECKPOINT

WHAT DID ANCIENT EGYPTIAN'S BELIEVE?

» Explain how the beliefs of the ancient Egyptians were reflected in the areas of warfare, or death and funerary customs

- 1 Identify the term used to describe religion in ancient Egypt and explain its meaning. (2 marks)
- 2 Explain Egyptian beliefs about the role of gods and goddesses in their everyday lives, including examples. (10 marks)
- 3 What did Egyptians believe about death? (2 marks)
- 4 Explain how beliefs about death influenced:
 - a burial rituals in ancient Egypt (20 marks)
 - b the burial of pharaohs in ancient Egypt (5 marks)
 - c warfare in ancient Egypt. (1 mark)

TOTAL MARKS [/40]

RICH TASKS

Journey to the afterlife

The ancient Egyptians believed that a person's journey to the afterlife included challenges or tests such as:

- passing through gates and doors guarded by gods
- the judgement to see if the person deserved to have eternal life in the afterlife (see Source 2.41). If they failed the weighing-of-the-heart test, their heart was eaten by the monster god or 'Great Devourer'.

The information and spells in *The Book of the Dead* helps the person to face these challenges, such as spells to:

- breathe, drink or control fire during their journey
- transform into different creatures to make it easier to travel through the Underworld
- provide protection against hostile creatures, such as snakes and crocodiles.

Conduct research to find out more about these beliefs, and find images from existing versions of *The Book of the Dead* which are kept in museums around the world. Use your creativity to re-imagine one or more key events in the journey. For example, write a short story, draw a cartoon strip, make a model or create a board game.¹

Source 2.41

Ancient Egyptian painting of the 'weighing of the heart' ritual



Source 2.42 Part of a prayer recited during the weighing of the heart ceremony

I have not caused pain. I have made no man to suffer hunger. I have made no one to weep. I have done no murder ... I have not added to the weight of the scales ... I have not carried away the milk from the mouths of children. I have not driven away the cattle which were upon their pastures ... I am pure, I am pure, I am pure, I am pure!

Translated extract from The Book of the Dead

Life after death?

- 1 In groups, conduct research on beliefs about death for Christianity, Judaism, Islam or Buddhism.
- 2 Have a class discussion to compare the beliefs of modern religions with ancient Egyptians' beliefs about the afterlife. Discuss whether you and your classmates believe in an afterlife. Why have beliefs about an afterlife changed between the time of ancient societies and the modern world?

How did Egyptians build the Great Pyramid?

Research and write an informative text to answer the question 'How did the Egyptian pyramid builders move stones to the top of the Great Pyramid?'

An ex-hotel manager and popular author named Erich von Däniken suggested, in the 1970s, that this amazing architectural and engineering feat could only have been achieved with the help of visitors from outer space because the ancient Egyptians did not have the expertise. Most serious Egyptologists and archaeologists have dismissed his claims and have suggested some more logical solutions, including the following or combinations of them:

- a long straight ramp was built outside the pyramid
- spiral or zig-zag ramps outside the pyramid were used
- cranes based on the design of the shaduf were involved
- an internal spiral ramp was built into the Great Pyramid.

In investigating historical mysteries there is rarely a single or simple explanation. You will need to investigate, think and provide reasons for your response. You may even have a theory of your own.



Source 2.43 The Great Pyramid at Giza

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

2.4

SECTION

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

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'S ONE GOD: ATEN

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** (many-gods) religion to a **monotheistic** (single-god) 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 was portrayed as the sun's disc, with rays coming from the disc ending in hands to symbolise the giving of life (see Source 2.45). Surviving images show Akhenaten and the royal family as the focus of Aten's rays. This has caused some experts to suggest that Akhenaten and his family were to be worshipped as the one link between Aten and the Egyptian 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 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,

Source 2.44 A statue of the pharaoh Akhenaten

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.

Images of Akhenaten

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 (also see Source 2.3).



SOURCE STUDY

Source 2.45 A stone carving showing Akhenaten, Nefertiti and their children under the rays of the sun god Aten

INTERPRET 2.6

- 1 Look at Source 2.45.
 - 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?

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. He was succeeded by Smenkhkare, a shadowy figure who 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.

REVIEW 2.13

- 1 What changes did Akhenaten make to ancient Egypt's religion?
- 2 Why were the changes unpopular among ordinary Egyptians?

CONTACTS AND CONFLICTS WITH OTHER SOCIETIES

Trade

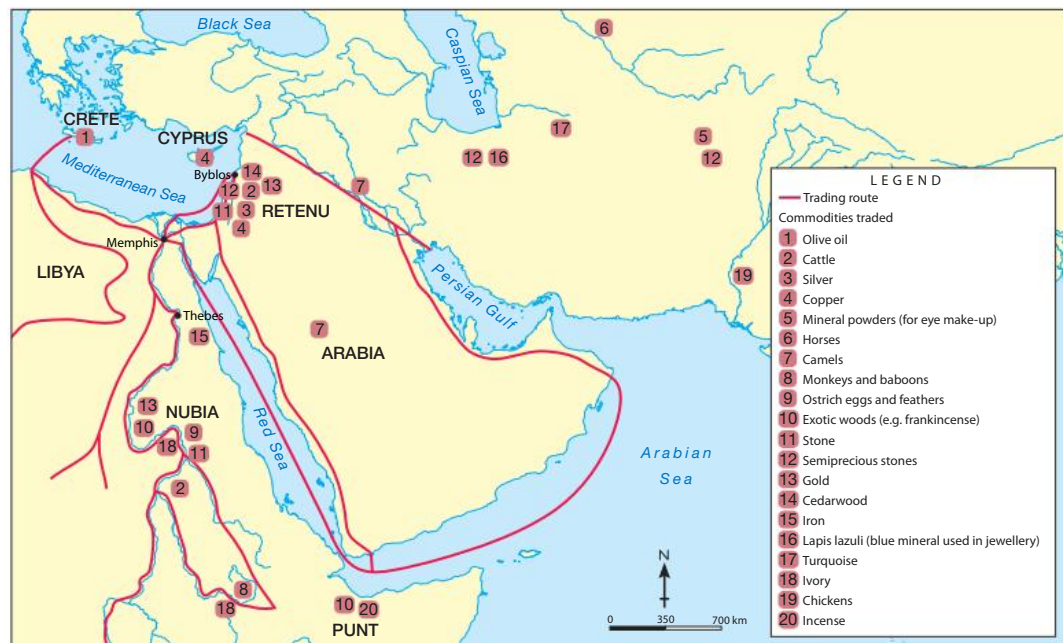
Egyptian traders exchanged goods with other ancient societies to bring in goods and resources that could not be produced along the Nile or the deserts of Egypt. Trade routes were established along the Mediterranean Sea, overland to Nubia and other parts of Africa, and to Retenu (the region known to Egyptians as Canaan and Syria).

Ancient Egypt had abundant resources to trade. In exchange for goods such as grain, papyrus, flax, stone for building and fish, 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.

SOURCE STUDY

Source 2.46 Some of the key trade routes and goods that were imported to ancient Egypt

Trade routes of the ancient Egyptians



Source 2.47 An Egyptian tomb painting showing Nubians carrying goods. Goods were brought into Egypt as a result of trade or as gifts to the pharaoh.



INTERPRET 2.7

- 1 Study Source 2.46 and answer the following questions.
 - a Which goods were brought to Egypt from Nubia and Retenu?
 - b Conduct research using an atlas or on-line map and list the modern countries in these two regions.
- 2 Use the evidence shown in Sources 2.46 and 2.47 to identify some of the goods that could be brought in from Nubia.

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 2.48).

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 Ramses II.

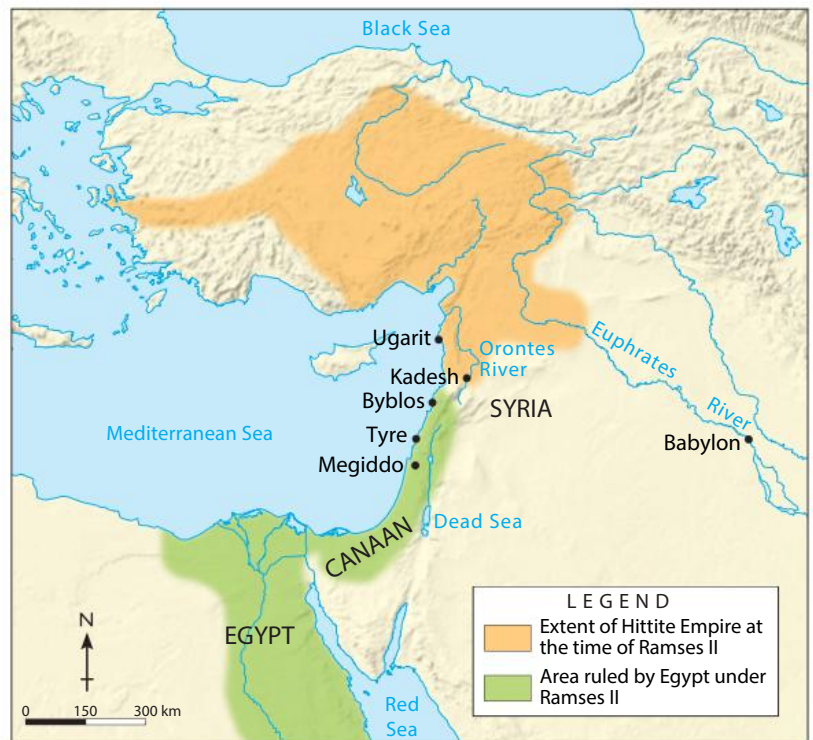
The pharaoh Seti I fought battles in Canaan, Syria, Libya and Nubia in a bid to increase Egypt’s power and prestige. He temporarily reclaimed the city of Kadesh, which had been lost to the neighbouring Hittite Empire since the time of Akhenaten.

One of the high points of Egyptian military power came during the reign of Ramses II, the son of Seti I. He would become known as Ramses the Great because of his military feats. In 1275 BC, Ramses II proclaimed victory over the Hittite Empire at the Battle of Kadesh, in what is thought to be the largest chariot battle in history.

In the years that followed, Ramses 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.

Ramses II was a great warrior, and also a master at promoting his image as a leader who always won his wars. Ramses II built many great monuments and temples to himself, including the Abu Simbel temple and monuments which were carved out of solid rock.

Historians have questioned whether Ramses II was as great as the monuments and images suggest, with recent artefacts and discoveries told from the perspective of the Hittites, mocking Ramses’ claims of a victory at Kadesh.



Source 2.48 Egypt’s expanded territory during the reign of Ramses II

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Ramses II lived to be 96 years old. He had 200 wives and mistresses. With these women he is believed to have fathered 156 children in his lifetime.

Rameses II – the great self-promoter



Source 2.49 Tomb painting of Rameses II

Source 2.50

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*

INTERPRET 2.8

Rameses II portrayed himself as a great leader in images he ordered to be created in stone carvings and paintings, as well as texts such as the poem in Source 2.50. Study Sources 2.49 and 2.50 to answer the following questions.

- 1 What symbols in Source 2.49 show that the image portrays a pharaoh?
- 2 How do the sources in this chapter portray Rameses II?
- 3 What message was Rameses II sending to the people of ancient Egypt in the way he is portrayed in these sources?

Ancient Egypt's decline

Egypt came under the rule of invaders during the Late Dynastic period, 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, the source of 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 Egyptians were able to create their first legacy: a prosperous and stable society that made all their other achievements possible.

Ancient Egyptian ideas, aspects of philosophy and religion, and their understanding of the principles 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 (an early kind of paper made from the papyrus plant) 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.



STRANGE BUT TRUE

Egyptian hieroglyphs were not deciphered until the 19th century. It was not until the discovery of the Rosetta Stone in 1799 (see Source 2.5) and its translation in 1822 by Frenchman Jean-François Champollion that the meaning of Egyptian hieroglyphs was finally unlocked.

Source 2.51 A medical prescription written on papyrus from c. 1500–1300 BC

- 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. Christianity, Judaism and Islam accept the idea of one true god.

REVIEW 2.14

- 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.

2.4

CHECKPOINT

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

» Identify a conflict within ancient Egyptian society

- 1 Identify a time of revolutionary change in ancient Egypt's religious beliefs and practices, including the pharaoh responsible for this change. (3 marks)
- 2 Explain how this change conflicted with existing religious beliefs and practices. (5 marks)

» Explain the consequences of this conflict for ancient Egypt

- 3 What were the consequences of this period for ancient Egypt? (2 marks)

» Describe contacts and conflicts between Egypt and other ancient societies, though 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. (10 marks)
- 6 Describe a period of warfare between ancient Egypt and other societies. (10 marks)
- 7 Identify periods when ancient Egypt came under the rule of invaders from other societies. (10 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for Egypt and other ancient 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)
- 10 What were the consequences of invasions of ancient Egypt by other societies? (5 marks)

» Investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient Egypt

- 11 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in ancient Egypt. Consider aspects of his or her 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)

» Explain the legacy of the ancient Egyptians

- 12 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 [/100]

RICH TASKS

A legacy inquiry

Choose an aspect of ancient Egypt's legacy, such as one of the physical remains, technologies or ideas, and develop some inquiry questions about it. Start by reading the information about the legacy of the Egyptians and conduct your own research. Focus your thinking by using words such as how, where, why, who and what as your question starters.

Choose one inquiry question and write a hypothesis stating the most likely explanation.

Use the Internet or library to locate and select sources that will be useful in providing evidence that will test your hypothesis

Confirm or modify your hypothesis, and present your findings and conclusions in a written form, including sources.

The three kingdoms

The timeline of ancient Egypt at the beginning of this chapter shows three periods in ancient Egyptian history when control by a central government was strong: the Old Kingdom (2686–2180 BC), the Middle Kingdom (2055–1730 BC) and the New Kingdom (1550–1069 BC). At these times, the country prospered and Egyptian influence expanded.

Form small groups and choose one of these three periods and conduct research about it. Coordinate within your group so that each person researches some key aspects of the period. Bring your information and sources together for a group presentation. Essential aspects to include are listed below.

- key rulers during the period, outlining their achievements and why they were significant
- physical remains from the period, as well as innovations and changes during the period (for example, in technologies, hieroglyphs, religious beliefs, education, social roles, powers of the pharaoh)
- evidence from the period that adds to our understanding of the everyday lives of different groups in Egyptian society during that time
- societies with which Egypt had peaceful contact, explaining how they affected Egypt and the other societies
- conflicts within Egypt, and conflicts between Egypt and other societies, explaining the consequences of these conflicts for Egypt and the other societies
- the causes of the kingdom's decline.



Source 2.52 Physical remains, such as this tomb relief depicting men in papyrus boats and a man tending a new-born piglet, provide evidence about the everyday life of the ancient Egyptians.

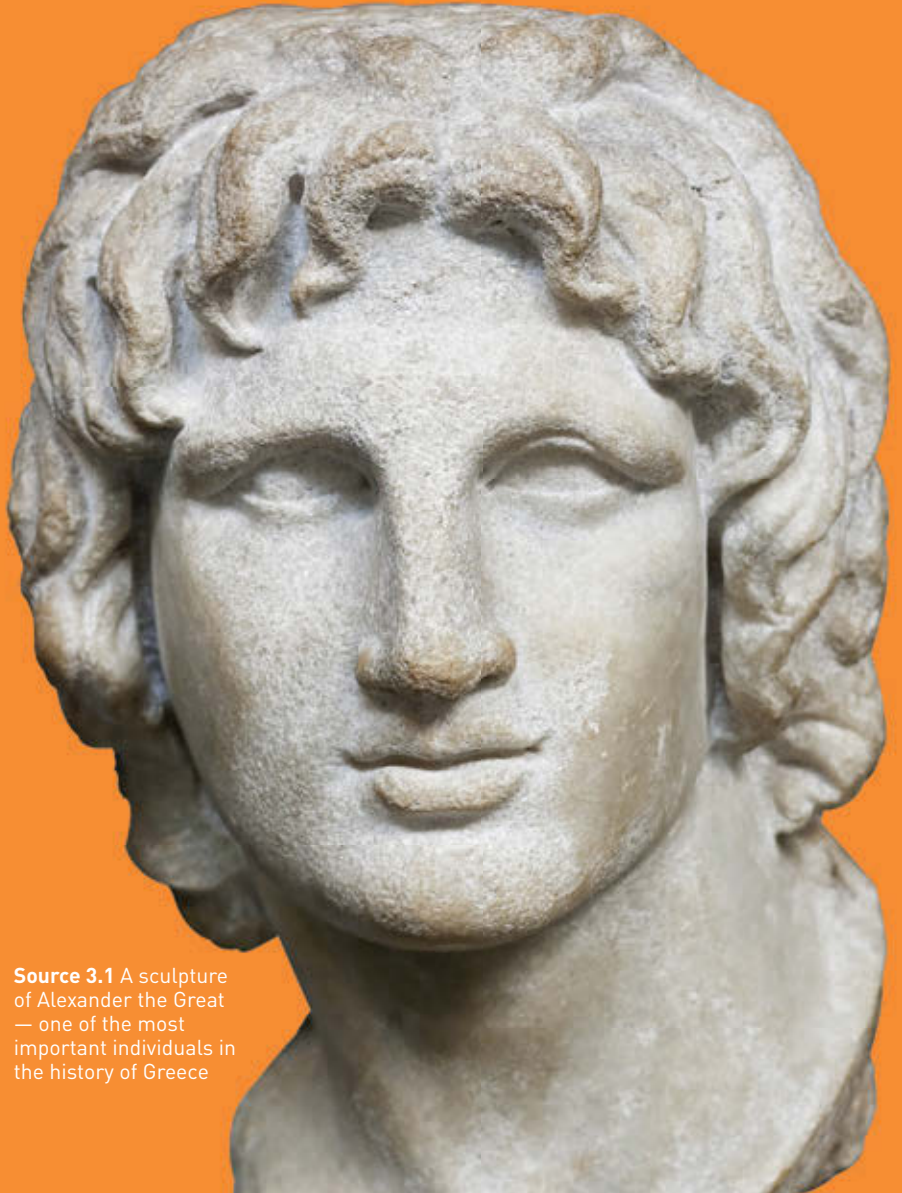
In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

3



Source 3.1 A sculpture of Alexander the Great — one of the most important individuals in the history of Greece

ANCIENT GREECE

Ancient Greece was not a single unified country with a single national government. Instead, it was a collection of small independent city-states that 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.

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.

3.1

In this section you will:

- » describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Greece
- » explain how they influenced the development of Greek society

||||| CHECKPOINT 3.1

3.2

SECTION

In this section you will:

- » explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient Greeks were reflected in their death and funerary customs

||||| CHECKPOINT 3.2

3.3

SECTION

In this section you will:

- » outline how society in ancient Athens and Sparta was organised and governed
- » describe key groups in Athenian and Spartan society, such as citizens, women and slaves
 - » describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Athens and Sparta
 - » investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece

||||| CHECKPOINT 3.3

3.4

SECTION

In this section you will:

- » identify a conflict within ancient Greek society
 - » explain the consequences of this conflict for ancient Greece
- » describe contacts and conflicts between ancient Greece and other societies, through trade, warfare and conquest
 - » explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient Greece and other societies
 - » investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece
 - » explain the legacy of the ancient Greeks

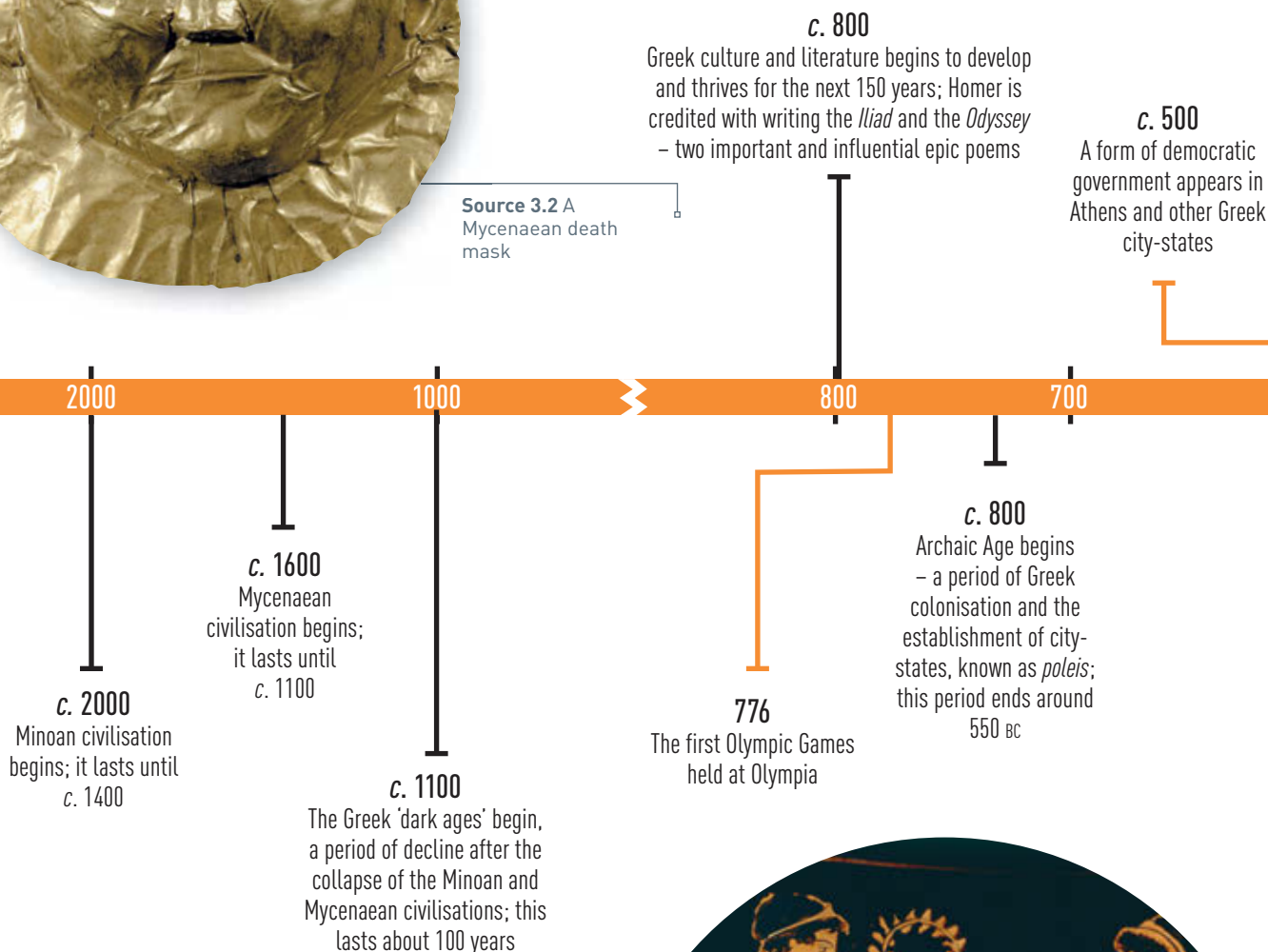
||||| CHECKPOINT 3.4

ANCIENT GREECE – A TIMELINE

T
I
M
E
L
I
N
E



Source 3.2 A
Mycenaean death
mask

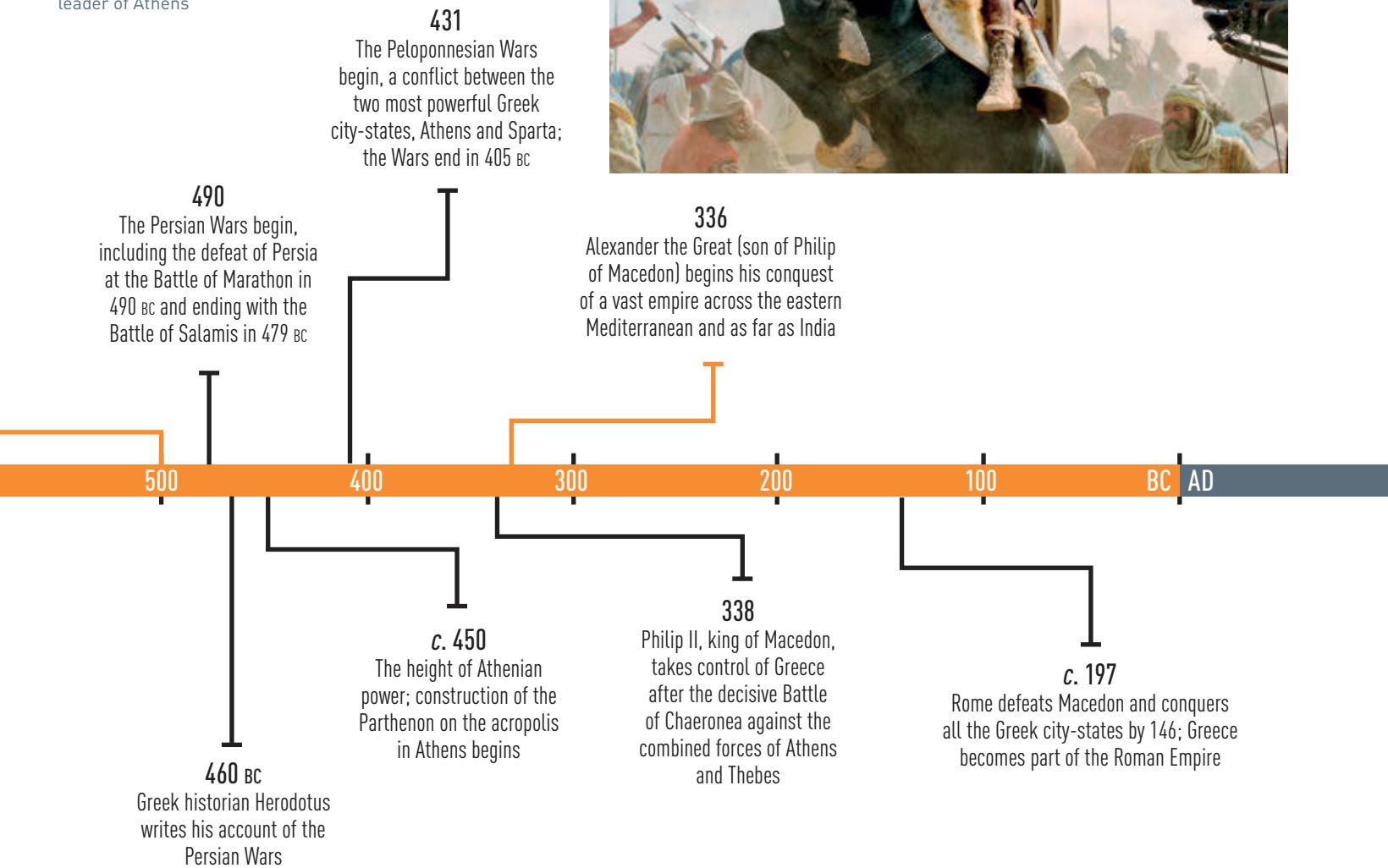


Source 3.3 Detail from an ancient Greek vase depicting Nike, goddess of victory, crowning an Olympic athlete with an olive branch



Source 3.4 A marble bust of Pericles, an important democratic leader of Athens

Source 3.5 A still from the 2004 film *Alexander*, showing Alexander on his horse Bucephalus



REVIEW 3.1

- Using the information contained on the timeline, match the clues in Column A with the correct answers in Column B.
- Put the following events in the correct 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

Column A	Column B
Peloponnesian War	began in Athens
Homer	490 BC
776 BC	431–405 BC
Philip of Macedon	writer of <i>The Iliad</i> and <i>The 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

3.1

SECTION

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT GREECE?

In this unit, we will look at how the geographical setting and natural features of ancient Greece influenced the societies that developed there. 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 ancient Greece traces its roots back to these societies.

THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT 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 3.7).

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 3.8 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 the process of **colonisation**. The result was that Greek culture spread 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 3.7). The Greeks called the **colonies** *apoikia* or 'away homes'.

Because the mountainous terrain of Greece meant it was often easier to travel by sea rather than over land, the people of ancient Greece became skilled sailors and shipbuilders. This aspect of Greek culture, and the willingness of the ancient Greeks

Source 3.6 Part of the coastal landscape of Greece, on the Peloponnesian Peninsula



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.

A city-state was more than just the city itself; it included surrounding land and villages. The populations of city-states ranged from around 50 000 up to 350 000 for the larger city-states such as Athens.

The geographical setting of ancient Greece

SOURCE STUDY

INTERPRET 3.1

- 1 Locate the following sites on Sources 3.7 and 3.8.
 - Peloponnesian Peninsula
 - Crete
 - Athens
 - Sparta
 - Plataea
 - Marathon
 - Olympia
 - Mycenae
- 2 Use the scales and study the maps to find answers to the following questions.
 - a What was the furthest away from the sea that the people of ancient Greece live?
 - b In kilometres, approximately how wide (from west to east) was the territory colonised by the Greeks?



Source 3.7 The location of ancient Greece and its colonies



Source 3.8 Some of the city-states of ancient Greece

APPLY 3.1

Use the zoom-in tool for Google Earth, or switch to Earth view of Google Maps, to study the topography of mainland Greece.

- 1 Approximately what percentage of the terrain do you think is mountainous? Compare your estimate with that of another student and discuss any differences.
- 2 Locate the Isthmus of Corinth and identify a feature there that would not have existed in ancient times.



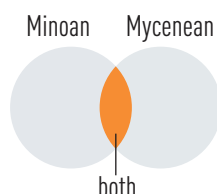
Source 3.9 Part of the reconstructed Palace of Knossos



Source 3.10 A stone tablet bearing the Mycenaean script, known as Linear B

APPLY 3.2

- 1 Create a Venn diagram to compare and contrast what you have learned about the Minoan and Mycenaean societies.



The earliest civilisations of Greece

Many historians agree that the roots of ancient Greek civilisation lay in the **Bronze Age** cultures of the Minoans and the Mycenaeans. The Minoan civilisation, centred on the island of Crete, 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 3.9).

Historians have learned much about the Minoans from the **frescoes** (pigments added directly onto fresh plaster to create pictures) 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 (see Source 1.32 in Chapter 1). 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.

Unlike the culture of the Minoans, 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. Evidence suggests they were more war-like than the Minoans. 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.

Unlike the language of the Minoans, the language of the Mycenaeans has been decoded. This language has been given the name Linear B script (see Source 3.10). Linear B scripts have been found on tablets in Mycenae and other sites on the Peloponnesian Peninsula, as well as Chania in Crete.

EXTEND 3.1

- 1 Conduct research to find out more about Sir Arthur Evans and his reconstruction of the Palace of Knossos, including criticism of his work by other historians. Summarise your findings and opinions in a PMI chart (Plus, Minus, Interesting), such as the one below.

Reconstruction of the Palace of Knossos		
Plus	Minus	Interesting

- 2 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.

REVIEW 3.2

- 1 What is the time span for our study of ancient Greece?
- 2 Identify two well-known city-states in ancient Greece.
- 3 Identify the areas where the ancient Greeks established colonies.
- 4 What was a key to success in the rise of the ancient Greek civilisation?
- 5 Where were the centres of Minoan and Mycenaean societies located?

3.1

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

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. (10 marks)
- 2 Describe the natural features in and around ancient Greece. (10 marks)
- 3 Describe the geographical setting of the earlier Minoan and Mycenaean civilisations. (4 marks)

» Explain how they influenced the development of Greek society

- 1 Explain how geographical setting and natural features influenced the way Greek society developed in ancient times (15 marks)
- 2 How did their geographical setting influence one aspect of the Minoan and Mycenaean societies? (1 mark)

TOTAL MARKS [/40]

RICH TASK

Greece's natural features and resources

Find images from the text and your own research to create a montage that shows the range of natural features found on the Greek mainland and surrounding islands. Include captions that describe these natural features, and how they influenced the development of Greek society in ancient times.



Source 3.11 A landscape of valleys and mountains in Thessaly – one of the first areas of settlement on mainland Greece

3.2

SECTION

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT GREEKS BELIEVE?

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.

BELIEF IN GODS AND GODDESSES

Source 3.12 A portrayal of Zeus, the king of the gods, from the movie *Percy Jackson: Sea of Monsters*, one of the many movies and books inspired by the ancient Greek deities



The ancient Greeks believed in many **deities** (gods and goddesses). 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 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 the household **shrine** (place of worship). 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.

EXTEND 3.2

- 1 Conduct some research on the Olympian gods and goddesses and create a 'family tree' that identifies their responsibilities and relationships to each other.

APPLY 3.3

- 1 The ancient Greeks believed that the way in which a person prayed was very important. For example, when praying to Hades, god of the **Underworld**, people would hold their hands palm down, towards the earth, as they asked the god for help. Similarly, if they were to ask Zeus, the god of the sky, for help, they would pray with their palms facing upwards. They did not kneel, as they considered this to be humiliating.

What do you think would be an appropriate way to pray to each of the following deities?

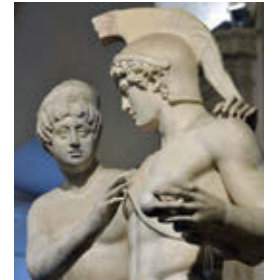
- Aetna – goddess of Mount Etna in Sicily
- Chloris – goddess of flowers
- Pan – god of shepherds and pastures
- Apollo – god of light, knowledge, music
- Hypnos – god of sleep
- Techne – god of art and skill

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, Athene, the goddess of war and wisdom (see Source 3.14). 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.



Source 3.14 The remains of the Parthenon, built on the Acropolis in Athens



Source 3.13 Restored statue of the deities Venus and Mars, made in around AD 175

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**.

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 conveniently explained away.

Seers did not 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.

Death and funerary customs

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Families returned to the graves of loved ones often, as a part of the rituals observed by ancient Greeks. They would leave offerings of oil, food and wine, and a tube may be pushed into the dirt to allow the dead person to 'drink' the wine offered.

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 on earth. 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 (see Source 3.15).

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.

APPLY 3.4

- 1 Look carefully at Source 3.15 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.

Looks like		
Sounds like		
Feels like		



Source 3.15 A 17th-century artist's portrayal of Hades

REVIEW 3.3

- 1 Identify the ancient Greek gods responsible for each of the following
 - a love
 - b war
 - c the sea
 - d travel
 - e the Underworld.
- 2 Why did ancient Greeks regard Mount Olympus with a degree of awe?
- 3 Why was the Parthenon built?
- 4 Explain what each of the following might do when consulted by a ruler in ancient Greece:
 - a an oracle
 - b a seer.

THE 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** (non-Christian) event.

The ancient Olympic Games



Source 3.16 The site of the ancient Olympic stadium



Source 3.17 A Greek pot showing a boxing match, ancient Olympic style

Source 3.18

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

SOURCE STUDY

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The chocolate malt powder Milo, invented in Australia in 1934, takes its name from a legendary Olympic athlete of ancient Greece, Milo of Croton, who was famous for his strength as a wrestler. He would train for the games by going into the fields and finding a newborn ox calf. Milo would then carry the calf everywhere, every day. As the calf grew to be a mature ox, it became heavier and heavier, which gradually built up Milo's strength. It is perhaps the earliest example of progressive weight training in sport.

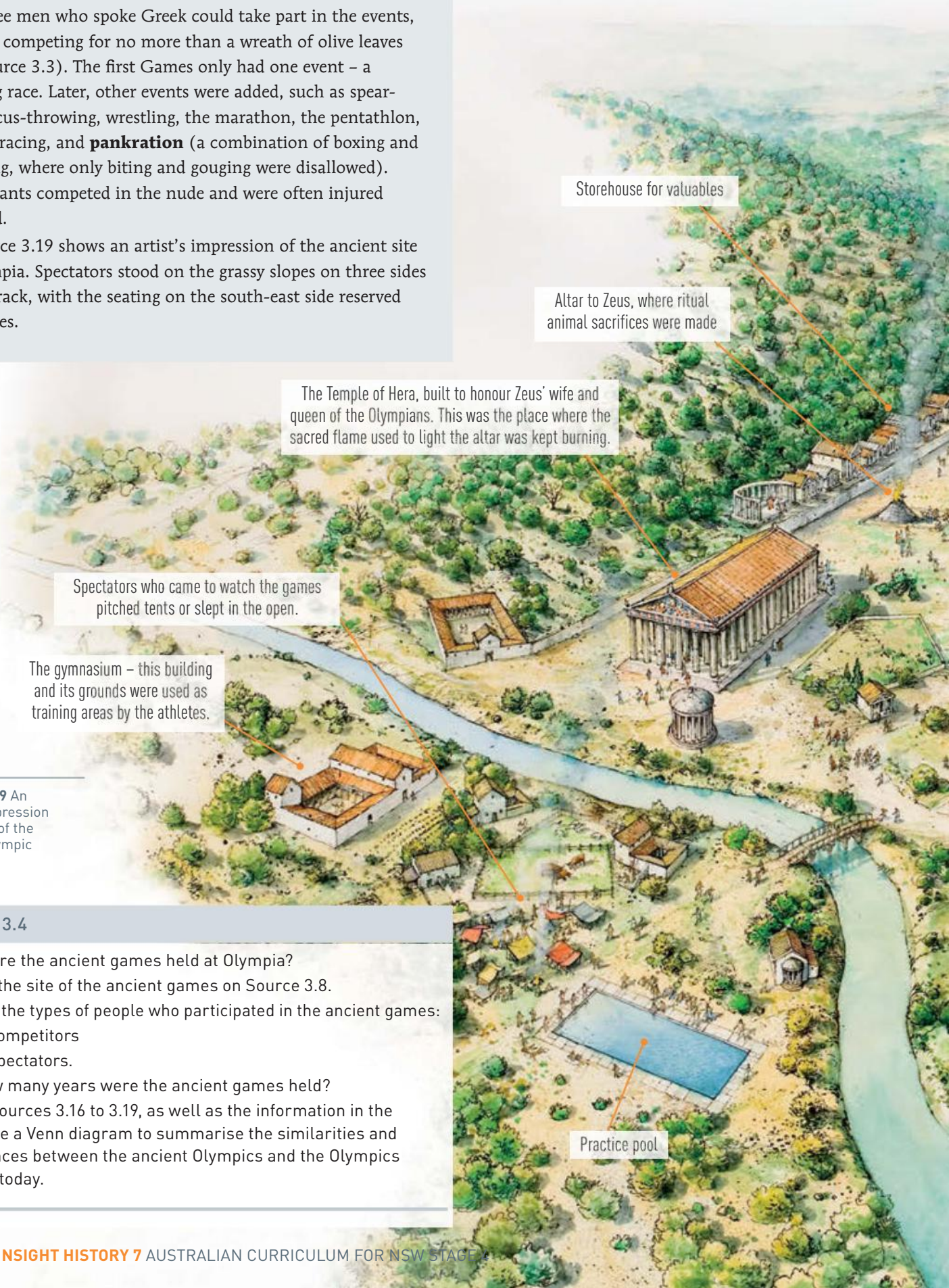
INTERPRET 3.2

- 1 What do you think is the purpose of the stone line in Source 3.16?
- 2 Describe the scene shown in Source 3.17.
- 3 Read Source 3.18, 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.

THE EARLY OLYMPICS

Only free men who spoke Greek could take part in the events, initially competing for no more than a wreath of olive leaves (see Source 3.3). 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** (a combination of boxing and wrestling, where only biting and gouging were disallowed). Contestants competed in the nude and were often injured or killed.

Source 3.19 shows an artist's impression of the ancient site at Olympia. Spectators stood on the grassy slopes on three sides of the track, with the seating on the south-east side reserved for judges.



Storehouse for valuables

Altar to Zeus, where ritual animal sacrifices were made

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.

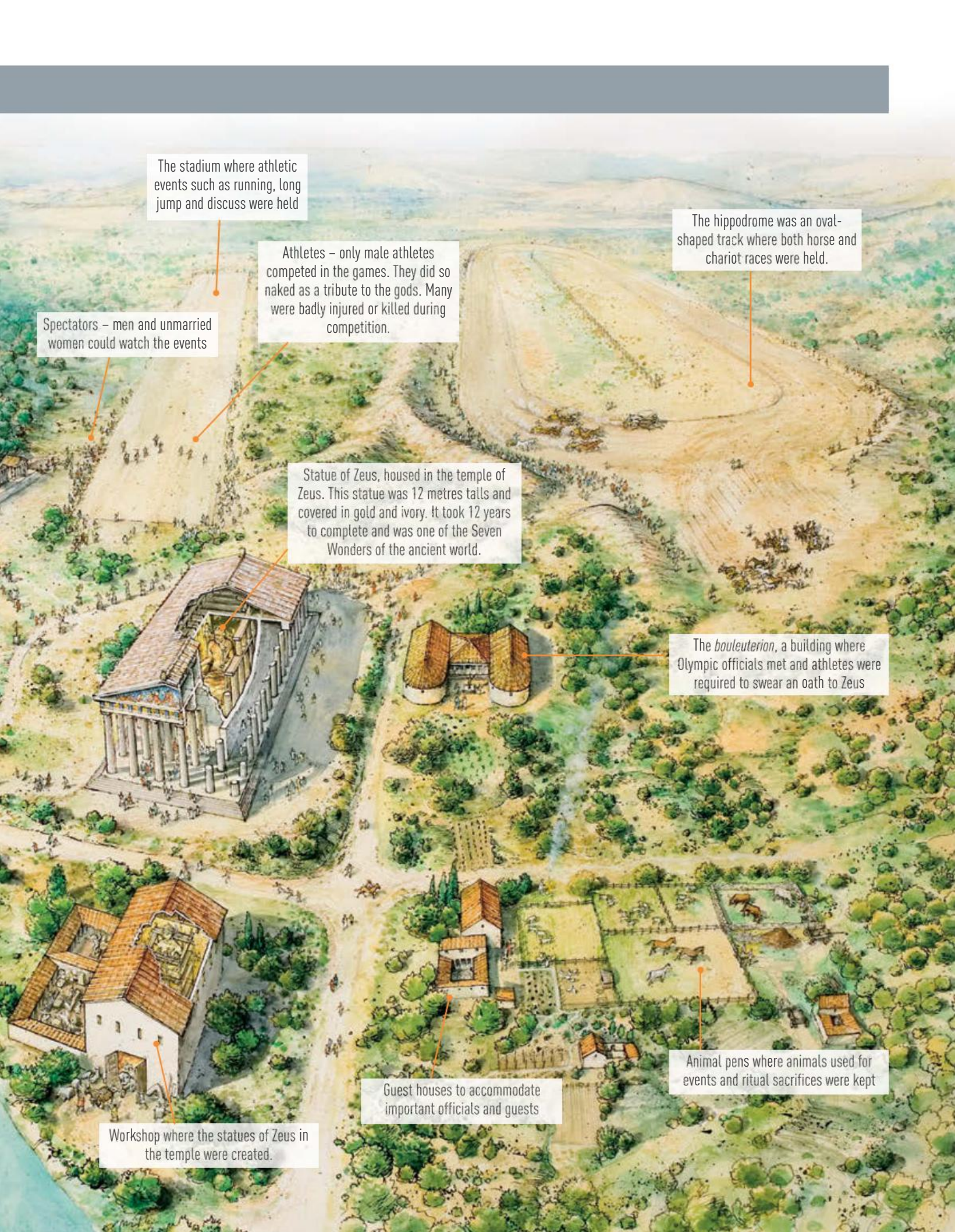
Spectators who came to watch the games pitched tents or slept in the open.

The gymnasium – this building and its grounds were used as training areas by the athletes.

Source 3.19 An artist's impression of the site of the ancient Olympic Games

REVIEW 3.4

- 1 Why were the ancient games held at Olympia?
- 2 Locate the site of the ancient games on Source 3.8.
- 3 Identify the types of people who participated in the ancient games:
 - a as competitors
 - b as spectators.
- 4 For how many years were the ancient games held?
- 5 Study Sources 3.16 to 3.19, as well as the information in the text. Use a Venn diagram to summarise the similarities and differences between the ancient Olympics and the Olympics Games today.



The stadium where athletic events such as running, long jump and discus were held

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.

Spectators – men and unmarried women could watch the events

The hippodrome was an oval-shaped track where both horse and chariot races were held.

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

Workshop where the statues of Zeus in the temple were created.

Guest houses to accommodate important officials and guests

Animal pens where animals used for events and ritual sacrifices were kept

3.2

CHECKPOINT

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT GREEKS BELIEVE?

» Explain how the beliefs and values of the ancient Greeks were reflected in their death and funerary customs

- 1 Identify the term used to describe the kind of religion practised in ancient Greece, and explain its meaning. (3 marks)
- 2 Explain what the ancient Greek believed about the role of gods and goddesses in their everyday lives, and in their festivals. Include examples. (12 marks)
- 3 What did the ancient Greeks believe about death? (10 marks)
- 4 Explain how beliefs about death influenced burial practices in ancient Greece. (5 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/30]

RICH TASK

Greek myths and legends

What the people of ancient Greece believed about their deities was reinforced by myths and legends, such as the legend of the Trojan Wars. Details of the legend of the wooden horse are found in Virgil's poem the *Aeneid* written in the 1st century BC. The 10-year-long siege of Troy and final battle is said to have taken place about 3200 years ago. The story of the legend is outlined in Source 3.21.

Source 3.20 A still from the film *Troy* (2004) showing the wooden horse entering the city



- 1 In groups, present the story of the legend of the Trojan Wars in another way. Choose from the following options: a puppet show or role play with musical scores and special effects; a comic strip; or a children's storybook using ICT or hand-drawn illustrations.

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, Athene and Aphrodite each assumed she was the most beautiful. Paris, son of the king of Troy, was asked to choose.

He chose Aphrodite. His reward was the most beautiful mortal woman in the world, Helen. But Helen was then 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 and Agamemnon 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, a Greek warrior, suggested they build a huge, hollow wooden horse. He proposed that it be dragged outside Troy's walls and left there, and the Greek navy 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 partied 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, who had not sailed away at all.

The Greeks burned and ruined the city of Troy. Paris was killed, as was the Greek hero Achilles. The Greek army, under Odysseus, took 10 years to return home.

Source 3.21 An outline of the legend of the Trojan Wars

2 Conduct research to learn about another well-known Greek myth such as:

- the wanderings of Odysseus, the great warrior who led the Greek army to victory against the Trojans; the story is told in Homer's other epic poem, the *Odyssey*
 - the legend of Heracles (called Hercules by the ancient Romans); Heracles was a **demigod**, the son of Zeus and a mortal mother named Alcmene
 - the story of Jason and the Argonauts, one of the oldest myths and a classic hero's quest.
- a** List the deities who play a part in the myth and find out what they were responsible for.
- b** Summarise 10 or more key events in the myth using a flow chart or storyboard.

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

3.3

SECTION

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT GREECE?

As in all societies, the structure of ancient Greece was influenced by a number of different factors. One main factor was the political system, which determined the individuals or groups who had more power and social influence than others. Other factors also combined to define people's social roles and responsibilities, such as wealth, ownership of land, skills, gender and citizenship, and whether people were free-born or slaves. Military issues also had an impact on the way society was organised. In this section we will explore all of these factors in relation to the Greek city-states of Athens and Sparta.

POLITICAL SYSTEMS IN ANCIENT GREECE

Source 3.22 An artist's impression of the Greek leader Pericles



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** (rule by a select few). A new way of governing developed in Athens during the 6th 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.

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 notable 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.

EXTEND 3.3

- 1 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.

The *Ekklesia* and the *Boule*

Cleisthenes led a reform of Athens' **constitution** around 508 BC (a constitution sets down the rights and duties of citizens and defines how a country is governed). Source 3.24 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.

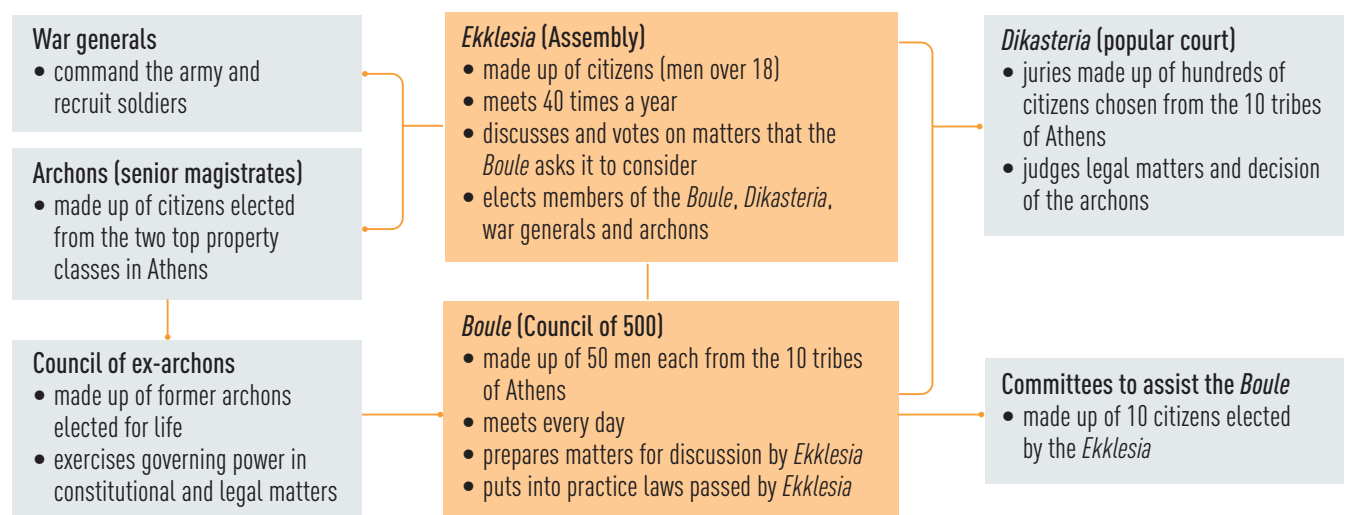
The *Boule* was a council of 500 citizens who met every day. They were responsible for the day-to-day administration of Athens, putting into practice the laws passed by the *Ekklesia*.

Source 3.23

[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 3.24 The political structure of Athens in the 5th century BC



EXTEND 3.4

- 1 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 summarise the discussion using a Venn diagram.

APPLY 3.5

- 1 Modern democracy was described by US President Abraham Lincoln (1809–1875) as ‘government of the people, by the people, and for the people’. How does this definition sit with what you understand about democracy in ancient Athens?
- 2 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?

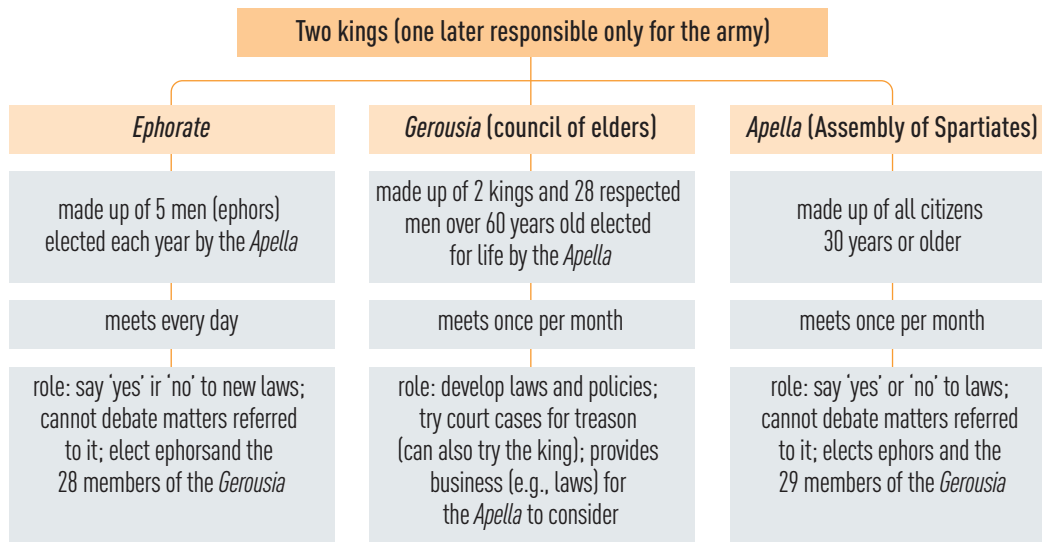
Source 3.25 A statue of King Leonidas in Sparta, Greece

Military rule in Sparta

Some other city-states eventually adopted the democratic structures of Athens. Powerful Sparta, however, became a military state and retained the roles of its kings. The political structure of ancient Sparta can be described as an oligarchy (rule by a few), but it also included rule by kings and the election of the Council of Elders by an assembly of citizens. The political structure of ancient Sparta is shown in Source 3.26.

The Spartans developed their militaristic society not by choice, but 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 ten 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.

Sparta was a secretive, closed society. Its people 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 3.26 The political structure in ancient Sparta. It can be described as an oligarchy (rule by a few), 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.

EXTEND 3.6

- Conduct research to find out a little bit more about one of these Greek tyrants:
 - Cypselus of Corinth
 - Theagenes of Megara
 - Thrasybulus of Miletus.
 Note his achievements and make an assessment of whether you think that he was a good or bad ruler. Write a persuasive text giving reasons for your view.

EXTEND 3.5

- Compare the possibility of limiting the rule of a Spartan king to nine years with the limited terms of governments in modern political systems. Find out the maximum length of political terms in Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States of America.

REVIEW 3.5

- Write your own definition of 'democracy' as a system of government.
- In your own words, describe the role of the *Ekklesia*, the *Boule* and the *Dikasteria* in Athens in the 5th century BC.
- Outline the reasons why ancient Sparta's development as a military state is an example of cause and effect.
- Write two paragraphs to compare and contrast Athens' style of government with Sparta's.

THE SOCIAL ORGANISATION OF ANCIENT GREECE

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, women and *metics* (foreigners) were considered non-citizens.

Slaves in ancient Greece

Source 3.27 An artist's impression of slaves being sold in a Greek marketplace



Slavery was a key feature of ancient Greek society and slaves contributed greatly to the economy because they were a source of cheap labour. The truth is that we do not know much about Greek slaves and their experiences, 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 in Athens. The records show that the slaves on the project were paid the same rate as free men. However, their wages were given to their owners. In some of the city-states, slaves managed the banks. This was because many ancient Greek 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

With very few exceptions, 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. 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 Greek women, could not be citizens, these roles gave Spartan women both power and influence in daily life.

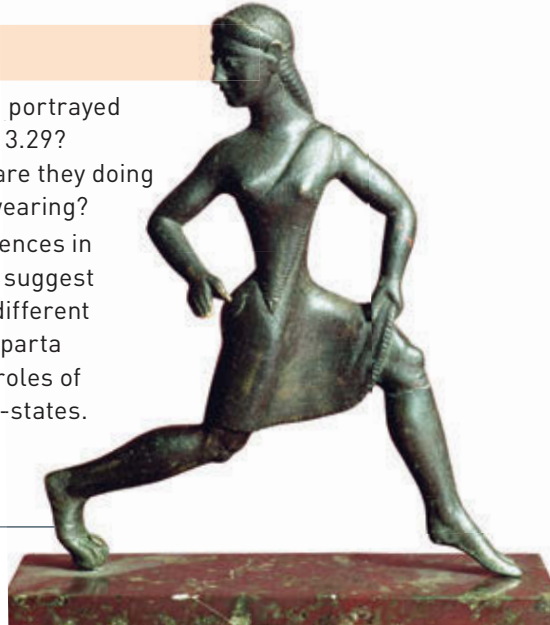
Women in ancient Greece

SOURCE STUDY

INTERPRET 3.3

- 1 How are women portrayed in Sources 3.28 and 3.29? For example, what are they doing and what are they wearing?
- 2 Identify some differences in their portrayal, and suggest how they show the different roles of women in Sparta compared with the roles of women in other city-states.

Source 3.28 A sculpture of a Spartan woman



Source 3.29 A 5th-century BC painting of a Greek 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 time of danger they could be drafted into the army. There is evidence of a number of very rich *metics* in Athens.

REVIEW 3.6

- 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 Why were slaves important in the Athenian and Spartan societies?
- 4 What jobs did slaves usually do?
- 5 What was the role of most women in ancient Greece?
- 6 How did the role of Spartan women differ from other women in ancient Greece?

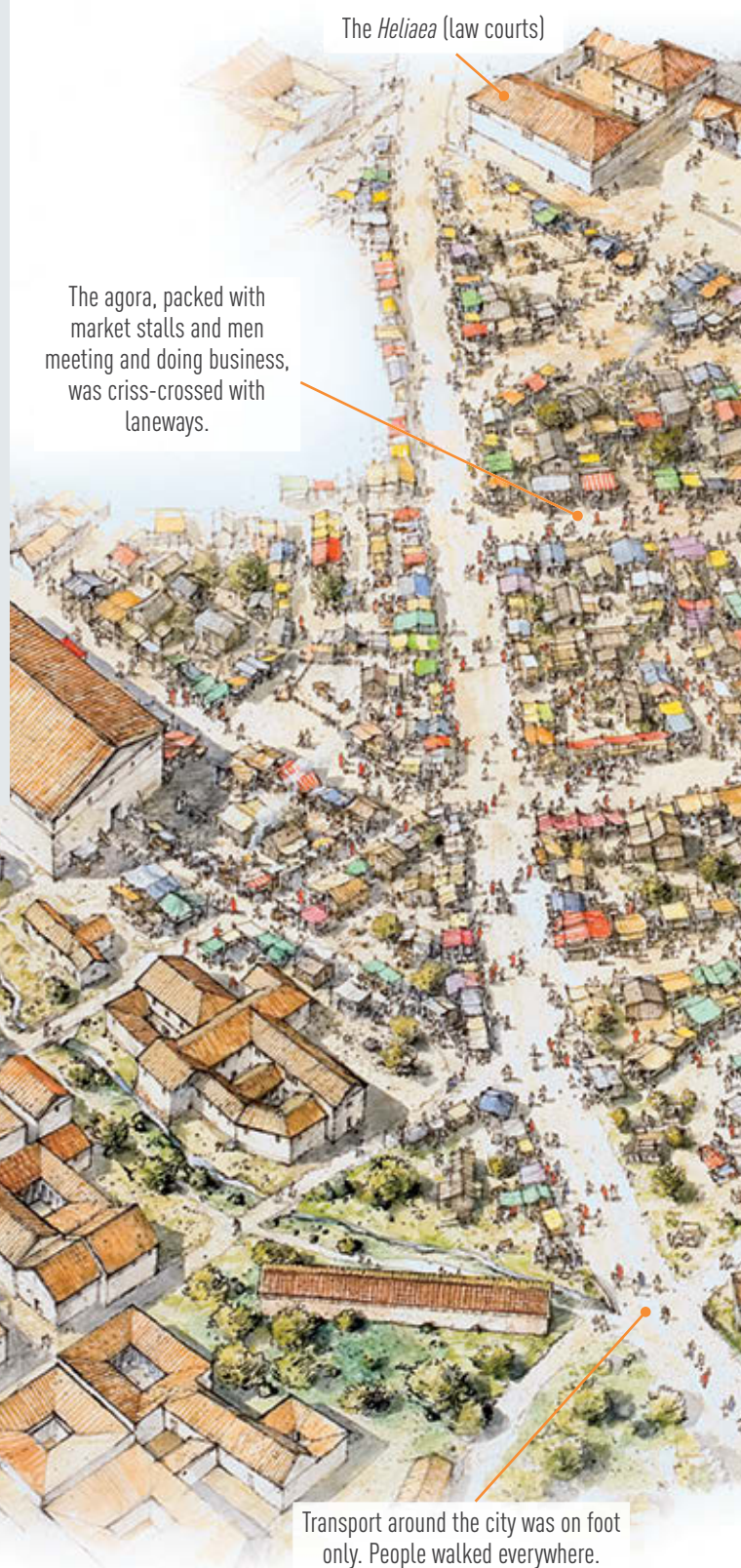
EVERYDAY LIFE IN ANCIENT GREECE

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

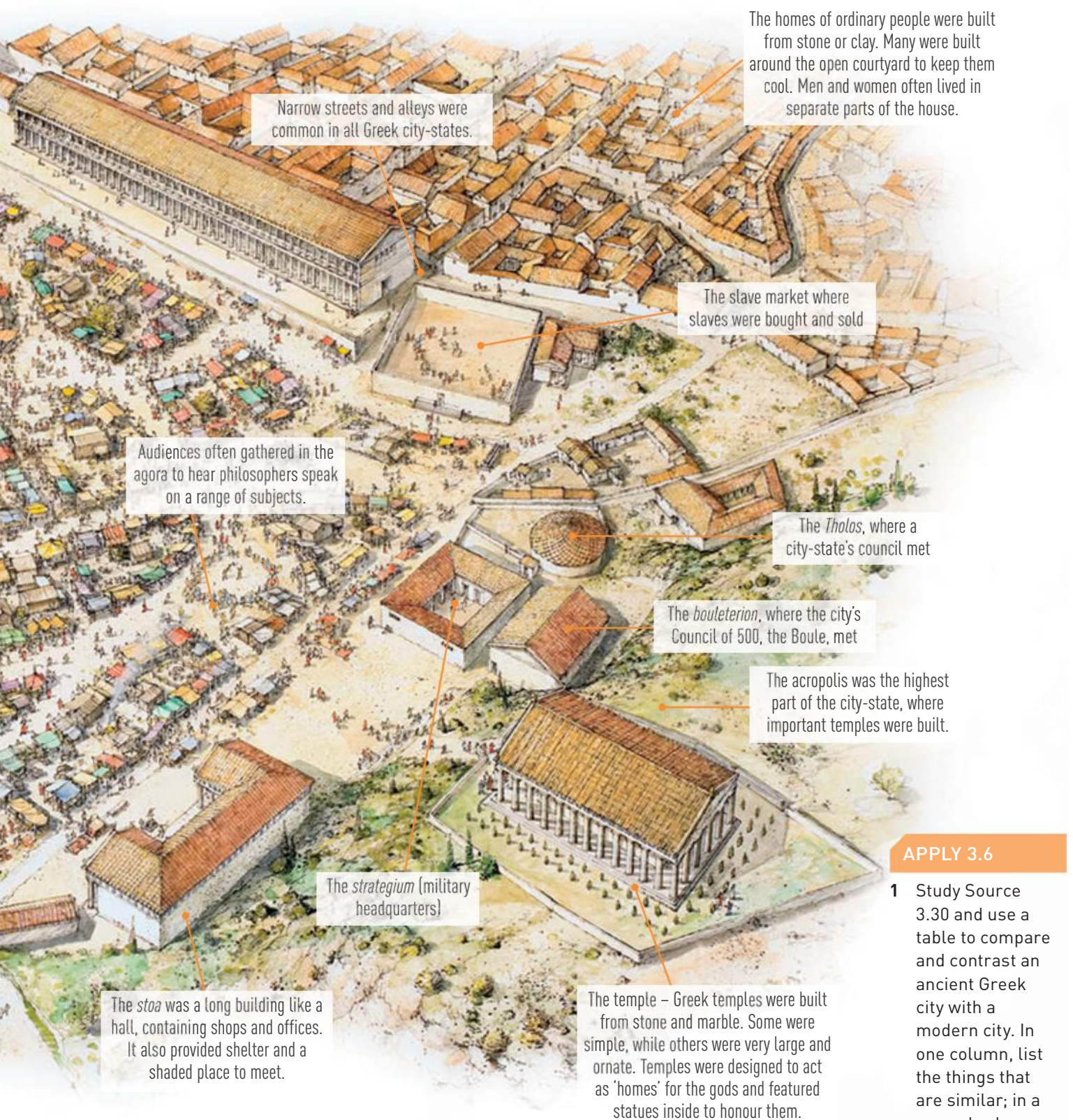
A city-state typically had one city, where most political, religious and cultural activities took place. Source 3.30 is a modern artist's impression of a typical city in ancient Greece. It shows key areas in the city:

- the agora – a large public meeting space; also where the markets were located, 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 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.



APPLY 3.6

- 1 Study Source 3.30 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.

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.

SOURCE STUDY

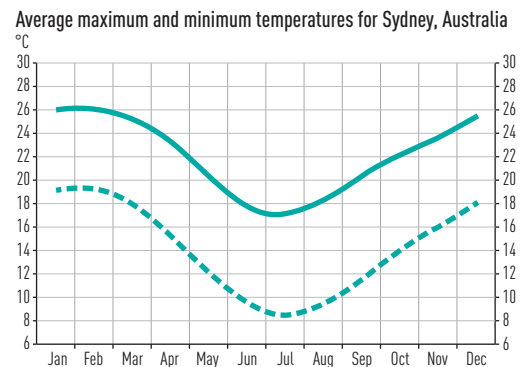
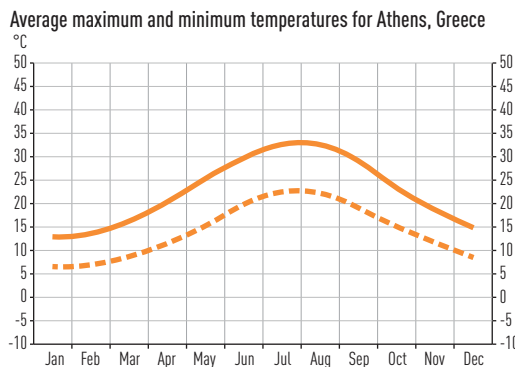
Life in a Mediterranean climate

Source 3.31

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 spent most of it talking with his fellow farmers ... The townsmen felt the same need ... Consequently the Greek 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, pp. 13–14

Source 3.32 The yearly average minimum and maximum temperatures in Athens, Greece, and Sydney, Australia.



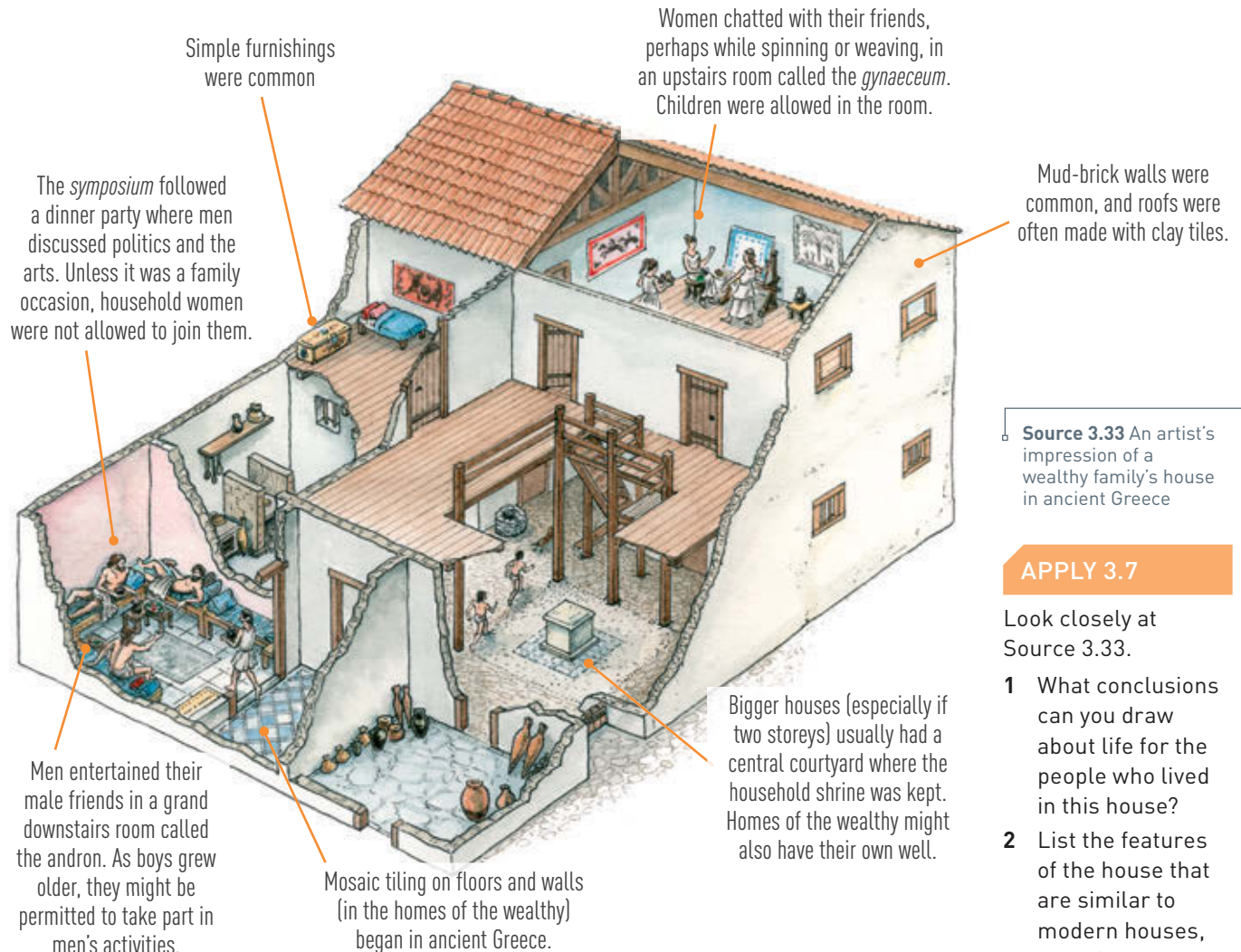
INTERPRET 3.4

- 1 According to Source 3.31, how did the mild climate influence the Greek way of life?
- 2 Look at Source 3.32 and compare the climates of Athens and Sydney. With this information, how would you describe the climate of Sydney?
- 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 of course led more pleasant lives than did poor women. For them, there were occasional outings to a religious festival, wedding, funeral or a visit to another woman at her home. There is some evidence suggesting women may have attended some plays. Life for a poor woman consisted of little more than looking after the family, fetching water, cooking food, spinning and weaving cloth.

The social divisions between men and women, and between wealthy families and their slaves, is 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 3.33 An artist's impression of a wealthy family's house in ancient Greece

APPLY 3.7

Look closely at Source 3.33.

- 1 What conclusions can you draw about life for the people who lived in this house?
- 2 List the features of the house that are similar to modern houses, then list the differences.

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.

Fashion and beauty

Evidence for the clothing and footwear worn by men and women includes that from 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 3.29). 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 3.34). *Chitons* were long, light-weight 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 3.34 Statue of a Greek woman wearing a *chiton*

Education

Girls were generally not educated in ancient Greece, although in Sparta girls were given formal physical education to produce fit and healthy mothers. For boys, education started at age seven. In Athens, boys learned how to read and write, studied mathematics, and learned 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 face-to-face instruction.

After the Spartan society became driven by military obligations and duties in the 7th 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.

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!



Source 3.35 An artist's impression of Plutarch's account of the Spartan boy who stole a fox



Source 3.36 Detail from ancient Greek pottery showing a Greek youth learning to dance

Source 3.37

[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

INTERPRET 3.5

- 1 Describe what is happening in Sources 3.35 and 3.36.
- 2 Explain why Source 3.36 could not be a scene from Spartan society.
- 3 According to Plutarch, in Source 3.37, what were the aims of Spartan education?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

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.' (See Source 3.35)

REVIEW 3.7

- 1 In a Greek city, what were typical activities carried out at the agora? What types of activities were done at the acropolis?
- 2 Explain how the different roles of men, women and slaves were reflected in the design of houses in ancient Greece.
- 3 How did life change for a new bride, and how was it similar to her old life?
- 4 Why do you think chitons were loosely worn and made from light-weight material?
- 5 Explain how the roles of men and women in ancient Greece influenced the way they were educated.
- 6 What evidence challenges a common belief that Sparta sacrificed everything for the military way of life?

3.3

CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT GREECE?

» Outline how society in ancient Athens and Sparta was organised and governed

- 1 How were people classified or distinguished in ancient Greek society? (10 marks)
- 2 Outline the political systems of ancient Greece in the 5th century BC, in:
 - a Athens (10 marks)
 - b Sparta (10 marks)
 - c other city-states with political systems that differ from Athens and Sparta. (5 marks)

» Describe key groups in Athenian and Spartan society, such as citizens, women and slaves

- 3 Distinguish between the following groups in ancient Greek society, including a description of their rights and expected roles:
 - a men and women (5 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

- 4 For each aspect of everyday life listed below, write a paragraph to describe the experiences of men, women and children in ancient Athens and Sparta. (30 marks)
 - family life
 - schooling
 - fashion and beauty
 - life in a Greek city.

» Investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece.

- 5 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in ancient Greece. (20 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASKS

It's great to be Greek

Create a 'guide to the Greek world' to convince people outside mainland Greece of the great advantages of becoming a Greek colony. It can be in the form of a poster, video, PowerPoint presentation or web page. Make up a suitable title and remember to use your creativity so that it does not read like a collection of notes. Conduct research using digital and other resources to gather information, and include relevant source material from the text or your own investigations. For example, you could:

- provide real or imaginary 'testimonials' – written or video quotations from different groups in ancient Greek society, such as citizens, non-citizens, women, children and slaves
- include a historical section, including your own timeline of important events and Greek achievements up to the 5th century BC
- conduct research to include sources and information about aspects of life in ancient Greece that we have not covered in this chapter, such as food and entertainment.



Source 3.38 A mosaic from the 6th century BC showing singing and dancing in honour of Dionysus, the god of wine and pleasure

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

Athens *versus* Sparta – who was the greatest?

Consider the following arguments and opinions, and use your knowledge and research to make up your own mind. Write a persuasive text arguing for your point of view.

Alternatively, organise a class debate with half the class considering arguments that favour Athens and the other half favouring Sparta. Select debating teams who will state their case in turns, respecting one another's point of view.

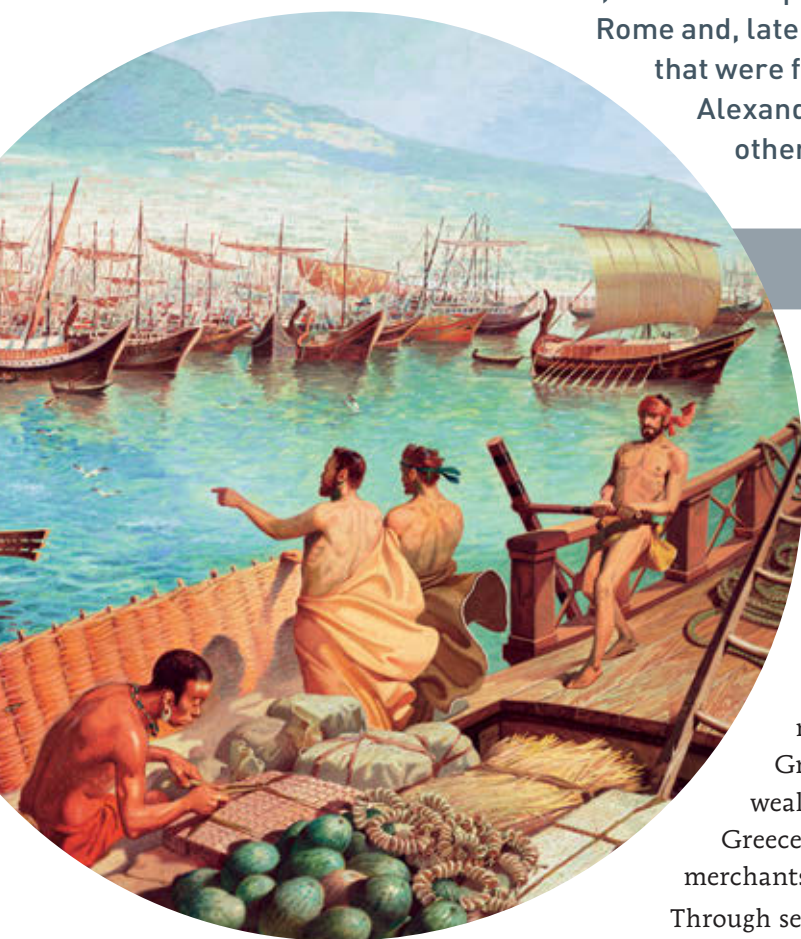
Why Athens is the greatest	Why Sparta is the greatest
- Athens is recognised as the birthplace of democracy - Athens is more famous than any other Greek city-state and Athens spread its influence while the Spartans kept to themselves. Sparta's fame is based almost entirely on the skill of its soldiers. - Athens produced a 'Golden Age', when freedom of speech, the arts, medicine, philosophy, history and learning became a model for Greece and the Western world. Sparta cannot match this legacy. - Athens built a magnificent city of temples and monuments, while Sparta left no regularly planned city or significant buildings	- The Greek philosopher Aristotle described the Spartan system of government as a good one because it combined the elements of monarchy (which offered strong leadership), oligarchy (which had the advantage of providing a range of ideas) and democracy (where the views of the majority would be heard). He was less impressed by the Athenian system, writing that the democracy in Athens saw popular men, but not the best men elected to office. - Sparta was more secretive than Athens and therefore outsiders never had the chance to see the quality of Spartan arts, which were as good as anything produced by Athens. - Although Athens was the birthplace of democracy, both the Athenians and Spartans had slaves. Sparta however offered women in its society some education and independence.

3.4

SECTION

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

With the exception of Sparta, the ancient Greeks were open to colonisation, travel and new ideas. The cultures and goods of Greece's many colonies and markets all had an influence on the society of ancient Greece. In turn, Greek values, beliefs and philosophies were a major influence for ancient Rome and, later on, for Western European traditions. The wars that were fought in ancient Greece, and the empire built by Alexander the Great, shaped the history of Greece and other ancient societies.



Source 3.39 An artist's impression of Greek trading ships (*triremes*) at the Greek island of Delos

TRADING GOODS AND IDEAS

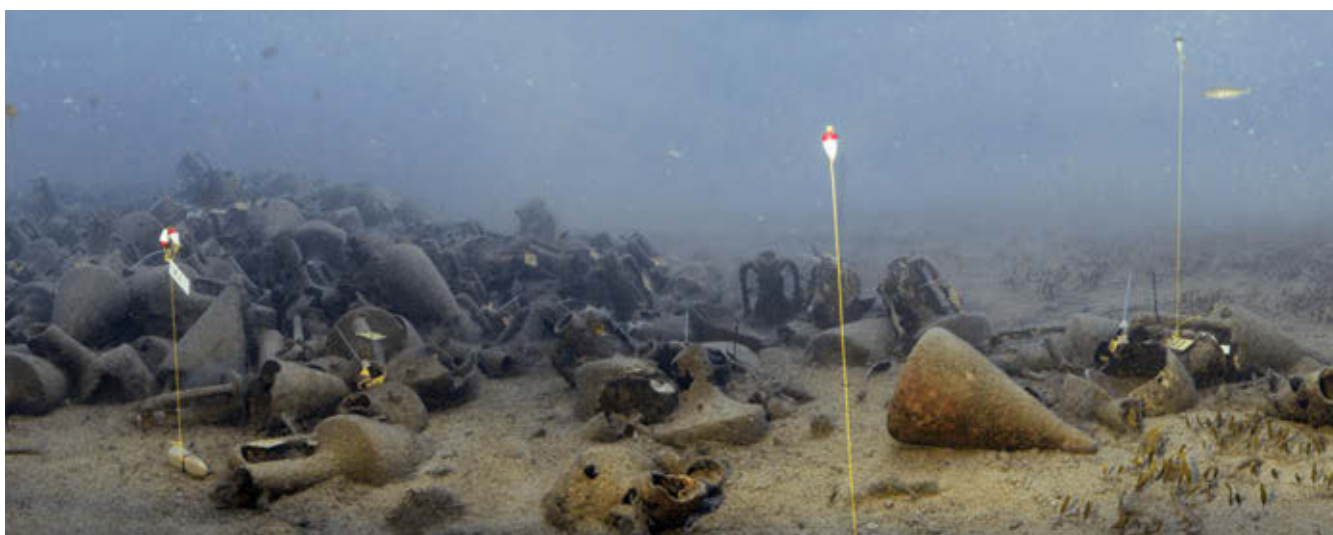
Greece's soil was fertile for growing olives and grapes, and timber was in plentiful supply for boat-building. However, a shortage of farmland meant a shortage of grain crops. Metals other than silver were also in limited supply.

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 learned 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.

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 8th century BC, and 46 during the 4th century BC.



Source 3.40 This image shows ancient amphorae (storage jars), which provide evidence of the type of cargo carried by a trading ship that sank in the 4th century BC in the Aegean Sea

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 Hannsson said: ‘It’s a feat no one thought was even possible ... it opens up a whole new field of molecular archaeology.’



Source 3.41 Dr Maria Hannsson, testing for ancient DNA in samples collected from a Greek amphora

INTERPRET 3.6

Read the text above and answer the following questions.

- 1 What did researchers discover about products traded from ancient Greece?
- 2 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 be available for historians in the future as a result of the new scientific technique?

REVIEW 3.8

- 1 Why were resources in short supply in mainland Greece?
- 2 Identify some of the skills and ideas gained by ancient Greece from their contact with other societies.
- 3 What evidence do archaeologists have of increasing trade in the Mediterranean?

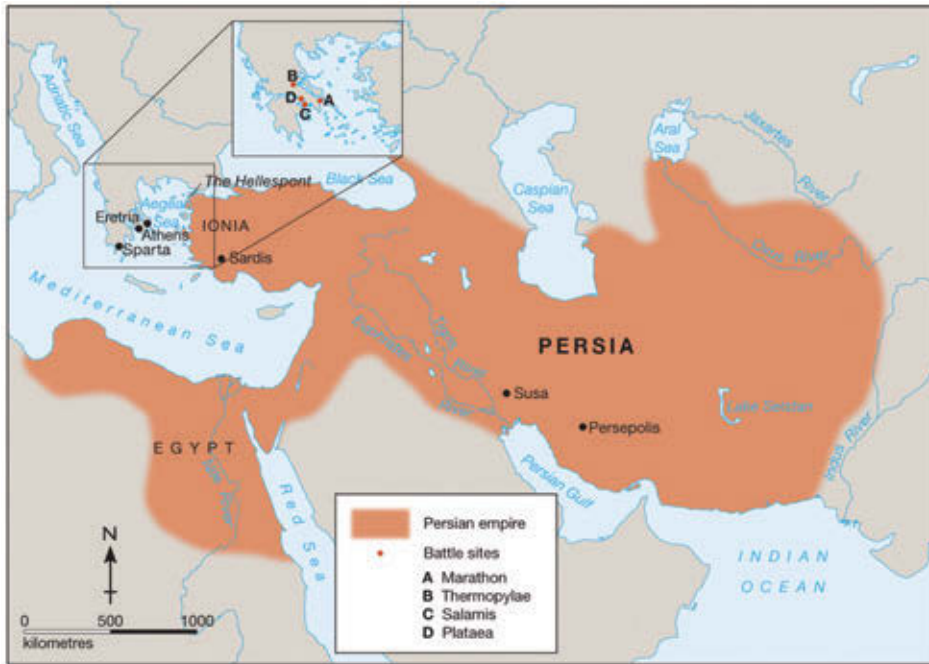
ANCIENT GREECE AT WAR

Greece 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

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 could also see how valuable aspects of Greek culture such as engineering and sciences could be.

The Persian Wars were fought in 490 BC and then again in 480 to 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 3.42 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. Darius, however, wanted to punish the Greeks, as well as extend his empire. 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 **hoplites** (the heavily-armoured Greek infantry) 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 lightly-armoured 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.

The Battle of Marathon

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 A 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 3.43 An artist's impression of a Greek hoplite



- 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 had 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 distance
- 3 A Persian soldier wearing leather armour and 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 two-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.

Source 3.44 An artist's impression of Persian soldiers

STRANGE BUT TRUE

According to the Greek historian Herodotus, during the Battle of Marathon an Athenian soldier called Epizelus suddenly went blind. Epizelus said that the last thing that he saw was a giant Persian soldier in heavy armour advancing towards him. But he did not go blind because of a blow to the head or a wounded eye. Instead, his loss of sight was due to an emotional shock. Epizelus was blind for the rest of his life. Today, Epizelus' condition is known as 'hysterical blindness'.

Source 3.45

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 metre]) 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. 362–364

INTERPRET 3.7

- 1 Sources 3.43 and 3.44 are artists' impressions of a Greek hoplite and Persian soldiers at the time of the Battle of Marathon. Compare and contrast their armour and weapons. Which set of weapons and armour would best suit a battle fought at close quarters? Explain your reasoning.
- 2 Read Source 3.45 and answer the following questions.
 - a Who was the Athenian leader?
 - b Write a narrative text outlining the key events in the battle.
 - c What were the Persian and the Greek losses in the battle?
 - d According to the source, which factors contributed most to the Greek victory?

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 and inflicted huge losses on the Persians. Nevertheless, he died along with the 300 Spartans of his personal guard.

When the Persians finally reached Athens, they looted the city and burnt the Acropolis. But the 'last stand' of Leonidas and his men 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 sunk 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 War

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 in the following year. For a time, Sparta was the supreme power in ancient Greece.



Source 3.46 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 Phillip II, the army of Macedon brought most of Greece under Macedonian control by 338 BC. Phillip 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').

APPLY 3.8

- 1 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.
- 2 Based on your investigation, write a paragraph to answer the question, 'Why is Alexander the Great considered to be a significant individual in the ancient world?' Include the consequences and legacies left for the societies that he conquered.

REVIEW 3.9

- 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.

THE LEGACY OF ANCIENT GREECE

Ancient Greece is sometimes called the 'cradle of Western civilisation' because much of its 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.

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.

Source 3.47 A mask used by actors in ancient Greece

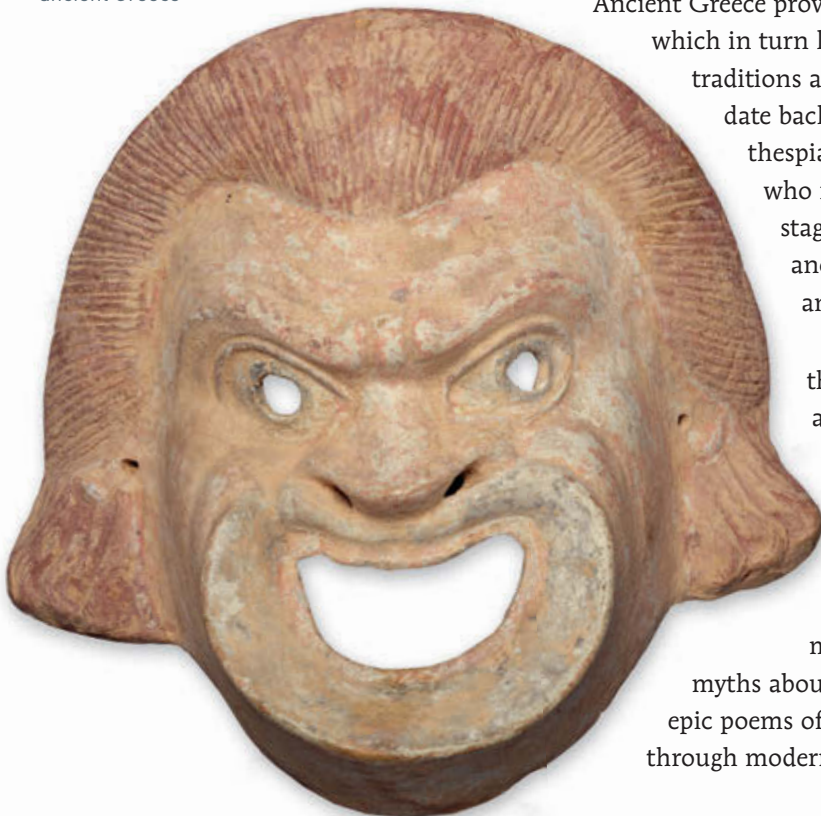
Drama, language and literature

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.



Architecture and sculpture

The ancient Greeks are 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.



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 3.48 Australia's democratic system of government – even the architecture of its Federal Parliament building – is a legacy of the ancient Greek civilisation

EXTEND 3.7

- 1 The legacy of ancient Greece offers something of interest for almost everyone.
 - a What interests you most about the ancient Greeks and why?
 - b Of all of the people and ideas that were ancient Greece's legacy to the modern world, which do you think has been the most important? Write a persuasive text to explain your answer.
- 2 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.
- 3 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.
- 4 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

REVIEW 3.10

- 1 Which aspects of Western civilisation originated in ancient Greece?
- 2 Where does the word 'alphabet' come from?

3.4

CHECKPOINT

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

» Identify a conflict within ancient Greek society

- 1 Identify the major conflict between Athens and Sparta, and describe the course and the result of this conflict. (15 marks)

» Explain the consequences of this conflict for ancient Greece

- 2 What consequences did this conflict have for Athens and Sparta, and for ancient Greek society as a whole? (5 marks)

» Describe contacts and conflicts between Greece and other ancient societies, through trade, warfare and conquest

- 3 Identify trading and other contacts between ancient Greece, its colonies and other societies. (10 marks)
- 4 Identify the major conflict fought between Greek city-states and the Persian Empire, and describe the course and result of this conflict. (15 marks)
- 5 Identify a conflict between ancient Greece and a neighbouring power to the north. (1 mark)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient Greece and other societies

- 6 What consequences did trading and other contacts have for ancient Greece, its colonies and other societies? (5 marks)
- 7 What consequences did the major conflict have for ancient Greece and the Persian Empire? (5 marks)
- 8 What consequences did the conflict between ancient Greece and its neighbouring power have for Greece and the ancient world? (4 marks)

» Investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient Greece

- 9 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in ancient Greece. (20 marks)

» Explain the legacy of the ancient Greeks

- 10 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. (20 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASKS

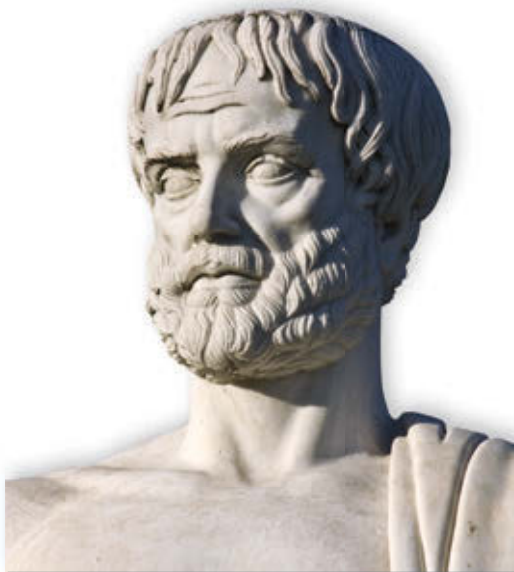
The Persian Wars – facts and fables

Much of what we know about the Persian Wars comes from the Athenian writer Herodotus. Because Herodotus wrote to glorify the Greeks, historians need to approach investigations of the Persian Wars with care. Herodotus appears to be reliable when it comes to what happened, as well as where and when events took place. The difficulties come when Herodotus moves into the areas of explanation and the discussion of cause and effect. In short, Herodotus puts the success of the Greeks in the Persian Wars down to the superiority of their values and their way of life. The Persians are depicted as the aggressors and as a slave empire (despite the existence of slaves in Greek society), under the rule of cruel and ruthless kings.

- 1 Conduct research on the Persian Wars. As you investigate, look for signs of bias in favour of the Greeks, such as the examples below.
 - According to Herodotus, Xerxes built a bridge of boats across the Hellespont (a line of water separating Asia from Europe) so that his soldiers could cross over. When the first bridge was destroyed in a storm, Xerxes had the waters whipped as a punishment. This makes the Persian ruler look foolish. Xerxes may have issued such an order, but as a symbolic gesture that he was able to punish the gods of wind and sea. The Persian army was made up of thousands of conscripted peasants who obeyed because they believed that Xerxes was a god.
 - The well-known victories of the heavily outnumbered Greek forces have been credited to the courage of the Greeks and their fighting abilities. The reality is that Greek weapons and tactics were better suited to Greek conditions than Persian weapons and tactics. The Greeks were fighting to protect their homes and families; the Persians were either fighting for money or because they were conscripts forced into the army.
 - Most accounts suggest the Persian Wars were a major setback for the Persians. The Greeks were successful in saving their independence and way of life. For the Persians, it was one part of their plans for their vast empire. The Persians simply shifted their attention to other matters.
- 2 Based on your findings from your investigation, write an account of the Persian Wars from the perspective of either person from ancient Greece or a Persian 'war correspondent'. Present your account as a written report, or as a reporter on the nightly news.

Athens *versus* Sparta revisited

Revisit your evaluation from the Rich Task 'Athens *versus* Sparta' in Checkpoint 3.3. Use your knowledge of Athens' and Sparta's role in the Persian Wars, to propose whether Athens or Sparta played the more important role in the defence of Greece. Do you still agree with your original evaluation about who was the greatest?



Source 3.49 A bust of Aristotle. Following the Peloponnesian War where Sparta emerged victorious, Aristotle and other writers looked with favour on Sparta and the Spartan system of government.



Source 3.50 A bust of Herodotus. Herodotus gave a great deal of credit to Athens for saving Greece because of the victory of its fleet over the Persians at Salamis, although other historians view the Spartan's defeat of the Persian army at Plataea as the critical victory.

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

Source 4.1 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



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, 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.

4.1

SECTION

- » describe ancient Rome's geographical setting and natural features
- » explain how these features influenced the development of Roman society

CHECKPOINT 4.1

4.2

SECTION

- » outline how the society in ancient Rome was organised and governed
- » describe key groups in Roman society, such as citizens, women and slaves
- » describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient Rome
- » investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient Rome

CHECKPOINT 4.2

4.3

SECTION

» explain how beliefs and values were evident in ancient Roman death and funerary customs

CHECKPOINT 4.3

4.4

SECTION

- » identify conflicts within ancient Roman society
- » explain the consequences of these conflicts for Roman society
- » describe contacts and conflicts between Rome and other ancient societies, through trade, warfare and conquest
- » explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for Rome and other ancient societies
- » explain the legacy of ancient Rome

CHECKPOINT 4.4

ANCIENT ROME – A TIMELINE

T
I
M
E
L
I
N
E

753 BC

The legendary founding of Rome by Romulus

Source 4.2 Part of a mosaic of fighting gladiators



312 BC

The first major Roman road (the **Via Appia**) and the first **aqueduct** are built

264 BC

The first **gladiator** show in Rome

149 BC

Rome's third and final battle of the Punic wars, ending in 146 BC, destroys Carthage

700 500

400

300

200

100

509 BC

The Romans throw out the last Etruscan king and set up the Roman Republic

250 BC

Rome controls most of Italy

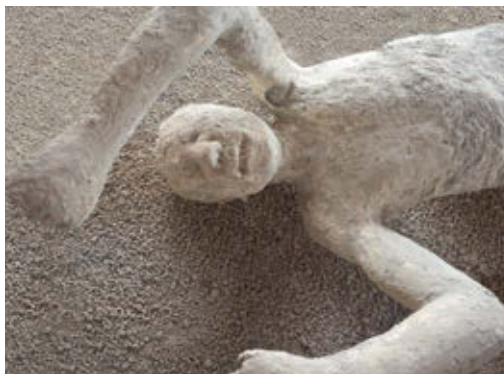
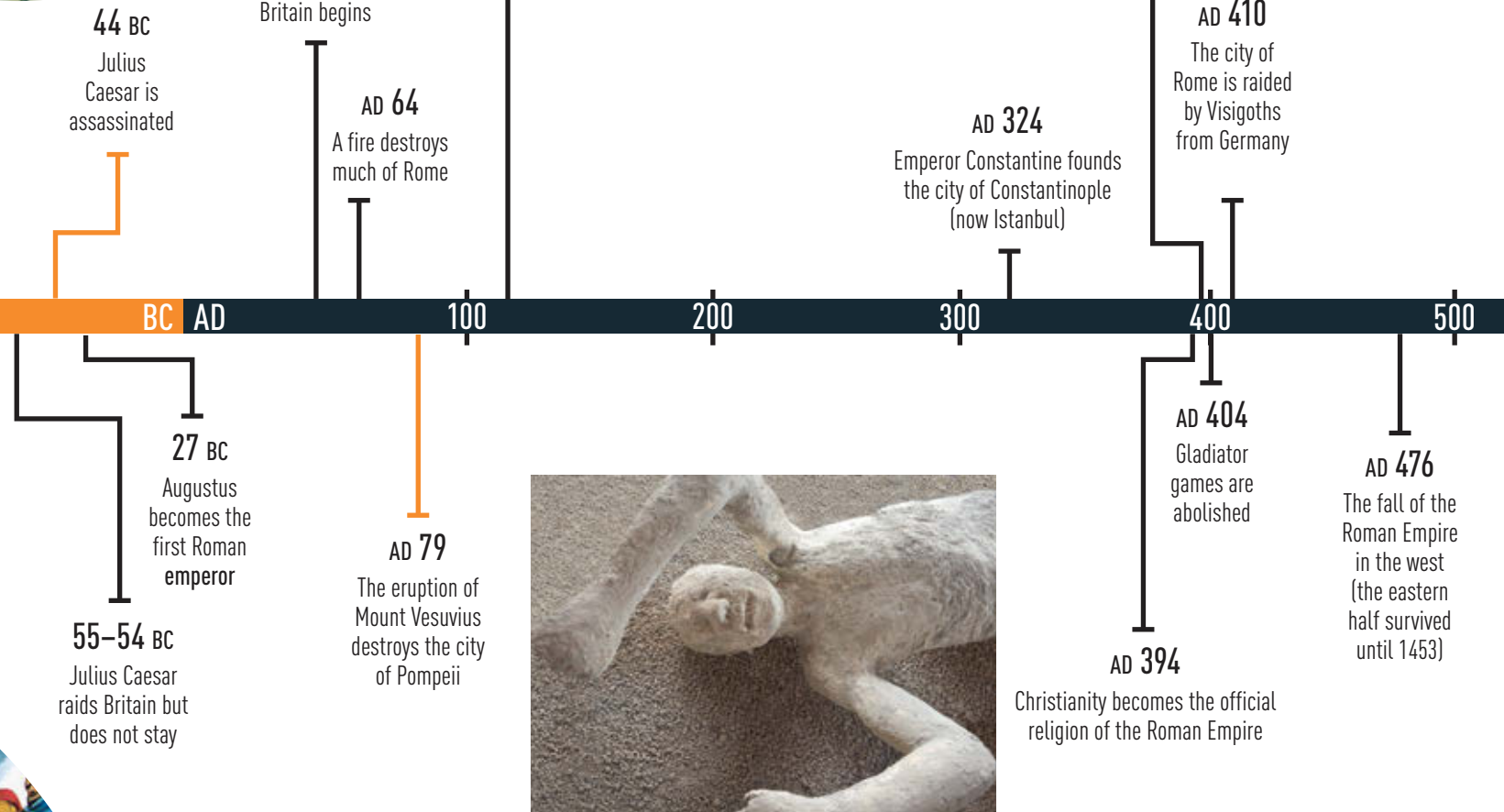
218 BC

The Carthaginian leader Hannibal invades Italy





Source 4.4 An artist's impression of the assassination of Julius Caesar



Source 4.5 Casts of some of the victims of the Mt Vesuvius eruption found in the ruins of Pompeii



Source 4.3 An artist's impression of Hannibal crossing the Alps

REVIEW 4.1

- 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?

4.1

SECTION

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT ROME?

Rome's location on the Mediterranean Sea gave its people access to the cultures of ancient Greece and Egypt. These cultures influenced the development of the society of ancient Rome. The Mediterranean Sea connected Rome with other trade centres and provided easy access for its navies and armies. This enabled Rome to dominate the region and grow into a powerful empire.

THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT ROME

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** to be from the 10th century BC.

Its positioning 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 4.6 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 in 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 4.7.

The geographical setting of ancient Rome

SOURCE STUDY



Source 4.7 Rome's location in the Mediterranean

INTERPRET 4.1

Study Sources 4.7 and 4.8 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.

Source 4.8 An illustrated map of the seven hills of Rome



Source 4.9 According to Roman legend, Romulus and his brother Remus were raised by a she-wolf. Romulus is said to have killed his brother before founding Rome.

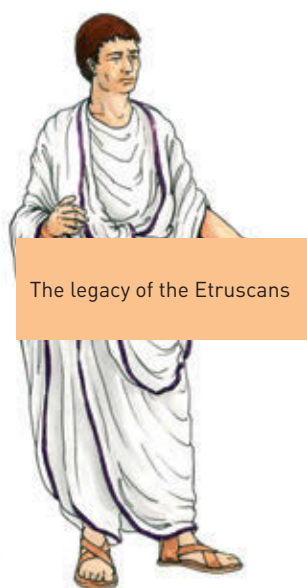


Rome's mythical origins

Romans developed myths about their origins, the most famous of which concerns two brothers named Romulus and Remus. According to the myth, Romulus and Remus 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 the boys and set them afloat in a wooden cradle. When they were washed up on the shore, a female wolf whose cubs had been killed fed the boys with her milk. They were later found by a shepherd and grew to be young men. The brothers 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.

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 4.10).



The legacy of the Etruscans

The large and wealthy trading city that Rome had become

Building, engineering and metalwork skills (e.g. arches, drains, art works)

The toga, a garment worn by citizens of ancient Rome

Advisory council known as the Senate

Source 4.10 Some achievements and customs of the Etruscans that were adopted and developed further by the Romans

REVIEW 4.2

- 1 Summarise some of the advantages of Rome's geographical setting and natural features in the form of a graphic organiser.
- 2 How did Rome get its name?
- 3 Name three aspects of Roman society that had their origins in Etruscan heritage.

4.1

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of resources
- » Research.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT ROME?

» Describe ancient Rome's geographical setting and natural features.

- 1 Describe ancient Rome's geographical setting. [3 marks]
- 2 Look at Source 4.11 below to identify the natural features in and around ancient Rome. [7 marks]



Source 4.11 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]

RICH TASKS

Exploring Rome

Use Google Earth to study the sights of modern Rome.

- 1 Identify some of the hills of Rome, particularly the Capitoline Hill. Describe your observations and then research to find out about its uses through history, and what can be seen there today.
- 2 Identify and explore other geographical features in and around Rome. Make a copy of Source 4.11 and add descriptive labels to the map, identifying the features you found in Question 2 above.

Exploring Egypt and Greece

Use Google Earth to study the geographical setting and natural features of the other ancient Mediterranean civilisations such as Egypt and Greece.

- 1 Write a paragraph for each to describe your observations about the different land types in these other ancient civilisations.
- 2 How do the geographical settings of Egypt and Greece compare to those of Rome?

4.2

SECTION

HOW WAS ANCIENT ROMAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

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 free-born people, and between the rulers and those they ruled. As in ancient Greek society, only certain people in Rome were considered citizens – others in society had very few rights.

ROMAN SOCIETY DURING THE REPUBLIC

Rule in the Republic

APPLY 4.1

- 1 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?

Following the overthrow of Etruscan rule, the Romans set up a **republic** (a way of ruling without a king or royal family). The Roman Republic, which lasted from 509–27 BC, was ruled by a **Senate** made up of rich citizens from powerful families, called **patricians**. Each year two **consuls** were elected from the Senate to exercise power. Source 4.13 outlines the role and responsibilities of the consuls and other magistrates or government officials.

Ordinary citizens, known as **plebeians**, could meet in assemblies to discuss issues and vote to elect magistrates, but in reality 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 1st 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 4.12 A 19th-century painting illustrating a meeting of the Roman Senate

Source 4.13 Government officials of ancient Rome

Official	Number appointed	Role and responsibilities
Consuls	2 (for 1 year)	Top ruling officials who shared power; called and oversaw meetings of the Senate, and managed armies
Praetors	Up to 16	Managed the legal system; appointed (or were) judges; could be appointed as governors in the provinces
Aediles	2	Looked after food supply, games, public buildings, city maintenance, 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, oversaw tax collection and public work contracts

EXTEND 4.1

- 1 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.

Citizens of Rome

Roman citizenship was highly prized. Roman citizens had much more social power and influence than non-citizens. Once they turned 25, they could vote, be elected as a magistrate, 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 on wealth), called equities, as shown in Source 4.14.

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.

Source 4.14 Classes of citizen in ancient Rome

Patricians	Equites	Plebeians
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.	These men 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.	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.
		

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.

In ancient Rome, women were expected to be good wives and mothers. Many were highly respected but they had no real power. Under Roman law, women 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 also had to have a male guardian accompany them when in public (such as their father, husband or a brother). Among women themselves there was a 'pecking order'; young, newly married women were very much controlled by their mothers-in-law.

Whether rich or poor, women's prime role was to raise children and run the household. Wealthy women had slaves to help them with these tasks. Under Roman law, girls could marry at the age of 12. The usual age was around 14, but some women waited until their late teens or twenties. A suitable husband was chosen by a girl's parents, particularly her father. Often, husbands that were selected were 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 number of women who did have a public role were the **Vestal Virgins**. 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, the role of women evolved and 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 4.15.

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. In 16 BC, she was the first Roman woman to have her face on a Roman coin. It was rumoured that she murdered her husband by feeding him a dish of poisoned figs.



SOURCE STUDY

Women in ancient Rome

Source 4.15

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 4.2

- 1 Explain how the sculpture shown in Source 4.16 relates to Roman expectations of the role of women.
- 2 What evidence does Source 4.15 provide about what Livy thought of women?

Source 4.16 Sculpture of a Roman woman and her two sons

Another woman of the imperial household, Agrippina the Younger, was also eager for power and married her uncle, the emperor Claudius, then persuaded him to adopt her son from a previous marriage. She then poisoned Claudius in order 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, though some were bought as 'goods'. A few were abandoned or were 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.

The treatment of slaves in ancient Rome

Source 4.17

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 STUDY



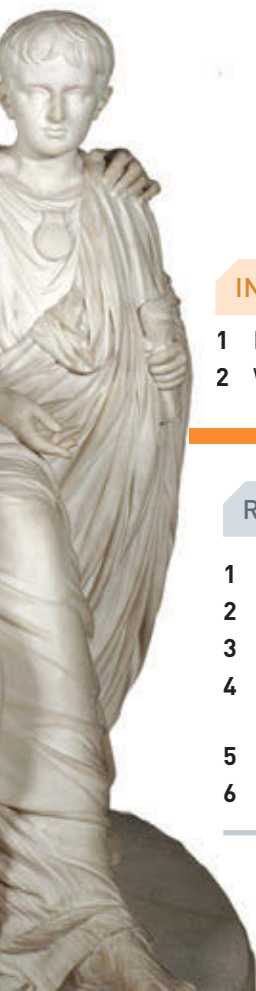
Source 4.18 Slaves who were strong or physically attractive, such as the slave depicted in this ancient **mosaic**, were prized as workers in households of the wealthy.

INTERPRET 4.3

- 1 Identify Sources 4.17 and 4.18 as either primary or secondary sources.
- 2 What evidence do the sources provide about the lives of slaves in Rome?

REVIEW 4.3

- 1 Explain the main differences between a patrician and a plebeian.
- 2 Explain why Roman citizenship was something worth having.
- 3 At what age could Roman girls be legally married?
- 4 Outline the ways in which a woman's position in Roman society was worse than a man's.
- 5 What was the role of the Vestal Virgins?
- 6 Why were slaves an important part of ancient Roman society?



FROM REPUBLIC TO EMPIRE

The life and death of Julius Caesar

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 and was popular with the people and his troops. In a major campaign, he conquered much of Gaul (modern-day France) and 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 (sole ruler) 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. He was stabbed 23 times when he entered the Senate House on 15 March, 44 BC. His death was followed by over a decade of further civil war, which finally brought an end to the republic.

When the fighting finally ended, the most powerful man in Rome was a man called Octavian who had been adopted by Julius Caesar and was 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.

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, some were a little strange, and some were just plain mad!

EXTEND 4.2

- 1 It is 45 BC and 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.

REVIEW 4.4

- 1 Outline how Caesar gained his reputation as a military commander.
- 2 Do you think Caesar should have crossed the Rubicon with his army? Explain your reasoning.
- 3 Suggest why Caesar was killed.
- 4 Who was the first emperor of Rome?
- 5 When did the Roman Empire finally collapse in Western Europe?
- 6 Read the text opposite about four Roman emperors. Classify them from best to worst. Explain the reasons for your choices.

Source 4.19 A bust of Julius Caesar



Four emperors of Rome

Caligula (AD 12–AD 41)

I am Caligula (Gaius Julius Caesar Augustus Germanicus to be precise). I was Rome's third emperor, ruling from AD 37 to 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. I did often 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!



Source 4.20 A bust of Caligula

Nero (AD 15–AD 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. Great at chariot racing, too. I had my mother murdered when I was 21. 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.



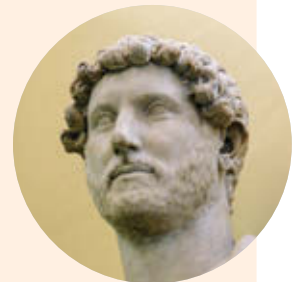
Source 4.21 A bust of Nero

Hadrian (AD 76–AD 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 to be 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, and I was widely thought to be wise and just. I even started a fashion for beards. Only Nero before me had a beard, but afterwards most of them copied me! Unfortunately, my health failed and I died of heart failure, aged 62.



Source 4.22 A bust of Hadrian

Marcus Aurelius (AD 121–AD 180)

I am Marcus Aurelius. I was 40 when I became emperor, ruling between AD 121 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 and my co-emperor for a time (my stepbrother Verus) 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.



Source 4.23 A bust of Marcus Aurelius

EVERYDAY LIFE IN THE ROMAN WORLD

Everyday life in ancient Rome varied according to whether people were male or female, whether they were citizens, and whether they were freeborn or slaves. Lifestyles also reflected whether people were wealthy or poor, and whether they lived a rural life, were settled in provincial towns, or lived in the increasingly crowded city of Rome.

Family life and education

As we have seen, in Roman society the oldest male had total authority over his extended family. Education was reserved for the wealthy, and then 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 learned to read and write. Typically, the 'school' was a part of a shop, which was separated from public view by a curtain. Boys were frequently beaten, as there was a belief that fear would make students learn correctly.

SOURCE STUDY

Roman schooling



Source 4.24 Stone carving from AD 3 showing a father with his child



Source 4.25 Writing implements from ancient Rome

INTERPRET 4.4

- 1 Look at the scene shown in Source 4.24. Which social class do the father and son belong to? Explain your reasoning.
- 2 Source 4.25 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.

Roman weddings

As is the case today, 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 of money and goods 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.

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 4.26 A carving of a wedding ceremony in ancient Rome. The groom holds the wedding contract.



Source 4.27 Jewellery and other grooming accessories discovered in a villa in Pompeii

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 (as shown in Source 4.14).

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.

REVIEW 4.5

- 1 Create two tables, such as those below, to compare the similarities and differences between ancient Roman and modern Australian schooling and wedding customs.

Schooling		Weddings	
Ancient Rome	Modern Australia	Ancient Rome	Modern Australia

LIFE IN A ROMAN TOWN

As their empire expanded, the Romans built more and more towns. Most of these towns followed the same basic design. All towns were protected by a town wall. People entered 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 (see Source 4.29). 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 these building. Large temples were common for major gods, such as Jupiter, and smaller temples were common for more 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 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.
- A raised stone channel for moving water from the hills to the town – known as an **aqueduct** – was vital to 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.



APPLY 4.2

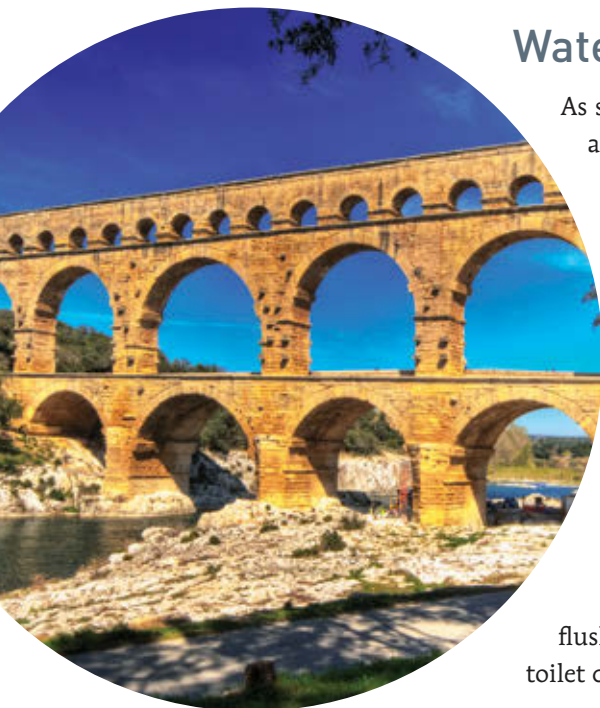
- 1 Identify the following features of a Roman town by matching them with the letter A to M.
 - i the forum
 - ii two temples (provide *two* letters)
 - iii the circus for chariot races
 - iv the amphitheatre for gladiator fights
 - v the public baths (clue: look for a swimming pool)

Source 4.29 An aerial view of Silchester, a Roman town in Britain founded around AD 1 and abandoned some time after AD 400.



- vi an aqueduct
- vii a gateway to the city
- viii soldiers' barracks
- ix a shopping area with open-air stalls
- x a rich man's house
- xi the cemetery
- xii a theatre for dramatic performances.

Source 4.28 An artist's impression of a typical Roman town



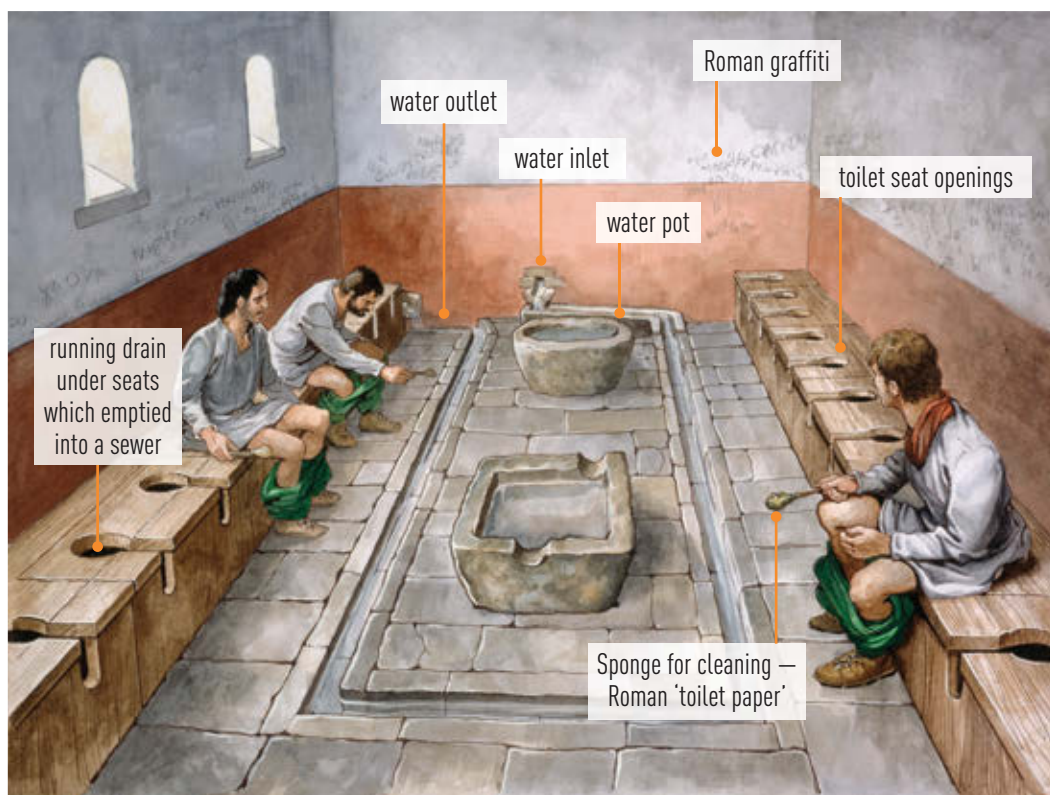
Water and sanitation

As shown in Source 4.28, a Roman town's water supply was brought in by a system of aqueducts. These would bring fresh water from streams – in hills often many kilometres away – travelling along tunnels through hillsides and crossing steep gorges on high arches. The gradient 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.

Once in 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 is 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!

Source 4.30 The Pont du Gard aqueduct at Nîmes in France, was built between AD 40 and 60



Source 4.31 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.

The Roman hypocaust

SOURCE STUDY



Source 4.32 A small hypocaust was a typical feature of Roman villas – spacious homes lived in by wealthy families



Source 4.33 The remains of a mosaic floor and hypocaust from Chedworth Roman villa. The tiles supporting the floor and the hole to the furnace can be seen.

INTERPRET 4.5

- 1 Study Sources 4.32 and 4.33 and, in your own words, summarise how the Roman hypocaust system worked to heat a building.

REVIEW 4.6

- 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?

EXTEND 4.3

- 1 On your own or in small groups, make your own mosaic. Use a rectangle of cardboard 8cm x 10cm and, with a pencil, divide it into 1cm squares. This is your 'floor'. Use coloured cardboard (three colours should be enough) and cut up the card into 1cm 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. Remember that you can cut the coloured pieces into rectangles or triangles (but not circles) to vary your pattern.

LIFE IN 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 over 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 homes, 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 often 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.

SOURCE STUDY

City life in Rome

Source 4.34

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.

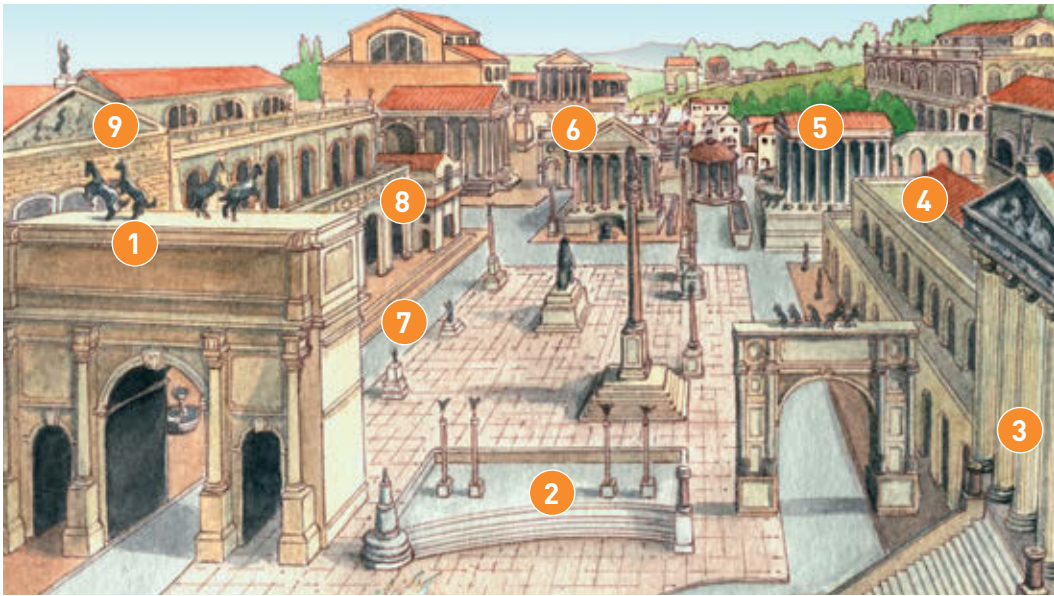
The Roman poet Juvenal, On the City of Rome

INTERPRET 4.6

- 1 Make a list of the complaints that Juvenal makes about living in Rome.

The Roman Forum

SOURCE STUDY



- 1 The Arch of Septimius 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 4.35 An artist's impression of the Roman Forum in ancient times



Source 4.36 A modern-day photograph of the ruins of the Roman Forum

INTERPRET 4.7

- 1 Study Source 4.35 and identify the buildings and structures in Source 4.36, which shows the Roman Forum as it looks today.

REVIEW 4.7

- 1 Create a 'Plus, Minus, Interesting' table such as the one below to itemise 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

PUBLIC BATHS

Because houses did not have bathrooms, 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, for conducting business, for eating and drinking and for 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 4.38.

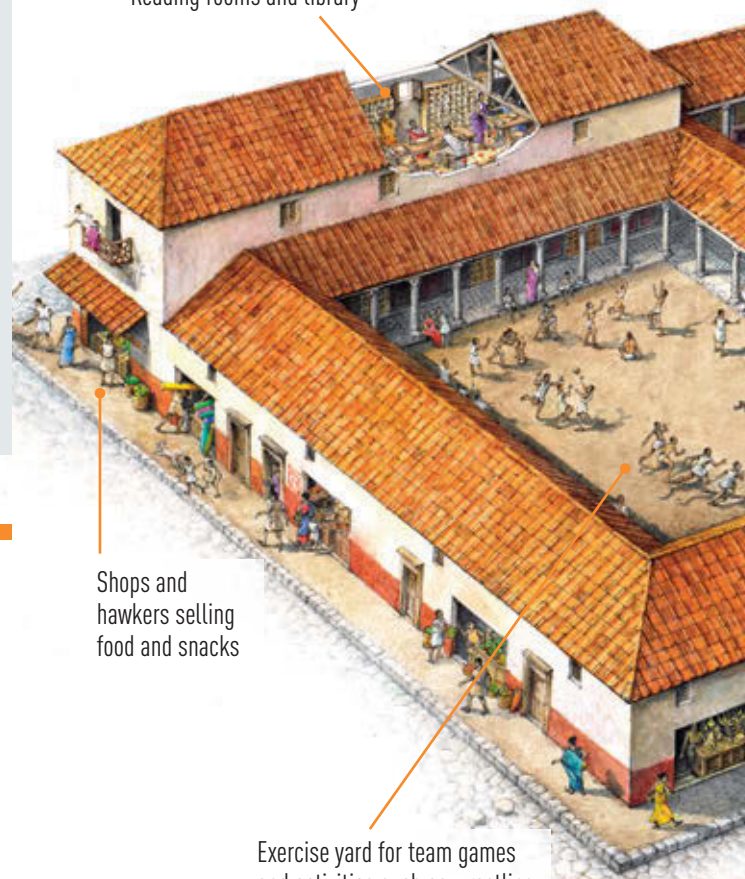
While you bathed, there would be food sellers calling out their wares, such as sausages or roasted dormice (small rodents, like mice), slaves running around at the bidding of their masters, entertainers playing instruments or juggling, and the general chatter of people doing business or enjoying a conversation. Bathing was a noisy, lively activity. Meanwhile, out of sight, slaves fed the fire which 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.

Reading rooms and library

Shops and hawkers selling food and snacks

Exercise yard for team games and activities such as wrestling



SOURCE STUDY

The Roman baths

Source 4.37

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.

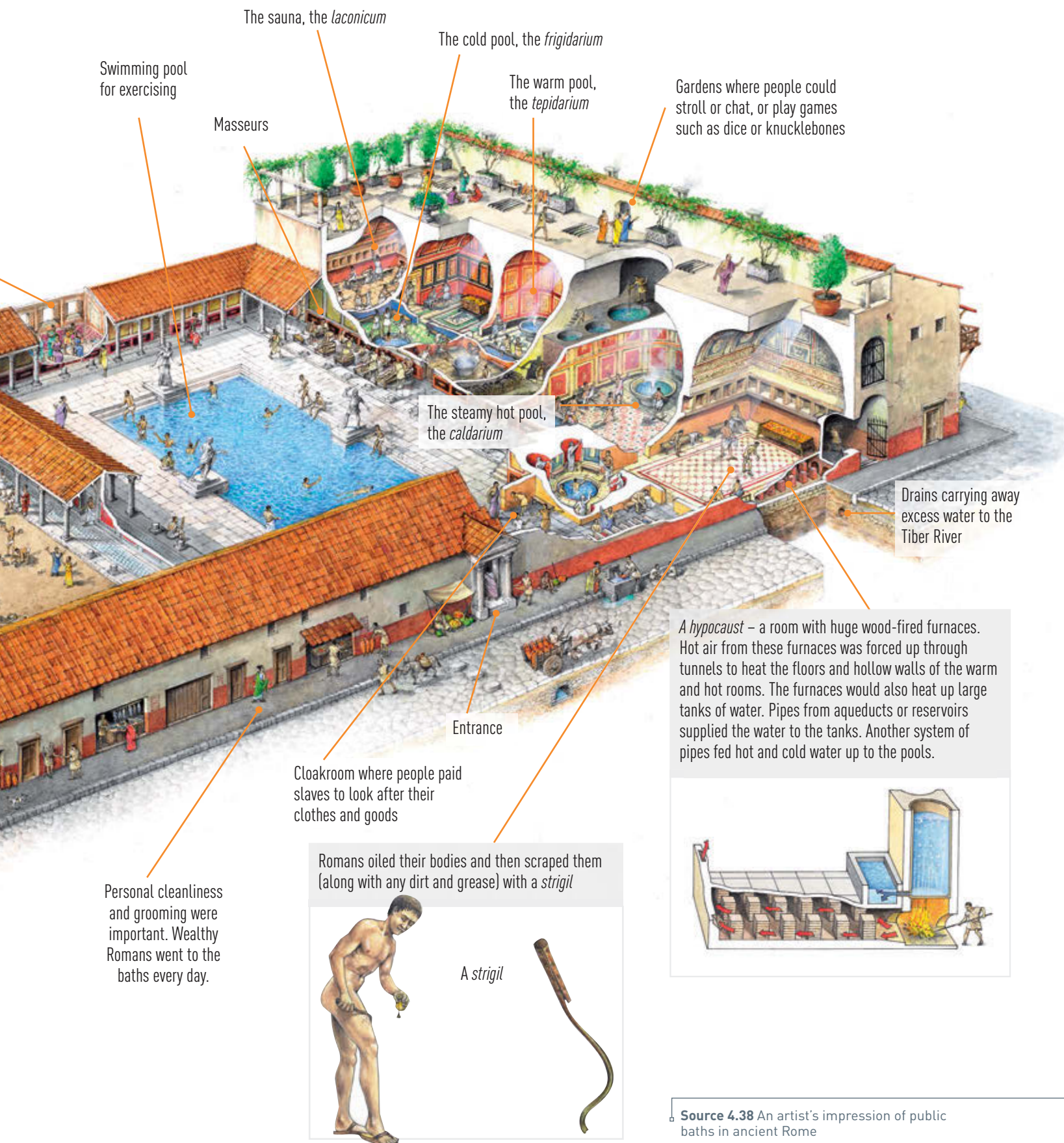
Excerpt from the Roman philosopher Seneca, AD 63

INTERPRET 4.8

- 1 Why does Seneca complain about his accommodation in Source 4.37?

REVIEW 4.8

- 1 List the variety of activities you can see happening in Source 4.38.
- 2 Describe the appearance and use of the *strigil*.



Source 4.38 An artist's impression of public baths in ancient Rome



GLADIATORS

STRANGE BUT TRUE

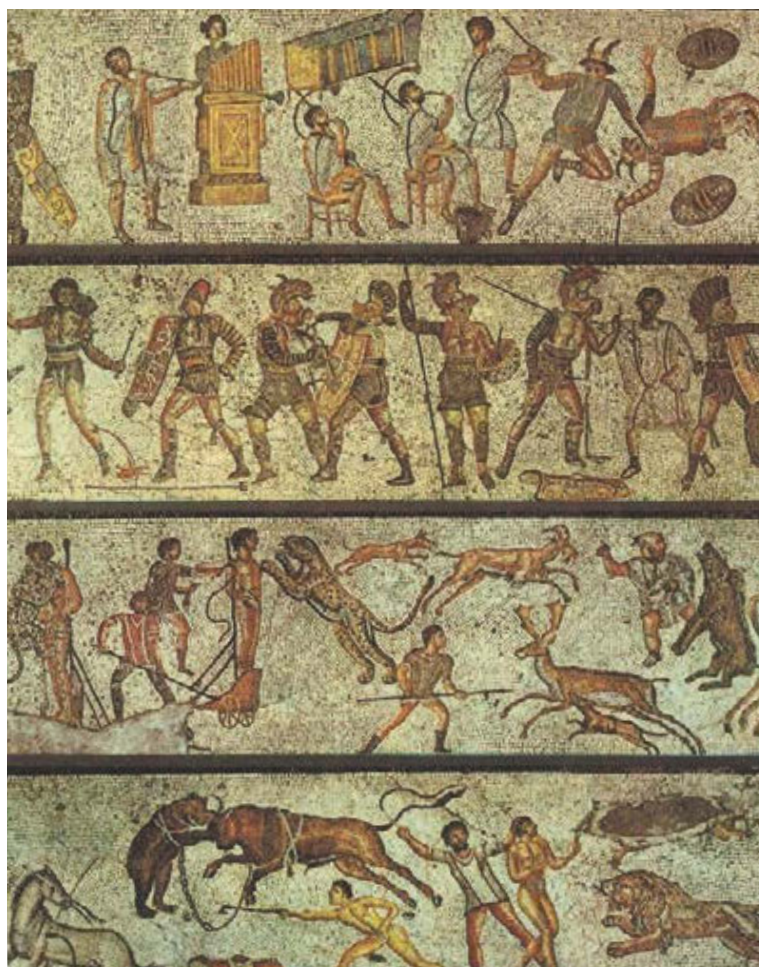
Using a wooden sword, the Emperor Caligula once fought a gladiator. When the gladiator deliberately fell and asked for mercy (thinking it was a good idea to let the emperor win), Caligula pulled out a real knife and killed him. Caligula then ran round the arena demanding a prize for his 'victory'.

Throughout the Roman Empire, one of the favourite sources of entertainment were 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 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 shows 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 forbade 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 also fights between wild animals, and between animals and men. Those who fought against 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 somehow managed to kill the animal set against him, another would be sent in until he was killed. The writer Cicero tells of a single lion that killed 200 *bestiarii*.

Source 4.39 An ancient mosaic showing gladiators and beasts in the arena



Source 4.40 The exterior of the Colosseum in Rome

The arenas

At first, gladiator contests were held in whatever public space a town had available. Then 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 the 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. The 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 the Emperor Honorius, who had already closed the gladiator schools in AD 399, to abolish gladiator games once and for all.

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.



REVIEW 4.9

- 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.

POMPEII

APPLY 4.3

- 1 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.

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. Around 1pm on 24 August all that changed. 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 workmen 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.



Source 4.41 An artist's impression of the eruption of Mount Vesuvius

Since that time, the excavation of Pompeii 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 4.44), 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 found on a wall that says, such as 'Successus the cloth-weaver loves Iris, the inn-keeper's slave girl'.



Source 4.42 A street today in the excavated ruins of Pompeii. Mount Vesuvius is in the distance.

An eyewitness at Pompeii

SOURCE STUDY

Source 4.43

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.



INTERPRET 4.9

- 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 which Pliny saw?
- 5 Why did Pliny and his companions find it necessary to rise from time to time?
- 6 What changes had taken place in the city when daylight finally broke through?

Source 4.44 The plaster shapes of Pompeians at the moment of their death

Pompeii is now a time capsule that allows thousands of tourists who visit it each year to have a unique insight into an ancient Roman town. The discoveries that archaeologists have excavated have provided a wealth of evidence about ancient Roman lifestyles.

REVIEW 4.10

- 1 Examine Sources 4.41 to 4.44. Which are primary sources for a study of Pompeii?
- 2 Explain why the discoveries at Pompeii have been so significant for historians.

4.2

CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS ANCIENT ROMAN SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED?

» Outline how the society in ancient Rome was organised and governed

- 1 Outline the ways in which people were classified or distinguished in ancient Roman society. [10 marks]
- 2 Outline how Rome was governed during the Roman Republic. [10 marks]

» Describe key groups in Roman society, such as citizens, women and slaves

- 3 Describe the roles of key groups in ancient Roman society:
 - a citizens
 - b patricians and plebeians
 - c women
 - d slaves. [20 marks]

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

- 4 Choose four aspects of Roman life from the list below, and write a paragraph on each aspect 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. [40 mks]

» Investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient Rome

- 5 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of their role in ancient Rome. [20 marks]

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASKS

A guide to the Roman world

- 1 Create 'a guide to the Roman world' to attract ancient tourists. It can be in the form of a poster, PowerPoint presentation or web page. Remember to use your creativity so that it does not read like a collection of notes. Make up a suitable title and include images, quotations and information gathered from your own research, using ICT and other resources.

For example, you could:

- provide real or imaginary 'testimonials' – written or video quotations from different groups in Roman society, such as citizens, non-citizens, women, children and slaves
- include a historical section, with your own timeline of important event up to the time of the Roman Republic
- conduct research to include aspects of Roman life that were not covered in this chapter, such as food and dining.

Slaves to Rome

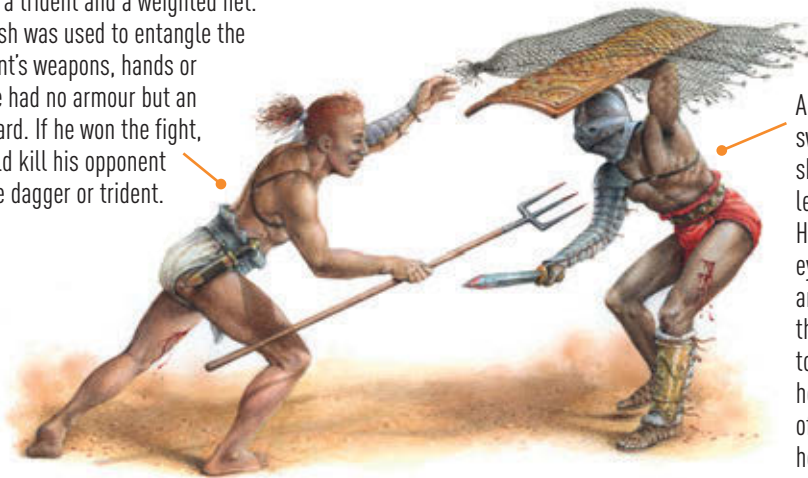
- 1 The setting is ancient Rome. The time is the day before the harvest. Many slaves will have to work hard to bring in the wheat crop that the landowner hopes will make him a lot of money. Record the thoughts about tomorrow from two different perspectives: that of the landowner and that of one of his slaves.
- 2 Conduct research to find out who Spartacus was, then write a short summary to explain why he is regarded as significant by historians.

The Colosseum Times

- 1 Create an edition of *The Colosseum Times* using information and images from this chapter and your own research. Find out more about the different types of gladiators, their weapons, armour and fighting styles. A few are described and shown in Source 4.45. Create a web page or design a one-page news sheet about the gladiator fights. As the 'sports reporter' you should plan your main story, smaller stories and headlines. You could:

- Include interviews or statements from characters such as the emperor, spectators, gladiators and animal handlers, showing their differing viewpoints.
- Give names to your characters. Roman male names often ended in -us, such as Julius, Paulus and Marcus. Female names often ended in -a, such as Portia, Julia and Paula.

A *retiarius* was armed with a short dagger, a trident and a weighted net. The mesh was used to entangle the opponent's weapons, hands or feet. He had no armour but an arm guard. If he won the fight, he would kill his opponent with the dagger or trident.



A *secutor* carried a short sword or dagger and a shield. His right arm and left leg were covered. His helmet had small eye holes, a rounded top and protective lips at the neck. A *secutor* had to kill quickly before he tired from the lack of oxygen inside the helmet.

The *murmillo* was usually pitted against the *thraex*. His broad-brimmed helmet was fish-shaped. His left lower leg was protected by padding and a metal guard, and his right arm by armour. He carried a short, straight sword and a large curved shield.



A *thraex* carried a short, curved sword and a small shield. His lower legs were protected by greaves and his thighs with padding. The head of a griffin topped his brimmed helmet. The helmet's grille protected his face and eyes, and a deep collar protected his neck.

- Source 4.45** An artist's impression of typical gladiator duels. Pairs were usually matched to make the fight fair. One gladiator's advantage was the other's disadvantage.

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Research
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

4.3

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT ROMANS BELIEVE?

SECTION

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 BELIEFS AND CUSTOMS



Source 4.46 Statue of a household god from family shrine

Roman gods and goddesses

Their religion was **polytheistic**, meaning belief in many gods. The ancient Romans believed in a family of gods and goddesses, each with their own particular responsibilities. Many of the deities were simply adapted from the myths of ancient Greece and renamed, as you can see in Source 4.47.

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.

APPLY 4.4

- 1 Conduct research on the Internet to find the Roman equivalents of the following Greek gods. Indicate their names and their roles.
 - a Poseidon
 - b Hades
 - c Dionysus
 - d Haphaestus
 - e Apollo (what is unique about him?)

Source 4.47 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

As the empire grew, the Romans were happy to adopt new gods from conquered territories, such as Mithras from Persia (very popular among the soldiers) and Isis from Egypt. Eventually even the emperor came to be worshipped as a god.

Romans were very superstitious and lived in fear of the gods. But the Romans did not have regular church 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 4.48).

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, flashes of lightening, or by examining the entrails of sacrificed animals.

One religion the Romans did not accept was Christianity, mainly because its believers refused to worship the emperor as well as their own god. Persecutions of Christians could involve throwing them to wild beasts in the arena or crucifying them. Gradually, however, Christianity gained converts and acceptance, and when Emperor Constantine adopted Christianity it became the official religion of the empire. Eventually, the centre of the Christian Church, Vatican City, was established in Rome.

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.

EXTEND 4.4

- 1 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.

APPLY 4.5

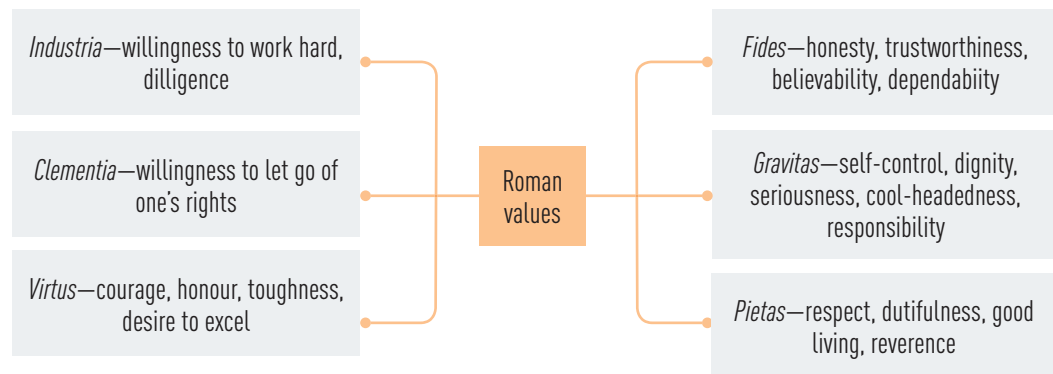
- 1 Conduct research to find out about the catacombs of Rome and how they were used by Christians.



Source 4.48 The Pantheon was built by the emperor Hadrian in 125 AD 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.

Roman values

The key values of the ancient Romans, which are shown in Source 4.49, influenced their behaviours and attitudes in everyday life, in warfare and in their death and burial customs.



Source 4.49 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**. 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 1st century AD, however, burial was more common because of the spread of Christian beliefs. Wealthy Romans were buried in graves or tombs, which were increasingly located away from towns and cities as burial sites became limited. Those who could not afford a burial plot were usually buried in mass grave on the Esquiline Hill outside of Rome.

REVIEW 4.11

- 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?
- 3 Source 4.49 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.

4.3

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Explanation and communication
- » Research.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

WHAT DID THE ANCIENT ROMANS BELIEVE?

» Explain how beliefs and values were evident in ancient Roman 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 lives. [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]

RICH TASK

Death and burial customs in Rome and Greece: a comparison

- 1 Use information and sources from this section of the text and your own research to compare and contrast beliefs about death and burial customs in ancient Rome with those in ancient Greece. Prepare a written or oral presentation that includes evidence from sources that you have located, evaluated and analysed.



Source 4.50 A 16th-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.

4.4

SECTION

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

Trade 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. Rome also adopted ideas and fashions from other cultures. New resources, skills and an increased labour force became available, leading to prosperity and the spread of Rome's influence.

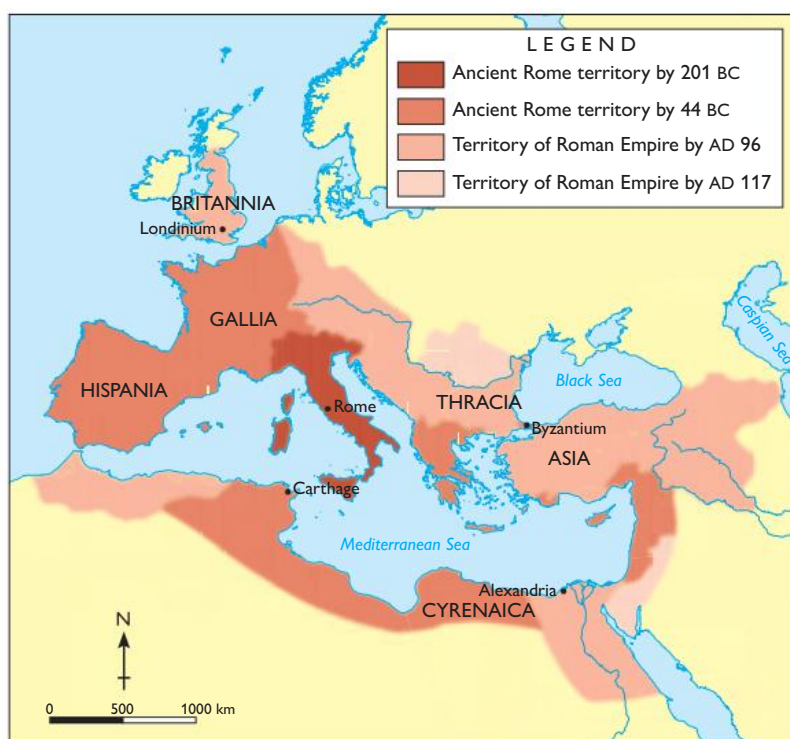
THE SPREAD OF ROMAN POWER

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 4.51 shows.

Roman citizenship was often extended to the inhabitants of conquered areas. This meant that even foreign-born people could enjoy the full protection of Roman law, and citizenship became highly prized. In other places, populaces were left to govern themselves as long as they agreed to supply soldiers to the Roman army.

SOURCE STUDY

The Roman Empire



INTERPRET 4.10

- 1 Using Source 4.51 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 4.51 The growth of the Roman Empire, which reached its height in AD 117.

The Punic Wars

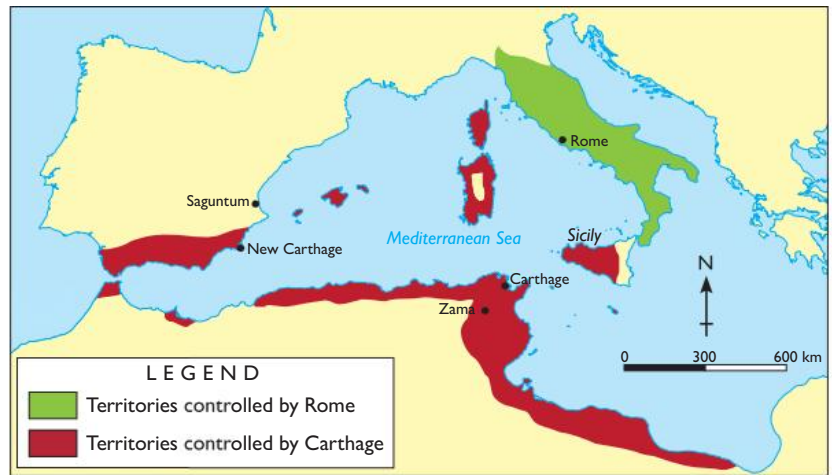
The expansion of Roman power brought it into conflict with Carthage, another great Mediterranean trading city. Because the Carthaginians were originally from Phoenicia (modern-day Lebanon), the three resulting wars were known as the Punic Wars (from the Latin word *Poeni*, which means Phoenician).

The First Punic War 264–241 BC

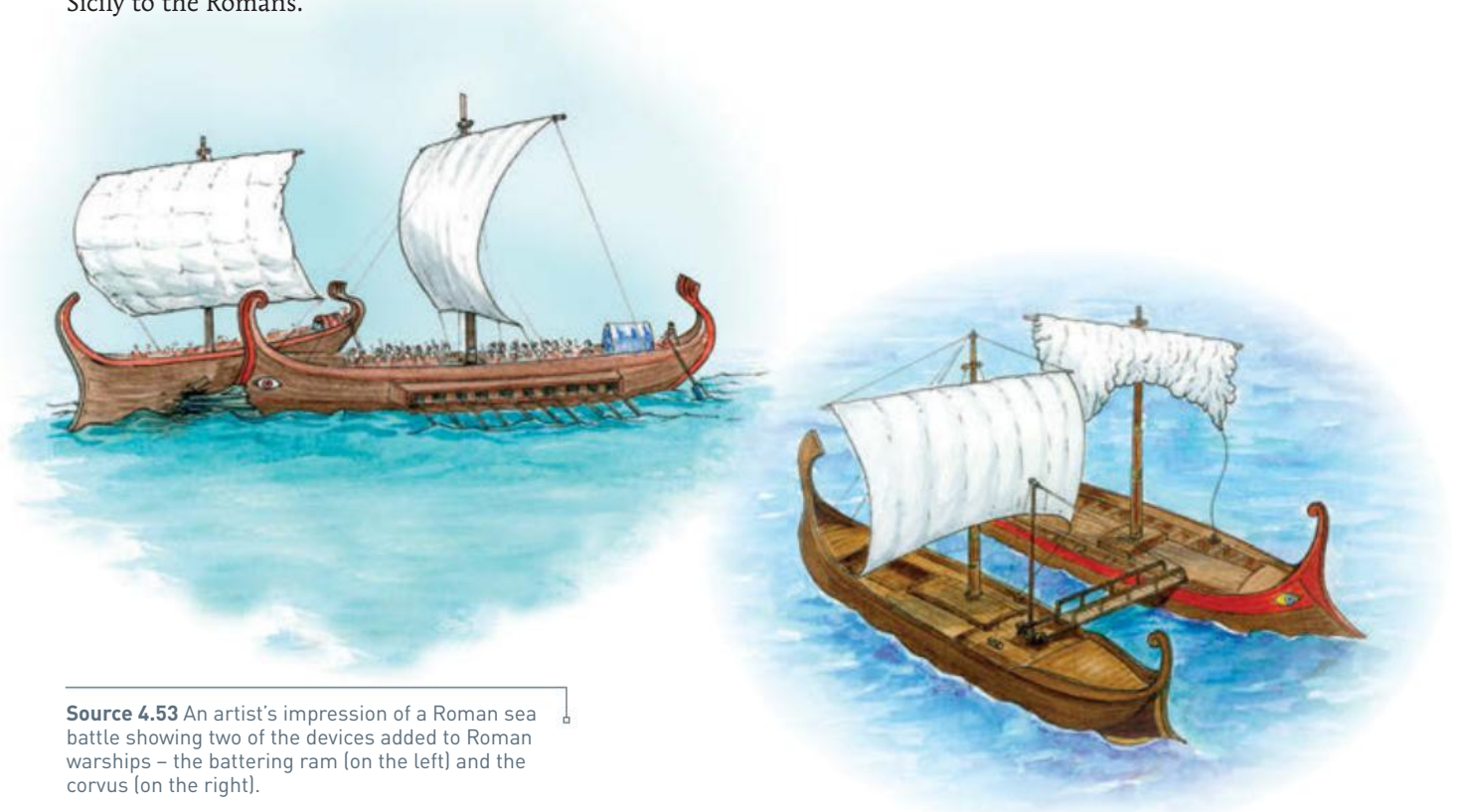
Before the Punic Wars, most of Sicily was controlled by the Carthaginians, as Source 4.52 shows. When the Sicilian city of Messana revolted against the Carthaginians, the Romans intervened, and the first Punic War erupted. To fight Carthage, the Romans, who were used to fighting on land, had to develop 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 4.53).

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.



Source 4.52 The territories controlled by Rome and Carthage, the rival powers in the Mediterranean



Source 4.53 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).

The Second Punic War 218–202 BC



Source 4.54 A stone bust of Hannibal

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.



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 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. Rock falls, attacks from mountain tribes and severe winter weather meant that Hannibal arrived in northern Italy with 26 000 men and 12 elephants.



Source 4.55 An artist's impression of Hannibal's army crossing the Alps

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.

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.



Source 4.56 Hannibal's three victories against Rome



Source 4.57 A stone bust of Scipio

REVIEW 4.12

- 1 Why were Rome and Carthage rivals?
- 2 How did 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?
- 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.

THE ROMAN ARMY

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* (see Source 4.49).

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. Auxiliaries were recruited from

the **provinces** – the lands captured and ruled by the Romans. 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.

Every legion was commanded by an officer known as a *legate*.

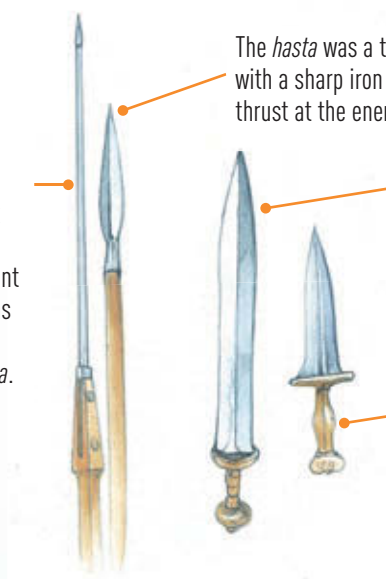
Each legion was made up of units known as **centuries** made up of around 100 soldiers. Each century was led by an officer known as a *centurion*.

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 (as shown opposite).



Source 4.58 The Roman army

The *pilum* was a spear with a specially made iron head that would bend after hitting the ground or its target. This meant it was useless to the enemy as it could not be thrown back. Each legionary carried two *pila*.



The *hasta* was a type of spear made from wood with a sharp iron tip. It was designed to be thrust at the enemy, rather than thrown.

The *gladius* was a short sword for thrusting, not slashing, at close range.

The *pugio* was a dagger, worn hanging from a belt.



The *scutum* was a shield made of wood and iron, covered in leather

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.

REVIEW 4.13

- 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 ...
- 2 Use a graphic organiser to summarise your knowledge about the structure of the Roman army, based on the text, sources and previous knowledge you may have about this topic.

ROMAN TRADE AND CONTACTS WITH ASIA



Source 4.59 Roman merchant vessels were powered by sails and had deep hulls to maximise cargo space.

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 4.60.

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 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 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 many 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 were 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 4.60).

Rome and China

For almost 300 years, two huge empires – 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 1st century BC, each knew very little about the other. One reason

EXTEND 4.5

- 1 Use the Internet to 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.

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 Road** (see Source 4.60).

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.

Roman trade routes

SOURCE STUDY

INTERPRET 4.11

- 1 Examine Source 4.60.
 - 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?



Source 4.60 Roman trade routes

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 its import because it was costing the Roman treasury too much.

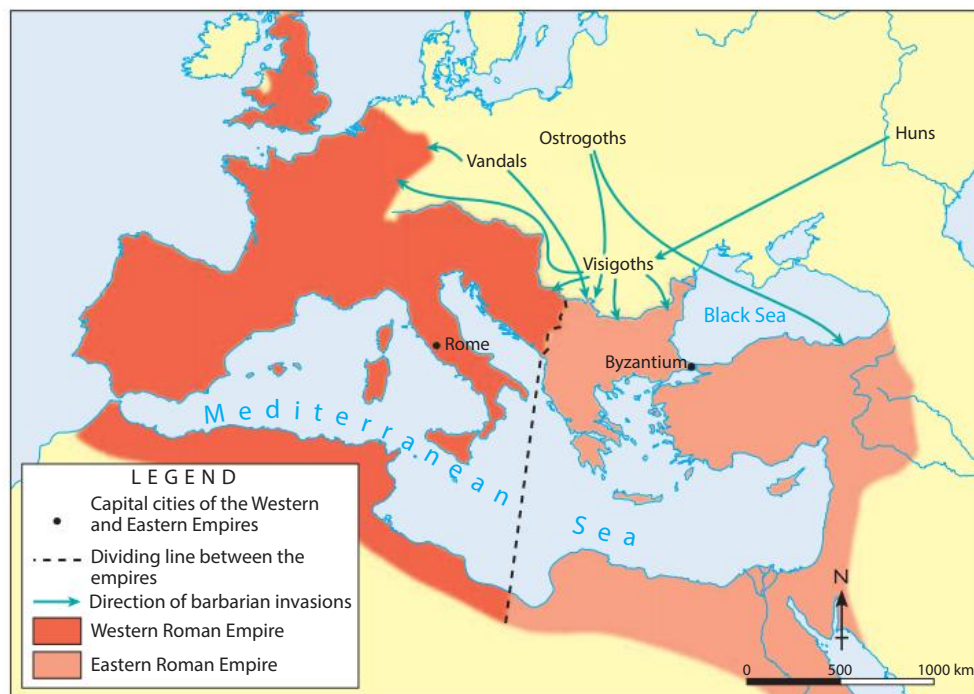
REVIEW 4.14

- 1 Explain why Egypt was such an important part of the Roman Empire.
- 2 How does a Roman naval warship (see Source 4.53) differ from the merchant ship shown in Source 4.59?
- 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?

THE DOWNFALL AND LEGACY OF 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 4.61).



Source 4.61 The division of the Roman Empire and the direction of threats from barbarian tribes.

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 – 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. But 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 395, the empire had again split in two. The Western Empire itself began to break up again under the strain of military defeat and economic crisis. In AD 406, the Western Empire began to be 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 Empire survived until 1453, when it fell to the Turks, when it 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 many 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.
- 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 writing and literature, although largely influenced by ancient Greece, produced great poets, historians and philosophers such as Livy and Emperor Marcus Aurelius.
- 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 4.62 An existing 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.

REVIEW 4.15

- 1 Why might the end of the empire be described as 'the Romans' own fault'? Which things could be considered outside their control?
- 2 What decision was made by Emperor Diocletian to try to preserve the empire?
- 3 Which emperor was responsible for the introduction of Christianity into the empire?
- 4 When and how did the Roman Empire end in the west and in the east?

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Octo is eight, and *decem* is ten in Latin. Why then are October and December the 10th and 12th months of the year? The Romans altered the calendar to add July (named after Julius Caesar) and August (named after the Emperor Augustus).

4.4

CHECKPOINT

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

» Identify conflicts within ancient Roman society

- 1 Identify conflicts that occurred within ancient Rome. (Also refer to the earlier unit *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 trading contacts that existed between Rome and other ancient societies. [10 marks]
- 4 Identify 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. [10 marks]
- 7 What consequences did conflicts between the Roman Empire and other societies have, for Rome and for the other societies? [10 marks]

» Explain the legacy of ancient Rome

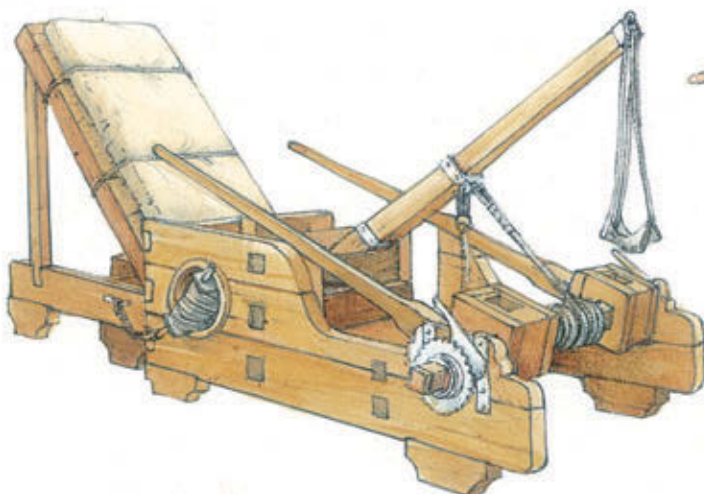
- 8 Explain the legacy of ancient Rome to the modern world. [20 marks]

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

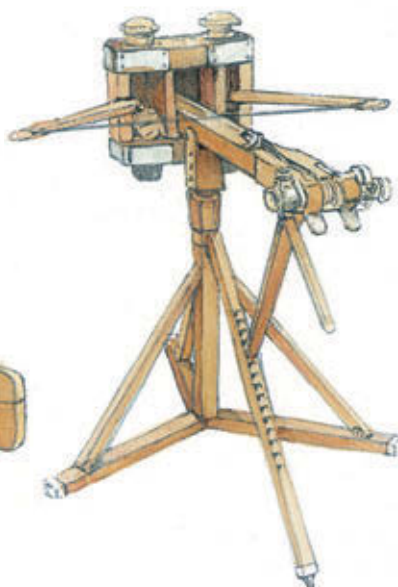
RICH TASK

Roman warfare and siege tactics

- 1 Conduct research to discover more about Roman artillery or siege warfare tactics.
 - a Using only materials and equipment available at the time, design a new siege engine for the Roman army. You could present this as a hand-drawn or digital illustration, or build a model. Explain its workings for the class.
 - b Tell the story of a city under siege by the Roman army, presented as a storyboard. In your story, include:
 - the experiences of Roman troops such as auxiliaries and legionaries (Sources 4.65 and 4.66)
 - at least one siege warfare tactic used by the Romans, and one Roman siege engine such as the use of *onager* and *ballista* (Sources 4.63 and 4.64)
 - experiences of besiegers and defenders, including dialogue in speech bubbles that show both perspectives.
- 2 Conduct research to find out how the Roman army developed and was reformed, from an army of part-time soldiers to a fighting force that dominated the ancient world for hundreds of years. Prepare a timeline to summarise your investigations, making it as interesting and informative as possible with illustrations, images and detailed labels.



Source 4.63 An onager – a Roman siege engine similar to a **catapult**



Source 4.64 A ballista – a Roman siege engine similar to a giant crossbow

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of resources
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 4.65 A Roman auxiliary



Source 4.66 A Roman legionary

CHECKPOINT

PART

3



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

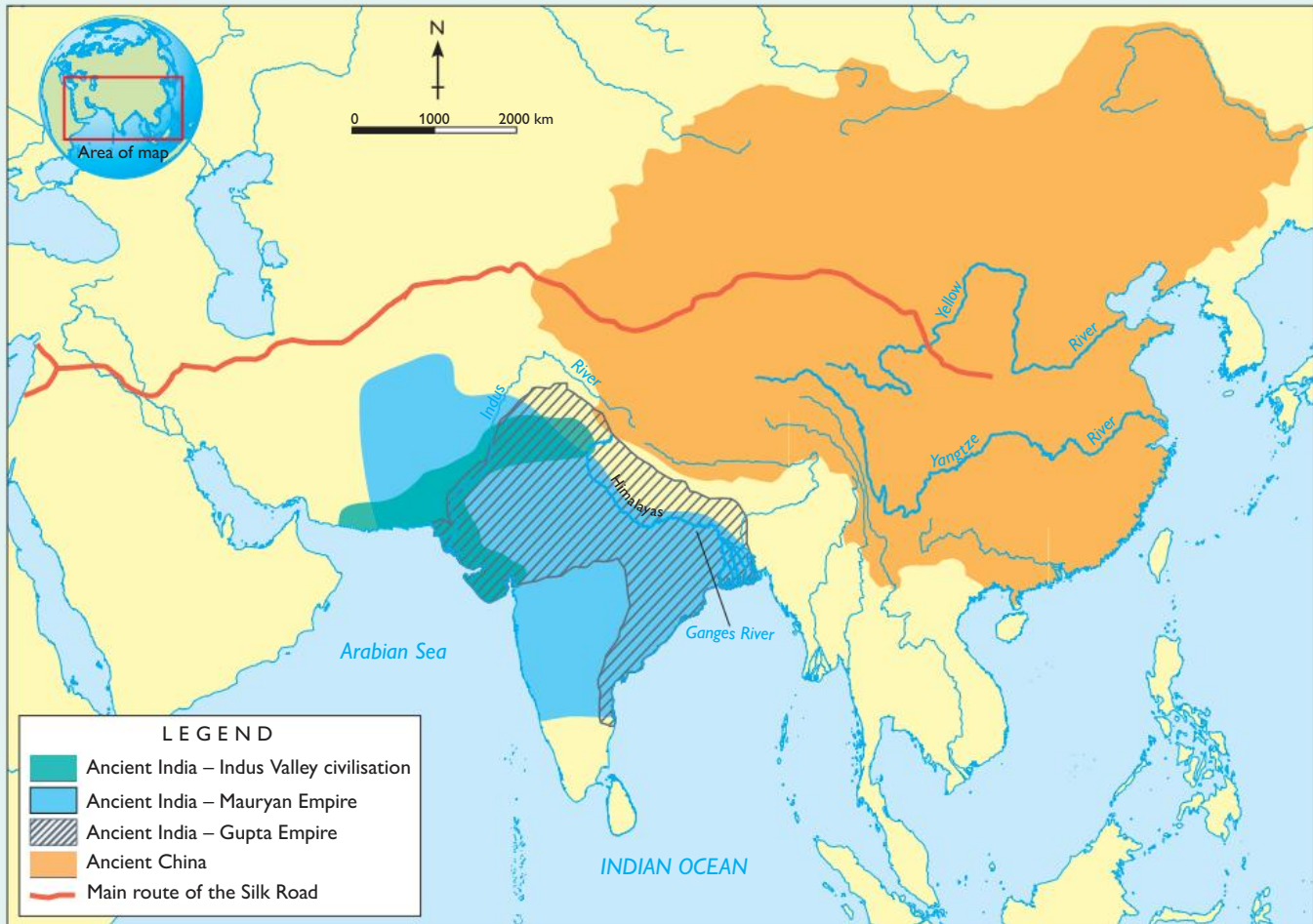


These ceramic horses, artefacts made by Indo-Aryans (c. 2000 BC), are examples of the images created by early civilisations across the Asian world.

OVERVIEW OF THE ASIAN WORLD

During ancient 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 19th century for their raw materials before freeing themselves. Today, China and India have the world's largest national populations, and have emerged as global economic powers. For these reasons, it is important that we understand the history and culture of these great Asian civilisations.

Source 0.23 China and India: two of the great civilisations of the Asian world



Source 0.24 Terracotta warriors found in the tomb of Emperor Qin Shi Huang Di, the man who united China and became its first emperor.

In this depth study, you will learn about one of the Asian civilisations in depth, including its:

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

Along the way, you will learn about Qin Shi Huang Di, the first emperor of a unified China, and his terracotta warriors; or India's great ruler Ashoka, whose ideas brought about significant changes in Indian society, as well as societies right across Asia. Sources 0.25, 0.26, 0.27 and 0.28 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.

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 0.25 Geographical setting and natural features of the Asian civilisations

Ancient China	Ancient India
Located entirely on the Asian continent for much of its history, China was largely unknown to societies in the West. In large part, this was because of its geography. The Pacific Ocean lies to the east of the country, dense forests to the south, the Himalayan mountain range to the west, and large deserts to the north-west. 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 Yellow River and the Yangtze River.	To the north of the Indian sub-continent, deserts and the Himalayas 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, mid-way between East and West on one of the branches of the Silk Road. India's earliest civilisation 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.

APPLY 0.9

- 1 What similarities do the ancient Chinese and Indian civilisations have, in terms of their origins and geographical settings?

Social organisation and government

Ancient China and India both 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 was reinforced by the ideas of the great teacher and philosopher Confucius, who taught that a society could not be successful without strict social order and discipline. In India, a **caste system** developed that was connected to Hindu beliefs. In terms of government, China was ruled by a series of **dynasties** (ruling families) throughout much of its ancient period, some lasting for hundreds of years. India's dynasties were more short-lived.

Source 0.26 Social organisation and government of the Asian civilisations

Ancient China	Ancient India
China was governed by powerful dynasties for much of its history. Its emperors came from wealthy and influential families, and passed the leadership down to their children. Dynasties sometimes changed after a power struggle between rival families, or if a ruler became very unpopular with the people because of floods or famine. China had a strict social hierarchy. Rulers, scholars and nobles made up the wealthy and powerful group at the top of the hierarchy. Farmers, artisans and merchants were below them. Like women in other ancient societies, Chinese women had a lower status than men and had few freedoms. Their life was mostly restricted to the home.	India had a strict social hierarchy – the caste system – with roots in the Hindu religion. 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 in Indian society. Unlike women in many other ancient societies, women in ancient India seem to have had a similar status to men for part of its history. 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.

APPLY 0.10

- 1 Ancient China and India both had a strict social hierarchy, but how did India's differ in terms of its origins?

Religious beliefs

The societies of ancient China and Indian were influenced by a complex a mix of religious beliefs, cultural values and traditions.

Source 0.27 Religious beliefs of the Asian civilisations

APPLY 0.11

- 1 Create a concept map in your notebook to outline the major religions in Asian societies, including any links between them.

Ancient China	Ancient India
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. China had a number of organised religions. Daoism focused on the spiritual struggle between the yin (female) and yang (male) forces of the world. Buddhism was brought to China from India in the 1st century AD and focused on a pathway to spiritual meaning and enlightenment. Confucianism was also a significant influence on Chinese beliefs. It was more a code of behaviour rather than a religion.	The people of ancient India had deities they worshipped, 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 also a major religion in India. It was founded by a wealthy Indian prince in the 5th century BC and was an established religion in India before it spread into China. Ashoka, a ruler during the Mauryan Empire, was responsible for sending Buddhist missionaries to other societies across Asia. Over many generations, 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.

Conflicts

Ancient China and India both experienced conflicts between warring kingdoms in their own territories, as well as threats from outside invaders.

Source 0.28 Conflicts involving the Asian civilisations

Ancient China	Ancient India
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). The permanent army allowed China to combat tribes of invading barbarians to the north, known as the Mongols.	One of India's invaders was Alexander the Great (a powerful king from ancient Greece). After conquering Greece and Egypt, he briefly held territories around the Indus Valley. 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. Indian armies were the first to use elephants in battle. They also had foot soldiers, cavalry and chariots. 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 5th century, eradicating it completely by the 6th century.

APPLY 0.12

- 1 Draw a concept map to show similarities between the two Asian civilisations with regard to conflicts and conquests.

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 West. With the establishment of the **Silk Road**, a network of trade routes which stretched from China to the Mediterranean coast, 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.

Belief systems

The belief systems of ancient China and India are influential all around this world to this day. These belief systems include 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 0.29 A statue of Buddha in Sri Lanka is evidence of the Mauryan ruler Ashoka's success in spreading Buddhism to other countries in Asia

Science and technology

Ancient China and 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 5th-century Indian astronomer and mathematician Aryabhata. The Chinese were also advanced mathematicians and independently developed many 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 0.30 An ancient Chinese nautical compass

APPLY 0.13

- 1 Which legacy of the Asian world do you think is the most important? Write a short explanation of 150 words giving reasons for your view.

Source 5.1 The Great Stupa of Sanchi was commissioned by the Mauryan king Ashoka.



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 the number zero.

5.1

SECTION

- » Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient India
 - » Explain how they influenced the development of Indian society

CHECKPOINT 5.1

5.2

SECTION

» Explain how beliefs in ancient India were reflected in their death and funerary customs

CHECKPOINT 5.2

5.3

SECTION

- » Outline how society in ancient India was organised
 - » Describe key groups in Indian society
- » Describe the everyday life of men, women and children in ancient India

CHECKPOINT 5.3

5.4

SECTION

- » Identify contacts and conflicts within ancient Indian society
- » Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient Indian society.
- » Describe contacts and conflicts between ancient India and other societies, through trade, migration, warfare and conquest
 - » Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient India and other societies
 - » Outline how society was governed in ancient India.
- » Investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient India
 - » Explain the legacy of ancient India

CHECKPOINT 5.4

ANCIENT INDIA – A TIMELINE

T
I
M
E
L
I
N
E

c. 3500
Emergence of
the Indus Valley
(or Harappan)
civilisation



Source 5.2 The remains of the Great Bath in Mohenjo-daro, the largest city of the Indus Valley (or Harappan) civilisation. It is thought to have been a centre for ritual bathing.

c. 563
Siddhartha Gautama
– later known as
Buddha – the founder
of Buddhism is born

4000 3000 2000 1000 800 700 600 500 400

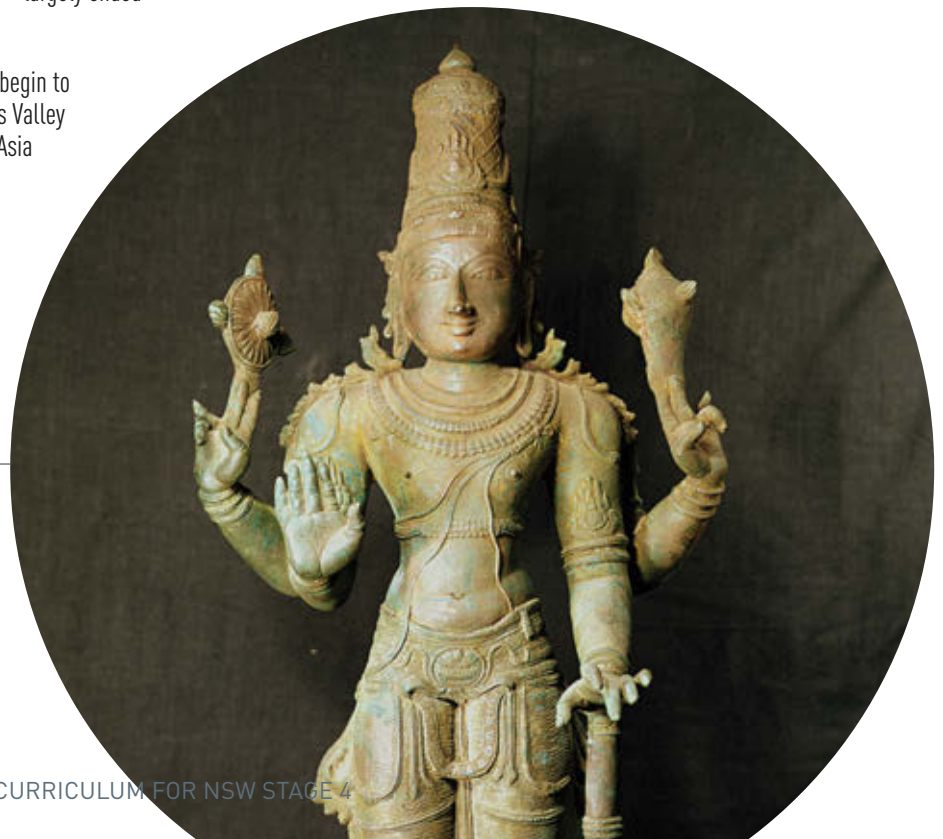
c. 1700
The Indus Valley
(or Harappan)
civilisation has
largely ended

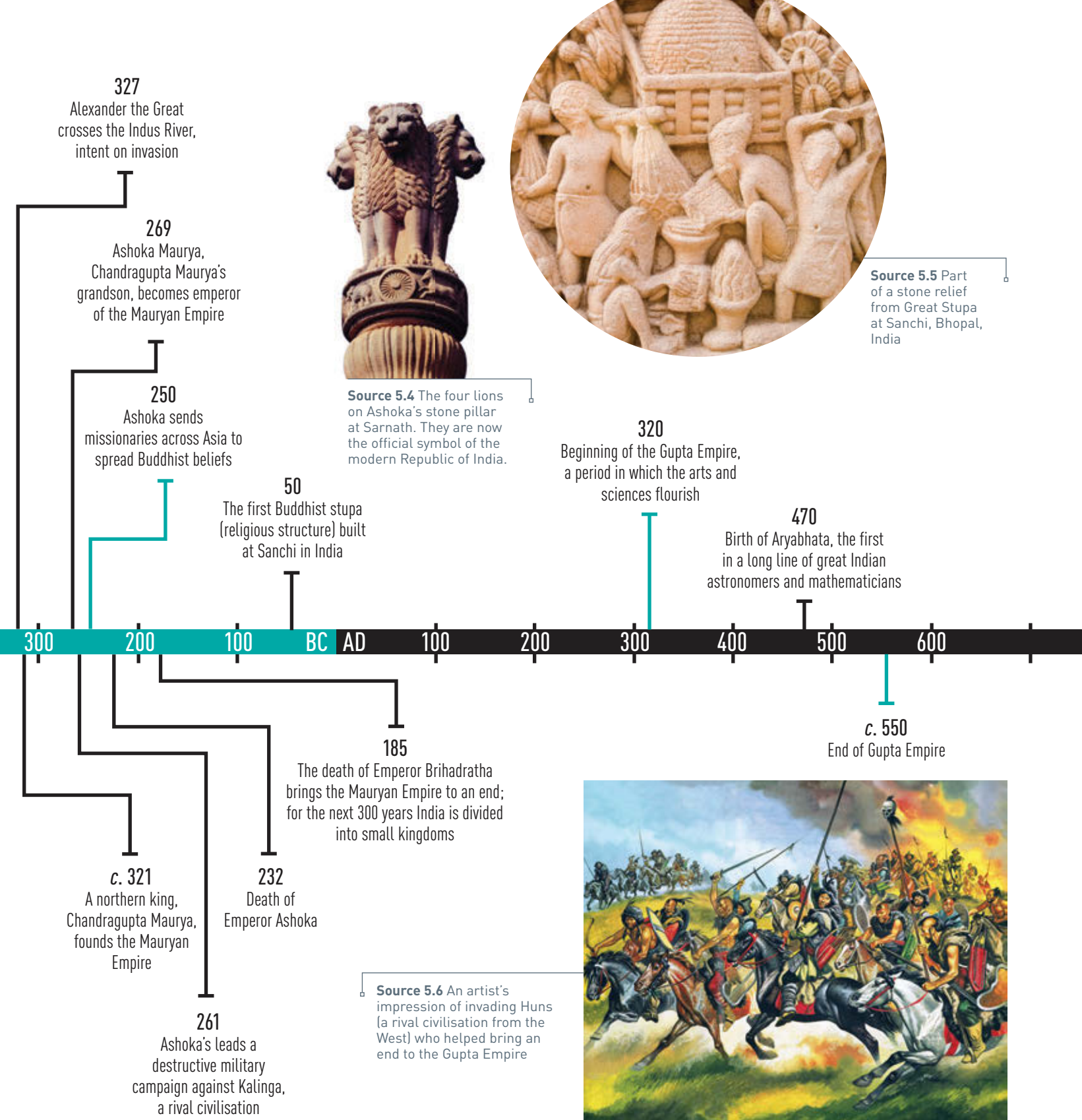
c. 800
Production of the
Vedas, the sacred
writings of Hinduism

c. 500
The Persians invade the
Indus Valley and make
it part of their **empire**

c. 1800
The Aryan people begin to
arrive in the Indus Valley
from Central Asia

Source 5.3 The Hindu god Vishnu, whose four arms indicate that he is everywhere and all powerful.





REVIEW 5.1

- 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 (or Harappan) civilisation disappear?
- 5 When did the religion of Buddhism begin to spread beyond its Indian birthplace?

5.1

SECTION

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT INDIA?

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 half-way between the ancient societies of the Mediterranean and Asian worlds, which was particularly significant once the Silk Road became a major trade route between East and West.

THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT INDIA

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 9 000 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 3 180 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 (a large section of flat land) 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 5.8).

Source 5.7 Ancient ruins overlooking part of the fertile Indus Valley



India's geographical setting and natural features

SOURCE STUDY



Source 5.8 The geographical features of the Indian sub-continent, and the borders of modern-day nations

INTERPRET 5.1

Refer to Source 5.8 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?



Source 5.9 A farmer prepares his fields for planting during the first rains of the annual monsoon season.

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 typically arrive in June, with rain then falling most of the time until September. Most of the year's rainfall is during these few months, and 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.

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 of its second largest city, Harappa, so some historians also refer to it as the Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation. The Indus Valley (Harappan) 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 high point 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

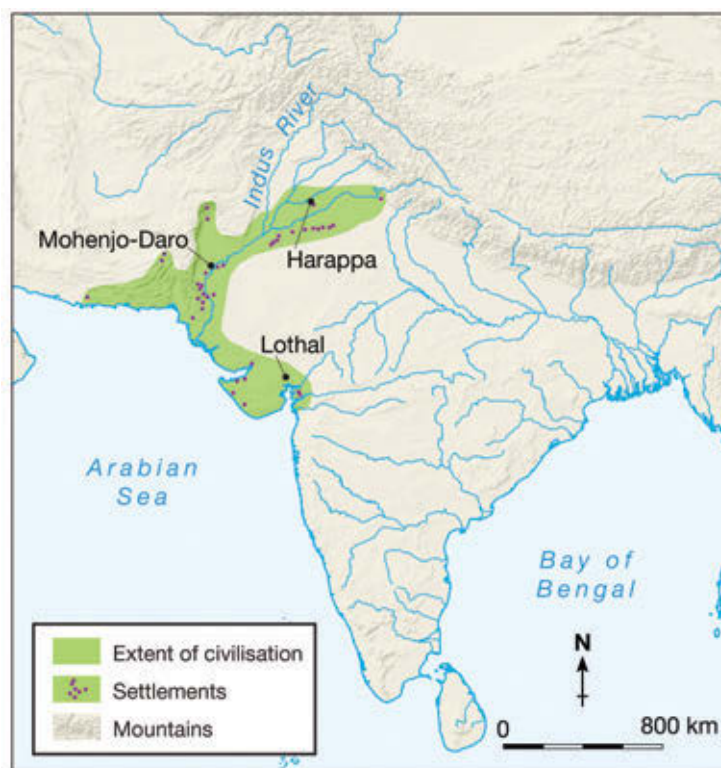
After Harappa was discovered, enough bricks were taken from there and other ancient ruins to lay the base of about 160 kilometres of track for the Lahore to Karachi railway line.



Source 5.10 The ruins of Mohenjo-Daro

For many years, there was little archaeological interest in the site. This changed in 1919 when Indian archaeologist R.D. Banerji investigated an ancient Buddhist **stupa** (a religious structure built to house Buddhist relics) 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 (engraved stamps). 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.

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 over 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 (Harappan) 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 5.11). 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 5.11 The extent of the Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation

APPLY 5.1

- 1 As a class, brainstorm any problems you think a severe monsoon might have caused for an ancient settlement in the Indus Valley.
- 2 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?

REVIEW 5.2

- 1 Explain 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 (Harappan) civilisation located?

INDUS VALLEY CITIES

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, with:

- 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.

Source 5.12 A domestic well from the ruins of a house in Mohenjo-Daro. It looks like a tower because the upper storeys of the building are missing.



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 (Harappan) civilisation, was more efficient than that found in parts of Pakistan and India today!

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.

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 remain undeciphered. 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.

Artefacts from the Indus Valley

SOURCE STUDY



Source 5.14 ruins of Mohenjo-Daro features a picture of a unicorn.



Source 5.13 Some of the seals have a symbol called a swastika engraved on them, such as this example from Mohenjo-Daro.

Source 5.15 The 'Priest-King' of Mohenjo-Daro



INTERPRET 5.2

- 1 The script shown in Source 5.14 has never been deciphered by archaeologists or linguists. How do you think this would affect the study of the Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation?
- 2 Look at Source 5.15.
 - 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'.

EXTEND 5.1

- 1 Conduct research on the swastika symbol (see Source 5.13) 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 20th 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. Also explain why the swastika is now regarded as inappropriate and offensive by many people.

Indus Valley traders

Trade seems to have been the major occupation of the people of the Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation. Their cities were centres of production of crafted items that were traded both overseas and overland. The city of Lothal, near the mouth of the Indus River, 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 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 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 Road that stretched from China to the Mediterranean.

Source 5.16 Trade routes used by the Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation



EXTEND 5.2

- 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 (Harappan) civilisation? Discuss this in class.

The decline of the Indus Valley (Harappan) 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 also played a 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, the Sarswati, dried up entirely. Cities that had been built on the banks of the Sarswati 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.

REVIEW 5.3

- 1 Create a graphic organiser that includes some simple sketches to summarise aspects of the Indus Valley (Harappan) 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 your graphic organiser.

5.1

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT INDIA?

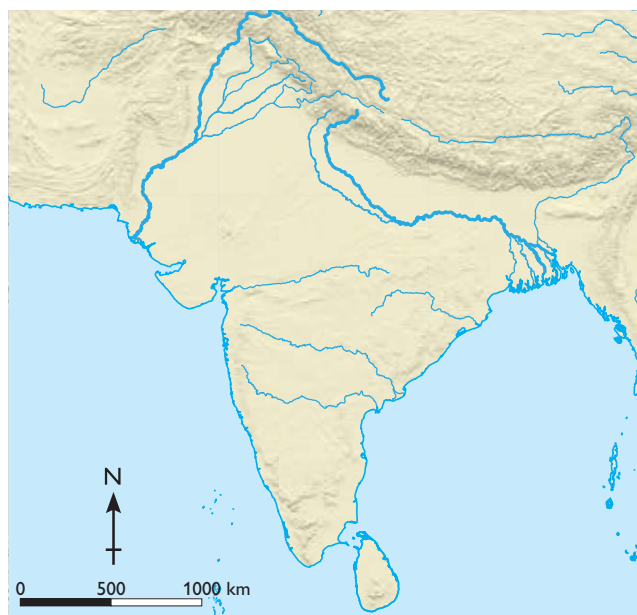
» Describe the geographical setting and natural features of ancient India

- 1 Describe the geographical setting of India's earliest civilisation. (5 marks)
- 2 Copy Source 5.17 below, then identify and add the natural features in and around the Indian subcontinent. Use shading to mark the extent of the Indus Valley civilisation. (10 marks)

» Explain how they influenced the development of 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. (25 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/40]



Source 5.17 The geographical features of the Indian subcontinent

RICH TASKS

Achievements of the Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation

The Indus Valley (Harappan) people clearly possessed a great deal of knowledge and skills in a variety of fields as evidenced by:

- the design and layout of their cities
- a calendar, necessary for agriculture, which incorporated some knowledge of astronomy
- a writing system used for several hundred years
- artefacts such as jewellery, tools and other implements.

Select three sources from the text or from your own research and indicate the evidence that they provide about the achievements of the Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation.

Landscapes of ancient India

Use Google Earth to closely study the different land types in and around the areas where the Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation developed. Use the sources from the text and your own research to present a photo-montage of geographical features of India, including captions.

5.2

SECTION

WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT INDIA BELIEVE?

Religious beliefs had an important role in the culture of ancient India. Within a short distance in a populated area one could come across a Hindu temple, a Buddhist shrine, and a pavilion containing a ritual fire and a sacred tree.

RELIGIONS AND BELIEFS IN 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 have established themselves as the most significant religions. In India, Buddhism has declined in popularity, but has flourished elsewhere in South East Asia.

Besides **deities** (gods), 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).

Hinduism

Hinduism is the oldest major religion in the world. According to religious scholars, Hinduism 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** (living again after death, in the form of another human, animal or plant). Hindu beliefs required believers to:

- 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 5.18).

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 his or her destiny in the next life – that no repentance can save someone and no god can forgive or forget past actions.

Hindu beliefs and rituals

SOURCE STUDY

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.

INTERPRET 5.3

- 1 Describe the scene shown in Source 5.18. What evidence does it provide about Hinduism in India today?
- 2 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.

Source 5.18 Hindu pilgrims bathing in the Ganges



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 life 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 (gods). Instead they strive for a deeper insight into the true nature of life, with a focus on personal spiritual development. Buddhism teaches that greed, bloodshed 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

Source 5.19 The Eightfold Path is a practical guideline to ethical and mental development leading to understanding the truth about all things.

APPLY 5.2

- 1 Conduct research and explain what is required of a Buddhist following the Eightfold Path. For example, what do you think is meant by 'right speech' or 'right livelihood'?

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 5.20.

APPLY 5.3

- 1 Why do you think Hindus cremate (burn) rather than bury their dead?
- 2 Conduct research on the Internet to find out why cows are sacred to Hindus and followers of other religions.

EXTEND 5.3

- 1 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.

Source 5.21

A 19th-century artist's impression of a wife burning with her dead husband on his funeral pyre – a practice known as *sati*

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 5.20 Typical rituals for a Hindu funeral in ancient India

Around AD 400, the practice of *sati* began to appear. This involved the widow climbing, or being placed, on the funeral pyre (heap of wood) 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'. Her agonising death ensured that her husband, she herself, and seven generations of her family would all go straight to heaven.



REVIEW 5.4

- 1 Using bullet points, summarise the key beliefs of the Hindu and Buddhist religions.
- 2 How did the beliefs of Hindus influence their death and funerary customs?

5.2

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT INDIA BELIEVE?

» Explain how beliefs in ancient India were reflected in their death and funerary customs.

- 1 Identify the three major religions in India and outline what followers of these religions believe. (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]

RICH TASK

The world's major religions

- 1 Conduct research on other major world religions such as Christianity, Islam and Judaism. Copy the table below into your notebooks and add more columns to include information about these religions.
- 2 Choose one of the branches of Hinduism, Buddhism or Jainism, and prepare a short PowerPoint presentation to outline its beliefs and place in the world today. Include appropriate sources that illustrate or provide evidence for the statements in your presentation.

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 dependant on how the previous life was lived. One of goals in life is to release the soul from the cycle of rebirth by gaining spiritual knowledge.	Focus 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. Reincarnation. 'Right belief', 'right knowledge' and 'right conduct' are the three guiding principles.
God/s	Brahma, who takes the form of other deities who are responsible for the creation, upkeep and destruction of the world. They include the gods Vishnu and Shiva.	None	None
Sacred texts	Bhagavad-Gita and the Vedas	The Tripitaka, the Mahayana Sutras and the Tibetan Book of the Dead	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	900 million	376 million	4.2 million

Source 5.22 Characteristics of the major Indian religions

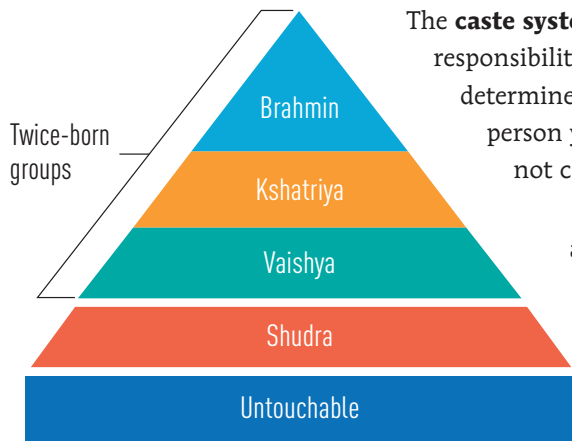
5.3

SECTION

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED 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.

THE SOCIAL STRUCTURE OF 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 5.23 The caste system in ancient India

Brahmins

The Brahmins were the most privileged caste. They were the priests, teachers, and performers of the religious rituals. 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 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, nor receive torture or physical punishment. They also did not have to pay taxes.



Source 5.24 Brahmins perform a prayer ceremony at a Hindu festival in Varanasi, India.

Kshatriyas

Kshatriyas were the noble caste. They were the leaders and protectors of society. They served as kings, warriors and tribal chiefs. Their responsibilities included the protection of 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 to advance 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 5.25 Indian soldiers on parade

Vaishyas

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, which was 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 5.26 Merchants such as these are members of 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 workman's tools, and if he worked for a wealthy landlord he would be paid a regular wage.



Source 5.27 These men from the Shudra caste are employed to work in a factory belonging to a merchant from the Vaishya caste.

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.

Untouchables

At the bottom of society, with no rights or privileges, was the group which 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.

Source 5.28 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.



SOURCE STUDY

The status of Untouchables

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, 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 5.29

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

INTERPRET 5.4

- 1 Read Source 5.29 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?
- 2 Look at Sources 5.29 and 5.30.
 - a What evidence do these sources provide about the status of the Dalits in India?
 - b Write a paragraph that outline how the status of Dalits is an example of continuity and change from ancient to modern India.



Source 5.30 A protest march by Dalits in Mumbai

Slaves in ancient India

Written sources from the 1st century BC confirm there was slavery in ancient India. However, unlike slavery in ancient Greece and Rome, it was rarely a life sentence in India. 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. A slave was allowed to buy back his freedom or could be voluntarily released by his master.

REVIEW 5.5

- 1 Why were the Aryans sometimes called the Vedic people?
- 2 Based on the information provided, indicate whether 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 Vaisya 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.

EVERYDAY LIFE IN ANCIENT INDIA



Source 5.31 A sadhu begging for alms (donations of money and food)

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

In the well-planned cities and towns of ancient India, regularly intersecting streets divided the built-up area into distinct districts. Each caste was supposed to occupy a different district. In addition to the main streets, each district was intersected by a series of 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. So while the upper castes strode proudly through the wide thoroughfares, or travelled in curtained palanquins (enclosed chairs carried on poles by servants), 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, with 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.

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.



Source 5.32 A snake charmer in Jaipur, India, charms two deadly cobras, continuing a long cultural tradition.



Source 5.33 Palanquins, like this one, were used to carry wealthy members of society

INTERPRET 5.5

- 1 To which castes do you think the man in the palanquin (covered chair) in Source 5.33 and the woman sweeping the road in 5.34 might belong? Explain your reasoning.

Source 5.34 A woman sweeping a dirt road – a common sight in Indian towns, past and present



Food and diet

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.

Source 5.35 A single piece of cloth is wound in different ways to form a *dhoti*, worn by men, and a *sari*, worn by women.



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 often 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 around 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.



Source 5.36 Inside a home in India. This style of housing is typical for a poor family in India.

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 (the custom of one man having several wives). 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 eight to twelve years before taking a second wife, this being enough time to see if his first wife could bear him a son.

Education

During the Indus Valley (Harappan) 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 eight years, depending on a child's intellectual abilities. Upper-caste women were educated during the Indus Valley (Harappan) 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 5.37 A student recites from the Vedas.





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 eight years old. Others preferred a later age of twelve. 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 5.38 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).

EXTEND 5.4

Most historians think that, during the Indus Valley (Harappan) 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 (Harappan) civilisation, particularly after the arrival of both Islam and Christianity. Women began to lose their earlier independence and become more socially repressed by men.

- 1 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.
- 2 How would the changing status of women in ancient India have affected their daily experiences?

REVIEW 5.6

- 1 Explain how the caste system influenced the design of towns and cities in ancient India.
- 2 How did the homes of the wealthy and the poor differ?
- 3 At what age were Indian girls usually married?
- 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?

5.3

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Perspectives and interpretations
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED IN ANCIENT INDIA?

» Outline how society in ancient India was organised

- 1 Identify the system that dictated a person's place in Indian society, Outline some of the ways in which this system influenced people's lives. (5 marks)

» Describe key groups in Indian society

- 2 Identify four key groups in India's social hierarchy, and describe the occupations, responsibilities and privileges of people who belonged to these groups. (20 marks)
- 3 Identify another group in Indian society that was considered to be beneath the accepted social hierarchy. What types of duties were the people in this group expected to carry out and how were they treated? (5 marks)
- 4 Identify 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
 - b education
 - c family households and marriage
 - d clothing, food and diet
 - e housing. (25 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/60]

RICH TASKS

India's social divisions

- 1 Australia does not have a formal caste system as ancient India did. But do you think we have similar divisions in our society, even if they are not formalised? Discuss in small groups, giving examples to back your views. A spokesperson will report the group's conclusions to the class.
- 2 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.
- 3 Use the information and sources in the text and your own research to find out more about the responsibilities and privileges of the Brahmin caste, including daily rituals and significant ceremonies such as the Upanayana ceremony. Present your findings creatively (for example, as a short story, a week of diary entries, a cartoon strip or other format approved by your teacher).
As well as typical events, include encounters (intended or otherwise) with people from each of the other castes in ancient Indian society.



Source 5.39 A Brahmin father and son perform the Upanayana or Sacred Thread ceremony. In ancient times, it marked the start of an upper-caste boy's formal education.

5.4

SECTION

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

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.

ANCIENT INDIA'S EMPIRES

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 (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

Source 5.40 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



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 5th-century invasion of the Huns.

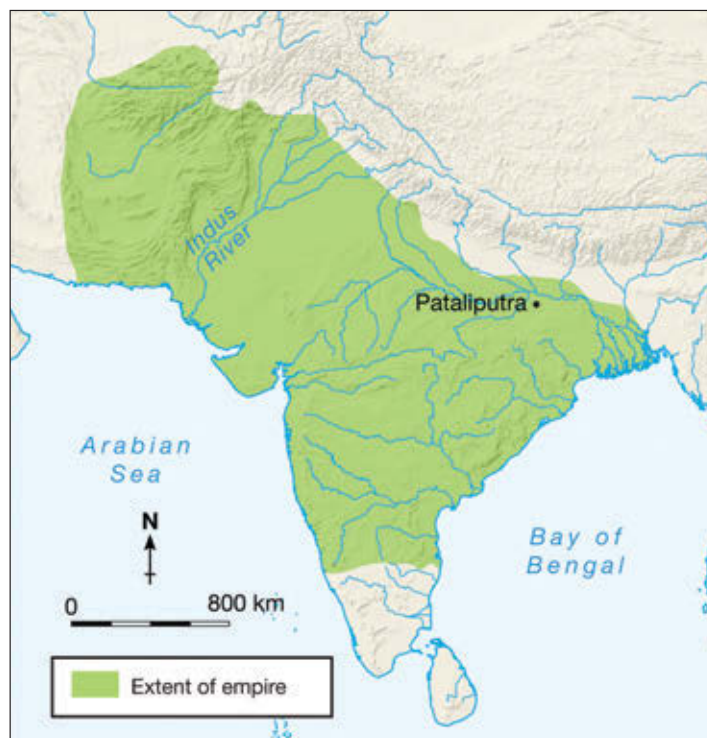
The Mauryan Empire

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.



Source 5.41 An artist's impression of Ashoka, third ruler of the Mauryan Empire



Source 5.42 The Mauryan Empire at its greatest extent

APPLY 5.4

- 1 Use an atlas to complete the following activities.
 - a Compare the extent of the Mauryan Empire (see Source 5.42) with the current borders of India.
 - b Estimate the size of the territory under Mauryan rule and compare it to Australia's land area.
 - c Write a 50-word paragraph to summarise your responses to parts (a) and (b).
- 2 Review your knowledge about Buddhist beliefs. Why do you think Ashoka turned to Buddhism after the Battle of Kalinga?

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 5.43 A huge rock carving of a reclining Buddha in Polonnaruwa, Sri Lanka

EXTEND 5.5

- 1 Find and print out a map of Asia.
 - a Mark the countries where Buddhism is a major religion as a consequence of Ashoka's missions
 - b Conduct research to find estimates of the number of Buddhists in each country, and mark these on your map.
 - c Find out the number of people who identify themselves as Buddhist in Australia's most recent census.
- 2 Source 5.44 is evidence of Ashoka's successful mission to Sri Lanka. Conduct research to find similar sources of evidence in other countries and present your findings in the form of a poster or PowerPoint presentation.

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 over 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 5.4 on the timeline). 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.

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.



Source 5.45 The Wheel of Law



Source 5.46 The Indian flag

Source 5.44 The remains of a pillar built by Ashoka showing engraved edicts

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.

APPLY 5.5

- 1 Conduct research to explain the meaning behind the symbols and design of the flag of India. Write a short paragraph to explain your findings.

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 him 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

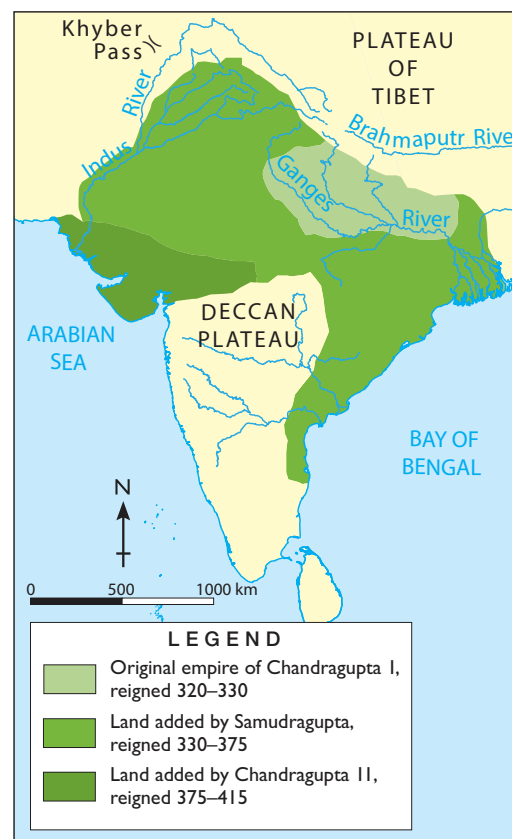
Over 100 years after the end of the Mauryan Empire, ancient Indian civilisation was to reach new heights – this time under the rule of the Gupta Empire (AD 320 to 480). The Gupta Empire was founded by Chandragupta I, and although the reigns of the five Gupta emperors lasted only about 150 years they 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 mid-way along the Silk Road between China and the Mediterranean societies of Rome, Greece and Egypt – also helped to develop exchanges of goods, ideas and religions.

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.

APPLY 5.6

- 1 Conduct research to find out about Indian goods that were highly valued by the Romans and other ancient societies, and the types of goods traded to India in return. Use a diagram (such as a flowchart or data table) to present your findings.



Source 5.47 The extent of the Gupta Empire

Source 5.48 Detail from an early Buddhist rock painting from the Ajanta caves (north-east of Mumbai), which were created during the Gupta Empire



Ancient Indian society during the Gupta Empire

SOURCE STUDY

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 and his writings (AD 394–414) were first translated by French scholars in the 19th century.

Source 5.49

[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.

From A Record of Buddhistic Kingdoms, by Fa-hsien, trans. James Legge, 1886

INTERPRET 5.6

- 1 According to Source 5.49, the Indians under the Gupta Empire enjoyed a degree of freedom seldom seen in the ancient world. What evidence does Fa Hsien give of this?
- 2 What comments can be made about the legal system and health system available for Indians living under Gupta rule?

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-6th century AD, India was again ruled as a number of small kingdoms.

REVIEW 5.7

- 1 Who were Chandragupta Maurya and Ashoka Maurya?
- 2 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?
- 3 List four achievements of Ashoka's rule that benefitted the people of the empire.
- 4 What was the purpose of Ashoka's rock-and-pillar edicts?
- 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?
- 7 Write a paragraph to summarise the key points about Indian society during the Gupta Empire.

APPLY 5.7

- 1 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.

THE LEGACY OF ANCIENT INDIA

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 began 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 5.52) is over seven 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 to special dimensions, 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 learned by the Arabs who referred to mathematics as the 'Indian science'. This later passed to Western Europe, where we 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, so 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.

EXTEND 5.6

- 1 As a class, discuss why you think the numbers we know as Arabic numerals are not called Indian numerals.

Source 5.50 A statue of the Indian astronomer and mathematician Aryabhata



Source 5.51 Our system of Arabic numerals is founded on a numeral system developed in India.

Medicine

India was ahead of most other ancient civilisations in possessing a highly developed knowledge of medicine and surgery. Physicians could perform surgery, including setting broken bones, drilling into the skull to reach the brain, abdominal operations, 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 2nd 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.

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 5.53).



Source 5.53 The temple at Ellora, built during the Gupta Empire

EXTEND 5.7

- 1 Conduct research to assemble a portfolio of pictures of ancient Indian painting, sculpture or architecture. Assemble these as a PowerPoint presentation, giving brief details about the origin and purpose of each example, and the meaning of religious symbols.
- 2 Conduct research to find out more about the epic poems the *Mahabharata* and *Ramayana*. Summarise one of their stories using a flow chart or storyboard.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Surgeons of ancient India developed a method of 'stitching' wounds using giant ants. They brought the ants to the lips of the wound and made them bite at regular intervals, cutting the body off when the pincers had clamped; the head and pincers remained embedded in the flesh, holding the lips of the wound together.

Source 5.52 The Iron Pillar of Delhi



REVIEW 5.8

- 1 Use a graphic organiser to summarise ancient India's achievements and legacy to the world.

5.4

CHECKPOINT

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. (6 marks)
- 2 Identify a conflict that occurred in ancient India in 261 bc. Outline the reason why it occurred and the result of the conflict. (4 marks)
- 3 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

- 4 Explain how conflicts within India resulted in the emergence of empires. (5 marks)
- 5 Explain the consequences of the conflict that occurred in 261 bc. (5 marks)
- 6 Explain the consequences of Ashoka's contacts with his people. (2 marks)

» Describe contacts and conflicts between ancient India and other societies, through trade, migration, warfare and conquest

- 7 Describe contacts that occurred between ancient India's earliest civilisation and other societies through trade and migration. (Refer to 'The origins of ancient India'.) (10 marks)
- 8 Describe contacts that occurred between India and other societies during the rule of Ashoka. (5 marks)
- 9 Identify conflicts with other societies that resulted in the conquest of Indian territories around 500 bc and 326 bc. (2 marks)

» Explain the consequences of these contacts and conflicts for ancient India and other societies

- 10 What were the consequences of contacts between India's earliest civilisations and other societies through trade and migration? (Refer to 'The origins of ancient India'.) (3 marks)
- 11 What were the consequences of contacts between India and other societies during the rule of Ashoka? (5 marks)
- 12 What were the consequences of the conquest of Indian territories around 500 bc and 326 bc? (2 marks)

» Outline how society was governed in ancient India.

- 13 Outline how India was governed during the Mauryan Empire, and identify public works built during this period. (8 marks)

» Investigate the role of a significant individual in ancient India

- 14 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of his or her role in India and:
 - a outline his or her achievements
 - b explain the impact this person had on his or her own society as well as other ancient societies
 - c explain the significance of his or her achievements or legacy for the modern world. (20 marks)

» Explain the legacy of ancient India

- 15 Explain the legacy of ancient India.
 - a Explain how India influenced religious beliefs both in India and around the world.
 - b Select two ideas or inventions from ancient India that you think had the greatest impact on other societies, giving reasons for your choices. (20 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASKS

Inquiry questions

Develop three inquiry questions about any aspect of ancient India that especially interests you. Before you write down your questions:

- read the information in the text and conduct your own research using digital and other resources
- think about what you already know about ancient Indian society, and also what you want or need to know
- focus your thinking by using words such as *what*, *how*, *when*, *where*, *why*, *who* as your question starters.

Warfare in ancient India

In ancient India, the Kshatriya caste fulfilled their role as the warriors and defenders of the people, fighting wars against the many invaders in India's history as well as wars between rival kingdoms within India. Most Indian armies had four parts: the foot soldiers or infantry, cavalry, chariot troops and elephant troops.

Conduct research to investigate some aspects of warfare in ancient India, such as:

- weapons and armour
- military tactics using infantry, cavalry, chariots and elephant troops
- famous battles.

Present your findings in a written report, including relevant source material.

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 5.54 A scene from one stone relief around a *stupa* at Sanchi. It shows an ancient chariot typical of those used in battle.

CHECKPOINT



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 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.

6.1

||||| CHECKPOINT 6.1

6.2

||||| CHECKPOINT 6.2

6.3

||||| CHECKPOINT 6.3

6.4

||||| CHECKPOINT 6.4

ANCIENT CHINA – A TIMELINE

Pronunciation guide

Chinese name	English pronunciation
Xin	<i>shin</i>
Zhou	<i>joe</i>
Qin	<i>chin</i>
Qin Shi Huang Di	<i>chin sheh hwang dee</i>
Wu Zhao	<i>woo jow</i>
Sui	<i>sway</i>
Qing	<i>ching</i>

Source 6.2 The Giant Buddha of Leshan in Sichuan province, China.



T
I
M
E
L
I
N
E

10 000
Early settlements appear in the Yellow River Valley of northern China

c. 2205
Start of the Xia Dynasty, a time of transition from **stone-age** to **bronze-age** tools and weapons

563
Siddhartha Gautama (later known as Buddha) born in India

10 000

7000

2000

1500

1000

7000
Evidence of the first stages of simple farming

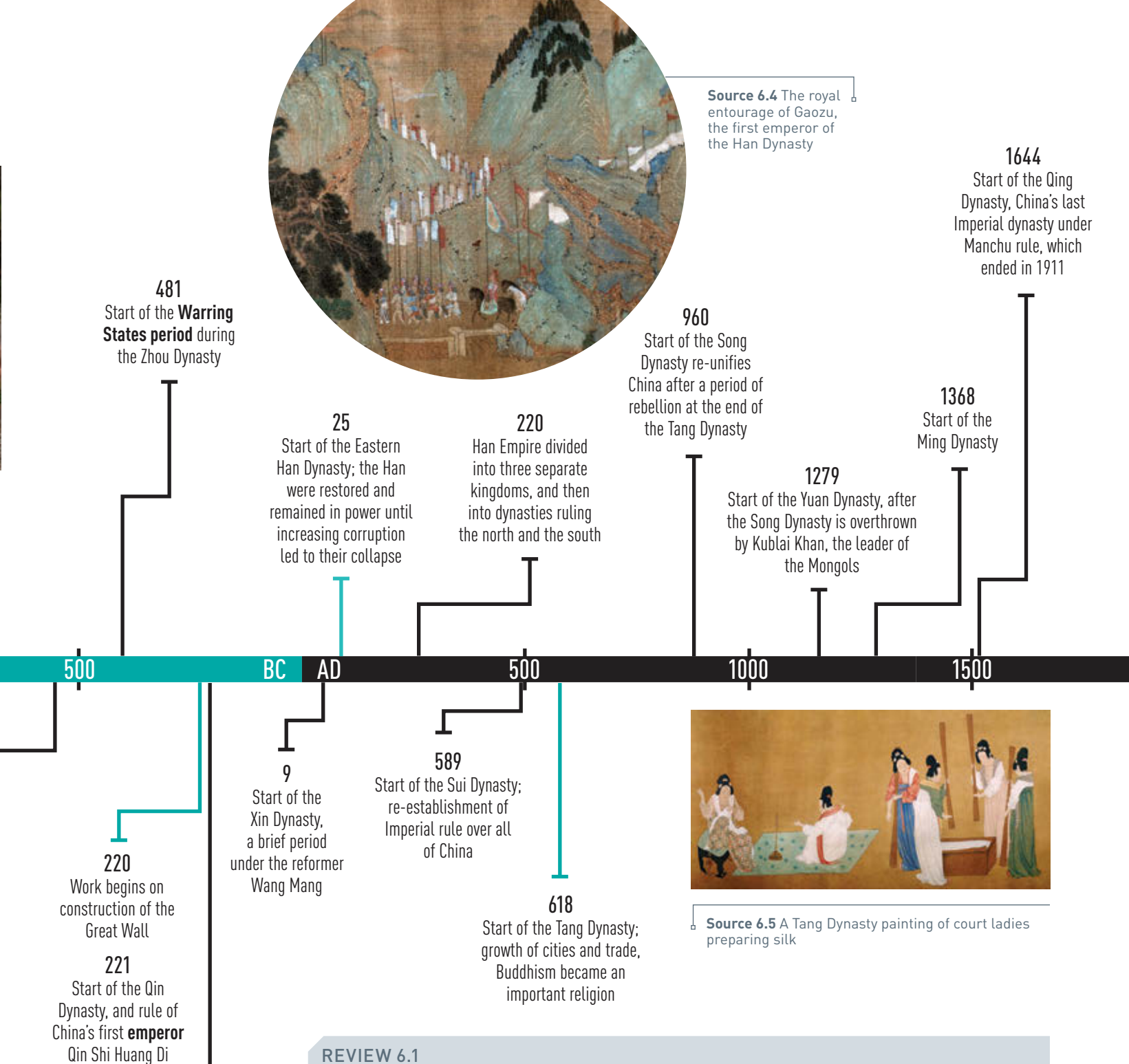
c. 1766
Start of the Shang Dynasty

c. 1122
Start of the Zhou Dynasty

551
Confucius born

Source 6.3 An artist's impression of Emperor Qin Shi Huang Di travelling in a litter (covered chair)





REVIEW 6.1

- Place the following events in chronological order, from the earliest to the most recent:
 - the 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 Qin 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 AD 1453?

6.1

SECTION

HOW DID GEOGRAPHY INFLUENCE THE DEVELOPMENT OF ANCIENT CHINA?

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 Yellow River Valley. In this section we will explore how China's geographical features influenced the development of Chinese society and culture.

THE ORIGINS OF ANCIENT CHINA

Ancient China developed along the banks of major rivers, including the Yellow River 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 their closeness 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.

Source 6.6 The fertile soil of the Yangtze River Valley is ideal for growing crops

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 Yellow River floods, and the result was greater cooperation among the settlements along the river, leading to the development of centralised control and government.

China's greatest resource has always been its agricultural land, even though much of its land 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 develop ideas and skills in manufacturing, the arts and sciences.

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. Surrounding ancient China were:

- 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 Burma (Myanmar), 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. In order to secure this border against invaders, around 2000 years ago work began on a huge protective wall, known today as the Great Wall of China.

Source 6.7 A section of the Great Wall in northern 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.

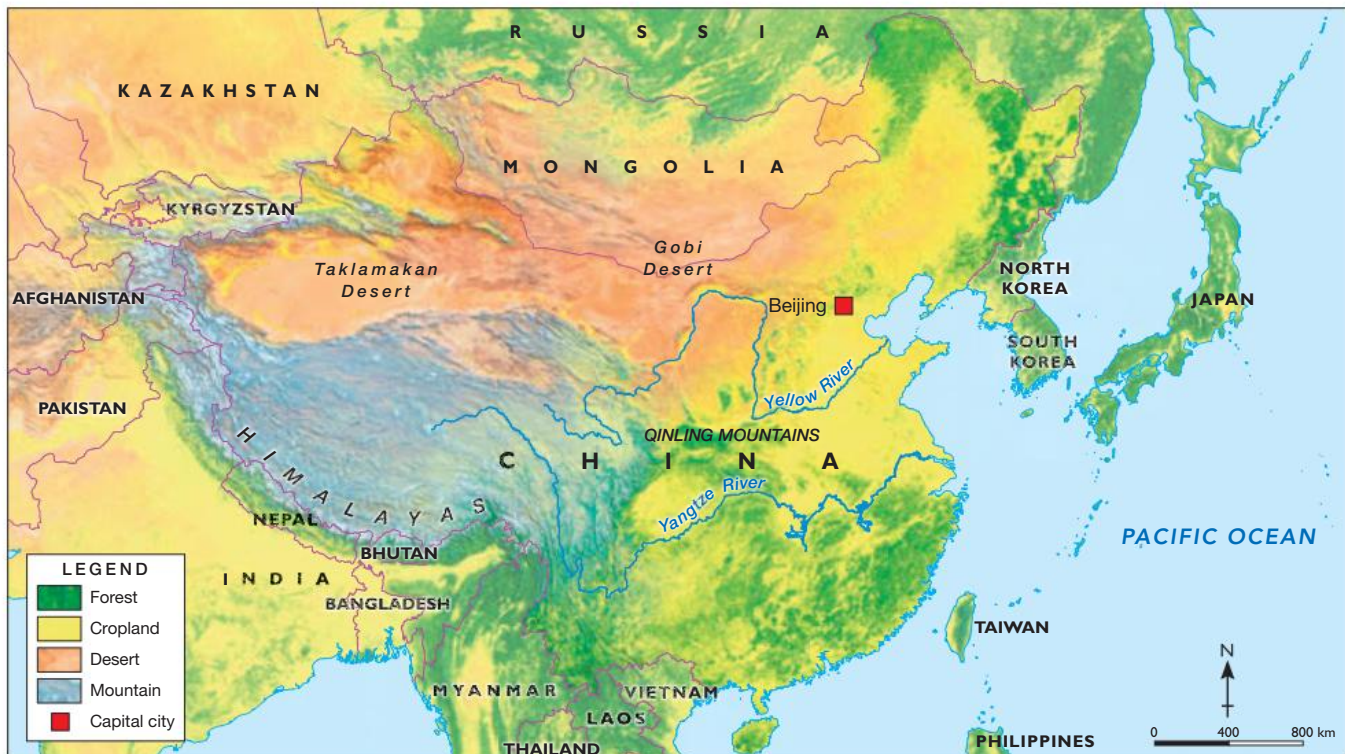
China is divided by a number of rivers and mountain ranges that criss-cross the entire country. Major rivers include the Yellow River and the Yangtze River. The Qinling Mountains running across the country act as a dividing line between north and south.

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 589 China was divided into north and south, with each region ruled as a separate state.

SOURCE STUDY

China's geographical features



Source 6.8 Physical map of East Asia, including China

INTERPRET 6.1

- Look at the different environments and physical features of China, using the map key 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
 - places best suited for human settlement.
- List features in Source 6.8 that you think might have contributed to the isolation of China's early settlements.
 - Identify possible barriers that would have contributed to the political divisions.
 - Determine how people's 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 Yellow River. 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.

The most significant problem of Yu's time was the destructive effects of the Yellow River floods. Yu is famous in Chinese history for organising people from different tribes to build a system of canals, which succeeded in stopping 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 Yellow River Valley. They also built China's first cities. Much of what is known about the Shang Dynasty comes from oracle bones (See Source 6.11). 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 6.11. This form of writing, known as oracle script is considered to be the oldest form of writing in China.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

According to legend, Yu the Great spent 13 years working on the problem of the Yellow River floods. He was so dedicated in his mission that, although he passed his house, he did not enter or talk to his family until the problem was solved.

Contestability: 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 was said to exist.

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 shown in Source 6.9) 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 to be 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 should be considered to have begun much earlier. In spite of this, many Chinese historians now accept that the Xia Dynasty did indeed exist.

China's earliest dynasties



Source 6.9 A bronze wine beaker said to be from the Xia Dynasty



Source 6.10 A bronze food container from the Shang Dynasty

Source 6.11 A cracked oracle bone from the Shang Dynasty



INTERPRET 6.2

- 1 What evidence can Sources 6.9 to 6.11 provide about the Xia and Shang Dynasties?

REVIEW 6.2

- 1 What is the link between the origins of the ancient Chinese and Egyptian civilisations?
- 2 Why was the Great Wall built?
- 3 What does the Chinese name for their country indicate about ancient China's view of themselves, and other societies?
- 4 What is the main climatic difference between northern and southern China?
- 5 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 to Chinese society? Add these to your concept map.
- 6 What benefits did canal building have for farmers in ancient China?

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 List the natural features in and around ancient China. (12 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. (20 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/40]

RICH TASK

A journey across China

Start at any point on the Chinese border shown in the Source 6.8. Extend a ruler from this point, in any direction, to another point on China's border. This represents the virtual journey you will travel.

- 1 In order, list all the geographical features and landscapes you will cross as part of your journey. Conduct extra research if you need to, using an atlas or Google Earth to examine the geographical features on the way.
- 2 Which feature do you think will represent the greatest challenge on your journey? Why?
- 3 Present your virtual trip through China on a poster. Include a map showing your route, and images from the text or your own research to illustrate the scenes and people you would encounter.



Source 6.12 The Tibetan Plateau

6.1

CHECKPOINT

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

6.2

SECTION

WHAT DID PEOPLE IN ANCIENT CHINA BELIEVE?

The civilisation of ancient China was influenced by a complex mix of beliefs, values and traditions. Some were religious beliefs, while others, such as Confucianism, 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.

RELIGIONS AND PHILOSOPHIES IN ANCIENT CHINA



Source 6.13 A
portrait of Confucius

Like people in many other ancient societies, the Chinese worshipped their ancestors and believed in gods and goddesses who controlled the forces of nature. People did everything they could to keep their ancestors and the **deities** (gods and goddesses) 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 rival 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.



Source 6.14 The *yin-yang* symbol represents the two equal and opposite forces that together control the world.

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 that people had to become one with the life force (the *Dao* or 'the Way') if they wanted to live forever. This effort required constant change to balance within oneself the *yin* (female) and *yang* (male) forces that he believed made up everything in the world. Two things helped this spiritual struggle. The first was meditating, usually at shrines built in beautiful natural spots. The second was exercise, such as kung fu and tai chi.

Ancient beliefs in modern China



Source 6.15 Chinese students dress in ancient costume during a ceremony to mark the 2560th birthday of Confucius on 28 September, 2009. The birthday of Confucius is also UNESCO World Teachers' Day.



Source 6.16 People practising tai chi in an outdoor setting in modern China

INTERPRET 6.3

- 1 What do Sources 6.15 and 6.16 tell us about the influence of Confucius and Daoism in modern China?
- 2 Why do you think the birthday of Confucius was chosen as the date for UNESCO World Teachers' Day?

The sayings of Confucius

Source 6.17

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

INTERPRET 6.4

- 1 Select two sayings of Confucius from Source 6.17 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

- 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 6.18 The Eightfold Path

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 1st 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 declined 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 (live again in another form) many times, learning from their experiences in each life.

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. Wives and **concubines** (women kept for the entertainment and pleasure of the emperor) were often buried alive in the tomb, so they could accompany them in 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 burnt at the funeral and at special festivals, as offerings to the gods and ancestral spirits.



Source 6.19 In China and other Asian countries, paper money and fake items made of paper – such as houses, cars and furniture – are still burnt in honour of ancestors and deceased loved ones. In recent years, the ancestors can also keep up with the latest technology, with the burning of paper replicas of iPads and iPhones.

REVIEW 6.3

- 1 Using bullet points, summarise your knowledge of the beliefs and values in ancient China.
- 2 Why do you think the burning of joss paper would not be a tradition at Buddhist funerals in ancient China?
- 3 Identify examples of continuity and change in Chinese burial and funerary customs from ancient to modern times.

6.2

CHECKPOINT

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

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. (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)

TOTAL MARKS [/30]

RICH TASKS

Investigating ancient beliefs

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 their:

- origins
- main beliefs or values
- influence on attitudes or practices in ancient Chinese society
- influence and popularity in China today.

Feng shui

Feng shui (meaning 'wind and water') is a practice developed from the Chinese belief that people should plan their living spaces in harmony with the natural world. The origins of belief in *feng shui* can be traced to the early Yangshao culture. In ancient times, it was believed that arranging things in a particular way would protect against evil spirits, and *feng shui* was used to orient a range of building – from tombs to dwellings.

Find out about some of the *feng shui* principles, then draw a labelled plan of how you would rearrange your bedroom or house from the perspective of a believer in *feng shui*.

Comparing ancient beliefs: China and Egypt

- 1 Conduct research to find out about the mummies of ancient China, including the mummified body of Xin Hui, which is considered to be the best-preserved mummy from ancient times ever discovered. It is so well preserved that doctors were able to perform an autopsy to find out how she died.
- 2 Read about the beliefs and funerary practices of the ancient Egyptians in this text. Using a Venn diagram or a table format, compare the similarities and differences in ancient Chinese beliefs and practices.



Source 6.20 The mummified body of Xin Hui. Her body had been wrapped in many layers of silk after being dipped in a mysterious liquid that still puzzles scientists.

6.3

SECTION

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT CHINA?

Social order and harmony were highly valued in China, and each social group knew what was expected of them, and how to behave with other groups. In this section, we will explore ancient China's social structure, and the roles and daily life of key groups in Chinese society. We will also look at the way China was governed, particularly under the rule of China's first emperor Qin Shi Huang Di.

THE SOCIAL HIERARCHY IN CHINA

APPLY 6.1

- 1 Draw a simple diagram representing the social structure of ancient China:
 - a on the basis of wealth
 - b on the basis of 'respectable' occupations.

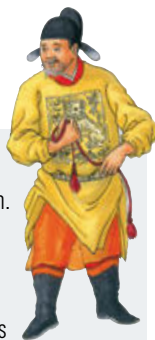
Ancient China's society was dominated by loyalty to the family unit. The group was more important than the individual. Like most ancient societies, China had a strict social **hierarchy**. At the top were the wealthy and privileged – the emperor and imperial family. Next came the scholars, eunuchs and officials (*shi*). This social class arose in order 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 were not highly valued by the scholars. This at times proved to be a weakness in China's history because cooperation was sometimes 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 relationships 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.



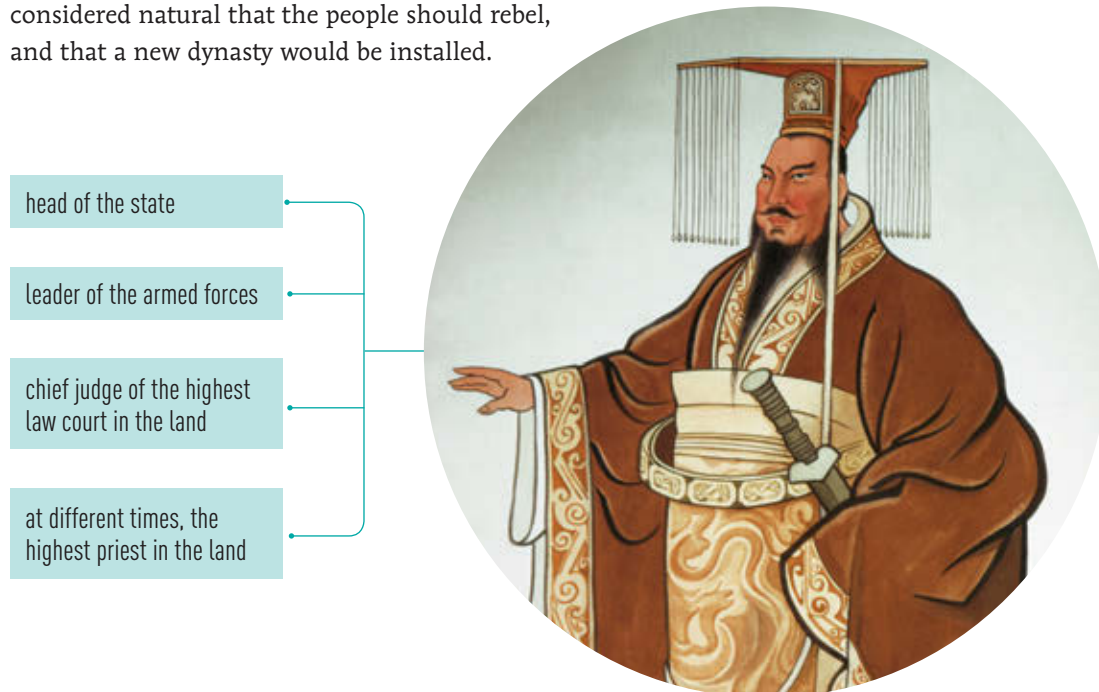
I'm a Tang potter – an **artisan**, if you like. Merchants buy my pots and transport them west in camel caravans and in carts pulled by oxen. For all their money, merchants are not as well respected as I am. I have skills, learned from my father. I will pass them on to my son.



Source 6.21 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. That 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.



Source 6.22 The emperor's role in ancient China

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 13th century, and the Manchurian rulers of the Qing Dynasty which lasted from the 17th to the 20th century.

EXTEND 6.1

- 1 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?
- 2 Conduct research to find out about 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.

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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

The last imperial eunuch in China, Sun Yaoting, died in 1996. His career as a palace eunuch ended when the imperial family were expelled in the 1920s. In later days, he was given a pension, and finally a job as a cashier in a temple.

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 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.

SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.23 A 17th-century silk painting of the last Han Emperor Xian with scholars translating classical texts

The civil scholars of ancient China



INTERPRET 6.5

Look at Source 6.23 and answer the following questions.

- 1 Is this a primary or secondary source?
- 2 What is this scene showing?
- 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?

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.

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.

The life of Chinese peasant farmers

SOURCE STUDY



Source 6.24 A painting showing Chinese peasants planting rice seedlings, ankle-deep in the water of a rice paddy



Source 6.25 Chinese farmers in modern-day China

INTERPRET 6.6

- 1 Describe the scenes shown in Sources 6.24 and 6.25.
- 2 Is this farming activity more likely to be found in northern or southern China? (Hint: see Source 6.8.)
- 3 Compare the images of farmers planting rice in ancient and modern China. What has changed? What has stayed the same?
- 4 Write a short descriptive text of about 50 words explaining what it would be like to do this kind of work.

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.

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 land to farm to improve their social status.

REVIEW 6.4

- 1 Use a concept map to summarise your knowledge about the social structure in ancient China, including:
 - the role of key groups
 - how and why different groups were more valued or respected.
- 2 Why is it possible that written evidence from ancient China may depict eunuchs and the military negatively?

THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN ANCIENT CHINA

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, women 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:

- disobedience – a woman had to obey her husband and her parents-in-law
- infertility – a woman was obliged to have children, especially boys
- adultery – a woman had to be faithful to her husband
- jealousy – a woman could not act in a jealous manner
- illness – if a woman had an incurable illness, her husband could find a new wife
- theft – if a woman stole anything, her husband could demand that she leave him
- talking too much – a quiet wife was always preferred.

SOURCE STUDY

Marriage in ancient China



Source 6.26: A modern Chinese couple wed, with Han Dynasty ceremonial rituals and wearing traditional Han Dynasty wedding clothes

Source 6.27

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 Dragon Lady: The Life and Legend of the Last Empress of China, Sterling Seagrove, Vintage Books, New York, 1992, p. 30

INTERPRET 6.7

- 1 Read Source 6.27 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?
- 2 Why do you think the bride wears a red bridal veil, as shown in Source 6.26?

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 better understood by learning about the practice of foot binding. The introduction of foot binding for women began at the time of the Song Dynasty.

Foot binding in ancient China

Source 6.28

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 cm] 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 China: A New History, John King Fairbank, Belknap Press, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., p. 174



SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.29 A painting showing a young Chinese woman binding her feet with bandages

INTERPRET 6.8

- Read Source 6.28 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 6.29 with the description in Source 6.28. Why do you think the artist who painted the image in Source 6.29 portrayed foot binding in this way?



Source 6.30 The bound foot of a Chinese woman

EXTEND 6.2

- People in ancient China considered bound 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.
- 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.

REVIEW 6.5

- Write a short paragraph to summarise the role of women in ancient China.

EVERYDAY LIFE 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 Chinese society.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Because it was customary for an emperor to have many wives and concubines, emperors tended to have very large families, and consequently 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.

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, and have bathrooms and beds. 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.

SOURCE STUDY

Noble lifestyles



Source 6.31 A painting from the Tang Dynasty depicting court ladies and their maidservants

Source 6.32

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 6.9

- 1 Study Source 6.31 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 6.31 and 6.32 tell us about the daily life of noblemen and women in ancient China (also see Source 6.5)?

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. Like the farmers of ancient Egypt, they used a device similar to a *shaduf* 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 STUDY



Source 6.33 A terracotta (clay) model of farmhouses from the Han Dynasty



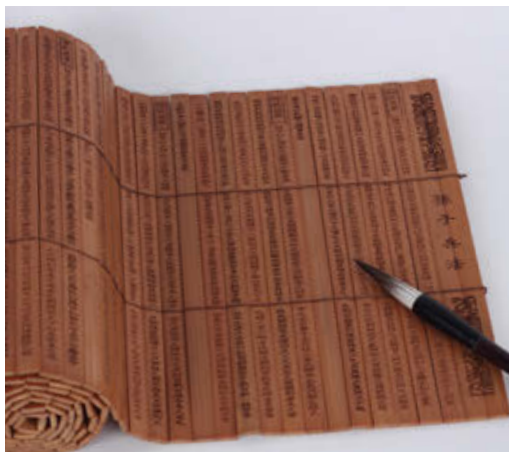
Source 6.34 A terracotta model of a grain mill from the Han Dynasty

INTERPRET 6.10

- 1 Based on the information provided by Source 6.33, describe the housing of peasant farmers.
- 2 Look at the model of the grain mill shown in Source 6.34.
 - 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



Source 6.35 Before the invention of paper, people in China wrote on bamboo strips bound together in a scroll.

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 6th century AD, Buddhist temples established schools for boys and girls. Here they learned to read and write, and learned about Buddhist ideas. Much later, during the Ming Dynasty, many women in wealthy households learned to read and write.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Archaeologists excavating a village in the Yangtze River Valley that had been devastated by an earthquake about 2000 BC discovered the preserved remains of a meal still in its bowl. Scientists confirmed they had discovered 4000-year-old noodles!



Source 6.36 4000-year-old noodles

EXTEND 6.3

- 1 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.

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.



Source 6.37 To use less cooking fuel, the Chinese chopped their food into small pieces so it could be cooked quickly. This resulted in the creation of meals like stir fries today.

The diet of people in ancient China was also influenced by their beliefs. For example, some forms of Buddhism forbade eating 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 over 2000 years. It was first drunk for medicinal qualities, and become more of a social tradition from the time of the Tang Dynasty.

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 striving for a balance of yin and yang.

Kung fu masters of martial arts 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 5th 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.



Source 6.38 A warrior monk from the Shaolin Temple, in Henan province, China

REVIEW 6.6

- 1 In ancient China, total obedience is given to the head of the family. Who would that be in your extended family?
- 2 Use a table format to summarise the daily life of nobles and farmers, including housing, diet and daily occupations.
- 3 Reread the information about education in ancient China and answer the following questions.
 - a What was the purpose of education in ancient China?
 - b 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.
- 5 Why do you think chopsticks are used as the main eating utensil in China? (Hint: think about the types of cooking discussed.)

ANCIENT CHINA'S CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

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.

SOURCE STUDY

The Qin Dynasty China



Source 6.40

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.

From East Asia: The Great Tradition, Edwin O Reischauer and John K Fairbank, George Allen & Unwin, London, 1960, p. 87

Source 6.39 The territorial borders of Qin Dynasty China. At its greatest extent, Qin Shi Huang Di ruled over 2 million square kilometres.

INTERPRET 6.11

- Read Source 6.40 and answer the following questions.
 - How was China divided?
 - Who were the main government officials in each area?
 - Do you think that it was a good idea to have three officials in each area? Give reasons for your answer.
- Use the scale in Source 6.39 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 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, one of the reasons for China's emergence as a major power in the modern world. The name 'China' comes directly from the Qin (pronounced 'chin' in English) Dynasty.

Source 6.41 The legacy of Qin Shi Huang Di

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



APPLY 6.2

- 1 Consider each of the changes made to Chinese government and society under Qin Shi Huang Di's rule, as listed in Source 6.41. For each one, explain why you think the change was made, and why you think the consequences would have been for ancient China. Share your ideas in a class discussion.

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.

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.

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.

The end of Qin Shi Huang Di's rule

Source 6.42

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.

From China: A New History, John King Fairbank and Merle Goldman, Harvard University Press, p. 57

INTERPRET 6.12

- 1 Read Source 6.42 carefully. Does it praise or criticise the first emperor?
- 2 On the basis of this passage, what kind of person did Qin Shi Huang Di seem to be?
- 3 What happened to his empire after he died?



Source 6.43 An artist's impression of construction on part of the Great Wall of China

The Great Wall of China

The Great Wall of China is about 8000 kilometres in length. The first stage of the wall was begun by Qin Shi Huang Di between 220 and 206 BC, building on existing mud-brick walls that had been built during the Zhou Dynasty. The most famous sections of the wall visible today were built much later, during the Ming Dynasty. 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.

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 his afterlife. The site covers an area of over 10 square kilometres and has 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 Source 6.44).

The terracotta army has to be 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 6.44
Archaeologists work to excavate one of the 120 terracotta warriors unearthed in June 2012



Source 6.45 A trench of partially excavated terracotta warriors and horses at the Terracotta Warriors and Horses Museum, in the city of Xian, China

APPLY 6.3

- 1 Read the information in the text 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 chart (Plus, Minus, Interesting) .

The rule of Qin Shi Huang Di		
Plus	Minus	Interesting

REVIEW 6.7

- 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?
- 3 What do historians need to consider when analysing written records from the Qin Dynasty?

6.3

CHECKPOINT

HOW WAS SOCIETY ORGANISED AND GOVERNED IN ANCIENT CHINA?

» Outline how society in ancient China was organised and governed

- 1 Outline the society 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.
 - 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? (10 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:
 - housing, clothing and leisure
 - education
 - food and diet. (15 marks)
- 7 Copy the following table into your notebook and complete by listing three everyday activities and responsibilities carried out by men, women and children in ancient China. (15 marks)

Men	Women	Children
• • •	• • •	• • •

» 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)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASKS

Inquiry questions

Develop three inquiry questions about any aspects of either the Great Wall or the terracotta warriors that especially interests you. Before you write down your questions:

- read the information in the text and conduct your own research using digital and other resources
- think about what you already know about the Great Wall or terracotta warriors, and also what you want or need to know
- focus your thinking by using words such as *how*, *when*, *where*, *why*, *who* and *what* as your question starters.



Source 6.46 Some of the excavated terracotta warriors

My life in ancient China

To which social group in ancient China would you have liked to belong? Choose one social group 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.



Source 6.47 The life of an emperor – a painting from the Tang Dynasty shows the emperor sitting, surrounded by maids of honour.

In these Rich Tasks, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Empathetic understanding
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.

CHECKPOINT

6.4

SECTION

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

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.

ANCIENT CHINA AT WAR

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 thousands of deaths of people forced to work on his grand constructions, such as 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, renamed Gao Zu.

As we have seen, the 'Mandate of Heaven' meant that 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.

EXTEND 6.4

- 1 Sun Tzu's book on military tactics, *The Art of War*, was written in the 6th century BC. It has been translated into numerous languages and is still in print. Conduct research to find three quotations from the book that you think are valuable or interesting and rewrite them in your own words.
- 2 Find out why Sun Tzu's thoughts are still valued today.

Source 6.48 Detail showing kneeling prisoners and soldiers from the time of the first emperor of the Han Dynasty



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.

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 the Han emperor named 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 topic we cover only the period of time up to the end of the Han Dynasty, which is commonly considered to mark the end of China's ancient period.

EXTEND 6.5

- 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.

The expanding territory of China's ancient dynasties

SOURCE STUDY

INTERPRET 6.13

- Using Source 6.49 as your source, write a paragraph to describe and summarise the changes to ancient China's territorial borders from the Qin Dynasty through to the Tang Dynasty.



Source 6.49 The territorial borders of some past dynasties and present-day China

REVIEW 6.8

- 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.

CHINA'S CONTACTS WITH THE ANCIENT WORLD

Source 6.50 An artist's impression, 7th-century AD, of the Emperor Wudi (140–87 BC) who ruled China for 50 years

APPLY 6.4

- 1 Conduct research on the rule of the 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.

STRANGE BUT TRUE

Silk was such a valuable resource to the Chinese that people were executed if caught stealing silkworm eggs or cocoons.



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 lasted 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 the Han emperor Wudi, China's influence increased through military conquest, trade and strategic alliances with other countries and foreign rulers. 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. These messengers and later diplomatic missions came back with stories of strange customs and products, such as furs and large horses. China was able to obtain huge numbers of these '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 Road.

The Silk Road

The Silk Road was not one road, but a network of roads heading in the same general direction. It ran through mountains, hot deserts and steppes (large treeless plains that are hot in the summer and freeze in the winter). Eventually, the Silk Road stretched westwards from the city of Chang'an (Xi'an) to the coast of the Mediterranean Sea. There were many branches leading to places such as India (see Source 6.53). 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 Road 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.

The Silk Road

SOURCE STUDY

Source 6.51

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 The Travels by Marco Polo (c. 1254–1324), describing the Silk Road crossing

Source 6.52

Goods exchanged along the Silk Road

FROM CHINA	silk, tea, cattle, porcelain, pearls, lacquer ware, iron
TO CHINA	horses and camels, jade, gold and silver, furs, dyes, perfumes, spice



Source 6.53 The main route of the Silk Road



Source 6.54 A 15th-century artist's impression of goods being transported along the Silk Road

INTERPRET 6.14

- Examine Source 6.51.
 - What were some of the dangers for merchants travelling the Silk Road?
 - Why do you think merchants continued to travel the Silk Road despite these dangers?
- Study Source 6.53 and complete the following activities.
 - Use the scale to estimate the length of the Silk Road from Chang'an to Tyre on the Mediterranean coast, then check your estimate using digital resources.
 - Use an atlas to identify the modern-day countries on the Silk Road main route and offshoots.
- Look at Source 6.54.
 - This painting is titled *Abduction of a lady with her porcelain*. The goods being transported on the Silk Road in this case is a princess' 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.
 - What does this painting tell us about the exchange of cultures along the Silk Road?

Exchange of ideas between East and West

APPLY 6.5

- 1 Think about some of the further inventions – and consequences both for ancient China and the modern world – that followed on from the invention of the compass, gunpowder and printing. Organise your thinking using a concept map, and conduct research to follow up on any questions you have. Share your ideas in a class discussion.

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 Road 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. The route was also the means by which terrible diseases were introduced to new populations, such as the bubonic **plague** in medieval times.

Ancient China's legacy

Sir Francis Bacon, a 17th-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 world – 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. 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 10th century AD, through Arab traders travelling along the Silk Road. 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 6.56 An ancient Chinese nautical compass

Source 6.55 Fireworks – a more peaceful use of gunpowder, and possibly its first use in ancient China



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 Road.

Paper and printing

The Chinese first wrote on silk or strips of bamboo. By the end of the 1st 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 6.57 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 Gutenberg printed his first bible in Europe, with a method using removable type.

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.

EXTEND 6.6

- 1 Conduct research to find out more about one of the inventions or discoveries listed above that particularly interests you. Share your knowledge about this Chinese invention or discovery with members of your class.
- 2 Use the Internet to 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.

REVIEW 6.9

- 1 What was the Silk Road and how did it get its name?
- 2 How did trade along the Silk Road increase the prosperity of ancient China?
- 3 What did Francis Bacon consider to be world-changing inventions and why?
- 4 Why do you think there are extensive written records that provide evidence about ancient China? (Also consider content in sections 6.2 and 6.3.)

6.4

CHECKPOINT

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. (10 marks)

» Describe contacts and conflicts between ancient China and other societies, though 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. (15 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 China's invasions during the Han dynasty? (3 marks)
- 7 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

- 8 Identify a significant individual and assess the importance of their role in China and the ancient world.
 - a Outline his or her achievements.
 - b Explain the impact this person had on his or her own society as well as other ancient societies.
 - c Explain the significance of his or her achievements or legacy for the modern world. (20 marks)

» Explain the legacy of ancient China

- 9 Explain the legacy of ancient China, including the impact of significant discoveries and inventions.
 - Identify three discoveries or inventions from ancient China.
 - Explain the importance of each discovery or invention, not only for China but for the modern world.
 - Explain how the world might be different today without these discoveries or inventions. (20 marks)

TOTAL MARKS [/100]

RICH TASK

China's dynastic cycle

The pattern in China's history marked by the rise of new dynasty and its establishment of order, then the dynasty's decline and fall as it sinks into disorder is known as the **dynastic cycle**. This can be represented with a circular diagram. Compare this to the way of viewing Chinese history in the timeline at the start of the chapter, which is chronological and linear (a line of events).

Conduct research to investigate one dynastic cycle in ancient China.

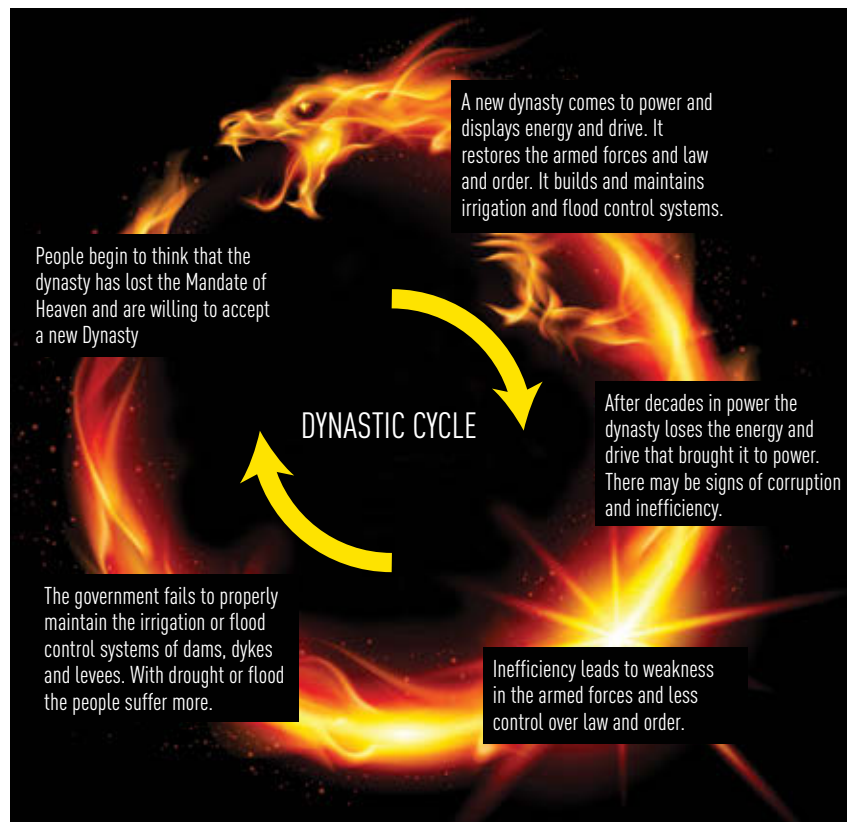
- 1 Refer to the timeline at the beginning of the chapter and choose one of the dynasties that ruled ancient China from the time of the Xia Dynasty to the Tang Dynasty.
- 2 Use digital and other resources to investigate key individuals, events and development in that period.
- 3 Present your findings in a written report, including:
 - how the dynasty came to power
 - features of the dynasty's first ruler and other individuals who were significant in establishing the dynasty
 - key inventions and developments in that period
 - an explanation of why the dynasty declined.

Select written evidence or other sources from your research that provide evidence for your findings.

In this Rich Task, you will be learning and applying the following historical skills:

- » Comprehension: chronology, terms and concepts
- » Analysis and use of sources
- » Research
- » Explanation and communication.

For more information about these skills, refer to 'The historian's toolkit'.



Source 6.58 The dynastic cycle in ancient China. The cycle can also be summarised by this quotation from the Ming Dynasty writer Luo Guanzhong: 'The empire, long divided, must unite; long united, must divide. Thus it has ever been.'

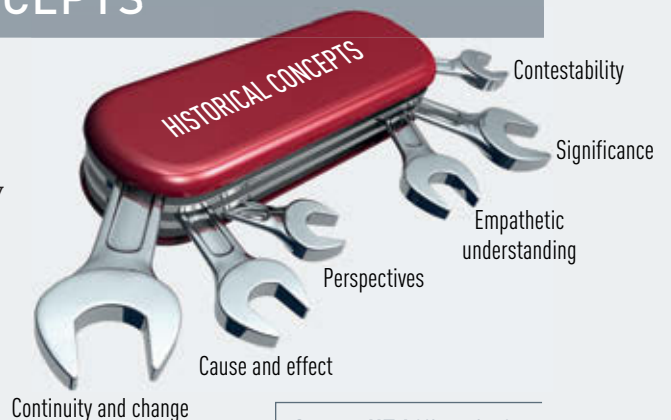
CHECKPOINT

APPENDIX: THE HISTORIAN'S TOOLKIT – CONCEPTS AND SKILLS

As you investigate the ancient world, 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 range of historical concepts and skills that you will learn about during your study of history.

HT.1 HISTORICAL CONCEPTS

Six key historical concepts are shown in Source HT.1. 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.



Source HT.1 Historical concepts

Continuity and change

Historians recognise that over time some things change, while others stay the same.

This concept is referred to 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 some aspect of everyday life that has continued across **centuries**, or a change in religious beliefs that has affected an entire society's culture.

Examples of continuity and change

- 1 **Continuity:** the continuity of a sport such as discus throwing, which dates back to the 5th century BC.
Change: aspects that have changed since ancient times; for example, in the ancient Olympics only men were allowed to compete, but now women compete as well; athletes were required to compete naked, but now athletes wear uniforms; modern Olympic events rely on new techniques and equipment
- 2 **Continuity:** the continuous rule of **dynasties** in ancient China over a 4000-year period
Change: the fall of one particular dynasty in ancient China and the rise of another dynasty to replace it



Source HT.2 This statue created by the Romans in the 2nd century BC is a reproduction of a famous Greek statue, Myron's *Discobolus*, created in the 5th century BC. It shows a discus thrower about to release his discus.

APPLY HT.1

- 1 Find examples of continuity and change related to activities you do, or objects that you use every day. Think about things you do or use that have stayed the same for many years, and others that have changed. Why might this be the case? Share your thoughts with the class.

Cause and effect

The concept of cause and effect is used by historians to identify the events or developments that have led to particular actions or results. 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, this link is often less obvious or more complicated. Generally, there are many causes (reasons) that lead to an event or result. There can also be many effects or outcomes.

Examples of cause and effect

The fall of the Roman Empire was not only the result of Rome being attacked and destroyed by invading tribes in AD 410, it was also due to a combination of other events, including:

- civil wars
- economic problems
- diseases and plague
- inefficient and corrupt government
- the unmanageable size of the empire
- military defeats which meant that Rome could no longer defend its borders.

(See Chapter 4, 'The downfall and legacy of Rome')

APPLY HT.2

- 1 Your birth will have had many effects or outcomes. Brainstorm to list 5 to 10 effects so far.
- 2 At its fullest extent, the Roman Empire reached from northern Britain, across all of Europe into northern Africa and the Arabian Peninsula. Think of some of the possible effects of its collapse on the people living in these regions. Share your knowledge and ideas in a class discussion.

Perspectives

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, and 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.

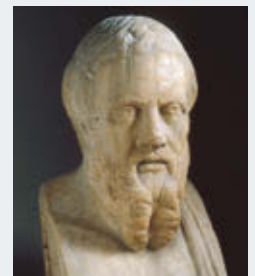
Writers and historians also have perspectives that can influence their interpretation of the past.

Examples of perspectives

- 1 Much of what we know about the ancient world comes from the writing of the Greek historian Herodotus. He was the first to record what he read, saw and heard in a planned



Source HT.3
Dani Samuels
Women's Discus
Throw Final, the
London 2012 Olympic
Games



Source HT.4 A bust of
Herodotus, who was
known as the 'father of
history'

APPLY HT.3

- 1 If five different people saw a fight in the schoolyard, it's very likely that each person would have a different perspective about how the fight started, what happened and why. Using your imagination, draw a cartoon of the scene showing (and explaining) five possible perspectives of the fight.

and ordered manner, and was concerned about accuracy in his writings. Modern historians investigating the Persian Wars in ancient Greece approach Herodotus' accounts with care, knowing that this source of evidence comes from the perspective of a writer from the Greek city-state of Athens. Herodotus would have considered Greek values and way of life to be superior to those of the Persians.

- 2 Many people today would share the belief that slavery is wrong. They would be shocked by the fact that about one-quarter of the population of ancient Rome were slaves. However, slavery was an accepted part of ancient Rome and many other ancient societies. Today, a logical assumption is that slaves led lives of misery because of their position in society. This was not always the case. 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 attractiveness.

Empathetic understanding

Empathetic understanding is the ability to understand and appreciate particular 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. In short, this concept encourages us to put ourselves in someone else's shoes – to think the way they may have thought and feel the things 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.

Examples 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. (See Chapter 6, 'Source study – Foot binding in ancient China.')



APPLY HT.4

- 1 Read 'Source study – Foot binding in ancient China' in Chapter 6 and imagine you are the mother and father of a four-year-old girl. Write a diary entry to describe the reasons why you believe you must bind your daughter's feet, and how this makes you feel.

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.

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.

HT.5 The bound feet of Chinese women were distorted to produce a 'delicate' look and way of walking.

Examples of significance

- 1 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. (See Chapter 4, 'Legacy of the Romans'.)
- 2 A significant individual in ancient Indian history is Ashoka, a ruler of the Mauryan dynasty in the 3rd century BC. Among other achievements, his Buddhist missions to other countries in Asia were so successful that Buddhism is still a main religion in these countries. (See Chapter 5, 'Ashoka and the spread of Buddhism'.)

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. The development of new technologies can provide new evidence, which helps historians in their search for a more complete understanding of the past.

Examples of contestability

The discovery of the tomb of the pharaoh Tutankhamun in 1922 was a significant event. The artefacts found there helped historians to uncover many important details about life and beliefs in ancient Egypt. But it is also ignited fierce debate, including decades of arguments about the exact cause of the boy pharaoh's death, based on experts' examinations of his mummified body. Many believed that he had been murdered or that his death was accidental. Recently developed DNA analysis in 2010 has provided evidence that Tutankhamun died from a combination of two conditions: an infection from a broken leg and malaria, an infectious disease that is usually transmitted by the bite of an infected mosquito. Some historians still contest this accepted explanation. (See Chapter 2, 'Tutankhamun – the boy pharaoh'.)

APPLY HT.5

- 1 You are planning a museum exhibit about your own life. Choose three artefacts you will include in the display, and explain why they are a significant part of your life.

APPLY HT.6

- 1 What kind of methods were used to determine the cause of Tutankhamun's death? Why do you think some historians do not accept the scientific conclusions about his death?



Source HT.6 The use of modern scans and DNA analysis has allowed historians to say with some certainty how Tutankhamun died.

HT.2 HISTORICAL SKILLS

To conduct any historical inquiry, historians need to apply a range of different skills (see Source HT.7). Each skill area has a number of specific skills that you will learn during your study of history. Some activities in your depth study topics will focus on one skill. Other activities, such as the Rich Tasks, are more complex and open-ended activities, requiring you to apply a number of skills to complete them.



Comprehension: Chronology, terms and concepts

Source HT.7 Historical skills

Comprehension: Chronology, terms and concepts

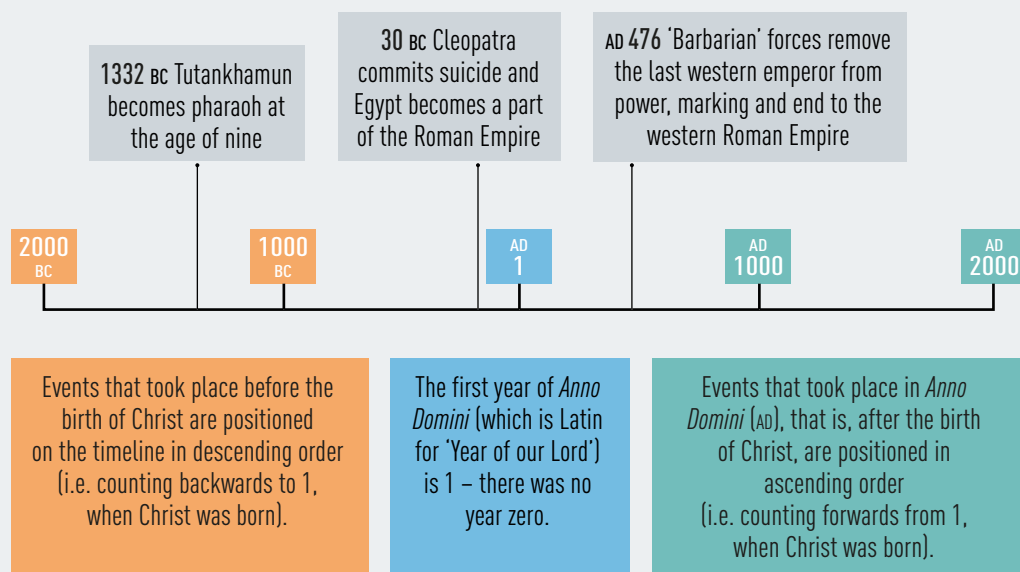
Chronology

APPLY HT.7

- 1 Create a timeline of a historical personality who interests you. Include all significant dates, such as birth, major events and death. Find pictures on the Internet to illustrate your timeline.

To get a better understanding of the past, historians organise events in the order they happened. This is known as chronology. 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 in detail. These include cause and effect, significance, and continuity and change (for more information, see HT1 Historical concepts).



Source HT.8 A simple timeline, with some key points to be aware of when ordering events

Terms and concepts

Terms and concepts related to historical time are covered in detail in *Depth Study 1:*

Investigating the ancient past. These include terms and concepts such as **BC/BCE** and **AD/CE**.

A reference table for time periods **BC** and **AD**, divided into centuries, is provided below. You should be familiar with the terms used to describe historical time periods before you begin your *Mediterranean world* and *Asian world* depth studies.

Source HT.9 More than 2000 years 'before Christ', divided into centuries. When ordering time **BC**, remember to count backwards from 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 HT.10 More than 2000 years *Anno Domini* ('in the year of the Lord') divided into centuries. When ordering time **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

You will learn other historical terms and concepts in the course of your depth studies.

For examples, in *Depth Study 1* you learn about:

- **primary sources** and **secondary sources**
- **hypotheses**
- **prehistory**.

During your study of ancient Mediterranean and Asian civilisations you will come across specific terms related to those topics, such as:

- **dynasty**
- **pharaoh**
- **afterlife**
- **citizen**
- **democracy**
- **patrician**
- **Mandate of Heaven**
- **caste system**.

Analysis and use of sources

Identify the origin and purpose of primary and secondary 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.

Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but they will almost always reflect the perspective of the person who created them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of that time. So it is important for historians to understand:

- their origin – where they came from
- their purpose – why they were created.

In some cases the author may have been paid or forced to write in a particular way or ignore certain facts. This is referred to as *bias*, which is often aimed at persuading the reader to agree with the author's point of view. Analysing sources by asking 'who', 'what', 'when' and 'why' questions will help you identify the origin and purpose of the sources.

Evaluating sources

Questions historians ask to identify the origin and purpose of sources include the following:

Who wrote, produced or made the source?

- Is the creator's personal perspective obvious in the source?
- 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?

When was the source written, produced or made?

- How old is the source?
- Is it an eyewitness account or is it written by someone at a later date?
- Is the source complete?

Why was it written or produced?

- Was it designed to entertain, persuade or argue a point of view?
- Does the creator have anything to gain personally from the source?
- What other events may have been happening at the time and might have influenced the author or source?

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

By this stage of your historical inquiry, you will have located and collected a variety of different sources and types of information. Now 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 useful, relevant and reliable evidence.

Organisation charts are very useful tools for collecting, comparing and selecting suitable resources that you have located. A decision-making chart can help you do this.



Source HT.11 An example of an organisation chart that can help you to compare and select sources

Source 1: King Tutankhamun died from broken leg, not murder, scientists conclude (National Geographic website)	Pros: - Article is current and based on scientific evidence - Written by a reputable organisation – National Geographic Cons: - The scientist refuses to listen to any counter-arguments by other experts - Article uses words like 'probably' and 'most likely' and 'maybe', so they could be wrong	Category of source: - Secondary source - Scientific article	Reference information: http://news.nationalgeographic.com/news/2006/12/061201-king-tut_2.html (accessed 23/08/12)
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/usefulness

Draw conclusions about the usefulness of sources

A useful 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. The following are good questions to ask in order to determine the usefulness of a source:

- Is it a reliable source?
- Is there enough information and sufficient detail to help me answer the inquiry question?
- Does the information support and reinforce evidence from other sources?
- Is it balanced or does it present one point of view (bias)?
- 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 usefulness. 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 like 'might', 'could', 'believe', 'think' and 'suggests' all indicate that an opinion is being expressed. For example:

- Fact: Tutankhamun was a pharaoh who ruled Egypt.
- Opinion: Many historians believe that Tutankhamun was murdered.



APPLY HT.8

- 1 In your own words, explain how an opinion differs from a fact.

Perspectives and interpretations

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

Primary and secondary sources reflect and represent many different points of view, attitudes and values. These may include personal, social, political, economic or religious points of view. For example, the Greek historian Herodotus visited Egypt in 450 BC and wrote the following account of how the Great Pyramid at Giza was constructed:

Source HT.12

[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)

Source HT.13 The Great Pyramid at Giza, Egypt



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.

APPLY HT.9

- 1 Do you think that two people with different perspectives can still be telling the 'truth' about a given event? Give reasons for your answer.

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).

What could have motivated Herodotus to deliberately write this false account? As a citizen of Athens, Herodotus' view of the world was shaped by his own democratic background. 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.

Empathetic understanding

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

The concept of empathetic understanding was discussed in the *Historical concepts* section. In your study of ancient Mediterranean and Asian civilisations, you will apply this concept by interpreting why people in the ancient past acted or behaved in particular way. To do this with empathetic understanding, you will need to keep in mind the values and attitudes of the society they lived in.

APPLY HT.10

- 1 Why is empathetic understanding an important skill for a historian to have?.

Research

Ask a range of questions about the past to inform an historical inquiry

Historians begin any historical inquiry by asking questions. From these questions, historians 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 type of evidence that needs to be collected.

Generating questions in inform a historical inquiry

Look closely at the stone heads of Nemrut at the site of the tomb of King Antiochus I (Source HT.14), who ruled a territory north of Syria after the break-up of Alexander the Great's empire in the 1st 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. You can learn to do this too by asking questions beginning with 'what', 'where', 'how', 'when', and 'why'. A good question will help to open up an exciting area to explore, such as 'Who do the statues represent?'



Source HT.14 Some of the stone heads at the World Heritage-listed site of Mount Nemrut in Turkey

APPLY HT.11

- 1 Based on what you have read and what you have seen in Source HT.14, generate four questions that would lead to an interesting area for a historical inquiry.

Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods

Sources provide information for historians. They can take many different forms, from historical artefacts to written records in books or online. Some examples of 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 which usually involves a number of different search methods, such as:

- checking catalogues 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
- contacting local historical societies
- interviewing older family members about the past, and examining family antiques and keepsakes.

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 such as Google are useful research tools, but much of the material on these sites is not reliable and may contain inaccuracies, false and misleading information, or material that is out of date. When using search engines like Google or Yahoo, be sure to define your search using keywords. Your librarian is a good person to ask for help and information. Most schools will also have a website devoted to providing information about developing good research skills.

A reliable way of searching for sources is to use sites linked to educational institutions, government departments, reputable companies, museums, universities and educational institutions. A quick way of telling if a site is reputable is to look at the domain name in

the URL (Internet address). Some of the most common domain names are listed in Source HT.15 along with some information about their reliability.

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.

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 HT.15 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 purchase 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 purchased 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 below.

Citing a book in bibliography

Include the following details, in this order, if available:

- 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).

Example:

Dennett, B & Dixon S, 201, *Oxford Insight History 7*, Oxford University Press, Melbourne, pp. 18–19.

Citing online sources in a bibliography

Include the following information, if available:

- 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 <...>.

Examples:

British Museum, 'Papyrus from the Book of the Dead of Ani', accessed 6 September 2012, <www.britishmuseum.org/explore/highlights/highlight_objects/aes/p/book_of_the_dead_of_an.aspx>.

Williams, AR, 2005, 'King Tut Revealed: Modern forensics and high-tech imaging offer new insights into his life – and death', June, National Geographic, accessed 17 July 2012, <<http://ngm.nationalgeographic.com/2005/06/king-tut/williams-text>>.

Explanation and communication

Historical writing requires you to describe and explain using evidence from a range of sources. 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 balanced view and is supported by reliable evidence. The two most common and useful text types you will be expected to use this year are descriptions and explanations.



Writing 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 HT.16 or a template from your teacher.

Source HT.16 A guideline for writing a description

Structure of a description	
Introduction	• Introduces the subject • States the name of the person or event • Outlines why the topic is important
Body	• Provides details about the person or event (including dates and important facts) • Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail • Quotations and descriptive words should be used where relevant
Conclusion (optional)	• Revisits the most important details and provides 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 in the skill ‘Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods’, which was covered earlier.

Source HT.17 A guideline for writing an explanation

Structure of an explanation	
Introduction	• Clearly states the main idea or aim • Briefly outlines the reason/s why an event occurred and its effect/s
Body	• Each idea must be supported by evidence. There should also be some analysis of the evidence to explain its significance and importance. • Information must be organised in paragraphs, with a new paragraph for each detail. • Language should be precise and not contain emotional words. Personal opinions (e.g., ‘I think ...’ or ‘my opinion ...’) should be avoided.
Conclusion (optional)	• Provides a short and clear overview of the main ideas presented in the body • States 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 and impressively communicate your findings. For example:

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

These communication forms can add colour and life to the presentation of historical information.

Steps in creating an audiovisual presentation

One of the most popular ways to present the findings of a historical inquiry is to create an audiovisual presentation. To prepare and present a successful audiovisual presentation, there are several steps to follow.

APPLY HT.12

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

STEP 1: Gather your research

Make sure that you have collected everything that you have found out in your historical inquiry. This will include any written research or findings, a list of sources you have used, and a range of relevant images and/or photographs. If you have been working in a group, this may involve collating your research with other members of your class.

STEP 2: Plan and create your presentation

Once you have gathered your research, you will need to decide on the best way to deliver your findings. You may choose to use Microsoft PowerPoint or Prezi.

Alternatively, you may like to create a website or short film to show to the class.

How you will present your findings may depend on the criteria set by your teacher. It is important to check these before your presentation so that you can ensure you are meeting all criteria.

STEP 3: Deliver your presentation

Regardless of the format you have chosen, there are some things to keep in mind:

- Practice makes perfect – rehearse your presentation before coming to class, especially if you are working in a group. Make sure each member of the group knows exactly what they have to do.
- Prepare for the worst – make a backup copy of your presentation in case anything unexpected occurs, such as data loss.
- Engage the audience – make eye contact, do not read from your notes and prepare cue cards to help you remember your lines. Speak clearly and make sure your text and layout are as visually appealing as possible.
- Check for errors – make sure any audio and visual material is correct and contains no factual or spelling errors.
- Speak slowly – focus on the purpose of your presentation and do not allow yourself to be distracted.
- Finish strongly – your presentation should end on a high note!



GLOSSARY

A

absolute dating the process of determining the age of an object or **artefact** in years based on its physical or chemical properties (e.g. radiocarbon dating is an absolute dating method)

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

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

afterlife a life or existence believed to follow death

agora a large open area at the base of an **acropolis** that was both a meeting place and the centre of business and government for a Greek **city-state**

amphitheatre a circular building with tiers of seats rise from a central open arena built to host **gladiator** fights (e.g. the **Colosseum** in ancient Rome)

amulet a magical charm thought to provide luck or keep away evil

anthropologist a person who specialises in the study of human behaviour and the physical, social and cultural developments of humans

aqueduct a channel (often on top of arches; other times underground) that carried water, by gravity, from distant mountain springs to settlements

archaeological dig a site known (or thought) to contain **artefacts** or items of interest from the past that is roped off and dug up by **archaeologists**

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**

aristocrat a person who (through wealth or birth) belongs to the upper class of a social group or civilisation (e.g. in ancient Greece)

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

artisan a person who is skilled at working with his or her hands in some specialised way (e.g. a potter, metal worker)

auxiliary a soldier who fought in the Roman army but who was not Roman; often recruited from a faraway province

B

battering ram a long, heavy pole (often a tree trunk) used to knock through enemy fortress doors

BC the abbreviation of Before Christ, used to indicate any time before the birth of Christ (*see also* BCE)

BCE the abbreviation of Before the Common Era, used to indicate any time before the birth of Christ (*see also* BC)

bias a prejudicial attitude for or against something

biologist a person who specialises in the study of living organisms, such as plants and animals

Brahmin a member of the highest (or priestly) class in Indian society according to the Hindu **caste system**

Bronze Age a period in human history after the **Stone Age** characterised by the use of bronze tools

C

canopic jar a jar used in ancient Egypt to store body parts removed during the mummification process

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

catapult a weapon that worked like a giant slingshot; it hurled large rocks, burning pieces of wood or the infected bodies of people and animals over the walls of a city that an army was laying siege to

cause and effect a key concept in history: 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

CE the abbreviation of Common Era, which refers to any time after the birth of Christ (*see also* AD)

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

chronological order the order in which events happened or took place

chronology a record of events in the order they took place

circa a Latin word meaning 'around' or 'approximately' (abbreviated as 'c.')

circus an open-air stadium (shaped like an oval) built to host chariot races in ancient Rome

citizen a person who through birth (or by meeting certain conditions) is a recognised legal member of a community

Citizen's Assembly one of a number of assemblies of **citizens** set up in ancient Rome to help govern and administer the **society**

city-state an independent settlement (typical of those in ancient Greece) made up of an inner fortified city surrounded by houses and farmland

civilisation a **society** with large-scale urban settlements, defined systems of government, social organisation, religion and technologies

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

colony an outpost set up by a country, kingdom or **empire**, often for reasons of trade or defence

Colosseum a large **amphitheatre** built and used during the Roman Empire to stage **gladiator** fights and other forms of public entertainment

concubine a woman kept for the entertainment and pleasure of a ruler or **emperor** (e.g. in ancient China)

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

consul the top official in ancient Rome; there were two consuls, each with different responsibilities

contest, to to argue against an idea or theory because of new **evidence**, or because of a different interpretation of existing evidence; an idea or theory that can be contested is said to be contestable

contestability a key concept in history: 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

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

crucify, to 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

cryptographer a person who specialises in the study of ancient writing systems and symbols and works to decode them

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

D

decade a period of 10 years

deity (pronounced DAY•ity) a god or goddess

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

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

demotic a system of writing based on the original script of ancient Egypt (i.e. **hieroglyphs**) that is more like running writing, which is faster and easier to write

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

desert an area that receives less than 250 mm of rain every year; they can be hot or cold

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

DNA analysis the examination of **DNA** used to explore links between ancient remains in order to support historical theories

Dreamtime, the the time of creation and the origin of all things, according to the beliefs of Indigenous Australians

dynasty a period of rule by members of the same family who come to power one after the other (e.g. the Han Dynasty in China); power is often passed from father to son

E

empathetic understanding a key concept in history: the ability to understand another person's point of view, way of life, or decisions by taking their special circumstances and values into consideration

emperor someone who rules an **empire**, such as in ancient Rome and China had emperors; a female emperor is an empress

empire a group of countries and/or areas, often with different languages and having different cultures, that are ruled by a central power or leader (known as an **emperor** or empress)

eunuch a man who has had his testicles removed as a young boy; often employed to guard the wives of rulers or emperors (e.g. in ancient China)

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

excavate, to to dig up

F

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

forensic pathologist a doctor who specialises in the study of dead bodies in order to determine the cause of death

forum an open area in the centre of a Roman town or city where people met, debated and sold things (e.g. the Roman Forum in the city of Rome)

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

fresco a type of artwork created by applying paint directly onto fresh, moist plaster

G

geneticist a scientist who specialises in the study of genetics (i.e. a branch of biology that concentrates of the study of characteristics passed down through **DNA**)

geophysical surveyor a person who specialises in the use of tools and techniques needed to locate ruins or **artefacts** buried underground or underwater

glacial a period of extreme cold during an ice age

gladiator a person (usually male) who fought to the death in the **amphitheatres** of ancient Rome for the entertainment of the crowds; many were prisoners; some were criminals or slaves and a few chose to fight willingly

H

Hades (pronounced HAY•deez) a place where the souls of people were believed to travel to according to ancient Greek **mythology**; the **Underworld**; also, the god of the Underworld

hierarchy (pronounced HIRE•ark•ee) 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

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

historical inquiry the process of examining historical **evidence**, conducting research and asking questions about it to find out about the past

history a discipline and branch of knowledge that aims to investigate, record and explain events that took place in the past (especially as they relate to human beings); from the ancient Greek word *historia*, meaning 'investigation'

Homo sapiens the scientific name for humans; a Latin term meaning 'knowing man'

hoplite an ancient Greek warrior

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

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)

hypocaust a heating system developed in ancient Rome in which hot air from a furnace circulated under the floor and between the walls of houses and public bath houses

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

I

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

L

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

legalism a Chinese philosophy introduced under China's first emperor that emphasised the importance of strictly obeying the law

legion a military unit in the army of ancient Rome made up of 60 **centuries** (i.e. around 5000 soldiers); soldiers in a legion were called **legionaries**

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

linguist a person who specialises in the study of languages

litter a covered chair or bed carried on poles and used to transport important people such as **emperors** and officials

M

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

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

migration the movement of people from one place to another

millennium a period of 1000 years

monotheism a belief in one god

monsoon a seasonal wind in Asia that brings heavy rainfall and warmer temperatures

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

mummification the process of preserving a dead body by preventing its natural decay; a body was mummified by removing internal organs drying out the remaining body tissue; the **mummy** was then buried or placed in a tomb; mummification was common in ancient Egypt and ancient China

mummy a body prepared for burial or entombment in ancient Egypt (see **mummification**)

mythology a set of beliefs held by a particular people to help explain things that were not understood (e.g. strange natural events); these may include individual stories called myths

N

Neolithic Revolution a term used to describe 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

nomad a person who lives his or her life moving from place to place rather than staying in a fixed place; people who are nomads are said to be nomadic

O

oligarchy a political system in which a small group of wealthy nobles or **aristocrats** rule over the wider population

oracle a person who was believed to be able to talk directly with the gods (e.g. in ancient Greece, oracles were believed to pass messages down from the gods)

'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

P

pagan a person who is not a Christian and worships non-Christian gods

palaeontologist a person who specialises in the study of plant and animal **fossils** in order to learn more about the past

pankration (pronounced pank•RAY•shun) a dangerous fighting event held as part of the Olympic Games with virtually no rules

papyrus (pronounced pa•PIE•rus) 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

patrician (pronounced pa•TRISH•un) an educated and usually influential male member of one of ancient Rome's aristocratic families; usually a wealthy landowner

perspectives a key concept in history: a point of view about an event or issue; a person's perspective is often influenced by their knowledge, **culture** or beliefs

phalanx (pronounced FAL•anks) a tight battle formation used by the ancient Greeks in which soldiers would pack together with their shields overlapping; spears in the front row were held forward and those in the rows behind were held higher

pharaoh (pronounced FAIR•oh) the leader of ancient Egypt who was believed to be a god; the pharaoh had absolute power and total control

philosopher a person who specialises in the discipline or study of philosophy (i.e. the investigation of the truths and principles of knowledge)

plebeian (pronounced PLEH•bee•un) a term used to describe one of the many poor and uneducated people in ancient Rome

polytheism a belief in many gods

prehistory the period of time before written records **primary source** a source that existed or was made at the time being studied

province a territory or region governed or controlled by a foreign **empire** or country

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

R

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

reincarnation the process of being born again; to live life again in another body (human or animal)

relative dating the process of determining the age of different objects or **artefacts** by comparing them with each other (e.g. **stratigraphy** is a relative dating method)

republic a system of government in which the power lies with a group of elected officials rather than a king or queen (e.g. for a time, ancient Rome was a republic)

S

Sanskrit an ancient language of India and the language used in documenting the holy books of Hinduism

sarcophagus the outer case (usually stone) of the nest of coffins containing the dead body of a person of importance

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

secondary source a **source** created after the time being studied

seer a person who was believed to be able to interpret messages from the gods by way of dreams and signs (e.g. in ancient Greece, seers interpreted messages from the gods in the guts and intestines of sacrificed animals)

Senate a group of officials (senators) with ruling power during ancient Rome's history; the Senate had a lot of power during the **republic**; it continued to function during the **empire**, but its power was reduced

shaduf a device used in ancient Egypt to take water from the Nile for drinking and irrigation

shrine a place or building where respect and devotion is paid to a god or goddess; shrines often house relics (religious objects)

significance a key concept in history: the importance given to a particular historical event, person, development or issue

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

sistra metal musical instruments in ancient Egypt that rattled when shaken

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

source any item (e.g. **artefact**, building, document) that has been left behind from the past; historical sources can be divided into two categories depending on when they were created (see **primary source** and **secondary source**)

standard-bearer a soldier in many ancient armies chosen to carry the standard (a banner or flag showing the symbol or emblem of an army or people) into battle; in ancient times, a standard had a similar symbolic significance to a country's national flag

Stone Age a period in human history before the **Bronze Age** characterised by the use of stone tools

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

stupa (pronounced STOO•pa) a dome-shaped religious building used to store important Buddhist relics (religious objects)

T

theocracy a system of rule in which the ruler's authority was based on religious beliefs, such as the rule of the **pharaoh** in ancient Egypt

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

time period a block of time in history

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

toga an item of clothing worn by the male **citizens** of ancient Rome

tyrant a ruler of a **city-state** in ancient Greece who was not born as an **aristocrat** (i.e. a commoner)

U

Underworld a mythical place where the spirits of the dead were believed to reside according to ancient Greek and Roman beliefs (see **Hades**)

Untouchable a member of the lowest class in Indian society according to the Hindu caste system; members of higher castes were forbidden from touching them; now referred to as *Dalits*

V

Valley of the Kings a deep, rocky valley close to the Nile where many Egyptian **pharaohs** were buried

Vestal Virgins a group of virgin priestesses in ancient Roman times whose lives were dedicated to the goddess Vesta, and to maintaining the sacred fire in her temple

Via Appia (pronounced VEE•a AH•pya) a road built by the ancient Romans in the late 4th century AD; it was about 200 kilometres long and connected the city of Rome to other important cities; it became one of the most important roads of the Roman Empire

W

Warring States period a period in ancient Chinese history in which a number of rival kingdoms fought against each other for control; at the end of this period, China was united and the first **emperor** came to power

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

INDEX

A

Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People 36–7
 cultural preservation 46
 absolute dating 19
 Abu Simbel 47, 47
 acropolis 109
 aediles 149
 Aegean Sea 104, 105
 afterlife 269
 Akhenaten 61, 92–3, 93
 Alexander the Great 56, 60, 61, 103, 135, 193
 alphabet origins 136
 amphitheatres 156
 Amun-Re 8
 analysis 270–1
 ancient world
 overview 4–11
 Angkor Wat 47
 Angles 182
 anthropologists 16
 Anubis 56, 66
 Anyang 233
Apella 119
 Apollo 56
 aqueducts 142, 156, 158
 Arabic numerals 222
 archaeological digs 16, 17, 28
 archaeologists 7, 16, 17, 144, 197
 Archimedes 137
 Archons 117
 aristocrats 55
The Art of War (by Sun Tzu) 256
 artefacts 7, 16, 19
 artisans 64, 187, 198, 243
 Aryabhata (Indian astronomer) 222
 Aryan people 192, 200, 202
 Ashoka Maurya 193, 216, 217–19
 converts to Buddhism 217–18
 Ashoka's wheel 219
 Asian civilisations
 conflicts 188
 geography 187
 legacies 189
 organisation 187
 overview 186–9
 religions 188, 189
 science 189
 Aswan Dam 63
 Atbara River 63
 Athenian democracy 103, 116–17
 Augustus 143
 Australia
 ancient past 36–45
 archaeological evidence 36–41
 Bradshaw or Gwion Gwion paintings 38, 39, 40
 Dreamtime 36
 human occupation 38–9
 rock engravings 37
 auxiliaries (Roman) 178, 185

B

Babylon 47
 Balakrishnan, K.G. (India's Chief Justice) 208
 Banerji, R.D. 197
 Bangla Desh 194
bestiarii 164
 biologists 16
 Blue Nile 63
The Book of the Dead 60, 86–7, 90
 the Boule 117
 Bradshaw or Gwion Gwion paintings 38, 39, 40
 Brahmins 9
 British Museum 15
 Bronze Age 7, 106
 Buddhism 9, 203, 238
 Byzantine Empire 182

C

calendars 18
 Caligula, Roman Emperor 153
 canopic jars 86
 Carter, Howard 25, 77
 Carthage 142–3, 175–7
 caste system (Indian) 187, 202, 269
 cause and effect 33–4, 265
 cave paintings 6
 Caviglia (archaeologist) 15
 censors 149
 centuries 19, 264
 ceremonies 8
 Chandragupta I (Gupta monarch) 220
 Chandragupta Maurya 193, 216, 217
 change (historical) 264–5
 Chares of Lindos 26
 China
 childhood 247–8
 climate zones 232
 diet 248
 duration 10–11
 dynastic cycle 263, 263
 early cultures 233
 education 248
 emperor's role 241
 family life 246
 farming 247
 floods 230–1
 foreign contact 258–60
 funerary customs 238
 geography 230, 230–2, 231, 232
 government 250–1
 Great Wall 20, 252
 Han Dynasty 229, 241, 258
 Eastern Han Dynasty 229
 Western Han Dynasty 229
 imperial family 241
 internal conflict 256–7
 inventions 260–1
 legacy 260
 legalism 250

Mandate of Heaven 241, 256, 269
 marriage 244
 martial arts 249
 'middle kingdom' 231
 military 257
 Ming Dynasty 229
 origins 233
 Qin Shi Huang Di 186, 229, 250–2
 Qing Dynasty 229, 241, 250
 rebellions 256–7
 religions 9, 236–9
 role of women 244
 Shang Dynasty 228, 233
 Silk Road 181, 258–9, 259
 social hierarchy 240–3
 Song Dynasty 229
 Sui Dynasty 229
 Tang Dynasty 229, 241
 tea 249
 terracotta army 252–3, 253
 territorial expansion 250, 257
 timeline 228–9
 trade 258
 Warring States Period 229
 writing begins 7
 Wu Zhao 241
 Xia Dynasty 228, 233
 Xin Dynasty 229, 258
 Yangshao culture 233
 Yellow River settlements 228
 Yuan Dynasty 229, 241
 Zhou Dynasty 228, 241
 Christianity 9, 56, 57, 171
 chronology 18, 268
 citizens 55, 116, 269
 citizens' assembly (Rome) 55
 city states 55
 civil scholars (China) 241–2
 civilisations 146, 186, 264
 ancient Chinese 6
 ancient Egyptian 6
 ancient Indian 6
 Cleisthenes 116
 Cleopatra 61, 81
 Code of Hammurabi 9
colonia (Roman) 178
 colonies of Greece 104–5
 Colosseum (Rome) 57, 165
 Colossus of Rhodes 26, 26–7
 compass invented 260
 concubines 238
 Confucianism 236, 237
 Confucius 187, 228, 236, 237
 conserving the past 46–50
 Constantine, Roman Emperor 143, 165, 182
 constitutions 117
 consuls 148, 149
 contestability 34, 267
 continuity and change 33–4, 264
 Corinth 119
 Crete 35, 54
 crucifixion 149
 cryptographers 16

cultures 7, 130
 Cunningham, Sir Alexander 196

D

Dalits 208
 Daoism 9, 236, 237
 Darius I, King of Persia 132
 dating events 19–20, 28–30
 decades 19
 Deccan Plateau (India) 194
 deities 56, 108, 170–1, 188, 202, 236
 Delphi 47
 democracy 57, 102–3, 116–17, 136, 269
 dendrochronology 30
 deserts in Egypt 62, 66
 digital sources 25
 the *Dikasteria* 117
 Diocletian, Roman emperor 182
 Dionysus 8
 Diprotodon 42
 Director of the Seal 79
 Djoser pyramid 60
 DNA analysis 4, 30
 Domitian, Roman Emperor 165
 drama develops 8
 Dreamtime 36
 dynastic cycle (China) 263, 263
 dynasties 187, 269

E

Eastern (Roman) Empire 182
 Egypt 54–7
 agriculture 66
 Amarna Period 97
 burial rituals 86–7
 chariots 20
 childhood 74–5
 clothing 70–1
 creation myth 85
 crops 69
 decline 96–7
 duration 10–11
 education 74–5
 food sources 66
 geography 62–6, 65
 housing 70–1
 legacy 96–7
 mineral wealth 66
 music and leisure 73, 73
 origins 62–6
 pharaohs 55–6, 76, 76, 79, 269
 religion 9, 84–7
 role of women 80
 slaves 81
 social hierarchy 78–9
 the three kingdoms 99
 timeline 60–1
 writing begins 7
 the *Ekklesia* 117
 empathetic understanding 34, 266, 273
 empires 192
ephors (Greece) 119
equites (Rome) 149

Erlitou 233
 Etruscans 142, 144, 146
 Euclid 137
 eunuchs (China) 241–2
 Euphrates River 6, 9, 62
 Evans, Sir Arthur 106
 evidence 24, 63, 270
 excavation 16
 explanation of histories 275

F

Faiyum 63
 farming origins 6, 9
feng shui 239
 Fertile Crescent 9
 Five Pillars law 9
 flourine dating 30
 foot binding (China) 245, 245
 forensic pathologists 16
 forums (Roman) 156
 fossils 19
 Franks 182
 frescoes 35, 35

G

Ganges River 202
 Gaul 182
 geneticists 16
 geophysical surveyors 16
Gerosia 119
 Giza 15
 Giza Pyramids 47, 54
 gladiators 142, 164–5, 169
 Great Pyramid at Giza 91
 Great Wall of China 252
 Greece 54–7
 Archaic Age 102
 architecture and sculpture 137
 Athenian democracy 103, 116–17
 city-states 104–5
 climate 124
 colonies 104–5
 daily life 122–3
 dark ages 102
 deities 108
 divorce 125
 drama and language 136
 duration 10–11
 education 126, 127, 136
 fashion 126
 funerary customs 110
 geography 104–5, 107
 languages 106
 legacy 136–7
 marriage 125
 origins 104–7
 philosophy 136
 religion 9, 108–10
 role of women 120–1, 122
 science and medicine 137
 slaves 120
 social structure 120–1, 124–5
 systems of government 116–19
 timeline 102–3
 trade 130–1

Troy 114–15
 tyrants 119
 warfare 132–5
 gunpowder 260
 Gupta Empire 10–11, 193
 decline 221
 extent 220, 220
 origins 220
 society 221
 Gwion Gwion or Bradshaw paintings 38, 39, 40

H

Hades 110, 172, 173
 Hadrian, Roman Emperor 153
 Hammurabi, King of Babylon 9
 Hannibal 142, 176–7
 Hapi 64
 Harappa 196
 Hatshepsut (pharaoh) 61, 81
 Hellenism 135
 Henettaway's coffin 8
 Heracles 56
 Herculaneum 166
 Herodotus 103, 134
 hierarchies 9, 55, 187
 hieroglyphs 8, 15, 60, 97
 Hinduism 9, 192, 202–3
 Hippocrates 137
 historical concepts 14–17, 33–5, 264–7
 historical inquiry 14, 273
 historical perspectives 33–4
 historical skills 268–77
 historical writing 275–7
 history
 hypotheses 14
 inquiry approach 14
 investigating 14–17
 research 14
 Hittites 60, 61
 Homer 102
 Homo erectus 39, 39
 Homo habilis 39
 Homo sapiens 12, 39
 Homo sapiens neanderthalensis 4
 Homo sapiens sapiens 4–5
 Honorius, Roman Emperor 165
 hoplites 132, 133
 Huns 217, 221
 hunter-gatherers 6
 hydraulic theory 62, 230
 Hyksos Kings 60, 61
 hypotheses 269

I

ice age 38
 ICT 273
 India (*see also* Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation)
 architecture 223
 Brahmins 206
 clothing 212
 diet 211
 duration 10–11
 education 213
 empires 216–21
 funerary customs 204
 geography 194–6, 195

Gupta Empire 10–11
 housing 212
 Indus Valley civilisation 10–11
 Kshatriyas 207
 legacy 222–3
 literature 223
 marriage 214
 mathematics 222
 Mauryan Empire 10–11
 medicine 223
 origins 196–7
 religions 9, 202–3, 205
 science 222
 Shudras 207
 slaves 209
 social hierarchy 206–9
 technology 222
 timeline 192–3
 town life 210–11
 Untouchables (Dalits) 208
 Vaishyas 207
 writing begins 7
 Indigenous Australians
 ceremony 8
 origins 4, 4–5
 Indo-Aryan people 200
 Indus River 6, 62, 194
 Indus Valley (Harappan) civilisation 192 (*see also* India)
 artefacts 199, 199
 cities 198–9
 decline 200
 education 213
 extent 197
 housing 198
 role of women 214
 sanitation 198
 trade 200
 information and communication technologies (ICT) 274
 interpretations 272
 Inundation (Nile valley) 63
 investigations 28–31
 Iraq 9
 Ishtar Gate 47–9, 48, 49
 Isis 56
 Islam 9, 57
 Isthmus of Corinth 104

J

Jainism 202–3
 Judaism 9, 57
 Julian calendar 183
 Julius Caesar 143, 152, 183

K

Kadesh (battle) 60, 61
 Khafre, pharaoh 15
 King, Billy (Ngarinyin Elder) 40
 Kow Swamp (Victoria) 38–9
 Kublai Khan 229
 Kumara Gupta 221
 kung fu 249

L

Lake Mungo 38–9
 Laozi 236
 Lascaux Caves 6

laws evolve 8, 9
 legacies 57
 legalism (in China) 250
 legionaries 178, 185
 legions (Roman) 178
 Leonidas, King of Sparta 118
 Lewis, James 196
 Linear A script 106
 Linear B script 106
 linguists 16
 Liu Bang 256
 Livy 183
 Lower Egypt 60

M

Macedon 135
 the *Mahabharata* 223
 Manchus 257
 Mandate of Heaven 241, 256, 269
 Marathon (battle) 103, 132–4
 Marco Polo 258
 Marcus Aurelius, Roman Emperor 153, 183
 Mauryan Empire 10–11, 193
 Buddhism 218
 decline 219–20
 extent 217, 217
 government 218
 origins 217
 rule of law 219
 Maya Empire 18
 Mediterranean civilisations 54–7
 Mediterranean Sea 9, 62
 megafauna in Australia 42, 42–3
 Megara 119
 Mehrgarh culture 194
 Mentuhotep II 60, 61
 merchants 78, 243
 Mesoamerica 7, 18
 Mesopotamia 6, 9
metics 121
 middens 16, 37
 migration 4, 4–5
 Miletus 119
 millennia 19
 Milo of Croton 111
 Miltiades, Athenian commander 134
 Minoan civilisation 35, 54, 102, 106
 Mithras 56
 Mohenjo-Daro 196–7, 197, 199
 Mongols 257
 monotheism 85
 monsoon rains 196
 monuments 8
 mosaics 212
 Moses 9
 Muhammad, the Prophet 9
 Muhammad al-Husayni Taqi al-Din al-Maqrizi 15
 Mulvaney, John 40
 mummies 87
 mummification 86–7, 238
 Mungo Man 4, 39, 39
 Muslims 9
 Mycenaean civilisation 102, 106
 mysteries in history 32–5

N

Napoleon, General 15
Narayanan, K.R. 208
Nefertari 72
Nefertiti 80, 81, 92, 93
Neolithic Revolution 6, 63
Nero, Roman Emperor 153
Nile Delta 62, 65, 66
Nile River 62, 62, 64
Nile valley 6
nilometers 64
nomadic groups 6
nomarchs 78
Nubians 61

O

Old Kingdom (Egypt) 60
oligarchy 116
Olympic Games 57, 102, 111, 111, 112–13
optically stimulated luminescence 39
oracles 109
oral history 25
Ötzi the Iceman 28, 28
'Out of Africa' theory 4–5, 4–5

P

pagan events 111
Pakistan 194
palaeontologists 16
pankration 112
paper invented 261
papyrus 68, 72
Parthenon 103
patricians 148, 269
peasants (China) 242–3
Peloponnesian Peninsula 104
Peloponnesian War 103, 135
Pergamon Museum (Berlin) 48–9
Pericles 102, 116, 116
Persian Gulf 9
Persian soldiers 133
Persian Wars 103, 132–4, 138
Persians 192
perspectives 265–6, 272
pharaohs 55, 56, 79, 269
 ceremonial objects 76, 76
 power and role 76
Philip II, King of Macedon 56, 103, 135
philosophers 117
Plato 117
Playford, Dr Phillip E 40
plebeians 148, 149
Pliny 15
Pliny the Elder 26, 167
Pliny the Younger 167
polygamy 213
polytheism 84–7, 108
Pompeii 47, 143, 166
pottery 7
praetors 149
prehistory (definition) 6, 269
primary sources 24–5, 269, 270
printing invented 261
Prophet Muhammad 9
provinces (Indian) 218

provinces (Roman) 178
Punic Wars 175–7
pyramids 88–9
Pythagoras 137

Q

Qin Er Shi (Chinese Emperor) 256
Qin Shi Huang Di (Chinese Emperor) 186, 229, 250–2
Qinling Mountains 231–2
quaestors 149

R

radiocarbon dating 29, 63, 130
Ramayana 223
Rameses II 60, 61, 96
Rebellion of the Seven States 256
Red Sea 62
reincarnation 188, 202
relative dating 19–20
Remus 146
republics 148
research 273
Rhodes 26–7
Richard III, King 31, 31
rituals 8
rock art 7
Roman emperors 153
Roman Empire 143
Roman siege equipment 185
Roman weaponry 179
Rome 54–7
 army 178–9
 Asian contacts 180–1
 burial practices 172–3
 central heating 158–9
 Christianity 171
 citizens 149
 death 172–3
 decline 182
 deities 170–1
 duration 10–11
 education 154
 Empire 152–3
 Empire divided 182
 Etruscan legacy 146
 extent of the empire 174
 family life 154
 fashion 154
 First Punic War 175
 geography 144–5, 145
 gladiators 164–5
 Greece defeated 103
 legacy 183
 life in Rome 160–1
 marriage 154
 navy 175
 origins 146
 political structure 148–9
 public baths 162–3
 Punic Wars 175–7
 religion 9, 170–1
 the republic 148
 role of women 150
 Roman values 172
 sanitation 158–9
 Second Punic War 176–7

slaves 151
Third Punic War 177
timeline 142–3
town life 156–7
trade and commerce 180–1
warfare 174–9
water 158–9
Romulus 142, 146
Rosetta Stone 61, 97

S

sacrifices 8
Salamis (battle) 103
Sanskrit 200
sarcophagus 87
sarir 212
sati 204
Saxons 182
Scipio, Publius Cornelius 177
scribes 64, 78
secondary sources 24–5, 269, 270
seers 109
Senate of Rome 55, 148
Serpent Mound 28, 28
Seti I (pharaoh) 61
shaduf 69
Shaolin temple 249
Shinto 9
shrines 8, 108
Siddhartha Gautama (Buddha) 192, 203, 228, 238
significance (historical) 34, 266
Silk Road 181, 258–9, 259
Smenkhkare 93
social classes 9
societies 7, 186
Solon 116
sources (historical) 24–7, 270–1, 274–5
 digital 24
 evaluating 24, 26
Sparta
 helots 118, 121
 political structure 118–19
The Great Sphinx 15
Stonehenge 8
stratigraphy 28, 29
Sumer 7, 9
Sumerians 7
Sun Tzu 256

T

taboos 8
Tacitus (Roman historian) 165
talismans 8
Tarquin the Proud (Roman king) 146
Tawosret 81
temples 8
Ten Commandments 9
terms and concepts 269
Thar Desert 194
theocracy 76
Theodosius I (Roman Emperor) 111
thermoluminescence 30, 38, 40
Thermopylae 134
300 Spartans 134

Thutmose III 61
Tiber River 144, 145
Tigris River 6, 9, 62
time in history 18–21
time periods 268
timelines 19, 21, 268
togas 154
Tollund Man 32, 32–3
Tomb of Menna
 conservation 49–50, 50
tools 7
trade develops 9
Trojan Wars 114–15
Tutankhamun 25, 61, 77, 77

U

Underworld 108, 172, 173
UNESCO 46
Untouchables 208
Upper Egypt 60
Ur 7, 9
utensils 7

V

Vandals 182
Vestal Virgins 150
Vesuvius 143, 166–7
Via Appia 142, 183
Vishnu 192
Visigoths 143, 182
viziers 78

W

Walsh, Grahame 40
Wandjinas 40
Western (Roman) Empire 182
Willandra Lakes 38, 43
Wittfogel, Karl 62
Woolagoodja, Donny 40
World Heritage Sites 46, 47
writing begins 7
Wu Zhao (Empress of China) 241
Wudi (Han emperor) 257

X

Xerxes I, King of Persia 134

Y

Yangtze River 230, 230, 231
Yellow River 6, 62, 230, 231
Yellow Turban Rebellion 256
Ying Zheng 251
Yu the Great 233

Z

Zama (battle) 177
zero (invention) 222

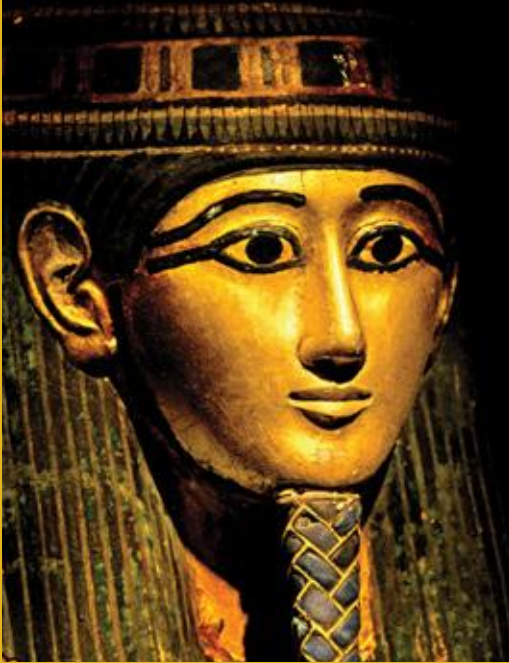
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author and the publisher wish to thank the following copyright holders for reproduction of their material.

AAP Image/AP Photo/University of Melbourne, Source 1.37 /Cyprus Antiquities Department, Source 3.40 /University of Leicester, Source 1.28; **akg-images**, Source 3.22 /De Agostini Picture Library, Source 0.3; Erich Lessing, Source 2.19 /Erich Lessing, Sources 3.2, 3.29, 4.19 /Museo Nazionale Archeologico, Source 3.50, Source HT.4 /Peter Connolly, Source 3.46; **Alamy**/blickwinkel, Source 1.36 /CFimages, Source 4.36 /Louise Batalla Duran, Source 5.39 /Peter Horree, cover image, contents page /Skyscan Photolibrary, Source 0.9 /Art Archive, Source 0.15 /The Art Gallery Collection, Source 4.16 /The Bridgeman Art Library Ltd, Source 5.4 /Visual Arts Library (London), Source 4.57; **Archives Fundação Museu do Homen, Brazil**, Source 1.4; **Art Archive**, Source 2.49 /Bibliothèque Musée de Louve, Source 2.33 /Musée des Beaux Arts Antwerp/Gianni Dagli Orti, Source 2.34 /Musée du Louvre Paris/Gianni Dagli Orti, Source 4.18 /National Museum Karachi/Collection Dagli Orti, Source 5.13 **Auscape**/Red Morrison, Source 1.38 /Steven David Miller, Source 1.40; Reproduced by permission of the **Australian Broadcasting Corporation** and ABC Online. © 2002 ABC. All rights reserved, Sources 1.39, 1.41, 1.42, 1.43; Megafauna stamp image by Peter Trusler, 2008 © **Australian Postal Corporation**, Source 1.46; **Bridgeman Art Library**, 5.44, 6.23/ Alinari, Source 4.54 /Ancient Art and Architecture Collection Ltd, Source 2.22, 4.12, 4.26, 5.12 /Archives Charmet, Source 6.3 /Archives Charmet/Musée de la Ville de Paris, Musée Carnavalet, Paris, France, Source 1.12 (bottom right)/Ashmolean Museum, University of Oxford, UK, Source 4.46 /Benaki Museum, Athens, Greece, Part 2 opening image /Boltin Picture Library, Part 3 opening image /British Museum, London, UK, Source 2.30, 2.41, 3.28 /Chicago Press, USA/Davies, Mrs Nina de Garis (1881-1965), Source 2.21 /De Agostini Picture Library/S. Vannini, Source 2.7 /Denman Waldo Ross Collection, Source 6.50 /Dinodia, Source 5.41 /Fitzwilliam Museum, University of Cambridge, UK, Source 3.47 /© FuZhai Archive, Source 6.24 /Giraudon, Sources 1.12 (centre right), 2.52, 5.3, 6.54/ Johnny Van Haeften Ltd, London, Source 3.15 /© Look and Learn, Sources 4.3, 4.32, 4.4, 4.55, 5.6 / Musei Capitolini, Rome, Source 4.21 /Musée Antoine Lecuyer, Saint-Quentin, France, Source 1.12 (top right) /National Archaeological Museum, Athens, Greece, Source 1.32 /The Louvre, Paris, France, Source 2.36 /Universal History Archive, Source 6.41 /Werner Forman Archive, Source 4.22; **Corbis**, Sources 1.12 (top left), 1.12 (centre), 1.50 /Adam Woolfitt, Source 5.54 /Araldo de Luca, Source 1.26 /Araldo de Luca, Source 4.23 /Asian Art & Archaeology, Inc., Source 6.9 /Astock/Photographer:NingJie 46020019810, Source 6.35 /Bettmann, Sources 1.12 (bottom left), 3.27, 4.44 /Bob Gibbons, Source 3.6 /Burstein Collection, Sources 6.4, 6.48 /Charles & Josette Lenars, Sources 2.17, 6.22 /David Samuel Robbins, Source 5.7 /Design Pics, Source 4.40 /Diego Lezama Orezzioli, Source 5.10 /EPA/Maurizio Brambatti, Source 3.13 EPA/Mike Nelson, Source 2.27 /EPA/Piyal Adhikary, Sources 5.27, 5.28 /Francis G. Meyer, Source 4.50 /Frederic Soltan, Sources 5.38, 5.48 /Gianni Dagli Orti, Sources 0.6, 2.16, 2.31, HT.2 /Guy Levy, Source 2.28 /Heritage Images, Source 1.12 (centre left) /Imaginechina, Source 6.44 /In Visu/Antoine Serra, Source 5.30 /JAI/Doug Pearson, Source 0.22 /James L. Amos, Source 4.62 /Jason Hawkes, Source 4.29 /Jean-Pierre Lescourret, Source 1.52 /Jonathan Blair, Source 1.3 /Kazuyoshi Nomachi, Source 6.30 /Keren Su, Source 6.45 /Lindsay Hebbard, Source 5.34 /Loop Images/Jon Bower, Source 1.9 /Lowell Georgia, Source 6.11 /Luca Tettoni, Source 5.1 /Luca Tettoni, Source 5.15 /Ludo Kuipers, Source 0.7 /Martin Harvey, Source 5.32 /Mimmo Jodice, Source 4.27 /NASA, Source 2.10 /National Geographic Society, Sources 1.10, 3.35, 3.39, 5.40 /National Geographic Society/Gervais Courtellemont, Source 5.26 /National Geographic Society/Taylor S. Kennedy, Source 1.49 /National Geographic Society/Underwood & Underwood, Source 1.51 /North Carolina Museum of Art, Source 4.41 /Ocean, Source 5.17 /Photosindia, Source 5.5 /Richard A. Cooke, Source 1.21 /Robert Harding World Imagery/Peter Barritt, Source 4.5 /Robert Harding World Imagery/Robert Harding, Source 5.14 /Robert Harding World Imagery/Yadid Levy, Source 5.43 /Roger Wood, Source 3.10 /Sandro Vannini, Source 2.1 /SOPA/Bruno Cossa, Source 3.14 /Stapleton Collection, Source 5.33 /Stefano Bianchetti, Source 1.15 /Sygma/Kapoor Baldev, Source 5.18 /The Art Archive/Alfredo Dagli Orti, Sources 4.2, 4.20 /The Gallery Collection, Sources 1.53, 2.26 /Tony Craddock, Source 2.6 /Top Photo Corporation, Source 4.30 /Underwood & Underwood, Source 1.14 /VII/Lynsey Addario, Source 5.36 /Wally McNamee, Source 6.16; **DK Images**/Nick Hall, Source 5.51 /Richard Bonson, Sources 1.19, 2.15, 2.39, 2.40, 3.19, 3.30, 4.38, 6.43; **Dreamstime.com**/Pelfophoto, www.image/Timurpix, typing image; **English Heritage Photo Library**, Source 4.31; **Getty Images**, Sources 6.15, 6.26, 6.38 /Alexander Hassenstein, Source HT.3/DEA/G. Dagli Orti, Sources 0.14, 3.3 /Nigel Pavitt, Source 5.35 /SSPL via Getty Images, Source 4.59 /AFP, Sources 1.27, 5.9 /Amet, Sources 4.1, 4.9 /Anders Blomqvist, Source 2.44 /Bridgeman, Source 2.20 /De Agostini, Part 1 opening image, Sources 2.2, 3.17, 3.38, 3.9, 4.24, 4.25, 5.45, 6.33, 6.34 /DEA/A. Dagli Orti, Sources 0.20, 2.4, 2.18, 2.23, 2.32, 2.45, 2.51, 3.36 /Dorling Kindersley, Source 0.19 /eastphoto, Source 6.1 /G Richardson, Source 4.6 /Grant Dixon, Source 1.34 /Jeremy Duguid Photography, Source 4.42 /Juliet Coombe, Sources 0.24, 6.46 Kenneth Garrett, Source HT.6 /Keren Su, Source 6.13 /Luca Tettoni, Source 5.2 /Neil Setchfield, Source 1.5 /NYPL/Science Source, Sources 0.30, 6.56 /Peter Willi, Source 2.3 /Science Photo Library, Sources 0.2, 1.1, 1.24, 1.29, 6.29 /Slow Images, Source 4.48 /Steve Gorton, Source 0.4 /UIG via Getty Images, Sources 3.34, 5.37 /Yann Layma, Source HT.5; **Hunan Provincial Museum, China**, Source 6.20; **inimage**, Sources 6.5, 6.31, 6.47 /Dinodiarf, Source 5.50; **iStockphoto.com**/DNY59, pen and ink image /René Mansi, newspapers image; **Jamahiriya Museum, Tripoli, Libya**, via Wikimedia Commons, Source 4.39; **Kobal Collection**/Warner Bros, Source 3.20 / Fox 2000 Pictures, Source 3.12 /Warner Bros./Jaap Buitendijk, Source 3.5; **National Trust Images**/Ian Shaw, Source 4.33; from Egypt (OUP, 2005), copyright © Stephen Biesty 2005, reprinted by permission of **Oxford University Press**, Source 2.14; **Picture Media**/Ho New/Reuters, Source 6.36; Ray Norris, Sources 1.35, 1.48; **Scala**/Image copyright The Metropolitan Museum of Art/Art Resource, Source 0.8; **Science Photo Library**/Maurice Nimmo, Source 1.25 /Planet Observer, Source 0.1; **shutterstock**, Source 0.13, Source 0.29, Source 1.2, sphinx, Source 1.6, Source 2.12, Source 2.13, Source 2.43, Source 3.1, Source 3.16, Source 3.25, Source 3.48, Source 3.49, Source 5.46, Source 5.52, Source 5.53, Source 6.2, Source 6.6, Source 6.7, Source 6.12, Source 6.14, Source 6.19, Strange but true (Silk Worm), Source 6.58, Source 3.11, Source 3.4, Source 6.55, Source HT.1, Source HT.7, Source HT.14 / Hung Chung Chih, Source 6.25 /Iv Nikolny, Source 5.31 /Fstockfoto, Source HT.13 /JeremyRichards, Source 5.25 /neelsky, Source 5.24; **South Tyrol Museum of Archaeology**, Source 1.22; **Trustees of the British Museum**, Sources 0.5, 2.47, 6.10; **Wellcome Library, London**, Source 5.21; Photo by Brendan Foley, **Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution**, Source 3.41

History Stage 5 Australian Curriculum for NSW © Board of Studies NSW for and on behalf of the Crown in right of the State of New South Wales 2013. The Board of Studies does not endorse model answers prepared by or for the Publisher and accompanying the Material, nor does it take any responsibility for errors in the reproduction of the Material supplied by the Board of Studies.

Every effort has been made to trace the original Source of copyright material contained in this book. The publisher will be pleased to hear from copyright holders to rectify any errors or omissions.



This photograph shows a wooden sarcophagus, known as the Golden Face of Panehsy, which dates back to c. 890 BC. It is one of three sarcophagi found in the tomb of a priest known as Panehsy in the Egyptian city of Thebes. Religion was central to the lives of ancient Egyptians, and preparing for the afterlife was an important part of their belief system. The detailed hieroglyphs and carvings of gods that cover the sarcophagus were designed to protect and guide Panehsy on his journey to the afterlife. All three sarcophagi are now held at the National Museum of Antiques in the Netherlands.

OXFORD
UNIVERSITY PRESS
AUSTRALIA & NEW ZEALAND

ISBN 978-0-19-557774-7



visit us at: **oup.com.au** or
contact customer service: **cs.au@oup.com**