Classical Greece, 2000 B.C.–300 B.C.

Previewing Main Ideas

**POWER AND AUTHORITY**  In the Greek city-state of Athens, a new form of government developed—democracy—in which citizens exercised power.

_Culture_ What geographic factors might have confined democracy largely to Athens?

**CULTURAL INTERACTION**  Alexander the Great spread Greek culture throughout much of Asia. Greek, Egyptian, and Asian cultures then blended to create Hellenistic culture.

_Culture_ Why might the sea have been important to the spread of Greek culture?

**EMPIRE BUILDING**  Athens assumed control of a defense league and eventually built it into an empire. Later, Alexander conquered the Persian Empire and beyond to create a vast new empire of his own.

_Culture_ What geographic features might have strengthened the Macedonian desire to build an empire to the south and east?

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**INTEGRATED TECHNOLOGY**

- eEdition
  - Interactive Maps
  - Interactive Visuals
  - Interactive Primary Sources

**INTERNET RESOURCES**

Go to classzone.com for:
  - Research Links
  - Internet Activities
  - Primary Sources
  - Chapter Quiz
Greek City-States, 750 B.C.

**Topography**

- Elevation profile of Greece at 38°N

**Key Events**

- **1200 B.C.**
  - Trojan war takes place.

- **750 B.C.**
  - Greek city-states flourish.

- **479 B.C.**
  - Greece triumphs in Persian Wars.

- **334 B.C.**
  - Alexander starts to build his empire.

**Dates**

- **1000 B.C.**
  - Zhou Dynasty begins in China.
  - Zhou animal mask

- **1027 B.C.**
  - Zhou Dynasty

- **850 B.C.**
  - Assyrians expand their empire.

- **500 B.C.**
  - Zapotec of Mexico build Monte Albán.
  - Zapotec shield

- **321 B.C.**
  - Chandragupta founds Mauryan Empire in India.
What does this art tell you about Greek culture?

When you think of ancient Greece, what is the first thing that comes to mind? You can learn a lot about a culture from its works of art and literature, as well as from the statements of its leaders, philosophers, and historians. Look at these Greek works of art and read the quotations.

“As an oak tree falls on the hillside crushing all that lies beneath, so Theseus. He presses out the life, the brute’s savage life, and now it lies dead.”

EDITH HAMILTON, “Theseus,” Mythology

This plate shows Theseus, the greatest hero of Athens, killing the mythological beast the Minotaur.

“For we are lovers of the beautiful in our tastes.”

THUCYDIDES, a historian

EXAMINING the ISSUES

- What does the relief panel suggest about the role of democracy in Greek society?
- Why might the Greeks decorate pottery with a heroic scene?
- Why might the Greeks place graceful statues in and around their public buildings?

Break into small groups and discuss what these artworks suggest about ancient Greek culture. Also discuss what the quotations tell you about the culture and its ideals. As you read about ancient Greece, think about how its culture influenced later civilizations.
Cultures of the Mountains and the Sea

**MAIN IDEA**

**CULTURAL INTERACTION** The roots of Greek culture are based on interaction of the Mycenaean, Minoan, and Dorian cultures.

**WHY IT MATTERS NOW**

The seeds of much of Western cultural heritage were planted during this time period.

**TERMS & NAMES**

- Mycenaean
- Trojan War
- Dorian
- Homer
- epic
- myth

**SETTING THE STAGE**

In ancient times, Greece was not a united country. It was a collection of separate lands where Greek-speaking people lived. By 3000 B.C., the Minoans lived on the large Greek island of Crete. The Minoans created an elegant civilization that had great power in the Mediterranean world. At the same time, people from the plains along the Black Sea and Anatolia migrated and settled in mainland Greece.

**Geography Shapes Greek Life**

Ancient Greece consisted mainly of a mountainous peninsula jutting out into the Mediterranean Sea. It also included about 2,000 islands in the Aegean (ih•JEE•uhn) and Ionian (eye•OH•nee•uhn) seas. Lands on the eastern edge of the Aegean were also part of ancient Greece. (See the map on page 121.) The region’s physical geography directly shaped Greek traditions and customs.

**The Sea**

The sea shaped Greek civilization just as rivers shaped the ancient civilizations of Egypt, the Fertile Crescent, India, and China. In one sense, the Greeks did not live on a land but around a sea. Greeks rarely had to travel more than 85 miles to reach the coastline. The Aegean Sea, the Ionian Sea, and the neighboring Black Sea were important transportation routes for the Greek people. These seaways linked most parts of Greece. As the Greeks became skilled sailors, sea travel connected Greece with other societies. Sea travel and trade were also important because Greece lacked natural resources, such as timber, precious metals, and usable farmland.

**The Land**

Rugged mountains covered about three-fourths of ancient Greece. The mountain chains ran mainly from northwest to southeast along the Balkan Peninsula. Mountains divided the land into a number of different regions. This significantly influenced Greek political life. Instead of a single government, the Greeks developed small, independent communities within each little valley and its surrounding mountains. Most Greeks gave their loyalty to these local communities.

In ancient times, the uneven terrain also made land transportation difficult. Of the few roads that existed, most were little more than dirt paths. It often took travelers several days to complete a journey that might take a few hours today.

Much of the land itself was stony, and only a small part of it was arable, or suitable for farming. Tiny but fertile valleys covered about one-fourth of Greece.

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**TAKING NOTES**

**Categorizing**

Use a chart to organize information about the roots of Greek culture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Culture</th>
<th>Contribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Minoan</td>
<td>Writing System pottery designs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mycenaean</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dorian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The small streams that watered these valleys were not suitable for large-scale irrigation projects. With so little fertile farmland or fresh water for irrigation, Greece was never able to support a large population. Historians estimate that no more than a few million people lived in ancient Greece at any given time. Even this small population could not expect the land to support a life of luxury. A desire for more living space, grassland for raising livestock, and adequate farmland may have been factors that motivated the Greeks to seek new sites for colonies.

The Climate: Climate was the third important environmental influence on Greek civilization. Greece has a varied climate, with temperatures averaging 48 degrees Fahrenheit in the winter and 80 degrees Fahrenheit in the summer. In ancient times, these moderate temperatures supported an outdoor life for many Greek citizens. Men spent much of their leisure time at outdoor public events. They met often to discuss public issues, exchange news, and take an active part in civic life.

Mycenaean Civilization Develops

As Chapter 3 explained, a large wave of Indo-Europeans migrated from the Eurasian steppes to Europe, India, and Southwest Asia. Some of the people who settled on the Greek mainland around 2000 B.C. were later known as Mycenaeans. The name came from their leading city, Mycenae.

Mycenae was located in southern Greece on a steep, rocky ridge and surrounded by a protective wall more than 20 feet thick. The fortified city of Mycenae could withstand almost any attack. From Mycenae, a warrior-king ruled the surrounding villages and farms. Strong rulers controlled the areas around other Mycenaean cities, such as Tiryns and Athens. These kings dominated Greece from about 1600 to 1100 B.C.
Contact with Minoans Sometime after 1500 B.C., through either trade or war, the Mycenaeans came into contact with the Minoan civilization. From their contact with the Minoans, the Mycenaeans saw the value of seaborne trade. Mycenaean traders soon sailed throughout the eastern Mediterranean, making stops at Aegean islands, coastal towns in Anatolia, and ports in Syria, Egypt, Italy, and Crete.

The Minoans also influenced the Mycenaeans in other ways. The Mycenaeans adapted the Minoan writing system to the Greek language and decorated vases with Minoan designs. The Minoan-influenced culture of Mycenae formed the core of Greek religious practice, art, politics, and literature. Indeed, Western civilization has its roots in these two early Mediterranean civilizations.

The Trojan War During the 1200s B.C., the Mycenaeans fought a ten-year war against Troy, an independent trading city located in Anatolia. According to legend, a Greek army besieged and destroyed Troy because a Trojan prince had kidnapped Helen, the beautiful wife of a Greek king.

For many years, historians thought that the legendary stories told of the Trojan War were totally fictional. However, excavations conducted in northwestern Turkey during the 1870s by German archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann suggested that the stories of the Trojan War might have been based on real cities, people, and events. Further archaeological studies conducted in the 20th century support Schliemann’s findings. Although the exact nature of the Trojan War remains unclear, this attack on Troy was almost certainly one of the last Mycenaean battle campaigns.

Greek Culture Declines Under the Dorians

Not long after the Trojan War, Mycenaean civilization collapsed. Around 1200 B.C., sea raiders attacked and burned many Mycenaean cities. According to tradition, a new group of people, the Dorians (DAWR•ee•uhnz), moved into the war-torn countryside. The Dorians spoke a dialect of Greek and may have been distant relatives of the Bronze Age Greeks.

The Dorians were far less advanced than the Mycenaeans. The economy collapsed and trade eventually came to a standstill soon after their arrival. Most important to historians, Greeks appear to have temporarily lost the art of writing during the Dorian Age. No written record exists from the 400-year period between 1150 and 750 B.C. As a result, little is known about this period of Greek history.

Epics of Homer Lacking writing, the Greeks of this time learned about their history through the spoken word. According to tradition, the greatest storyteller was a blind man named Homer. Little is known of his personal life. Some historians believe that Homer composed his epics, narrative poems celebrating heroic deeds, sometime between 750 and 700 B.C. The Trojan War forms the backdrop for one of Homer’s great epic poems, the Iliad.
The heroes of the *Iliad* are warriors: the fierce Greek Achilles (uh•KIHL•eez) and the courageous and noble Hector of Troy. In the following dramatic excerpt, Hector’s wife begs him not to fight Achilles:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

“My dear husband, your warlike spirit will be your death. You’ve no compassion for your infant child, for me, your sad wife, who before long will be your widow. . . . As for me, it would be better, if I’m to lose you, to be buried in the ground. . . .”

Great Hector . . . replied, “Wife, all this concerns me, too. But I’d be disgraced, dreadfully shamed . . ., if I should slink away from war, like a coward. [F]or I have learned always to be brave, to fight alongside Trojans at the front, striving to win great fame for my father, for myself.”

_HOMER, the *Iliad* (translated by Ian Johnston)_

Hector’s response to his wife gives insight into the Greek heroic ideal of *aretē* (ar•uh•TAY), meaning virtue and excellence. A Greek could display this ideal on the battlefield in combat or in athletic contests on the playing field.

**Greeks Create Myths** The Greeks developed a rich set of *myths*, or traditional stories, about their gods. The works of Homer and another epic, *Theogony* by Hesiod, are the source of much of Greek mythology. Through the myths, the Greeks sought to understand the mysteries of nature and the power of human passions. Myths explained the changing of the seasons, for example.

Greeks attributed human qualities, such as love, hate, and jealousy, to their gods. The gods quarreled and competed with each other constantly. However, unlike humans, the gods lived forever. Zeus, the ruler of the gods, lived on Mount Olympus with his wife, Hera. Hera was often jealous of Zeus’ relationships with other women. Athena, goddess of wisdom, was Zeus’ daughter and his favorite child. The Greeks thought of Athena as the guardian of cities, especially of Athens, which was named in her honor. You will learn about Athens and other cities in Section 2.
MAIN IDEA
POWER AND AUTHORITY  The growth of city-states in Greece led to the development of several political systems, including democracy.

WHY IT MATTERS NOW
Many political systems in today’s world mirror the varied forms of government that evolved in Greece.

TERMS & NAMES
• polis
• acropolis
• monarchy
• aristocracy
• oligarchy
• tyrant
• democracy
• helot
• phalanx
• Persian Wars

SETTING THE STAGE  During the Dorian period, Greek civilization experienced decline. However, two things changed life in Greece. First, Dorians and Mycenaeans alike began to identify less with the culture of their ancestors and more with the local area where they lived. Second, by the end of this period, the method of governing areas had changed from tribal or clan control to more formal governments—the city-states.

Rule and Order in Greek City-States
By 750 B.C., the city-state, or polis, was the fundamental political unit in ancient Greece. A polis was made up of a city and its surrounding countryside, which included numerous villages. Most city-states controlled between 50 and 500 square miles of territory. They were often home to fewer than 10,000 residents. At the agora, or marketplace, or on a fortified hilltop called an acropolis (uh•KRAHP•uh•lihs), citizens gathered to discuss city government.

Greek Political Structures  Greek city-states had many different forms of government. (See the chart on page 128.) In some, a single person, called a king, ruled in a government called a monarchy. Others adopted an aristocracy (AR•ih•STAHK•ruh•see), a government ruled by a small group of noble, landowning families. These very rich families often gained political power after serving in a king’s military cavalry. Later, as trade expanded, a new class of wealthy merchants and artisans emerged in some cities. When these groups became dissatisfied with aristocratic rule, they sometimes took power or shared it with the nobility. They formed an oligarchy, a government ruled by a few powerful people.

Tyrants Seize Power  In many city-states, repeated clashes occurred between rulers and the common people. Powerful individuals, usually nobles or other wealthy citizens, sometimes seized control of the government by appealing to the common people for support. These rulers were called tyrants. Unlike today, tyrants generally were not considered harsh and cruel. Rather, they were looked upon as leaders who would work for the interests of the ordinary people. Once in power, for example, tyrants often set up building programs to provide jobs and housing for their supporters.
Athens Builds a Limited Democracy

The idea of representative government also began to take root in some city-states, particularly Athens. Like other city-states, Athens went through power struggles between rich and poor. However, Athenians avoided major political upheavals by making timely reforms. Athenian reformers moved toward democracy, rule by the people. In Athens, citizens participated directly in political decision making.

Building Democracy The first step toward democracy came when a nobleman named Draco took power. In 621 B.C., Draco developed a legal code based on the idea that all Athenians, rich and poor, were equal under the law. Draco’s code dealt very harshly with criminals, making death the punishment for practically every crime. It also upheld such practices as debt slavery, in which debtors worked as slaves to repay their debts.

More far-reaching democratic reforms were introduced by Solon (SO•luhn), who came to power in 594 B.C. Stating that no citizen should own another citizen, Solon outlawed debt slavery. He organized all Athenian citizens into four social classes according to wealth. Only members of the top three classes could hold political office. However, all citizens, regardless of class, could participate in the Athenian assembly. Solon also introduced the legal concept that any citizen could bring charges against wrongdoers.

Around 500 B.C., the Athenian leader Cleisthenes (KL•Y•thuh•NEEZ) introduced further reforms. He broke up the power of the nobility by organizing citizens into ten groups based on where they lived rather than on their wealth. He also increased the power of the assembly by allowing all citizens to submit laws for debate and passage. Cleisthenes then created the Council of Five Hundred. This body proposed laws and counseled the assembly. Council members were chosen by lot, or at random.

The reforms of Cleisthenes allowed Athenian citizens to participate in a limited democracy. However, citizenship was restricted to a relatively small number of Athenians. Only free adult male property owners born in Athens were considered citizens. Women, slaves, and foreigners were excluded from citizenship and had few rights.

Athenian Education For the most part, only the sons of wealthy families received formal education. Schooling began around the age of seven and largely prepared boys to be good citizens. They studied reading, grammar, poetry, history, mathematics, and music. Because citizens were expected to debate issues in the assembly, boys also received training in logic and public speaking. And since the Greeks believed that it was important to train and develop the body, part of each day
was spent in athletic activities. When they got older, boys went to military school to help them prepare for another important duty of citizenship—defending Athens.

Athenian girls did not attend school. Rather, they were educated at home by their mothers and other female members of the household. They learned about child-rearing, weaving cloth, preparing meals, managing the household, and other skills that helped them become good wives and mothers. Some women were able to take their education farther and learned to read and write. A few even became accomplished writers. Even so, most women had very little to do with Athenian life outside the boundaries of family and home.

**Sparta Builds a Military State**

Located in the southern part of Greece known as the Peloponnesus (PEHL•uh•puh•NEE•sus), Sparta was nearly cut off from the rest of Greece by the Gulf of Corinth. (See the map on page 121.) In outlook and values, Sparta contrasted sharply with the other city-states, Athens in particular. Instead of a democracy, Sparta built a military state.

**Sparta Dominates Messenians** Around 725 B.C., Sparta conquered the neighboring region of Messenia and took over the land. The Messenians became helots (HEHL•uhts), peasants forced to stay on the land they worked. Each year, the Spartans demanded half of the helots’ crops. In about 650 B.C., the Messenians, resentful of the Spartans’ harsh rule, revolted. The Spartans, who were outnumbered eight to one, just barely put down the revolt. Shocked at their vulnerability, they dedicated themselves to making Sparta a strong city-state.
Festivals and Sports

The ancient Greeks believed that strong healthy citizens helped strengthen the city-state. They often included sporting events in the festivals they held to honor their gods. The most famous sports festival was the Olympic games, held every four years. Records of Olympics winners started in 776 B.C. At first, the festival lasted only one day and had only one contest, a race called the stade. Later, many other events were added, including a long-distance race, wrestling, the long jump, the javelin, and the discus throw. The Olympics was expanded to five days in 472 B.C.

Women’s Sports

Women had their own sports festival in ancient Greece. It was the festival devoted to Hera, the wife of Zeus. Like the Olympics, the Hera festival was held every four years. One of the main events was a foot race for unmarried women.

Discus Thrower

Ancient athletes, such as this discus thrower, would be considered amateurs today because they received no pay for competing. However, they trained rigorously for months at a time. Victors were given lavish gifts and were hailed as heroes. Many athletes competed full-time.

Mount Olympus

The ancient Olympics honored Zeus, the father of all Greek gods and goddesses. According to legend, Zeus hurled a thunderbolt from Mount Olympus at a spot in rural Greece. An altar for Zeus was built on that spot. Eventually, many buildings were erected around the altar. This area was called Olympia and became the site for the Olympic games.

SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Visual Sources

1. Evaluating Decisions Do you think it was a good decision for the Greeks to add more sporting events to the Olympics? Explain.

2. Comparing and Contrasting How are today’s Olympics similar to and different from the Olympics in ancient Greece?
Sparta’s Government and Society  Spartan government had several branches. An assembly, which was composed of all Spartan citizens, elected officials and voted on major issues. The Council of Elders, made up of 30 older citizens, proposed laws on which the assembly voted. Five elected officials carried out the laws passed by the assembly. These men also controlled education and prosecuted court cases. In addition, two kings ruled over Sparta’s military forces.

The Spartan social order consisted of several groups. The first were citizens descended from the original inhabitants of the region. This group included the ruling families who owned the land. A second group, noncitizens who were free, worked in commerce and industry. The helots, at the bottom of Spartan society, were little better than slaves. They worked in the fields or as house servants.

Spartan Daily Life  From around 600 until 371 B.C., Sparta had the most powerful army in Greece. However, the Spartan people paid a high price for their military supremacy. All forms of individual expression were discouraged. As a result, Spartans did not value the arts, literature, or other artistic and intellectual pursuits. Spartans valued duty, strength, and discipline over freedom, individuality, beauty, and learning. Since men were expected to serve in the army until the age of 60, their daily life centered on military training. Boys left home when they were 7 and moved into army barracks, where they stayed until they reached the age of 30. They spent their days marching, exercising, and fighting. They undertook these activities in all weathers, wearing only light tunics and no shoes. At night, they slept without blankets on hard benches. Their daily diet consisted of little more than a bowl of coarse black porridge. Those who were not satisfied were encouraged to steal food. Such training produced tough, resourceful soldiers.

Spartan girls also led hardy lives. They received some military training, and they also ran, wrestled, and played sports. Like boys, girls were taught to put service to Sparta above everything—even love of family. A legend says that Spartan women told husbands and sons going to war to “come back with your shield or on it.” As adults, Spartan women had considerable freedom, especially in running the family estates when their husbands were on active military service. Such freedom surprised men from other Greek city-states. This was particularly true of Athens, where women were expected to remain out of sight and quietly raise children.

The Persian Wars
Danger of a helot revolt led Sparta to become a military state. Struggles between rich and poor led Athens to become a democracy. The greatest danger of all—invasion by Persian armies—moved Sparta and Athens alike to their greatest glory.

A New Kind of Army Emerges  During the Dorian Age, only the rich could afford bronze spears, shields, breastplates, and chariots. Thus, only the rich served in armies. Iron later replaced bronze in the manufacture of weapons. Harder than bronze, iron was more common and therefore cheaper. Soon, ordinary citizens could afford to arm and defend themselves. The shift from bronze to iron weapons made possible a new kind of army composed not only of the rich but also of merchants, artisans, and small landowners. The foot soldiers of this army, called hoplites, stood side by side, each holding a spear in one hand and a shield in the other. This fearsome formation, or phalanx (FAY-langks), became the most powerful fighting force in the ancient world.

Battle at Marathon  The Persian Wars, between Greece and the Persian Empire, began in Ionia on the coast of Anatolia. (See the map on page 132.) Greeks had long been settled there, but around 546 B.C., the Persians conquered the area. When
Ionian Greeks revolted, Athens sent ships and soldiers to their aid. The Persian king Darius the Great defeated the rebels and then vowed to destroy Athens in revenge.

In 490 B.C., a Persian fleet carried 25,000 men across the Aegean Sea and landed northeast of Athens on a plain called Marathon. There, 10,000 Athenians, neatly arranged in phalanxes, waited for them. Vastly outnumbered, the Greek soldiers charged. The Persians, who wore light armor and lacked training in this kind of land combat, were no match for the disciplined Greek phalanx. After several hours, the Persians fled the battlefield. The Persians lost more than 6,000 men. In contrast, Athenian casualties numbered fewer than 200.

**Pheidippides Brings News** Though the Athenians won the battle, their city now stood defenseless. According to tradition, army leaders chose a young runner named Pheidippides (fy•DIP•uh•DEEZ) to race back to Athens. He brought news of the Persian defeat so that Athenians would not give up the city without a fight. Dashing the 26 miles from Marathon to Athens, Pheidippides delivered his message, “Rejoice, we conquer.” He then collapsed and died. Moving rapidly from Marathon, the Greek army arrived in Athens not long after. When the Persians sailed into the harbor, they found the city heavily defended. They quickly put to sea in retreat.

**Thermopylae and Salamis** Ten years later, in 480 B.C., Darius the Great’s son and successor, Xerxes (ZURK•seez), assembled an enormous invasion force to crush Athens. The Greeks were badly divided. Some city-states agreed to fight the Persians. Others thought it wiser to let Xerxes destroy Athens and return home. Some Greeks even fought on the Persian side. Consequently, Xerxes’ army met no resistance as it marched down the eastern coast of Greece.

When Xerxes came to a narrow mountain pass at Thermopylae (thur•MAHP•uh•lee), 7,000 Greeks, including 300 Spartans, blocked his way. Xerxes assumed that his troops would easily push the Greeks aside. However, he underestimated their fighting ability. The Greeks stopped the Persian advance for three days. Only a traitor’s informing the Persians about a secret path around the pass ended their brave stand. Fearing defeat, the Spartans held the Persians back while the other Greek forces retreated. The Spartans’ valiant sacrifice—all were killed—made a great impression on all Greeks.

Meanwhile, the Athenians debated how best to defend their city. Themistocles, an Athenian leader, convinced them to evacuate the city and fight at sea. They positioned their fleet in a narrow channel near the island of Salamis (SAL•uh•mihs), a few miles southwest of Athens. After setting fire to Athens, Xerxes sent his warships to
block both ends of the channel. However, the channel was very narrow, and the Persian ships had difficulty turning. Smaller Greek ships armed with battering rams attacked, puncturing the hulls of many Persian warships. Xerxes watched in horror as more than one-third of his fleet sank. He faced another defeat in 479 B.C., when the Greeks crushed the Persian army at the Battle of Plataea (pluh•TEE•uh). After this major setback, the Persians were always on the defensive.

The following year, several Greek city-states formed an alliance called the Delian (DEE•lee•uhn) League. (The alliance took its name from Delos, the island in the Aegean Sea where it had its headquarters.) League members continued to press the war against the Persians for several more years. In time, they drove the Persians from the territories surrounding Greece and ended the threat of future attacks.

Consequences of the Persian Wars With the Persian threat ended, all the Greek city-states felt a new sense of confidence and freedom. Athens, in particular, basked in the glory of the Persian defeat. During the 470s, Athens emerged as the leader of the Delian League, which had grown to some 200 city-states. Soon thereafter, Athens began to use its power to control the other league members. It moved the league headquarters to Athens, and used military force against members that challenged its authority. In time, these city-states became little more than provinces of a vast Athenian empire. The prestige of victory over the Persians and the wealth of the Athenian empire set the stage for a dazzling burst of creativity in Athens. The city was entering its brief golden age.

**TERMS & NAMES**

1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
   - polis
   - acropolis
   - monarchy
   - aristocracy
   - oligarchy
   - tyrant
   - democracy
   - helot
   - phalanx
   - Persian Wars

**USING YOUR NOTES**

2. Which of the events on your time line do you think was the most important for life today? Explain.

**MAIN IDEAS**

3. How does an aristocracy differ from an oligarchy?
4. What contributions did Solon and Cleisthenes make to the development of Athenian democracy?
5. How did Athens benefit from victory in the Persian Wars?

**CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING**

6. **CONTRASTING** How was living in Athens different from living in Sparta?
7. **MAKING INFERENCES** The introduction of cheap iron weapons meant that ordinary Greek citizens could arm themselves. How might the ability to own weapons change the outlook of ordinary citizens?
8. **ANALYZING MOTIVES** Why were the Spartan soldiers willing to sacrifice themselves at Thermopylae?
9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** Write a brief political monologue about democracy from an Athenian slave’s point of view.

**INTEGRATED TECHNOLOGY**

**INTERNET ACTIVITY** Create an illustrated history of the marathon. Go to classzone.com for your research.

**INTERNET KEYWORD**

New England town meetings are similar to the kind of democracy practiced in Ancient Greece. Use the Internet to find information on the town meeting. Present your findings to the class in a brief oral report.
Democracy and Greece’s Golden Age

CULTURAL INTERACTION
Democratic principles and classical culture flourished during Greece’s golden age.

At its height, Greece set lasting standards in art, politics, literature, and philosophy that are still influential today.

• direct democracy
• classical art
• tragedy
• comedy
• Peloponnesian War
• philosopher
• Socrates
• Plato
• Aristotle

SETTING THE STAGE
For close to 50 years (from 477 to 431 B.C.), Athens experienced a growth in intellectual and artistic learning. This period is often called the Golden Age of Athens. During this golden age, drama, sculpture, poetry, philosophy, architecture, and science all reached new heights. The artistic and literary legacies of the time continue to inspire and instruct people around the world.

Pericles’ Plan for Athens
A wise and able statesman named Pericles led Athens during much of its golden age. Honest and fair, Pericles held onto popular support for 32 years. He was a skillful politician, an inspiring speaker, and a respected general. He so dominated the life of Athens from 461 to 429 B.C. that this period often is called the Age of Pericles. He had three goals: (1) to strengthen Athenian democracy, (2) to hold and strengthen the empire, and (3) to glorify Athens.

Stronger Democracy To strengthen democracy, Pericles increased the number of public officials who were paid salaries. Earlier in Athens, most positions in public office were unpaid. Thus, only wealthier Athenian citizens could afford to

Athenian and United States Democracy

**Athenian Democracy**
- Citizens: male; 18 years old; born of citizen parents
- Laws voted on and proposed directly by assembly of all citizens
- Leader chosen by lot
- Executive branch composed of a council of 500 men
- Juries varied in size
- No attorneys; no appeals; one-day trials

**U.S. Democracy**
- Citizens: born in United States or completed citizenship process
- Representatives elected to propose and vote on laws
- Elected president
- Executive branch made up of elected and appointed officials
- Juries composed of 12 jurors
- Defendants and plaintiffs have attorneys; long appeals process

**Both**
- Political power exercised by citizens
- Three branches of government
- Legislative branch passes laws
- Executive branch carries out laws
- Judicial branch conducts trials with paid jurors
hold public office. Now even the poorest citizen could serve if elected or chosen by lot. Consequently, Athens had more citizens engaged in self-government than any other city-state in Greece. This reform made Athens one of the most democratic governments in history.

The introduction of **direct democracy**, a form of government in which citizens rule directly and not through representatives, was an important legacy of Periclean Athens. Few other city-states practiced this style of government. In Athens, male citizens who served in the assembly established all the important government policies that affected the polis. In a speech honoring the Athenian war dead, Pericles expressed his great pride in Athenian democracy:

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**PRIMARY SOURCE**

Our constitution is called a democracy because power is in the hands not of a minority but of the whole people. When it is a question of settling private disputes, everyone is equal before the law; when it is a question of putting one person before another in positions of public responsibility, what counts is not membership in a particular class, but the actual ability which the man possesses. No one, so long as he has it in him to be of service to the state, is kept in political obscurity because of poverty.

*PERICLES, “The Funeral Oration,” from Thucydides, The Peloponnesian War*

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**Athenian Empire** After the defeat of the Persians, Athens helped organize the Delian League. In time, Athens took over leadership of the league and dominated all the city-states in it. Pericles used the money from the league’s treasury to make the Athenian navy the strongest in the Mediterranean. A strong navy was important because it helped Athens strengthen the safety of its empire. Prosperity depended on gaining access to the surrounding waterways. Athens needed overseas trade to obtain supplies of grain and other raw materials.

Athenian military might allowed Pericles to treat other members of the Delian League as part of the empire. Some cities in the Peloponnesus, however, resisted Athens and formed their own alliances. As you will read later in this section, Sparta in particular was at odds with Athens.

**Glorifying Athens** Pericles also used money from the Delian League to beautify Athens. Without the league’s approval, he persuaded the Athenian assembly to vote huge sums of the league’s money to buy gold, ivory, and marble. Still more money went to pay the artists, architects, and workers who used these materials.

**Glorious Art and Architecture**

Pericles’ goal was to have the greatest Greek artists and architects create magnificent sculptures and buildings to glorify Athens. At the center of his plan was one of architecture’s noblest works—the Parthenon.

**Architecture and Sculpture** The Parthenon, a masterpiece of architectural design and craftsmanship, was not unique in style. Rather, Greek architects constructed the 23,000-square-foot building in the traditional style that had been used to create Greek temples for 200 years. This temple,
built to honor Athena, the goddess of wisdom and the protector of Athens, contained examples of Greek art that set standards for future generations of artists around the world. Pericles entrusted much of the work on the Parthenon to the sculptor Phidias (FIDH•ee•uhs). Within the temple, Phidias crafted a giant statue of Athena that not only contained such precious materials as gold and ivory, but also stood over 30 feet tall.

Phidias and other sculptors during this golden age aimed to create figures that were graceful, strong, and perfectly formed. Their faces showed neither joy nor anger, only serenity. Greek sculptors also tried to capture the grace of the idealized human body in motion. They wanted to portray ideal beauty, not realism. Their values of harmony, order, balance, and proportion became the standard of what is called classical art.

Drama and History

The Greeks invented drama as an art form and built the first theaters in the West. Theatrical productions in Athens were both an expression of civic pride and a tribute to the gods. As part of their civic duty, wealthy citizens bore the cost of producing the plays. Actors used colorful costumes, masks, and sets to dramatize stories. The plays were about leadership, justice, and the duties owed to the gods. They often included a chorus that danced, sang, and recited poetry.

**Tragedy and Comedy** The Greeks wrote two kinds of drama—tragedy and comedy. A tragedy was a serious drama about common themes such as love, hate, war, or betrayal. These dramas featured a main character, or tragic hero. The hero usually was an important person and often gifted with extraordinary abilities. A tragic flaw usually caused the hero’s downfall. Often this flaw was hubris, or excessive pride.

In ancient times, Greece had three notable dramatists who wrote tragedies. Aeschylus (EH•SUH•luhs) wrote more than 80 plays. His most famous work is the trilogy—a three-play series—*Oresteia* (oh•RRESS•TEE•uh). It is based on the family of Agamemnon, the Mycenaean king who commanded the Greeks at Troy. The plays examine the idea of justice. Sophocles (SAHF•uh•kleez) wrote more than 100 plays, including the tragedies *Oedipus the King* and *Antigone*. Euripides (yoo•RIP•uh•DEEZ), author of the play *Medea*, often featured strong women in his works.

In contrast to Greek tragedies, a comedy contained scenes filled with slapstick situations and crude humor. Playwrights often made fun of politics and respected people and ideas of the time. Aristophanes (AR•ih•STAF•uh•nee) wrote the first great comedies for the stage, including *The Birds* and *Lysistrata*. *Lysistrata* portrayed the women of Athens forcing their husbands to end the Peloponnesian War. The fact that Athenians could listen to criticism of themselves showed the freedom and openness of public discussion that existed in democratic Athens.

**History** As you learned earlier in this chapter, there are no written records from the Dorian period. The epic poems of Homer recount stories, but are not accurate recordings of what took place. Herodotus, a Greek who lived in Athens for a time, pioneered the accurate reporting of events. His book on the Persian Wars is considered the first work of history. However, the greatest historian of the classical age was the Athenian Thucydides (thoo•SID•ih•DEEZ). He believed that certain types of events and political situations recur over time. Studying those events and situations, he felt, would aid in understanding the present. The approaches Thucydides used in his work still guide historians today.
Athenians and Spartans Go to War

As Athens grew in wealth, prestige, and power, other city-states began to view it with hostility. Ill will was especially strong between Sparta and Athens. Many people thought that war between the two was inevitable. Instead of trying to avoid conflict, leaders in Athens and Sparta pressed for a war to begin, as both groups of leaders believed their own city had the advantage. Eventually, Sparta declared war on Athens in 431 B.C.

Peloponnesian War

When the Peloponnesian War between the two city-states began, Athens had the stronger navy. Sparta had the stronger army, and its location inland meant that it could not easily be attacked by sea. Pericles’ strategy was to avoid land battles with the Spartan army and wait for an opportunity to strike Sparta and its allies from the sea.

Eventually, the Spartans marched into Athenian territory. They swept over the countryside, burning the Athenian food supply. Pericles responded by bringing residents from the surrounding region inside the city walls. The city was safe from hunger as long as ships could sail into port with supplies from Athenian colonies and foreign states.

In the second year of the war, however, disaster struck Athens. A frightful plague swept through the city, killing perhaps one-third of the population, including Pericles. Although weakened, Athens continued to fight for several years. Then, in 421 B.C., the two sides, worn down by the war, signed a truce.

Sparta Gains Victory

The peace did not last long. In 415 B.C., the Athenians sent a huge fleet carrying more than 20,000 soldiers to the island of Sicily. Their plan was to destroy the city-state of Syracuse, one of Sparta’s wealthiest allies. The expedition ended with a crushing defeat in 413 B.C. In his study of the Peloponnesian War, Thucydides recalled: “[The Athenians] were destroyed with a total...
destruction—their fleet, their army—there was nothing that was not destroyed, and few out of many returned home.” Somehow, a terribly weakened Athens fended off Spartan attacks for another nine years. Finally, in 404 B.C., the Athenians and their allies surrendered. Athens had lost its empire, power, and wealth.

**Philosophers Search for Truth**

After the war, many Athenians lost confidence in democratic government and began to question their values. In this time of uncertainty, several great thinkers appeared. They were determined to seek the truth, no matter where the search led them. The Greeks called such thinkers **philosophers**, meaning “lovers of wisdom.” These Greek thinkers based their philosophy on the following two assumptions:

- The universe (land, sky, and sea) is put together in an orderly way, and subject to absolute and unchanging laws.
- People can understand these laws through logic and reason.

One group of philosophers, the Sophists, questioned people’s unexamined beliefs and ideas about justice and other traditional values. One of the most famous Sophists was Protagoras, who questioned the existence of the traditional Greek gods. He also argued that there was no universal standard of truth, saying “Man [the individual] is the measure of all things.” These were radical and dangerous ideas to many Athenians.

**Socrates** One critic of the Sophists was **Socrates** (SAHK•ruh•TEEZ). Unlike the Sophists, he believed that absolute standards did exist for truth and justice. However, he encouraged Greeks to go farther and question themselves and their moral character. Historians believe that it was Socrates who once said, “The unexamined life is not worth living.” Socrates was admired by many who understood his ideas. However, others were puzzled by this man’s viewpoints.

In 399 B.C., when Socrates was about 70 years old, he was brought to trial for “corrupting the youth of Athens” and “neglecting the city’s gods.” In his own defense, Socrates said that his teachings were good for Athens because they forced people to think about their values and actions. The jury disagreed and condemned him to death. He died by drinking hemlock, a slow-acting poison.

**Plato** A student of Socrates, **Plato** (PLAY•toh), was in his late 20s when his teacher died. Later, Plato wrote down the conversations of Socrates “as a means of philosophical investigation.” Sometime in the 370s B.C., Plato wrote his most famous work, *The Republic*. In it, he set forth his vision of a perfectly governed society. It was not a democracy. In his ideal society, all citizens would fall naturally into three groups: farmers and artisans, warriors, and the ruling class. The person with the greatest insight and intellect from the ruling class would be chosen philosopher-king. Plato’s writings dominated philosophic thought in Europe for nearly 1,500 years.
Aristotle  The philosopher Aristotle questioned the nature of the world and of human belief, thought, and knowledge. Aristotle came close to summarizing all the knowledge up to his time. He invented a method for arguing according to rules of logic. He later applied his method to problems in the fields of psychology, physics, and biology. His work provides the basis of the scientific method used today.

One of Aristotle’s most famous pupils was Alexander, son of King Philip II of Macedonia. Around 343 B.C., Aristotle accepted the king’s invitation to tutor the 13-year-old prince. Alexander’s status as a student abruptly ended three years later, when his father called him back to Macedonia. You will learn more about Alexander in Section 4.

**TERMS & NAMES**
1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
   - direct democracy
   - classical art
   - tragedy
   - comedy
   - Peloponnesian War
   - philosopher
   - Socrates
   - Plato
   - Aristotle

**USING YOUR NOTES**
2. Which of Pericles’ goals do you think had the greatest impact on the modern world? Explain your choice.

**MAIN IDEAS**
3. What steps did Pericles take to strengthen democracy in Athens?
4. What were the battle strategies of Athens and Sparta in the Peloponnesian War?
5. Why do you think some Athenians found the ideas of Socrates so disturbing?

**CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING**
6. **MAKING INFERENCES** How does the concept of hubris from Greek tragedy apply to the Peloponnesian War?
7. **DRAWING CONCLUSIONS** Was the rule of Pericles a “golden age” for Athens? Explain.
8. **FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS** Do you agree with Socrates that there are absolute standards for truth and justice? Why or why not?
9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** Write a two- or three-paragraph essay comparing the system of direct democracy adopted by Athens and the system of government Plato described in *The Republic*.

**CONNECT TO TODAY**
Creating an Illustrated Report
One of Pericles’ goals was to create magnificent sculptures and buildings to glorify Athens. Identify local buildings or works of art that were created to honor your community, state, or the United States. Write a brief illustrated report on these buildings.
Greek Art and Architecture

During ancient times, the Greeks established artistic standards that strongly influenced the later art of the Western world. The aim of Greek art was to express true ideals. To do this, the Greeks used balance, harmony, and symmetry in their art.

A major branch of Greek art was sculpture. Greek sculptors did not create realistic works, but instead made statues that reflected what they considered ideal beauty. Greek art also included pottery.

In Greek architecture, the most important type of building was the temple. The walled rooms in the center of the temple held sculptures of gods and goddesses and lavish gifts to these deities.

**RESEARCH LINKS**
For more on Greek art and architecture, go to classzone.com

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**Nike of Samothrace**
Discovered in 1863, the Nike (or Winged Victory) of Samothrace was probably created around 203 B.C. to honor a sea battle. Through its exaggerated features and artful portrayal of flowing drapery, the Nike conveys a sense of action and triumph. Currently, it is displayed at the Louvre Museum in Paris.

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**Red and Black Pottery**
Greek art also included pottery, which is known for its beauty of form and decoration. The two major types of Greek pottery are black-figure pottery (shown on the vessel) and red-figure pottery (shown on the plate). The vessel shows a scene from Greek mythology. The god Zeus, disguised as a bull, carries off a young woman named Europa. The figures on the plate demonstrate the importance of the sea and seafood in Greek culture.
The Parthenon

Built between 447 and 432 B.C., the Parthenon was a Greek temple dedicated to Athena. It serves as an excellent example of the Greek expression of harmony, symmetry, and balance. Just as Greek philosophers tried to understand the basic laws of nature, so Greek architects looked to nature for guidance. They discovered a ratio in nature that they believed created pleasing proportions and used that ratio to design the rectangles in the Parthenon.

Dramatic Masks and Theater

In the 6th century B.C., the Greeks became the first people to use theater for its own sake and not for religious rituals. They wrote two types of plays, comedy and tragedy. For both forms, actors wore theatrical masks that exaggerated human expressions. The plays were performed in outdoor theaters. The stage or dancing floor was partially surrounded by a semicircular seating area fitted into a hillside, such as the one shown here.

1. Drawing Conclusions


2. Hypothesizing

On what does our culture today base its standards of beauty? Give examples to support your hypothesis.
**MAIN IDEA**

**EMPIRE BUILDING** Alexander the Great conquered Persia and Egypt and extended his empire to the Indus River in northwest India.

**TERMS & NAMES**

- Philip II
- Macedonia
- Alexander the Great
- Darius III

**WHY IT MATTERS NOW**

Alexander’s empire extended across an area that today consists of many nations and diverse cultures.

**SETTING THE STAGE** The Peloponnesian War severely weakened several Greek city-states. This caused a rapid decline in their military and economic power. In the nearby kingdom of Macedonia, King Philip II took note. Philip dreamed of taking control of Greece and then moving against Persia to seize its vast wealth. Philip also hoped to avenge the Persian invasion of Greece in 480 B.C.

**Philip Builds Macedonian Power**

The kingdom of Macedonia, located just north of Greece, had rough terrain and a cold climate. The Macedonians were a hardy people who lived in mountain villages rather than city-states. Most Macedonian nobles thought of themselves as Greeks. The Greeks, however, looked down on the Macedonians as uncivilized foreigners who had no great philosophers, sculptors, or writers. The Macedonians did have one very important resource—their shrewd and fearless kings.

**Philip’s Army** In 359 B.C., Philip II became king of Macedonia. Though only 23 years old, he quickly proved to be a brilliant general and a ruthless politician. Philip transformed the rugged peasants under his command into a well-trained professional army. He organized his troops into phalanxes of 16 men across and 16 deep, each one armed with an 18-foot pike. Philip used this heavy phalanx formation to break through enemy lines. Then he used fast-moving cavalry to crush his disorganized opponents. After he employed these tactics successfully against northern opponents, Philip began to prepare an invasion of Greece.

**Conquest of Greece** Demosthenes (de•MAHS•thuh•NEEZ), the Athenian orator, tried to warn the Greeks of the threat Philip and his army posed. He urged them to unite against Philip. However, the Greek city-states could not agree on any single policy. Finally, in 338 B.C., Athens and Thebes—a city-state in central Greece—joined forces to fight Philip. By then, however, it was too late. The Macedonians soundly defeated the Greeks at the battle of Chaeronea (kair•uh•NEE•uh). This defeat ended Greek independence. The city-states retained self-government in local affairs. However, Greece itself remained firmly under the control of a succession of foreign powers—the first of which was Philip’s Macedonia.
Although Philip planned to invade Persia next, he never got the chance. At his daughter’s wedding in 336 B.C., he was stabbed to death by a former guardsman. Philip’s son Alexander immediately proclaimed himself king of Macedonia. Because of his accomplishments over the next 13 years, he became known as Alexander the Great.

**Alexander Defeats Persia**

Although Alexander was only 20 years old when he became king, he was well prepared to lead. Under Aristotle’s teaching, Alexander had learned science, geography, and literature. Alexander especially enjoyed Homer’s description of the heroic deeds performed by Achilles during the Trojan War. To inspire himself, he kept a copy of the *Iliad* under his pillow.

As a young boy, Alexander learned to ride a horse, use weapons, and command troops. Once he became king, Alexander promptly demonstrated that his military training had not been wasted. When the people of Thebes rebelled, he destroyed the city. About 6,000 Thebans were killed. The survivors were sold into slavery. Frightened by his cruelty, the other Greek city-states quickly gave up any idea of rebellion.

**Invasion of Persia** With Greece now secure, Alexander felt free to carry out his father’s plan to invade and conquer Persia. In 334 B.C., he led 35,000 soldiers across the Hellespont into Anatolia. (See the map on page 144.) Persian messengers raced along the Royal Road to spread news of the invasion. An army of about 40,000 men rushed to defend Persia. The two forces met at the Granicus River. Instead of waiting for the Persians to make the first move, Alexander ordered his cavalry to attack. Leading his troops into battle, Alexander smashed the Persian defenses.

Alexander’s victory at Granicus alarmed the Persian king, Darius III. Vowing to crush the invaders, he raised a huge army of between 50,000 and 75,000 men to face the Macedonians near Issus. Realizing that he was outnumbered, Alexander surprised his enemies. He ordered his finest troops to break through a weak point in the Persian lines. The army then charged straight at Darius. To avoid capture, the frightened king fled, followed by his panicked army. This victory gave Alexander control over Anatolia.

**Conquering the Persian Empire** Shaken by his defeat, Darius tried to negotiate a peace settlement. He offered Alexander all of his lands west of the Euphrates River. Alexander’s advisers urged him to accept. However, the rapid collapse of Persian resistance fired Alexander’s ambition. He rejected Darius’s offer and confidently announced his plan to conquer the entire Persian Empire.

Alexander marched into Egypt, a Persian territory, in 332 B.C. The Egyptians welcomed Alexander as a liberator. They crowned him pharaoh—or god-king. During his time in Egypt, Alexander founded the city of Alexandria at the mouth of the Nile. After leaving Egypt, Alexander moved east into Mesopotamia to confront Darius. The desperate Persian king assembled a force of some 250,000 men. The two armies met at Gaugamela (gaw•guh•MEE•luh), a small village near the ruins of ancient Nineveh. Alexander launched a massive phalanx attack followed...
by a cavalry charge. As the Persian lines crumbled, Darius again panicked and fled. Alexander’s victory at Gaugamela ended Persia’s power.

Within a short time, Alexander’s army occupied Babylon, Susa, and Persepolis. These cities yielded a huge treasure, which Alexander distributed among his army. A few months after it was occupied, Persepolis, Persia’s royal capital, burned to the ground. Some people said Alexander left the city in ashes to signal the total destruction of the Persian Empire. The Greek historian Arrian, writing about 500 years after Alexander’s time, suggested that the fire was set in revenge for the Persian burning of Athens. However, the cause of the fire remains a mystery.

**Alexander’s Other Conquests**

Alexander now reigned as the unchallenged ruler of southwest Asia. But he was more interested in expanding his empire than in governing it. He left the ruined Persepolis to pursue Darius and conquer Persia’s remote Asian provinces. Darius’s trail led Alexander to a deserted spot south of the Caspian Sea. There he found Darius already dead, murdered by one of his provincial governors. Rather than return to Babylon, Alexander continued east. During the next three years, his army fought its way across the desert wastes and mountains of Central Asia. He pushed on, hoping to reach the farthest edge of the continent.

**Alexander in India** In 326 B.C., Alexander and his army reached the Indus Valley. At the Hydaspes River, a powerful Indian army blocked their path. After winning a fierce battle, Alexander’s soldiers marched some 200 miles farther, but their morale was low. They had been fighting for 11 years and had marched more than 11,000 miles. They had endured both scorching deserts and drenching monsoon rains. The exhausted soldiers yearned to go home. Bitterly disappointed, Alexander agreed to turn back.
By the spring of 323 B.C., Alexander and his army had reached Babylon. Restless as always, Alexander announced plans to organize and unify his empire. He would construct new cities, roads, and harbors and conquer Arabia. However, Alexander never carried out his plans. He became seriously ill with a fever and died a few days later. He was just 32 years old.

**Alexander’s Legacy** After Alexander died, his Macedonian generals fought among themselves for control of his empire. Eventually, three ambitious leaders won out. Antigonus (an•TIG•uh•nuhs) became king of Macedonia and took control of the Greek city-states. Ptolemy (TAHL•uh•mee) seized Egypt, took the title of pharaoh, and established a dynasty. Seleucus (sih•LOO•kuhs) took most of the old Persian Empire, which became known as the Seleucid kingdom. Ignoring the democratic traditions of the Greek polis, these rulers and their descendants governed with complete power over their subjects.

Alexander’s conquests had an interesting cultural impact. Alexander himself adopted Persian dress and customs and married a Persian woman. He included Persians and people from other lands in his army. As time passed, Greek settlers throughout the empire also adopted new ways. A vibrant new culture emerged from the blend of Greek and Eastern customs.

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**TERMS & NAMES** 1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.
- Philip II
- Macedonia
- Alexander the Great
- Darius III

**USING YOUR NOTES**
2. Which of Alexander’s conquests do you think was the most significant? Why?

**MAIN IDEAS**
3. How was Philip II able to conquer Greece?
4. Philip II’s goal was to conquer Persia. Why did Alexander continue his campaign of conquest after this goal had been achieved?
5. What happened to Alexander’s empire after his death?

**CRITICAL THINKING & WRITING**
6. **FORMING AND SUPPORTING OPINIONS** Do you think that Alexander was worthy of the title “Great”? Explain.
7. **HYPOTHESIZING** If Alexander had lived, do you think he would have been as successful in ruling his empire as he was in building it? Explain.
8. **MAKING INFERENCES** Why do you think Alexander adopted Persian customs and included Persians in his army?
9. **WRITING ACTIVITY** In small groups, create **storyboards** for a video presentation on the growth of Alexander’s empire.

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**CONNECT TO TODAY**
**CREATING A MAP**
Use atlases to find the modern countries that occupy the lands included in Alexander’s empire. Create a map that shows the boundaries and names of these countries. Compare your map to the map of Alexander’s empire on page 144.
The Spread of Hellenistic Culture

**MAIN IDEA**

CULTURAL INTERACTION

Hellenistic culture, a blend of Greek and other influences, flourished throughout Greece, Egypt, and Asia.

**WHY IT MATTERS NOW**

Western civilization today continues to be influenced by diverse cultures.

**TERMS & NAMES**

• Hellenistic
• Alexandria
• Euclid
• Colossus of Rhodes

**SETTING THE STAGE**

Alexander’s ambitions were cultural as well as military and political. During his wars of conquest, he actively sought to meld the conquered culture with that of the Greeks. He started new cities as administrative centers and outposts of Greek culture. These cities, from Egyptian Alexandria in the south to the Asian Alexandrias in the east, adopted many Greek patterns and customs. After Alexander’s death, trade, a shared Greek culture, and a common language continued to link the cities together. But each region had its own traditional ways of life, religion, and government that no ruler could afford to overlook.

**Hellenistic Culture in Alexandria**

As a result of Alexander’s policies, a vibrant new culture emerged. Greek (also known as Hellenic) culture blended with Egyptian, Persian, and Indian influences. This blending became known as Hellenistic culture. Koine (koy•NAY), the popular spoken language used in Hellenistic cities, was the direct result of cultural blending. The word koine came from the Greek word for “common.” The language was a dialect of Greek. This language enabled educated people and traders from diverse backgrounds to communicate in cities throughout the Hellenistic world.

**Trade and Cultural Diversity**

Among the many cities of the Hellenistic world, the Egyptian city of Alexandria became the foremost center of commerce and Hellenistic civilization. Alexandria occupied a strategic site on the western edge of the Nile delta. Trade ships from all around the Mediterranean docked in its spacious harbor. Alexandria’s thriving commerce enabled it to grow and prosper. By the third century B.C., Alexandria had become an international community, with a rich mixture of customs and traditions from Egypt and from the Aegean. Its diverse population exceeded half a million people.

**Alexandria’s Attractions**

Both residents and visitors admired Alexandria’s great beauty. Broad avenues lined with statues of Greek gods divided the city into blocks. Rulers built magnificent royal palaces overlooking the harbor. A much visited tomb contained Alexander’s elaborate glass coffin. Soaring more than 350 feet over the harbor stood an enormous stone lighthouse called the Pharos. This lighthouse contained a polished bronze mirror that, at night, reflected the
light from a blazing fire. Alexandria’s greatest attractions were its famous museum and library. The museum was a temple dedicated to the Muses, the Greek goddesses of arts and sciences. It contained art galleries, a zoo, botanical gardens, and even a dining hall. The museum was an institute of advanced study.

The Alexandrian Library stood nearby. Its collection of half a million papyrus scrolls included many of the masterpieces of ancient literature. As the first true research library in the world, it helped promote the work of a gifted group of scholars. These scholars greatly respected the earlier works of classical literature and learning. They produced commentaries that explained these works.

Science and Technology

Hellenistic scholars, particularly those in Alexandria, preserved Greek and Egyptian learning in the sciences. Until the scientific advances of the 16th and 17th centuries, Alexandrian scholars provided most of the scientific knowledge available to the West.

Astronomy

Alexandria’s museum contained a small observatory in which astronomers could study the planets and stars. One astronomer, Aristarchus (AR•ih•STAHR•kuhs) of Samos, reached two significant scientific conclusions. In one, he estimated that the Sun was at least 300 times larger than Earth. Although he greatly underestimated the Sun’s true size, Aristarchus disproved the widely held belief that the Sun was smaller than Greece. In another conclusion, he proposed that Earth and the other planets revolve around the Sun. Unfortunately for science, other astronomers refused to support Aristarchus’ theory. In the second century A.D., Alexandria’s last renowned astronomer, Ptolemy, incorrectly placed Earth at the center of the solar system. Astronomers accepted this view for the next 14 centuries.

Eratosthenes (EHR•uh•TAHS•thuh•NEEZ), the director of the Alexandrian Library, tried to calculate Earth’s true size. Using geometry, he computed Earth’s circumference at between 28,000 and 29,000 miles. Modern measurements put the circumference at 24,860 miles. As well as a highly regarded astronomer and mathematician, Eratosthenes also was a poet and historian.

Mathematics and Physics

In their work, Eratosthenes and Aristarchus used a geometry text compiled by Euclid (YOO•klihd). Euclid was a highly regarded

**Greek Astronomy**

**Earth**

Eratosthenes’ estimate of the circumference—between 28,000 and 29,000 miles

actual circumference—24,860 miles

**The Sun**

Aristarchus’ estimate—300 times the size of Earth

The Sun is actually 1.3 million times the size of Earth.

**The Solar System**

Ptolemy’s view of the universe

- Saturn
- Jupiter
- Mars
- Venus
- Mercury
- Moon
- Earth

**SKILLBUILDER: Interpreting Charts**

1. Comparing  What were Greek astronomers’ ideas most incorrect compared with modern concepts?
2. Clarifying  Which estimate is closest to modern measurements? How could the Hellenists be so accurate?
Pythagorean Theorem
Geometry students remember Pythagoras for his theorem on the triangle, but its principles were known earlier. This formula states that the square of a right triangle’s hypotenuse equals the sum of the squared lengths of the two remaining sides. Chinese mathematicians knew this theory perhaps as early as 1100 B.C. Egyptian surveyors put it to practical use even earlier.

However, the work of the school that Pythagoras founded caught the interest of later mathematicians. Shown are Euclid’s proof in Greek along with a Chinese and an Arabic translation. The Arabs who conquered much of Alexander’s empire spread Greek mathematical learning to the West. The formula became known as the Pythagorean theorem throughout the world.

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

Archimedes took a . . . ship . . . which had just been dragged up on land with great labor and many men; in this he placed her usual complement of men and cargo, and then sitting at some distance, without any trouble, by gently pulling with his hand the end of a system of pulleys, he dragged it towards him with as smooth and even a motion as if it were passing over the sea.

**PLUTARCH, Parallel Lives: Marcellus**

Using Archimedes’ ideas, Hellenistic scientists later built a force pump, pneumatic machines, and even a steam engine.

**Philosophy and Art**

The teachings of Plato and Aristotle continued to be very influential in Hellenistic philosophy. In the third century B.C., however, philosophers became concerned with how people should live their lives. Two major philosophies developed out of this concern.

**Stoicism and Epicureanism** A Greek philosopher named Zeno (335–263 B.C.) founded the school of philosophy called Stoicism (STOH•ih•sit•z•uhm). Stoics proposed that people should live virtuous lives in harmony with the will of god or the natural laws that God established to run the universe. They also preached that...
1. For each term or name, write a sentence explaining its significance.

- Hellenistic
- Alexandria
- Euclid
- Archimedes
- Colossus of Rhodes

2. Which Hellenistic achievement had the greatest impact? Why?

3. How did trade contribute to cultural diversity in the Hellenistic city of Alexandria?

4. How did Euclid influence some of the developments in astronomy during the Hellenistic period?

5. What did Stoicism and Epicureanism have in common?

6. SYNTHESIZING Describe how the growth of Alexander’s empire spread Greek culture.

7. MAKING INFERENCES What do you think was the greatest scientific advance of the Hellenistic period? Why?

8. COMPARING How was the purpose served by architecture and sculpture in the Hellenistic period similar to the purpose served by these arts in the Golden Age of Athens?

9. WRITING ACTIVITY The Hellenistic culture brought together Egyptian, Greek, Persian, and Indian influences. Write a brief essay showing how American culture is a combination of different influences.

Archimedes developed, or provided the ideas for, many practical devices—the lever, for example. Consider some of the everyday implements that are related to these devices. Create a collage of pictures of these implements. Accompany each visual with a brief annotation.
Chapter 5 Assessment

TERMS & NAMES
For each term or name below, briefly explain its connection to Classical Greece.

1. Trojan War 5. classical art
2. Homer 6. Aristotle
3. polis 7. Alexander the Great
4. democracy 8. Hellenistic

MAIN IDEAS
Cultures of the Mountains and the Sea
Section 1 (pages 123–126)

9. Why was sea travel important to early Greece?
10. Why did the Greeks develop myths?

Warring City-States Section 2 (pages 127–133)

11. What were the two most powerful city-states in early Greece?
12. What were the consequences of the Persian Wars?

Democracy and Greece’s Golden Age
Section 3 (pages 134–141)

13. What were Pericles’ three goals for Athens?
14. Who were the three renowned philosophers of the golden age?

Alexander’s Empire Section 4 (pages 142–145)

15. Why was Greece so easily conquered by Macedonia?
16. What was the full extent of Alexander’s empire before his death?

The Spread of Hellenistic Culture
Section 5 (pages 146–149)

17. What four influences blended to form Hellenistic culture?
18. What are some of the scientific achievements of the Hellenistic period?

CRITICAL THINKING
1. USING YOUR NOTES
In a diagram like the one below, show the development of direct democracy in Athens.

2. DRAWING CONCLUSIONS
“Years of uncertainty and insecurity have changed the country. It once was Athens, but now it has become Sparta.” What do you think this statement means? Use information from the chapter to illustrate your answer.

3. ANALYZING ISSUES
Based on the Visual Summary below and your review of the chapter, how do you think Classical Greece has influenced the United States? Support your answer with examples.

4. MAKING INFERENCES
Consider Pericles and Alexander the Great. What qualifications or characteristics do you think are needed for a leader to build an empire? Why?

VISUAL SUMMARY

The Legacy of Greece

Culture
- Greek language
- Mythology about gods and goddesses
- Olympic games
- Philosophers search for truth

Arts
- Drama and poetry
- Sculpture portraying ideals of beauty
- Painted pottery showing scenes of Greek life
- Classical architecture

Science and Technology
- Disagreement whether Sun or Earth at center of universe
- Euclid’s geometry textbook
- Accurate estimate of Earth’s circumference
- Development of lever, pulley, and pump

Government
- Direct democracy; citizens rule by majority vote
- Citizens bring charges of wrongdoing
- Code of laws
- Expansion of citizenship to all free adult males, except foreigners
1. Why does Aristotle support the middle class as the location of power?
   A. He finds poor people too backward to rule.
   B. He thinks the rich are too greedy.
   C. The middle class is very enthusiastic about democracy.
   D. The middle class is steady and is less eager for change.

2. According to Aristotle, what often emerges from an “over-enthusiastic democracy”?
   A. tyranny
   B. oligarchy
   C. monarchy
   D. aristocracy

3. This scene shows a battle formation used by the Greeks. What is the formation called?
   A. shield and spear
   B. massed formation
   C. phalanx
   D. acropolis

Use the quotation and your knowledge of world history to answer questions 1 and 2.
Additional Test Practice, pp. S1–S33

Use this scene pictured on a piece of Greek pottery and your knowledge of world history to answer question 3.

ALTERNATIVE ASSESSMENT

1. **Interact with History**
   On page 122, you drew certain conclusions about Greek culture and values without knowing details of Greek history. Now that you have read the chapter, reexamine the artworks and reread the Greeks’ words. Conduct a class debate about how the art and ideals of Greece have influenced modern society.

2. **Writing about History**
   Write an epic poem (between two and three pages long) about an event or an individual that you read about in Chapter 5. Possible subjects you might select include the Trojan War, the Persian Wars, the Peloponnesian War, Hector, Pericles, and Alexander. In writing your poem, try to imitate the style of the Iliad or the Odyssey.

INTEGRATED TECHNOLOGY

**TEST PRACTICE** Go to classzone.com
- Diagnostic tests
- Strategies
- Tutorials
- Additional practice

**NetExplorations: The Parthenon**
Go to NetExplorations at classzone.com to learn more about the Parthenon. Search the Internet for additional information on the Parthenon and the sculptor Phidias, who oversaw its construction. Use the information you gather to record a mock radio or television interview with Phidias, and play it in class. Have Phidias answer questions about
- his designs for the statues and carvings that adorned the Parthenon.
- the significance of the Parthenon for his fellow Athenians.
- other works of art he created.
UNIT 3
An Age of Exchange and Encounter
500–1500
Venice at the time of Marco Polo was a vibrant, bustling city. This depiction of the city comes from the *Romance of Alexander*, a 14th-century illuminated manuscript that included a French account of Polo’s travels.

**Comparing & Contrasting**

**Trade Networks**

In Unit 3, you will learn how trade began to connect regions of the world and how it made the exchange of goods and ideas easier. At the end of the unit, you will have a chance to compare and contrast five different trade networks. (See pages 430–435.)