

ANCIENT and MEDIIEVAL TEACHER PACK

By

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HTAV

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Sample pages

p.211 *Gluttony*. Cocharelli title cuttings from a Latin prose treatise on the Seven Vices, origin Italy, N.W. (Genoa) Date c. 1330–c. 1340. Additional 27695 f. 14. © The British Library Board.

TEXT ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

p.28 *Going Bush: Adventures across Indigenous Australia with Catherine Freeman and Deborah Mailman* (abridged), pp.16–18. Reproduced with permission of *Going Bush* © 2006 Lonely Planet.

EXPLANATORY NOTES

The accompanying CD contains the sources used in this teacher pack, many of them in colour.

For most learning activities, space has been included for student responses; where indicated, however, students will need to respond elsewhere. Teacher notes appear throughout, giving further information and/or sample responses to the tasks set. All websites were accessed July 2011.

These materials were compiled in accordance with the Australian Curriculum for History v.1.2, published by the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA) in December 2010 (see next page and www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/Home). The author and HTAV have made all reasonable efforts to reflect the content and structure of the Year 7–8 curriculum as documented at the time of publication, but teachers should keep abreast of announcements and resources released by ACARA.

NB. See following pages for Australian Curriculum requirements and how they can be met by using this resource.

Curriculum implementation is the responsibility of the States and territories. See the following websites for advice on how each jurisdiction will implement the Australian Curriculum:

Australian Capital Territory
<http://activated.act.edu.au/ect1/index.htm>

New South Wales
www.boardofstudies.nsw.edu.au/

Northern Territory
www.det.nt.gov.au/parents-community/curriculum-ntbos/ntcf

Queensland
www.qsa.qld.edu.au/

South Australia
www.sacsa.sa.edu.au/index_fsrc.asp?t=Home

Tasmania
www.education.tas.gov.au/curriculum

Victoria
www.vcaa.vic.edu.au/index.html

Western Australia
www.det.wa.edu.au/curriculumsupport/detcms/portal/

A people without history
Is not redeemed from time, for history is a
pattern
Of timeless moments.

T.S. Eliot

Section 1

The Ancient World

c. 60 000 BCE–c. 650 CE

Year 7 History

OVERVIEW

Introduction

Africa is often called the 'cradle of humankind.' It is where the first *homo sapiens* evolved from earlier species, around 200 000 years ago, learning how to become skilled toolmakers, able to shape spears, harpoons and other tools as well as axes. At some stage (the date is much debated by scientists) a group of these humans started moving into Europe and Asia, gradually becoming the dominant species. The reasons for the migration are not known; it may have been population pressures or environmental changes, perhaps severe droughts. Artefacts found in a rock shelter at Malakunanja in Arnhem Land, northern Australia, show signs of human occupation possibly dating from 40 000 to 60 000 years ago. The famous remains of Mungo Man and Mungo Woman, found at Lake Mungo in NSW, have been estimated to be around 40 000 years old.

Around 9000–10 000 years ago a profound change started to occur in how people lived. This was the transition from hunter-gathers to farmers that is called the Neolithic Revolution. The change occurred independently in many parts of the world but it was the land that lies between the Mediterranean Sea and the Persian Gulf, later labelled the 'Fertile Crescent,' that was particularly suited for this new way of life. This region was home to wheat, barley and flax. Over time small villages formed, crops were sown and people discovered that some animals in the region – such as sheep, goats and pigs – could be domesticated. This settled life called for new tools and equipment. For example, experiments were made with clay to produce pottery, which was used for storage.

The area between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers became known as Mesopotamia. It was here that urban life started; villages, over time, grew into towns, then cities, and finally into powerful city-states. Some archaeologists estimate that in c. 3000 BCE there were 40 000–50 000 people living in the walled city of Uruk, in an area of about 10 km², possibly the largest settlement in the world at this time. It is not known why urbanisation started in Mesopotamia. It may have been for security, to protect their increasing wealth from outside attack. It could have been the need for large groups of people to build the irrigation system they invented, a maze of ditches and canals in the south where there was no rainfall.

Agriculture became so productive that there was less need for farmers. New occupations emerged such as builder, teacher, potter, weaver, baker, musician, trader, tavern-keeper, sailor, jeweller and tax-collector. The main building in the new cities was a temple, and these began to take the form of huge towers known as ziggurats.

Humans had never lived in large numbers among so many strangers before and ways to maintain law and order had to be found. King Hammurabi, who ruled Babylon from 1792 BCE to 1750 BCE, is famous for the collection of laws known as Hammurabi's Code.

This new, urban way of life led to many inventions, including:

- writing
- mathematics
- the wheel
- the sail
- the seed plough
- irrigation.

This revolution in how humans lived has been called the beginning of civilisation.

Sample pages

Sources of Evidence

SOURCE A: FLAKED STONE TOOLS



SOURCE H: HAMMURABI'S CODE

If a son hits his father, his hands shall be cut off.

If a man destroys the eye of another man, his eye shall be destroyed. If he breaks the bone of another, his bone shall be destroyed.

If a person steals from a temple or takes goods stolen from a temple, he shall be put to death.

If a builder builds a house and the house collapses and kills the owner of the house, the builder shall be put to death.

If a man wishes to divorce his wife, he must return her dowry and give her use of part of his field for farming and part of his property so that she can provide for her children.

If anyone strikes the body of a man higher in rank than he, he shall receive sixty blows with an ox-whip in public.

If the slave of a freed man strikes the body of a freed man, his ear shall be cut off.

If anyone commits a robbery and is caught, he shall be put to death.

If anyone opens his ditches to water his crop, but is careless, and the water floods the field of his neighbour, then he shall pay his neighbour corn for his loss.



Learning Activities

Overview

Activity 1

INDIGENOUS AUSTRALIAN TOOLS

- 1 Examine Sources A and B (p. 4–5) and briefly explain how such tools were made by Indigenous Australians.

- 2 Many kitchens in Australia have an object similar to Source B. What is it known as and what is it used for?

- 3 Source B had many uses in Ancient Australia. List some possible uses.

- 4 Many axes found in Victoria came from a quarry near Lancefield, where the stone is hard and brittle. Axes made from this stone have been found up to 800 km away and the evidence suggests this trade existed for thousands of years. What does this ancient trade tell us about the value of stone axes to the Indigenous communities and the links between them?

- 5 Using the tables over the page, compare a stone axe with one from the Bronze Age. Assess the advantages and disadvantages of both, then conclude by stating which you would have preferred to use and why.

Stone Axe	
Advantages	Disadvantages
e.g. easy for people to make their own tools	

Bronze Axe	
Advantages	Disadvantages
	e.g. few people had the skills to make them

My own preference would be _____ because _____

Teacher notes

Indigenous Australians made stone tools by hitting a piece of stone with a 'hammer' stone, often a pebble. This removed a sharp fragment of the stone, known as a flake. These flakes were very sharp but became blunt quickly and had to be sharpened again, until they were replaced. The tools were used to shape wood, bark and bone objects, as well as spear tips for hunting, and to prepare animal skins for clothing. Not all stones were suitable; the best were hard and brittle ones such as flint and quartz. They are often found at shell middens, and many have travelled great distances from where they were quarried. Indigenous people also made large axes from stones and attached them to wooden handles. These large axes lasted much longer than the flaked stone tools.

Grinding stone was another tool used by Indigenous people. It was used to crush and grind a range of different materials. It was also used in food preparation, as some types of food were poisonous until washed and crushed. Grinding stones were used to crush ochre in order to make pigments for decoration. The stones were very heavy, with some weighing several kilos.