



in their presence. Brutus, raising the bloody weapon, exclaimed: "I swear to avenge Lucretia and pursue to death the accursed race of the Tarquins." The others took the same oath, and, going to the camp and the city, communicated to the citizens the indignation that filled their own bosoms. A revolt followed, Tarquin the Proud was banished, with his family, and retired among the Etruscans.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What is said of the origin of Rome? What of Æneas? Describe the birth and ancestry of Romulus. When was Rome founded? What took place at the time? How did Romulus procure inhabitants for the city? Who were the patricians and the plebeians? How did Romulus divide the city? Describe the intercourse and relation of the patricians and plebeians to one another. What is said of the Senate? Of the knights? What of the rape of the Sabines? What of the war that followed? Who was Tarpeia? What were the *spolia opima*? Describe the reign of Numa Pompilius. Who succeeded Numa? How did Tullus Hostilius satisfy his love of war? Describe the combat of the champions. What was the fate of Alba? What was the character of Ancus Marcius? What seaport did he found? Who was Tarquin the Elder? What is said of his magnificence? What of his public works? What was an augury? Describe the death of Tarquin the Elder. What of Servius Tullius? What were the tribes? The classes? The centuries? The comitia? What result did the changes made by Servius have upon the plebeians? What was the census? What were the lustrations? Describe the death of Servius. What is said of Tarquin the Proud? Who was Brutus? How was the death of Lucretia brought about? How was it avenged? Name the seven kings of Rome.

THE REPUBLIC.

THIS epoch is divided into three periods: the first (B.C. 509-264) was marked by the feuds between the patricians and the plebeians, and the conquest of central and northern Italy; the second (B.C. 264-133) by the wars of Rome against Carthage and its allies; the third (B.C. 133-29) by the last conquests and the civil wars of the Romans. The duration of this epoch was 480 years.

CHAPTER I.

FEUDS AND CONQUESTS IN ITALY (B.C. 509-264).

In Rome the patricians, at first the absolute masters of the government, were little by little obliged to open to the plebeians all the public offices. Abroad the republic defended itself against the neighboring people, caused the Gauls to submit, and finally extended its dominion to the centre and south of Italy.

Sec. 1. THE CONSULATE (B.C. 509); **THE DICTATORSHIP** (B.C. 498); **AND THE TRIBUNES OF THE PEOPLE** (B.C. 493); *Coriolanus*; *Cincinnatus*.

THE CONSULATE.—The patricians, who had suffered much from the tyranny of Tarquin, and who had dethroned him, replaced the monarchy



by a republican government. Their first care was to re-establish the comitia by centuries, because they had a certain majority and were able to dispose to their profit of the offices and affairs of the state. Two from among them, being elected consuls, were invested with an authority almost equal to that of kings; but they held office for but one year. Their functions were to preside in turn over the senate, to command the armies, to enforce the laws—in short, to exercise the sovereign power in the republic. Twelve lictors, each carrying bundles of rods bound round an axe, preceded them to open a way through the crowd or to execute their orders, and to inflict punishment upon criminals. Each consul governed alternately during a month, and by their name the year was designated. In order to reconcile the plebeians to this new form of government, the lands which had formed the patrimony of the banished king were distributed among them.

CONSULATE OF BRUTUS.—The first two consuls were Brutus and Collatinus, husband of Lucretia. The latter, who had proposed to restore to the Tarquins all their possessions, was suspected by the people and compelled to abdicate the consulship. Brutus showed more zeal for the maintenance of the new republic. His two sons were beheaded for conspiring to re-establish royalty; he himself condemned them to death,



and, insensible to any other interest than that of his country, the stern Roman presided at their punishment.

Soon afterwards he marched against the Etruscans, commanded by one of the sons of Tarquin. Brutus threw himself upon Tarquin, and the two adversaries fought with so much fury that both received mortal wounds. The body of the consul was brought with great pomp to Rome, and all the Roman matrons wore mourning a whole year, in order to honor in Brutus the avenger of conjugal chastity.

WAR AGAINST PORSENNA.—Meanwhile Tarquin had roused all the Etruscan cities against the Romans. Porsenna, King of Clusium, appeared with a powerful army, at a moment when they least expected him. Rome owed her safety to the heroic valor of one of her citizens, Horatius Cocles, who placed himself at the entrance of a bridge over which the enemy had to pass, and defended it in spite of all their efforts until the bridge was broken down, when he threw himself, all armed, into the Tiber and swam across. Porsenna besieged the city, but soon found that he had to deal with men resolved to suffer anything rather than surrender. Chance alone rescued him from the poignard of Mutius Scævola. Terrified at the danger which he had incurred, he menaced that Roman with torture. The latter, as if to defy Porsenna, held his right



hand over a brazier until it was consumed, without evincing a sign of pain. Summoned to give evidence, he declared that three hundred Roman youths, not less intrepid than he, had sworn to slay the enemy of their country.

Porsenna, alarmed, hastened to sign a treaty of peace, exacting only that ten young men and ten maidens should be sent to him as hostages. Among the latter was Clœlia, who persuaded her companions to attempt the recovery of their liberty. They threw themselves into the Tiber and swam across amidst a shower of the enemy's darts. But the consuls, mindful of their plighted faith, sent back the fugitives to the Etruscan camp. Porsenna generously granted liberty to Clœlia, permitting her to take with her some of her companions. Clœlia chose the youngest, because she judged their virtue more exposed among strangers. The king hastened his departure, and testified his admiration for a city whose maidens joined to wisdom such great courage and love for their country.

Such, at least, is the account given by Livy, who flatters the vanity of the Romans; but other historians, worthy of credence, assure us that Porsenna took Rome, imposed on it very hard conditions, and even forbade the employment of iron for any other use than that of agriculture.

MISERY OF THE PLEBEIANS.—Rome, having become a republic, soon experienced the agi-



tations inseparable from a change of government. Instead of one master the plebeians had thousands in the persons of the patricians. As their resources were exhausted by continual wars, they were obliged to borrow in order to support their families; but, overwhelmed with debts, they soon beheld their homes and fields sold, and themselves imprisoned and maltreated by pitiless creditors. Such was the rigor of the laws that, though at the same time they authorized the most ruinous usury, they permitted creditors not only to employ chains and torments against insolvent debtors, but even to reduce them to slavery. If there were several creditors, they might sell the debtor in order to share the proceeds, or even slay him and divide his body, of which each took a part proportioned to the sum which was due him. In place of amending these inhuman laws the patricians imprudently enforced them to the letter. The harshness of such measures exasperated the people to open revolt, to quell which the senate created the office of *dictator*.

THE DICTATORSHIP (B.C. 498); BATTLE OF LAKE REGILLUS (B.C. 495).—The dictator, named by the consuls and approved by the people, possessed absolute authority; but he was to remain in office but six months, lest his power, being without appeal, should degenerate into tyranny. This supreme magistrate, created only on the



most extraordinary occasions, was preceded by twenty-four lictors, armed with fasces, the insignia of the formidable right of life and death which he held over all the citizens. He chose for himself a lieutenant, called "the master of horse."

Lartius, who was the first dictator, appeased the people and re-established union in the republic, thereby enabling them to pursue with success the struggle against Tarquin the Proud, who had engaged in his service the Sabines and the Latins. The latter, having assembled near Lake Regillus, met there a bloody defeat, in which the remaining son of Tarquin perished. The old king himself, wounded by a spear, was forced to seek shelter with the tyrant of Cumæ, and died of grief.

RETREAT OF THE PLEBEIANS TO THE SACRED MOUNT (B.C. 493).—The patricians, having nothing further to fear from Tarquin, no longer observed any moderation, but redoubled their exactions. The people, driven to desperation, openly resisted, and declared that they would no longer bear arms for proud and avaricious masters who reserved for themselves all the spoils. "Let the patricians fight," they said, "since they have the sole benefit of the victory." One of the consuls, Appius Claudius, a Sabine, who had established himself at Rome with five thousand of his kinsmen and clients, greatly aggravated the evil by pursuing insolvent debtors with the utmost rigor;



The plebeians withdrew from the city to a mountain three miles distant, afterwards called the Sacred Mount. This secession alarmed the senate. They sent ten deputies, among them Menenius Agrippa, a consul, who persuaded the people to return to the city by relating to them the ingenious allegory of the stomach and the members. Peace was re-established on condition that the senate should declare a full acquittance of insolvent debtors.

THE TRIBUNES OF THE PEOPLE.—The plebeians, before entering the city, asked and obtained the appointment of magistrates chosen among them, with authority to defend their interests. These magistrates were called "plebeian tribunes." At first two and afterwards ten were chosen for one year, and exercised their authority only within the limits of Rome. Their person was inviolable; their power so great that by a single *veto* ("I oppose") they could suspend the judgment of all the magistrates, and even the decrees of the senate, when they judged them contrary to the laws or the interests of the people. Rome was, so to say, thus divided into two camps—the one formed of plebeians, directed by their tribunes, the other comprising the patricians, who had at their head the senate and the consuls. The audacity of these tribunes was such as to cause the reunion of the *comitiæ* by tribes, who gave the majority to the people, ren-



dering their decisions, or plebiscites, as obligatory as the *senatus-consultes*, or decrees of the senate.

EXILE OF CORIOLANUS. — Rome numbered among her principal citizens a young patrician named Coriolanus, universally esteemed for his courage and military abilities. The taking of Corioli, a Volscian city, was principally due to his valor; hence his surname of Coriolanus. He possessed a constancy and firmness which incited him to many noble actions, but which, owing to want of judicious training, often degenerated into haughtiness and obstinacy. Neither had he that full command of his temper so indispensable to a statesman, and which is the result of education and reflection. Thus Coriolanus became the scourge of his country, whereas he might have been its glory and support. In the troubles which agitated the republic concerning debts he warmly upheld the authority of the senate. This so irritated the plebeian tribunes that they sentenced him to exile.

VENGEANCE AND FILIAL PIETY OF CORIOLANUS (B.C. 489).—Coriolanus left Rome filled with rancor and meditating signal vengeance against his country. Soon after he returned at the head of a powerful army of Volscians, ravaged all the country, and advanced within five miles of the walls of Rome. At the appearance of so formidable an enemy all was fear and con-



sternation. Deputies were sent to Coriolanus to recall him from banishment and to sue for peace. He sternly rejected every proposal of reconciliation. Other deputies, principally relatives and friends, came with renewed entreaties. Coriolanus disdained even to listen to them. The ministers of religion presented themselves in their turn, clad in sacerdotal robes. In vain they prostrated themselves at his feet. Nothing softened his obdurate heart. Great was the alarm in Rome. Courage seemed to have deserted the Romans and passed with Coriolanus to their enemies.

At this critical juncture Rome owed her deliverance to Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus. Accompanied by Volumnia, the wife of the haughty exile, who led her two children and was followed by many noble matrons, they advanced toward the camp of the Volsci. The appeals of his mother subdued the vindictive anger of Coriolanus. "Dear mother," he cried, embracing her, "you have conquered. At your entreaty I forget the outrages my ungrateful country has offered me." Coriolanus, however, would not enter Rome. He withdrew to the Volsci, where he passed the remainder of his life in sad retirement, bewailing too late his faults, which had not only rendered his noble qualities less useful, but had also brought calamities on himself and his country.



DICTATORSHIP OF QUINTIUS CININNATUS (B.C. 458).—The period intervening between the exile of Coriolanus and the dictatorship of Cincinnatus was marked either by disputes occasioned by the tribunes wishing to extend their power, or by wars with the neighboring nations, especially with the Volsci, Æqui, Veientes, and Sabines, always enemies of the Roman power. In one of these wars the consul Minutius was surrounded by the Æqui. The news of this calamity produced great alarm in Rome. As in all urgent perils, a dictator was appointed, and the choice fell on Quintus Cincinnatus. This great man, one of the most distinguished members of the senate, and now the only hope of the republic, lived on his farm, which he cultivated with his own hands and the produce of which sufficed for his support. The deputies of the senate found him at the plough and saluted him as dictator. Quintus returned with them to Rome. The following day he addressed the people to reanimate their courage; then, mustering an army, he immediately marched against the enemy, whom he attacked and defeated the same night. The prisoners were forced to pass under the yoke. This was a humiliating ceremony which martial law then authorized, and to which the vanquished were subjected when they were granted liberty or life.

Quintus, conqueror of the Æqui and liberator



of the Roman army, returned in triumph to Rome at the head of his troops, laden with booty. He might have held the dictatorship for six months, but he resigned after sixteen days and returned to his farm, more honored and more content in his poverty than the rich usually are with their possessions.

The love of a lowly, frugal, and rural life was not rare among the Romans, and this, joined to invincible constancy and ardent zeal for the glory of their country, enabled them to make so many conquests.

Sec. 2. THE DECEMVIRI (B.C. 450–449); *War against the Veientes and the Gauls.*

TYRANNY OF THE DECEMVIRI.—Rome had already existed for three hundred years without any settled system of jurisprudence, the decision of the most important causes depending solely on the caprice of the magistrates, when, to remedy this state of affairs, three deputies were sent to Greece for the purpose of collecting whatever laws they thought beneficial for the republic. Upon their return ten commissioners were appointed for one year, under the name of decemviri, to draw up a regular code of laws. During their first term of office they conducted themselves with justice and moderation; but, having once consolidated authority, they threw off the



mask and became real tyrants, the more to be feared because, all the other magistrates having been abolished, their decisions were without appeal. Rome again suffered all the excesses of despotism which had disgraced the reign of Tarquin the Proud. No one dared raise his voice in protest, and the situation of the commonwealth seemed hopeless, when an infamous attempt similar to that which led to the downfall of the Tarquins occasioned the overthrow of the ten tyrants.

DEATH OF VIRGINIA (449).—Appius Claudius, one of the decemviri, conceived a criminal passion for a young girl named Virginia. Failing in his attempts upon her chastity, he tried to have her seized as the slave of one of his clients. He would have succeeded, if those who witnessed his violence had not freed her, on the condition, however, that she should appear the following day before the tribunal. Virginius, father of the young girl, was then absent in the Roman army. Warned of what was passing, he hastened to Rome, and in the morning led his daughter to the public square, where a multitude had already assembled. The sight of the afflicted father, the tears and sobs of Virginia, moved all hearts.

Meanwhile Appius arrived, and, mounting the tribunal, without even the form of a trial adjudged Virginia to be the slave of his infamous accom-



plise. Virginius, seeing his daughter lost, begged Appius to permit him to speak to her for the last time. His request being granted, he led her aside, and, suddenly seizing a knife, "Behold," he said, "my daughter, the only means of preserving thy honor and liberty," and plunged it into her heart. Then, withdrawing the bloody weapon, he said to Appius: "On thy head be this innocent blood."

In vain did Appius try to arrest him. Virginius, knife in hand, opened for himself a passage through the very satellites of the decemviri, the people who filled the Forum aiding his flight. He fled to the camp, related to his comrades his hapless lot, and demanded vengeance. The army revolted; the people followed its example and retired for the second time to the Sacred Mount. The senate could appease them only by promising to re-establish their tribunes and by according a general amnesty. The decemviri, objects of public execration, were sentenced to banishment and their possessions confiscated. The infamous Appius, more culpable than his colleagues, died in prison.

LAWS OF THE TWELVE TABLES; CENSORSHIP (B.C. 444).—The laws drawn up by the decemviri are known under the name of the Laws of the Twelve Tables, because they were engraved on twelve brazen tablets. They were intended less to change than to strengthen and explain



the ancient usages of Roman society, which rested entirely on religion, the family, and property. The father of the family had absolute control over his household, even the right of life and death. In principle these new laws recognized the equality of all the citizens, without respect of persons; but they maintained the privileges of the aristocracy by forbidding marriages between patricians and plebeians, and the latter were excluded from the high offices of the republic. As the plebeians persisted in claiming complete equality, the liberty of marrying between the two orders was at length granted, and soon after a new magistracy was created, to the detriment of the consulship.

A portion of the consular functions was given, at first for five years and later for eighteen months, to two magistrates, who were called censors, because every five years they made the census or enumeration of the Roman people. In so doing they exercised a formidable power in publicly branding with infamy any citizen who by his conduct had given cause of complaint. Commissioned also to regulate morals, the censors had to repress luxury, designate the classes of citizens, and draw up the lists of senators and equestrians. For these reasons the Roman censorship became one of the most important offices of the state; it was only confided to the most illustrious personages, and proved for a long time



the strongest support of the laws and the best guardian of justice, religion, and morals.

MILITARY TRIBUNES (B.C. 443).—Meanwhile the disputes at Rome continued between the senate and the people. The tribunes maintained that one of the two consuls should be chosen from among the plebeians; the patricians opposed this measure with all their strength, but in the end they were forced to yield. In order to palliate the defeat, it was proposed to replace the two consuls by new magistrates, to the number of from three to six, to be called military tribunes, invested with consular power, and who might be chosen indifferently from both orders. The plebeians, satisfied with the advantage which they had obtained, seldom chose any but patricians. It was a voluntary homage rendered to superior merit, and thus this indomitable people showed themselves wise and moderate in the use which they made of their victories.

PAYMENT OF THE SOLDIERS; THE QUESTORS.—It was under the military tribunes that the Roman army began to receive pay from the state. The people rejoiced at this, for heretofore they had served at their own expense, and this onerous service was the principal cause of their debts and misery. Moreover, unpaid service opposed an obstacle to the important projects of the senate, for long wars could be sustained only when regular pay was accorded the plebeians who served



in the army. The pay at first was about five cents a day.

For a long time there had been at Rome two questors, charged to guard the public treasury and to levy taxes. It now became necessary to create new questors as paymasters to the armies. These magistrates, elected in the comitia by tribes, soon acquired great influence; there was one in each province to superintend whatever related to the financial administration.

SIEGE OF VEII (B.C. 405-395).—As soon as the regular pay of the troops was fixed, military expeditions were planned upon an extensive scale. The first undertaking of this kind was the siege of Veii, the capital of the Veientes, one of the best fortified places of Italy, and scarcely inferior to Rome itself in extent, riches, and power. The Romans, during this siege, employed a new method of attack. They drew lines of contravallation against the sallies of the garrison, and of circumvallation against succors from without; but not knowing the use of the battering-ram and balista, they found themselves, after nine years, as little advanced as the first day. Success might have proved hopeless had they not named as dictator Camillus, their greatest warrior.

On assuming command of the troops Camillus strove to revive discipline among them, and began to surround the place more closely. He dug a mine extending from the Roman camp to the



enemy's citadel. When it was completed he ordered a general assault, and while the Veientes hastened to repulse their assailants the Romans opened the mine, entered by it into the citadel, and thence spread through the city. Some attacked the Veientes who defended the walls, others opened the gates and gave access to the Romans, who fired the city. The booty was immense.

SIEGE OF FALERII; EXILE OF CAMILLUS (B.C. 391).—The unwonted brilliancy of this triumph aroused the envy of the enemies of Camillus, who charged him with ambition and tyranny. The senate, who wished to spare him the danger of a public accusation, charged him to undertake the siege of Falerii, an Etruscan city. Camillus desired to protract the siege, in order to occupy at a distance from Rome the more turbulent plebeians; but it was very brief, and the dictator captured Falerii more speedily by his generosity than he had taken Veii by his valor. One day a schoolmaster, who had under his charge the children of the chief families, led them under pretence of exercise to the Roman camp, and there offered to give them as hostages. "This," said he, "is the surest means of forcing the inhabitants to capitulate." Camillus, indignant at such a proposal, had the traitor stripped and his hands bound behind his back, and then delivered him to his pupils to whip him



in disgrace to Falerii. The besieged, moved by gratitude, opened their gates to Camillus.

This illustrious general found the Romans less favorable to his virtues and his services. Rather than undergo an unjust condemnation, he went into voluntary exile. On leaving the city he prayed the gods to reduce the ungrateful citizens to the necessity of regretting his absence—a wish far less noble than that of Aristides, who, on a similar occasion, implored Heaven to avert all danger from the Athenians which might cause them to need his return and services.

TAKING OF ROME BY THE GAULS (B.C. 390).—Scarcely had Camillus gone into exile than the inhabitants of Clusium, being besieged by the Gauls, applied to the Romans for succor. Three ambassadors of the family of the Fabii were sent to the field; but one of them, a fiery, impetuous young man, so far forgot his character that, in spite of the law of nations, he took the part of the Clusientes, and in an encounter slew one of the Gaulish chieftains. At this violation of neutrality the Gauls became furious, and, abandoning the siege of Clusium, marched towards Rome, threatening to reduce it to ashes. The Roman army met them at the little river Allia, where, commanded by unskilful generals and terrified by the yells of the enemy, they did not even sustain the first shock, but abandoned their ranks and fled, so that it was less a combat than a rout.



The conquerors spent three days in collecting the booty, and this delay saved Rome. All the Roman youths shut themselves up in the Capitol, determined to defend it till their last breath. There remained in the city only aged men, who devoted themselves to death, and these the Gauls put to the sword when they entered. Livy relates that the veteran Romans, wearing the ensigns of their dignity, were placed at the entrance of their houses on ivory curule chairs, usually reserved for the first magistrates. At this spectacle the Gauls were at first seized with awe; but one of them having approached Papius and plucked his beard, which the Romans wore very long, the old man, until then immovable and silent, struck the barbarian with his ivory rod, and was the first victim of the massacre.

The barbarians set fire to the stately city and reduced it to a mass of ruins. They attempted finally to take the Capitol, choosing for their project a very dark night, and reached the top of the wall without being heard by the sentinels or the dogs. The Romans would have been destroyed if the gabbling of some geese had not awakened Manlius, one of the principal senators. He sounded the alarm, and, rushing to the ramparts, seized one of the barbarians and hurled him into the precipice below. Other Romans arrived and easily overthrew in like manner the rest of the assailants.



CAMILLUS LIBERATES ROME.—This transient advantage would not have saved the Romans, if Camillus had not forgotten their previous ingratitude in his love of duty as a citizen. He placed himself at the head of the wreck of the army which had been defeated at the Allia, worsted a detachment of Gauls who were pillaging, and surrounded others in their camp. While Camillus was gathering an army sufficient to raise the siege, the besieged, pressed by famine, entered into negotiations with the Gauls, to which the latter, wearied of tarrying so long, readily listened. The Gauls offered to retire for a thousand pounds weight of gold, but, regardless of honesty, did not hesitate to use false weights. The Romans complaining of this, the general of the enemy, Brennus, threw his sword in the balance, saying: "Woe to the vanquished!" At this juncture Camillus arrived and broke up the conference. "Not with gold," he exclaimed, "but with iron shall the Romans redeem their country!" He then charged the astonished Gauls and cut them to pieces.

Camillus was proclaimed by his fellow-citizens the saviour of his country and the second founder of Rome. Other invasions of the Gauls afforded him new triumphs, and he died honored by all. Manlius had a very different fate. This brave warrior, who had merited the surname of Capitulinus because he had saved the Capitol,



was accused of aspiring to absolute power, and was thrown as a traitor from the Tarpeian rock.

(Other historians do not agree with Livy concerning the Gallic war. They affirm that the Gauls during half a century remained masters of the Tiber and its vicinity.)

Sec. 3.—POLITICAL EQUALITY OF THE PATRICIANS AND THE PLEBEIANS; Wars against the Latins and the Samnites; War against Pyrrhus.

DIVISION OF THE CONSULATE BETWEEN THE TWO ORDERS (B.C. 366); THE PRÆTORSHIP (B.C. 364) AND ÆDILESHIP (B.C. 363).—Rome, risen from its ruins and delivered from the Gauls, was now a prey to internal dissensions between the two orders—the plebeians claiming everything, the patricians unwilling to cede anything. At length the former carried their point; they abolished the military tribunes and re-established the consuls, on condition that one of them should be chosen from the plebeians. Sextius, tribune of the people, was the first to obtain that honor, because he had distinguished himself above all others in the struggle with the patricians.

To indemnify the senate for this loss two new offices were established—the prætorship for the administration of justice, and the ædileship for the



superintendence of the public shows and solemn plays, the public buildings, and preserving order in the city. These two offices were at first granted to the patricians exclusively; but the plebeians, who had already opened to themselves the consulate, which was the highest magistracy, soon gained admittance into the others, even the priesthood (B.C. 302). All offices thus became common to the two orders; dissensions yielded to a noble emulation, and Rome, having become more powerful by the union of her inhabitants, extended her conquests over all Italy.

WAR AGAINST THE LATINS (B.C. 340).—The Latins for a long time had been the allies, or rather the vassals, of Rome. Wearied of bearing a yoke which they looked upon as degrading, they laid claim to an equal share of honor and authority with Rome herself, and boldly demanded, as the price of peace, that one of the two consuls and one-half of the senators should be chosen from among themselves. To these haughty demands no other answer was returned than a declaration of war. The consuls Manlius and Decius immediately took the field against the Latins and their allies. As the two armies were about equal in valor, discipline, and the use of their weapons, the utmost precautions were deemed indispensable to meet the emergency. Personal encounters were forbidden under penalty of death.

It happened, however, that the son of Manlius,



being challenged by a Latin warrior, could not refrain from rushing to the conflict. He fought and conquered. Returning in triumph to his father, he expected to receive praise; but Manlius viewed this conduct of his son in a very different light—that of a flagrant breach of obedience and military discipline. He condemned his son, and caused him to be beheaded on the spot, in presence of the whole army. Such was the example of unflinching rigor given by one of the consuls in the person of his son. The other soon after displayed an equally unbending patriotism in his own person.

DEVOTEDNESS OF DECIUS AND SUBMISSION OF THE LATINS (B.C. 339).—Decius had a dream, in which he was told that victory would belong to the side whose general devoted himself to death during the combat. He therefore agreed with his colleague that that one of the two whose troops showed least courage or obtained least success should become the victim. The battle was fought near Mount Vesuvius. So great were the courage and fury on both sides that victory long remained doubtful; but at length, after vigorous exertions, the left wing of the Romans, commanded by Decius, unable to resist any longer the violent attack of the Latins, began to give way. In this emergency Decius recollected his dream and his promise; nor did he hesitate a single instant to act



his part. After asking with a loud voice that the wrath of the gods might be diverted from the Romans and fall only on himself and the enemy, he rushed into the thickest of the fight and fell covered with wounds.

The Romans, reanimated by such devotedness, returned to the charge with so much vigor that the Latins were entirely defeated and lost three-fourths of their army. This decisive overthrow was followed by other defeats, and soon after by the surrender of all the Latin cities and territory to the Romans. Rome, though terrible in war, was merciful to the vanquished, and treated the Latins with clemency. The authors of the revolt were banished; the others were given the title of Roman citizens, which attached them for ever to the republic.

WAR AGAINST THE SAMNITES; ACQUISITION OF CAPUA (B.C. 338).—The war against the Latins was scarcely ended ere it was necessary to undertake another, which proved longer and more arduous. The Campanians, attacked by the Samnites, sent to beg the protection of the Roman people. The Romans replied that, being allied with the Samnites, they could not take arms against them. Upon this the ambassadors thought of another expedient. "Romans," they cried, "if you will not protect us as allies you cannot refuse to defend your subjects. We give up to you our lands, our cities, ourselves



Capua and all Campania belong to you. Henceforth it is your bounden duty to defend them against the Samnites." The senate could not resist this bait. They warned the Samnites to put an end to hostilities. The latter haughtily refused, and war was declared.

THE CAUDINE FORKS (B.C. 321).—After great successes, the imprudence of the two consuls, Veturius and Posthumius, brought upon the Roman arms the most signal disgrace they had yet met. Pontius, the general of the Samnites, succeeded by stratagem in enclosing the consular legions in a narrow defile from which there was no escape. When the Romans found themselves hemmed in on all sides they fell into the utmost dejection; motionless with grief, they looked sadly at each other, and gave vent to complaints and murmurs against the temerity of their generals. Thus they spent the night, without food or rest.

The Samnites were at a loss how to make use of their advantage. Pontius, their general, consulted his father, Herennius, a man of consummate prudence and judgment. The old man answered that they ought to set the Romans free and dismiss them honorably, in order to gain their friendship; or put them all to the sword, in order to cripple by a decisive blow the power of Rome. The Samnites, most mistakenly as the sequel showed, pursued a middle course. Life



was granted to the Romans on condition that they, with their consuls at their head, should pass under the yoke and put an end to the war. Since there was no alternative, these disgraceful terms were accepted. The ceremony took place in presence of the Samnites, who vented upon the Romans many bitter sarcasms and acts of brutal violence. This shameful scene took place near Caudium, in the defile since called the Caudine Forks. The Romans went out of the defile unarmed and nearly naked. The light of day seemed to them more intolerable than death. They silently marched towards Rome, and, entering it late at night, hastened to conceal themselves in their houses.

RETALIATION OF THE ROMANS.—Rome did not hold herself bound by the treaty of Caudium. The generals themselves urged the senate to disavow a treaty made without their knowledge and give the authors over to the Samnites. When they arrived in the assembly of the Samnites, the consul Posthumius struck with his knee the Roman *fetial* (a herald charged with making peace or declaring war). "I am now a Samnite," exclaimed the consul, "and I violate the sacred character of ambassador; let the Romans avenge this outrage—they have now a just cause for war." "Is it permitted thus to tamper with the gods?" replied the indignant Pontius. "Recall your consuls, and let the senate observe the



treaty or send her legions back to the Caudine Forks." But the *fetial* judged there was sufficient ground for war. The Romans appointed as consuls Papirius Cursor and Publius, two of the greatest warriors of the republic. They organized new armies and sent them against the Samnites. The Roman soldiers did not wait for exhortation or signal, but charged, sword in hand, with inexpressible fury and slew or drove every foe before them, taking the Samnite camp with dreadful carnage.

Shortly after the Romans defeated another army in nearly the same manner. The Samnites lost nearly sixty thousand men in two engagements. The Romans recovered all their arms and hostages, and obliged the famous Pontius in turn to pass under the yoke with seven thousand prisoners.

SUBMISSION OF THE SAMNITES (B.C. 290).—These disastrous events did not put an end to hostilities. Each seemed bent upon the extermination of his foe. At last, after forty-nine years of fighting, the consul Curius put an end to the war. The Samnites sent deputies to Rome to sue for peace. Curius was commissioned to dictate the conditions. The deputies of the Samnites found this great man eating his frugal meal off a wooden dish. They offered him a large sum of money to render him more favorable to their interests. "My poverty," he said to



them, "has doubtless led you to hope to corrupt me, but I deem it more glorious to conquer those who have gold than to possess it myself."

The Samnites submitted to the Roman sway, and the Etruscans followed their example. As to the Gauls, who had been their allies, they were exterminated as descendants of the victors of Allia (B.C. 283). The three most powerful nations in Italy had just succumbed when the war against Pyrrhus broke out, which perfected the Romans in the military art.

VICTORY OF PYRRHUS AT HERACLEA (B.C. 280).

—The inhabitants of Tarentum having insulted and ill-treated a Roman ambassador, Rome declared war against that city. The Tarentines, seeing the storm ready to burst upon them, called to their assistance Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, a prince not less remarkable for his courage and skill in war than for his restless ambition, which led him continually to seek military adventures. Pyrrhus readily acceded to the request, and offered his mediation to adjust the differences between Rome and Tarentum. The consul Levinus, who was already on the territory of Tarentum, replied that the Romans would not accept Pyrrhus for an arbiter, and that they feared him not as an enemy. Upon this reply Pyrrhus marched against the Romans.

When he saw their excellent discipline he regretted having undertaken the war and desired to



avoid it. But the Romans left him no alternative. They crossed the Siris and offered him battle at Heraclea. It was a sharp and bloody conflict. Pyrrhus won the victory, but it was due principally to his elephants, whose enormous bulk and strange appearance astonished the Romans and terrified their cavalry. His success, moreover, was dearly purchased, a great number of his bravest warriors being slain. On his return to Tarentum, when congratulated on the victory, he said: "Another such victory and we are undone."

VIRTUE OF FABRICIUS.—The senate, undismayed at this reverse, gave Levinus new troops, at the head of which the consul again offered battle to Pyrrhus. The latter did not think he could hazard it. While deliberating, ambassadors arrived to negotiate an exchange of prisoners. At their head was Fabricius, the most illustrious of the Romans at that time. Pyrrhus, charmed with the great qualities of Fabricius, endeavored by fair promises to retain him in his service. Fabricius remained unmoved. "If you deem me a virtuous man," said he to the king, "why would you corrupt me? If you think me capable of betraying my duty, why do you esteem me?" A refusal so generous but increased the esteem Pyrrhus had conceived for Fabricius.

The philosopher Cineas, minister and friend of the king, vainly endeavored to gain over this



austere Roman to the Epicurean sect. He asserted that the Divinity, being indifferent to the actions of men, abandoned the world to chance. "Would to the gods," cried Fabricius, "that such were the doctrine of our enemies! The victory then were ours."

CINEAS AT ROME.—Pyrrhus, seeing that the Romans did not offer peace, himself made overtures. Cineas was entrusted with this important mission. As he had been the disciple of Demosthenes and was gifted with eloquence, he immediately acquired at Rome an influence which, together with his rich presents, was nearly decisive. The senate was already wavering when the elder Appius, disregarding his infirmities, caused himself to be carried to the senate, and dictated this haughty reply: "Let Pyrrhus leave Italy; we shall then listen to his proposals of peace." Cineas received orders to depart that same day. Returning to his master, he affirmed that the senate had appeared to him like an assembly of kings.

BATTLE OF BENEVENTUM (B.C. 275); RETREAT OF PYRRHUS.—The measures of the senate corresponded to the boldness of their language. Pyrrhus, meanwhile, fond of change, had passed into Sicily to aid the Greeks against the Carthaginians. He had, however, lost the flower of his army ere he left Italy. Curius, already celebrated for the defeat of the Samnites



and still more for the austere frugality of his life, had been named consul and now marched against Pyrrhus. The battle took place near Beneventum. The Romans had learned not to fear elephants, and, by harassing these gigantic beasts, turned their fury against the enemy, and threw his ranks into such confusion that they gained a complete victory. Pyrrhus, with but a small body of cavalry, escaped to Tarentum, whence he secretly passed into Epirus to seek new adventures. A tile thrown on his head by an old woman during an attack on the city of Argos ended the life of this ambitious prince.

Pyrrhus on leaving Sicily had pronounced these prophetic words: "What a beautiful country we leave to the Romans and Carthaginians!" Rome, in fact, had just subjugated the centre and south of Italy. After a struggle lasting nearly five hundred years, Rome had at last triumphed over all her neighboring enemies, and she now carried her victorious arms into Sicily. Carthage alone offered a stubborn resistance, but, as we shall see, was doomed also to succumb to Roman valor.

REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What followed upon the fall of Tarquin? What is said of the consuls? What of the licitors? What of the first two consuls? What led to the war against Porsenna? What is said of Horatius Cocles? What of Mutius Scaevola? Of Cloelia? What of the misery



of the plebeians? How did the dictatorship arise? What of the battle of Lake Regillus? Of the secession of the plebeians? Of the tribunes of the people? What is said of the character and of the exile of Coriolanus? Relate his history subsequently to his exile. Who was Cincinnatus? What is said of the decemviri? Relate the story of Virginia. What is meant by the laws of the twelve tables? What were some of their provisions? How and for what purpose were the censors appointed? What was the reason for instituting the military tribunes, and how were they chosen? What is said of the payment of the soldiers? Describe the siege of Veii. The siege of Falerii. What of the exile of Camillus? Describe the taking of Rome by the Gauls. How did Camillus liberate Rome? What was the fate of Manlius? What new contest arose between the patricians and the plebeians? What is said of the praetors and of the aediles? What of the war against the Latins? Give an instance of Roman discipline. How did Decius show his love of country? What was the end of the Latin war? What was the cause of the Samnite war? How were the Romans humbled at the Caudine Forks? What was the end of the Samnite war? What led to the war against Pyrrhus? What is said of the battle of Heraclea? What of Fabricius? What of Cineas at Rome? Describe the battle of Beneventum, and the retreat of Pyrrhus. What was Rome's situation at this time?

CHAPTER II.

WAR AGAINST CARTHAGE AND HER ALLIES (B. C. 264-133).

THE Roman republic, after two destructive wars against Carthage, weakens her enemy's allies, destroys the city itself, and in the end extends her own dominion along the Mediterranean.

Sec. 1.—FIRST PUNIC WAR (B.C. 264-241);
Hannibal; Second Punic War (B.C. 219-201).

INTERVENTION OF THE ROMANS IN SICILY (B.C. 264).—The Romans and the Carthaginians, both powerful and ambitious, were now in too close proximity to remain idle spectators of each other's aggrandizement. So long as the Romans had to combat the Etruscans and the Italian Greeks, who disputed the control of the Mediterranean with the Carthaginians, the latter applauded the success of the republic and maintained the alliance which they had formed with it in the first year of its foundation. But the conquest of southern Italy inspired fear as well as jealousy, and bred an enmity which soon led to the Punic wars, so called from an ancient name of the Carthaginians.

The cause, or rather the pretext, for the begin-