

Roman Government through the Centuries

c.700 BCE to c.200 CE

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There are two versions of this PowerPoint presentation, one with on-screen notes and one without.

In both cases, the Presentation Notes here can be used to provide further information.

This presentation and these notes assume knowledge of the history of Ancient Rome. For a quick overview of this, see our Premium Unit, The Rise and Fall of Ancient Rome.

Introduction

In this PowerPoint presentation, a sequence of slides forms an interactive diagram tracing the evolution of Roman government over the centuries. It covers the period from Rome's early days under the kings, through the Republic and ending in the early Empire, or Principate.

The diagram is designed to give a clear overview of how the governing institutions operated and connected to one another, and how they developed over time. The predominant theme is of increasing complexity, as the Roman state grappled with the consequences of growth. Towards the end, though, a new story comes to the fore: one of near-collapse followed by restoration.

It should be noted here that Rome's political structures were far too complex to be treated in full, without the whole presentation becoming lost in the detail. It is therefore designed as a bird's eye view which should allow users to get a clear idea of the overall government system as it grew and developed, then experienced decline and breakdown, and finally restoration and renewal.

Why is all this important?

It is impossible to understand the history of the West without a knowledge of the Roman Empire. Even more, it is impossible to understand Western systems of government - and therefore, in today's global civilization, worldwide systems of government - without a knowledge of Roman government and its development.

A brief look at our political language will underscore this point. Many states have **senates**. A newspaper or politician who claims to champion the cause of the people against the establishment is given the label **tribune**. Disputes are dealt with through **legal** processes. Matters of general interest are discussed in the public **forum**. A man who seizes power for himself is called a **dictator**. A member of the elite is described as a **patrician**. And much more.

Not just language, but political concepts such as the **separation of powers** and the legal underpinnings of **private property** also hark back to pioneering Roman antecedents.

All this shows that many elements of today's political process are framed in terms of concepts laid down by the ancient Romans, and that they were crucial in the development of Western government.

A suggestion:

To keep your students more engaged (and, by the way, if your students are not engaged or benefitting from these maps, then let us know and we'll refund your money!), a possible approach is to start each new slide with a question: *How is this one different from the previous slide?*

Presentation Notes

Slide 1: The Kings of Rome

In its earliest days as a city-state, Rome was ruled by kings. According to tradition, this was from the foundation of the city, in 753 BCE, down to 509 BCE.

There were, according to these traditions, seven kings in total. They stood above the rest of the Roman community; in fact, most were not even from Rome. Romulus was the first king, and as the founder could not have come from Rome (by legend, his ancestors came from Troy). One of the kings was from a neighbouring hill tribe (the Sabines), two were Etruscans (a people to the north of Rome), and one was of slave origin.

The founding legends of Rome probably reflect a reality, which was that the early city-state grew by taking in populations from round about and melding them into one community. The leading families among these peoples formed the ruling class of the new state, the Patricians.

The early Roman community

The Kings ruled over a community which was divided into two groups. *[Look at the key at the bottom left of the screen.]*

The Patricians

These made up the smaller of the two groups. The word “Patrician” comes from “*patres*”, which means “fathers” (we still sometimes call the leading members of a city, the “city-fathers”).

The Patricians were small in number, but were the leading families of Rome. They were the richest and most powerful families of the community.

As Rome, like all pre-modern societies, had a mainly agricultural economy, this meant that they were the leading landowners.

The Plebeians

This group made up the great majority of the Roman population, far outnumbering the Patricians. They were mostly poor farmers, but the group also included craft workers and traders. A few Plebeian families were probably quite wealthy, but even so lacked the prestige and authority belonging to Patrician families.

Other groups

There were other groups who lived in early Rome. One of these was the slaves, who were unfree and outside the formal Roman community. The other group were citizens of other states living in Rome, mostly as merchants. Neither of these groups played any part in Roman government, and so do not appear in these diagram.

Slide 2: The Senate

The Kings were advised by a council of the leading men in Rome, called the Senate. The word “senate” is derived from the Latin word *senex*, “old man”, and means something like “council of elders”).

This was one of the most famous political institutions in ancient Rome. Unlike senates in most modern countries, its members were not elected for a set number of years. Once a man became a senator, he remained one for the rest of his life.

In early times the senators must have been appointed by the kings. Contrary to some of the traditional stories, they almost certainly all came from the Patrician group *[as denoted in the diagrams by the colour red]*.

Slide 3: Citizens

Two more institutions of the early Roman state need to be mentioned, the Assemblies and the Army.

These were both made up of all Roman citizens, whether Patrician or Plebeian.

When we talk about “all Roman citizens”, what we actually mean is “all free adult males from families with citizen status”. Throughout its history, only men could participate in politics in any formal way - not women, nor children, nor slaves, nor foreigners.

In this, Rome was typical of states with democratic institutions right up to modern times.

Assemblies

Note that, under the monarchy, these assemblies did NOT include a very important assembly that came later - the Plebeian Assembly.

Different Assemblies

In the diagram, the assemblies are shown as just one box. In fact there were several of them. The main ones were the Curial Assembly (which dealt with family matters), the Tribal Assembly (with deal with civil matters such as trade and property), and the Centuriate Assembly (military matters). It would have made the diagram just too complicated to show them in detail. Nevertheless, all the assemblies had one over-riding role - to give all citizens a voice - however limited - in government decisions.

Limited but real power

Rome emerged into the light of history, no law could come into force until it had been approved by one or other of the assemblies. Also, when gathered into the

Centuriate Assembly, citizens had the opportunity to vote on whether or not to go to war.

The Army

It was important for the whole citizen body to vote on whether or not to go to war, because the Roman army was the citizens-in-arms.

Most of the citizens would fight as foot soldiers, but those able to afford a horse (the *equites*, or knights) would form the cavalry. Patricians would belong to the latter branch, and some would no doubt serve as officers, under the overall command of the king.

The Roman army in early days was similar to Greek armies - a large body of men fighting as a single formation. It did not take on the famous distinctive features that it had later when it became organized around legions and centuries.

Slide 4: The Republic

In about 500 BCE (the traditional date was 509 BCE), the Romans expelled their kings. Rome became a Republic.

Consuls

The kings were replaced by chief magistrates. Historians can't be sure what these were originally called, or how many there originally were. However, by the time Rome emerges into the full light of history, the chief officials of Rome were two consuls.

These were elected for a term of one year each. The fact that there were two of them placed a check on an individual consul's power. This was the first of the checks and balances which the Romans put in place to try and prevent their government falling back into the hands of one ruler.

To describe consuls as magistrates is a bit misleading. In modern countries, magistrates almost always work in law courts, as judges or in another senior roles. The consuls were indeed judges, but they were also administrators and generals. As wars with neighbouring tribes and cities were an almost yearly occurrence, military command was a very important part of their role. In early Rome, the consuls are said to have taken it in daily turns to lead the army.

The Senate

The expulsion of the kings meant that the senate became more prominent [*shown in the diagram by thicker lines*]. This was because they were now advising two annually elected magistrates, who were drawn from amongst their own ranks,

rather than one king who held his office for life and could therefore accumulate much more authority.

Slide 5: More magistrates

As Rome expanded and grew wealthier, Roman government became more complex. More magistrates were therefore created to deal with the increased workload.

The main ones (from senior to junior) were praetors (judges who presided over the law courts), aediles (public administrators, responsible for the upkeep of roads, drains, sewers and so on), and quaestors (financial officials).

All the new magistrates, like the consuls, were elected for one year terms, and there were always more than one of each type. All were (of course) Patricians.

As for the consuls themselves, they were increasingly pre-occupied with military matters. Rome was constantly at war, and in many years had to field two armies at the same time. Each army was commanded by one consul.

The Cursus Honorum

Over time, a career pattern developed which most senators followed. After service in the army as young men, mostly as cavalry soldiers (*equites*, or knights), they finishing as military tribunes (staff officers). They then entered politics, seeking election first as quaestors, then aediles, and then praetors. The most successful were then elected as one of the two consuls for a year.

This career became known as the *Cursus Honorum* (Race of Honours). The regular rotation of office-holders served Rome well. It prevented one man from becoming too powerful. Also, as all ex-magistrates were automatically appointed to the senate for life, it meant that this influential body was filled with men with wide experience on all aspects of government.

Not mentioned here...

Two important offices do not appear in the Diagram, as they were not permanent features of the political scene.

Censors

Two censors - always ex-consuls and very senior senators - were elected every 5 years, for a period 18 months. Their job was to carry out a censorship of the Roman citizens. The citizens' wealth was assessed, and on this was based their tax obligations, as well as their military service - whether they served as unarmed or heavy-armed infantrymen, or as knights (*equites*).

Dictators

At times of dire emergency (usually after a major military defeat), a dictator was appointed by the senate to take charge of the whole state. His job was to take whatever measures were needed to deal with the crisis. His power was unchecked by any colleague, but he could only hold office for six months.

The appointment of a dictator in these circumstances only happened occasionally (although when Rome was fighting a particularly tough war, it could happen every year for several years).

Slide 6: The Conflict of the Order

In the early republic, many poor Plebeians found themselves being mistreated by Patrician landowners and officials. The law courts, which were under Patrician control, tended to decide in favour of Patricians over the Plebeians.

At the same time, the richer Plebeians (and, as Rome grew in wealth and power, there were more and more of these) were increasingly frustrated by their exclusion from politics.

This situation gave rise to a long-lasting struggle between the two groups. This is known to historians as the Conflict of the Orders (in this context, “order” is a social class with separate legal status from others classes).

The weapon of choice for the Plebeians was to refuse to fight in Rome’s armies. This action undermined Patrician control of the entire state, as well as posing a grave threat to Rome’s security.

As a result, victory eventually went to the Plebeians.

Roman Law

One of the first victories the Plebeians won was the publication of Twelve Tables of Law, inscribed on bronze and set up in the Roman Forum.

These were only the beginnings of the huge body of law which the Romans developed over the coming centuries. Their system of law protected all Roman citizens from abuse by government officials, and thus explicitly gave citizens certain basic rights. One of the most important of these was the right to trial in a court. This represented a very important step in the history of Western law.

Plebeian Assembly and Tribunes

The Plebeians also won the right to their own Assembly, which elected ten officers called the “Tribunes of the Plebeians”.

The tribunes were elected annually. Their job was to protect Plebeian citizens from oppression by Patrician magistrates, and to this end they had the power to veto any action of any magistrate.

A tribune's person was deemed sacrosanct - if anyone attacked one of them, they would be executed.

Slide 7: Plebeians in government

The final triumph of the Plebeians came when they won the right to stand for election to public office. They soon rose even to the consulship.

As ex-officials (see above, slide 5) they automatically entered the Senate for life. This council was soon filled with many Plebeian senators. *[This development is represented in the diagram by the Senate turning brown, indicating that its membership is drawn from both the two groups in the Roman community.]*

This development of course benefitted only the wealthiest Plebeian families, who had the resources and leisure to participate in politics (elections could be expensive).

The Patricians had now lost their special political privileges. Leading Patrician families continued to be prominent in Rome, and in fact held a disproportionately high number of offices, generation after generation. They were now the most prominent members of a hereditary ruling class made up of both Patrician and Plebeian families. These intermarried with one another and came to share the same values.

These developments reconciled all Romans, Patrician and Plebeian alike, to the Senate's prominent role in the state, and so strengthened its influence in government. *[This is indicated by the Senate box moving to a slightly higher position in the diagram.]*

Slide 8: The Roman Alliance system in Italy

When Roman power began to spread throughout Italy, the Romans consolidated their power by creating a system of alliances with the cities they had defeated.

Rome made a separate treaty with each of these cities. and were not allowed to form treaties with any other cities. However, these treaties had many elements in common.

All defeated cities were allowed to continue running their own affairs. In matters of war and foreign policy, though, they had to follow Rome's lead. In particular, they were required to provide troops to fight alongside Roman troops in Rome's wars.

Different relationships

The different cities were given different relationships with the victorious Romans. The complexities of this system are not shown in the diagram, as there isn't enough room, but the outlines are as follows:

Full Roman citizenship

Some small cities near Rome were given full Roman citizenship.

Half-citizenship

Others were given Latin citizenship, whereby they enjoyed equal rights with Roman citizens in matters such as property, marriage and so on. On the other hand, they were not allowed to vote in Roman elections or hold public office in Rome.

Over time, "Latin Citizenship" came to denote a sort of semi-Roman citizenship, given to communities as a step in their promotion to full citizenship.

Allies

Most cities were given status as Allies. This meant that their citizens did not have the protection of Roman courts and were not treated equally with Roman citizens in private civil matters.

Colonies and roads

The Romans bound their system of alliances together more solidly by establishing colonies throughout Italy. These served to bolster Roman control in different parts of the Peninsula.

The colonies came in two types: of full Roman citizens, and of Latin citizens.

They tended to be located at strategic points, and were connected by a growing network of well-made roads. This meant that the Romans could move troops speedily around their area of control.

An Italian ruling class

The ruling groups of many cities, especially those closer to Rome, soon formed connections with Roman senatorial families. Soon, men from different Italian cities were to be found in the Roman senate and holding high office, even the consulship.

These developments meant that the Italian cities' primary relationship was with the Senate, rather than with individual magistrates, who in any case only held office for

a year. As a result, the Roman senate tended to become even more prominent in Rome's political life.

Consuls and proconsuls

With the spread of Rome's power across Italy, her wars tended to be on a bigger scale and lasted longer.

The Romans increasingly had to put more than two armies into the field at a time. With only two consuls holding office in a given year, the Senate had to resort to extending consuls' commands on an *ad hoc* basis. Consuls whose commands had been extended were called proconsuls (a term which means "in place of" consuls).

More will be heard of proconsuls in the following slides.

Slide 9: Imperial Republic

With Roman power extending beyond Italy and across more and more of the Mediterranean world, the Romans adapted their governing institutions to new conditions.

The Senate now became the most prominent element within Roman government. With magistrates holding office for only one year, it was the Senate which provided the continuity needed to direct Rome's increasingly complex affairs.

Proconsuls and propraetors

Rome's growing overseas territories was divided into an ever-increasing number of provinces (the word "province", *provincia*, means "field of responsibility").

This, and the now-continual overseas wars the Romans were fighting, meant that the system of annually elected magistrates had to be seriously modified.

A process of trial and error led to the practice of annually-elected magistrates serving their year of office within Rome itself. In the year which followed they were sent off to one or other of the provinces, which they served governed as a proconsul (where a major war was being waged) or a propraetor (in more peaceful regions) for a year or two.

Provincial government

As well as commanding troops in their province, a governor had civilian duties such as presiding at trials, and building and maintaining roads along which troops could march speedily. However, just as in Italy, the cities ran their own affairs. So long as they forwarded their tribute to the governor and maintained law and order

within their territories, they were left more or less undisturbed by the Roman authorities. Only the most serious matters came before the governor to deal with.

This arrangement meant that a Roman governor needed only a very small number of people to help him with his administrative duties. A junior magistrate (a quaestor) assisted him, mainly in financial matters. Otherwise he relied on a small staff of soldiers seconded to him as clerical orderlies, plus a handful of personal secretaries, often from among his own slaves and freedmen.

With only small adjustments, this was the provincial system which would operate for centuries to come. The idea that the Romans developed a huge bureaucracy is wide of the mark, at least before the period of the Late Empire.

Slide 10: Breakdown

As we have seen, the Romans continually adapted the traditional structures of government to deal with new situations. In the First Century BCE, however, these structures broke down. Institutions which until now had worked well began to fail. The checks and balances which the Romans had introduced into their political system now paralysed effective government.

Many elements played a part in this tragedy. Wealthy businessmen extracted huge sums from oppressed provincials and drove them to rebel. Large numbers of mistreated slaves revolted and at one point, under a leader called Spartacus, even came near to occupying Rome itself. Nevertheless, both ancient and modern historians have focussed on the following institutions as playing the most decisive roles in the collapse of the Republic.

The Senate

Unsurprisingly, the Senate comes in for the most criticism. This body became increasingly faction-ridden. Conservatives and reformers took up unyielding positions, and resorted to violence to sort out their differences. The few moderate voices were drowned out in the din of adversarial politics.

The Tribunes

The Tribunes of the Plebeians became creatures of the different factions. They regularly used their powers of veto to prevent measures from being passed into law. This included constructive measures to address poverty and decrease factionalism.

The Roman mob

The Roman mob was a new factor in politics. The growing inequalities in society had created a class of unemployed people in Rome. They lived in the city's

overcrowded slums and looked to political leaders to feed them with imported bread. This class provided a fertile ground for the growth of organized crime. Gangs sold their services to one political faction or another. This added an extra layer of violence to political life. One of these gangs was even led by a senator from a prominent Patrician family.

The Proconsuls

In the absence of effective leadership from the Senate, some proconsuls grew to be extraordinarily powerful. Conducting large-scale wars of conquest (over which the Senate had virtually no control), they commanded huge armies. These were now made up, not of ordinary citizens taking up arms for a year or two, but of long-serving professional soldiers. These developed strong ties of loyalty to their generals, and looked to them to secure land for them to retire to.

The faction fights in the Senate meant that these proconsuls had to watch their backs. This tempted some to aim at supreme power, so that they could deal with their enemies in Rome. A series of Civil Wars broke out in which great military leaders - Marius, Sulla, Pompey, and the most famous of all, Julius Caesar - fought each other for supremacy.

Slide 11: The Civil Wars

The first round of civil war was between the generals Marius and Sulla, in the 80s and 70s BCE. Sulla defeated Marius and made himself dictator of the Roman state. After killing many of his enemies and establishing his dominance over Roman politics, he died in 78 BCE.

Stability never really returned to the Republic, but a new round of civil wars was averted for 30 years. Then, in 49 BCE, the great general Julius Caesar, who had conquered the whole of Gaul (modern France), marched his army on Rome. He did this because otherwise his political enemies would have brought about his downfall.

These enemies chose another general, Pompey, to lead them. The resulting civil war lasted until 45 BCE, by which time Caesar had emerged as victor. Like Sulla, he also made himself dictator, but this time for life. The next year, however, he was assassinated by a group of senators.

This sparked off another round of civil wars between Caesar's former supporters and enemies, which ended in victory for the Caesarian party.

Its leaders then divided the Roman world between them. Mark Antony took the east, and based himself in Egypt with his lover, Queen Cleopatra. Octavian, the adopted son and heir of Julius Caesar, took Italy and the west.

Octavian

Unsurprisingly, rivalry soon grew between these two leaders, and a final civil war took place in 31 BCE. It ended in the defeat and death of Antony and Cleopatra, and the triumph of Octavian.

Victory left him in control of all Roman armies. But how was he to convert his military power into a durable foundation for stable government?

Slide 12: The Augustan Settlement

Octavian took the opportunity to remodel Roman government institutions to support his position as sole ruler. In doing so, he created what was a monarchy in all but name, while pretending to restore the Republic.

Historians of Ancient Rome call his package of measures the Augustan Settlement, and view it as marking the transition from the Roman Republic to the Roman Empire.

The first Roman Emperor

Octavian's dominant position called for titles that demonstrated to everyone his central place in the state.

Caesar

As Julius Caesar's adopted son and heir he already had the name Caesar, a name which worked magic with the Roman populace. All his successors used this name as one of their titles.

Augustus

in 27 BCE he adopted the title Augustus, which means something like "revered one". This too became an imperial title for all subsequent emperors.

Imperator

He also took the title *Imperator*, which translates as something like "victorious general". and from which we get the term "Emperor".

In this way, all Augustus' successors always had the three terms *Imperator Caesar Augustus* in their titles.

Princeps

In fact, though, Augustus always referred to himself as *Princeps* - the "first man" in the state. This was a title which the senate had voted to previous distinguished senators before him. In this, he indicated that he was *primus inter pares*, first among equals. He carefully pretended to be just another senator, not a monarch.

But it was just that - a pretence.

The traditional institutions of the Republic

Augustus kept the Senate and the old magistracies in being, including the consulship. He was careful to give them due respect. They were no longer the primary sources of authority in the state, however. His power dwarfed their own. Senatorial politicians now got ahead, not by belonging to rival factions, but by finding favour with the emperor. There was, in effect, only one faction in town.

The Plebeian Tribune

One of the historic offices within the Republican system needed special treatment. This was the Plebeian Tribune, which by tradition had the power to veto legislation. Left alone, it had the potential to wreck any of Augustus's measures.

With this in mind, Augustus had the Senate invest him with the power of a tribune, but without himself taking the office. In fact his power was superior to that of all the tribunes. This meant that he could not only veto any legislation proposed by other magistrates, but also that he could cancel the veto of the ordinary tribunes. Tribunes were in effect shorn of their power to paralyse government.

He was also given a vague but over-riding power (*imperium*) over all aspects of government. This gave him a general supervisory authority over that of other magistrates, and of the Senate. It effectively gave him authority over all aspects of government, throughout the entire empire,.

The Praetorian Guard

To bolster his position further, Augustus established a new military formation, the Praetorian Guard. This large force of 12,000 men was garrisoned in the city of Rome itself.

The Guard had as its primary duty the protection of the person of the emperor. However, it also implicitly acted to over-awe the senate, as well as the Roman mob.

The Roman mob

This continued to riot from time to time. Augustus created a small police force in the city, and when riots got out of hand the Praetorian Guard were called in to deal with the situation.

Most importantly, Augustus created a huge organization to bring free grain to the capital's unemployed from North Africa and Egypt. He thus dealt with one of the main causes of disturbances, shortages of grain.

Another source of disturbances arose from the popular assemblies electing the traditional magistrates. Under Augustus, these assemblies continued to meet, but

they were abolished by his successors. Henceforth, the traditional magistrates were appointed by the senate, under guidance from the emperors.

The provinces and armies

The most important measure Augustus took was to divide the Roman provinces into two kinds.

The Senate continued to control the more peaceful provinces, away from the frontiers. Augustus, on the other hand, kept control of about half of all Roman territory. These included all the areas near the frontiers, where the vast majority of Roman legions were based.

Augustus appointed senators loyal to himself to act as his lieutenants (legates) in the different provinces within his area, and to command the individual legions. In a few provinces, notably Egypt, he even took the radical step of appointing non-senators as governors and legionary commanders.

These measures gave him overwhelming military power in the state, and was the foundation of imperial power for himself and his successors.

Slide 13: The Principate

Augustus was the first Roman emperor. His successors kept his arrangements in place, and ruled the empire on lines he had set down. Even bad or mad emperors such as Caligula and Nero, albeit cruel to those in their immediate circle, did not tamper with the Augustan Settlement. For more than two hundred years this ensured that the empire experienced stability and peace.

Because of the fact that, during this time, the emperors referred to themselves as *Princesps*, "First Man in the state", modern historians call the first two centuries of the empire the "Principate".

The Senators

Senators continued to hold the old magistracies, but these now served mainly as stepping stones to higher office in the emperor's service. The typical senatorial career came to include the traditional magistracies dating from Republican times - quaestor, tribune of the plebs, praetor, and consul. But between these and above these would be posts of real responsibility, such as the command of legions and governorships of increasingly important provinces. These offices reported to the emperor, not the senate.

Imperial officials

Alongside these senatorial officials, there was a growing group of non-senatorial imperial servants. Some worked in Rome, others in the provinces.

At the very centre of government, in the imperial palace itself, a staff of secretaries and accountants grew up around the emperors. They were initially freed slaves in the emperor's household, but later were *equites* (members of the wealthy class who came just below the senators).

These handled the massive flow of correspondence in and out of the imperial palace.

In Rome itself, a handful of equestrian officials were some of the most powerful men in the empire. The commanders of the Praetorian Guards were second only to the emperor himself in power, but there were also the Prefect of the Corn Supply, the Prefect of the City Police, and the Prefects of the Fleets.

Away from Rome and Italy, the emperors appointed officials called procurators to be in charge of collecting taxes in the imperial provinces.

Although, being non-senators, these were junior in status to the senatorial governors (legates), they reported directly to the central imperial administration in Rome. They could thus be used to keep an eye on the governors, and so act as a check on their behaviour.

It should be noted, however, that the numbers of imperial officials never exceeded a few hundred in the Roman empire of the first two centuries.

The Cities

The Roman emperors had no need of a vast civil service as most local matters remained in the hands of the city councils and their officials. There were about 2000 cities in the empire, each one running its own affairs with little interference from the centre.

2. Questions

A. Quick Questions:

1. In its earliest days as a city-state, who ruled Rome? (*Kings*)
2. Early Rome was divided into two social groups. The Plebeians were the majority. What was the name of the smaller but more powerful of the groups? (*Patricians*)
3. In around what year did Rome become a Republic - 700 BCE, 500 BCE or 300 BCE? (*500 BCE*)
4. What were two chief magistrates of Rome called in the Republic? (*Consuls*)
5. An important new office was created as a result of the struggle between the classes - what was this? (*Tribunes, of Tribunes of the Plebeians*)
6. What was the name of the man who would later take the name Augustus and become the first emperor of Rome? (*Octavian*)
7. He created a new military formation to protect himself from enemies, and stationed it in Rome. What was this called? (*The Praetorian Guard*)

B. Analytical questions:

The information given within the presentation and notes will help to provide most of the answers. In some places, however, students may have to use some intelligent guesswork (or speculation, as it is called by historians) to fill in the gaps.

1. Write a brief history of one of the following elements within the Roman state, and give reasons why it became more or less prominent at different times: Consuls, The Senate, Tribunes of the Plebeians, Proconsuls, the Roman mob.
2. What were the strengths, and what were the weaknesses, of the system of government under the Roman Republic?
3. Study slides 9 and 13. What were the similarities and differences between the structures of Roman government they illustrate? (Looking at slides 10, 11 and 12 should help you in your answer.)