History is the study of the past. Historians are interested in all aspects of the past and seek to 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.

Historians are time detectives; they follow a process of historical inquiry in order to better understand the past. 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. Oral accounts, documents, artefacts and archaeological finds form the basis of research and investigation in History.

Historians are curious. They investigate artefacts and want to know more about them. For example, by studying the Great Sphinx at Giza (see Source HT.1), historians have been able to develop many theories and uncover many facts about it, including:

• its age
• 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.

Despite these investigations, certain facts about the Great Sphinx (and many other ancient artefacts) still remain a mystery. Uncovering the secrets of the past is not always easy and historians do not always agree. These mysteries are what drive historians to continue their important work.

History allows us to appreciate what has been left to us by our ancestors and understand how they have shaped and changed the world in which we live. Welcome to the wonderful world of History!
HT.2

Historical skills

Source HT.1  The Great Sphinx at Giza, Egypt
HT.1 Concepts for historical understanding

Historians use seven concepts to help them investigate and understand the past. At times you will use several of these concepts at once; at other times you may focus on just one. As you learn to apply each concept, you will begin to think like a historian. The seven key concepts in History are:

- perspectives
- continuity and change
- cause and effect
- evidence
- empathy
- significance
- contestability.

Perspectives

The concept of perspectives is an important part of historical inquiry. Perspective is a point of view – the position from which people see and understand events going on in the world around them. People will have had different points of view (or perspectives) about a particular event, person, civilisation or artefact depending on their age, gender, social position and their beliefs and values. Just like anyone else, historians have perspectives, which can influence their interpretation of the past and the way in which they write about it. Despite their own perspectives, historians must try to understand the different values and beliefs that shaped and affected the lives of people who lived in the past.

For example, many people today would share the belief that slavery is wrong. They would be shocked and outraged by the fact that about one quarter of the population of ancient Rome were slaves. However, slavery was an accepted part of life in ancient Rome, from the perspectives of slaves themselves and society in general. Today, a logical assumption is that slaves led poor lives just because they were slaves. This was not always the case. Some masters took great care of their good slaves, as replacements could be hard to find – and expensive. A slave who could cook banquets was especially prized because entertaining was very important to Rome’s elite families. Those slaves who had few skills were less well looked after because they were easier and cheaper to replace.

It is important to consider aspects of the past from the perspectives of people living at the time. By taking this into account you begin to see that owning slaves was a natural part of life in ancient Rome rather than a terrible abuse of a person’s rights and freedoms. By today’s standards it could be considered similar to employing a cleaner or a babysitter to help out around the house.

Source HT.2 This Roman floor mosaic shows a young slave carrying a tray of food for a banquet. It dates back to around the 2nd century CE.
Continuity and change

Historians recognise that over time some things stay the same, while others change. 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.

Historians refer to aspects of the past that have remained the same over time as continuities. Aspects of the past that do not stay the same are referred to as changes. Change can occur within a certain civilisation or specific time period, but also across different civilisations and time periods.

Many historical continuities influence how we act and live today. For example, look at Source HT.3. You will instantly be able to tell what this man is doing. Discus throwing is an ancient sport that dates back to the 5th century BCE. The sport originated in ancient Greece, but is now a routine part of every modern track-and-field competition, not to mention a popular event at the Olympic Games. Discus throwing is a good example of a historical continuity.

Now look at Sources HT.3 and HT.4 together and try to identify some of the differences between them. Even though both people are shown competing in discus throwing:

- one is a man, the other is a woman
- one is naked, the other is wearing clothes
- the ancient discus is larger than the modern discus.

These differences are historical changes. In ancient Greece only men were allowed to compete, they were required to compete naked, and the technique and equipment (the discuses) they used were not as sophisticated as those used today.

Source HT.3 This statue created by the Romans in the 2nd century BCE is a reproduction of a famous Greek statue, Myron’s Discobolus, created around 460–450 BCE. It shows a discus thrower about to release his throw.

Source HT.4 Dani Samuels of Australia competes in the Women’s Discus Throw Final on Day 8 of the London 2012 Olympic Games.
Cause and effect

The concept of cause and effect is used by historians to identify chains of events and developments, both in the short term and in the long term. Cause and effect aims to identify, examine and analyse the reasons why events have occurred and the resulting consequences or outcomes. It helps to think of cause and effect as the ‘why’ and ‘what’ of history.

Sometimes the link between cause and effect is very clear. For example, heavy rain over many weeks (cause) leads to flooding and the destruction of crops (effect). However, often this link is not quite so obvious. Generally, there are many causes (reasons) that lead to an event or action. There can also be many effects (outcomes). Sometimes the effects are simple to identify, while in other cases they are more difficult to predict and may not even be observed until long after the event.

One of the strongest defensive structures in the world is the Great Wall of China. It is also a good example to explain cause and effect. The Great Wall began as a set of separate mudbrick structures that were joined together and extended under the rule of China’s first emperor, Qin Shi Huang. This work was carried out in order to prevent northern invaders (known as Mongols) from entering and conquering China (cause). The wall was successful in preventing a Mongol invasion (effect); however, over 100,000 Chinese labourers died during the construction of the wall (effect). Today, the Great Wall is China’s most popular tourist attraction, drawing around 10 million people each year (effect).

Source HT.5 The Great Wall of China was built to protect China from invading hordes of Mongols. This was the cause of its construction.

Source HT.6 Today, thousands of years after its construction, the Great Wall is so popular with tourists that sections of it are in danger of being damaged by overuse. Could Emperor Qin Shi Huang ever have predicted these effects when he ordered the Great Wall to be built?
Evidence

Evidence is the information gathered from historical sources. The concept of evidence is an essential part of historical inquiry. Evidence can come from many different sources; for example, interviews and accounts from people who lived at the time, letters, diaries, films, maps, newspapers, artefacts and objects, buildings, paintings, photographs, song lyrics, nursery rhymes, clothing, photographs and even cartoons. But how do we use these sources to piece together the story of the past? We can make an educated guess (called a hypothesis) and then look for evidence to support it.

Evidence can be gathered from two types of sources:

- **primary sources** – objects created or written at the time being investigated, for example 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; photographs or films; and documentaries. These original, firsthand accounts are analysed by historians to answer questions about the past.

- **secondary sources** – accounts about the past that were created after the time being investigated and which 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.

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 constantly searching for new sources of evidence. They need to use a range of different sources to help them gain a more complete picture of the past.

Source HT.7 This 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 HT.8 This 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.
Emphathising brings history to life. It connects us as human beings regardless of how much time has passed. For example, the ancient Chinese custom of foot binding can be better understood by putting yourself in the position of those who did it and had it done to them. Foot binding was designed to improve a woman's social status and the status of her family. Tiny feet were considered beautiful and improved a woman's chances of securing a 'good' marriage.

Binding the feet prevented them from growing naturally. When a girl was between the ages of four and seven, the bones in her feet were broken and strapped tightly with a long bandage, forcing the four small toes under the sole of the foot (see Source HT.9). The entire process usually took about two years to complete. After this time, the feet were largely useless. Walking was at best painful and at worst impossible. After this process, the feet needed daily care. If they were not washed and manicured properly, the toenails could cut into the soles of the feet and cause infection. If the bindings were too tight, they could cut off blood flow and cause the flesh to rot.

It is difficult to imagine how much pain these women, and their families, had to go through, but the Chinese saying 'Every pair of small feet costs a bath of tears' gives some insight. Why then did people carry out the practice for so long? Even though many lower-class families could not afford to bind their daughters' feet (because they needed them to work in the fields), they did so anyway in the hope that they would be able to marry into the middle class. In reality, very few women succeeded in this. Instead, these women would end up suffering as they tried to work in the fields on their bound feet. Nevertheless, mothers were obligated to bind their daughters' feet because they would never find a husband otherwise. Applying the concept of empathy helps you to put yourself in the position of the girls who had this done to them, as well as their families who were essentially forced to inflict terrible pain on their own children.

Source HT.9 The practice of foot binding was carried out for around 1000 years. Applying the concept of empathy helps us to understand the pain these women went through, and what motivated their families to do this.

Source HT.10 These women, photographed in 1998, wear tiny 'lotus shoes' on their bound feet. Foot binding was officially outlawed in 1911, but is said to have continued for some time after that.
Significance

The concept of **significance** relates to the importance assigned to aspects of the past, such as events, developments, discoveries, movements, people and historical sites. History is full of so many important events, significant people and interesting places that we could never study all of them. Instead, we need to make a judgement about which of these is worthy of study. In order to determine if an event, development, discovery, movement, person or site is historically significant, historians may ask the following questions:

- How important was this to people who lived at that time?
- How did this affect people’s lives?
- How many people’s lives were affected?
- How widespread and long-lasting were the effects?
- Can the effects still be felt today?

Depending on your age, gender, ethnicity, religious beliefs, nationality and family background, different events and people from the past will be significant to a greater or lesser extent. For example, the development and spread of the Roman Empire is significant because it affected large areas of the Mediterranean world, its people and their way of life.

Some of the legacies of ancient Rome that are still significant today include:

- **Latin** – the language of ancient Rome forms the basis of many modern languages such as English, French, Italian and German
- **aqueducts** – these structures built to carry fresh water from springs in the country to Roman cities form the basis of our modern plumbing
- **architecture** – ancient Romans invented concrete and other innovative building techniques such as domed roofs.

*Source HT.12*  Domed roofs, like the one shown here at Flinders Street Station in Melbourne, would not be possible had it not been for the ancient Romans.
Contestability

The concept of contestability relates to explanations or interpretations of past events that are open to debate. Historians around the world often have access to very different sources. Artefacts, such as cave paintings or artworks, may have been damaged or incomplete. Written records may contain errors, or have been changed or falsified after they were written. Some artefacts may even have been destroyed for good. This can lead historians to different conclusions about what they are seeing. Even historians studying the same sources can sometimes come to widely different conclusions about what the evidence is telling them. This is one of the exciting things about history – it is open to debate. There is often no right answer, and historians are always seeking a more complete understanding of the past.

The discovery of Tutankhamun's tomb in 1922 was a highly significant historical event. It helped historians uncover many important details about life in ancient Egypt, but also ignited fierce debate. An examination of the pharaoh's mummified body led historians and archaeologists to argue for many decades about the cause of Tutankhamun's death. Many believed that the boy king had been murdered. Others believed his death was accidental. It was not until modern scientific methods allowed for a proper examination of the corpse that it was decided that Tutankhamun had died as a result of an infection from a broken leg. DNA analysis conducted in 2010 also showed the presence of malaria in his system. It is believed that these two conditions combined led to his death. To this day, some historians still contest the accepted explanation.
Check your learning HT.1

Remember and understand

1. Name the two different sources from which historians may gather evidence.
2. Discuss throwing is still an important event in the modern Olympic Games. What historical concept would this be an example of?
3. A study of the past always involves looking at why an event took place and what happened as a result. What is the name of this historical concept?
4. Five different people saw a fight in the schoolyard. Why might their accounts of what happened be quite different? What historical concept would this be an example of?

Apply and analyse

5. Look again at the questions that help historians decide which events from the past are worthy of study (listed under Significance). Working in pairs or small groups, use those questions to decide if the following events are historically significant.

- Your family moved to a new house last week.
- A new shopping centre was built in your local area.
- The prime minister of Australia gave a speech declaring Australia will allow China to build a military base in Sydney.
- The Olympic Games were held in London.
- News reports confirmed that over half the world’s population is connected to the Internet.

Report your findings to the class. Did each group reach the same conclusions? Why or why not?

6. Historians are constantly trying to understand what motivated people from the past to act the way they did. This relates to the historical concept of empathy. Look at the example of foot binding in ancient China. Imagine you are the mother or father of a four-year-old girl. List three reasons why you believe you must bind your daughter’s feet. Beside each reason, write how this would make you feel.

7. Why did Egyptian archaeologists use scientific methods to examine the mummy of Tutankhamun? Do you think all historians would accept these findings? Why or why not?

Evaluate and create

8. You are planning a museum exhibit about your own life. Choose three artefacts you will include in the display. Explain how each of these artefacts has played a significant part in your life.

9. Look again at the Great Sphinx (Source HT.1). Conduct your own research and formulate your own hypothesis (theory) about why it was built. Support your hypothesis with one primary and one secondary source.

10. Choose one of the key concepts discussed in this section. Design a poster for your history classroom to help you and your classmates remember what this concept is and to help you apply it as you study History this year.

Source HT.13 Egyptian archaeologists supervise the removal of Tutankhamun’s mummy from the stone sarcophagus in his underground tomb in the Valley of the Kings in Luxor, Egypt. The exact cause of Tutankhamun’s death has been contested by historians since the discovery of his tomb in 1922.

Source HT.14 The use of modern CT scans and DNA analysis in 2010 have finally put an end to decades of debate. These tests have allowed historians to say with some certainty how Tutankhamun died.
History has been described as ‘who we are and why we are the way we are’. Historians examine the past and try to explain what they find. Like detectives at the scene of a crime, they follow a process of historical inquiry – they pose questions, locate and analyse sources, use evidence from these sources to develop an informed explanation about the past, and then communicate their findings.

To conduct a historical inquiry, historians need a range of skills. By studying history you will gradually master each of these skills. Some of them you will find easy to master, others may take a little longer. As you develop each new skill you will have gained another important tool for understanding and explaining events and people that have shaped our world.

Each of the skills you will learn over the course of this year is explained below. Each one represents a stage in the process of historical inquiry. These skills are organised into five broad categories (see Source HT.15). Each category has a number of more specific skills that you will be learning. It might help you to think of each of these skills as individual tools in your toolkit. For some historical inquiries, you may only need to use one tool; for others, you may need to use many.

Chronology, terms and concepts

Sequence historical events, developments and periods

One of the most helpful things historians can do to get a better understanding of the past is to organise events in the order that they happened. This is known as chronology. Chronology can help us organise things that happened over a small period of time, like a day or week, or huge periods of time, like hundreds of thousands of years. We can also use chronology to look at events that happened in one place or society, or compare events across many different places and societies.

Chronology allows us to develop an ordered sense of time. Once events have been ordered chronologically, we are able to use a range of historical concepts such as cause and effect, significance, and continuity and change to analyse them in detail.

Sequencing time

Examples of how historians sequence time are shown in Sources HT.16 and HT.17. Each table shows how 2100 years have been divided into smaller periods of 100 years. These periods are known as centuries. Because there is no zero used in the Common Era (CE) calendar, we have to begin from the year 1. This means that the years from 2001 to 2100 are actually part of the 21st century. These tables will help you as you work through Year 7 History. Refer to them as often as you need to.
Creating timelines

Timelines are used by historians to sequence time and order important events chronologically. They help divide large sections of time into smaller periods so that events (like the births and deaths of important people, wars and discoveries) can be arranged in the correct order.

Timelines can look quite different, but essentially they all work in the same way. There are some basic steps you need to follow when constructing timelines. Detailed instructions are provided in 6.1 big ideas: rich task. In addition, Source HT.18 outlines some key points to be aware of.

Source HT.16 More than 2000 years of history Before the Common Era (bce) divided into centuries. When ordering time bce, remember to count backwards to 1.

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

Source HT.17 More than 2000 years of history in the Common Era (ce) divided into centuries. When ordering time ce, remember to count forwards from 1.

Source HT.18 A simple timeline
Use historical terms and concepts

Just like scientists, historians share a common language. They use historical terms and concepts to clarify what they are talking about and share their findings. Source HT.19 lists and defines some commonly used historical terms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AD</td>
<td>An abbreviation of the Latin Anno Domini – ‘in the year of our Lord’; a term used for any time after the death of Christ (i.e. any time after 1 ce). This term has now largely been replaced by CE (see entry below).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>age</td>
<td>A period of history with specific characteristics that make it stand out from other periods (e.g. the Stone Age, the Bronze Age)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BC</td>
<td>An abbreviation of Before Christ, a term used for the period of history before the birth of Christ (i.e. any time before 1 ce). This term has largely been replaced by BCE (see entry below).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BCE</td>
<td>An abbreviation of Before the Common Era, a term used for the period of history before the birth of Christ (i.e. any time before 1 ce). This term has largely replaced BC, because it is culturally neutral.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CE</td>
<td>An abbreviation of Common Era, a term used for any time after the death of Christ (i.e. any time after 1 ce). This term has largely replaced AD, because it is culturally neutral.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>century</td>
<td>A period of 100 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chronology</td>
<td>A record of events in the order they took place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circa</td>
<td>A Latin word meaning ‘around’ or ‘approximately’ (abbreviated as c.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decade</td>
<td>A period of 10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>era</td>
<td>A period of time marked by distinctive characteristics, events or circumstances (e.g. the Roman era, the Victorian era)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>millennium</td>
<td>A period of 1000 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prehistory</td>
<td>The period of history before written records</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time period</td>
<td>A block of time in history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>timeline</td>
<td>A sequence of related historical events shown in chronological order. A timeline is generally scaled with years marked at equal distances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>year</td>
<td>A period of 365 days</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source HT.19  Some useful historical terms

Check your learning HT.2

Remember and understand
1 What is a timeline?
2 What century are we living in?
3 What does BCE after a date mean?

Apply and analyse
4 Arrange the following dates in chronological order.
   1 CE  200 BCE  1200 CE  2012 CE  c. 8000 BCE
5 Which centuries were the following years in?
   a 2012 BCE
   b 1 CE
   c 1920 CE
   d 1200 CE
   e 902 BCE
   f 654 BCE

Evaluate and create
6 Make a human timeline by forming a line with your classmates from youngest to oldest. Before you begin the activity, you will need to organise yourselves in groups based on:
   a your years of birth
   b your months of birth
   c your days of birth
   d your times of birth (if two or more people are born on the same day and year).
7 Create a rhyme to help you remember one of the following:
   • the difference between CE and BCE
   • the definitions of year, decade, century, millennium, era and age.
Historical questions and research

Identify a range of questions about the past to inform a historical inquiry

Historians begin any historical inquiry by asking big questions. From these big questions, historians develop a hypothesis (a theory) about who, what, where and why certain events took place. These questions then help to frame the process of inquiry and act as a guide for the collection of evidence.

Generating questions to inform a historical inquiry

Look closely at Source HT.20. This visitor to the Great Sphinx at Giza in Egypt is asking some important historical inquiry questions. You can learn to do this too by starting your questions with the words ‘what’, ‘where’, ‘how’, ‘when’ and ‘why’ before beginning your inquiry.

For example, big questions such as the following help to guide the steps in the research process:

- What is the Great Sphinx?
- Who built it?
- When was it built?
- What is the Great Sphinx doing here?
- How long has the Great Sphinx been here?
- What is the Great Sphinx supposed to be?
- Why is the Great Sphinx important?
- Who built the Great Sphinx?

The very best questions open up an exciting area for you to explore. For example, the visitor might ask a simple question, such as ‘What does the Sphinx look like?’ This is a question with a relatively simple answer. A better historical question for the visitor to ask might be ‘What is the Sphinx meant to represent?’ This question opens up a whole new area for exploration.

Apply the skill

1. Based on what you have read and seen, generate four big questions of your own that will help guide your investigation into the Great Sphinx.

2. Once you have generated your inquiry questions, identify the information you will need to answer these questions and where you might be able to locate it.

3. The mystery of the Great Sphinx has puzzled historians for many years. Are there any questions for which you have not been able to find reliable evidence or answers? What reasons might there be for this?
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.21 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.edu</td>
<td>The site is linked to an educational institution such as a university or school. These sites are generally very reliable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.gov</td>
<td>The site is linked to a government institution. These sites are generally very reliable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.net</td>
<td>This 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.org</td>
<td>This 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, it 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.com</td>
<td>This 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.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source HT.21 Some domain names and their characteristics
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.

When citing (mentioning) a book in a bibliography, include the following, 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:

When citing an online source 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:

Check your learning HT.3

Remember and understand
1. List three different examples of sources.
2. Beside each source write where it can be found.

Apply and analyse
3. Using the table below give two advantages and two disadvantages of using the different search methods shown.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Search methods</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using the library catalogue</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google search</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewing older family members</td>
<td>•</td>
<td>•</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Examine the following sites. Explain whether you think they are reliable. Explain why.
   a. British Museum
      www.britishmuseum.org
   b. Coca-Cola
      www.coca-cola.com.au
   c. University of Tasmania
      www.utas.edu.au
   d. History of Egypt – Ask Aladdin
      www.ask-aladdin.com/history1.htm

Evaluate and create
5. Create a handbook or class wiki providing tips on good research techniques to share with other students in your year level or post on your school intranet.

Source HT.22 Most research today is conducted online.
Analysis and use of sources

Identify the origin and purpose of primary and secondary sources

As explained earlier (see ‘Evidence’ in section HT.1), 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 which often use or refer to primary sources and present a particular interpretation.

Understanding the origin and purpose of primary and secondary sources

Both primary and secondary sources are useful, but it is important to understand where they came from (origin) and why they were created (purpose) because they will almost always reflect the perspective of the person who made them, as well as the attitudes and beliefs of that time. All sources are affected by the author’s own point of view, and 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 and is often aimed at persuading the reader to agree with the author’s point of view. This is why historians must carefully analyse and evaluate sources.

Analysing sources by asking ‘who’, ‘what’, ‘when’ and ‘why’ questions will help you identify the origin and purpose of the sources. For example:

• 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.

Source HT.23 The origin and purpose of these primary (A) and secondary (B) sources are very different even though they are both linked to ancient Egypt.
Graphic organisers to help you compare, select and use information

Organisation charts are very useful tools for collecting, comparing and selecting suitable resources that you have located. A decision-making chart like Source HT.24 can help you do this.

**RESEARCH TOPIC:** Tutankhamun – how did he die?

**HYPOTHESIS:** That Tutankhamun died as a result of a fall from a hunting chariot.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pros: • Article is current and based on scientific evidence • Written by a reputable organisation – National Geographic • Very detailed medical evidence</td>
<td>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</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source 2:</th>
<th>Pros:</th>
<th>Category of source:</th>
<th>Reference information:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pros:</td>
<td>Cons:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source 3:</th>
<th>Pros:</th>
<th>Category of source:</th>
<th>Reference information:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pros:</td>
<td>Cons:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source 4:</th>
<th>Pros:</th>
<th>Category of source:</th>
<th>Reference information:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pros:</td>
<td>Cons:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source 5:</th>
<th>Pros:</th>
<th>Category of source:</th>
<th>Reference information:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pros:</td>
<td>Cons:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Recommended sources in order of relevance/usefulness:**

1
2
3
4
5

**Source HT.24** A decision-making chart showing an example of how you might compare and select sources
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.

Perspectives and interpretations

Identify and describe points of view, attitudes and values in primary and secondary sources

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 BCE and wrote the following account of how the Great Pyramid of Giza was constructed:
[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 [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 BCE)

For many years this account was believed to be true, along with Herodotus’ claim that over 100,000 slaves had been forced to build the pyramid.

Historians now know that Herodotus’ account is incorrect. At the time of his visit, the pyramid had been standing for over 2000 years and its construction was almost certainly not achieved with the use of slave labour as he described.

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

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.

Explanation and communication

Develop texts, particularly descriptions and explanations that use evidence from a range of sources that are acknowledged

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. They 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. Use the outline in Source HT.27 or ask your teacher to provide you with a template. Descriptions must always follow a set structure, and events must be organised in chronological order.

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. |

Source HT.27

Writing explanations

The purpose of explanations is to tell how or why something happened. They provide the reader with a greater understanding of the causes and effects of past events. Explanations must be clear and factual. They should not contain opinions or emotional language. There must be supporting evidence from a variety of sources for each point made. These sources must be acknowledged in a bibliography using the correct referencing format.

All historical writing needs to be acknowledged. At the end of your writing you must always include a full reference list or bibliography. This list shows your readers the range of different sources of evidence you used and where they can be found. For detailed information on this refer to the skill ‘Identify and locate relevant sources, using ICT and other methods’, which was covered earlier.

Use a range of communication forms (oral, graphic, written) 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.

Source HT.28
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.

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 is 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!

Check your learning HT.5

Remember and understand
1. Historical sources always reflect the perspective of their writer. Give two examples of factors that may influence a writer’s point of view or perspective.
2. Why might the Greek historian Herodotus have written that the Great Pyramid at Giza was constructed using slave labour?

Apply and analyse
3. Your teacher has asked you to write an essay on the life of a slave in Egypt. Would you use a description or an explanation for this task? Why?
4. In explaining why an event occurred in history, would it be acceptable to present your own opinions? Why or why not?

Create and evaluate
5. Your fellow class members have presented an audiovisual presentation on the gods and goddesses of ancient Egypt. Your teacher has asked each member of the audience to complete a peer evaluation by creating five assessment criteria. Present your five assessment criteria in order of importance.