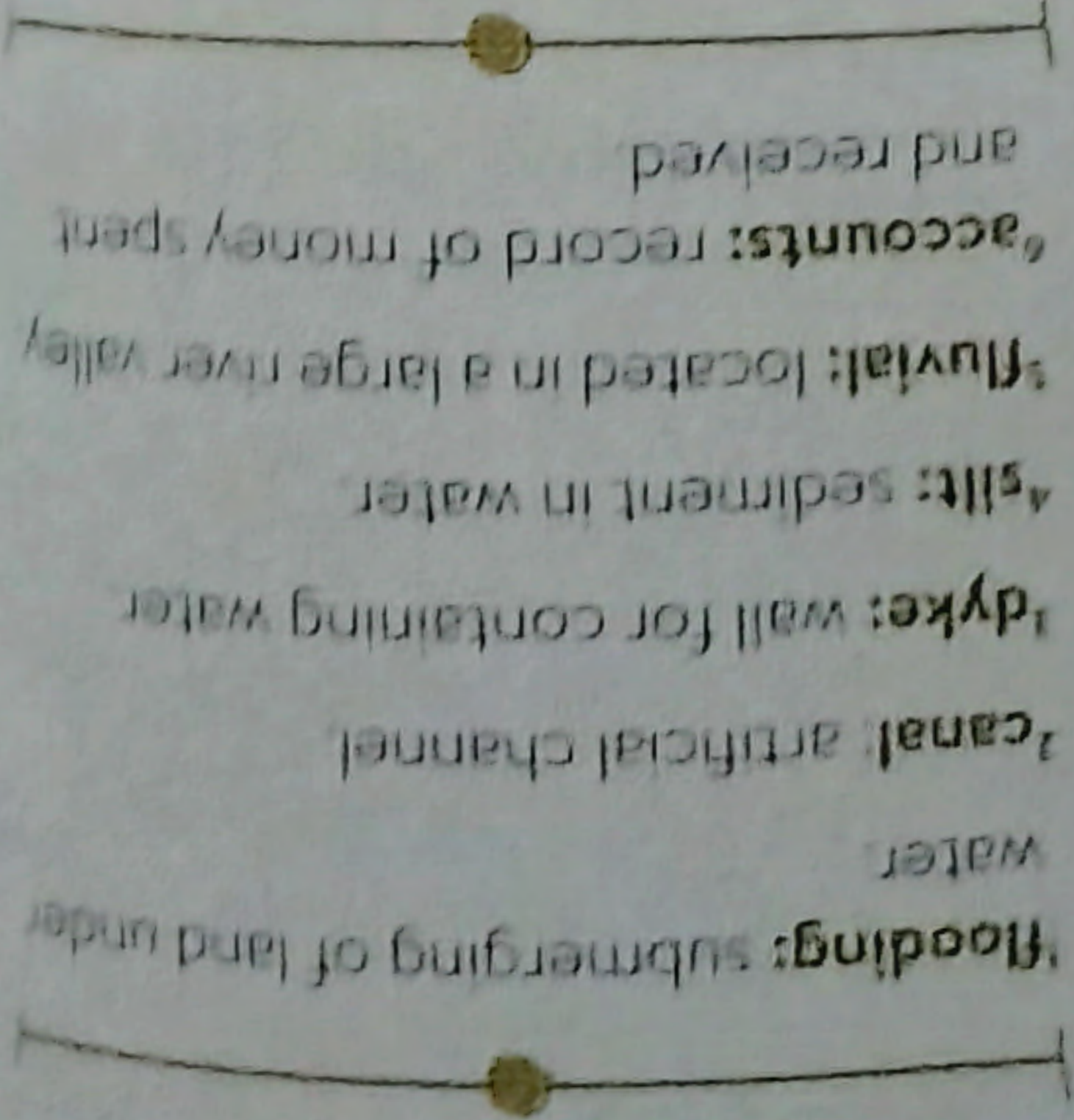


1 Early urban civilisations

- In the 4th millennium B.C., technological advances enabled the civilisations that lived near large rivers to control flooding. They did this by building the canals and dykes. The rivers deposited silt during the flooding, making the riverbanks very fertile. As a result, the people obtained large harvests. These villages developed into cities, and trade and craftwork grew. These became the first urban civilisations. They constructed large buildings and important changes occurred in politics, economics and culture.
- Mesopotamia, the earliest 'fluvial' civilisation, developed near the Tigris and Euphrates rivers around 3200 B.C.
- Egypt developed on the banks of the river Nile in 2850 B.C.



- Both were located in the Fertile Crescent, where the Neolithic Period began, and they established relationships with each other.
- In India, the Harappa civilisation developed near the Indus River in 2500 B.C.
- In China, a civilisation emerged near the Yellow River from the Xia dynasty (2000 B.C.) and the Shang dynasty (1500 B.C.).

Learn +

The development of writing marks the end of Prehistory and the beginning of Ancient History. Writing first developed in Mesopotamia and Egypt around the 4th millennium B.C. It originated for practical purposes such as keeping accounts and recording commercial transactions. The government officials who specialised in writing were called scribes. The invention of writing is very important. Today these written records provide a valuable source of information about our past.

- Why did writing develop? Which two periods does this invention divide history into?

CLIL activities

- 1 Answer the question in your notebook.
 - a. Why did the first urban civilisations appear next to large rivers?
 - b. Why did silt improve the harvests?
- 2 Copy and complete the table.

| Place | Date | River | Writing |
|-------------|------|-------|---------|
| Mesopotamia | | | |
| Egypt | | | |
| China | | | |

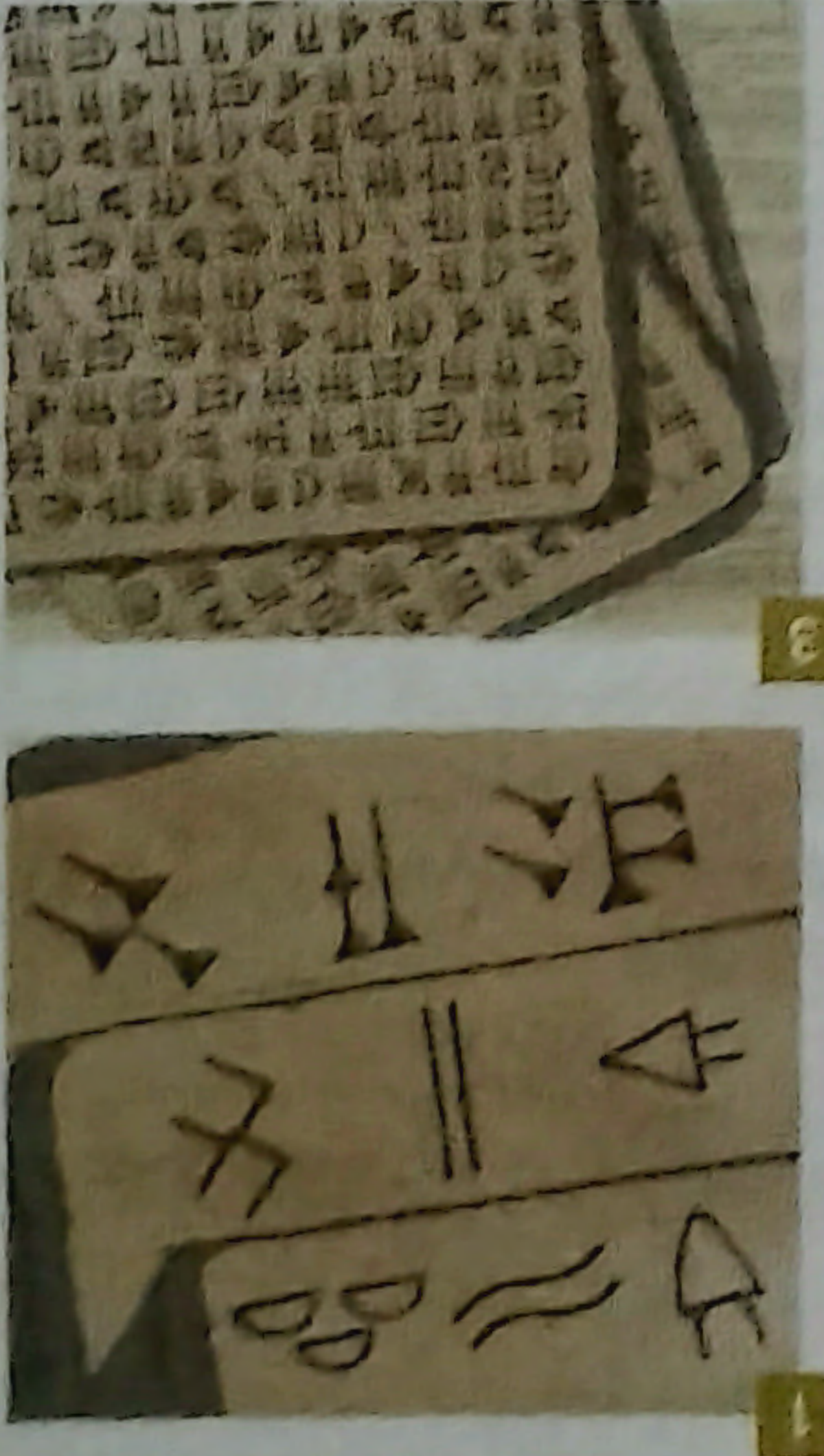
This symbol right here represents... I drew the symbol like this because...

- Imagine that you don't know how to write and you have to record these products which have arrived on a boat: five fish and three chickens.
- Record this information in drawings.
- Simplify the drawings as much as possible and convert them into symbols.
- Explain to a classmate what each symbol means. Can they understand what you've written? What's this type of writing called?

MESOPOTAMIA

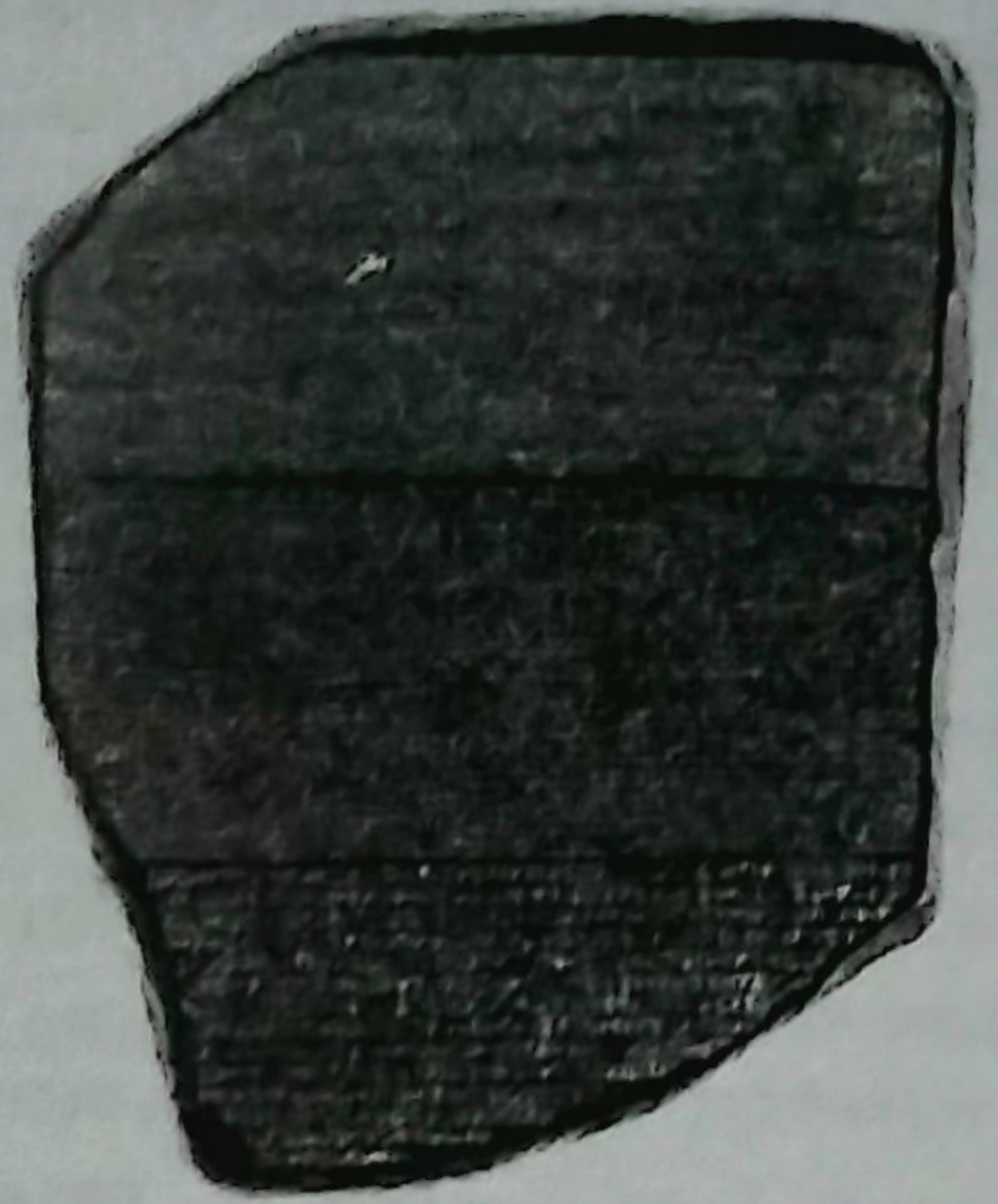
1. At first, people made schematic drawings of the objects they wanted to represent. Little by little, these became more schematic (pictograms).
2. They drew wedge-shaped signs on wet clay tablets. This is called cuneiform.
3. They joined pictograms to express ideas (ideograms). This is called ideographic writing. Scribes had to memorise thousands of symbols. Most people couldn't read or write because it took a lot of time to learn all the symbols. This gave the scribes an increased social status.
4. First people wrote from top to bottom and later on they wrote horizontally. They baked the tablets in an oven to harden them.

wedge: shape with a narrow end



EGYPT

- The Egyptians used ideographic writing, called hieroglyphics. They wrote on stone (in temples and burial constructions), on wooden tablets and on papyrus (paper made from a plant that grows on the banks of the Nile). For administrative documents and routine tasks, the Egyptians used simplified writing: first hieratic script and later demotic script.
- Jean-François Champollion deciphered hieroglyphics in the 19th century thanks to the discovery of the Rosetta Stone, where the same text appears in hieroglyphics, demotic script and Greek.

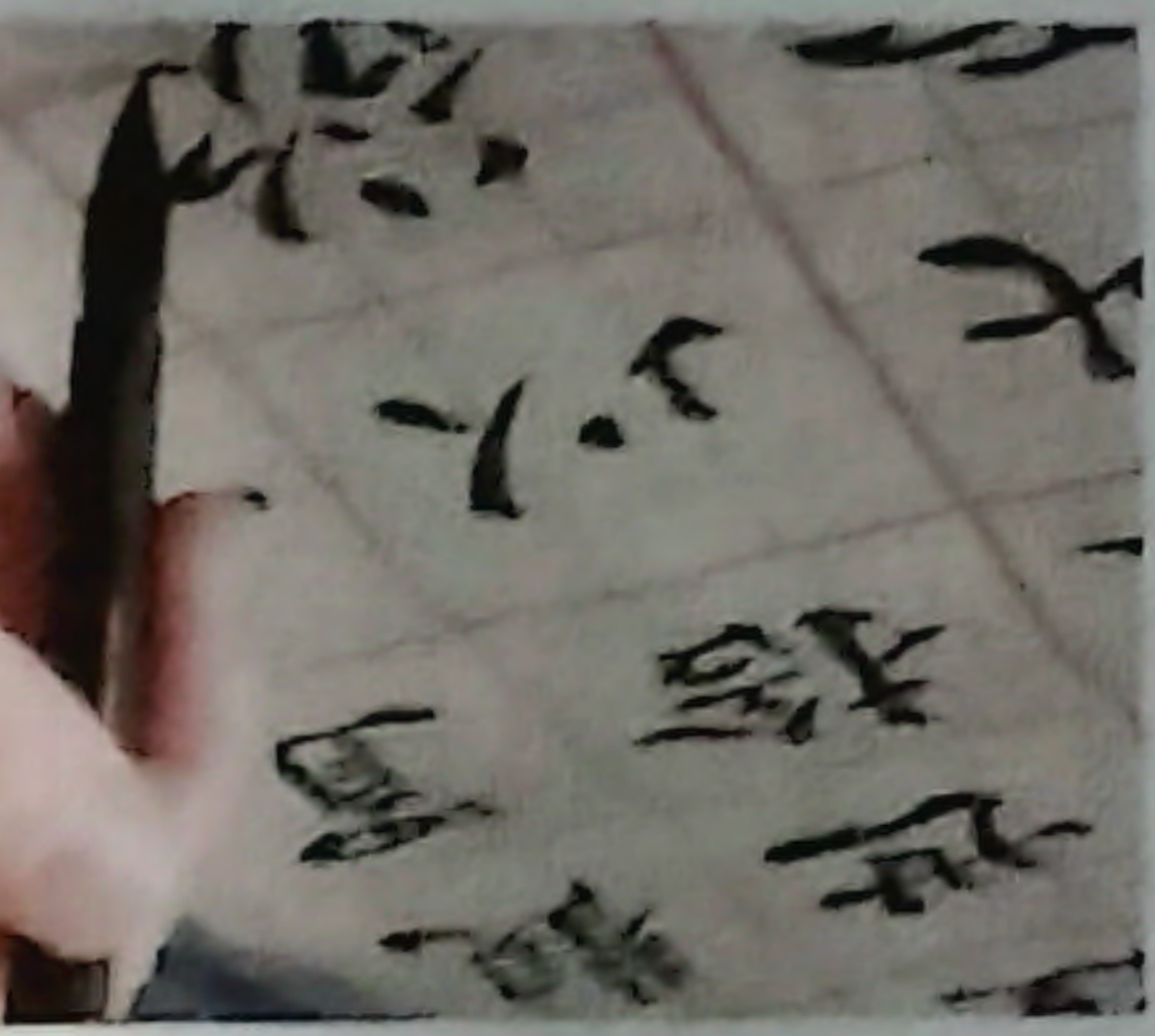


The Rosetta Stone was key to deciphering Egyptian writing.

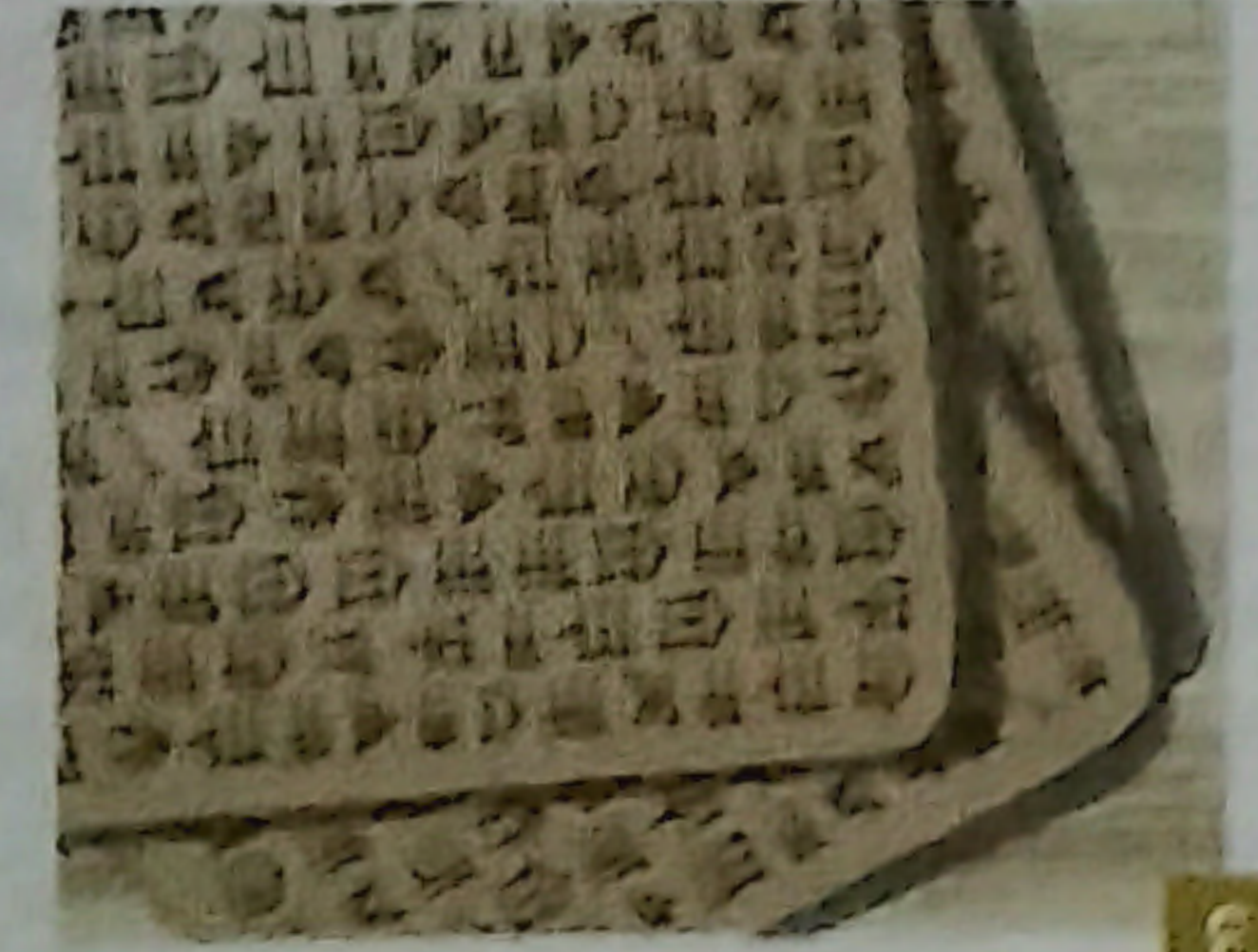
THE INVENTION OF THE ALPHABET

Around 1200 B.C. the Phoenicians invented the alphabet. The characters didn't represent ideas and weren't stylised drawings. They represented sounds and reproduced the language, not the concept. Most modern languages use an alphabet for writing.

Chinese writing



CHINA



Fragment of a Phoenician manuscript

Political organisation

These new civilisations needed strong governments to control their lands and govern the people who lived there. As a result, **monarchies** emerged.

A divine **king** or **emperor** governed through:

- the laws they created.
- the **royal or imperial government**, consisting of officials who carried out a range of judicial and administrative tasks. These included implementing the law and collecting taxes.
- a large **army**, which kept order, defended the city walls and borders, and conquered enemy lands.

Society

During the Bronze and Iron Ages, increased agricultural production and trade resulted in prosperity. This prosperity led to greater **social differences** and the creation of a **hierarchical society**.

The large landowners passed down their wealth to future generations. A small minority belonged to this social group (the privileged), who were above the majority (the unprivileged).

Society consisted of these groups.

• The **privileged minority** were the rich, powerful families. They lived in large houses or palaces and didn't need to work. The king in Mesopotamia and the pharaoh in Egypt held the most powerful position. The royal family and the large landowners formed the aristocracy. Military generals came from this group. The next most influential group was the priests. They performed religious duties to maintain social stability. They also used their knowledge to increase their own economic and political power.

Below them were the royal officials and the rest of the landowners. • The **unprivileged majority** worked for the privileged minority and lived modestly in small houses. They were farmers, herders, fishermen, merchants and craftworkers.

• **Slaves** were the property of other people and had no rights. They worked in domestic service, in the mines and in the fields. Most slaves were prisoners of war or their descendants. Poor people who couldn't pay their debts also became slaves.

#ForABetterWorld

Women's rights

In early civilisations, women had few rights. They had to follow the orders of their fathers or husbands.

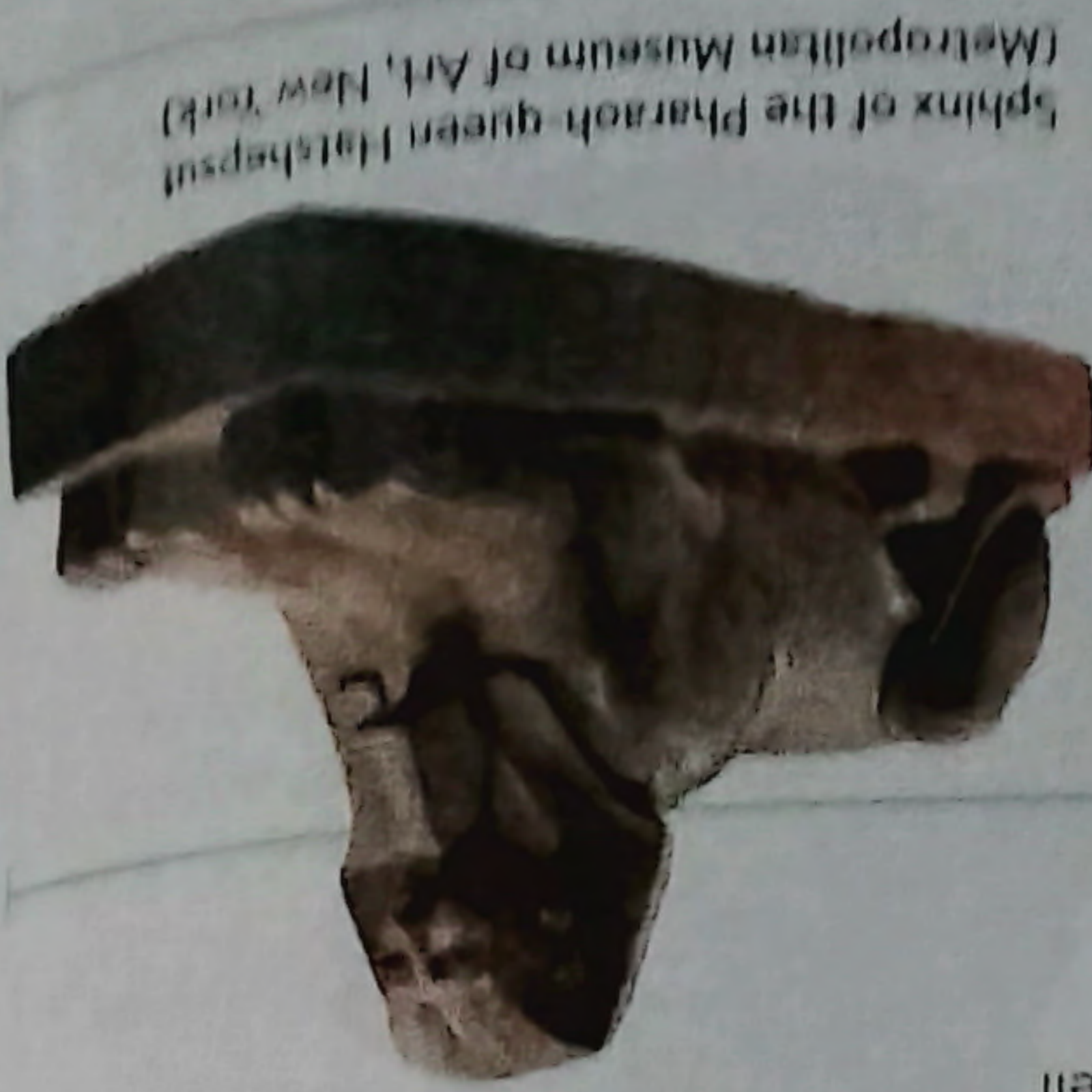
However, some women became important historical figures, obtaining great influence in the royal courts. The court was based in the royal palace and was the centre of power. Egyptian women obtained greater freedom, and a few became queens with the same powers as men, such as **Hatshepsut**. She ruled for 22 years, from 1490 to 1480 B.C.

herder: person that looks after groups of livestock

debt: money one person owes to another person.



The privileged social groups are smaller than the unprivileged. Therefore, we usually represent human societies with a pyramid consisting of different levels.



The first laws

One of the early civilisations' most important inventions was **law**: a set of rules to reduce social conflict and promote stability. The kings in Mesopotamia and the pharaohs in Egypt displayed the laws in public places so that everyone knew about them.

The oldest surviving set of written laws is the **Code of Hammurabi**, produced in the Babylonian Empire in the mid-18th century B.C. It contained 282 laws to end personal conflicts and establish rules for property, family, contracts and punishments for slaves. It was very strict, punishing many crimes with the death penalty. Its main principle was *lex talionis* ('an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth'). Laws made distinctions between the privileged (free men), unprivileged (common people) and slaves, who they treated as property.

These civilisations created **courts of law** to administer justice. People could appeal to the king if they thought the court's decision was unfair.

Working with sources

Law 198: If a free man takes out the eye or breaks the bone of a common person, he will pay him one mine² of silver.

Law 199: If he takes out the eye or breaks the bone of a slave belonging to a free man, he will pay him half the slave's value.

Law 229: If a builder constructs a house which collapses and kills the owner, he will receive the death penalty.

Law 230: If the owner's son dies, his own son will receive the death penalty.

Law 231: If he kills the owner's slave, he will give the owner another slave.

Code of Hammurabi (Translated and adapted)

• What's the Code of Hammurabi? In this code of law, do the punishments only depend on the type of crime the person committed? Do today's laws function in the same way?

CLIL activities

4 In your notebook, write which social groups these people belong to.

a. I'm in the army and I control the soldiers.

b. I work the land and look after sheep and goats.

c. I'm the property of my owner.

d. I'm married to the king's sister and I don't have to work.

5 Listen and make notes about the role of women in Mesopotamia. Which women had power?

6 Discuss the questions with a classmate.

a. Why do we use a pyramid to represent society? For a tooth means?

b. What do you think 'an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth' means? receive punishment crime equals



mine: ancient unit of currency

appeal: ask for a review

The Babylonians wrote the Code of Hammurabi in cuneiform on a stone block called a stele. At the top, King Hammurabi is standing in front of Shamash, the Mesopotamian god of justice, who's sitting on his throne. He commissioned Hammurabi to write the laws for his subjects.

7 Look at the picture and answer the questions.

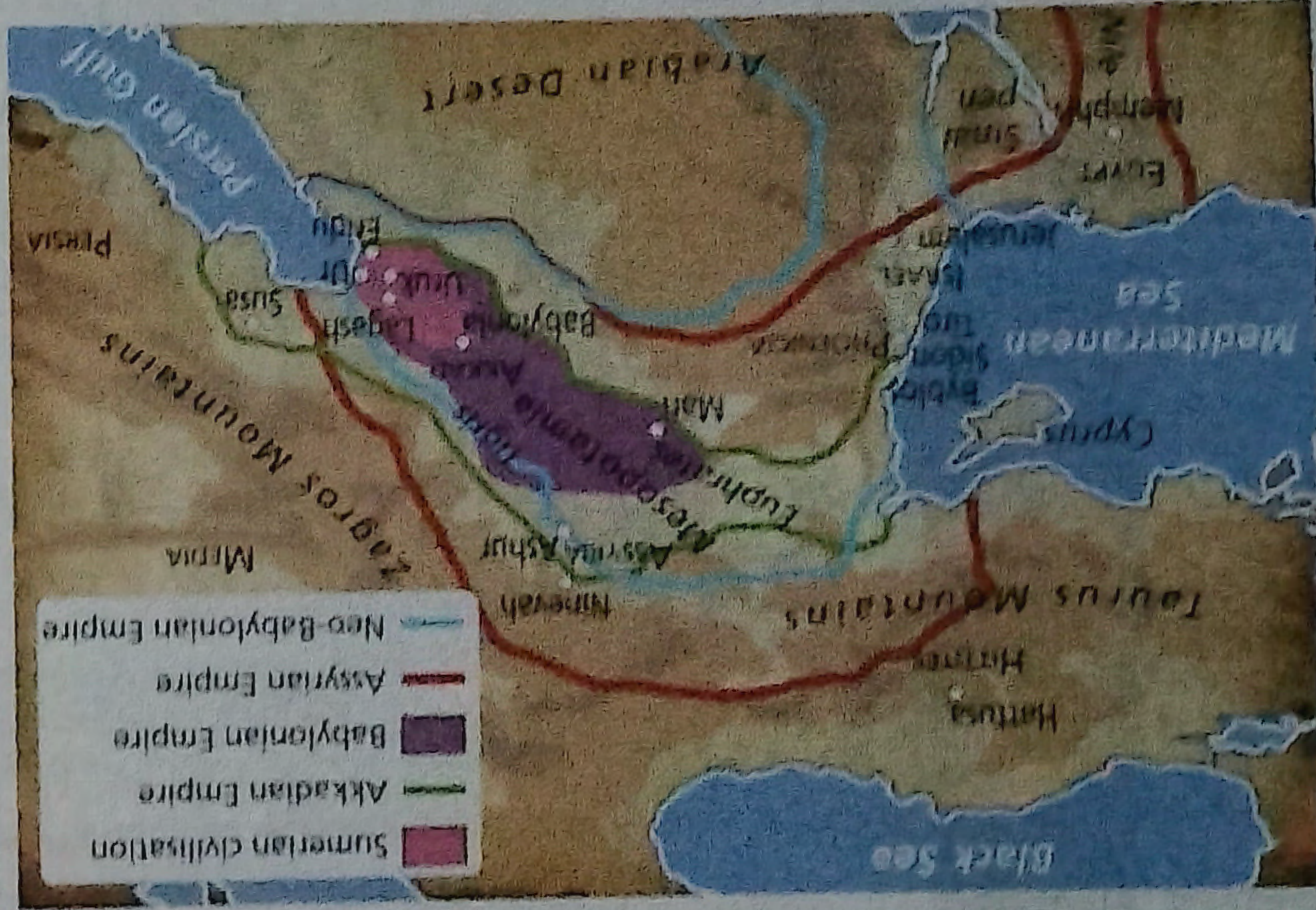
a. Which social group can you identify?

b. Describe the characteristics of that group.



The natural environment

Mesopotamia means 'land between rivers'. This is the name the Greeks gave the region between the Tigris and Euphrates rivers. Mesopotamia bordered the Persian Gulf to the south, the Syrian Desert to the west, the Zagros Mountains to the east and the Taurus Mountains to the north-west. It was originally a dry region. However, the Tigris and Euphrates rivers allowed its inhabitants to make the land fertile. This occurred when they developed the technology to construct irrigation systems. These fertile lands attracted migrations and invasions from communities in the mountains and nomadic tribes from the Syrian Desert.



The Sumerians settled in the south of Mesopotamia and founded many independent city states such as Ur, Lagash, Eridu, Uruk, Kish and Umma. There were frequent conflicts between these city states over land and trade routes, so the cities had defensive walls. A king-high priest called the *ensi* or *patesi* governed each city. He held absolute religious, administrative and military power. Religion dominated society and each city had its own god, who competed with those of other cities. The inhabitants had to pay their taxes at the *ziggurat*, which became the centre of religious, economic and sometimes political activity. As the cities became richer and their populations grew, the kings created powerful armies. They used them to conquer the neighbouring cities and create empires. After the Sumerians, the Akkadians ruled Mesopotamia. They came from the north of the Sumerian cities. This began a conflict between north and south that lasted for centuries. The Babylonians (from the south) then replaced the Akkadians. The Assyrians (from the north) then followed, and then the Babylonians once more. Mesopotamia then became part of the Persian Empire in the 6th century B.C.

Historical context

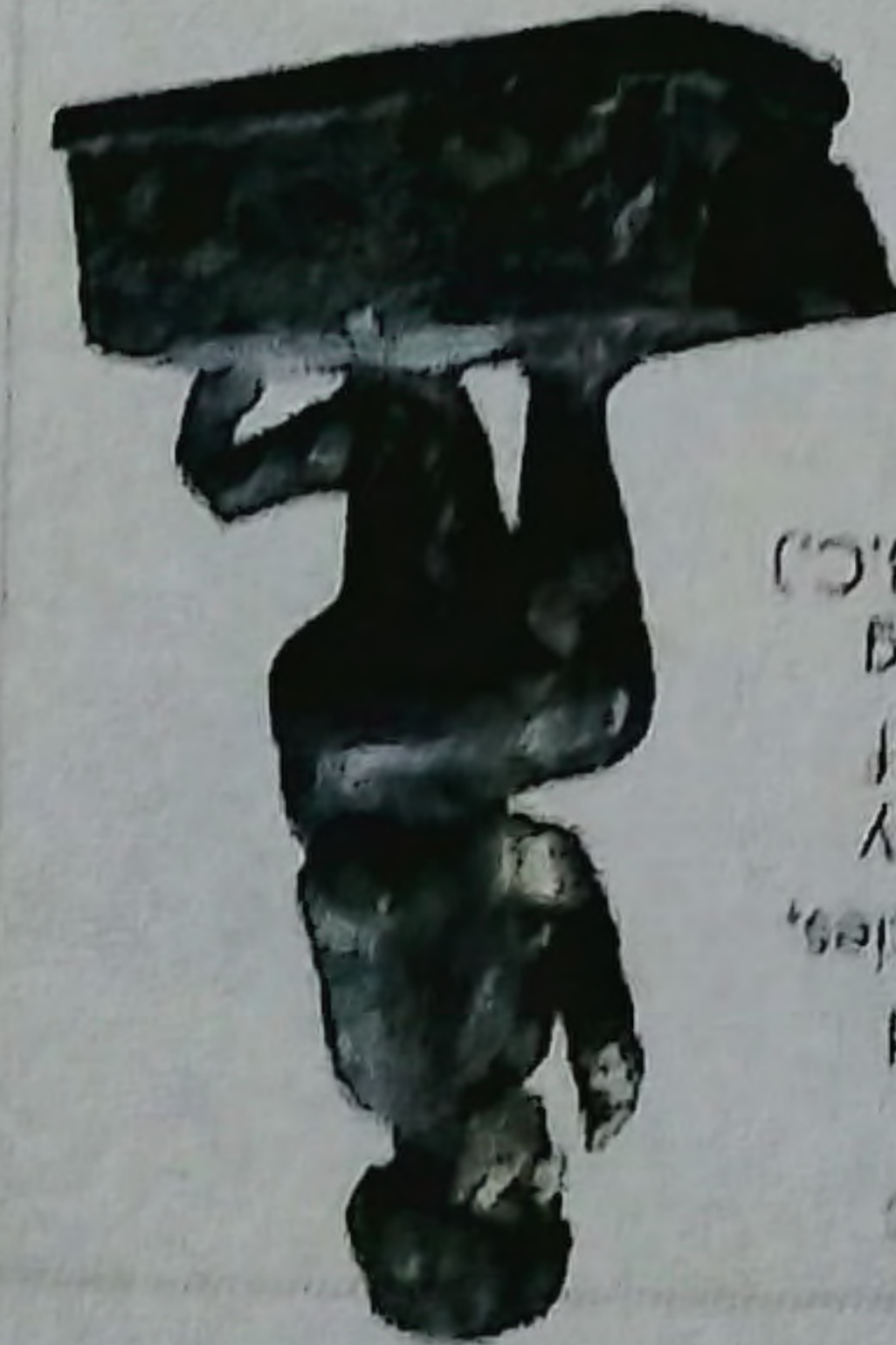
1. The Sumerians created the first civilisation in history, as it was the first to invent writing.

Around 2340 B.C., the King of Umma Lugalzagesi (2342-2318 B.C.) invaded the Sumerian cities. Sargon I, King of Akkad (2334-2279 B.C.), then conquered Sumar and established the first Sumerian rule followed. During this period the cities of Ur and Lagash were the most important.



Bronze head of Sargon I of Akkad

2. The Sumerians, a nomadic people from the west, invaded Mesopotamia and took control of various cities, including Babylon. This city then became the capital of the new empire under King Hammurabi (1792-1750 B.C.)



3. The Assyrians had one of the most feared armies in the ancient world. Using iron weapons and war chariots, they controlled Mesopotamia for seven centuries. They pushed the borders to the south of Anatolia, Syria and the Mediterranean. Ashurbanipal (669-630 B.C.) even conquered the north of Egypt.



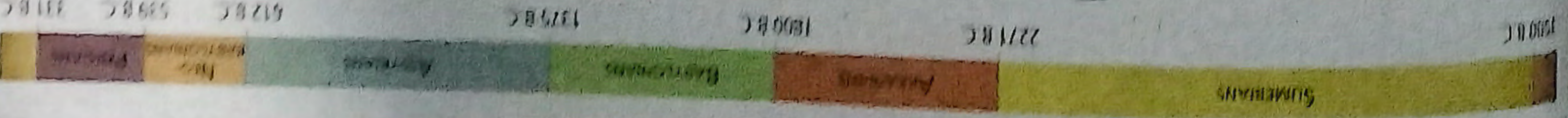
Assyrian relief of Ashurbanipal's campaign in Egypt

A. The Assyrian Empire declined because of Assurbanipal's conquests. There was a period of civil conflicts and rebellion. Babylon took advantage of this and regained its former splendour, establishing the Chaldean or Neo-Babylonian Empire. Its king, Nebuchadnezzar II (604-562 B.C.), expanded the empire, conquering Jerusalem and lands as far away as Egypt. Nebuchadnezzar II made Babylon into one of the greatest capitals in the ancient world. In the city walls he built the famous Hanging Gardens of Babylon (terraces of gardens on different levels). This was one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World. He also finished the rebuilding of the Great Ziggurat of Marduk. In 539 B.C. Cyrus II conquered Babylon and as a result it became part of the Persian Empire.



Reconstruction of the Ishtar Gate in ancient Babylon (Iraq)

The political evolution of Mesopotamia



- Answer the questions in your notebook.
- a. What's the difference between an empire and a city state?
- b. What did the Sumerians invent? What was established as a result of this invention?
- c. Why were there frequent conflicts between the Sumerian cities?
- 9. Listen to the documentary about the Sumerian city of Uruk.
- 10. How many people lived there? What buildings were there?
- 11. With a classmate, compare the map on page 224 to a modern world political map. Which modern-day countries were part of Mesopotamia's empires?
- 12. Research the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World. Write a short text explaining what they were, why they're called the Seven Wonders, which one possibly didn't exist and which one still exists today.

Curiosities

to discover the problem of unsustainable development. The water they used for irrigation dissolved the salt in the ground. The salt accumulated in the subsoil and reached the roots of the plants. This dried the plants and led to bad harvests. The solution was to water the fields more, but this made the problem worse. The salt came to the surface and grain production fell further. This led to a loss of political and economic influence and the decline of the Sumerians.

3 Ancient Egypt

On the banks of the Nile, a fascinating civilisation developed. Ancient Egypt. Egyptologists have discovered much about its history and culture.

The natural environment

The river Nile crosses the Sahara Desert and fertilises the narrow strip of land which it flows across. This strip is around 20 km wide. During the summer, the Nile floods due to the rains that fall in its upper course. Because of these floods, Egyptian agriculture was very productive.

Unlike Mesopotamia, Egypt had great natural defences: the Mediterranean Sea to the north and the Sahara Desert to the south, east and west. These defences reduced migrations and protected it from external attacks.

Historical context

During the fourth millennium B.C., the Neolithic villages in the oases near the Nile Valley began to expand towards the riverbanks. They built canals and dykes, using the water for agriculture. These villages eventually grew into important, prosperous cities.

Some of these cities took control of others and, in time, two kingdoms formed:

- **Upper Egypt**, which was halfway along the river.
- **Lower Egypt**, which was to the north, at the mouth of the Nile.

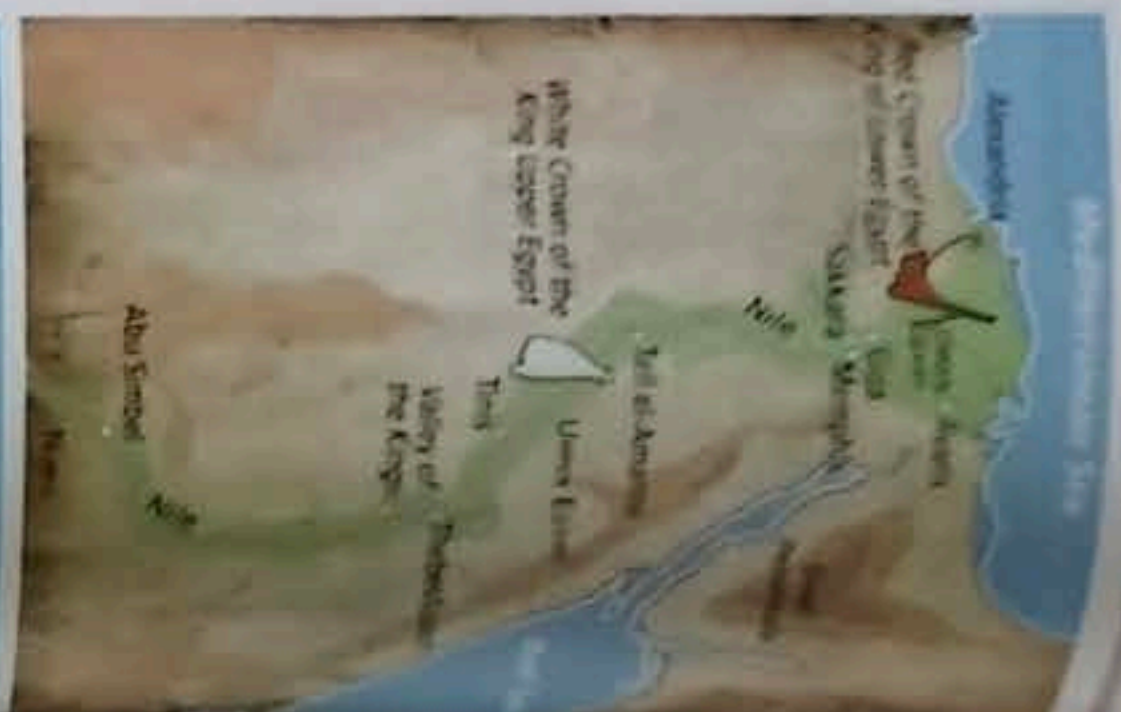
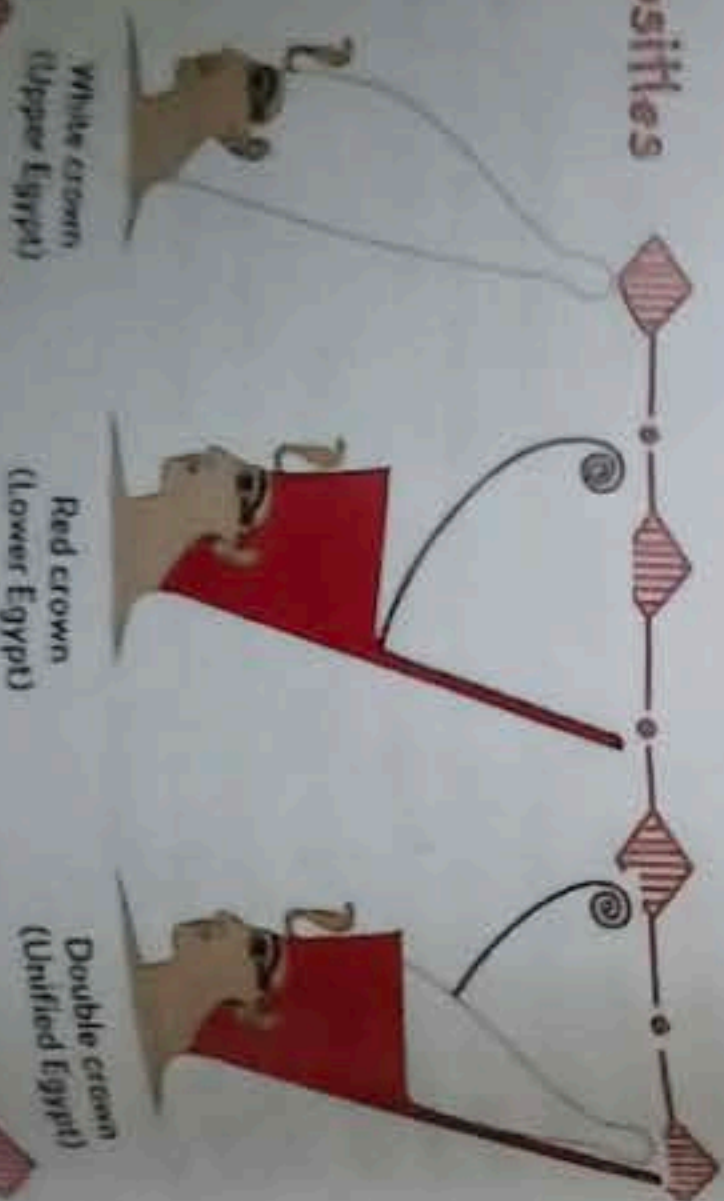
In around 3100 B.C., the legendary King **Narmer** or **Menes** unified Upper and Lower Egypt.

Ancient Egypt has a long history (almost 3 000 years). We divide it into four main periods: the **Old Kingdom**, the **Middle Kingdom**, the **New Kingdom** and the **Late Period**. Between these, there were three periods of instability called the **Intermediate Periods**.

The ruler of Egypt was called the **pharaoh**. The people considered him a god and he held absolute religious and political power. He governed with the help of government officials, such as **viziers** (ministers) and nomarchs (provincial governors, called *nomes*), priests and military leaders. The pharaoh passed his position on to members of his family or **dynasty**.

Curiosities

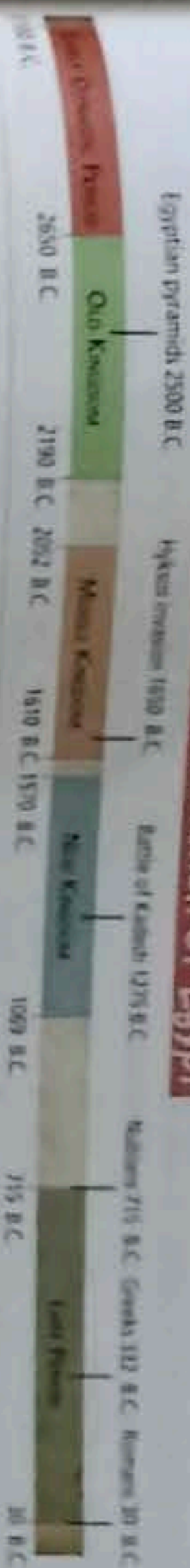
In Ancient Egypt, both the pharaohs and the gods wore crowns as a symbol of their power. The crowns had a special significance, especially the white (*Hedjet*) and the red (*Deshret*) crown. These represented the two regions of Egypt (Upper and Lower Egypt). The double crown was a red crown inside a white one. It was called *Semti* or *Pskent*. The Egyptians believed it had a magic power which guaranteed the union of Upper and Lower Egypt.



The Pyramids of Khufu, Khafre and Menkaure in Giza, near Cairo

Rebellion: resistance to a leader or the government, often violent.
Monothestic: believing in one god.
Intact: complete.
Successor: person who continues the position or responsibility of a previous person.

The political evolution of Egypt



The Narmer Palette



1. In the **Early Dynastic Period**, the first unification occurred, with the capital in Thebes. In 2650 B.C., during the **Old Kingdom**, Memphis became the capital. The Egyptians built the pyramids of the Pharaohs **Khufu**, **Khafre** and **Menkaure**. There was a series of internal rebellions, and the nomarchs became more powerful. In the **First Intermediate Period** Egypt divided again.

3. The **New Kingdom** began in the 16th century B.C., when **Almose**, the Pharaoh of Thebes, expelled the Hyksos. The most well-known pharaohs ruled in this period.

- **Queen Hatshepsut**, the powerful pharaoh-queen
- **Akhenaten** (Amenhotep IV) and his queen **Nefertiti**, who tried to impose the first monothestic religion in history
- **Tutankhamun**, whose tomb was discovered intact
- **Rameses II**, the great conqueror, who's famous for his buildings and for fighting against the **Hittites** at the **Battle of Kadesh** (Syria). This was the first great battle in history about which we have details.
- **Rameses III**, who defeated the Sea Peoples with their superior iron weapons. This occurred when the Sea Peoples tried to invade Egypt after devastating the whole of the Near East and the Western Mediterranean at the beginning of the 12th century B.C.



Rameses II at the Battle of Kadesh

2. In the 21st century B.C., the second unification occurred. The pharaohs defeated the nomarchs and the **Middle Kingdom** began. They moved the capital to **Thebes** and expanded the kingdom to **Nubia**, the lands to the south. This period ended when an Asiatic people, the **Hyksos**, conquered Egypt in around 1650 B.C., thanks to their superior army. The **Second Intermediate Period** followed.

4. At the start of the first millennium B.C., Egypt became weaker during the **Third Intermediate Period**. During the **Late Period**, the Nubians, Assyrians and Persians invaded Egypt. In 332 B.C., the Macedonian **Alexander the Great** conquered Egypt. The **Ptolemaic dynasty** then ruled. They were the descendants of Ptolemy I, one of Alexander's successors. Egyptian culture mixed with Greek culture and the capital moved to **Alexandria**. **Cleopatra VII** was the last Queen of Egypt. Then in 30 B.C., Egypt became a Roman province.

All activities

- 15 Draw a map in your notebook or print a map of Ancient Egypt. Mark the lands occupied by Upper and Lower Egypt, the fertile areas and the important cities.
- 16 Listen and make notes about the main developments during the Old, Middle and New Kingdoms. Use the information to make a table.
- 17 Research the Pharaoh **Tutankhamun** and write a fact file about him. Include these words: born, worshipped, married, powerful, died.
- 18 Listen to a teacher talking about **Rameses II**. Answer the questions.
 - a. How long was **Rameses II** in power for?
 - b. What were his achievements?
- 19 Answer the questions with a classmate.
 - a. Look at the timeline. How many years passed between the first unification of Egypt and the conquest by Rome?
 - b. Who invaded Egypt during this time?
 - c. What were the three capitals of Ancient Egypt?
 - d. What was the Ptolemaic dynasty?

The economy and society in Ancient Egypt

Life in Ancient Egypt revolved around the river Nile. The Egyptians based their economy on fluvial agriculture and trade.

When the Nile flooded, its banks became very fertile. Therefore, harvests were abundant, except when there were plagues¹ or wars. The Egyptians cultivated cereals to make bread and beer, pulses, grapes, and flax to make clothes. They also ate fish from the Nile.

The Nile was the main means of **transport** for people and products. It allowed armies and royal officials to move around relatively quickly. It also unified the Egyptian lands by connecting them.

Trade with other peoples was extremely important. The Egyptians traded with Mesopotamia, Phoenicia and Canaan to the east, Nubia to the south, Libya to the west and Crete and Greece to the north. They sold cereals, wine, craftwork and precious stones. They bought wood, metal and slaves. Metal and wood were both essential materials for fighting wars.

Egyptian society was hierarchical. At the top was the pharaoh, who the people considered a god. He held absolute political, judicial and military power. Below him was the ruling class. This consisted of the vizier, the head of the royal government, large landowners and royal officials, such as scribes. Religion was very important, so the priests held great power as the pharaoh's religious representatives.

The rest of the population were farmers, merchants and craftworkers. At the bottom were the slaves.

The most popular pastimes among the upper social classes were hunting and sports, such as fighting, archery², throwing lances³ and gymnastics. Dancing to drums, the harp, the oboe, the trumpet or the lute⁴ was popular. The Ancient Egyptians also enjoyed literature through storytelling.

Starting a family was very important. One reason for this was that parents depended on their children to perform their funeral rites. The age for marriage was about 20 for men and between 15 and 18 for women.

plague: disease that causes many deaths
archery: shooting with a bow and arrow
lance: long spear
lute: pear-shaped string instrument



The river floods.



The land is ready to cultivate.



The crops have grown.



Music scene from the tomb of Nakht, priest of Thutmose IV

Women in Ancient Egypt

Women depended on their fathers or husbands. However, they had more freedom and rights than women in other societies during that period. They could control property and work.

Some women did craftwork, making textiles. They also worked in agriculture, sowing seeds and harvesting crops. We can find evidence of women doing these activities in Egyptian art.

Some women held powerful positions, such as priestesses and advisers. The wives of the pharaohs had some power and influenced the reigns of their husbands. They could also reign in place of their children until they were old enough to rule. A few women became pharaoh-queens with the same powers as men, such as Hatshepsut.



Textile workshop (model of the tomb of Meketre, an important official during the reign of Mentuhotep II)

All activities

- 20 In your notebook, explain how flooding helped agriculture in the Nile River area. Use these words:
After flooding, the river left silt on the land.
fertilise dykes control
- 21 Listen to the students talking about Egyptian society. What mistakes do they make?

corporal punishment: physical punishment

#ForABetterWorld

Boys and girls could go to school, but most of them had to start working at a very young age. Therefore, only the children of the privileged social groups learned to read and write. In the unprivileged social groups, the boys learned their father's trade. The girls learned music, dance and domestic tasks. Discipline was very strict and included corporal punishment.

- Debate these questions in a small group.
 - a. Nowadays, education is compulsory and child labour (aged under 16) is illegal. Why do you think this is the case?
 - b. What do you think about the use of corporal punishment? Did students benefit from it?

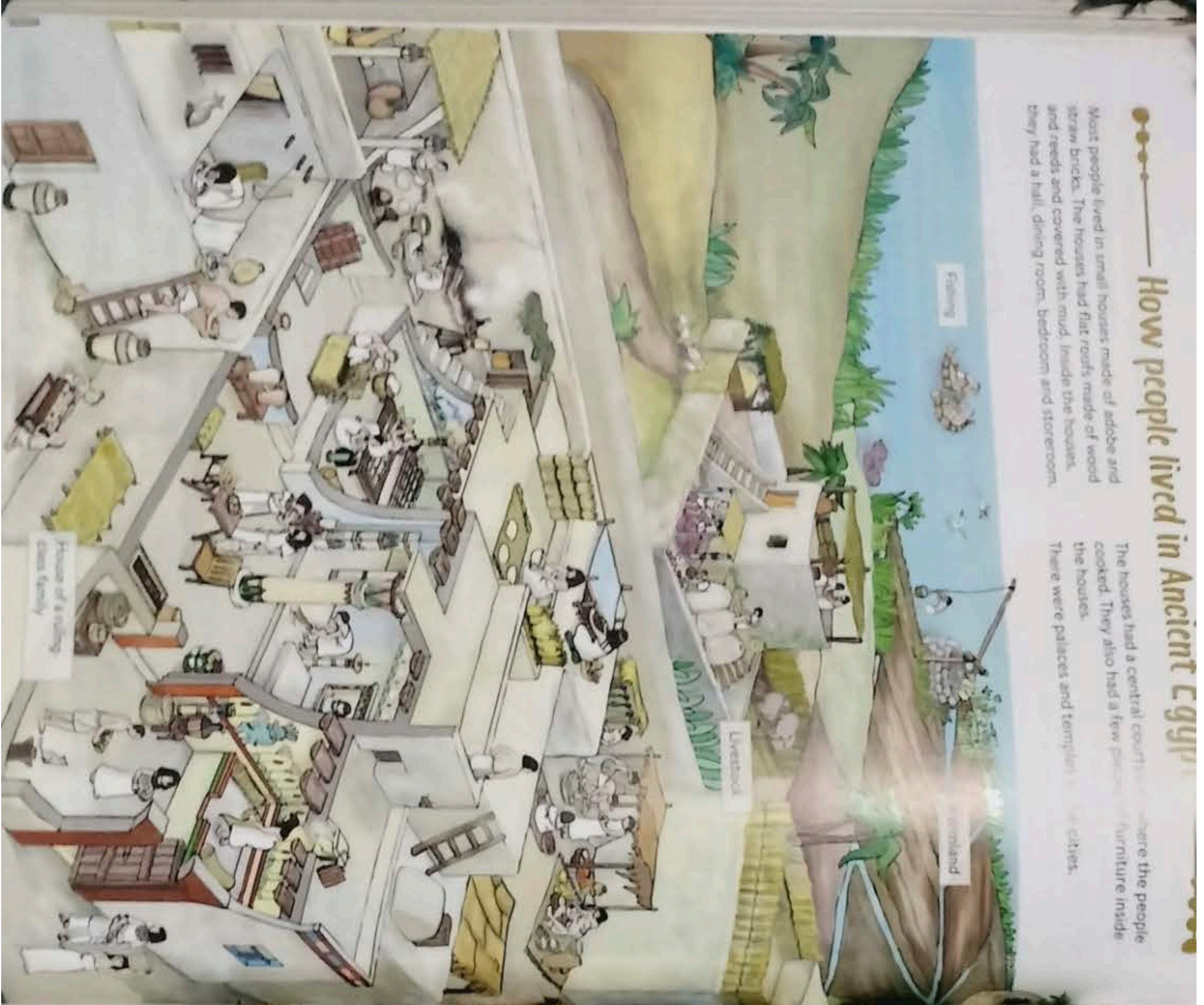


- 22 In a group of three, compare and contrast the position of women in Egyptian and Mesopotamian society. Are there any similarities? Mesopotamian/Egyptian women couldn't... but... In both societies... power work priestesses depend on

How people lived in Ancient Egypt

Most people lived in small houses made of adobe and straw bricks. The houses had flat roofs made of wood and reeds and covered with mud. Inside the houses, they had a hall, dining room, bedroom and storeroom.

The houses had a central courtyard where the people cooked. They also had a few pieces of furniture inside the houses. There were palaces and temples in the cities.



- Look at the illustration and answer the questions.
- Compare the houses of the ruling class and the rest of the Egyptians. What were the differences?
 - How did the men dress? What about the women?
 - Write a short text about the activities the Egyptians performed.

Culture and religion in Ancient Egypt

The Egyptians made important advances in **mathematics** and **astronomy** to measure time and predict the flooding of the Nile. They developed a **solar calendar** with 12 months, each with 30 days. They added 5 days, dedicated to the gods, to the final month to make a 365-day year. They also invented the **decimal system**. We still use a similar system today. Religion was **polytheistic**. Egyptian gods often had a human body and the head of an animal. Each city had its own **patron deity** and when a new capital emerged, its deity became more important. The **priests** of the different gods also **competed for power**. If their god became more powerful, the priests gained influence, land and wealth. The Egyptians practised **rites** and used **amulets** to ask the gods for help.

Egyptian society believed in life after death. Therefore, people spent a lot of time and money on funeral rites. They believed that after someone died, the god **Anubis** accompanied the **Ka** (the departed soul) into the afterlife. The Ka had to pass various tests and face the **judgement of Osiris**. Anubis placed a feather on one side of a pair of scales and the heart of the deceased on the other. If the heart was heavier, it was full of sin and the deceased couldn't enter the kingdom of Osiris. If it was lighter, the Ka **lived eternally in paradise**.

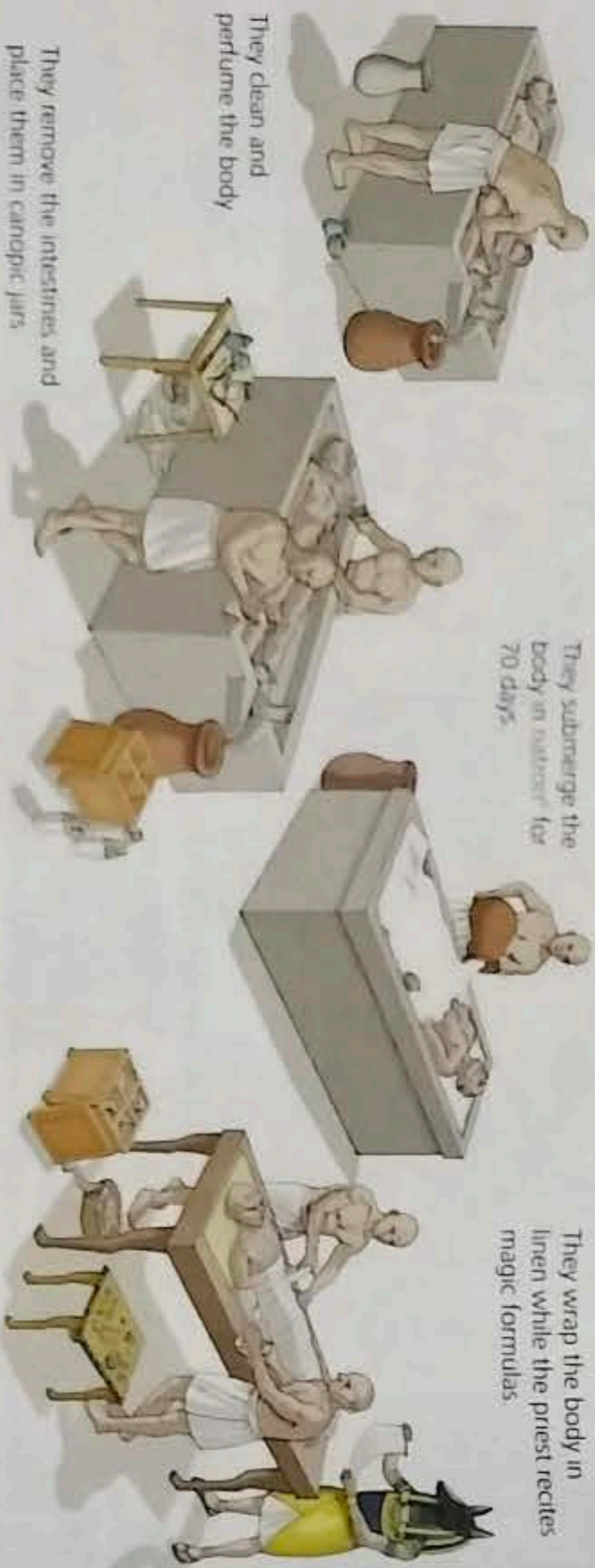
To ensure that the Ka passed to the afterlife, the Egyptians **mummified** their corpses. The embalmed corpse, wrapped in linen, was called a **mummy**. They extracted the intestines and placed them in containers called **canopic jars**. On sheets of papyrus, or the tomb, they transcribed passages from the **Book of the dead**. This was a set of religious texts that helped the deceased pass the judgement of Osiris.

amulet: small object a person wears for protection from evil
deceased: dead person
mummy: preserve a dead body by wrapping it with balsam
embalmed: treated with balsam
rivalry: competition
patron: white mineral









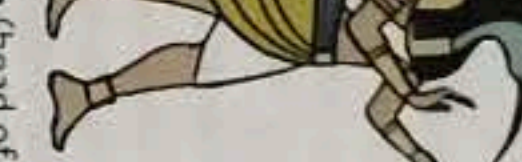

Learn +

The pharaoh **Akhenaten** (Amenophis IV) and his queen **Nefertiti** tried to end polytheism and impose the worship of a single god, **Aten** (the sun god). The first **monotheistic religion** in history therefore emerged under an **absolute monarchy**. The pharaoh was Aten's only intermediary and Akhenaten's aim was to hold all the political and religious power. To prevent religious rivalries from other cities, the pharaoh built a new capital called **Akhetaten**, in Amarna. However, the priests opposed him and after the pharaoh died, the situation returned to how it was before.

- Describe Akhenaten's religious reform. What was his reason for doing this?



The Egyptian gods

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--|---|--|---|---|---|--|---|--|
|  | Ra (head of a falcon and sun disc): god of the Sun and life, the most important god in the Old Kingdom. |  | Osiris (mummified): god of agriculture and resurrection. His brother murdered him. Isis brought him back to life. |  | Isis (hieroglyphic on her head): wife-sister of Osiris. She was the goddess of fertility, love and magic. |  | Horus (head of a falcon wearing a double crown): son of Osiris and Isis, god of the sky. |  | Amun (two feathers): god of the wind and secrets. He joined with Ra (Amun-Ra). He became the most important god when Thebes was the capital of the New Kingdom. |
|  | Hathor (horns): goddess of love, happiness and music. She was the daughter of Ra and wife of Horus. |  | Sekhmet (head of a lion): goddess of power, war and revenge. She was the daughter of Ra. Her anger was terrible. |  | Anubis (head of a jackal): god of mummification and guide to the dead when they faced the judgement of Osiris. |  | Thoth (head of an ibis): god of wisdom. In the judgement of Osiris, he weighed the heart of the deceased. |  | Seth : god of evil (violence, drought). He killed his brother Osiris out of envy. As a punishment, the gods sent him to the desert. |

CLL activities

- 23 Answer the questions in your notebook.
- What similarities and differences are there between the Egyptian calendar and the calendar we use today?
 - What advances did the Egyptians make in mathematics?
 - What similarities are there between Egyptian and Mesopotamian religion?
 - What was the Ka? What happened after someone died?
 - Why did the Egyptians mummify the corpses of their dead?
 - What did the Book of the dead help Ancient Egyptians to do?
- 24 Copy and complete the table about Egyptian gods.
- | Name | God of... | Characteristics |
|-------|----------------|------------------|
| Horus | God of the sky | Head of a falcon |
| | | |
| | | |
- 25 Why do you think the gods had animal features?
- 26 Research the legend of Osiris and write a summary.
- Why was it so important to recover and join the pieces of Osiris' body?
 - Name other similar legends.

Art and architecture in Ancient Egypt

The Egyptians wanted to create art that was practical and durable. They didn't think aesthetics were important. Their art was unique and didn't evolve much due to Egypt's geographical isolation.

Architecture

Egyptian monumental architecture had these main characteristics:

- The Egyptians used **stone**, which is stronger than adobe. Therefore, many of their constructions still exist today, unlike the Mesopotamian ones.
 - They built **massive structures** to reflect the power of their gods.
 - They used **flat roofs** supported on **lintels**.
- Most Egyptian monuments were for **religious and funerary purposes**. The following were the most important types.

- **Temples** were buildings dedicated to the gods and only the priests could enter them. The most famous ones are in Karnak and Luxor. The Egyptians also carved **rock temples** out of the mountains, such as Ramesses II's temple in Abu Simbel.
- **Tombs** were buildings that contained burial chambers or rooms. This is where they placed the sarcophagus² with the mummy (the pharaoh or an important official). Some also had false empty chambers to confuse tomb robbers. There were three types of tombs.
- **Mastabas** were one-storey rectangular buildings with sloping walls.
- **Pyramids** were called step pyramids when there was a division of levels. The most famous one is Zoser in Saqqara (near Memphis), from the Old Kingdom. Later, the Egyptians built classical pyramids with smooth sides in Giza, such as the Pyramids of Khufu, Khafre and Menkaure.
- **Hypogeums** were hidden tombs cut out of the rock to prevent robbers from finding them. Most of them are in the Valley of the Kings (near present-day Luxor). The most famous one is Tutankhamun's tomb.

Learn +

- In 1922, the British man Howard Carter discovered the tomb of the young Pharaoh Tutankhamun. This is the only tomb we have found intact. His grave goods included statues, furniture, weapons, jewels and fabrics. Inside the stone sarcophagus there were three decorated coffins, one inside the other. The mummy was inside the smallest one.
- Carter found an inscription in the tomb, which warned: 'Anyone who disturbs the rest of the pharaoh will die!'. Many tombs contained this inscription to prevent robberies. However, some of the participants in this discovery died in the following years. This is where the legend of the curse³ of the pharaoh originated.
- Find out about the curse of Tutankhamun. Can you find a logical explanation for the deaths supposedly related to this curse?

Headdress: symbolising the rays of the Sun.

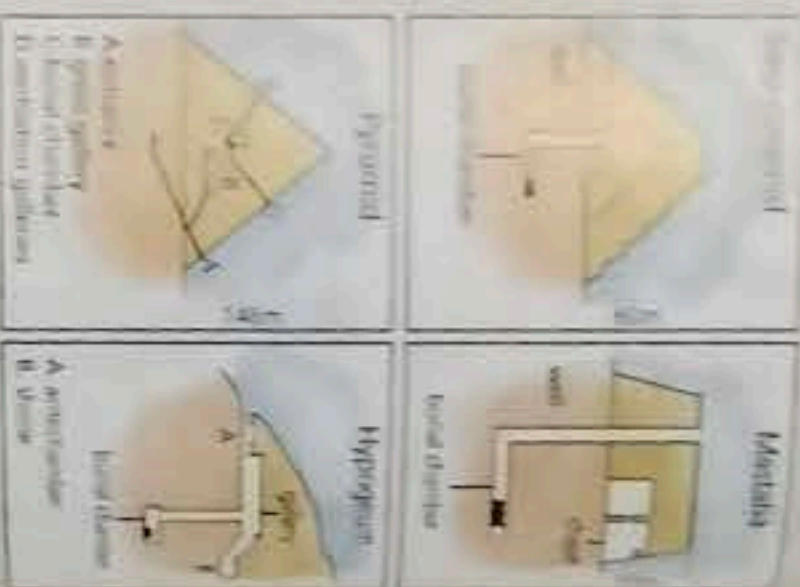
Vulture and cobra: symbols of Upper and Lower Egypt.

False beard: characteristic of Osiris, symbolising immortality.

Sceptre or staff and whip: symbols of power.

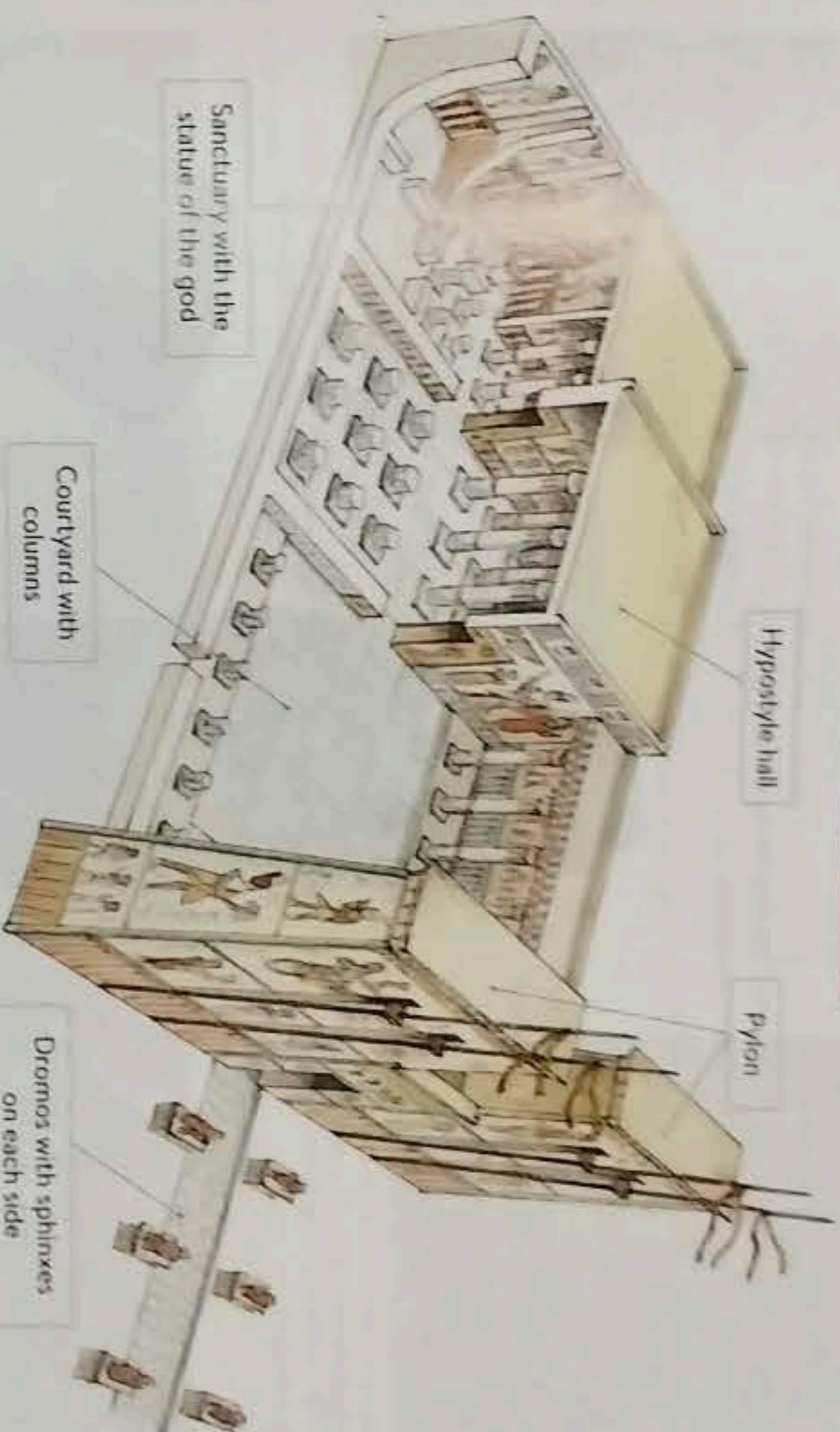


Pyramids were very important to the ancient Egyptians. For this reason, they were the main architectural feature of the pyramids. It was a massive structure, which allowed the pharaoh to ascend to heaven to reunite with the god of the Sun.



In this period, the Egyptians didn't know about the wheel. They lifted the blocks of stone on ramps to put them in place. They decorated the outside of the pyramid with shiny limestone and covered the top with gold.

Temples and funerary constructions



The Egyptians accessed their temples by crossing the **dromos**, an avenue with **sphinxes**⁴ on each side.

The entrance was in the middle of an enormous wall with inclined sides, called a **pylon**. On each side of the entrance, there were usually **obelisks**⁵ and **enormous statues**.

Through the entrance door, there was a **courtyard** with columns around it. This led into the **hypostyle hall**, which had a roof with supporting columns. At the back of the temple was the **sanctuary**, with the statue of the god. Nearby there was a large pond symbolising the origin of life.

Lintel: horizontal support across the top of a door or window

Sarcophagus: decorated box for burying someone in

Curse: expression of a wish that something evil will happen

Limestone: white sedimentary rock

Sphinx: imaginary animal with the body of a lion and a human head

Obelisk: vertical monolith with a pyramid-shape at the top

ALL activities

- In your notebook, describe these types of tombs.
 - hypogeum
 - mastaba
 - classical pyramid
 - step pyramid
- Use the Internet to find an example of a step pyramid. Draw a diagram of it. Which building did the Egyptians adapt to make these pyramids?
- With a classmate, discuss how Egypt's geographical location affected its art.

Egypt's location was ... so its art ...
- Use a digital map viewer to find the locations of the Egyptian monuments that are mentioned in this unit.

Sculpture

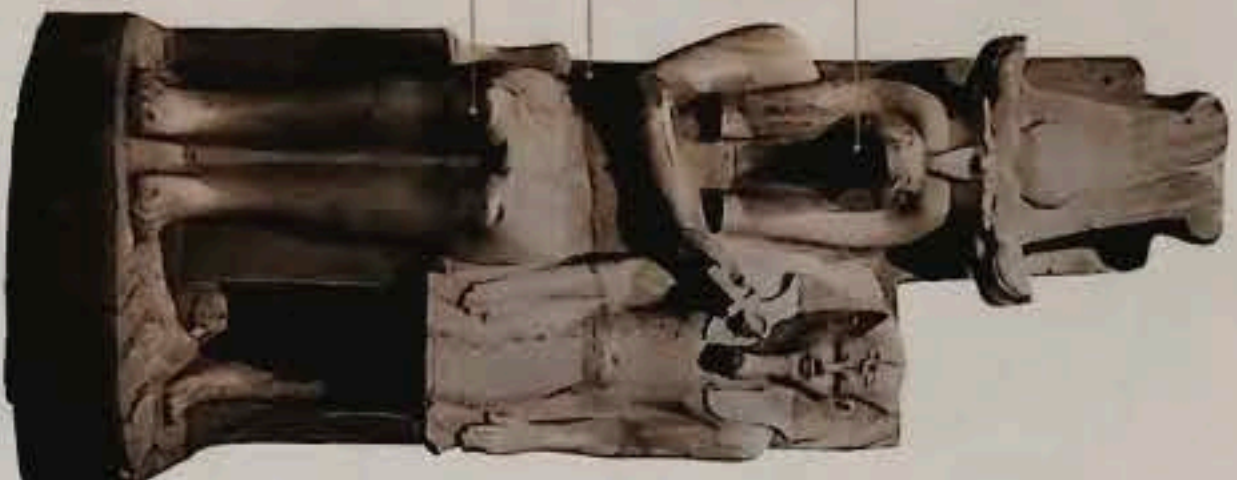
Similarly to their architecture, the Ancient Egyptians used sculpture for religious and funerary purposes.

They used **stone** for important sculptures. The figures had unnatural positions to reflect their greatness and **solemnity**. We can see this in these characteristics.

The faces showed no emotion and the figures appeared **impassive**.

The bodies were **rigid** and without movement.

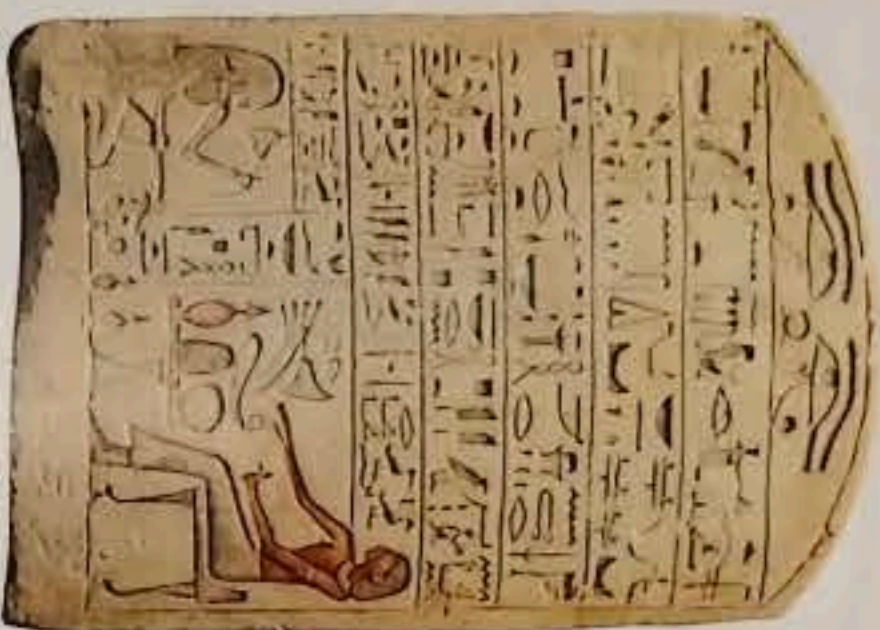
The most important figures, such as gods and pharaohs, were larger than the others. The **size** of the figures showed their relative importance.



For scenes of daily life, the Egyptians used less valuable materials, such as clay or wood, and a more natural style. Most Egyptian sculpture was **freestanding**, that is, separate from the walls of buildings, although they used **reliefs** in temples.



Monumental sculptures at the entrance to the Temple of Ramesses II (Abu Simbel)



Stone inscribed with Egyptian hieroglyphics and relief.



Bust of Nefertiti



The seated scribe (Louvre Museum, Paris)

Painting

The Egyptians used painting to decorate palaces, temples and tombs.

They painted **murals** on walls, using fresco, which is a technique of mixing paint with water and applying it to wet plaster. They often applied the paint to the low relief. They also painted on **papyrus** to illustrate sacred books. The Ancient Egyptians often combined painting with writing, since both gave meaning.

They represented a variety of themes in their paintings.

- religious subjects with gods and rites, such as the *Book of the dead*
- political propaganda that glorified the pharaoh
- scenes of daily life, such as harvesting and sowing crops, fishing and hunting scenes, dancing and music.

The Egyptians drew outlines of figures

The **canon of profile**: they drew the limbs and face in profile, but the torso and one eye from the front.



Men's skin colour was darker than women's.

Size differences, depending on the importance of the person represented

ALL activities

31 Copy and complete the table in your notebook.

| | Materials | Characteristics |
|----------------------|-----------|-----------------|
| Important sculpture | Stone | Solemn figures |
| Daily life sculpture | | |
| Painting | | |

32 Listen and answer the questions about the Great Sphinx.

- Where and when did the Egyptians build it?
- What does it look like and how big is it?

33 Look at the painting. Discuss with a classmate what you think it represents. Use these words. I think it represents... The ... figure looks like...



The Pharaoh Thutmose II making an offering to the god Horus (Temple of Hatshepsut, Luxor)

Flat colours (without variations of colour, shading or volume)

On the front page

The Hebrew people

During the time when the Mesopotamian and Egyptian civilisations were important, there were many different peoples who lived in the Mediterranean and the areas with large rivers. The Hebrews were one of those peoples.

The origins of the Jewish people

The Hebrews were a nomadic people from Mesopotamia whom the patriarch Abraham guided from the city of Ur to the Promised Land. The Canaanites lived in this land and gave the name Canaan to the region. They were farmers and were more developed than the Hebrews.



Some of Abraham's descendants emigrated to Egypt, but in the 18th century B.C. they moved again towards Israel. According to the Old Testament, the pharaoh in Egypt made the Hebrews slaves. God ordered Moses to free his people and lead them to the Promised Land.

Around 1200 B.C. the Hebrew people settled permanently in the region. There were 12 tribes. These lands had great plains where they could develop farming, so the Hebrews had to defend them against other peoples, especially those from the desert regions.

The rise and fall of the Kingdom of Israel

In about 1200 B.C. the Philistines settled along the Mediterranean coast, giving it the name Philistia (Palestine). In order to protect themselves against the Philistines and other peoples, the Jews united under a monarchy.

One of the first kings was David (1066–966 B.C.). He defeated several peoples in the area, such as the Philistines, and conquered Jerusalem (city of the Canaanites). He made this city the capital. David united the peoples of Judea and Israel.

His successor was Solomon, who built a temple in Jerusalem to worship Yahweh. But a decline began and ended with the division of the kingdom into two: the northern part was called Israel, with its capital in Sichem, and the southern part was called Judea, with its capital in Jerusalem.

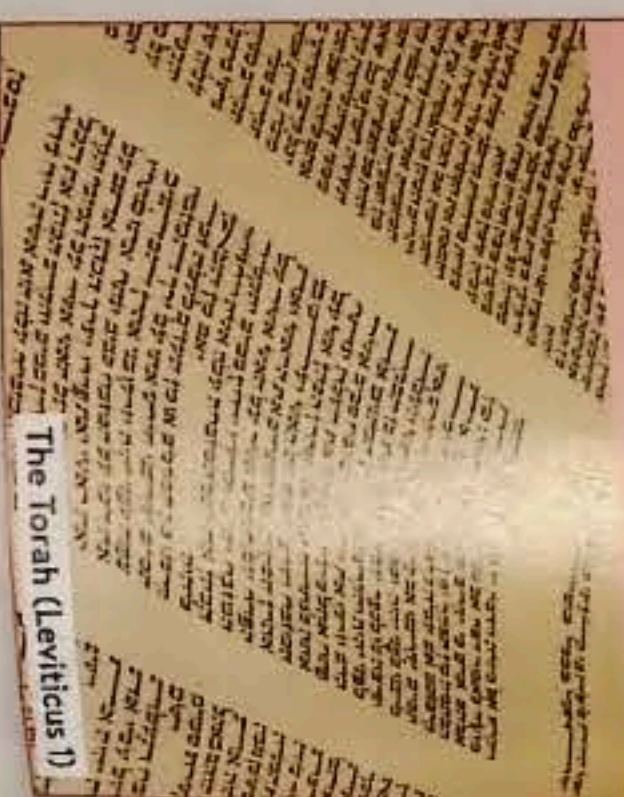
In 722 B.C. the Assyrian King Sargon II conquered Israel. Judea resisted for a century and a half longer as an independent

Traditionally the Hebrew or Jewish people passed their history on from generation to generation, at first orally, and later on, in written form.

The Bible is a historical source for the study of these people and shows the areas Jews and Christians agree on. Both faiths accept the perfect creation of the world from nothing by an infinite God, the entrance of sin into this world through the temptation of another transcendent being called Satan, God's judgement of sin, and the necessity of atonement for sin.

Judaism, however, does not accept the central Christian teaching that Jesus Christ is the Messiah promised in the Old Testament.

www.biblica.com (Translated and adapted)



kingdom, but in 587 B.C. it became part of Nebuchadnezzar's Neo-Babylonian Empire.

As a result of the conquest of their lands, the Jews were expelled to Mesopotamia and Babylon. So, the diaspora, or dispersion of the Jews, began.

The Jews recovered relative freedom in 537 B.C. when Cyrus II defeated Babylon and created the Persian Empire, which included the Jewish lands.

Under Persian rule, they were allowed to return and re-establish the Temple in Jerusalem. Many returned, but others didn't because they were afraid of becoming slaves.

Alexander the Great and the Greeks conquered Palestine in 332 B.C. Later on the Romans invaded and destroyed the Temple of Solomon.

What was the Jewish religion like?

Like all ancient civilisations, religion played a fundamental role for the Hebrew people. Judaism is monotheistic. The worship of a single god (Yahweh) was unique in the ancient world.

The moral character of the Jewish religion was also unusual at the time. The Jews followed the Ten Commandments that Yahweh gave to Moses. Also, the Jews had to follow uncommon rules, such as washing their hands, not eating certain foods, such as pork, and resting on Saturday (the Sabbath) to dedicate the day to God.

The sacred book of the Jews is the Tanakh (the Old Testament). It has 39 books. The first five books (the Torah) are the most important because they contain the origin and creation of the people of Israel.

In this period, Judaism had some similarities to the Mesopotamian and Egyptian religions. The temple was a religious, political and economic centre, controlled by a powerful priest class.

People could only worship in the Temple in Jerusalem. In other places people read, commented on and taught the Torah in the synagogues they built all over. Rabbis, experts in religious law, led the worship. When the Romans destroyed the Temple in 70 A.D., the synagogues and the rabbis became the heart of Jewish religious life and continue to be so in the modern day.

Connections between the Hebrew people and other civilisations in the Middle East

These connections are quite obvious. Evidence for this includes the fact that some texts in the Bible are similar to the legends of Mesopotamian peoples:

Sargon, the powerful king, King of Agade, am I.

My mother was a priestess. I did not know my father ... My city is Azupiranu, on the banks of the Euphrates. My mother conceived me, in secret I was born. She put me in a basket of reeds and sealed the lid with tar. She threw me into the river ... and it took me to Akki, the water carrier. He lifted me out when he put his pot in the water; he took me as his son and raised me.

Fragment from the legend of Sargon I

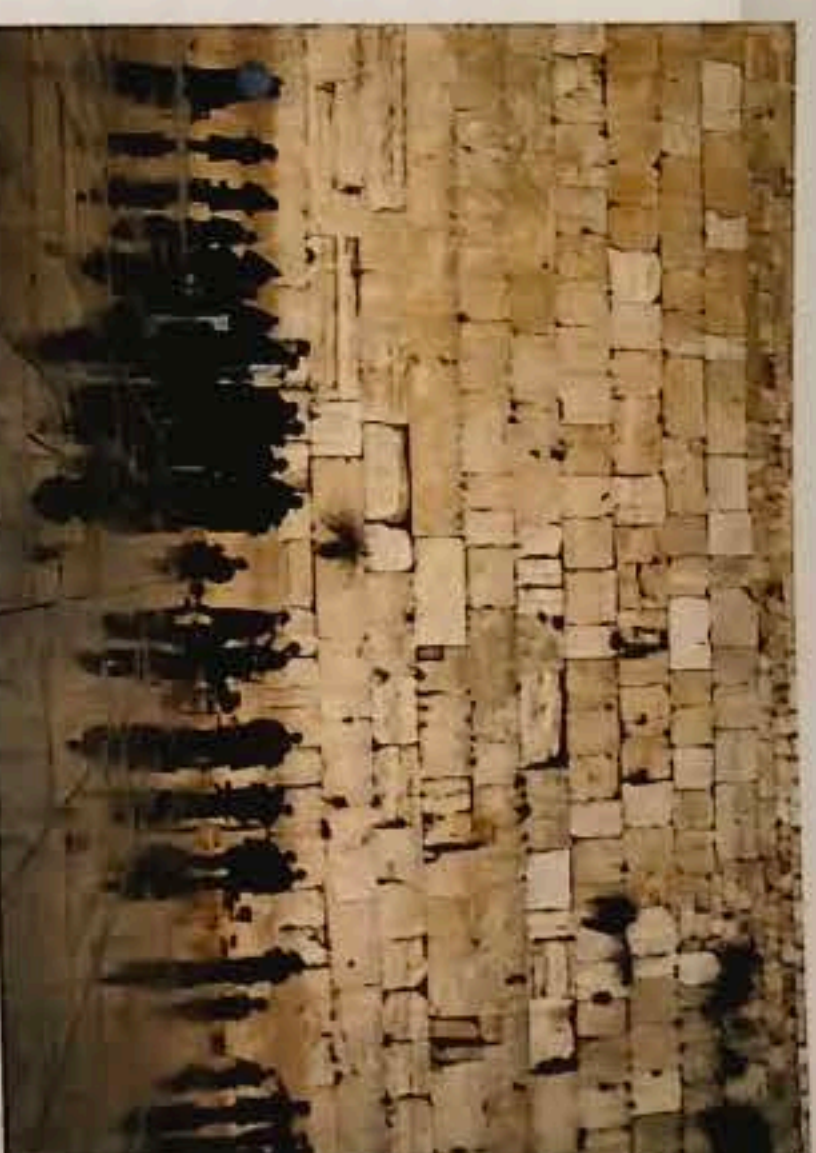


A man from the tribe of Levi married a woman of his own tribe and she bore him a son ... She hid him for three months. When she could not hide him any longer, she took a basket made of reeds and covered it with tar. Then she put it in the reeds at the side of the river Nile. The baby's sister stood some distance away to see what would happen to him.

The pharaoh's daughter came down to the river to bathe, while her servants walked along the bank. When she saw the basket in the reeds, she sent her slave to get it. She opened it and saw the boy who was crying. She felt sorry for him and said, 'Surely this is one of the Hebrew babies.'

Then his sister asked the pharaoh's daughter, 'Shall I go and call a Hebrew woman to act as a wet nurse?' 'Yes,' replied the pharaoh's daughter. ... The pharaoh's daughter treated him like a son and gave him the name Moses, saying, 'I pulled him out of the water.'

Book of Exodus, Old Testament



The Wailing Wall is the only part of the Temple of Solomon that still stands today.

The pharaoh's daughter rescues Moses from the waters of the Nile (engraving from an Old Testament from the late 19th century A.D.).

Analysing historical texts

Texts are the main source historians use. We need to analyse and interpret them correctly to get the appropriate information from them, because occasionally this information can be wrong or unclear.

Analysing the text

First, read the text carefully, making notes or underlining the main ideas. Then we can begin to analyse it.

- 1 Indicate the type of text: it could be a law, a biography, a narrative, etc.
- 2 Identify the author. The author's name will appear at the end of the text, or the document could be anonymous.
- 3 Check if it's a primary source (a document written at the time of the event in the text) or a secondary source (a later text by a historian or from the media).
- 4 Establish the intention or purpose of the text.

After this analysis, we can write the commentary.

Comment on the text

- 1 Show the information we have extracted from the analysis of the text.
- 2 Summarise the content of the text, including the ideas, characters, places and events.
- 3 Explain the content of the text, its importance and its relation to the historical context.
- 4 Identify the reasons why the author wrote the text and the consequences of what it tells us about.

Example of a historical text



David and Goliath (Tower of David, Jerusalem)

David against Goliath

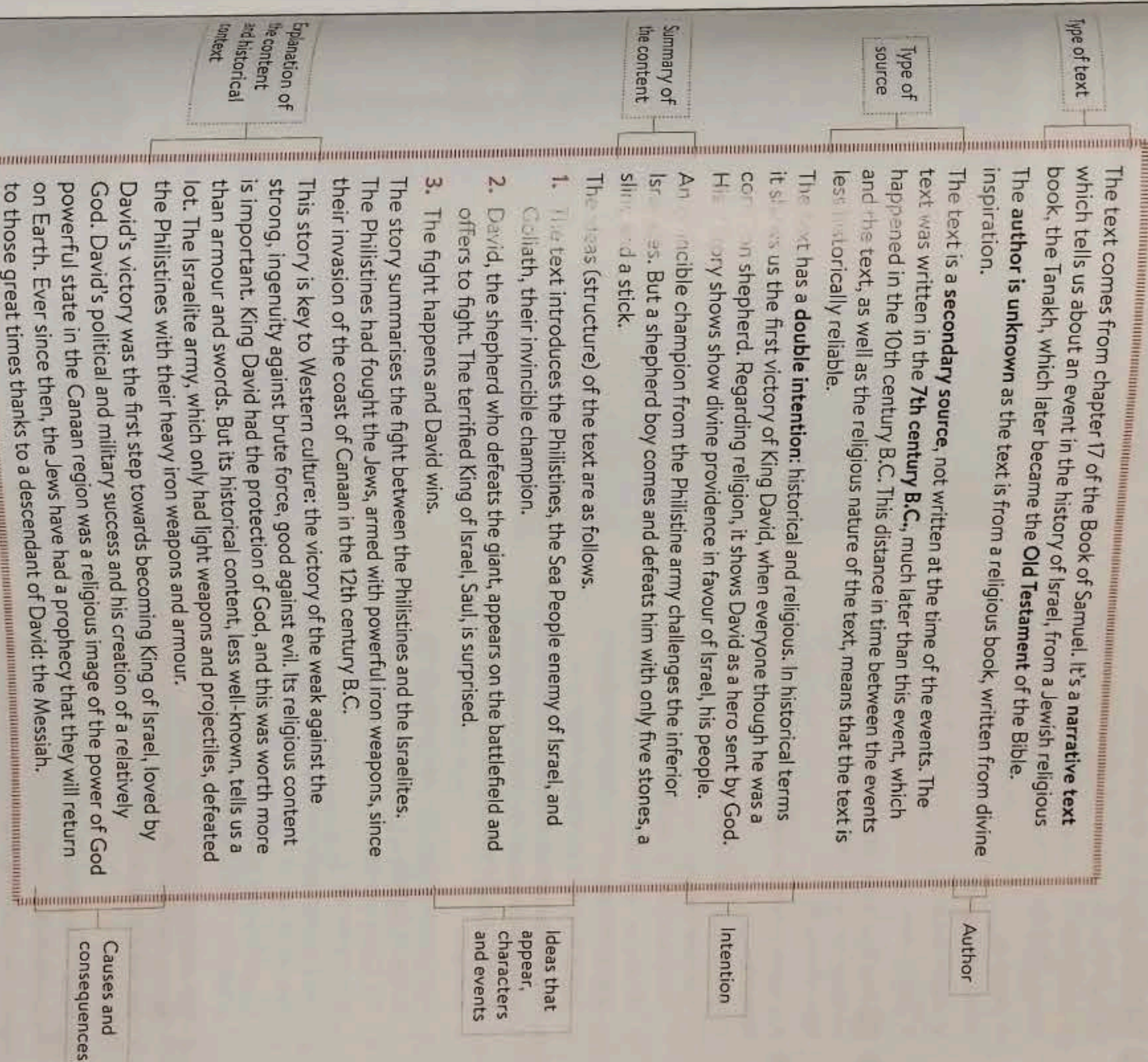
The Philistines gathered their forces for battle ... A man named Goliath came out from the Philistine camp. He was nearly three metres tall and wore a bronze helmet and bronze armour ... His spear was thick, and its iron point weighed about six kilos ... He stopped and shouted at the Israelite soldiers ... 'Today, I challenge you. Choose one of your men and we will fight in a duel! When Saul and all of Israel heard this, they were terrified ...

David got up early in the morning and left the sheep in the care of another shepherd ... When he arrived at the camp, the soldiers were going into battle ... David ran to the lines and greeted his brothers. While they were talking, Goliath came forward ... David said to Saul, 'Don't be afraid of this Philistine, I will go and fight him.' ... Saul gave his own armour to David for him to wear, put a bronze helmet on his head and covered him with a coat of armour ... Then David said to Saul, 'I can't walk with all this on, I'm not used to it.' And he took the armour off. He took his stick and then picked up five smooth stones from the stream and put them in his shepherd's bag. With his sling ready, David went out to meet the Philistine.

The Philistine started walking towards David ... When he saw him, he wasn't impressed because he saw he was only a boy. Goliath said to David, 'What's that stick for? Do you think I'm a dog?' And he called down curses from his god on David ... David replied to the Philistine, 'You are coming against me with sword, spear and javelin, but I come against you in the name of the Lord Almighty, the God of the Israelite armies, who you have defied. Today the Lord will put you in my power ... Then the whole world will know that Israel has a God.' ... When the Philistine began to move forward towards David ... he put his hand in his bag and took out a stone which he slung at Goliath. It hit the Philistine on the forehead, and he fell face downwards on the ground. So, without a sword, David defeated the Philistine with a sling and a stone and killed him.

Good News Bible, Book of Samuel 1 (chapter 17) (1976, adapted 2021)

Example of a commentary



Write an analysis and commentary on the text from the Code of Hammurabi which appears in this unit, following the steps explained above.

BLOCK IV

Units 10 to 12

The ancient world

The units in this block cover the origin, the development and the disappearance of the two civilisations that we consider to be 'the cradle of Western civilisation'.

Ancient Greece describes the historical evolution of Hellenic culture; the arrival of the peoples from the east, the 'golden age' of Sparta and Athens, and the birth of democracy. Finally, you'll study the conquests of Alexander the Great. You'll also learn about the social organisation and the economy of Ancient Greece.

Rome includes the origin of this civilisation, the creation of the republic, its transformation into an empire, its expansion throughout the Mediterranean and its disappearance. The fall of the Roman Empire marked the end of Ancient History and the start of the Middle Ages. During this long period there were many changes in the economy and in society.

Roman Hispania studies the arrival of Roman civilisation to the Iberian Peninsula. The peninsula developed the same social, economic and cultural organisation that existed in Rome. The disappearance of the Roman Empire on the peninsula led to the start of the Visigoth Kingdom.

The three units include an analysis of the main cultural expressions: language, philosophy, architecture, sculpture, literature and religion. In the *Practical* sections of these units, you'll learn how to create and interpret pie charts, to analyse and comment on a work of art and to analyse a plan.

You'll also apply the contents and methods that you've learned in these units to real-life situations.

- In *A game for wise people*, you'll make your own card game about important characters from Greek civilisation, divided into different categories. You'll learn while you play!
- In *The role of Christianity in the fall of the empire*, you'll do historical research and decide whether the appearance of Christianity caused the fall of the Roman Empire or allowed it to continue for longer.
- In *Tartessos*, you'll look for information about the Tartessian civilisation and consider whether or not it really existed.



Battle between Romans and Britons
(Ludovisi Atticophagus)

Block project 5

Curtain up!

A great way to apply what you know about the daily life of the inhabitants of a Greek polis or a city in Ancient Rome is to write a play.

To write the play script, you'll have to find out about all the aspects of a person's life in this period: what the houses were like, the parts of the cities, the clothes, the food and the everyday objects people used.

Prepare the scenery, memorise the script and rehearse the play you've written until it's perfect.

We love theatre, so 'Curtain up!'

UNIT 10

- 1 The geography of Ancient Greece
 - 2 The origins of Greek civilisation
 - 3 The Archaic Age and colonisation
 - 4 The Classical Age
 - 5 The economy and society
 - 6 The Hellenistic Age
- ON THE FRONT PAGE**
Alexander the Great: an important character
- PRACTICAL 15**
Creating and interpreting pie charts
- 7 Ancient Greek culture
 - 8 Ancient Greek art
- REVISION ACTIVITIES**
- KEY CONCEPTS**
- WORK ON YOUR KEY COMPETENCES 15**
Researching historical figures

Q U I Z

Ancient Greece



Think and discuss



- 1 The text mentions different systems of government in Ancient Greece. Find out what each of these systems consisted of.
- 2 Was Athenian democracy the same as the democracy we have today? Explain why/why not?
- 3 Not all the inhabitants of the polis were citizens. Which people were inferior and so didn't have the right to vote? In your country, what improvements are helping to achieve Sustainable Development Goal 10 (Reducing inequalities)?
- 4 In a small group, discuss why Sustainable Development Goal 16 (Peace, justice and strong institutions) is important for a country to prosper.



Democracy in Athens

'Athens was the most important city in Ancient Greece, wasn't it? Was it something like the capital?' I asked.

'Well, it wasn't the capital. I told you that the cities were independent from each other. But it's true that Athens was one of the most important polis, especially during the 5th century B.C., when Pericles governed it. Each city had its own system of government, you know? Some were monarchies, some were oligarchies, where a few aristocrats ruled the rest, and others were dictatorships. But in the 5th century B.C. Athens was a democracy.'

'Do you mean that people could actually vote and all that?'

'Yes, they voted! my grandfather quickly answered. 'But not everyone. Women didn't have the right to vote, nor children, nor slaves.'



Pericles

'Some people think Athens is still a model today in many ways,' he said. 'All the free citizens in Athens could vote and they could elect any free citizen as a governor. The Athenians met about 40 times a year in an assembly to vote on laws and projects that affected the city.'

'That's great!' said a voice as cold as ice behind me. 'Half the population couldn't vote and they called that a democracy!'

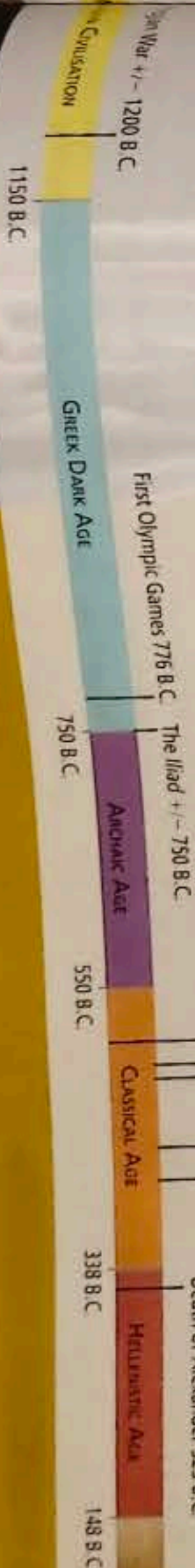
I couldn't stop myself turning my head. Just as I expected, behind me, sitting up straight in her favourite chair, was my grandmother, Luz.

'Half the population didn't take part,' I repeated thoughtfully. 'You mean the women, don't you?'

'Of course, who else?' my grandmother replied. 'The Ancient Greeks had many virtues, but you have to admit that they were very sexist.'

Ana ALONSO

Luna y los incorpóreos. Las máscaras de Omega (Translated and adapted)

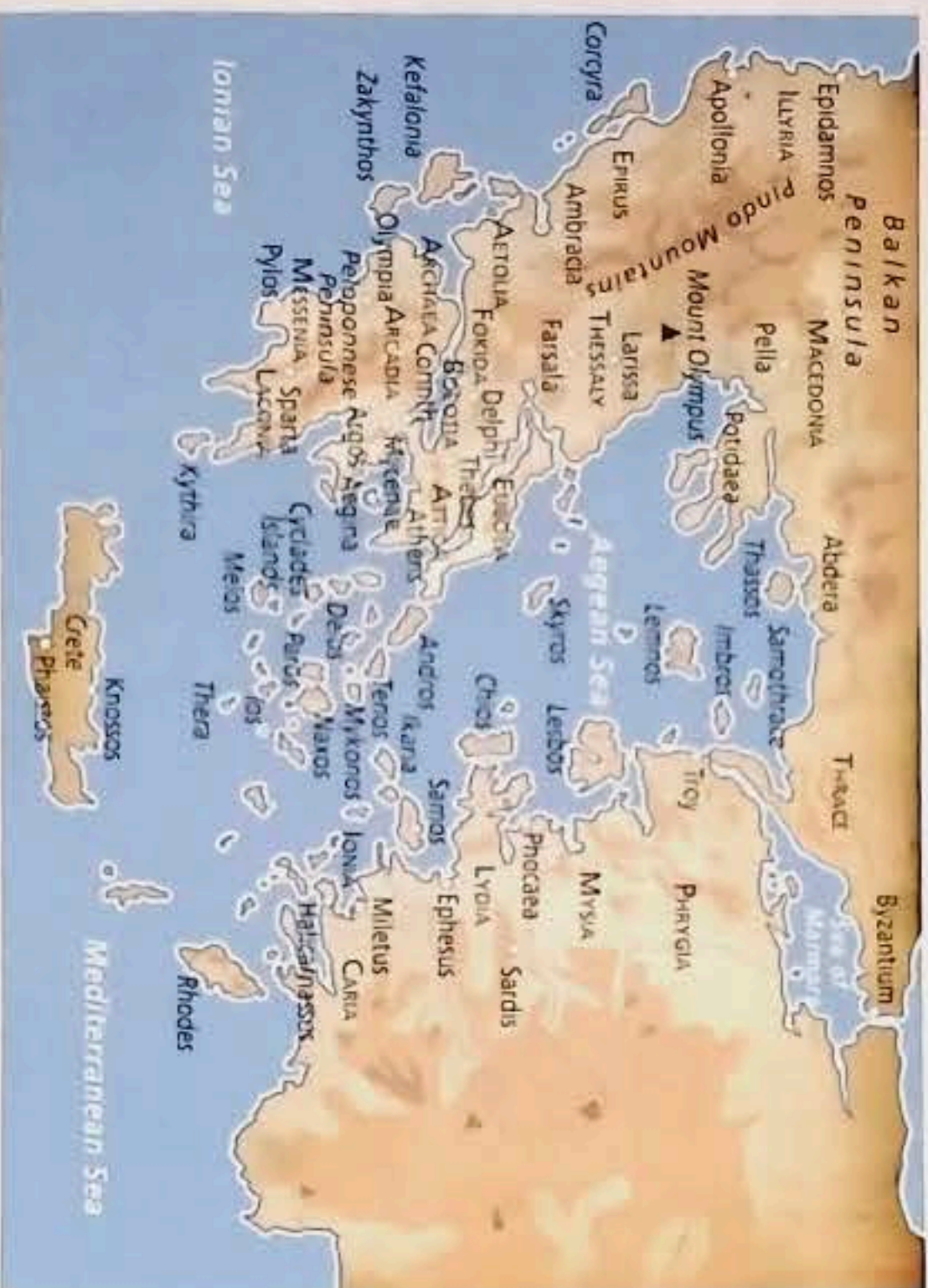


The Caryatid porch in the Erechtheion temple, the Acropolis (Athens)

1 The geography of Ancient Greece

Ancient Greek civilisation developed in three distinct regions around the Aegean Sea.

- **European Greece** was in the south of the Balkan Peninsula. The most important areas were Attica and the Peloponnese Peninsula.
- **Asian Greece** was along the coasts of the Anatolian Peninsula (present-day Turkey). This was called Asia Minor.
- **The Greek Islands** were the islands and archipelagos in the Aegean Sea, between European and Asian Greece.



These regions were **mountainous**, with small plains and valleys that were isolated from each other, but faced the sea. This natural environment explains many of the characteristics of Greek civilisation.

- Due to the topography and low rainfall of the Mediterranean climate, there was **insufficient agricultural production**.
 - As a consequence, trade developed with other peoples. The main agricultural products were wheat, grapes and olives.
 - Travelling over land was difficult because of the topography, so **sea trade developed**. The Greek coast has many natural harbours, so it was easy for boats to shelter there.
 - The topography contributed to **isolation and political division**, so a united Greek state never emerged.
 - Instead, there were various independent city-states called **polis**.
- Despite the isolation of the **polis**, they all **shared the same language, culture and religion**. They were all part of the same civilisation: all Ancient Greeks identified with Hellenic culture and all Ancient Greeks identified the peoples who weren't Hellenes as **barbarians**.

Helladic: Bronze Age culture around the Aegean Sea.
Hellene: person of Hellenic descent

The history of Ancient Greece

2600–1450 B.C.: the Minoan civilisation developed on the island of Crete. Its name comes from Mino, the legendary king of the city of Knossos. These peoples used a writing system, built palaces and were sea traders.

1600–1150 B.C.: the Achaeans, who were a warlike civilisation, settled in European Greece. They established the **Mycenaean civilisation**. Its culture was the city of Mycenae. They were the first speakers of the Greek language.

1150–750 B.C.: Dorians invaded from the north. They had weapons. They destroyed the Mycenaean civilisation and as a result, many people abandoned their cities. This was a period of economic and cultural decline.

750–550 B.C.: the Archaic Age, the polis developed. The first colonies were established along the Mediterranean coast. The first Olympic Games took place in 776 B.C.

550–338 B.C.: Classical Age was the golden age of Greek civilisation. Athens and Sparta united to resist the Persian Empire in the Greco-Persian Wars. Later, they fought each other in the Peloponnesian Wars.

338–148 B.C.: Philip II, the King of Macedonia, took advantage of the decline of the polis and conquered Greece. Through his son **Alexander the Great**'s conquests, Greek culture spread all over the East.

In 148 B.C., Rome took control of Greece and it became part of the Roman Empire.

Warlike: violent, regularly involved in conflict

ALL activities

- 1 In your notebook, list the three regions where Greek civilisation first developed.
- 2 Explain these terms.
 - a. polis
 - b. Hellenic culture
 - c. barbarians
- 3 Create a timeline from 2600 B.C. to 148 B.C. Divide it into periods. Label it with the main civilisations and periods in the history of Ancient Greece.
- 4 Listen to the radio programme about agriculture in Ancient Greece. What crops did the Greeks cultivate and why?
- 5 Look at the map. What's significant about the geography of Ancient Greece? How did this affect transport? Use these words.

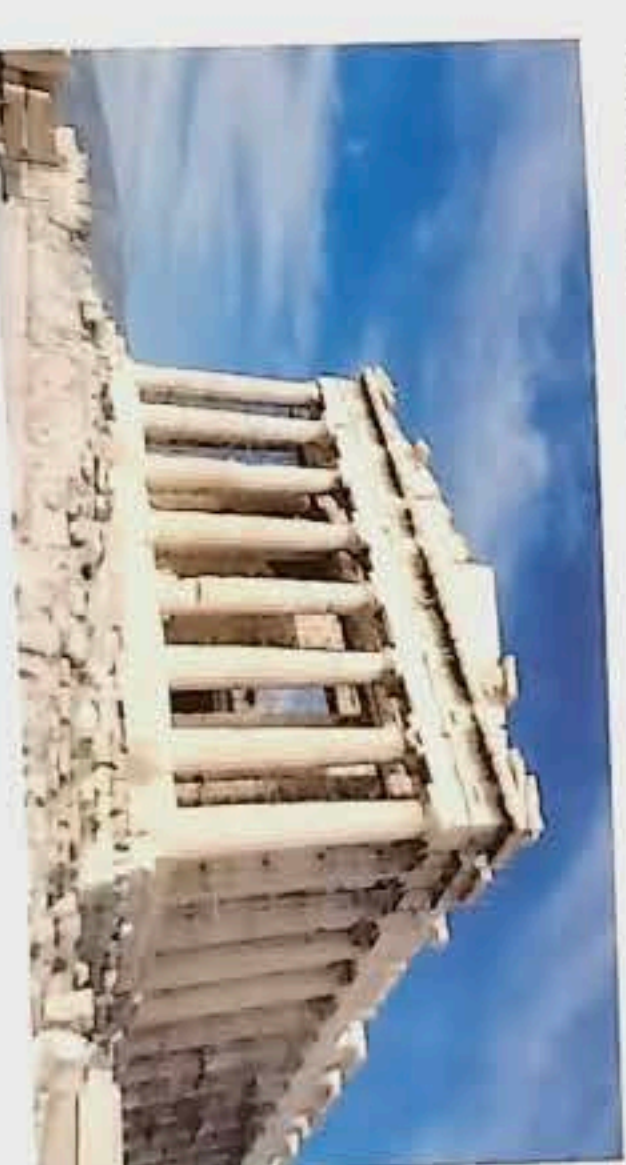
islands coastline mountainous sea ships



A room in the Palace of Knossos



Valley of the Temples (Agrigento, Sicily)



View of the Parthenon (Athens)

2 The origins of Greek civilisation

During the Bronze and Iron Ages, the Minoan and Mycenaean civilisations emerged on the Greek islands. They established trade links with populations from the Near East (the Egyptians and the Hittites).

The Minoan civilisation

This was the first civilisation to develop in Europe. It emerged on the islands of **Crete** and **Thira** (modern-day Santorini). The Minoans traded around the Mediterranean. They sold ceramics, wine, cereals and oil and they bought metals, such as copper, bronze and gold. Due to their contact with Egypt, they developed a type of **hieroglyphic writing**.

As a result of the fact that the Minoans controlled the seas, they didn't need to build walls to defend their cities. This was unusual at this time. The centre of urban life was the **palace** and the most important one was the **Palace of Knossos** in Crete.

The Minoan civilisation declined after 1500 B.C., following a volcanic eruption on Thira. This also affected Crete. Soon afterwards, the Mycenaean civilisation (from mainland Greece) invaded.

Minoan palaces contained many rooms on different levels around a large courtyard. Here, entertainment, such as bull jumping, took place.



Reconstruction of the Palace of Knossos

The Minoans decorated the walls of the palaces with brightly coloured paintings. These showed scenes from nature or daily life.



Curiosities

According to the legend, there was a large labyrinth in Knossos, from which it was impossible to escape. The Minotaur was a monster that lived inside the labyrinth. Minos, the King of Knossos, ordered the Athenians to feed the Minotaur by providing seven young women and seven young men each year to enter the labyrinth. The first Athenian to volunteer was Theseus, who killed the Minotaur.

One of the king's daughters, Ariadne, helped Theseus to return. She had given him a ball of string so he could unwind it to find his way back out.



The Mycenaean civilisation

In around 1600 B.C., the **Achaean**s, the first Greek speakers, settled in European Greece and established the **Mycenaean civilisation**. They founded cities such as Tiryns, Pylos and Mycenae. This is where the name 'Mycenaean' originates.

The Mycenaean were a **warlike civilisation**. They used bronze weapons and chariots¹. Because of their technological superiority, the Mycenaean easily conquered the Minoans. During this period, the **Trojan War** took place. This conflict later became the subject of Homer's legendary tales, *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey*. These became very important works in Greek culture.

The Greek Dark Age

In around 1200 B.C., the **Dorians** invaded with their superior **iron weapons**. They occupied Crete and the **Peloponnese Peninsula**. The Dorians displaced² other peoples, such as the Aeolians and Ionians. These settled on the coasts of **Asia Minor**. The following centuries were a period of political, economic and cultural decline. This period is called the **Dark Age** and little information has survived from it.

Working with sources

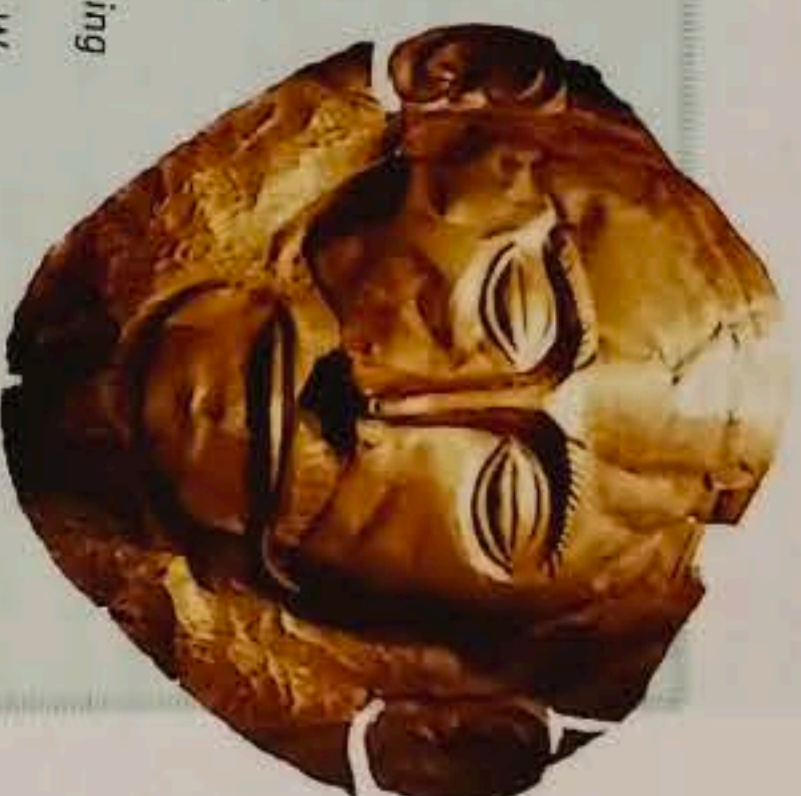
The conflict between Achilles and Agamemnon

AGAMEMNON: Prince of evil! You never bring good news ... Now you tell me that the Archer of the Sky, Zeus, is sending catastrophes because I would not accept the generous ransom³ for the young Chryseis, who I wished to keep in my house ... I long to return her, if that's for the best. I want to save the people. I do not want them to die. But offer me another reward soon, so I'm not the only one without one ...

ACHILLES: How can the generous Achaeans give you another reward? There's nothing left. We've distributed everything from the sackings of the cities. It's not wise to force the men to bring it back. Return the young woman to the god immediately. We will pay you three or four times more if Zeus allows us to take the walled city of Troy.

Homer, *The Iliad*, Book I (Translated and adapted)

- Find information about the characters in the text.
- In *The Iliad*, Agamemnon received Chryseis as a reward after the war. Throughout history, people have become prisoners or slaves after wars. Find information about how this phenomenon happened in Ancient Greece.
- Explain the text in your own words, following the model in the relevant *Practical* section.



Gold Mycenaean funerary mask of Agamemnon

ALL activities

- Answer the questions in your notebook.
 - Why didn't Minoan cities have defensive walls?
 - What products did the Minoans trade?
 - What did the Minoans learn from the Egyptians?
 - What caused the decline of their civilisation?
- Listen to the legend. What was the Minotaur? How did Theseus find his way out of the labyrinth?
- In a small group, discuss why the Dorians defeated the Mycenaean. Use these words.
weapons strong iron bronze
- Find out who discovered the Palace of Knossos and the controversy surrounding his actions. Consult different sources. Compare the results of your research with a classmate's.

3 The Archaic Age and colonisation

During the Archaic Age, the population of the polis increased. Harvests were often insufficient. As a result, farmers became poor and were thus in danger of becoming slaves. Some inhabitants began to **emigrate** in search of a better life.

Between the 8th and 6th centuries B.C., there were organised group migrations from the polis. These emigrants looked for places with natural harbours that were easy to defend, and which had agricultural and trading potential. There, they established new cities called **colonies**. The polis they had come from were called **metropolises**. The colonies had the same political and social structure as the metropolises, and their inhabitants enjoyed the same privileges.

As a result of these colonies, the Greeks established a trade network throughout the Mediterranean. They started using coins, such as the silver **drachma** of Athens.

The main colonies were in the coastal regions of the Black Sea, where the Greeks' supply of wheat came from, on the Italian Peninsula and Sicily (known as Magna Graecia), in North Africa, Southern France and on the Iberian Peninsula.

The Phoenicians

The Phoenicians came from the **Eastern Mediterranean coast**, between Egypt and Mesopotamia. Similarly to the Greeks, they lived in independent city-states: Tyre, Sidon and Byblos.

The Phoenicians were **expert sailors** who specialised in sea trade. From the 10th century B.C. onwards, they established **trading posts** in the coastal regions of North Africa, Sicily, Sardinia and the Iberian Peninsula. They competed with the Greeks for control of the trade routes.

In many cases, these trading posts developed into colonies and even major maritime powers, such as **Carthage** (present-day Tunisia).

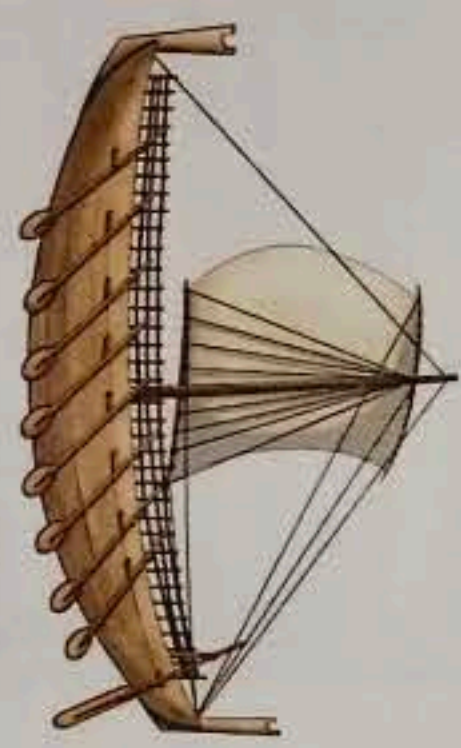
The Phoenicians invented the **alphabet** (the signs represented sounds rather than ideas). This only consisted of consonants, but the Greeks adopted this and added vowels.

Making connections

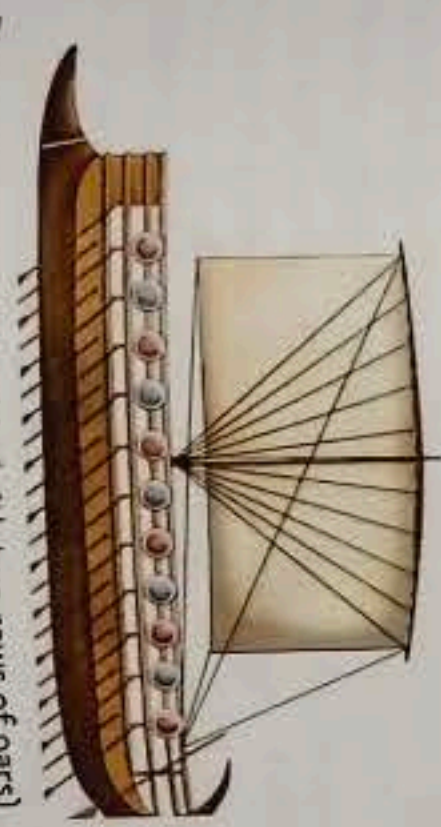
The main focus of Greek and Phoenician colonisation was to establish new trade routes and discover areas that were rich in metals.

However, this changed when Phoenician influence decreased and the ancient colony of Carthage became independent. Carthage began to use its great military power not to establish trade contacts, but to control other territories and their inhabitants.

Later, when the Carthaginians expanded their territories along the Mediterranean, they would encounter another civilisation with an even greater desire to conquer: the Roman civilisation.



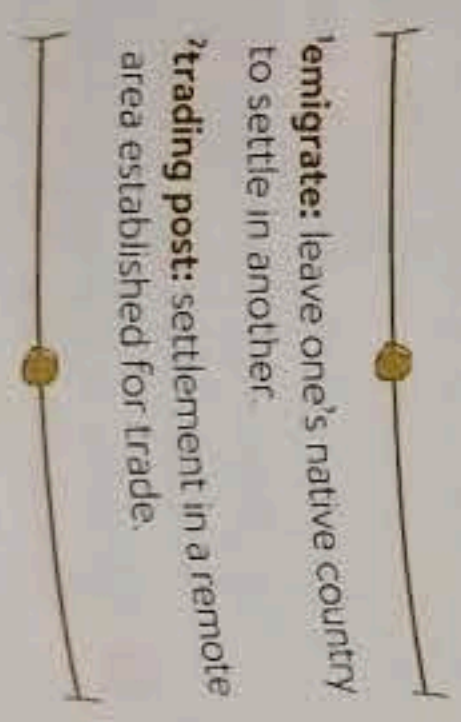
Phoenician bireme warship (with two rows of oars)



Phoenician bireme warship (with two rows of oars)



Greek trireme warship (with three rows of oars)



- CLL activities**
- In your notebook, match these words to the definitions: polis, metropolis, colonies.
 - the first cities established by the Greeks before people emigrated
 - the cities Greeks emigrated to from the original polis
 - independent Greek city-states
 - What were the differences between Greek and Egyptian writing?

The Egyptians used ... but the Greeks used...
 - Listen to the students talking about an Ancient Greek man who decided to emigrate. Answer the questions.
 - Why did he leave?
 - What places did he go to?
 - Where did he finally settle?
 - Discuss with a classmate why the use of coins made trade easier. Use these words.

The use of coins made trade easier because...

4 The Classical Age

The **Classical Age** was the **golden age** of Greek civilisation. **Athens** and **Sparta** were the most important **polis**, but they had very different social, political and economic systems. However, they united against the Persians and defeated them in the Greco-Persian Wars. This victory increased the rivalry between them and resulted in the **Peloponnesian Wars**. All the **Greek city-states** became involved in this conflict.

Athens

Poverty in the countryside led to **social revolts** in Athens against the abuses of the aristocracy. As a result, in the early 6th century B.C. **Solon** introduced reforms to reduce the power of the aristocracy. Later, **tyrants** ruled. They defended the people against the aristocracy, but were authoritarian.

In the late 6th century, **Cleisthenes** introduced reforms. The aristocracy agreed to share their power with the free people, who became **citizens**. These had the same political rights in return for paying taxes and completing military service. This was the beginning of democracy. This word comes from the Greek *demos*, meaning the people, and *cratos*, meaning power. Athens was a **direct democracy**, but it was also **restricted**, as it excluded non-citizens, women, *metics*¹ and slaves. To protect Athenian democracy, **ostracism** appeared. This meant that the citizens could vote to expel the people from the *polis* who they thought were too popular or powerful, and thus presented a risk of becoming tyrants.

These were the most important institutions in Athens.

- The **Assembly** or **Ekklesia** passed laws, declared war, made peace treaties and appointed magistrates. All citizens could participate in it.
- The **Council of Five Hundred** or **Boule** wrote laws for the assembly to pass. They chose its members by **drawing lots**².
- The **Supreme Courts** or **Heliaia** administered justice using a jury system. 201 citizens heard each case (501 if it involved a lot of money) and decided if the accused was innocent or guilty.

• The **magistrates**, who the Assembly nominated each year, implemented its decisions. They included ten **military strategists**, nine **archons**³ and **treasurers**⁴. Under the governor **Percles**, the 5th century B.C. became the golden age of politics, the arts, sciences and philosophy. He commissioned the building of beautiful monuments and made Athens the cultural centre of Ancient Greece.

#ForABetterWorld

The Athenians had a direct democracy. There were no representatives and the citizens could propose laws. However, most of the population was excluded from participating because they didn't have any political rights. It was very different to today's democracy. However, it was a great advance compared to other governments at the time. In other governments, the aristocracy held all the power and made decisions for their own benefit.

From the Archaic Age, citizen-soldiers called **hoplites** defended the *polis*. They bought their own armour, which covered most of their bodies, and a large round shield, called a **hoplon**. This had important social and military consequences.

The aristocratic cavalry⁵ no longer led the wars. In addition, the Greeks' military strategy, which they based on close formations of infantry soldiers, was superior to their enemies.⁶



The wars of the 5th century B.C.

The Greco-Persian Wars

By the 5th century B.C., the Persians had conquered many lands and formed a huge empire, which extended from India to Egypt. The Greeks in Asia Minor fought against the Persians with the help of Athens, but Darius I defeated them. When Darius I tried to conquer Greece, Athens and Sparta led an alliance of the Greek *polis* in the **Greco-Persian Wars** (499–449 B.C.).

In the first war, Darius I conquered various regions of Greece. However, when he attacked Athens, the Greeks defeated him at the **Battle of Marathon** (490 B.C.).

In the second war, the Persian emperor **Xerxes II** attacked Greece with a powerful army in 480 B.C. The Greeks, led by the Spartan King **Leonidas I**, lost the **Battle of Thermopylae**. However, the Athenians defeated Xerxes at **Salamis** and won the **Battle of Plataea** (479 B.C.).

The victorious Greek *polis* then divided into two alliances. Athens led the **Delos League** and Sparta led the **Peloponnesian League**.

The Peloponnesian Wars

The rivalry between Athens and Sparta caused the **Peloponnesian Wars** (431–404 B.C.). In this series of conflicts, Athens and its allies fought against Sparta and its allies. Although Athens lost the wars, the conflict severely weakened Sparta and most of the other *polis* as well.



Sparta

Instead of emigrating and founding colonies, the Spartans conquered neighbouring lands. Sparta created a powerful army consisting of its citizens, who dedicated their lives to **military training**.

The **hoplites** became their slaves. They performed a range of non-military tasks.

The Spartan political system was an **oligarchy**⁷. It was a combination of a monarchy, an aristocracy and a democracy. It consisted of:

- two **kings**, who inherited their positions and led the army and religious acts.

CLL activities

- 14 In your notebook, define these terms.

- Ekklesia**
- Boule**
- Heliaia**
- Apella**
- ephors**
- Gerosia**

- 15 Listen to the documentary. Who was **Pheidipides**? Why's there a race called a **marathon**?

- the **Gerosia**, a council of 28 elders, who the Assembly appointed to make proposals.

- the **Apella** or **Assembly**, a meeting of citizens with political rights who were over 30 years old. They had limited power, as they could only accept or reject the proposals of the **Gerosia**.

- **five ephors**, who were very powerful. They kept order, monitored the kings and presided over the courts.

⁷**hoplite**: person who the Spartans defeated in war

⁸**oligarchy**: political system in which a minority holds power

- 16 Make a mind map summarising the wars of the 5th century. Include the different sides and alliances, the important battles and the result of each war.

- 17 With a classmate, discuss whether it would be better to set up a business in Athens or Sparta.

5 The economy and society

Agriculture was very important in Ancient Greece. Productivity was low, however. The main crops were wheat, grapes and olives. The main livestock were sheep, goats, pigs and donkeys.

In the *polis*, there were many **artisans** who made leather products, perfumes, ceramics and fabric.

There was extensive **trade** between the metropolises and their colonies. The farmers and artisans also sold their products in the markets of the *polis*.

From the Archaic Age onwards, **society** in Ancient Greece consisted of these groups.

- **Aristocrats** were members of rich families who owned large farms and were politically powerful.
- **Free people** lived modestly and were traders, artisans or farmers. Men served in the army. In return for military service, they could own property and land, and participate in the assemblies.
- **Metics** were free people who didn't have political rights, but had to pay taxes to live in the *polis*. They were traders or artisans. The **freed slaves** had a similar status.
- **Slaves** were the main workforce and there were many of them. Slaves were mainly barbarians who had been captured by the Greeks as prisoners of war. However, some slaves were ex-citizens who couldn't pay their debts. Slaves worked in agriculture, craftwork, mining, administration and domestic service.

#ForABetterWorld

Many cultures have admired the Ancient Greeks for their political and cultural developments. However, the Ancient Greeks kept a **large number of slaves** in their lands and considered this situation to be both normal and necessary.

The only records we have of criticisms of this practice are from Socrates and other philosophers from the time.

The living conditions of the slaves varied greatly. Some slaves had terrible conditions, but many had some independence and their owners didn't have the right to punish them physically.

In today's Western societies, this lack of freedom and respect for human dignity would be completely unacceptable.



A slave working in a mine



Harvesting olives (copy from the 6th century B.C.)

Women and the family in Ancient Greece

Greece was a patriarchal society and women had no political or legal rights. They always depended on a man: their father, brother or husband.

Most women worked and carried out domestic tasks. Aristocratic women didn't work, however, and spent most of their time in the *gynaeceum*. Women didn't receive much education.

In Athens, the only women who had freedom were the *heterae*. In Sparta, women had greater rights and freedom. They received more education and also did military training, like the men, to prepare them to produce strong children who could fight.

Education in Athens and Sparta

In Athens, only boys received a formal education. Women taught some basic concepts at home. Private tutors for the boys' classes because there were no schools.

The boys in Athens studied literature, music and gymnastics. From the age of 14, however, they concentrated on music and gymnastics. One aspect of their education was to memorise extracts from the works of the great poets, such as Homer's *The Iliad* and *The Odyssey*.

In Sparta, boys left home at the age of seven years. At that point they became the responsibility of the state and lived with other boys of their age. They studied music and received military training.

Spartan girls received a similar education to Spartan boys, mainly consisting of music, gymnastics and other types of sports.



Woman putting clothes in a chest (relief from the mid-5th century)



Students at a school playing the flute and writing

ALL activities

- Answer the questions in your notebook.
 - What were the five main social groups?
 - Which groups had political rights?
 - What jobs did most people do?
- Describe the differences between men's and women's rights, work and clothes in Ancient Greece.
- Compare the social organisation in Ancient Greece with Mesopotamia and Egypt. Explain the similarities and differences between them.
- Explain the differences in education between Athens and Sparta.
- Listen to a class discussion about boys' lives in Sparta. Why did they leave their families? What did they all learn to do?
- In a small group, discuss how education differed from education in Athens and Sparta. Which of the two would you have preferred? Give reasons for your answer.

How people lived in the polis

The polis consisted of the city and the surrounding countryside. These lands were called *chora* and were owned by the aristocracy and free people. They included villages and land for growing crops and keeping livestock.

The city had a high and low area. The high area, called the *acropolis*, had a defensive wall around it.

Greek women wore long tunics, which they fastened at the shoulders. The men could wear short tunics, which ended above the knees. Men and women both wore sandals.

The Greeks ate cereals (barley cakes or wheat bread), olives, cheese, fish and pulses. They drank wine with mead (fermented honey with water). They ate with their hands while lying on sofas called *triclinia*.

The inhabitants took refuge there when there was an attack. The main temples were located there. The low area had narrow unpaved streets and no sewerage system. Water came from rivers or springs and was a scarce resource.

sewerage: network of pipes for removing waste.
scarce: not abundant

Theatre

Gynaecium

Triclinia

Most of the population of the polis lived in small, one-storey buildings with two or three rooms. The aristocracy lived in larger two-storey buildings with a central courtyard.

The most important place was the **agora** or **central square**, which was the social centre of the city. There were covered passageways with columns called **stoas** around the agora. The most important buildings were located around this space.

Acropolis

Agora

Stoa

CLIL activities

- 24 Describe the two parts of the city in your notebook.
- 25 Answer the questions.
 - a. Why was the high area the safest place to be in the polis?
 - b. Which place in today's cities is similar to the agora in the Greek polis?