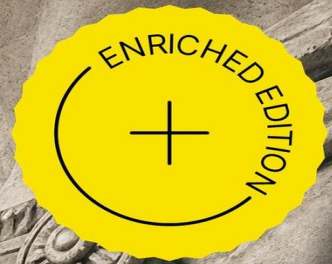
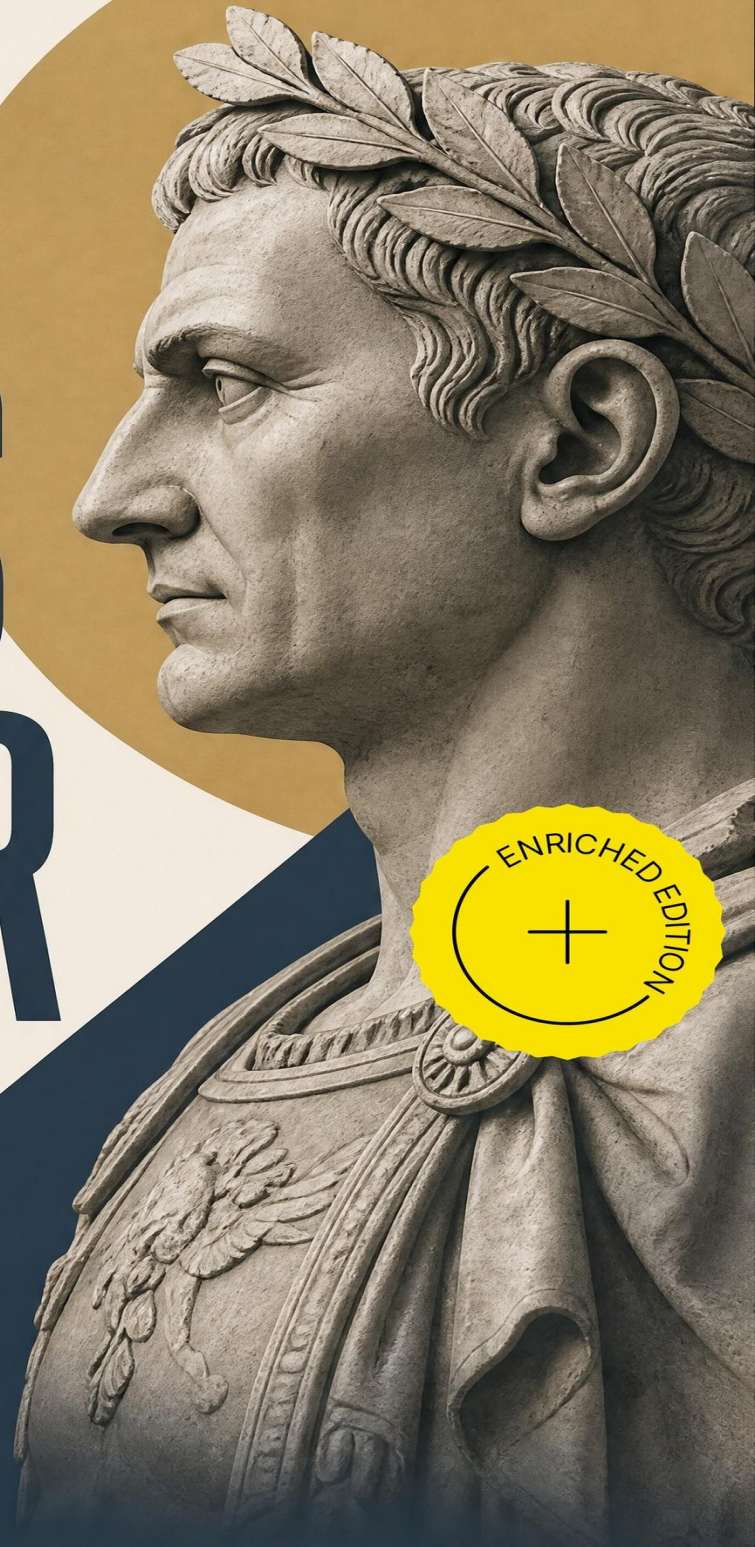


HISTORY OF JULIUS CAESAR

(VOL. 1&2)
(ANNOTATED)



NAPOLEON III
EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH

Napoleon III Emperor of the French

History of Julius Caesar (Vol. 1&2) (Annotated)

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and the Political Imagination of Empire**

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Introduction, Studies and Commentaries by Maeve Westcroft

Edited and published by e-artnow, 2021

EAN: 4066338129888

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Introduction

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In the figure of Julius Caesar, political genius and military force meet at the point where a republic begins to change into something new. Napoleon III's *History of Julius Caesar* approaches that turning point with unusual ambition, presenting not merely a life of a famous Roman, but an interpretation of one of the decisive careers in ancient history. From the outset, the work asks readers to consider how individual energy, institutional weakness, and national expansion interact in moments of crisis. Its subject is remote in time, yet the issues it raises—leadership, legitimacy, reform, and power—remain immediately recognizable to every age that studies the rise and strain of states.

This book holds classic status because it stands at a rare intersection of history, politics, and literature. It is a major nineteenth-century attempt by a reigning sovereign to write a sustained historical account of one of antiquity's most consequential statesmen. That circumstance alone gives it a distinctive place in the history of historical writing, but its importance extends further. The work helped shape modern popular understanding of Caesar as more than a conqueror or a usurper, inviting readers to see him within the larger movement of Roman society. Its broad interpretive design, rhetorical energy, and political seriousness gave it an influence beyond its immediate moment.

Napoleon III, Emperor of the French, composed the work during his reign in the mid-nineteenth century, and the two volumes were published in the 1860s. The title itself announces the author's purpose: to examine the life and

career of Julius Caesar through a full historical narrative rather than a brief biographical sketch. Written in French and quickly disseminated in other languages, the book belongs to a period when ancient history carried direct political meaning for modern Europe. By returning to Rome's late republican struggles, Napoleon III addressed not only the ancient past but also enduring questions about order, reform, conquest, and the authority of exceptional leaders.

The central premise of the History of Julius Caesar is that Caesar's career cannot be understood in isolation from the long development of Rome and the pressures that transformed its institutions. Napoleon III therefore treats his subject as the product and agent of a historical process. The volumes situate Caesar within Rome's expansion, internal conflicts, and social tensions, presenting his actions as responses to forces larger than personal ambition alone. Without reducing the man to circumstances, the book argues for a capacious view of history in which character and structure continually shape one another. That interpretive method gives the narrative both scale and coherence.

Part of the book's lasting appeal lies in its literary construction. Napoleon III writes with a clear sense of movement, arranging military campaigns, civic conflicts, and political debates into a narrative that seeks both explanation and drama. The prose aims at elevation without abandoning practical detail, a balance especially important in a subject where geography, logistics, and institutions matter as much as personality. This combination helped make the work accessible to readers beyond narrow scholarly circles. It belongs to a tradition of historical writing that treats the past as intellectually serious and imaginatively vivid, and it demonstrates how style can shape the reception of historical argument.

Its influence on later writers and readers rests less on the discovery of a new anecdote than on the force of its perspective. By presenting Caesar as a world-historical figure whose actions answered real defects in the Roman system, Napoleon III contributed to a durable modern image of the statesman as both reformer and conqueror. Historians, biographers, essayists, and general readers encountered here a grand interpretive framework that would remain part of discussions about Caesar long afterward. Even where later scholarship corrected, refined, or challenged aspects of nineteenth-century historical method, the book endured as a significant example of how biography can become a meditation on political transformation.

The work also deserves attention as a document of its own century. Nineteenth-century Europe was intensely occupied with the ancient world, not only as a field of learning but as a reservoir of political models and warnings. In that context, Julius Caesar was never merely an antiquarian subject. He represented questions about the fate of republics, the uses of military success, and the possibility that one commanding individual might claim to resolve prolonged civic disorder. Napoleon III's study emerges from that atmosphere of historical comparison. Its argument and emphasis reflect a time when writing about Rome could serve as a way of thinking about modern government itself.

Yet the History of Julius Caesar is not important only because of the position of its author. It has remained noteworthy because it addresses perennial tensions that continue to animate historical inquiry. How do states adapt when older institutions no longer match new realities? When reform is delayed, what forms of power step in to settle accumulated conflict? What is the relation between military achievement and civil authority? By organizing Caesar's

story around such questions, Napoleon III gives the work a reach beyond biography. Readers are invited to think not simply about what happened, but about the conditions that make certain political outcomes possible.

The two volumes also show why Caesar's life repeatedly returns to the center of historical imagination. He stands at the meeting point of expansion abroad and instability at home, of administrative talent and personal authority, of republican language and monarchical consequence. A historian who writes about Caesar must therefore write simultaneously about war, law, citizenship, class tension, and public memory. Napoleon III embraces that breadth. His account treats Roman history as a living field of competing interests and long accumulations, not as a fixed background for isolated heroics. This breadth has helped preserve the book's value for readers seeking a large, synthetic interpretation.

For modern readers, one of the book's chief attractions lies in the disciplined seriousness with which it asks us to view political change. It does not reduce history to moral caricature, nor does it present public life as a sequence of accidents detached from institutions. Instead, it insists that major historical actors emerge in relation to structural pressures, inherited traditions, and collective expectations. That seriousness has kept the work relevant even as historiography has evolved. Readers may approach it today with critical awareness of its period and perspective, yet they still find in it an energetic attempt to explain how a civilization reaches a decisive threshold and why one life can crystallize that passage.

As an introduction to Caesar, the book offers more than a portrait of a celebrated commander. It offers entry into the wider drama of Rome's late republican world, where

conquest expanded the state even as internal tensions deepened. Napoleon III's narrative method encourages readers to see events not as disconnected episodes but as parts of an unfolding political problem. That approach has been especially attractive to later writers interested in the relationship between biography and historical process. The work shows how a single career can become a lens through which larger transformations are made intelligible, and that ambition is one reason it continues to command attention.

The enduring appeal of the History of Julius Caesar lies in this union of narrative force, political reflection, and historical scope. It remains a classic not because every judgment must be accepted unchanged, but because it exemplifies the power of history to interpret leadership, crisis, and institutional change on a grand scale. In an age still preoccupied with strained constitutions, charismatic authority, and the pressures that test public systems, its themes retain striking immediacy. Napoleon III's study returns readers to ancient Rome, but it also directs them toward questions that have never ceased to matter, ensuring its continued relevance and its lasting place in historical literature.

Synopsis

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Napoleon III's History of Julius Caesar, issued in two volumes during the 1860s, presents itself as both a biography and a historical argument about Rome's late Republic. The work opens by explaining why Caesar deserves renewed study and by outlining the political and social conditions that made his rise possible. Napoleon III frames Roman history as a struggle between exhausted republican forms and the demands of a vast imperial state. From the outset, he treats Caesar less as an isolated conqueror than as the product of long-term institutional tensions, class conflict, military expansion, and administrative strain.

The narrative then turns to early Rome and the gradual formation of the republican system whose strengths eventually became sources of instability. Napoleon III surveys the growth of Roman power in Italy and beyond, emphasizing how conquest altered wealth, citizenship, and the balance between senate, magistrates, and popular assemblies. He pays close attention to the widening gap between traditional constitutional ideals and practical government. This broad background is meant to show that the Republic's crises did not begin with Caesar. Instead, they emerged from cumulative pressures that transformed Roman society and made earlier political arrangements increasingly difficult to sustain.

A substantial portion of the argument examines the reform attempts that preceded Caesar's maturity, especially the conflicts associated with popular leaders and aristocratic resistance. Napoleon III presents these struggles as evidence of a recurring pattern: efforts to address social and

political grievances were often blocked by entrenched interests, producing repeated unrest. Figures such as the Gracchi, Marius, and Sulla are introduced not merely as predecessors but as stages in a deepening constitutional crisis. Through them, the book traces how violence, personal armies, and emergency powers eroded republican norms while also revealing the need for more coherent national administration.

Against this backdrop, Caesar's family background, education, and early public life are placed within the factional world of Roman politics. Napoleon III follows his emergence through legal, religious, and military offices, stressing his adaptability and his ability to gain support across different constituencies. The account highlights his links to earlier popular traditions while also noting his skill in operating within elite competition. Caesar's early career is thus shown as a preparation for larger responsibilities rather than a sudden ascent. The author uses these episodes to define the qualities he sees as central to Caesar: political intelligence, practical judgment, and strategic patience.

The first volume gives significant weight to Caesar's alliance-building and to the shifting balance among leading men at Rome. Napoleon III examines the arrangements that later historians call the First Triumvirate, not as a simple conspiracy, but as a response to institutional paralysis and rival ambitions. He traces how electoral struggles, provincial commands, and legislative disputes expanded Caesar's room for action. The narrative remains attentive to the legal and constitutional language used by all sides, showing how competing claims to legitimacy shaped events. This part of the work asks whether extraordinary leadership arose from personal ambition alone or from systemic failure.

Military narrative becomes more prominent as the work follows Caesar to Gaul. Napoleon III recounts the campaigns in a measured, chronological way, combining political interpretation with close interest in geography, logistics, and command decisions. He treats the Gallic wars as central to Caesar's development, since they enlarged his resources, reputation, and relationship with his army while also extending Roman power. The description emphasizes the complexity of the peoples and regions involved, as well as the scale of the operational challenges. Rather than presenting conquest simply as battlefield triumph, the book links military success to administration, intelligence, and sustained planning.

As the second volume advances, attention returns increasingly to Rome, where Caesar's growing prestige sharpened conflict with his rivals. Napoleon III traces the deterioration of relations between major political actors and the mounting disputes over office, command, and legal immunity. He presents the crisis as one in which constitutional procedures could no longer contain mutual distrust or reconcile incompatible political aims. The approach remains argumentative as well as narrative, inviting readers to consider where responsibility lay and whether the Republic still possessed workable mechanisms for peaceful transition. Caesar's choices are therefore set within a larger contest over sovereignty and public order.

The account of civil war follows the expansion of Caesar's power across the Roman world while keeping focus on organization, policy, and the difficulties of governing amid conflict. Napoleon III discusses campaigns, negotiations, and administrative measures as parts of a single political struggle rather than as isolated military episodes. He portrays Caesar as seeking not only victory over opponents but the reconstruction of stable authority after prolonged

disorder. Throughout, the work examines how clemency, reform, and central direction figured in Caesar's conduct. The narrative remains concerned with the practical problem that underlies the whole book: how a vast state could be governed effectively.

Across both volumes, Napoleon III offers an interpretation of Caesar as a statesman shaped by historical necessity and as a figure through whom the weaknesses of the late Republic become legible. The book's lasting interest lies not only in its portrait of one Roman leader but also in its broader meditation on legitimacy, reform, and the tension between inherited institutions and social change. Without reducing history to a single cause, it argues that political forms must answer the realities they govern. For that reason, the work endures as a revealing nineteenth-century reading of antiquity and of the uses of historical biography in political thought.

Historical Context

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Napoleon III's *History of Julius Caesar* appeared in the mid-1860s, when the Second French Empire shaped public life in France and classical antiquity still provided a common language for politics. Louis-Napoleon Bonaparte had become president of the Second Republic in 1848, then emperor in 1852 after the coup d'état of December 1851. His regime combined universal male suffrage with strong executive power, administrative centralization, censorship, and carefully managed public opinion. In that setting, a large historical study of Caesar was not an antiquarian pastime alone. It belonged to a political culture in which Roman examples, especially the fate of republics and empires, carried immediate contemporary significance.

The author's own career explains much of the book's urgency. Born in 1808, Louis-Napoleon was the nephew of Napoleon I and spent long periods in exile after the Bourbon Restoration. He attempted insurrections at Strasbourg in 1836 and Boulogne in 1840, failed, and was imprisoned at Ham before escaping in 1846. During these years he wrote political works, including *Ideas Napoléoniennes*, arguing that strong, nationally representative authority could reconcile order and popular sovereignty. That intellectual trajectory matters for the *History of Julius Caesar*, because the emperor approached Roman history through questions that had long preoccupied him: legitimacy, social conflict, leadership, and the capacity of a single statesman to complete reforms blocked by divided elites.

The immediate composition of the *History* also reflects the institutions of the imperial state. Napoleon III did not work in

isolation: he relied on scholarly commissions, archivists, military officers, mapmakers, and archaeologists. The project drew on the expanding nineteenth-century apparatus of historical research, including critical editions, epigraphy, topography, and excavation. Under his patronage, investigations were carried out at sites associated with Caesar's campaigns, most famously at Alise-Sainte-Reine, identified by the imperial commission as Alesia. This blend of scholarship and state prestige was characteristic of the age. The book therefore emerged at the intersection of personal authorship, official resources, and a broader European confidence in scientific history.

The subject itself reached back to the final centuries of the Roman Republic, especially the first century BCE. Rome's institutions formally remained republican: magistracies elected annually, the Senate as a deliberative aristocratic body, and assemblies of citizens with legal authority. Yet Roman expansion around the Mediterranean had transformed the scale of government, warfare, wealth, and inequality. Provincial conquest enriched commanders and tax-farmers, while competition among elite families intensified. The book places Caesar within this world of strained republican forms and social dislocation. Napoleon III presents Rome's crisis as the product not only of ambition but also of institutions no longer suited to the enlarged state they were expected to govern.

One major background theme is the long conflict between popular demands and senatorial oligarchy. From the second century BCE onward, reform efforts such as those associated with Tiberius and Gaius Gracchus exposed disputes over land distribution, citizenship, debt, and the political power of the urban plebs and Italian allies. Later upheavals, including the Social War of roughly 91 to 88 BCE and the civil conflicts involving Marius and Sulla, further

destabilized republican consensus. Napoleon III's narrative echoes these developments by stressing structural causes of disorder. In his interpretation, Caesar appears less as an isolated destroyer of liberty than as a figure emerging from decades of unresolved social and constitutional conflict.

Roman military transformation is equally important to the book's setting. By Caesar's lifetime, armies were increasingly tied to commanders through long campaigns, expectations of booty, and hopes of land grants after service. The state's expansion had made generals central political actors, while provincial wars offered opportunities for glory and patronage. Caesar's rise depended on this military world, including the command structures and logistical capacities of late republican warfare. Napoleon III, himself a ruler deeply interested in military organization, writes with marked attention to strategy, movement, terrain, and command. His treatment mirrors nineteenth-century habits of military history while using Roman campaigns to explore the relationship between victory, legitimacy, and political authority.

The volumes also reflect the importance of Gaul in both ancient and modern historical imagination. Caesar's Gallic campaigns, roughly 58 to 50 BCE, became central to French historical memory because they joined the Roman past to the territory later identified with France. In the nineteenth century, debates about national origins often invoked Celts, Gauls, Franks, and Romans as ancestral layers. Napoleon III engaged directly with this tradition. By narrating Caesar's conquest while supporting archaeological study of Gallic sites, he linked classical history to the making of modern national identity. The book thus belongs to an era when scholarship, patriotism, and state-sponsored commemoration were closely intertwined.

Archaeology and topography gave the work a distinctive contemporary character. Nineteenth-century Europe saw rapid growth in field archaeology, museum culture, and the collection of inscriptions and coins. Advances in surveying, cartography, and publication made it possible to reconstruct ancient battlefields and routes with new precision. Napoleon III's interest in locating Alesia exemplified this approach. The imperial investigations were part scholarly inquiry and part political symbolism, presenting the regime as a patron of science and national history. In the *History*, geographical detail and material evidence serve to strengthen the narrative's authority, showing how modern historical method could be used to reassess ancient testimony rather than simply repeat it.

The book was also shaped by the European political climate after 1848. Revolutions across the continent had challenged monarchies, raised democratic expectations, and exposed fears of social upheaval. In France, the Second Republic briefly expanded participation, but conflict between assembly and executive culminated in Louis-Napoleon's seizure of power. These experiences made the collapse of republican systems a pressing contemporary concern. When Napoleon III wrote about Roman faction, parliamentary obstruction, and the inability of old elites to reform in time, readers could scarcely miss the analogy. The work does not function as a neutral chronicle alone; it is informed by a modern debate about whether strong personal rule might stabilize societies that representative institutions had failed to govern effectively.

That debate was central to Bonapartism, the political tradition in which the author placed himself. Bonapartism claimed to unite national sovereignty, social reform, and administrative efficiency under a charismatic executive ratified by plebiscite. It criticized both hereditary privilege

and partisan parliamentary oligarchy, while promising order, prosperity, and national greatness. In the History of Julius Caesar, Caesar is often interpreted through that lens: as a man of action confronting an exhausted aristocracy and carrying forward necessary change. This does not erase the ancient specifics of Roman politics, but it clearly influences emphasis and moral framing. The book therefore illuminates how a modern regime used the classical past to articulate its own political philosophy.

Economic and social developments under Napoleon III also matter for understanding the book's resonance. The Second Empire oversaw major railway expansion, urban reconstruction in Paris under Haussmann, banking growth, industrial development, and freer trade, notably after the Anglo-French treaty of 1860. At the same time, workers, peasants, and the lower middle class experienced uneven benefits and persistent insecurity. Official rhetoric celebrated material progress guided from above by a capable state. This helps explain the emperor's attraction to Caesar as an organizer and builder as well as a conqueror. The Roman story could be read as an ancient precedent for the idea that energetic centralized leadership could overcome stagnation and reorder society on a larger scale.

The work must also be placed within the broader nineteenth-century culture of history writing. This was the age of Michelet, Mommsen, and other influential historians who treated the past as essential to national education and political debate. Historical scholarship became more professional, yet it remained deeply engaged with contemporary values. Napoleon III's Caesar entered an already active field of classical interpretation, including Theodor Mommsen's Roman History, which had presented Caesar as a world-historical statesman. Although differing in method and purpose, both works emerged from a century

fascinated by great individuals, state formation, and the transition from republic to empire. The emperor's study thus participated in a transnational conversation about antiquity and modern governance.

French cultural institutions under the Second Empire reinforced that conversation. Education in lycées and elite schools emphasized Latin authors, rhetoric, and Roman exempla. Public monuments, salons, official ceremonies, and printed illustration helped circulate historical images to broad audiences. The emperor's own patronage of museums, excavations, and publishing linked political authority to the stewardship of civilization. In this environment, a study of Caesar could address both scholars and the educated public. Its classical subject was familiar, but its message was contemporary. The book used the prestige of ancient Rome to speak to a society in which history was not only learned in classrooms but also displayed, commemorated, and mobilized by the state.

The international position of the Second Empire forms another relevant backdrop. Napoleon III pursued an active foreign policy: the Crimean War in the 1850s, intervention in Italy that contributed to the weakening of Austrian control in parts of the peninsula, and later the ill-fated Mexican expedition beginning in the 1860s. These ventures were justified in part through appeals to national prestige, strategic balance, and civilizational mission. Although the History of Julius Caesar concerns antiquity, its sustained interest in conquest, provincial administration, and the responsibilities of power resonated with an age of imperial competition. Readers could find in the Roman example reflections on the ambitions and burdens of modern European states.

The timing of publication is significant as well. The first volume appeared in 1865 and the second in 1866, just before the Second Empire entered a more openly liberal phase under mounting political pressure. By then opposition journalists, republicans, and some liberals increasingly challenged authoritarian controls, while military and diplomatic setbacks would soon weaken the regime further. In this context, a grand historical justification of decisive leadership could be read as a defense of the emperor's own system at a moment of uncertainty. The book's attention to failed oligarchies and necessary concentration of power therefore had immediate relevance within contemporary France, even when expressed through close discussion of Roman sources and campaigns.

At the level of interpretation, the History of Julius Caesar is notable for what it stresses and what it downplays. It emphasizes the incapacity of the senatorial order, the need for reform, and the scale of Caesar's administrative and military talent. Such emphases were not unique to Napoleon III, but in his hands they support a broader claim that institutions can become historically obsolete and that exceptional leadership may then appear not merely destructive but restorative. Critics in his own time recognized this tendency and often read the book as self-justifying. The historical context therefore includes not only Roman events but also nineteenth-century argument over whether Caesarism was a warning against dictatorship or a remedy for political paralysis.

Seen in full context, the book serves as both a study of late republican Rome and a mirror of the Second Empire. It emerged from a regime that prized centralized authority, popular ratification, administrative modernization, military prestige, and the political use of history. It drew on real advances in scholarship and archaeology while directing

them toward a morally charged interpretation of Rome's crisis. For modern readers, its lasting interest lies partly in that dual character. Napoleon III's Caesar is not simply the ancient statesman reconstructed from evidence; he is also a figure through whom a nineteenth-century emperor reflected on revolution, order, reform, and the legitimacy of personal power in an age of mass politics.

Author Biography

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Napoleon III, born Louis-Napoléon Bonaparte in 1808, was Emperor of the French from 1852 to 1870 and one of the defining political figures of nineteenth-century Europe. A nephew of Napoleon I, he spent much of his early life in exile after the fall of the First Empire, then rose from political outsider to president of the Second Republic and finally sovereign of the Second Empire. His career combined electoral legitimacy, authoritarian rule, economic modernization, and ambitious diplomacy. He remains significant for reshaping France's state and capital, expanding industry and infrastructure, and leaving a deeply contested legacy because of both domestic transformation and military failure.

His education was shaped less by a single formal institution than by the cosmopolitan conditions of exile in Switzerland, Germany, and Italy. He received a broad practical and military-oriented training and grew up amid the memory of the Napoleonic era, which strongly influenced his political imagination. Publicly documented intellectual influences included Bonapartist ideas of strong executive government, popular sovereignty expressed through plebiscites, and the social questions raised by industrial change. He also absorbed elements from Saint-Simonian and other reform currents that emphasized economic development, public works, and modernization. These influences later appeared in both his writing and his policies as ruler.

Before achieving power, Louis-Napoléon sought to establish himself through political action and print. He became known in the 1830s and 1840s for unsuccessful attempts to seize

power, episodes that led to imprisonment and then another period of exile. During these years he wrote several political works intended to define a distinct Bonapartist program. Among the best known are "Des idées napoléoniennes" and "L'Extinction du paupérisme," texts that presented Napoleonism as a synthesis of authority, national unity, and social concern. These works helped him cultivate an image not only as a claimant to power but also as a political thinker addressing order, prosperity, and poverty.

The revolution of 1848 transformed his prospects. Returning to France, he was elected to the National Assembly and then won the presidential election of December 1848 by a large margin, drawing support from voters who associated his name with stability and national prestige. As president of the Second Republic, he faced constitutional limits that barred immediate reelection. In 1851 he carried out the coup d'état that ended the republic's parliamentary framework, and after plebiscitary approval he became emperor in 1852. His regime initially imposed press controls and political surveillance, yet it consistently sought public endorsement through elections and plebiscites.

As emperor, Napoleon III presided over far-reaching economic and administrative change. His government promoted railway construction, banking expansion, freer trade in parts of his reign, and large public works programs. The most visible symbol of the era was the transformation of Paris under Baron Haussmann, with new boulevards, parks, sanitation systems, and monumental urban planning intended to modernize the capital. He also encouraged agricultural improvement and industrial exhibition culture while supporting French imperial expansion overseas. Critical reception of his rule was divided from the start: admirers credited him with prosperity and modernization,

while opponents condemned censorship, manipulation of institutions, and the concentration of personal power.

Foreign policy brought both prestige and mounting risk. Napoleon III sought to restore French influence in Europe and beyond, intervening in the Crimean War and supporting the cause that contributed to Italian unification, while also pursuing ventures in Asia and the Middle East. His most damaging overseas enterprise was the intervention in Mexico, which ended unsuccessfully and harmed the regime's standing. During the 1860s he gradually liberalized aspects of imperial government, allowing greater parliamentary debate and loosening some controls on public life. Even so, the empire remained vulnerable to diplomatic miscalculation, especially as Prussia's power expanded under new leadership.

The decisive collapse came with the Franco-Prussian War of 1870. Napoleon III was captured at Sedan, the Second Empire fell, and he spent his final years in exile in England, where he died in 1873. Historians continue to debate his place in French history, but his importance is secure. He helped shape the modern administrative and urban landscape of France, advanced a model of authoritarian democracy grounded in popular consultation, and left a body of political writing that illuminates his aims. Contemporary relevance lies in the enduring questions his career raises about modernization, executive power, mass politics, and the costs of ambitious foreign policy.

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[159](#) A quaestor was a Roman public official responsible mainly for financial administration, though in military settings one could also serve as a senior staff officer. In Caesar's army, a quaestor could be placed in command of a legion, reflecting how Roman offices were often adapted to wartime needs.

[160](#) The battle of Pharsalia was fought in 48 BCE between Julius Caesar and Pompey during the Roman civil war. Caesar's victory there was decisive and led to Pompey's final defeat, making it a key turning point in the struggle for power at Rome.

[161](#) Lugdunum is the Roman name for modern Lyon, one of the most important cities in Gaul and later a major administrative center of the Roman province. The footnote explains a tradition that refugees from Vienne founded the settlement at a place called Condate, meaning a confluence, referring to the meeting of rivers at Lyon.

[162](#) This Latinized phrase means roughly "a Gallic winter." It reflects the Roman view that winters in northern Gaul were especially harsh and arrived early, a climate reference used to characterize the region in ancient sources.

[163](#) Paulus Diaconus (Paul the Deacon) was an 8th-century Lombard monk and historian, best known for his history of the Lombards. In this footnote, he is cited as an authority on the origin of the word "oppidum," showing how the author relies on later classical and medieval scholarship to explain ancient terminology.

[164](#) Strabo was a Greek geographer and historian of the late Hellenistic and early Roman periods. The reference points readers to Book IV of his Geography, where he describes

Gaulish customs, housing, and other ethnographic details used here to support claims about Gallic life.

[165](#) Ammianus Marcellinus was a 4th-century Roman historian and former soldier, best known for his later account of the Roman Empire. His remarks are cited here for descriptions of the Gauls' appearance and temperament, illustrating how ancient ethnography often blended observation with stereotype.

[166](#) This is Julius Caesar's own account of the Gallic Wars, written in Latin. Napoleon III frequently cites it to anchor his arguments about geography, troop movements, and chronology, so the footnotes often debate how Caesar's wording should be interpreted.

[167](#) The Peutinger Table was a late Roman copy of an ancient road map showing routes, towns, and distances across the Roman world. Historians use it to reconstruct travel routes, but its distortions and later copy history make some identifications uncertain.

[168](#) In the Roman calendar, the Ides were a fixed date marker; in April they fell on the 13th, not the 8th. The footnote's date is using a modernized or mistaken conversion, which can confuse readers unfamiliar with Roman dating.

[169](#) A phalanx was a dense infantry formation originally associated with Greek warfare, but ancient writers sometimes used the term more loosely for any tightly packed body of troops. Here it describes the Germans trying to advance as a shielded mass against Roman lines.

[170](#) The vineæ were mobile shelters or covered galleries used by Roman troops during sieges to protect soldiers from missiles while approaching walls. They were a standard

piece of Roman siege equipment, made of wood, hurdles, and hides, and pushed forward toward the fortifications.

[171](#) This is the Latin name for the great ancient forest that covered much of what is now Kent and Sussex in southeastern England. In the nineteenth-century historical geography used here, it helps explain how heavily wooded the region once was and why Roman movement through it was difficult.

[172](#) This is an uncertain manuscript reading for a British tribal or regional name mentioned in Caesar's campaigns. The note reflects scholarly debate over whether the text should be read as a single group, the Cenimagni, or split into separate peoples such as the Iceni and the Cangi.

[173](#) In the Roman calendar, the calends were the first day of the month. Roman dates were often counted backward from fixed points such as the calends, ides, and nones, so the modern equivalent must be converted carefully.

[174](#) The ides were another fixed point in the Roman calendar, usually the 13th day of the month, but the 15th in some months. Here the note explains the conversion to a modern date and shows how Roman letter dates are being synchronized with the modern calendar.

[175](#) A testudo was a Roman siege machine, literally meaning "tortoise." It was usually a covered wooden shelter or gallery used to protect soldiers while they advanced, filled ditches, or worked against walls during a siege.

[176](#) Evocati were veteran Roman soldiers who reenlisted voluntarily after completing their service. They were valued for experience and discipline, and Caesar could use them as seasoned troops in difficult campaigns.

[177](#) These were hidden ground obstacles, often sharp stakes or iron points, placed to injure attackers advancing toward fortifications. Caesar's soldiers reportedly gave them this name at Alesia, and the note suggests the device was a relatively new type of field defense.

[178](#) A.U.C. means "ab urbe condita," counting years from the traditional founding of Rome in 753 BCE. Year 698 A.U.C. corresponds roughly to 56 BCE, though Roman chronological systems can vary slightly in modern conversion.

[179](#) In the Roman calendar, the Ides were a fixed day in each month, usually the 13th or the 15th. Here it refers to the political timing of land settlements in Campania, a disputed issue in the years around Caesar's rise.

[180](#) This refers to Appius Claudius Pulcher, a Roman aristocrat active in the late Republic and a supporter of Pompey. Cicero's mention of his visit to Caesar reflects the elite networking and political bargaining that shaped appointments and alliances.

[181](#) Fasces were bundles of rods carried by lictors as symbols of Roman magistrates' authority. The note explains that the "120 fasces" at Lucca would have represented the combined escort of multiple magistrates, not a single officeholder.

[182](#) The conference of Lucca was a political meeting in 56 BCE where Caesar, Pompey, and Crassus renewed their alliance and arranged offices and commands. It was a major moment in the First Triumvirate, helping secure their power over Roman politics.

[183](#) The Parthians were the eastern empire that Rome fought in Mesopotamia and beyond. They are central to the disaster of Crassus's campaign, since their cavalry tactics