

6th SS LEAP Practice Workbook  
Week 2

1. Complete each day's work.



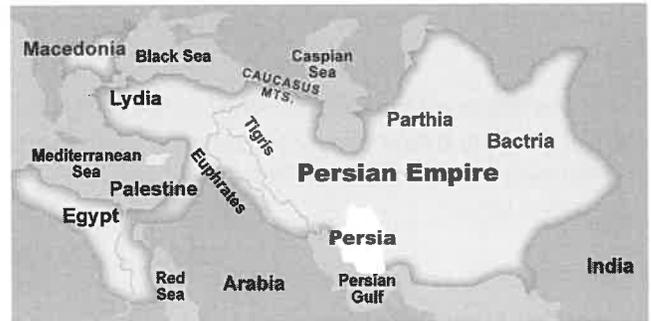
Week 2 Day 1



## Major Wars and Conquest in Ancient Greece and Beyond

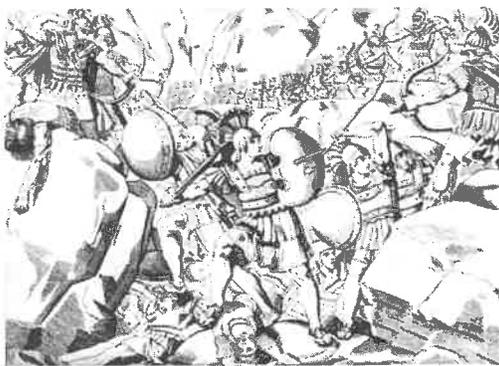
### The Greco-Persian Wars

By around 500 BCE, Persia (centered around what is modern-day Iran) was quickly expanding its borders by conquering neighboring civilizations. It was only a matter of time before the Persian King Darius I, or Darius the Great, turned his attention to Greece. In 491 BCE, he sent ambassadors to Greece, demanding that it become part of his empire. To make sure Darius understood their answer was “no,” the Greeks responded by killing his messengers.



*Persian Empire*

Of course, the Greek response meant armed conflict with Persia, and the **Greco-Persian Wars** broke out. The initial Persian invasion went well, but at the **Battle of Marathon** on the road to Athens, a Greek force crushed Darius’ army. This defeat only increased Darius’ drive to subjugate Greece, but he died in 486 BCE.



*Battle of Thermopylae*

Six years later, Darius’ son Xerxes landed on Greece’s eastern coast with a massive army. They marched out, only to be intercepted by the Spartans at a narrow mountain pass called **Thermopylae**. For three days there in a battle that would become legendary, the massively outnumbered Spartans held tenaciously on as Xerxes launched massive attacks. Although the Persians killed every Spartan defender of Thermopylae and immediately sacked Athens and other Greek city-states after the battle, the Spartans’ stand gave the Athenian navy under Themistocles time to regroup. At the **Battle of Salamis**, Themistocles lured the Persian navy into the Straits of Salamis, where he destroyed it.

Still, Xerxes would not give up. He ordered one of his generals to press the invasion, and a confrontation on land between two massive armies became inevitable. The final major battle of the Greco-Persian War occurred at **Plataea** in 479 BCE, where a Greek army made up of soldiers from dozens of city-states employed the phalanx formation to defeat the Persians. Against all odds, the Greeks had ensured the mighty Persians would never add Greece to their empire.

### The Peloponnesian Wars

Unsurprisingly, Athens and Sparta emerged from the Greco-Persian Wars stronger than ever. Ironically, however, these city-states’ newfound strength would lead to Ancient Greece’s downfall. No longer content with their own territory, both Athens and Sparta sought to extend their spheres of influence throughout Greece. Predictably, they, along with many of their satellite city-states, collided violently in what became known as the **Peloponnesian Wars**. This term refers to several wars fought between Greek city-states, but the most significant one, by far, was the **Second Peloponnesian War** (431-404 BCE) fought



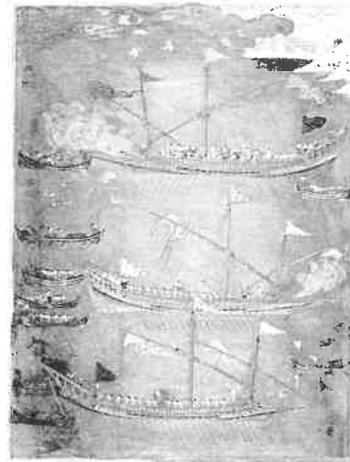
*Athenian Army in Sicily during the Second Peloponnesian War*

between Athens and Sparta.

With Athens primarily a sea-power and Sparta relying mostly on its armies, the Second Peloponnesian War was not immediately decided by one battle; instead, it became a war of raids. Usually, this involved Sparta launching raids into Athenian-held territory, but, at times, Athens sailed raiders into Spartan territory. The job of raiders, no matter whose side they were on, was to damage their opponents' economy and spread terror by inflicting destruction.

In 415 BCE, the Athenians launched the most ambitious campaign of the war when they invaded Sicily. A total failure, the invasion of Sicily cost the Athenians an entire fleet, which was destroyed when the Spartans annihilated it in the Syracuse harbor.

The Athenians consistently refused to fight a battle on land, so, eventually, the Spartans built a massive fleet so the war might be decided at sea. The Athenians had dominated the seas around Greece for centuries, but the Spartans managed to crush the Athenians at the naval **Battle of Aegospotami** in 405 BCE. The Athenians sued for peace, and Sparta won the Second Peloponnesian War.



*Ancient Naval Battle*

Sparta may have achieved victory, but the Peloponnesian Wars were a defeat for Greek civilization and culture as a whole. The Greek city-states and countryside were devastated by almost three decades of raids and sieges. The unity that had characterized Greek culture fractured due to the bad feelings created by the atrocities committed by both sides during the war. Sparta would soon find itself in wars with other city-states, and Persian influence would increase in Greece. But, most crucially, the Peloponnesian Wars weakened Greece to the point that it would quickly fall to the Macedonian invasion in the fourth century BCE, paving the way for Alexander the Great to establish one of the greatest empires in world history.

### The Conquests of Alexander the Great

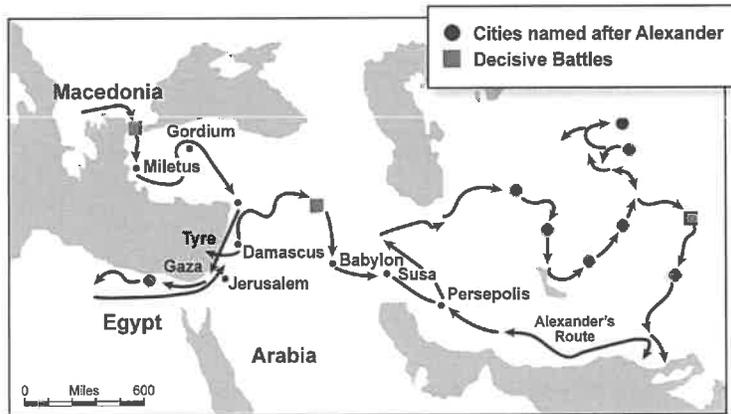


*Alexander the Great*

**Macedonia**, a kingdom in the northeast corner of Greece, had slowly been increasing its influence throughout Greece. In 338 BCE, at the Battle of Chaeronea, Macedonia's **King Philip II** defeated a coalition of Greek city-states led by Athens and Thebes. While Philip II didn't exactly "conquer" Greece, the entire peninsula was now under heavy Macedonian influence.

In 336 BCE, Philip II was assassinated. It would be up to his son and heir, Alexander, to further his conquests. By sacking Thebes, Alexander—whom history would remember as "**Alexander the Great**"—intimidated the Greek city-states into acknowledging his authority. Then he turned to his true obsession: the conquest of Persia. Persia, which had so recently tried to conquer Greece, suddenly found the tables turned. At the **Battle of Granicus** in Asia Minor in 334 BCE, Alexander crushed the

Persian army under Darius III. He then proceeded to conquer most of western Asia Minor with little resistance. In the next year, he again defeated Darius III, this time at the **Battle of Issus**. Turning south, Alexander next conquered Egypt, ensuring the entire eastern Mediterranean coast would be under his control. Then he set out for Mesopotamia, where Darius III had rallied for a third—and final—stand against his nemesis. At the **Battle of Gaugamela**, Alexander once again crushed a Darius-led



*Route of Alexander the Great's Conquests*

army. After Darius was murdered by one of his own generals, Alexander became the undisputed master of what had been the Persian Empire. Now styling himself the descendant of a Greek god, Alexander continued to expand his shockingly massive empire, pushing through central Asia all the way to India. When he died in 323 BCE of malaria at the age of thirty-two, he was the greatest conqueror the world had yet seen.

### The Effects of Alexander the Great's Conquests

Alexander had wisely realized that it would be impossible to completely “Hellenize”—that is, to infuse all aspects of Greek culture and civilization into—every territory he conquered, so, instead, he practiced a great deal of tolerance. He even encouraged many of his former enemies to become his subordinates and his generals to marry Persian princesses. In that sense, Persian culture and the cultures of territories even further east spread back to Greece.

Generally speaking, however, Alexander's victories mostly led to the **Hellenization** of what is now the Middle East. The social and intellectual ideas that had dominated Ancient Greece—and especially Athens—spread throughout the newly-conquered territories, inspiring the development of great cities like Alexandria. Alexandria might have been in Egypt, but its culture was fundamentally Greek. A prime example of **cultural diffusion**, Hellenization ensured that the ideas which had inspired Greek culture would not die out even though the heyday of Ancient Greece was over.



*Location of Alexandria*

The one major drawback to Hellenization was that individual cultures in the areas conquered by Alexander often saw their influence diminish. Many Jewish leaders, for instance, feared that Hellenization would corrupt their religion and rob their people of their identity. To a certain extent, history would prove them right. Although it derived from Judaism, early Christianity would bear trademark attributes of Greek culture, even though it only became popular centuries after Alexander's last victory.



**Practice 4: Major Wars in Ancient Greece and the Conquests of Alexander the Great**

1. How did the Spartans win the Second Peloponnesian War?
  - A. They launched raids into Athenian-held territory and caught the Athenians by surprise.
  - B. They built a large fleet of ships and defeated the Athenians at sea.
  - C. They sought the help of Ares, the god of war, to give them victory.
  - D. They used the phalanx formation, which the Athenians couldn't penetrate.
  
2. Which of the following acts of Alexander the Great suggest he did **not** want to completely Hellenize the territories he conquered? Select **two** correct answers.
  - A. Alexander's encouragement of his generals to marry Persian princesses.
  - B. Alexander's sacking of Thebes
  - C. Alexander's inclusion of those he defeated into his own armies
  - D. Alexander's establishment of Alexandria
  
3. \_\_\_\_\_ led an army from the coast of Ancient Greece through the pass at Thermopylae before his fleet was defeated at the Battle of Salamis.
  - A. Darius I (the Great)
  - B. Xerxes
  - C. Darius III
  - D. Alexander the Great

4. Why is it ironic that the Spartans won the Battle of Aegospotami?

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5. Which of the battles mentioned in this chapter do you consider **most** important? Why do you feel this way?

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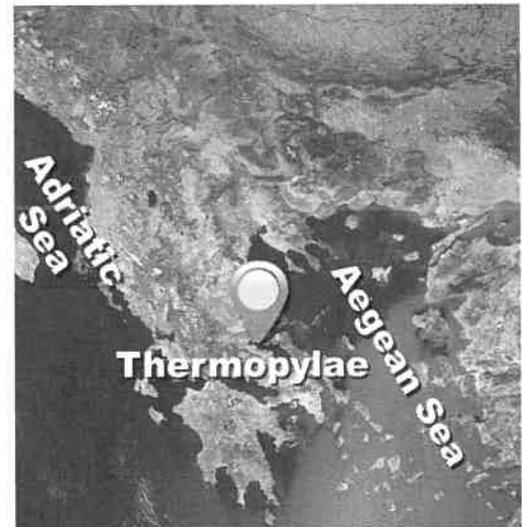
Week 2 Day 2



### Activity: How Geography Influences History

Use the maps and what you've learned in this chapter to answer the questions on your own paper.

1. Until it lost the Battle of Aegospotami in the Second Peloponnesian War in 405 BCE, Athens famously dominated the seas around Greece for centuries. How did the location of Athens give it an advantage over other city-states when it came to controlling the seas around Greece?
2. Ancient Greece was remarkable for its thriving trade. How did Greece's location and shape help enable ancient Greek trade to be so widespread and efficient?
3. Until it was conquered by the Romans in 146 BCE, Greece was extraordinarily successful at resisting foreign invasions. How did geographic landforms help protect ancient Greece from would-be conquerors? (**Note:** Lighter colors on the map reflect higher elevations.)
4. In the Battle of Thermopylae in 480 BCE, approximately three hundred Spartans defended a mountain pass for three days against tens of thousands of Persian invaders. Why would a mountain pass prove ideal for a small number of soldiers to defend themselves against a much larger army?



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### Activity: Understanding Economies

Use what you've learned in this chapter, your knowledge of economics, and your critical thinking skills to answer the questions on your own paper.

1. Instead of being united, ancient Greece was dominated by city-states. Do you think this encouraged or discouraged the use of money?
2. When Alexander the Great conquered Persia, the richest country in the world, in 329 BCE, he sent massive amounts of gold back to Greece. Do you think this made gold more or less valuable in Greece? Why do you think so? What effects do you think this influx of gold had on wages? What about on the prices of goods?
3. Do you think Alexander's Hellenization of his empire encouraged or discouraged trade? Why do you think so?

## Chapter 5 Key Term Activity

Fill in the blank with the correct word.

**Word Bank**

Spartans

Second Peloponnesian War

Alexander the Great

Battle of Thermopylae

oligarchy

Macedonian Empire

Jason is interested in understanding how warfare shaped Ancient Greece. He knows the person who conquered the most territory was 1. \_\_\_\_\_ of Macedonia. The toughest warriors, however, might have been the 2. \_\_\_\_\_. They lived in southeastern Greece and forced male children to serve in the military beginning at age seven. While they had two kings, most historians consider their government a(n) 3. \_\_\_\_\_. Jason knows these people fought many great battles, but the most famous was probably the 4. \_\_\_\_\_, in which a handful of soldiers defended against Xerxes' mighty Persian army for three days. Finally, Jason remembers that this civilization defeated Athens in the 5. \_\_\_\_\_. This set up the 6. \_\_\_\_\_ to conquer unheard-of amounts of territory.

Key terms are defined in the book's glossary.  
Answers to Key Term Activities and chapter reviews are found in the Teacher's Guide.



Week 2 Day 3





## Chapter 6

### Ancient Rome

#### Unit 2: Ancient Civilizations

**Standard(s) Covered:** 6.6.1, 6.2.1, 6.2.5, 6.3.3, 6.3.4, 6.4.1, 6.4.2, 6.4.3, 6.5.2, 6.6.2, 6.6.3, 6.6.4

Key Term Activity at the end of the chapter

### The Origins of Ancient Rome

Various myths—some perhaps with elements of truth—attempt to explain the origins of **Ancient Rome**. The most popular contends that Rome was founded in 753 BCE by two brothers, **Romulus and Remus**, who were half-gods and half-men. When Romulus killed Remus in a power struggle, he named the city after himself and became king.

While this legend might have some basis in fact, in reality, Rome likely began as a small farming community on the banks of the Tiber River and was heavily influenced by the **Etruscans**, members of a civilization that sprung up just north of Rome around the eighth century BCE. While Latin, the language of the Romans, was not derived from the Etruscans, many other elements of Roman culture were. Most notably, Rome's early monarchy, military, and infrastructure can be traced back to Etruscan influence. For instance, the Romans are famous for their aqueducts, but the Etruscans had developed a sophisticated drainage system centuries before.



Location of Etruscans

### The Roman Republic

#### Origins and Structure



Roman Senators

In 509 BCE, the Romans deposed their last king and established the **Roman Republic** (509-27 BCE). Instead of having a king who reigned for life, the Romans elected two **consuls** every year. The consuls' first responsibility was to lead the Roman armies during times of war.

**Praetors** served as magistrates (judges) and led troops when consuls were unavailable to do so. These officials answered to the **Senate**, a group of several hundred wealthy Roman males. While the Senate was supposed to represent the will of the people, in reality, it often served

its own interests, and the divide between **patricians** (rich aristocrats) and **plebeians** (poor commoners) became more pronounced. In this way, the Roman Republic was much more like an oligarchy of a Greek

city-state like Sparta than the democracy of Athens. The only real check the plebeians had on the Senate came in the form of **tribunes**. These officials managed the Republic's assemblies (which we will examine below) and had the authority to veto legislation passed by the Senate. It should be no surprise that the two most famous tribunes, the **Gracchi brothers**, lost their lives defying the Senate's wishes.

**The Three Principal Assemblies of the Roman Republic**

Assembly	Characteristics and Responsibilities
<b>Centuriate Assembly</b>	Composed of groups of 100 men organized according to class, it had the exclusive authority to declare war and elect magistrates, consuls, praetors, and censors. All of its decisions were determined by a simple majority.
<b>Tribal Council</b>	Organized according to the 35 tribes of Rome and composed of all Roman citizens, it elected some lesser government officials and was the court of appeal in cases in which the death penalty did not apply. Like the Centuriate Assembly, all of its decisions were determined by a simple majority.
<b>Plebeian Council</b>	Also organized by tribe, it enacted laws, appointed tribunes, and tried non-capital cases.

**The Twelve Tables**



*Twelve Tables*

In 451 BCE, the Roman government inscribed laws into twelve bronze tablets; these became known as the **Twelve Tables**. While the Twelve Tables did not codify every Roman law, they did set a precedent for writing down laws so that they would become known to the public and (at least theoretically) applied equally to all citizens.

**The Roman Republic: A Democracy?**

Ultimately, while the Roman Republic did contain democratic elements, it was *not* fully democratic or even as democratic as ancient Athenian or present-day American versions of democracy. This is mainly because the Senate usually held the vast majority of the power and prevented the assemblies from being especially effective.

**Agriculture and Trade**

In the early days of the Roman Republic, family-owned farms dominated the Roman countryside. Gradually, these were largely replaced by larger plantations owned by wealthy and powerful men. In both small and large farms, grain was the most commonly-grown crop. Close to the Mediterranean Sea, Roman farmers also grew olives and grapes.



*Roman Harvesting Machine*

The stability provided by Roman power ensured that **trade** flourished in the Republic. The Mediterranean Sea was a prime avenue for trade, and the port of Ostia—only 15 miles from Rome itself—received trading ships from Spain and Gaul. In addition, Romans built numerous roads to reach many of their numerous territories. While food was the most significant Roman import, the Romans acquired a wide variety of goods from their trading partners.

## Religion

In no facet of life did the Romans borrow as much from the Greeks as they did in religion. In fact, while they bore different names, most Roman gods and goddesses directly corresponded to Greek gods and goddesses. (See previous chapter for each god's or goddesses' traits.)

### Roman Gods and Goddesses and the Greek Gods to Whom They Corresponded

Roman God	Greek Equivalent
Jupiter	Zeus
Juno	Hera
Neptune	Poseidon
Ceres	Demeter
Apollo	Apollo
Diana	Artemis
Mars	Ares
Mercury	Hermes
Bacchus	Dionysus
Vulcan	Hephaestus
Venus	Aphrodite
Minerva	Athena

Roman religion was also highly ritualized, with a heavy emphasis on cults, and politicized, with priests being public officers.



*Temple of Heracles near Rome*

### The Rise of the Military

The Roman Republic did not have a permanent army; instead, it raised citizen-armies annually to both meet threats and go on campaigns of conquest. The armies were primarily commanded by the two consuls. The Roman Republic proved especially adept at raising armies in times of crisis, especially during the Second Punic War, when Hannibal Barca destroyed one large Roman army after another. Ultimately, however, as Roman power extended, it became more common for soldiers to be professionals. Grouped in **legions**, these soldiers became experts in organized warfare and commonly defeated much larger armies. Central to their success was their equipment, which benefited from Rome's access to iron. The Romans produced vast quantities of iron armor, swords, spears, and javelins.



*Roman Soldier*

### Practice 1: The Rise and Features of the Roman Republic

- According to the most popular legend, \_\_\_\_\_ founded Rome in 753 BCE.
  - Romulus and Remus
  - Odysseus
  - Achilles
  - Julius Caesar
- If a Roman blacksmith was worshiping the god of blacksmiths, he would be worshiping—
  - Juno.
  - Vulcan.
  - Hephaestus.
  - Minerva.
- The Roman army was organized into large groups called—
  - divisions.
  - brigades.
  - regiments.
  - legions.
- Why was the Roman Republic more like the Spartan oligarchy than Athenian democracy?
 

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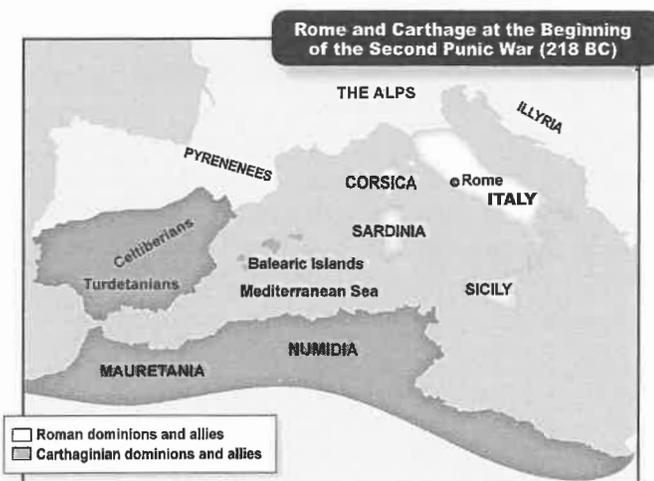


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## The Punic Wars: The Fall of Carthage and the Triumph of Rome

### Origins and the First Punic War

In the third century BCE, Rome had its eye on dominating the Mediterranean Sea, which it referred to as *mare nostrum*—Latin for “our sea.” Its problem was that **Carthage**, a major port city on the coast of modern-day Tunisia, stood in its way. The rivalry eventually erupted in what became known as the **Punic Wars** (264–146 BCE). The First Punic War (264–241 BCE), which began when the Romans conquered the Carthaginian-held city of Messina on the island of Sicily, was almost exclusively fought



Week 2 Day 4



at sea. While the fighting went back and forth, gradually, the Romans took control of Sicily, and the Carthaginians sued for peace. At great cost, Rome had won the First Punic War.

### The Second Punic War

Despite the catastrophic losses it endured in the First Punic War, Carthage was not ready to give up after its defeat. Instead, it simply needed time to regroup. In 218 BCE, **Hannibal Barca**, a Carthaginian general and son of one of the Carthaginian commanders during the First Punic War, marched an army from Spain through Gaul. Then, to almost everyone's amazement, Hannibal crossed the Alps and invaded Italy.



*Hannibal Crossing the Alps*

Hannibal invaded Italy because he did not want war to ravage Carthage or its territories; still, it is hard to exaggerate just how bold his move was. Many thought that, independent of Roman resistance, the treacherous weather and terrain would be enough to destroy Hannibal's army. Astoundingly, however, Hannibal emerged from the Alps with his army intact.

He then proceeded to launch one of the most daring and famous campaigns in military history. At the **Battle of Lake Trebia**, Hannibal trapped, surrounded, and slaughtered 30,000 Romans. At the **Battle of Lake Trasimene**, he ambushed and completely destroyed another 30,000-man Roman force that had set out in pursuit of him.

The most famous confrontation of the Punic Wars, however, was certainly the **Battle of Cannae** in 216 BCE. In that year, the Romans put together a massive army of more than 80,000 men and set out to meet Hannibal in open battle. Unfortunately for them, they once again fell victim to one of Hannibal's great traps. This time, Hannibal encouraged the Romans to attack the center of his line and ordered the center of his own line to retreat. Then, once the Roman center had advanced deep into Carthaginian lines, Hannibal attacked on both ends, or flanks, of the line. He badly defeated the Roman forces there and surrounded the entire Roman army. Showing no mercy, Hannibal's soldiers killed approximately 70,000 Roman soldiers in one day.

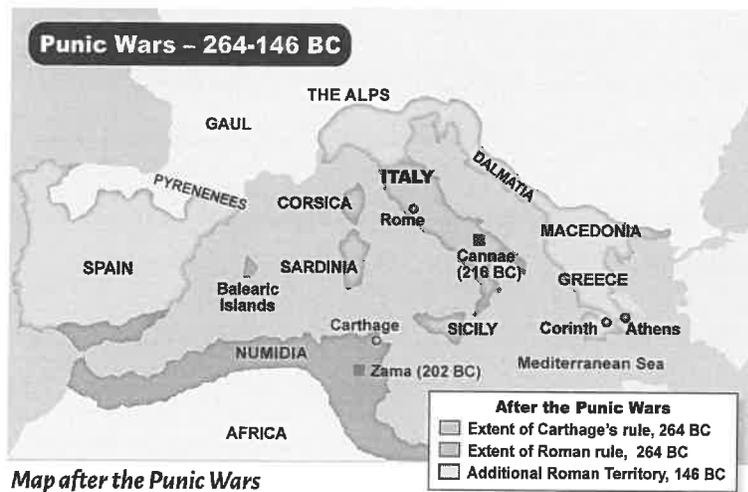


*Battle of Cannae*

Still—in a testament to just how mighty the Roman Republic was—Hannibal did not feel his army was strong enough to directly attack Rome. Instead, he and his army lived off the Italian countryside and bided their time. This gave the Romans a chance to raise yet even more armies. In 207 BCE, the Romans crushed a Carthaginian relief force under Hannibal's brother Hasdrubal. This forced Hannibal to march to the southern tip of the Italian peninsula for safety. In 206 BCE, at the **Battle of Ilipa**, the Romans inflicted defeat on the Carthaginians in Spain, which spelled doom for Carthage's dominance in that region. After losing the **Battle of Zama** in 202 BCE, the Carthaginians were once again forced to sue for peace. Incredibly, given that they had lost three full-sized armies in battle against Hannibal, the Romans had won the **Second Punic War**.

### The Third Punic War

Even after the Roman victory in the Second Punic War, a prominent Roman senator constantly urged his colleagues that *Carthago delenda est*—Latin for “Carthage must be destroyed.” As the Roman population grew, control of Carthage, which provided ample fields for growing staple crops, seemed like the logical next step to the Romans. To that end, they made demands of Carthage to which no self-respecting civilization could submit. In 149 BCE, soon after Carthage refused these demands, Rome declared war on Carthage for a third time. In short order, the Romans conquered Carthage itself, killed most of its population, and sold the survivors into slavery.



### Effects of the Punic Wars

Rome's victory in the Punic Wars left no doubt as to which civilization would dominate the Mediterranean for centuries to come. Carthage, which had entered the third century BCE with such promise, was completely destroyed. The Roman Republic would continue to expand its borders until it emerged two centuries later as the Roman Empire.

### Practice 2: The Punic Wars

- The fighting in the First Punic War took mostly took place—
  - at sea and on Sicily.
  - on the Italian peninsula.
  - on the outskirts of Carthage.
  - at sea and on Crete.
- The most famous battle of the Second Punic War was the Battle of—
  - Lake Trebia.
  - Lake Trasimene.
  - Cannae.
  - Ilipa.

3. Why was virtually everyone astounded that Hannibal crossed the Alps and invaded Italy?

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4. Why did the Romans ultimately decide to destroy Carthage?

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### The Fall of the Roman Republic

The Roman Republic largely fell victim both to its own success and the **greed** and **incompetence** of its ruling class. Roman military victories abroad subjugated vast areas of territories, and immense wealth poured back into Rome. Unfortunately for the plebeians, this wealth almost always found its way into the hands of the patricians. As a result, the gap between rich and poor became more pronounced, Senators grew more **corrupt** and more determined than ever to maintain their wealth and power, and the commoners went from discontent to desperate. Roman agriculture's **dependence on slavery**, which became more pronounced after the Second Punic War, didn't help either. Slave revolts—most notably the one launched by **Spartacus** in 72 BCE—threatened the stability of the Republic.

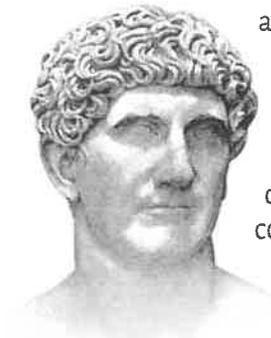
### Julius Caesar, Marc Antony, and Octavian

There arose, then, the need for someone to consolidate power and solve the social problems the Senate had proved itself incapable of solving. After several failed or short-lived attempts by others, Senator and former consul **Julius Caesar** defeated his former ally **Gnaeus Pompey**, became dictator in 46 BCE, and named himself dictator for life in 44 BCE. Largely due to his reputation as a successful general and a generous friend of the commoners, Caesar became immensely popular. This, of course, diminished the traditional power of the Senate, and a group of angry Senators murdered him in 44 BCE.



*Julius Caesar*

Still, Julius Caesar had set a new precedent. One man, he had shown, could rise to ultimate power in Rome and perhaps rule more efficiently than the Senate could. Julius Caesar's right-hand man, **Marc Antony**, now attempted to fill the power vacuum, but although he defeated some of Julius Caesar's murderers in battle, he could never secure power exclusively for himself. This was largely because Julius Caesar's nephew, adopted son, and heir, **Octavian**, would not let him. When Octavian and Antony squabbled, they divided the Roman dominions between them, and Antony went to Egypt while Octavian remained in Rome. Soon, however, the dispute erupted into open war. In 31 BCE, at the naval **Battle of Actium** off the coast of Greece, Octavian defeated Antony, who committed suicide soon after.



*Marc Antony*

## Practice 3: The Fall of the Roman Republic

- The Roman Republic fell due to— (Select **two** correct answers.)
  - its dependence on slavery.
  - the greed of the plebeians.
  - the greed and incompetence of its ruling class.
  - not enough wealth coming from new territories into Rome.
- \_\_\_\_\_, a former ally of Julius Caesar, was defeated by Julius Caesar in 46 BCE.
  - Octavian
  - Marc Antony
  - Gnaeus Pompey
  - Cleopatra
- Why could Marc Antony never secure power exclusively for himself in Rome?
  - He was too timid to fight in battle.
  - Octavian would not let him.
  - He was a plebeian.
  - Julius Caesar never believed in him.



Caesar Augustus

## The Roman Empire

Octavian's victory at Actium made him the undisputed ruler of Rome and Rome's first **emperor**. Octavian—or **Caesar Augustus**, as he came to be known—never officially had himself declared emperor; instead, he merely accumulated a bevy of public offices that put him in control of the Roman government and declared himself *princeps*, or “first citizen.” Still, Romans acknowledged his unquestioned and unlimited authority, and his reign marks the beginning of the **Roman Empire**.

*Pax Romana* and the Height of Roman Power

***Pax Romana***—Latin for “Roman Peace”—refers to the approximately first two hundred years of the Roman Empire. It was called such because Roman dominance was so pronounced that no other civilizations could pose a real threat to it and the Roman Empire prospered. Since at no time during *Pax Romana* was the Roman Empire completely peaceful—rebellions often sprung up across the empire—the term seems somewhat inadequate. Still, given how peaceful the Empire was *in comparison to*

*the eras before and after it*, the term is not as misleading as it might first seem. Ultimately, *Pax Romana* was a time of *relative* peace in the Roman Empire, but, crucially, this was *peace on Roman terms*. In other words, the Romans were quite ready and willing to kill anyone or group of people who stood in the way of their prosperity and complete control of their empire.

### Politics

Roman emperors were, for the most part, all powerful. While the Senate remained in place, its role became almost purely ceremonial. Other offices crucial to the functioning of the Republic also endured, but the occupants of them, like the Senators, were no longer able to wield the influence they once did. In fact, the emperor **Caligula** infamously planned to make his horse a consul to emphasize his disdain for offices the Roman Republic had once revered.



*Candidate for Consul*



Central to an emperor's power was his control over the military. In the days of the Republic, the Senate had been careful to ensure that control of the military changed hands every year so that no one man could grow too powerful. Augustus, however, consolidated his authority over the military, and this imperial authority went unchallenged for centuries.

The fact that *Pax Romana* endured for approximately two hundred years might make it seem like Rome's transition from a republic to an empire was a good thing. In reality, however, reliance upon one man threatened Rome's stability. When the emperor was generally just, efficient, and wise—like Caesar Augustus—the Roman Empire tended to thrive. When the emperor was unjust, inefficient, unwise, or even downright insane—like Caligula and Nero—the Empire tended to suffer. In the end, while the Roman Empire was fundamentally different from the Roman Republic in some ways, the everyday life of commoners did not change much due to the transition. Instead, an inconsistent oligarchy—the Senate—was replaced by another institution—the emperorship—whose occupants also ultimately proved inconsistent.

### Economy

Under the emperors, the Roman economy still relied on agriculture—especially the production of grain—trade, and conquest. Still, the transition from republic to empire did provide the Romans with some key advantages. Julius Caesar had famously been kidnapped by pirates—whom he later crucified—but Caesar Augustus virtually stamped out piracy. This enabled trade to flourish like never before. Augustus also introduced coinage on a widespread scale. Having coins that were valued as mediums of exchange by virtually everyone in the Roman Empire promoted an expansion of trade with numerous other parts of the empire.



*Roman Coins*

### “All Roads Lead to Rome”



*Ancient Roman Street in Pompeii*

While many factors contributed to the explosion of Roman trade during *Pax Romana*, perhaps none was as great as the Roman system of **roads** that tied the land-locked areas of the Empire together. Ultimately, the famous statement “All roads lead to Rome” is only a slight exaggeration because most roads, indeed, did direct travelers and merchants back to the empire's capital city. Although the primary purpose of these roads was to provide avenues for Roman

legions to launch invasions and crush rebellions, their secondary purpose—the facilitation of trade—loomed large in the expansion of the Roman economy.

### Achievements in Architecture

Roman architecture, which had borrowed heavily from the Etruscans and Greeks during the days of the Republic, began to blossom in the days of the Empire. This period has become known as “**The Roman Architectural Revolution**.”

More than anything else, Rome's introduction of arches and domes enabled original Roman architecture to take root throughout the Empire. Today, **arches** are commonplace, but at the beginning of the Roman Empire, they were a fairly new and revolutionary idea. By directing pressure downward and outward, arches had the ability to support heavy structures. The result was that the scale of Roman architecture could be vastly expanded.



*Arch of Titus in Rome*



*Inside and Outside View of St. Peter's Basilica Dome*



Really only an extension of the arch concept, **domes** provided

Roman architects the opportunity to construct buildings with vast open spaces in them. Domes had existed in other civilizations, but the Romans perfected them. The more architects used arches and domes, the less they depended on columns for structural support. Roman **columns**, then, became used primarily for decoration.

The use of arches and domes during the Roman Architectural Revolution led to the construction of many Roman cultural icons. Arches notably led to the spread of **aqueducts**, bridge-like structures that conducted water throughout the Empire. Arches also laid the foundation for the world's largest **amphitheater**, the **Colosseum**, and dominated the Roman **Forum**, or city-center. Domes were principally used to create **baths**, which often served as social centers for communities. Most notably, however, the dome concept was used to create the **Pantheon**, a temple in Rome dedicated to all the gods and goddesses that is still the largest unreinforced concrete dome in the world.



*The Colosseum*

### Roman Law and Justinian's Code



*Justinian*

As the Roman Republic changed to the Roman Empire, the law became virtually whatever the emperor said it was. It wasn't until the sixth century CE, when the western half of the empire had already fallen, that an emperor sponsored a project that sought to codify Roman laws. Put together by legal scholars, **Justinian's Code** was not intended to reinvent the Roman system of justice; instead, it was meant to collect and clarify the various laws from a millennium of Roman history into one document. Ultimately, Justinian's Code would serve as the basis for the civil law that is still currently in effect in many civilizations—including the US—today.

## Religion

Until the emperor **Constantine** made Christianity the official religion of Rome in 312 CE, Romans still worshiped the gods they had worshiped during the days of the Republic. They also, though, began to worship their emperors. While Caesar Augustus had discouraged the Senate from officially recognizing him as a god, many emperors insisted that the Senate deify their predecessors. Worship of emperors eventually spread throughout the Empire and became known as the **Imperial Cult**.

## Entertainment



*Ancient Roman Gladiators*

In Rome itself, entertainment centered around the Colosseum. The Colosseum held chariot races, fights between people and wild animals, and—most notably—fights between gladiators. **Gladiators** were professional fighters who battled—often to the death—to entertain the Roman masses. Roman emperors prized gladiator fights as a means of keeping a population accustomed to violence satisfied.

### Practice 4: *Pax Romana* and the Roman Empire

1. Which of the following **best** explains why the first two hundred years of the Roman Empire are known as *Pax Romana*?
  - A. There were never any rebellions in the Roman Empire during that time.
  - B. There was relative peace on Roman terms during that time.
  - C. The Romans ritually murdered many different groups of people during that time.
  - D. Many powers challenged Rome's dominance during that time.
2. Why was it significant that Caligula planned to make his horse a consul?
  - A. It showed his disdain for the offices that had traditionally defined the Republic.
  - B. It showed he valued animals as much as he valued people.
  - C. It showed he was extremely stupid.
  - D. It emphasized the Roman military's reliance on horses for conquest.
3. The \_\_\_\_\_ was the first major Roman architectural technological innovation and did the most to help Romans develop their infrastructure.
  - A. dome
  - B. vault
  - C. column
  - D. arch

4. Why was Justinian's Code significant?

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Week 2 Day 5



## The Fall of the Roman Empire

In 410 CE, “barbarians” from France sacked Rome. While the Eastern Roman Empire endured, in the minds of most historians, this signaled the fall of the Roman Empire. But why did the Roman Empire fall? Let's take a look at several of the reasons.

### Social Causes

As time went on, something that had once spelled doom for the Republic—**poverty** and a growing disparity between rich and poor—took its toll on the Empire. More and more Roman families lived in slums, and unemployment rose sharply. The Empire also suffered from an **overreliance on slavery**, which made the Romans slow to develop new technologies like the ones they had developed the past. Finally, many historians at least partially blame Rome's adoption of **Christianity** as its official religion for its collapse. Since citizens no longer worshiped the emperor—and, thus, the state—it became easier for them to ignore their civic duties. Christianity also encouraged pacifism at a time when the Romans needed to fight to protect their borders.



**Sack of Rome**

### Economic Causes



**Roman Coin**

Rome had always prospered, in part, due to the wealth it took from the territories it conquered. As the Empire continued, however, Rome simply ran out of lands to conquer, and no new wealth made its way back to the city. This led to **inflation**, an economic problem in which money loses much of its value. With once valuable Roman coins becoming worth less and less, people turned to gold as a medium of exchange. The problem was that gold was in short supply. Rome's economy became based more and more around a **barter system**, which stunted the economy even more.

Rome also suffered from **overexpansion**. In other words, the Empire simply became too large for its own good. Despite its complex system of roads and other infrastructural innovations, it became increasingly difficult to transport goods—and especially food—to where they were most needed.

### Political Causes

You might remember from earlier in the chapter how the Republic collapsed largely due to the **corruption** of its Senators. As the Empire progressed, its government, too, became increasingly corrupt. Offices—including even, at one time, the emperorship—often went to the highest bidder. Citizens respected their leaders less and less, and leaders, in turn, did an increasingly poorer job of addressing society's needs.

### Military Causes

One of the main reasons the Roman Empire had been able to grow as much as it did was its first-rate military. This military had always depended on its citizens to fill the ranks of its legions. As people

lost faith in their government, however, fewer citizens felt the patriotic duty to serve. Nevertheless, the Empire was still huge, and it needed soldiers to defend its borders and, ultimately, the city itself. It turned, then, to **mercenaries**—paid soldiers who were not citizens. In addition to filling the military with unmotivated soldiers, hiring mercenaries virtually bankrupted the Empire. This encouraged emperors to raise taxes, which only increased the economic and social problems plaguing the empire. The **weakened legions** would not be up to the task of defending the Empire against the **foreign invasions**—principally by the **Huns** and **Germanic tribes**—which were becoming more and more common.



*Invasion of Rome by the Barbarians*

### **Influence of Rome on Later Civilizations**

When you become aware of all the problems that led to its downfall, it can be easy to forget that the Roman Empire lasted for over four hundred years. That is an astoundingly long time, and it suggests that the Romans must have been doing something right. Many civilizations—including the US—would be modeled around Roman accomplishments, most notably their **road networks, infrastructure, legal principles, and respect for the individual citizen's rights.**

### **Practice 5: The Fall of the Roman Empire**

1. A major reason for the fall of the Roman Empire, \_\_\_\_\_ occurs when money loses its value.
  - A. slavery
  - B. inflation
  - C. overexpansion
  - D. invasion
2. Which factor that helped cause the fall of the Roman Republic also helped cause the fall of the Roman Empire?
  - A. the corruption of Roman leaders
  - B. inflation
  - C. the weakening of Roman legions
  - D. the official adoption of Christianity
3. What was the **main** reason the Roman Empire increasingly turned to mercenaries to fill the ranks of its military?
  - A. It did not have enough citizens to serve as soldiers.
  - B. Citizens had begun to lose their patriotic fervor.
  - C. Emperors wanted to raise taxes.
  - D. Mercenaries knew how to fight against foreign invaders better than native Romans did.

4. Why do you think some historians consider it misleading to say that the Roman Empire fell in 410 CE?

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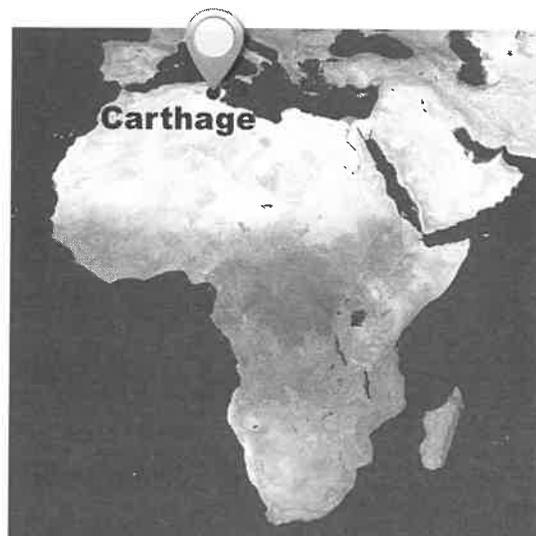
### Activity: How Geography Influences History

Use the maps below and what you've learned in this chapter to answer the questions on your own paper.

- Like most great cities, Rome was founded where it was for many reasons. Name **four** factors which likely influenced Rome's founders to locate the city where they did, and explain how each of the factors helped the Roman Empire dominate so much of the world for so long.



- In 218 BCE, Hannibal Barca moved from Spain to Gaul before boldly crossing the Alps—obviously a formidable barrier—to invade Italy. Why do you suppose Hannibal chose such a long and dangerous invasion route instead of attempting to launch a sea-borne invasion from Italy's southeastern coast?
- Rome destroyed Carthage in 149 BCE, but, while it conquered regions thousands of miles in every other direction, it never conquered significant territory in Africa west of Egypt and south of Carthage. Why do you suppose this was the case?



### Activity: Understanding Economies

Use what you've learned in this chapter, your knowledge of economics, and your critical thinking skills to answer the questions on your own paper.

1. Name **three** economic reasons why Rome wanted to expand its territory.
  2. Rome began minting coins in the late fourth century BCE. Eventually, along with the development of its road system, the use of Roman currency would be perhaps the most crucial factor in the efficiency of the Roman economy. Why do you suppose Roman coinage proved so important?
  3. The Roman Empire was notable for the heavy taxes it imposed on the territories it conquered. From the perspective of the Romans, name **one** benefit and **one** drawback to their charging of heavy taxes.
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### Chapter 6 Key Term Activity

Fill in the blank with the correct word.

Word Bank		
Punic Wars	Republic	Empire
inflation	Christianity	Julius Caesar

Roland is studying Ancient Rome, which lasted for over a thousand years. He knows that historians divide Rome between the days of the 1. \_\_\_\_\_, when Senators had most of the political power, and the days of the 2. \_\_\_\_\_, when emperors had most of the political power. Roland knows that the time of the 3. \_\_\_\_\_, when Rome crushed Carthage, was crucial to Rome becoming the most dominant power in the Mediterranean region. He also knows that while he was not an emperor, 4. \_\_\_\_\_ was instrumental in the transition of Rome from a republic to an empire. Finally, Roland wants to understand the reason for Rome's fall. Economically speaking, he knows 5. \_\_\_\_\_, or the devaluation of money, played a big part. Some historians even blame the Roman adoption of 6. \_\_\_\_\_ as its official religion for Rome's ultimate collapse because it turned many Romans into pacifists.

Key terms are defined in the book's glossary.  
Answers to Key Term Activities and chapter reviews are found in the Teacher's Guide.