LECTURE 7: Rome I: Early Origins and the Republic

HISTORY 1130:
Themes in Global History:
Trade, Economy, and Empires

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Rome I: Early Origins and the Republic
Early Origins: the Etruscans

Origins of the City of Rome

The Republic and Consolidation

The Punic Wars

Early Culture

Julius Caesar and the Failure of the Republic
EARLY ORIGINS: THE ETRUSCANS

Most that we know about Etruscan history today comes to us from indirect sources- either from Roman historians who had a “patriotic axe” to grind, or from Ancient Greek historians, who in some cases failed to grasp the very different sets of values held by the Etruscans. For example, the status of women in Etruscan society, which was so alien to the Greeks and Romans alike, both being of Indo-European origins. The Greeks saw the Etruscans as being an immoral race of people (although this accusation was on very shaky ground given their own morality). The Greeks also refer to the Etruscans quite frequently as pirates. There is no evidence to suggest that the Etruscans dabbled in piracy any more than other races of the day, and what was piracy to one group of people was defense to others. One fact was indisputable, and that was that during their heyday, the Etruscans controlled a significant part of the Mediterranean.

From their beginnings in the area that is now Tuscany, these Etruscans had deep rooted influences which survive to this day. Although the Etruscan language is by no means totally decoded, we now know enough to see that many words of Etruscan origin found themselves into Latin and from there into English. For an unknown language, many Etruscan words look very familiar.

The inscription on the Lemnos Stele was dated at 600 B.C.E. and was written in a language similar to Etruscan. It was found in a warrior's tomb with weapons and pottery which are very similar to early Etruscan. The necropolis of the city contained 130 cremated burials. In the women's burials an early form of Etruscan Bucchero pottery was found. Bucchero clay was used by the people of Asia Minor and by the Etruscans. In the male sites daggers and axes of the Cretan and Etruscan models were found. The evidence, then, is for a small community which had strong cultural ties with the Etruscans and, to a lesser extent, the inhabitants of Asia Minor.
Numerous artifacts of Etruscan civilization have been discovered in the vast zone to the north of the Arno (in Tuscany, flows through the city of Florence) between the Sieve and Ombrone rivers. The so-called “Fiesole stelae” date back as far as the late 6th century B.C.E. The Etruscan settlement of Fiesole was probably the center of a zone where settlements were scattered over the hillsides which overlook the Florentine basin. Remains from this period include various stretches of the powerful city wall and the ruins of a Temple with two wings and two columns in the pronaos.
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ORIGINS OF THE CITY OF ROME:

1200 B.C.E. beginning of the first iron age. The Prisci Latini migrate to Italy from the Danube region.
c. 1000 B.C.E. Latins settle in Latium
c. 1000 B.C.E. Beginning of Etruscan migrations into Italy
10th century B.C.E. first settlement on the Palatine Hill on the future site of Rome
753 B.C.E. foundation of the city of Rome (Romulus and Remus legend)
c. 750 B.C.E. Beginning of Greek colonization in Italy: foundation of Ischia, Cumae (754), Naxos in Sicily (735), Syracuse (c.734)
c. 650 B.C.E. Etruscan expansion into Campania
c. 625 historical founding of Rome

http://www.roman-empire.net/

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Template:Timeline_of_the_Roman_Kingdom
Romulus (c. 771 B.C.E.—July 5, c. 717 B.C.E.) and Remus (c. 771 B.C.E.—April 21, c. 753 B.C.E.) are the traditional founders of Rome, appearing in Roman mythology as the twin sons of the priestess Rhea Silvia, fathered by the god of war Mars. According to the legend recorded as history by Plutarch and Livy, Romulus served as the first King of Rome.

Romulus would slay Remus over a dispute over which one of the two brothers had the support of the local gods to rule the new city and give it his name.
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The early Roman government was a **monarchy**, yet it was based on tribal logic. **The monarch was given absolute power over the people; the Romans called this power imperium**. However, the monarch's relationship to the people was seen as similar or identical to the power a father had over his household; in other words, the Roman monarchy was strictly patriarchal. The relationship between a patriarch and his family is a relationship of mutual obligations, and this is how the Romans understood the monarchy.

The **monarch ruled alongside a Senate and an assembly**. The Senate was a council of elders, a weak oligarchy, that was composed of the heads of various clan groups. These elders were originally clan leaders (and this function probably didn't change), so the Senate in its earliest form was a kind of clan confederacy. The Senate had the power to approve or veto the appointment of the king, so no individual could ascend the throne without the approval of the clan leaders. The Senate also judged the legislation and actions of the king to make sure that they accorded both with the constitution and with traditional custom; while the Senate seems to have ratified just about everything the king decided, they still exercised an important check on monarchical power.

The **assembly consisted of all male citizens of Rome; citizenship was granted only to individuals who could demonstrate that both parents were native Romans**. The assembly's principle function was to grant **imperium** to the monarch ratified by the Senate; there was, therefore, a limited democracy in the Roman kingdom: the clan leaders approved the candidate for king and the entire male population of Rome handed the king absolute rule. The assembly was organized into thirty groups based on kinship lines; each group got a single vote, so there were a grand total of thirty votes in the assembly. Each group would base its vote on the majority decision of the group. So while the citizens had a certain amount of say in the government in the assembly, that influence was greatly diminished by its diffusion in the group vote.

http://www.wsu.edu/~dee/ROME/KINGDOM.HTM
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During the monarchy, Rome greatly expanded its control over surrounding territories. The monarchy itself had been established with the express purpose of providing stability and security; the conquest of surrounding territories were undertaken with the same goals in mind. It doesn't seem that the Romans were particularly greedy for land or wealth; their conquests seem largely motivated by anxieties over the threat to their security posed by the surrounding populations. As their territorial power grew, however, they attracted the notice of the powerful Etruscans to the north who, in the middle of the sixth century B.C.E., took over the government of Rome. From the middle of the sixth century, the Roman monarchs became Etruscan, and the Romans bitterly resented it. Finally, when an Etruscan prince of the Etruscan family that ruled Rome, the Tarquins, raped the wife of a patrician, the Romans rose up in revolt and threw the Tarquins out of power in 509 B.C.E. While the rape of Lucretia and the overthrow of the Tarquins by Junius Brutus may be fictional (then again, it may not), the expulsion of the Etruscan monarchs began the decline in Etruscan power and civilization.

http://www.wsu.edu/~dee/ROME/KINGDOM.HTM

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THE REPUBLIC AND CONSOLIDATION:

After 509 B.C.E., Rome does not revert back to a monarchy for the rest of its history. The era of the great expansion of Roman power and civilization is the era of the Roman Republic, in which Rome is ruled by its Senate and its assembly, which were institutions formed at the beginning of the monarchy. The history of the Republic is a history of continuous warfare; all of the historical stories which the Romans will use as stories of Roman virtue and values date from this tumultuous period of defense and invasion.

The Romans had at the beginning of the Republic a constitution which had laid down the traditions and institutions of government; this constitution, however, was not a formal or even a written document, but rather a series of unwritten traditions and laws. These traditions and laws were based on the institution of a monarchy, so while the Romans did not revive the monarchy, they still invested enormous amounts of power in their officials. At the top were the consuls, who were two patricians elected to the office for one year. These patricians exercised imperium in much the same way the kings had in the Roman monarchy. These consuls initiated legislation, served as the head of the judiciary and the military, and served as chief priests to the nation. They even dressed as monarchs, by wearing purple robes and sitting on the seat traditionally reserved for the monarch: the ivory chair.

http://www.wsu.edu/~dee/ROME/REPUBLIC.HTM
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Beneath the consuls were two financial officers called **quaestors**, and as the Republic evolved, an official called the **praetor** was invented. The **praetorship** was originally a judicial office, but later became a military office; the praetors were essentially the central generals of Rome. The praetorship, like the consularship, was a one-year appointment, but like the consulship could be extended in times of war. In addition, the task of classifying citizens according to wealth and tax status, which was a consular duty, eventually fell to a new pair of officials called **censors**. It was the job of the censor to draw up the roll of citizens (somewhat like our modern day *census*; *census* is the Latin word from which “censor” is derived) and to fix their tax status. As you might imagine, the censors had all kinds of opportunities for bribery and corruption since they were setting tax rates, so after a while the office fell only to the most incorruptible and virtuous men of the Republic: former consuls. Eventually, the office of the censor acquired great powers, such as the power to dismiss senators from the Senate not merely for financial reasons, but any reason at all. By the time of the late Republic, the censors had become some of the most powerful politicians in Rome.

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After 500 BC, Rome joined with the Latin cities in defense against external incursions. Winning the Battle of Lake Regillus in 493 B.C.E., Rome established again the supremacy over the Latin countries it had lost after the fall of the monarchy. After a lengthy series of struggles, this supremacy became fixed in 393 B.C.E., when the Romans finally subdued the Volsci and Aequi. In 394 B.C.E., they also conquered the menacing Etruscan neighbour of Veii. The Etruscan power was now limited to Etruria itself, and Rome was the dominant city in Latium.

In 387 B.C.E., Rome was suddenly sacked and burned by invaders coming from Gaul and led by Brennus, who had successfully invaded Etruria. The northern menace was thwarted by consul Furius Camillus, who defeated Brennus at Tusculum soon afterwards.

After that, Rome hastily rebuilt its buildings and went on the offensive, conquering the Etruscans and seizing territory from the Gauls in the north. After 345 B.C.E., Rome pushed south against other Latins. Their main enemy in this quadrant were the fierce Samnites, who heavily defeated the legions in 321. In spite of these and other temporary setbacks, the Romans advanced steadily. By 290 B.C.E., Rome controlled over half of the Italian peninsula. In the 3rd century B.C.E., Rome brought the Greek poleis in the south under its control as well.

However, it took a few centuries for Rome to become the great city of popular imagination. By the 3rd century BC, Rome had become the pre-eminent city of the Italian peninsula.

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http://classics.furman.edu/~rprior/imgs/RCU1/1-039.htm
THE PUNIC WARS:

The greatest naval power of the Mediterranean in the third century B.C.E. was the North African city of Carthage near modern day Tunis. The Carthaginians were originally Phoenicians and Carthage was a colony founded by the Phoenician capital city of Tyre in the ninth century B.C.E.; the word “Carthage” means, in Phoenician, “the New City.” While the Romans were steadily increasing their control over the Italian peninsula, the Carthaginians were extending their empire over most of North Africa. By the time that Rome controlled all of the Italian peninsula, Carthage already controlled the North African coast from western Libya to the Strait of Gibraltar, and ruled over most of southern Spain, and the island of Corsica and Sardinia in Europe as well. Carthage was a formidable power; it controlled almost all the commercial trade in the Mediterranean, had subjected vast numbers of people all whom sent soldiers and supplies, and amassed tremendous wealth from gold and silver mines in Spain.

These two mighty empires came into contact in the middle of the third century B.C.E. when Rome's power had reached the southern tip of Italy. The two peoples had been in sporadic contact before, but neither side felt threatened by the others. The Romans were perfectly aware of the Carthaginian heritage; they called them by their old name, Phoenicians. In Latin, the word is Poeni, which gives us the name for the wars between the two states, the Punic Wars. These conflicts, so disastrous for Carthage, were inevitable. Between Carthage and Italy lay the huge island of Sicily; Carthage controlled the western half of Sicily, but the southern tip of the Italian peninsula put the Romans within throwing distance of the island. When the city of Messana revolted against the Carthaginians, the Romans intervened, and the first Punic War erupted.

http://www.wsu.edu/~dee/ROME/PUNICWARS.HTM
The First Punic War: 264-241 B.C.E.

The First Punic War broke out in 264 B.C.E.; it was concentrated entirely on the island of Sicily. Rome besieged many of the Carthaginian cities on Sicily, and when Carthage attempted to raise the siege with its navy, the Romans utterly destroyed that navy. For the first time since the rise of the Carthaginian empire, they had lost power over the sea-ways.

The war ended with no particular side winning over the other. In 241 B.C.E., the Carthaginians and Romans signed a treaty in which Carthage had to give up Sicily, which it didn't miss, and to pay an indemnity to pay for the war, which it could well afford. But Carthage soon faced rebellion among its mercenary troops and Rome, in 238 B.C.E., took advantage of the confusion by seizing the island of Corsica. The Romans greatly feared the Carthaginians and wanted build as large a buffer zone as possible between them and the Carthaginians. By gaining Sicily, the Romans had expelled the Carthaginians from their back yard; they now wanted them out of their front yard, that is, the islands of Corsica and Sardinia west of the Italian peninsula.

The Carthaginians were furious at this action; even Roman historians believed it was a rash and unethical act. The Carthaginians began to shore up their presence in Europe. They sent first the general Hamilcar and then his son-in-law, Hasdrubal, to Spain to build colonies and an army. Both Hamilcar and Hasdrubal made allies among the native Iberians, and their armies, recruited from Iberians, grew ominous as Carthaginian power and influence crept up the Iberian peninsula.
By 218 B.C.E., Carthage had built a mighty empire in Spain and grown wealthy and powerful as a result. Subsequently, a young man, only twenty-five years old, assumed command over Carthaginian Spain, called Hannibal.

The Romans attempted to solve the problem of Carthaginian incursions with diplomacy, demanding that Carthage dismiss Hannibal and send him to Rome. When Carthage refused, the second Punic War began in 218 BC. Rome, however, was facing a formidable opponent; in the years following the first Punic War, Carthage had created a powerful empire in Spain with a terrifyingly large army. Hannibal marched that army across Europe and, in September of 218, he crossed the Alps with his army and entered Italy on a war of invasion. Although his army was tired, he literally smashed the Roman armies he encountered in northern Italy. These spectacular victories brought a horde of Gauls from the north to help him, fifty thousand or more; his victory over Rome, as he saw it, would be guaranteed by convincing Roman allies and subject cities to join Carthage.

The Romans knew that they couldn’t beat Hannibal in open warfare. Desperate, they asked Quintus Fabius Maximus to become absolute dictator of Rome. Fabius determined to avoid open warfare at any cost and simply harass the Carthaginian army until they were weak enough to be engaged openly. But when Hannibal marched into Cannae and started decimating the countryside in 216 B.C.E., Fabius sent an army of eighty thousand soldiers against him. This army was completely wiped out, the largest defeat Rome ever suffered.

The situation was nearly hopeless for the Romans. Fabius had been chastened by his defeat and absolutely refused to go against Hannibal, whose army moved around the Italian countryside absolutely unopposed. Hannibal, however, was weak in numbers and in equipment.

The Romans, however, decided to fight the war through the back door. They knew that Hannibal was dependent on Spain for future supplies and men, so they appointed a young, strategically brilliant man as proconsul and handed him the imperium over Spain: Publius Cornelius Scipio (237-183 B.C.E.). Scipio, who would later be called Scipio Africanus for his victory over Carthage (in Africa), soon conquered all of Spain. Hannibal was now left high and dry in Italy. Scipio then crossed into Africa in 204 B.C.E. and took the war to the walls of Carthage itself. This forced the Carthaginians to sue for peace with Rome; part of the treaty demanded that Hannibal leave the Italian peninsula. Eventually, Rome reduced Carthage to a dependent state: Rome now controlled the whole of the western Mediterranean including northern Africa. The Second Punic War turned Rome from a regional power into an international empire: it had gained much of northern Africa, Spain, and the major islands in the western Mediterranean.
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The Third Punic War: 149-146 BC

In the years intervening, Rome undertook the conquest of the Hellenistic empires to the east. In the west, Rome brutally subjugated the Iberian people who had been so vital to Roman success in the second Punic War. However, they were especially angry at the Carthaginians who had almost destroyed them. Carthage had, through the first half of the second century B.C.E., recovered much of its prosperity through its commercial activities, although it had not gained back much power. The Romans, deeply suspicious of a reviving Carthage, demanded that the Carthaginians abandon their city and move inland into North Africa. The Carthaginians, who were a commercial people that depended on sea trade, refused. The Roman Senate declared war, and Rome attacked the city itself.

TOTAL WAR?
http://www.wsu.edu/~dee/ROME/PUNICWARS.HTM

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"Snowstorm: Hannibal and His Army Crossing the Alps". W.G. Turner, 1812

After years of preparation Hannibal fought his way from Carthage to Rome
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EARLY ROMAN CULTURE:

Many aspects of Roman culture were taken from the Ancient Greeks. In architecture and sculpture, the continuity between Greek models and Roman imitations are apparent. Rome has also had a tremendous impact on Western cultures following it. Additionally telling are the many aspects of Classical culture that have been incorporated into the cultures of those states rising from the ashes of the Roman Empire. Latin, the empire’s primary language, remains used in religion, science, and law.

In ancient Rome, the cloth and the dress distinguished one class of people from the other class. The tunic worn by plebeians like shepherds and slaves was made from coarse and dark material, whereas the tunic worn by patricians was of linen or white wool. A magistrate would wear the tunic *augusticlavia*; senators wore a tunic with broad strips, called tunica *laticlavia*. Military tunics were shorter than the ones worn by civilians.

Even footwear indicated a person’s social status. Patricians wore red and orange sandals, senators had brown footwear, consuls had white shoes, and soldiers wore heavy boots. Women wore closed shoes of colors like white, yellow or green.

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Roman_culture

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Roman literature was from its very inception influenced heavily by Greek authors. Some of the earliest works we possess are of historical epics telling the early military history of Rome. As the republic expanded, authors began to produce poetry, comedy, history, and tragedy.

During the reign of the early emperors of Rome there was a golden age of historical literature. Works such as the ‘Histories’ of Tacitus, the ‘Gallic Wars’ by Julius Caesar and ‘History of Rome’ by Livy have been passed down to us. Unfortunately, in the case of Livy, much of the script has been lost and we are left with a few specific areas, the founding of the city, the war with Hannibal and its aftermath.

Most early Roman painting styles show Etruscan influences, particularly in the practice of political painting. In the 3rd century BC, Greek art taken as booty from wars became popular, and many Roman homes were decorated with landscapes by Greek artists. Evidence from the remains at Pompeii shows diverse influence from cultures spanning the Roman world.

Private and personal worship was an important aspect of religious practices of ancient Rome. In a sense, each household in ancient Rome was a temple to the gods. Each household had an altar (*lararium*), at which the family members would offer prayers, perform rites, and interact with the household gods.

Many of the gods that Romans worshiped came from the Proto-Indo-European pantheon, others were based on Greek gods. The three central deities were Jupiter (who was the god of rain, thunder, and lightning, of Proto-Indo-European origin), Mars (the god of warfare), called Ares by the Greeks, and Quirinus (who watched over the senate house), one of the truly Roman gods who was associated with the people of Sabine and with the founder of Rome, Romulus.
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Famous historian Tacitus:

[Image of a bust of Tacitus]

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Bacchus, Roman god of wine:

[Image of a bust of Bacchus]
JULIUS CAESAR AND THE FAILURE OF THE REPUBLIC:

The Second Punic War created vast disparities in wealth. Up until the Second Punic War, the plebeians were farmers, craftsmen, or laborers. They would farm their own land that, even though it was small, was still their property. As laborers or craftsmen, they worked for decent wages (or the equivalent of wages). However, Hannibal had razed the countryside; while the wealth sat secure within the walls of Rome, thousands of people had their farmlands and houses destroyed. With no land they had no work and so began to flood the cities. The wealthy, who had grown wealthier because of the spoils of war, bought up the farmlands so that by the middle of the second century, Roman agriculture was dominated by large plantations (latifundia) owned by fabulously wealthy landowners. This was only the tip of the iceberg, though.

Also, by the end of the second century BCE, the majority of the population in Italy were slaves. This severely depressed job opportunities and wages. This meant that the poor who were not slaves either couldn't work or had to work at below subsistence wages; it also caused massive migrations of the unemployed into cities. As in most migrations of the unemployed, the result was not necessarily employment in a new place. In Rome, however, it meant the concentration of a large population of poor, disaffected, and angry free Romans. The tinder-box was set to go off.

http://www.wsu.edu/~dee/ROME/CRISIS.HTM
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One of the outcomes was the shortage of men eligible, based on property, for military service.

The proposed solution was land reform. In 133 BC, a tribune, Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, tried to introduce land reform to redistribute "publicly held land" to the now landless returning soldiers. He proposed the enforcement of a Roman law, which had mostly been ignored, which limited the use of public lands. While "public lands" were technically state owned, such land was often used by wealthy landholders, many of them Senators. Eventually, after much debate and unrest, the law passed. The Senate, however, refused to fund the effort. Tiberius and his followers were eventually slaughtered. His younger brother Gaius Sempronius Gracchus attempted to carry the reforms forward, but eventually met his brother's fate. Mob violence had become a way of life in the ailing Republic.

Shortly afterwards, Rome began a war with Jugurtha, the king of Numidia (south of Carthage), in 111 BCE. This war, the Jugurthine War, was prosecuted with little enthusiasm and the Roman people grew suspicious of the Senate. So in 107 BCE, Gaius Marius (157-86 BCE) was elected consul and was assigned the province of Numidia by the assembly. He was a brilliant soldier and quickly defeated Jugurtha; but it was Marius' lieutenant, Sulla (138-78 BCE) who defeated Jugurtha for good. Sulla was from an old and well-established aristocratic family; although he was relatively poor, he was as blue-blooded as they came in Rome. Marius, on the other hand, was a novus homo, a "new man," who was the first in his family to occupy the consulship. These new men were bitterly resented by the aristocracy, and Sulla felt that Marius was being given credit for work that he, Sulla, had done. The rivalry between these two men would result in civil war in 88 BCE.

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In the 80s BCE, Rome was heavily engaged in wars with Italian allies who suffered greatly from the economic inequities. Sulla proved himself to be an astonishing general during these wars and was elected consul in 88 BC, finally getting the recognition he felt he deserved. Unlike Marius, Sulla was firmly in the patrician camp; he defeated Marius in a civil war and the Senate, fearful of the population, seized complete control of the Roman government by appointing Sulla dictator. Now the position of dictator ("one who speaks, one who dictates") was a constitutional position; the Roman government was allowed to hand complete authority, imperium, to a single individual in times of crisis. This imperium would not be shared with another, as it was in the consulship. Sulla promptly set about "reforming" the Roman government over the next three years by restoring power to the Senate and deracinating the authority of the assembly. Sulla, despite his intentions to restore Roman government to what he saw as its original form, nonetheless brought about a revolutionary new way of doing government: as a general, he used his army to kill his opponents (and even some who weren't his opponents). Dangerous new precedent had been set.

Sulla's reforms, rather than restoring order to Rome, provoked a violent reaction. After the death of Sulla, the Senate was facing armed rebellion. In 70 BC, two highly ambitious men, Crassus and Pompey, were elected consuls and promptly repealed Sulla's constitution. A new political order was emerging: ambitious generals, such as Pompey and Crassus, allied themselves with the tribunes and the disaffected assembly against the Senate and patricians.
The most popular individual at the time was a brilliant general, **Gaius Julius Caesar** (100-44 BCE). Julius was from an old, noble family, and had served as a brilliant military leader in Spain and in Gaul. When he returned from Spain, he demanded a triumph, a victory parade, through Rome. Denied this triumph by the Senate (who feared his popularity with the masses), Julius convinced Pompey and Crassus to reconcile and the **First Triumvirate was established**. This triumvirate (“three men”) was the beginning of the end of the Republic, for this alliance between these three politicians, two of whom were generals, had as its end the control of the Roman government for the political advantage of the three men.

But Caesar embarked on **wars of conquest**, which turned out unpopular. In a series of fairly brilliant campaigns, Caesar added a considerable amount of territory to the Roman Empire in northern France, Belgium, and even southern Great Britain, subjugating the Celts in all these territories. When he had finished his conquests, however, the Triumvirate had dissolved. Crassus had died in a war against the Parthians in the Middle East, and Pompey had turned against Julius and had roused the Senate against him. The Senate declared Julius an enemy of the state and demanded that he hand over his generalship and province. In 49 BC, Caesar ordered his troops to cross the Rubicon River, which separated his province from Italy, thus committing a grave crime against the state. The **Civil War** started the minute the first of his legions had finished crossing the Rubicon.

The war was fought between these two great generals, Pompey and Caesar, but in 48 BC, Caesar defeated Pompey at Pharsalus in Greece. Caesar then turned his forces towards Asia Minor in a conquest that was so swift that Caesar described it in three words: "Veni, vidi, vici" ("I came, I saw, I conquered").

Caesar returned to Rome in 46 BCE and had the Senate appoint him dictator for ten years; he was given imperium over the Roman Empire and was, for all practical purposes, above the law and the constitution. Two years later he was appointed dictator for life, and he quickly assumed all the important offices in the government. He reformed the government in many ways, but these reforms were functionally meaningless considering his absolute power. Caesar's absolute power, imperium for life (which made him imperator, or Emperor, of Rome), looked suspiciously like a monarchy, which, for all practical purposes, it was. The Romans, proud of their Republican tradition, deeply resented his power, and in 44 BCE, on the Ides of March (March 15), a group of conspirators, led by Gaius Cassius Longinus and Marcus Junius Brutus, assassinated Caesar as he entered the Senate in his usual manner: with no bodyguards or protection.

The conspirators were striking a blow for the Republic, fully confident that the Republic would magically reconstitute itself. Caesar had, after all, ruled Rome for a mere two years. Their dreams, however, disappeared in a brutal civil war that would last for thirteen years. At the end of the war, the Roman Republic would come to a shattering end and never again appear on the stage of history.

http://www.wsu.edu/~dee/ROME/JULIUS.HTM
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http://www.beloit.edu/~classics/main/courses/history222/julius/JuliusCaesar(Grant--Fro)_1.jpg

LECTURE 7: Rome I: Early Origins and the Republic

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gallic_Wars
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http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rome_(TV_series)#Historical_deviations

Julius Caesar as a general, his greatest victory:
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BX0z2v_IE2Y
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**Five questions. Getting three right = attendance. Getting five right = automatic half a point of extra credit.**

1. The growth of the Roman State was based on all of the following natural resources of Italy except: [A] a large human population. [B] regular rainfall from the monsoons. [C] timber and metals. [D] ample, arable land. [E] navigable rivers and fertile soil.

2. When Rome took control of a foreign land, it: [A] opened libraries and universities. [B] gave all of the newly conquered peoples the same privileges as the Roman elite. [C] allowed considerable autonomy to cooperative local elites. [D] immediately enslaved the female population. [E] reorganized the religious institutions.


4. The third Punic War represented total war because: [A] Romans were defeated in several battles [B] Carthage was a superior naval power. [C] Romans gained control of Mediterranean trade. [D] Rome annihilated Carthage and enslaved its population.

5. Was Julius Caesar responsible for the collapse of the Roman republic? [A] yes, since he sought more and more power [B] no, because Rome was already divided due to the economic problems. [C] yes, because he was a tremendously successful general. [D] no, since others had already inflicted blows on Roman republican ideals. [E] all of the above.

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**ANY QUESTIONS ON SO FAR? ANYTHING ELSE?**