

Geography and the Settlement of Greece

Overview and Objectives

Overview

In a Visual Discovery activity, students examine and analyze thematic maps to learn about the physical geography of ancient Greece and how it influenced the development of Greek civilization.

Objectives

In the course of reading this chapter and participating in the classroom activity, students will

Social Studies

- examine the physical geography of the Greek peninsula.
- analyze thematic maps of ancient Greece, including locations of colonies and trade routes.
- discuss connections between the geography of Greece and the development of ancient Greek city-states.

Language Arts

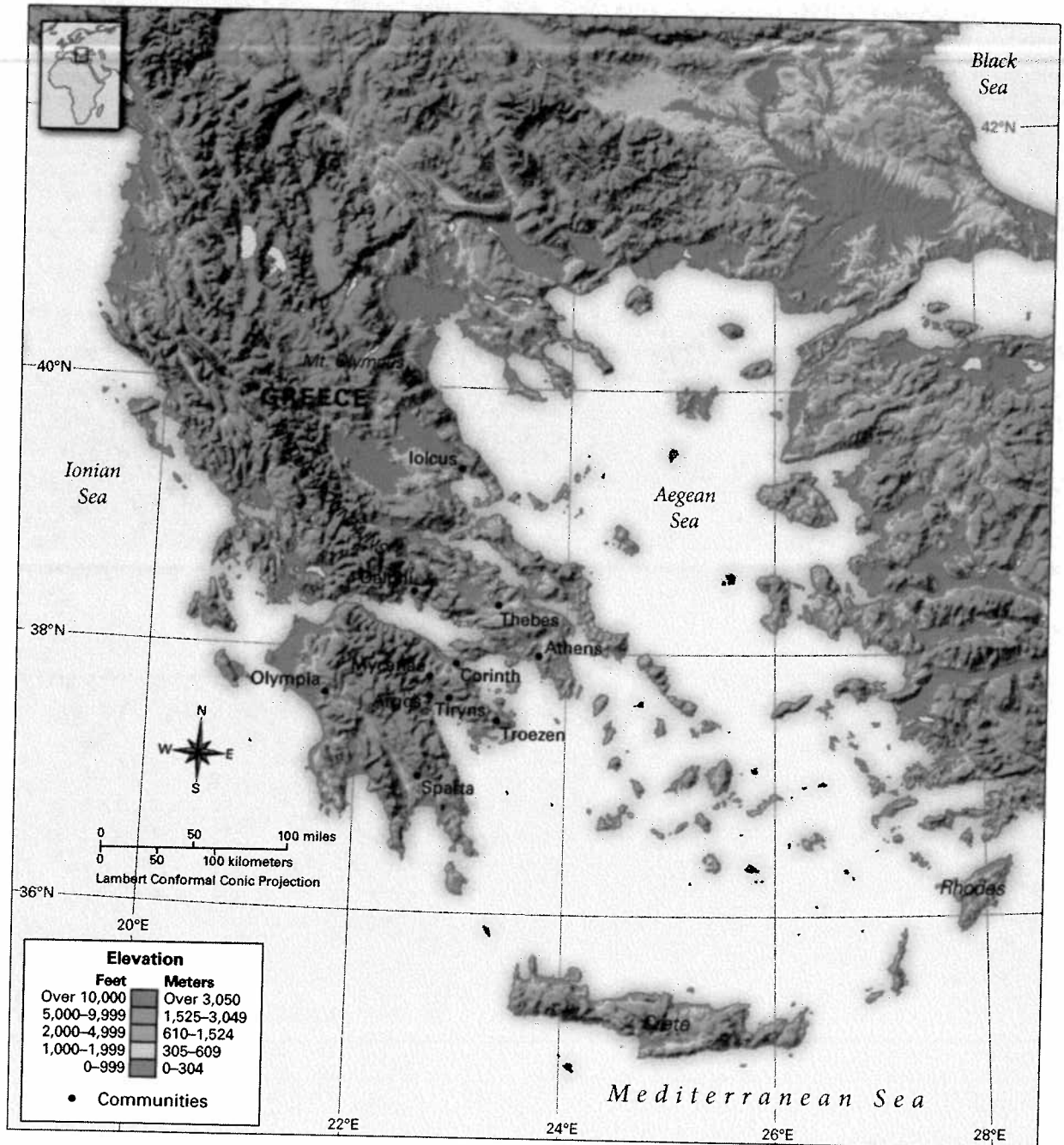
- connect and clarify main ideas by identifying their relationship to other sources.
- write sentences for a specific audience.

Social Studies Vocabulary

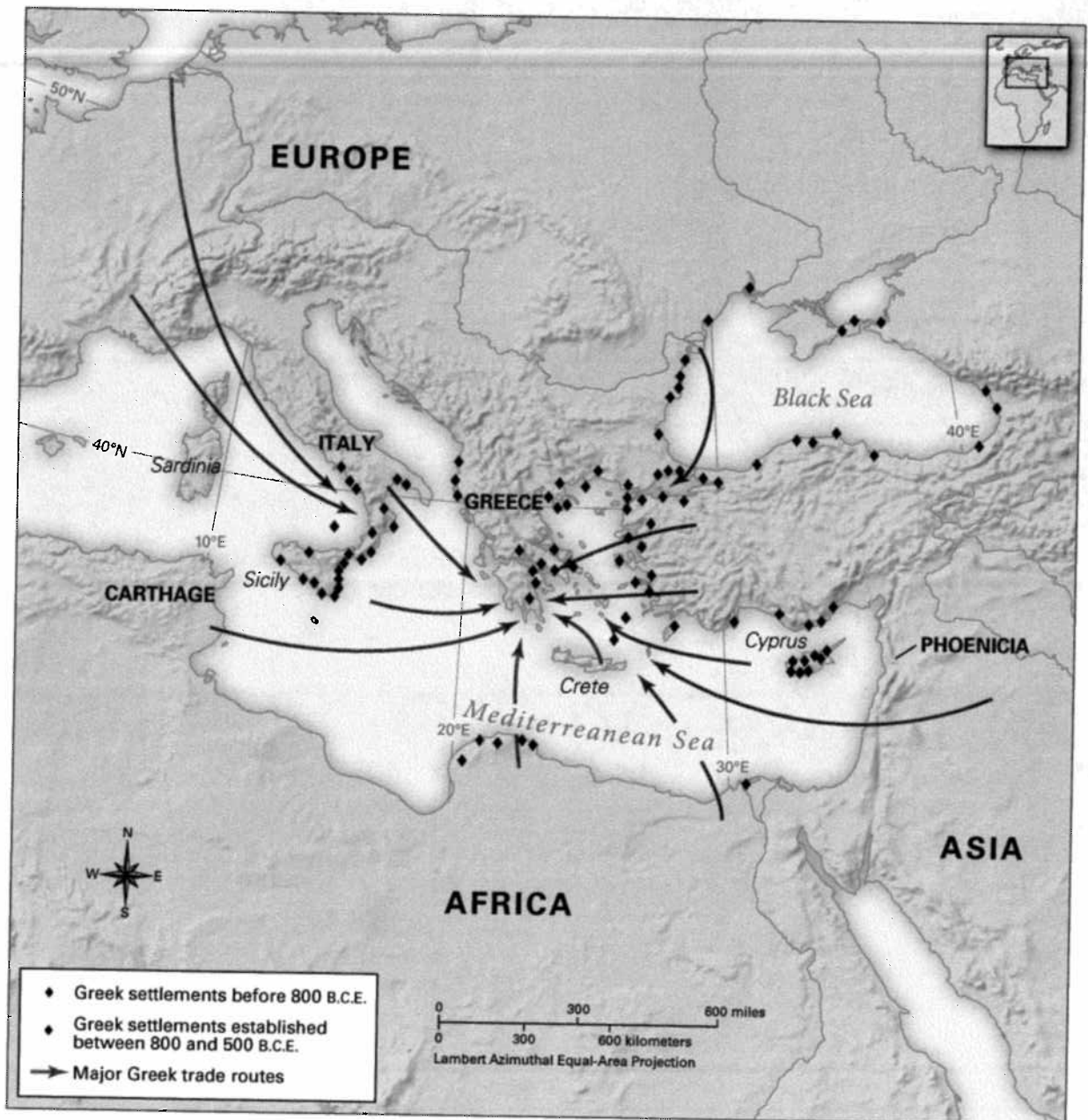
Key Content Terms peninsula, Aegean Sea, colony

Academic Vocabulary consult, participate, rely

Physical Features of the Greek Peninsula



Ancient Greek Colonies and Trade Routes



Lesson 25-Geography of Ancient Greece

Section 1 - Introduction

In this chapter, you will learn about how geography affected the early settlement of ancient Greece. This remarkable culture flourished between 750 and 338 B.C.E. Ancient Greek art, ideas, and writings continue to influence many aspects of the modern world today.

Greece is a small country in southern Europe. It is shaped somewhat like an outstretched hand, with fingers of land that reach into the Mediterranean Sea. The mainland of Greece is a peninsula. A peninsula is land that is surrounded on three sides by water. Greece also includes many islands throughout the Mediterranean and the Aegean (ih-JEE-uhn) seas.

Mainland Greece is a land of steep, rugged mountains, almost entirely surrounded by turquoise blue seas. The ancient Greeks lived on farms or in small villages scattered throughout the country. These farms and villages were isolated, or separated, from each other by the mountains and seas.

In this chapter, you will explore how Greece's geography influenced settlement and way of life in ancient Greece. You will learn why people lived and farmed in isolated communities. You will also discover how the Greeks used the sea to establish colonies and trade relations with people from other lands.

Section 2 - Isolated Communities and the Difficulties of Travel

The mountains and the seas of Greece contributed greatly to the isolation of ancient Greek communities. Because travel over the mountains and across the water was so difficult, the people in different settlements had little communication with each other.

Travel by land was especially hard. People mostly walked, or rode in carts pulled by oxen or mules. Roads were unpaved. Sharp rocks frequently shattered wooden wheels, and thick mud could stop a wagon in its tracks. Only wealthy people could afford to ride horses.

Travelers could stop at inns on the main roads, but many inns provided only shelter. People had to bring their own food and other supplies with them. Slaves or pack animals carried bedding, food, and other necessities. With all these goods to take with them, the Greeks often traveled in groups, moving at a slower pace than someone traveling alone.

Traveling by water was easier than traveling by land. You can see on the map on this page that mainland Greece is a **peninsula**, made up of smaller peninsulas. Ancient Greeks were never far from the water. To the south of Greece is the Mediterranean Sea; to the east, the **Aegean Sea**; and to the west, the Ionian (ahy-OH-nee-uhn) Sea. The ancient Greeks soon learned to travel by ship.

The Greeks understood the dangers of the sea and treated it with great respect. Sudden storms could drive ships off course or send them smashing into the rocky shoreline. Even in open waters, ships could sink. These hazards encouraged Greek sailors to navigate close to shore, sail only during daylight, and stop at night to anchor.

Section 3 - Farming in Ancient Greece

Most people in ancient Greece made their living by farming. But farming wasn't easy in that mountainous land. Even in the plains and valleys, the land was rocky, and water was scarce. There were no major rivers flowing through Greece, and the rains fell mostly during the winter months. With limited flat land available, Greek farmers had to find the best ways to use what little land they had. Some farmers built wide earth steps into the hills to create more flat land for planting. A few farmers were able to grow wheat and barley, but most grew crops that needed less land, particularly grapes and olives. Greek farmers produced a lot of olive oil, which was used for cooking, to make soap, and as fuel for lamps.

Ancient Greek farmers grew food for their own families. In addition to small vegetable gardens, many farmers planted hillside orchards of fruit and nut trees. Some Greek families kept bees to make honey. Honey was the best-known sweetener in the ancient world.

Greek farmers also raised animals. But because cattle need wide flat lands for grazing, the ancient Greeks had to raise sheep and goats, which can graze on the sides of mountains. Sheep supplied wool for clothing, while goats provided milk and cheese. Greek farmers kept some oxen, mules, and donkeys for plowing and transportation. Many Greek families also kept pigs and chickens.

The shortage of good farmland sometimes led to wars between Greek settlements, with each one claiming land for itself. As you will see, some settlements also had to look beyond the mainland for new sources of food and other goods.

Section 4 - Starting Colonies

As the populations of Greek communities increased, the existing farmland no longer produced enough food to feed all of the people. One solution was to start **colonies**, or settlements in distant places. Many Greek communities sent people across the sea, in search of new places to farm so that they could ship food back home. People who set up colonies are called colonists.

The ancient Greeks made many preparations before starting a journey to a new land. Often, they began by **consulting** an oracle to ask the Greek gods whether their efforts would be successful. An oracle was a holy person who the Greeks believed could communicate with the gods.

Next, the colonists gathered food and supplies. They took a flame from their town's sacred fire so they could start a sacred fire in their new home.

Greek colonists faced many hardships. They had to take a long sea voyage and then find a good location for their colony. They looked for areas with natural harbors and good farmland. They tried to avoid places where the local people might oppose the new colonies. Finally, they had to build their new community and make it successful.

The Greeks established colonies over a period of more than 300 years, from 1000 to 650 B.C.E. The first group of settlers started a colony called Ionia, in Asia Minor, in what is present-day Turkey. Later groups started colonies in Spain, France, Italy, and Africa, and along the coast of the Black Sea.

These colonies helped spread Greek culture. Some flourished through farming and trade. Colonists continued to enjoy whatever rights they once held in their home country of Greece, including the right to **participate** in Greek athletic games.

Section 5 - Trading for Needed Goods

Many Greek settlements on the mainland relied on trade with each other to get needed goods. Some had enough farmland to meet their own needs, so they were less dependent on trade.

The Greeks traded among the city-states, with Greek colonies, and in the wider Mediterranean region. Olive oil and pottery from the mainland were exchanged for such goods as grain, timber, and metal.

Most goods were carried on ships owned by merchants. These ships were built of wood, with large rectangular cloth sails. Merchants had ships built, not for speed, but for space to hold goods. Because these ships traveled only about three to five miles per hour, journeys were long. A one-way trip from the mainland could take two months.

Navigating these ships was difficult. The Greeks had no compasses or charts. They had only the stars to guide them. The stars could tell sailors a ship's location, but not what hazards lay nearby. No lighthouses warned sailors of dangerous coastlines. Despite these dangers, adventurous sailors carried more and more goods, and trade flourished along the Mediterranean coast

Summary

In this chapter, you learned about the ways in which geography influenced settlement and way of life in ancient Greece.

Isolated Communities and the Difficulties of Travel Greece's steep mountains and surrounding seas forced Greeks to settle in isolated communities. Travel by land was hard, and sea voyages were hazardous.

Farming in Ancient Greece Most ancient Greeks farmed, but good land and water were scarce. They grew grapes and olives, and raised sheep, goats, pigs, and chickens.

Starting Colonies Many ancient Greeks sailed across the sea to found colonies that helped spread Greek culture. Colonists settled in lands that include parts of present day Turkey, Spain, France, Italy, and northern Africa.

Trading for Needed Goods To meet their needs, the ancient Greeks traded with other city-states, their colonies, and with other peoples in the Mediterranean region. They exchanged olive oil and pottery for such goods as grain, timber, and metal

The Rise of Democracy

Overview and Objectives

Overview

In an Experiential Exercise, students use the principles of monarchy, oligarchy, tyranny, and democracy to select and play music for the class, as a way to examine and experience the various forms of government in ancient Greece that led to the development of democracy.

Objectives

In the course of reading this chapter and participating in the classroom activity, students will

Social Studies

- examine forms of government in ancient Greece.
- identify the advantages and disadvantages of monarchy, oligarchy, tyranny, and democracy as ways of governing in ancient Greece.
- explain key differences between direct and representative democracy.

Language Arts

- state and support a clear position.
- connect and clarify main ideas.

Social Studies Vocabulary

Key Content Terms monarchy, aristocrat, oligarchy, tyranny, democracy, citizen, assembly

Academic Vocabulary insist, ignore, hostile, reverse

Lesson 26 - The Rise of Democracy

Section 1 - Introduction

Geography affected how settlements developed in ancient Greece. Isolated communities, separated from each other by steep mountains, grew in diverse ways. For example, differences arose in how people governed themselves. In this chapter, you will learn about the various forms of government in these ancient Greek communities.

The ancient Greeks had many things in common. For example, they spoke the same language. But the Greek people did not view Greece as one country. Rather, they identified with a hometown that they called their "city." Each of these cities included both a settlement and its surrounding farmland. Most Greeks were fiercely proud of their cities. Each city had its own laws, its own army, and its own form of money. For these reasons, ancient Greek cities are called city-states. The ancient Sumerians in Mesopotamia were the first people to form city-states. Like the Sumerian city-states, individual Greek city-states had their own form of government.

In this chapter, you will explore the four forms of government that developed in the Greek city-states: monarchy, oligarchy, tyranny, and democracy. You will also trace how one form of rule led to another, until the Greeks eventually developed democracy.

Section 2 - Monarchy: One Person Inherits Power

From about 2000 to 800 B.C.E., most Greek city-states were ruled by a monarch, or king. In a **monarchy**, the governing power is in the hands of one person, usually a king. Greek settlements did not allow queens to govern.

At first, Greek kings were chosen by the people of a city-state. When a king died, another leader was selected to take his place. In time, however, kings demanded that, after their death, their power be passed to their children, usually to the oldest son. Consequently, Greek monarchs rose to power through inheritance.

The kings of ancient Greece had many powers. They had the authority to make laws and act as judges. They also conducted religious ceremonies. They led their armies during wars. They could use force to punish people who disobeyed the laws or didn't pay their taxes.

Kings had councils of **aristocrats** to advise them. The word *aristocratis* formed from a Greek word that means "best." The aristocrats were wealthy men who had inherited large pieces of land.

At first, councils of aristocrats had little actual power. But during wartime, kings depended on their support, as only the rich aristocrats could afford to supply soldiers with horses and armor. The aristocrats soon realized that, as a group, they were stronger than their king. They wanted a share of the king's power.

In some city-states, aristocrats **insisted** that their king obtain the crown through an election rather than an inheritance. Then they limited a king's rule to a certain number of years. Eventually, aristocrats in many city-states overthrew the monarchy and took the power for themselves. By 800 B.C.E., most of the Greek city-states were no longer ruled by kings.

Section 3 - Oligarchy: A Few People Share Power

Between about 800 and 650 B.C.E., most Greek city-states were ruled by a small group of wealthy men. These men were called oligarchs, from a Greek word that means “few.” In an oligarchy, the ruling power is in the hands of a few people.

Most Greek oligarchs were aristocrats, rich men who had inherited land from their families. A few oligarchs were wealthy merchants.

Compared with the poor, oligarchs had very comfortable lives. They often spent their days either hunting or taking part in chariot races. In the evenings, they might host or attend parties, during which slaves and hired performers entertained guests with music, dance, and acrobatics.

Unlike the aristocrats, the poor had to work long hours in the fields. They saw the unfair differences between their difficult lives and the easy lives of the wealthy aristocrats.

To make matters worse, the oligarchs ignored the needs of the majority of the people. By passing laws that favored the rich, the oligarchs protected and increased their own wealth. They used the army to force others to obey these unjust laws. In some city-states, such laws forced farmers who were unable to pay their debts to sell themselves into slavery.

Under the rule of the oligarchs, the rich became richer and the poor became poorer. Hate for the oligarchs grew. Eventually, the poor turned to other leaders who promised to improve their lives. Typically, these leaders were in the army. Backed by the people, they used their soldiers to throw the oligarchs out of power.

Section 4 - Tyranny: One Person Takes Power by Force

During the mid-600s B.C.E., people in many Greek city-states turned to the men who had promised to change the government. These men who forced the oligarchs from power were called tyrants. In a **tyranny**, the ruling power is in the hands of one person who is not a lawful king. A tyranny is sometimes called a dictatorship. A tyrant is another name for a dictator. This form of government in ancient Greece lasted until about 500 B.C.E.

A tyranny is different from a monarchy in several ways. A tyrant cannot claim that the laws of the land give him the right to rule. There are no legal limits on his powers. Also, a tyrant's son does not usually inherit his father's power.

Although tyrants in ancient Greece were likely to take and keep control by force, they were often popular. Most Greek tyrants were military leaders who gained the support of the people by promising them more rights. Once they were in power, many Greek tyrants were good rulers. They made changes that improved the lives of the poor. Some canceled the debts of struggling farmers. Others were **hostile** to aristocrats and took away their land.

Some tyrants, though, did not use their power to help the people. Hippias (HIP-ee-uhs), the last tyrant to rule the city-state of Athens, is one example. Along with his brother, Hipparchus (hah-PAHR-kuhs), Hippias ruled well, at first. But then, two enemies of the brothers murdered Hipparchus. After that, Hippias ruled more harshly. He paid spies to report anyone who criticized him. His rule became more and more cruel. The people finally drove him from power. Soon after, Athens would try another form of government, one that shared power among all the people.

Section 5 - Democracy: All Citizens Share Power

Around 500 B.C.E., the people of Athens were the first in Greece to try governing themselves. They developed a form of government called **democracy**, or “rule by the people.” In a democracy, all **citizens** share in the ruling power.

Ancient Greek democracy was different from democracies today. The government of Athens was a direct democracy. In that type of government, every citizen is allowed to vote on every issue. Unlike Athens, the United States is a representative democracy. In this type of government, people may vote for representatives who then decide issues on behalf of the people.

How did direct democracy work in Athens? The city had an **assembly**, or lawmaking group. Any free man could speak in this assembly and vote on a possible new law or a proposal to go to war. Free men also ran the city’s day-to-day business.

Not all Greeks believed that democracy was a good type of government. Powerful speakers sometimes persuaded ordinary citizens to vote unwisely. Often, an assembly **reversed** important decisions after just a few weeks. Problems like these led most city-states to return to earlier forms of government, such as dictatorships and oligarchies.

But the idea that people can and should rule themselves would survive. In time, the ideal of democracy would become one of the great gifts from ancient Greece to the modern world

Summary

In this chapter, you read about four forms of government used by ancient Greek city-states.

Monarchy: One Person Inherits Power Most Greek city-states were monarchies until about 800 B.C.E. In a monarchy, one person, usually a king, holds the power. Ancient Greek kings had councils of aristocrats to help them rule.

Oligarchy: A Few People Share Power Between about 800 and 650 B.C.E., most Greek city-states were ruled by oligarchies, in which power is held by a few people. Most oligarchs were wealthy aristocrats who ignored the needs of poor people. The poor eventually turned to leaders who promised to improve their lives.

Tyranny: One Person Takes Power by Force From the mid-600s to about 500 B.C.E., many Greek city-states were ruled by tyrants. Tyranny is a form of government in which a person who is not a lawful king holds the power.

Democracy: All Citizens Share Power The people of Athens were the first Greeks to develop a form of democracy, known as a direct democracy, in which every citizen was allowed to vote on every issue.

Life in Two City-States: Athens and Sparta

Overview and Objectives

Overview

In a Social Studies Skill Builder, students examine the major differences between Athens and Sparta by working in pairs to create placards with illustrations and challenge questions about each city-state.

Objectives

In the course of reading this chapter and participating in the classroom activity, students will

Social Studies

- locate ancient Athens and Sparta and explain the connection between geography and the development of these city-states.
- describe Athenian and Spartan government, economy, education, and treatment of women and slaves.
- compare and contrast life in Athens and Sparta.

Language Arts

- analyze text that is organized by comparison and contrast.
- clarify an understanding of text using illustrations and summary notes.
- express complete thoughts using effective coordination and subordination of ideas.

Social Studies Vocabulary

Key Content Terms Athens, Sparta, Peloponnesus, Council of 500, agora, Council of Elders

Academic Vocabulary select, obtain, capable, abandon, eliminate

Lesson 27 - Life in Two City-States: Athens and Sparta

Section 1 - Introduction

In this chapter, you will learn about two of the most important Greek city-states, Athens and Sparta. They had different forms of government. Their citizens also had very different ways of life.

Athens was a walled city near the sea. Close by, ships came and went from a busy port supporting trade. Inside the city walls of Athens, talented master potters and sculptors labored in workshops. Wealthy Athenians and their slaves strolled through the marketplace. Citizenship was enjoyed by free men. Often, the city's citizens gathered to loudly debate the issues of the day.

Sparta was located in a fertile farming area on an inland plain. No walls surrounded the city. Its buildings were simple compared with those of Athens. The same was true about the clothes worn by the people. Spartan soldiers wore stern expressions behind their bronze helmets as they marched in columns through the streets.

Even a casual visitor would have noticed that Athens and Sparta were very different. Let's take a closer look at the way people lived in these two city-states. We will examine each city's government, economy, education, and treatment of women and slaves to discover how they differed.

Section 2 - Comparing Two City-States

Both Athens and Sparta were Greek cities, only about 150 miles apart. Yet they were as different as they could be. Why?

Part of the answer is geography. **Athens** is in central Greece, only four miles from the Aegean Sea. Its location encouraged Athenians to look outward toward the world beyond the city. Athenians liked to travel. They were eager to spread their own ideas and to learn from others. They encouraged artists from other parts of Greece to come and share their knowledge of art and architecture. Athens developed strong relationships with other city-states, and it grew large and powerful through trade. A great fleet made it the leading naval power in Greece.

In contrast, **Sparta** was more isolated. It was located on a narrow plain on a peninsula in southern Greece known as the **Peloponnesus**(pel-uh-puh-NEE-suhs). Sparta was surrounded on three sides by mountains, and its harbor was about 25 miles away. Spartans were suspicious of outsiders and their ideas. They could already grow much of what they needed in the fertile soil around Sparta. What they could not grow, Sparta's powerful armies would often take by force from their neighbors. While Athenians boasted of their art and culture, Spartans valued simplicity and strength. They taught their sons and daughters to fight, and they were proud to produce soldiers rather than artists and thinkers.

For most of their histories, these two city-states were bitter rivals. As you will see, the major differences between Athens and Sparta were reflected in almost every part of life.

Section 3 - Athenian Government

Athens became a democracy around 500 B.C.E. But unlike modern democracies, Athens allowed only free men to be citizens. All Athenian-born men over the age of 18 were considered Athenian citizens. Women and slaves were not permitted citizenship.

Every citizen could take part in the city's government. A group called the **Council of 500** met every day. Each year, the names of all citizens 30 years of age or older were collected. Then, 500 citizens were **selected** to be on the council. The council ran the daily business of government and suggested new laws.

Proposed laws had to be approved by a much larger group, the Assembly of Athens. The Assembly met on a hill every ten days. According to law, at least 6,000 citizens had to be present for a meeting to take place. If fewer people attended a meeting, slaves armed with ropes dipped in red paint would be sent out to round up more citizens. Athenian men were said to be embarrassed to appear in red-stained clothes at these meetings.

The Assembly debated issues and voted on laws proposed by the council. Every citizen had the right to speak at Assembly meetings. Some speakers were more skilled than others. Some spoke longer than others. A water clock was sometimes used to time a speaker. It worked by placing a cup filled with water above another cup. The top cup had a small hole drilled into the bottom. A speaker was permitted to talk only during the time it took for all the water in the top cup to drain into the bottom cup.

Most Athenian men enjoyed taking part in the city's democratic government. They liked to gather and debate the issues. They were proud of their freedom as Athenian citizens.

Section 4 - Athenian Economy

An important part of life in any community is its economy. An economy is the way in which a community or region organizes the manufacture and exchange of money, food, products, and services to meet people's needs.

Because the land around Athens did not provide enough food for all of the city's people, Athens's economy was based on trade. Athens was near the sea, and it had a good harbor. This enabled Athenians to trade with other city-states and with several foreign lands to **obtain** the goods and natural resources they needed. Athenians acquired wood from Italy and grain from Egypt. In exchange, Athenians traded honey, olive oil, silver, and beautifully painted pottery.

Athenians bought and sold goods at a huge marketplace called the **agora** (A-guh-ruh). There, merchants sold their goods from small stands. Athenians bought lettuce, onions, olive oil, and other foods. Shoppers could also buy household items such as pottery, furniture, and clay oil lamps. Most people in Athens made their clothes at home, but leather sandals and jewelry were popular items at the market. The agora was also the place where the Athenians bought and sold slaves.

Like most other city-states, Athens developed its own coins to make trade easier. Gold, silver, and bronze were some of the metals used to make coins. Athenians decorated the flat sides of their coins. One such coin had an image of the goddess Athena. The other side of the coin pictured Athena's favorite bird, the owl.

Section 5 - Education in Athens

Athenian democracy depended on having well-prepared citizens. People in Athens believed that producing good citizens was the main purpose of education. Since only boys could grow up to be citizens, boys and girls were educated quite differently.

Athenians believed that a good citizen should have both an intelligent mind and a healthy body. Therefore, book learning and physical training were important. Boys were taught at home by their mothers or male slaves until the age of 6 or 7. Then, boys went to school until about the age of 14. Teachers taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and literature. Because books were rare and very expensive, students had to read subjects out loud and memorize everything. Writing tablets helped boys learn. To build boys' strength, coaches taught sports such as wrestling and gymnastics. Boys also studied music. They learned to sing and to play the lyre, a stringed instrument like a harp.

At 18, Athenian men began their military training. After their army service, wealthy young men might study with private teachers. These teachers charged high fees for lessons in debating and public speaking that would help young men become future political leaders.

Unlike boys, most girls did not learn to read or write. Instead, girls grew up helping their mothers with household tasks. They were taught to cook, clean, spin thread, and weave cloth. Some also learned ancient secret songs and dances performed for religious festivals. Girls usually married around the age of 15. Those from wealthy families married men chosen by their fathers. Girls from poor families often had more choice.

Section 6 - Women and Slaves in Athens

Only men were considered citizens in Athens. Citizenship was not possible for women and slaves, so they had far fewer rights than free men did.

Women Athenian women could not inherit or own much property. They could not vote or attend the Assembly. Most could not even choose their own husbands.

A few women had jobs. Some women sold goods in the market. A few very important women were priestesses. But most Athenian women had their greatest influence in the home. They spent their days managing the household and raising their children. An Athenian wife had separate rooms at home. Her responsibilities included spinning, weaving, and supervising the slaves. She never went out alone. She taught her sons until they were about 6 or 7 and ready for school. She educated her daughters until they were 15 and ready to be married.

Slaves There were many slaves in ancient Athens. Most Athenians who weren't poor owned at least one slave. Some people were born into slavery. Others were forced into slavery as captives of war.

Slaves performed a wide variety of jobs in Athens, including tasks that required a great deal of skill. Some ran households and taught Athenian children. A number of slaves were trained as artisans. Others worked on farms or in factories. Some slaves worked for the city as clerks.

Some slaves worked in the silver mines. They might work ten hours a day, in cramped tunnels 300 feet below the surface. They had little air to breathe and were often harshly punished if they stopped to rest

Section 7 - Spartan Government

Sparta was different from Athens in almost every way, beginning with its government. While Athens was a democracy, Sparta was an oligarchy. In an oligarchy, the ruling power is in the hands of a few people.

Sparta's government—as well as Spartan society—was dedicated to military strength. Founded in the 800s B.C.E., Sparta was the leading military power in the Mediterranean area until about 370 B.C.E. Like Athens, Sparta had an Assembly. But the important decisions were actually made by a much smaller group called the **Council of Elders**.

The Council of Elders consisted of two kings and 28 other men. The two kings inherited their position and shared equal powers. The other 28 members of the council were elected by members of the Assembly.

To be elected to the Council of Elders, men had to be at least 60 years old and from a noble family. Some scholars believe that members of the Assembly voted for candidates by shouting. Those men who received the loudest support were elected. Once elected, they served for life.

The Council of Elders held the real power in Sparta. It prepared laws for the Assembly to vote on, and it had the power to stop any laws passed by the Assembly that council members didn't like.

The Assembly in Sparta was made up of male citizens. Because the Assembly was large, it met in a spacious outdoor area away from the center of the city. The Assembly had little power. Unlike the Assembly in Athens, it did not debate issues. Members of the Assembly could only vote yes or no on laws suggested by the Council of Elders.

Section 8 - Spartan Economy

While Athens's economy depended on trade, Sparta's economy relied on farming and on conquests of other people. Although Sparta had fertile soil, there was not enough land to provide food for everyone. When necessary, Spartans took the lands they needed from their neighbors, who were then forced to work for Sparta. Because Spartan men were expected to serve in the army until the age of 60, Sparta had to rely on slaves and noncitizens to produce the goods it lacked.

Conquered villagers became slaves, called helots. The helots were allowed to live in their own villages, but they had to give much of the food they grew to Sparta.

The Spartans also made use of a second group of people—noncitizens who were free. Noncitizens might serve in the army when needed, but they could not take part in Sparta's government. They were responsible for making such necessary items as shoes, red cloaks for the soldiers, iron tools like knives and spears, and pottery. They also conducted some trade with other city-states for goods that Sparta could not provide for itself.

In general, though, Sparta discouraged trade. The Spartans feared that contact with other city-states would lead to new ideas that might weaken the government. Trading with Sparta was already difficult because of its system of money. Rather than use coins, Spartans used heavy iron bars as money. According to legend, an ancient Spartan leader decided to use this form of money to discourage stealing. An iron bar had little value. A thief would have needed to steal a wagonload of bars to make the theft worthwhile. As you might guess, other city-states were not anxious to receive iron as payment for goods.

Section 9 - Education in Sparta

In Sparta, the purpose of education was to produce **capable** men and women who could fight to protect the city-state. Spartans were likely to **abandon** sickly infants who might not grow up to be strong soldiers.

Spartans highly valued discipline and strength. From the age of 7, all Spartan children trained for battle. Even girls were given some military training. They learned wrestling, boxing, footracing, and gymnastics. Spartan boys lived and trained in buildings called barracks. Boys learned to read and write, but those skills were not considered as essential as military skills.

The most important Spartan goal was to be a brave soldier. Spartan boys were taught to suffer any amount of physical pain without complaining. They marched without shoes. They were not well fed; in fact, they were encouraged to steal food, as long as they did not get caught. One Spartan legend tells of a boy who was so hungry, he stole a fox to eat. But seeing his teacher coming, the boy quickly hid the fox under his cloak. The boy chose to let the fox bite him in the stomach rather than be caught stealing by his teacher.

At about the age of 20, Spartan men were given a difficult test of fitness, military ability, and leadership skills. If they passed, they became Spartan soldiers and full citizens. Even then, they continued to live in soldiers' barracks, where they ate, slept, and trained with their classmates. A man could not live at home with his wife and family until he was 30 years old. At the age of 60, Spartan men could retire from the army.

Section 10 - Women and Slaves in Sparta

Spartan women lived the same simple life as Spartan men. They wore plain clothing with little decoration. They did not wear jewelry or use cosmetics or perfume. Like Spartan men, women were expected to be strong and healthy—and ready to fight when needed. A wife was expected to look after her husband's property in times of war. She also had to guard it against invaders and revolts by slaves.

Spartan women had many rights that other Greek women did not have. They were free to speak with their husbands' friends. Women could own and control their own property. They could even marry again, should their first husband be away at war for too long a time.

Spartan slaves, the helots, were people the Spartans had conquered. There were many more helots than citizens in Sparta. The Spartans treated the helots harshly, fearful that the helots would revolt. Sometimes, the Spartan government declared war on the helots so that any slaves it thought might rebel could be legally killed. In fact, the Spartan government once asked the helots to choose their best fighters. The Spartans said that these slaves would be set free as thanks for fighting for Sparta. The helots chose two thousand men. Immediately, the Spartans killed every one of them to **eliminate** the possibility of any future helot leaders.

Despite this harsh treatment, helots did have some rights. They could marry whomever and whenever they wanted. They could pass their names on to their children. They could sell any leftover crops after giving their owner his share. Helots who saved enough money could even buy their freedom.

Summary

In this chapter, you learned about Athens and Sparta, two very different city-states in ancient Greece.

Comparing Two City-States Its location near the sea made it easier for Athens to develop relationships with other city-states. Sparta's inland location and its culture made it more isolated than Athens. The people of Athens valued art, culture, and education. The people of Sparta valued strength, simplicity, and military skills.

Government Athens was a democracy, though only free men could take part in government. Sparta was primarily a military state. Its government was an oligarchy in which a few men held most of the power.

Economy The economy of Athens relied on trade with other city-states and several foreign lands. The Spartan economy relied on farming and conquest. Sparta depended on slaves and other noncitizens to provide for many of its needs.

Education In Athens, boys were educated to be good citizens. Education balanced book learning and physical training. Girls learned skills for managing the household. In Sparta, boys and girls alike were educated to protect the city-state. Spartan boys began their military training at age 7, and men served in the army until age 60.

Women and Slaves In Athens, women and slaves had far fewer rights than men had. Spartan women had more rights than other Greek women, such as owning property.

Fighting the Persian Wars

Overview and Objectives

Overview

In a Response Group activity, students learn about the wars between the Greek city-states and the Persian Empire by dramatizing key events and debating which factors contributed to the eventual outcome of the wars.

Objectives

In the course of reading this chapter and participating in the classroom activity, students will

Social Studies

- locate the Persian Empire and describe its founding, expansion, and political organization.
- describe the roles of Athens and Sparta in the Persian wars.
- summarize the details of key battles of the Persian wars.
- evaluate the factors that contributed to a Greek victory in the Persian wars.

Language Arts

- use relevant evidence to support an opinion.
- write an explanatory paragraph with persuasive evidence.

Social Studies Vocabulary

Key Content Terms Persian Empire, Darius, Persian wars, cavalry, Xerxes, Hellespont

Academic Vocabulary initial, convince, navy, approach

Lesson 28 - Fighting the Persian Wars

Section 1 - Introduction

Athens and Sparta were two very different city-states in ancient Greece. Their differences sometimes led to a distrust of each other. But between 499 and 479 B.C.E., these city-states had a common enemy—the Persian Empire.

At that time, Persia was the largest empire the world had ever seen. Its powerful kings ruled over lands in Africa, the Middle East, and Asia. During the 400s B.C.E., the Persians invaded Greece, and the Persian wars began.

To fight the Persians, the Greek city-states eventually joined together as allies. Allies are states that agree to help each other against a common enemy.

Compared with Persia, these tiny Greek city-states had much less land and far fewer people. How could they possibly turn back such a powerful invader? In this chapter, you will learn about important battles during the Persian wars and discover who won them. You will also learn about the factors that influenced the outcome of the Persian wars.

Section 2 - The Persian Empire and the Ionian Revolt

The Persians started out as a small group of nomads, in what is now Iran. They built a large empire by conquering neighbors. By unleashing a storm of arrows that surprised their enemies, Persian archers won many battles, often before their opponents could get close enough to use their lances, or spears.

At its height, the **Persian Empire** extended from Egypt, in North Africa, east to the Indus River in present-day Pakistan. The empire was ruled by powerful kings who conquered Mesopotamia, Asia Minor, Egypt, and parts of India and Europe.

To rule such a large area, King **Darius** (duh-RAHY-uhs), one of the greatest of all the Persian kings, divided the empire into 20 provinces. He established a system of tax collection and appointed officials to rule local areas. He allowed conquered peoples to keep their own customs and religions. King Darius ruled Persia from 522 to 486 B.C.E.

The Ionian Revolt, which began in 499 B.C.E., led to the start of the **Persian wars**. Earlier, in 546 B.C.E., the Persians had conquered the wealthy Greek settlements in Ionia, a small coastal region bordering the Aegean Sea, in Asia Minor. The Persians took the Ionians' farmland and harbors. They forced the Ionians to pay tributes, or the regular payments of goods. The Ionians also had to serve in the Persian army.

The Ionians knew that they could not defeat the Persians by themselves, so they asked mainland Greece for help. Athens sent soldiers and a small fleet of ships. Unfortunately for the Ionians, the Athenians went home after an **initial** success, leaving the small Ionian army to continue fighting alone.

In 493 B.C.E., the Persian army defeated the Ionians. To punish the Ionians for rebelling, the Persians destroyed the city of Miletus (my-LEE-tuhs).

Section 3 - The Battle of Marathon

After the Ionian Revolt, King Darius of Persia was determined to conquer the city-states of mainland Greece. He sent messengers to Greece to ask for presents of Greek earth and water. These gifts would be a sign that the Greeks had agreed to accept Persian rule. But the Greeks refused to hand over the tribute. Instead, they threw the Persian messengers into pits and wells. According to legend, the Greeks then shouted, "If you want Greek earth and water, help yourselves!"

Darius was furious. In 490 B.C.E., he sent about 15,000 foot soldiers and **cavalry** across the Aegean Sea by boat to Greece. The Persian army assembled on the plain of Marathon, near the city-state of Athens. (See the map at the end of this chapter.)

A brilliant Athenian general named Miltiades (mil-TAHY-uh-deez) **convinced** the Athenians that it was vital to fight the Persians at Marathon. The Athenians quickly gathered an army of about 11,000 soldiers. Although the Athenians were outnumbered, two factors helped them defeat the Persians. The first was better weapons. The Greeks' swords, spears, and armor were superior to the Persians' weapons.

The second factor that helped the Athenians defeat the Persians was military strategy. Miltiades assembled his army across a narrow valley. For several days, both sides hesitated to attack.

Finally, Miltiades decided to attack. He commanded the center portion of his army to advance. As the Persians came forward to meet them, Miltiades ordered soldiers from the left and from the right portions of his army to sweep down as well, attacking the Persians on three sides.

It was not long before the Persian soldiers began running for their ships. Then the Greeks marched back to Athens, in time to defend the city against the Persian cavalry. The Persians lost about 6,400 soldiers. The Greeks lost 192.

A clever military strategy and better weapons helped the Athenians win a stunning victory. But this battle with the Persians marked only the beginning of the Persian wars

Section 4 - The Battle of Thermopylae

After King Darius died, his son, **Xerxes** (zurk-seez), organized another attack on Greece. King Xerxes gathered a huge army of more than 180,000 soldiers. To get this army from Persia to Greece, Xerxes chose to cross the **Hellespont** (HEL-uh-spont), a narrow sea channel between Europe and Asia. (See the map at the end of this chapter.) There, he created two bridges by roping hundreds of boats together and laying wooden boards across their bows. In this way, his army was able to “walk” across the channel into Europe.

In 480 B.C.E., Xerxes marched west from the Hellespont and then turned south. His forces overwhelmed several Greek city-states. Hearing the news, Athens and Sparta decided to work together to fight the enemy. Their strategy had two parts. The Athenian **navy** would try to stop the Persian navy. In the meantime, the Spartan king, Leonidas (lee-ON-ih-duhs), would try to stop the Persian army.

The Spartans made their stand at Thermopylae (ther-MOP-uh-lee). At this site, the Persian army would have to go through a narrow pass between the mountains and the sea. Leonidas had only about 6,000 to 7,000 soldiers to stop nearly 180,000 Persians. Even so, when the Persians got to the pass, the Greeks drove them back. Then a Greek traitor showed the Persians a secret path in the mountains. The path allowed the Persians to surround the Greeks, attacking them from the front and the rear.

Leonidas knew he could only delay the attackers now. To save his army, he ordered most of his troops to escape. He prepared to fight with his remaining soldiers, including about 300 Spartans. Legend says that the Spartans fought until every weapon was broken. Then they fought with their hands. In the end, all the Spartan soldiers were killed. The Persians’ strategy had worked. By having the advantage of the path through the mountains, the Persians won the battle and could now advance to Athens.

Section 5 - The Battle of Salamis

In 480 B.C.E., as news of the Greek defeat at Thermopylae reached Athens, its citizens panicked. They boarded ships and sailed for nearby islands. Only a small army of Athenians was left to defend the city. Within two weeks, the Persians had burned Athens to the ground.

An Athenian navy leader, Themistocles (thuh-MIS-tuh-kleez), thought that he knew a way to defeat the Persians. He wanted to fight their navy in the narrow channels between the Greek islands and the Greek mainland. The Persians would find it hard to move their ships around to attack the Greek navy.

For his plan to work, Themistocles had to get the Persian ships into a channel near a place called Salamis (SAL-uh-mis). So he set a trap. He sent a loyal servant to Xerxes' camp, with a message saying that Themistocles wanted to change sides and join the Persians. If Xerxes attacked now, the message said, half the Greek sailors would surrender.

Believing the message, Xerxes ordered his ships to attack. They quickly sailed into the narrow waterway between Salamis and the mainland.

As the Persians **approached**, the Greek ships appeared to retreat. But this was another trick to draw the Persians farther into the channel. Soon, the Greeks had them surrounded. The Greeks had attached wooden rams to the front of their ships. They rammed into the Persian boats, crushing their hulls and sinking 300 ships. The Greeks lost only 40 ships.

Once again, the Greeks had defeated the mighty Persian Empire. At Salamis, the Greeks combined military strategy with their knowledge of coastal geography to influence the outcome of the battle.

Section 6 - The Battle of Plataea

In 480 B.C.E, after the defeat of the Persians at Salamis, Xerxes fled with some of his soldiers. He was afraid that the Greeks would reach the Hellespont first and destroy the bridges he had built. As it turned out, the bridges had already been wrecked by a bad storm. Xerxes had to ferry his men across the water by boat.

Xerxes left the rest of the Persian army in Greece, with orders to attack again in the spring. When spring arrived, the Persians approached Athens once more. The Spartans feared that the Athenians, with their city already in ruins, would surrender to Persia. But the Athenians proudly declared their "common brotherhood with the Greeks." They joined with the Spartans to fight the Persians once again.

The decisive battle took place outside the town of Plataea (pluh-TEE-uh), in 479 B.C.E. Led by the Spartans, a force of 80,000 Greek troops destroyed the Persian army. The alliance between the Athenians and Spartans was a key factor in winning the Battle of Plataea. Most importantly, the Greek victory ended the Persian wars and any future threat from the Persian Empire.

The Greeks paid a high price for their defeat of the Persians. Thousands of Greeks were dead, and the city of Athens had been destroyed. But the Athenians would soon rebuild their city and raise it to an even greater glory.

Summary

In this chapter, you learned about the factors that helped the smaller Greek forces defeat the powerful Persian Empire during the Persian wars.

The Persian Empire and the Ionian Revolt The vast Persian Empire extended from Egypt east to the Indus River. In 546 B.C.E., the Persians conquered the Greek settlements of Ionia. The Ionians revolted, and in 493 B.C.E., the Persians defeated them. This triggered the first of the Persian wars in 490 B.C.E.

The Battle of Marathon In 490 B.C.E., the Persian king Darius invaded Greece. At the Battle of Marathon, better Greek weapons and strategy defeated the Persians.

The Battle of Thermopylae In 480 B.C.E., the Persian army used a secret mountain path to surround a small Spartan force and win the Battle of Thermopylae. Then the Persians advanced to Athens.

The Battle of Salamis In the same year, 480 B.C.E., the Persian king Xerxes burned down Athens. The Persian navy was later defeated at the Battle of Salamis, when Greek ships rammed and sank the Persian vessels.

The Battle of Plataea In 479 B.C.E., an army of 80,000 allied Athenian and Spartan troops destroyed the Persian army in this decisive battle that ended the Persian wars.

The Golden Age of Athens

Overview and Objectives

Overview

In a Writing for Understanding activity, students take a “walking tour” of Athens, visiting six sites to learn about various aspects of Greek culture. Students then write a speech describing Athens during its Golden Age.

Objectives

In the course of reading this chapter and participating in the classroom activity, students will:

Social Studies

- describe the role of Pericles in leading Athens into its Golden Age.
- discuss the significance of religion in the everyday life of the ancient Greeks.
- identify ways in which Greek literature permeates modern English language and literature.
- explain how Athenian achievements in architecture, sculpture, drama, philosophy, and sports contributed to its Golden Age.

Language Arts

- support a clearly stated position, using organized and relevant evidence.
- revise writing to improve the organization and clarity of ideas within paragraphs.
- deliver a persuasive presentation that is focused and coherent.

Social Studies Vocabulary

Key Content Terms Pericles, Parthenon, acropolis, myth, drama, Socrates, Panathenaic Games

Academic Vocabulary reform, dedicate, conduct, column, muscle

Lesson 29 - The Golden Age of Athens

Section 1 - Introduction

At the end of the Persian wars, the city of Athens was in ruins. A great Athenian named Pericles (PER-uh-kleez) inspired the people of Athens to rebuild their city. Under his leadership, Athens entered its Golden Age, a period of peace and wealth. Between 479 and 431 B.C.E., Athens was the artistic and cultural center of Greece.

Suppose that you were able to visit Athens during its Golden Age. Passing through the city's gates, you would wind your way through narrow streets to the agora, the public meeting place in the center of the city. The agora is a large square. On two sides you would see magnificent public buildings. The other two sides have covered walkways where you would meet and talk with friends about current issues. In the center of the square are market stalls with a variety of goods for sale, from all over Greece and beyond. Nearby, you would see the acropolis, a high, craggy hill crowned with great temples, rising above the city.

In this chapter, you will explore several important sites in ancient Athens. At each site, you will learn about major cultural achievements accomplished during Athens's Golden Age. You will learn about Greek religion, architecture, sculpture, drama, philosophy, and sports.

Section 2 - Athens After the Persian Wars

During the Persian wars, the Persians burned Athens to the ground, in 480 B.C.E, after defeating the Greeks in the Battle of Thermopylae. The Greeks eventually defeated the Persians, but the wars left Athens in ruins.

Pericles, Leader of Athens From about 460 to 429 B.C.E., **Pericles** was the leader of Athens's government. One of his chief contributions was to direct the rebuilding of the city. Pericles promoted constructing many public and religious buildings, including the **Parthenon**, the most famous temple in Athens.

Pericles believed that Athens was a model—in culture and in government—for all the Greek city-states. While the leader of Athens, he encouraged creativity in all of the arts, including music and drama. He was a strong supporter of democracy and made **reforms** to encourage its growth. He believed that all citizens had an equal right to participate in government. Under Pericles' leadership, Athens paid the salaries of men who held public office. This enabled poor men, who would otherwise have been unable to afford to leave their jobs and farms, the chance to serve in government positions.

A City of Contrasts Ancient Athens was a city of great contrasts. Many people lived in small, uncomfortable houses that lined narrow streets. Yet the city's public spaces and buildings were large and stately.

Most homes in Athens were one story high and made of mud bricks. The homes of poor families were very simple. The wealthier people had larger houses with rooms built around a central courtyard. Athenian houses had few windows, so homes were usually lit by oil lamps.

The public spaces and buildings were the pride of Athens. The Athenians built large government buildings around the agora. These buildings were made of stone. On the **acropolis**, the hill above the city, the Athenians built magnificent temples as earthly homes for their gods and goddesses.

Section 3 - Greek Religion

The ancient Greeks thought that the gods and goddesses they worshipped looked and often acted like humans, but did not age and die. Every city-state honored a god or goddess, who was thought to give its people special protection. For example, Athens was named for the goddess Athena.

The Greeks believed that each god or goddess had power over a particular area of life. Athena was the goddess of war and wisdom. The Greeks placed a colossal (huge) statue of her inside the Parthenon, the temple they built in her honor.

Another famous temple was in the city of Delphi. This temple was **dedicated** to the god Apollo. People would visit the temple to ask Apollo for advice. A priestess, called the oracle of Delphi, would answer their questions by going into a trance. The words spoken by the priestess were thought to come from Apollo.

The Greeks told **myths**, or stories, about the gods. According to these stories, the home of the gods was Mount Olympus, a real mountain in Greece. Twelve of the gods and goddesses were particularly important. They are often called the Olympian gods.

The Olympian gods and goddesses were part of everyday life in ancient Greece. For example, before setting out on journeys by land or sea, the Greeks would ask them for help. The Greeks dedicated their festivals and sporting events to their deities. Greek artists decorated the temples with images of them.

Section 4 - Greek Architecture

Temples are good examples of the Greeks' talent for architecture. The Greeks built their temples, not as places in which to worship, but as beautiful dwelling places for the gods and goddesses. Religious ceremonies were conducted outside.

The temples show the importance of balance and order in the Greeks' idea of beauty. Temples were built with rows of tall columns. The Greeks used three styles of columns. The Doric column was the simplest. It had no base and got slimmer toward the top. The Ionic column was thinner. It sat on a base and had scrolls carved into the top. The Corinthian column was the most complex, with carvings that looked like leaves at the top.

Athenians built three temples on the acropolis to honor Athena. As you have read, one of these was the Parthenon. One of the most beautiful temples in ancient Greece, the Parthenon was built on a long rectangular platform. There were 8 columns across both the front and the back, and 17 along each side. The roof was slanted, creating triangles, called pediments, at the front and back of the building. Above the columns was a band of sculptures called a frieze (freez). The sculptures themselves are called metopes (MEH-tuh-pees).

There were many different sizes of Greek temples, but their basic shape was similar. Most had a main room with a statue of the temple's god or goddess. The Parthenon, for example, had a magnificent statue of Athena that stood 30 feet high. Made of wood, the statue was covered with ivory to make it more lifelike. Then it was dressed in clothes and decorated with gold. Like the temple itself, the statue expressed both the Greeks' love of beauty and their awe of the gods

Section 5 - Greek Sculpture

The statue of Athena in the Parthenon was a wonderful example of another important Greek art: sculpture. Sculptors in Athens often set up a workshop near the site where the finished statue would be placed. Sculptor apprentices first made a life-size clay model supported by wooden or metal frames. The general outline of the statue was then roughed out in marble. A master sculptor added details and finishing touches.

Greek statues were colorful. Metalworkers attached appropriate bronze pieces to the statue, like spears and shields. Painters applied wax and bright colors to a statue's hair, lips, clothes, and headdress.

Creating lifelike statues was one of the great achievements of Greek sculptors. The earliest Greek statues had been influenced by Egyptian styles. Like the Egyptians, the Greeks created larger-than-life figures that faced front, with their arms held stiffly at their sides. Later Greek sculptors made more realistic statues in natural poses, showing muscles, hair, and clothing in much greater detail. One of the most famous Athenian sculptors was a man named Phidias (FID-dee-uhs). He designed the figures that line the frieze on the Parthenon. He also sculpted the statue of Athena that stood inside the temple. The statue carried a shield of gold, with carvings of two faces—those of the great Athenian leader Pericles and of Phidias himself.

Section 6 - Greek Drama

In addition to architecture and sculpture, the ancient Greeks excelled in **drama**, the art of the theater. Going to the theater was a regular part of Athenian life. The Theater of Dionysus (dy-uh-NIE-suhs), in Athens, could hold thousands of people.

Dionysus was the god of merriment. Greek plays grew out of the songs and dances that the Greeks performed at harvest time to honor him. As Greek playwrights developed their art, they began to write plays that told stories. The plays included a few main characters and a chorus. The chorus was a group of men who recited lines that commented on the actions of the main characters. The words spoken by the chorus helped explain and expand on the story.

There were no women actors in ancient Greece. Men played all the characters, both male and female. That was one reason actors wore masks. The masks also showed the audience whether a character was happy or sad.

Plays were staged in open-air theaters built into the sides of hills. A Greek theater was shaped like a bowl so that everyone could hear what was said. The seats rose in a semicircle around a stage at the bottom of the bowl. Scenery was painted on canvas and hung behind the actors.

Plays were often a form of competition that could last for days. Judges chose winners in four categories: tragic playwright, comic playwright, leading tragic actor, and leading comic actor. The winning writers and actors were crowned with olive leaves and given prizes such as figs.

Section 7 - Greek Philosophy

Athenians, like other Greeks, loved to talk and argue. In the sheltered spaces to one side of the agora, men often gathered to discuss the world around them. They talked about nature, often trading ideas about the natural world, such as what it was made of and how it worked. They also talked about things they couldn't see, such as the meaning of life, justice, truth, and beauty. This kind of thinking is called philosophy, which means "the love of wisdom."

One of the greatest philosophers in Athens was a man named Socrates (SAH-kruh-teez). Socrates encouraged people to question the very things they thought they knew. He taught others by asking them such questions as, *What makes a good life? What is truth? How do you know?* In this way he led his students to think about their beliefs.

Even in Athens, where people loved new ideas, this constant questioning got Socrates into trouble. His enemies accused him of not honoring the gods and of leading young people into error and disloyalty. In 399 B.C.E., Socrates was brought to trial for these crimes. In defending himself, Socrates said that he was the wisest man in Greece because he recognized how little he knew.

The jury found Socrates guilty and sentenced him to death. Friends encouraged him to escape from Athens, but Socrates insisted on honoring the law. He died by drinking hemlock, the juice of a poisonous plant.

The example of Socrates inspired many other important Greek thinkers, especially his student Plato (PLAY-toh). In turn, Plato taught the great philosopher, Aristotle (ar-uh-STOT-uhl).

Section 8 - Greek Sports

The Greeks' interest in philosophy shows how much they valued the mind. Their love of many kinds of sports shows that they also prized physical fitness.

The Greeks often held athletic events to honor their gods and goddesses. In Athens, games were held as part of a festival called the Panathenaea (pan-ath-uh-NEE-uh), which honored the goddess Athena. The high point of the festival was the procession, or solemn parade. The Athenians attached a new robe, as a gift for the statue of Athena, to the mast of a ship and pulled it through the city to the temple.

The **Panathenaic Games** included many events. There were horse races and chariot races, including one event in which men jumped on and off a moving chariot. Men also competed in footraces. In one race, men ran in their armor.

The games also included combat sports, such as boxing and wrestling. In an event called the *pancratium*, men were allowed to punch, kick, and even choke each other. The event ended when one fighter surrendered, lost consciousness, or died.

Another set of games, to honor the god Zeus, was played every four years at Olympia. Called the Olympics, these games were so important to the Greeks that they would call a truce from all wars so athletes could travel safely to the games.

Summary

In this chapter, you explored major achievements in ancient Greek culture during the Golden Age of Athens.

Athens After the Persian Wars Pericles was a great leader who promoted both the rebuilding of Athens and the growth of Greek culture and democracy.

Greek Religion The Greek worship of gods and goddesses was part of everyday life. Athens was named for the goddess Athena. The Parthenon honored her. The temple at Delphi honored the god Apollo. The Greeks told myths, or stories, about their many gods.

Greek Architecture and Sculpture The temples on the acropolis in Athens were examples of the Greek talent for architecture. The lifelike marble statues made in workshops displayed the art of sculpture.

Greek Drama and Philosophy Athenians enjoyed dramas staged in large open-air theaters. Only male actors performed. The Greeks also enjoyed discussing philosophy. Socrates was one of the greatest philosophers in Athens.

Greek Sports The Greeks competed in athletic events at the Panathenaic Games and the Olympics. Events included races and combat sports

Alexander the Great and His Empire

Overview and Objectives

Overview

In a Response Group activity, students learn about the rise of Macedonia after the Peloponnesian War and debate the degree of success Alexander the Great had in uniting the diverse peoples of his empire.

Objectives

In the course of reading this chapter and participating in the classroom activity, students will

Social Studies

- summarize the roles of Athens and Sparta in the Peloponnesian War.
- describe the rise of Macedonia under the reigns of Philip and Alexander.
- rate the success of Alexander the Great in uniting his empire, including his efforts to spread Greek culture eastward.
- evaluate the achievements of Alexander the Great.

Language Arts

- support opinions, using detailed and relevant evidence.
- engage listeners by emphasizing main points and using effective speaking skills.

Social Studies Vocabulary

Key Content Terms Peloponnesian War, Macedonia, Aristotle, Alexander the Great, custom, Alexandria

Academic Vocabulary ally, appreciate, involve, require, reluctantly

Lesson 30 - Alexander the Great and His Empire

Section 1 - Introduction

As the power of Athens grew, other city-states, especially Sparta, became jealous and fearful. Athens and Sparta had mistrusted each other for a long time. After joining together to defeat the Persians, they soon began to quarrel.

In 431 B.C.E., Sparta declared war on Athens. Many of the smaller city-states were drawn into the fight. This conflict is called the Peloponnesian (pel-uh-puh-NEE-zhuhn) War. The war continued for 27 years.

While the city-states were at war, a new threat was growing to the north, in a kingdom called Macedonia (mas-ih-DOH-nee-uh). A Macedonian king, Philip II, realized that constant wars had left the Greeks divided and weak. He seized the chance and brought Greece under his control. Philip's son, Alexander, was even more ambitious. Today, he is known as Alexander the Great. Alexander extended Macedonian rule over a vast area. In time, his power reached from Macedonia and Greece, through Central Asia, all the way to parts of India.

In this chapter, you will learn how Alexander built and tried to rule this vast empire. How did he plan to unite so many different peoples under his rule?

Section 2 - The Peloponnesian War and the Rise of Macedonia

In 431 B.C.E., the quarrel between Athens and Sparta grew into a conflict called the **Peloponnesian War**. The name comes from the Peloponnesus, the peninsula that extends south from mainland Greece. Sparta was located here. Other city-states were drawn into the war as **allies** of either Athens or Sparta.

The war lasted for 27 years, from 431 to 404 B.C.E. Sparta won. It became the most powerful Greek city-state, until it was defeated by Thebes.

While the Greek city-states fought one another, **Macedonia** grew stronger. For a long while, the Macedonians had lived in scattered tribes. Then King Philip II took the throne. He unified the warlike tribes of the north and created a well-trained army.

Philip then looked south to mainland Greece. Years of war had left the Greeks divided and weak. Philip used this weakness.

By 338 B.C.E., King Philip had conquered most of mainland Greece. He let the Greek city-states keep many freedoms. But Philip now ruled them. Never again would a Greek city-state become a great power.

Philip wanted to attack Persia next, but, in 336 B.C.E., he was murdered. His son, Alexander, was the new Macedonian king

Section 3 - Alexander Creates an Empire

Alexander was only 20 years old when he became king. But he was well prepared for his new duties. He had been tutored by Aristotle (ar-uh-STOT-uhl), the famous Greek philosopher. Aristotle had taught him public speaking, science, and philosophy. He had also taught Alexander to appreciate Greek culture.

As king, Alexander put down a rebellion by some of the Greek city-states. Then he focused on the east. Alexander wanted to carry out his father's plan to invade Persia. Fighting Persia would help to unite the Greeks by giving them a common enemy. And a victory over Persia would add to Alexander's wealth.

In 334 B.C.E., Alexander, with a united Macedonian and Greek army, invaded Asia Minor. His plan was to create an empire by using a strategy of both terror and kindness. The towns and cities that resisted him would be burned to the ground, and their people sold into slavery. The towns and cities that surrendered to him would keep their government officials, and Alexander would help them rebuild damaged property.

Section 4 - Alexander's Plan to Unite His Empire

In a short time, Alexander extended his rule over Asia Minor, Egypt, and Central Asia. Still not satisfied, he pushed on. He marched to the farthest limit of the Persian Empire. His armies even reached western India.

Many leaders in history have dreamed of ruling the world. Alexander came as close as anyone to fulfilling that dream. He brought much of the known world at that time under his rule. His achievements gave him the name **Alexander the Great**.

Alexander was a bold and brilliant general, but his many conquests created new challenges. How could he control such a large territory? And how could he unite so many different peoples and cultures?

Alexander wanted all the people he conquered to accept him as their ruler. He also intended to spread Greek culture. But he did not want to destroy the local **customs** and traditions of the various cultures across his empire. His goal was to bring the different peoples of these many cultures together under a single government.

Alexander created a plan to achieve his goals. The plan had three key parts. First, he would spread Greek culture and ideas. Second, he would use religion to inspire loyalty. Third, he would show respect for the cultures he had conquered, and even adopt some of their customs. Let's look at each part of his plan

Section 5 - How Alexander Spread Greek Ideas

Alexander deeply admired Greek culture and wanted to spread Greek ideas throughout his empire. He hoped that Greek ideas, customs, and traditions would blend with the diverse cultures of the people he had conquered.

Alexander thought that the building of Greek-style cities would be one way to accomplish his goal. He established many cities in different parts of the empire. Like the cities in Greece, they had marketplaces, temples, and theaters.

People from Greece flocked to settle in Alexander's cities. They brought with them their Greek laws, art, and literature. Alexander insisted that local soldiers and government officials speak only Greek.

The most famous of the new cities was Alexandria. Founded by Alexander in 332 B.C.E., Alexandria was located in Egypt, near the sea. Alexandria was designed in a grid of intersecting wide and narrow streets. It had many Greek features, including a marketplace, a university, a gymnasium, and a theater. The city also boasted law courts and a library. There was even a temple dedicated to Poseidon (puh-SY-din), the Greek god of the sea.

In time, the city of Alexandria became one of the ancient world's most important centers of trade and learning. Its library contained more than half a million books. This was one of the largest libraries in the world at that time

Section 6 - How Alexander Used Religion

The second part of Alexander's plan—to inspire loyalty among his followers and the people he had conquered—**involved** religion. Alexander used religion in two ways.

First, he honored Egyptian and Persian gods, with the same respect he paid to Greek gods. To show his respect, he visited oracle sites, made sacrifices, and had temples built to honor these gods. On one occasion, he visited the oracle site of the Egyptian god Ammon. When he arrived, an Egyptian priest welcomed him as “God’s son.” The priest’s words helped Alexander gain the loyalty of the Egyptian people.

Second, Alexander promoted the idea that he himself was a god. After his visit to the Egyptian oracle, he began wearing a crown with two ram’s horns. This crown looked much like the sacred headdress of Ammon. Seeing Alexander wearing the crown encouraged the Egyptians to accept him as a god.

Alexander spread the story of the Egyptian priest’s greeting throughout the empire. Later on, he also **required** all Greeks to accept him as the son of Zeus.

Section 7 - How Alexander Adopted the Ways of Conquered Cultures

The third part of Alexander's plan was to show respect for the cultural practices of the people he had conquered. He did this by adopting some of these practices himself.

For example, in Persia, he adopted the Persian system of government. He allowed Persian governors to run the day-to-day business of their lands. However, he was careful to appoint Macedonians to head the army. He also made sure his own people controlled the taxes that were collected.

Alexander also borrowed Persian customs. He began wearing decorative Persian-style clothing. He received official visitors in a luxurious tent, much as a Persian king would have done. The tent was supported by tall columns. The columns were covered in gold and silver and decorated with precious stones.

Alexander demanded that each of his visitors greet him according to Persian custom. A visitor had to kneel in front of the throne and bend over until his head touched the ground. Alexander would then raise the visitor to his feet, kiss him, and address him as "kinsman."

Finally, Alexander encouraged marriage between the people of Macedonia and Persia. He himself married the eldest daughter of Darius III, a Persian king he had defeated.

Historians are not sure why Alexander behaved in these ways. Some think that by adopting the customs of his former enemies, Alexander was simply trying to be a more acceptable ruler. Other historians think that he truly considered all of the peoples he conquered to be equal to the Greeks and the Macedonians.

Section 8 - Alexander's Empire Crumbles

By 324 B.C.E., Alexander's armies were in northern India. After ten years of fighting, the exhausted soldiers refused to go on. **Reluctantly**, Alexander returned to Babylon, in Persia. In 323 B.C.E, he died at the age of 33.

After his death, Alexander's empire fell apart. Settlers left the cities he had built, and the cities fell into ruin. His generals fought to control the empire. Eventually, his land was divided into three kingdoms. Egypt became one kingdom. Syria in the Middle East was the second kingdom. Macedonia and Greece made a third kingdom.

Alexander had spread Greek ideas throughout a vast area. In the centuries to come, Greek power would slowly fade away. But Greek culture would continue to influence the lands that Alexander had once ruled.

Summary

In this chapter, you learned how Alexander the Great built and ruled his empire.

The Peloponnesian War and the Rise of Macedonia Athens and Sparta and their allies fought one another in the Peloponnesian War, lasting from 431 to 404 B.C.E. Then, King Philip II of Macedonia took advantage of the Greeks' weakness after years of warfare and conquered most of Greece.

Alexander Creates and Unites an Empire Alexander, son of Philip, became king. Educated by the Greek philosopher Aristotle, Alexander enlarged his empire by invading Asia Minor. He conquered Persia, Egypt, Central Asia, and western India. He planned to unite his vast empire by spreading Greek culture, by inspiring loyalty through religion, and by adopting some of the customs of conquered peoples.

Spreading Greek Ideas, Using Religion, and Adopting the Ways of Conquered

Cultures Alexander built Greek-style cities, such as Alexandria, in Egypt. Greeks settled in these cities and brought their laws and arts. Alexander made Egyptian and Persian gods equal to Greek gods. He also encouraged the idea that he himself was a god. He adopted customs from the cultures of the people he had conquered, such as the Persian system of government.

Alexander's Empire Crumbles After Alexander's death in 323 B.C.E., his generals fought among themselves for control of the empire. Settlers left the cities Alexander had built. The empire divided into three kingdoms. But the Greek culture that he had spread would continue to influence the lands Alexander had ruled.

The Legacy of Ancient Greece

Overview and Objectives

Overview

In a Social Studies Skill Builder, students learn about the enduring contributions of the ancient Greeks by matching descriptions of modern life to images of Greek achievements in language, literature, government, the arts, the sciences, and sports.

Objectives

In the course of reading this chapter and participating in the classroom activity, students will

Social Studies

- explain how Greek language, literature, and art influence the modern world.
- identify the Greek roots of American democracy.
- describe the achievements of important Greek figures in the arts, sciences, and social sciences.
- evaluate the impact of Greek contributions on modern life.

Language Arts

- recognize the origins and meanings of frequently used foreign words in English.
- use facts and supporting details to write evaluative statements.

Social Studies Vocabulary

Key Content Terms geometry, latitude, longitude, biology

Academic Vocabulary volume, principle, medical, theory, accurately

Lesson 31 - The Legacy of Ancient Greece

Section 1 - Introduction

In this chapter, you will explore the advances made by the ancient Greeks in many aspects of their civilization. You will also discover how these achievements continue to affect us today.

There is an ancient story, still told today, about a Greek thinker named Archimedes (ar-kuh- MEE-deez), who climbed into a bath filled to the top with water. As the water overflowed onto the floor, he realized something. The **volume** of his body could be measured by the amount of water that left the tub. "Eureka!" Archimedes is said to have shouted. In Greek this means, "I have found it!" By being curious and observing events closely, Archimedes had discovered an interesting fact about the natural world.

Curiosity and careful observation are important in the study of science. This way of thinking is one of the gifts that we have received from the ancient Greeks. The Greeks left us valuable ideas in many other fields as well.

Not only have important ideas come from the Greeks, but so have many of the words we use to describe those ideas. The world of the ancient Greeks may seem far away, but it is as close as the thoughts we think and the words we speak. Let's look at Greek contributions to our lives in the areas of language, government, medicine, mathematics and science, architecture, entertainment, and sports

Section 2 - Literature and History

Did you know that the word *alphabet* comes from the first two letters of the Greek alphabet, *alpha* and *beta*? Our alphabet grew out of the one that ancient Greeks used. In addition, many English words have Greek roots. For example, the word *telephone* is made up of the Greek words *tel*, meaning “far off,” and *phone*, meaning “voice.”

Even the way we write sentences comes from the language of ancient Greece. The rules of English grammar, punctuation, and paragraphing are all based on Greek writing. And don't forget literature. The Greeks created drama, including both tragedy and comedy. They also developed historical writing. Modern historians follow in the footsteps of great Greek writers such as Herodotus (huh-ROD-uh-tuhs), known as the “father of history,” and Thucydides (thoo-SID-ih-deez).

Thucydides was one of the greatest historians of ancient Greece. He wrote *History of the Peloponnesian War*, an account of the conflict between Athens and Sparta in the 400s B.C.E.

Thucydides himself took part in the war, serving in the Athenian army. Although he was an eyewitness to history, he was careful to present facts rather than his own viewpoint or opinion. He is remembered today as one of the founders of historical writing.

Section 3 - Government

Democratic government was a Greek idea. Democracy, or rule by the people, began in Athens. The practice of having citizens serve on juries also began in Greece.

Democratic government in the United States has roots in ancient Greece. There are a number of important differences, however, between American democracy and ancient Greek democracy. For example, in Athens, all citizens debated and voted on every issue. But in the United States, citizens elect representatives to speak for them and make laws. Another difference is that only native-born men could be citizens in Athens. But in the United States, all men and women born in this country are U.S. citizens, and people from other countries can become citizens, too.

Still, the basic principles of democracy were developed by the ancient Greeks. Athenians were proud that their government allowed citizens to control their own destiny. This idea remains the basis of democracy today

Section 4 - Medicine

For centuries, the Greeks believed that gods and goddesses controlled natural events, including health and sickness. In fact, the earliest Greeks thought that illnesses and accidents were punishments sent by the gods. Ancient Greeks didn't know about the natural causes of disease and healing.

A Greek man named Hippocrates (hih-POK-ruh-teez) changed the way people thought about health and medicine. Hippocrates is often called the "father of medicine." He brought a scientific way of thinking to his work as a doctor. Hippocrates believed that diseases had natural causes. He taught his students to carefully observe their patients and write down what they saw.

Even more important, Hippocrates established principles of medicine that are still followed. Today, people who become doctors take the Hippocratic Oath, based on these ideas of ethical behavior. Doctors promise to be honest, to preserve life, and to keep information about their patients private.

The Greeks loved to participate in and watch competitions in sports. Their interest in athletics gave them some knowledge about how the human body moves. But their understanding of the body was limited, partly because it was forbidden to look inside the body to see how it worked. The early Greeks believed that cutting open a human body offended the gods. As these beliefs changed over time, the Greeks made new discoveries.

Several centuries after Hippocrates, Greek medical students were able to name and describe organs inside the body. They discovered that the heart was a pump that sent blood flowing throughout the body. They also learned that the brain was the center of the nervous system.

Section 5 - Mathematics

The Greeks loved reasoning, or looking for logical answers to nature's mysteries. Greek scientists often found those answers in the field of mathematics.

One such scientist, Pythagoras (pih-THAG-er-uhs), believed that numbers were the key to understanding nature. He started a school where students developed mathematical **theories**.

Like many Greeks, Pythagoras was especially fascinated by **geometry**. *Geometry* comes from a Greek word that means "to measure land." Geometry began as a system for measuring areas of land. The Egyptians could also measure shapes and spaces, but the Greeks created new and improved methods. Using geometry, they could figure out problems such as how much seed to buy for planting a field or how to lay out a city.

Another famous Greek mathematician was Euclid (YOOklid). His geometry textbook has been used as the basis for the teaching of geometry for more than 2,000 years.

Greek culture produced the first woman to earn fame as a mathematician, Hypatia (hie-PAY-shuh). Born in Egypt in about 370 C.E., she taught Greek philosophy and mathematics in the city of Alexandria.

Section 6 - Astronomy

Astronomy comes from the Greek word for “star.” Astronomy is the scientific study of outer space. Ancient Greeks were pioneers in this field.

People in all civilizations observed the sun, moon, and stars. But a Greek scientist named Aristarchus (ayr-uh-STAHHR-kuhs) was the first person to suggest that Earth moves around the sun. This idea upset many Greeks who believed that Earth was the center of the universe.

Another Greek, Hipparchus (hih-PAHR-kuhs), is often called one of the greatest scientists of the ancient world. He studied and named more than 850 stars. He also figured out how to estimate the distances from Earth to both the sun and the moon. His theories allowed later scientists to **accurately** predict eclipses of the moon.

Section 7 - Geography

The study of geography has roots in ancient Greece. The word *geography* comes from Greek words that mean “writing about the earth.” The Greek historian Herodotus created the first map of the known world, in about 450 B.C.E. To gather the information for his map, Herodotus asked geographic questions. He found some answers to his questions by traveling and talking with other travelers. He organized the information by displaying it on a map.

Another great geographer of ancient times was Ptolemy (TAH-luh-mee), a Greek scientist who lived in Alexandria, Egypt. He wrote a book called *Geographia* that listed about 8,000 places around the world. His book contained maps that showed how to represent the curve of Earth on a flat surface.

Ptolemy also designed a system of lines drawn on a map called **latitude** and **longitude**. With this system, he recorded the specific locations for the thousands of places he listed in his book. Centuries later, Arab scholars would further develop the study of geography, especially in the field of mapmaking

Section 8 - Biology

Ancient Greeks developed the science of **biology**. About 600 B.C.E., Greek thinkers believed each event has a cause and an effect. They used this idea to study the natural world.

Curiosity led Greeks to study plants and animals. Scientists learned about the anatomy, or body structure, of animals and humans. This knowledge helped doctors in their medical studies.

The Greeks identified plants and also named their parts. The Greeks learned that plants reproduce by spreading seeds. Greek doctors used plants, such as herbs, as medicines and for pain.

The Greek philosopher Aristotle was fascinated by living things. He collected information about many types of animals and plants. Then he organized animals into groups, such as “those with backbones” and “those without backbones.” He divided plants into such groups as “herbs,” “shrubs,” and “trees.” The way we classify, or group, animals and plants today reflects the work of Aristotle.

Section 9 - Architecture

The word *architecture* comes from a Greek word that means “master builder.” Greek architecture was one of the achievements of the Golden Age of Athens. One feature was the way that the Greeks used columns to make their temples look balanced and stately. Another feature was the pediments, the triangular shapes where roof lines come together. And a third architectural feature was the decorated bands called friezes.

Today, Greek styles are still used in many buildings. They are common in public structures such as government buildings, schools, churches, libraries, and museums. The U.S. Capitol has elements of Greek architecture, such as columns and pediments. The building that houses the U.S. Supreme Court is another example of a public structure inspired by Greek architecture.

You can also see Greek building styles in homes and stores. For example, many houses have covered porches. The design of these porches reflects a feature of Greek architecture called a stoa. This is a covered line of columns

Section 10 - Theater

The word *theater* comes from a Greek word that means “a viewing place.” Greek theaters were built as semicircles. The rows of seats rose steeply from the stage so that everyone in the audience could see and hear. These ideas are used in theaters built today.

The Greeks even invented special effects. For example, they used hoists to lift actors off the stage, so that they appeared to be flying. They also created scenery that revolved, or turned. Revolving the scenery let them quickly change where the action in a play was taking place. Perhaps the greatest Greek contributions to the theater are their stories and plays. Writers throughout the ages have been inspired by Greek myths and stories. Greek dramas are still performed all over the world.

Section 11 - Sports

Many modern sports trace their roots back to ancient Greece. The most famous example is the Olympic Games.

The first Olympics were held in 776 B.C.E. to honor the Greek god Zeus. Today’s Olympic Games reflect ancient Greek customs. During the opening ceremony, an athlete lights the Olympic flame. This custom comes from the time in ancient Greece when the first Olympic athletes lit a fire on the altar of Zeus.

Many modern Olympic events grew out of Greek contests. One example is the pentathlon. *Pentathlon* is a Greek word that means “five contests.” The Greek pentathlon included the footrace, discus throw, long jump, javelin throw, and wrestling. The Greeks invented this event as a test of all-around athletic skill. Although the five contests are different today, the pentathlon is still an Olympic event.

Summary

In this chapter, you learned how ancient Greek civilization affects today's world.

Literature, History, and Government The modern alphabet, English grammar, drama and historical writing, and democratic government all trace their roots to the ancient Greeks.

Medicine Hippocrates applied scientific thinking to medicine and established a code of ethics used by doctors today. Centuries later, Greek medical students made discoveries about the heart and the brain.

Mathematics Pythagoras and Euclid made important advances in geometry that are still taught today.

Astronomy and Geography Greek scientists suggested that Earth moves around the sun. They named hundreds of stars and estimated the distances from Earth to both the sun and the moon. Greeks created the first maps and the system of latitude and longitude that is still used today to find locations on Earth.

Biology Greeks developed the scientific study of plants, animals, and humans called biology. The way we classify animals and plants is based on the work of Aristotle.

Architecture, Theater, and Sports Greek building styles, including columns and pediments, are seen today in public and private structures. Greek plays, stories, and myths are read today. Even the Olympic Games first began in ancient Greece.