I. DEMOCRACY AND POLIS

Ancient Greece wasn't a single country or empire united under a single government, it was made up of a number of city-states. At the center of each city-state was a powerful city. The city ruled the lands and area around it. Sometimes it also ruled smaller less-powerful cities. The Greek name for a city-state was "polis". The two most powerful and famous "polis" were Athens and Sparta.

The ancient Greeks referred to themselves as citizens of their individual city-states. Each city-state (polis) had its own personality, goals, laws and customs. Ancient Greeks were very loyal to their city- state. The city-states had many things in common. They all believed in the same gods. They all spoke the same language. If you asked an ancient Greek where he was from, he wouldn't say, "I live in Greece." If he is from Sparta, he answers, "I am a Spartan." If he lives in Athens, he says, "I am Athenian."But the city-states may band together to fight a common foe. They will also go to war with each other. Greece wasn't one country yet.



Ancient Greece was a collection of Greek city-states and there was no central government. Each city-state had its own form of government. Some city-states, like Corinth, were ruled by

kings. Some, like Sparta, were ruled by a small group of men. Others, like Athens, experimented with new forms of government. The city of Athens invented the government of democracy and was ruled by the people for many years.

Sometimes these city- states cooperated, sometimes they fought each other. From the 7th century BCE the city was usually fortified with a city wall (Sparta being a notable exception) and the agora space was created for civic and commercial activity. In most cases, all polis had three parts. Each had a hill, called an **Acropolis**, which would serve as a place of safety during attack. This location had walls around it and was also used later as the religious center on which temples and public monuments were built. Below the acropolis would be an **agora**, a square that served as a market place for shopping and for a meeting place, the people in this place speak about policy. Also each polis would have a **theatre** and participated in religious festivals and athletic events to honor the polis' patron god.

The size of each polis varied from place to place, from a few square miles to a few hundred square miles. The larger ones resulted from when a smaller polis would join together with another, resulting in one, larger polis.

Our word politics comes from the Greek term polis, although the polis was much more than just a government. It was a community of citizens in which all parts of human activity were focused. As a community, the polis only allowed adult men political rights. The citizens with no political rights were women and children, and slaves and outsiders. The unity of citizens was important and often meant that states would take an active role in deciding how the citizens should live. One result of this unity was that citizens of one polis would greatly distrust the citizens of a different polis. This distrust along with geography kept Greece divided into strongly individual city-states.

DEMOCRACY

In the year 507 B.C., the Athenian leader Cleisthenes introduced a system of political reforms that he called demokratia, or "rule by the people". Athens did not have a king, it was ruled by the people as a democracy. The people of Athens believed that not one group of people should make the laws, so citizens could choose the government officials, and vote for or against new laws. The people of Athens selected their rulers.

They held a large meeting on the slopes of a hill in Athens where any citizen could speak, and tell the government what it should be doing. This was called the **Assembly**, and there had to be at least 6000 citizens at every Assembly.

Athenian democracy was not like modern democracy. Only citizens who were over 18 years old could vote. Women, slaves and foreigners could not become citizens. Therefore, democracy in Athens meant to be "ruled by the men of Athens".

Democracy in Ancient Greece was very direct. What this means is that all the citizens voted on all the laws. Rather than vote for representatives, like we do, each citizen was expected to vote for every law. They did have officials to run the government, however. Most of these officials were chosen by a lottery. So every citizen had a chance to become an official.

Each year, there was a drawing. Five hundred names were drawn from a pool of all the citizens of ancient Athens that had to serve for one year. During that year, they were responsible for making new laws and for changing old laws as they saw fit. But, nothing they did became law until all the citizens of Athens had a chance to vote yes or no. To vote, citizens had to attend the assembly on the day the votes was taken. The date was posted. It was not a secret, but you had to be present to vote and majority ruled.

The word democracy (*dēmokratia*) derives from *dēmos*, which refers to the entire citizen body, and *kratos*, meaning rule. Any male citizen could, then, participate



in the main democratic body of Athens, the assembly (*ekklēsia*). Any citizen could speak to the assembly and vote on decisions by simply holding up their hands. The majority won the day and the decision was final.

There were three main bodies of the government: the Assembly, the Council of 500, and the Courts. The **Assembly** included all citizens who showed up to vote. Everyone who was a citizen could participate as part of the assembly. The assembly would decide on new laws and important decisions, like whether or not to go to war. The **Council** oversaw much of the day-to-day running of the government. The Council was determined by lottery. If your name was chosen, then you would be on the council for one year. The **Courts** handled lawsuits and trials. The courts had large juries to help make decisions. For private lawsuits the jury was at least 201 people, for public lawsuits the jury was at least 501 people.

Athens experiment with democracy came an end after Athens lost a war with Sparta. This was the Peloponnesian War. For a while, Athens was ruled by a small group of Spartans. Although this Athenian democracy would survive for only two centuries, Cleisthenes' invention was one of ancient Greece's most enduring contributions to the modern world.

Other city-states had at one time or another systems of democracy but the Athenian version was certainly the most developed. The ancient Greeks have provided us with fine art, breath-taking temples, timeless theatre, and some of the greatest philosophers, but it is democracy which is, perhaps, their greatest and most enduring legacy.

Classical quotes about democracy

"Democracy arises out of the notion that those who are equal in any respect are equal in all respects; because men are equally free, they claim to be absolutely equal". *Aristotle*

" The defining characteristic of democracy is that it is rule by laws -- not rule by the people". **Aeschines**, an Athenian statesman, orator, and follower of **Socrates**

"In a Democracy, the poor will have more power than the rich, because there are more of them, and the will of the majority is supreme". *Aristotle*

"It is impossible to impart political wisdom, yet everyone, no matter what his trade or level of poverty can participate equally in democracy." **Plato**

II. <u>HISTORY OF ROME</u>

Before the rise of Rome Italian peninsula was inhabited by three groups of tribes, peoples none Indio - European (their descendants were probably Ligurians), italics (Latins, Umbri, Samnites, Sabin, Aequi, Volscians) and the Illyrian tribes. The most significant impact on the history and culture of the region had the Etruscans (Etrusci or Tusci) - the people of northern Italia (Etruria). We could not yet read the majority of Etruscan texts, and therefore the history and origins of the Etruscans are only suppositions. In ancient times it was doubted whether they came from Asia Minor, or were native to the Italian peninsula.

The Etruscans founded polis - **city-state**. The most important are Caere, Veii, Tarquinia, Vulci, Volterrae. They did not create a single coherent state, but the relationship (union) of the towns (probably

there were 12) called **Lukumonia Etruscan**. The cities initially were ruled by kings, later replaced by their officials, and the system of monarchy changed in the aristocratic republic. The population consisted of ruling families and the common people. Each year, people collected around the temple of the goddess Voltumny, where the sacrifices took place, the games were held, the main priest was elected and the commander of the federal troops in case of war. The Etruscans practiced medicine, astronomy, used the lunar calendar and duodecimal accounting system. Etruscan mythology was gloomy, they practice human sacrifice, and divination (foretelling from the liver of animals, the celestial phenomena), they believed in an afterlife. In many Tuscan cities we have remaining after them: ruins of walls, aqueducts, temples, tombs. In the tombs survived a lot of monuments of wall painting with scenes from everyday life and worship of the dead, the beautiful bronze mirrors and various bronze and gold vessels, weapons, tripods, candlesticks, kettles, etc. Preserved remains testify to the high level of development. The Etruscans used a similar writing to the Greek, which is easy to read, but totally incomprehensible.

Rome (Roma), also called the "Eternal City" or "City of Seven Hills" has it's origins in the Iron Age, as Latyins settlement, situated at the top of the Palatine Hill. Its inhabitants were simple shepherds sheep, with time took up crafts and trade with its neighbours. When population started to grow, further populated hills - Eskwilin and Capitol. According to the legend of Romulus and Remus, the first ruler of the city was Romulus. Rome, which was to be established by him in the year 753 BC, was ruled by kings until the expulsion of the last Etruscan king in 509 BC. The King of Rome had the full authority over the military, judicial and religious. Tradition gave the names of the Seven Kings, who had dominion in total of 244 years, but only three of the last ruler, Etruscan origin, are historically and credible. The other four characters are only known through legends.

Roman society consisted then of rightfull members of families (**Patricia**) and people without full rights (**commoners**). The oldest representatives of the families (**patres**) formed a congregation of the eldest. Senate (**Senatus**), acted as the advisory body to the apartment next to the King. There were also **meetings**, **consisting of adult men** (plebeians and patricians). They voted with the majority of votes. During the reign of the Kings in the city there were built the temples of Janus and Jupiter, curia of Hostilius (the place for meetings of the Senate), they found the harbour city of Ostia, built the first bridge over the Tiber, started construction of a circus (later the Circus Maximus), dried Forum (later the Roman Forum), brought to the cities the priestesses of Vesta (Vestal). The kings began a policy of conquest, subordinating a number of other lands in Italy. The last of the Roman Kings - **Lucius Tarquinius Superbus** - an extremely harsh and unpopular man, was overthrown and banished from the city by the people in **509 BC**. This year is considered to be the end of the monarchy, and the beginning of the republic. At that time, Rome had extensive (as the city - state) territory, strong army and wide business and diplomatic contacts, not only wih neighbouring Latin cities, but also with the towns of Etruscan, Greek colonies in southern Italian peninsula and from the distant Carthage.

From the very beginning of the republic's government in Rome, the power belonged to a small group of patricians, who could easily make decisions without asking plebeians, which in turn led to **conflicts between the patricians and plebeians**. The highest political and administrative authority in the Roman republic held the **senate** composed of distinguished patricians for the state that controlled all aspects of life of the state. The Senate, in an exceptional situation, could appoint the **dictator** for next six months (he had unlimited power, was able to deduce the state of the crisis). Other officials of the republic chose the people during **the assembly of the people**. In Rome, there was the principle of **collegiality offices**, which meant that officers with the same powers and authority were always two (except a dictator). Other essential for the functioning of the republic offices were: **consuls** (convene the Senate and Assembly, commanded the army), **the tribunes of the people** (represented by commoners, had the right to veto decisions of the Senate or

officers), **magistrates** (judicial power, substituted for the absent consuls), the censors (created a list of senators), **quaestors** (collected taxes, managed the finances of the country), **aediles** (supervised order in the city). Those functions in the republic did not give any tangible benefits. Officials bore the huge costs by organizing events for the population, providing it with entertainment and comfort, and generous officer could enrol in the memory of his countrymen and hope for the reward, in the form of support for another position. Trying to choose an official candidate for the assumed special toga candida and led **the election campaign**, involving the handling areas and gaining the support of the people. It was normal to buy some votes.

Between V and III BC the Roman Republic has started to expand, as a result of which soon took over the entire Italia. Conquered peoples had become the allies of Rome and had to support Rome with it's own forces. Part of the conquered lands settled with the colonists. Already in the third century BC Romans have been introduced to **expand beyond the limits of Italy**: Sicily, Sardinia, Spain, North Africa, Greece and Asia Minor.

The most famous was the war with Carthage (a Phoenician city in northern Africa), as a result of which Rome won his first province - property outside Italy- Sicily. The Romans fought a total of three wars with Carthage, later called the Punic wars (Punic Romans called Carthage). The immediate cause of the conflict was a clash of interests of the two countries in the Strait of Sicily. I Punic War (264 - 241 BC) forced the Romans to build the fleet. Since the Romans did not have much experience in naval warfare, they began to be inspired by the Greeks. Introduced movable bridges with hooks, placed on the bows of ships, which dumps for an enemy ship, only to result in longer-hand combat. As a result of the first Punic War Carthage gave Rome three islands of Sardinia, Sicily and Corsica, and was forced to pay compensation. Humiliated after World War Punic Carthage, thinking about revenge and soon due to a clash of interests and aspirations of the two powers on the area of today's Spain, there was another war. The direct cause of new conflict (Second Punic War, 218-201 BC) between States was winning the Saguntu by Carthage, a city which was in alliance with Rome. At the head of the Carthaginian army in Spain was Hannibal, who was counting on his well-practiced land army, supported by militant elephants. He decided to move the war to Italy, arriving there by land through the Pyrenees, Gaul and the Alps. This expedition became legendary. The Romans were forced to defend Italy, but legions failed to stop the march of the Carthaginian leader. August 2 216 years BC there was a battle of Cannae in southeastern Italy. The Romans were defeated, but no one thought of surrender, they managed to carry out an offensive in Sicily, Syracuse gain and expel troops from the island of Carthage at the same time the Romans went on the offensive in Spain. The young Roman commander Publius Cornelius Scipio was able to take the main village of Hannibal in Spain - New Carthage, and when he was elected consul and found the main leader went to Africa. Victory Scipio in Africa forced the authorities to cancel the Carthage Hannibal and download it from the army to his homeland. Immediately after arriving in Africa, Hannibal gave the young Roman consul general battle of Zama (202 B.C.), in which victor was Scipio. Humiliated Carthage had to give up all possessions apart from North Africa, to pay huge compensation and its policy of war was to be approved by Rome. After losing two wars Carthaginians were weakened militarily and economically. They did not have a standing army, and the internal situation was chaotic. In Rome itself more loudly talked about unnecessarily final destruction of Carthage. They became famous words of Cato, determined opponent Carthage, ceterum censeo Carthaginem esse delendam ("And besides, I think Carthage must be destroyed"), with which the Roman senator always ended his speeches, even if they did not concern Carthage. Cato thought that the Romans never will have the sense of security and freedom, until Carthage be destroyed. Finally, in 149 years BC Rome declared war on Carthage and sent legions to Africa. Carthaginians withstood the siege of the city from 149 to spring 146 years BC The final assault Scipio's troops ended with the defeat of the city, Carthage was conquered, destroyed, and the land on which stood,

ploughed and cursed (dusted with salt so nothing could grow there anymore). 90% of residents were killed during the siege and assault the rest taken into slavery.

As a result of the conquest of the Mediterranean world and the changes caused by this system Rome began to break down, and its basic institutions, the Senate, or popular assembly, they started to work incorrectly. Rich bought large estates where slaves worked, massively brought in from different parts of the country. Small landowners, which were the backbone of the army, spent a long time in the war. The rich families used the situation and confiscated their property. Loss of assets drove to the collapse of middle-class Romans, and this, in turn, did not allow for joining the army. The hugeness of the empire and continuous fights on all borders forced the Senate to look for the way of healing state. They accepted the reform of Gaius Marius and the creation of a professional army, made up of legionnaires, who received for his service payment. From that moment the Roman army consisted mostly of poor people and the proletariat and the Roman army became a tool in the hands of the victorious generals. Soldiers thanks to legions gained booty and climbed on the social ladder. Soon rivalry between chiefs and standing behind them great families led to civil war. As a result of this war Julius Caesar came to power. In 46 B.C. Caesar ordered to choose himself consul for 5 years, he was given the power by which he could establish alone a Senate, entrust the office of Consul, Praetor and Treasurer. In the same year, Caesar received from the Senate the title of emperor. The final step to full power he received in February 44 B.C. by getting the title of perpetual dictator (dictator in perpetual motion). Caesar also made a number of reforms affecting the management of the state, including: doubling the number of praetors and quaestors and aediles, he increased the number of senators. Roman aristocracy started to fear for their position they tied conspiracy which led to the murder of Julius Caesar on March 15, 44 B.C. Caesar's death led to another civil war, which lasted up to 30 B.C. Eventually Augustus, the adopted son of Julius Caesar took over. He defeated Mark Antony in the naval battle of Actium. The successor of Caesar joined Egypt to the empire, and three years later, the Senate awarded him the title of Augustus, which is divine. That event is considered the beginning of the empire.

The history of the Empire is divided into two periods: the principate (27 BC to the end of the third century A.D.) and dominat (from the fourth century A.D. to 476 A.D.). The first system was shaped by Augustus. The emperor as princeps - "first citizen of the republic", - concentrated in his hands all the power, with appearance of the Republican institutions. After the death of Augustus, Roman emperors based their power on the military. At that time, Rome constantly expanded its boundary including taking Britain, Dacia and Arabia, and the European Empire boarders were on the river Rhine and the Danube. During the principate the Roman Empire was ruled by four great dynasties of emperors. Rulers propagate the cult of the person of the emperor, in Rome developed eastern religions, including Christianity. After the death of the last member of the dynasty Severan in 235 A.D. began a period of usurpation, civil wars and internal chaos. The economic crisis increased as the threat of barbarian tribes. The remedy for this situation was the introduction of the new system, dominat. Emperors: Diocletian and Constantine the Great carried out a reform of the political system, and as a result the state has become an absolute monarchy (dominat). In 313 A.D. Constantine the Great granted the Christians freedom of religion and equality of the official religion (Edict of Milan) In 395 A.D. (after the death of Theodosius I) the Empire was divided into two parts: the Eastern Empire (with its capital in Constantinople) and the Western Empire (with its capital in Rome). Dominat broke off completely from the appearances of the republic, giving full power to the emperor. The collapse of the state dates back to 476 A.D., when Germanic leader Odoacer, overthrew the last emperor of the Western Empire-Roman, Romulus Augustulus. The Fall of the Roman Empire, however, was not a single event but a long process that involved several centuries. To this day, scientists have ongoing disputes about when started the progressive collapse of the Roman Empire and what were its causes. The most frequently mentioned causes include:

- Low political culture, bureaucracy, corruption, self-interested officials, irregular flow of taxes to Rome;
- Great migration of peoples and invasions on the borders of the Empire;
- The economic crisis the collapse of the value of money, lack of cheap labour;
- Struggle for power inside, instability, civil wars;
- Termination of the territorial conquests of which showed a reduction in the influx of slaves, who were the main workforce in the Empire;
- Expansion of Christianity
- Too large extent of the borders of the Empire, not enough troops to be able to maintain buffer zones;
- Division at East and West Empire resulted in a doubling of bureaucracy and lack of stability

Bibliography:

http://www.imperiumromanum.edu.pl

III. MYTHS AND RELIGION

Greek religion

The ancient Greeks were deeply religious people. They worshipped many gods whom they believed appeared in human forms. Ancient Greek Religion was polytheistic, based on the idea that there were many gods and goddesses. Gods acted like humans, and human like Gods. They would interact with humans, sometimes even conceiving children with them.

Greek oracles constitute a fundamental aspect of Greek religion and culture. The word oracle in Greek can mean several related things. Back in ancient times, an oracle was understood as someone who offered advice or a prophecy thought to have come directly from a divine source. It means a god who predicts the future, like Apollo. It also means the priest who hears the message, and the message itself, and the place where the priest hears the message. Oracles can only be received by certain gods, in the right places following rigorous rites. The principal God known for oracles is Apollo. His oracle was in Delphi.Roman mythology is very similar to the Greek. Their stories are based on Greek mythology but change the names of some gods and heroes.

Greek mythology is the body of myths and teachings that belong to the ancient Greeks related to their gods and heroes, the nature of the world, and the origins and ritual practices.

There are many collection of narratives about Greek mythology and representational art such as vase paintings. The oldest known Greek literary sources, Homer's epic poems Iliad and Odyssey, focused on the Trojan War and its aftermath. Iliad is about the Trojan War and its protagonist is Aquilles. Odyssey is a poem that mainly focuses on the Greek hero Odysseus (known as Ulysses in Roman myths) and his journey home after the fall of Troy. Another important text is Theogony (by Hesiod).

Homer's poems contain accounts of the genesis of the world, the succession of divine rulers, human ages, the origin of human problems and the origin of sacrificial practices.

Archaeological findings give a source of detail about Greek mythology, with gods and heroes. Geometric designs on pottery of the eighth century BC describe scenes from the Trojan cycle as well as the adventures of Heracles. The discovery of the Mycenaean civilization by the German archaeologist Heinrich Schliemann in the 19th century, and the discovery of the Minoan civilization in Crete by the British, Sir Arthur Evans, in the 20th century, helped to understand Homer's epics giving archeological evidence.

Greek mythology has had an extensive influence on the culture, arts, and literature of Western

civilization. Poets and artists from ancient times to the present have been inspiration from Greek mythology.

The resulting mythological "history of the world" may be divided into three periods:

1. The myths of origin or age of gods (Theogonies, "births of gods"): myths about the origins of the world, the gods, and the human race.

2. The age when gods and mortals mixed freely: stories of the early interactions between gods, demigods, and mortals.

3. The age of heroes (heroic age), where divine activity was more limited. The last and greatest of the heroic legends is the story of the Trojan War.

1. The Myths of Origin or Age of Gods

In the beginning, the universe was without form; there was only matter, but it was unorganized, shapeless, mixed up and dark. This was called Chaos. After Chaos, came more divinities, or gods.

Gaia, the Earth, held up Uranus, the sky. Gaia and **Uranus** had many kids. First they had monsters including the Cyclops, and then they created the Titans as the second generation. Uranus hated all the Titans and was actually quite dreadful about it. First, Oceanus, the god of the sea, and then Cronus, the strongest and best one of all. Gaia was very annoyed at Uranus for being such a jerk, so she helped Cronus overthrow him.

Cronus is Uranus's son. Cronus became the king, and married his sister, Rhea — another Titan. This was called the Golden Age because men, who had been made by a Titan named **Prometheus**, were living in harmony.

It didn't last, because Cronus heard a prophecy that one of his sons would dethrone him, so every time his wife, **Rhea**, had a baby, he swallowed it. Rhea could not stand seeing all of her children swallowed alive, so she tricked Cronus when her sixth child, **Zeus**, was born; she wrapped up a rock to look like a baby and had Cronus swallow that instead. Zeus rescued his previously swallowed children, and all was right with the world.

2. <u>The Olimpians Gods</u> (The age when gods and mortals mixed freely)

Among the principal Greek gods were the Olympians, residing on Mount Olympus under the eye of Zeus. <u>Zeus</u> was the king of the hill. He was dominating, powerful and liked pretty women. He could be terrifying when angry. His symbols were the thunderbolts, or lightning bolts made for him by the Cyclopes (his uncles); the eagle; and a rod. His Roman name is Jupiter.

<u>Hades</u>, or Pluto (Roman name), was the god of the underworld and of the dead. He was Zeus's brother and married Persephone after kidnapping her against her will. He was gloomy and frightening.

Next, we have **Poseidon**, or Neptune, as the Romans called him. He was Zeus's brother, and he was the god of the sea and also earthquakes. He often is shown with a trident that was made for him by his nephew, Hephaestus, and/or a fish.

Our first goddess is <u>Hera</u>. She sits on the right side of Zeus and is his wife. Of course, she's his sister, too, but that's the way it was on Olympus. Hera's Roman name is **Juno**, and she is the queen of the gods. She is the guardian of marriage and was well-loved by the Greeks; she's the goddess of marriage but her own marriage was so bad. She was often jealous of her husband's girlfriends but she could be tender and loving as well. The peacock was her symbol. In fact, the circles in a peacock's tail are said to be the eyes of her 100-eyed servant, Argus.

Next is <u>Athena</u>, or Minerva (Roman name), the daughter who was born from the head of Zeus after a major headache. She is the goddess of wisdom and war and also the protector and namesake of the city of Athens. She preferred reason to violence. She turned **Arachne** into a spider for showing off that she could spin better than Athena. She was very competitive and is often pictured with her helmet and a lance. She carried Zeus's shield, called the aegis. The owl was her bird.

<u>Apollo</u> was a twin. His Roman name was the same as his Greek name. He was the god of the sun or light, poetry, music and medicine and was famous for his oracles (wise women to whom he gave his power to

predict and interpret the future). He was very proud and also protective of his mother and sister. His symbols were the gold bow and arrows, and he often appears golden and shining. He wears a laurel wreath in memory of Daphne, who didn't want to be his lover and prayed to Mother Earth for help escaping him; she was turned into a laurel tree.

<u>Artemis</u> was Apollo's twin. Her Roman name was Diana, and she was the goddess of hunting, chastity and the moon. She protects women and small children, is fiercely independent and dislikes men. In pictures, she is seen accompanied by three hunting hounds, a bow and a fawn.

<u>Ares</u> or, as he is known by his Roman name, Mars, was the god of war. He would fight on both sides, if possible. He was young, strong and handsome, and liked to dress in battle clothes.

Hephaestus, or Vulcan (Roman name), was born lame and was further crippled when he was thrown from Olympus by his mother, Hera, in a rage. He was the only Olympian with a disability. He was unhappily married to Aphrodite and worked as a blacksmith in the gods' forge.

Hephaestus's wife, <u>Aphrodite</u>, whose Roman name was Venus, was the goddess of love and beauty. She was born out of sea foam when the blood of Uranus dropped into the ocean. She was the mother of Eros and was irresistibly charming, capricious, selfish and competitive. Her symbol was a magic belt, that made everyone fall in love with the wearer; sometimes she would lend it to humans.

Dionysus or Bacchus (Roman name) was Zeus's son by another woman, who was driven crazy by Hera and her jealousy. Dionysus went all around teaching people how to make wine and having a good time. Eventually, Hestia gave up her throne for him, and he lived on Olympus. He was the god of wine and also vegetation.

Hermes, or Mercury (Roman name), was the god of science and invention, but he is best known as the messenger of the gods. He is often pictured with a helmet and winged sandals. He is said to have invented the alphabet, boxing and gymnastics!

Demeter was the goddess of the crops and the harvest. She is also known as **Ceres** (Roman name) and sometimes Deo. Her symbols include a torch, a crown, a scepter and stems of grain. She is often portrayed with her daughter, Persephone, who was kidnapped by Hades and taken to the underworld. By the time she was rescued, she'd eaten six pomegranate seeds, so she couldn't escape the underworld entirely. Her mother was so shocked that winter covered the land and no crops would grow. A deal was made, and Persephone was allowed to return to her mother for half of the year. So each year, when she returns to the underworld, fall comes, then winter — but when she returns to her mother, spring and summer come again.

Hestia was Zeus's sister and the goddess and protectress of hearth and home. She is also known by her Roman name, Vesta. She was gentle and kind and was very popular with the Greeks. She didn't have a lot of adventures, so she's rarely pictured in art.

3. The age of heroes

The age in which the heroes lived is known as the heroic age. The epic and genealogical poetry created cycles of stories around particular heroes or events and established the family relationships. These are the main stories of this age and the main heroes:

<u>Heracles</u> Hercules (Roman name) was half man and half god but he didn't know it. His mother was a mortal. But his father was a king - a very special king, the king of all the gods, Zeus.

Hera helped Eurystheus design **12 Labors** (missions or tasks) that Hercules had to complete. Supposedly, when Hercules had completed the 12 Labors, he would earn his immortality. But Hera and Eurystheus were certain that one of their "labors" would kill Hercules, probably the very first one. At the end, Hercules had great adventures, discovered true friends, and rid the world of some really wicked creatures.

<u>Argonauts</u> The story of the Argonauts is one of the oldest Greek legends and incorporates many common elements in popular stories: a hero who is sent to a dangerous place but emerges victorious with the help of unexpected allies. The only surviving Hellenistic epic, the Argonautica of Apollonius of Rhodes (epic poet,

scholar, and director of the Library of Alexandria) tells the myth of the voyage of **Jason** and the Argonauts to get back the Golden woolly coat from the mythical land of Colchis.

Trojan War Greek mythology culminates in the Trojan War, fought between Greece and Troy, and its aftermath. The main hero of the Trojan War was **Achilles**.

The war lasted ten years. Some famous fighters were Achilles, Paris, and Hector. The Greeks won by building a big wooden horse: the Trojan Horse. Some Greek soldiers hid inside the horse, and the rest put the horse on the shore and left in their boats. The Trojans saw the horse and thought that the Greeks had surrendered. They thought the horse was a present. They dragged the horse into Troy and celebrated their victory. When night fell, the Greeks hiding inside the horse opened the city gates and set fire to the houses. The Greeks who had left in their boats had just pretended to leave. They returned and won the war. The trick was thought up by **Odysseus** (or Ulysses) King of the small island of Ithaca.

GREEK	ROMAN	GOD OF	SYMBOL
1. Zeus	Jupiter/Jove	King of the Gods	Thunderbolt, eagle and oak tree
2. Hera	Juno	Queen of the Gods	Peacock, cow, wedding ring
3. Poseidon	Neptune	The Sea	Sea, trident, horse, dolphin
4. Hades	Pluto	The Underworld	Pomegranate, cap of invisibility
5. Hestia	Vesta	Hearth/Home	Fireplace
6 Athena	Minerva	Wisdom/War	Owl, olive, tree, plow, loom
7. Artemis	Diana	Moon/Hunt	Moon, deer, silver bow and arrows
8. Apollo	Apollo	Light/Music/Prophecy	Lyre, sun, mice, Laurel tree
9. Aphrodite	Venus	Love/Beauty	Dove, swan, roses
10. Hephaestus	Vulcan	Fire/Forge	Hammer, quail
11. Ares	Mars	War	Dog, wild boar, vulture
12. Hermes	Mercury	Messenger/Divine Herald	Caduceus, crane

12	OLYN	ΜΡΙΑΝ	GODS
			0000

Extra practise: http://www.dl.ket.org/latin/mythology/1deities/gods/lesser/index.htm

Roman religion.

The ancient Romans were polytheistic, they worshipped many gods. Worship of the gods involved sacrifice and prayer. Roman religious rituals were cold and formal. The Romans were tolerant of the religious beliefs of the many people they conquered. This led to a wide range of religious cults emerging in Rome during the Imperial period.

The gods and goddesses of ancient Rome

There were two groups of gods and goddesses in ancient Rome. There was the official state religion worshipped in public and informal household spirits worshipped in private.

Many Roman gods and goddesses were borrowed from the Greek pantheon (group of gods and goddesses). Roman Jupiter was Zeus, Juno was Hera and Minerva was Athena. These gods were the most important in Roman state religion.

There were also a number of native Roman gods, goddesses and nature spirits worshipped by the

Roman name	Role
Flora	Goddess of Spring and flowers
Janus	God of doorways and bridges
Roma	Patron goddess of Rome
Faun	A male country spirit
Cerberus	A three-headed dog that guarded the gates of Hell
Victoria	Goddess of war and victory
Pan	Guardian of the countryside and animals
Nymph	A female nature spirit
Triton	A male water spirit

Rligion in republican times

The Romans built temples for the state gods. Roman people attended public sacrifices and participated in religious festivals. Offerings to the gods came in many forms, including cakes, flowers, statues and animals. The most frequently sacrificed animals were oxen.

There were a number of priesthoods created to worship the Roman gods. The most important priests and priestesses in Roman religion were *Pontiffs, Augurs, Fetiales, Flamens* and Vestal Virgins. These positions were often occupied by Roman politicians as they climbed the political ladder.

The head of all priestly offices was the *Pontifex Maximus*, a position occupied for life. *Pontifex Maximus* meant chief bridge builder. In early Roman history, bridge builders were regarded as magical and were honoured.

Vestal Virgins were young women selected for service in the temple of Vesta from the age of six. Their duty was to make sacrifices to the goddess Vesta and keep her sacred fire burning in the temple. The Vestal Virgins were only allowed to leave the temple after 30 years of service.

Before the Romans made important decisions such as going into battle or electing a new *Pontifex Maximus*, they would always check the omens to see if the gods approved of the action. This was called divination.

There were many ways to take auspices. Flights of birds, flashes of lightning, eclipses or other natural phenomena were interpreted as signs of the gods. The most common form of divination was done by examining the internal organs of sacrificed animals. If the internal organs showed any sign of disease, the omens were bad and the Romans would change their plans. If the internal organs were healthy, the Romans would go ahead.

The Romans were very superstitious. They believed in unlucky days and were afraid of owls, black cats, snakes and ghosts. Night was considered a time of 'shady' dealing. Romans never held Senate meetings during the night or the thunderstorm

Household gods

The Romans worshipped many household spirits in private. These spirits were responsible for the wellbeing of the household and its inhabitants. Each Roman had a *lararium* (shrine) in their home where they prayed and made offerings to the household gods.

Lares	Protected the home
Penates	Protected food in the cupboards
Vesta	Goddess of the hearth
Janus	God of doorways

Religion in imperial times

As Rome was converted into an empire by Augustus, Roman religion changed. The most significant change during the Augustan period was the introduction of the cult of Caesar. In contemporary Greece and the Near East, it was common for rulers to be worshipped as gods. For the Romans, the practice was not popular. Augustus was able to combine Eastern ruler worship with Roman ancestor worship. Augustus took

steps to have the deceased politician Julius Caesar deified and worshipped as a god. He was associated with gods and goddesses such as Venus, Mars and Apollo. After 12 BC religious cults were established for the worship of Rome, Augustus and Julius Caesar. Roman provincials worshipped these new gods and tightened Rome's imperial grip. Augustus began a tradition of ruler worship. As each emperor died, his successor would declare him a god and erect statues and temples to him.

Another major change that occurred during the Imperial period was the introduction of foreign cults. Romans became disillusioned with their traditional cults and turned to foreign cults with their elaborate rituals and lifestyle guidelines. The Romans were especially attracted by the promise of an afterlife.

Romans became interested in the Egyptian goddess Isis and the Turkish goddess Cybele. These powerful and ancient mother goddesses attracted many female worshippers. Some Roman soldiers worshipped the Persian god Mithras. Initiation into the cult was frightening. Initiates met in underground temples and locked themselves in coffins for several hours.

There were several monotheistic religions practised in Rome. The most influential were Judaism and Christianity. The Romans launched a fierce campaign of persecution against the Christians and Jews who refused to worship the huge number of Roman gods and goddesses. Thousands of Christians and Jews were executed. It was illegal to practise Christianity until AD 311.

By AD 313, the Roman Emperor Constantine converted to Christianity, paving the way for it to become the official religion and change the course of Western history.

IV. OLYMPIC GAMES

Since the ancient times, the Greeks have always cared about physical fitness, as they believed that exercising contributes to the health and shows the perfection of man. In each city they were especially designated areas for exercises, called **gymnasium**, where the Greeks spent their time practicing. Residents of ancient Greece valued competition and they often competed with each other during various religious festivals, taking part in various competitions (sports, music, poetry), referred to as **agony**.

The most important competitions (games) were associated with the celebrations in honour of the gods and heroes and had **Panhellenic character**, which means that they were attended by athletes from all Greek polices. These Games were held, among others, in **Olympia, Delphi, in Isthmia and Nemea**. Pindar - Greek poet and singer, known mainly for his songs praising the winners of the Panhellenic Olympics, wrote that they were common festivals of all the Greeks, protected by the care of gods and devoted to them It reminded the Greeks that they formed an ethnic and cultural community.

The most famous games dedicated to Zeus were held every four years in Olympia. For the period of the Games and the month before they announced Pan-truce - Olympic Truce (**peace of God**). During the Olympic Games they suspended the war, trials and the death penalties, so that everybody could get to the games in Olympia safely and on time.

The four-year break between two successive Olympic was called the **Olympics** –from the Olympic Games in Olympia. This name was often used in ancient times as a chronological unit and the most famous record of using the Olympics referred to the date of the foundation of Rome.

Historians studying antiquity assume that the first Olympic Games in Olympia took place in **776 BC**, a winner in them was Koroibos of Elis. Its initiator was supposed to be (according to the myth) the dactyl Herakles, one of Kuret brothers (priests, who looked after the small Zeus). He was to call other brothers to compete in races and the winner was decorated with olive twig. The Last Ancient Olympic Games took place in **393 A.D**. A year later, the Emperor **Theodosius I** issued a bill prohibiting the Games as a celebration of pagan features. In **1896 in Athens** the first modern Olympic Games were held, modelled on the ancient Olympics, and their initiator was **Pierre de Coubertin**.

Ancient Olympic Games were held in late July and early August. Only free citizens of Greek polis and only men could take part. Athletes were naked, except for chariot races and race in full armour (Hoplites). Women could not take part in the celebrations even as spectators. The only exception was a priestess of the goddess Demeter, whose temple was in Olympia. Married women at the time of the Games had to leave Olympia.

There were the referees who were watching the competitions (Greek: **hellanodiks**). Games initially lasted only one day and included the race on the length of the stadium (approx. 192 m), but as they were adding competitions, it was extended to 5 days. Initially, the prizes for the winners were wreaths from the branches of an olive tree growing in a sacred grove of Zeus. They were given only to the winners. The winners of the Games were regarded in Greece as heroes, poems and songs were written for them, coins were beaten, the monuments were built to honour them. In their hometowns they were preparing the welcome ceremonies. In the city walls they carved a hole through which they led them to the city, to show in this way that with such great heroes the policies did not have to fear anyone, so he walls were not needed. After the ceremony then they bricked the hole. The lists with the names of the winners were held in Olympia and constantly replenished.

Games were a religious ceremony, and therefore they used to begin with the celebrations in honour of Zeus. In a sacred olive grove **Altis** they lit a special cauldron. With time the grove filled with temples, places of worship and statues (including **the 13-meter statue of Zeus**, made of ivory and gold by Phidias). Anyone coming to Olympia brought with him a gift to Zeus or one of the other gods. Guests arriving for the Games were sleeping in the open air or in tents put around the city.

Most of the competition took place on a rectangular **stadium**, surrounded on all sides by slopes, which could fit up to 20 thousand spectators. Some elements of the buildings remained up to this day. The length of the track was **192.8 meters (600 feet)**, and at both ends of there was a row of starting blocks with support for the feet. There was also a channel that provided cold water to drink for spectators and platform for referees. Both the referees and the audience watched the competition standing. Players and referees walked from the Altis to the stadium through a special tunnel. The chariot races were held in **the Hippodrome**, which, however, did not survive to this day. Participants could practice and prepare for competition in the **gymnasium** – (in its ruins they discovered of the race track with a length 192.8 m) and in the building of the Palaestra. **Palaestra** was surrounded by a colonnade and it was used for training the boxers, wrestlers and athletes in the distance. It had a room where the competitors applied oil on their skin, sprinkled it with dust and rested . It was also equipped in a sauna/ steam room.

The GAMES :

• on the first day contestants participated in the ceremonies in honour of Zeus, took an oath (together with their fathers and siblings), that they will compete fair, will not cheat and that the previous nine months they had diligently practiced; oath was also taken by the referees; players who did not keep their oath and fought unfairly were stigmatized, punished by a fine and as a warning to the others the cities erected the monuments condemning them (Greek:zames);

• on the second day in the morning there were the chariot races at the Hippodrome, in the afternoon - **pentathlon** (pentathlon), consisting of the following competitions running, long jump, discus and javelin throw and wrestling;

• on the third day in the morning there were sacrifices to Zeus (150 oxen), in the afternoon there were racing competitions for boys;

•on the fourth day the contestants had to show courage and perseverance, competing in boxing, pankration and racing in full armour;

•on the fifth day the winners received olive wreaths, and they were given the right to put their statues in a grove of Zeus; apart from the main celebrations to honour the winners, there were also private parties, with dances to the sound of music.

During the Olympics athletes competed in the following disciplines:

• **running** - the most important Olympic discipline was running sprint the length of the stadium (192,8m), performed also on the medium distance (2 stadiums) and long distance(20-40 stadiums); before each course participants warmed up. If someone committed a false start-he was punished by flogging. On this day there were also races in full armour with a helmet, greaves and shield (Hoplites);

• throwing discus and javelin - the discus were made of bronze, marble and lead, weighed between 6-7 kg, the record was 30 meters; spears were made of light wood, a record distance was 91 meters; probably the contestants could throw the javelin three times – as it is indicated on the paintings on vases);

• **long jump** - jumper used the so-called flywheels weights (which were supposed to affect the length of the stroke), when bouncing the competitor threw them forward, and just before landing quickly retreated

back; Ancient Greeks considered jumping as the most difficult discipline;

• wrestling – there were two categories of wrestling - standing and ground; in the first one the winner had to throw the opponent three times to the ground, the second one lasted until one of the participants surrendered by raising a hand with outstretched thumb; biting and scratching was prohibited; players applied olive oil on their skin and sprinkled it with sand to make it easier for the opponent to make a grip; After the fight they removed it from their bodies by a special scrubber.

• **pankration** - was adored by audiences: very brutal discipline with the elements of boxing and wrestling, all tricks and grips were allowed;

• **Boxing** - competitors were using some kind of boxing gloves - wrists were wrapped with long strips of leather, leaving the fingers free;

• races - races were held in four and two horses' teams (the owner of the team received the wreath, and the driver – a sash); chariots were made of wood and wicker braiding; after that there were horse racing competitions on the same track. The riders rode bareback.

In addition to these major sports disciplines they took part in the other competitions, but not on the big scale. A popular discipline was a ball game resembling today's game of hockey.

Bibliography:

https://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Staro%C5%BCytne igrzyska olimpijskie

Igrzyska Olimpijskie, w: Śladami przeszłości. Podręcznik do historii dla klasy pierwszej gimnazjum, red. Stanisław Roszak, wyd. Nowa Era,2009, str.79-81

You can also read and watch:

<u>http://www.oocities.org/ejkotynski/Olympics.pdf</u> film BBC "Pierwsi olimpijczycy" - https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rVaY_7t94kc

V. <u>GREEK PHILOSOPHY</u>

Philosophy (phileo- love, Sophia- wisdom - love of wisdom), is a science that strives to know the laws that rule man, society, nature. Even the ancients tried to answer the basic questions, sought a ruling principle of the world, which would explain his wealth. Philosophers often were called the wise men, as they drew their knowledge, opposing religion and myths. The beginnings of Greek philosophy are determined on a breakthrough 7th and 6th BC. The first time the term was used by Pythagoras. The origins of Western philosophy are associated with the activities of the so-called **Pre-Socratian** - a group of thinkers living in an ancient Greece before Socrates, born between 600-400 BC. Before they came Greeks explained the functioning of the world through myths and actions of the gods.

Ionian School (Milesians, philosophers of nature) - this is defined as a group of philosophers coming from the cities of the Ionian coast of Asia Minor- for example Miletus. Each of them proposed original explanation of the world and its phenomenon. They believed that the world is organised, rational and ruled by certain laws, and at its basis lies "Pramattery" from which everything began and which was subject to various changes. One of the known representatives of this group is **Thales of Miletus**, who claimed that this pramattery came from water. Probably this was due to the observation of the natural world around him. Another representative of the Ionic school - **Heraclitus of Ephesus** as the basis of the universe recognized fire. The most famous part of his philosophy is **the concept of change** - thought that the world is in a constant state of change. His famous sayings include: "it is impossible to step twice into the same river", "everything flows".

The Pythagoreans is the name used to describe the disciples of **Pythagoras**, who came to southern Italy from the Greek island of Samos. Pythagoras was interested in the human soul and mathematics. The Pythagoreans were not looking for "pramattery" or the rules controlling the world but focused on the question of how a man should live. The answer to this question was related to the concept of **the human soul (psyche)**, which according to them was separated from the body, immortal and passed the cycle of reincarnation (wandering) in different bodies - human and animal (thus for example prohibition of eating meat), and to meet the needs of his soul a man should cultivate philosophy. The question of how the world

was created, Pythagoreans answered: the beginning and the essence of the world is the number.

An interesting mainstream of Greek philosophy, which developed before Socrates, is **atomism**, whose representative was **Democritus**. He believed that the world consists of particles that differ in size and shape to each other and are in eternal motion. He called them **atoms**. They argued that there is a vacuum in the world and in it, as a result of the movement of atoms, formed "clusters" of various shapes and sizes, and they create the world we know that our senses perceive (see). Another important group of philosophers presocrat are **sophists**. They were involved in various fields and considerations, preparing citizens to public life by teaching rhetoric, politics, philosophy and ethics. They claimed that "man is the measure of things," which became the basis for **the theory of relativity of knowledge**, according to which any philosophical assertion is no more true than the other one, it can only be more practical. The Sophists taught how to invalidate opponent's arguments, using carefully selected arguments, even lies.

Activity of Socrates, Plato and Aristotle (5th-4th century BC) is considered as the classic period of Greek philosophy, and their works have had a lasting impact on Western culture. Socrates was an opponent of the Sophists, in contrast to them, coming out of the assumption that there is objective truth that can be known. He did not leave any writings information, so everything about him and his philosophy comes from other sources, e.g. from the works of Plato. Socrates' approach to his own knowledge and summarizes the phrase that is attributed to him "I know that I know nothing." Socrates declared the same, that he is only a lover of knowledge (philosopher) and seeker of truth, and he doesn't have knowledge that he could teach in contrast to the Sophists. The philosopher used to walk the streets of Athens and discuss with passers-by on the philosophical themes. In this way, he approached the philosophy of ordinary man. In an interview he pretended simpleton, who expects from his interlocutor instruction and assistance in the search for truth. Socrates also believed that the aim of all human activity is happiness, but a healthy souls is the main condition of happiness. According to Socrates, every human being is in fact equipped with the individual soul, which distinguishes him from the animal, it is the essence of humanity and the seat of virtue. The soul becomes evil, vicious (not virtuous), when a man commits evil, vicious deeds. Therefore, the way to a happy, virtuous life is to know what is good (ethical intellectualism). Socrates believed that a man who knows what is good, will be, automatically, behaving well. Socrates did not work actively in politics, however he repeatedly discussed political topics. In many of his speeches he criticized Athenian democracy. Accused of impiety and a bad influence on young people, he was sentenced to death.

Disciple of Socrates was **Plato**, who in the fourth century BC founded in Athens philosophical school - **the Academy of Plato**. He believed that the true reality is the world of ideas, which is perfect and immutable patterns of all things, of which the most important are goodness, beauty and truth. He claimed that man has an immortal soul, which after death separates from the body. Prior to the merger with the body (the birth of) soul, according to Plato, knows everything, but during the birth – forgets everything. All research and inquiry are not investigation into the knowledge, which we do not have, but an attempt to remind ourselves of what we used to know. Plato created the concept of two worlds. In his opinion, one of them - **the world of ideas** – inhabited by the disembodied souls and perfect patterns (truth, beauty, goodness), and the second - that surrounds us – filled with the souls incarnated and things knowable through the senses, which are pale shadows of ideas. Plato created the base of idealism - according to which the world accessible to human senses is not the whole of reality, because next to what we see, there are immaterial beings that are eternal and unchangeable, and man can know it only by reasoning.

Aristotle also secured his fame as a student of Plato. According to him man to achieve happiness, should be guided by the dictates of reason and live according to the principle of **the golden mean**. This meant that in every situation you should try to exercise restraint. Comparing the regimes of the Greek polis, Aristotle came to the conclusion that the best of them is democracy. In his view, man is a **"political animal", "social being"** and is designed for life in society and in the country (where a man Aristotle considered exclusively male, so according to him, a woman could not be in politics). He also studies different species of animals (described more than 500). Aristotle founded in Athens philosophical school in the gardens **Lykeion**, hence later called High School. You could study there all the science, which the philosopher divided into: theoretical (their purpose is to formulate knowledge), practical (the goal is to conduct to moral perfection), poetic (or productive). He recognized as the most valuable theoretical sciences. According to Aristotle, the goal of

science is to explain the causes of the phenomena through **deduction** (draw conclusions from premises) or **induction** (inference "from the particular to the general").

Moreover, in Greek philosophy we can still find other philosophical systems, such as:

Stoicism - philosophy initiated by the Greek **Zeno of Kition** (3rd century BC, Athens), who recognized as the most important good the virtue, understood as life according to the principles of reason and the laws of the universe (inner balance). Such a life can allow man to become independent from the outside world and achieve the ideal of wise and true freedom. It is the ability to maintain inner peace and fortitude in difficult life situations. Among Stoics were also Seneca, Marcus Aurelius and Epictetus. Even today in our language works popular phrase stoic calm (stoic peace of mind).

Epicureans - the creator is **Epicurus of Samos**, who claimed that to find happiness you should enjoy life, happiness is most important for individual man, which can be achieved only by wise and fair man. Sufficient condition for happiness is the absence of suffering and worries. Epicureans acted in accordance with the principle of **carpe diem** - seize the day, enjoy the moment, use every day, do not waste the passing moment.

Cynicism - the creators of this system were called **philosophers of the barrel** in honour of the most famous representative of the cynic **Diogenes**, who lived in a barrel. Diogenes was once visited by a great ruler Alexander the Macedonian and asked what he could do for him. The philosopher had to answer him: I want you move up a step, so that the sun would shine on me. According to the cynics a person should feel satisfaction when it reaches the minimum necessary for life. Property and valuables bring only fear of losing them. For the sage the greatest value should be mind. Cynics mocked the authorities, contemptuous rejected the ideals and generally accepted standards.

Bibliography:

Wstęp do historii filozofii, Dion Scott-Kakures, Susan Castagnetto, Hugh Benson, Wiliam Taschek, Paul Hurley, Poznań 1999

Filozofowie i wynalazcy, w: Śladami przeszłości, red. S. Roszak, wyd. Nowa Era, 2009, str.87

http://www.starozytnosc.info/filozofia-grecka-rzymska

https://pl.wikipedia.org

You can also read and watch:

http://ed.ted.com/lessons/plato-s-best-and-worst-ideas-wisecrack http://ed.ted.com/lessons/plato-s-allegory-of-the-cave-alex-gendler

VI. <u>GREEK THEATRE</u>

Ancient theatre came from a celebration in honour of the gods of fertility, especially **Dionysus**. Feasts in honour of Dionysus were to introduce a man in ecstasy (leaving the Soul out of the Body and connection with Dionysus). After some time, the cult became more civilized- instead of dances in the villages were arranged some shows, the colourful processions took place and **dithyrambs** were sung (choral anthems). The participants were smeared with grapevine and dressed as accompanying deity **satyrs** (they wore buckskin). That is why the Dionysus' choirs are called goat's choirs, hence the name of the genre - **a tragedy (tragos - goat and ode - song).**

Feasts in honour of Dionysus were celebrated several times a year, among them one the most famous were: **Small Dionysia (Rural) and the Great Dionysia (City), celebrated in Athens.** Ancient tragedy derives from the Great Dionysia, which had more serious character, and were celebrated in March and April also combined with folding sacrificing goat and singing songs of praise.

A folk poet **Tespis of Attica** (sixth century BC) is considered to be the creator of the ancient tragedy, he introduced into the stage the actor - narrator, conducting a dialogue with the choir. The actor have been changing costumes and masks, returned on the stage in a variety of roles. Tespis' plays were exhibited on

the cart, driving around the villages, hence the term **"Tespis' cart"** (travelling theater). At this time Athens was ruled by Pisistratus, who in order to win the sympathy of the people, organized a general, state Great Dionysia (City). He invited Tespis, who in **534 BC** came to Athens and in the first edition of the dramatic festival (tournament) won the first prize for one of his works.

Over time, the authors of the tragedies gave up presenting only the fate of Dionysus and started to extend to other myths, and



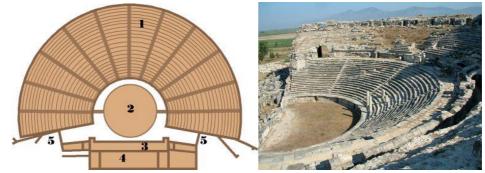
the chorus of satyrs was replaced by a choir made up of other people - depending on the subject of the tragedy. The role of the choir was gradually reduced, engaging more actors on the stage.

Great Dionysia lasted six days, including three days, which were devoted to a dramatic contest. Every day, one author staged four dramas - three tragedies and one **satyr play** (a variety of comedy, describing in a humorous way motifs and mythological figures, the action was usually set in a forest, copse, meadow, and the basic element of such a work was a choir dressed as satyrs). The plays were exhibited by the rich, who very often played in their works. The plays were also the subject to censorship - the year before the ruler had to know the title of the play, a special officer - archon - read it and checked the work. The author's life was also examined - he had to get a certificate of morality in order to stage a play during Dionysia. Admission to the theater were only for free men.

There was a benefit to the theater for the poor called **theorikon**.

Comedy was born half a century later than the tragedy - about **480 BC**. It derived from the ceremonies in honour of Dionysus celebrated in late January and early February, to ensure a good harvest. It was a cheerful song, sung by Komos – a procession of young men marching during a solemn march (**Komos** - march and **ode** - the song). It included songs with live action and happy ending. Through such plays even the head of states were attacked and criticised, because during the time when the work was exhibited there was freedom of speech, so-called. parrhesia.

The building of the Greek theater was shaped like a large outdoor **amphitheater** carved into the rock. The central location at the foot of **(1) the audience** was circular space for dancing and singing chorus **((2) orchestra**), the entrance leading to the orchestra called **(5) parodo**. The action of the play was staged on **(3) proskene**- the equivalent of today's scene, which is located above the orchestra. Behind proskene there was a small building - **(4)** skene, acting for the theater's backstage and dressing rooms. Skene soon began to be used as a background for plays - on the wall of the buildings three doors and balconies were built. When the role of the choir was reduced only the scene and the audience were left.



Originally actors had their faces smeared with grape must (extruded raw juice of the fruits of the wine) and performed in soft, embroidered shoes (Dionysus' boots). Later they performed in **masks** and **platform shoes** (they symbolized the status of the character, the higher the platforms were the higher social class). Masks were used as the resonance box (caused strengthening of sound), symbolized sex, occupation, social class, the character of the play (drama). It was used 4 basic types of masks: laughter, tears, anger and

fear. The costumes were very bright and colourful, so the actors were more visible from a distance. Only the men could act on the stage including female parts.

The final shape of the tragedy was reached in the fifth century BC in Athens. A play consisted of the following parts: **prologue** (preface, introduction to action), **parodos** (the entrance of the choir, the first song), **epeisodion** (coming actor on the stage, long speech or dialogue with the leader of the choir), **stasimon** (songs of the choir after epeisodion) **exodus** (final chorus of the song sung when the orchestra was leaving the stage).

In dramas there was **the rule of three classical unities**: the place (one place of event), time (action could only last one day), action (only one issue could be raised). It was not allowed to show blood or violence on the stage.

The main character of the tragedy had to come from the high class, and the subject of the play had to be taken from mythology. Only up to **three actors** could occur on the stage in the same time. The **chorus** was important, was like the narrator, told about what had happened behind the scenes, expressed the will of the people, the general reflections, commented on the event, replaced crowd scenes.

Watching the tragedy viewer should experience a **catharsis** - the purification, because - as Aristotle (philosopher) considered - the most important purpose of the play is to raise in the viewer the feelings of pity and fear to get through it, then clear his or her mind.

The greatest playwrights in ancient times were **Aeschylus of Eleusis** (VI-V c.), **Sophocles** (V c.) and **Euripides** (V c.). **Aeschylus** is considered as the founder of classic tragedy - he limited the role of the chorus, introduced the second actor, he diversified the masks and costumes, expanded the scenography. He staged approximately 70 tragedies and 20 satyr dramas, among them preserved Oresteia, The suppliants, Prometheus Bound. He was considered as a poet and moral reformer. According to some legends Aeschylus died hit by a turtle thrown by an eagle, who mistook the head of the writer with a stone, by which he wanted to break the shell of a reptile.

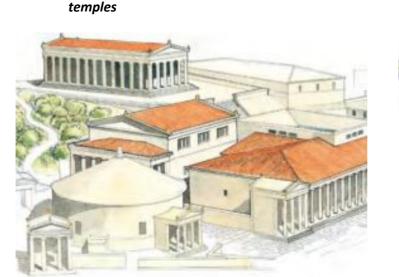
The second of the great tragedians - **Sophocles** - wrote 123 plays, preserved only 7 of them Ayax, Antigone, Oedipus the king, Trachis, Electra, Philoctetes and Oedipus at Colonus. The story of each is based on a different myth, but they were all well-known to the Athenians, so that they could focus on the artistic form of ritual theater. In Sophocles's dramas, in contrast to Aeschylus, a man of strong character was on the first plan, fully conscious and responsible for their actions. In the dramas of Sophocles the reader can deal with deep psychological analysis of the characters. The most famous of the surviving pieces of Sophocles' is **Antigone**. He wrote it at the age of 55, and staged 443 BC in the theater of Dionysus during the Great Dionysus. Topic of this play was taken from the Theban myths about the fate of family Labdacids. The action takes place in front of the royal palace at Thebes. The main issue of the work is the courage of Antigone and the attitude of other people towards her actions (the violation of king's prohibition in regards of her brother's –Polyneices- burial). Sophocles tragedy showed the conflict between the values (divine law and human rights, feeling and reason, obligation to family and national duty, honor and love).

Euripides, the youngest of the three Greek tragedians, is considered to be the representative of realistic drama. He wrote, Electra, Cyclops, Iphigenia in Tauris. Critically approached myths and gods, limited the role of the chorus, and the legendary threads explained in his own way. Often his ideas required a special solutions of action –for example, a creation of a machine that allowed to lower the actor from the roof (deus ex machina). Using that machine he could show the manifestation of God, who had expressed his will to the actors. The oldest among the playwrights was a comedy writer **Aristophanes**, who wrote against Athenian leaders and against war as a force which ruined primarily the poorest citizens. The most popular of his works include: The clouds, The wasps, The frogs.

Bibliography: <u>http://www.wiking.edu.pl/article.php?id=640</u>; <u>https://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Teatr_grecki</u>; Kultura starożytnej Grecji, w: Śladami przeszłości. Podręcznik do historii dla klasy pierwszej gimnazjum, red. Stanisław Roszak, wyd. Nowa Era,2009, str.82-83

VII. ART & ARCHITECTURE

Greek civilization was born in the 3rd millennium between the Aegean sea and the Peloponnesian peninsula and it spread all over the Mediterranean area, the Black sea, Asia minor to Persia. Starting from 8th century BC, the *Poleis* - small self-sufficient *city-states* – were formed. Their public buildings, such as *temples* were harmonious and colourful; the *theatre* was in the open air, built following the natural landscape and using the slope of the hill to create seats for the audience. 5th century Athens was the first town to adopt a democratic form of government, so becoming a model for all the Greek city-states. The *Agorà* was the central square of the lower town where all economic and politics activities took place. All main streets converged there. The *Stoà* was a public portico where judicial debates, political disputes and philosophical discussions happened. Approximately 150 metres from the town there was a fortress, the *Acropolis*, where religious ceremonies took place and it was the place where the most important temples were built. It was the symbol of the political and economic power.





theatre

Temples represented the city protector deities' homes and they were built high to allow everybody to see them from any point of the town and to defend them from enemies' attacks. They were built following fixed models based on different types of plans, all had the **naos** (chamber) in the centre where the statue of the deity was and where only priests were allowed to enter. Around it there was a colonnade with a variable number of columns. The forms and the proportions of all architectural parts followed fixed rules known as orders: **the Doric order, the lonic order, the Corinthian order**. Each order showed a different column shape and all the orders were based on the same modular principle: the diameter of the basis of the column was the unit of measurement for the whole building. To obtain a perfect balance between width, height and length, the proportions of the temple were determined by their mathematical relationships, as in a *repeated square*. In the archaic period there was the Doric order; in the classical period there was the lonic order and in the Hellenistic period, the Corinthian order.



Doric Order



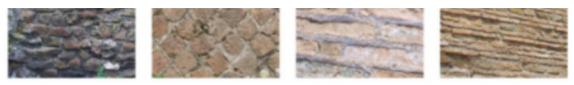


Corinthian Order

Between 2nd and 3rd century AD Rome became the biggest metropolis of the ancient world. Its public buildings (amphitheatres, baths, temples, the Basilicas in the forums) represented a model for all the towns scattered over the empire. At the intersection between the cardo (north south roads) and the decumano (east-west roads) there was the *forum*, following the model of the Greek Agorà and the buildings for public activities were built all around: they repeated the Greek architectural orders and the Etruscan arch.



Romans created many urbanization buildings such as bridges, aqueducts, sewage systems. They invented new building techniques and started to bind stones with *mortar* (a mixture of lime, sand and water) that once dried became solid and resistant. The linear and curved walls had different names according to the different types of building materials used.



To cover wide spaces, Romans used a system of vaults, which included: arches, vaults and domes. The arch was used to build bridges, aqueducts and amphitheatres (such as the Colosseum). The barrel vault was used to cover wide rectangular spaces such as baths and Triumphal Arches. Two crossed barrel vaults created a cross vault. The dome was used to cover wide spaces between pillars. The biggest dome of ancient times is (delete the one od) the Pantheon in Rome.



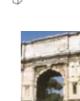


amphitheatres (such as the Colosseum)





aqueducts



Triumphal Arches



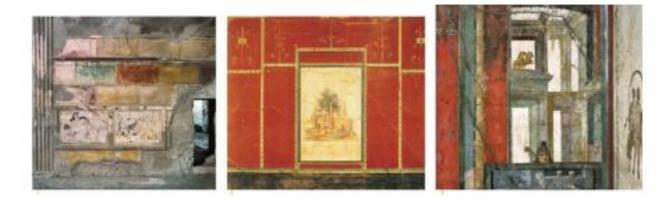
Pantheon

The domus (Latin for house) was a nobleman's house. It was surrounded by closed walls and had an inner courtyard, the peristile, surrounded by rooms. Painting was used to decorate the inside and outside walls of the domus.





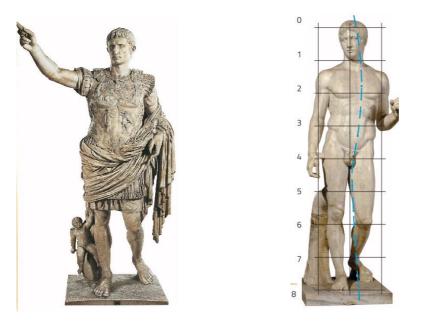




Mosaic work

After the conquest of Magna Greece and Greece, Romans took many Greek statues to Rome in order to study and copy them. To obtain a perfect statue one had to follow specific rules: the measurement unit was the head which had to be contained eight times in the body, the balance was given by arms and legs which had to be in tension or bent following a chiastic pose. These harmonic and balanced relationships between static and movement conferred ideal beauty to the work of art.

Roman sculpture was innovative as far as the portrayal in stoneworks was concerned. Its function was to celebrate the character who was depicted, such as by transforming him as a triumphant hero riding a horse or in his stance.



Fonte:Atlante di arte e immagine-Zanchelli

VIII. <u>Habits</u>

A TYPICAL DAY

A typical Roman day would start off with a light breakfast and then off to work. Work would end in the early afternoon when many Romans would take a quick trip to the baths, to bathe and socialize. At around 3pm, they would have dinner which was as much of a social event as a meal. Romans went to bed early.

FAMILY

The family unit was very important to the Romans. The head of the family was the father called paterfamilias legally he had all the power in the family. He could even decide about children's life and death. In relation to the slaves pater's authority was absolute: he could sell, kill, leave or set them free. However, usually the wife had a strong say in what went on in the family. She often handled the finances and managed the household Roman women were responsible for managing the daily affairs of their households. They were expected to use the slaves force at their disposal for keeping their residential complexes and homes clean and well maintained. They looked after the cloth production in their household which was a very important aspect of their duties. They, visited market for purchasing supplies. They were also responsible for entertaining guests and visitors.

ANCIENT ROMAN JOBS

Ancient Rome was a complex society that required a number of different job functions and skills to function. Most of the menial tasks were performed by slaves.

Most man worked six hours or fewer each day, usually stopping at midday.

Some of typical jobs were:

- Farm Most of the Romans who lived in the countryside the most common crop was wheat to make bread
- Soldiers The army was a way for the poorer class to earn a regular wage and to gain some land at the end of their services
- > Merchant Merchants of all sorts sold and bought items from around the Empire
- Craftsman From making dishes and pots ,to crafting fine jewelry and weapons for the army. Some craftsman worked in the individual shops , others were slaves , who worked in large workshops that produced items in large quantities.

- Entertainers The people of ancient Rome liked to be entertained .There were musicians, dancers, actors, chariots racers, gladiators.
- > Lawyers, Teachers, Engineers, writers, teachers. They were the more educated people
- Government There were all sorts of government jobs , from tax collectors and clerks and Senators . Senators (600 members) were the wealthy and powerful and served in their position for life.

SCHOOLS

Roman children started school at the age of seven. Wealth children would be taught by a full time tutor. Usually personal teacher, was an educated slaves. Other children went to public school. They studied subjects such us reading, writing, literature, maths . In school math was difficult, as six Roman letters (I- V- X-L-C-M) were used to create all numbers. Weights and measurements, history, philosophy and public speaking were also taught among other subjects. School was mostly or boys, however some wealthy girls were tutored at home. Poor children did not get to go to school.

ENTERTAIMENT

FEAST Rich Romans spent their spare time on feast with they love music and dancing and Public lectures and literary sets were very popular.

SPORTS AND GAMES

Sports and circus games also provided great amusement. The youth of Rome had several forms of play and exercise such us jumping, wrestling, boxing and racing. The Romans also had several forms of ball playing, including one resembling handball. Dice games, board games and gamble games were popular pastimes. Women did not take part in these activities. In the countryside, pastimes for the wealthy also included fishing and hunting.

GLADIATORS COMBATS

A popular form of entertaiment was gladiator combats. Gladiators fought either to the death or to "first blood" with a variety of weapons and scenarios. They entertained audiences in violent confrontations with other gladiators, wild animals and condemned criminals. Some gladiators were volunteers, most were slaves.

RACING

Also the horse and chariot racing were very popular. The Circus Maximum in Rome, was primaily used for this kind of race, and when the Circus was flooded there could be sea battles. Children entertained themselves with toys and such games as leapfrog.

BATHS

After work and school ended each day, most men and boys went to the baths, who were free or required only a very small fee to enter. Here people gathered, not only to wash, but also to sit and talk among friends. The bathhouse usually included gardens, gymnasium, libraries, restaurants, and other forms of recration. All Roman bathhouse contained a series of rooms which got progressively hotter. Most contained an *apodyterium* a room just inside the entrance where the bather stored his clothes. Next, the bather progressed into *frigidarium* (cold room) with its tank of cold water, the *tepidarium* (warm room), and finally the *caldarium* (hot room). The caldarium ,heated by a brazier underneath the hollow floor, contained cold water basins which the bather could use for cooling. *Natatio* a swimming pool with warm water from the spring. *Laconium* (*a* hot resting room) where the bathers could sit and sweat even more

After taking this series of sweats and or immersion baths the bather returned to the cooler tepidarium for a massage with oils.

CLOTHING

Romans used different materials for manufacturing clothes. The most commonly used fabric was wool. Almost all Roman families spun their own wool fabric in their house under the supervision of lady of the house. Romans also imported silk from China and India for manufactoring clothes

TUNIC was the most important part of Roman clothing. It was a kind of a long and white shirt, composed of two cotton pieces, without sleeves or with the short ones. Roman tunics varied in details depending an office that was held by their owners. Tunics were worn only in house, if the Roman wanted to go out , he had to put a toga on.

TOGA was a piece of cotton material that was about three metres wide and approximately 6-7 metres long. It was very difficult to compose toga appropriately, so there were special slaves who had to deal with it.

In the later years, most people wore toga with a cloak when it was cold. Roman women wore tunic too and

a special garment called stola. Stola was made of linen and was heavily pleated. Many women wore a shawl called "palla" over the stola to keep them warm. They also wore brooches, jewerly and other decorations with their clothes for more formal occasion.

FOOTWEAR Romans mostly wore footwear made of leather. There were two types of footwear worn by Romans. Calceus, a sandal with open toe and strapped too foot and Solea, a full shoe with a close toe were the two main varieties. The colour and the style also depicted the social standing of the person. Senators or Patricians wore red coloured shoes.

Roman slaves wore very modest clothing, it were not allowed to them to wear togas, a garment reserved only for free living citizens

IX. FOOD IN ANCIENT GREEK AND ROMAN TIMES

The ancient Greek and Roman cuisine is at the basis of the renowned modern Mediterranean Diet. This diet is based on the consumption of starch (bread and pasta), legumes, vegetables, extra-virgin olive oil together with meat and fish. In fact the basic food of ancient Greeks and Romans were: cereals, legumes, olive oil, meat, figs and dried fruits, wine, spices, honey and milk. OLIVE OIL

It was a main product in ancient times. In the Roman civilization people used only olive oil to cook and they chose the best quality of olive oil to season salads. The *green* oil from Venafro was particularly appreciated (as attested by the ancient writers Marrone, Plinio, Orazio); the African olive oil was considered to be of a very bad quality and was used for lighting. In that time olive oil wasn't refined, it wasn't filtered as we do nowadays, and as no specific treatments were adopted for a better and longer conservation, it became rancid very fast. This is why people used to add salt to it.

A very popular method was to preserve olives as long as possible after harvesting, by keeping them in salt. This allowed people to press them when needing to serve fresh olive oil to guests at dinners in any period of the year. This kind of procedure was possible only if olives were picked when they were green and were put in salt immediately.

During the imperial times, olives were served at any dinner, including the most important ones. Marziale said that they were both the beginning and the end of the meal, meaning that they were served for antipasto and after the meal, while guests entertained each other talking and drinking.

Olives were usually preserved in brine till the very last moment of use, then they were drained, depipped and minced with honey and several aromas. The white olives could be also marinated in vinegar and seasoned in the same way, ready for use. With bigger and better quality olives, people made very good conserves that lasted all the year and provided a cheap and nourishing food.

Today one of the most popular recipe of the Mediterranean area is the following: olives are left to dry in wicker baskets and in winter time they are rehydrated by soaking them in hot water. They are then seasoned with olive oil, salt, fennel and orange zest. They are served with dried sausages, salami and pecorino cheese. It is a very caloric dish, particularly suitable for the winter season.

CEREALS

In the Roman world, cereals were the main food source for both people and domestic animals. Romans grew spelt, barley, millet, wheat and a lesser quantity of panicum, oats and rye. The most popular cereals were wheat and spelt, the most ancient ones were barley and spelt. Along the centuries, spelt was replaced by some other cereals which offered a greater productivity and only recently the production of it has been resumed. Spelt was an important food source as it was mainly used to make polenta: it could be cooked both in grains, ground or crushed in the mortar and reduced to powder, looking like flour (in Italian the word farina = flour comes from the first syllable of the word "farro", far). Spelt was the first type of wheat to be used to make bread, but following the introduction of some new cereals as well as the use of the millstone, pulled by animals, facilitated remarkable progress.

In the ancient Rome of the 2nd century BC, thanks to lands rich in wheat, such as Sicily, Sardinia, Egypt and Africa, wheat bread went from being a luxury food to a very popular food for the whole urban mass, becoming soon a civil right granted by the state.

Today delicious soups are made in the Mediterranean area with spelt or whole grains crushed, enriched and flavoured with seasonal vegetables, bacon and pecorino cheese. In the summer season, spelt and barley are the main ingredients for fresh salads.

LEGUMES

Legumes played a very important role in the Roman diet, especially among the population. They were treated like cereals and they were very often dried to be cooked or ground into flour. Among the dried ones, the "fava" beans, being full of energy, had a primary role in the daily consumption.

Today legumes are often accompanied by cereals and their twice-a-week minimum consumption is recommended by nutritionists, to provide vegetable protein in place of animal protein. **FRUITS**

In very ancient times, Romans used to eat only wild fruits: hazelnuts (fresh or toasted), pine nuts, blackberries, walnuts. Grape and figs were very important: many varieties of grape were portrayed in ancient frescoes and bas-reliefs; figs had a role at the end of the meal. Figs were also eaten in large quantities as they represented a good remedy against fatigue and the liquid of the stalk was used to treat bunions and warts.

Today in the Mediterranean area the use of dried fruits to make cakes and desserts is very popular. **WINE**

In very ancient times wine was a luxury food. Only the heads of the families, adult men, could drink it. It was strictly prohibited to women according to one of the very first royal laws, which established the death sentence for women who committed this crime.

It was considered a barbarian act to drink wine pure and its intake was justified only for curative treatment or to accompany ceremonial offerings.

When Rome developed their trades, (due to its territorial conquests, the Roman population started to drink wine in public shops opened for this specific purpose. It became the most beloved drink by Romans: it closed all dinners and had a kind of sacred feature. At the end of the republican age, the Roman matrons started to cheerfully accompany their husbands in the pleasures of the banquet.

To reduce its alcohol content, wine was mixed with warm water or it was cooled with snow. Wine was much appreciated with the addition of honey. Cooked wine was very common on the Roman table; concentrated grape must, obtained by boiling, differed from one to another by their local water. Romans loved spicy wine – wine flavoured with spices and aromas such as myrrh, cinnamon and saffron. The greatest consumption of wine was during the imperial age and mainly in all production areas as well as in towns like Rome where, under Emperor Aurelian in the last decades of 3rd century AD, there was even a free distribution of this drink.

Today in the whole Mediterranean area the cultivation of vine is widely widespread and vines characterise the local landscape.

MEAT

Meat was considered a very important food in ancient times. Adult animals were mainly used for eating and their meat was generally tough. The toughness of the meat was due also to the preservation system in salt. For this reason meat was cooked twice: the first cook was in milk and the second was braised with vegetables or roasted. Pork was very popular as one could eat every part of this animal. Plinius stated that pork meat could offer almost fifty different in contrast to the one single flavour offered by any other animal. Pig's fat was used also to treat some illnesses.

Today in some areas of the Mediterranean country (like central Italy) the breeding of pigs is very popular and it represents an important income to the local economy.

SPICES

There was widespread use of spices in the ancient Greek and Roman cuisine and the majority of them came from eastern countries. They were essential for cooking because they could cover the strong smell of fish and meats that were starting to rot - an unpleasant consequence of the lack of fridges and preservatives. Among the most used indigenous spices there were: dill, cumin, marjoram, coriander and mastic resin.

Today spices are differently used in each Mediterranean country.

HONEY

In the Greek and Roman times sugar was unknown and honey was the unique sweetener. It was used to make cakes together with cheese (mainly sheep's cheese) and spelt flour.

Sweets and cakes were always present for celebrations like weddings, as they were a symbol and hope of wealth and prosperity. "Crustula", a particular type of wheat biscuit sold in the street after sacrificial ceremonies, was very famous and it was also the desired prize given to clever students by teachers.

Today it is a very important ingredient in all Mediterranean cuisine, mainly used in sweet recipes, but also in some meat dishes.

MILK

Milk was one of the most used ingredient by ancient Greeks and Romans. They used to drink it fresh or flavoured and it was essential for the preparation of cakes combined with flour, honey and fruits. At the very beginning it was used also for soups but then it was replaced by beef stock. Milk was an energetic food, easy to be preserved and carried once transformed in cheese. It was soon considered to be a complete meal. **VEGETABLES**

In Roman cuisine, between 1st century BC and 1st century AD, almost all the vegetables we know nowadays were present. Eggplants were introduced to the European area by the Arabs during the Middle Ages; peppers, potatoes, tomatoes and some types of beans came to Europe after the discovery of America. People much appreciated all the products not needing to be cooked, as they economised on wood burning and were always ready and available. They were called "Acetaria" from the vinegar ("aceto") seasoning. Lately they were seasoned also with olive oil.

Both in republican and imperial times, bulbs, sprouts and roots were the basis of the vegetarian diet because of the ability to preserve them for long periods in salt or vinegar. Lettuce, especially the romaine variety (compulsorily grown by legionaries at the border of the "Castrum", the fortified military camp), mushrooms (the Romans loved them), artichokes (very expensive and mainly consumed by rich people) and cabbages (which were considered to have miraculous properties as well as laxative and bonding properties) were in great use in ancient Greek and Roman times.

Today dishes having vegetables as a main ingredient are very typical of all Mediterranean countries.