CIVILIZATION

GRECO-ROMAN

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BIG HISTORY PROJECT
GRECO-ROMAN
EARLY EXPERIMENTS IN PARTICIPATORY GOVERNMENT

By Cynthia Stokes Brown, adapted by Newsela
Instead of rule by a single person, Athens and Rome allowed some male citizens to participate in government, which lasted about 170 years in Athens and 480 years in Rome.
Deep time

Present-day Greece, with Athens as its capital, and Italy, with Rome as its capital, are neighbors. They both lie along the northern shore of the Mediterranean Sea.

Eighty-five million years ago they were already neighbors, but across the sea. They were sitting on the edge of Africa. By 55 million years ago, continental drift had pushed the European and African continents together. By 5 million years ago, the land consisting of the future Italy and Greece had collided with the European crust. This created the Alps and the mountains of Greece.

Eventually, the northern coast of the Mediterranean became the setting for the development of two distinctive societies. After some time, the Romans swallowed the Greeks as part of the Roman Empire.

Location and food

The Greeks occupied the southern shoreline of the Greek peninsula. This was called Attica. Another group, the Macedonians, inhabited the northern territories. Attica was composed of rocky soil on steep mountains.

Because the soil was poor, Greeks had limited food options. They grew barley, grapes, olive trees, figs, and lentils. They also raised sheep and goats. The Greeks stayed near the coast so they could fish for extra food and trade with other groups.

The Athenians built their city near the southern coast of Attica. A large silver deposit near the city made them very rich. They used the money to pay for timber from Italy, which they used to build warships and a powerful navy.
The Romans had a more productive site on the western side of the Italian peninsula. They built their city on seven hills near the Tiber River. Their site wasn’t at the seashore, but 18 miles (30 km) inland. This gave them protection from naval attacks. They could still access the Mediterranean by river. To the north lived the Etruscans, and to the south the Greeks had formed colonies along the coast and on the island of Sicily.

Early Romans grew wheat, barley, oats, rye, grapes, and olives in their fertile river valley. They used goat’s and sheep’s milk for cheese. Their local fruit trees included apples, pears, plums, and quince. They harvested many vegetables, but not corn, potatoes, or tomatoes. Those came later from the Americas. For meat, they had fish, oysters, chickens, ducks, geese, and pigs; they seldom ate cows. Salt, found in selected places, was controlled by the government. Soldiers were sometimes paid in salt. Our word “salary” is derived from this practice. So is the phrase “worth your salt.”

Athens and Greece

From 1600 to 1100 BCE, Indo-European immigrants called the Mycenaeans occupied the Greek peninsula. They attacked Troy, a city in Anatolia (now Turkey), on the other side of the Aegean Sea. This war is described in The Iliad, one of the earliest written pieces of Western literature. The Iliad, attributed to Homer, was written down around the eighth century BCE.

By 800 BCE, small, competing city-states were forming in the mountains of southern Greece. These city-states each contained about 500 to 5,000 male citizens. The total Greek population may have been two to three million. The city-states shared a common language and religion. After 776 BCE, they came together every four years for competitive games held near Mount Olympus.

The Greeks set up more than 400 colonies along the shores of the Mediterranean and the Black seas. Their colonies in the Black Sea gave them access to fish, furs, timber, honey, gold, amber, and slaves from southern Russia.

Greece introduced metal coins in the seventh century BCE to make trade easier. Instead of expansion by conquest, the early Greeks expanded by colonization.

Sparta and Athens were the most powerful city-states in Greece. Their culture and politics were very different. The Spartans conquered their neighbors and forced them to live as slaves. Sparta developed a strict culture based on maintaining an elite military force. The Spartans were ruled by a council of 28 elders.

Athens, on the other hand, gave full political rights to wealthy men. If men could afford armor and weapons to serve in the army, they were allowed to participate in the government. By 450 BCE, holders of public office were chosen randomly. Even the 10 military generals were elected.
In Athens, women, children, slaves, and foreigners didn’t have political rights. Perhaps 10 to 12 percent of the estimated 300,000 Athenians were allowed to participate in government.

Five hundred years before the Common Era, the Persian Empire was the largest and wealthiest agrarian civilization. It conquered some of the Greek colonies on the shores of Anatolia.

But when the Athenians fought the Persians, the Athenians won. They were victorious on land at Marathon in 490 BCE and in great sea battles. A runner, Phidippides, carried the news of victory 26 miles from Marathon to Athens and died after shouting, “Rejoice, we conquer.” Before that, he had run 140 miles to Sparta and back, asking for help, which for religious reasons the Spartans wouldn’t give until the Moon was full. Phidippides’s effort 2,500 years ago also inspired the 26.2-mile marathon running races that are so popular today.

After their victory over the Persians, the Athenians enjoyed a golden age of cultural creativity for about 150 years. Under the elected general Pericles, democratic participation was at its highest.

Athenian merchants brought knowledge and ideas from Mesopotamia and Egypt. Scientists, philosophers, and playwrights developed and combined cultural traditions that would later spread throughout Europe and serve as a foundation for Western culture. Just for reference: the philosophers Socrates died in 399 BCE, Plato about 348 BCE, and Aristotle in 322 BCE.

Still, most Greeks did not have an advanced education. The literacy rate for that time is estimated at about 5 percent. The more educated Greeks believed in a pantheon of gods, headed by the sky god, Zeus, who emerged triumphant from the battle of the gods. (See the Greek origin story in Unit 1.) Many Greeks believed in mystery religions, which involved secrets known only to members. These often entailed a savior whose death and resurrection would lead to salvation for followers.

The Greek city-states never figured out how to live together peacefully. Instead, Athens and Sparta fought the Peloponnesian War (431–404 BCE). In it, Athens was defeated and all city-states were weakened.

In the mid-300s BCE, Macedonia, their neighbor to the north, conquered the Greek city-states. When the Macedonian leader, Philip II, was assassinated in 336 BCE, his 20-year-old son Alexander took over. In 13 amazing years, Alexander conquered enough land to form the largest empire the world had yet seen, from Macedonia and Greece to Bactria (Afghanistan) and parts of India, and including Anatolia, Egypt, the Middle East, Babylonia, and Persia.

Alexander died suddenly and mysteriously in 323 BCE after a wild party. His empire was divided among three of his generals. Egypt went to Ptolemy — not to be confused with the scientist Claudius Ptolemy, however. Greece and Macedonia fell under the rule of Antigonus. Central Asia was ruled by Seleucus.

For more than a hundred years, these Greek rulers brought Greek culture to their areas. For example, the city of Alexandria at the mouth of the Nile became the most important port in the Mediterranean. The rulers there funded a museum that served as an institute of higher learning and research. It included a library that had about 700,000 scrolls. Scholars came from around the Mediterranean to study in Alexandria.
It was in Alexandria that Eratosthenes measured the diameter of the Earth, Euclid wrote the rules of geometry, and the scientist Ptolemy wrote the Algamest. Unfortunately, he overlooked the ideas of Aristarchus, who also studied at Alexandria. Almost 2,000 years before Copernicus figured out that the Earth circled the Sun, Aristarchus had already theorized about it.

Meanwhile, on the Italian peninsula, the Romans had developed a powerful agrarian civilization. This one was not fragmented into city-states. Between 215 and 146 BCE, they gradually conquered the Greek cities in Italy, only to absorb much of Greek culture into their own.

Rome and empire

Rome began when small towns on seven hilltops by the Tiber River merged. A hundred years after the union, in 509 BCE, Roman aristocrats overthrew their king and set up a republic ruled by the elites. A republic is a form of government where delegates represent the interests of the people.

The poorer classes, called plebeians, insisted on some protections and participation. The idea of the republic came to include the rule of law, the rights of citizens, and moral behavior.

Rome expanded as its population grew. For various reasons — food supplies, defense, land, glory — Roman armies fought the powerful city of Carthage across the Mediterranean. After 120 years, Rome finally won and went on to conquer Greece, Egypt, and the Middle East by 133 BCE.

The republican form of government produced intense rivalries among its military leaders. These leaders competed for power with their personal armies.

Julius Caesar (100 — 44 BCE) emerged as the winner of this competition. He conquered Gaul (modern France) and England, but not Scotland, Wales, or Ireland, where the Celts fought off his armies.

Julius Caesar declared himself dictator for life, ending the republic. Two years later, members of the Senate stabbed him to death in hopes of restoring the republic. Instead, after 13 more years of civil war, Caesar’s adopted son, Octavian, known as Augustus, took power and ruled for 45 years virtually unopposed. In the first two centuries of the Common Era, the Roman Empire reached its height. The time from 27 BCE to 180 CE is known as the “Pax Romana,” or Roman Peace. Rome was a city of one million people. Roman leaders controlled about 130 million people across an area of about 1.5 million square miles. Roman roads linked all parts of the empire. Roman law, which featured key concepts such as “innocent until proven guilty,” was enforced throughout the empire.

Under Roman law men had most of the rights. This was also the case in Greece. The father of a Roman family could arrange the marriages of his children, sell them into slavery, or even kill them without punishment. Roman law limited women’s rights to inherit property and assets, but some clever people managed to get around this law.

Like all agrarian civilizations of its time, Romans used slave labor — but on a larger scale than most. No reliable data exist, but at the height of the empire perhaps one-third of the population were slaves. An emperor alone might have about 20,000 slaves.

In 73 BCE, an escaped slave, Spartacus, assembled 70,000 rebellious slaves. After several years Roman troops crushed them and crucified 6,000 survivors along the Appian Way.

While the Greeks had focused on philosophy and science, the Romans put their creativity into roads, aqueducts for carrying water, and law.

In a way, the Roman Empire helped to spread Greek culture. The Romans honored many gods, renaming the Greek ones and taking them as their own. Roman statesman Marcus Tullius Cicero adopted Greek Stoicism, a philosophy that sought to identify universal moral standards based on nature and reason. The older mystery religions proved immensely popular in the Roman Empire.
The rise of Christianity

In a remote corner of the Roman Empire, a small religious sect emerged. It was Christianity, now the world’s most widespread religion.

The Romans conquered Judea (modern Israel) in 6 CE. Jesus, whom Christians consider the Son of God, grew up at a time of great tension between the Roman overlords and their Jewish subjects. The Romans allowed Jesus to be crucified in the early 30s CE. They believed Jesus was calling for rebellion with his message that “the kingdom of God is at hand.”

In 66–70, the Jews actually did revolt against Roman rule. The Romans crushed this by destroying the Jewish temple and taking thousands of Jews to Rome as slaves. Most of the rest were sent into exile.

After this revolt, Christianity spread to non-Jewish communities, led by Paul of Tarsus. Paul preached in the Greek-speaking eastern regions of the Roman Empire. At first Rome persecuted Christians, but by the third century Rome had become the center of Church authority.

Christianity appealed to the lower classes, women, and city dwellers. In 313, Emperor Constantine legalized Christian worship after his own conversion. By the end of the fourth century, it had become the official state religion.

Zeus (Jupiter to the Romans) being crowned by Victory
The fall of Rome

History books used to refer to the “fall” of Rome in 476 when Germanic general Odovacar became the ruler of the western part of the empire. But the fall was a gradual breaking up of the empire. The Roman Empire didn’t collapse all at once.

After 200, Rome faced many problems. The empire lacked strong leadership. During a 50-year span in the 200s, there were 26 emperors. Most of them died violent deaths.

Epidemics of disease spread along the Silk Roads. Sicknesses that began in animals — smallpox, measles, mumps, whooping cough — spread rapidly in urban populations. The Roman world lost about one-quarter of its population before 450. People lost confidence in coins because of inflation. They returned to bartering (trading).

The dissolving empire meant the decline of urban life, reduced international trade, and loss of population. Insecurity among ordinary people was widespread.

In 324, Emperor Constantine moved the capital to Byzantium in modern-day Turkey. Byzantium was later renamed Constantinople, and is now called Istanbul. From there the Eastern Roman Empire became the Byzantine Empire. It lasted another thousand years until the Ottoman Turks took Constantinople in 1453.

The Western Roman Empire ended in 476. Centralized authority fell apart. Governments went back to city-states and small territories ruled by princes, bishops, or the pope. The Roman Catholic Church often had disagreements with state authorities. The common tongue, Latin, evolved into many splinter languages — French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and Romanian.

Connections and legacies

Even after the collapse of the empire, Greco-Roman collective learning lived on. A lot of credit goes to the Ptolemaic rulers in Egypt, who supported scholarship and research at the Museum and Library of Alexandria.

Nobody knows for sure what happened to Alexandria’s library, but it eventually disappeared. The part of the city where it stood now lies underwater. Excavators discovered 13 lecture halls there in 2004.

Three main claims have been made about the library’s destruction: that Julius Caesar accidentally, or on purpose, set part of the city on fire in 48 BCE when fighting his rival general, Pompey; that Christians destroyed it in the early fifth century; and that Muslims, who took Alexandria in 640, raided the library and burned the documents.
About 800 BCE
Greek city-states emerge

About 800 BCE
Greeks invent alphabetic writing

776 BCE–393 CE
Olympic Games held for 1,170 years

About 600 BCE
Seven hill towns merge to form Rome

509 BCE
Romans set up republic

490 BCE
Athens defeats the Persians at the Battle of Marathon

461–429 BCE
Pericles leads a Greek “golden age”

431–404 BCE
Sparta defeats Athens in Peloponnesian War

215–146 BCE
Rome conquers Greece

46–31 BCE
Roman republic ends

27 BCE–180 CE
Pax Romana

324
Roman Empire splits into two parts: Western and Byzantine

476
End of Western Roman Empire

Late 4th century
Christianity becomes official Byzantine religion

414
End of Byzantine Empire

1000
500
0
500
1000
1500
Muslim scholars became interested in Greek ideas. These scholars spread their learning across North Africa and into Spain. In the eleventh century, Latin Christians took Toledo and Sicily back from the Muslims, and southern Italy from the Byzantines. In the process, they acquired many manuscripts written by Greek and Muslim scholars and monks.

In the twelfth century, the Muslim scholar Ibn Rushd wrote commentaries on the Greek philosopher Aristotle. He also made Arabic translations of the original Greek. By 1300, universities had been organized in many European cities, through which Greco-Roman ideas entered European intellectual life.

Byzantine Empire scholars also played a large role in preserving Greek knowledge. When scholarship disappeared in the western part of the former Roman Empire, Byzantine monks and scholars copied the Greek manuscripts.

The Roman legacy is a bit more concrete. Hundreds of miles of Roman road still exist, after 20 centuries of use. Emperor Justinian reorganized Roman law with the Code of Justinian, which is still the basis of legal systems in most of Europe. (U.S. law is based on English case law.) Humanists in Europe used the ideas of Roman non-Christians, especially Cicero, to discuss how to live well rather than arguing about religion. The names of our months also derive from Roman times, carrying the names of their gods and of a couple of their most famous leaders.

Perhaps the most important legacy of Greco-Roman civilization is its experiments with male citizen participation in political life. These exercises seem short-lived in both societies. But the ideas later reemerged in Europe and the young United States to play a significant role in the shaping of modern governments.

Sources


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