GAIUS JULIUS CAESAR

Demonstrative Adjectives and Pronouns; Relative Pronouns; Adjectives with Genitive in –īus and Dative in –ī; Participles Including Gerunds and Gerundives; Gerunds and Gerundives in Purpose Constructions; Subjunctive Purpose Clauses and Indirect Commands; Ablative Absolutes; The Active Periphrastic; Indirect Statements; The Passive Periphrastic, Review of Gerund and Gerundive Uses

Asyndeton, Ellipsis, Hendiadys, Litotes, Polysyndeton, Alliteration

A series of nine panels by Andrea Mantegna (1431–1506) celebrates the triumphs of Caesar. Inspired by written accounts of Caesar’s processions and by his study of Roman artifacts, Mantegna painted the panels for Francesco Gonzaga, the Duke of Mantua. This panel depicts the standard-bearers and tuba players, two key components in the Roman army’s communications.

MEMORĀBILE DICTŪ

Gallia est omnis dīvīsa in partēs trēs.
“Gaul as a whole is divided into three parts.” (Caesar Dē bellō Gallicō 1.1)

With this simple, geographical description, Julius Caesar begins his seven books of commentaries concerning an extended war against Gaul that results in the Gallic peoples becoming Roman and their descendants speaking a Latin-derived language.
INTRODUCTION TO CAESAR

Gaius Julius Caesar (100–44 BCE) is one of the most fascinating and significant figures in all of Roman history. Renowned as a leading politician, an extraordinarily successful general, and an accomplished orator, he also was an author of the first rank. Caesar had a decisive and long-lasting impact on Rome’s political institutions despite the fact that his life was cut short by assassination. Today his career still inspires both emulation and loathing, with its influence traceable in such founding documents as our own Constitution of the United States.

THE ROMAN REPUBLIC DURING CAESAR’S FORMATIVE YEARS

The Roman Republic was in a state of upheaval during Caesar’s formative years. Two names from this period stand out: Marius (157–86 BCE) and Sulla (138–79 BCE). Marius reformed the Roman army to include the lower classes; he held an unprecedented seven consulships; and his politics tended to support more popular leaders against the interests of the conservative aristocracy. Caesar had familial ties to Marius because Marius was married to Caesar’s aunt Julia. Sulla was Marius’s former lieutenant, a great general in his own right, and dictator in Rome when Caesar was in his teens. Sulla won supreme authority in Rome by marching on the city with his army. He then reorganized the Roman constitution with two principal goals in mind: first, to restore the authority of the Roman Senate, which was dominated by the conservative aristocracy, and, second, to suppress the tribunes of the people, who often rallied Rome’s common people to support legislation opposed by the conservative aristocracy. Politicians who used the Senate to pass legislation and tried to limit the power of the tribunes were called optimātēs, “the best men”; conversely, politicians who used the people’s assemblies and tribunes to pass legislation, instead of going through the Senate, were called populārēs, “men of the people.” Neither group represented a political party, but rather a style of politics and a loose set of alliances with like-minded colleagues. Sulla was aligned with the optimātēs, Marius with the populārēs, as was Caesar. Sulla’s initial plan for political renewal also included proscriptions, which entailed writing the names of political enemies on lists that would be posted in public. Proscribed men were hunted down and killed. Those who did the hunting and killing earned a right to a portion of the proscribed man’s estate.

Like Caesar, Pompey the Great (although he had not yet earned the title) was young at this time; he profited from Sulla’s proscriptions, earning him the nickname “teenage butcher” (adultēscensulus carnifex). Caesar, on the other hand, because of his connection to Marius as well as his refusal to divorce a wife whose populāris family was hostile to Sulla, barely escaped proscription. Eventually he had to travel to the East until things became safer in Rome. While in the East Caesar served in the entourage of a Roman official and participated in battle where he earned the “civic crown” by saving the life of a fellow citizen. Around this time pirates reputedly kidnapped Caesar. After the ransom was collected and paid, the former hostage led an expedition to catch his captors, personally overseeing their crucifixion. Caesar then traveled to Rhodes to study Greek rhetoric with Apollonius Molon, the same outstanding teacher of rhetoric with whom Cicero studied. Although Caesar was not as accomplished an orator as Cicero, he nevertheless was a very fine speaker.
POLITICS

Caesar’s early career included numerous military and civil posts, in addition to his military experience and work as a prosecutor in Rome’s courts. In 65 BCE he was elected to the aedileship. His year in this office was notable for his staging of extravagant games, which was necessary for winning the favor of the voting public. In 63 BCE Caesar was elected Pontifex Maximus, the highest office in Roman religion. To secure Rome’s chief priesthood, he reputedly borrowed huge sums of money for the purpose of bribing the voters. Individuals from prominent families sought election to a number of priesthoods because of the close connection between religion and politics. The government at Rome at this time was hopelessly corrupt, a situation that Caesar exploited. He had, in fact, borrowed so much money that his creditors went to court to prevent his departure for Spain, the province he was to govern in 61 BCE. Crassus, the richest man in Rome, had to personally guarantee Caesar’s debts before he was allowed to depart.

THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE

With the profits Caesar made governing in Spain by conducting warfare with rebellious tribes (generals and soldiers shared in the profits derived from war), he paid off his enormous debt and prepared to run for election to the consulship. In this campaign he was able to enlist the aid of Pompey the Great and Crassus. These two senior politicians were enemies, but Caesar reconciled them and brokered a three-way alliance that would be mutually beneficial. (The triumvirate was formed against a mutual enemy, Cato and the optimātēs.) The alliance, which they called “friendship” (amicitia), is frequently referred to as the “first triumvirate.” This term implies an official commission sanctioned by the state, which it was not. Even if its public impact was profound, their amicitia was, from a legal point of view, private. Caesar strengthened his relationship with Pompey by offering his daughter Julia in marriage to him. After his election to the consulship in 59 BCE, Caesar used constitutionally dubious methods to pass legislation that would benefit his “friends,” such as physically preventing his fellow-consul Marcus Bibulus from participating so that he could not veto the proceedings. Hence, the year of 59 BCE was referred to sarcastically by contemporaries as the consulship of Julius and Caesar, instead of the consulship of Bibulus and Caesar.

Caesar received a proconsulship of Illyricum (located on the Adriatic coast opposite northern Italy) and the two Gauls, which consisted of Cisalpine Gaul (northern Italy) and Transalpine Gaul (the Mediterranean coast of what is now France) for a period of five years. After he became involved in the conquest of the remainder of Gaul (roughly corresponding to what is now France), Caesar realized that it would take him longer than the original five-year commission to accomplish the task. He renewed his alliance with Crassus and Pompey in 56 BCE and completed the conquest of Gaul by 50 BCE. In the process Caesar flooded Roman markets with slaves, acquired fabulous wealth, dispensed many political favors, and won the fierce devotion of his soldiers.
THE END OF THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE

Roman politics had in the meantime entered into a critical phase. In 54 BCE Julia, Caesar’s daughter and Pompey’s wife, died in childbirth. In 53 BCE, leading a large contingent of Roman soldiers against Parthia, Crassus was defeated and died in battle. Parthia ruled a territory roughly equivalent to what is now Iraq and Iran. The defeat was humiliating for Rome. After the deaths of Julia and Crassus, Pompey began drifting into a closer alliance with leaders in the Roman Senate who were opposed to Caesar. Before their political alliance fell apart, Caesar had been promised by Pompey that he could celebrate a triumph, a military victory parade, in Rome as well as run for a second consulship in absentia without giving up his proconsular imperium. Instead, after winning Pompey over to their side, leading senators felt powerful enough to ruin Caesar’s career, which, constitutionally speaking, they were entitled to do. They ordered

Caesar’s campaigns in Gaul established his reputation as an exceptional military commander. The Roman army was a highly organized institution. Caesar’s tactical skills and the technological superiority of the Roman army were key components in his success. A group of reenactors demonstrates the Roman testūdō, which facilitated the army’s offensive maneuvers.
Caesar to lay down his command while at the same time allowing Pompey to retain his. When Caesar refused to obey, the Senate declared him a public enemy. Caesar then marched his army into Rome’s territory in the middle of winter in early January 49 BCE. According to the Roman historian Suetonius, as he crossed the Rubicon River in northern Italy, Caesar proclaimed *iacta ālea est* (“the die has been cast”) to indicate that there was no turning back. The Rubicon represented the boundary between the Cisalpine province and Roman territory, and thus to cross the Rubicon with an army was considered an act of treason. Today people both quote the Latin expression and refer to “one’s Rubicon” to communicate the notion of a significant decision that cannot be reversed.

Pompey and the Senate appear to have been taken by surprise by Caesar’s boldness. Many fled to Greece. Caesar secured Italy and then moved operations to Greece where he defeated Pompey at Pharsalus in 48 BCE. Pompey fled to Egypt (still independent under the Ptolemies) where he was assassinated. Caesar arrived in Egypt too late to engage Pompey, but he became involved in a local dispute over who had the right to rule in Egypt. Caesar supported Cleopatra over her brother. Because he arrived with so few soldiers, Caesar was at times in real danger, but eventually he prevailed. After settling affairs in Egypt, where he became romantically involved with Cleopatra, Caesar moved on to the East where in 47 BCE he penned his famous report from the battle of Zela: *vēnī, vīdī, vīcī* (“I came, I saw, I conquered”). But the civil war was not over yet. He had to fight senatorial armies in North Africa (46 BCE) and then in Spain (45 BCE).

THE ASSASSINATION OF JULIUS CAESAR

After a bitter civil war Caesar was faced with the task of reestablishing constitutional government. He had in the interim been named “dictator for life” (*dictātor perpetuō [tempore]*)). The dictatorship was convenient because it allowed Caesar to hold office continuously without the necessity of annual election. The rest of the machinery of government ran as usual, but Caesar determined who held positions of importance such as the consulship.

However, Caesar did not possess sole rule for long. During his short-lived administration he attempted to settle economic affairs by relieving, but not abolishing, debt. This satisfied neither debtors nor creditors. He also reformed the Roman calendar by increasing the number of days of the year from 355 to 365 with a regular leap year every four years. With only modest adjustments later made by Pope Gregory XIII of the sixteenth century, we still use Caesar’s calendar today. It seems fitting, therefore, that because of Caesar’s significant reform of the calendar, one month of our year bears his name, the month of July.

After his victory in the civil war, Caesar, unlike Sulla, preferred to forgive rather than proscribe his enemies, reckoning that people who owed their very lives to him would demonstrate future gratitude. This policy contributed to Caesar’s early demise. Many of those whom he forgave joined the successful conspiracy to assassinate him because they could not tolerate the notion of Caesar as a dictator for life. The conspirators struck during a meeting of the Senate on March 15 (the Ides), 44 BCE—the eve of Caesar’s planned departure for Parthia where he hoped to avenge Crassus’s humiliating defeat.
CAESAR’S LEGACY

After Caesar’s murder, another round of civil war erupted, but not before the Senate declared that Caesar was a god. In his will Caesar had adopted his great-nephew, Gaius Octavius (the son of his sister’s daughter), who assumed Caesar’s name, as did every subsequent Roman emperor. Caesar’s name eventually passed into other languages with the meaning of “emperor,” such as kaiser in German and czar in Russian. Caesar worship would be transformed into emperor worship, and this worship of the emperors after they died and while they lived became an important element of Roman administrative policy during the empire. This element of Roman religion eventually involved the Roman government in conflict with Jews and early Christians.

But Caesar’s legacy goes beyond his calendar, his divinity, and his name. The people of Gaul became Roman, and their descendants today speak a Latin-derived language. Caesar’s example of a single individual assuming ultimate power has attracted imitators for thousands of years. In North America fear of such would-be imitators inspired the framers of the US Constitution to create a complex system of checks and balances to prevent any single individual from usurping supreme constitutional authority on Caesar’s model.

Caesar is in every respect a pivotal historical figure. His career marks the end of the Roman Republic, and his dictatorship served as the prelude to a constitutional reorganization that inaugurated the Roman Empire under his adoptive great-nephew Octavian (who became Augustus). We still reckon time by Caesar’s reformed calendar, and our constitution continues to protect us from those who might otherwise try to imitate him.
CAESAR AS AN AUTHOR

Caesar’s literary fame rests on his surviving “commentaries” on the Gallic and Civil Wars: Commentāriī dē bellō Gallicō and Commentāriī dē bellō civili. Caesar composed the first seven books of the Gallic War. Aulus Hirtius supplemented the work after Caesar’s death, contributing an eighth book. Caesar also wrote the three books of the Civil War. These books were supplemented as well with books (authorship uncertain) on events in Egypt (the Alexandrian War), North Africa (the African War), and Spain (the Spanish War). Caesar also wrote many works that do not survive, including a work on Latin grammar. In light of the great number of exceptions to grammatical rules found in other authors, the loss of this work is a bitter one given Caesar’s fondness for clean and clear prose.

What were commentāriī? Roman governors and generals wrote official reports, which they sent to the Senate. Caesar’s actual reports to the Senate are not what we read today. We read reports modeled on the style of those reports. Why would Caesar have chosen a genre that imitated such reports? Caesar was the politician who during his consulship first published “minutes” or “proceedings of the Senate” (acta Senātūs), much to the resentment of the conservative aristocracy, who preferred to settle matters among themselves without public scrutiny. When Caesar departed for Gaul, he probably chose commentāriī as a genre to publicize his accomplishments among as wide a public as possible in a format that made it appear as if he were sharing his official reports to the Senate with all Roman citizens. Caesar was also absent from Rome for nine years. His “dispatches” on the Gallic War would have been devoured by a public eager for news and would have been promoted by Caesar’s political allies. Similarly, Caesar’s “reports” on the civil war were likely crucial in presenting Caesar’s side in this bitterly divisive conflict. When were these books published? How were they published? Did they appear serially or as a complete work? Were there revisions along the way? The answers to all these questions remain disputed. We do have testimony, however, that although the genre was in general conceived of as providing the raw materials for historians, Caesar’s commentāriī were considered so polished that they dissuaded competitors from attempting to rewrite his accounts, especially of his Gallic campaigns.

Caesar’s style has often been praised for its distinctive qualities. He tells his stories logically, clearly, and without obscure Latin vocabulary. If readers compare his prose to his contemporary Cicero or to the later historian Livy, they will soon perceive why Caesar’s style is called “plain.” His sentences, artfully constructed though they are, do not become involved in the complex syntax of subordinate and relative clauses (a style called “periodic”). His use of rhetorical devices is more subtle. He writes as a dispassionate observer, as opposed to the outraged orator or the emotional and moralizing historian.

Caesar also writes about himself in the third person. His intent in doing so has been the subject of scholarly debate. His writing in the third instead of the first person may have to do with his original audience at Rome: a public eagerly listening to reports about the progress of the Gallic war. Texts were often read aloud to larger groups who gathered to listen. If we compare, “When Caesar was informed of this, he decided to . . .” to the sentence “When I heard this, I reckoned I should . . .,” we can observe that the third person would seem more natural in reporting the great
general’s accomplishments in the wilds of Gaul to a large, diverse audience. Even upper-class “readers” frequently employed slaves to read texts to them out loud. If Caesar were not writing letters to people personally, the first person would have been jarring. Why would Caesar be speaking to them directly, especially if they were in a group, and he was so far away in Gaul? With the help of the third person, the focus of the reports was more squarely on Caesar’s actions rather than his authorship, and their plain and unemotional style lent them a seeming objectivity.

Caesar’s commentāriī have persuaded many readers over thousands of years with this seemingly objective authority. A cursory glance, however, at the bitterly partisan times in which they were written quickly reveals what was at stake for Caesar: his reputation, his public career, and even his life, as the subsequent civil war and Caesar’s murder amply demonstrate.
READING 1

In the passage below, you will find certain words in a different font, some words underlined, and other words in parentheses. The words in a different font are the words in a relative clause, including the relative pronoun, and the underlined words are the antecedents of relative pronouns. This method will help you determine what the main clause of each sentence is.

In Latin prose and poetry, the reader often needs to “understand” or supply words that are not in the Latin text. Words to be understood are in parentheses in the text below. When one or more words are needed to complete the thought in one of two or more clauses, this is called ELLIPSIS and is quite common in Latin.

Later in this chapter, the same passage of Latin will be seen again without the use of words in different fonts and in parentheses.

In Chapter 1 of Book 1 of his Commentaries, Caesar comments on the valor of the Belgians and Helvetians. The geographical description of Gaul that he provides does not include the Roman province of Transalpine Gaul (modern Provence) in the southeastern part. This province was already under the control of Rome and was one of the provinces he was assigned as governor, in addition to Cisalpine Gaul and Illyricum.

GAUL AND ITS INHABITANTS

CAESAR DĒ BELLŌ GALLICŌ 1.1

1 Gallia est omnis divisa in partēs trēs, quārum ūnam (partem) incolunt Belgae, aliam (partem incolunt) Aquītānī, (et) tertiam (partem incolunt) (ei) qui ipsōrum linguā Celtae, nostrā (linguā) Gallō appellantur.

NOTES AND VOCABULARY

Line 1: Gallia, -ae, f. Gaul; Gaul or the territories known today as France and northern Italy. From the Roman perspective, the Alps divided Gaul on “this side (cīs) of the Alps” (Gallia Cisalpīna) from the Gaul that was “across (trāns) the Alps” (Gallia Trānsalpīna). Another Gaul was the area beyond the Alps, but along the Mediterranean, which the Romans frequently called Prōvincia or “the Province.”

omnis, omne all; omnis modifies Gallia; translate “Gaul as a whole”; that is, if one looks at the entire territory, one finds three major ethnic groups among which it has been “distributed.”

dividō, dividere, divisi, divisum to divide; divīsa is the perfect passive participle serving as a predicate adjective; with est, translate “is divided.”

pars, partis, f. part

trēs, tria three; note that here the numeral follows, instead of precedes, the noun it modifies for emphasis.

ūnus, -a, -um one

incolō, incolere, incolui to inhabit, dwell in, live in; when transitive (taking a direct object) as here, translate “inhabit.” In line 8, where incolō is intransitive, translate “dwell” or “live.”
Belgae, -ārum, m. pl. the Belgians; the Belgians are located in northern Gaul along the English Channel.

alias, alia, alius another, other

**STUDY TIP**
The genitive, both singular and plural, of the relative pronoun quī, quae, quod is most commonly translated “whose.” Sometimes, however, English usage dictates that the genitive be translated “of which.”

Line 2: Aquītānī, -ōrum, m. pl. the Aquitanians; the Aquitanians are located on the Atlantic coast above the Pyrenees, the mountains that separate the Spanish peninsula from Gaul.

tertius, -a, -um third

is, ea, id this, that, he, she, it; translate “those.” ēi is the antecedent of quī, and Caesar, like many Roman authors, omits this antecedent. Note that the ēi, which needs to be supplied, forms the subject of the understood incolunt.

ipse, -a, -um himself, herself, itself, themselves; īpsōrum linguā literally translates “by the language of them themselves” but a smoother translation is “by their own language.”

lingua, -ae, f. language

**BY THE WAY**
Note the omission of et between the second and third in a series. The omission of a connective such as et or -que is called asyndeton (from the Greek meaning “lack of connection”) and often occurs in Latin literature. The asyndeton enhances the brevity of this sentence. In this passage asyndeton occurs again in line 3 (before lēgibus), in line 14 (before vergit), and in line 15 (before spectant).

Line 3: Celtae, -ārum, m. pl. the Celts

noster, nostra, nostrum our

Galli, -ōrum, m. pl. Gauls; people from the Celtic territories of northern Italy as well as from Transalpine Gaul.

appellō (1) to name, call

**STUDY TIP**
Predicate nominatives and predicate adjectives rename, define, or describe the subject of the sentence. They are in the nominative case and are seen with a form of the verb sum or with other intransitive verbs such as those that mean “appear,” “be made,” “become,” and “be named.” In line 3, the verb appellantur, “are named,” sets up the predicate nominatives Celtae and Galli.
CAESAR DÉ BELLÒ GALLICÌ 1.1, CONTINUED

Hī omnēs linguā, institūtīs, (et) lēgibus inter sē differunt. Gallōs ab Aquītānīs Garumna flūmen (dividit), (Gallōs) ā Belgis Matrona (flūmen) et Sēquana (flūmen) dividit. Hōrum omnium fortissimī sunt Belgae, proptereā quod ā cultū atque hūmānitātē prōvinciae longissimē absunt, minimēque ad eōs mercātōrēs saepe commeant atque ea quaed ad effēminandōs animōs pertinent important. Proximī sunt Germānīs, qui trāns Rhēnum incolunt, quibuscum continenter bellum gerunt. Quā dē causā Helvētiī quoque reliquōs Gallōs virtūte praecēdunt, quod fērē cōtīdiānis proeliis cum Germānīs contendunt, cum aut suīs finibus

NOTES AND VOCABULARY

Line 3: hic, haec, hoc this
institūtum, -i, n. custom, habit
lēx, lēgis, f. law
inter, prep. + acc. among, between; translate “from one another.”

STUDY TIP

An ablative of respect shows “in respect to” what something is or is done. In line 3, linguā, institūtīs, lēgibus are ablatives of respect; translate “in language, . . .”

Line 4: suī, sibi, sé, sē himself, herself, themselves
differō, differre, distulī, dīlātum to differ
Garumna, -ae, m. the Garonne River; flūmen agrees with Garumna in case because the words are in apposition.‡
Matrona, -ae, m. the Marne River.‡

Line 5: Sēquana, -ae, m. the Seine River; the Matrona and Sēquana are the dual subject of a singular verb because Caesar considered the two rivers as functioning as one boundary.‡

Lines 5–6: proptereā quod: lit., “on account of which”; translate “because.”

Line 6: cultus, cultūs, m. culture, civilization‡
hūmānitās, hūmānitātis, f. refinement, human feeling, civilization
longissimē, superlative adv. farthest
absum, abesse, āfui, āfutūrus to be away, be absent
minimē, superlative adv. least

Line 7: mercātor, mercātōris, m. merchant; note that mercātōrēs serves as the subject and is not being modified by eōs. The prepositional phrase ad eōs is placed before the subject for emphasis.
commeō (1) to come and go
atque, conj. and, and also
effēminō (1) to weaken, make effeminate; translate ad effēminandōs animōs “to weakening courage.” The verb pertineō governs ad + acc. and thus ad effēminandōs animōs is not a gerundive of purpose, although it seems like one at first glance.
**animus, -i, m. will, spirit, judgment, courage**

**pertineō, pertinēre, pertinuī (+ ad + acc.) to extend (to), pertain to, reach (to)**

**STUDY TIP**

Adjectives like *proximus* (line 8), and others that mean “dear, near, kind, friendly” and the like, take the dative and, in English, are often followed by “to” or “for.” In line 8 the dative is *Germānīs*.

**Line 8:**

*importō* (1) to bring or carry in

*proximus, -a, -um* nearest, last, next, nearest

*trāns, prep. + acc. across*

*Rhēnus, -i, m. the Rhine river*

*quibuscum = cum quibus*

**Line 9:**

*continenter, adv. constantly, continuously*

*bellum, -i, n. war*

*gerō, gerere, gessī, gestum* to wage, carry on

*quā dē causā* translate “for this reason.”

*Helvētiī, -ōrum, m. pl. the Helvetians; a people who lived in the territory corresponding to modern Switzerland.*

*quoque, adv. also*

*reliquus, -a, -um* the rest of

*virtūs, virtūtis, f. courage, manliness*

**Line 10:**

*praecēdō, praecēdere, praecessī, praecessum* to surpass, precede

*ferē, adv. almost*

*cōtīdiānus, -a, -um* daily

*proelium, -i, n. battle*

*contendō, contendere, contendi, contentum* to struggle, fight

**Lines 10–11:**

*aut . . . aut: either . . . or*

*suus, -a, -um* his, her, its, their; this adjective refers to the subject of the sentence only, no matter which word it modifies, which in this case is the Helvetians.

*finis, finis, m. end, pl. boundaries, territory; finibus: ablative of separation; translate “from.”*

**STUDY TIP**

*Cum* can be either a preposition meaning “with” or a conjunction meaning “when, since, although.” The preposition *cum* takes the ablative while the conjunction *cum* takes a verb. The presence of an ablative or a verb in the vicinity of *cum* will help you determine the word’s function, and, therefore, which meaning to use. As a preposition, *cum* typically precedes the noun it governs but is usually joined to first and second-person pronouns (e.g., *tēcum, mēcum*), to the reflexive pronoun (*sēcum*), and to interrogative and relative pronouns (as in line 8). As a conjunction, as in line 10, *cum* signifies “time when” and takes the indicative mood.
CAESAR DÉ BELLÒ GALLICÒ 1.1, CONTINUED


NOTES AND VOCABULARY

Line 11: prohibēō, prohibēre, prohibuí, prohibitum to keep off, restrain, prevent

ēna pars: refers to the country or territory; translate “one part of their (cōrum) territory.”

Line 12: obtineō, obtinēre, obtinuī, obtentum to hold, obtain
dicō, dicere, dixi, dictum to say; in quam Gallōs obtinēre dictum est, quam is the object of obtinēre; Gallōs is the accusative subject of obtinēre; translate “which it has been said the Gauls hold.”

initium, -ī, n. beginning
capiō, capere, cēpī, captum to take, seize
Rhodanus, -ī, m. the Rhone River; the Rhone flows from Lake Geneva in Switzerland to the Mediterranean.
continēō, continēre, continuī, contentum to contain, keep, hem in, bound by

Line 13: attingō, attingere, attigi, attāctum to touch, reach, border (on)
etiam, adv. also
ab Sēquanīs et Helvētiīs: translate “on the side of the Sequanians and Helvetians.” The Sequani were a tribe of eastern Gaul.

Line 14: vergō, vergere to slope, lie
septentriō, septentriōnis, m. the seven stars comprising the Big Dipper; north
extrēmus, -a, -um farthest
orior, oriri, ortus sum to rise, arise, originate
pertinent ad: translate “extend to.”

STUDY TIP

Remember that deponent verbs like orior in line 14, although passive in form, translate actively in all indicative and subjunctive tenses.

Line 15: inferior, inferius lower
Rhēnus, -ī, m. the Rhine river
spectō (1) to look at; translate as “face” (when the verb indicates a specific direction).
in, prep. + acc. into, toward
sōl, sōlis, m. sun; orientis sōlis means “the rising sun”; translate “the east.”
TAKE NOTE

1. The province of Gallia Narbōnēnsis was organized about 120 BCE. Its chief cities were Massilia (Marseilles), an old Greek free city, and the capital, Narbō (Narbonne), a Roman colony. The Romans called this part of Gaul closest to Italy on the northwestern side Prōvincia, or the “Province.” Today the French call it Provence.

2. The names of rivers in Latin are usually masculine, including those that belong to the first declension such as the Garumna, Matrona, and Sēquana. The Garonne River forms the boundary between Aquitania and the Gaul Caesar calls Celtic. The Seine River flows across northern Gaul and with the Marne River forms a boundary with the Belgians.

3. In line 6, cultus indicates the outward characteristics of civilization (dress, habits of life, etc.); hūmānitās, the moral characteristics (refinement of thought and feeling, education, etc.).

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

1. Name in both Latin and English the three parts of Gaul that Caesar outlines.
2. Which of these three parts is the bravest and why, according to Caesar?
3. Why are the Helvetians more courageous than the Gauls?

EXERCISE 1

1. In line 1, what Latin word is the antecedent of quārum?
2. In lines 1–2, what three Latin words modify the understood noun partem?
3. In line 2, what is the case and use of ipsōrum?
4. What is the case and use of linguā in line 2?
5. In line 3, what is the tense, voice, and mood of appellantur?
6. In line 4, to what does sē refer?
7. What is the case and use of Aquītānīs in line 4?
8. In lines 4–5, what are the Latin subjects of dividit?
9. What is the case and degree of fortissimi in line 5?
10. What is the case and use of cultū in line 6?
11. What is the subject of commeant in line 7?
12. What is the antecedent of qui in line 8?
13. What is the case and use of virtūte in line 9?
14. In line 10, what is the subject of praecēdunt?
15. In line 10, what is the case and use of proeliīs?
16. In line 11, to whom does eōs refer?
17. What is the antecedent of quam in line 11?
18. In line 12, what is the tense, voice, and mood of dictum est?
19. In lines 12–14, āna pars is the subject of what four verbs?

**VOCABULARY BUILDER**

It is easier to read passages of *Dē bellō Gallicō* if you know the geographical terms for the peoples and places Caesar is discussing. Here are terms that will help you read Caesar’s Latin text. Which of these can you find on the map on p. 17?

### PEOPLE
- Galli, -ōrum, m. pl. the Gauls
- Belgae, -ārum, m. pl. the Belgians
- Aquitānī, -ōrum, m. pl. the Aquitanians
- Germānī, -ōrum, m. pl. the Germans
- Helvētīi, -ōrum, m. pl. the Helvetians
- Sēquanī, -ōrum, m. pl. the Sequanians
- Hispānī, -ōrum, m. pl. the Spaniards
- Celtae, -ārum, m. pl. the Celts
- Aeduī, -ōrum, m. pl. the Aeduans

### PLACES
- Gallia, -ae, f. Gaul
- Belgica, -ae, f. Belgium
- Aquitānia, -ae, f. Aquitania
- Germānia, -ae, f. Germany
- Helvētia, -ae, f. Helvetia
- Hispānia, -ae, f. Spain
- Gallia Celtica, -ae, f. Celtic Gaul (as opposed to the Roman provinces of Gaul)

### RIVERS
- Garumna, -ae, m. the Garonne river
- Matrona, -ae, m. the Marne river
- Sēquana, -ae m. the Seine river
- Rhēnus, -ī, m. the Rhine river
- Rhodanus, -ī, m. the Rhone river

Using the Latin glossary to help you, what are the Latin adjectives that correspond to the peoples listed above? Be careful since there are a few difficult ones in the list of people.

**Example:** Galli, -ōrum, m. pl. the Gauls    Gallus, -a, -um Gallic
LANGUAGE FACT

DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES AND PRONOUNS

- **hic, haec, hoc** (See p. 508 in Appendix D for the paradigm of *hic*.)

  The adjective forms of *hic*, meaning “this” or “these,” can modify a noun or serve as pronouns meaning “he, she, it, they.”

  \[\ldots \text{ab hōc cultū atque hūmānitāte longissimē absunt.}\]

  “They are very far away from *this* civilization and refinement.”

  \[Hī omnēs linguā, institūtīs, lēgibus inter sē differunt.\]

  (Caesar *Dē bellō Gallicō* 1.1.3–4)

  “All *these* [men] differ from one another in language, customs, and laws.”

  \[Hōs ab Aquītānīs Garumna flūmen dividit.\]

  “The Garonne river divides *them* from the Aquitanians.”

- **ille, illa, illud** (See p. 508 in Appendix D for the paradigm of *ille*.)

  As an adjective, *ille* means “that” or “those” but as a pronoun means “he, she, it, they.”

  \[\ldots \text{pertinent ad illam partem flūminis Rhēnī.}\]

  “They stretch to *that* part of the Rhine river.”

  \[Proximī sunt illīs, quī trāns Rhēnum incolunt.\]

  “They are next to *those* [men] who live across the Rhine.”

  \[Helvētiī quoque reliquōs illōs virtūte praecēdunt.\]

  “The Helvetians also surpass the rest of *them* in courage.”

- **is, ea, id** (See p. 507 in Appendix D for the paradigm of *is*.)

  The adjective forms of *is, ea, id* when serving as pronouns mean “he, she, it,” but as adjectives can also be translated as “this, these, that, those.”

  \[Aquītānia ā Garumnā flūmine ad. \ldots \text{eam partem Oceanī pertinet.} (Caesar *Dē bellō Gallicō* 1.1.16–17)\]

  “Aquitania stretches from the Garonne river to *that* part of the Ocean.”

  \[\ldots suīs finibus eōs prohibent.\]

  (Caesar *Dē bellō Gallicō* 1.1.10–11)

  “They keep *them* from their borders.”

  \[\ldots ea quae ad effēminandōs animōs pertinent important.\]

  (Caesar *Dē bellō Gallicō* 1.1.7–8)

  “They bring in *those [things]* which pertain to weakening courage.”
BY THE WAY

The demonstrative pronouns *hic* and *ille* may be used as a pair to refer to people or things that have already been mentioned. In these instances, *hic* means “latter” (to remember: think of “hook and ladder”) and *ille* means “former.”

EXERCISE 2

Identify the demonstrative pronoun/adjective in each sentence, indicate whether it is being used as a pronoun or an adjective, and translate the entire sentence.

1. Hōrum omnium fortissimī sunt Belgae.
2. Illī Belgae ab extrēmis Galliae finibus oriuntur.
3. Eōrum ūna pars, quam Galli obtinent, initium capīt ā flūmine Rhodanō.
4. Suīs finibus hunc prohibent.
5. Aquītānia ab eō flūmine ad Pŷrēnæōs montēs pertinet.
7. In eōrum finibus bellum gerunt.
8. Ferē cōtīdiānīs proeliīs cum illīs contendunt.
10. Illī Germānī quibuscum continenter Belgae bellum gerunt incolunt trāns Rhēnum.

LANGUAGE FACT

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

*qui, quae, quod* (See p. 509 in Appendix D for the paradigm of *qui*.)

The relative pronoun *qui, quae, quod* “who, whose, whom, which, that” connects its own clause to a word in another clause. This word in the other clause is called the antecedent. A relative clause governs either an indicative or a subjunctive verb. Indicative verbs are used here. (See pp. 179–180 and 542–543 for relative clauses with subjunctive verbs.) The relative pronoun takes its number and gender from its antecedent, but takes its case from its function in the clause that it introduces.

Look at these examples in which the antecedent is underlined and the relative clause is in bold.

*Aquitānia ā Garumnā flūmine ad . . . eam partem Ōceanī quae est ad Hispāniam pertinet.* (Caesar *Dē bellō Gallicō* 1.1.16–17)

“Aquitania stretches from the Garonne river to that part of the Ocean which is near Spain.”

*Proximī sunt Germānī, qui trāns Rhēnum incolunt.*

(Caesar *Dē bellō Gallicō* 1.1.8)

“They are nearest to the Germans who live across the Rhine.”
Ea quae ad effeminandos animos pertinent important.
(Caesar Dē bellō Gallicō 1.1.7–8)
“They bring in those things which pertain to weakening [their] courage.”

STUDY TIP
Sometimes the antecedent of a relative clause is an understood form of hic, is, or ille as in the example below.

... tertiam (partem incolunt) quī ipsōrum linguā Celtae, nostrā Gallī appellantur (Caesar Dē bellō Gallicō 1.1.2–3)
“Those who are called the Celts by their language, by ours the Gauls, inhabit the third part.”

BY THE WAY
When a form of the relative pronoun is found at the beginning of a Latin sentence, it is sometimes being used to link the sentence to a noun or idea in the previous sentence. This use is called the “connecting quī” and is translated by the corresponding form in English of is, hic, or ille.

Quī in finibus Gallōrum bellum gerunt.
“They wage war on the borders of the Gauls.”

Quā dē causā Helvētiī quoque reliquōs Gallōs virtūte praecēdunt.
(Caesar Dē bellō Gallicō 1.1.9–10)
“For this reason the Helvetians also surpass the remaining Gauls in courage.”

EXERCISE 3
Translate.
1. Gallia est omnis divīsa in partēs trēs, quārum ūnam partem incolunt Belgae.
2. Ūna pars, quae initium capit ā Rhodanō, continētur Garumnā flūmine.
3. Quī ā cultū atque humānitāte prōvinciae longissimē absunt fortissimī sunt.
4. Matrona, Sēquana, Garumna quae sunt tria flūmina in Galliā, sunt longissimī.
5. Quī linguā, īnstitūtīs, lēgibus inter sē differunt.
7. Militēs eis grātiās agunt ab quibus cibus ad castra importātur.
8. Belgae ab extrēmis finibus quī sunt in Galliā oriuntur.
READING 1 REDUX

You are now ready to read the passage exactly as Caesar wrote it. For this reason the words in parentheses, the special fonts, and the underlined words are no longer used. You have already seen notes in the first version of this passage, and you may refer to those notes if you need to. Additional notes for this passage are given below the text.


5 Eōrum ūna pars, quam Gallōs obtinēre dictum est, initium capit ā flūmine Rhodanō, continētur Garumnā flūmine, Ōceanō, finibus Belgārum, attingit etiam ab Sēquanīs et Helvētiis flūmen Rhēnum, vergit ad septentriōnēs. Belgae ab extrēmīs Galliae finibus oriuntur, pertinent ad inferiōrem partem flūminis Rhēnī, spectant in septentriōnem et orientem sōlem. Aquitānia ā Garumnā flūmine ad Pȳrēnaeōs montēs et eam partem Ōceanī quae est ad Hispāniam pertinet; spectat inter occāsum sōlis et septentriōnēs.

NOTES AND VOCABULARY

Line 1: Note how partem is to be understood from the word partēs earlier in the sentence with both aliam and tertiam.

BY THE WAY

It is called ELLIPSIS when one or more words are needed to complete the thought in one or more clauses. See p. 194 for more detailed information on ELLIPSIS.

Line 2: Notice that linguā is to be understood with nostrā from the previous phrase. This is another example of ELLIPSIS.

Line 9: suis finibus is an example of an ablative of separation, which in some instances features the preposition ā, ab and in other instances does not.
ESSAY

Caesar discusses the factors that he believes contribute to the bravery, first of the Belgians and then of the Helvetians. In a short essay identify these factors. Point out and explain the significance of the factor that he mentions in the case of the Belgians but not of the Helvetians.

What does this omission indicate?

Support your assertions with references to the Latin text. All Latin words must be copied or their line numbers provided, AND they must be translated or paraphrased closely enough that it is clear that you understand the Latin. Direct your answer to the question; do not merely summarize the passage. Please write your essay on a separate piece of paper.