

ROME Part 1 FINAL SCRIPT

“Go, proclaim to the Romans it is heaven’s will that my Rome shall be the capital of the world”, said Romulus, the city’s legendary founder. The rough settlement on the banks of the Tiber did indeed fulfil this prediction.

Over a period of 500 years a tough, dedicated people established a republic, conquered the Italian peninsula, and laid claim to most of the lands surrounding the Mediterranean. Later, they ruled an empire that lasted another 500 years.

ROME Part One: From Village to Late Republic Main Title

GEOGRAPHICAL SETTING Chapter Heading

Rome is vibrant city that embraces its history from ancient to modern times. It was one of the greatest city-states in the Ancient world.

The geography of Ancient Rome was characterized by relatively steep hills on the right bank of the river Tiber, at a point where the river flowed around a small island. The Tiber also branched out into marshy areas between these steep hills. Early settlement began as a small village, thirty kilometres from the coast. Being this far inland, it was safe from attack by pirates who infested the seas at the mouth of the Tiber near Ostia.

The river afforded an easy highway for commerce. The Seven Hills of Rome also provided a natural means of defence. Its inhabitants were farmers and shepherds called Ramnes or Romans, who lived in crude straw huts on the slopes of the Palatine. This small town was an important stopover for traders in salt, an important commodity used in the ancient world for food preservation.

THE KINGDOM OF ROME Chapter Heading

The legend of the infant twins, Romulus and Remus, suggests that Mars, the God of War, fathered them. Their mother was Rhea Silvia, a vestal virgin. Her uncle Amulius was king, and feared that the family would be dishonoured, as vestal virgins had to remain celibate. Amulius was also wary that the twins would grow up and assume the throne. He put them in a basket and cast them adrift in the Tiber to die. But they were rescued from the river.

One story contends that they were brought up in the home of a shepherd and nursed by a she-wolf.

Another suggests that they were found near the river by a shepherd, and suckled by his wife, a prostitute. At that time prostitutes were called she-wolves. When the boys grew into manhood, they founded the city of Rome on the Palatine, around 753 BC. During a quarrel between the two brothers, Remus was killed, and Romulus became king.

Another city, ruled by Titus Tatius, had been established on the Quirinal Hill opposite the Palatine. The Sabine's who inhabited the hill were rivals of the Romans for possession of land near the Tiber. Both cities were of equal size and strength, and could have been constantly at war, but eventually formed an alliance. The Capitoline hill was chosen as the common citadel. Romulus and Titus Tatius ruled the union until Titus' death. Romulus became king in his own right, and reigned for thirty-seven years. A third settlement, the Luceres on the Caelian hill, was eventually amalgamated into the expanding city of Rome.

The power of the king was based on the will of the people. The king was inaugurated with the approval of the gods. He was the chief priest and military commander in times of war. The king was assisted in ruling the city by two separate bodies. The **Comitia Curiata** was the most powerful assembly in the kingdom. It consisted of thirty men capable of bearing arms, who represented all the inhabitants of the city. They selected the king, ensuring that his power was based on the will of the people. **The Senate** was a council of 300 elders from the united city. The senate had no power to make laws, and its advice to the king could be either accepted or rejected.

After Romulus' death, three kings followed whom the tribes of Rome elected for life. Later the kingdom came under the influence of foreigners, the Etruscans, who had an immense influence on the city.

ETRUSCAN KINGS Chapter Heading

The Etruscans were a mysterious people who landed on Italian soil about 800 years BC. It is thought they came from Asia Minor or Turkey. They were highly civilised, adept at warfare and governing and, by the sixth century BC, dominated a large part of Italy. Their prosperity was founded on agriculture, trade and commerce. The Etruscans were great engineers, building fortified cities, durable roads, well-constructed sewers and magnificent tombs and burial chambers.

Tarquinius Priscus (616-579BC), an Etruscan from the north, came to settle as a merchant in Rome. He was not a Roman Patrician, or nobility, but was able to gain influence within the council of elders. After the death of Ancius Marcus, a Roman king, Tarquinius was elected the first of three Etruscan kings.

The influence of Etruscan kings upon Rome was considerable. New and larger walls were built to fortify the city against invaders. An imposing temple was dedicated to Jupiter on the Capitoline hill, which also contained shrines for the worship of Juno and Minerva. The **Cloaca Maxima** was an impressive sewer. It was constructed to drain the marshes in the low-lying areas between the hills. It ran under the Forum and emptied into the Tiber, and was built of stone in the form of a semi-circular arch favoured by the Etruscans. It was large enough for a cart to fit inside, and a boat could travel down it easily. On this large piece of ground, where people stroll or ride bikes on the circuit, was the Circus Maximus. Laid out between the Aventine and Palatine hills, it was designed for the amusement of the population. Once a year, people assembled to witness the highly popular chariot races, boxing and other sports. The games were celebrated in honour of the gods, who were worshipped on the Capitoline.

Politically, the Etruscan kings were powerful rulers. They did not change the spirit and character of the people, but gave Rome a strength and influence, which it didn't previously have. The power of the Etruscan kings was at first used for the good of the citizens. Eventually, this power became tyrannical, which was oppressive and hateful.

In 509 BC, the Etruscan rule that had lasted for 100 years, was to end in tragic circumstances. The last king, **Tarquinius Superbus**, was a cruel despot. He had obtained the throne by murder, and ruled without the consent of the senate or the people. His son, Sextus, raped Lucretia, the wife of a Roman governor, who then stabbed herself to death. In the public outcry that followed, Tarquinius was deposed and fled Rome. This was the end of Rome's rule by monarchy. A new form of government, a republic, would replace it and endure for another five hundred years.

POLITICS IN THE EARLY REPUBLIC Chapter Heading

Although the Romans had rebelled against their kings, they seemed to accept the idea of a supreme authority, called **Imperium**. Two **Consuls**, patrician magistrates, held king-like power for one year. One consul would go to war with the citizen-army, while the other stayed behind to govern. One consul could veto the acts of the other, but neither could change laws without the other's agreement. **Magistrates** helped the consuls administer the state.

The **Comitia Centuriata** was instituted about 450 BC and was the most powerful assembly in Rome, with all its members' military leaders.

They decided upon issues of war and peace, enacted legislation, and elected consuls, praetors and censors. This assembly included plebeians and patricians, but favoured the rich over the poor.

The republic included a senate and a peoples' assembly. Originally, the **Senate** had 300 members, who were recruited from the patrician class only. They conducted their meetings in the **Curia**, located within the Forum, and held their positions for life unless found guilty of a serious misconduct. The Senate served as an advisory body to the consuls. The **Comitia Curiata** was the people's assembly, which originated from the time of the kings. Plebeians or commoners could participate in this assembly, but only the Patricians or Roman aristocrats could vote.

During the early part of the republic, the Patrician class held a privileged position within the state. It dominated the senate, assembly and the military. The plebeian class were citizens, served in the army, and paid taxes, but were barred from any advancement. The wealthy Patrician class was arrogant in their treatment of their fellow citizens, creating great social unrest. To protect the rights of plebeians, the office of the **Tribune** was created in 494BC. Two Tribunes were appointed from among the plebeians, and had the power to veto any unjust acts. Anyone who interfered with the Tribunes in their lawful duty could be put to death. The tribunes were assisted by two **Aediles**, also chosen from the plebeians.

In 450BC, the publication of the **Law of the Twelve Tables** formed the basis as one of the most remarkable legal systems the world had ever seen. These laws were inscribed on brass tables, and displayed in the Forum for all to see. The Plebeian and Patrician classes remained separate, but everyone knew their rights and responsibilities. Five years later, a new law granted the intermarriage between the two classes. The Plebeians had social and civil equality but were still excluded from the senate. Women had no voting rights at all.

THE MILITARY Chapter Heading

Compulsory military service was one of the first obligations for Roman citizens. In times of national emergency, they were required to defend Rome. Soldiers supplied their own weapons and personal equipment, while wealthier citizens, with access to their own horses, formed the cavalry.

They assembled outside the city at the **Campus Martius**, or the **Field of Mars**. There, they were divided into companies called **Centuriae** or **Centuries**, comprising approximately one hundred men. A **Centurion** would command this company.

Common interpretation by historians states that the army traditionally contained three thousand infantry and three hundred cavalry. The consul led this force into battle with spearmen at the front. The **Phalanx** formation used during battle was copied from the Greeks, and served the army well during the early republic.

With a constant threat of war, the Romans built a special emergency measure into their constitution, the office of **Dictator**. This entrusted supreme power into the hands of a general in times of acute national crisis. The Dictator held power for six months at most, and was required to resign when the task for which he had been appointed was completed. During the siege of the Etruscan city of Veii, (405 to 396BC) in central Italy, which had lasted for nine years, Marcus Furius Camillus was appointed dictator to end the conflict. It was here that the Romans achieved an important victory over the Etruscans. Significantly, during the siege, soldiers had been unable to return home and cultivate their farms. So for the first time in its military history, Rome paid for its army.

Six years later, a mass invasion from the north by Celts or **Gauls**, (390BC) plundered many Italian cities. The Gauls scattered the Roman troops with their wild, screaming charges, and their swords swinging. The Gauls captured Rome, and rather than see their city destroyed, the Romans agreed to pay one thousand pounds, or 450 kilos of gold, to purchase their salvation. The ransom was never paid and after ejecting the Gauls from the city, Camillus annihilated them in an engagement 16 kilometres from the city.

Conflict with Samnite tribes in the mountains of central Italy, necessitated a change in Rome's approach to battle. The new tactical unit became the **Maniple**, containing 120 men. Every Maniple consisted of two centuries of 60 men, each with its own Centurion and standard bearer. The **Legion** was divided into three lines of ten Maniples.

The first line of attack was the **Hastati**, 1200 young men wearing limited armour, and each hurling two metre long javelins called **Pilums**. They then engaged the enemy in hand-to-hand combat with their short swords. If the Hastati were defeated, the second line, the **Principes**, men in their 20s and 30s, advanced into the battle. **Triarii** were veterans in full armour that carried a sword and a long heavy spear. They formed the third line with only 60 men in each maniple. They were rarely required during the battle, except in an emergency. The legion also had 300 Cavalry at its disposal.

The Maniple was an inspired, though simple, innovation. It would allow less experienced Roman troops to tackle professional Greek infantry massed in a traditional phalanx formation.

For one hundred years, the Romans waged war against the Samnites, Greeks, Etruscans and Latins in central and southern Italy. By 266 BC Rome had subdued these regions, and later they became her colonies.

HIGHWAYS, ARCHITECTURE and ENGINEERING

Chapter Heading

An important aspect of Rome's strategy during warfare was the building of military roads. The construction of the **Via Appia** or **Appian Way** in 312BC was solely for the purpose of speeding up the flow of soldiers to the war zones in southern Italy. Its construction began with levelled dirt in which small stones and mortar were laid. Gravel was added, and topped with tight fitting, interlocking stones, providing a flat surface. Posts located one thousand paces apart indicated the distance from Rome. The Via Appia covered a distance of 580 kilometres south to Brundisium on the Adriatic Coast. Many of these roads exist today.

The Romans were great architects and builders. The **Forum Romanum** was the centre of Rome. Oldest of the city's public squares, it grew into a complex of open spaces, government buildings, temples and shops. Its main concourse was closed to chariot traffic. Senators, priests, businessmen, shoppers and hawkers daily thronged to the area on foot. In the Forum stood the Golden Milestone, where all roads fanned out to an ever-expanding Rome.

Circling the Forum was the **Via Sacra** or **Sacred Way**. It linked the centres of religion and politics. The Temples of **Saturn and Jupiter** were along its perimeter. The centre of legislative power, the **Curia** or Senate House, was also located on the Via Sacra. The **Regia**, which once housed the kings, was used as the office of the head priest, the Pontifex Maximus. The **Rostra** was located in the forum along the western side of the Via Sacra. This Oration platform was built to allow individuals to voice their opinions on current issues to passers-by. The Rostra was one of the most politically important locations in Ancient Rome.

The Via Sacra was used for the triumphal return of victorious generals and soldiers. The procession would begin outside the city, and progressed along the Via Sacra to the Temple of Jupiter on the Capitoline Hill, for a great celebration. Captured foes, especially kings and generals, were paraded as trophies of conquest.

Architecturally, the Romans borrowed from other cultures to build the Forum's magnificent structures. They used the Doric, Ionic and Corinthian columns of the Greeks, and the arch from the Etruscans.

Marble adorned grand buildings, while brick, tile, pebbles, stucco or plaster was used on more modest ones. The Romans were the first to use concrete to achieve grandeur. A smooth veneer of concrete over brick created a beautiful finish. A classic example is the vaulted dome of the Pantheon, built entirely of concrete in 27BC by Agrippa for the Emperor Augustus.

Roman architects adapted the Etruscan arch by inverting it and creating the **Aqueduct**. In 312 BCE, the first aqueduct delivered water to the centre of Rome. Monumental aqueducts linked Rome with springs as far as fifty kilometres away. The water descended gently from a higher to a lower level, through a concrete channel on the top of the aqueduct. The water travelled by a fall of fifteen inches for every thirty metres. Tunnels were burrowed through hills too difficult to skirt, and giant arches spanned steep valleys. Gaps carved out of large boulders allowed the uninterrupted passage of the aqueduct.

RELIGION Chapter Heading

For Romans, religion was a force that bound man to the gods. It was formal and focused on acts of reciprocity; wherein the gods would repay the good will of humankind, and so prosperity and order was upheld. This occurred through ritual, involving a combination of sacrifice and prayer. Roman religion also had a tolerance of the beliefs and practices of other cultures. There were many parallels between the Roman and Greek religions. Roman mythology integrated Greek gods into their pantheon, while modifying their roles to fit a functional need. The Greek god Apollo was brought to Rome, and maintained his position as a deity of learning and healing.

The state of Rome had a triad of gods: **Jupiter**, protector of the state, **Juno**, protector of women, and **Minerva**, patroness of craftsmen. Religion played a significant role in political decision-making. Before any important civil or military action was taken, magistrates would look for approval from the gods. To do this the magistrates took the auspices, which meant observing natural phenomena. These included **Augury**, the observation of birds in flight and flashes of lightning. **Haruspicy** involved studying the size, shape, colour and markings of animal entrails. **Portents** were unusual events such as earthquakes and eclipses, while **Prodigies** were unusual births.

The **Vestal Virgins** were the only female priests within the Roman religious system. The founding of the Vestal Virgins is attributed to Numa Pompilius, one of the original kings of Rome.

Girls were committed to the priesthood at a young age, usually before puberty, and sworn to celibacy for 30 years. They could leave the priesthood after this time and marry. Their tasks included the maintenance of the sacred fire of **Vesta**, the goddess of the hearth and home. By maintaining Vesta's sacred fire they functioned as 'surrogate housekeepers', in a religious sense, for all of Rome. By allowing the fire to die out, a suggestion that Vesta had withdrawn her protection from the city was a serious offence, punishable by whipping. A Vestal Virgin found guilty of violating the vow of chastity would be buried alive.

In Roman households, gods were worshipped for protection. Most homes had a small shrine, a **Lararium**, which was the centre of worship. **Vesta** was the goddess of the hearth, the symbol of the home. Others included **Janus**, the spirit of the doorway, **Penates**, the guardian of food stores, **Lares**, the family protector, and **Genius**, the god of the male procreative spirit, and the spirit of **Paterfamilias**, the "power of the father". Daily offerings were made to these gods. Later on in the republic, the famous orator Cicero described religion and its significance in the home as: ***"Most sacred, the most hallowed place on earth is the home of each and every citizen. There are his sacred hearth and his household gods, there the very centre of his worship, religion and domestic ritual"***.

LIFE IN THE CITY Chapter Heading

Although Rome contained magnificent public buildings and temples, the rest of the city grew into a tangle of tall houses, crowded along narrow streets and alleyways that twisted and turned. During the day, passers-by had to avoid soldiers, scavenging dogs, or slaves carrying wealthy employers in litters or sedan chairs. The streets were unlit at night, keeping most people at home. If they did venture out, slaves would accompany them for protection.

The eleven aqueducts supplied more than nine hundred million gallons of water a day for public use. Most homes had no water supply or toilets. Water was carried from the public well, and public toilets were provided, often containing up to twenty seats. Romans lived most of their lives on the street. They traded goods, and sold food and drink from open fronted shops on the ground floor of houses or apartments. From the Plebeian class came the skilled craftsmen, butchers, bakers, cobblers, carpenters and florists. The Patrician class within this society was privileged. A young man from the senatorial class would gain experience as a lawyer.

Later in life, he would hope to be elected as a magistrate, qualifying him for lifelong admission to the senate. Also from this privileged class come doctors, architects and scholars.

Bread was the staple diet of most Romans. For poorer classes, an evening meal might be as simple as a bean puree, or porridge made from millet or chickpea flour. Occasionally, pork or chicken was included. The rich would often dine on a three-course meal, reclining on couches as servants delivered the banquet. Eggs and olives were served first. The second course often contained several dishes, such as chicken, wild boar, sow's udders, and sometimes wild game such as venison and pheasant. Desert consisted of honey cakes or fruit. The combination of food, wine and poor posture meant that the diners would often vomit from over-indulgence.

Affluent Romans lived on the Palatine Hill, where Rome originated. From their homes they could easily walk down to the Forum every morning. Beautiful homes and palaces were built here, with orange groves and gardens located at the top. The Palatine overlooked the Forum, the Circus Maximus, the Tiber and most of the sprawling city. In the First Century AD, the Flavian Palace extended across the Palatine, overlooking the Circus Maximus. Tunnels allowed easy access through the Palatine, with windows allowing sunlight to illuminate inside.

Romans found many ways to amuse themselves. From an early age, children played a form of dice using animal knucklebones. Other popular pastimes were board games such as backgammon, draughts and chess. For all classes of Romans, an afternoon visit to the public baths was a ritual not to be missed. A soak in the warm baths would remove the sweat from a day's work, as well as provide an opportunity to socialise and conduct business. Taverns and inns were well patronised, with gambling dens often found at the rear of the buildings. The inns were bawdy houses, with prostitutes working as barmaids. Brothels were well patronised in this sexually tolerant society.

Romans enjoyed 159 days of public holidays a year, with 93 days devoted to public games. In 264BC, the first gladiatorial combats were recorded, but the finer arts were also popular. Greek literature and philosophy had a profound influence on the Romans. Livius Andronicus inaugurated tragedies and comedies with the staging of his plays in 240BC. Plautus' satirical comedy "Braggart Soldier" was performed in 205BC, and the flourishing of the arts continued with the production of Terence's "Andria" in 166BC, and satires by Lucilius being published in 131BC.

Despite the cultural, religious and social changes occurring within Rome, it existed in a constant state of war. For nearly one hundred and sixty years between 264 and 106BC, Rome would be engaged in titanic struggles that would threaten destroy it.

THE PUNIC WARS Chapter Heading

Rome often found itself involved in border disputes, and other states suspected that it would attempt to conquer regions outside the Italian peninsula. Carthage was founded a century before Rome, and had grown into the largest sea empire the world had ever known. With immense merchant and naval fleets, Carthage controlled all of the Mediterranean shipping lanes. This enabled Carthage to recruit and transport mercenary forces at will. As well as their naval prowess, the Carthaginians had a powerful army, a blend of their Phoenician origins and the latest in Greek military tactics. This was a major threat to Rome's vulnerable coastline.

The **First Punic War** (264 – 241BC) lasted twenty-three years. 'Punic' was the Latin corruption of 'Phoenician' or 'Carthaginian'. To counter the Carthaginians superiority, the Romans had to become skilled at naval warfare. They did this with a speed and inventiveness more quickly than any sea power in history. Improving on Greek models, the Romans introduced into their warships the **Corvus**, a boarding-bridge capable of dropping soldiers onto enemy ships. The Romans eventually defeated a Carthaginian fleet off Sicily. Encouraged by this, an ill-fated Roman force of 15,000 men was crushed on the Bagradas River in 255BC. After a major sea battle at Lilybaeum in 241BC, Rome was again victorious. As a result, Sicily became Rome's first province, and they seized Sardinia and Corsica.

When Hannibal set out from 'New Carthage' or Spain, and crossed into Italy, it signalled the beginning of The **Second Punic War** (218 – 201BC). Beginning with a force of 102,000, by the time he had crossed over the Alps, only 23,000 survived. Most of the elephants also perished on the journey. Hannibal's advantage was having mobile troops, and the strength and speed of his cavalry. In 218BC Hannibal scored two major victories at **Trebia** and **Lake Trasimene**.

A year later, Hannibal's greatest triumph was at **Cannae**, which has been described as the 'perfect battle'. The combined armies of the two consuls, Lucius Aemilius and Terentius Varro, confronted Hannibal. The battle was not an easy one but, on this day, the execution of the Carthaginian plans could not be faulted, and 70,000 of Rome's best troops were killed. Hannibal's major error was not to immediately march on Rome. Instead, he stayed on the battlefield to haggle over ransoms for the four and a half thousand prisoners he had taken.

News of the catastrophe traumatised the city. Anyone suspected of bringing the wrath of the gods upon Rome were brutally dealt with. A vestal Virgin who broke her vow of chastity was buried alive, and the Supreme Pontiff flogged her lover to death.

In the aftermath of the Cannae disaster, Rome's revival came from its strategy to 'chip away' at the Carthaginian Empire. A second front began against Carthage in Spain where, for six years, the Scipio brothers, Gnaeus and Publius operated successfully to prevent Carthaginian troops joining Hannibal on the Italian peninsula. When the Scipio brothers were both killed during battle in 212BC, the 26-year-old son of Publius Scipio was appointed commander, even though he had no experience in this role. The young **Scipio Africanus** soon proved to be more than the bearer of a famous name.

He masterminded a series of victories in New Carthage over six years, eventually ending war in the region. Against heated protests, Scipio led an expeditionary force of 20,000 men to Africa in 204BC, and laid siege to the city of Utica. This invasion was devised to draw Hannibal away from Italy. The Carthaginians assembled a force five times larger, in an effort to break the siege. Though greatly outnumbered, Scipio had formulated a plan to defeat them. Under the cover of darkness, while the enemy slept, their camps were set ablaze. In the inferno, 40,000 men roasted to death, and the Carthaginian army was destroyed as a fighting force. With the siege of Utica unbroken, Carthage asked Scipio for an armistice.

With peace being negotiated, both sides knew a final chapter would be played out. Finally, Hannibal and his army were recalled to Africa, and Carthage broke the truce by attacking a fleet of 200 ships bringing supplies to Scipio. The two armies eventually met at Zama in 203BC with an almost equal number of soldiers. For Hannibal, his fortunes were reversed and during the battle his troops were out manoeuvred, hemmed in and destroyed, ending the Second Punic War.

Fifty years later, the **Third Punic War** began on the pretext of Carthaginian aggression against an African ally of Rome. Scipio Aemilianus, the grandson of the great Scipio, took Carthage after a ferocious siege. It was razed to the ground in 146BC, and its territory sown with symbolic salt, and a formal curse was pronounced on all who might dare to rebuild it. Carthage became a Roman province.

Rome had emerged from the Punic Wars with what we would refer to today as '**super-power status**'. Its conquest of Greece from 200-146BC certainly verified its position as a powerful nation. Rome's military campaigns had made the city rich, but deep rifts had developed in its social and political structure.

THE GRACCHUS BROTHERS Chapter Heading

Following the Punic Wars, a popular movement for change arose. Two politically opposed groups formed within Rome. The **Optimates** were mostly patricians and well-to-do plebeians, with conservative views, who dominated the senate. The **Populares** were liberal, represented the views of Rome's common people, but included prosperous citizens with similar feelings. Wealthy landowners, supported by the Optimates, had grown richer, while ordinary farmers, once the backbone of the Republic, did not own any land and had not prospered. There was a need for change.

The first of the reformers was **Tiberius Gracchus**, the grandson of the great Scipio Africanus, who took up the cause of the Populares. Appointed tribune in 134BC, he proposed the use of public lands for farming and grazing. Senators, mostly wealthy landowners who monopolised this land, balked at the idea and convinced another tribune to veto reforms. Tiberius overrode this tribune to pass the law. An angry senate enraged with Tiberius' methods staged a riot where he and 300 of his followers were killed. Tiberius' laws proceeded, however, with commissioners re-dividing public land. But the Populares were without a leader. Tiberius' younger brother Gaius continued the cause for reform.

In 123BC, Gaius Gracchus was elected tribune. Eloquent and persuasive, his influence was, for a while, all-powerful. He enacted his famous 'corn law', which provided grain to the poor from public storehouses. He proposed additional land reforms, and offered Roman citizenship to other Italian cities, further displeasing the senate. Fearful of Gaius' popularity, the senate again provoked violence in the city, blaming it on Gaius. He was declared a public enemy, and rather than be disgraced and executed, he killed himself. Three thousand citizens were killed in riots during this time of unrest.

The Gracchi reforms did not produce any lasting effect, but pointed out the dangers confronting the state. Their careers formed the first phase of the great civil conflicts that would embroil Rome.

THE END OF PART ONE