Directions
You may write in this book during perusal time.

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After the examination session
Take this book when you leave.
Planning space
Source A — The Sources of Augustus’ Principate

Tacitus characterised the historiography of the Principate as being vitiated [corrupted, impaired or devalued] by two considerations. First, as government became progressively the business of one man, general knowledge of events and the thinking that lay behind them deteriorated. Second, the dominance of the princeps and in many cases his capricious character made it increasingly inevitable that writers would flatter the princeps whilst he was alive and vilify him once dead. In both these ways, the interests of posterity were compromised, and the truth was therefore hard to discover. It is likely, however, that the history of Augustus’ reign was to a degree less affected by these considerations than was the case with the reigns of his successors.


Source B — Tacitus Annals I. ii, iii. 7–iv. 2

After the death of Brutus and Cassius, there was no longer any army loyal to the Republic; Pompey had been crushed at Sicily; and, with Lepidus deposed and Antony dead, not even the Julian faction had any leader left except Caesar. Then, laying aside the title of triumvir and parading as a consul, and professing himself satisfied with the tribunician power for the protection of the plebs, Augustus enticed the soldiers with gifts, the people with grain, and all men with the allurement of peace, and gradually grew in power, concentrating in his own hands the functions of the senate, the magistrates, and the laws. No one opposed him, for the most courageous had fallen in battle or in the proscription. As for the remaining nobles, the readier they were for slavery, the higher were they raised in wealth and offices, so that, aggrandised by the revolution, they preferred the safety of the present to the perils of the past.


Source C — Horace, Odes IV. XV

Thine age, O Caesar, has brought back fertile crops to the fields and has restored to our own Jupiter the military standards stripped from the proud columns of the Parthians; has closed Janus’ temple freed of wars; has put reins on licence overstepping righteous bounds; has wiped away our sins and revived the ancient virtues through which the Latin name and the might of Italy waxed great, and the fame and majesty of our empire were spread from the sun’s bed in the west to the east. As long as Caesar is the guardian of the state, neither civil dissension nor violence shall banish peace, nor wrath that forges swords and brings discord and misery to cities. Not those who drink the deep Danube shall violate the orders of Caesar, nor the Getae, nor the Seres, nor the perfidious Parthians, nor those born by the Don River.

Lewis, N and Reinhold, M (eds) 1990, *Roman Civilization*, p. 574
Source D — Suetonius, Augustus, 29

Some of Augustus’ public works were undertaken in the names of relatives: such as the colonnade and basilica of his grandsons Gaius and Lucius; the colonnades of his wife Livia and his sister Octavia; the theatre of his nephew Marcellus. He also often urged leading citizens to embellish the city with new public monuments or to restore and improve ancient ones, according to their means. Many responded: thus the Temple of Hercules and the Muses was raised by Marcus Philippus; that of Diana by Lucius Cornificius; the Hall of Liberty by Asinius Pollio; the Temple of Saturn by Munatius Plancus; a theatre by Cornelius Balbus; an amphitheatre by Statilius Taurus; and a variety of magnificent buildings by Marcus Agrippa.

Grant, M (trans) 1957, Suetonius: The Twelve Caesars, p. 70

Source E — Silver coin, Spain, ca 18/17 BC

CAESAR AUGUSTUS, bare head right/round shield inscribed S P Q R

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Rome, Forum Romanum, layout in the early 1st century AD: (a) Curia Julia; (b) Rostra; (c) Basilica Aemilia; (d) Temple of Vesta; (e) Temple of Saturn; (f) Regia; (g) shrine of Janus; (h) shrine of Venus Cloacina; (i) Temple of Castor; (j) Lacus Curius; (k) Temple of Concord; (l) Lapis Niger; (m) tabularium; (n) Basilica Julia; (o) Temple of Divus Julius; (p) Arch of Augustus; (q) Milliarium Aureum

FORUM ROMANUM. Administrative, juridical and commercial centre of Republican Rome, which continued to receive increasingly elaborate public buildings throughout most of the Imperial era (after 27 BC). The Forum Romanum came to symbolise Roman power, and its basic form was copied throughout the Roman world.

Source G — Artistic patronage

Octavian’s most important programme of artistic patronage, however, followed his assumption in 27 BC of the title “Augustus” (Lat.: “venerable”) and with it effective monarchic power. Artistic patronage was a vehicle by which Augustus sought to legitimate his new position in terms of traditional Roman values. He rebuilt 82 temples in order to demonstrate his piety and to restore the pax deorum (“peace of the gods”) disrupted by the civil wars of the late Republic. New building in the Forum Romanum allowed him to redefine civic space in order to display his exceptional power. A temple of his deified father, Julius Caesar, dominated the eastern end of the forum. Two triumphal arches celebrating Augustus’ victories at Actium and against the Parthians flanked the temple and formed the entrance to the forum.

Such buildings provided the setting for an extensive programme of sculpture commissioned by Augustus. A series of some 70 portrait statues in the porticoes of the Forum Augustum presented Augustus as the inevitable conclusion of two lines of succession: the first, summi viri (“great men”) from Roman history stretching back to the founder of Rome, Romulus; the second, summi viri of the Julian family stretching back to Aeneas. Framed by these porticoes was the Temple of Mars Ultor (“Mars the Avenger”), with cult statues of Mars, the father of Romulus, and Venus the mother of Aeneas, thus tying Augustus’ succession to sole power into the divine order of things.


Source H — The Accomplishments of Augustus (Res Gestae Divi Augusti). A list of first lines from each section.

1. At the age of nineteen, on my own initiative and at my own expense, I raised an army by means of which I liberated the Republic, which was oppressed by the tyranny of a faction.
2. Those who assassinated my father I drove into exile, avenging their crime by due process of law.
3. I waged many wars throughout the whole world by land and by sea, both civil and foreign, and when victorious I spared all citizens who sought pardon.
4. Twice I celebrated ovations, three times curule triumphs, and I was acclaimed imperator twenty-one times.
5. The dictatorship offered to me in the consulship of Marcus Marcellus and Lucius Arruntius [22 BC] by the people and by the senate, both in my absence and in my presence, I refused to accept.
6. In the consulship of Marcus Vinicius and Quintus Lucretius, though the Roman senate and people unitedly agreed that I should be elected sole guardian of the laws and morals with supreme authority, I refused to accept any office offered me which was contrary to the traditions of our ancestors.
7. I was a member of the triumvirate for the settlement of the commonwealth for ten consecutive years.
8. In my fifth consulship I increased the number of patricians, by people and senate.
9. The senate decreed that vows for my health should be offered up every fifth year by the consuls and priests.
10. My name was inserted, by decree of the senate, in the hymn of the Salian priests.
11. To commemorate my return from Syria, the senate consecrated an altar to Fortune the Home-bringer before the temple of Honour and Virtue at the Porta Capena.
12. On this occasion, by decree of the senate, a portion of the praetors and tribunes of the plebs, were sent to Campania to meet me, an honour which up to this time has been decreed to no one but myself.

13. The temple of Janus Quirinus, which our ancestors desired to be closed whenever peace with victory was secured by sea and by land throughout the entire empire of the Roman people, was during my principate three times ordered by the senate to be closed.

14. My sons Gaius and Lucius Caesar were made consuls designate by the Roman senate and people when they were fifteen years old.

15. To the Roman plebs I paid 300 sesterces apiece in accordance with the will of my father [i.e. Julius Caesar].

16. I reimbursed municipalities for the lands which I assigned to my soldiers in my fourth consulship.

17. Four times I came to the assistance of the treasury with my own money.

18. From the year in which Gnaeus Lentulus and Publius Lentulus were consuls, whenever the provincial taxes fell short I made up their tribute in grain and in money from my own grain stores and my own patrimony.

19. I built the following structures: the senate house and the Chalcidicum adjoining it; the temple of Apollo on the Palatine with its porticoes; the temple of the deified Julius; the Lupercal: the portico at the Circus Flaminius, which I allowed to be called Octavia after the name of the man who had built an earlier portico on the same site; the state box at the Circus Maximus; the temples of Jupiter the Smiter and Jupiter the Thunderer on the Capitoline; the temple of Quirinus; the temples of Minerva and Queen Juno and of Jupiter Freedom on the Aventine; the temple of the Lares at the head of the Sacred Way; the temple of the Penates on the Velia; the temple of Youth and the temple of the Great Mother on the Palatine.

20. I repaired the Capitol and the theatre of Pompey with enormous expenditures on both works, without having my name inscribed on them.

21. On my own private land I built the temple of Mars Ultor and the Augustan Forum from spoils of war.

22. I gave a gladiatorial show three times in my own name.

23. I presented to the people an exhibition of a naval battle across the Tiber.

24. When I was victorious I replaced in the temples of all the communities of the province of Asia the ornaments which my opponent [Mark Antony] in the war had seized for his private use after despoiling the temples.

25. I brought peace to the sea by suppressing the pirates.

26. I extended the frontiers of all the provinces of the Roman people whose boundaries were people not subject to our empire.

27. I added Egypt to the empire of the Roman people.


29. A number of military standards lost by other generals I recovered, after conquering the enemy, from Spain, Gaul and the Dalmatians.

30. Through Tiberius Nero, who was then my stepson and legate, I conquered and subjected to the empire of the Roman people the Pannonian tribes.
31. Royal embassies from India, never previously seen before any Roman general, were often sent to me.

32. The following kings fled to me as suppliants: Tiradates and afterwards Phraates son of King Phraates, kings of the Parthians; Artavasdes, king of the Medes; Artaxares, king of the Adiabenians; Dumnobellaunus and Tincommius, kings of the Britons; Maelo, king of the Sugumbrians and Segimerus, king of the Marcomannian Suebians. Phraates son of Orodes, king of the Parthians, sent to me in Italy all his sons and grandsons, not because he was conquered in war, but seeking our friendship through pledge of his children.

33. The peoples of the Parthians and of the Medes, received from me the kings for whom they asked.

34. In my sixth and seventh consulships, after I had put an end to the civil wars, having attained supreme power by universal consent, I transferred the state from my own power to the control of the Roman senate and the people.

35. When I held my thirteenth consulship, the senate, the equestrian order, and the entire Roman people gave me the title of “father of the country” and decreed that this title should be inscribed in the vestibule of my house, in the Julian senate house, and in the Augustan Forum on the pedestal of the chariot which was set up in my honour by decree of the senate.

Lewis, N and Reinhold, M (eds) 1990, Roman Civilization, pp. 562–72

Source I — The Roman Empire, AD 14

Adapted from Bradley, P 1990, Ancient Rome: Using Evidence, p. 455
Source J — Cassius Dio, *Roman History* LIII. Xii–xv

Augustus declared that he would not personally govern all the provinces, and that in the case of such provinces as he should govern he would not do so indefinitely. And he did, in fact, restore to the senate the weaker provinces, on the ground that they were peaceful and free from war, while he retained the more powerful ones, alleging that they were insecure and precarious and either had enemies on their borders or were able on their own account to begin a serious revolt. His professed motive in this was that the senate might enjoy without fears the finest portion of the empire, while he himself had the hardships and the dangers; but his real purpose was that by this arrangement the senators should be unarmed and peaceful, while he alone had arms and maintained soldiers.


Source K — Suetonius, Augustus, 38

Augustus showed equal generosity in recognising miliary talent, by letting full triumphs be voted to more than thirty of his generals, and triumphal regalia to an even larger number.

Senators’ sons were now encouraged to familiarise themselves with the administration; they might wear purple-striped gowns immediately upon coming of age and attend meetings of the House. When their miliary careers began, they were not merely given colonelcies in regular legions, but the command of cavalry squadrons; and Augustus usually appointed two to the command of each squadron, thus ensuring that none of them lacked experience in this arm of the service.

Grant, M (trans) 1957, *Suetonius: The Twelve Caesars*, p. 75
Source 1 — Vitruvius’ dedication to Augustus — Vitruvius, Architecture I, Preface 2–3

I observed that you cared not only about the common life of men and the constitution of the state but also about the provision of suitable buildings; so that the state was not only made greater through you by its new provinces, but the majesty of the empire also was expressed through the eminent dignity of its public buildings. Hence I conceived that the opportunity should be taken at once of bringing before you my proposals about such things.

Lewis, N and Reinhold, M (eds) 1990, Roman Civilization, p. 628

Source 2 — Statue known as Augustus of Prima Porta

Vatican Museums
Source 3 — Augustus of Prima Porta

The Augustus of Prima Porta, believed to have been commissioned in AD 15 by Augustus’ adopted son Tiberius, is a majestic example of Imperial Roman statuary. It was discovered at Prima Porta, nine miles outside of Rome, in the villa belonging to Augustus’ wife Livia. Although it may be a copy of a bronze original, dated 20 BC, Tiberius made a significant addition to his marble copy: on the chest plate, he added scenes depicting the Roman victory over the Parthians. These scenes were used by Tiberius as a form of propaganda so that the viewer would recall the important role his father played in securing the Roman empire.

The Augustus of Prima Porta is based on the Doryphorus, a famous antique statue by Polykleitos portraying the ideal human proportions of an Athenian athlete. The depiction of Augustus portrays him as a victorious general making a speech. He is posed in the traditional controposto manner: his right leg is placed firmly forward while his left leg is bent and the heel slightly raised. Augustus’ right arm is stretched out in a noble and controlled Roman gesture and is counter-balanced by the slightly-bent left leg. Combined with these idealised features of strength and beauty, there are also personal features of Augustus: a broad cranium, deep-set eyes, sharp ridges in his brow, a well-formed mouth and a small chin. Furthermore, his face depicted in the manner of Apollo was meant to associate Augustus’ abilities with those of the powerful god. Thus, Augustus wanted to portray himself as a perfect leader with flawless features, personifying the power and authority of the emperor who had the capacity to stabilise a society and an empire.

Vatican Museums

Source 4 — Oath of allegiance to Augustus

In the third year from the twelfth consulship of the Emperor Caesar Augustus, son of a god, March 6, … at Gangra, the following oath was taken by the inhabitants of Paphlagonia and the Roman businessmen dwelling among them:

- I swear by Jupiter, Earth, Sun, by all the gods and goddesses, and by Augustus himself, that I will be loyal to Caesar Augustus and to his children and descendants all my life in word, in deed, and in thought, regarding as friends whomever they so regard, and considering as enemies whomever they so adjudge; that in defence of their interests I will spare neither body, soul, life, nor children, but will in every way undergo every danger in defence of their interests; that whenever I perceive or hear anything being said or planned or done against them I will lodge information about this and will be an enemy to whoever says or plans or does any such thing; and that whomever they adjudge to be enemies I will by land and sea, with weapons and sword, pursue and punish.

Lewis, N and Reinhold, M (eds) 1990, Roman Civilization, p. 589
Source 5 — Cassius Dio, Roman History LII. Xlii. 1–7

After this he held the office of censor, with Agrippa as his colleague, and in addition to other reforms which he instituted he purged the senate. For as a result of the civil wars a large number of *equites* and even of men of lower rank were in the senate unjustifiably, so that the membership of that body had swollen to a thousand. Now, though it was his wish to remove these men, he did not erase any of their names himself but urged them rather to become their own judges on the basis of their knowledge of their families and their lives; he thus first persuaded some fifty to withdraw from the senate voluntarily, and then compelled 140 others to imitate their example. He disfranchised none of them, but posted the names of the second group, sparing the members of the first group the reproach of the publication of their names, because they had not delayed but had straightway obeyed him. So these men returned to private life and he made some other men senators.


Source 6 — Suetonius, Augustus 47

Augustus kept for himself all the more vigorous provinces – those that could not be safely administered by an annual governor; the remainder went to proconsuls chosen by lot. Yet, as occasion arose, he would change the status of provinces from imperial to senatorial, or contrariwise, and paid frequent visits to either sort. Finding that certain city-states which had treaties of alliance with Rome were ruining themselves through political irresponsibility, he took away their independence; but also granted subsidies to others crippled by public debts, rebuilt some cities which had been devastated by earthquakes, and even awarded Latin rights or full citizenship to states that could show a record of faithful service in the Roman cause. So far as I know, Augustus inspected every province of the Empire.

Grant, M (trans) 1957, *Suetonius: The Twelve Caesars*, p. 82
Source 7 — The provinces

In 27 BC Augustus was granted a ten-year commission to administer the provinces of Spain, Gaul and Syria with proconsular imperium. In 23 BC his imperium was officially recognised as superior to that of all other proconsuls – *maius imperium*. The provinces that he was “invited” to control in 27 BC were those which required huge standing armies.

Augustus realised that the senate had failed in the past to curb ambitious commanders with large, loyal armies. In order to keep such men in their place and avoid a recurrence of civil wars — and also to maintain his own pre-eminence — he would need to make sure that most of Rome’s military power remained in his hands at all times. The empire was therefore divided into two provincial groups: those provinces which had been under Roman rule for a long time and were relatively peaceful and those which had recently been subdued or were more unruly and barbaric. The more peaceful and civilised were the public provinces, administered by the senate (senatorial provinces) while the “armed” provinces were under the control of Augustus (imperial provinces).

Some of the senatorial provinces also needed the presence of military forces, and Augustus’ *maius imperium* entitled him to interfere in their affairs if necessary. However, as conditions changed within the empire, so the division of provincial responsibility changed: when an “armed” province became more settled and troops were no longer needed, Augustus transferred it to the control of senate. All newly acquired territory came automatically under the control of Augustus.


Source 8 — Cassius Dio, 43–44

The Romans felt his death as a great loss, both for these reasons and for others besides. By dint of combining monarchy with democracy, he saved their freedom for them and at the same time established order and security, so that they were delivered alike from the lack of authority which prevails in a democracy and from the excess of it in a tyranny, and could live in a state of freedom enjoyed with moderation and under a monarchy which held no terrors for them; they were subjects of royalty without being slaves, and citizens of a democracy without suffering discord.

If any of them remembered Augustus’s deeds during the civil wars, they attributed them to the pressure of circumstances. They judged it right to base their view of his disposition on what he did after he had come into the undisputed possession of supreme power, for here in truth there was an immense contrast. Anyone who examines his actions in detail can confirm this. But to sum them up briefly, I may say that he resolved the strife between the rival factions, remodelled the system of government in such a way as to equip it with the maximum of power and greatly strengthened it. For this reason, even if an occasional deed of violence did occur, such as is apt to happen in exceptional situations, it would be fairer to lay the blame on the circumstances rather than on him.

Horace

Horace says that his father’s family was of servile origin, and that his father was an auctioneer with a small holding. His father took him all the way to Rome for schooling under Orbilius. Horace then went to the university at Athens, and there was enticed by Brutus to serve under him as tribune militum until the defeat at Philippi in 42 BC. He returned to Italy to find his father’s house and land gone in the confiscations. He obtained a pardon for his political indiscretion and purchased the post of scriba quaestorius, a keeper of records to quaestors. Horace’s poetical activity caught the attention of Maecenas and he became an increasingly important member of a circle of writers who, through Maecenas, were collected under the patronage of Augustus. He frequently mentions his Sabine farm which was an early benefit of patronage. He was able to refuse a request from Augustus to become his secretary: these facts are a measure of Horace’s success in winning the confidence of the most powerful man in Rome.


Suetonius

Suetonius is mentioned or addressed several times in the Younger Pliny’s letters as a quiet and scholarly man who, after some experience at the bar, settled down as a writer. Presumably to qualify him in a career in the imperial service, he obtained through Pliny’s agency a military tribunate, but did not take it up. Shortly after this begin the series of appointments to the palace, culminating in the three secretarial posts of a studiis, a bibliothecis, and ab epistulis. The last post he held under Hadrian by whom he was dismissed in AD 121/122. We hear nothing more of his career; but he probably continued writing for some years. Altogether, Suetonius represents the new type of professional scholars who came into prominence in the second century. [His access to imperial sources, through his secretarial positions, shaped his largely biographical accounts of the Caesars, with a particular emphasis on character and insights into their private lives.]


Tacitus

Born in AD 56, he began his official career under Vespasian. He married Agricola’s daughter in AD 77 [Agricola was a successful governor of Britain]. Away from Rome when Agricola died in AD 93, he returned to witness the last years of [the Emperor] Domitian’s savagery. His reputation for eloquence was high, [and] he turned to historical writing. He may have governed a military province in AD 112/113. But his view [of history] is coloured by his own experience. Reacting against the Principate, Tacitus looks back longingly on the “free” institutions of the Republic; the Principate may have benefitted the provinces and secured peace, but the overwhelming power thus centred in one man blunted the moral sense of even experienced rulers and rapidly reduced the rule to servility and flattery. Even Augustus is damned with faint praise, or belauded only for contrast with his worse successors. Roman virtus had stagnated into an inactive and inglorious temper; Augustus had lured citizens into the Principate.
... Nor was the vaunted *pax Augusta* fruitful or prosperous, at least in Rome; what galls Tacitus is the lack of independence and courage among those who should have shown it. While lower ranks provided shining examples of loyalty and heroism, most nobles and senators could only cringe to a despot.


**Res Gestae Divi Augusti**

*Res Gestae Divi Augusti*, ("The Deeds of the Divine Augustus") is the funerary inscription of the first Roman emperor, Augustus, giving a first-person record of his life and accomplishments. The text consists of 35 paragraphs that are conventionally grouped in four sections with a short introduction and post mortem appendix.

**Political career** — The first part of the Res Gestae (paragraphs 2–14) is concerned with Augustus’ political career, recording the offices and political honours that he held.

**Public benefactions** — The second part (paragraphs 15–24) lists Augustus’ donations of money, land and grain to the citizens of Italy and his soldiers, as well as the public works and gladiatorial spectacles that he commissioned. The text is careful to point out that all this was paid for out of Augustus’ own funds.

**Military accomplishments** — The third part (paragraphs 25–33) describes his military deeds and how he established alliances with other nations during his reign.

**Political statement** — The last part (paragraphs 34–35) sums up Augustus’ exceptional position in the government.

**Appendix** — The appendix (written in the third person, and likely not by Augustus himself) summarises the entire text, and lists various buildings he renovated or constructed; it states 600 million denarii from his own funds were spent during his reign towards public projects.

According to the text it was written just before Augustus’ death in AD 14, but it was probably written years earlier and likely went through many revisions. Augustus left the text with his will, which instructed the Senate to set up the inscriptions. The original, which has not survived, was engraved upon a pair of bronze pillars and placed in front of Augustus’ mausoleum. Many copies of the text were made and carved in stone on monuments or temples throughout the Roman Empire, some of which have survived; most notably, almost a full copy, written in the original Latin and a Greek translation was preserved on a temple to Augustus in Ancyra. By its very nature the *Res Gestae* is less objective history and more propaganda for the Principate that Augustus instituted.

The text fails to mention his *imperium maius* and his exceptional tribunical powers. Often quoted is Augustus’ official position on his government: “From that time (27 BC, the end of the civil war) I surpassed all others in influence, yet my official powers were not greater than those of my colleague in office.” This is in keeping with a reign that promoted itself from the beginning as a “restoration” of the old republic, with a leader who was nothing more than “first among equals,” but was virtually akin to absolute monarchy by divine right, backed by the swords of the legions. The *Res Gestae* was a unique public relations move for the first emperor of the Roman Empire, whose political career was in many ways experimental.
If their frequent use as “history” by later historians (both ancient and modern) who characterised Augustus’ rule according to categories he himself constructed in the *Res Gestae* is any indication, it is a rather successful piece of propaganda. On the other hand, it would be absurd to overlook the usefulness to historians of what is essentially a first-person account of his rule.

http://en.wikipedia.org

**Cassius Dio**

Cassius Dio c. AD 155 or 163/164 to after 229, was a Roman consul and a noted historian writing in Greek. He was the son of a Roman senator and was born and raised at Nicaea in Bithynia. Although a Roman citizen, he was Greek by descent. He passed the greater part of his life in public service. He was a senator under Commodus and governor of Smyrna after the death of Septimius Severus, and afterwards suffect consul around 205. Severus Alexander held him in the highest esteem and made him his consul again, even though his caustic nature irritated the Praetorian Guards, who demanded his life. Following his second consulship, being advanced in years, he returned to his native country, where he died.

Dio published a *Roman History*, in 80 books, after 22 years of research and labour. It covers Roman history for a period of about 1,400 years, beginning with the arrival of the legendary Aeneas in Italy (c. 1200 BC), through the subsequent mythistoric founding of Rome (753 BC), then it covers historical events up to AD 229. Down to about the first century BC, Dio gives only a summary of events; after that period, his accounts become more detailed; and from the time of Commodus, he is very circumspect in relating what passed under his own eyes.

Dio attempted to emulate Thucydides in his writing style, but came up short both in arrangement and the presentation of the materials and in the soundness of his viewpoint and accuracy of his reasoning. His style is generally clear, where there appears to be no corruption of the text, although his writing is full of Latinisms. His diligence is unquestionable, and due to his personal circumstances he had the opportunity to either be a first-person observer of or have direct contact with the key figures involved in many of the significant events of the Empire during his own lifetime.

http://en.wikipedia.org

**Vitruvius Pol(I)io**

A Roman architect and military engineer under the second triumvirate and early in Augustus’ reign. He built a basilica at Fanum; but his fame rests chiefly on a treatise, *De architectura*, on architecture and engineering, compiled partly from his own experience and partly from similar works by Hermogenes and other noted architects, mostly Greeks.

Acknowledgments

Seen sources

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