

The Contribution of Julius Caesar to the Vocabulary of Ethnography

Julius Caesar enlivened and varied the narrative of his Commentarii with information and comment about the enemies he was facing—the Gauls, Germans and Britons. This material is contained both in formal ethnographic excursuses (1), and in incidental remarks in the course of the narrative. The digression on Britain and parts of the formal account of Germany were long considered later interpolations, but are now generally accepted as authentic, and are here taken to be so.

The value of this material is usually assessed in terms of Caesar's attitude to the peoples he describes, and the nature, originality and accuracy of his information (2). Little attention has been paid to the language he uses in describing foreign institutions. It is the purpose of this paper to examine some terms used by Caesar when referring to the political, social and military institutions of foreigners, and to assess his contribution to the vocabulary of ethnography.

As an ethnographer, Caesar had the advantage of personal contact with the peoples he was describing, and the opportunity to observe their institutions at first hand. He also encountered the Gallic language, and had a unique opportunity to learn Celtic, or at least Celtic terms, had he wished to do so. Theoretically, Caesar had the potential to broaden the Latin literary vocabulary by introducing new foreign words. Let us begin by assessing his influence in this area.

Whatever he knew of Celtic himself (3), Caesar did not see fit to

<sup>(1)</sup> BG IV, 1-3 on the Suebi ; V, 12-14 on the Britons ; VI, 11-28 on the Gauls and Germans.

<sup>(2)</sup> See e.g. K. E. MULLER, Geschichte der antiken Ethnographie und ethnologischen Theoriebildung. Von den Ansangen bis auf die byzantinischen Historiographen, 11, Wiesbaden, 1980, p. 68 ff.; E. RAWSON, Intellectual Life in the Late Roman Republic, London, 1985, p. 259-263.

<sup>(3)</sup> Caesar does not appear to have availed himself of his linguistic opportunities. Though he had contact with Gallic leaders and traders, he communicated by means

pepper his text with newly-acquired foreign words. Only four (4) Celtic technical terms occur in Caesar's Bellum Gallicum: soldurii (BG III, 22, 2), ambacti (BG VI, 15, 2), druides (6 times) (5) and uergobretus (BG I, 16, 5). A fifth word, of Celtic origin (6), essedum, also deserves consideration. Of these, only two (uergobretus and essedum) reflect Caesar's first hand contact with the language.

Soldurii — the name for the loyal retainers who swore to share the fate of their leaders even to death - probably derives from an ethnographic source rather than personal acquaintance with Gauls. Caesar had certainly encountered such vassals himself (cf. BG VII, 40, 7), and his description of them (BG III, 22, 2f.) is informed by his own observation. But the loyalty of such retainers was an ethnographical topos, and Caesar's language is strikingly similar to that of Athenaeus, quoting Nicholaus of Damascus (ex Posidonius?): cum DC deuotis quos illi soldurios appellant (BG III, 22, 2) cf. Ath. VI, 249b (FGH fr. 80): έξακοσίους έχειν λογάδας περί αύτὸν οθς καλεῖσθαι ύπὸ Γαλατών τη πατρίω γλώττη σιλοδούρους; τοῦτο δ'ἐστιν Ἑλληνιστὶ εὐχωλιμετοι. The term may well stem from a Greek literary source. When these vassals reappear later in the narrative, Caesar (with no ethnographical source before him?) is less concerned with anthropological curiositics. The term soldurii does not recur. Instead, we have a brief description, couched in terms of Roman clientes and patroni (BG VII, 40, 7: cum suis clientibus, quibus more Gallorum nefas est etiam in extrema fortuna deserere patronos).

Caesar also uses the Gallic word for "slaves" (7), ambacti (BG VI, 15, 2). But this term must have been familiar to Romans from an

carly date (8): it is used by Ennius (Ann. 610 with Skutsch's note). And Caesar treats it as if it were a term known to his readers. He does not explain its meaning, or couch it in an ut Galli appellant-type formula — the standard literary method of introducing an unfamiliar foreign term (9). It seems likely that, in this instance, Caesar is using a word of known Gallic origin, already accepted in the Latin literary tradition through the auctoritas of Ennius, to add colour and authenticity to his ethnographical excursus on Gauls.

Caesar probably cannot claim credit for the introduction of druides either. While it is true that druides, or its manuscript variants druidee or dryadae, does not appear in extant Latin literature before Caesar, he uses it as a regular Latin word familiar to his readers. It occurs six times, never with any explanation or distancing ut Galli dicunt formula (BG VI, 13, 3, 8, 9; 14, 1; 18, 1; 21, 1). Druids, in fact, were synonymous with Celtic religion, and were an ethnographical commonplace (10). Caesar was treating a familiar topic in familiar language. Indeed druides in Caesar may well derive from Posidonius since the word appears only in the ethnographical excursus. On the single occasion in the narrative where druids are probably meant (BG VII, 33, 3), the general term sacerdotes is used (11).

Caesar's use of druides, however, must have leant the word literary respectability. Later Roman writers appear at home with the term. Though the Elder Pliny couches it in an appellant formula the first time he uses it (Nat. XVI, 249: Druidae — ita suos magos appellant), in subsequent books it occurs without comment (Nat. XXIV, 103; XXIX, 52, 54; XXX, 13). Mela apparently feels the need to explain the word (III, 2, 18: magistros sapientiae druidas). φιλόσοφος, however,

of Romanized local interpreters. He had a whole staff of *cotidiani interpretes*, and even when conversing with Diviciacus on an intimate basis, he kept by him the trusted Gaius Valerius Procillus, a Romanized native (BG 1, 19, 3).

<sup>(4)</sup> Gutruatus (Hirt., BG VIII, 38, 3, 5) should be left out of account. There are textual difficulties, and if it is a corruption of a Celtic word for a priest, we do not know who misunderstood it and turned it into a proper name (which it may well have been, in any case).

<sup>(5)</sup> BG VI, 13, 3, 8, 9; 14, 1; 18, 1; 21, 1.

<sup>(6)</sup> See A. Holder, Altceltischer Sprachschatz, I, Leipzig, 1896, p. 1470-1473.

<sup>(7)</sup> Some scholars equate soldurii and ambacti (C. Jullian, Histoire de la Gaule, II, Paris, 1904, p. 77; A. Bayet, Histoire de la morale en France. I La morale des Gaulois, Paris, 1930, p. 188; P.-M. Duval, La vie quotidienne en Gaule, Paris, 1952, p. 31). A Roman, however, is more likely to have understood the word to mean «slave» (cf. Festus 4L: ambactus apud Ennium Gallica lingua seruus appellatur; CGL V, 47, 439, 616; VI s.v. ambacti).

<sup>(8)</sup> J. Whatmough, *The Prae-Italic Dialects of Italy*, 11, London, 1933, p. 181, following A. Holder, *op. cit.* [n. 6], p. 114, suggests that it came in from Cisalpine Gaul not later than the end of the second century B.C..

<sup>(9)</sup> On this convention see B. Bell, Roman Literary Attitudes to Foreign Terms and the Carthaginian sufetes in A Class 32, 1989, p. 30-31.

<sup>(10)</sup> D.S. V, 31, 2 = Pos., FGH 87 fr. 116; STR. IV, 4, 4 (197), 5 (198).

<sup>(11)</sup> N. CHADWICK, The Druids, Cardiff, 1966, p. 2 states that "...the term sacerdos does not seem to have been used of the druids by any ancient writer". As she holds that druids were not essentially priests she cannot equate sacerdos and druida. However, CAES., BG VI, 21, 1 (of Germans): nam neque druides hahent qui rebus diuinis praesint, neque sacrificiis student indicates that druids did perform priestly functions. For a refutation of Chadwick's view see S. PIGGOTT, The Druids, London, 1968, p. 108.

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is regularly used by Greek ethnographers as a gloss for  $\Delta povi\delta a$  (12), and Mela was probably echoing a Greek source rather than showing concern for the comprehension of his readers. Elsewhere *druidae* and *dryadae* appear in a range of authors without qualification, to denote Celts presiding over prophecy or savage ritual (13).

Unlike the previous examples, there is reason to think that Caesar learnt at first hand uergobretus, the title of the chief magistrate of the Aedui (BG I, 16, 5). Strabo gives details of the office which are very similar to Caesar's (Str. IV, 4, 3 (197) (ex Posidonius?) cf. Caes., BG I, 16, 5), but there is no evidence for the term in any Greek source. The name of the magistracy held by Diviciacus is certainly the kind of word Caesar might acquire. In his aside explaining that uergobretus was the technical name used by the Aedui themselves (magistratui quem uergobretum appellant Aedui), he may well be showing off his local knowledge and selfconsciously making an addition to the ethnographic vocabulary. He is certainly not concerned with accuracy of terminology. Elsewhere he contents himself with general terms like magistratus (BG I, 19, 1, VII, 32, 3, 4; 33, 2, 3; 37, 1, 6; 39, 2; 55, 4, 6), and principatus (BG I, 3, 5) when referring to the Aeduan chief magistracy.

Vergobretus can hardly be regarded as a major contribution to the ethnographic vocabulary. Its occurrence at BGI, 16, 5 remains a hapax legomenon in extant Latin literature ( $^{14}$ ).

Essedum enjoyed rather greater success. At BG IV, 33 Caesar gives a vivid description of the British tactics of chariotfighting. It was a description which must have fired Roman imagination. Thereafter poets regularly associate the barbarian Britons with chariots (e.g. Prop. IV, 3, 9; Sil. XVII, 416ff.). Juvenal has one Arviragus falling from the chariot pole upon which, according to Caesar, Britons used to run out in battle (4, 126f. cf BG IV, 33, 3). Verbal echoes of Caesar even

colour Livy's description of chariotfighting Gauls who had earlier used similar chariots (Liv. X, 28, 8-9 cf. Caes., BG IV, 33, 1) (15).

The type of chariot employed in Britain and described by Caesar, carried two men, a warrior and a driver who had a special seat in front (16). Caesar calls it essedum (6 times) (17). To denote the warrior who fought from the chariot he forms a derivative essedarius (BG IV, 21, 1; V, 15, 1; 19, 1, 2). Essedum was a word of Celtic origin. Whatmough (18) suggests that the word was unknown to the Romans before Caesar, and not borrowed from Cisalpine Gaul. Certainly Cicero's facetious use of the term in his letter to Trebatius in Britain suggests that essedum was regarded as new-fangled and outrageous, and perhaps even particularly British (Fam. VII, 7, 1: In Britannia nihil esse audio neque auri neque argenti. Id si ita est essedum aliquod capias suades et ad nos, quam primum recurras).

In the Augustan period *essedum* still appears as a war-chariot (<sup>19</sup>), but already in Cicero there are indications that *essedum* was being used in Rome as a luxurious conveyance for men-about-town (<sup>20</sup>). From the Augustan period on, Caesar's word was so assimilated into Latin that it was widely used as a general term for a travelling vehicle (<sup>21</sup>).

Caesar's derivative essedarius enjoyed equal success. Like essedum, Cicero uses this word facetiously in his letters to Trebatius in Britain (Fam. VII, 6, 2; 10, 2), to denote a new-fangled British chariot-fighter, but by the time of Seneca essedarius was well-entrenched in a Roman

<sup>(12)</sup> D.S. V, 31, 2: φιλόοοφοί τε τινές είσι καὶ θεολόγοι περιτῶς τιμώμενοι οῦς Αρουίδας ὀνομάζουοι, 31, 4: ἔθος δ'αὐτοῖς ἐστι μηδένα θυσίαν ποιεῖν ἄνευ φιλοσόφου (cf. Str. IV, 4, 5 (198): ἄνευ δρουιδῶν). Cf. Schol. at Luc. I, 451: sunt autem Driadae philosophi Gallorum dicti.

<sup>(13)</sup> dryada: Cic., Div. I, 90; Luc. I, 451; Suet., Cl. 25, 4. druida: Tac., Hist. IV, 54; Ann. XIV, 30, I (of British Druids). Female dryadae, no more than fortune-tellers, re-emerge in the Historia Augusta (Alex. Sev. 60, 6; Num. 14, 2f.; Aur. 44, 4). On these see N. Chadwick, op. cit. [n. 11], p. 80-82; A. Momigliano, Alien Wisdom: The Limits of Hellenization, Cambridge, 1975, p. 72f.

<sup>(14)</sup> The term does reappear in inscriptions at the beginning of the empire among the Santones, and among the Lexovii. See C. Jullian, op. cit. [n. 7], p. 42 n. 2.

<sup>(15)</sup> Cf. PORPH. at HOR., Ep. II, 1, 192: esseda Gallorum uehicula. Chariots were no longer in use by the time Caesar encountered the Gauls.

<sup>(16)</sup> Some authors represent them as having scythed wheels (Mella III, 6, 52; Lec. I, 426; Sill XVII, 417; Fron., Str. II, 3, 18, and cf. the statue at Westminster Bridge of Boudicca standing in a scythed chariot). This is questionable. For the view that they were not scythed see R. G. Collingwood and J. N. Myers, Roman Britain and the English Settlements, Oxford, 1936, p. 41; R. Till. Britannische Streitwagen in Klio 36, 1944, p. 244, 246-250; Heubner at Tac., Ag. 35, 3; R. M. Ogilyie at Tac., Ag. 12, 1.

<sup>(17)</sup> BG IV, 32, 5; 33, 1; V, 9, 3; 16, 2; 17, 4; 19, L.

<sup>(18)</sup> op. cit. [n. 8], II, p. 196.

<sup>(19)</sup> Mostly in association with Gauls (e.g. Liv. X, 28, 9; Verg., G. 111, 204).

<sup>(20)</sup> Cic., Phil. 11, 58: uehebatur in essedo tribunus plebis (Antonius); Att. VI, 1, 25: Vedius uenit mihi obuiam cum duobus essedis et raeda equis iuncta (where essedum is linked with raeda, another Celtic equipage).

<sup>(21)</sup> HOR., Ep. 11, 1, 192; Ov., Am. 11, 16, 49; Pont. 11, 10, 33f.; Prop. 11, 1, 76; 32, 5; Pers. 6, 47; Sen., Ep. 56, 4; Mart. 1V, 64, 19; X, 104, 4-7; XII, 24, 2; 57, 23; SII... 111, 337; Suet., Aug. 76, 1; Cal. 19, 2; 26, 2; 51, 2; Cl. 16, 4; 33, 2; Gal. 6, 3; 18, 1. See L. Casson, Travel in the Ancient World, London, 1974, p. 179.

setting. It is used of gladiators fighting from chariots, both in literature, and frequently in inscriptions commemorating the victories or manumission of successful gladiators (22). Petronius even has a female essedariam as the pièce de résistance in a show in the arena (45, 7).

With essedum and essedarius Caesar was not merely influencing the language of ethnography, he was making a contribution to everyday Latin vocabulary. This must be regarded as his main achievement in the area of foreign verbal introductions.

However, on the whole, Caesar's readers would not have been interested in the technical terminology of foreign peoples. Roman interest in foreigners was essentially self-centred. Foreign history and habits had no intrinsic appeal except in so far as they related to Rome's own. A few native words, sparingly employed, might lend a little foreign colour and authenticity to Caesar's text. But he would be more likely to arouse interest if he couched his descriptions in familiar Roman terms. Accordingly, we find him employing what has been called *comparatio* (23) — the use of a specifically Roman term when some correspondence is seen to exist between a Roman and a foreign institution.

Caesar's comparatio equations include senatus for a tribal council of elders (24) and senatores of its members (BG II, 28, 2). The people of Gallic and German tribes are plebs (25) who meet in a concilium to hear news and deliberate (26), and under arms in times of war (27). Caesar calls the Gallic aristocratic class equites (BG VI, 13, 3; 15, 1) (28), doubtless remembering that in early Rome the cavalry was aristocratic.

Powerful and influential aristocrats are termed *nobiles* (29), while *principes* denotes tribal leading men, both elected officials and other chief citizens (30). Both terms had socio-political overtones in Caesar's Rome (31).

Such men in Gaul had numbers of serfs (serui (BG VI, 19, 4)/familiares (BG VI, 30, 3) (32)) and dependants (clientes (33)). The abstract clientela also occurs (34). As a variant of clientes, comites is sometimes used of dependants (e.g. BG VI, 30, 3), perhaps putting a Roman reader in mind of the comites attendant upon distinguished Romans of the Republic (35).

(29) nobilis/nobilitas: BG 1, 2, 1; 7, 3; 18, 6; 31, 6, 7, 12; 11, 6, 4; V. 3, 6; 6, 5; VI, 12, 3; 13, 2; Hirt:, BG VIII, 45, 2 (Gaul); BG V. 22, 2 (Britain).

(30) princeps/principatus = chief magistrate/magistracy: Gaul: BG 1, 3, 5 (= uergobretus of the Aedul); V, 3, 2; VI, 8, 9; VII, 65, 2 (princeps ciuitatis); 88, 4: Hirl., BG VIII, 12, 4 (princeps ciuitatis), 7. Germany: BG VI, 22, 2 (magistratus ac principes, where some, e.g. A. Klotz, Zu Caesars Bellum Gallicum in RhM 66, 1911, p. 631 n. 1 believe that ac principes was added to explain magistratus; 23, 5 (leaders of independent pagi). principes = leading men, who may, or may not, include magistrates: BG 1, 16, 5; III, 8, 3; IV, 6, 5; V, 3, 5; 4, 3; 5, 3; 6, 4; 41, 1; 54, 1; VI, 12, 4; VII, 1, 4; 4, 2; 28, 6; 31, 2; 32, 2: 36, 3; 38, 2, 10; 64, 8; 75, 1; 89, 4; Hirt., BG VIII, 7, 6; 22, 2; 45, 2; 49, 3 (Gaul); BG IV, 27, 7 which may denote British chief magistrates or military leaders; 30, 1 (Britain); IV, 11, 3; 13, 4; VI, 23, 7 (Germany).

(31) Gelzer held that in late Republican Rome nobilitas was an elitist term, denoting the prestige conferred by the holding of political office, or the group of individuals who possessed such prestige (M. Gelzer, The Roman Nobility, Oxford, 1969, cf. J. Hellegouarch, Le vocabulaire latin des relations et des partis politiques sous la République, Paris, 1963, p. 430-439 on nobilitas as a political party. On the basic meaning of princeps/principes (ciuitatis) and principatus in a Roman context see M. Gelzer, op. cit., p. 46 ff.; J. Hellegouarch, op. cit., p. 327-337; J. Bérranger, Recherches sur l'aspect idéologique du principat, Basel, 1953, p. 41-43. In some instances in Caesar these terms do seem to denote an élitist group of aristocrats, as at Rome (nobilis/nobilitas: BG I, 31, 6; VII, 38, 2; perhaps V, 3, 6; 6, 5; VI, 12, 3. principes: Hirt., BG VIII, 7, 7; 22, 2). Elsewhere nobilitas seems no more than a general term for "aristocratic class" or "noble birth", and nobilis a general term for "aristocrati" or "one of noble birth". Principes frequently denotes no more than "leading men".

<sup>(22)</sup> Sen., Ep. 29, 6; Petr. 36, 7; Suet., Cal. 35, 3. CIL IV, 250826; 4280, 4295, 4333, 4386; VI, 6318, 33952; IX, 46621; XII, 3323, 3324; XIII, 1977.

<sup>(23)</sup> D. Magie, De Romanorum Iuris Publici Sacrique Vocabulis Sollemnibus in Graecum Sermonem Conversis, diss., Leipzig, 1905, p. 2.

<sup>(24)</sup> BG I, 31, 6; II, 5, 1; 28, 2; III, 16, 4; 17, 3; V, 54, 3; VII, 32, 5; 33, 2, 3; 55, 4; HIRT BG VIII, 21, 4; 22, 2 (Gayle), BG IV, 11, 2 (Gayle), BG

<sup>55, 4;</sup> Hirt., BG VIII, 21, 4; 22, 2 (Gauls); BG IV, 11, 3 (Germans).

<sup>(25)</sup> BG 1, 3, 5; 17, 1; 18, 3; V, 3, 6; VI, 13, 1; VII, 13, 2; 42, 4; HIRT., BG VIII, 7, 7; 21, 4; 22, 2. In some cases plebs is used per comparationem of Gallic lower classes, as distinct from the upper ruling classes (BG V, 3, 6 cf. nobilitas; HIRT., BG VIII, 7, 7 cf. principes; 21, 4 cf. senatus; 22, 2 cf. principes, senatus, boni). Elsewhere it is a general, colourless term denoting "people" or "common people".

<sup>(26)</sup> BG V, 6, 2; VI, 20, 3; VII, 77, 1.

<sup>(27)</sup> BG V, 56, 1 f. (armatum concilium), 3, 4; 57, 2; VI, 23, 7; VII, 14, 1; perhaps 89, 1 where there is MSS discrepancy between concilium and consilium. German tribes met under arms even in times of peace (TAC., G. 11, 4; 13, 1).

<sup>(28)</sup> On these equites see T. RICE HOLMES, Caesar's Conquest of Gaul, Oxford, 19312, p. 512 f.

<sup>(32)</sup> A. Daubigney, Reconnaissance des formes de la dépendance gauloise in DHA 5, 1979, p. 145-189 suggests that these terms denote ambacti, serfs, in a position of total dependence. (Compare the expressions ambactos clientesque (BG VI, 15, 2) with serui et clientes (BG VI, 19, 5), comites familiaresque (BG VI, 30, 3) and Polybius τοὺς θεραπεύοντας καὶ συμπεριφερομένους (II, 17, 12)).

<sup>(33)</sup> BG 1, 4, 2; VI, 15, 2; 19, 5; VII, 4, 1; 32, 5 (clientela); 40, 7 (of soldurii).

<sup>(34)</sup> BG VI, 4, 5; 12, 2, 6, 7; VII, 32, 5. Hirtius in his continuation of the Commentarii has a Gallic patron who, on the analogy of Roman practice, counted a whole town among his clientela (BG VIII, 32, 2).

<sup>(35)</sup> On Republican comites see J. Hellegouarch, op. cit. [n. 31], p. 59 f.

In the military sphere, Vercingetorix as *imperator* (commander-inchief) of the combined Gallic forces (*BG* VII, 63, 6), and other tribal chieftains (*duces* (<sup>36</sup>)) have *imperium* (<sup>37</sup>). Gauls drew up their infantry in wedge-like formations (*cuneatim* (<sup>38</sup>)), to which Caesar applies the term *testudo*, familiar in Roman military parlance (*BG* II, 6, 2; VII, 85, 5).

With most of these equations it is difficult to assess Caesar's contribution. Much earlier writing mentioning Gauls (e.g. the *Annales* of Q. Claudius Quadrigarius and perhaps the *De Bello Sequanico* of the poet Varro of Atax) has perished, and Caesar's contemporaries also use Roman terms in foreign contexts. Sallust in the *Jugurtha*, for instance, has the *principes* of Vaga, members of the *nobilitas* and the fickle *plebs* rising in support of Jugurtha (39). Nepos and the orator Calidius refer to the Carthaginian *senatus* (Nep., *Han.* 7, 6; Calidius, *ORF*<sup>2</sup> 140 fr. 5). Carthaginian *imperatores* are attested as early as Cato, and recur in Nepos and Cicero (40).

Nor is this surprising. Though Roman terminology might conceivably appear incongruous in a foreign setting, these were in fact the obvious Latin words to convey an essential idea. What was one to call a military power but *imperium*? An administrative council would obviously be a senatus, and its members senatores. Caesar can hardly claim credit for the random appearance of the more obvious equations in later authors, even if applied (as they are) to Celtic or German institutions. However, there are grounds for thinking that Caesar did contribute to the language of ethnography in the area of comparatio.

One of his most influential equations was the application of pagus to Gallic and German tribal subdivisions (41). This was an appropriate

comparison. Like early Italian pagi, these divisions enjoyed a large measure of independence within the tribe and were held together by clan ties. It is also probable that at some early date Italian pagi had had a role in the collection of taxes and conscription of troops as the German tribal divisions did (42). Pagus in an Italian context in time became a purely territorial term denoting the land with fixed boundaries surrounding a town, comprising pasture, arable land and the dwellings on it (43), and was often used in a nontechnical sense to mean no more than "country district". But the earlier character of the Italian pagus was remembered, making pagus appropriate comparatio for sociopolitical tribal units of the Gauls and Germans.

Caesar was the first extant Latin author to extend pagus to non-Italians, and thereafter it became the standard term for Gallic and German tribal subdivisions, whether the territorial regions or the inhabitants of them.

Referring to pre-Roman Gaul it appears in Livy (V, 34, 9; Per. 65). After the conquest of Gaul, the Romans retained the existing tribal boundaries as far as possible and continued to term the subdivisions pagi, both in literature and official parlance (44).

The parallels between archaic Roman and German pagi which struck Caesar are still strongly felt by Tacitus in the Germaniu, where the term reappears in passages with a strong Roman casting (45). The term became entrenched in the historical tradition also. German pagi appear in Tacitus and in Ammianus (46).

Pagus also came to be used in a non-technical sense, as it was in Italy, to mean "country district" or "village" (e.g. Plin., Nat. III, 124; Auson., Mos. 478). In short, following its initial use by Caesar, pagus became almost as familiar in a Gallic or German context as an Italian one.

<sup>(36)</sup> BG II, 23, 4; V, 22, 2 (British); 34, 1; 41, 1; VII, 3, 1; 21, 1; 88, 4; HIRT., BG VIII. 6, 2; 14, 1; 17, 1; 26, 2; 36, 1; 48, 5.

<sup>(37)</sup> BG II, 23, 4; III, 17, 2; V, 11, 8 (summa imperi bellique administrandi granted to the Briton, Cassivellaunus), 9; VI, 8, 9.

<sup>(38)</sup> BG VII, 28, 1. Cuneus was a Roman technical term which Vegetius defines as follows: Cuneus dicitur multitudo peditum quae iuncta cum acie primo angustior deinde latior procedit et aduersariorum ordines rumpit quia a pluribus in unum locum tela mittuntur (III, 19, 6).

<sup>(39)</sup> Jug. 66, 22-24. Numidian nobiles also appear at 70, 2 and 77, 1 (of Leptis).

<sup>(40)</sup> CATO, Orig. 79, 82, 83; NEP., Ham. 2, 3; 3, 1; Han. 2, 3; 3, 2 (cf. 3, 1 where Hannibal receives summam imperi); CIC., Off. III, 99.

<sup>(41)</sup> Gaul: BG 1, 12, 4, 5; 13, 5; IV, 22, 5; VI, 11, 2; VII, 64, 6. On Gallic tribes and pagi see C. Jullian, op. cit. [n. 7], p. 14 ff.; N. Chadwick, The Celts, Harmondsworth, 1970, p. 57. Germany: BG 1, 37, 3; IV, 1, 4 (cf. Oros., Hist. VI, 9, 1); VI, 23, 5.

<sup>(42)</sup> D.H. IV, 15, 3. They certainly had financial responsibilities from Augustus on. See M. W. Frederiksen, *Changes in the Patterns of Settlement in Hellenismus im Mittelitalien*, ed. P. Zanker, Göttingen, 1976, p. 345 f., 349-354.

<sup>(43)</sup> See M. W. FREDERIKSEN, op. cit., p. 343 f.

<sup>(44)</sup> TAC., Ann. III, 45, 1; Hist. II, 61; CIL XIII, 412, 3450, 4679-4680. On the later pagi of the Treveri see E. M. WIGHTMAN, Roman Trier and the Treveri, London, 1970, p. 124 ff.

<sup>(45)</sup> G. 6, 5; 12, 3; 39, 4. On the Roman casting of these passages see R. E. A. Palmer, The Archaic Community of the Romans, Cambridge, 1970, p. 57-59.

<sup>(46)</sup> TAC., Ann. 1, 56, 5 (cf. G. 12, 3); Hist. IV, 15; AMM. XVIII, 2, 1; XXIX, 4, 7; XXX, 3, 1; 5, 13.

The success of Caesar's use of concilium in a foreign setting is indicated by a subsection under concilium in the Thesaurus Linguae Latinae (p. 47 lines 53-60) headed concilium de coetibus barbarorum ad res militares, ciuiles, sacras agundas conuocatis (47). Caesar is the earliest author cited under this heading, and it is clear that under his influence concilium continued to be used of Gallic tribal meetings in general (e.g. Liv. III, 2, 3 (Aedui); XXI, 2, 1, 7), and for the ritual assembly of Gauls and Germans under arms (Liv. V, 36, 1 (Gallorum); XXI, 20, 1: armati—ita mos gentis erat—in concilium uenerunt, 7 cf. Caes., BG V, 56, 2: Hoc more Gallorum est initium belli, quo lege communi omnes puberes armati conuenire consuerunt; Tac., G. 6, 6; 12, 1, 3; 13, 1). In spite of the differences between a Roman and a Gallic or German concilium (brought out by Caesar, BG VI, 13, 1 (48) and Tac., G. 11), like the Gauls in Caesar, German plebs in Tacitus' Germania continue to meet in concilio.

Caesar was also the first extant Latin author to apply the term cliens to dependants in a non-Roman context (49). He also extends cliens and clientela to tribes which stood in dependent relation to more powerful ribes (BG I, 31, 6; IV, 6, 4; V, 39, 3; VI, 4, 5; 12, 2, 3, 6, 7; VII, 75, 2. In this no subsequent writer saw fit to follow him, but after Caesar foreign notables of varied nationalities, like Roman patrons, are attended by clientes (50).

Caesar's terminology for Gallic vassals and retainers recurs in Tacitus particularly. He too uses *clientes* in a Gallic context (Ann. III, 42, 2), and extends the term to Britons (Ag. 12, 1), Germans (Ann. I, 57, 4; II, 45, 2; XII, 30, 3) and Parthians (Ann. XII, 14, 3; XIII, 37, 1). He even coins a diminutive, *clientulus*, applied to the retainers of the Briton, Caratacus in Claudius' triumphal procession (Ann. XII, 36, 5), perhaps to diminish their status in the eyes of his readers. Interestingly, in the Germania, Tacitus favours Caesar's variant term for Gallic

retainers, comites, and the collective comitatus (51) — perhaps because, being concerned with ethnography, he was conscious of the differences between Roman and German systems of social dependence. There was nothing in the Roman system of clientela, for instance, to correspond to the formal enrolment of youths into the retinue of a German chief, and the strict ties of loyalty and service which bound them.

Caesar's equation of *clientes* and Gallic *soldurii* may also have prompted Livy's use of *clientes* when referring to Spanish retainers, who, in similar fashion, pledged to share the fate of their leaders even to death (Liv. XXVI, 50, 14 cf. Caes., BG VII, 40, 7) (52). The practice of swearing allegiance to an overlord was obviously not analogous to Roman *deuotio*, where a general pledged his life, or that of a substitute, to the gods of the underworld in return for victory. (See Liv. VIII, 9, 4 ff.). Nonetheless subsequent writers clearly felt that Caesar's verb *deuoueo* (used of Gauls at BG III, 22, 2) conveyed the essential notion of Spanish vassals "swearing allegiance unto death". It is used by Sallust, Livy and Valerius Maximus in this sense (53).

Caesar's military descriptions were much admired in antiquity, so one might expect distinctive military vocabulary to reappear in later authors. As we have seen, this was the case with *essedum*, which is testimony to the impact of Caesar's description of British chariot-fighting. In the area of *comparatio*, Caesarian influence is more difficult to trace. Possible influence can only be suggested in the case of Celtic and German battle formations.

The term Caesar most commonly employs for these battle lines is phalanx (BG I, 24, 5; 25, 2 (Gauls); I, 54, 4 f.: At Germani celeriter ex consuetudine sua phalange facta). In this no extant author saw fit

<sup>(47)</sup> Besides a selection of the references given above in footnotes 26 and 27, referring to tribal concilia, TLL also cites examples of Caesar's use of concilium to denote combined meetings of Gauls e.g. BG 1, 19, 4: in concilio Gallorum; 30, 4: concilium totius Galliae; II, 4, 4; III, 18, 7; VII, 15, 3). It also includes examples where the OCT reads consilium rather than concilium (BG III, 3, 2; V, 53, 5; VI, 7, 6).

<sup>(48)</sup> The people of Gallic tribes meeting in a concilium had no legal political power, according to Caesar. Cf. C. Jullian, op. cit. [n. 7], p. 50-53; T. RICE HOLMES, op. cit. [n. 28], p. 529-541.

<sup>(49)</sup> For references see note 33 above.

<sup>(50)</sup> For instances after Caesar see TLL s.v. cliens, p. 1346 lines 34-48.

<sup>(51)</sup> comites: G. 13, 2, 3; 14, 1. comitatus: G. 13, 3, 4; 14, 1, 2. Also Ann. II, 63, 7.

<sup>(52)</sup> The Celts probably brought this practice with them into Spain. On Spanish soldurii see J. M. BLAZQUEZ, F. J. LOMAS, J. F. NIETO and F. PRESEDO, Historia de España antigua, I. Protohistoria, Madrid, 1980, p. 199 f.

<sup>(53)</sup> SAL, Hist. 1, 125 (Maurenbrecher): traxit autem hoc de Celtiberorum more, qui, ut in Sallustio legimus, se regibus uouent et post eum uitam refutant; V. MAX. 11, 6, 11: Celtiberi etiam nefas esse ducebant proelio superesse cum is occidisset pro cuius salute spiritum deuouerant. The same idea seems to be contained in Mardonius' pledge to the Romans (Liv. XXVIII, 34, 5: ...si ita uideatur, reddant spiritum P. Scipioni ab eodem illo acceptum aut seruati bis uni debitam uitam pro eo in perpetuum deuoueant. Greek authors, by contrast, are not consistent: cf. Ath. VI, 249b = FGII fr. 80: εὐχωλιμαῖοι (of Gauls); κατασπένδω: Plut., Sert. 14; Str. 111, 4, 18 (165) (of Celtiberians).

to follow him, perhaps because, for most, *phalanx* was inextricably associated with Greeks and Macedonians. Certainly other Latin prose writers confine *phalanx* to Greek and Macedonian contexts (54).

It is the language which Caesar used as variants for phalanx which recurs in Gallic and German military contexts. At BG VII, 28, 1 the Gauls drawn up ready for battle cuneatim constiterunt. On two other occasions Gauls attacking walls or ramparts in formation make a testudo (BG II, 6, 2; VII, 85, 5). The Roman testudo was a formation in which those in front held their shields before their bodies, while those behind held theirs over their heads to form a shell like a tortoise's. Clearly, if Caesar meant testudo as an equivalent for phalanx (as seems likely) the equation was inexact (55). Descriptive phrases also occur. Gauls in formation formed a tightly-packed, impenetrable mass which Caesar describes as confertissimus (BG I, 24, 5: confertissima acie; II, 23, 4: confertissimo agmine). He was the first extant author to use confertus in a military context, or to employ the superlative (56).

Livy X, 29 best exemplifies the influence of Caesar's terminology on subsequent descriptions of Gauls fighting in formation. (This chapter follows 'ard upon his Caesar-inspired description of Gallic chariot fighting (X, 28)). In 297 B.C., reports Livy, when the Gauls were drawn up for battle (cum Galli structis ante se scutis conferti starent, cf. X, 28, 17: confertissimam aciem), the Romans picked up weapons lying on the ground and hurled them in testudinem hostium. This proved

an effective tactic, for *sternitur cuneus* (6 and 7). Though their Samnite allies were put to flight in the ensuing melée, the Gauls reformed and stood their ground (*Galli testudine facta conferti stabant* (12) (cf. Caes., *BG* I, 24, 5; 25, 2; VII, 85, 5).

On the strength of Caesar's cuneatim, cuneus becomes a standard technical term for Gallic battle formations. It appears in Hirtius, Livy and Trogus/Justin (57). Caesar only employs cuneatim once, of Gauls, but given the similarity of Gallic, Spanish and German formations, cuneatim may also have prompted the use of cuneus for Celtiberian battle lines in Livy, and German infantry formations in Tacitus and Ammianus (58). It even came to be used in Latin inscriptions referring to German auxiliaries who maintained their native formations in the Roman army (59). The supremacy of cuneus over Caesar's preferred phalanx for German formations is hardly surprising. It was, after all, a Roman technical term (see n. 38), with no Greek overtones, and the two formations were clearly analogous.

Caesar's influence, however, does not end there. In descriptions of Macedonian or Antigonid battles involving orthodox phalanges, Caesar's variants and descriptive phrases reappear. At Liv. XXXII, 17 the Romans endeavour to break by force cuneum Macedonum — phalangem ipsi uocant (11). The enemy, conferti (8, 13), throw their huge spears, and the Romans achieve nothing velut in constructam densitate clipeorum testudinem (60) (13). In Curtius, Darius, speaking of the Macedonian infantry, says: Sed Macedonum acies, torua sane et inculta, clipeis hastisque immobiles cuneos et conferta robora uirorum tegit. Ipsi phalangem uocant, peditum stabile agmen (111, 2, 13). Conferti appears more than once when phalangites are engaged in battle (Curt. III, 11, 4; VII, 9, 7).

<sup>(54)</sup> Phalanx may denote, properly, combined battalions of heavy infantry (Nep. Eum. 8, 2; Liv. XXXI, 39, 10; XXXIII, 4, 1, 3; 8, 7, 13; 9, 3, 5, 10; XLII, 59, 7; 61, 10; 66, 3, 6; XLIV, 37, 11; 41, 6; 42, 4; Curt. III, 9, 2, 7; 11, 1; IV, 13, 27; 15, 14; V, 6, 2; 13, 10; VI, 4, 3, 15; VII, 5, 32; 8, 6; VIII, 2, 33; 14, 18, 25; X, 7, 14; 9, 12; Fron., Str. II, 3, 17, 20; SHA. Alex. Sev. 50, 5). Occasionally it may be used of infantry in general (e.g. Curt. IV, 9, 12; 12, 23). Greek, Macedonian and Antigonid battle lines are also termed phalanx (Nep., Cha. 1, 2; Pel. 4, 2; Liv. IX, 19, 8; XXXII, 17, 11; XXXIII, 18, 17; XLIV, 41, 9; Curt. III, 2, 13; 9, 2; Fron., Str. II, 3, 20), as are single battalions of heavy infantry (Nep., Eum. 7, 1; Liv. VIII, 8, 3; XLIV, 41, 1, 2; Curt. VII, 9, 22; VIII, 10, 4; X, 8, 23; Suet., Nero 19, 2). The poets considered phalanx dignified enough for epic, where it denotes not only an army host (Verg., A. II, 254; VI, 489; XII, 544, 551, 662; V. Fl. VI, 750), but any band of armed men (Verg., A. XI, 92; XII, 277; V. Fl. VII, 613; Stat., Theb. II, 471). Juvenal extends its use even further for humorous effect (2, 46 to denote the male sex as a group).

<sup>(55)</sup> T. RICE HOLMES at CAES., BG I, 24, 5 equates testudo and phalanx. WEISSEN-BORN-MULLER at Liv. X, 29, 12 draws attention to the inexactness of testudo in a Gallic context.

<sup>(56)</sup> See TLL s.v. confercio: p. 171 line 73; p. 172 lines 28-35.

<sup>(57)</sup> HIRT., BG VIII, 14, 5; Liv. X, 29, 7; XXII, 47, 5, 8 (Gauls and Spaniards combined); Just. XXIV, 8, 9: confertissimi cunei.

<sup>(58)</sup> Celtiberians: Liv. XXV, 34, 11; XXXIX, 31, 3, 6; XL, 40, 3, 5, 8; Germans: TAC., G. 6, 6; 7, 3; Hist. IV, 16 (Bataui and Frisii), 20 (Bataui); V. 16, 18; AMM. XVII, 12, 1; XXVII, 2, 4. Cf. also Greg. Tur., Franc. IV, 2: Saxones fecerunt ex se duos, ut aiunt, cuneos.

<sup>(59)</sup> ILS 2635, 4761. On the German cuneus see H. Delbruck. Kriegkunst, Geschichte der Kriegkunst im Rahmen der politischen Geschichte, Berlin, 1909, II, p. 33 ff. (60) Curtius' Macedonians also make a testudo (V, 3, 9, 21; VII, 9, 3) but it is clear that a Roman-type formation is meant (cf. V, 3, 23). The term is not used, as in Caesar, to denote phalanx.

Looking back over the instances of Caesarian vocabulary discussed, Caesar's terms recur most frequently in Livy and Tacitus.

It is unfortunate that so much of Livy's history is lost. In Book CIII Livy followed his version of the conquest of the Helvetii with a description of Gaul. The first part of Book CIV contained a description of Germany and the habits of its people, which served as an introduction to his account of Caesar's campaign against Ariovistus. Ethnographic material prefaced his account of Caesar's invasions of Britain in Book CV. It is most probable that Livy used Caesar as one of his sources for these descriptions. Given the incidence of Caesar's ethnographic terminology in Livy's extant narrative, it is likely that his lost ethnographic excursuses showed similar influence, and helped to entrench Caesarian vocabulary in the ethnographic tradition.

It is probable that Livy's Histories, rather than Caesar's Commentarii themselves were responsible for the subsequent dissemination of Caesar's terms. Certainly cuneus referring to Gallic battle lines in Trogus/Justin, and to the Macedonian phalanx in Curtius should be traced back to Livy rather than to Caesar's isolated use of cuneatim at BG, VII, 28, 1.

When we come to Tacitus' Germania we find German tribal society discussed in terms familiar from Caesar's Gaul. German tribes are divided into pagi (see notes 45 and 46). Reges (61) and principes (62) wield power in the tribe, raising issues already dear to the hearts of commentators on the Gallic Wars — Does the term principes denote elected magistrates or merely "leading men" (63)? Did kings supersede principes, or vice versa (64)? In the Germania, as in Caesar, principes

administer justice (Compare Caes. BG V1, 23, 5: principes regionum atque pagorum inter suos ius dicunt controuersias minuunt and Tac., G. 12, 3: principes qui iura, per pagos uicosque reddunt). The plebs gather under arms in concilio. German nobiles (65) have numbers of serfs (serui) (66) and dependants (comites/clientes). German troops fight in wedges (cunei). There is little in the ethnographic vocabulary of Tacitus which would have startled Caesar, and much he would have recognized as his own.

Tacitus had clearly read Caesar (67). He quotes him in the Germania as being the highest authority (summus auctorum (G. 28, 1), presumably in respect of his knowledge of Gaul. Tacitus may well have absorbed some terms directly. But Caesar is unlikely to have been the only source for Tacitus' account of Germany (68). Tacitus is far more detailed, and where the two authors deal with the same subject (e.g. German gods) their accounts differ. Livy's Histories, however, a classic in Tacitus' day, may well have been a major source, bringing with them Caesar's vocabulary.

In short, after the publication of the Commentarii, later writers drew upon Caesar's vocabulary, whether directly or indirectly, when describing the institutions of Celts and Germans. Such terms might seem the obvious ones to choose, but Caesar chose them first, and the auctoritas of this acknowledged expert on Gaul lent weight, not only to the information he provided, but to his ethnographic vocabulary also.

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<sup>(61)</sup> TAC., G. 1, 1; 7, 1; 12, 2; 42, 2; 43, 6; Ann. II, 63, 7; XI, 16, 1; XII, 29, 2; Hist. III, 5. Cf. (of Gaul) CAES., BG II, 4, 7; 13, 1; VI, 31, 5; VII, 31, 5; 46, 5; LIV, V, 34, 1, 2; JUST. XLIII, 3, 8, 9; 4, 3, 6, 8, 10, 11.

<sup>(62)</sup> TAC., G. 5, 4; 10, 4; 11, 1, 5; 12, 3; 13, 1, 2, 3; 14, 1, 3; 15, 2; 22, 3; 38, 4; Ann. I, 55, 3; II, 7, 2; 88, 1; XI, 16, 2. Cf. n. 30 above. It is also used of Germans by Livy (XL, 58, 5) and Florus (II, 30 (IV, 12) 33).

<sup>(63)</sup> See A. KLOTZ, loc. cit.; J. G. C. ANDERSON'S commentary on the Germania, p. liii-lvii; K. Müllenhoff, Deutsche Altertumskunde, Berlin, 1900, IV, p. 187; A. Dopsch, The Economic and Social Foundations of European Civilization, London, 1937, p. 173 ff. Tac., G. 12, 3 and 22, 3 seem to be clear cases where principes denotes magistrates.

<sup>(64)</sup> E. A. Thompson, *The Early Germans*, London, 1965, p. 33 believes that monarchy was a later development. J. G. C. Anderson, p. 1ii maintains that it was the oldest form of government, and was superseded by *principes* in some states, as he believes was the pattern in Gaul and Britain.

<sup>(65)</sup> TAC., G. 25, 3 (cf. G. 7, 1: nobilitas); Ann. 11, 4; X1, 16, 1. Cf. note 29 above.

<sup>(66)</sup> Again a familiar question arises: does serui at TAC., G. 25, 1, 2, 3 denote half-free German serfs called by the German name laeti, whom Roman emperors from the time of Marcus Aurelius settled within the empire? (AMM. XVI, 11, 4 (with DI JONGE's note); XX, 8, 13; XXI, 13, 16). Cf. the question of whether serui denotes ambacti (serfs in a position of total dependence in Gaul) (see above n. 32).

<sup>(67)</sup> For evidence of Tacitus' attentive reading of Caesar see O. Devitters, L'utilisation des sources comme technique de déformation: le cas de la Germanie in Latomus 48, 1989, p. 847-848.

<sup>(68)</sup> For other possible sources see O. Devillers, op. cit., p. 846 n. 7.

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