CHAPTER XXXII

THE ORGANIZATION OF ROMAN RULE IN ITALY; PROGRESS IN CIVILIZATION

I. ORGANIZATION

405. The Roman Citizens. — Within the territory united under Rome were communities of every grade of privilege, ranging from full Roman citizenship to subjection. First let us notice the Roman citizens. Many of them lived in Rome, or so near that they could use the markets of that city for buying and selling and could have their disputes settled before its courts. Others lived too far away to enjoy these advantages. Such persons had towns of their own called *mu-ni-cip'i-a.* A municipium of the best standing was practically the same as our municipality. It had a government of its own, consisting of magistrates, council, and an assembly of all the citizens. The assembly was like a "town-meeting," but it met oftener and had more to do with the government, as it elected magistrates and voted on laws. In origin and general character it was the same as the popular assembly at Rome or at Athens. The inhabitants of such a municipium usually had their law cases settled in the courts of their own town, and followed their several vocations there. As they were Roman citizens, they had a right to go to Rome and vote in the assemblies or present themselves as candidates for office. An example of such a municipium was Tusculum.

Other municipia, however, were of inferior grade. They had their own lōcal self-government, no less than those of highest standing. Their inhabitants were also citizens of Rome; they had a right to trade with the other citizens and to intermarry with them, but not to vote or to hold office at the capital. Caere has been mentioned as an example of this class.[1] The inhabitants were termed "citizens without suffrage."

[1] § 401.

Rarely to punish a town for rebellion, Rome deprived it of self-government and sent out a prefect to rule it with absolute power. Such communities were called pre'fect-ures. They were the lowest

grade of municipia. The inhabitants were in name citizens without suffrage, but in reality they were subjects. We hear of no more than two cities [1] which were treated in this way, and their degradation was only temporary.

[1] They were Anagnia, which rebelled in 306 B.C., and Capua, which in the Second Punic War deserted to Hannibal.

There was one more kind of Roman community — the Roman colony. It was always a garrison, usually of three hundred citizens with their families, placed in some newly conquered town. It was generally on the coast, and the garrison was for the protection of the seaboard. A third of the land, taken from the natives, was transferred to the new settlers, and they were given full control of the government. They stood therefore toward the natives as nobles toward commons. The natives were given citizenship without the right to vote; and gradually they acquired the full citizenship. The distinction between them and the colonists then disappeared.

406. **The Allies: Latins and Italians.** — Thus far we have had to do with Roman citizens only. We are now to take under consideration the allies. Those nearest to the Romans in blood, language, customs, and sympathy were the Latins. They consisted (1) of the few old Latin towns, like Tibur,[1] which had not yet accepted the Roman citizenship, (2) of many Latin colonies founded in all parts of Italy. Romans as well as Latins took part in these settlements; but they were called Latin colonies because they had Latin rights — that is, they were in the same condition as an old Latin town. All Latin towns, whatever their origin, were self-governing, almost sovereign states. Each was bound to Rome by an individual treaty, which regulated the relations between the two states. The Latins who came to Rome had an unrestricted right to trade, to buy property there, and to intermarry with the Romans, and could easily obtain the citizenship if they wished. The colonies of this class served as garrisons for holding the neighboring country loyal to Rome, and as a means of extending the Latin language and civilization to the natives.

Inferior to the Latins were the allies called simply the Italians, for instance the Samnites. As in the case of the Latins, each community had its separate treaty with Rome. There was among them every gradation of privilege; some were little inferior in rights to Rome, whereas the independence of others was more restricted. Neither Latins nor Italians paid taxes or tribute to Rome, but all their communities furnished the number of troops

[1] § 401.

fixed by treaty to serve in whatever wars Rome might wage. Those on the coast, especially the Greek cities, furnished ships with their crews. All the allies had to equip, provision, and pay their own troops. They had no voice, however, in the declaration of wars or the conclusion of treaties.

The political organization of Italy here described had the form of a league of small states under the leadership of Rome. It was like the Peloponnesian League or the Delian Confederacy, but far more strongly centralized than either. It included the whole peninsula south of the Rubicon, excepting the Umbrian coast which was occupied by Gauls. They had been conquered by Rome, and were now tributary subjects. Indeed, it was chiefly in opposition to the Gauls that the Italians, led by Rome, had come to look upon themselves as one people, — the nation of the gown against the nation wearing trousers. This federal system, based upon Italian nationality and directed by Rome, assured to the peninsula domestic peace, and to the leading city a place among the great states of the world. The foremost powers of the East[1] at this time were Egypt, — with which Rome allied herself in 273 B.C., — Macedon, and the Seleucid Empire; of the West, Carthage and Rome.

407. Members of the Roman-Italian League

I. **Roman Citizens**
   1. Those living in or near Rome, using its markets and courts.
   2. Citizens of municipia of the first class — with local self-government and the right to vote and hold office at Rome.
   3. Citizens of municipia of the second class — with local self-government, but without the right to vote and to hold office at Rome.
   4. Citizens of municipia of the third class, or prefectures — with neither self-government nor the right to vote and hold office at Rome.
   5. Citizens of Roman colonies — in privileges like inhabitants of municipia of the first class.

II. **Allies**, bound by treaty to follow the leadership of Rome in war, not tributary.
   1. Latins, especially favored, had easy access to the Roman citizenship.

[1] § 333.

a. A few old Latin towns.
b. Latin colonies.
2. Italians, less favored, differed greatly from one another in privileges.
III. **Subjects.** — The Gauls of Umbria, tributary.

408. **Military Reform: Change from the Phalanx to the Legion.** — During the first century of the republic the phalanx, as organized by Servius,[1] was used. The soldiers served without pay, and equipped themselves according to their means. In the war with Veii, however, the senate began to pay them for service, thus making possible a thorough change in the military system; for henceforth the citizens, who had been accustomed to short summer campaigns, could serve the entire year, when necessary, and the poor man as well as the rich could buy a complete equipment.

ITALIAN SOLDIER
(From a vase-painting, about 300 B.C.; British Museum)

Hence the distinction of classes in the armor and in the arrangement of the troops gave way to a ranking according to experience. The recruit entered the light division; after a time he passed to the front line of the heavy infantry, thence to the second line, and when he became a veteran, to the third. The soldiers of the first two lines, besides defensive armor, carried each two *pi'la*, or javelins for hurling, and a sword. The veterans were armed in the same way, except that instead of javelins each carried a lance.

[1] § 376.

In place of the solid phalanx, the lines of heavy-armed men were now divided each into ten companies, called maniples, stationed at intervals in such a way that the vacant spaces in a line were covered by the companies of the following line. Each line was several ranks deep. Ordinarily a legion consisted of three thousand heavy-armed troops and twelve hundred light-armed. The number of legions varied according to the requirements of war.

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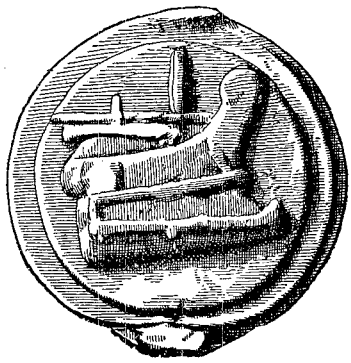

AS

(A bronze coin of the fourth century B.C., weighing 10½ oz. Front, head of Janus; back, prow of a galley)

There were regularly three hundred cavalry attached to each legion.

The beginning of this military reform is ascribed to Camillus,[1] the famous dictator who captured Veii; it was nearly completed at the end of the war with Pyrrhus.

II. Civilization and Character

409. Public Works. — While the Romans were becoming masters of Italy and improving their laws and their constitution, they were also growing richer. In the fourth century B.C. they began to coin bronze, and early in the third, silver. The nobles reaped the profits of large tracts of conquered land and bought a great number of

[1] § 404.

slaves. The state, too, acquired considerable property through conquest. Some of this wealth could be used for public works. Appius Claudius Caecus, during his long censorship, 312–307 B.C.,[1] built an aqueduct, named after him the Appian Aqueduct, which brought the city plenty of fresh water from the hills about ten miles distant. Through a great part of its course it ran underground. This was the first work of the kind at Rome. After his time, as the city continued for centuries to grow in population, larger and longer aqueducts had to be built. In some of them the water flowed high above ground in a channel supported by a series of stone arches.

A DENARIUS

(A silver coin struck soon after 286 B.C. Front, head of Roma; back, Castor and Pollux on horseback)

Another great work of the same censor was a military road — the Appian Way — extending from Rome to Capua. This, too, was the first of the kind. It was built as straight and as level as possible. Steep hills were tunnelled, and marshes and deep valleys were spanned by gigantic causeways of stone. In the more even places the road-bed was made of tightly-pressed earth, and the surface was everywhere paved with large, flat, durable stones.[2] Along the side milestones were set up, and at less intervals other stones as steps for mounting on horseback. The example of Claudius was followed by other statesmen, till in the course of centuries a network of these roads covered the whole domain ruled by Rome. The primary object was the rapid movement of armies and of military supplies and official letters. They were free also to the public for travel, commerce, and all other purposes. It was largely by means of such roads that Rome was able to protect the great empire she was building up, to govern it efficiently, and to bind all parts of it together by the ties of commerce and a common civilization. These, however, were but the far-off results of the example set by Claudius.

[1] He held the censorship during this long term for the purpose of building the public works described in this paragraph.

[2] For an example of such a pavement, see illustration, p. 470.

410. Education and Intelligence. — Business and diplomacy forced the more ambitious Romans even in this early time to learn the Greek language. There were probably as yet no schools, so that children had to get at home, from their parents or from Greek slaves, their whole education. Apart from the Twelve Tables and a few poems, proverbs, and orations composed by Appius Claudius, the Romans had no books whatever, and Greek literature was not yet studied, excepting by a few individuals. The Romans continued, however, to adopt Greek gods. One of their latest acquisitions in this period was Aes-cu-la'pi-us, god of healing, for whom they built a shrine on an island in the Tiber adjacent to the city. It was customary for sick persons to pass the night in this temple, in the belief that the god would heal them while they were asleep. Many stories of divine healing were in circulation.

ÆSCULAPIUS

(Excellent ancient copy of a fifth century (B.C.) original. Probably stood in the shrine at Rome. National Museum, Naples)

411. Personal and Public Character. — The early Romans were distinguished for their patience and energy. Their virtue, the fruit of a simple life, increased in strength and in severity throughout the period. This growth was owing to the care with which the republican government supervised the citizens. The magistrates had power to punish, not only for crimes, but for every offence against order, however slight, and even for immorality, including lazy or luxurious habits. While all officers enjoyed this authority, it became the especial duty of the censors to see that every citizen subjected himself to the severe discipline prescribed by the state.

The aim of education in the family and in public life was to repress the freedom of the individual in the interest of the state, to make a nation of brave warriors and dutiful citizens. The highest results of this stern training were reached in the Samnite Wars, — a period known thereafter as the golden age of virtue and of heroism. A citizen of this time was, in the highest degree, obedient to authority, pious, frugal, and generally honest. But though he was willing to sacrifice his life for the good of the state, he was equally ready to enrich himself at the expense of his neighbors; the wealthy did not hesitate to sell the poor into slavery for debt, till they were forbidden to do so by law. Their hard, stern souls knew neither generosity nor mercy. Severe toward the members of their family, cruel in the treatment of slaves, and in their business transactions shrewd and grasping, the Romans of the time, however admirable for their heroic virtues, were narrow, harsh, and unlovable.

As long as they remained poor and under strict discipline, they were moral. In the following period they were to gain greater freedom from the control of their magistrates, and, at the same time, power and wealth. These new conditions were to put their virtue and even their government to the severest test.

Suggestive Questions

1. Compare the Roman and Greek colonies. 2. Some of the allies in Italy refused the Roman citizenship when offered. Explain why. Did an allied city have any advantage over a municipium? 3. Compare the Roman-Italian League with the Confederacy of Delos; with the Peloponnesian League. 4. Trace the development of the Roman military organization from the earliest times to the end of the Pyrrhic War. 5. From the illustration on p. 365, describe the equipment of a warrior of about 300 B.C. How does the text agree with the illustration? Would you conclude therefore that this warrior might be a Roman? 6. Why did the Romans stamp the prow of a galley on their earliest coins (p. 366)? 7. Why did the Romans introduce Greek gods into their state? 8. Compare the Roman discipline with the Spartan.

Note-book Topics

I. **Organization of the Roman-Italian League.** — Pelham, *Outlines of Roman History*, 96–107; Greenidge, *Roman Public Life*, 295–310.

II. **Internal Condition of Rome during the Samnite Wars.** — Duruy, *History of Rome*, i. 500–524.

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