

## CHAPTER III.

CIVIL WARS AND LAST CONQUESTS  
(B.C. 133-29).

THE Republic continued for a century to extend her rule over Asia, Africa, and all Gaul to the Rhine; but she was rent by intestine strife—first by the sufferings of the plebeians and the pretensions of her Italian allies (B.C. 133-88); then by the rivalry of Marius and Sulla, and lastly by civil feuds which ended in the triumph of Octavius over Antony.

Sec. 1. THE GRACCHI (B.C. 133-121); *War against Jugurtha* (B.C. 112-106) and *against the Cimbri* (B.C. 104-101); *Social War* (B.C. 90-88).

THE GRACCHI; AGRARIAN LAW.—While Scipio was reducing the city of Numantia there arose in Rome dissensions most fatal to the republic, since they drenched the capital of the empire with the blood of its citizens. The authors of these dissensions were Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, grandsons, by Cornelia, their mother, of the first Scipio Africanus. Neither talent nor education was wanting to the young Gracchi. Their eloquence, courage, and birth rendered them illustrious; but hapless ambition

turned against their country those great qualities which should have been employed in its service.

From the earliest era of the republic the plebeian tribunes, actuated by motives of self-interest, seemed bent on sowing discord between the senate and people, and had proposed the Agrarian Law, which deprived the wealthy citizens of lands that they had peacefully possessed from time immemorial, and distributed them among the indigent. The senate had always opposed this law, because it seemed calculated to cause trouble and confusion. Tiberius undertook to enforce it, and to effect his purpose shrank neither from violence nor illegal means. The senate resolved to oppose force to force, and soon found the occasion. Tiberius, in an assembly of the people, not being able to make himself heard, pointed with his hand to his head, intimating that his life was at stake. The gesture was interpreted by some to mean that he asked for a royal crown. Scipio Nasica, his kinsman, followed by the senators and patricians, threw himself on Tiberius, notwithstanding the throng that surrounded him. Tiberius fled, but was taken and killed with three hundred of his partisans (B.C. 133).

TRIBUNESHIP AND DEATH OF CAIUS (B.C. 121).—Caius, who was nine years younger than Tiberius, had no share in these disturbances, and





for several years exhibited no desire to avenge the death or pursue the projects of his brother. But when he thought himself sufficiently powerful, throwing aside the mask, the people found in him a zealous advocate of their claims, and the patricians a most formidable opponent. The senate, driven to desperation by the violence of the audacious Caius, resolved to treat him as it had treated his brother. The consul Opimius marched against him with a body of well-armed men and routed his attendants. Caius, abandoned by that very multitude to which he had sacrificed himself, and seeing himself about to be taken, ordered a slave to kill him. The slave obeyed, and then slew himself. Opimius had offered to pay its weight in gold for Caius' head. A certain Septimius carried the head to the consul on the end of a pike. In order to make it heavier he replaced the brain with lead, and received for it seventeen pounds of gold. Thus perished the Gracchi (121), after being the scourges of their country, whereas they might have been its defenders and ornaments.

USURPATION OF JUGURTHA (B.C. 113–112).—In the time of the Gracchi Numidia was governed by Micipsa, the son of the famous Masinissa. By his will the king divided his estate among his two sons and his nephew Jugurtha. The latter, whose ambition was greater than his talents, desired to reign alone, and in the



execution of his project did not hesitate to imbue his hands in the blood of his adopted brothers. Called to Rome to give an account of his conduct, Jugurtha without hesitation set out for that city, where he knew venality prevailed to a frightful extent. In fact, he succeeded in bribing a tribune of the people, and when he was publicly ordered to answer the charges brought against him the tribune forbade him to speak. In vain the people signified their indignation; the tribune boldly persisted in the part he had undertaken, and the assembly was obliged to dissolve without having pronounced sentence. Meanwhile Jugurtha, having the audacity to cause the murder in Rome itself of another grandson of Masinissa, was expelled from Italy and hostilities commenced against him.

WAR AGAINST JUGURTHA.—The first generals sent against him dishonored the Roman name by their cowardice, ignorance, and avarice. Jugurtha openly defied some and bribed others. The command in Africa was then given to the consul Metellus, a hero equally commendable for his military skill and his incorruptible integrity. This new general vigorously attacked Jugurtha, and was on the point of reaping the fruit of his victories when the honor of terminating the war was snatched from him by one of his lieutenants (B.C. 108). This officer was the famous Marius, whose talents afterwards became so use-





ful, and his violent passions so fatal, to his country. Being appointed consul, he supplanted Metellus in command of the army in Numidia. It was not difficult to complete the defeat of an enemy already weakened by previous misfortunes.

**Bocchus betrays Jugurtha (B.C. 107).—**After this defeat Bocchus, King of Mauritania, and an ally of Jugurtha, fearing a like fate, resolved to conclude a separate peace with the Romans. Marius sent Sulla, his quæstor, to intimate to Bocchus that if he were sincere in his desire he might purchase the friendship of the Romans by delivering Jugurtha into their hands. Bocchus refused for a long time; nay, he seemed at times much inclined to betray Sulla himself to Jugurtha, who urged him to do so. But the Roman, not less eloquent than intrepid, showed so clearly the advantage of the service on the one hand, and on the other the danger if he refused, that Bocchus, placing self-interest above all other considerations, consented to betray the king of Numidia. Having invited Jugurtha to an interview, he arrested him, loaded him with chains, and gave him up to Sulla.

Thus ended the war, by a stratagem which Sulla had the honor of devising—if it be an honor to benefit by the perfidy of another. Sulla claimed for himself the whole glory; he caused a ring to be made, which he always wore, and which served as a seal, whereon he was represented receiving



Jugurtha from the hands of Bocchus. This highly incensed Marius, who was naturally ambitious, and who could not endure a rival. Hence originated that violent quarrel between these two men which almost ruined the Roman Empire. Jugurtha, having, according to custom, followed in chains with his two sons the triumph of the victor, was thrown into a dungeon, where he died of starvation.

**THE TEUTONES AND CIMBRI; BATTLE NEAR THE RHONE (B.C. 106).—**It seemed to be the destiny of Rome never to terminate a war which was not immediately followed by another. Their joy over the defeat of Jugurtha and the triumph of Marius soon gave place to fear and terror when they found themselves exposed to the attacks of the northern barbarians. The Teutones and Cimbri came down from the north of Europe towards the Alps, and Rome at this critical juncture had the imprudence to place unskilful generals at the head of her armies. She was punished by the most bloody defeat she had ever yet experienced. In a battle fought near the Rhone eighty thousand of her soldiers were slain, thus paying the penalty of the ignorance and temerity of their chiefs. The conquerors then proceeded to ravage the south of Gaul, and this delay saved Rome.

**BATTLE AT AIX (B.C. 102).—**Marius, regarded as the only general able to repulse the enemy,





for the first time in the annals of the republic held the consulship several years in succession. It was during his fourth consulate that the barbarians appeared on the confines of Italy. The Teutones were the first to appear, and in vast numbers; but neither their numbers nor their valor were proof against the Romans, commanded by Marius. He laid an ambuscade for the barbarians near Aix, and destroyed nearly all these ferocious enemies who threatened to ruin the empire. The day following the victory Marius received the news of his election for the fifth time to the consulship. He soon had to rescue the republic from a danger even more pressing than that she had just escaped.

BATTLE OF VERCELLÆ (B.C. 101).—While Marius was engaged with the Teutones the Cimbri had forced a passage across the Alps, and, driving the Romans before them, penetrated to Vercellæ, on the banks of the Po. Marius hastened at the head of his victorious troops to meet the invaders. The Cimbri, who were yet ignorant of, or did not wish to credit the defeat of the Teutones, sent deputies to the consul to demand lands and cities sufficient both for themselves and their brethren.

When Marius enquired who were their brethren they answered, "The Teutones." The bystanders laughed, and Marius replied in a taunting manner: "Do not trouble yourselves about



your brethren, for they have land enough, which we have already given them, and they shall have it for ever." The ambassadors, nettled by the irony, replied that he would repent his insult, assuring him that the Cimbri would chastise him, as would the Teutones when they arrived. "And they are not far off," said Marius; "it would therefore be very unkind in you to go away without saluting your brethren." At the same time he ordered the Teutone chiefs to be brought forward, loaded with chains.

Three days after a battle took place, and the result was such as might have been expected of the skill of the Roman general and the valor of his troops. The Cimbri were nearly exterminated, and Rome, delivered from the most imminent danger that had yet threatened her, honored her liberator with the title of third founder of the city.

SOCIAL WAR.—Marius, after his victories over the Cimbri and Teutones, held supreme authority in Rome. His ambition and lack of statesmanship created troubles which led to the death of his partisans, Glaucia and Saturninus. The Italians, also, had long solicited the title and rights of Roman citizens, but, far from obtaining the privileges their services so well merited, the magistrates and nobles who favored their cause were slain. The indignant Italians determined to gain by force of arms what they could not





obtain by peaceful means. This was called the "Social War." It was prosecuted with so much vigor and success by the Italians that Rome, to save herself, granted the title of Roman citizens to those who had remained steadfast in allegiance to Rome. This measure broke up the confederacy, and there remained as enemies only the Samnites, who seemed to have sworn eternal hatred against the Romans.

**Sec. 2. WARS AGAINST MITHRIDATES** (B.C. 88-63); *Dictatorship of Sulla* (B.C. 82); *Conspiracy of Catiline* (B.C. 63).

FIRST WAR AGAINST MITHRIDATES (B.C. 88-84); MARIUS IS PROSCRIBED BY SULLA.—Rome, torn by internal dissensions and civil war, had at the same time to repel the aggressions of Mithridates, King of Pontus, who had conquered Asia Minor. This cruel and ambitious despot caused a hundred thousand Romans or Italians, who inhabited Asia Minor, to be massacred. This barbarous act demanded severe and prompt chastisement, but this was delayed on account of the troubles then raging in Rome. Sulla, at that time consul, had been commissioned to conduct the war against Mithridates. Marius, hating Sulla, contrived to deprive him of the command. Stung by so glaring an injustice, Sulla returned to Rome at the head of an army, entered it by force, expelled Marius and



his partisans, but spared the lives of all except ten of the most implacable. Happy for the republic, happy for Sulla himself, if this example of moderation had been followed in those storms that soon desolated the Roman Empire.

Marius, on whose head a price was fixed, with difficulty escaped the pursuit of his enemies. Overtaken in the marshes of Minturna, he was about to perish by the hand of a Cimbrian slave, whose arm he stayed by the words: "Soldier, darest thou slay Marius?" The liberator of the republic vainly hoped to find refuge on the African shores; a messenger from the governor ordered him to depart. "Go tell him," bitterly answered the proscribed, "that thou hast seen the exile Marius seated on the ruins of Carthage." The departure of Sulla soon after allowed Marius to return to Rome with the aid of his two principal partisans, the consul Cinna and the celebrated Sertorius.

VICTORIES OF SULLA AT CHÆRONEA AND ORHOMENUS (B.C. 86).—When Sulla passed into Greece he found that country already invaded by Archelaus, the most skilful general of Mithridates. His first operation was the siege of Athens, which he carried by storm after a long and brave resistance. Thence he proceeded to Chæronea, where he cut to pieces Archelaus' army, which outnumbered his own four to one. Soon after he won another battle still more im-





portant. The beginning of the engagement was not favorable to the Romans. Panic-stricken by the multitude of the barbarians, they took to flight.

At the sight of this panic Sulla dismounted, seized an ensign, and, advancing alone toward the enemy, cried out: "It is glorious for me to die here; as for you, Romans, when you shall be asked where you abandoned your general, remember to say it was at Orchomenus." These reproaches and the example of Sulla revived the courage of the Romans; they returned to the charge, drove the barbarians back to their camp, and attacked them sword in hand. Nearly the whole army of the enemy was buried in the neighboring marshes, where they fled for refuge. Archelaus himself remained concealed for two days ere he was able to escape.

TREATY OF DARDANUM (B.C. 84).—Mithridates, dismayed by these defeats, commissioned Archelaus to make proposals of peace. This general was aware of the necessity which urged Sulla to return to Italy, where his party was oppressed and nearly crushed by that of Marius. Archelaus offered him the means to make war in Italy, provided he would abandon Asia to Mithridates. Sulla, dissembling his feelings in his turn exhorted Archelaus to make war on Mithridates, promising to aid him in the enterprise. Archelaus protested, and declared his



detestation of such perfidy. "You," exclaimed Sulla, "the slave, or at best the friend, of a barbarian king, look upon it as baseness to betray your master; and dare you propose the like treason to Sulla, the Roman general?—as if you were not that Archelaus who but a few days ago concealed himself with the remnants of his army in the plains of Orchomenus!"

Archelaus was abashed at this answer, and immediately accepted the terms Sulla offered to the vanquished king. Mithridates hesitated to sign the treaty, because it required the surrender of his vessels. This delay irritated Sulla. "What!" said he to the ambassadors of the king of Pontus, "your master cavils about the delivery of his vessels—he who ought to have entreated me on his knees to spare the right hand of him who signed the order for the massacre of so many Romans!" Mithridates was obliged to yield. He lost by the treaty his conquests, his navy, and a great part of his treasures, and was confined to the former limits of the kingdom of Pontus—a loss much embittered by the remembrance of the great designs he had formed, added to the odium of the many crimes he had committed to satisfy his ambition.

TYRANNY AND DEATH OF MARIUS.—While Sulla prosecuted the war with Mithridates with such glorious success, Rome was a prey to the most cruel tyranny. Marius had re-entered Rome





with an armed force and had treated it as a conquered city. The friends of Sulla were massacred. Among those slain were a number of citizens whose only crime was to be suspected by the ferocious Marius. A word, a nod of the head, decided the fate of those who presented themselves before him. Not to have received the customary salute meant death, so that Marius' friends themselves trembled for their safety.

This monster, as thirsty for honors as for blood, caused himself to be elected consul the seventh time. But the news of the success of Sulla cruelly tormented him. To shake off the pressure of increasing mental anxiety and alarm he began to indulge in excessive wine-drinking, and soon after died of a fever, bearing the name of saviour and scourge of his country, but more worthy of the execration than the admiration of posterity.

SULLA BECOMES MASTER OF ROME (B.C. 82).—Sulla on his return to Italy found fifteen generals and more than two hundred thousand men armed against him. He had but forty thousand men, but his reputation and the hatred entertained against Marius drew a crowd of soldiers to his ensigns; and, aided by Pompey and Crassus, who then began to be known, he everywhere defeated the party of Marius. But a decisive battle fought with the Samnites was very near snatching from him all his triumphs. Telesi-



nus, the Samnite general, an experienced and intrepid man, having evaded Sulla and Pompey by a skilful march, reached by night the neighborhood of Rome, which he knew to be defenceless. Sulla followed closely, and, without giving his own troops time to repose, attacked the enemy.

The combat was most furious, owing to the inveterate hatred of both sides and the consciousness of the Romans that its result would decide the fate of their city. Telesinus animated his soldiers by crying out that it was the last day for the Romans, that the Samnites must take and destroy Rome, that never would they rid themselves of those ravenous wolves, of those enemies of the liberty of Italy, except by ruining their empire. The Romans, worn out by their long march, at first gave way. Sulla exerted himself to the utmost to reanimate them; entreaties, menaces, example, all were in vain. "O adverse fate!" he cried, "hast thou so often crowned me victor only at last to lead me to the gates of Rome, that I may perish the more ignobly?" The Samnites maintained their advantage until night, but Telesinus having received a mortal wound, the tide of victory suddenly changed. The camp of the enemy was taken and their army cut to pieces; hardly any escaped, for Sulla had ordered that no quarter should be given.





DICTATORSHIP AND PROSCRIPTION OF SULLA.  
 —This victory gave the death-blow to the party of Marius, and in the eyes of the pagan world the conqueror would have been esteemed the most fortunate of men had he ceased to live on the day he ceased to conquer. But from this time forward Sulla's manners changed. The day after his victory he put to death six thousand soldiers of the Marian party, who had surrendered under promise of life. This was but the prelude to other cruelties. Invested with dictatorial dignity and unlimited power, with unabated animosity he doomed to death the remnants of the vanquished. These proscription lists were put up not only in Rome but in all the cities of Italy. Neither the temple nor the paternal roof was any protection against murder. It was then that the infamous Catiline became inured to crime. Having slain his own brother, he obtained permission of Sulla to add the victim's name to the list of proscribed, as though still alive.

These horrible executions continued for many months, and ninety senators, more than two thousand knights, and a far greater number of citizens in Rome and the provinces were put to death. At length the republic began to breathe freely; Sulla revived the laws. He considerably weakened the power of the tribunes, which had so often been abused, and restored



the chief authority to the senate and patrician order; he distributed the lands of his enemies among the officers and soldiers of the twenty-three legions who had aided him to conquer. There were thus more than one hundred and twenty thousand warriors who, owing to him their fortunes, were personally interested in maintaining his rule.

ABDICATION (B.C. 79) AND DEATH OF SULLA (B.C. 78).—Sulla had enjoyed the sovereign power for nearly three years, and public opinion seemed to have sanctioned his usurpation, when this singular man voluntarily resigned the highest station yet obtained by any Roman, and which he had reached only through torrents of human blood. Retiring to the rank of a private citizen, he continued to inspire so much respect, or fear, that among the multitude of persons who looked upon him as the murderer of their relatives or friends not one sought to avenge them by his death. In his retirement Sulla, who was not less voluptuous than ambitious, gave himself up to debauchery and licentiousness. His excesses occasioned a distemper of which he died, aged sixty, in the year following his abdication. No one mourned the *fortunate* Sulla (as he called himself); and without doubt he deserved the title, if he can be called happy who twice subjugated his country by force, who proscribed thousands of her citizens—in a word, lived to be a terror and scourge.





SECOND WAR AGAINST MITHRIDATES (B.C. 74–63); SUCCESS OF LUCULLUS.—Mithridates had long been waiting for an occasion to avenge his defeats. Seeing Rome occupied in Italy by a war with Spartacus, chief of the slaves who had revolted against her, and in Spain by the war with Sertorius, the last support of the Marian party, he attacked the Roman provinces of Asia Minor and laid siege to Cyzicus, an important city.

Spartacus, a Thracian gladiator, endowed with skill equal to his courage and prodigious strength, incited a revolt among the gladiators destined like himself to fight in the arena for the amusement of the Romans. “Since we must fight,” said he, “why not fight against our oppressors?” His first successes brought to him a number of slaves, to whom he promised liberty and riches. He had already cut to pieces several armies and made Rome tremble, when he was forced by his followers to give battle in a disadvantageous position on the banks of the Silarus, and was defeated and slain (B.C. 71).

Sertorius had escaped the vengeance of Sulla by seeking refuge in Spain. Seconded by the Lusitanians, he defeated the generals sent against him, and created a senate of three hundred members, in conjunction with whom he governed the state, taking the Roman Republic as a model. The Lusitanians regarded him as one favored by



Heaven, since he pretended to have received from Diana a white hind which told him the secrets of the future. The Roman generals, not being able to conquer this formidable enemy, set a price upon his head, and one of his lieutenants, named Perpenna, assassinated him at a feast (B.C. 73).

Lucullus, being sent against Mithridates, forced him to abandon his enterprise and destroyed his army in the passage of the Granicus (B.C. 74). Mithridates escaped to Pontus, closely followed by the conqueror; and the fugitive king, stripped of his states, was obliged to seek refuge with his son-in-law, Tigranes, King of Armenia. Mithridates is said to have owed his escape from the pursuing Romans to the stratagem of having a mule laden with gold to follow him. His pursuers paused to secure the treasure, and while they were disputing over its division the more important prey escaped (B.C. 70).

BATTLE OF TIGRANOCERTA (B.C. 69).—Meanwhile Lucullus, at the head of an army numbering but fifteen thousand men, entered Armenia. Tigranes, astonished at such boldness, assembled nearly three hundred thousand men and advanced against the Romans. Seeing the fewness of their numbers, he could not refrain from smiling, and said: “If they come as ambassadors they are too many; if as soldiers, too few.” While Tigranes was indulging in such railleries Lucullus was preparing to attack him. Being





informed that the day was an inauspicious one for the Romans, he replied: "I will make it an auspicious one." The immense army of Tigranes did not withstand even the first shock. The slaughter was terrible; the Armenians lost fifty thousand men, while the Romans had (though it sounds incredible) but five slain and one wounded. The result of this battle was the submission of all the neighboring countries and the capture of Tigranocerta with immense treasures.

LAST VICTORY OF LUCULLUS (B.C. 68).—Tigranes, made wiser by his defeat, called to his assistance the king of Pontus, without whose aid he had believed himself able to conquer. Mithridates, appointed to the command, changed his tactics; he shunned battles, contenting himself with harassing the Romans and cutting off their supplies. But Lucullus neglected nothing to bring his enemy to a decisive action, and marched against Artaxata, where Tigranes had deposited his treasures. Rather than abandon so important a place, the two kings resolved to fight and advanced against the Romans. Lucullus eagerly gave battle, and at his first onset the enemy fled in every direction. This defeat led to the conquest of the whole of Armenia (B.C. 68). But the Roman army, rendered insolent by prosperity, refused to obey Lucullus, and he was obliged to return to Rome, leaving the conduct of the war to successors so inexperienced that the



kings of Armenia and Pontus soon drove the Romans from their states (B.C. 67).

VICTORY OF POMPEY AND DEATH OF MITHRIDATES.—Pompey, who had terminated the war against Sertorius in Spain, and that against Spartacus in Italy, had just rendered the republic a yet more signal service. A multitude of adventurers had deserted Mithridates to ravage the coasts of the Mediterranean. Their first successes so emboldened them that they seized the city of Ostia and threatened Rome. Pompey, having received "the proconsulship of the seas," was so successful as to end in three months "the war of the pirates" (B.C. 67).

Rome, uneasy at the new successes of Mithridates, regarded Pompey as the only general able to defeat so implacable an enemy. Pompey, whose past victories had roused his ambition, eagerly undertook this great enterprise. Nor did he disappoint the confidence reposed in him, for the final overthrow of the king of Pontus was achieved in one short campaign (B.C. 65). This unfortunate monarch was abandoned by all. Tigranes, his son-in-law, refused him all assistance and set a price upon his head.

It was then that, like another Hannibal, Mithridates formed the daring project of carrying the war into Italy. But his soldiers had lost courage; they refused to follow him in this perilous and gigantic expedition, and openly revolted





against him, proclaiming his son, Pharnaces, king in his stead. This unfilial prince was only too eager to deprive his father of both crown and life. Then the old king, utterly unable to escape, distributed poison among the persons of his family, taking a portion himself. As he had from his youth frequently used antidotes, the poison failed to take effect. He then had recourse to the sword. Thus perished this unfortunate monarch. Having murdered his wives, two of his children, and his own mother, he himself became at last the victim of a parricide (B.C. 63).

**TRIUMPH OF POMPEY.**—While this tragic scene was enacting on the Bosphorus in Thrace, Pompey had subjugated the kingdoms of Syria, Phœnicia, and Judea, and reduced to Roman provinces all the country beyond the Euphrates. He made peace with Pharnaces and Tigranes, who became tributaries of the republic, and then returned to Italy. The conqueror of Asia might easily have subjugated Rome, but he entered it with no other design than to distinguish himself by the splendor of his triumph. More vain than ambitious, he coveted admirers more than subjects, and from his victories he desired no other fruit than the honor of having served his country, and the surname of "Great," which was universally accorded him.

**CONSPIRACY OF CATILINE (B.C. 63).**—While



Pompey was extending the glory of Rome to the extremities of the ancient world, the commonwealth was threatened by a most dangerous conspiracy. Sergius Catiline, a senator of high rank, great audacity, and base profligacy, conceived the diabolical design of massacring the senate, firing the city of Rome, and overturning the republic. For the execution of this daring plot accomplices were needed. Catiline secured a large number from among a class equally profligate as himself—men lost to every sense of honor and duty, and loaded with debts and crimes. Persons of this description were then readily found in Rome. The expected abolition of their debts, the plunder of the rich, and the hope of preferments and dignities were the ties which attached them to their desperate leader.

**CICERO IS APPOINTED CONSUL (B.C. 63).**—For the successful execution of his scheme Catiline desired to be appointed to the supreme magistracy. He therefore presented himself as a candidate, and, in a city thoroughly venal, there was a strong probability of success in his favor. Happily for the state, the purpose of the conspiracy was disclosed by one of the conspirators. This information spread terror throughout Rome, and all the suffrages fell to the celebrated orator Cicero, who was most virtuous, vigilant, and capable, and who was looked up to as the saviour of the republic in the impending danger.





Catiline, rendered furious by the failure of his intrigues, determined to assassinate Cicero. Two of the conspirators were directed to obtain admittance into the consul's house under pretence of a visit, and to murder him without delay; but Cicero received timely intelligence and the attempt failed. Cicero also placed guards in every quarter of the city, so that Rome appeared as if threatened with a siege.

CICERO EXPOSES THE CONSPIRACY.—These vigorous measures did not intimidate Catiline. He had still the audacity to appear before the senate; but no one saluted him; all the senators turned from him. Cicero, fired with indignation at sight of one who had plotted his death and the ruin of the republic, delivered a vehement discourse, in which he unveiled the projects of Catiline, exposed the crimes of his life, and showed that he merited death. When Cicero had finished speaking the conspirator endeavored to vindicate himself; but the senators, filled with indignation, interrupted him, branding him as a public enemy, a traitor, and a parricide. Catiline, transported with fury, arose and left the assembly. The following night he departed secretly and took the road to Etruria, where he had collected troops. Those of the conspirators whom he left at Rome were ordered to hasten the assassination of the consul and the burning of the city. But Cicero discovered their



plans, and the ringleaders were arrested, imprisoned, and put to death.

DEFEAT AND DEATH OF CATILINE.—The news of these executions frightened Catiline. Unable to march towards Rome, where his party had been crushed, he endeavored to gain the Alps; but the army of the republic pursued the traitor and compelled him to hazard a battle. The rebel chief, exhorting his troops to conquer or to die, attacked the Roman legions. Not one was slain in the act of flight; all fell with their arms in their hands and at their posts. Catiline himself, after having fought like a tiger, fell covered with wounds. He was found among the dead, still breathing, and showing on his countenance the same fierceness and audacity that had caused him to be so much dreaded. His bloody designs perished with him; and Cicero, to whose activity and zeal Rome owed her preservation, received from the grateful citizens the glorious surname of "Father of his country" (B.C. 62).

**Sec. 3. THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE** (B.C. 60); *Cæsar and Pompey* (B.C. 48); *Antony and Octavius*.

CHARACTER OF CÆSAR.—Rome was scarcely delivered from Catiline when, through the ambition of Cæsar, she saw her liberties again menaced. Caius Julius Cæsar was a Roman of illustrious birth, of vast genius and daring valor, and





of such activity that he has been compared to a thunderbolt. Benevolent and generous by nature, he took pleasure in obliging others. He expressed himself with grace and elegance, and in oratory probably ranked next to Cicero. He was an astute politician and perhaps the greatest general of any age. But to these great qualities were joined depraved morals and an unbounded ambition, to which he sacrificed his country and the tranquillity of the world.

THE TRIUMVIRS; CONQUEST OF GAUL BY CÆSAR (B.C. 60-51).—Cæsar's first step towards tyranny was to form, with Pompey and Crassus, the league known under the name of the "First Triumvirate." Seconded by his colleagues, he was appointed consul, and soon completely won the favor of the people by the passage of an agrarian law, despite the opposition of the senate (B.C. 59). After this shameful victory Cæsar caused himself to be nominated proconsul of Gaul. This vast country afforded him what he most coveted—a fitting field upon which to display his military skill. The *Commentaries*, written by himself, contain the history in detail of the conquests of this great commander. The Helvetians, Gauls, Germans, and Britons were conquered, and, after eight years of contest against the most warlike tribes in Europe, Cæsar reduced to Roman provinces Aquitania and Celtic and Belgic Gaul. This was called Transalpine Gaul, or be-



yond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul.

EXPEDITION OF CRASSUS AGAINST THE PARTHIANS (B.C. 53).—Crassus, desirous of emulating the glory and power of his two colleagues, assumed the government of Syria. His purpose was to make war against the Parthians, and then pursue his conquests to the Indus, where he expected to secure immense wealth. An ambassador having come from the Parthian king to complain that the treaty was broken, Crassus said he would reply when at Seleucia, their capital. He joined sacrilege to perjury. His first exploit in Syria was to pillage the Temple at Jerusalem; and it is worthy of remark that this commander, until then reputed skilful and fortunate, seemed thenceforward filled with a spirit of rashness and blindness, which led him from error to error, till he met a disastrous death.

Crassus marched along the shore of the Euphrates, followed by a fleet laden with provisions; but a traitor persuaded him to advance to the plains of Mesopotamia. In a few days he found himself in an arid and burning desert, without water and provisions. Near Carræ the Parthian army appeared. Crassus, outnumbered, was defeated and compelled to retreat. As if to complete his disgrace, other traitors lured him, with the remnants of his troops, into a marshy place, where he was again





overtaken by the enemy. Surena, the Parthian general, under pretext of treating of peace with Crassus, drew him into a conference and seized his person. The Romans who accompanied him endeavored to defend him, but in vain; they and their general were slain. Thus perished Crassus. Cupidity and ambition led him to engage in an unjust war, in which he met a shameful death.

CIVIL WAR BETWEEN CÆSAR AND POMPEY; PASSAGE OF THE RUBICON (B. C. 49).—Crassus had maintained during his life a sort of equilibrium between Cæsar and Pompey, but his death left these two powerful leaders at liberty to assert their rival pretensions. Each wished to reign, and to reign alone. Violence, licentiousness, injustice, sale of offices, and contempt of the laws had reached the highest pitch. Pompey might have given some check to these disorders, but he connived at them and purposely permitted them to increase, in order that their very excess might oblige the Romans to appoint him dictator. If he failed to gain his end, he at least obtained what was equivalent to it: he was named sole consul—an extraordinary and unprecedented distinction.

Cæsar, then in Gaul, jealous of these honors granted to his rival, demanded the privilege of being, while absent, a candidate for the following year. This privilege was accorded him, but Pompey nullified it. Cæsar, on the news of this



affront, laid his hand on his sword and cried out: "This weapon shall obtain for me what is so unjustly refused." He assembled his troops and crossed the Alps. Arriving on the banks of the Rubicon, which formed the limit of his province, he shuddered, saying: "If I pass this river what misery shall I bring upon my country! But I am lost if I hesitate. Forward, then, whither the injustice of my enemies calls me. The die is cast." With these words he plunged into the river, followed by his legions, then hastened to Rimini, which he seized, traversed Italy with incredible rapidity, and besieged Pompey in Brundisium. Pompey escaped and reached Dyrrachium by sea, leaving Italy a prey to his rival. Cæsar, who had no vessels to pursue Pompey, returned to Rome, which he entered as a conqueror. The citizens feared to find in him a second Sulla, but his mildness and moderation soon reassured them, and secured him more partisans than he would have been able to gain by force of arms.

BATTLE OF PHARSALIA (B. C. 48).—Meanwhile Pompey profited by his distance from Cæsar to assemble in Greece a powerful army. Cæsar, on his side, after having subjugated Spain and Italy, went to meet his rival, and offered him battle in the plains of Pharsalia, in Thessaly. Cæsar, perceiving that Pompey's cavalry was far superior in numbers to his own, placed six cohorts as a





body of reserve behind his few squadrons, with orders to attack the enemy's horse when they should attempt, as he expected, to turn his flank. To these cohorts he expressly declared that he placed in them his chief hopes of victory. Pompey now saw that he had to fight with desperate men, but it was too late to retreat. His cavalry, as was expected, easily put that of Cæsar to flight, and then advanced to turn the flank of the Romans, but were repulsed by the six cohorts, which compelled them to retire. The infantry of Pompey, abandoned by the cavalry, was attacked on all sides at the same time. From that moment the result was no longer doubtful.

DEATH OF POMPEY.—Pompey, greatly dejected, sought refuge in his camp. Being informed that the conquerors were already forcing the intrenchments, he changed his dress, fled to the mouth of the Peneus, and embarked for Egypt, whose king was under great obligations to him. But what justice and gratitude could be expected in time of adversity from base and interested souls? Pompey was unfortunate, therefore his ruin was resolved upon. Invited to land, he no sooner approached the shore than he was cruelly murdered, in sight of his wife, Cornelia. Thus perished this man of world-wide celebrity (B.C. 48).

CÆSAR AT ALEXANDRIA (B.C. 48–47).—Cæsar, the conqueror of Pharsalia, set out in pursuit



of Pompey. It was not till he arrived in Alexandria that Cæsar learned of the murder of Pompey, whose head was presented to him. He beheld that awful sight with horror, and shed tears over Pompey's misfortune. But he was soon obliged to protect his own life against the same faithless persons by whom that illustrious man had been put to death. As Roman consul, Cæsar thought proper to settle the differences that had arisen between Ptolemy, King of Egypt, and Cleopatra, his sister. Cæsar adjudged the crown to the latter. Ptolemy, highly displeased at this decision, at the head of a powerful army attacked the Roman general, who had intrenched himself in the palace at Alexandria, having but three or four thousand men under his command. Cæsar successfully resisted until, having received reinforcements, he assumed the offensive and put the Egyptian army to the sword. Ptolemy himself was drowned in the Nile, and his death was regarded as a just punishment for the murder of Pompey, his friend, tutor, and benefactor.

WAR AGAINST PHARNACES; CÆSAR DICTATOR (B.C. 46).—The indefatigable Cæsar passed over to Asia and marched against Pharnaces, the son and assassin of Mithridates. His progress was so rapid that in a letter to one of his friends he expressed it by these three words: *Veni, vidi, vici!* ("I came, I saw, I conquered"). The con-





queror, having restored peace to the East, returned to Italy. He entered Rome in triumph and was appointed dictator for ten years.

Cæsar some time afterwards passed over to Africa, where his former lieutenant, Labienus, and other partisans of Pompey had fled. The most celebrated was Cato the Utican, the great-grandson of Cato the Elder. As Cæsar landed on the African shore he fell; but to prevent any presage of ill-omen, he cried out: "Africa, I seize thee!" The victory of Thapsus assured his success. Cato, hemmed up within Utica, had not the fortitude to survive the ruin of his party. After having twice read the *Phædo*, a dialogue by Plato on the immortality of the soul, he threw himself on his sword.

BATTLE OF MUNDA (B.C. 45).—In the midst of these honors Cæsar was not at rest. The two sons of Pompey had mustered a large army in Spain. This state of affairs required the presence of Cæsar; he hastened thither and found perils worthy of his courage. The decisive action, and the last in this bloody struggle, took place near Munda. The first charges were not favorable to the dictator; his legions, so often victorious before, began to give way and seemed restrained only by shame from fleeing. Cæsar in despair seized a shield and advanced within ten paces of the enemy. His example and his peril reanimated his troops. The fight was re-



newed with increased fury, till an untimely movement made by Labienus decided the fortune of the day.

This general, one of the chief leaders of the Pompeian party, despatched five cohorts to the defence of his camp, which was threatened with an attack. As the cohorts were leaving the field of battle, Cæsar cried out that the enemy were flying, and this report, being soon spread through the two armies, filled one with hope and the other with terror. The Pompeians wavered, their ranks were broken, and they fled in great disorder. The carnage was commensurate with the anger of a conqueror irritated by long resistance. The camp was taken by assault, as well as the city of Munda. One of the sons of Pompey was slain with Labienus; the other disappeared, and his retreat was never discovered.

DEATH OF CÆSAR (B.C. 44).—The victory of Munda gave peace to the world, and Cæsar, having no more enemies to subdue, returned to Rome. He was made perpetual dictator, the titles of "Imperator" and "Father of his country" were voted him, the temples were filled with his statues, and festivals, religious rites, and sacrifices were decreed to him. These extravagant honors were paid to him by the senate for the purpose of rendering him odious. The dictator, not seeing the snare laid for him, allowed himself to be dazzled. He contemplated making





war against the Parthians, to avenge the death of Crassus. Some of his friends pretended that, according to the Sibylline books, the Parthians could be conquered only by a *king*, and they proposed that Cæsar should bear the title of dictator in Italy, but that of king in all conquered countries. This proposition, eagerly though secretly entertained by Cæsar, gave rise to a conspiracy formed by Brutus and Cassius and several other citizens of distinction, nearly all of whom owed obligations to Cæsar.

The very day whereon Cæsar expected to be proclaimed king by the senate was that of his death. When he entered the Capitol the senators arose as if to do him honor. Cimber, one of the chief conspirators, approached as if to offer a petition, and, Cæsar seeming unwilling to receive it, the former seized his robe and pulled it from his shoulders. This was the signal for attack. The conspirators threw themselves on Cæsar, who, pierced with twenty-three wounds, fell without a struggle and expired at the foot of Pompey's statue. Such was the deplorable end of this famous Roman, who, to gratify his ambition, had destroyed more than a million of men in battle abroad, besides great numbers in the civil wars at home. Though the republic avenged upon him the loss of her liberty, yet the only result was to plunge herself and other nations into greater miseries.



SECOND TRIUMVIRATE (B.C. 43).—Octavius, grand-nephew and adopted son of Cæsar, was in Greece when he heard of his uncle's fate. This melancholy event surprised and afflicted him, but did not daunt his courage. Though not yet nineteen, he was already an able politician, with the grasping views of an ambitious leader. He returned to Rome, where he presented himself as the heir of Cæsar, and in this capacity acquired immense riches, which he spent in increasing the number of his partisans and in acquiring popularity among the citizens. Antony, who had been master of the cavalry and lieutenant of Cæsar, found himself consul and possessed of almost absolute authority. In the hope of strengthening his power he associated with himself Octavius. They added Lepidus, a rich man but without genius, from whom they would have nothing to fear. Such was the origin of the second triumvirate, which proved more fatal than the first to the liberties of Rome.

THE PROSCRIPTIONS ; DEATH OF CICERO (B.C. 43).—The new triumvirs, after having distributed among themselves all the provinces of the republic, drew up a list of proscriptions by which they mutually sacrificed their friends, benefactors, kinsmen, and brethren. Among the proscribed was Cicero, who had been the opponent of Antony because the latter was the enemy of his country. This great man, knowing that An-





tony had put a price upon his head, retired to his country-house, resolved to await there the lot that fate had destined for him. His servants prevailed on him to set out for a place of greater safety; but the partisans of Antony having overtaken him, Cicero himself ordered the litter to be stopped and gave himself up to the murderers. His head was carried to Rome and exposed to public view from the rostrum on which this admirable man had so often appeared to defend innocence or vindicate the laws of his country.

BATTLE OF PHILIPPI (B.C. 42); SUICIDE OF CASSIUS AND BRUTUS.—The triumvirs, after having filled Rome with terror, passed into Macedonia in pursuit of Brutus and Cassius, who at the head of twenty legions sustained the republican party. Cassius, who knew that the triumvirs lacked provisions, wished to conquer them through famine; but Brutus, impatient to terminate the quarrel, decided to give battle, and attacked Octavius with such vigor that the legions of the latter were quickly broken, routed, and pursued to their camp, which was taken. Had Brutus then charged Antony, the cause of the triumvirs would have been lost; but the latter, seeing Brutus far off, attacked Cassius and gained over him the same signal advantage which Brutus had obtained over Octavius. Cassius, believing all lost, yielded to despair, and killed himself before he could receive news of the suc-



cess of his colleague. This raised the hopes of the triumvirate, while it depressed those of the republican party. Some days after Brutus also was conquered, and followed the example of Cassius (B.C. 42).

One of the characteristic features of the ages of licentiousness and unbelief is to seek in voluntary death a remedy for present evils. But religion and reason alike condemn suicide, and even many pagans regarded it as showing a want of courage to sustain adversity.

PARTITION OF THE ROMAN WORLD.—Octavius and Antony, after their victory at Philippi, with entire disregard for the weak Lepidus, divided between themselves the Roman provinces. Octavius retained possession of the west, and the east was allotted to Antony, whose sojourn there was ruinous alike to his fame and fortune. Enslaved by the charms of Cleopatra, he seemed in the company of that profligate woman to lose all regard for his glory as well as for his personal interests, while the ambitious Octavius, more sagacious than his colleague and more master of himself, strengthened his power in Italy, and took measures for extending his authority over the whole empire.

WAR BETWEEN OCTAVIUS AND ANTONY (B.C. 32).—Octavius artfully employed the army of Antony in Sicily to destroy the power of Sextus, a son of the great Pompey, and who since the





tragic death of Cæsar had left his place of retirement and menaced the coast of Italy with a numerous fleet. Antony had previously lost a part of his forces in a disastrous Parthian expedition, the only glory of which was gained by his lieutenant, Ventidius. The latter, not content with repairing the errors of the triumvir, won more signal advantages over the enemy than had ever been gained by any other Roman general (B.C. 39). When Octavius deemed Antony sufficiently weakened by these wars, and rendered unpopular by the voluptuous and dishonorable life which he was leading in the East, he caused the senate to strip him of his titles, and himself sailed in quest of his rival at the head of a fleet of nearly three hundred sail. Antony, sunk in sensual pleasures, was not prepared to defend himself. The peril, however, awakened his dormant activity. Collecting all his forces, he went to meet Octavius.

BATTLE OF ACTIUM (B.C. 31); DEATH OF ANTONY.—The two fleets met near the promontory of Actium. Victory was for a long time doubtful, until Cleopatra, unaccustomed to the clash of arms, withdrew from the action with all her vessels. Antony, more concerned about her than his honor, followed. With but little further resistance the fleet, deserted by its commander, surrendered to the conqueror. Octavius, having thus become master of the sea, appeared before



Pelusium, the key of Egypt. Cleopatra, fearing the resentment of Antony, retired to a tower with her treasures and sent him word that she had killed herself. The credulous Antony, ashamed of being outdone by a woman, threw himself on his sword, inflicting a mortal wound. When Cleopatra learned that she had no more to fear from him, she caused him to be carried to her tower, where he died shortly after, a victim to the infidelity of a woman to whom he had sacrificed peace, fortune, glory, and honor.

DEATH OF CLEOPATRA (B.C. 30).—Cleopatra had hitherto flattered herself that she would be able to make the same impression on the heart of Octavius as she had made on that of Antony, and with this view she had sacrificed her victim to the conqueror of Actium. But the predominant passion of Octavius was ambition. He saw in Cleopatra only a vanquished queen, whose humiliation might serve as an ornament to his triumph, and he took measures to seize her person. This was not easy. The queen, deprived of the hope of seeing Octavius at her feet, and warned of the fate he was preparing for her, haughtily declared that if he undertook to force her from her tower she would set it on fire and throw herself with her treasures into the flames. After many futile attempts Octavius succeeded in seizing her, when, being informed that they were about to send her to Rome, she ended her





life by causing herself to be bitten by an asp, which was brought to her in a basket of figs. Thus closed a life that had been but a tissue of perfidy, murder, and debauchery.

OCTAVIUS EMPEROR; END OF THE REPUBLIC (B. C. 29).—Octavius, having reduced Egypt to a Roman province and confirmed Herod King of Judea, hastened to Rome. He made a triumphal entry, and had the glory of shutting the temple of Janus, having restored peace to the world, which had been agitated for so many years. The senate and people, not content with lavishing upon Octavius every imaginable honor, stripped themselves in his behalf of their prerogatives. The youthful hero, called the “Father of his country,” the “Prince of peace,” the “Pacifier of the world,” received also the title of “Emperor” (*commander*), which gave him chief command over all the Roman armies. This title, placed before his own name and not after, as had been the custom with other victorious generals, served from that time to designate the sole master of the Roman world, and the Republic, without being officially abolished, was henceforth replaced by the *Empire*.



### REVIEW QUESTIONS.

What is said of the rise of the Gracchi? What of the Agrarian Law? How did T. Gracchus end his life? What of Caius Gracchus? What of Jugurtha's usurpation? Describe the war against Jugurtha. How did Bocchus behave in this war? What is said of the battle near the Rhone? What of the battle at Aix? Of the battle at Vercellæ? How did Marius overcome the Cimbri? What is meant by the “Social War”? What is said of the first war against Mithridates? What of the feud between Marius and Sulla? Describe the victory of Charonea: of Orchomennus. How was the treaty of Dardanium brought about? What was the fate of Marius? What took place upon Sulla's return to Italy? Describe the battle with the Samnites. What was Sulla's conduct upon assuming the dictatorship? What is said of his abdication and death? What of the second war against Mithridates? What of Spartacus? What of Sertorius? Describe the battle of Tigranocerta. How did Lucullus gain his last victory? What of Pompey's victory over the pirates? What of his overthrow of Mithridates? What of Mithridates' last effort against Rome? What of Pompey's triumph? What is said of Catiline? What of Cicero's election to the consulate? How did he expose Catiline's conspiracy? Describe the defeat and death of Catiline. What of Julius Cæsar? What of the first triumvirate? What is said of Cæsar's conquest of Gaul? What of the expedition of Crassus against the Parthians? What of the civil war? What of the passage of the Rubicon? Of the battle of Pharsalia? Of the death of Pompey? Describe Cæsar's conduct in Egypt. What of the war against Pharnaces? Of Cæsar's dictatorship? What of the battle of Munda? Relate the death of Cæsar. What of the second triumvirate? Describe the proscriptions. The death of Cicero. The battle of Philippi? What is said of suicide? What of Octavius and Antony after the battle of Philippi. What measures did Octavius then take against Antony? Describe the battle of Actium. What was the subsequent career of Cleopatra? What of Octavius after the death of Antony? What is said of the title of “emperor”?