Ancient Greece
1900–133 B.C.

Key Events
As you read, look for the key events in the history of early Greece.
• Athens and Sparta emerged as the leading Greek city-states.
• The Greek military defeated the Persian army.
• Greek theatre, arts, and architecture flourished during the Classical Age.
• Greek philosophers such as Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle established the foundations of Western philosophy.

The Impact Today
• The Olympic games are held every two years.
• Greek architecture is still considered the classical model of grace and symmetry.
• Greek plays continue to be performed throughout the world.
• Current democratic systems of government and citizenship are based on ideas originally developed by the Greeks.

World History Video The Chapter 4 video, “The Early Olympics,” chronicles the origins of the Olympic games.
Plato’s School, a mosaic from the Hellenistic period

The goddess Athena

750 B.C.  Dark Age of Greece ends

900 B.C.  700 B.C.  500 B.C.  300 B.C.  100 B.C.

700 B.C.  Athens becomes a unified polis

500 B.C.  Classical Greece flourishes

431 B.C.  Great Peloponnesian War begins

Alexander the Great

323 B.C.  Alexander the Great dies at age 32

405 B.C.  Athenian Empire is destroyed

750 B.C.  Dark Age of Greece ends

HISTORY
Chapter Overview
Visit the Glencoe World History Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on Chapter 4—Chapter Overview to preview chapter information.
In 431 B.C., war erupted in Greece as two very different Greek states—Athens and Sparta—fought for domination of the Greek world. Strengthened by its democratic ideals, Athens felt secure behind its walls.

In the first winter of the war, the Athenians held a public funeral to honor those who had died in combat. On the day of the ceremony, the citizens of Athens joined in a procession. The relatives of the dead mourned their loved ones.

As was the custom in Athens, one leading citizen was asked to address the crowd. On this day it was Pericles who spoke to the people. He talked about the greatness of Athens and reminded the Athenians of the strength of their political system.

“Our constitution,” Pericles said, “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 . . . is kept in political obscurity because of poverty. And, just as our political life is free and open, so is our day-to-day life in our relations with each other. . . . Here each individual is interested not only in his own affairs but in the affairs of the state as well.”

Pericles giving his famous Funeral Oration

**Pericles Addresses Athens**

In his famous speech, called the Funeral Oration, Pericles describes the Greek ideal of democracy and the importance of the individual. This is but one example of how the Greeks laid the intellectual foundations of Western civilization. They asked basic questions about the purpose of life, divine forces, and truth. The Greeks not only strove to answer these questions, they also created a system of logical thought for answering such questions. This system of thought remains worthwhile today.

**History and You** Reread the quote by Pericles. What portions of Athenian democracy described in this passage are found in the Constitution of the United States? Prepare a report explaining your position with examples from the United States Constitution.
Main Ideas
- Mycenaean civilization flourished in Greece between 1600 and 1100 B.C.
- The Greeks used the Iliad and Odyssey to present role models of the values of courage, honor, and excellence.

Key Terms
epic poem, arete

Preview of Events

1450 B.C. Minoan civilization on Crete collapses
1300 B.C. Mycenaean civilization peaks
750 B.C. Dark Age of Greece ends

People to Identify
Minoans, Mycenaeans, Homer

Places to Locate
Aegean Sea, Black Sea, Crete, Ionia

Preview Questions
1. How did the geography of Greece affect Greek history?
2. What role did Homer’s writings play in the lives of Greeks?

Reading Strategy
Compare and Contrast Use a Venn diagram to compare and contrast the Minoan and Mycenaean civilizations.

Voices from the Past

The Trojan War and other adventures had kept Odysseus away from his home for many years. Penelope, his wife, remained faithful to her husband and displayed great courage and intelligence in preserving their household during her husband’s long absence. On his return, Odysseus praised her for her excellence:

“Madame, there is not a man in the wide world who could find fault with you. For your fame has reached heaven itself, like that of some perfect king, ruling a populous and mighty state with the fear of god in his heart, and upholding the right.”

—The Odyssey, Homer, E. V. Rieu, trans., 1946

Homer, Greece’s great eighth-century B.C. poet, wrote about heroes. Heroes like Odysseus and Penelope in Homer’s Odyssey were expected to strive for excellence. Homer’s writings identified the ideals that were valued by the Greek ruling class.

The Impact of Geography

Geography played an important role in the development of Greek civilization. Compared with Mesopotamia and Egypt, Greece occupies a small area. It consists of a mountainous peninsula and numerous islands that encompass about fifty thousand square miles of territory—about the size of the state of Louisiana.

The mountains and the sea played especially significant roles in the development of Greek history. Much of Greece consists of small plains and river valleys...
At the beginning of the twentieth century, Evans discovered an enormous palace complex on Crete at Knossos (NAH•suhs). The remains of this complex revealed a rich culture, with Knossos as the center of a far-ranging sea empire based on trade.

The sea also influenced the evolution of Greek society. Greece has a long seacoast dotted by bays and inlets that provided many harbors. The Greeks lived on a number of islands to the west, south, and east of the Greek mainland. It was no accident that the Greeks became seafarers. They sailed out into the Aegean Sea, the Mediterranean, and the Black Sea, making contact with the outside world. Later they established colonies that spread Greek civilization throughout the Mediterranean world.

The Minoan Civilization

By 2800 B.C., a Bronze Age civilization that used metals, especially bronze, in making weapons had been established on the large island of Crete, southeast of the Greek mainland. Called the Minoan civilization, it flourished between 2700 and 1450 B.C. Arthur Evans, the English archaeologist who first discovered the civilization, named it after Minos, the legendary king of Crete.
The ships of the Minoans took them to Egypt as well as southern Greece in search of goods.

The palace at Knossos, the royal seat of the kings, was an elaborate building that included numerous private living rooms for the royal family and workshops for making decorated vases, ivory figurines, and jewelry. Even bathrooms, with elaborate drains, formed part of the complex. The rooms were decorated with brightly colored paintings showing sporting events and nature scenes. Storerooms in the palace held gigantic jars of oil, wine, and grain, items that were paid as taxes to the king.

The centers of Minoan civilization on Crete suffered a sudden and catastrophic collapse around 1450 B.C. Some historians believe that a tidal wave triggered by a powerful volcanic eruption on the island of Thera (THIHR•uh) was responsible for the devastation. Most historians, however, believe that the destruction was the result of invasion by mainland Greeks known as the Mycenaeans (MY•suh•NEE•uhnz).

**Reading Check** Describing In what ways was the Minoan civilization an advanced civilization?

The First Greek State: Mycenae

The term Mycenaean comes from Mycenae (my•SEE•nee), a fortified site in Greece that was first discovered by the German archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann. Mycenae was one of a number of centers in a Mycenaean Greek civilization that flourished between 1600 and 1100 B.C.

The Mycenaean Greeks were part of the Indo-European family of peoples who spread into southern and western Europe, India, and Iran. One of these groups entered Greece from the north around 1900 B.C. Over a period of time, this group managed to gain control of the Greek mainland and develop a civilization.

Mycenaean civilization, which reached its high point between 1400 and 1200 B.C., was made up of powerful monarchies. Each resided in a fortified palace center. Like Mycenae, these centers were built on hills and surrounded by gigantic stone walls. The various centers of power probably formed a loose alliance of independent states. While the royal families lived within the walls of these complexes, the civilian populations lived in scattered locations outside the walls. Among the noticeable features of these Mycenaean centers were the tombs where members of the royal families were buried. Known as tholos tombs, they were built into hillsides. An entryway led into a circular tomb chamber constructed of cut stone blocks in a domed shape that resembled a beehive in appearance.

The Mycenaeans were, above all, a warrior people who prided themselves on their heroic deeds in battle. Mycenaean wall murals often show war and hunting scenes, the natural occupations of a warrior aristocracy. Archaeological evidence also indicates that the Mycenaean monarchies developed an extensive commercial network. Mycenaean pottery has been found throughout the Mediterranean area, in Syria and Egypt to the east and Sicily and southern Italy to the west. But some historians believe that the Mycenaeans, led by Mycenae itself, also spread outward militarily, conquering Crete and making it part of the Mycenaean world. Some of the Aegean islands also fell subject to Mycenaean control.

The most famous of all their supposed military adventures has come down to us in the poetry of Homer. According to Homer, Mycenaean Greeks, led
by Agamemnon, king of Mycenae, sacked (plun-
dered) the city of Troy on the northwestern coast of
Asia Minor around 1250 B.C. Did this event really
occur? Ever since the excavations of Schliemann,
begun in 1870, scholars have debated this question.
(Schliemann’s discovery of Troy was featured in
Chapter 1.) Many believe that Homer’s account does
have a basis in fact.

By the late thirteenth century B.C., Mycenaean
Greece was showing signs of serious trouble. Myce-
naean states fought one another, and major earth-
quakes caused widespread damage. In the twelfth
century B.C., new waves of Greek-speaking invaders
moved into Greece from the north. By 1100 B.C.,
Mycenaean civilization had collapsed.

**Reading Check** Explaining How was Mycenaean
government organized?

### The Greeks in a Dark Age

After the collapse of Mycenaean civilization,
Greece entered a difficult period in which the popula-
tion declined and food production dropped. Histori-
ans call the period from approximately 1100 to 750 B.C.
the Dark Age, because few records of what happened
exist. Not until 850 B.C. did farming revive. At the
same time, the basis for a new Greece was forming.

### Developments of the Dark Age

During the Dark Age, large numbers of Greeks left the mainland and
sailed across the Aegean Sea to various islands. Many
went to the western shores of Asia Minor, a strip of
territory that came to be called Ionia (or Ionian
Greece), which is in modern-day Turkey.

Two other major groups of Greeks settled in estab-
lished parts of Greece. The Aeolian Greeks who were
located in northern and central Greece
colonized the large island of
Lesbos and the

You can distinguish letters of the Greek alphabet on this
Athenian juror’s token. Which letters look familiar to
you? Which do not look familiar?
not so much the story of the war itself, however, as it is the tale of the Greek hero Achilles (uh•KI•leez) and how the anger of Achilles led to disaster.

The Odyssey recounts the journeys of one of the Greek heroes, Odysseus, after the fall of Troy, and his ultimate return to his wife. The Odyssey has long been considered Homer’s other masterpiece. Some scholars believe that it was composed later than the Iliad.

Homer proved to be of great value to later Greeks. He did not so much record history; he created it. The Greeks looked on the Iliad and the Odyssey as true history and as the works of one poet, Homer. These masterpieces gave the Greeks an ideal past with a cast of heroes. The epics came to be used as basic texts for the education of generations of Greek males. As one ancient Athenian stated, “My father was anxious to see me develop into a good man . . . and as a means to this end he compelled me to memorize all of Homer.”

The values Homer taught were courage and honor. A hero strives for excellence, which the Greeks called arete (ahr•ah•TEE). Arete is won in a struggle or contest. Through his willingness to fight, the hero protects his family and friends, preserves his own honor and that of his family, and earns his reputation. Homer gave to later generations of Greek males a model of heroism and honor. For example, in an exciting description of men marching to war, the Iliad taught students to be proud of their Greek heritage and their heroic ancestors.

Reading Check  Summarizing  Why is Homer thought to have created, rather than to have recorded, Greek history?
Making Comparisons

Why Learn This Skill?

When making comparisons, you identify the similarities and differences among two or more ideas, objects, or events.

Learning the Skill

Follow these steps to make comparisons:

• Find two subjects that can be compared. They should be similar enough to have characteristics that are common to both. For example, it would be more appropriate to compare a Greek statue to an Egyptian statue than to an abstract modern painting.
• Determine which features the subjects have in common that are suitable for comparison.
• Look for similarities and differences within these areas.
• If possible, find information that explains the similarities and differences.

Practicing the Skill

The following excerpts from the text discuss Spartan and Athenian models for raising children. Read both excerpts, then answer the questions that follow.

Passage A

In Sparta, boys were trained to be soldiers. State officials examined all children at birth and decided whether or not they were fit to live. Those who were judged unfit were left in the open on a mountainside to die. Boys judged fit were put under control of the state at age seven. They lived in military-style barracks and were subjected to harsh discipline to make them tough. Their education stressed military training and obedience to authority.

Passage B

Athenian children were nurtured by their mothers until the age of seven, when boys of the upper class were turned over to a male servant known as a pedagogue. The pedagogue accompanied the child to school and was responsible for teaching his charge good manners. He could punish the child with a birch rod to impose discipline.

The purpose of an education for upper-class Athenian boys was to create a well-rounded person. A boy had three teachers. One taught reading, writing, and arithmetic; a second taught physical education; and a third taught music. Education ended at eighteen, when an Athenian male formally became a citizen.

1 Make a chart with one column labeled Sparta and one labeled Athens. List the similarities in how the two states raised children, then list the differences.

2 How did the similarities and differences in raising children suit the needs of each city-state?

Applying the Skill

Survey your classmates about an issue in the news. Summarize their opinions and compare the different results in a paragraph.

Glencoe’s Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook, Level 2, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.
Main Ideas
- The polis or city-state was the central focus of Greek life.
- The search for farmland and the growth of trade resulted in colonies and the spread of Greek culture and politics.

Key Terms
polis, acropolis, agora, hoplite, phalanx, democracy, oligarchy, helot, ephor

People to Identify
Aristotle, Solon, Cleisthenes

Places to Locate
Athens, Hellespont, Bosporus, Byzantium, Sparta

Preview Questions
1. Who lived in the polis?
2. How did Athens and Sparta differ?
3. What role did tyrants play in Greek history?

Advantage Disadvantage
Tyranny
Democracy
Oligarchy

The Polis: Center of Greek Life

By 750 B.C., the city-state—or what the Greeks called a polis—became the central focus of Greek life. Our word politics is derived from the Greek word polis. In a physical sense, the polis was a town, a city, or even a village, along with its surrounding countryside. The town, city, or village served as the center of the polis where people could meet for political, social, and religious activities.

The main gathering place in the polis was usually a hill. At the top of the hill was a fortified area called an acropolis. The acropolis served as a place of refuge during an attack and sometimes came to be a religious center on which temples and public buildings were built. Below the acropolis was an agora, an open area

Voices from the Past

Greek villages gradually expanded and became independent city-states. The Greek historian Plutarch related how one of these city-states—Sparta—educated its young boys:

"As soon as they were seven years old they were to be enrolled in certain companies and classes, where they all lived under the same order and discipline, doing their exercises and taking their play together. Of these, he who showed the most courage was made captain; they had their eyes always upon him, obeyed his orders, and underwent patiently whatsoever punishment he inflicted; so that the whole course of their education was one continued exercise of a ready and perfect obedience."


It is no surprise that the Spartan city-state became known for its military prowess.
that served as a place where people could assemble and as a market.

City-states varied greatly in size, from a few square miles to a few hundred square miles. They also varied in population. **Athens** had a population of more than three hundred thousand by the fifth century B.C., but most city-states were much smaller, consisting of only a few hundred to several thousand people.

The polis was, above all, a community of people who shared a common identity and common goals. As a community, the polis consisted of citizens with political rights (adult males), citizens with no political rights (women and children), and noncitizens (slaves and resident aliens).

Citizens of a polis had rights, but these rights were coupled with responsibilities. The Greek philosopher **Aristotle** argued that a citizen did not belong just to himself or herself: “We must rather regard every citizen as belonging to the state.” However, the loyalty that citizens had to their city-states had a negative side. City-states distrusted one another, and the division of Greece into fiercely patriotic independent units helped to bring about its ruin.

As the polis developed, so too did a new military system. In earlier times, wars in Greece had been fought by aristocratic cavalry soldiers—nobles on horseback. These aristocrats, who were large landowners, also dominated the political life of their city-states. By 700 B.C., however, the military system was based on **hoplites**, who were heavily armed infantry soldiers, or foot soldiers. Each carried a round shield, a short sword, and a thrusting spear about nine feet (2.7 m) long.

Hoplites went into battle as a unit, marching shoulder to shoulder in a rectangular formation known as a **phalanx**. This close formation created a wall of shields to protect the hoplites. As long as they kept their order, it was difficult for enemies to harm them.

**Reading Check** Identifying What responsibilities did the citizens of the polis have?

**Greek Colonies**

Between 750 and 550 B.C., large numbers of Greeks left their homeland to settle in distant lands. A desire for good farmland and the growth of trade were two important factors in the people’s decisions to move. Each colony became a new polis. This new polis was usually independent of the polis that had founded it.
Across the Mediterranean, new Greek colonies were established along the coastlines of southern Italy, southern France, eastern Spain, and northern Africa west of Egypt. At the same time, to the north the Greeks set up colonies in Thrace, where they sought good farmland to grow grains. The Greeks also settled along the shores of the Black Sea, setting up cities on the Hellespont and the Bosporus. The most notable of these cities was Byzantium (buh-ZAN-tee-uhm), the site of what later became Constantinople (now Istanbul). In establishing these colonies, the Greeks spread their culture and political ideas throughout the Mediterranean.

Colonization also led to increased trade and industry. The Greeks on the mainland exported pottery, wine, and olive oil. In return, they received grains and metals from the west and fish, timber, wheat, metals, and slaves from the Black Sea region.

The expansion of trade and industry created a new group of wealthy individuals in many of the Greek city-states. These men wanted political power, but found it difficult to gain because of the power of the ruling aristocrats.

**Reading Check**  
Explain What political dilemma was caused by the expansion of trade and industry?

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**Geography Skills**

Over a period of 200 years, the Greeks spread across Europe and northern Africa, bringing Greek civilization to areas more than 1,500 miles (2,400 km) from Greece.

1. **Interpreting Maps** Analyze the relationship between Greek trading routes and Greek colonies.

2. **Applying Geography Skills** Find a map of the contemporary world. Name all the modern countries where Greece had colonies.

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**Tyranny in the City-States**

The creation of this new group of rich men fostered the rise of tyrants in the seventh and sixth centuries B.C. Tyrants were not necessarily oppressive or wicked, as our word tyrant implies. Greek tyrants were rulers who seized power by force from the aristocrats. Support for the tyrants came not only from the new rich who had made their money in trade and industry, but also from poor peasants who were in debt to landholding aristocrats. Both the rich and the peasants were tired of aristocratic domination of their city-states.

The tyrants gained power and kept it by using hired soldiers. Once in power, they built new marketplaces, temples, and walls. These constructions
Sparta was faced with the need for more land. Instead of sending its people out to start new colonies, as some states did, the Spartans conquered the neighboring Laconians. Later, beginning around 730 B.C., the Spartans undertook the conquest of neighboring Messenia despite its larger size and population.

After their conquest, the Messenians and Laconians became serfs and were made to work for the Spartans. These captured people were known as helots, a name derived from a Greek word for “capture.” To ensure control over the conquered helots, the Spartans made a conscious decision to create a military state.

In Sparta, boys were trained to be soldiers. At birth, each child was examined by state officials, who decided whether the child was fit to live. Those who were judged unfit were left on a mountainside to die. Boys judged fit were taken from their mothers at the age of seven and put under control of the state.

These boys lived in military-style barracks, where they were subjected to harsh discipline to make them tough and mean. Their education stressed military training and obedience to authority. The Greek historian Plutarch described the handling of young Spartans:

“After they were twelve years old, they were no longer allowed to wear any undergarments, they had one coat to serve them a year; their bodies were hard and dry, with but little acquaintances of baths; these human indulgences they were allowed only on some few particular days in the year. They lodged together in little bands upon beds made of the rushes which grew by the banks of the river Eurotas, which they were to break off with their hands with a knife.”

In Sparta girls and boys were trained to be athletes, as is shown by this bronze statue, which was part of a vase lid.
A Military State  Between 800 and 600 B.C., the lives of Spartans were rigidly organized and tightly controlled (thus, our word spartan, meaning “highly self-disciplined”). Males spent their childhood learning military discipline. Then they enrolled in the army for regular military service at age 20. Although allowed to marry, they continued to live in the military barracks until age 30. All meals were eaten in public dining halls with fellow soldiers. Meals were simple; the famous Spartan black broth consisted of a piece of pork boiled in animal blood, salt, and vinegar. A visitor who ate some of the black broth once remarked that he now understood why Spartans were not afraid to die. At 30, Spartan males were allowed to vote in the assembly (to be discussed later) and live at home, but they stayed in the army until the age of 60.

While their husbands lived in the barracks, Spartan women lived at home. Because of this separation, Spartan women had greater freedom of movement and greater power in the household than was common elsewhere in Greece. Spartan women were expected to exercise and remain fit to bear and raise healthy children.

Many Spartan women upheld the strict Spartan values, expecting their husbands and sons to be brave in war. The story is told of a Spartan woman who, as she was handing her son his shield, told him to come back carrying his shield or being carried on it.

Government of Sparta The Spartan government was an oligarchy headed by two kings, who led the Spartan army on its campaigns. A group of five men, known as the ephors (EH•fuhrs), were elected each year and were responsible for the education of youth and the conduct of all citizens. A council of elders, composed of the two kings and 28 citizens over the age of 60, decided on the issues that would be presented to an assembly made up of male citizens. This assembly did not debate; it only voted on the issues.

To make their new military state secure, the Spartans turned their backs on the outside world.

Basically, the Spartan system worked. Spartan males were known for their toughness and their meanness. They were also known as the best soldiers in all of Greece.

Spartan girls received an education similar to that of the boys. Girls, too, underwent physical training, including running, wrestling, and throwing the javelin. The purpose was clear: to strengthen the girls for their roles as healthy mothers.

Well-to-do Athenian citizens raised their children very differently. Athenian children were nurtured by their mothers until the age of seven. At seven, a boy of the upper class was turned over to a male servant, known as a pedagogue. The pedagogue, who was usually a slave, accompanied the child to school. He was also responsible for teaching his charge good manners. He could punish the child with a birch rod to impose discipline.

The purpose of an education for upper-class Athenian boys was to create a well-rounded person. To that end, a boy had three teachers. One taught him reading, writing, and arithmetic. Another taught physical education, a necessity to achieve the ideal of a sound mind in a sound body. A third taught him music, which consisted of playing the lyre (a stringed instrument) and singing. Education ended at 18, when an Athenian male formally became a citizen.

Girls of all classes remained at home, as their mothers did. Their mothers taught them how to run a home, which included how to spin and weave—activities expected of a good wife. Only in some wealthy families did girls learn to read, write, and perhaps play the lyre.

CONNECTING TO THE PAST

1. Summarizing Information Describe a Spartan upbringing. How does this differ from the childhood of an American child?

2. Compare and Contrast Compare a well-educated Spartan boy with a well-educated Athenian and a well-educated American. What are the differences?

3. Writing about History Does your education today incorporate any Spartan or Athenian ideas? If so, give specific examples.
Foreigners, who might have brought in new ideas, were discouraged from visiting. Except for military reasons, Spartans were not allowed to travel abroad, where they might encounter ideas dangerous to the stability of the state. Likewise, Spartan citizens were discouraged from studying philosophy, literature, or the arts—subjects that might encourage new thoughts. The art of war was the Spartan ideal. All other arts were frowned upon.

**Reading Check** **Summarizing** How did the restrictions placed on Spartan males affect their lives?

**Athens**

By 700 B.C., Athens had become a unified polis on the peninsula of Attica. Early Athens was ruled by a king. By the seventh century B.C., however, Athens had become an oligarchy under the control of its aristocrats. These aristocrats owned the best land and controlled political life. There was an assembly of all the citizens, but it had few powers.

Near the end of the seventh century B.C., Athens faced political turmoil because of serious economic problems. Many Athenian farmers were sold into slavery when they were unable to repay their debts to their aristocratic neighbors. Over and over, there were cries to cancel the debts and give land to the poor. Athens seemed on the verge of civil war.

The ruling Athenian aristocrats reacted to this crisis in 594 B.C. by giving full power to **Solon**, a reform-minded aristocrat. Solon canceled all land debts and freed people who had fallen into slavery for debts. He refused, however, to take land from the rich and give it to the poor.

Solon’s reforms, though popular, did not solve the problems of Athens. Aristocrats were still powerful, and poor peasants could not obtain land. Internal strife finally led to the very thing Solon had hoped to avoid—tyranny.

**Pisistratus** (pih•SIHS•truhs•tuhs), an aristocrat, seized power in 560 B.C. He then aided Athenian trade as a way of pleasing the merchants. He also gave aristocrats’ land to the peasants in order to gain the favor of the poor.

The Athenians rebelled against Pisistratus’s son, who had succeeded him, and ended the tyranny in 510 B.C. Two years later, with the backing of the Athenian people, **Cleisthenes** (KLYS•thuh•nee), another reformer, gained the upper hand.

Cleisthenes created a new council of five hundred that supervised foreign affairs, oversaw the treasury, and proposed the laws that would be voted on by the assembly. The Athenian assembly, composed of male citizens, was given final authority to pass laws after free and open debate. Because the assembly of citizens now had the central role in the Athenian political system, the reforms of Cleisthenes created the foundations for Athenian democracy.

**Reading Check** **Explaining** How did Cleisthenes create the foundation for democracy in Athens?
Classical Greece

Main Ideas
• During the Age of Pericles, Athens became the center of Greek culture.
• The creation of an Athenian empire led to war with Sparta.

Key Terms
Age of Pericles, direct democracy, ostracism

People to Identify
Darius, Xerxes, Pericles

Places to Locate
Asia Minor, Delos, Thebes, Macedonia

Preview Questions
1. How did Pericles expand the involvement of Athenians in their democracy?
2. Why was trade highly important to the Athenian economy?

Reading Strategy
Organizing Information
Use a concept map like the one below to show the elements that contributed to the Classical Age of Greece.

Classical Age of Greece

Voices from the Past

Classical Greece is the name given to the period of Greek history from around 500 B.C. to the conquest of Greece by the Macedonian king Philip II in 338 B.C. This period was marked not only by a brilliant culture but also by a disastrous war among the Greeks, the Peloponnesian War, described here by the Greek historian Thucydides:

The Peloponnesian War not only lasted for a long time, but throughout its course brought with it unprecedented suffering for Greece. Never before had so many cities been captured and then devastated, whether by foreign armies or by the Greek powers themselves; never had there been so many exiles; never such loss of life—both in the actual warfare and in internal revolutions.

—The History of the Peloponnesian War, Thucydides, R. Warner, trans., 1954

For all their accomplishments, the Greeks were unable to rise above the divisions and rivalries that caused them to fight one another and undermine their own civilization.

The Challenge of Persia

As the Greeks spread throughout the Mediterranean, they came in contact with the Persian Empire to the east. The Ionian Greek cities in western Asia Minor had already fallen subject to the Persian Empire by the mid-sixth century B.C. In 499 B.C., an unsuccessful revolt by the Ionian cities—assisted by the Athenian navy—led the Persian ruler Darius to seek revenge.

In 490 B.C., the Persians landed on the plain of Marathon, only 26 miles (41.8 km) from Athens. There, an outnumbered Athenian army attacked and defeated the Persians decisively.
According to legend, news of Persia’s defeat was brought by an Athenian runner named Pheidippides who raced 26 miles (41.8 km) from Marathon to Athens. With his last breath, he announced, “Victory, we win,” before dropping dead. Today’s marathon is based on this heroic story.

After Darius died in 486 B.C., Xerxes (ZUHRK•SEEZ) became the new Persian monarch. Xerxes vowed revenge and planned to invade Greece. In preparation for the attack, the Athenians began rebuilding their navy. By the time the Persians invaded in 480 B.C., the Athenians had a fleet of about two hundred vessels.

Xerxes led a massive invasion force into Greece. His forces included about 180,000 troops and thousands of warships and supply vessels. The Greeks tried to delay the Persians at the pass of Thermopylae (thuhr•MAH•puh•lee), along the main road into central Greece. A Greek force of about seven thousand held off the Persian army for two days. The three hundred Spartans in the Greek army were especially brave. When told that Persian arrows would darken the sky in battle, one Spartan warrior responded, “That is good news. We will fight in the shade!” Unfortunately for the Greeks, a traitor told the Persians how to use a mountain path to outflank the Greek force.

The Athenians, now threatened by the onslaught of the Persian forces, abandoned their city. Near the island of Salamis, the Greek fleet, though outnumbered, managed to outmaneuver the Persian fleet and defeat it. A few months later, early in 479 B.C., the Greeks formed the largest Greek army up to that time and defeated the Persian army at Plataea (pluh•TEE•uh), northwest of Athens.

Reading Check Identifying What did victory over the Persians cost the Greeks?
The Growth of the Athenian Empire

After the defeat of the Persians, Athens took over the leadership of the Greek world. In 478 B.C., the Athenians formed a defensive alliance against the Persians called the Delian League. Its main headquarters was on the island of Delos. However, its chief officials, including the treasurers and commanders of the fleet, were Athenian. Under Athenian leadership, the Delian League pursued the attack against the Persian Empire, eventually liberating virtually all of the Greek states in the Aegean from Persian control. In 454 B.C., the Athenians moved the treasury of the league from the island of Delos to Athens. By controlling the Delian League, Athens had created an empire.

Under Pericles, who was a dominant figure in Athenian politics between 461 and 429 B.C., Athens expanded its new empire abroad. At the same time, democracy flourished at home. This period of Athenian and Greek history, which historians have called the Age of Pericles, saw the height of Athenian power and brilliance.

Reading Check Describing What was the role of the Delian League in the creation of the Athenian Empire?

Reading Check Explaining Why did Athenians develop and practice ostracism?

The Age of Pericles

Pericles expanded the involvement of Athenians in their democracy. By creating a direct democracy, he enabled every male citizen to play a role in government.

In the Age of Pericles, the Athenians became deeply attached to their democratic system, which was a direct democracy. In a direct democracy, the people participate directly in government decision making through mass meetings. In Athens, every male citizen participated in the governing assembly and voted on all major issues.

Most residents of Athens, however, were not citizens. In the mid-fifth century B.C., the assembly consisted of about forty-three thousand male citizens over 18 years old. Meetings of the assembly were held every 10 days on a hillside east of the Acropolis. Not all attended, and the number present seldom reached six thousand. The assembly passed all laws, elected public officials, and made final decisions on war and foreign policy. Anyone could speak, but usually only respected leaders did so.

However, by making lower-class male citizens eligible for public office and by paying officeholders, Pericles made it possible for poor citizens to take part in public affairs. Pericles believed that Athenians should be proud of their democracy.

A large body of city officials ran the government on a daily basis. Ten officials known as generals were the overall directors of policy. The generals could be reelected, making it possible for individual leaders to play an important political role.

The Athenians also devised the practice of ostracism to protect themselves against overly ambitious politicians. Members of the assembly could write on a broken pottery fragment (ostrakon) the name of a person they considered harmful to the city. A person so named by at least six thousand members was banned from the city for 10 years.

Under Pericles, Athens became the center of Greek culture. The Persians had destroyed much of the city during the Persian Wars, but Pericles set in motion a massive rebuilding program. New temples and statues soon signified the greatness of Athens. Art, architecture, and philosophy flourished. Pericles broadly boasted that Athens had become the “school of Greece.”

This stone relief from the fourth century B.C. shows Democracy crowning a figure that symbolizes Athens. The panel was placed in the marketplace for all to see.
The Great Peloponnesian War

After the defeat of the Persians, the Greek world came to be divided into two major camps: the Athenian Empire and Sparta. Athens and Sparta had built two very different kinds of societies, and neither state was able to tolerate the other’s system. Sparta and its allies feared the growing Athenian Empire, and a series of disputes finally led to the outbreak of the Great Peloponnesian War in 431 B.C.

At the beginning of the war, both sides believed they had winning strategies. The Athenians planned to remain behind the city’s protective walls and receive supplies from their colonies and navy. The Spartans and their allies surrounded Athens, hoping that the Athenians would send out their army to fight beyond the walls. Pericles knew, however, that the Spartan forces could beat the Athenians in open battles. He also believed that Athens was secure behind its walls, so the Athenians stayed put.

In the second year of the war, a plague broke out in overly crowded Athens, killing more than a third of the people. Pericles himself died the following year (429 B.C.). Despite these severe losses, the Athenians fought on in a struggle that lasted for about another 25 years. (See page 991 to read excerpts from Thucydides’ Plague in Athens in the Primary Sources Library.)

A crushing blow came in 405 B.C., when the Athenian fleet was destroyed at Aegospotami (EE•guh•SPA•tuh•MEE) on the Hellespont. Within the next year, Athens surrendered. Its walls were torn down, the navy disbanded, and the Athenian Empire destroyed. The great war was finally over.

The Great Peloponnesian War weakened the major Greek states and ruined any possibility of cooperation among them. During the next 66 years, Sparta, Athens, and Thebes (a new Greek power) struggled to dominate Greek affairs. In continuing their petty wars, the Greeks ignored the growing power of Macedonia to their north. This oversight would cost them their freedom.

Explaining How did the Great Peloponnesian War weaken the Greek states?

Daily Life in Classical Athens

In the fifth century B.C., Athens had the largest population of the Greek city-states. Before the plague...
in 430 B.c., there were about 150,000 citizens living in Athens. About 43,000 of them were adult males with political power. Foreigners living in Athens, who numbered about 35,000, received the protection of the laws. They were also subject to some of the responsibilities of citizens—namely, military service and the funding of festivals. The remaining social group, the slaves, numbered around 100,000.

Slavery was common in the ancient world. Most people in Athens—except the very poor—owned at least one slave. The very wealthy might own large numbers. Those who did usually employed them in industry. Most often, slaves in Athens worked in the fields or in the home as cooks and maids. Some slaves were owned by the state and worked on public construction projects.

The Athenian Economy The Athenian economy was largely based on farming and trade. Athenians grew grains, vegetables, and fruit for local use. Grapes and olive trees were cultivated for wine and olive oil, which were used locally and also exported. The Athenians raised sheep and goats for wool and milk products.

Because of the number of people and the lack of fertile land, Athens had to import from 50 to 80 percent of its grain, a basic item in the Athenian diet. This meant that trade was highly important to the Athenian economy. The building of a port at nearby Piraeus (PEE-reh-EFS) helped Athens become the leading trade center in the fifth-century Greek world.

The Family and the Role of Women The family was an important institution in ancient Athens. It was composed of a husband, wife, and children, although other dependent relatives and slaves were also regarded as part of the family. The family’s primary social function was to produce new citizens.

Women were citizens who could take part in most religious festivals, but they were otherwise excluded from public life. They could not own property beyond personal items. They always had a male guardian: if unmarried, a father; if married, a husband; if widowed, a son or male relative.

An Athenian woman was expected to be a good wife. Her chief obligation was to bear children, especially male children who would preserve the family line. She was also expected to take care of her family and her house. She either did the housework herself or supervised the slaves who did the actual work.

Women were strictly controlled. Because they married at the age of 14 or 15, they were taught their responsibilities early. Although many managed to learn to read and play musical instruments, they were not provided any formal education.

Women were expected to remain at home, out of sight, unless attending funerals or festivals. If they left the house, they had to have a companion.

Reading Check Examining What kinds of work did slaves perform in classical Athens?
IN FIFTH-CENTURY ATHENS, A WOMAN’S PLACE was in the home. She had two major responsibilities: the bearing and raising of children and the care of the household. In his dialogue on estate management, the Greek writer Xenophon relates the advice of an Athenian gentleman on how to train a wife.

"[A man addresses his new wife.] For it seems to me, dear, that the gods have coupled together male and female, as they are called, chiefly in order that they may form a perfect partnership in mutual service. For, in the first place, that the various species of living creatures may not fail, they are joined in wedlock for the production of children. Secondly, offspring to support them in old age is provided by this union, to human beings, at any rate. Thirdly, human beings live not in the open air, like beasts, but obviously need shelter. Nevertheless, those who mean to win stores to fill the covered place, have need of someone to work at the open-air occupations; ploughing, sowing, planting and grazing are all such open-air employments; and these supply the needful food. . . . For he made the man’s body and mind more capable of enduring cold and heat, and journeys and campaigns; and therefore imposed on him the outdoor tasks. To the woman, since he had made her body less capable of such endurance, I take it that the gods have assigned the indoor tasks. And knowing that he had created in the woman and had imposed on her the nourishment of the infants, he meted out to her a larger portion of affection for new-born babes than to the man. . . .

Your duty will be to remain indoors and send out those servants whose work is outside, and supervise those who are to work indoors, and to receive the incomings, and distribute so much of them as must be spent, and watch over so much as is to be kept in store, and take care that the sum laid by for a year be not spent in a month. And when wool is brought to you, you must see that cloaks are made for those that want them. You must see too that the dry corn is in good condition for making food. One of the duties that fall to you, however, will perhaps seem rather thankless: you will have to see that any servant who is ill is cared for."

—Xenophon, *Memorabilia and Oeconomicus*

Vases are an excellent source of information about everyday life in Greece.

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. Over what areas of life did an Athenian wife have authority?
2. Do you think the husband respected his wife? Why or why not?  
3. How are the roles of men and women in America now different from their roles in ancient Greece? In what ways have these roles remained the same over the centuries?
The Culture of Classical Greece

Main Ideas
• Greek philosophers were concerned with the development of critical or rational thought about the nature of the universe.
• Greeks believed that ritualized religion was necessary for the well-being of the state.

Key Terms
ritual, oracle, tragedy, philosophy, Socratic method

Preview of Events

- 776 B.C.
The first Olympic Festival is held
- c. 550 B.C.
Pythagoras develops geometrical theories
- 399 B.C.
Socrates placed on trial
- c. 387 B.C.
Plato founds Academy in Athens

People to Identify
Aeschylus, Sophocles, Pythagoras, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Thucydides

Places to Locate
Delphi, Gulf of Corinth

Preview Questions
1. In what ways was religion closely connected to Greek life?
2. How did defeat in the Peloponnesian War change the Athenians?

Reading Strategy
Summarizing Information Create a chart like the one below showing the major Greek contributions to Western civilization.

<table>
<thead>
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Voices from the Past

Classical Greece, especially Athens under Pericles' rule, witnessed a period of remarkable intellectual and cultural growth that became the main source of Western culture. Aristotle often wrote about the importance of intellectual life:

"The activity of the mind is not only the highest... but also the most continuous: we are able to study continuously more easily than to perform any kind of action.... It follows that the activity of our intelligence constitutes the complete happiness of man. In other words, a life guided by intelligence is the best and most pleasant for man, inasmuch as intelligence, above all else, is man. Consequently, this kind of life is the happiest."

—Western Civilization, Margaret King, 2000

The philosopher Aristotle, with Socrates and Plato, established the foundations of Western philosophy.

Greek Religion

Religion affected every aspect of Greek life. Greeks considered religion necessary to the well-being of the state. Temples dedicated to gods and goddesses were the major buildings in Greek cities.

Homer described the gods worshiped in the Greek religion. Twelve chief gods and goddesses were thought to live on Mount Olympus, the highest mountain in
The Greeks also had a great desire to learn the will of the gods. To do so, they made use of the **oracle**, a sacred shrine where a god or goddess revealed the future through a priest or priestess. The most famous was the oracle of Apollo at Delphi, located on the side of Mount Parnassus overlooking the **Gulf of Corinth**. At Delphi, a priestess, thought to be inspired by Apollo, listened to questions. Her responses were then interpreted by priests and given in verse form to the persons asking the questions. Representatives of states and individuals traveled to Delphi to consult the oracle of Apollo. The responses provided by the priests and priestesses were often puzzling and could be interpreted in more than one way. For example, Croesus (KREE•suhs), king of Lydia and known for his incredible wealth, sent messengers to the oracle at Delphi asking “whether he shall go to war with the Persians.” The oracle replied that if Croesus attacked

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Rulers and Gods

All of the world’s earliest civilizations believed that there was a close connection between rulers and gods. In Egypt, pharaohs were considered gods whose role was to maintain the order and harmony of the universe in their own kingdoms. In Mesopotamia, India, and China, rulers were thought to rule with divine assistance. Kings were often seen as rulers who derived their power from the gods and who were the agents or representatives of the gods. Many Romans certainly believed that their success in creating an empire was a visible sign of divine favor. As one Roman stated, “We have overcome all the nations of the world, because we have realized that the world is directed and governed by the gods.”

The rulers’ supposed connection to the divine also caused them to seek divine aid in the affairs of the world. This led to the art of **divination**—an organized method to figure out the intentions of the gods. In Mesopotamian and Roman society, divination took the form of examining the livers of sacrificed animals or the flights of birds to determine the will of the gods. The Chinese used oracle bones to receive advice from the gods. The Greeks consulted oracles.

Underlying all of these practices was a belief in a supernatural universe—a world in which divine forces were in charge and human well-being depended on those divine forces. It was not until the scientific revolution of the 1600s that many people began to believe in a natural world that was not governed by spiritual forces.

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Why were rulers of early civilizations considered to have divine powers? How did this affect their systems of government?
the Persians, he would destroy a mighty empire. Overjoyed to hear these words, Croesus made war on the Persians but was crushed by his enemy. A mighty empire—that of Croesus—was destroyed!

**Reading Check Describing** In what ways did the Greeks honor their gods and goddesses?

## Greek Drama

Drama as we know it in Western culture was created by the Greeks. Plays were presented in outdoor theaters as part of religious festivals. The first Greek dramas were **tragedies**, which were presented in a trilogy (a set of three plays) built around a common theme. The only complete trilogy we possess today, called the *Oresteia*, was composed by *Aeschylus*. This set of three plays relates the fate of Agamemnon, a hero in the Trojan War, and his family after his return from the war. In the plays, evil acts are shown to breed evil acts and suffering. In the end, however, reason triumphs over the forces of evil.

Another great Athenian playwright was *Sophocles*, whose most famous play was *Oedipus Rex*. In this play, the oracle of Apollo foretells how Oedipus will kill his own father and marry his mother. Despite all attempts to prevent this, Oedipus does commit these tragic acts.

A third outstanding Athenian dramatist, *Euripides*, tried to create more realistic characters. His plots became more complex and showed a greater interest in real-life situations. Euripides was controversial. He questioned traditional values. He portrayed war as brutal and barbaric and expressed deep compassion for the women and children who suffered as a result of it.

Greek tragedies dealt with universal themes still relevant today. They examined such problems as the nature of good and evil, the rights of the individual, the nature of divine forces, and the nature of human beings. In the world of the Greek tragedies, striving to do the best thing may not always lead to success, but the attempt is a worthy endeavor. Greek pride in accomplishment and independence was real. As the chorus chanted in Sophocles’ *Antigone*, “Is there anything more wonderful on earth, our marvelous planet, than the miracle of man?”

Greek comedy developed later than tragedy. It was used to criticize both politicians and intellectuals. Comedy tried to make a point, intending to both entertain and provoke a reaction. The plays of *Aristophanes* are good examples.

**Reading Check Identifying** Name three Greek tragedies that examine universal themes.
**Greek Philosophy**

*Philosophy* refers to an organized system of thought. The term comes from a Greek word that means “love of wisdom.” Early Greek philosophers were concerned with the development of critical or rational thought about the nature of the universe.

Many early Greek philosophers tried to explain the universe on the basis of unifying principles. In the sixth century B.C., for example, Pythagoras, familiar to geometry students for his Pythagorean theorem, taught that the essence of the universe could be found in music and numbers. In the fifth and fourth centuries B.C., Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle raised basic questions that have been debated for two thousand years.

**Sophists** The Sophists were a group of traveling teachers in ancient Greece who rejected speculation such as that of Pythagoras as foolish. They argued that it was simply beyond the reach of the human mind to understand the universe. It was more important for individuals to improve themselves.

The Sophists sold their services as professional teachers to the young men of Greece, especially those of Athens. The Sophists stressed the importance of rhetoric (the art of persuasive speaking in winning debates and swaying an audience). This skill was especially valuable in democratic Athens.

To the Sophists, there was no absolute right or wrong. What was right for one individual might be wrong for another. True wisdom consisted of being able to perceive and pursue one’s own good. Because of these ideas, many people viewed the Sophists as harmful to society and especially dangerous to the values of young people.

**Socrates** One of the critics of the Sophists was Socrates, a sculptor whose true love was philosophy. Because Socrates left no writings, we know about him only what we have learned from the writings of his pupils, such as Plato. Socrates taught many pupils, but he accepted no pay. He believed that the goal of education was only to improve the individual.

Socrates used a teaching method that is still known by his name. The *Socratic method* of teaching uses a question-and-answer format to lead pupils to see things for themselves by using their own reason. Socrates believed that all real knowledge is already present within each person. Only critical examination is needed to call it forth. This is the real task of

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**The Way It Was**

**Sports & Contests**

**The Olympic Games of the Greeks**

The Olympic games were the greatest of all the ancient Greek sports festivals. They were held at Olympia every four years beginning in 776 B.C. to honor Zeus, father of the gods.

At first, the Olympic games consisted only of footraces. Later, wrestling, boxing, javelin and discus throwing, long jumping, and chariot racing were added. Competitions were always between individuals, not groups. Only young men took part until contests for boys were added by 632 B.C. Beginning in 472 B.C., the games were held over a five-day period.

In the Olympic games, each event had only one winner. His prize was simply a wreath made of olive leaves, considered sacred to Zeus. However, the Greeks looked on winning athletes as great heroes and often rewarded them in other ways. The people of a city in Sicily welcomed home the winner of the 200-meter race with a parade of 300 chariots pulled by white horses. Some communities rewarded their winners with money and free rents for life.

The long-held belief that athletes in the Olympic games were amateurs is simply not true. City-states supported both athletes and their trainers. This practice freed them to train for long periods of time in
philosophy, because, as Socrates said, “The unexamined life is not worth living.” This belief in the individual’s ability to reason was an important contribution of the Greeks.

Socrates questioned authority, and this soon led him into trouble. Athens had had a tradition of free thought and inquiry, but defeat in the Peloponnesian War changed the Athenians. They no longer trusted open debate. Socrates was accused and convicted of corrupting the youth of Athens by teaching them to question and think for themselves. An Athenian jury sentenced him to die by drinking hemlock, a poison.

Plato One of Socrates’ students was Plato, considered by many the greatest philosopher of Western civilization. Unlike his teacher Socrates, who did not write down his thoughts, Plato wrote a great deal. He was fascinated with the question of reality. How do we know what is real?

According to Plato, a higher world of eternal, unchanging Forms has always existed. These ideal Forms make up reality and only a trained mind—the goal of philosophy—can become aware of or understand these Forms. To Plato, the objects that we perceive with our senses (trees, for example) are simply reflections of the ideal Forms (treeness). They (the trees) are but shadows. Reality is found in the Form (treeness) itself.

Plato explained his ideas about government in a work entitled The Republic. Based on his experience in Athens, Plato had come to distrust the workings of democracy. To him, individuals could not achieve a good life unless they lived in a just and rational state.

Plato’s search for the just state led him to construct an ideal state in which people were divided into three basic groups. At the top was an upper class of philosopher-kings: “Unless either philosophers become kings in their countries or those who are now called kings and rulers come to be sufficiently inspired with a genuine desire for wisdom; unless, that is to say, political power and philosophy meet together . . . there can be no rest from troubles . . . for states, nor for all mankind.”

The second group in Plato’s ideal state were warriors who protected society. The third group contained all the rest, the masses, people driven not by wisdom or courage but by desire. They would be the producers of society—artisans, tradespeople, and farmers. Contrary to Greek custom, Plato also believed that men and women should have the same education and equal access to all positions.

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the hope that they would bring back victories—and glory—to their communities. Larger city-states even bribed winners from other city-states to move to their communities and compete for them in the next games.

Olympic games could be dangerous. Wrestlers, for example, were allowed to gouge eyes and even pick up their competitors and bring them down head first onto a hard surface. Boxers wrapped their hands and forearms with heavy leather thongs, making their blows damaging. Some athletes were killed during the games.

The Greek Olympic games came to an end in A.D. 393, when a Christian Roman emperor banned them as pagan exercises. Fifteen hundred years later, the games were revived through the efforts of a French baron, Pierre de Coubertin, who was inspired by the ideals of the ancient Greeks. In 1896, the first modern Olympic games were held in Athens, Greece.

Discobolos, a famous Greek statue, pays tribute to athletes and the Greek ideals of sound mind and sound body.

CONNECTING TO THE PAST

1. Explaining Why were winning athletes so enthusiastically rewarded by their communities?

2. Writing about History How were the Greek Olympics influenced by governments and politics?
“I tell you that virtue does not come from money, but that money comes from virtue, as does every other good of man, public and private.”

—The Apology of Socrates, Plato

Aristotle Plato established a school in Athens known as the Academy. One of his pupils, who studied at the Academy for 20 years, was Aristotle. Aristotle did not accept Plato’s theory of ideal forms. He thought that by examining individual objects (trees), we could perceive their form (treeness). However, he did not believe that these forms existed in a separate, higher world of reality beyond material things. Rather, he thought of forms as a part of things themselves. (In other words, we know what treeness is by examining trees.)

Aristotle’s interests, then, lay in analyzing and classifying things based on observation and investigation. His interests were wide ranging. He wrote about many subjects, including ethics, logic, politics, poetry, astronomy, geology, biology, and physics. Until the seventeenth century, science in the Western world remained largely based on Aristotle’s ideas.

Like Plato, Aristotle wanted an effective form of government that would rationally direct human affairs. Unlike Plato, he did not seek an ideal state but tried to find the best form of government by analyzing existing governments. For his Politics, Aristotle looked at the constitutions of 158 states and found three good forms of government: monarchy, aristocracy, and constitutional government. He favored constitutional government as the best form for most people.

The Classical Ideals of Greek Art

The arts of the Western world have been largely dominated by the standards set by the Greeks of the classical period. Classical Greek art was concerned with expressing eternal ideals. The subject matter of this art was the human being, presented as an object of great beauty. The classic style, based on the ideals of reason, moderation, balance, and harmony in all things, was meant to civilize the emotions.

In architecture, the most important form was the temple dedicated to a god or goddess. At the center of Greek temples were walled rooms that housed both the statues of deities and treasuries in which gifts to the gods and goddesses were safeguarded.

The Writing of History

History as we know it—as a systematic analysis of past events—was created in the Western world by the Greeks. Herodotus (hī•RAH•duh•tuhs) was the author of History of the Persian Wars, a work commonly regarded as the first real history in Western civilization. The central theme of this work is the conflict between the Greeks and the Persians, which Herodotus viewed as a struggle between Greek freedom and Persian despotism.

Herodotus traveled widely and questioned many people as a means of obtaining his information. He was a master storyteller.

Many historians today consider Thucydides (thoo•SIH•duh•DEEZ) the greatest historian of the ancient world. Thucydides was an Athenian general who fought in the Great Peloponnesian War. A defeat in battle led the Athenian assembly to send him into exile. This gave him the opportunity to write his History of the Peloponnesian War.

Unlike Herodotus, Thucydides was not concerned with divine forces or gods as causal factors in history. He saw war and politics in purely human terms, as the activities of human beings. He examined the causes and the course of the Peloponnesian War clearly and fairly, placing much emphasis on the accuracy of his facts. As he stated, “And with regard to my factual reporting of the events of the war I have made it a principle not to write down the first story that came my way, and not even to be guided by my own general impressions; either I was present myself at the events which I have described or else I heard of them from eye-witnesses whose reports I have checked with as much thoroughness as possible.”

Thucydides also provided remarkable insight into the human condition. He believed that the study of history is of great value in understanding the present.

Contrasting How did Thucydides’ view of history differ from Herodotus’s view?

Reading Check of government differ from Plato’s?

Contrasting How did Aristotle’s idea |

Contrasting How did Thucydides’ view of history differ from Herodotus’s view?
These central rooms were surrounded by a screen of columns that made Greek temples open structures rather than closed ones. The columns were originally made of wood. In the fifth century B.C., marble began to be used.

Some of the finest examples of Greek classical architecture were built in Athens in the fifth century B.C. The most famous building, regarded as the greatest example of the classical Greek temple, was the Parthenon. It was built between 447 and 432 B.C. Dedicated to Athena, the patron goddess of Athens, the Parthenon was an expression of Athenian pride in their city-state. Indeed, it was dedicated not only to Athena but also to the glory of Athens and the Athenians. The Parthenon shows the principles of classical architecture: the search for calmness, clarity, and freedom from unnecessary detail.

Greek sculpture also developed a classical style. Lifelike statues of the male nude, the favorite subject of Greek sculptors, showed relaxed attitudes. Their faces were self-assured, their bodies flexible and smooth muscled.

Greek sculptors did not seek to achieve realism, however, but rather a standard of ideal beauty. Polyclitus (PAH•lih•KLY•tuhs), a fifth-century sculptor, wrote down systematic rules for proportions that he illustrated in a work known as the Doryphoros. His theory maintained that the use of ideal proportions, based on mathematical ratios found in nature, could produce an ideal human form.

Identifying What was the most important architectural form in ancient Greece?
Greeks in antiquity considered the *Iliad* to be a historical account of their past. Alexander the Great, for example, traced his mother’s family back to the hero Achilles. We know today that the poem is not a true story of a war in Greece’s late Bronze Age (about 1600 to 1100 B.C.). For one thing, the *Iliad* was not written during this period. It is the result of more than 500 years of oral tradition, handed down by generations of professional poets. Credit for the final masterpiece went to someone the Greeks called “divine Homer,” but they knew nothing more about this person than his supposed name—and neither do we.

Still, myths often spring from a kernel of historical truth, and in the late nineteenth century, the Trojan War’s mythic rival cities entered the real world of history. Between 1870 and 1890 German businessman and amateur archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann carried out archaeological digs that put Troy and Mycenae on the map. Since then, archaeologists and scholars have uncovered numerous details suggesting that Homer’s *Iliad* records many aspects of the Greek Bronze Age (known to historians as the Mycenaean Age, for the city that dominated the period). The giant walls of Mycenae and its fabulous treasure, for example, and the geography around Troy itself—to list only a few of them. Researchers have also discovered hundreds of settlements and tombs—all with a shared culture.

The historical Mycenae dominated the plain of Argos, a wealthy region that controlled much of the trade in Homer’s epic poem the *Iliad*, the rich and powerful city-state of Mycenae headed a united Greek attack against “windy Ilion”—the wealthy city of Troy—to avenge the kidnapping of “lovely-haired Helen,” wife of Sparta’s king Menelaus. For centuries, the fabled treasures of these legendary cities were thought to exist—like the Trojan War itself—in imagination only. But modern archaeology suggests there may be more than myth to Homer’s classic tale.
across the Aegean Sea. The city’s massive walls enclosed a large administrative complex of royal courts, houses, sanctuaries, and storerooms. Its famous grave circle, unearthed by Schliemann in 1876, revealed rich treasures suggesting that as early as the sixteenth century B.C. the Mycenaean ruling class possessed a treasure trove of silver, gold, and ivory.

From archaeological digs at both Mycenae and Troy came signs that Homer’s *Iliad* told of real things in the ancient world. Among the items found at Mycenae, for example, was a small gold ring. Carved on its face is a miniature battle scene showing a man protecting his entire body behind a huge shield, the kind that Homer describes the Greek hero Ajax holding in front of him “like a wall.” The *Iliad*’s heroes were known across the sea in Asia as well. Tomb art found in Turkey and dating from the fourth century B.C. depicts a scene from the Trojan siege (opposite page).

Troy’s location at the mouth of the Dardanelles, the strait that Homer called the Hellespont, gave it command of the water route into central Asia. From this vantage point, the historical Trojans traded skillfully throughout central Asia. What remains of Troy’s walls still overlooks a plain crossed by willow-lined rivers mentioned in the *Iliad*.

Heinrich Schliemann’s excavation of Troy was crude and impatient. He sank trenches straight to bedrock, believing Homer’s “windy Ilion” would lie at the bottom, thus destroy-

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1 A scene etched in stone on a fourth century B.C. tomb found in Turkey suggests the *Iliad*’s tragic final battle, between Hector of Troy and Achilles, hero of the Greeks.

2 Prosperous Mycenae traded throughout the Aegean. The reconstruction above shows the city’s fortress in the late thirteenth century B.C., at the peak of its power. Some 250 miles (402 km) away, its rival Troy commanded the strait called the Dardanelles (Homer’s Hellespont), a key link to the Black Sea. Today Troy’s ruins lie 3 miles (4.8 km) inland, but in the late Bronze Age, the city sat on the edge of a bay that opened directly onto the Hellespont.
Today an international team of archaeologists directed by Manfred Korfmann of Germany’s Tübingen University is reexcavating the entire site—nine levels ranging from 3000 B.C. to the Roman city of New Ilium in the early sixth century A.D. The sixth and seventh levels straddle the years 1250 to 1150 B.C., the era of Homer’s war.

Whether or not the Greeks actually launched an invasion or entered Troy by means of the famous Trojan horse ruse (opposite page), evidence shows that the two peoples were in trading contact. Mycenaean pottery found at Troy dates back to 1500 B.C.

Some 1,300 feet (396 m) beyond the citadel first uncovered by Schliemann, Korfmann’s team of archaeologists has made a most exciting find. They uncovered an extensive trench 8 feet (2.4 m) deep and 10 feet (3 m) wide encircling an entire lower town of wooden houses. The reconfigured city (reconstruction above)—which increases the known area of the sixth level of Troy by as much as 50 acres (20.25 ha)—is almost ten times as large as the citadel and held a population of at least 6,000. This finding makes Troy an opponent more equal to the mighty Mycenae than Schliemann’s hilltop fortress.

Farther afield, in a nearby sand cove, lies evidence to support speculation that the Trojans took advantage of their commanding position at this crossroads of trade between Europe and Asia. Because of prevailing north-easterly winds, shallow-keeled Bronze Age merchant ships would have been forced to wait at Troy for a favorable breeze before proceeding north of the Dardanelles to the Black Sea.

Korfmann’s team has located burials in the cove that reflect different cultural influences, suggesting that
the crews of stranded vessels may have died while waiting for the wind to change. Korfmann says later texts confirm that “occupants of the region exacted tolls from incoming vessels.” If Troy grew rich with this practice, it would have made bitter enemies of merchants like the Mycenaeans.

Indeed, some historians speculate that conflict over trade routes, rather than Helen’s legendary beauty, may have sparked the Trojan War. As Korfmann sees it, “It is possible that Troy experienced several commercial skirmishes, if not one Trojan War.”

Stone walls believed to be the citadel of Troy were first unearthed in the 1870s. Troy holds the remains of at least nine settlements spanning 3,500 years. In the early 1990s, archaeologists discovered several wooden palisades and a 10-foot (3-m) trench encircling a lower town (reconstruction). Earlier only the hilltop citadel was known.

The Tumulus of Ajax is one of more than 40 mounds on the plain of Troy said to honor fallen heroes of the Trojan War.

A seventh-century B.C. amphora from Mykonos shows the earliest known depiction of the wooden horse that bore “death and doom for the Trojans.”

INTERPRETING THE PAST

1. Was there a Trojan War? If so, what was its likely cause?

2. What is significant about the strait called the Dardanelles?
The following are the major Sunshine State Standards covered in this section.

SS.A.2.4.4: Understand significant aspects of the economic, political, and social systems of ancient Greece and the cultural contributions of that civilization.

SS.B.1.4.4: Understand how cultural and technological characteristics can link or divide regions.

SS.B.2.4.1: Understand how social, cultural, economic, and environmental factors contribute to the dynamic nature of regions.

People to Identify
Philip II, Alexander the Great, Eratosthenes, Euclid, Archimedes

Places to Locate
Macedonia, Alexandria, Pergamum

Main Ideas
• Under Alexander, Macedonians and Greeks conquered the Persian Empire.
• Hellenistic cities became centers for the spread of Greek culture.

Key Terms
Hellenistic Era, Epicureanism, Stoicism

Preview of Events
359 B.C. Philip II turns Macedonia into the chief power of the Greek world
338 B.C. Macedonia crushes the Greeks
330 B.C. Alexander the Great takes possession of the Persian Empire
323 B.C. Alexander dies at the age of thirty-two

Preview Questions
1. What event brought to an end the freedom of Greek city-states?
2. In what ways has Alexander’s legacy affected history?

Reading Strategy
Compare and Contrast Use a Venn diagram like the one shown below to compare and contrast the characteristics of the Classical and Hellenistic periods.

Voices from the Past

Under the leadership of Alexander the Great, Macedonians and Greeks united to invade and conquer the Persian Empire. The ancient historian Diodorus of Sicily gave this account of Alexander’s destruction of the Persian palace at Persepolis:

“While they [Alexander’s victorious forces] were feasting and the drinking was far advanced, as they began to be drunken a madness took possession of the minds of the intoxicated guests. At this point one of the women present, Thaïs by name and Athenian by origin, said that for Alexander it would be the finest of all his feats in Asia if he . . . set fire to the palaces, and permitted women’s hands in a minute to extinguish the famed accomplishments of the Persians. . . . Promptly many torches were gathered. . . . Thaïs was the first, after the king, to hurl her blazing torch into the palace. As the others all did the same, immediately the entire palace area was consumed.”


In the conquered lands, Greeks and non-Greeks formed a new society in what is known as the Hellenistic Era.

The Threat of Macedonia

The Greeks viewed their northern neighbors, the Macedonians, as barbarians. The Macedonians were rural people organized in groups, not city-states. By the end of the fifth century B.C., however, Macedonia emerged as a powerful kingdom.
In 359 B.C., Philip II came to the throne. He built a powerful army and turned Macedonia into the chief power of the Greek world. Philip was soon drawn into Greek affairs. A great admirer of Greek culture, he longed to unite all of Greece under Macedonia.

Fearing Philip, the Athenians allied with a number of other Greek states and fought the Macedonians at the Battle of Chaeronea (KEHR•uh•NEE•uh), near Thebes, in 338 B.C. The Macedonian army crushed the Greeks.

Philip quickly gained control of all Greece, bringing an end to the freedom of the Greek city-states. He insisted that the Greek states form a league and then cooperate with him in a war against Persia. Before Philip could undertake his invasion of Asia, however, he was assassinated, leaving the task to his son Alexander.

**Reading Check** Identifying What was Philip II’s plan for the conquered Greeks and their city-states?

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**Alexander the Great**

**As a result of Alexander’s conquests, Greek language, art, architecture, and literature spread throughout Southwest Asia. Today we continue to admire and to imitate Greek art and architecture.**

**Alexander the Great**

Alexander was only 20 when he became king of Macedonia. Philip had carefully prepared his son for kingship. By taking Alexander along with him on military campaigns, Philip taught Alexander the basics of military leadership. After his father’s death, Alexander moved quickly to fulfill his father’s dream—the invasion of the Persian Empire. He was motivated by the desire for glory and empire but also by the desire to avenge the Persian burning of Athens in 480 B.C.

**Alexander’s Conquests** Alexander was taking a chance in attacking the Persian Empire. Although weakened, it was still a strong state in the spring of 334 B.C. when Alexander entered Asia Minor with an army of some thirty-seven thousand men, both Macedonians and Greeks. The cavalry, which would play an important role as a striking force, numbered about five thousand.

By the next year, Alexander had freed the Ionian Greek cities of western Asia Minor from the Persians and defeated a large Persian army at Issus. He then turned south. By the winter of 332 B.C., Syria, Palestine, and Egypt were under his control. He built Alexandria as the Greek capital of Egypt. It became, and remains today, one of the most important cities in both Egypt and the Mediterranean world. It was also the first of a series of cities named after him.

In 331 B.C., Alexander turned east and fought the decisive battle with the Persians at Gaugamela, not far from Babylon. After this victory, Alexander took possession of the rest of the Persian Empire. However, he was not content.

Over the next three years, Alexander moved east and northeast, as far as modern Pakistan. In 326 B.C. he crossed the Indus River and entered India, where he experienced a number of difficult campaigns. Weary of fighting year after year, his soldiers refused to go farther.

Alexander agreed to return home. He led his troops across the desert, through what is now southern Iran. A blazing sun and lack of water led to thousands of deaths. At one point, when a group of Alexander’s soldiers found a little water, they scooped it up in a helmet and gave it to him. Then, according to one ancient Greek historian, Alexander, “in full view of his troops, poured the water on the ground. So extraordinary was the effect...
of this action that the water wasted by Alexander was as good as a drink for every man in the army.”

Alexander returned to Babylon, where he planned more campaigns. However, in June 323 B.C., exhausted from wounds, fever, and too much alcohol, he died at the age of 32.

**The Legacy of Alexander** What explains Alexander’s extraordinary military success? No doubt, he was a great military leader—a master of strategy and tactics, fighting in every kind of terrain and facing every kind of opponent. Alexander was a brave and even reckless fighter who was quite willing to lead his men into battle and risk his own life. His example inspired his men to follow him into unknown lands and difficult situations. Alexander sought to imitate Achilles, the warrior-hero of Homer’s *Iliad*, who was an ideal still important in Greek culture. Alexander kept a copy of the *Iliad*—and a dagger—under his pillow.

Alexander’s military skill created an enormous legacy. He had extended Greek and Macedonian rule over a vast area. This brought large quantities of gold and silver to Greece and Macedonia, stimulating their economies.

Alexander’s successors tried to imitate him, using force and claims of divine rule to create military monarchies. Although mainland Greeks remained committed to the ideals of the city-state, the creation of the monarchies became part of Alexander’s political legacy.

Alexander also left a cultural legacy. Due to his conquests, Greek language, architecture, literature, and art spread throughout Southwest Asia and the Near East. The cultural influences did not, however, flow in only one direction. The Greeks also absorbed aspects of Eastern culture.

**Reading Check** Identifying What were the different aspects of Alexander’s legacy?
The Hellenistic Kingdoms

Alexander created a new age, the Hellenistic Era. The word Hellenistic is derived from a Greek word meaning “to imitate Greeks.” It is an appropriate way, then, to describe an age that saw the expansion of the Greek language and ideas to the non-Greek world of Southwest Asia and beyond.

The united empire that Alexander created by his conquests fell apart soon after his death as the most important Macedonian generals engaged in a struggle for power. By 300 B.C., any hope of unity was dead. Eventually, four Hellenistic kingdoms emerged as the successors to Alexander: Macedonia, Syria in the east, the kingdom of Pergamum in western Asia Minor, and Egypt. All were eventually conquered by the Romans.

Alexander the Great had planned to fuse Macedonians, Greeks, and Persians in his new empire by using Persians as officials and encouraging his soldiers to marry native women. The Hellenistic monarchs who succeeded him, however, relied only on Greeks and Macedonians to form the new ruling class. Even those easterners who did advance to important government posts had learned Greek, for all government business was transacted in Greek. The Greek ruling class was determined to maintain its privileged position.

In his conquests, Alexander had created a series of new cities and military settlements. Hellenistic kings did likewise. These new population centers varied in size from military settlements of only a few hundred men to cities with thousands of people. Alexandria, which Alexander had founded in Egypt, was the largest city in the Mediterranean region by the first century B.C.

Hellenistic rulers encouraged a massive spread of Greek colonists to Southwest Asia. Greeks (and Macedonians) provided not only new recruits for the army but also a pool of civilian administrators and workers. Architects, engineers, dramatists, and actors were all in demand in the new Greek cities. The Greek cities of the Hellenistic Era became the chief agents in the spread of Greek culture in Southwest Asia—as far, in fact, as modern Afghanistan and India.

Reading Check Identifying Which four kingdoms emerged following Alexander’s death?

After Alexander’s death, the Greek world separated into four emerging kingdoms.

1. Interpreting Maps Which kingdom appears to have had the most extensive territory?
Hellenistic Culture

The Hellenistic Era was a period of considerable cultural accomplishment in many areas, especially science and philosophy. These achievements occurred throughout the Hellenistic world. Certain centers, however—especially the great Hellenistic city of Alexandria—stood out. Alexandria became home to poets, writers, philosophers, and scientists—scholars of all kinds.

The library in Alexandria became the largest in ancient times, with more than five hundred thousand scrolls. The library encouraged the careful study of literature and language. There was also a museum that provided a favorable atmosphere for scholarly research.

Pergamum, the most important city in Asia Minor, also became a leading cultural center. As a result, Pergamum also attracted both scholars and artists. The library at Pergamum was second only to Alexandria’s library.

Architecture and Sculpture The founding of new cities and the rebuilding of old ones presented many opportunities for Greek architects and sculptors. Hellenistic kings were very willing to spend their money to beautify the cities within their states. The buildings characteristic of the Greek homeland—baths, theaters, and temples—lined the streets of these cities.

Both Hellenistic kings and rich citizens patronized sculptors. Thousands of statues were erected in towns and cities all over the Hellenistic world. Hellenistic sculptors maintained the technical skill of the classical period, but they moved away from the idealism of earlier classicism to a more emotional and realistic art. This is especially evident in the numerous statues of old women and little children.

Literature The Hellenistic Age produced an enormous quantity of literature. Writing talent was held in high esteem, especially by Hellenistic leaders who spent large amounts of money subsidizing writers. Unfortunately very little of this literature has survived.

Appolonius of Rhodes wrote the epic poem called Argonautica, which tells the story of Jason and his search for the Golden Fleece. Theocritus wrote short poems that expressed a love of nature and an appreciation of nature’s beauty. Unlike Appolonius, Theocritus believed that it was best not to attempt epic poems, for which Homer had established a standard that could not be matched according to many Greek scholars.

Athens remained the center of Greek theatre. A new type of comedy developed that sought only to entertain and amuse and avoided political commentary. Menander was perhaps the most successful of these new playwrights.

Science The Hellenistic Age witnessed considerable advances in the sciences. Astronomy and mathematics were two areas of progress.

One astronomer—Aristarchus (AR•uh•STAHR•kuhs) of Samos—developed the theory that the sun is at the center of the universe while the Earth rotates around the sun in a circular orbit. The prevailing view, in contrast, held that Earth was at the center of the universe. The new theory was not widely accepted. Most scholars continued to believe in the Earth-centered universe.

Another astronomer—Eratosthenes (EHR•uh•TAHS•thuh•NEEZ)—determined that Earth was round and calculated Earth’s circumference at 24,675 miles (39,702 km), an estimate that was within 185 miles (298 km) of the actual figure. The mathematician Euclid wrote the Elements, a textbook on plane geometry. This work has been used up to modern times.

By far the most famous of the scientists of the Hellenistic period was Archimedes (AHR•kuh•MEE•deeze) of Syracuse. Archimedes was especially important because of his work on the geometry of spheres and cylinders, as well as for establishing the value of the mathematical constant pi.
Archimedes was also a practical inventor. He may have devised the Archimedes’ screw, a machine used to pump water out of mines and to lift irrigation water. During the Roman siege of his native city of Syracuse, he built a number of devices to repel the attackers.

Archimedes’ achievements inspired a number of stories. Supposedly, he discovered specific gravity by observing the water he displaced in his bath. He then became so excited by his realization that he jumped out of the water and ran home naked, shouting, “Eureka!” (“I have found it!”) He is said to have emphasized the importance of levers by proclaiming to the king of Syracuse, “Give me a lever and a place to stand on and I will move the earth.” The king was so impressed that he encouraged Archimedes to lower his sights and build defensive weapons instead.

**Philosophy** Athens remained the chief center for philosophy in the Hellenistic world. After the time of Alexander the Great, the home of Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle continued to attract the most famous philosophers from the Greek world, who chose to establish their schools there. New systems of thought—Epicureanism and Stoicism—strengthened Athens’ reputation as a philosophical center.

Epicurus, the founder of a philosophy that came to be known as Epicureanism, established a school in Athens near the end of the fourth century B.C. Epicurus believed that human beings were free to follow self-interest as a basic motivating force. Happiness was the goal of life. The means to achieve happiness was the pursuit of pleasure, the only true good.

Epicurus did not speak of the pursuit of pleasure in a physical sense (which is what our word epicurean has come to mean). Instead, pleasure was freedom from emotional turmoil and worry. To achieve this, people had to free themselves from public activity. However, they were not to give up all social life. To Epicurus, a life could only be complete when it was centered on the ideal of friendship.

Another school of thought was Stoicism. It became the most popular philosophy of the Hellenistic world and later flourished in the Roman Empire as well. Stoicism was the product of a teacher named Zeno. Zeno came to Athens and began to teach in a building known as the Painted Portico (the Stoa Poikile—hence, the word Stoicism).

Like Epicureanism, Stoicism was concerned with how people find happiness. However, the Stoics approached the problem differently. To them, happiness could be found only when people gained inner peace by living in harmony with the will of God. They could bear whatever life offered (hence, our word stoic).

Unlike Epicureans, Stoics did not believe in the need to separate themselves from the world and politics. Public service was regarded as noble. The real Stoic was a good citizen.

### Checking for Understanding

1. **Define** Hellenistic Era, Epicureanism, Stoicism.
2. **Identify** Philip II, Alexander the Great, Eratosthenes, Euclid, Archimedes.
3. **Locate** Macedonia, Alexandria, Pergamum.
4. **Describe** the defining characteristics of the Hellenistic period.
5. **List** the three most famous scientists of the Hellenistic Age and describe their contributions.

### Critical Thinking

6. **Evaluate** Why is Alexander called “Great”? Do you think the title is justified? Why or why not?
7. **Organizing Information** Use a cluster diagram to show Alexander’s goals for his empire.

### Analyzing Visuals

8. **Examine** the photograph of Alexandria, Egypt, shown on page 141 of your text. What do you notice that you might not have expected about the city? What does the city’s location tell you about the importance of ports to Alexander’s creation of an empire?

### Writing About History

9. **Persuasive Writing** Choose an Epicurean or Stoic perspective and argue whether an individual should participate in government and civic affairs. **FCAT LA.B.1.4.2**
Using Key Terms

1. Some Greek city-states were committed to government by the many, called _____, while others ruled by _____, which means rule by the few.
2. The upper fortified part of a city, the _____, was a place of refuge during an attack.
3. _____ were a heavily armed military order of infantrymen or foot soldiers.
4. Marching shoulder to shoulder in a rectangular formation was known as a _____.
5. Athenians devised the practice of _____ to protect themselves against overly ambitious politicians.
6. In order to know the will of the gods, the Greeks consulted an _____, a sacred shrine dedicated to a god or goddess.
7. According to the Greek philosophy of _____, humans are free to follow self-interest as a basic motivating force.
8. Greek citizens assembled in an open area called an _____ that also served as a market.
9. The term _____ comes from the Greek word that means “love of wisdom.”
10. Greek _____ were presented as a set of three plays.
11. The _____ of teaching uses a question-and-answer format to lead pupils to understand ideas for themselves.

Reviewing Key Facts

12. Culture What was the basic textbook for the education of Greek males?
13. Citizenship What were the rights and responsibilities of Athenian citizens?
14. Economics What types of goods were exchanged between the Greek city-states and their colonies?
15. Government Why was Sparta a military state?
16. History What is significant about the Age of Pericles?
17. Society How were Greek women kept under strict control?
18. History How did Philip prepare Alexander for kingship?
19. History What is the meaning of the term Hellenistic?
20. Culture Who were the philosophers of classical Greece?
21. Science and Technology What contributions did Pythagorus, Eratosthenes, and Archimedes make to science?

Critical Thinking

22. Analyzing How did the formation of the Delian League give proof to the saying that strength lies in unity?
23. Understanding Cause and Effect The Peloponnesian War weakened the Greek states, yet later, Greek culture was spread farther than ever. How did this happen?
Self-Check Quiz
Visit the Glencoe World History Web site at wh.glencoe.com and click on Chapter 4—Self-Check Quiz to prepare for the Chapter Test.

Writing About History
24. Expository Writing Some classicists translate Sophocles’ work on Oedipus as “Oedipus Tyrannus” or “Oedipus the Tyrant.” Using what you know about Greek history, explain why some people might want to talk about Oedipus as a tyrant rather than a king. [FCAT LA.B.1.4.2]

Analyzing Sources
Read the following excerpt from Pericles’ Funeral Oration:

“Our Constitution is called a democracy because the 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. Just as our political life is free and open, so is our day-to-day life in our relations with each other. . . . Here each individual is interested not only in his own affairs but in the affairs of the state as well.”

25. How does Pericles define a democracy?
26. According to Pericles, what is the relationship between the individual and the state in a democracy?
27. What is the historical significance of this speech in Pericles’ own day and now?

Applying Technology Skills
28. Creating a Multimedia Presentation Using the Internet and traditional print sources, conduct further research on Greek architecture, especially the design and building of temples. Then, design and construct a small three-dimensional temple, using the type of column you feel is best suited to your building. To which Greek god or goddess will your temple be dedicated? Share your project with the class.

Making Decisions
29. Pretend you are Pericles in Athens facing the possibility of a Spartan assault. Why are you and Sparta at war? Are there any alternatives to battle? Might you choose to negotiate with Sparta? Keep in mind the reasons for Spartan antagonism and the great costs a battle inflicts.