ROMA



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ROMA



A READER FOR THE SECOND STAGE OF LATIN

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PREFACE

The main purpose of this book is to introduce young students to the work of Latin authors and the main outline of Roman History at the earliest possible stage. The Latin itself has of necessity undergone some modification and simplification; but it has been our aim to retain in a large degree the flavour of the original. The extracts, chosen in the first place for their intrinsic interest, serve also to illustrate the more important phases of Republican and Imperial History, as set forth in the historical sketch.

Special attention has been paid to the building up of a vocabulary which will form a sound foundation for further reading: and the choice of words for memorisation is largely based on the selection made by Professor G. Lodge of Columbia University and bearing a strict relation to the frequency of their use in the best Latin authors.

The book is intended, as its title suggests, to introduce the student to the use of *compound* sentences, involving participles, temporal clauses, final clauses, and simple indirect speech. The order in which these appear has been carefully graduated; and the exercises for retranslation (which are related to the Latin pieces in vocabulary and content) correspond under the following scheme:

I-v. Relatives.

VI-XIII b. Participles (Ablative Absolute).

xIV a-xVII. Indirect Statements. xVIII-xXIV. Mixed Participles.

xxv-xxvib. Revision: the use of cases.

xxvii-xxix. Final Clauses.

XXX-XXXII. Indirect Commands.

xxxIII-xxxv. Finals and Indirect Commands.

xxxvi-xxxviii. Indirect Questions.

From piece xxxix onwards there is a reversion to a simpler level of style; and the remainder of the book may well be used for purposes of revision. The exercises accompanying these later pieces are of a varying nature; but a further selection of sentences for revision will be found near the end of the book, and sentences could be made up for the same purpose as follows:

xxxix a, b. Relatives.

XXXIXc, XLIV. Ablative Absolute.

XXXIX d, XLIb. Deponent Participles.

XLa, XLVI. Indirect Statements.

XLb. Finals and Indirect Commands.

XLII, XLV. Mixed Participles.

XLIII, LVI. Cases.

XLIX a. Indirect Questions.

La, b, Li. Indirect Statements, Commands and

Questions.

Lv. Indirect Statements and Commands.

Concerning the Vocabularies, certain points should be noted:

(1) The Special Vocabularies, accompanying each piece, are intended for strict memorisation.

(2) Vocabulary I, at the end of the book, contains words with which, it is assumed, the student will already be familiar.

(3) In Vocabulary II words which have previously occurred in the Special Vocabularies are accompanied by a mere reference back to the Special Vocabulary in which they occurred.

In the Latin selections, the quantities of long vowels have been marked where it has seemed desirable: fully down to and including Exercise XXIV, subsequently only to a small extent.

C. E. R.

P. G. H.

80 July 1938

HISTORICAL OUTLINE

[The Roman numerals refer to the Latin pieces chosen to illustrate Roman history.]

Our own history begins with legends—of King Arthur and his knights. Roman history began with legends too. When Troy (they said) was besieged and captured by the Greeks (I, II), a Trojan warrior, Aeneas, escaped and sailed to Italy (III). There his descendants settled in Alba, the 'White City'; and it was by one of these, Romulus, that Rome was eventually founded in 753 B.C. (IV, V, VI). Under the succeeding line of kings the tiny state flourished, until Tarquin the Proud by his tyrannous rule enraged the citizens and was expelled in 510 B.C. The neighbouring Etruscans tried to restore him but were beaten back (VII, VIII); and henceforward for nearly five centuries Rome remained a Republic. She was governed by two consuls, annually elected and assisted by a permanent council or senate.

At first there were serious class conflicts. The Patricians or 'gentry' bullied the Plebeians or 'commoners', allowing them no share in the government. One day, in 494 B.C., the Plebeians in exasperation marched out of the city and refused to return until they were granted the right of electing champions of their own, called tribunes (IX a and b). Little by little the masses gained more say in affairs; and, when in 450 B.C. a certain Appius Claudius tried to abuse his official power, he was foiled by their stout resistance (x).

The Romans were, in fact, great lovers of liberty; but they loved discipline even more. Throughout their history they were famous for their patriotism and for their military prowess. Their army was composed of ordinary citizens, called up (when need arose) from plough or workshop. Even a leading general might have to be fetched from his farm at a crisis (x1). Wars were frequent against the Volscians and other surrounding tribes (XII). But by the start of the fourth century B.C. Rome had begun to gain the upper hand.

Then suddenly in 390 B.C. came a terrible catastrophe. A barbarian horde of Gauls, crossing the Alps, marched south and sacked the city (XIII a and b). Happily they soon departed; and with amazing pluck the little Republic recovered. In bitter wars (327–290) she overcame the Samnites and the remaining Italian tribes (XIV a and b). Finally came a conflict with the cities founded by Greek colonists in the south. These called to their aid a Greek prince, Pyrrhus (XV); and his well-trained army was almost too much for the Romans. But their tenacity triumphed, and by 270 B.C. they were masters of the whole Italian peninsula.

Across the Mediterranean on the African coast lay a great rival, Carthage. Her wealthy merchants kept a strong fleet and hired mercenary troops. Most of Sicily was under their control; and here Rome challenged them (264–241), building for the first time a fleet of her own and even sending an expedition to Africa itself (xvi, xvii). This expedition failed, but after twenty years of war Sicily was wrested from Carthage.

A generation later a young Carthaginian general, Hannibal, determined on revenge. Starting from Spain (much of which his father had conquered), he marched his army across the Alps and in 218 descended upon Italy. At Lake Trasimene and elsewhere he inflicted terrible defeats on the Romans (xviii, xix). But he could not take the city (xx). His brother Hasdrubal, bringing reinforcements from Spain, was destroyed (xxi); and after fourteen years spent on Italian soil, Hannibal was forced to return to Africa, there to be defeated by Scipio at Zama in 202. Some years later he died an exile in a foreign land (xxii).

At Rome meanwhile Scipio was the hero of the hour. Opponents tried to discredit him, but failed miserably (XXIII). He was a rare spirit; and, unlike most of his

ignorant and superstitious fellow-countrymen (xxiv), he loved learning. He and his friends greatly admired the quick-witted Greeks and studied their wonderful literature. When in 196, after fighting a successful war against Philip, King of Macedon, they might have annexed Greece, they preferred to proclaim all her cities free from Philip's sway (xxv).

Not all Romans were so generous-minded. Many feared that Greek learning would make men soft. Cato, in particular, maintained that the country was 'going to the dogs' and strove to restore the strict habits of 'the good old days' (xxvia and b). He considered that Roman interests should at all costs come first. During a visit to Carthage he witnessed signs of her returning prosperity; and 'Carthage must be destroyed' became henceforth his slogan. A quarrel was picked: and in 146 after a terrible siege the proud city was razed to the ground (xxvii). About the same time Rome also annexed Macedon and completed the conquest of Spain. By 135 B.C. her empire embraced all the western half of the Mediterranean basin. Even the monarchs of the eastern half, though still unconquered, acknowledged her supremacy (xxviii).

The Republic ruled its empire with a heavy hand. Of the governors, who were sent out to its new provinces, some strove to be severely just: many were grasping (L a and b); a few were treacherous and cruel (XXIX). At home the Senate's rule was becoming selfish and oppressive. A small group of noble families held all the power, making sure by bribery and similar means that their own members were elected to the consulship and other offices. Most Italian land, too, was taken up by the estates of these same nobles. Thousands of small farmers lost their acres and crowded into Rome as 'unemployed'. At last in 132 Tiberius Gracchus proposed that small allotments should be found for them; but the senatorial nobles opposed him and he was killed in

a riot (xxx). His brother, Gaius Gracchus, took up the cause of the poor. He spoke out for the Italian peasantry who suffered from the overbearing behaviour of the nobles (xxxi); but he too was killed.

Gaius Gracchus had won the support of the middle-class business-men who resented the nobles' power; and these business-men now formed a party eager to discredit the Senate. Their chance soon came. A war broke out against Jugurtha, a nomad prince of Africa. The senatorial generals bungled it; and the people in exasperation sent out Gaius Marius, a man of the despised middle-class. He won the war and reorganised the army. It was well he did so. For at this moment came a terrible threat of invasion. A barbarian host of Cimbri and Teutoni marched down out of north Europe. Marius saved the day by meeting them in southern Gaul and defeating them utterly in 102 B.C. (XXXII).

Marius, with his victorious army at his back, had the chance of dominating the State. He made little use of it; and soon a Civil War (in which the Italians fought Rome and fought successfully to win the rights of citizenship) brought a rival general to the fore. This man, Sulla, threw his weight on the side of the Senate and against the middleclass faction; and Marius after a series of hair-breadth escapes was hunted out of Italy (XXXIII). While Sulla was absent on a foreign campaign, Marius returned and massacred many senators. Then Sulla came home eager for revenge and it was the turn of the middle-class to be massacred (xxxiv a and b). But, despite Sulla's attempt to restore it, the Senate's power was fast waning. It was incapable even of controlling the mob within the capital itself. In 63 Catiline attempted to raise a revolution; and his plot was barely foiled by the cool courage of Cicero (xxxvi).

Troubles were only beginning. Fresh wars brought forward fresh generals as competitors for power. First, Pompey was

sent out against Mithridates, a native king of Asia Minor; and there he followed up his victory by annexing the whole Syrian coast and capturing the town of Jerusalem (xxxv). But on his return to Rome Pompey proved incapable of restoring order. Ambitious politicians hired bodyguards of ruffians and murderous brawls were frequent (xxxvII). Meanwhile another and greater leader was emerging—Gaius Julius Caesar, a man as brilliant and masterful as ever lived (XXXVIII). He first won his position by achieving the conquest of Gaul, 58-55 B.C. In 55 and 54 he invaded Britain (XXXIX a, b, c, d); he then spent some years in crushing a dangerous Gallic insurrection led by Vercingetorix (xLa, b). Finally, at the head of his victorious legions, he determined to make himself master of Rome. Pompey, now the Senate's champion, rallied their forces in Greece; but in 48 B.C. he was defeated near Pharsalia (XLIb). Caesar was now lord of the world; and under him Rome ceased to be a Republic. He did not actually abolish the Senate, but the nobles found his dictatorship so intolerable that in 44 B.C. they plotted to kill him (XLII).

Caesar's death brought on fresh civil wars, out of which, in 31 B.C., his young heir Augustus came victorious. More tactful than Caesar, he honoured the Senate and gave them a share of power. He restored peace and prosperity to the Empire (XLIII); but his attempt to conquer Germany ended in A.D. 9 in utter disaster (XLIV). He was followed by four Emperors all sprung from one branch or other of his family. Tiberius (A.D. 14-37) began well and ended badly. Caligula was mad. Claudius (A.D. 41-54) was ruled by his favourites. Nero (A.D. 54-68) abused his power so grossly that the armies came out in revolt; and he committed suicide (XLV).

There followed a fresh Civil War between rival generals. Victory went to Vespasian (A.D. 69-79), an Emperor of a new type, a man of the middle-class who reorganised the army and finance on business-like lines (XLVI). Under him

the government of the Empire grew more systematic; and after the death of his son Domitian (XLVII) it became the custom to choose emperors by merit rather than by lineage. A brilliant era now began. The officials ruled the provinces with justice, referring all difficult problems to their master. We have a letter in which one of them asked the advice of Trajan (A.D. 98–117) about the treatment of Christians; and we have Trajan's reply (XLIX a and b). Law and order prevailed as never before; and Europe still owes much to the methods that such men devised for impartial and efficient administration.

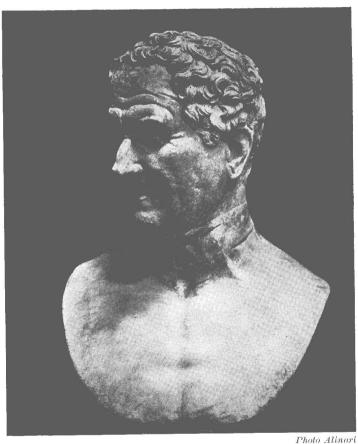
Besides good government, the Empire gave Europe civilisation. The influence of Greek culture, we must remember, had transformed the Romans. They were no longer simple farmers like Cincinnatus of old. Their leaders were highly educated gentlemen. They produced great poets like Vergil, great historians like Livy. Magnificent temples and public halls were built. The provincials too were encouraged to build towns with imposing squares and amphitheatres and public baths. Education spread through Spain, Gaul and Britain (XLVIII). Under the Emperor Hadrian (A.D. 117-137)—himself a student and a poet (LXXV)—the height of the Empire's prosperity was reached. The following centuries witnessed a long decline. There were terrible civil wars. Food ran short; for it became impossible for the farmers to produce enough both for the luxurious town populations and for the armies which guarded the frontiers. There meanwhile fresh hordes of barbarians were pressing hard along the Rhine and the Danube. Eventually they broke through into the provinces of the West. Rome herself was sacked in A.D. 410; and her great Empire went to pieces. Only the Eastern half withstood the shock: and under the rule of the Byzantine Emperors its capital Constantinople survived for another thousand years.

ROMA forms the middle volume of a continuous course in Latin, from the start to School Certificate level. The introductory volume is entitled LATINUM and the final volume ROMANI

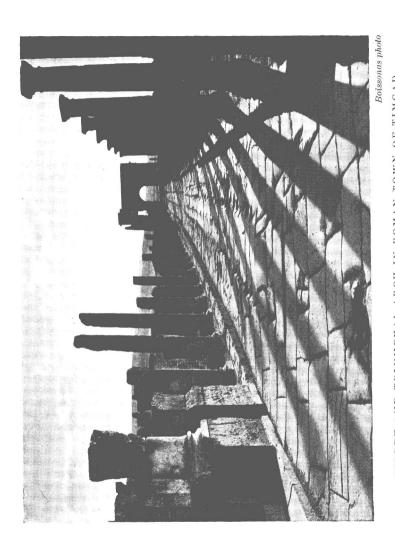


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TRICIANS AND PLEBEIAN



SULLA



STREET AND TRIUMPHAL ARCH IN ROMAN TOWN OF TIMGAD, NORTH AFRICA

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