MAKING CONNECTIONS

How did the Greeks shape our culture?

When you go to a theater, laugh at a comedy, or cry at a tragedy, you are using words and ideas from ancient Greece. Theaters, like the one in Taormina, Italy, shown here, were carved out of hillsides and had such good acoustics that audiences of up to 14,000 could hear the actors and chorus. In this chapter you will learn how the Greeks continue to influence our culture today.

- What impact did the Mediterranean climate have on Greek buildings?
- How do our stadiums and theaters resemble Greek theaters?
Organizing Review the text for information about the Hellenistic Era and then create a Shutter Fold to organize facts about the era and Alexander the Great.

History ONLINE Chapter Overview—Visit glencoe.com to preview Chapter 4.
### Early Civilizations in Greece

During the third millennium B.C., the island of Crete was home to the most advanced civilization in Europe. Although Minoan Crete was not Greek; it did have some influence on the first Greek state. The story of ancient Greek civilization begins when a group of Greek-speaking Indo-European people moved into Greece around 1900 B.C. The Mycenaens provided the inspiration for Homer’s epics and paved the way for the political and cultural developments of Greece in the first millennium B.C.

#### The Impact of Geography

The mountains that divided Greece led to cultural and political divisions between Greeks. However, the seas linked Greece to the rest of the world. **HISTORY & YOU** How does the physical geography of your town influence life in your community? What physical features affect your everyday life? Read about the effects of geography on development of Greek civilization.

Geography played an important role in the development of Greek civilization. Compared with the landmasses of Mesopotamia and Egypt, Greece occupies a small area. It consists of a mountainous peninsula and numerous islands that encompass about 50,000 square miles (about 129,500 square km) 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.

#### Mountains

Two peninsulas make up much of the Greek landmass. The Isthmus of Corinth connects the Peloponnese peninsula to the mainland. About 80 percent of Greece is mountainous. Olympus is the highest peak in the Pindus Mountains, which divide the mainland. Much of Greece consists of small plains and river valleys surrounded by high mountain ranges from 8,000 to 10,000 feet (2,438 to 3,048 m) high. These mountains isolated Greeks from one another, causing different Greek communities to develop their own ways of life.

Over a period of time, these communities became fiercely independent. It is probable that the small size of these independent communities encouraged people to **participate** in political affairs. On the other hand, the rivalry between the communities led to warfare that devastated Greek society.
The physical geography of Greece had a major impact on the development of Greek civilization.

1. Human-Environment Interaction How has Greece’s geography affected settlement patterns?

2. Regions Using the map, discuss what might account for differences in the cultures of Mycenae and Troy.

Seas

The sea also influenced the evolution of Greek society. The Aegean, Mediterranean, and Ionian Seas make up the eastern, southern, and western borders of Greece. Its location on a peninsula gives Greece a long seacoast dotted by bays and inlets that provided many harbors. Although Greece is small, it has an 8,500 mile (13,700 km) coastline. In fact, no part of the Greek mainland is more than 60 miles (100 km) from a body of water. The ancient Greeks also lived on a number of islands to the west, south, and east of the Greek mainland. Surrounded by water, it was no accident that the Greeks became seafarers. They sailed out into the Aegean Sea, the Mediterranean Sea, and the Black Sea, making contact with the outside world. Later they established several colonies that spread Greek civilization throughout the Mediterranean world.

✓ Reading Check Explaining What role did the mountains and the sea play in the development of Greek history?
The Palace at Knossos

At the Palace at Knossos, Arthur Evans discovered evidence of Linear B, the oldest surviving writing in the Greek dialect known as Mycenaean. Evans wrote about Europe’s earliest literate civilization.

“The clay archives found in the Palace of Knossos and elsewhere have proved that the prehistoric Cretan had already, a thousand years before the appearance of the first written record of Classical Greece, passed through every stage in the evolution of a highly developed system of script.

There is evidence of a simple pictographic stage, and a conventionalized hieroglyphic system growing out of it...”
—Arthur J. Evans

The ruins of the palace extend over 700,000 square feet (65,000 sq. m). Housing 5,000 people, the complex served as residence, warehouse, and religious center.

1. **Describing** What purposes did the Palace at Knossos serve?
2. **Making Inferences** What does Evans believe his discovery of Linear B at Knossos proves?

---

**Minoans and Mycenaeans**

**MAIN IDEA** The Mycenaeans created the first Greek civilization.

**HISTORY & YOU** What do buildings say about society? Read about the Minoan and Mycenaean cultures.

By 2800 B.C., a **Bronze Age** civilization had been established on the island of Crete. Called the **Minoan** civilization, it flourished from 2700 to 1450 B.C. The Minoans were not Greek, but they did influence the peoples of the Greek mainland.

At the Palace at Knossos, Arthur Evans discovered evidence of Linear B, the oldest surviving writing in the Greek dialect known as Mycenaean. Evans wrote about Europe’s earliest literate civilization.

“The clay archives found in the Palace of Knossos and elsewhere have proved that the prehistoric Cretan had already, a thousand years before the appearance of the first written record of Classical Greece, passed through every stage in the evolution of a highly developed system of script.

There is evidence of a simple pictographic stage, and a conventionalized hieroglyphic system growing out of it...”
—Arthur J. Evans

The ruins of the palace extend over 700,000 square feet (65,000 sq. m). Housing 5,000 people, the complex served as residence, warehouse, and religious center.

1. **Describing** What purposes did the Palace at Knossos serve?
2. **Making Inferences** What does Evans believe his discovery of Linear B at Knossos proves?
There, they traded finely crafted pottery and gold and silver jewelry from Crete for other goods. Trade also helped the Minoans improve the goods they produced: they drew inspiration from techniques and designs from objects from other lands. Although the Minoans built palaces on several sites in Crete, the palace at Knossos was the royal seat of the kings. This elaborate building 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. Rooms were decorated with brightly colored paintings showing sporting events and nature scenes. Storerooms held gigantic jars of oil, wine, and grain 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 Mycenaens (my•suh•NEE•uhnz).

**Mycenae: The First Greek State**

The term Mycenaean comes from Mycenae (my•S•EE•nee), a fortified site on the Greek mainland that was first discovered by the German archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann. Mycenae was one center in a Mycenaean Greek civilization that flourished between 1600 B.C. and 1100 B.C.

The Mycenaen Greeks were part of the Indo-European family of peoples who spread into Europe and Asia. One of these groups entered Greece around 1900 B.C. and gradually gained control of the Greek mainland. Mycenaean civilization, which reached its high point between 1400 B.C. 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 monarchies in these 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 scattered 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.

The Mycenaens 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. However, some historians believe that the Mycenaens, 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 is recounted in the poetry of Homer. According to Homer, Mycenaen Greeks, led by Agamemnon, king of Mycenae, sacked (plundered) 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. (See discussion of archaeological methods featured in Chapter 1.) Many believe that Homer’s account of the attack on Troy does have a basis in fact.

By the late thirteenth century B.C., Mycenaean Greece was showing signs of serious trouble. Mycenaean states fought one another, and major earthquakes 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 the Mycenaean government organized?
Greeks in the Dark Age

**MAIN IDEA**
Greek civilization was slow to recover from the several centuries of instability that followed the fall of the Mycenaeans.

**HISTORY & YOU**
How is a society’s view of its history important to its success? Read about how Homer’s version of Greek history affected the Greeks.

After the collapse of Mycenaean civilization, Greece entered a difficult period in which the population declined and food production dropped. Historians call the period from approximately 1100 B.C. 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.

**Changes of the Dark Age**

During the Dark Age, many 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), in modern-day Turkey.

Two other major groups of Greeks settled in established parts of Greece. The Aeolian Greeks of northern and central Greece colonized the large island of Lesbos and the territory near the mainland. The Dorians established themselves in southwestern Greece, especially in the Peloponnesse, as well as on some of the southern Aegean islands, including Crete.

In addition to agriculture, there was a revival of some trade and economic activity during the Dark Age. Iron replaced bronze in weaponry, making weapons affordable for more people. Iron farming tools helped reverse the decline in food production.

At some point in the eighth century B.C., the Greeks adopted the Phoenician alphabet to give themselves a new system of writing. By reducing all words to a combination of 24 letters (both consonants and vowels) the Greeks made learning to read and write simpler. The work of Homer, one of the great poets of all time, appeared near the end of the Dark Age.

Some art from the Dark Age has survived, giving a hint of life during that period.

1. **Making Inferences** Study these art objects. What conclusion might you draw about life during the Dark Age?
2. **Drawing Conclusions** What practical purpose do you think the object with the griffin’s head served?

In the seventh century B.C., art began to take on a more Eastern appearance as the Greeks made contact with civilizations in Asia. The griffin’s head design on pottery was found in Greece as well as throughout Southwest Asia.

This statue shows a traveling musician and storyteller, or bard like Homer.

From 1100-700 B.C., geometric patterns were typical of Greek pottery. This amphora, or two-handled jar, decorated graves near the Dipylon gate in Athens.
Homer: Poet of the Dark Age

The *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* were the first great epic poems of early Greece. An epic poem is a long poem that tells the deeds of a great hero. The *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* were based on stories that had been passed from generation to generation. Both poems are hundreds of pages long, but not because they tried to preserve an entire account of history as earlier oral poets did. Instead, Homer focuses his imagination on the dramatic events of a few days of the Trojan War.

Homer used stories of the Trojan War to compose the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. The war is caused by Paris, a prince of Troy. By kidnapping Helen, the wife of the king of the Greek state of Sparta, Paris outrages all the Greeks. Under the leadership of the Spartan king’s brother, King Agamemnon, the Greeks attack Troy.

Ten years later, the Greeks devise a plan to take the city. They trick the Trojans by building a huge hollow wooden horse. The best Mycenaean soldiers hide inside the horse, while the rest board their ships and pretend to sail away. The joyful Trojans, thinking themselves victorious, bring the gift horse into the city. That night, the Greeks creep out of the horse, slaughter the Trojan men, enslave the women and children, and burn the city to the ground. The *Iliad* is not so much the story of the war itself, however, as it is the tale of the Greek hero Achilles (uh•KIH•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. It 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 the actions of their heroic ancestors.

Reading Check: Why is Homer thought to have created Greek history?
GUIDE TO READING

The BIG Idea
Ideas, Beliefs, and Values Differences between Athenian and Spartan values led to different forms of government.

Content Vocabulary
- polis (p. 112)
- acropolis (p. 112)
- agora (p. 112)
- hoplite (p. 113)
- phalanx (p. 113)
- tyrant (p. 114)
- democracy (p. 114)
- oligarchy (p. 114)
- helot (p. 115)
- ephor (p. 116)

Academic Vocabulary
- assemble (p. 112)
- implies (p. 114)

People and Places
- Hellespont (p. 114)
- Bosporus (p. 114)
- Byzantium (p. 114)
- Sparta (p. 115)
- Athens (p. 117)
- Solon (p. 117)
- Cleisthenes (p. 117)

Reading Strategy
Categorizing Information As you read, create a chart like the one below to help you study. Identify the advantages and disadvantages of each of the three types of government used in Greek city-states.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Advantage</th>
<th>Disadvantage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tyranny</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democracy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oligarchy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Greek City-States

Greece slowly recovered during the late part of the Dark Age. Several Greek centers of trade established themselves during the ninth century B.C., and population growth in the following century fueled a growth in agriculture. Increased trade stimulated craftwork and shipbuilding. Greek communities were growing and gaining wealth.

Polis: The Center of Greek Life

As the polis or city-state was the central focus of Greek life. The citizens of a polis had defined rights and responsibilities, as well as a strong identity and loyalty that kept the city-states divided.

HISTORY & YOU How is your community organized? Read about the organization of the Greek polis.

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.

Organization of the City-State

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 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 300,000 by the fifth century B.C., but most city-states were much smaller, consisting of only a few hundred to several thousand people.

Community of the City-State

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.
Citizens 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, nobles on horseback fought wars in Greece. 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 9 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.

**Defining** Describe the characteristics of a Greek city-state.

**Critical Thinking Skills**

Ancient Athens was a powerful Greek city-state, and is considered to be the birthplace of Western civilization.

1. **Describing** Describe the location of the agora in relation to the Acropolis.
2. **Drawing Conclusions** Why were temples and public buildings located within the Acropolis?
Greek Expansion

**MAIN IDEA** The search for farmland and the growth of trade resulted in colonization and the spread of Greek culture and political ideas.

**HISTORY & YOU** How does your community choose its leaders? Read about how new leaders came to power in Greek city-states.

Between 750 B.C. 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 important factors in the people’s decisions to settle in new places. Each Greek colony became a new polis, independent of the polis that had founded it.

**Greek Colonies**

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 straits. The most notable of these cities was Byzantium (buh-ZAN-shuhm), the site of what later became Constantinople and is now Istanbul. In establishing these colonies, the Greeks spread their culture and political ideas throughout the Mediterranean.

Securing control of the straits and waterways between the Mediterranean and Black Seas also gave the Greeks great economic advantages. Colonization in these prime port locations 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. The landowners would not willingly give up their political power to the newly rich merchants.

**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. They were unique in Greek history, and in fact, the Greeks did not have a word for them: the Greek term *tyrannos* was developed from another language, probably one from Asia Minor.

Support for the tyrants came from the newly rich who had made their money in trade and industry. These people were hungry for the social prestige and political influence that aristocrats had denied them. Poor peasants who were in debt to landholding aristocrats also supported the tyrants. Both the newly 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, the tyrants tried to help the poor and launched public works projects. They built new marketplaces, temples, and walls. These efforts glorified the city but, more importantly, increased the tyrants’ popularity. Despite their achievements, however, the tyrants eventually came to be seen as oppressive. The tyrants had fallen out of favor by the end of the sixth century B.C. Greeks believed in the rule of law, and tyranny was an insult to that ideal.

Although tyranny did not last, it played an important role in Greek history. The rule of the tyrants ended the rule of the aristocrats in many city-states. The end of tyranny then allowed many new people to participate in government. In some Greek city-states, this led to the development of democracy, which is government by the people or rule of the many. Other city-states remained committed to government by an oligarchy, rule by the few.

✓ Reading Check Evaluating What role did tyrants play in the development of Greek forms of government?
Two Rival City-States

Sparta and Athens developed different systems of government.

**HISTORY & YOU** How can strict rules affect people? Read about the Spartans’ strict rules.

The differences in the Greek city-states can be understood by examining the two most famous and powerful city-states, Sparta and Athens.

**Sparta**

Like other Greek city-states, Sparta needed more land. Instead of starting 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.

Between 800 B.C. 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...
The krater was a wide-mouthed mixing bowl used to mix water with wine—the most popular beverage with meals. A special krater on a stand was part of the wedding ceremony. This red-figured krater depicts the winner of a music contest.

The amphora, a jar to store wine, oil, and grain, came in all sizes. Winners of athletic contests in Athens won an amphora filled with olive oil. This black-figured amphora shows people gathering olives.

Everyday Art in Athens

The Greeks made pottery for every possible use. The best Greek pottery came from Athens because the clay found there was easy to bake in a kiln. At first, the pottery was decorated with geometric shapes. Later scenes from everyday life, stories of the gods, wars, and Olympic events decorated the pottery. Before 500 B.C., the pottery was red with figures that appeared black after they were baked. After 500 B.C., craftsmen discovered how to create red figures on a black background.

The krater was a wide-mouthed mixing bowl used to mix water with wine—the most popular beverage with meals. A special krater on a stand was part of the wedding ceremony. This red-figured krater depicts the winner of a music contest.

The kylix was a type of two-handled drinking cup. Potters decorated the inside and outside of the kylix.

1. **Making Inferences** Based on the information provided, which pot was most likely produced after 500 B.C.? Explain.
2. **Drawing Conclusions** What conclusions can you draw about Greek life from the scenes depicted on the pottery?
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. 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. The art of war was the Spartan ideal. All other arts were frowned upon.

**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. The assembly of all the citizens 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. Civil war seemed likely.

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. Despite Solon’s reforms 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.

Peisistratus (pih•SIHS•truh•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 Peisistratus’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•NEEZ), another reformer, gained the upper hand.

Cleisthenes created a council of 500 that supervised foreign affairs, oversaw the treasury, and proposed laws. The Athenian assembly, composed of male citizens, was given final authority to pass laws after free and open debate. Because the assembly now had the central political role, the reforms of Cleisthenes created the foundations for Athenian democracy.

**Vocabulary**

1. **Explain** the significance of: polis, acropolis, agora, assemble, hoplite, phalanx, Hellespont, Bosporus, Byzantium, implies, tyrant, democracy, oligarchy, Sparta, helot, ephor, Athens, Solon, Cleisthenes.

**Main Ideas**

2. **Summarize** how the city-states’ military system had changed by 700 B.C.

3. **Sequence** the causes and effects of Greek colonization, trade, and industry. Create a cause-and-effect sequence chart like the one below to record your answer.

4. **Explain** the different political systems in Athens and Sparta.

**Critical Thinking**

5. **Big Idea** Making Generalizations

Discuss the ideas, beliefs, and values that are implied in forms of government that the Spartans and Athenians adopted.

6. **Comparing and Contrasting** In what way(s) is Athenian democracy similar to American democracy? In what way(s) is it different?

7. **Analyzing Visuals** Examine the photograph of the Acropolis on page 113 of your text. Why do you think the Athenians decided to place their important buildings on top of a hill?

**Writing About History**

8. **Descriptive Writing** Imagine that you are a 25-year-old male living in Sparta in 700 B.C. Create a diary in which you record your activities for one week. Write one diary page for each day.
Classical Greece

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.

The Challenge of Persia

The Greek states of Athens and Sparta formed alliances to defeat the Persian invaders.

**HISTORY & YOU** What are some stories of American soldiers’ bravery and struggle in combat? Read about the Greek forces in battle.

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 fallen 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. It is said that Darius ordered one of his slaves to say to him at every meal, “Sire, remember the Athenians.”

In 490 B.C., the Persians landed on the plain of Marathon, only 26 miles (42 km) from Athens. There, an outnumbered Athenian army attacked and defeated the Persians decisively. The Persians returned to Asia. According to legend, news of Persia’s defeat was brought by an Athenian runner named Pheidippides, who raced from Marathon to Athens. With his last breath, he announced, “Victory, we win,” before dropping dead. Today’s marathon race is based on this heroic story. Although the Battle of Marathon was a minor defeat to the Persians, to the Athenians it proved that the Persians could be beaten and gave them new confidence in their city-state.

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, some of the Greek states formed a defensive league under the Spartans. The Athenians, however, followed a new military policy insisted on by Themistocles, one of the Athenian leaders, and built a navy. By the time the Persians invaded in 480 B.C., the Athenians had a fleet of about 200 vessels.

Xerxes led a massive invasion force into Greece. His forces included about 180,000 troops and thousands of warships and supply vessels. In spite of their differences, Athenians, Spartans, and other Greeks were united by a common goal of defeating the
Persian invaders. The Greeks tried to delay the Persians at the pass of Thermopylae, along the main road into central Greece. A Greek force of about 7,000 held off the Persian army for two days. The 300 Spartans in the Greek army were especially brave.

When told that Persian arrows would darken the sky in battle, one Spartan responded, “That is good news. We will fight in the shade!” Unfortunately, a traitor told the Persians how to use a mountain path to outflank the Greek force.

The Athenians, now threatened by the arrival of Persian forces, abandoned their city. Near the island of Salamis, the Greek fleet, though outnumbered, managed to defeat the Persians. 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?
Pericles was a prominent political leader in Athens from 461 B.C. to 429 B.C. During this time, he expanded Athenian democracy to enable all citizens to play a role in government. In his famous speech, the Funeral Oration, given to honor those who perished in Athens’s war with Sparta, Pericles describes the Greek ideal of democracy:

“Our constitution does not copy the laws of neighboring states; we are rather a pattern to others than imitators ourselves. Its administration favors the many instead of the few; this is why it is called a democracy. If we look to the laws, they afford equal justice to all in their private differences; if no social standing, advancement in public life falls to reputation for capacity, class considerations not being allowed to interfere with merit; nor again does poverty bar the way. . . . The freedom which we enjoy in our government extends also to our ordinary life. . . . [W]e do not feel called upon to be angry with our neighbor for doing what he likes. . . . But all this ease in our private relations does not make us lawless as citizens. Against this fear is our chief safeguard, teaching us to obey the magistrates and the laws. . . .

—Pericles, as quoted in History of the Peloponnesian War, Book 2, Thucydides

### Comparing Democratic Systems

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Athenian Democracy</th>
<th>Modern U.S. Democracy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Scale</td>
<td>Athenian population = 250,000</td>
<td>U.S. population = 300,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number of adult males eligible to vote = 43,000</td>
<td>Number of adult citizens eligible to vote = 203,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>Direct—all men voted on all issues of government</td>
<td>Representative—officials are elected to speak for the people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eligibility</td>
<td>Only adult male citizens of Athens were eligible to participate.</td>
<td>All adult male and female citizens of the United States are eligible to vote.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Greeks laid the political foundations of Western civilization through their democratic ideals.

1. **Analyzing** According to Pericles, how does one advance in public life?
2. **Comparing** How do participation and eligibility in Athenian democracy differ from participation and eligibility in modern U.S. democracy?
The Athenian Empire

During the Age of Pericles, Athens became the center of Greek culture.

**HISTORY & YOU** What are your rights in society?
Read about life in Greece during the Age of Pericles.

After the defeat of the Persians, Athens took over the leadership of the entire Greek world. In 478 B.C., the Athenians formed a defensive alliance against the Persians known as 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 on the mainland. By controlling the Delian League, Athens had created an empire.

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

**The Age of Pericles**

By creating a **direct democracy**, Pericles expanded the involvement of Athenians in their democracy. In such a system, every male citizen participates directly in government decision making through mass meetings. In Athens, every male citizen participated in the governing assembly and voted on all major issues.

Every ten days the assembly met on a hillside east of the Acropolis. The assembly passed all laws, elected public officials, and made decisions concerning war and foreign policy. Anyone attending the assembly could speak, but usually only respected leaders did so. Pericles made it possible for poor citizens to take part in public affairs by paying officeholders.

A large body of city officials ran the government on a daily basis. Ten officials, or generals, directed policy. The generals could be reelected, so individual leaders could play an important political role.

Athenians devised the practice of **ostracism** to protect against ambitious politicians. On a pottery fragment (ostrakon), members of the assembly could write the name of a person they considered harmful. A person named by at least 6,000 members was banned from the city for 10 years.

Under Pericles, Athens became the center of Greek culture. Since the Persian Wars had destroyed much of the city, Pericles began a massive rebuilding program with new temples and statues that signified the greatness of Athens. Art, architecture, and philosophy flourished. Pericles proudly called Athens the “school of Greece.”

**Daily Life in Classical Athens**

By 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. Most residents of Athens were not citizens. 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—military service and the funding of festivals. 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 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.

**Economy and Society**

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. Athenians raised sheep and goats for wool, milk, and dairy 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 helped Athens become the leading trade center in the fifth-century B.C. Greek world.

The family was an important institution in ancient Athens. It was composed of a husband, wife, and children, although Athenians also regarded other dependent relatives and even slaves as parts of their families. The family’s primary function was to produce new citizens by having children.

Women who were citizens could take part in most religious festivals but otherwise were excluded from public life. They were expected to remain at home, out of sight in special quarters, unless attending funerals or festivals. If they left the house, women had to have a companion.

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 work.

Women were strictly controlled. Women could not own property other than personal items. They always had a male guardian: if unmarried, a father; if married, a husband; if widowed, a son or male relative. Because they married at 14 or 15, girls learned their responsibilities early. Their mothers taught them how to run a home, including how to spin and weave cloth. Although many learned to read and to play musical instruments, girls were not provided with any formal education. Women did not work outside the home unless they were poor. Then they could only work at unskilled jobs, not skilled trades.
The Great Peloponnesian War

MAIN IDEA  The creation of an Athenian empire led to tensions with Sparta and, eventually, war.

HISTORY & YOU  How can differences between societies lead to conflict? Read to learn about the war between Sparta and Athens.

After the defeat of the Persians, the Greek world came to be divided into two major camps: the Athenian Empire and Sparta and its supporters. 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. The Athenians had a better navy, but the Spartans had a stronger army. Pericles also believed that Athens was secure behind its walls, so the Athenians stayed put.

In the first winter of the war, the Athenians held a public funeral to honor those who had died in combat. Pericles spoke about the greatness of Athens and the strength of its political system. (Read more on page 120.)

In the second year of the war, a plague broke out in the overly crowded city of Athens. The plague killed 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.

A crushing blow to the Athenians came in 405 B.C., when their fleet was destroyed at Aegospotami 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.

Vocabulary
1. Explain the significance of: Asia Minor, Darius, Xerxes, Delian League, Delos, Pericles, classical, Age of Pericles, direct democracy, ostracism, Thebes, Macedonia, strategy.

Main Ideas
2. Specify the cause of the Persian attacks on Athens.
3. Organize information about Athens’s population to create a circle graph showing the ratio of citizens, foreigners, and slaves in classical Athens.

4. Identify which states struggled for power after the Great Peloponnesian War.

Critical Thinking
5. BIG Idea  Analyzing  How might the Athenians’ leadership of the Delian League have contributed to the Great Peloponnesian War?

6. Analyzing Visuals  Examine the image of Pericles giving the Funeral Oration during the Peloponnesian War on page 120. Describe the crowd’s reaction to their leader’s speech.

Writing About History
7. Descriptive Writing  Write three short journal entries about a particular day or event. Write one entry from the perspective of an Athenian male citizen, one as a female citizen, and one as a slave, contrasting their daily lives.

For help with the concepts in this section of Glencoe World History, go to glencoe.com and click Study Central.
The Culture of Classical Greece

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, Socrates, and Plato established the foundations of Western philosophy.

Greek Religion

Greek religion was fundamental to Greek society and is remembered today for the Olympic Games and Greek drama, which were part of religious festivals.

HISTORY & YOU What is the role of religion in your society’s government? Read about religious practices in Greece.

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 Olympus, the highest mountain in Greece. Among the twelve were Zeus, the chief god and father of the gods; Athena, goddess of wisdom and crafts; Apollo, god of the sun and poetry; Artemis, the sister of Apollo, who was goddess of the moon and of the hunt; Ares, god of war; Aphrodite, goddess of love; and Poseidon, brother of Zeus and god of the seas and earthquakes.

Greek religion did not have a body of doctrine, nor did it focus on morality. The spirits of most people, regardless of what they had done in life, went to a gloomy underworld ruled by the god Hades. Because the Greeks wanted the gods to look favorably upon their activities, rituals became important. Rituals are ceremonies or rites. Greek religious rituals involved prayers often combined with gifts to the gods based on the principle “I give so that you [the gods] will give [in return].”

Festivals also developed as a way to honor the gods and goddesses. Certain festivals were held at special locations, such as those dedicated to the worship of Zeus at Olympia or to Apollo at Delphi. Numerous events, including athletic games, took place in honor of the gods at the Greek festivals. The first such games were held at the Olympic festival in 776 B.C.

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 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!

Although Greek religion is no longer practiced, it was the source of most Greek drama and art. Not only did the Romans adopt the Greek gods, but many stories and references about Greek gods appear in European and American literature.

1. **Identifying** Who ordered the construction of the Parthenon?
2. **Analyzing information** What do stories about gods and goddesses tell us about Greek life?

### Olympian Gods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GOD/GODDESS</th>
<th>ROLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zeus</td>
<td>King of gods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hera</td>
<td>Wife of Zeus; goddess of marriage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poseidon</td>
<td>God of sea, earthquakes, and horses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hestia</td>
<td>Goddess of home and family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hades</td>
<td>God of the underworld</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athena</td>
<td>Goddess of wisdom and crafts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aphrodite</td>
<td>Goddess of love and beauty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ares</td>
<td>God of war</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apollo</td>
<td>God of music and the arts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Parthenon has Doric columns—the oldest style of Greek columns.
Classical Greek Arts and Literature

Greece produced groundbreaking art and literature that is still considered relevant.

HISTORY & YOU What forms of art and literature are popular in your society? Read about Greek art and literature.

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, with its ideals of reason, moderation, balance, and harmony in all things, was meant to civilize the emotions.

Architecture and Sculpture

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. 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 on the Acropolis, the Parthenon, is regarded as the greatest example of the classical Greek temple. It was built between 447 B.C. and 432 B.C. Dedicated to Athena, the patron goddess of Athens, the Parthenon was an expression of Athenians' 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. The Parthenon today is a revered ruin. It was damaged by an explosion in 1687 and has been partially restored.

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 smooth and muscled.

Classical 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.

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.

Sophocles was another great Athenian playwright. His most famous play was Oedipus Rex. In this play, the oracle of Apollo accurately foretells that 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
The Oresteia

In his most famous work, the trilogy called the Oresteia, Aeschylus reveals the problems that arise when people disturb the natural order. In Agamemnon, the title character returns to his kingdom from the Trojan War. Because he sacrificed a daughter to the gods to ensure his own safety, his wife Clytemnestra murders him. The theme of revenge is carried out in the other two plays in the trilogy. First performed in 458 B.C., the trilogy also reflects the values of Athenian democracy, as well as the Greeks' belief in their gods.

1. Paraphrasing What is Clytemnestra's explanation for murdering her husband?

2. Considering Why would a discussion of justice be relevant during the period of history in which the Oresteia was written?

In this excerpt from Agamemnon, Clytemnestra has just murdered her husband and responds to the town elders' accusations:

"Aye, now, for me, thou hast thy words of fate; Exile from Argos and the people's hate For ever! Against him no word was cried, When, [caring] not, as 'twere a beast that died, With flocks abounding o'er his wide domain, He slew his child, my love, my flower of pain, . . . Great God, as magic for the winds of Thrace! Why was not he man-hunted from his place, To purge the blood that stained him? . . . When the deed is mine, oh, then thou art a judge indeed! But threat thy fill. I am ready, and I stand Content; if thy hand beateth down my hand, Thou rulest. If aught else be God's decree, Thy lesson shall be learned, though late it be."
As Thucydides stated in his history:

**Primary Source**

“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, *The Peloponnesian War*

Thucydides was not a modern historian, of course. For example, he wrote set speeches for the leading actors in the war, but these words were based on a careful judgment of facts he tried to verify. Like many later historians, Thucydides believed that the study of history was of great value in understanding the present.

**Reading Check**  Summarizing What forms of literature were developed in ancient Greece?

**Greek Philosophy**

**Main Idea** Three great Greek philosophers—Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle—established the foundations of Western philosophy.

**HISTORY & YOU** How do people in your society try to answer questions about the nature of the universe? Read about philosophy in Greece.

**Philosophy** refers to an organized system of thought. The term comes from a Greek word that means “love of wisdom.” Early Greek philosophers focused on 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.

The Sophists’ goal was to argue effectively, not to promote particular beliefs or ideas. They were known for their ability to argue for both sides of an issue. 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.

Greek philosophers before Socrates were most concerned with issues of natural science. However, Socrates taught his students how to live their lives by a code of ethics. He believed that people could be happy by living moral lives, and that they could also be taught how to behave morally.

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 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 described how he would explore the nature and value of justice, as follows:
Primary Source

“[Justice is]... sometimes spoken of as the virtue of an individual, and sometimes as the virtue of a State... And is not a State larger than an individual?... I propose therefore that we enquire into the nature of justice and injustice, first as they appear in the State, and secondly in the individual, proceeding from the greater to the lesser and comparing them.”

—Plato, The Republic, Book II

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.

Primary Source

“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.”

—Plato, The Republic, Book II

The second group in Plato’s ideal state were warriors. The third group contained all the rest, people driven not by wisdom or courage but by desire. They were society’s producers—artisans, tradespeople, and farmers. When each of these groups performed its appropriate role in society—and did not try to take on the roles of others—the society would function smoothly and be just. Contrary to Greek custom, Plato also believed that men and women should have the same education and equal access to all positions.

In The Republic, he concluded that justice could be achieved in the same manner by both a state and an individual. He argued that just as the different groups in a society need to work together, the different parts of a person’s soul—reason, courage (or will), and desire—need to come together to create a just and ethical individual.

Aristotle

Plato established a school at Athens that was known as the Academy. His most famous pupil was Aristotle, who studied

During the fifth century B.C., the Sophists developed the art of public speaking and debate that we still use today. Sophists taught effective speaking and rhetoric, or types of arguments to use in debate. Speaking and debating skills proved valuable to Athenian democracy.

Today debates are used at all levels of government. Some schools have debate clubs, where instructors, much like the Sophists, teach students how to present a persuasive argument.

• By developing the art of debate, the Sophists have given us an important political and educational tool.
• Learning rhetoric, researching topics, and speaking in public prepare debaters for future careers and college.
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.)

Like Plato, Aristotle believed that people’s happiness was tied to their behavior. He taught that happiness resulted from living a life filled with virtue, and that virtue was a midpoint between extreme behaviors. For example, courage would be a midpoint between reckless behavior and cowardice.

Aristotle’s many interests lay in analyzing and classifying things based on observation and investigation. He defined entire categories of study, such as logic, biology, and physics, and wrote about a range of subjects, including ethics, politics, poetry, and the sciences.

Aristotle studied natural science by making and recording observations. Although these methods are now part of the scientific method, they were groundbreaking in Aristotle’s day. Until the seventeenth century, science in the Western world remained largely based on Aristotle’s ideas.

Aristotle often wrote about the importance of intellectual life:

**PRIMARY SOURCE**

“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.”

—Aristotle, from *Western Civilization*, Margaret King, 2000

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.

Aristotle is often viewed as the most influential thinker in the Western world. He wrote brilliantly on many subjects and worked tirelessly, producing a vast number of works. His ideas dominated the best minds of Europe for centuries and are studied to this day.
The Olympics: Festival and Games in Ancient Greece

The Olympic Games of ancient Greece began in 776 B.C. and were held between the city-states every four years until they were banned in A.D. 393 by the Roman emperor Theodosius. The Greeks honored both their athletes and Greek gods at the games. A special truce was declared throughout the land as a matter of religious respect and as a practical step to allow people to travel to the games safely. In their heyday, the games lasted for five days and included standard events.

OLYMPIA

The games were held at Olympia, one of the oldest and most venerated religious centers in the Greek world. By classical times, the Greeks had constructed temples and altars there in an area called the “altis,” or sacred grove. Outside the altis stood buildings for the games themselves, including a stadium, a gymnasium, and a hippodrome. The Olympic Games honored Zeus, but games were also held in other cities for other gods. These were held on cycles, so individuals could participate in a festival every year.

Day 1  The athletes and spectators gather to prepare for the games. They have come from city-states all over Greece. Officials make sacrifices and offer prayers to the gods in opening ceremonies.

Day 2  The games begin. First are the equestrian events: horse and chariot racing. Later the pentathlon is held. It is a competition of five events: discus throw, javelin throw, jumping, running, and wrestling.
A victor in the games was awarded a crown of olive leaves pulled from a sacred tree and permission to have a statue of himself placed at Olympia. But winning athletes often received much more from their home city-states, grateful for the glory, fame, and heightened reputation the community gained by producing an Olympic winner. Like modern sports stars, these athletes were rewarded with celebrity and a wide variety of gifts.

**Day 3** There are prayers, a feast, and a procession to the altar of Zeus, whom the games honor. The 40-foot statue of the ruler of the gods was one of the wonders of the ancient world.

**Day 4** A day of intense competition. There are a variety of foot races, wrestling and boxing matches, and the brutal pankration, a sort of combination of wrestling and boxing in which almost anything is allowed.

**Day 5** The closing day is another one of celebration and ceremony. After a great feast, the spectators and athletes begin the journey home. Spectators have tales to tell, losers perhaps a resolve to return, and winners the anticipation of a hero’s welcome back home.

**SUPERSTARS OF THE ANCIENT WORLD**

1. **Making Inferences**
   Why do you think religious practices were such a large part of the ancient Greek Olympics?

2. **Comparing**
   How were the ancient Greek Olympic Games similar to the modern Olympics?
Alexander and the Hellenistic Era

Under the leadership of Alexander the Great, Macedonians and Greeks united to invade and conquer the Persian Empire. In the conquered lands, Greeks and non-Greeks formed a new society in what is known as the Hellenistic Era.

Macedonians Invade Greece

Under Alexander the Great, Macedonians and Greeks conquered the Persian Empire.

HISTORY & YOU Who are some of the military leaders you know about in American history? Read about how Alexander the Great led his army to create an empire.

The Greeks viewed their northern neighbors, the Macedonians, as barbarians. They were a rural people of farmers and agricultural laborers, organized into groups, not in city-states like the Greeks. Although they spoke a dialect of Greek, they had not been involved in the rivalries of Greek city-states—their leaders focused mostly on defending their northern borders. By the end of the fifth century B.C., however, Macedonia emerged as a powerful kingdom.

Philip and Alexander

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.

Alexander the Great 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 37,000 men, both Macedonians and Greeks. The cavalry, which would play an important role as a striking force, numbered about 5,000.

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., Alexander had Syria, Palestine, and Egypt 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. Over the next three years, Alexander moved as far
as modern Pakistan. In 326 B.C., Alexander reached India, where the campaigning was hard. When his soldiers refused to go farther, he agreed to go home. He led his troops across the desert of today’s southern Iran. Many were dying of heat and thirst. At one point, some soldier found a little water and offered it to him. According to an ancient Greek writer, Alexander poured it 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, planning more conquests. But in 323 B.C., exhausted from wounds, fever, and too much alcohol, he died. He was 32 years old.

**Alexander’s Legacy**

Alexander’s extraordinary success is explained by his leadership and military skills. He was a master of strategy and tactics, able to fight in all terrains and against all kinds of opponents. Brave and even reckless, he risked his own life, an example that inspired his soldiers to follow him. Alexander sought to imitate Achilles, the hero of Homer’s *Iliad*. He kept a copy of the *Iliad*—and a dagger—under his pillow.

Alexander created an enormous legacy. He extended Greek and Macedonian rule over a vast area, which brought large quantities of gold and silver into 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, Central Asia, and parts of North Africa. The Greeks also absorbed aspects of Eastern culture.

**✓ Reading Check**  
Identifying How did Philip II and Alexander change Greece?
The Hellenistic Era

As a result of Alexander’s conquests, Hellenistic cities became centers for the spread of Greek language, art, architecture, and literature.

HISTORY & YOU How many different cultures do you encounter in your daily life? Read about the Hellenistic world.

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

Hellenistic Kingdoms

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 from eastern regions 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 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 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 spread Greek culture to Southwest and Central Asia—as far, in fact, as modern Afghanistan and India.

Hellenistic Arts and Literature

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 500,000 scrolls. The library encouraged the careful study of literature and language. There was also a museum that welcomed 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.

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.
Apollonius of Rhodes told the story of Jason and the Golden Fleece, around the third century B.C., in the epic poem *Argonautica*. Jason is a hero who must complete impossible tasks to take his place in society. In this particular task, Jason must capture the Golden Fleece, which is guarded by a serpent in a garden, so that he can become king. He accomplishes this with the help of Medea, as Apollonius describes:

"And they two by the pathway came to the sacred grove, seeking the huge oak tree on which was hung the fleece, like to a cloud that blushes red with the fiery beams of the rising sun. But right in front the serpent with his keen sleepless eyes saw them coming, and stretched out his long neck and hissed in awful wise. . . . And as he withered, the maiden came before his eyes, with sweet voice calling to her aid sleep, highest of gods, to charm the monster . . . so at that time did Jason uplift the mighty fleece in his hands. . . . And he strode on now with the fleece covering his left shoulder from the height of his neck to his feet, and now again he gathered it up in his hands; for he feared exceedingly, lest some god or man should meet him and deprive him thereof."

The Hellenistic Age also produced a great 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.

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

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 and Philosophy

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 at the time.

Eratosthenes (ehr•uh•TAHS•thuh•neeZ) was another important astronomer. He 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.
The most famous scientist of the Hellenistic Era was Archimedes (ahr•kuh•MEE•deez) of Syracuse. He worked on the geometry of spheres and cylinders and also established the value of the mathematical constant pi. A practical inventor, too, he may have devised the “Archimedes’ screw,” a machine used to pump water out of mines and to lift irrigation water.

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 encouraged Archimedes to lower his sights and build defensive weapons instead.

Athens remained the chief center for philosophy in the Hellenistic Era, attracting famous thinkers from all over who established schools there. The development of two new systems of thought, Epicureanism and Stoicism, strengthened Athens’s reputation as a philosophical center.

Epicurus, the founder of Epicureanism, began a school in Athens at the end of the fourth century B.C. He believed that human beings were free to follow their own self-interest and make happiness their goal. The means to 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. A Syrian who came to Athens as a merchant, Zeno lost his possessions on the sea voyage. A philosopher in Athens consoled Zeno by teaching him that material possessions were not necessary in order to be happy. After learning from other philosophers in Athens, Zeno began to teach in a building known as the Painted Portico (the Stoa Poikile—hence, the word Stoicism).

Like Epicureans, Stoics wanted to find happiness, but they thought it could be found only by living in harmony with the will of God. Then they could bear whatever life offered (hence, our word stoic.) Unlike Epicureans, Stoics did not want to separate themselves from the world. Public service was regarded as noble. The real Stoic was a good citizen.

✓ Reading Check Summarizing In which fields did Hellenistic scholars make advancements?
**Visual Summary**

You can study anywhere, anytime by downloading quizzes and flash cards to your PDA from [glencoe.com](http://glencoe.com).

---

**EARLY GREECE AND THE POLIS**

- Greek civilization emerged with the Mycenaean, who reflected aristocratic and warrior values; later these were celebrated in Homer’s epics.
- A difficult Dark Age dispersed Greeks in colonies around the Mediterranean.
- The polis, or city-state, became the central unit of Greek political and social life.
- Sparta and Athens, the leading city-states, followed very different ideals; in Athens democracy emerged.

---

**CLASSICAL GREECE**

- To defend their lands, the Greeks fought and defeated the Persians.
- Under Pericles, Athens embraced democracy at home, but not in the empire.
- Sparta destroyed Athenian domination, ending the classical age.
- Greek drama probed eternal questions while Greek philosophy pioneered rational thought.
- Greeks wrote the first analytical history, while balance and harmony guided their art and architecture.

---

**THE HELLENISTIC AGE**

- Alexander the Great unified Greece, then spread its culture as he conquered other lands.
- Hellenistic kingdoms in Egypt, Persia, and elsewhere absorbed Greek language and culture.

---

*Images and illustrations not shown in this text.*
STANDARDIZED TEST PRACTICE

TEST-TAKING TIP
Look for key words such as best, always, and never in questions and answer choices.

Reviewing Vocabulary
Directions: Choose the word or words that best complete the sentence.

1. Heavily armed infantrymen or foot soldiers are known as ________.
   A phalanx  B spartans  C cavalry  D hoplites

2. Athenians devised the practice of ________ to protect themselves against overly ambitious politicians.
   A tyranny  B ostracism  C democracy  D warfare

3. In order to know the will of the gods, the Greeks consulted a(n) ________.
   A oracle  B Delphi  C festival  D temple

4. ________ comes from the Greek word that means “love of wisdom.”
   A Literature  B Theatre  C Philosophy  D Mathematics

Reviewing Main Ideas
Directions: Choose the best answers to the following questions.

Section 1 (pp. 106–111)
5. How did the physical geography of Greece affect the Greeks?
   A It helped to make their city-states fiercely independent.
   B It encouraged them to focus on truth and beauty.
   C It was one of the factors that made them fierce, skilled warriors.
   D It prevented them from making contact with other civilizations.

Section 2 (pp. 112–117)
6. Which of the following best describes Sparta?
   A A city-state that valued alliances with other cultures
   B A Macedonian democracy
   C A strict society run by helots
   D A military state focused on the art of war

7. How did Cleisthenes create the foundation for democracy in Athens?
   A By declaring war on Sparta
   B By creating an Athenian assembly
   C By giving aristocrats’ land to the poor
   D By discouraging the study of the arts

Section 3 (pp. 118–123)
8. What brought Sparta and Athens together as allies?
   A Their common values, beliefs, and culture
   B The movement of the Delian League to Athens
   C The threat of the Persian Empire
   D The Great Peloponnesian War

Need Extra Help?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If You Missed Questions . . .</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Go to Page . . .</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>118</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. Who benefited from the power struggles of Athens, Sparta, and Thebes?
   A Philip II of Macedonia
   B The Delian League
   C Women in all three societies
   D Pericles of Athens

Section 4 (pp. 124–131)
10. Which of the following is true of Aristotle?
   A He developed the Pythagorean theorem.
   B He designed the Parthenon, the greatest example of the classical Greek temple.
   C He defined the subject of logic.
   D He is considered the greatest historian of the ancient world.

11. What do Aeschylus and Sophocles have in common?
   A They developed mathematical proofs.
   B They studied under Plato.
   C They wrote tragedies.
   D They were gifted historians.

Section 5 (pp. 134–139)
12. How did Alexander’s father prepare him for kingship?
   A By having him brought up in Athens
   B By bringing him on military campaigns
   C By enlisting him in the Spartan army
   D By sending for Socrates to tutor him

13. What was Alexander’s cultural legacy?
   A The gold and silver that his conquests brought to Greece and Macedonia
   B The spread of Greek language, architecture, literature, and art
   C The possession of the entire Persian Empire
   D His strong skills as a military leader

14. Which of the following statements is supported by the information in the table?
   A The Spartans and the Athenians had many common interests.
   B The Minoans and the Mycenaeans were allies.
   C All four civilizations existed at the same time.
   D The Spartans had more in common with the Mycenaeans than with the other civilizations.

15. A Greek dramatist would most likely be a citizen of which of the following?
   A The Minoan civilization
   B The Mycenaean civilization
   C Sparta
   D Athens

16. How did the formation of the Delian League give proof to the saying that strength lies in unity?
   A After the collapse of the Delian League, the Greeks were conquered.
   B When the Macedonians and Greeks worked together, they ended the Persian Empire.
   C The Delian League led to the spread of Greek language in modern-day Pakistan.
   D The Delian League provided a democratic forum for all Greek city-states.
17. What event blinded the major Greek states to the threat from Macedonia?
   A The Age of Pericles
   B The establishment of Sparta
   C The Great Peloponnesian War
   D The end of the Persian Empire

18. Based on the map, which of the following is most likely true?
   A The Greeks relied heavily on their navy.
   B The Greeks planned to conquer all of Western Europe.
   C The Greeks had little interest in colonization.
   D Greece was the largest colony in the empire.

19. According to Pericles, what is the relationship between the individual and the state in a democracy?

20. What is the historical significance of this speech in Pericles’ own day and now?

21. 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.