



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-



ning of hostilities was that Messina, which had put itself under Roman protection, had been attacked by Hiero, King of Syracuse, aided by the Carthaginians. The consul Appius passed over to Sicily in barges, delivered the besieged city, defeated Hiero, and obliged him to sue for peace. As this prince could be of great service to the Romans, peace was granted him on honorable conditions, and never had the republic a more faithful friend and constant ally. The treaty with Hiero was followed by the siege and capture of Agrigentum, which the Carthaginians had made their arsenal, and which, next to Syracuse, was the most important city in Sicily (262).

NAVAL VICTORY OF DUILIUS (B.C. 260).—So prosperous a beginning raised the hopes of the Romans, but they felt the necessity of a naval force. A Carthaginian galley, having stranded on the Italian coast, served them as a model. They labored with so much ardor that one hundred and twenty vessels were built in two months. But as the vessels, hastily constructed, were heavy and slow in movement, it was resolved to make up for this by the use of certain machines called *corvi*, or crows, with which they might grapple the enemy's vessels, board them, and thus come to close quarters. This invention was very successful. The consul Duilius, in command of the fleet, went in search of the Carthaginians, who,



full of contempt for the new vessels, readily accepted the combat, expecting an easy triumph. But they were soon undeceived. The sudden grappling of their vessels by the crows obliged them to come to close fight, and their defeat was complete. No victory was ever more gratifying to the Roman people. Duilius received a triumph; extraordinary honors were decreed him, and in memory of this event a rostral column was erected, which yet exists.

In the ninth year of the war the Romans, who regarded the advantages already won as but preliminary to greater enterprises, resolved to attack the Carthaginians in their own country. Regulus, who commanded the expedition, began it by winning a victory which cost the enemy one hundred vessels. Master of the sea, he landed in Africa, where he seized the port and city of Clypea, and many other places opened their gates to the conqueror. It is stated that the Roman general, having advanced into the country, found near the river Bagrada a serpent of prodigious size, its skin covered with scales which no dart could pierce. It was necessary to attack it with war machines, as if it had been a fortress. At length a stone hurled by one of the machines broke the backbone of the serpent and killed it. The skin, one hundred and twenty feet long, was sent to Rome.

REGULUS IN AFRICA (B.C. 256).—The Cartha-



ginians, having been conquered on land as well as on sea, sent deputies to negotiate peace. Regulus, dazzled by his success, granted peace only on the most rigorous terms, and insultingly added that a nation should know how either to conquer or to submit to the conquerors. This haughty conduct exasperated the Carthaginians, and they resolved to defend themselves to the last extremity. Xantippus, a Lacedæmonian officer of great skill, was put in command of their troops. Under this new leader affairs soon assumed a different aspect. Regulus, full of haughty confidence, instead of taking prudent measures, accepted battle in an unfavorable position. He was defeated, his army entirely destroyed, and he himself made prisoner.

DEVOTION OF REGULUS.—The Carthaginians sent Regulus to Rome to treat for an exchange of prisoners, but they exacted of him a promise under oath that he would return should their proposal be rejected. Regulus, admitted to the senate, at first refused to give his opinion on the subject, alleging that he was no longer a senator or a citizen, but a slave. As the senators insisted upon having his opinion, he briefly declared that they should make no exchange, and gave as a reason that the Carthaginian prisoners were yet in the flower of their age and might render service to their country, while he himself was too old to be henceforth of any use. The senate



very reluctantly accepted this generous sacrifice. Regulus, moved neither by the prayers of his friends nor the tears of his wife and children, returned to Carthage. He well knew the fate that awaited him, but fidelity to his oath prevailed over his affections and the fear of the most cruel death. The Carthaginians, aware of the advice he had given the senate, inflicted upon him all kinds of torments and finally nailed him upon a cross. Thus perished this illustrious Roman, greater in the hour of his death than in the midst of his triumphs.

TRIUMPH OF THE ROMANS (B.C. 241).—The death of Regulus added redoubled fury to the war. The Romans sustained many losses, but they inflicted greater ones on their enemies. At last, after twenty-three years of hostilities, the consul Lutatius Catullus had the glory of terminating this great war by the capture of Lilybæum, the strongest city in Sicily, and by the battle off the Ægates islands, which destroyed the Carthaginian naval power. Carthage, thus weakened, sued for peace. Rome, weary of a war that had cost so much treasure and bloodshed, willingly assented. The conditions, however, were severe for the Carthaginians. They were required to evacuate Sicily and all the islands between Italy and Africa, to pay tribute to the Roman people, and never to make war against Hiero, King of Syracuse, nor any other ally of Rome.



When Sicily passed under Roman rule, she was the first to become a *province* of Rome, as all the conquered territories outside of Italy were afterwards called. A quæstor was sent to the province to levy imposts and a prætor to administer justice, and, in case of necessity, to assume command of the army. Later a proconsul was established in each province, who held the place and the power of a consul.

WAR WITH THE MERCENARIES (B.C. 240-238); SUCCESS AND CONQUESTS OF HAMILCAR.—The foreign mercenaries who had fought for Carthage, not having obtained payment, marched against that city, intending to take and pillage it. Their approach caused so much terror that the neighboring tribes furnished them with a reinforcement of seventy thousand Africans. Abandoned by all and already weakened by the late war, Carthage was moreover rent by the animosity of two factions who contended for power. The Hannos were merchants and favored peace; the family of Barca, illustrious for a number of warriors, advocated war. The imminence of the peril gave the latter the advantage, and Hamilcar Barca was commissioned to defend Carthage. This skilful general surrounded the rebels, who were soon straitened for provisions; those who survived famine were slain without mercy; not one escaped. The war, which lasted over three years, was signalized by cruelties so horrible that



contemporaries gave it the name of "the Inexorable War."

Hamilcar, whose victory rendered his ambition formidable to his countrymen, was sent to subvert Numidia and Mauritania, in the hope that he would fail in the contest. He returned triumphant, and then set out for the conquest of Spain. Many tribes of that country had been subdued, when the most warlike of all, the *Celtiberi*, scattered among the Carthaginian troops a great number of burning chariots. The stratagem succeeded, and Hamilcar was defeated and himself perished (B.C. 232). But he left a son-in-law, Hasdrubal, who carried on his conquests, and a son named Hannibal, who became yet more celebrated.

NEW CONQUESTS OF THE ROMANS; SECOND WAR AGAINST THE GAULS (B.C. 234-221).—The Romans, profiting by the war of the mercenaries, seized Corsica and Sardinia. As they had no longer an enemy who dared to face them, the temple of Janus was closed (235 B.C.) This had not been closed since the reign of Numa Pompilius. But its portals were soon thrown open because of a league formed by the Gauls who inhabited the banks of the Po. From the Sibylline books it was learned with affright that these barbarians would twice seize Rome. The college of pontiffs declared that in order to accomplish the oracle two Gauls must be buried alive, and



thus the prophecy would be fulfilled without injury to Rome. After this horrible ceremony the consuls gathered an army and advanced against the enemy. The Gauls, who had sworn to capture the Capitol, were not more than three days' journey from Rome, near Cape Telamon. Their yells and ferocious aspect at first inspired terror, but, imprudently marching almost naked to the combat, their courage was powerless against the arms and discipline of the Roman legions. There remained forty thousand killed and wounded on the field of battle (B.C. 225).

The Romans, having occupied all the country on the right bank of the Po, crossed the river for the first time and seized Milan, the capital of the Insubres (B.C. 223). The Gauls of the Alps, called *Gesates*, because they cast their darts with such rare skill, hastened to the aid of their brethren; but they were cut to pieces at Clastidium, where their king, Viridomar, fell by the hand of the consul Marcellus, who thus gained the third and last *spolia opima* (B.C. 222). This decisive victory enabled the Romans to extend their domination over all the north of Italy.

DECLINE IN ROMAN MORALS.—The republic, though triumphant over her enemies, already bore in her bosom the germs of decay. About the time that the Punic wars began two kinds of spectacles were introduced at Rome which were alike destructive to the morals and the humanity



of the people: these were theatrical exhibitions and gladiatorial combats. The spirit of temperance, frugality, justice, and disinterestedness, which until then had been the glory and support of the republic, weakened and rapidly declined. If Rome thenceforth boasted of heroes famous for their exploits, she could point to few who merited commendation by their virtues; with lofty genius were often seen blended the most ignoble vices.

SECOND PUNIC WAR; TAKING OF SAGUNTUM BY HANNIBAL (B.C. 219).—Twenty-two years after the close of the first Punic war began the second, one of the most renowned of antiquity, whether we consider its duration, the skill of the generals and the courage of the troops engaged, or the multitude and diversity of the great events which resulted in the final downfall of Carthage and secured to Rome the empire of the world. The cause of this war was the rivalry of these two cities, then the most flourishing in the world. The occupation of Sardinia and Corsica by the Romans furnished the pretext for hostilities, and the taking of Saguntum was the signal.

The city of Saguntum, an Italian colony, being menaced by the conquests of Hasdrubal, placed itself under the protection of the Romans. The latter concluded a treaty of limitation with the Carthaginian general, which obliged him to respect Saguntum and to limit his conquests to



the banks of the Ebro. Hasdrubal perished shortly afterwards, and the command of the army was given to his brother-in-law, Hannibal, the sworn enemy of Rome. It is related that when he was but nine years of age, desiring to accompany his father, Hamilcar, into Spain, he solemnly swore eternal hatred to the Romans. Being named general at the early age of twenty-five, he at once employed all the resources of his genius to fulfil his oath.

At the head of one hundred and fifty thousand men, composed of an equal number of Spaniards and Carthaginians, he laid siege to Saguntum and soon reduced it to the last extremity. As he refused to listen to the remonstrances of the Roman ambassadors, the latter repaired to Carthage to demand that Hannibal should be delivered up to them as a violator of the treaty. Fabius, chief of the embassy, not being able to obtain satisfaction from the Carthaginians, raised his toga, saying: "In this fold I bear peace or war: choose." "Choose yourself," was the reply. "Then let it be war," cried Fabius, letting fall his toga.

HANNIBAL PASSES INTO ITALY; BATTLE OF TICINUS AND TREBIA (B.C. 218).—Hannibal, after reducing Saguntum to a heap of ashes and ruins, set out to carry the war into Italy. He crossed the Pyrenees, the Rhone, the Alps, through a hundred hostile tribes, whom he over-



came by force of arms or allured to him with hopes of the pillage of Rome, and swept like a torrent over the rich fields of Cisalpine Gaul. The consul Scipio attempted to arrest his progress; he was defeated and wounded in a battle near the Ticinus. Sempronius, his colleague, a rash and presumptuous man, joined him. Contrary to the advice of Scipio, he hazarded another battle near the Trebia, in a disadvantageous position, and the result was even more disastrous than that of the Ticinus.

BATTLE OF TRASIMENUS (B.C. 217).—The ensuing year Hannibal, who had now advanced into the heart of Italy, was opposed by Flaminius, equally brave but even less prudent than Sempronius. With admirable skill the Carthaginian general led the Romans into an ambush in a valley near the lake of Trasimenus. Consternation seized the Romans, thus assailed on all sides, but despair revived their courage and they fought with desperation. So furiously was the battle waged that the combatants did not notice an earthquake which almost destroyed several Italian cities.

Flaminius was slain, and the Romans, dispirited, gave way and fled; some, pressed by the victorious enemy, threw themselves into the lake; others, climbing over the mountains, fell into the hands of the foe they sought to avoid.

FABIUS THE "DELAGER" (B.C. 217).—Three



such bloody defeats terrified the Romans. They felt the necessity of a general whose prudence would repair the faults of his predecessors. Fabius was chosen dictator, and it was this great man who first gave a check to the victorious Hannibal. Attentively watching the movements of his terrible enemy, Fabius contented himself with harassing him in his march without coming to any decisive engagement. He even endeavored to shut him up in a defile near Falernum. But the wary Carthaginian by a stratagem rescued himself from the danger. He tied bundles of dry wood to the horns of two thousand oxen, set it on fire during the night, and then drove the oxen towards the heights occupied by the Romans. The latter, terrified, abandoned their posts and fled, and Hannibal escaped with his whole army.

BATTLE OF CANNÆ (B.C. 216).—After the dictatorship of Fabius the Roman people appointed for their consuls Paulus Æmilius and Varro, the first of whom had prudence enough to save, and the second temerity enough to ruin, the republic. Unfortunately the advice of Varro prevailed as to the manner of conducting the war. Rendered bolder by some slight advantages which he gained over Hannibal, he prepared for battle in an open plain near Cannæ, a spot extremely favorable for the cavalry of the Carthaginians, which was by far superior to that of the Romans.



Hannibal also arranged his troops in so skilful a manner that the Romans during the conflict had to face at the same time the wind, the dust, and the rays of a scorching sun. A dreadful carnage ensued. The Romans, pressed on all sides, were cut to pieces. The consul Æmilius lost his life, as did also sixty senators, fifty thousand soldiers, and such a number of knights that three bushels of rings were collected from the field.

HANNIBAL AT CAPUA.—Maharbal, one of the officers of Hannibal, advised him to march straight to Rome. Hannibal having refused, the officer exclaimed: "You know how to conquer, but you know not how to improve your victory." In fact, it is highly probable that the delay of Hannibal saved the city and empire of Rome. Some months later Hannibal fell into a greater error than that of remissness. Many of their allies abandoned the Romans, whom they deemed irretrievably lost, and sided with the conqueror; among them was Capua, a rich, powerful, and licentious city. Hannibal imprudently selected it for his winter quarters. Here his hardy warriors, who had undergone the severest hardships and bravely confronted the perils of war, were demoralized by the attractions of an indolent and sensual life. Idleness, gluttony, and debauchery so enervated them that thenceforth the fortunes of Hannibal began to decline.

TAKING OF CAPUA BY THE ROMANS (B.C.



211).—The revolt of Capua and its inhabitants had greatly exasperated the Romans. They resolved, so soon as the state of their affairs permitted, to lay siege to that proud city, and not to desist from their enterprise till they had taken signal vengeance on its inhabitants. The proconsuls Fulvius and Appius pushed on the siege with so much vigor that Capua was soon reduced to the utmost distress. Its inhabitants offered, indeed, a brave resistance, but a famine began to rage among them and no courage was able to prevail against this terrible enemy.

In vain did Hannibal strive to force the line of the besiegers. As a last resource he suddenly marched his troops towards Rome, in the hope that the Romans would withdraw from Capua in order to defend their own capital. But the stratagem failed. Two incidents contributed to increase Hannibal's vexation; the first was that, while he lay encamped near one of the gates of Rome, recruits had been sent by another to the army in Spain; the second, that the field in which his camp was pitched had just been sold for its full value.

Giving up all hope of conquering his foes and saving his allies, he withdrew to Tarentum, at the extremity of Italy. Capua, left to herself and pressed by famine, was obliged to open her gates. A great number of the senators and chief citizens perished by voluntary death; others fell



under the axe of the executioner. The enraged conqueror deprived Capua of her walls, her privileges, her magistrates, and scattered her inhabitants far and wide. In short, they experienced on the one hand the effects of Roman wrath against unfaithful allies, and on the other learned how feeble was the protection of Hannibal.

SIEGE OF SYRACUSE; ARCHIMEDES.—During the siege of Capua the Romans had likewise besieged and taken Syracuse. That city, after the death of Hiero, an old and stanch ally of the Romans, had submitted to the Carthaginians; such an example, it was feared, would lead to the ruin of the Roman interest in Sicily. Marcellus, then consul, who had just gained an advantage over Hannibal near the walls of Nola, crossed the Sicilian strait and laid siege to Syracuse, both by land and sea. He would have brought the siege to a speedy close but for Archimedes, the greatest mathematician of antiquity, who invented a multitude of machines to annoy the besiegers, and by these means threw missiles and stones of such enormous size as to force the Romans to remain at a great distance from the wall and so prevent them making a mine or an assault. By sea their repulse was even more complete. Behind the walls were placed immensely powerful machines, which, laying hold of the Roman vessels by means of enormous hooks and grappling-irons, lifted them up, and, whirling



them about with great rapidity, sunk them, with all on board, or dashed them to pieces against the rocks.

Marcellus, repulsed on all sides, was obliged to trust to blockade and famine for a victory which he could not obtain by force. The siege was prolonged for three years with scarcely any success, when the ingenuity of a common soldier enabled Marcellus to take Syracuse. This man conceived the idea of counting the stones of the wall, and of measuring by the eye the height of each of them. Having made his calculation, he found that the whole height was less than the Romans believed, and that with ladders of moderate length it might be easily scaled. Marcellus, being told of this, resolved to profit by the information. He availed himself of a great festival observed by the Syracusans to scale the rampart during the night, and in a short time had made himself master of a part of the town.

Whilst confusion reigned without, Archimedes, in his closet, was wholly intent on the examination of a geometrical figure. A Roman soldier suddenly appeared and commanded the mathematician to accompany him to Marcellus. Archimedes desired his visitor to wait a moment till he had solved the problem and completed its demonstration. But the soldier, taking this answer for an insult, drew his sword and killed Archimedes on the spot. Marcellus was sensibly



afflicted at the melancholy event, and not only gave a solemn funeral to Archimedes, but even erected a monument to his memory (B.C. 212). The remainder of Sicily followed the example and fortunes of Syracuse, and the whole island passed under the power of the Romans (210).

THE ROMANS IN SPAIN.—War was carried on with no less vigor in Spain than in Italy and Sicily. Publius Scipio, the same who had been conquered by Hannibal near the Ticinus, and Cneus, his brother, had won great victories over the Carthaginians, and made great conquests in Spain. Emboldened by their success, they divided their army, in order to complete within a shorter time the reduction of the country. This imprudent step led to their ruin. The Carthaginian generals adopted the opposite tactics, and, combining their forces, attacked and overthrew the two brothers separately. The defeat of the Romans was terribly disastrous, and both the Scipios were slain (B.C. 212).

CONQUEST OF SPAIN BY SCIPIO (B.C. 211-207).—Spain seemed lost to the Romans. Of this all were so convinced that, when a proconsul was to be elected, no candidate at first presented himself. In this emergency Publius Cornelius Scipio, son of the above-mentioned Publius, although but twenty-four years of age, arose and declared that he would undertake to avenge the death of his father and uncle and the defeat of the



Roman army. This proposal was received with acclamations of joy, and young Scipio was unanimously named proconsul and general of all the forces in Spain. Nor did Scipio disappoint the high expectations formed of him. Shortly after landing on the Spanish shores he took the wealthy and strong city of New Carthage. By his wisdom and prudence he brought over to the Roman cause nearly all the tribes of Spain. He also conquered four Carthaginian generals, destroyed their armies, and pursued them with so much vigor that not one remained in all Spain.

BATTLE OF METAURUS (B.C. 207).—Hasdrubal, eluding Scipio, led his troops across the Pyrenees, and adding to their number a multitude of Gauls, crossed the Alps and entered Italy with a view to join his brother. Rome, fully alive to her danger from this new enemy, sent against him the consul Livius Salinator. Claudius Nero, his colleague, who was opposing Hannibal, contrived a stratagem not less wise than daring. With seven thousand chosen men he secretly left his camp, and, traversing a great part of Italy in six or seven days, joined Livius. On the following day they attacked Hasdrubal near the Metaurus. The latter did all that could be expected from an experienced general. So long as there was a hope of victory he sustained the combat, and when hope failed he rushed into the



midst of the Romans and fell pierced with a thousand darts.

This was the bloodiest battle of the war, sixty thousand Carthaginians being left dead on the field. The victors were so weary of slaughter that Livius allowed many fugitives to escape, saying: "It is well that some survive to tell the news of their defeat." Nero, bearing the glad tidings on his way, speedily rejoined the Roman army, and, having learned that Hannibal knew nothing of the action at the Metaurus, he threw into the enemy's camp the head of Hasdrubal. This bloody token apprised the Carthaginian leader but too well of a catastrophe fatal alike to his family and his country. He immediately departed, deploring the unhappy destiny of Carthage. Being thenceforth unable to undertake anything of importance, he retreated to the province of Brutium, where, though unaided by his government, he for some time maintained his army.

SCIPIO IN AFRICA (B.C. 203).—Scipio, having driven the Carthaginians from Spain, returned to Rome, where the people bestowed upon him extraordinary marks of favor and esteem. He was appointed consul, with Sicily for his department, and with permission to pass over into Africa (B.C. 205). This was what Scipio most ardently desired, being convinced that the surest way to rid Italy of Hannibal and put an end to



the invasion was to carry the war into Africa. Completing his preparations, he sailed for Africa. The Carthaginians sent against him two powerful armies, one commanded by Syphax, a Numidian prince, and the other by a general named Hasdrubal.

Scipio learned from his spies that the camps of the enemy were carelessly guarded, and that the tents of the soldiers were composed only of reeds and withered branches. He therefore resolved to destroy both camps by fire during the night. He ordered Lælius, his lieutenant, and Masinissa, his ally, to attack and burn the camp of Syphax, while he himself cautiously advanced against that of Hasdrubal. Both attacks were entirely successful. Most of the Numidians were put to the sword by the soldiers of Masinissa, or perished in the flames, or were crushed at the gates, which were too narrow to give a free passage to the multitude of fugitives. Meanwhile the Carthaginians perceived the flames, which were rapidly consuming the camp of Syphax, and, attributing them to accident, ran confusedly and without any precaution to afford assistance to their allies, when they too were destroyed by the Romans under Scipio. He then attacked the camp of Hasdrubal, which he captured and consigned to the flames. Of the thousands who but a few hours previous occupied the place only two thousand remained,



and the greater part of these were without arms, wounded, or half-burnt.

RECALL OF HANNIBAL; BATTLE OF ZAMA (B.C. 202.)—Carthage, overwhelmed by these disasters, hastily sent messengers to recall Hannibal. It was with feelings of intense grief and indignation that Hannibal quitted Italy, accusing both gods and men, and lamenting that he had not immediately after the battle of Cannæ led his army to Rome. Having landed on the coast of Africa, and aware of the great strength of the Roman army and of the impending danger to his own country, he asked of the Roman general an interview in order to treat of peace. The request was granted, and the interview took place between the two armies. Here these two famous heroes, not only the greatest men of their own age but equal in merit to any commanders who ever lived, gazed for some time at each other in silent admiration.

Hannibal was the first to speak, but he proposed conditions which Scipio deemed incompatible with the desperate fortunes of Carthage. Scipio refused to accept them, and both generals determined to leave the issue to the arbitrament of battle. Hannibal was entirely defeated and fled with a few horsemen to Carthage, where for thirty-six years he had not set foot. There he publicly acknowledged his defeat and advised an immediate acceptance of peace at any price.



The conditions offered by Scipio were the same as those proposed before the battle of Zama, viz. that the Carthaginians should henceforth content themselves with their possessions in Africa; that they should deliver up all their galleys except ten; that they should pay to Rome ten thousand talents of silver in the course of fifty years, and that they should henceforth wage no war without her permission. Thus ended the second Punic war, which had lasted seventeen years.

Scipio gave the kingdom of Syphax to Masinissa. He then returned to Italy, where he received the acclamations of the people, who hastened from all parts to behold the deliverer of his country, the terror of Carthage, and the conqueror of Hannibal. He received the surname of *Africanus*, which, blending with his proper name, kept alive the recollection of his triumphs.

Hannibal, exiled from Carthage at the demand of the Romans, still endeavored to raise up enemies against them in Spain, the north of Italy, in Macedonia and Asia Minor. Antiochus the Great, who at first followed Hannibal's counsels, soon refused to afford him an asylum, and the latter, fearing to fall into the hands of the Romans, terminated his life by poison (B.C. 183)



**Sec. 2. SUBMISSION OF THE ALLIES OF
CARTHAGE; THIRD PUNIC WAR** (B.C.
149–146); *Destruction of Numantia* (B.C.
133).

CONQUESTS OF THE ROMANS AFTER THE SECOND PUNIC WAR.—The Romans, freed from Hannibal, the most formidable enemy whom they ever encountered, turned their victorious arms against his allies—that is, against Philip, King of Macedonia (B.C. 200); Antiochus the Great, King of Syria (B.C. 192); and Perseus, successor of Philip. This last war ended by the conquest of Macedonia (B.C. 168), which was made a Roman province. The Gauls, who had so long fought under the standards of Hannibal, vainly endeavored to retain their independence. Vanquished in many encounters, some through love of liberty went into voluntary exile; others submitted to the yoke of the republic. Their country became a Roman province (163) under the name of Cisalpine Gaul—*i.e.*, Gaul on the south side of the Alps.

THE ROMANS PROVOKE THE THIRD PUNIC WAR.—Rome, now mistress of all Italy and the neighboring countries, had no rival of her power; she was the terror of kings and the arbiter of nations. But even in the midst of her triumph she could not behold without jealousy and uneasiness the prosperity of Carthage. She resolved on its ruin, and made war on the pretext



that, contrary to the last treaty, that city had attacked Masinissa, an ally of the Roman Republic.

Among the Roman envoys sent to Carthage we find Cato, surnamed the "Elder," or the "Censor." His envy equalled his surprise when he found such opulence in the country of Hannibal. Returning to Rome, he addressed the senate, ending with the exclamation, "Carthage must be destroyed!"

Carthage, to ward off the blow that menaced her, sent deputies to the consuls, who were already encamped in Africa. The latter decided that the Carthaginians should at once give three hundred hostages and deliver up all their arms, and then they would know the intentions of Rome. This rigorous order was executed without delay, and the Carthaginian deputies repaired to the camp, accompanied by the most venerable personages of their nation, that they might excite the compassion of the Romans in this critical juncture, which was to decide the fate of Carthage. The consul Censorinus at first received them with some show of clemency; but, suddenly assuming a severe air, declared that the will of the senate and the Roman people was that they should depart from Carthage, which was to be destroyed, and that they might build a new city wherever they pleased, provided it was four leagues from the sea.



When the consul had pronounced this dreadful decree, the Carthaginians uttered a heartrending wail; struck as by a thunderbolt, they rolled in the dust, rending their garments, groaning and weeping. This sad spectacle did not move the consuls, and the terrible tidings were borne to Carthage. The people of that city were roused to fury against the Romans, while despair lent them courage. Everywhere they set to work to fabricate supplies of arms; men and women toiled day and night; the temples, palaces, and public places were changed into armories, and, as they lacked material for bow-strings, the women gave their hair; in short, the citizens swore to bury themselves beneath the ruins of their city sooner than abandon it.

SIEGE AND RUIN OF CARTHAGE (B.C. 146).—Meanwhile the consuls advanced to besiege Carthage. They expected but little resistance, and the daring, or rather the fury, with which it was defended greatly astonished them. They were repulsed many times, nor were the Roman generals of the ensuing year more successful; and thus the siege was protracted two years. Rome now began to doubt the issue of the war, which became every day more doubtful and more important. In this emergency she singled out for the enterprise a young man equally conspicuous for his family, his name, and his virtue. This was Scipio Æmilianus, by birth the son of



Paulus Æmilius, the conqueror of Perseus, and by adoption the grandson of Scipio Africanus, the conqueror of Hannibal.

Appointed consul, though much under the age prescribed, he took the command of the troops besieging Carthage, and, having established subordination and discipline among them, so closely invested the city that it soon became a prey to the most terrible famine. At the same time he attacked it with vigor and speedily became master of the wall, which enabled him to advance to the centre of the city. The inhabitants defended themselves with the utmost obstinacy; the carnage lasted six days and nights. On the seventh day fifty thousand Carthaginians accepted quarter. Among them were nine hundred Roman deserters, who, having to expect no mercy, set fire to a temple and perished in the flames. Thus fell Carthage. With it, its dependencies submitted to the Romans. Scipio, like his grandfather, on his return to Rome, received with his triumphal honors the surname of *Africanus*.

The same year (B.C. 146) Corinth was taken, the league of the Achæans dissolved, and all Greece reduced to a province of the Roman Republic. Thus these ambitious republicans advanced with rapid strides to the conquest of the entire world.

WAR AGAINST NUMANTIA; REFORMS OF



SCIPIO (B.C. 141).—Although more than sixty years had elapsed since the Romans had driven the Carthaginians from Spain, they had not yet become peaceful masters of that country, the inhabitants being too warlike and loving their liberty too well to permit themselves to be enslaved so easily. The generals sent there by Rome had neither the talents nor the virtues of the Scipios. The Spaniards, exasperated by annoyances from some and emboldened by the incapacity of others, endeavored to expel the Romans from their country. The Spaniards owed their successes largely to the skill of Viriathus, whom the Romans, being unable to conquer, caused to be assassinated. One city, Numantia, opposed the masters of the world, and with only four thousand men routed a consular army that numbered over twenty thousand, and forced it to conclude a dishonorable peace.

The senate and the people, afflicted and ashamed to see their armies constantly defeated by so weak an enemy, determined to appoint a general both willing and able to retrieve the honor of the republic. Scipio Æmilianus, the conqueror of Carthage, was therefore appointed consul and set out for Spain. Here he found the army without subordination or discipline, and given up to luxury, indolence, and licentiousness. The consul knew that before attempting to fight the enemy he must restore order among his own troops.



He banished from the camp whatever savored of effeminacy or mere luxury. He compelled his troops to make long marches, each soldier carrying his baggage, his arms, his provision of corn for fifteen or twenty days, and seven stakes for making entrenchments. He required them to dig ditches, erect palisades, and build walls. "Let them," said he, "be covered with mud, since they dare not be covered with blood."

DESTRUCTION OF NUMANTIA (B.C. 133).—In a short time the character of the army was entirely changed. Scipio then approached Numantia and surrounded it with a line of entrenchments composed of a ditch and wall flanked with towers. Want of food was soon felt in the city, and famine made frightful ravages among the inhabitants. After having exhausted every other means of supporting life, they at last fed on human flesh. They looked no longer like men, but like ghastly skeletons. Many, rather than outlive their freedom, rushed into the flames, or otherwise killed themselves. Scipio reserved fifty for his triumph, sold the rest, and, levelling their city to the ground, distributed the lands that had belonged to it to the neighboring tribes.



REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What is said of the relations between the Romans and the Carthaginians previous to the conquest of Southern Italy? What was the real cause of the first Punic war? What was the pretext used? What of Hiero? What was the beginning of the Roman navy? Relate the victory of Duilius. What of the Roman expedition against Carthage? What is said of Regulus after landing in Africa? What of the devotion of Regulus? Of the triumph of the Romans? What of the origin of the Roman *provinces*? How a province governed? Describe the war of the mercenaries. What of Hamilcar? What new conquests did the Romans make? What caused the temple of Janus to be again opened? What is said of the second war against the Gauls? What led to the decline in Roman morals? What caused the second Punic war? Narrate the early history of Hannibal. Describe the siege and taking of Saguntum. Describe the campaign of the Ticinus and the Trebia. The battle of Trasimenus. What is said of the dictator then chosen by the Romans? Describe the battle of Cannæ. What followed that battle? Describe the siege and taking of Capua. What of Syracuse? Of Archimedes? How was Syracuse taken by the Romans? What was the fate of Archimedes? What is said of Publius Scipio and Cneus in Spain? What of Scipio Africanus? Describe the battle of Metaurus. What of Scipio in Africa? Of the recall of Hannibal? Of the battle of Zama? What of Scipio after the battle of Zama? What conquests did the Romans make after the second Punic war? What led to the third Punic war? What efforts did the Carthaginians make to avoid war? Who was sent to conduct the war? Describe the siege and destruction of Carthage? What is said of Greece at this time? What of the war against Numantia? Of Scipio Africanus in Spain? Of the destruction of Numantia?