The Growth of Civilizations
2100 BC–AD 1500

Each of the early empires had different ideas about government and citizenship. Even within an empire, these ideas changed over time. Each of the early empires made lasting contributions to architecture, the visual arts, and literature.

The early empires made significant advances in science and technical achievements.
The small, rugged peninsula in southern Europe called Greece was the home of a series of advanced civilizations. From the far-reaching trade of the early Minoans to the democracy of Athens and the empire of Alexander the Great, the Greeks left behind a legacy that helped define what we think of as Western civilization.

**Social Studies Objectives**
2.02 Identify the roots of Greek civilization and recognize its achievements from the Minoan era through the Hellenistic period;

**Language Arts Objective**
2.01.3 Demonstrate the ability to read, listen to and view a variety of increasingly complex print and non-print information texts appropriate to grade level and course by providing textual evidence to support understanding of and reader’s response to text.

**North Carolina Standards**

**Time Line**
- c. 2100 BC: Minoan culture thrives in Crete.
- c. 1400 BC: Mycenaean civilization reaches its height.
- 1200s BC: According to legend, the Trojan War is fought.
Watch the video to understand the impact of Greek scholars.

The city of Athens, shown above, was one of the largest and greatest in ancient Greece. Rising above the city was the Acropolis, a rocky hill on which several temples and monuments stood. The most spectacular of them was the Parthenon, a marble temple to the goddess Athena and a symbol of Athens's glory.

Analyzing Visuals Why do you think the Athenians built their temples on the Acropolis?


Reading like a Historian

The city of Athens, shown above, was one of the largest and greatest in ancient Greece. Rising above the city was the Acropolis, a rocky hill on which several temples and monuments stood. The most spectacular of them was the Parthenon, a marble temple to the goddess Athena and a symbol of Athens's glory.

Analyzing Visuals Why do you think the Athenians built their temples on the Acropolis?

The civilization of ancient Greece developed as a number of independent city-states rather than as a unified nation. Each city-state had its own government, army, and trade network. Despite their differences, city-states shared a common language and religion that helped tie all Greeks together.

1. **Analyze** Based on this map, why do you think the ancient Greeks developed city-states rather than a unified nation?

2. **Predict** How do you think the independence of Greek city-states might have affected the course of Greek history?
Main Idea
The earliest cultures in Greece, the Minoans and the Mycenaeans, were trading societies, but both disappeared and were replaced by Greek city-states.

Reading Focus
1. What were Minoan and Mycenaean culture like?
2. What were the common characteristics of Greek city-states?
3. What role did stories of gods and heroes play in Greek culture?

Key Terms
polis
acropolis
agora
helots
hoplites
hubris

Were the ancient stories about Crete based on fact? The wealthy King Minos, his deadly maze called the Labyrinth, and a half-man, half-bull beast called the Minotaur, who trapped prisoners in the maze and ate them alive—there are the tales Greek storytellers told. Many people have wondered whether they actually happened.

Beginning in the late 1890s a British archaeologist, Sir Arthur Evans, led an expedition to dig for ancient ruins on Crete. Evans’s team found something amazing. They uncovered the ruins of a vast palace at Knossos, the site the myths named as the home of the Minos and his Minotaur. Evans found no signs of the beast, of course. But he did think he had found the history behind the legend. He called this lost civilization Minoan, after the legendary king.

Minoans and Mycenaeans
Until the discoveries by Evans and others in the 1800s, the earliest history of Greece had been lost to legend for centuries. Even now, after several major discoveries, many parts of that early history are a mystery to us. We do know, however, that two distinct cultures developed in early Greece, the Minoans and the Mycenaeans.

The Minoans of Crete The civilization we call Minoan developed on Crete as early as 3000 BC and lasted nearly 2,000 years. During that time, Minoan ships sailed all over the Aegean Sea—and perhaps further. Minoan colonies grew up on dozens of Aegean islands. Ships laden with trade goods sailed back and forth between these colonies and Crete.
Excavations at Knossos have revealed much about Minoan life. Buildings there were solidly constructed with many private rooms, basic plumbing, and brightly colored artwork on the walls. That artwork has likewise helped historians learn about the Minoan way of life. From images of ships, they can tell Minoan life was tied to the sea: sailing, trade, fishing, even playing in the waves were all common. Women seem to have played major roles in society. For example, most Minoan images of priests are women. Frescoes painted on the walls of Minoan houses suggest that the Minoans played dangerous games that involved leaping over charging bulls during festivals.

Much of what historians have written about Minoan civilization is the result of speculation and guesswork. Part of the problem stems from the Minoans’ writing, which historians cannot read. Called Linear A, the language does not appear to be related to those of mainland Greece. Unless we learn to decipher their writing, all we know about the Minoans will come from the art and objects they left behind.

For reasons as yet unknown, the Minoan civilization fell apart rather suddenly. One possible cause was a world-shaking disaster. When a volcanic island near Crete blew itself apart—one of the largest eruptions ever—the blast may have affected weather patterns around the world. The damage this would have done to Minoan ports and crops may have substantially weakened the society. No matter what else happened, in the end the Minoans were conquered by the warlike Mycenaeans (my-suh-nee-uhns) from the Greek mainland.

The Mycenaean States The Mycenaeans built small kingdoms that fought often with each other. The civilization’s name comes from a fortress they built, Mycenae. Historians consider the Mycenaeans the first Greeks, because they spoke a form of the Greek language.

The earliest Mycenaean kingdoms owed much to the Minoans. They traded with them and copied Minoan writing to develop their own system, which somewhat resembled the earlier Minoan writing system. Unlike Minoan

Early Greek Civilizations

The Minoans and the Mycenaeans built advanced civilizations based on trade around the Aegean Sea. They used their riches from trade to build huge palaces and temples. How did the location of these civilizations help trade develop?
writing, however, Mycenaean writing has been translated. Like the Minoans, the Mycenaeans also became great traders. Their trade only increased after they conquered Crete.

Despite their ties to Crete, the Mycenaeans’ civilization developed in a very different direction. Mycenaean society was dominated by intense competition, frequent warfare, and powerful kings. To raise money to build great palaces and high walls, Mycenaean kings taxed trade and farming. To show off their strength, they built great monuments like the massive Lion’s Gate at Mycenae.

The Mycenaean kings’ constant quests for power and glory inspired many later legends. The most famous legend is the story of the Trojan War. The war supposedly involved early Greeks, led by Mycenae, fighting a powerful city called Troy in what is now Turkey. Although historians are not sure if the Trojan War really happened, they have found the ruins of a city they believe to be Troy. Evidence at these ruins suggests that the city was destroyed in battle, though it is impossible to be certain.

Whatever the real Trojan story, war played a part in the end of Mycenaean civilization. Along with droughts and famines, invasion from outside, and the end of trade, war between Mycenaean cities sped up their downfall. By the end of the 1100s BC the Mycenaean cities were mostly in ruins. A dark age followed. People fled cities, struggled to farm enough to eat, fought their neighbors and outside invaders, and even lost the use of writing for several centuries. Greek civilization almost disappeared.

**Reading Check**

**Compare and Contrast**

How were Minoan and Mycenaean culture similar? How were they different?

**Greek City-States**

For more than 300 years, Greece was awash in confusion. By the 800s BC, however, life in Greece was stable enough for a new type of society to emerge. That society was centered on the *polis*, or city-state, which became the basic political unit in Greece. Because Greece was so rugged, travel and communication between city-states was difficult. As a result, each polis developed independently of its neighbors. Each developed its own form of government, laws, and customs.

**Life in the Polis**

The polis was the center of daily life and culture for the ancient Greeks. One philosopher even defined a person as one who lived in a polis. Because it was so central to their lives, Greeks were fiercely loyal to their polis. In fact, people did not think of themselves as Greeks at all, but rather as residents of a particular city-state.

A typical polis was built around a high area called an *acropolis* (uh-KRAHP-uh-luhs). In addition to fortifications, the acropolis usually housed temples to the gods and spaces for public ceremonies. Below the acropolis were other public places, like the *agora* (uh-guh-ruh), or marketplace, where people did business, gossiped, and discussed politics. Shops, houses, and more temples surrounded the agora. In quieter parts of the polis, one might find a gymnasium, a training ground and public bath for athletes. Surrounding the entire polis was a sturdy wall for defense. Beyond the wall were a few scattered houses and marketplaces as well as the fields where the city’s food was grown.
Each major polis had a different political system that developed over time. The trading polis of Corinth, for example, was an oligarchy, a city-state ruled by a few individuals. Athens, perhaps the most famous Greek polis, was the birthplace of democracy. To better understand how a city-state’s government developed, we can study one state, Sparta, as an example.

**The Might of Sparta** Sparta was one of the mightiest city-states in Greece, if one of the least typical. Located on the Peloponnesus, the large peninsula of southern Greece, Sparta was at first surrounded by smaller towns. Over time, Sparta seized control of the towns around it, including Messenia. Once they had conquered the town, the Spartans made the Messenians into helots, or state slaves. Helots were given to Spartan citizens to work on farms so that the citizens did not have to perform manual labor. As a result, Spartan citizens were free to spend all their time training for war.

The Spartan emphasis on war was not created out of any particular fondness for fighting. Instead, it was seen as the only way to keep order in society. The helots outnumbered Spartan citizens by about seven to one and were always ready to rebel against their rulers. The only way the Spartans could see to keep the helots in check was to have a strong army.

To support their military lifestyle, the Spartans demanded strength and toughness from birth. Babies, boys and girls alike, were examined for strength after birth. If a child was found unhealthy, he or she was left in the wild to die. Those who were healthy were trained as soldiers from a young age.

Boys were taught physical and mental toughness by their mothers until age seven. Then they entered a school system designed to train them for combat. This system had been created by a legendary king named Lycurgus whose goal was to toughen boys in preparation for the hardships they would face as soldiers:

**HISTORY’S VOICES**

“Instead of softening their feet with shoe or sandal, his rule was to make them hardy through going barefoot. This habit, if practiced, would, as he believed, enable them to scale heights more easily and clamber down precipices with less danger. In fact, with his feet so trained the young Spartan would leap and spring and run faster unshod than another in the ordinary way. Instead of making them effeminate with a variety of clothes, his rule was to habituate them to a single garment the whole year through, thinking that so they would be better prepared to withstand the variations of heat and cold.”

—Xenophon, *The Polity of the Spartans*, c. 375 BC

At the end of their training, groups of boys were sent into the wilderness with no food or tools and were expected to survive. Then, at age 20, boys became hoplites, or foot soldiers. They remained in the army for 10 years, after which time they were allowed to leave and take their place as citizens.

Sparta was rather unusual among Greek city-states in that women played an important role in society. Spartan women were trained in gymnastics for physical fitness. The Spartans thought women had to be fit to bear strong children. They had the right to own property, a right forbidden to women in most of Greece.

Politically, Sparta was led by two kings who served as military commanders. Over time, responsibility for making decisions fell more and more to an elected council of elders. It was considered an honor to take a seat on this council and help run the city.

**Identify Cause and Effect**

Why did Sparta’s political system develop?
Gods and Heroes

In addition to archaeological evidence, much of what we know or suspect about early Greece comes from studying the Greeks’ legends and myths. Myths are stories told to explain natural phenomena or events of the distant past. The Greeks told myths to explain where they came from, how they should live, and how to cope with an uncertain world.

The Gods of Olympus The ancient Greeks believed in hundreds of gods and goddesses. Each of these deities governed one aspect of nature or life. For example, the god Apollo controlled the movement of the sun through the sky, while his sister Artemis did the same for the moon. Ares (ay-reez), the fierce god of war, frequently came into conflict with Athena (uh-thee-nuh), the clever goddess of wisdom. The Greeks believed that the gods would protect them and their city-states in exchange for the proper rituals and sacrifices.

Although the Greeks believed in many gods, about 12 of them were particularly influential in their lives. The Greeks believed that these 12 gods and goddesses lived together on Mount Olympus, the highest mountain in Greece. As a result, they were called the Olympian gods.

Though they were thought to have great power, the Greeks did not consider their deities perfect. Indeed, myths say the gods were flawed and often unpredictable. They loved, hated, argued, made mistakes, got jealous, and played tricks on each other. For example, the chief god Zeus (zoos), lord of the skies and storms, and his wife Hera had a troubled marriage full of arguments. Poseidon (po-sv-duhn), god of the sea, was quick to anger but slow to think through his actions.

Although almost all Greeks worshipped the same gods, each polis claimed one god or goddess as its special protector. Corinth, for example, claimed Apollo’s favor, while Athens considered itself sacred to Athena.

Mythological References Today

The ancient Greeks used myths to make sense of the world around them. Myths were created to explain everything from thunder to the changing of seasons.

Now that we know the science behind many of the phenomena that myths once explained, you might think that myths have no place in our modern world. If you thought that, however, you would be wrong. People all over the world still enjoy tales from Greek mythology, both in their classical ancient forms and in modern retellings as novels, films, or television programs.

In addition, myths have helped shape modern culture. For example, many companies use names or symbols from myths. Sporting goods giant Nike, for example, was named after the Greek goddess of victory. Many medical organizations use a staff and snake logo inspired by the symbols of Asclepius, the Greek god of medicine.

Words and phrases from myths have also entered our daily vocabulary. We sometimes call a person’s greatest weakness his or her Achilles’ heel, after a mythical warrior who could not be harmed anywhere on his body except one heel. Computer users have to watch out for trojan horses, malicious programs that are hidden inside or disguised as innocent programs. Their name is derived from a trick that Greek heroes used to win the Trojan War, hiding inside a giant wooden horse that the Trojans innocently brought into their city.

Draw Conclusions Why do you think references to Greek myths are still common today?
A few locations were considered sacred by all Greeks. One was Delphi, where priestesses of Apollo were thought to receive visions of the future. Another was Olympia. Every four years, Greeks from various city-states got together there for the Olympic Games. In these games, athletes met to compete against each other and to honor the gods.

Myths about Heroes Alongside the gods, Greeks also told myths about heroes. Stories about these heroes were used to teach Greeks where they came from and what sort of people they should try to be. Some heroes, such as Hercules, the son of Zeus who had godlike strength, were renowned throughout all of Greece. Others, such as Theseus, an Athenian prince who killed the Minotaur of Crete, were famous chiefly in their home cities.

The heroes of myths killed monsters, made discoveries, founded cities, and talked with gods on almost equal terms. With the right virtues they could rise above fear and uncertainty. Their examples could inspire individuals, and even whole city-states, to achieve great things. But even in legend, the Greeks’ myths would only let them rise so far. Hubris (HYU-bruhs), or great pride, brought many heroes to tragic ends. Their deaths served as lessons to the Greeks not to overstretch their abilities.

**Reading Check** Describe What role did mythology play in Greek culture?

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The ancient Greeks worshipped hundreds of gods and goddesses. A few of the most important and most widely accepted are listed below.

- **Zeus**, god of the sky and lightning, king of the gods
- **Hera**, goddess of marriage and women, queen of the gods
- **Poseidon**, god of the sea and earthquakes
- **Hades**, god of the underworld
- **Demeter**, goddess of agriculture
- **Hestia**, goddess of the hearth and family
- **Athena**, goddess of wisdom
- **Apollo**, god of prophecy, healing, poetry, music, and the sun
- **Artemis**, goddess of hunting and the moon
- **Ares**, god of war
- **Aphrodite**, goddess of love
- **Hephaestus**, god of metalworking
- **Dionysus**, god of wine
- **Hermes**, the messenger god, god of trade

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**Section 1 Assessment**

**Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People**

1. **a. Describe** What have historians learned by studying Minoan art?
   **b. Compare and Contrast** What is one way in which the Minoans and Mycenaean cultures were similar? What is one way in which they were different?
   **c. Elaborate** Why are historians not sure if the Trojan War really happened? What makes them think that it may have happened?

2. **a. Define** What roles did the acropolis and the agora play in a typical Greek polis?
   **b. Identify Cause and Effect** What led to the creation of a military society in Sparta?
   **c. Evaluate** Do you think the Spartan system was a good way to run a government? Why or why not?

3. **a. Describe** What were the gods of Greek mythology like?
   **b. Explain** Why did the ancient Greeks create myths?

**Critical Thinking**

4. **Analyze** Draw a graphic organizer like the one shown here. Using your notes, list details about the Greek polis, its typical features, its government, and its role in Greek society.

**Focus on Writing**

5. **Narration** Write a short paragraph-length legend about a hero, real or imaginary. As you write, think about what kind of life lesson readers could learn from your legend.
About the Reading  The Odyssey, one of two great Greek epics about the Trojan War, tells the story of Odysseus, the cleverest of all the Greek heroes who fought in the war. After the war, the gods forced Odysseus to spend 10 years wandering the seas before he could return to Greece. In the passage below, Odysseus, who has been shipwrecked, hears a minstrel singing of the end of the war and the fall of Troy, a feat accomplished through a clever trick Odysseus had planned.

As You Read  Ask yourself what elements of this story might have been based on actual events.

Excerpt from

The Odyssey

by Homer

“Now shift your theme, and sing that wooden horse Epeios built, inspired by Athena—the ambush Odisseus filled with fighters and sent to take the inner town of Troy. Sing only this for me, sing me this well, and I shall say at once before the world the grace of heaven has given us a song.”

The minstrel stirred, murmuring to the god, and soon clear words and notes came one by one, a vision of the Akhaians {Greeks} in their graceful ships drawing away from shore: the torches flung and shelters flaring: Argive soldiers crouched in the close dark around Odysseus: and the horse, tall on the assembly ground of Troy. For when the Trojans pulled it in, themselves, up to the citadel, they say nearby with long-drawn-out and hapless argument—favoring, in the end, one course of three: either to stave the vault with brazen axes, or haul it to a cliff and pitch it down, or else to save it for the gods, a votive glory—the plan that could not but prevail.

For Troy must perish, as ordained, that day she harbored the great horse of timber; hidden the flower of Akhaia lay, and bore slaughter and death upon the men of Troy. He sang, then, of the town sacked by the Akhaians pouring down from the horse’s hollow cave, this way and that way raping the steep city, and how Odysseus came like Ares to the door of Deiphobos, with Menelaos, and braved the desperate fight there—conquering once more by Athena’s power.

The splendid minstrel sang it.

And Odysseus let the bright molten tears run down his cheeks . . .

The epic poems of Homer were the inspiration for the 2004 film Troy, a retelling of the Trojan War story.

1. Explain  How did the Greek army manage to get inside the walls of Troy?

2. Interpret Literature as a Source  Do you think this text describes the end of a real war? Why or why not?

Main Idea
The Classical Age of ancient Greece was marked by great achievements, including the development of democracy, and by ferocious wars.

Reading Focus
1. What were the characteristics of Athenian democracy?
2. How did the Greeks manage to win the Persian Wars?
3. What advances were made in the golden age of Athens?
4. What led to the outbreak of the Peloponnesian War?

Key Terms and People
- democracy
- Solon
- tyrant
- Cleisthenes
- direct democracy
- archon
- phalanx
- Pericles

Why would the creator of a city’s law code leave for 10 years? In the year 594 BC, the leaders of the polis of Athens asked an aristocrat named Solon to write a new law code for the city. The laws they had at that time were extremely harsh, and many people were unhappy with them. Solon drew up the law code that was requested from him, which tried to appeal to both nobles and the lower classes. According to legend, as soon as he was done with the code he left Greece and traveled for 10 years.

Why would Solon leave? The answer was simple. He wanted to be sure that his law code would be effective in keeping order in Athens even if he was not there to enforce it. When Solon returned after a decade’s absence, he found his laws still in place and Athens prospering.

The Absent Lawgiver

Democracy
Government and Citizenship
Democracy is a form of government in which people govern themselves, either directly or through elected officials. Though democracy is now the most common form of government in the world, it was not always so. Though Athens had formed the world’s first democracy in the 500s BC, democratic ideals did not truly take hold in Europe and the rest of the world until many centuries later.

Themes Through Time
- 594 BC Solon creates a new law code for Athens.
- c. 430 BC Athenian democracy reaches its height under Pericles.
- 508 BC Cleisthenes reforms democracy in Athens.
- ▼ Athenians voted by writing candidates’ names on shards of pottery.
Athenian Democracy

The prosperity of Athens was due in large part to its stable and effective government. That government was the world’s first democracy, a form of government run by the people. With the development of democracy around 500 BC, Athens entered its classical age, the period of its great achievements and triumphs.

The Development of Democracy

Athens was the birthplace of democracy, but it had not always been a democratic city. Indeed, democracy developed slowly over a period of several centuries. Early in its history, Athens was ruled by kings. Later, the kings were replaced by aristocrats who had both money and power.

Most of Athens’s subjects were poor, though, and had little power over their lives. The gap between rich and poor eventually led to conflict in Athens. To help resolve this conflict, an official named Draco reformed the city’s laws. Draco thought the only way to end unrest was through harsh punishment, a belief reflected in his laws. In fact, however, the harshness of Draco’s laws did not resolve the dispute between classes; they only made it worse.

Another lawmaker, Solon, revised the laws again in the 590s BC, overturning Draco’s harshest laws. Solon outlawed debt slavery and tried to reduce poverty by encouraging trade. His most significant change, however, was in Athens’s government. He allowed all men in Athens to take part in the assembly that governed the city and to serve on the juries that heard trials, but only wealthy men could run for or hold political office. Solon’s laws were the first real step toward democracy in Athens, though it was a very limited democracy.

Solon’s laws relieved the tension in Athens for a time but did not resolve it. Tensions flared up again after a few decades. In 541 BC a politician named Peisistratus (py-sis-truht-uhz) took advantage of the renewed conflict to seize power. Peisistratus was a tyrant, a strongman who seized power by force and claimed to rule for the good of the people. Despite his violent rise to power, Peisistratus was popular. People liked that he pushed the aristocrats out of office and increased trade to make Athens richer.

After Peisistratus died, another reformer, Cleisthenes (klys-thuh-neez), took over Athens. His reforms set the stage for Athenian democracy. To break up the power of noble families, Cleisthenes divided Athens into 10 tribes based on where people lived. He made these new tribes, not families or social groups, the basis for elections. For example, each tribe elected 50 men to serve on a Council of 500 that proposed laws. Each tribe also elected one of the generals that led the Athenian army.

AD 930 The Althing, Europe’s oldest Parliament, is founded in Iceland.

AD 1215 Magna Carta, a document protecting individual rights, is signed in England.

AD 1689 The English Bill of Rights is passed.

AD 1789 The U.S. Constitution is ratified.

Skills Focus

Understand Themes

Analyze Approximately how many years passed between the establishment of democracy in ancient Athens and the ratification of the U.S. Constitution?
**The Nature of Athenian Democracy**  
As a democracy, Athens was ruled by the people. But not all people were able to take part in the government. Only free male Athenians over the age of 20 who had completed military training were allowed to vote. Women, children, and immigrants had no role in the government; nor did slaves. In the 300s BC only about 10 percent of the total population of Athens could participate in running the city.

Those people who were allowed to take part in the Athenian government were expected to do so fully. They had to
- vote in all elections
- serve in office if elected
- serve on juries
- serve in the military during war.

At its height, the Athenian democracy consisted of three main bodies. The first was an assembly that included all people eligible to take part in the government. This assembly made all of the laws and important decisions for Athens. It met on a particular hill within the city, and all members who were present voted on each measure. This type of system, in which all people vote directly on an issue, is called a **direct democracy**.

Working closely with the assembly was the second of the main bodies, the Council of 500. The main role of the Council, which had been created by Cleisthenes, was to write the laws that would be voted on by the full assembly.

The third body of the government was a complex series of courts that heard trials and sentenced criminals. Members of these courts, which could number up to 6,000 people, were chosen from the assembly.

Although most governing in Athens was done by the assembly, some elected officials had special roles to play. Among these elected officials were the generals who led the city in war. Another elected official was the **archon** (AHR-kahn), who served as the chief of state in Athens. The archon acted as the head of both the assembly and the Council of 500. Archons were elected for a term of one year, though they could be re-elected many times. The archon was seen as a public servant who could be removed from office or punished if he failed to serve the people well.

**The Persian Wars**

Even as democracy was taking its final shape in Athens in the early 400s BC, the city—and the rest of Greece—was plunged into war. The Greek city-states came into conflict with the vast Persian Empire, bringing Greece into war with a much larger and stronger opponent.

**Causes of the Conflict** The roots of the Persian Wars lay not in mainland Greece but in the region called Ionia in what is now Turkey. Founded as Greek colonies, the Ionian city-states had become some of the largest and wealthiest Greek cities, but they had fallen under Persian rule in the 500s BC.

The Greeks of Ionia, unhappy with Persian rule and wanting independence, rebelled in 499 BC. Faced with a much larger Persian army, they asked their fellow Greeks for help. Among the cities that sent aid was Athens, who supplied ships to the Ionian rebels. Despite this assistance, the Persians put down the revolt. Furthermore, the revolt made Persian emperor Darius angry enough to seek revenge. He planned to punish the Ionians’ allies, especially Athens, by attacking the Greek mainland.

**The First Persian Invasion** In 490 BC, the Persians set out to fulfill Darius’s plans for revenge. A huge fleet carrying tens of thousands of Persian troops set out for Greece.

The fleet came ashore near a town called Marathon not far from Athens. Warned in advance of the Persians’ approach, the Athenians set out to meet their foe.

The Athenians arrived at Marathon quickly and caught the Persians at work unloading their ships. The Athenians charged the beach in a **phalanx** (FAY-lanks), a tight rectangle formation in which soldiers held long spears out ahead of a wall of shields. The Persians, caught by surprise, counterattacked, but more Greeks closed in on them from the sides. Though they outnumbered their foe, the Persians retreated.

According to legend, an Athenian messenger ran from Marathon to Athens after the battle to announce the Greeks’ victory. He completed the 26-mile run but died from exhaustion after he delivered the message. This legend inspired the modern marathon race, a 26-mile run that commemorates the messenger’s dedication and athleticism.
**Thermopylae** A small Greek force was able to hold back a much larger Persian army for three days in a narrow mountain pass.

**Salamis** The Greeks led the larger Persian fleet into a narrow channel with little room to move, then used their smaller and more maneuverable ships to sink their opponents.

**Marathon** The Athenians and their Plataean allies lured the Persian army forward and then sent more soldiers in from either side to trap the Persians.

**1. Location** How did the local terrain help the Greeks at both Thermopylae and Salamis?

**2. Movement** Where did the Persian army head after it defeated the Greek force at Thermopylae?
The Battle of Thermopylae

The Athenian historian Herodotus described the Persian Wars in his *History*. In this passage, he describes the efforts of the Spartans under King Leonidas to hold back the Persians at Thermopylae.

“So the barbarians under Xerxes began to draw nigh; and the Greeks under Leonidas, as they now went forth determined to die, advanced much further than on previous days, until they reached the more open portion of the pass. Hitherto they had held their station within the wall and from this had gone forth to fight at the point where the pass was the narrowest. Now they joined battle beyond the defile and carried slaughter among the barbarians, who fell in heaps. Behind them the captains of the squadrons, armed with whips, urged their men forward with continual blows. Many were thrust into the sea, and there perished; a still greater number were trampled to death by their own soldiers. No one heeded the dying. For the Greeks, reckless of their own safety and desperate, since they knew that as the mountain had been crossed their destruction was nigh at hand, exerted themselves with the most furious valour against the barbarians.”

Preparations for a Second Invasion  The Greek victory at Marathon shocked both Greeks and Persians. The Athenians could not believe that they had defeated a much stronger foe. The Persians, humiliated, were furious. Wanting revenge more than ever, Darius planned a second invasion of Greece, but he died in 486 BC, before he could launch that second invasion. His son Xerxes, vowing to get revenge for his father, continued planning another attack on Greece.

In 480 BC, 10 years after the first invasion, Xerxes set out for Greece. His army included hundreds of thousands of soldiers and sailors together with all their animals, weapons, food, and other supplies. According to ancient Greek accounts, the Persian army was so huge that it took them a week to cross a bridge they built into Greece, though this figure is certainly an exaggeration.

Faced with another invasion, the Athenians called on other Greek city-states to help fight off the Persians. Among the states that responded to the call was Sparta. Though the two cities were bitter rivals, Athens and Sparta agreed to work together to fight the Persians. Athens, which had recently built a large and powerful navy, took charge of the Greeks’ fighting ships. Sparta took charge of the Greeks’ armies.

The Second Persian Invasion  As Persian forces marched into Greece, the Greeks worried that they would not have time to prepare their troops for battle. To slow down the Persians, a group of Spartans and their allies gathered in a mountain pass at Thermopylae (thuhr-mah-puh-lee), through which the Persians would pass to get into Greece. There, the Spartans held off the entire Persian army for several days. In the end, a local resident showed the Persians an alternate path through the mountains, which allowed them to surround and kill the Spartans. Nevertheless, the Spartans’ sacrifice bought time for the Greeks’ defense.

After Thermopylae, the Persians marched south to Athens, which the Greeks had evacuated. The Persians attacked and burned the city but needed their fleet to bring them additional supplies. Not wanting the Persians to get what they needed, a clever Athenian commander lured the Persian fleet into the narrow Strait of Salamis near Athens. Because the Persian ships were so much larger than the Greek vessels, they could not maneuver well in the strait. With their opponents virtually helpless, the Greek warships cut them to pieces. They sank many ships and sent swarms of soldiers onto others. Xerxes, who had brought a throne to the shore to watch the battle from afar, saw his navy go down in defeat.

**Reading Check**  Sequence  What events led to the Greek victory in the Persian Wars?
The Golden Age of Athens

As the leaders in the Persian Wars, Athens and Sparta became the two most powerful and influential city-states in Greece. Because the Spartans were not popular with the rest of Greece, Athens eventually became the leading city-state. After the Persian Wars, Athens entered a golden age, an age in which it was the center of Greek culture and politics.

Increased Influence

After the Persian Wars, dozens of Greek city-states banded together to defend one another and to punish Persia for the invasion. In theory, this alliance was a league of equals; but as the largest and richest of its members, Athens actually controlled the entire alliance. Because the alliance’s treasury was kept on the islands of Delos, the alliance became known as the Delian League.

As the Delian League’s leader, Athens controlled its ships and money. Many cities were interested in league membership, so the league grew wealthier and more powerful. As its leader, Athens gained more influence in Greece.

Eventually, some league members began to resent Athenian dominance, but Athens would not allow these unhappy members to quit. Any league members who rebelled were attacked by the league fleet, led by Athens, and forced back into the alliance. Before long, the league, in effect, turned into an Athenian empire.

Rebuilding Athens

After the Persian Wars, the people wanted to rebuild their city, which had been burned during the fighting. Some of the money for this rebuilding came from within Athens. A substantial amount, though, came from the treasury of the Delian League. The other members of the league were not happy that the Athenians used their collective funds to rebuild their own city, but none was powerful enough to stop Athens.

The rebuilding of Athens began at the top, with Athens’ acropolis. The Athenians built a series of grand temples on the acropolis, the grandest of which was the Parthenon, a grand temple dedicated to the goddess Athena. The Athenians expanded their port, built new roads, and constructed high walls around the city itself. Many people considered the rebuilt Athens, a city of stone and marble, the height of Greek culture and sophistication.

The Age of Pericles

Much of the rebuilding of Athens was due to one man—Pericles (péhr-ul-kleez). A skilled politician and a gifted public speaker, Pericles was elected one of the city’s generals in the 460s BC and was re-elected many times. Through his personal charisma and cleverness, Pericles became the most influential politician in Athens for many years.

Despite Pericles’s own personal power, he was a great champion of democracy. To encourage more people to participate in government, he introduced payment for those who served in public offices or on juries. He also encouraged the Athenians to introduce democracy into other parts of Greece.

Besides being a skilled speaker and politician, Pericles was a great patron of the arts. It was he who commissioned the building of the Parthenon and several other monuments on the Acropolis, and it was his idea to hire great artists and sculptors to decorate them. Pericles wanted Athens to be the most glorious city in Greece, and he wanted its people to be proud of their city. He firmly believed that it had the best government and the noblest people, and he thought that it should have monuments to prove its superiority to other cities.

Pericles became involved with a number of influential politicians who were working to make Athens more democratic. A gifted public speaker, Pericles used his talents to challenge aristocrats who thought their money and influence should allow them to rule the city.

Pericles was a firm believer in the superiority of Athens over other Greek city-states. He was instrumental in forming the Athenian Empire and ordered the building of the Parthenon.

When the Peloponnesian War between Athens and Sparta broke out, Pericles devised the Athenian strategy of withdrawing inside the city walls. The navy could bring food and supplies to Athens even if the Spartans surrounded the city. Ultimately, that plan led to his death. Overcrowding in the city led to the outbreak of plague, and Pericles was among its victims.

Draw Conclusions

Why is the 400s BC in Athens sometimes called the Age of Pericles?
Life in the Golden Age  During the Golden Age, trade brought great wealth to Athens. Merchants from other parts of the world moved to the city, bringing their own foods and customs. As a result, Athens was a very cosmopolitan city. Adding to its appeal were grand festivals, public celebrations, and public events. Athenians could cheer on athletes in the city’s religious games or watch great dramas played out in the city’s theaters. Athens was the heart of Greek culture during this time.

**Reading Check** Draw Conclusions What made the 400s a golden age in Athens?

The Peloponnesian War

As the leader of the Delian League, Athens was the richest, mightiest polis in Greece. Being rich and mighty, however, also brought the city many powerful rivals. The greatest of these rivals was Sparta, which wanted to limit Athens’ power and end its dominance of Greece.

**War in Greece** For the first several years of the war, neither side gained much of an advantage. Sparta and its allies dominated the land, while Athens and its allies dominated the sea. Realizing that the Spartan army was stronger, the Athenians avoided any battles on land. As a result, neither side could win more than minor victories against the other.

In 430 and 429 BC, a terrible plague struck Athens, changing the course of the war. Among those who died from the plague was Pericles, the city’s leader through the beginning of the war. After the plague ended, fighting heated up for a few years before the Athenians and Spartans agreed to a truce in 421 BC. Peace had come to Greece, at least for a brief time.
Six years later, war broke out again, when Athens attacked one of Sparta’s allies. The Spartans responded, but this time they took to the sea as well as the land. The Spartans destroyed the Athenian fleet, leaving Athens with no choice but surrender in 404 BC.

The Peloponnesian War nearly destroyed Athens. It lost thousands of soldiers, hundreds of ships, huge sums of money, and most of its allies. Sparta, too, was exhausted by the war. It had nearly lost several times and had suffered damage almost as great as Athens’s.

After their victory, Sparta’s army tried to act as Greece’s dominant power. But Sparta’s wealth and resources were badly strained, and its power had worn down. As a result of this strain, the Spartans could not keep control of Greece. The city-state of Thebes defeated Sparta, but it could not maintain control either. The struggle for power in Greece led to a long cycle of warfare that left all of Greece vulnerable to attack. Finally, in the 340s BC Macedonia, a Greek-speaking kingdom to the north, swept in and took control of all of Greece.

Identify Cause and Effect

What caused the Peloponnesian War?

**CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR**

**Causes**

- After the Persian Wars, Athens used its influence with other city-states to establish the Delian League. Athens took advantage of its position as the head of the Delian League to create what amounted to an Athenian Empire.
- Sparta and its allies, the Peloponnesian League, resented the growing influence of Athens in Greece.
- Over decades, tensions built up between the two leagues.

**Effects**

- Athens lost its entire navy, most of its army, and most of its allies. For a short time, the city’s government was replaced by an oligarchy chosen by Sparta, though democracy was soon reinstated.
- Sparta became the supreme power in Greece. However, the Spartan army was weakened and was defeated by Thebes in 371 BC.
- In the 340s BC, after years of bitter squabbling among city-states, all of Greece was conquered by Macedonia.

**SECTION 2 ASSESSMENT**

**Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People**

1. **a. Identify** What were the most significant elements of ancient Athenian democracy?
   **b. Sequence** How did Athenian government change in the years leading up to the development of democracy?
   **c. Evaluate** Do you think a direct democracy would work today? Why or why not?

2. **a. Identify** Who ordered the first Persian invasion of Greece? Why did he want to invade?
   **b. Identify Cause and Effect** What was the ultimate result of the Battle of Marathon?
   **c. Predict** How might the Persian Wars have ended differently if the Spartans had not held out at Thermopylae?

3. **a. Identify** Who was Pericles, and what did he do for the city of Athens?
   **b. Infer** Why is the period after the Persian Wars considered a golden age of Athenian history?
   **c. Support a Position** Do you think Pericles was justified in using the Delian League’s money to rebuild Athens? Why or why not?

4. **a. Describe** What was Athens’s strategy at the beginning of the Peloponnesian War?
   **b. Explain** Why did the members of the Peloponnesian League resent Athens?
   **c. Elaborate** How did Greece change after the Peloponnesian War?

**Critical Thinking**

5. **Identify Cause and Effect** Draw a graphic organizer like the one below. Using your notes, identify the causes and the effects of the Persian Wars.

6. **Description** Write an obituary such as you might find in a newspaper remembering the life of Pericles. The obituary should give a few facts about his life and detail his major accomplishments.
Before You Read

Main Idea
The ancient Greeks made great achievements in philosophy, literature, art, and architecture that influenced the development of later cultures and ideas.

Reading Focus
1. How did Greek philosophy influence later thinking?
2. What types of literature did the Greeks create?
3. What were the aims of Greek art and architecture?

Key Terms and People
Socrates
Plato
Aristotle
reason
logic
Homer
lyric poetry
Herodotus
Thucydides

Why was a peaceful philosopher condemned to die? In 399 BC, Socrates, considered by many to be the wisest man in Athens, was put on trial. The charges laid against him were impiety, or disrespect for religion, and corrupting the city’s children. Some wealthy and powerful Athenians felt that Socrates’s teaching led people, including children, to question the actions of the gods. Having only recently lost the Peloponnesian War, a loss they attributed to the displeasure of the gods, the Athenians did not want to do anything that might anger the gods further. Therefore, they decided Socrates had to be punished.

Many historians do not believe the charges laid against Socrates were valid. They think he was really arrested for political reasons and that the charges of impiety and corruption were only a cover. Several of Socrates’s friends had been involved with a tyrannical government that had taken control of Athens, and historians think he was arrested to punish him for his connections to this group.

According to his student and friend Plato, Socrates accepted his death willingly and calmly. His friends were not so calm, grieving and urging Socrates to reconsider his decision. The old philosopher scolded them for their actions and asked them to let him die in peace. He then drank a cup of hemlock, a deadly poison and quietly passed away.

The philosopher Socrates (center) was condemned to die by drinking poison.
Greek Philosophy

Despite their condemnation of Socrates, the people of ancient Greece—especially Athens—were great believers in philosophy, the search for wisdom and knowledge. In fact, the word _philosophy_ itself comes from the Greek word _philosophia_, which means “the love of wisdom.” Philosophy played a key part in classical Greek life and culture.

While we can trace the earliest Greek philosophy to the 500s BC, it reached its height in Athens during the 400s and 300s. This golden age of Greek philosophy was inspired by the three greatest Greek philosophers: Socrates (SAHK-ruh-teez), Plato (PLAYT-oh), and Aristotle (ar-uh-STAH-tuhl).

Socrates Born in the mid-400s BC, Socrates was the first of the great Athenian philosophers. Though he was famous even in his own lifetime, we know very little about Socrates’s personal life. What we know of his ideas comes from the writings of his students, like Plato. From those writings, we have obtained a clear picture of how Socrates thought and taught.

Socrates was interested in broad concepts of human life, such as truth, justice, and virtue. He thought that philosophers could learn what made good people and good societies. To learn such things, he thought that one had to ask questions. He started with basic questions such as, “What is truth?” When a person answered, Socrates followed up with more questions. By working through long series of questions, he thought people could discover the basic nature of life. Today we call this method of learning through questions the Socratic method.

Plato Plato, one of Socrates’s students, became a great philosopher in his own right. Unlike Socrates, Plato left behind a great number of writings that record his ideas. These writings cover a wide variety of topics, from the nature of truth and goodness to the ideal form of government. Government is the topic of what may be Plato’s most famous work, the _Republic_. In it, Plato argues that a government should be led by the people most qualified to make good decisions—philosophers. No one else, he argues, has the skills necessary to lead:

"Until philosophers are kings, or the kings and princes of this world have the spirit and power of philosophy, and political greatness and wisdom meet in one, and those commoner natures who pursue either to the exclusion of the other are compelled to stand aside, cities will never have rest from their evils—no, nor the human race."

—Plato, Republic

As this excerpt suggests, Plato did not support Athenian democracy, in which all men, philosophers or not, could take part.

To help spread philosophical ideas and thus improve the government, Plato wanted to make a philosopher’s education more formal. To that end, he founded the Academy, a school where respected philosophers could teach their students and hold debates. In Plato’s own lifetime the Academy became the most important site for Greek philosophers to do their work.

Aristotle Among the scholars who studied at the Academy was Aristotle, the third of the great Athenian philosophers. Unlike Socrates and Plato, who mostly studied human behavior, Aristotle was more concerned with the nature of the world around him.
Aristotle tried to apply philosophical principles to every kind of knowledge. He used these principles to study art and literature, to discuss politics, and to examine the natural world. His writings covered subjects that ranged from truth to biology to astronomy to poetry.

One of Aristotle’s most valuable contributions to philosophy was his emphasis on reason and logic. Reason means clear and ordered thinking. Aristotle argued that people should use reason to help them learn about the world by making careful observations and thinking rationally about what they had seen. His emphasis on reason influenced the development of science in Europe.

Aristotle also helped develop the field of logic, the process of making inferences. He taught that people could use what they already know to infer new facts. For a simple example of Aristotle’s logic, read the sentences below. Notice how the third sentence uses information from the first two to draw a conclusion.

- Birds have feathers and lay eggs.
- Owls have feathers and lay eggs.
- Therefore, an owl must be a type of bird.

**Greek Literature**

Philosophers were not the only Greeks to leave written works. Many works of Greek literature also remain, a great many of them still popular today. Among the many forms of literature in which the Greeks excelled were poetry—both epics and other forms—history, and drama.

**Homer’s Epics** Probably the most famous works of Greek literature are also some of the earliest. They are two epic poems, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, both attributed to a poet named Homer. Epics, you may recall, tell stories about great events and heroes. Both of Homer’s epics tell stories about the Trojan War, the legendary fight between the Mycenaean Greeks and the soldiers of Troy.

The *Iliad* tells the story of the last year of the Trojan War. It is largely the story of two mighty heroes: Achilles (uh-kil-eez), the greatest of all Greek warriors, and Hector, a prince of Troy and leader of that city’s army. Near the end of the epic, Achilles kills Hector in single combat, paving the way for the Greeks’ ultimate victory over Troy.

Although the *Odyssey* tells the story of heroes from the Trojan War, it does not take place during the war itself. It tells of the hero Odysseus, who angers the gods and is forced to wander the sea for 10 long years before he can return to Greece. Along the way, he faces terrible dangers—including monsters, magicians, and even the gods—that threaten him and his crew, though he does eventually reach home.

Homer’s epics had a tremendous influence in early Greece. Though they were not at first written down, poets recited and sang the epics throughout the Greek world. In time, the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* became the basis for the Greek education system. Students were required to memorize long passages, and young men were encouraged to emulate the deeds of the heroes described in them. The heroic deeds described by Homer also inspired the subjects of many later Greek writers.

**Other Forms of Poetry** The Greeks wrote many types of poetry besides epics. For example, the poet Hesiod (hee-see-uhd) wrote descriptive poetry. Among the subjects he described in his poems were the works of the gods and the lives of peasants.
Greek History

Analyzing Primary Sources  Thucydides is widely considered to be the greatest historian of ancient Greece. In his History of the Peloponnesian War, he included excerpts of speeches from leaders on both sides, including this passage from a speech by Pericles of Athens. The speech was given as part of a funeral for Athenian soldiers who had fallen during the war.

To understand why Thucydides included this speech as a primary source in his work, think about:

• the author of the speech
• the purpose for which the speech was prepared and delivered
• Thucydides’s own goals in writing his history.

I would have you day by day fix your eyes upon the greatness of Athens, until you become filled with the love of her; and when you are impressed by the spectacle of her glory, reflect that this empire has been acquired by men who knew their duty and had the courage to do it, who in the hour of conflict had the fear of dishonor always present to them, and who, if ever they failed in an enterprise, would not allow their virtues to be lost to their country, but freely gave their lives to her as the fairest offering which they could present at her feast. The sacrifice which they collectively made was individually repaid to them; for they received again each one for himself a praise which grows not old, and the noblest of all sepulchres—I speak not of that in which their remains are laid, but of that in which their glory survives, and is proclaimed always and on every fitting occasion both in word and deed.

——Pericles, quoted in Thucydides, History of the Peloponnesian War

The Greeks also created lyric poetry, named after a musical instrument called the lyre that was often played to accompany the reading of poems. Lyric poems do not tell stories. Instead, they deal with emotions and desires.

Among the earliest poets to gain fame for writing lyrics was Sappho (saf-oh), one of the few Greek women to gain fame as a writer. Her poems deal with daily life, marriage, love, and relationships with her family and friends. In the poem below, Sappho begs the goddess of love to send her a new love:

**HISTORY’S VOICES**

“\[Iridescent-throned Aphrodite, deathless Child of Zeus, weaver, I now implore you, Don’t—I beg you, Lady—with pains and torments Crush down my spirit\]”

——Sappho, Hymn to Aphrodite

Another lyric poet, Pindar, who lived in the late 500s and early 400s, wrote poems to commemorate public events like the Olympic Games.

History  In addition to poetry, the ancient Greeks also wrote works in other fields. Among the fields for which they are best known is history. The Greeks were one of the first people to write about and analyze their own past.

The first major writer of history in Greece was Herodotus (hi-rahd-uh-tuhs), who lived in Greece during the wars with Persia. In his most famous work, The Histories, Herodotus described major events of the wars, such as battles and public debates. Some of these events he had witnessed himself, but some were reported to him by other people. Unfortunately, some of Herodotus’s sources were unreliable, which led to errors in his history.

A second major historian likewise lived in Athens. Thucydides (thoo-sid-uh-deez) lived during the Peloponnesian War and wrote about it in detail. He included what we would today call primary sources, especially speeches that he heard delivered. Unlike Herodotus, Thucydides looked at his sources critically, ignoring those that seemed unreliable or irrelevant.

ACADEMIC VOCABULARY

irrelevant  not appropriate or related to the subject
Xenophon (zen-uH-fuhn) is another early Greek historian whose work survives. Both a soldier and a philosopher, Xenophon had fought in Persia around 400 BC, long after the end of the Persian Wars. This service was the source for his major writing. Unlike Herodotus and Thucydides, Xenophon concentrated less on sources and debates and more on describing famous men. Despite his less critical style, Xenophon’s work has helped us learn what life was like in Greece during the 300s BC.

Drama While the Greeks wrote histories to preserve the past and inform readers, they created another new form of writing for entertainment. That form was drama, the art of playwriting. Like many other elements of Greek culture, drama had its roots in Athens.

The earliest dramas were created as part of religious festivals honoring Dionysus, the god of wine and celebration. Most of these dramas consisted of a group of actors called a chorus who recited stories for the audience. Later, as dramas became more complex, individual actors began to take on the roles of specific characters in the stories.

Over time, two distinct forms of drama were developed. The first was tragedy. Tragedies usually focused on hardships faced by Greek heroes. Three great writers of tragedies lived and wrote at about the same time in Athens:

- Aeschylus (E-s-kuh-lus) wrote plays based on ancient Greek myths and on events from Athenian history. His most famous series of plays, the Oresteia, tells of the tragedies that faced the leader of the Greek army when he returned home after the Trojan War.
- Sophocles (suh-fuh-kleez) concentrated his plays on the suffering that people brought upon themselves. Many of his characters had fatal flaws that brought tragedy to themselves and their families. For example, Oedipus, the main character of three plays by Sophocles, unknowingly killed his father and married his own mother.
Euripides (yoo-rip-uh-deez) wrote about characters whose tragedy was not brought about by flaws but by chance or irrational behavior. For example, Medea tells of a woman who swears revenge on her unfaithful husband, killing his new wife and family.

The second form of drama the Greeks created was comedy. Many of these comedies were satires, plays written to expose the flaws of their society. The greatest comedy writer was Aristophanes (ar-uh-stahf-uh-neez). His plays poke fun at aspects of Athenian society ranging from government to the treatment of women. Aristophanes even mocks religion by having the clouds in the sky address the audience:

**HISTORY’S VOICES**

“There exist no gods to whom this city owes more than it does to us, whom alone you forget. Not a sacrifice, not a libation is there for those who protect you! Have you decreed some mad expedition? Well! we thunder or we fall down in rain.”

—Aristophanes, The Clouds

**Greek Architecture and Art**

An important characteristic of the Athenians was that they enjoyed beauty, both written and visual. They expressed their love of written beauty through literature, and their love of visual beauty through architecture and art.

**Architecture** The Athenians wanted their city to be the most beautiful in all of Greece. To help reach this goal, they built magnificent temples, theaters, and other public buildings throughout the city. To enhance the appearance of these buildings, they added fine works of art, both painted and sculpted.

The grandest of all Athenian buildings were built on the acropolis at the city’s center. Marble temples and bronze statues on the acropolis were visible from all over the city, gleaming in the sunlight. No other building on the acropolis, however, was as magnificent as the Parthenon, the massive temple to Athena that stood at the center of the acropolis. Begun by Pericles in 447 BC, the Parthenon took some 14 years to build. When finished, the marble temple was more than 200 feet long and 100 feet wide.

However, the Parthenon was impressive for its proportion, not for its sheer size. Its designers were careful not to make it either too tall, which would have made it look flimsy, or too wide, which could have made it appear squat.

Like most Greek temples, the Parthenon had doors but no windows. The structure was surrounded by tall, graceful columns, above which were slabs of marble carved with scenes from myths. Though the ruins of the Parthenon appear white today, parts originally were painted in vivid colors. A huge gold and ivory statue of Athena stood inside the temple.

**Sculpture** Impressive as they were on their own, buildings like the Parthenon would not have been quite so magnificent without the statues and carvings created to decorate them. Greek sculptors were among the finest the world has ever known.

**Discobolus**

This statue from ancient Athens depicts an athlete throwing a discus. What features of the statue imply that the man is moving?

**Greek Sculpture**

Discobolus, by Myron, c. 450 BC
The Greeks were particularly adept at sculpting the human form. Sculptors carefully studied what people looked like, not only while they were still but also while they were moving. The sculptors then tried to re-create what they had observed, paying particular attention to how the subject’s muscles looked. In most cases, the result was a statue that looks as if it could come to life. For example, look at the statue of the discus thrower pictured on the previous page. The athlete depicted in the statue looks as though he is in the process of launching his discus into the air.

While the Greeks wanted statues to look lifelike and active, they did not necessarily want them to look realistic. Greek sculptors were not interested in depicting people as they really looked. Instead, they chose to portray their subjects as physically perfect, without any blemishes or imperfections. As a result, Greek statues almost all depict figures of great beauty and grace.

Though we know a great deal about ancient Greek sculpture, very few original works remain. Much of what we do know about Greek sculpture is based on copies of Greek statues made by the Romans a few hundred years later. Roman artists made many copies of what they considered to be the greatest Greek statues, including the discus thrower shown in this chapter. Many of these copies survived even after the original statues were destroyed.

**Painting** As with Greek sculpture, only a few original Greek paintings survive. Of those that survive, the best preserved are paintings on vases, plates, and other vessels. These vessels are often decorated with scenes from everyday life or from myths or legends. Most of them use only two colors—red and black—for their illustration. The red was the natural color of the clay vessels, and the black was a glaze added to the finished pieces. Despite this limited palette, Greek artists were able to convey movement and depth in their paintings. This ability was important to the Greeks since they wanted objects to be both functional and beautiful.

Though we have little evidence of larger paintings, written sources tell us that the Greeks also created murals, or wall paintings, in many public buildings. According to these sources, the Greeks’ murals often included scenes from the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*. Such paintings often focused on the aftermath of battle rather than on the battle itself. One Athenian mural, for example, showed a scene from the day after the defeat of Troy. Fallen soldiers still dressed in full armor lay amid the ruins of once great Troy. Themes like this one, also common in tragic drama, were very popular with the Athenian people.

**Make Generalizations**

What were some characteristics of Greek architecture and art?

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**Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People**

1. **Recall** How did Socrates think people should learn?
   - **Explain** Why did Plato think that philosophers should be the leaders of governments?
   - **Extend** How did Aristotle’s emphasis on reason and logic contribute to the development of science?

2. **Identify** Who was Homer? For what works is he known?
   - **Compare and Contrast** How were Greek tragedies and comedies similar? How were they different?
   - **Elaborate** Why might both Herodotus and Thucydides be considered fathers of history?

3. **Describe** What was most Greek painting like? On what types of objects did such painting appear?
   - **Make Generalizations** What was the general goal of Greek sculptors?
   - **Elaborate** Why was the Parthenon designed to be so impressive?

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**Critical Thinking**

4. **Categorize** Use your notes and a chart like the one below. In the second column, write a description of each of the listed literary forms. In the third column, list a few Greek writers who used each form.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Writer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Epic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lyric Poems</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History</td>
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<tr>
<td>Drama</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comedy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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5. **Persuasion** Write a short letter to Plato in which you either agree or disagree with his belief that philosophers should rule cities. Whichever position you take, use evidence to support your argument.
Greek Drama

**What is it?** Greek drama included comedies and tragedies. Hubris, a disregard for the limits that the gods had placed on people, was a key element of the tragedies. A character cursed with hubris offended the gods and suffered as a result. In contrast, the comedies were hilarious, sometimes crude, observations on human shortcomings.

**Key facts:**
- Greek drama developed from religious festivals.
- Plays were performed in verse and accompanied by music.
- A chorus, dressed all in black, provided more information on the characters and commented on the action throughout the play.
- Complete plays have survived from only four writers—Aeschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, Aristophanes.

**Why is it important?**
- Greek plays explore basic questions about people, their relationships, and their place in the world.
- The plays tell us about Greek mythology, philosophy, politics, and daily life.

Performances are still held at the theater of Epidaurus. Built in a natural valley, the theater was enlarged by the Romans to hold 12,000 to 14,000 people. The acoustics are so good that words whispered on stage can be heard in the last rows.

Greek actors wore masks, probably of leather, wood, and linen. A mask's expression provided clues to the character's thoughts, since people in the last rows could not see an actor's face well. Masks also hid the fact that men played male and female roles, since women were not allowed on stage.

▲ A Greek actor portrays the tragic king in *Oedipus Rex*.

1. **Compare and Contrast** How is the ancient theater shown on this page similar to theaters you have seen? How is it different?
2. **Analyze** What themes were common in ancient Greek plays?
Main Idea
Alexander the Great formed a huge empire, spread Greek culture into Egypt and many parts of Asia, and paved the way for a new civilization to develop in those areas.

Reading Focus
1. How did Alexander the Great rise to power?
2. What was life like in the culture called the Hellenistic world that developed after Alexander's death?
3. What were some significant Hellenistic achievements?

Key Terms and People
Alexander the Great
Hellenistic
Euclid
Eratosthenes
Archimedes

Before You Read

Could a 10-year-old boy tame the fiercest of stallions? According to the ancient biographer Plutarch, a horse trader approached King Philip of Macedonia with a beautiful stallion for sale named Bucephalus. However, none of Philip's servants could ride the wild horse. If anyone tried to mount him, the stallion reared high into the air and threw him off. He would allow no one to come near him.

Disappointed at the loss of so fine an animal, Philip prepared to send the trader away. Before the trader could leave, however, Philip's young son Alexander scoffed at the grooms. Only 10 years old, he claimed that he would be able to tame the fierce steed. Philip did not think it possible, but he agreed to allow Alexander to try. The young prince walked slowly to the horse, whispering calming words and turning him to face the sun. Of all the people present, only young Alexander had noticed that Bucephalus was scared of his shadow. Once the horse was facing the sun and thus could no longer see his shadow, he allowed Alexander to climb on his back; and the two took off at a gallop. Philip, amazed at his son's cleverness, proclaimed, "O my son, look thee out a kingdom equal to and worthy of thyself, for Macedonia is too little for thee."

A Horse Fit for a King

Bucephalus was Alexander's favorite horse until its death in 326 BC.
Alexander the Great

In the years that followed the Peloponnesian War, a new power arose and took control of Greece. That power was Macedonia, a kingdom located just north of Greece. The Macedonian rise to power was led by a king named Philip II and his son, Alexander the Great.

The Rise of Macedonia  Most Greeks considered the Macedonians somewhat backward: The Macedonians lived in villages rather than cities and spoke a form of Greek that was almost unintelligible to other Greek speakers. When Philip II took the throne in 359 BC, however, Macedonia’s fortune changed.

One of Philip’s first actions as king was reorganizing the Macedonian army. He adopted the phalanx system used by other Greeks, but he gave his soldiers much longer spears than others used. He also included larger bodies of cavalry and archers than most city-states used in their armies.

With his newly organized army, Philip set out to conquer Greece. Only a few city states, including Athens and Thebes, seemed to realize the danger that Philip posed, and so he faced little opposition. The Macedonians quickly crushed the armies that stood against them in battle, and in time they conquered every major city-state in Greece except Sparta. Philip’s conquests might have continued, but he was assassinated in 336 BC. His title and his plans for conquests fell to his son Alexander.

Alexander’s Conquests  Though very young—only 20 years old—when he became king, Alexander had been trained to rule almost from birth. He had learned both warfare and politics from several teachers: his father, his clever mother, and the philosopher Aristotle. When his father was killed, Alexander was both willing and able to take over the leadership of his kingdom.

Almost as soon as Alexander took over the kingdom, he was faced with revolts in Greece. He immediately set out to reestablish his control there, using harsh measures to show the Greeks that he would not tolerate rebellion. For example, when Thebes rebelled, Alexander totally crushed its army, sold the people into slavery, and burned the city to the ground.

GEOGRAPHY SKILLS  INTERPRETING MAPS

1. Movement  Which did Alexander invade first, Egypt or India? How can you tell?
2. Place  What name did Alexander give to most of the cities he founded? Why do you think this was so?
With Greece firmly under his control, Alexander decided to build himself an empire. In 334 BC he led his army into Asia to take on the Persians. Alexander’s army was relatively small, but his soldiers were well trained and fiercely loyal to him. In contrast, the Persian army was huge but disorganized.

Within a year, Alexander’s army had won a major victory against the Persians in Asia Minor. From there, Alexander led his troops south into Phoenicia and Egypt, two territories ruled by Persia. In both places, Alexander was welcomed and praised as a liberator. In fact, the people of Egypt were so grateful that they named him their new pharaoh.

From Egypt, Alexander marched into what is now Iraq. In a huge battle near the city of Gaugamela, the Macedonians destroyed the Persian army and caused the Persian emperor, Darius III, to flee. Darius was later murdered by one of his own officers.

With the defeat of Darius, Alexander was essentially master of the Persian world. His troops marched to Persepolis, one of Persia’s capitals, and burned it to the ground as a sign of their victory.

Alexander, however, was not yet satisfied with the size of his empire. He led his army deeper into Asia, winning more victories against the peoples of Central Asia. Still wanting more, he led his army to the Indus, perhaps intending to conquer India. His soldiers, however, had had enough. When they refused to proceed any farther from home, Alexander was forced to turn back to the west.

End of the Empire  The empire Alexander had built was the largest the world had ever seen, but he did not rule that empire for very long. In 323 BC while in the city of Babylon, Alexander fell ill. After a few days, he died. At the time of his death, Alexander was only 33 years old.
Alexander died without naming an heir. Within a short time, his generals began to fight among themselves for power. In the end, the empire was divided among three of the most powerful generals, who began to call themselves kings. Antigonus (an-TIG-uh-nuhs) became king of Macedonia and Greece, Seleucus (suh-LOO-kuhs) took over the Persian Empire, and Ptolemy (TAHL-uh-mee) ruled Egypt.

**READING CHECK** Summarize Why did Alexander’s empire break apart after his death?

### The Hellenistic World

By bringing together a number of diverse peoples in his empire, Alexander helped create a new type of culture. This new culture blended elements of Greek civilization with ideas from Persia, Egypt, Central Asia, and other regions. In other words, the civilization was no longer purely Greek, or Hellenic. *(Hellas was the name Greeks used for their country.)* As a result, historians call it **Hellenistic**, or Greeklike.

**Blending Cultures** The blending of cultures in Alexander’s empire was no accident. Alexander made a conscious effort to bring people and ideas from different places together. For example, he married not one but two Persian princesses and encouraged his soldiers to marry Persian women as well. He appointed officials from various cultures to help rule the empire. He also built dozens of new cities—most of them named Alexandria—and encouraged Greek settlers to move into them.

The most famous of the new cities Alexander built was Alexandria, Egypt. Chosen as the capital of Egypt after Alexander’s death, Alexandria was located at the mouth of the Nile where it met the Mediterranean. This location was ideal for trade, and at one time the city’s harbor was the busiest in the world.

With the money that trade brought, the Alexandrians built great palaces and streets lined with grand monuments. The city was also home to centers of culture and learning. The Museum, a temple to the spirit of creativity, held many works of art. The Library of Alexandria contained works on philosophy, literature, history, and the sciences. Alexandria remained a center of culture and learning long after the Hellenistic rulers of Egypt fell from power.

Although Alexandria was one of the largest trading centers in the Hellenistic world, it was not the only one. Cities in Egypt, Persia, and Central Asia became trading centers. Traders went to Africa, Arabia, and India. In addition to goods from these regions, traders brought back new ideas. Among the ideas they carried were the teachings of Judaism, which influenced societies throughout the Hellenistic world.

**Life in the Hellenistic World** The shift from Hellenic Greece to the Hellenistic world brought many drastic changes to people’s lives. Perhaps the most obvious change was in how people were governed. The city-state was no longer the main political unit of the Greek world, now replaced by the kingdom. Traditional Greek forms of government such as democracy had given way to monarchy.

The lives of women also changed significantly during the Hellenistic period. In most earlier Greek city-states, women had few rights. After Alexander, however, their lives began to improve. For the first time, some women gained the rights to receive an education and to own property. Legally, though, women were still not considered equal to men.

**READING CHECK** Explain How did society change in the Hellenistic age?
Hellenistic Achievements

The blending of cultures in the Hellenistic world brought significant changes to society. Some of the most dramatic changes were caused by the exchange of ideas by people from different cultures. This exchange led to new advances in philosophy, literature, and science.

Philosophy  As Greek influence spread through Alexander’s empire, so too did interest in Greek philosophy. Contact with other cultures led to changes in classical philosophy, which absorbed and reacted to ideas from these other cultures. Partly as a result of these changes, new schools of philosophy developed in the Hellenistic world.

One new school of philosophy created in the Hellenistic world was Cynicism. Its students, called Cynics, rejected the ideas of pleasure, wealth, and social responsibility. Instead, they believed that people should live according to nature, with none of humanity’s created institutions. As a result, many Cynics gave away all their possessions, begged for food, and lived in public buildings.

Another new school of philosophy, the Epicureans, taught that people should seek out pleasure, which they equated with good, and try to avoid pain, which they considered evil. One way to find pleasure, the Epicureans believed, was to develop close friendships with people who shared similar ideas.

The most influential of the new schools of philosophy was Stoicism. The Stoics placed great emphasis on reason, self-discipline, emotional control, and personal morality. Unlike the Cynics, they did not believe that people should withdraw from society in order to find happiness. Instead, they argued that people should identify their proper role in society and strive to fulfill that role.

Hellenistic Math and Science

Hellenistic thinkers made great advances in many fields. The illustrations here represent only a small sample of the advances that they made. What fields do the advances shown here represent?

Archimedes Invents a Water-Raising Device

With the lower end of the Archimedes screw resting in water, a handle attached to the upper end is rotated to turn the watertight tube. As the tube turns, water is carried up the threads of the screw to the top, where it spills into a collecting container. An Archimedes screw can be used to draw water from wells or to pump seawater out of the hold of a sinking ship.

Eratosthenes Measures the Earth

As the sun shone on the city of Syene, Eratosthenes used an obelisk’s shadow to figure the angle (A) at which the sun shone on Alexandria. Using geometry, he concluded that angles A and B were the same, about one fiftieth of a circle. He then multiplied the distance between Syene and Alexandria by 50 to figure out the Earth’s circumference.

Hellenistic astronomers drew on earlier Greek works to form theories about the universe.
Art and Literature  Art and literature likewise changed during the Hellenistic period. Even more than earlier Greek artists had, Hellenistic artists learned to convey emotion and movement in their works, especially sculpture. In addition, women became much more common as the subject of art. Most earlier Greek statues had depicted men.

Women also became more common subjects in literature. Love stories, for example, became a popular form for the first time. Unlike earlier literature that dealt largely with the actions of the gods, Hellenistic writings often focus on common events in people’s everyday lives.

Science and Technology  The Hellenistic period witnessed tremendous advances in science and technology. Egypt in particular saw huge advances in science. Among the great scholars who lived there was Euclid (yoo-kluhd), who formulated many of the ideas about geometry that we still learn about today. Egypt was also the home of Eratosthenes (er-uh-TAHS-thuh-nee-z). He is best known for calculating the size of the world. Using careful observations and simple geometry, Eratosthenes arrived at a figure that was remarkably close to the actual circumference of the globe. Other Hellenistic scientists studied the movement of the stars through the sky and the makeup and inner workings of the human body.

Many of the Hellenistic period’s greatest advances in technology were the work of one gifted man, Archimedes (ahr-kuh-MEEED-eez). One of the ancient world’s greatest inventors, Archimedes used his knowledge of mathematics and physics to create devices to make life easier. For example, he developed a compound pulley that could lift heavy loads. He also invented a mechanical screw for drawing water out of a ship’s hold or out of a deep well. In a feat designed to prove the power of machines, Archimedes once used levers and pulleys to lift a fully loaded ship clear out of the water.

Other Hellenistic inventors were not so ambitious as Archimedes but were very clever in their own right. One lesser-known inventor, for example, built a tiny steam engine that he used to power mechanical toys. Such devices were representative of the Hellenistic fascination with mechanics and technology.

Reviewing Ideas, Terms, and People

1. a. Describe  What lands did Alexander the Great conquer?
   b. Identify Cause and Effect  Why did Alexander destroy Thebes?
   c. Elaborate  Why do you think Alexander agreed to head home rather than forcing his army to continue into India?

2. a. Define  What does the word Hellenistic mean? Why is the society that Alexander formed called Hellenistic?
   b. Explain  How did Alexander encourage the blending of cultures in his empire?
   c. Extend  What made Alexandria such an impressive city?

3. a. Identify  What new schools of philosophy developed in the Hellenistic world? What did each school teach?
   b. Contrast  How was Hellenistic art different from earlier Greek art?
   c. Rank  Which Hellenistic thinker do you think made the most impressive achievement? Support your answer.

Critical Thinking

4. Summarize  Draw a graphic organizer like the one shown here. Using your notes, write one sentence in each box of the organizer to summarize Alexander’s life, career, and legacy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Life</th>
<th>Career</th>
<th>Legacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

5. Narration  Write a short paragraph describing one incident in the life of Alexander the Great. Use chronological order to organize the actions within the incident.

Hellenistic Art

The statue Nike of Samothrace, often called Winged Victory, was carved in a flowing style common in Hellenistic art.

Nike of Samothrace, by an unknown artist, c. 200 BC
**Document-Based Investigation**

### The Diffusion of Greek Culture

**Historical Context**  The four documents that follow illustrate the diffusion of Greek culture from Greece into other parts of the world.

**Task**  Study the selections and answer the questions that follow. After you have studied all the documents, you will be asked to write an essay identifying the type of diffusion that occurred in ancient Greece. You will need to use evidence from these selections and from Chapter 5 to support the position you take in your essay.

#### Cultural Diffusion

The term *cultural diffusion* refers to the spread of ideas or inventions through an area over time. Because diffusion is an ongoing process not restricted to the past, it is a subject of great interest to both historians and geographers. In this passage from their book *The Human Mosaic*, geographers Terry G. Jordan-Bychkov and Mona Domosh explain two main types of diffusion.

Geographers . . . recognize several different kinds of diffusion. Two important types are expansion diffusion and relocation diffusion. In expansion diffusion, ideas spread throughout a population, from area to area, in a snowballing process, so that the total number of knowers and the area of occurrence increase. Relocation diffusion occurs when individuals or groups with a particular idea or practice migrate from one location to another, spreading it to their new homeland . . . Expansion diffusion can be further divided into subtypes . . . In hierarchical diffusion, ideas leapfrog from one important person to another or from one urban center to another, temporarily bypassing other persons or rural territory. We can see hierarchical diffusion at work in everyday life by observing the acceptance of new modes of dress or hairstyles. By contrast, contagious diffusion involves the wavelike spread of ideas, without regard to hierarchies, in the manner of a contagious disease.

#### Alexander as Diffuser

In his biography of Alexander, Plutarch observed that Alexander introduced many elements of Greek culture into the lands he conquered. The passage below outlines a few of those elements.

But if you examine the results of Alexander's instruction, you will see that he educated the Hyrcanians to respect the marriage bond, and taught the Arachosians to till the soil, and persuaded the Sogdians to support their parents, not to kill them, and the Persians to revere their mothers and not to take them in wedlock. O wondrous power of Philosophic Instruction, that brought the Indians to worship Greek gods, and the Scythians to bury their dead, not to devour them! . . . when Alexander was civilizing Asia, Homer was commonly read, and the children of the Persians, of the Susianians, and of the Gedrosians learned to chant the tragedies of Sophocles and Euripides . . . through Alexander Bactria and the Caucasus learned to revere the gods of the Greeks . . . Alexander established more than seventy cities among savage tribes, and sowed all Asia with Grecian magistracies, and thus overcame its uncivilized and brutish manner of living . . . Those who were vanquished by Alexander are happier than those who escaped his hand; for these had no one to put an end to the wretchedness of their existence, while the victor compelled those others to lead a happy life.
A Historian’s View

Historians have long noted Alexander’s role in spreading Greek culture, largely through his building of cities. Historian Charles Freeman described the influence of those cities in his book *Egypt, Greece, and Rome*.

Another of Alexander’s legacies was the cities left behind him along the routes of his campaigns. At least twenty-five were founded during his lifetime. While one of them, Alexandria in Egypt, dedicated in the spring of 331, was destined to become the greatest city of the Mediterranean world, others were little more than military garrisons in the conquered territories. Most were east of the Tigris in regions where cities had been rare. Alexandria-in-Caucaso in the Hindu Kush, for instance, was made up of 3,000 Greco-Macedonian soldiers, some volunteer settlers, others discarded soldiers, supported by 7,000 locals who worked as labourers for them. Such cities were isolated, thousands of kilometers from Greece, among a hostile population, and with all the discomforts associated with pioneer life. Many failed completely, but others maintained themselves as enclaves of Greek culture for generations.

Modern Diffusion

The effects of Greek culture on other societies was not limited to the ancient world. The photograph below shows the U.S. Supreme Court building in Washington, D.C. The designers of the building modeled it after surviving structures from ancient Greek cities.

**Skills Focus**

**Reading Like a Historian**

**DOCUMENT 1**

a. Define What is cultural diffusion? What is one example of cultural diffusion from your own life?

b. Compare and Contrast How are expansion diffusion and relocation diffusion similar? How are they different?

**DOCUMENT 2**

a. Identify What are some elements of Greek culture that Plutarch says Alexander introduced to conquered peoples?

b. Analyze What effect does Plutarch think the introduction of Greek culture had in conquered areas?

**DOCUMENT 3**

a. Describe What does Freeman say life was like in most of Alexander’s cities?

b. Interpret What do you think Freeman meant when he called Alexander’s cities “enclaves of Greek culture”?

**DOCUMENT 4**

a. Identify What elements of the Supreme Court building resemble ancient Greek structures?

b. Draw Conclusions Why do you think the building’s designers wanted to model it after Greek structures?

**Document-Based Essay Question**

Cultural diffusion occurs in many forms. What type of diffusion was the spread of Greek culture? Was it expansion or relocation diffusion, or a combination of multiple types? Using the documents above and information from the chapter, form a thesis identifying the type of diffusion at work. Then write a short essay to support your position.

Review Key Terms and People

Fill in each blank with the name or term that correctly completes the sentence.

1. The greatest of all Athenian politicians, __________ had the Parthenon built.

2. The term __________ , which means Greeklike, is used to describe the civilization that developed in Alexander’s empire.

3. The basic unit of Greek society was the city-state, in Greek called a __________.

4. A form of government like that of ancient Athens in which all people vote directly on an issue is called a __________.

5. In his histories, Thucydides left out __________ , or unrelated, details.

6. The marketplace, or __________ , was often the center of life in a Greek town.

Greek Achievements

Government
- Athens developed the world’s first democracy.

Philosophy
- Classical thinkers like Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle laid the foundation for most later Western philosophy.
- Hellenistic thinkers founded new schools of learning.

Literature
- Poets wrote long, sweeping epics and beautiful lyric poems.
- Historians tried to record major events impartially.
- Athenian dramatists wrote the world’s first tragedies and comedies.

Architecture
- The ancient Greeks built majestic and stately temples, like the Parthenon, that were characterized by proportional designs and the use of columns.

Art
- Painters used red clay and black glaze to create detailed scenes of daily life.
- Sculptors tried to capture perfect human forms that looked as though they could move.
Comprehension and Critical Thinking

SECTION 1  (pp. 127–132)

7. a. **Describe** What was life like in a typical polis?
   b. **Summarize** What achievements did the Minoans make?
   c. **Elaborate** How did Greece’s rugged geography affect the development of city-states?

SECTION 2  (pp. 134–141)

8. a. **Identify** What were two traits that marked the golden age of Athens?
   b. **Explain** What led to the outbreak of the Persian Wars?
   c. **Support a Position** Do you think the Athenian system of government was superior or inferior to the Spartan system? Support your answer.

SECTION 3  (pp. 142–148)

9. a. **Identify Main Ideas** What was the main goal of classical Greek art?
   b. **Contrast** How did the basic philosophy of Aristotle differ from that of Socrates and Plato?
   c. **Evaluate** In which field of literature do you think the Greeks had the most significant effect? Why?

SECTION 4  (pp. 150–155)

10. a. **Describe** How did Alexander build his empire?
    b. **Draw Conclusions** Why is Alexander called “the Great”?
    c. **Predict** How might European history have been different if Alexander had not died so young?

Reading Skills

**Visualizing** Read the passage below, which is condensed from Section 4 of this chapter. Then use what you know about visualizing to answer the questions.

“With Greece firmly under his control, Alexander decided to build himself an empire. In 334 BC he led his army into Asia. Within a year, Alexander’s army had won a major victory against the Persians in Asia Minor. From there, Alexander led his troops south into Phoenicia and Egypt. From Egypt, Alexander marched into what is now Iraq.”

11. Visualize the area of the world in which Alexander is leading his army. Describe what you see.
12. Visualize Alexander and his army marching into Egypt. What details do you see?

Analyzing Primary Sources

**Reading Like a Historian** The passage below is taken from a speech recorded by the historian Thucydides. Read the passage and then answer the questions that follow.

“Our form of government does not enter into rivalry with the institutions of others. We do not copy our neighbors, but are an example to them. It is true that we are called a democracy, for the administration is in the hands of the many and not of the few. But while the law secures equal justice to all alike in their private disputes, the claim of excellence is also recognized; and when a citizen is in any way distinguished, he is preferred to the public service, not as a matter of privilege, but as the reward of merit.”

13. **Analyze** From what city-state do you think the speaker of this passage came? How can you tell?
14. **Interpret** Do you think the speaker admired his city’s form of government? Support your answer with clues from the text.

Using the Internet

15. Aristotle, Archimedes, and other Greek thinkers helped inspire the modern concept of science. Without the Greeks, our views of the world might be substantially different. Enter the activity keyword and research the contributions of the ancient Greeks to modern science. Then use what you have learned to create a poster about the scientific advances made possible by ancient Greece.

**Narration: Writing a Biographical Essay** Great or not, Alexander of Macedonia was one of the most influential individuals of the ancient world. His actions in building and governing a huge empire shaped life not only in Greece but also in huge parts of Asia and Egypt.

16. **Assignment** Write an essay describing the most important events and details of the life of Alexander of Macedonia. Remember to arrange the events in chronological order and to explain the significance of each event you include.