

## CHAPTER XXXIV

### THE EXPANSION OF THE ROMAN POWER FROM MOUNT TAURUS TO THE ATLANTIC

201-133 B.C.

434. **The Second Macedonian War** (200-196 B.C.). — The humiliation of Carthage left Rome free to devote all her energy to the overthrow of the remaining Mediterranean states in rapid succession. At the beginning she had not this end in view, but merely found in each conquest an occasion for further war. Her first conflict came with Macedon. Philip<sup>1</sup> used his peace with Rome mainly for recovering what he had lost in Greece. In these attempts he assailed some of Rome's allies, who thereupon despatched envoys to the senate with urgent appeals for help. The senators had long been indignant that Philip had taken the part of Hannibal, and were glad of an opportunity to chastise him. They felt, too, that if this ambitious king should succeed in putting Greece beneath his feet he would not hesitate to attack Italy. Though the Romans in general were now anxious for peace, the senate forced through the centuriate<sup>2</sup> assembly a declaration of war against Philip in behalf of the Greek allies.

Flam-i-ni' nus, the Roman commander, led against him a strong army of twenty-five thousand men. Though Philip had about the same number, most of his troops were boys. The whole civilized world was interested in the conflict between the legion and the phalanx. On level ground the phalanx, a massive body, was unconquerable, but among the hills it could be easily broken. The legion, on the contrary, was light and flexible, developed especially with a view to fighting the mountaineers of central Italy. At Cyn-oc-eph'a-lae ("Dogs' Heads"), a low range of hills in Thessaly, the

<sup>1</sup> §§ 343, 431.

<sup>2</sup> § 380.

armies met, and after a sharp struggle the legion was victorious (197 B.C.). The success of Rome was due to her military organization, to the poor quality of the opposing troops, and above all, to the superior Aetolian cavalry in her service.

The king was compelled to cede his various Greek possessions to the victor. But as the Roman commons disliked to extend their empire to the East, the senate decided to be generous. Accordingly, at the Isthmian festival of the following spring, by the direction of Flaminius and his colleagues, who were peace commissioners, a herald proclaimed to the assembly the freedom of all the Greeks who had been ruled by Philip. "After the games were over, in the extravagance of their joy, they nearly killed Flaminius by the exhibition of their gratitude. Some wanted to look him in the face and call him their preserver; others were eager to touch his hand. Most threw garlands and fillets upon him; and among them they nearly crushed him to death."<sup>1</sup> Though Flaminius wished well for the Greeks, his gift of freedom was a fair delusion. They could not keep peace among themselves — the only guaranty of their freedom. As their protector and peacemaker, Rome was constantly invited to settle their disputes; and this interference was destined soon to destroy their liberty.

**435. The Asiatic War** (192-189 B.C.). — Rome was soon to have trouble with the Seleucid Empire.<sup>2</sup> This state had once included nearly all of Alexander's dominion in Asia, but had greatly declined. Its satrapies east of Persia proper now belonged to the Parthian empire; and few possessions were left it in Asia Minor. Antiochus III, an aggressive Seleucid, took advantage of the Second Macedonian War to overrun all Asia Minor and to invade Thrace. After the Romans had declared the Greeks free from Philip, Antiochus with a small army entered Greece, and in his turn played the game of freeing that country from Rome. Driven from Europe, the king suffered an overwhelming defeat at Mag-ne'sia, in Asia Minor, at the hands of Lucius Scipio, brother of Africanus (190 B.C.). As a result of this unsuccessful war, he gave up all his possessions west of Mount Taurus. Rome left the states of Asia Minor independent under her protectorate. Antiochus was stoned to death

<sup>1</sup> Polybius, xviii. 46.

<sup>2</sup> § 334.

by his own people; and his great empire rapidly dwindled to the petty kingdom of Syria.<sup>1</sup>

**436. The Condition of Greece; the Third Macedonian War** (171-167 B.C.).—Meantime the states of Greece constantly accused one another before the Roman senate, and constantly invited that body to settle their quarrels. Accordingly we find one committee of the senate after another coming to Greece to arbitrate disputes and to look after the interests of the republic. Even had the Greeks been able to unite their strength with the Macedonians under one government, they could not have hoped long to resist the vastly superior power of Rome. But their love of personal freedom and of complete independence for their cities was as strong as ever. It not only prevented them from uniting in defence of their common interests, but frequently stirred up jealousy and strife among the states. Though their genius was not nearly so brilliant as in the age of Pericles, they were by no means degenerate either morally or mentally. In fact, they continued to furnish the brain and skill for all the higher activities of life throughout the civilized world. The spirit of independence, which had always been their noblest trait, was largely responsible for their political ruin. The Romans, at first their protectors, began after the second war with Philip to pose as their masters. Their respect for Greek culture did not prevent them from fostering disunion — from encouraging in all the states the growth of political factions subservient to Rome. To rid themselves of a troublesome Hellenic patriot, these “lovers of Greece” sometimes resorted even to assassination.

Such was the state of affairs when Philip died and was succeeded by his son Per'seus, who cherished the noble ambition of championing Hellas against barbarian Rome. His clever diplomacy and the desire of the Greeks for independence were rapidly bringing them into touch with Macedon, when Rome, to prevent this dreaded union, declared war against Perseus (171 B.C.).

The principal commander on the Roman side was Lucius Aemilius Pa'u'lus,<sup>2</sup> a man of rare honesty and ability. He met and conquered Perseus at Pyd'na, a city of Macedon (168 B.C.). “Aemilius had never seen a phalanx till he saw it in the army of Perseus on this

<sup>1</sup> § 476.

<sup>2</sup> Son of Aemilius, who died at Cannae (§ 429).

occasion; and he often admitted to his friends at Rome afterward that he had never beheld anything more alarming and terrible; and yet he, as often as any man, had been not only a spectator, but an actor in many battles." <sup>1</sup> The king escaped, but was taken later, and after following, with his young children, in the triumphal procession of the conqueror, he died in prison, either by his own hand or by the cruelty of the jailer. Macedon the Romans divided into four republics, which they prohibited from all intercourse with one another. Thus a great state perished. The cities yielded to the victor shiploads of furniture, precious metals, and works of art.

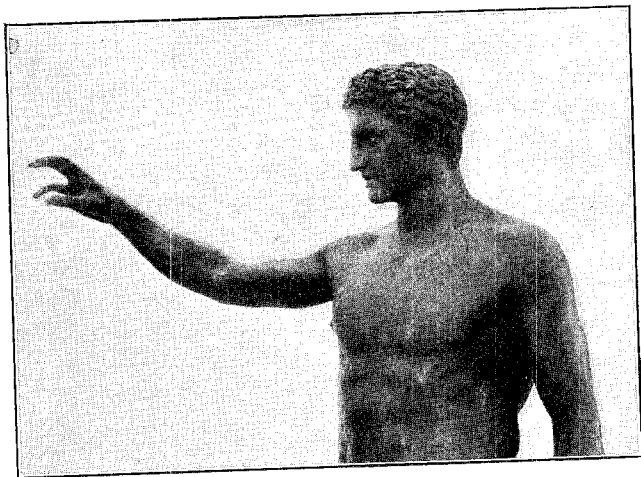
**437. Macedon becomes a Province** (146 B.C.). — For Greece there was to be no more freedom. Those who sympathized with Perseus in the war were sent to Rome for trial. Among them were a thousand men from the Achaean League alone, including Po-lyb'i-us, the statesman and historian. Far from being given a trial, however, they were detained sixteen years among the towns of Etruria. The influence of Polybius procured the release of the three hundred who then remained.

When these exiles returned home, they excited their whole nation against the city which had treated them so unjustly. About the same time Sparta, a member of the Achaean League, seceded, and the Achaeans attempted to force it back into the union. Rome not only took the side of Sparta, but also decreed the separation of certain other states from the union. Thereupon the Achaeans prepared for war with Rome. Meanwhile Macedon revolted against Rome. An army under Me-tel'lus easily suppressed the revolt. Metellus then united the four republics in the province of Mac-e-do'ni-a. This was the end of a kingdom which had once been the strongest in the world.

**438. The End of Greek Freedom** (146 B.C.). — While Metellus was in Macedon, the Achaean war broke out in Corinth. The Spartans who chanced to be present were murdered, and some envoys from Rome narrowly escaped with their lives. In two battles the Achaeans were irretrievably beaten. The consul Mum'mi-us, who had succeeded to the command, then entered Corinth, killed most of the men he found, and enslaved the remainder of the popu-

<sup>1</sup> Polybius, xxix. 17.

lation. After plundering the city, he burned it to the ground. Shiploads of movable goods, including furniture, statues, and paintings by the great masters, were transported to Rome. The destruction of Corinth was nominally to punish the inhabitants for their violent outbreak against Rome. A stronger motive seems to have been to be rid of a commercial rival; for Rome was now ruled



DETAIL OF A BRONZE STATUE

(Found in sea, off Cythera, Greece. Probably lost during shipment to Rome. Age, about 350 B.C.; original or excellent copy; National Museum, Athens.)

by capitalists, who, like those of Carthage,<sup>1</sup> sought by destroying competitors to establish for themselves a monopoly of commerce and speculation.

As was explained in an earlier chapter,<sup>2</sup> the Greeks who had proved loyal to Rome during the last war—for example, the Spartans, Athenians, and Aetolians—continued independent. All leagues among them, however, were abolished, and the right to take part in the local government was everywhere restricted to the well-to-do.<sup>3</sup> Those who had taken part in the war were compelled likewise to

<sup>1</sup> § 412.

<sup>2</sup> Ch. xxvii. § 344.  
<sup>3</sup> Such a government was a timocracy; § 121. Throughout her empire Rome followed the same policy in relation to her weaker allies and her subjects.

give up their leagues and their democracies. They were deprived, too, of their independence, and placed under the governor of Macedonia.<sup>1</sup>

**439. The Kingdom of Pergamum and the Province of Asia** (189-129 B.C.). — The protectorate which Rome had acquired over Asia Minor by treaty with Antiochus (189 B.C.),<sup>2</sup> continued through the period of the Macedonian and Achaean wars. The country contained a number of native kingdoms and Greek city-states. The most important kingdom was that of Pergamum, which centred in a city of the same name not far from the Aegean coast. It had adopted the Hellenic civilization, and was only less famous than Alexandria as a seat of art and of culture in general.<sup>3</sup> The kings were steadfast friends of Rome. The ruling family had greatly degenerated; and the last king, Attalus III, was a weakling. At his death (133 B.C.) he bequeathed his kingdom and treasure to Rome. When the Romans attempted to take possession of their inheritance, their claim was resisted by a pretender to the throne. In 129 B.C. he was put down, whereupon the kingdom, with some neighboring territory, became the Roman province of Asia.

**440. The Third Punic War** (149-146 B.C.). — In the year 146 B.C. the Romans destroyed Carthage. For the beginning of the trouble which led to this event we must go back to the close of the Second Punic War. The treaty with Hannibal had forbidden Carthage, without the consent of Rome, to defend herself against attack. Taking advantage of this condition, Masinissa,<sup>4</sup> king of Numidia, an ally of Rome, continually plundered the territory of Carthage and seized some of her best lands. In answer to her complaints Rome sent out various commissioners, who in every case were instructed to give secret encouragement to the plunderer. As a member of such a commission, Cato, a narrow-minded statesman, of whom we shall hear more, brought home a startling report of the wealth and prosperity of Carthage. In his opinion the city of Hannibal still menaced Rome. Indeed, he is said to have ended every speech in the senate, whatever the subject, with the words, "Car-

<sup>1</sup> It was not till about 27 B.C. that all Greece south of Macedonia became a province under the name Achaia.

<sup>2</sup> § 435.

<sup>3</sup> § 346

<sup>4</sup> § 432

thage must be destroyed!" He easily convinced the capitalists, who wished for a monopoly of the world's commerce, and who formed a majority of the senate. Accordingly the consuls sailed for U'ti-ca with an immense army. To avoid war the Carthaginians were ready for every concession. First they handed over three hundred children as hostages. The mothers, who gave them up, "clung to the little ones with frantic cries and seized hold of the ships and of the officers who were taking them away."<sup>1</sup> "If you sincerely desire peace," said the consuls on their arrival at Utica, "why do you need arms? Surrender them!" After vain protests, the people gave up their armor. "We congratulate you on your promptness," the consuls continued; "now yield Carthage to us, and settle wherever you like within your own land, ten miles from the sea; for we are resolved to destroy your city."

At first the people were overcome with grief; but finally they resolved to defend their city to the last drop of blood. As they had to make new weapons, they converted even the temples into workshops, and the women gave their hair for bowstrings. They gallantly repulsed the attacks of the consuls, and for three years defended themselves like heroes. At last Scipio Aemil-i-a'nus<sup>2</sup> forced a passage through the walls. His soldiers massacred the inhabitants, then plundered and burned the city. After they had destroyed this innocent people, the authorities of Rome cursed the ground on which the city stood, that it might never be rebuilt. The territory it ruled they made into the province of Africa.

**441. Ligurian and Gallic Wars.** — The story of the conquest of Greece and Carthage, just told, illustrates the character of Roman warfare during the half-century which followed the peace with Hannibal. Through a great part of this time war was raging in northern Italy. Incited to rebellion by Hannibal, the Gauls continued to fight long after he had fallen and all hope of success had faded away. They were desperately brave, preferring death to slavery. In alliance with them were the hardy Ligurians, who peopled the mountains

<sup>1</sup> Appian, *Foreign Wars*, viii. 77.

<sup>2</sup> Son of Aemilius Paulus (§ 436), but adopted into the family of Scipio, the conqueror of Hannibal. The name Aemilianus indicates his birth in the Aemilian gens.

on their western border. Year after year consuls were baffled and soldiers slaughtered in conflicts with these tribes. Before the middle of the century, the task was completed. The spirit of these brave people was crushed. Thousands of Ligurians were transported to Samnium. To hold the rest in check, the Aurelian Way, a military road, was built from Rome along the west coast of Etruria to the Apennines.

**442. The Spanish Wars (197-133 B.C.).**— In the war with Hannibal Rome had wrested from Carthage her entire Spanish dominion. In 197 B.C. two provinces — Hither and Farther Spain — were made of this territory, and two praetors were sent out to govern them. But the natives resisted. The bloodiest and most desperate war Rome ever waged now began. The mountaineers were almost unconquerable. It was no uncommon thing for them to slaughter a Roman army; and when the Romans succeeded in taking a stronghold, nothing was gained but barren rocks. Women fought along with the men; to prevent capture they were as ready as the men to kill their children and then themselves. Most of them carried poison, to take in case they fell into the enemy's hands. In 178 B.C. peace, favorable to the natives, was made. Fifteen years later a fresh revolt broke out, and the work of conquest began anew. Failing in arms, the Romans resorted to treachery. They violated treaties, and massacred troops who had surrendered under agreement. The resistance centred in the little town of Numantia. Through many years a few heroic Spaniards held out against the power of Rome. The camp of the besiegers thronged with fortune-tellers, quacks, and all manner of disreputable persons, who led the common soldiers into the vilest life. The generals were base, treacherous, and incapable; and the senate, which directed the operations, showed an utter lack of principle in dealing with these brave enemies. After many an army had been beaten, and many a Roman general had disgraced himself in the siege, Scipio Aemilianus took command. He banished all vile persons from the camp, and reduced the soldiers to strict discipline. When at last he gained possession of the town, he found but fifty survivors, to follow his triumphal car. All Spain was now conquered excepting a small mountainous district in the northwest.



Few colonies were planted in Spain by Rome, but during these wars thousands of soldiers from Italy, discharged at the end of campaigns or deserting the army, settled in the country, marrying Spanish wives and mingling with the natives. To these settlers is chiefly due the rapid extension of the Latin language and civilization over Spain. Less than two centuries after the fall of Numantia, we find the peninsula thoroughly Romanized.

**443. Summary of Acquisitions: the Provinces and the Dependent Allies** (241 to about 133 B.C.). — At the close of the period we have been reviewing the Romans ruled most of the territory from Mount Taurus to the Atlantic. They had seven, possibly nine, provinces under governors sent out from the capital. These provinces, in the order of their acquisition, were (1) Sicily, acquired in 241; (2) Sardinia and Corsica, seized soon afterward and organized in the same year as Sicily, 227; (3, 4) Hither and Farther Spain, acquired in the Second Punic War and organized in 197; (5) Cisalpine Gaul, reconquered early in the second century and organized at some unknown time afterward;<sup>1</sup> (6) Illyricum, acquired in the third Macedonian war (167), the date of organization being unknown; (7) Macedonia, organized in 146; (8) Africa, acquired and organized in the same year; (9) Asia, acquired in 133 and organized four years later.

Among the dependent allies, often called client states,<sup>2</sup> were all those of Asia Minor outside the province of Asia. In Africa, Numidia and Egypt, with Libya, were in this condition. In Asia the kingdom of Syria possessed more freedom, but was already sinking into clientship.

It was less than a century and a half since Rome embarked on her policy of expansion beyond the borders of Italy. Within another period of equal length she was to round out her empire so as to include all the countries which surround the Mediterranean. But these two cycles of conquest were to bring with them momentous changes in the character of her government and in the condition of her citizens.

<sup>1</sup> Not later than 81 B.C.

<sup>2</sup> So-called because a state of the kind stood toward Rome in some such relation as a client toward his patron; § 370.

**Suggestive Questions**

1. Why at the beginning of this period were the Roman citizens anxious for peace? 2. Give an account of the origin and early history of the Seleucid Empire (ch. xxvii). 3. Why did the senate establish a protectorate over Greece and Asia Minor instead of applying the provincial system to these acquisitions? Were subject allies or provinces more serviceable to Rome? 4. Enumerate the causes of the political decline and fall of Greece. 5. Enumerate the causes which contributed to the Roman conquest of the Mediterranean. 6. Describe the location of all the provinces acquired in the period 241-133 B.C. 7. How did the Romans show their appreciation of Greek art? 8. Compare the statue found in the sea (p. 393) with those of Polycleitus and Lysippus (pp. 293, 294). Which does it more nearly resemble?

**Note-book Topic**

**The Organization of a Province.** — Abbott, *Roman Political Institutions*, 88-91; Greenidge, *Roman Public Life*, ch. viii; Arnold, *Roman Provincial Administration*, chs. i, ii.

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