Excel Year 12 Ancient History Pass Cards

This set of cards is designed for you to use as the final step in your revision program. The author has carefully selected the most important facts of the course for you to focus on just before your exam or test. You can use your Excel Year 12 Pass Cards:

- **ON THE GO.** If you are by yourself, read over each card again and again until you completely master its content. If you’re with a friend, revise as a team by turning the bullet points into questions and quizzing each other on key points. Your answers will be there on the cards.

- **AT HOME.** Read each card thoroughly and make sure you understand all the points. You should also know more detailed information on each topic—if you are not completely sure of a topic, revise it in your Excel Year 12 study guide.

- **ON YOUR DIGITAL DEVICE.** Download a FREE digital copy of these cards at www.pascalpress.com.au/free
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Pompeii and Herculaneum lie at the mouth of the Sarno River in the southern Italian region of Campania.

The region was described by Florus as ‘the finest in the world’.

To the north of Pompeii and the south-east of Herculaneum lies Mount Vesuvius, the active volcano responsible for the destruction in 79 CE.

To the east of Pompeii and Herculaneum are the Apennine Mountains, a mountain range which stretches down the centre of Italy.

The ancient city of Pompeii covers an area of 66 hectares and about three-quarters of it has been successfully excavated.
The eruption of 79 CE and its Impact on Pompeii and Herculaneum

- The eruption took place in 79 CE though there is debate as to whether it was in August or November.
- There was a severe earthquake in 63 CE and a smaller quake in 64 CE, both of which damaged the towns.
- The 79 CE eruption was immense, with lava, ash, pumice and lapilli covering the Campanian area.
- Pompeii and Herculaneum were covered in an (approximately) seven-metre layer of volcanic ash and pumice.
- It is unknown how many people died in Pompeii and Herculaneum.
- Death was caused by thermal shock, falling debris, hot ash and poisonous gases.
Early discoveries and the changing nature of excavations in the 19th and 20th centuries

- Many early excavations were more like treasure hunts. The excavators did not care about human remains or the damage they did to the sites.
- Fiorelli changed the approach to archaeology. He developed the *regio/insula* system, and documented his finds.
- Spinazzola took over in the early 20th century and systematically uncovered the main streets.
- Maiuri worked at a time of Italian nationalism and highlighted the connections between the sites and the glory of Rome.
- The focus is now on conservation rather than excavation, although more excavations have taken place since 2018.
CITIES OF VESUVIUS—POMPEII AND HERCULANEUM

Representations of Pompeii and Herculaneum over time

» Art from the period depicts the people and events of Pompeii, such as the earthquake of 63 CE.

» In the 18th and 19th centuries representations were romanticised and the towns were depicted as exotic and sensuous.

» Representations in the 20th century have generally taken a more objective approach.

» There are popular culture references to Pompeii and Herculaneum in The Simpsons, Doctor Who and in a number of movies and pop songs.
CITIES OF VESUVIUS—POMPEII AND HERCULANEUM

Investigating and interpreting the sources for Pompeii and Herculaneum 1

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CITIES OF VESUVIUS—POMPEII AND HERCULANEUM

Investigating and Interpreting the sources for Pompeii and Herculaneum 2
Different aspects of the local economy included markets and shops, providing business loans, slave trading, agricultural pursuits, including food production, and a range of industries.

The forum in Pompeii was an important economic centre, with the macellum (market) and mensa ponderaria (weights and measures table).

The main industries included production of olive oil, wine, garum (fish sauce), perfume and textiles (dyeing).

Pompeians participated in a range of occupations, including as gardeners, woodworkers, metalworkers, scribes, prostitutes and entertainers.

There were many small businesses such as bakeries, wine shops, cauponae (inns and taverns) and thermopolia (hot food shops).
The social hierarchy in Pompeii and Herculaneum reflected the model already firmly established in the empire by the 1st century CE.

Three general classes were to be found in the towns: freeborn, freedmen (ex-slaves, sometimes referred to as liberti) and slaves.

By the 1st century CE society was dominated by individualism and competition which led to greater social mobility.

Freedmen could achieve social standing through gaining wealth and patron–client relationships but could not become citizens.

However, their children could be citizens if they were born after the slave parents were freed.
Women of all classes are represented in Pompeii and Herculaneum.

Elite women included Mamia and Eumachia, who was patron of the fullers’ guild and had a large building on the forum dedicated to her. Both women were priestesses.

Women could run businesses, such as the tavern run by Asilene.

Slaves could be held in affection, as indicated by a gold bangle, found on a female skeleton, inscribed with ‘From the master, to his slave’.
Investigating and Interpreting the sources for Pompeii and Herculaneum

The political scene in Pompeii was dominated by four leading families, including the Holconii and Lucretti, who achieved their status and wealth through agriculture and trade.

Pompeii and Herculaneum were classed as Roman colonies.

Evidence for politics is found in the form of graffiti promoting political candidates.

The Ordo Decurionum contained 80 to 100 members, drawn from freeborn citizens of good reputation.

The highest elected magistrates were the quinquennials.

Duumvir were the two senior magistrates, elected annually. They administered electoral rolls and heard civil and criminal cases.

Aediles were junior magistrates, elected annually and responsible for the maintenance and upkeep of the cities.
CITIES OF VESUVIUS—POMPEII AND HERCULANEUM

Investigating and interpreting the sources for Pompeii and Herculaneum 7

- Houses had a richly decorated room called a *triclinium* used specifically for dining.

- Public entertainment was staged in the Grand Theatre, the *Odeon* and the amphitheatre.

- Leisure events in these arenas included gladiatorial and athletic contests, miming, plays, poetry readings, dancing, clown acts, juggling and musical entertainments.

- Pompeii and Herculaneum had a wide and exotic range of foods for consumption, including vegetables, fruit, oil, poultry, bread and fish.
The citizens of Pompeii and Herculaneum adopted their dress and fashion from Rome.

Males wore a tunic, which was the most basic form of clothing. It was similar to a long t-shirt and acted as the undergarment to the more elaborate toga.

Married women usually wore a stola, a long woolen gown that was usually pleated.

Fresh water was continuously supplied into private homes via lead piping and a nozzle.

Large aqueducts provided the towns’ water supply.

The water supply to the baths was not filtered and the water often became discoloured and led to increased health risks.
Religion in Pompeii was a mix of traditional Roman practices merged with elements from Greece and Egypt.

The local forum had ten temples, the most elaborate being that of the imperial cult.

Ancestor worship was practised as evidenced by the abundance of uncovered death masks.

Religion was organised at the state level and practised publicly and privately.

Greek religious influence is demonstrated by the Temple of Apollo, and references to Venus and Dionysus.

Worship of the Egyptian goddess Isis became popular among the nobility of Pompeii.
Herculaneum was named after the Greek hero Hercules.

The Greeks had occupied both towns from around the 6th century BCE and had laid out the grid system.

The Romans highly prized Hellenistic culture and incorporated Greek architecture, mythology and drama.

Egyptian plants and animals on a mosaic in the House of the Faun show an artistic influence.

Isis was very popular and is featured in frescoes, statues and dozens of household shrines.

Pompeii’s Temple of Isis was badly damaged in 63 CE but fully reconstructed by 79 CE.
Theories about the number of brothels have been an area of ongoing debate between Andrew Wallace-Hadrill and Thomas McGinn.

This has led to discussion around the nature of sexuality in Pompeii and Herculaneum.

Maiuri claimed that Pompeii’s economy was in decline after the earthquake of 63 CE, stating that the wealthy left the city and it was taken over by merchants and workers. He uses evidence of the ‘For Lease’ advertisement at the Praedia of Julia Felix to support this, showing that wealthy families had fallen on hard times.

Penelope Allison (1994) supports this view, stating that houses had taken on more functional than aesthetic styles, with tools found in living spaces, and squatters had most likely taken over houses.

Research by John Dobbins on the forum has challenged the notion that Pompeii was in economic decline.

Dobbins showed that the city was undergoing urban renewal, with new buildings and restoration taking place in the forum.
CITIES OF VESUVIUS—POMPEII AND HERCULANEUM

Reconstructing and conserving the past 2

- Scanning of papyrus scrolls from the Villa of the Papyri has shown the use of lead ink and that they are the works of a Greek philosopher named Philodemus.
- Estelle Lazer’s work in scanning the plaster casts of victims has given new evidence about the health of the people.
- The remains show generally good nutrition, which challenges the notion that sick people were left behind.
- Research on coprolites (ancient faeces) from Herculaneum show that the people had a diverse diet including fish, figs, fennel, olives, shellfish and molluscs, as well as some beef and mutton.
- Penelope Allison has used a database to track the contents of cupboards and objects from atria, showing that these were not just businesses but rather multipurpose spaces.
Many issues affect conservation, including weathering, animals and plants (weeds).
The sites are also affected by corruption.
Italy has undertaken the Great Pompeii Project in order to manage some of these issues.

Measures undertaken by the GPP include:
- securing unexcavated embankments and insulae (apartment buildings)
- consolidating and restoring masonry and decorated surfaces
- improving the video monitoring system
- protecting buildings from weather exposure.

UNESCO and the European Union have contributed millions of Euros to conserve Pompeii.
The Herculaneum Conservation Project and the University of Sheffield have been innovative in conservation measures.
Reconstructing and conserving the past 4

→ **Reconstruction has been undertaken** at various times.

→ **Spinazzola created drawings of Pompeii** based on archaeology and ancient writings.

→ **3D reconstructions** have been increasing, with Lund University creating a 3D walkthrough of the House of Jucundus.

→ **Physical reconstructions are difficult** as modern and ancient materials often do not mix. One example is Maiuri’s use of concrete and steel to restore buildings in the 1940s. Many of these are now suffering damage from rust and erosion due to poor restoration.

→ **The Herculaneum Conservation Project** has developed a ‘recipe’ for Roman-era mortar, the use of which has been helpful in reconstructions.

→ **Excavations began again in 2017**, with many new discoveries being announced in 2018 including new houses, frescoes and inscriptions.
There has been **tension between excavation and conservation**. There is a saying that ‘**to dig is to destroy**’ and there is much evidence to support this idea at both Pompeii and Herculaneum.

In the past, **the emphasis had been on excavation**. It is now accepted that conservation is preferable until archaeology has advanced to ensure non-invasive investigations.

However, there have been **new excavations allowed under Superintendent Massimo Ossana** to promote interest in Pompeii and to contribute towards ongoing costs at the sites. There were many new discoveries made in 2018.

**One site which has caused debate is the Villa of the Papyri**, with classical scholars deeply interested in further excavations of another library.
Guidelines regarding reconstruction and excavation exist and several organisations have outlined requirements, including the following:

- Responsibility begins with excavation.
- No treatment is to be used that may endanger the sites.
- Minimum intervention is recommended.
- Current reversible techniques should be used.
- All intervention should be detectable and documented.

Some contend that the sites will inevitably collapse and that it ‘is inappropriate to restore to a pristine state’ (Pye, 2001).

Preservation, restoration and reconstruction can ‘offer a highly distorted, fragmentary version of the past’ (Stille, 2003).
The European tradition of placing bodies on display has come under increasing scrutiny as a result of the developing awareness of some cultural groups and their opposition to such displays.

Estelle Lazer has emphasised the need not to ‘romanticise’ the victims and create stories about them, as this robs them of their real identities.

There is a need to consider the following questions:

- Are skeletal remains just like other artefacts?
- Who has custodianship of the human remains?
- How far can scientific specialists go to analyse human remains?
- Should the interests of one group outweigh those of another group?

Human remains and casts are now often sectioned off in a separate area of museums or exhibitions with a sign warning that human remains are present.

Holographs have sometimes been used instead of actual remains.
Three million tourists visit Pompeii annually and about 300,000 visit Herculaneum. They bring in valuable revenue and recognition but are destroying the towns, with footpaths wearing down which is causing exposed pipes and broken curbstones. Some tourists deliberately damage Pompeii, with modern graffiti and theft on the rise. Wallace-Hadrill has declared it the ‘second death of Pompeii’ whereas Mary Beard has stated that ‘it doesn’t really matter if tourists destroy’ Pompeii as there is still one-third of the site that remains unexcavated.
NEW KINGDOM EGYPT SOCIETY TO THE DEATH OF AMENHOTEP III

The historical and geographical context

- **Egypt was divided** into Upper and Lower Egypt.
- **The Nile was essential** for transport, trade, agriculture, drinking water, food, papyrus production and leisure.
- **The valley was desert** but annual floods left mass deposits of rich alluvial soil.
- **Egypt was surrounded** by desert to the east and west, cataracts on the Nile to the south, and the marshlands of the Delta to the north.
- **The rich soil** provided for the growing of crops.
- **Animal husbandry** included sheep, goats, pigs and geese.
- **Main sites** were Thebes (capital), Valley of the Kings (burial place) and Malkata (the palace of Amenhotep III).
The pharaoh was at the top of society and had the status of a god-king.

Beneath him there was a complex bureaucracy.

The king was assisted by the vizier and priests also held high status.

Artists and craftsmen were valued for their skill.

The peasants made up the bulk of the population.

Women’s status often relied on that of their husbands but they had the right to run businesses and obtain divorces.

The pharaoh had to uphold *maat*; that is, to protect Egypt and provide order.

The pharaoh maintained *maat* through his role as chief priest of all religious cults by making daily offerings to the gods and by filling the roles of chief judge and supreme commander of the army.
The pharaoh had to uphold the warrior pharaoh image by protecting his people and expanding Egypt’s borders.

Pharaohs used symbols such as the false beard, the *khepresh* (crown), the *was* sceptre, the *heqa* sceptre (crook and flail) and the *uraeus* (serpent) to represent their power.

Wars at the beginning of the New Kingdom resulted in the army becoming larger and more developed in this period.

Chariots, composite bows and *khopesh* swords were introduced.

Soldiers were used in battle but also on building programs in times of peace.

The army became a way for ordinary people to advance in society.

Financial rewards could result from enlistment in the army.
The economy

- Agriculture formed the backbone of the Egyptian economy.
- The Nile River (known as *iteru*, meaning ‘river’) was the heart of Egypt. It provided transport, fish, fowl, water for crops, mud for crops and building, and reeds for papyrus.
- Egypt’s main crops were wheat, barley, figs, lettuce, onions, leeks, dates and flax. It had mineral resources including copper, granite and limestone.
- The deben was the base unit of weight for bartering.
- Taxation was based on the level of flooding of the Nile and the cattle count.
- With the expansion of Egypt into surrounding areas, trade and booty became important for the economy, bringing in gold, cedar wood, ebony, ivory and incense.
- The Egyptians were skilled stoneworkers and used various kinds of stone for massive building projects and for small-scale statuary.
Religion, death and burial

- **Amun of Thebes was the state god** and was promoted by 18th Dynasty pharaohs.
- **However, Egyptians worshipped a pantheon** that included Isis, Hathor, Osiris and more.
- **The Temple of Karnak** was dedicated to Amun and massive building works were undertaken there by the pharaohs.
- **Festivals** such as Opet and the Beautiful Feast of the Valley were celebrations of the gods.
- **Egyptians believed in life after death** and undertook prayers, spells and the process of mummification to achieve immortality.
NEW KINGDOM EGYPT SOCIETY TO THE DEATH OF AMENHOTEP III

Cultural and everyday life

➤ **New developments in art** were made in the areas of sculpture, jewellery and wall paintings.

➤ **Writing and literature** flourished in New Kingdom Egypt. Common genres were royal inscriptions, religious texts and hymns, funerary texts, tomb biographies, wisdom literature and love poetry.

➤ **Important texts** included the Papyrus Lansing: *Be a Scribe* and the wisdom literature text *The Instruction of Ani*.

➤ **Leisure activities** included hunting, fishing, archery, boxing, wrestling and athletic games, singing and dancing, and board games.

➤ **Life expectancy** of New Kingdom Egyptians as revealed by human remains was less than 40 years.
The Minoan civilisation was located on the present-day island of Crete, which is part of Greece.

Its central location in the Mediterranean Sea made it suitable for trade with surrounding nations.

Resources included fish, octopus and shellfish, agriculture (grapes, olives, lemons, emmer and barley were the main crops) and animal husbandry.

The main sites were Knossos, Phaistos, Malia, Zakros, Aghia Triada and Gournia, all of which were central palace administration sites.
Minoan social structure is the subject of considerable debate.

It is unknown if the ruler was male or female.

Women are often depicted in priestess-style roles but some men are too.

It is thought the priestly class was the elite.

Women do seem to have higher social status as they are depicted on seals and frescoes.

A seal stone from Khania known as the Master Impression shows a huge male figure holding a sceptre standing over a palace or shrine. There has been much debate over whether this figure represents a male ruler or a god protecting the palace/shrine.

Agricultural workers and fishermen were important in society as they formed the basis of the economy.
The economy 1

- The palaces were the centre of economic life.
- The palaces controlled the collection and storage of goods, from both locally and overseas.
- The palaces also controlled the production of goods, and regulated trade and consumption of goods.
- Products included oil, wine, oxen, textiles, pottery and grains.
- Metal workshops were found in towns and in some palaces.
BRONZE AGE—MINOAN CRETE

The economy 2

- **Minoan traded** with Egypt, the Cyclades, Libya, Palestine, Asia Minor and mainland Greece.
- **Trade was usually controlled by rulers** and was generally tied to foreign relations.
- **Trade goods from Egypt** included papyrus, flax, stoneware, ivory, metals and gems.
- **The Minoans also traded** in wine, olive oil, finely painted pottery, wool and timber.
- **Thalassocracy means having a naval empire** and there is little doubt that the Minoans used the sea to their advantage.
- **The Minoans spread their culture and influence** throughout the Cyclades, the Near East and Egypt.
The most significant deity was the Great Goddess, who was probably based on the earth goddess.

The Great Goddess was associated with the Minotaur, who was variously represented as a bull, its horns or as a labrys (double-headed axe).

Important religious symbols were the labrys, the horns of consecration, snakes, trees, birds and baetyls (sacred stones).

Caves and pillar shrines were common places of cult activity, with offerings being made at these locations.

Tomb forms included cave, rock shelter, rock-cut, cist, house style, tholos and ‘royal’ tombs.

Tombs were often re-used.
Minoan palaces had common features, including:
- a central court, possibly for processions
- residential areas for the occupants
- theatrical areas, perhaps for religious reasons
- storage rooms and workshops, which indicate the role of the palaces in the economy
- a banquet hall on the upper levels
- complex drainage systems, showing advanced technology
- pillar crypts (in most).

Despite these common features there were individual differences among the palaces.
SPARTAN SOCIETY TO THE BATTLE OF LEUCTRA 371 BCE

The historical and geographical context

- **Sparta was located** on the Laconian Plain between Mt Parnon and Mt Taygetus, in the south of the Peloponnesian peninsula.
- **The fertile soil produced crops** such as wheat, barley, olives, figs and grapes.
- **Animal husbandry provided** meat, cheese, leather, skins and wool. Spartan wool was highly prized.
- **Other resources included** fish, shellfish, clay and iron.
- **Sparta was a combination of scattered villages.**
- **The synoecism of 900 BCE** brought these villages together as a single city-state, known as Sparta.
- **The city-state was naturally defended** by the surrounding mountains.
SPARTAN SOCIETY TO THE BATTLE OF LEUCTRA 371 BCE

Social structure and political organisation 1

- **Sparta was ruled by two kings** who had the right to declare war. They were involved in religious rituals and had judicial superiority.
- **One king would go to war** while the other remained to govern.
- **The gerousia were a council of elders** who advised the kings.
- **The ephors represented the five villages** in the *ekklesia*.
- **The ekklesia was the assembly** of eligible citizens.
- **Spartiates** (male Spartans over 30) **were at the top of society**. Some were wealthier than others although this was not generally acknowledged.
- **Perioikoi** (semi-independent settlers) **were important for the economy** as they undertook business and trade.
‘Inferiors’ were those who had lost status through cowardice or for other reasons.

Helots were a serf class who were exploited by the Spartans. They were repressed through various means, including the *krypteia*.

The training system for Spartan youth is outlined below.

- Babies were inspected at ten days to decide if they were fit.
- Boys began training (*agoge*) at the age of seven.
- From 18 they could join a barracks, a *syssition*, and become an active soldier.
- At 30 men became full citizens.

Women also undertook rigorous training in order to provide healthy children to the state.

Burial with headstones was reserved for men who died in battle and women who died in childbirth.
The economy

- Land was divided into lots (*kleros*) and worked by the helots. There has been much debate over whether the helots were privately or publicly owned, with some historians disputing the existence of the *kleros* as well.

- Helots provided food to the *syssition*. Once they had made their contribution to the *syssition* on behalf of their master, a helot could trade surplus produce with the *perioikoi*, who provided them with manufactured goods.

- Manufacturing and craftwork were conducted by the *perioikoi*.

- The medium of exchange, useful only within Sparta, was iron bars. However, *perioikoi* were permitted to trade in gold and silver.

- Bronze was an important industry in Sparta, as were pottery and textiles. Bronze was particularly important for its role in Spartan weaponry and armour.
Religion, death and burial

- The Spartans worshipped the Olympian gods and goddesses. They believed that the gods were responsible for every aspect of their lives.
- The main deities worshipped were Zeus, Artemis Orthia, Poseidon, Apollo and Athena.
- Mortals such as Helen, Agamemnon and Cassandra were also commemorated at shrines.
- The Spartans had myths relating to Lycurgus, the Dioscuri, Helen of Sparta and Herakles.
- Their main festivals were the Hyakinthia, Gymnopaedia and the Karneia.
- There is little information about burial customs other than for the kings.
SPARTAN SOCIETY TO THE BATTLE OF LEUCTRA 371 BCE

Cultural and everyday life

➤ Early Sparta celebrated a range of arts and crafts, including sculpture and pottery. This lessened with its focus on militarism.

➤ Two main poets were Alcman and Tyrtaeus. They wrote about Spartan life and rituals.

➤ Spartans enjoyed leisure activities that promoted fitness such as hunting, athletics and chariot racing.

➤ Non-Spartan Greek writers, such as Herodotus, Xenophon, Aristotle and Pausanius, were often admiring of the Spartan culture, leading to the Spartan Mirage.

➤ The Spartan Mirage was an idea proposed by François Ollier in 1933, stating that a major historical problem regarding Sparta is that all the surviving accounts were written by non-Spartans who often presented an overly idealised image of Sparta. His views are widely accepted.
ATHENIAN SOCIETY IN THE TIME OF PERICLES

The historical and geographical context

→ **Athens was located** five kilometres inland from the Aegean Sea and was surrounded by mountains.

→ **The region of Attica** surrounding Athens had fertile soil.

→ **The main crops** were grapes and olive oil.

→ **Mineral resources** included marble, silver and lead.

→ **Sheep and goats provided** meat along with wool for textiles and milk for cheese.

→ **The main sites** were Athens, containing the Agora, the Acropolis and temples, and the port of Piraeus, which was connected to Athens by the Long Walls.

→ **Piraeus provided access** to fish and seafood, and was also the major trading port.
Solon, a lawmaker of the 7th century BCE, created a social structure based on wealth not birth.

There were four classes of citizens:
- pentakosiomedimnoi (elites)
- hippeis (2nd class)
- zeugitai (3rd class)
- thetes (the lowest class).

This changed with the development of the Athenian Empire.

Metics were resident aliens.

Male citizens could participate in public office.

Women did not have many rights and were under the authority of their fathers or husbands.

The development of the Athenian army coincided with the imperial growth of the city-state during the wars against Persia and Sparta.

Military duty was dependent upon a person’s class and wealth.

The hippeis were the cavalry of the Athenian army.
ATHENIAN SOCIETY IN THE TIME OF PERICLES

Social structure and political organisation 2

- **Hoplites made up the largest section** of the army and acted as the infantry.
- **The wars against Persia** prompted the Athenians to invest heavily in a large naval build-up.
- **These naval forces were professional** and duties were largely carried out by the *thetes*.
- **The nature of Athenian democracy began to change** after the Greco–Persian Wars of 490–479 BCE.
- **The aristocrats** did not want to give the people more power but **the democrats** did.
- **The importance of the navy** meant that the *thetes* gained greater power.
- **Pericles** introduced pay for jurors, opened political positions and magistracies to all citizens, and formulated a new definition of citizenship.
- **The power of the *archons* was reduced** over time.
**The economy**

- The economy changed as **Athens appropriated the Delian League** into its own empire.
- **The Agora was the political and economic centre** of Athenian society.
- **Piraeus was the major port** and centre of trade.
- **The development of the Athenian Empire saw tribute and taxes flow in**, stimulating the economy and building programs.
- **The maintenance of the fleet** through *trierarchs* was a burden on the elite.
- **Athens relied on trade** in pottery along with stone masonry, metalworking, shipbuilding and silver mines.
- **Athens introduced** a system of coinage, weights and measures.
ATHENIAN SOCIETY IN THE TIME OF PERICLES

Religion, death and burial

- Features of religion included gods and goddesses, superstitions, sacred games, contests, religious festivals and cults.
- The cult of Athena Nike developed during this period and women were chosen as priestesses.
- As the patron of Athens, Athena Polieus (‘of the city’) was also significant.
- Zeus was a main god but there were also temples and shrines to Dionysus, Poseidon, Artemis, Demeter and heroes such as Theseus.
- Significant myths were those of Athena and Theseus.
- The Acropolis contained the main temples.
- Festivals included the Panathenaia, the Great Dionysia and the Thesmophoria.
ATHENIAN SOCIETY IN THE TIME OF PERICLES

Cultural and everyday life

- **Athenian art and architecture** was highly skilled, and included pottery and sculpture.

- **Education** was focused mainly on boys. Girls received only a domestic education.

- **Public sporting competitions** were a popular form of leisure, such as the Olympic and Panathenaic games.

- **Symposiums** were also popular leisure activities where educated men would gather to drink and discuss.

- **Women** generally had their husbands chosen for them by their father.
The historical context

- The New Kingdom began with the expulsion of the Hyksos. The Hyksos had introduced Egypt to new types of weapons such as the composite bow, khopesh sword and chariot. Egypt became much more warlike and nationalistic as a result of their influence.

- Hatshepsut’s father was not directly related to the previous kings so she had to legitimise her rule in other ways.

- Thutmose II had only held the throne for a short period and Thutmose III was very young when he died.

- Egypt was beginning to expand into other regions during this time.

- Amun-Re was growing in importance as the state god. Amun was a local Theban god who was promoted through the early 18th dynasty pharaohs in thanks for their deliverance from the Hyksos.
Hatshepsut was the daughter of Thutmose I, who had begun expanding Egypt’s boundaries, and Ahmose.

She was depicted as a traditional queen while married to Thutmose II.

It appears she placed great importance on her bloodline and used this to legitimise her claim to the throne (her stepson Thutmose III was the son of a lesser wife).

In the Divine Birth and Coronation reliefs she claimed descent from Amun and also that her father chose her as successor.

These scenes were depicted both in her mortuary temple at Deir el-Bahri and in the Red Chapel she constructed at Karnak. It was her way of legitimising her rule.
Hatshepsut changed her image over time, from a conformist queen shown making offerings behind Thutmose II, to a conformist king (e.g. as a warrior pharaoh and sphinx).

There were phases in between to show her experimentation with imagery, such as being portrayed in a feminine form while making offerings in a masculine pose.

Reliefs and statuary represented her as male but pronouns used to describe her remained female.

Hatshepsut represented herself to the people in ways they could understand. The people of Egypt were used to seeing a male king so Hatshepsut confirmed to those expectations. However, as Gay Robins states: ‘We have no idea how she dressed in real life.’
Egypt—Hatshepsut

Key features and developments 2

- New Kingdom pharaohs were expected to undertake large building programs as a form of religious, political and economic propaganda.

- Hatshepsut upheld this through her buildings at Deir-el Bahri, Karnak, Beni Hasan (Speos Artemidos) and her tombs. These showed her connection to a range of gods.

- Her buildings emphasised her relationship with Amun-Re, acted as propaganda to legitimise her claim to the throne, and reflected Egypt’s growing prosperity.

- Hatshepsut built obelisks at Karnak to show her connection to her father, Thutmose I, and to Amun-Re, and she is shown as a traditional king. Speos Artemididos/Beni Hassan was built to the war-goddess Pakhet, to indicate Hatshepsut’s strength, as well as her determination to rebuild after the damage of the Hyksos to further legitimise her claim to the throne.
EGYPT—HATSHEPSUT

Key features and developments 3

- Hatshepsut needed to legitimise and consolidate her position as pharaoh so she created stronger links with Amun-Re and its priesthood.

- Hatshepsut set new standards of promoting and expressing devotion to Amun-Re.

- Her building program reflected commitment to Amun-Re as seen in features at Karnak (e.g. pylons, chapels, obelisks and the Red Chapel).

- Her mortuary temple became a cult temple for Amun-Re and was part of the procession during the Beautiful Feast of the Valley.

- Amun-Re was her justification for going to Punt.

- Hatshepsut also created monuments and repaired temples for other gods.
Hatshepsut’s reign is acknowledged as being peaceful and prosperous and, as such, *maat* was upheld.

Some modern historians have criticised her for the lack of military campaigns but this is not supported by the evidence (e.g. a campaign in Nubia).

There is still debate as to why Thutmose III erased her images but consensus is moving towards seeing these actions as an attempt to legitimise his son’s succession.

Hatshepsut developed festivals to give the people more involvement in religion but she perhaps accorded too much power to the Amun-Re priesthood.
EGYPT–AKHENATEN

The historical context, and background and rise to prominence

➔ The 18th Dynasty saw Egypt become wealthier and more powerful than ever before.
➔ The rise of the cult of Amun-Re undermined the prestige of the god-king. However, the priesthood was still directly answerable to the king.
➔ Under Amenhotep II and Thutmose IV there had begun a movement towards a solar theology as shown through the Sphinx Dream Stela of Thutmose IV and the solar temple built to the Sphinx near the Giza pyramids.
➔ This continued with Amenhotep III and his building of Malkata which was originally known as ‘The House of the Dazzling Aten’.
➔ Akhenaten married Nefertiti before he took the throne. Her origins are unknown.
Akhenaten retained his birth name, royal titles and traditional poses in representations until Year 5 of his reign.

From Year 5 his image underwent various transformations as he experimented with artistic forms.

He was eventually shown in a ‘realistic’ style with an elongated face, pot belly and wide hips.

Some traditional aspects remained as he, as king, was still larger than others depicted and was shown as a warrior pharaoh (in a chariot and as a sphinx).

In the middle phase he is shown as being emotional over the death of his daughter.
- Akhenaten’s building program began at Karnak, although it was outside the tenemos wall and was dedicated to Aten.

- He moved the capital to Akhetaten as it was untouched ground and its landscape resembled the hieroglyph for ‘horizon’.

- Akhetaten was divided into four distinct areas: the North City (for the elite); the Central City (administration and temple to Aten); the Southern Suburbs (housing and workshops); and Maru-aten, an oasis of gardens, ponds and sunshades.

- Cemeteries were also in the outer limits.

- The use of small talatat blocks allowed for speedy construction.
Worship of the Aten was not new but Akhenaten articulated its ideas more explicitly than previously.

Akhenaten imposed a close working relationship between himself and the Aten. He worshipped the Aten and his people worshipped Akhenaten.

Previous myths were abandoned and while the Aten was now the source of all life, there was no accompanying mythology to explain why or how this was.

At Akhetaten amulets of traditional gods were found and, after Akhenaten’s death, chapels to these gods were also built.
Traditionally Akhenaten has been seen as ignoring the empire. However, different readings of the Amarna Letters have challenged this.

He undertook campaigns against the Apiru, Syrians, Nubians and Hittites.

Akhenaten may have allowed Mitanni to be taken by the Aziru and Hittites. The Hittites were powerful: they had iron weapons and outnumbered the Egyptians so Akhenaten may have realised it was too difficult to challenge them.

Some historians have blamed Akhenaten’s preoccupation with religion for his attitude towards Egypt’s foreign policies.
Akhenaten’s policies were not sustained after his death and his successors ensured they distanced themselves from him.

Tutankhamun erected the Restoration Stela, indicating a return to polytheism. He rejected his birth name, Tutankhaten, and took on the name Tutankhamun, again connecting the pharaoh to the god Amun-Re.

The city of Akhetaten declined and was eventually dismantled.

Horemheb created the Great Edict to show a return to order. The Great Edict was Horemheb’s claim that he put an end to lawlessness in the land by putting a stop to tax cheating and corruption, as well as by re-establishing law courts. However, it should be noted that pharaohs often made their (unrelated) predecessors look bad to make themselves look good.

It appears that even during his reign nobles made opportunities to be buried elsewhere, illustrating a rejection of his theology.
The historical context, and background and rise to prominence

- The Persian Empire was the largest the world had seen. It lasted for over 200 years and extended from the Indus and Oxus rivers, to the Nile and the Aegean Sea, including the eastern Mediterranean, northern Greece, Egypt, central Asia, Pakistan and northern India.

- Greek cities under Persian control resented this power.

- The Persian king was seen to be divine and absolute.

- Xerxes succeeded to the kingship as he was born after his father Darius took the throne.
Xerxes inherited an effective and efficient administration, both domestic and imperial, from his father Darius I.

Satrapies were governed by satraps who implemented a highly bureaucratic system within their provincial satrapy.

The satraps were regarded as protectors of the realm of the kingdom. Satraps collected taxes, controlled local officials, subject tribes and cities, and were the supreme judges of the province. They were responsible for the safety of the roads and had to deal with brigands and put down rebellions.

The Royal Road and standard weights and measures helped with trade and communications.

There were revolts in Egypt and Babylon from c.486–482 BCE but Xerxes successfully subdued these.
The Near East—Xerxes

Key features and developments 2

- There is debate over whether Xerxes was a religious extremist or whether he upheld the standard ideology of the Achaemenid Dynasty.

- Much of this debate comes from the *Daeva inscription* where Xerxes speaks of punishing demons. However, historians such as Heleen Sancisi-Weerdenburg state that this has been misinterpreted. It is meant only as a general statement about Xerxes’s own religious beliefs, not his role as a missionary.

- Xerxes destroyed Greek temples, most likely to deprive them of access to their gods, but he also worshipped at Greek temples, such as the Temple of Athena at Troy.

- He promoted the religion of Zoroastrianism as a unifying force within the empire.
The Near East—Xerxes

Key features and developments 3

- **Xerxes’s image** is consistent with Achaemenid ideology.
- **Xerxes is depicted** as chosen by his father and Ahuramazda, and as supporting belief in truth speaking and upholding integrity.
- **Achaemenid kingship** was not considered divine but it had the divine support of Ahura Mazda.
- Greek writers such as Herodotus often showed Xerxes having much more power than he would have had in reality. This was to ***emphasise the triumph of the Greeks*** in overcoming the power of the Persian Empire and Xerxes.
- **In the Treasury relief at Persepolis** Xerxes is shown seated on a throne, with curled hair and a smooth crown on his head. He holds a sceptre and a bunch of lotus flowers.
- The Persian Empire was vast and the people illiterate so **the Achaemenids would have relied on formulaic beliefs to assert power and authority.**
Xerxes continued Darius’s strategy of consolidating and tightening control of the empire, particularly in Egypt, Babylon and Asiatic Greece.

Xerxes invaded Greece because he felt he could not fall short of Darius’s ambition to punish Greece.

He hoped to frighten the Greeks into submission and, failing that, planned to conquer Greece in battle.

He believed that the Ionians should remain part of the Persian Empire and not corrupt themselves through associating with Greeks, who endorsed slavery.

The loss was not especially significant for Persia.
Evaluation

› Greek writers have been harsh towards Xerxes, using him as an example of the dangers of hubris.

› In reality his loss in Greece did not greatly harm the Persian Empire. The rest of his reign was peaceful and he expanded the borders of the empire.

› The empire was left mostly intact during Xerxes’s reign and was not really threatened until 150 years later during the campaigns of Alexander.

› Xerxes presided over a stable and economically viable state.

› His death was possibly the result of palace conspiracies.

› Xerxes’s legacy of Persepolis is significant as it is a World Heritage site.
The historical context, and background and rise to prominence

- The Roman Empire had been expanding throughout the region.
- The Senate and the people were in conflict as they had differing needs and aims.
- There had been a surge in the power of popular generals who controlled armies.
- Julius Caesar was born into a poor but elite family.
- His early career was marred by the conflict between Marius and Sulla.
- Caesar’s early career was respectful of Roman tradition. He was enrolled as Chief Priest of Jupiter, Flamen Dialis, but was prevented from taking up this position by Sulla. Caesar was accorded the Corona Civica after the Battle of Myteline.
- Up to 60 CE Caesar held positions as tribune, quaestor, aedile and Pontifex Maximus.
ROME—JULIUS CAESAR

Key features and developments 1

→ Caesar was elected quaestor for Spain in 69 BCE.
→ He accumulated huge debts by borrowing money to stage games.
→ Caesar’s early career was marked by the following steps:
  ▪ In 65 BCE he was elected aedile.
  ▪ In 64 BCE he supported agrarian land reforms which would have seen land redistributed to the poor.
  ▪ In 63 BCE he was elected Pontifex Maximus.
  ▪ In 62 BCE he was elected praetor and began to work with Pompey.
  ▪ In 61 BCE he obtained Further Spain as a province and amassed enough money to repay his debts.
→ Caesar returned to Rome for the consular elections and a triumph, which was denied him by the Senate.
Caesar, Pompey and Crassus joined together in a triumvirate in 60 BCE in order to fulfil mutual needs.

As consul in 59 BCE Caesar could give Pompey and Crassus what they wanted, while they provided support through clients and their wealth.

Caesar operated illegally, using Pompey’s veterans to force his bills through the assembly and ignoring the veto of the tribunes and his fellow consul.

The First Triumvirate fell apart due to the deaths of Crassus and Julia (Caesar’s daughter and Pompey’s wife) and Pompey’s increasing sympathy with the Senate.
Caesar was well loved by his army as he was a brilliant strategist and brave fighter, and he experienced the same hardships as his men.

His military capabilities and victories in Gaul earned him the trust of his army and popularity in Rome.

The size and experience of his army worried the Senate, which also did not like Caesar’s populares sympathies.

Violence in Rome grew due to the efforts of the tribune, Clodius, acting on behalf of Caesar. Pompey tried to enact laws that would limit Caesar’s access to power but these were vetoed by the tribune Curio.

The senators thought Caesar might march on Rome.

The Senate ordered Caesar to return to Rome as a citizen to face trial for illegal actions, thus backing him into a corner. Caesar offered to compromise but the Senate refused.
The Civil War broke out when Caesar led his army into Italy and towards Rome. Crossing the Rubicon, without permission from Rome, meant Caesar was a hostile general illegally in command of an army advancing on the city.

Caesar was able to win because his army was experienced and loyal, he was a good strategist, and Pompey made too many mistakes and lost the support of his army.

Many Italians believed that Caesar was the better man and supported his cause.

Caesar won the Battle of Pharsalus and was made dictator.
Evaluation

- Caesar was dictator for 11 days and then stepped down. He was made dictator twice more and then, in 45 BCE, **he was made dictator for life.**
- **His reforms alienated the Senate:** its members felt he was mocking the Republic by retaining its institutions but denying them a say.
- **A group of conspirators** led by Cassius, Brutus, Decimus and Trebonius planned his assassination.
- The conspirators, who called themselves the ‘liberators’, struck in Pompey’s Senate house on the **Ides (15th) of March in 44 BCE.**
- **Caesar’s assassination set off another civil war** which would see his nephew and adopted heir Octavian take on the role of *princeps.*
After Octavian won the war against Mark Antony he assumed the title/name of Augustus and became sole ruler of Rome.

The Senate was still active but Augustus had control over key areas of government and the army.

The princeps was not intended to be hereditary but it became so. As such, imperial women had an important role to play in ensuring the succession.

Agrippina was directly descended from Augustus through her mother and grandmother.

This lineage made her an important woman in Roman society and dynastic politics.
Agrippina’s father Germanicus died when she was four.

When Agrippina the Younger was 17 her mother, Agrippina I, and two of her brothers were imprisoned by Tiberius and later died.

She married her first husband G Domitius Ahenobarbus when she was 13 and they had a son, Nero.

Being a mother gave her status.

Her second husband, Sallustius Passienus Crispus, was wealthy and this protected her from Claudius’s wife Messalina.

She married her uncle, the Emperor Claudius, in 49 CE.
Gaius (Caligula) celebrated the imperial family and they were honoured with oaths by the Praetorian Guard and the Senate.

Agrippina and her sisters were made honorary Vestal Virgins and appeared on coins.

Gaius’s illness and the death of Drusilla changed him and he became unreliable and unreasonable.

Agrippina was accused of treason in the Lepidus affair and was exiled with her surviving sister Livilla to the Pontian islands.

Her son Nero went to live with his aunt, Domitia Lepida.
When Claudius took the throne he brought Agrippina back from exile.

Claudius’s wife, Messalina, felt threatened by Agrippina’s bloodline and son, so to protect herself Agrippina married Crispus, perhaps on Claudius’s orders.

After the Messalina conspiracy, Claudius needed a wife to consolidate his power and he chose Agrippina.

Together they ruled effectively with the Senate.

Agrippina manipulated the situation to ensure the succession of Nero.

Claudius died (possibly suspiciously) in 54 CE.
Agrippina had significant power and influence during Nero’s early reign, along with Seneca and Burrus.

Nero’s chosen watchword for the guard was ‘Best of Mothers’.

Agrippina appeared on the front of coins, sat behind a curtain in the Senate, rode in a carpentum, was given two lictors and received envoys.

She was made priestess of the Cult of the Divine Claudius, which gave her additional powers.

The first two years of Nero’s reign were relatively successful. Agrippina was given many privileges and corruption appears to have declined. However, the influence of Seneca and Burrus was increasing.
ROME—AGrippina the Younger

Evaluation

⇒ As he grew older Nero wanted to assert his independence and he clashed with Agrippina.

⇒ Nero arranged to have her killed, and after several attempts succeeded.

⇒ Agrippina was influential in Nero’s and Claudius’s reigns in terms of the work they did with the Senate.

⇒ She left behind coins, statues and the veterans’ colony in Germany.

⇒ Agrippina’s most lasting legacy was her son Nero and the damage he did as princeps.
NEW KINGDOM EGYPT TO THE DEATH OF THUTMOSE IV

Background and context

- **Egypt had been united** since c.3200 BCE. It had remained relatively stable but the wealth and power of its rulers rose and fell from time to time.

- **Egypt had an Ennead of nine major gods**, the most important of which were Re, the sun god, and Osiris, god of the dead. Other important gods were Ptah, Isis, Anubis and Horus.

- **The Second Intermediate Period** was a time when Egypt was vulnerable to the Hyksos.

- **Egypt’s life was centred around the Nile River**, which provided not just water but transportation, food, soil for agriculture and more.

- **Egypt had been relatively isolated** up to this time, with only some interaction with other powers.
The Hyksos were ‘rulers of foreign lands’ who gradually took over Egypt.

They brought with them the chariot, composite bow and *khopesh sword*, all of which the Egyptians adopted, and in some cases, adapted.

The Theban kings began the expulsion of the Hyksos with Seqenenere Tao II, and this continued with Kamose and Ahmose.

Ahmose I, the first king of the 18th Dynasty, completed the expulsion.

The Hyksos made Egypt desire security and expansionism in the New Kingdom.
Queens played a more important role than ever before.

This was due to the queens of the late 17th and early 18th Dynasties helping Egypt regain control of its destiny.

Tetisheri was Ahmose’s grandmother and acted as regent for him.

Ahhotep (possibly two of them) played important roles in supporting Ahmose and Kamose. They both had military items in their tombs.

Ahmose-Nefertari was the wife of Ahmose I and became Second Prophet of Amun and was later deified.

The importance of queens was demonstrated in the creation of the new vulture headdress symbolising the goddess Nekhbet of Upper Egypt and to this was added the double uraeus which symbolised Wadjyt, the goddess of Lower Egypt.
Amun was a local Theban god and was adopted as the new state god with the expulsion of the Hyksos.

This move was a way of unifying the country.

Pharaohs looked to Amun to legitimise their claim to the throne.

The Amun priesthood was very influential but the king still had the most power.

Building programs were undertaken to promote the ideology of the god-king, to act as propaganda, to show the wealth and status of Egypt, and to show the connection between the king and the gods.

The Temple of Karnak was the main location for building in order to show the king’s relationship with Amun.

Temples to other gods were also built throughout Egypt.

Fortresses and garrisons were built as the empire expanded.
Internal development 4

- Egypt had a complex bureaucracy which supported its economy.
- The bureaucracy also supported religion and the military.
- The vizier was second in power to the king. His role was to supervise building programs, justice, foreign tributes and taxes.
- The Viceroy of Kush was the governor of Nubia and supervised Egyptian interests there and took action against uprisings.
- The First Prophet of Amun was the most important religious role and supervised the other cults.
- This role was appointed by the king.
- The increasingly militaristic nature of New Kingdom Egypt saw the army grow in importance. Military officials, such as Ahmose, son of Ebana, were able to rise through the ranks to be important advisors to the Pharaoh.
The army became increasingly important because of the wars that took place at the beginning of the New Kingdom.

The Egyptians developed a professional standing army that also used mercenaries from other areas.

They adapted the chariot so it was lighter and faster.

They also adopted the composite bow with great success.

The army was vital for Egypt’s expansion.

Being in the army was a way to gain rewards for service and to advance through the ranks.
Expansion of Egypt’s boundaries 2

- Egypt had two main spheres of influence: Nubia and Syria–Palestine.
- These had come about as a result of expansion by Ahmose I, Thutmose I and Thutmose III.
- Nubia was exploited for its gold and other natural resources. Egypt placed a governor and fortresses there to keep it under control.
- They also took chieftains’ children as hostages.
- Syria–Palestine was allowed to retain independence as long as it sent regular tribute.
- Garrisons kept watch and the children of the rulers were also taken as hostages.
The Greek World 500-440 BCE

The context of Ancient Greece in the Mediterranean and the Near East

- Athens and Sparta had developed as independent Greek city-states with differing political systems.
- Athens was democratic, although in its early days this was fairly limited.
- Sparta was an oligarchy.
- Persia had expanded its empire under Darius I.
- The Greeks in Ionia began revolting in 499 BCE, and the Athenians and Eretrians supported them.
- Athens became involved because of concerns about trade.
- Persia then wanted to invade Greece for interfering in Ionia, and in order to expand its empire further.
→ Darius sent envoys to Greece to express his intent to invade.

→ Though the envoys were executed in Athens and Sparta the Greek response was not initially unified.

→ The Battle of Marathon was a success for the Greeks and gave them confidence.

→ Athens increased its status via its role in the conflict due to its actions in the Battle of Marathon.

→ Local conflicts within Greece soon re-arose. There were continuing tensions between the Athenians and the Spartans and their spheres of influence.
Darius died before he could organise another invasion.

His son Xerxes took over but first had to deal with revolts in Babylon and Egypt.

Xerxes undertook preparations, such as building a canal and bridge and organising supply lines.

Athens built the Long Walls to Piraeus for protection.

It also and undertook a massive boat-building program.

Athens recalled competent military leaders from exile.

Sparta promised to contribute 40,000 hoplites and 350 ships.
When the Persians invaded, many Greek city-states in the north submitted.

The first conflict was at Thermopylae, followed by Artemesium.

Neither conflict was decisive but the Persians were able to get through Attica and destroy Athens.

The naval Battle of Salamis inflicted enormous losses on the Persians.

The Persians were finally fully defeated after the battles of Plataea and Mycale.
The leadership of Themistocles, Leonidas, Pausanias and Eurybiades was critical for the Greeks.

Their use of strategy made the best of difficult situations.

Greek hoplites and the navies had proven themselves.

The unification of the Greeks meant they were a more cohesive force than the Persians.

This, coupled with the idea that they were fighting for their homeland, made them a formidable foe.

Luck also played a part, with storms damaging the Persian fleet.
The Athenians took the leadership role after the invasions.

They promoted the Delian League, an organisation based on the defence of Greece.

As time went on the League became more about Athens developing an empire rather than protecting Greece.

Athens became very wealthy and powerful and did not tolerate city-states that were not loyal to it.

As imperialism expanded so Athenian democracy became more radical.
THE GREEK WORLD 500–440 BCE

Athens and Sparta

➢ While Athens was committed to democracy, Sparta remained an oligarchy.

➢ The Peloponnesian League was renewed, with Sparta at its head.

➢ This was because of Spartan concerns about the growth of Athenian imperialism.

➢ Conflict arose when Sparta rebuffed an offer of assistance from Athens.

➢ In 459 BCE Athens took advantage of a war between Megara and Corinth.

➢ This led to the First Peloponnesian War in which Athens fought intermittently against Sparta, Corinth and Aegina.

➢ This conflict came to an end in 445 BCE.
Political developments in the late republic 1

- Rome was governed by an elite Senate which was corrupt and self-serving.
- Rome had been expanding its borders and now covered a massive area.
- The consul and general Sulla introduced reforms through a dictatorship he achieved by marching on Rome, thereby setting a precedent.
- Sulla tried to legislate against powerful generals and tribunes but these moves were unsuccessful.
- Sulla also sponsored Pompey, which would create problems in the future.
Pompey was a general and politician who had won significant military victories.

Pompey was very popular with the people.

He became increasingly aligned with the optimates, the elite of Rome.

Cicero was a novus homo who wanted to save the Republic and, in doing so, he compromised laws by executing traitors without trial in the Catiline conspiracy.

Cicero also promoted Pompey.

These two men undermined the stability of Rome through their actions.
The First Triumvirate was an agreement between Caesar, Pompey and Crassus.

In return for electoral support, Caesar promised as consul to favour Pompey and Crassus.

As consul Caesar made laws which were illegal.

These would later come back to haunt him.

Caesar transferred Clodius to the equestrian class to be a tribune so he could control the voting in that assembly.

The triumvirate ended when both Julia (Caesar’s daughter and Pompey’s wife) and Crassus died.
The Senate was the governing body of Rome and was made up of elite and wealthy patricians.

The Senate was hostile to anyone who tried to compromise its powers and the senators were worried about the popularity of Julius Caesar.

As a result of this they promoted Pompey.

The Senate deliberately made laws which provoked Caesar and led to the Civil War.

Members of the Senate were involved in the assassination of Caesar as they were worried that he would assume the kingship.
The optimates were the ‘best men’; that is, the conservative elite of Rome.

The populares were those who believed in a kind of equality.

The optimates wanted to preserve their privilege and power.

There had been tension between the optimates and the populares for decades, and these tensions increased during this period.

Both sides used the mechanisms of government—the optimates used the Senate and the populares used the tribunes’ vetoes—to gain what they wanted.

Neither were ‘political parties’; rather they were ideological movements.
THE FALL OF THE ROMAN REPUBLIC 78–31 BCE

Political developments in the late republic 6

- Caesar won the Civil War against Pompey and, as a result, was made dictator several times.
- The last occasion was in 45 BCE when he was made dictator for life.
- Caesar enacted reforms to help the people, which alienated the Senate.
- Caesar’s acceptance of a dictatorship for life made the Senate and others concerned that he was aiming to be king, which was abhorrent in Rome.
- Caesar was assassinated by a group of senators and others, who believed they were liberating Rome.
- This led to the Civil War between Octavian and Antony.
Pompey was given extraordinary commands to conquer the East. He managed to subdue Judea, Syria, Bithynia and Pontus.

This became known as the Eastern Settlement. However, the Senate did not ratify the Settlement for a long time and refused to provide land for Pompey’s veterans, thus causing tension.

Caesar took control of Gaul, part of Germany and the south of Britain. However, despite his victories, Caesar’s prolonged absence from Rome allowed his enemies to work against him.

These wars of expansion made both Caesar and Pompey very powerful and wealthy, and also provided them with seasoned armies. This would prove problematic, as the Senate did not know how to handle them.
Fall of the republic

- Octavian was named as Caesar’s heir, which upset Mark Antony.
- Together with Lepidus he formed the Second Triumvirate, which was a ruling body.
- Eventually the triumvirate broke down and there was war between Antony and Octavian.
- Octavian was more popular than Antony as he was a relative of Caesar’s and had been successful in his campaigns. Antony was neither.
- Octavian won and was declared princeps on his return to Rome.
- The Roman Republic had ended.
Augustus had ruled over a stable Rome from 27 BCE to 14 CE.

He had changed the nature of Roman government from a Republic with a powerful Senate to a princeps who held the most power.

The Senate still retained some power and influence, and Augustus worked with them.

Augustus had nominated several successors but they had all died during his reign.

When he died his stepson Tiberius took on the role of princeps.
→ Tiberius was a Claudian by birth and had been a successful general.

→ He attempted to work with the Senate but, wanting to have their power returned, the senators were resistant to this.

→ Tiberius maintained the borders of the empire according to Augustus’s wishes.

→ Disillusioned, Tiberius withdrew from Rome, leaving the ambitious Praetorian prefect Sejanus in charge.

→ Sejanus was eventually arrested and executed.

→ Tiberius’s building program consisted of completing Augustus’s works.
After Tiberius, the young Gaius (Caligula) was greeted enthusiastically.

His parents, Germanicus and Agrippina I, had been very popular.

At first he was capable but, after an illness, he became irrational.

Hostilities with the Senate ensued as he reduced their powers.

He built a new amphitheatre, a racecourse, two massive ships and a pontoon, and improved the harbour at Rhegium.

The Praetorian Guard grew in importance under Macro, who was later executed.

A member of the Praetorian Guard assassinated Gaius in 41 CE.
Claudius was appointed *princeps* by the Praetorian Guard after Gaius’s assassination.

His partial disability had led him to pursue a life of scholarship.

Claudius tried to work with the Senate but they continued to be hostile.

His wife Messalina betrayed him and was executed for this.

He then married his niece Agrippina, who manipulated Nero into the succession. Agrippina was popular with the army and Praetorian Guard.

Claudius undertook the improvement of Rome’s infrastructure with projects such as the building of roads and aqueducts.

Claudius died in mysterious circumstances in 54 CE.
Nero was a direct descendant of Augustus.

His first few years in power were stable due to the influence of his mother Agrippina, and Seneca and Burrus.

As he got older Augustus wanted more independence and to follow his artistic inclinations.

He had Agrippina assassinated.

After Rome was burned Nero undertook a massive new palace building program, which alienated the people.

He mocked the Senate and reduced their powers.

He committed suicide in 68 CE.
The empire

- The Praetorian Guard started out as an elite bodyguard for the princeps and the imperial family.

- Due to their proximity to the princeps they became increasingly powerful, as seen through Sejanus, Macro and Burrus, and also via their role in establishing Claudius as princeps.

- Due to the militaristic start to the empire under Caesar and Augustus it was important for the princeps to have a good relationship with the army.

- The different princeps did this in different ways, either through bonuses, the establishment of colonies or the spoils to be gained from conflicts.