CAESAR'S GALLIC WAR

BOOKS I-IV
AND SELECTIONS FROM BOOKS V-VII

WITH

NOTES; GRAMMATICAL APPENDIX, AND PROSE COMPOSITION

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PREFACE

AT a time when so many excellent school editions of Caesar's Gallic War have been offered to the teachers of the country, representing the best scholarship and highest type of pedagogical presentation, it is but proper that a new edition should present its claims to consideration.

These must rest in large measure on the attempt to promote economy and convenience. The demands of the courses of study of our high schools and academies have so increased during the last few years as to suggest the wisdom of having all the required work for the second year of Latin in as compact form as possible. At present three books in Latin are used during this year: a grammar, a prose composition, and a Caesar text with its notes, vocabulary, history, etc. The aim in this edition is to place these three in one volume, containing all the text required for admission to college, all the grammar needed for the full interpretation of the text, together with all the usual grammatical forms for reference and for review, and a complete series of exercises in prose composition sufficient for the year's work.

By this arrangement it is felt that there will be not alone a marked economy in the cost to the pupil, but, what is far more important, a great saving of time through the easier reference from one part of the work to the other parts. For the most effective treatment, each part needs the whole; a grammar cannot be properly divorced from the text, nor the composition from either. Then, too, a grammar full enough for college Latin is unnecessarily perplexing and burdensome to the beginner.

The first four books of the Gallic War are given, and a full equivalent of a fifth book has been added for those classes that can complete the larger amount, or for practice in sight reading; this book being made up of complete selections from the fifth, sixth, and seventh books, and containing only the most useful and interesting material.

Daily experience in the classroom has been the guide in the determination of what aids should be given in the way of notes, maps, and other illustrative material. The recognized difficulties of the Latin language, and the goal which the demands of the educational systems, and particularly of the colleges, have fixed as the termination of two years of work, have been carefully kept in mind.

We wish to acknowledge the very great assistance of Dr. William Tibbetts and Dr. Willis Boughton in the preparation of this work, and of Mr. Charles E. Dixon of this school for many valuable suggestions, and especially for the Prose Composition, which is entirely his work.

That in some measure our aims have been accomplished, and that this edition may prove of service to our fellow teachers of Latin, is the hope of

THE AUTHORS.

ERASMUS HALL HIGH SCHOOL, BROOKLYN, December 1, 1906.

INTRODUCTION

THE LIFE OF CAESAR

I. The Roman Republic. - After the expulsion of King Tarquin, about five centuries B.C., the Roman government became a republic. The chief officers were two consuls, or presidents, elected annually. A senate consisting at first of three hundred members, enlarged later to six hundred, was an advisory body, whose power and authority increased with the growth of the republic. Starting with a single city, the Roman nation gradually extended its sway until, in 64 B.C., it included all Italy, Sicily, Sardinia, Spain, Illyricum, Macedonia and Greece, northern Africa, Gaul between the Rhone and the Apennines, and Asia Minor. In other words, Rome was the mistress of all the territory surrounding the Mediterranean. The conquest of Greece brought to the city Greek scholars, writers, and artists, who spread the higher learning and civilization of their land. One result of these foreign conquests was great national and personal wealth. But with wealth came luxury and the loss of the sturdy virtues that had been developed in the earlier days. the people were divided into the nobles (or men of senatorial rank), the knights (or men of wealth), the commons, and slaves. Between the rich and the poor there was frequent strife, owing to the unjust distribution of land and the undue power of the senate, which was cast on the side of the few great landowners. cally, two parties came into existence after the foreign conquests, -the aristocratic, and the democratic or popular. Under the leadership of Sulla and Marius, the rivalry of these parties became most intense. But these leaders depended for their support upon the army, rather than upon the free will of the people. and thereafter the army was to be recognized in the settlement of political questions. There were many problems for statesmen to solve at Rome at the beginning of the first century B.C. Popular government, as then conducted, was a failure. The extent of the Roman territory, the differing interests of the population, the corrupt condition of the senate, called for a leader of the highest ability. This man appeared, destined to lay the foundation of a mighty empire, and to be the foremost man in all Roman history. — Julius Caesar.

- 2. Caesar's Ancestry. Gaius Julius Caesar was born at Rome, July 12, 100 (or 102) ¹ B.C. The distinguished Julian family of which he was a member traced its history to Iulus, son of the Trojan Aeneas, who by tradition was descended from the gods. His father, who died when Julius was still a boy, had held the office of practor. His mother, Aurelia, was a Roman matron of the highest type. To her wise training and influence, in a time of degeneracy, the son owed much, a debt which he repaid by deep affection and gratitude. It was the good fortune of Aurelia to live to see the success of her son in the greatest undertaking of his life, the conquest of Gaul.
- 3. Education. Caesar's early education was received from M. Antonius Gnipho, a Gaul who resided in his pupil's family. It is probable that this instructor aroused in him a special interest in the Gallic land, which afterwards became so closely associated with his name. As to the extent of his education, we know that he spoke Greek as well as his own language, that he was an orator of great ability, that he was fond of books and art, and that he was an excellent gymnast and rider. The deeds of his uncle Marius, the greatest general that Rome had seen, must have filled his youthful mind with enthusiasm for military life.
- 4. Marriage. At the age of fourteen, Caesar was appointed priest of Jupiter (flamen dialis). Four years later, he married Cornelia, daughter of a leader of the popular party, but on the return of Sulla as leader of the opposite faction he was ordered to be divorced. His refusal to obey was followed by dismissal from the priesthood, together with loss of his wife's dowry and

¹ The date is uncertain; 100 according to Suetonius, 102 according to Mommsen.

his own right of inheritance. The incident required him to retire from Rome, and though he was finally pardoned, it led to Sulla's prophecy that a youth of such metal would some day overthrow the aristocracy, "for in young Caesar there were many Mariuses."

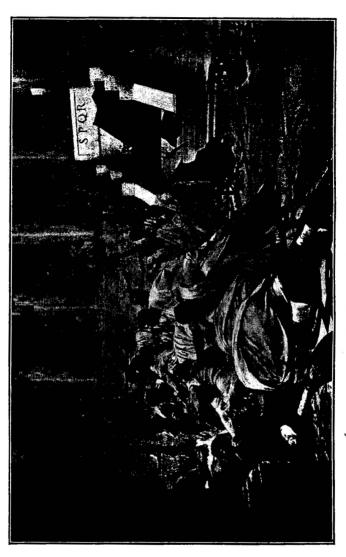
- 5. First Military Service. Going to Asia in 81 B.C., he began his career as a soldier by serving as aide-de-camp in the war against Mithridates, winning a civic crown (corona civica) for bravery. He was not without some experience in sea service also, for he joined the expedition of Servilius against the pirates of Cilicia.
- 6. First Speeches. Returning to Rome after the death of Sulla, Caesar made his first speeches in several legal cases. Though not successful, his efforts were well received. It may be owing to his lack of success that he now went to Rhodes to study under Apollonius Molo, a noted teacher of rhetoric and oratory, who included Cicero among his pupils. It was on the way there that he was captured by pirates, who held him for a ransom. This he agreed to pay, with the threat that when released he would return and hang them all; he kept his word.
- 7. First Command of an Army. Caesar's stay at Rhodes was shortened by an act of patriotism. Seeing that Mithridates, king of Pontus, was gaining in power in the absence of a sufficient Roman force, he raised a volunteer army, became its leader, and succeeded in driving back the king's general.
- 8. Quaestorship. In 74 B.C., Caesar returned to Rome and began his political career. He had been appointed pontifex and was now elected military tribune. Allying himself with those who opposed the constitution of Sulla, he was elected quaestor, or public treasurer (68 B.C.). This office was the first in the "cursus honorum," and had to be held before one could be a member of the senate. Caesar's special duty called him to Spain as financial secretary to the governor of that distant province.
- 9. Aedileship. Caesar was elected curule aedile for the year 65 B.C. This official had charge of the public buildings and streets, and was afforded a special opportunity to win popular favor for later offices by providing public games and amusements.

Caesar's entertainments of this sort were noted for their splendor, but they involved him in heavy debt.

- ro. Pontifex Maximus. In 63 B.C., Caesar became pontifex maximus, or chief priest, an office of great influence and to be held for life. Besides having charge of the religious system of the nation, he was required to keep the calendar. The calendar at that time was much in need of revision, and it is to Caesar that we owe the corrections which, with slight alteration, have been accepted since 45 B.C.
- rate. Praetorship. We know nothing of Caesar's record as praetor, or Roman judge, in 62 B.C. But we know that the following year as propraetor he became governor of Farther Spain, where he conquered several mountain tribes and gave evidence of his qualities as general. He reorganized the civil government of the province and personally accumulated sufficient means to enable him to satisfy his creditors at Rome. For his successes in Spain the senate granted him a triumph, but this honor he gave up voluntarily, that he might become a candidate for the consulship.
- of the popular party, which for twenty years had found no able successor of Marius and Cinna. At this time there were two other men of special prominence in the nation, Pompey, the greatest soldier of the day, and Crassus, the richest man in Rome. Pompey had just returned from his victories in the East. He had disbanded his army and now found the senate in opposition to himself, as it was to Caesar. To further their interests and more successfully meet the senate, these three men formed a league known as the First Triumvirate (60 B.C.). By the terms of their alliance Pompey was to receive land for his soldiers, and have his acts in the East ratified, Crassus was to gain an opportunity for political advancement, and Caesar was to become consult and later a governor.
- 13. Consulship. Caesar's election to the consulship for 59 B.c. was easily won. His colleague Bibulus proved to be a weak associate, so that it was humorously said that the consuls were Julius and Caesar. The year was one of conflict with the senate. The proceedings of that body had never been public;

Caesar caused a daily report of them to be posted in the Forum, where it could be read. As consul he secured the demands of Pompey (12), proposed an agrarian law and a law against extortion, and obtained for himself the Gallic provinces for five years (59-55 B.C.). At a conference of the triumvirate at Luca in 56, this period was extended for five years more (54-50 B.C.).

- 14. Caesar's Provinces. The territory assigned to Caesar included three provinces: Illyricum, east of the Adriatic; Cisalpine Gaul, lying east of the Alps along the Po; and Transalpine Gaul or Narbonensis, extending from the Alps southwestward to the Pyrenees. Transalpine Gaul, which had belonged to the Romans since 121 B.C., was distinguished as the Province, from which modern Provence is named. Caesar's relation to these provinces was both civil and military. As civil officer he would preside over the courts and provide for the general government. As military officer he would protect them from insurrection and invasion.
- 15. The Conquest of Gaul. Caesar had just finished his consulship when he learned of the proposed invasion of the Province by the Helvetii. Immediately leaving Rome, he mustered an army of six legions. The conflict that followed with the invaders was the first event in the conquest of Gaul proper, the country bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees, including therefore modern France, Switzerland, and Belgium. This conquest, the task of eight years (58–51 B.C.), was one of the most important events of history, for it not only added a vast province to the Roman dominions, but resulted in the extension of eastern civilization to western Europe. It is because Caesar prepared the way for the spread of this civilization that we have the chief interest in his life and writings.
- 16. The Civil War. The triumvirate was dissolved by the death of Crassus (53 B.C.), and by the estrangement of Caesar and Pompey. As the time approached for Caesar's second consulship, which was to follow his ten years in Gaul, the law required that he give up the command of his army and become a private citizen at Rome before his election. This he refused to do. With a faithful legion he crossed the Rubicon, a small



stream between his Cisalpine province and Italy. Civil war was inevitable. Pompey fled with his forces to Brundisium, thence to Greece. Having overrun Italy and undertaken the government at Rome, Caesar proceeded to Spain, where he secured control of the army in that country. Now in pursuit of Pompey he crossed the Adriatic and met his great rival in a decisive battle at Pharsalus (48 B.c.). Pompey fled to Egypt, where, upon landing, he was put to death by order of the king of that country.

- 17. Caesar as Dictator. In 48 Caesar was appointed consul for five years, in 46 dictator for ten years, and in 44 dictator for life. To establish this supremacy he fought his last wars. He assigned the throne of Egypt to Cleopatra, defeating her brother Ptolemy. In Asia he suppressed the revolt of the son of Mithridates with such promptness that he could report the victory in his three famous words, veni, vidi, vici. He broke the power of Pompey's successors in Africa by defeating Scipio at Thapsus and Cato at Utica (46 B.c.). These and former victories he now had the honor to celebrate in four triumphs of unusual grandeur, over Gaul, Egypt, Pontus, and Africa. In the following year the battle of Munda, in Spain, with the two sons of Pompey ended all resistance to his power.
- 18. Caesar's Reforms. Caesar now turned his attention to improving the welfare of the people. He established a strong central government, enlarged the senate, making it more representative, and united the people by breaking down the old distinctions. He revised the laws, reduced pauperism, established colonies, encouraged agriculture, and protected the provinces from unjust taxation.
- 19. Caesar's Death. While he was thus serving his country best, his enemies, including some whom he had pardoned and favored most, conspired to take his life, claiming that he intended to become king. On the Ides (the 15th) of March, 44 B.C., they assassinated him in the senate house, at the foot of Pompey's statue. "It was the most senseless deed," says Goethe, "that ever was done." It could not save Rome from monarchy, for within fifteen years Caesar's nephew and heir, Octavius Augustus, became the first emperor.

- 20. Character of Caesar. Though not without vices, Caesar's virtues were such as to make his character well balanced. He was courteous, self-controlled, temperate, generous, and merciful toward his personal enemies. The breadth of his intellect has excited the wonder of all men. He has been called the greatest man in antiquity, for he was of the highest genius as statesman, soldier, orator, historian, and scholar. "Had he been nothing but a soldier," says Colonel Dodge, "Caesar would have been the equal of the other great captains." With but little military training, as we have seen, he learned the art of war by experience. and rarely made an error in strategy. A strict disciplinarian. he cared for his troops as few others have done, and was idolized by them. It is true that he seems needlessly cruel in slaving a million of the Gauls, a third of all with whom he fought, "but when he quitted Gaul and threw down the gauntlet to a mightier foe, the princes sent their bravest warriors to fight under his flag." But Caesar was primarily a statesman. He was a born ruler and organizer. The supreme act of his life was rescuing Rome from anarchy and laying the foundation of the empire. whose scepter he was the first to sway in fact, if not in name. To quote from Mommsen, "Caesar was monarch, but he never played the king. Even when absolute lord of Rome, he retained the deportment of the party leader. Complaisant toward every one, it seemed that he wished to be nothing but the first among his peers."
- 21. Caesar's Commentaries. Caesar wrote on many topics, but the history of the Gallic wer and another of the civil war are all that have come down to us. The former history, called Commentarii de Bello Gallico (Commentaries on the Gallic War), was written to justify his course in Gaul, and was probably finished before the end of 51 B.C. It was written in seven books, each being the record of a year's campaign in Gaul, for the period 58-52 B.C. To these was added an eighth book for 51 B.C., by his lieutenant, Aulus Hirtius. These commentaries tell of the defeat of the Helvetii and of Ariovistus in 58; of the conquest of the Belgae in 57; of the naval war with the Veneti and of the campaigns against the Aquitani and tribes on the northern coast in 56; of the defeat of two German tribes in Gaul and the

invasion of Germany and Britain in 55; of the second invasion of Britain in 54; of the second expedition to Germany and of the conflict with the Gallic chief Ambiorix in 53; of the last mighty struggle of all the tribes for freedom under the brave Vercingetorix in 52; and finally of the taking of the last stronghold, Uxellodunum, in 51.

It is not merely a history of warfare that Caesar has given us, but an account of the country and the people who were among the first to live in western Europe. It is the earliest source of information regarding that part of the world.

THE GAULS

- 22. Government. The Gauls whom Caesar conquered were divided into about sixty tribes. They were chiefly Celtic in origin and spoke different dialects of the Celtic language. These tribes did not form one nation, though it is said that representatives met yearly to consider matters of general concern. Naturally, friendly alliances existed between some tribes, while others were subject to the more powerful. With few exceptions they had dethroned their kings, the government passing into the hands of nobles or chieftains, and a senate or council of elders. In some tribes, such as the Haedui, magistrates were elected annually.
- 23. Civilization. In civilization the northern tribes were least advanced, while those in the south developed because of intercourse with the Roman Province, chiefly through merchants from Narbo and the old Greek city of Massilia (Marseilles). The central Gauls sowed grain and were famous for their horses and cattle; the Aquitani were miners; the Veneti were sailors. The houses were of timber and wickerwork. The people lived in open villages or in towns fortified with massive walls. They collected taxes and tolls. They used coined money. In their written language they adopted the characters of the Greek alphabet. Their religion was druidism, of which Caesar has given much interesting information in Book VI.
- 24. Dress. Physically the Gauls were tall, fair-haired, and of great strength. They were trousers (braccae) and many-

colored shirts, in distinction from other nations of their time, and were known for their jewelry of gold and bronze (see Plate I.).

25. Warfare. — Much of the time of the Gauls was spent in warfare. Their weapons were a heavy javelin or pike, and a long two-edged sword made for striking rather than thrusting. Their defensive armor was a large shield and a metal helmet, the latter often being made in the shape of some animal's head. The strength of the Gallic army was in its cavalry. The infantry advanced to the attack in close array (by phalanxes) protected by shields above and in front, as in the case of the Helvetii. Caesar himself testifies to the valor of his foe, but bravery and numbers counted for little before the discipline and the organization of the Roman legions.

THE GERMANS

26. The two battles which Caesar fought with German armies in 58 and 55 B.C. were on Gallic soil, to which the migrating Germans had come. In 55 Caesar entered Germany itself, and again in 53, but these brief expeditions were intended chiefly for display, and resulted in no conquest. The Romans knew little about Germany, although the Cimbri and Teutones, their well-nigh invincible enemies of the preceding century, had come from that country. Caesar was the first to learn of the nature and customs of the inhabitants and has left a record of his observations in Books IV and VI of the Commentaries. He found that they were less civilized than the Gauls, having scarcely left the nomedic stage. They lived in isolated tribes. Being herdsmen, they subsisted upon their cattle. They were tall in stature and stern looking. They were trained warriors, the Suebi alone having a standing army of a hundred thousand They worshiped the sun and the moon and were highly superstitious.

THE BRITONS

27. The history of Britain may be said to begin with Caesar's invasions of that island in 55 and 54 B.C. As a reason for these invasions, he says that the Britons had given aid to the Gauls

in their recent wars, and that he wished to learn personally about the people and their land. Long before his time the island had been famous for its tin, for which Phoenician merchants came and bartered their wares. Like the Gauls, the inhabitants of Britain were Celts. The coast tribes had customs like those of their neighbors on the continent, while those in the interior were less advanced. In battles they used a special kind of chariot drawn by trained horses. Druidism flourished in Britain even to a greater extent than in Gaul. On his second expedition Caesar conquered the country for some distance beyond the Thames, and compelled the chiefs to pay tribute and give hostages. But after his return to Gaul, the country regained its independence, and it was not until a century later that the Romans sent another army to secure the conquest.

CAESAR'S ARMY

Divisions of the Army

28. The Infantry. — The main division of the Roman infantry was the legion (legio). This consisted of six thousand men when fully recruited, but through disability or loss of life the number in actual service was smaller, probably four thousand or five thousand. It is clearly impossible to tell the exact number for a particular legion at a given time, for recruits were not added to the old legions, but formed into new. Caesar had six legions in 58 B.C., eight in 57–55, ten in 53, and eleven in 52. Each legion was divided into ten cohorts, thirty maniples, sixty centuries.

100 (?) men	in	1 century (centuria, ordo)
2 centuries	in	1 maniple (manipulus)
3 maniples	in	1 cohort (cohors)
10 cohorts	$_{ m in}$	1 legion

29. Auxiliaries. — We have no knowledge of the number of auxiliaries (auxilia) in Caesar's army. They were not Roman

¹ Numbered 7, 8 9, 10, 11, 12.

² Adding 1, 3, 13 14, 15, to those of 58 B.C.

citizens. They included archers (sagittarii) from Crete and Numidia, slingers (funditores) from the Balearic Islands, and the soldiers of light armor (milites levis armaturae). The last kind of troops carried the usual sword and spear, but had a light round shield (parma), and wore light defensive armor in distinction from the legionary (40). The auxiliaries were used chiefly to make a show of strength, and generally were stationed on the wings (alae) of the army, from which they were called alarii (see Plate I.).

- 30. Cavalry. This section of the army (equitatus, equites) was composed entirely of mercenaries from Gaul, Germany, and Spain. They numbered four thousand in 58 B.C., five thousand in 55, most of whom were furnished by the Haedui and Treveri. The divisions were alae, or regiments of three hundred or four hundred men; turmac, or squadrons of thirty-three men; and decuriae, of eleven men each. The officers were decurions (decuriones) and prefects (praefecti equitum). Caesar's cavalry won little glory in battle, being frequently defeated by much smaller numbers of the enemy.
- 31. The Artillery. There was no regular artillery corps. The engines (56) for hurling stones and arrows were operated by skilled workmen (fabri) who ranked as legionaries.
- 32. Baggage Train. The tents, mills for grinding grain, and stores of provisions and weapons were carried by pack-animals (iumenta), either horses or mules. It is estimated that about five hundred animals were required for each legion. These animals were attended by slaves (calones). The baggage train was called impedimenta because it was an "impediment" or hindrance to the army in its progress. A legion without its baggage was called legio expedita. For the personal baggage (sarcinae) carried by the soldiers, see 42.

The Officers

33. Commander in Chief.—Caesar, as commander in chief, was called *dux belli*, until his victory over the Helvetii, when he received the title *imperator*. His staff included the lieutenants (*legati*), the quaestor, spies (*speculatores*), and camp companions

(contubernales), young men who had come to learn the art of war.

- 34. Lieutenants.—The *legati* may be considered as lieutenant-generals, being the intimate advisers of the imperator. They were sometimes assigned to conduct special expeditions, or to be commanders of the legions in battle, a custom introduced by Caesar. In the absence of the general, they held his authority and were regularly in charge of the winter-quarters. They were men of senatorial rank, the most prominent being Labienus, Publius Crassus, and Quintus Cicero, the brother of the famous orator. Caesar mentions the names of eighteen men who were his lieutenants at different times during the years 58–52 B.C.
- 35. Quaestor. The provincial treasurer was one of the quaestors elected by the people at Rome, and was assigned to the province by lot, to be associated with the governor. In connection with the army, his duty was to provide for the food, pay, clothing, and equipment of the soldiers, like a modern quartermaster. Caesar sometimes placed his quaestor in command of a legion.
- 36. Tribunes. Six military tribunes (tribuni militum) were attached to each legion. They were generally young men of equestrian rank, appointed for personal or political reasons rather than because of military training. In earlier times they had charge of the legion in turn, but in Caesar's army the legions were under the command of the lieutenants, as stated in 34. "The duties of the tribunes became mainly administrative and judicial; they cared for the levying, the discharge, and the equipment of the troops, and for the army supplies, under the orders of the quaestor; and they presided at courts-martial and took part in the councils of war. Sometimes they led the legions on the march and received subordinate military commands."
- 37. Centurions.— Much of Caesar's success was due to the practical experience and faithfulness of his centurions (centuriones). They were selected from the ranks by the commander in chief because of good service and were men of humbler birth than the lieutenants or tribunes. Each legion had sixty centurions, one for every century. They were divided into ten classes of six each. From the tenth class to the first there was