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GENERAL HISTORY

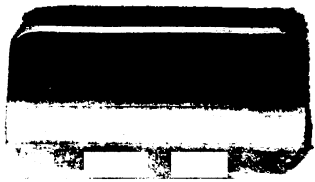
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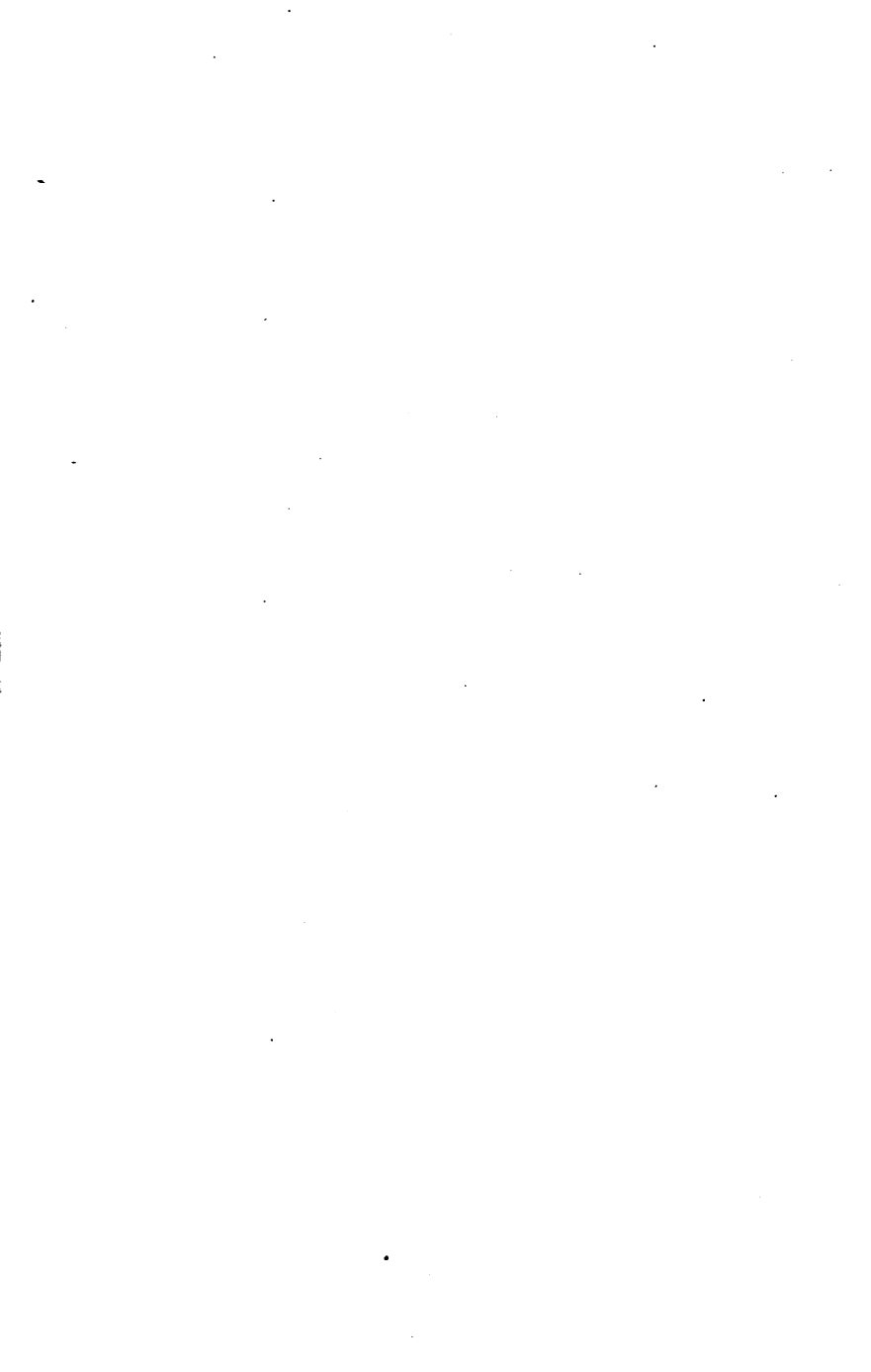


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AN OUTLINE
OF
GENERAL HISTORY

For the Use of Schools

REVISED EDITION

BY

M. E. THALHEIMER

Author of "A Manual of Ancient History," "A Manual of Mediæval and Modern History," "A History of England," "The Eclectic History of the United States," etc.

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PREFACE.

In the Outline of General History, as presented to the public nearly six years ago, the aim was to combine the extreme of brevity with a lively and simple narrative, such as might supply the present need of young scholars, while affording a symmetrical plan for the research of older ones.

It was felt that much labor was left to the teacher in filling up the outline thus offered; but the author has had the satisfaction of knowing that the book, in its several editions, has been both ably and successfully used.

In the present enlarged edition, much of the needed supplementary matter has been added in the form of notes upon each chapter. The selection from such a wealth of material has of course been a matter of difficulty, and it is not to be supposed that a perfect proportion has been attained. It is hoped, however, that the more practical aim has been measurably reached,—of contributing somewhat to the convenience of teachers and the profit of pupils.

References to authorities have been multiplied, and the quotations, though necessarily brief, may serve as guides to a more extensive reading of the works from which they are taken.

(iii)

The Maps and Engravings are the same as in previous editions, of which they constituted an important part of the value.

Cordial thanks are due to several distinguished teachers, who, from their experience in the actual use of the book, have contributed valuable suggestions for the correction of the plates.

Grateful for the favor with which the Outline of General History has already been received, the author commends it anew to the candid judgment of teachers, hoping that to their pupils this revised and enlarged edition may convey some hint, however inadequate, of the wealth of historical literature that awaits their perusal, and of the fullness of life in the ages of which they are the heirs.

BROOKLYN, N. Y., }
April, 1883. }

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OUTLINES OF UNIVERSAL HISTORY.

INTRODUCTION.

1. From the earliest known times, men have been divided into two classes—those who, wandering from place to place, lived upon the wild products of the earth, or upon the milk and flesh of their herds; and those who, preferring settled abodes, built cities and villages, and increased their wealth by mining, tillage, mechanical arts, and commerce.

2. The first settled communities could only exist near great rivers, where the fertile soil afforded plenty of food, as in the valleys of the Ganges, Indus, Tigris, Euphrates, and Nile; while beyond the great mountain barrier which divides central from southern Asia, roamed the ancient Scythians, ancestors of fierce and wandering tribes, which frequently burst their bounds, carrying ruin to the rich cities and harvest fields of the southern plains. With the progress of the world, the *nomadic* or wandering races have become fewer, and the civilized more numerous; but to this day the steppes of central Asia are occupied by roving tribes.

3. **History** begins with the formation of settled communities. Other sciences deal with man as an animal, or classify the several races according to their languages, habitations, and use of metals. History has to do with

civilized man, and describes the raids of barbarians only as it tells of earthquakes and floods which have overthrown his dwellings and destroyed his wealth.

4. The populous communities of India, China, and Japan—though they contributed their jewels, spices, perfumes, and silken garments to the luxury of the western Asiatics—were so little known to the Greek and Roman writers, that they also are beyond the range of ancient History. We have only to tell the story of those nations which, through their art, their literature, or their laws, have helped to make our modern society what it is.

5. History is divided into three periods: Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern.

Ancient History describes the states that rose and fell in western Asia, Africa, and Europe, until A. D. 476, when the German race became predominant in the latter, and overthrew the Roman Empire of the West.

Mediæval History covers the thousand years between the breaking-up of the old order and the establishment of the new. It tells how the tribes of northern barbarians grew to be the nations of modern Europe, and ends with the fall of the Eastern Roman Empire, A. D. 1453.

The opening of Modern History is marked by the revival of learning, the multiplication of printed books, the discovery of America, and the reformation in religion.

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𐎠𐎡𐎢 𐎣𐎤 𐎥𐎦 𐎧𐎨 𐎩𐎪 𐎫𐎬 𐎭𐎮

Cuneiform Characters.

BOOK I.—THE ANCIENT WORLD.

PART I.—NATIONS OF ASIA AND AFRICA.

CHAPTER I.

DISPERSION OF RACES — CHALDÆA, ASSYRIA, MEDIA, AND BABYLONIA.



Assyrian War Chariot.

THE earliest known attempt to form a settled community was made by the sons of Noah, at Babel, after the Flood. It was defeated by the Confusion of Tongues. See Gen. xi : 4-9. The three families then separated. The children of JAPHET were divided, one part traveling westward by many paths into Europe,¹ while another, moving eastward, occupied the

table-lands of Iran, Bactria, and northern India. They were the parents of the Indo-Germanic or Aryan race, whose active intellect has made it the leader of the world in art, literature, and laws.

7. The children of SHEM remained upon the fertile plains of the Tigris and Euphrates. This family has ever been distinguished for intense religious feeling; and from its ranks came the Chosen People, to whom were committed the written revelations of God.

Part of the HAMITES moved to the shores of the Mediterranean, and established the great empire of Egypt; while Nimrod, a grandson of Ham, built Babylon, and became the founder of the Chaldæan Kingdom² south of the Euphrates. The Hamites were great builders: in Egypt their massive pyramids and temples have proved almost as lasting as the eternal hills; but in Chaldæa the want of stone compelled them to use a more perishable material. Gen. xi: 3. From the clay of the plain and a natural bituminous cement, they erected buildings³ which were the wonders of the ancient world.

8. The Chaldæans were diligent students of the heavens, and their astronomical records date from the twenty-third century before Christ. They were the inventors of writing, which the Phœnician merchants learned from them and taught to the rest of the world. In writing, as in building, their ingenuity enabled them to make use of simple and rude materials; their wedge-shaped letters were impressed, with a stick, upon tablets or cylinders of clay, which were afterward either baked or dried in the sun. The earliest Chaldæan literature, so far as it has yet been read, consists chiefly of prayers, hymns, and charms against evil spirits.

9. In the thirteenth century B. C., Chaldæa was absorbed into the Semitic Empire of Assyria. This, at its greatest extent, reached from the Nile and the Mediter-

anean on the west to the mountains of Media on the east. The Assyrians were a vigorous nation, "all mighty men;" and their kings commonly led their armies in person, sharing the hardships of night-marches and toilsome campaigns among the mountains.

a. The First Period of Assyrian history begins in unknown antiquity, and ends with the Conquest of Babylon by Tiglath-nin, about 1250 B. C.

b. The Second Period extends from the latter event to the independence of Babylon, about 745 B. C.

c. The Third Period comprises the New or Lower Empire of Assyria, B. C. 745-625.

10. Although monuments, lately discovered, give complete lists of the Assyrian kings, from B. C. 1850, yet we know very little of the early centuries of their history. It was Tiglath-pileser I (B. C. 1120-1100) who made Assyria the foremost nation in the world. It declined as the Hebrew monarchy expanded, but became powerful again after the death of Solomon.

11. I'va-lush IV, or Vul-nira'ri (B. C. 810-781), was the husband of Sam'mura'mit, a Babylonian princess, whom the Greeks called Semiramis.⁴ Her name is associated with wonderful stories of conquests and public works. But these are mere fables concerning a mythical personage who lived, if at all, 500 years earlier. The real power and wealth of Sammuramit entitled her to a mention in Assyrian annals—an honor accorded to no other woman. There is some reason to believe that during this joint reign of Iva-lush and Sammuramit, the Hebrew prophet Jonah preached repentance to the Ninevites. If so, it was Iva-lush himself who laid aside his royal robes and sat in sack-cloth and ashes. (Jonah, iii and iv.) Forty years of humiliation followed, and the subject province of Babylon became not only independent but for a few years supreme.

12. Tiglath-pileser II (B. C. 745-727) was the founder of the New or Lower Assyrian Empire. He extended his dominion to the Mediterranean, and received tribute from all the kings of Syria and Palestine. Tyre, the richest maritime city in the world, paid three tons of gold into his treasury. He and his successors removed thousands of captive Israelites to Media and the river Gozan, filling their places with Babylonians. (Read 2 Kings xv: 29, and xvii: 4-6, 24-33.).

13. Sargon (B. C. 721-705) was one of the greatest Assyrian kings. He defeated the Egyptians and Philistines in the great battle of Raphia,⁵ and afterward annexed Babylon to his empire. His son Sennach'erib (B. C. 705-680) gained many victories over Phœnicians, Philistines, Egyptians, and Ethiopians. He took "all the fenced cities of Judah," and insolently threatened Jerusalem. But his pride was humbled by the sudden destruction of 185,000 of his soldiers, and he had to abandon most of his western conquests. (2 Kings xviii: 13-21, and xix.).

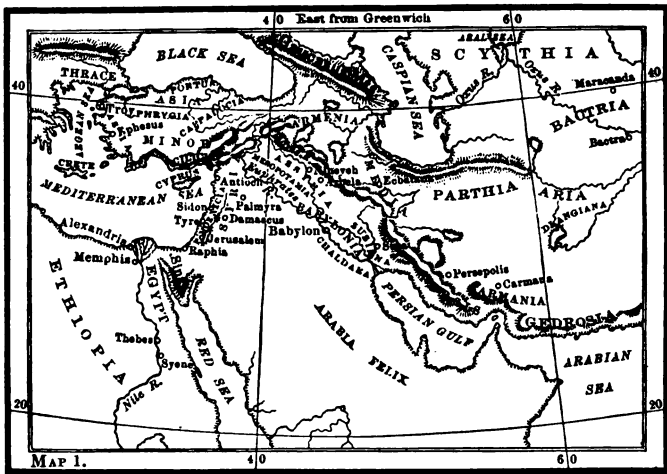
14. E'sarhad'don (B. C. 680-667) conquered Babylonia, Egypt, and Arabia; and his son As'shur-ba'ni-pal raised the empire to its greatest power and glory. He built many temples, and the finest of Assyrian palaces. He also collected a great library of clay tablets, inscribed with the records* of former kings, their letters, treaties, and laws; discourses on mathematics, geography, and natural history;

*These kings' own words prove all that the Hebrew prophets wrote of their cruelty, not less than of their splendor and power. One of them thus describes his treatment of a conquered city: "The men, young and old, I took prisoners: of some I cut off the feet and hands; of others I cut off the noses, ears, and lips: of the young men's ears I made a heap; of the old men's heads I built a tower. I exposed their heads as a trophy in front of their city. The children I burnt in the flames. The city I destroyed and consumed and burnt in the fire."

directions for worship, and primeval traditions. Among the latter is the Chaldæan story of the Deluge, coinciding in many important points with that which we have in the Bible.

15. The glory of Asshur-bani-pal was quickly followed by ruin under his successor. A wild horde of Scythians (§ 2) plundered the Assyrian cities; Media and Babylonia revolted; Nineveh was besieged and taken, its king was slain, and his dominions were divided between the conquerors, B. C. 625. The great cities of Assyria long lay in ruins: even the Greeks could only point to heaps of rubbish, under which Nineveh, Calah, and Resen were supposed to be buried. In late years, many of these mounds have been explored, and the magnificent palaces of Sargon, Sennacherib, and their successors, have contributed their sculptures to the adornment of European museums, and their inscriptions to our hitherto scanty knowledge of the primitive eastern nations.

16. **Media.**—B. C. 633–558. The two allies who had put an end to the Assyrian Empire, were of very different rank. Media, a rough country south of the Caspian Sea, was inhabited by Aryan tribes, which had claimed independence of Assyria but little more than a century. The founder of Median greatness, who first united these tribes into one kingdom, was Cyax'ares, the joint-conqueror of Nineveh with Nabopolas'sar. He is said to have been the first Asiatic who properly organized an army, separating cavalry, spearmen, and archers into distinct companies. Under his reign, and that of his son Asty'ages, Media rose rapidly in wealth and importance. Extreme luxury took the place of rude manners and simple dress; and their passion for hunting was all that remained of the hardy Medes in the jeweled courtiers of King Astyages. At this point the Persians, a kindred but subject nation, gained the supremacy, by reason of their brave and manly character.



17. Babylonia.—Babylon, on the contrary, was the seat of one of the oldest Asiatic states, long celebrated for wealth, luxury, and learning. The wonderful clearness of the air over the plain of the Euphrates early attracted attention to a study of the stars. Observations were carefully recorded, and tables still existing prove the painstaking skill of the Babylonian astronomers. They measured time by sun-dials, and were the inventors of other astronomical instruments.

18. After his country had been for 500 years subject to the Assyrian Empire (§ 9. *b.*), Nabonas'sar, a Babylonian general, set up an independent kingdom. But the fifth king of his line was taken captive by Sargon (§ 13); and for nearly a century the country was again ruled by Assyrian viceroys, though always ready to revolt. Fearing a double attack, from the north and south, which had been planned by the Medes, the last Assyrian king sent his general, Nabopolas'sar, to defend Babylon. But Nabopolassar turned traitor; he allied himself with Cyaxares, and led a Babylonian army to the siege of Nineveh

(§16). In the division of the spoils, which followed the capture of the great city, Nabopolassar received Susiana, Babylonia, and Chaldæa, with all Syria even to the borders of Egypt; while Assyria proper was added to the dominion of Cyaxares.

19. B. C. 604-561. Nebuchadnezzar, the second Babylonian king of this line, was one of the greatest monarchs whom the whole world has seen. By his victories over Egypt, Phœnicia, and Palestine, he reigned from the Mediterranean to the Indus. The royal descendants of David ate the bitter bread of captivity at his table in Babylon (2 Kings xxiv : 10-16, and xxv : 6, 7, 27-30). He adorned his capital with the celebrated Hanging Gardens, and protected it by walls of enormous thickness, while he enriched the whole country by canals and reservoirs, which distributed the waters of the Euphrates over its vast and fertile plain.

20. Babylonia became preëminent in industrial arts; and merchants from all parts of the world thronged her markets. There they found delicate muslins and linens, and magnificent carpets from the Babylonian looms, as well as fine wool from Cashmere; pearls from the Persian Gulf; diamonds and perfumes from India; bronzes and musical instruments from Phœnicia. The amazing fertility of the Babylonian soil—probably the richest on the globe—afforded abundance of barley and dates for even the poorest people, while the rich enjoyed every luxury which the ancient world could boast.

21. At the height of his grandeur, Nebuchadnezzar was suddenly cast out from the society of men, and for seven years fed with beasts. His pride being humbled, his reason returned; and, acknowledging the supremacy of the Most High, he resumed the "excellent majesty" of his kingly state (Daniel iv : 24-36). After a reign of 43 years, Nebuchadnezzar died, and with him ended the real great-

ness of his kingdom. Under Nabona'dius, the fourth of his successors, and the crown-prince Belshaz'zar, Babylon was taken by Cyrus, B. C. 538, and its whole territory was added to the Medo-Persian Empire.

Describe, from Map I, the Rivers Tigris, Euphrates, Nile.

Point out Chaldæa, Babylonia, Media, Assyria. Nineveh, Babylon, Raphia.

Read Daniel i-v. Jeremiah xxvii: 5-8. Rawlinson's Five Ancient Eastern Monarchies. Herodotus, Volume I. Heeren's Asiatic Researches.

<i>Children of Shem.</i>	<i>Children of Ham.</i>	<i>Children of Japhet.</i>	
Assyrians	Chaldæans	Asiatic Aryans	{ Hindus Medes and Persians Bactrians.
Hebrews	Phœnicians *	European Aryans	{ Greeks Romans Celts, Germans Slavonians.
Arabs	Egyptians		

* The language of the Phœnicians was Semitic, though they were descended from Canaan, son of Ham.

NOTES.

1. These great migrations occurred some centuries before the beginnings of connected history. Their order may be traced by comparing the languages of the several nations, and the names they gave to mountains and rivers on their routes. Thus the *Ap-en-nines* and the *Cevennes* are memorials of the same people that named *Ben Lomond* and *Ben Nevis*. These were the Celts, who at one time occupied a great part of Central and Western Europe, and were the ancestors of the Bretons of France, as well as of the inhabitants of Ireland, Wales, Cornwall, and the Highlands of Scotland. Prof. Fiske says:

"In very recent times—probably not more than twenty centuries before Christ—Europe was invaded by a new race of men, coming from Central Asia. These were the Aryans, a race tall and massive in stature . . . with round and broad skulls, with powerful jaws and promi-

ment eye-brows, with faces rather square or angular than oval, with fair, ruddy complexions and blue eyes, and red or flaxen hair. Of these, the earliest that came may perhaps have been the Latin tribes, with the Dorians and Ionians; but the first that made their way through Western Europe to the shores of the Atlantic were the Gael or true Celts. After these came the Cymry; then the Teutons; and finally—in very recent times, near the beginning of the Christian era—the Slavs. These Aryan invaders were further advanced in civilization than the Iberians, who had so long inhabited Europe. They understood the arts which the latter understood, and, besides all this, they had learned how to work metals; and their invasion of Europe marks the beginning of what archæologists call the Bronze Age, when tools and weapons were no longer made of polished stones, but were wrought from an alloy of copper and tin. The great blonde Aryans every-where overcame the small brunette Iberians; but instead of one race exterminating or expelling the other, the two races every-where became commingled in various proportions. In Greece, southern Italy, Spain, and southern France, where the Iberians were most numerous as compared with the Aryan invaders, the people are still mainly small in stature and dark in complexion. In Russia and Scandinavia, where there were very few Iberians, the people show the purity of their Aryan descent in their fair complexion and large stature; while in northern Italy and northern France, in Germany and the British Islands, the Iberian and Aryan statures and complexions are intermingled in endless variety.”—*John Fiske, in Atlantic Monthly, May, 1882.*

2. The three great men of the earliest Chaldæan Empire were Nimrod, the founder; Uruk, the builder; and Chedor-laomer, the conqueror. The latter, “having extended his dominion over Babylonia and the adjoining regions, marched an army a distance of 1200 miles, from the shores of the Persian Gulf to the Dead Sea, and held Palestine and Syria in subjection for twelve years, thus effecting conquests which were not again made from the same quarter till the time of Nebuchadnezzar, fifteen or sixteen hundred years afterwards.” He is “the forerunner and prototype of all those great Oriental conquerors who, from time to time, have built up vast empires in Asia, out of heterogeneous materials, which have, in a longer or shorter space, successively crumbled to decay.”—*Read Gen. xiv. Rawlinson's "Ancient Eastern Monarchies."*

Beside the brief mention in the Bible, the only authorities for this early period are the inscriptions stamped on bricks, belonging to widely separated periods, and the fragments of the three books of Berosus, which were doubtless made from records existing in his time.

Berosus was a priest of Bel, and was living in Babylon at the time of its conquest by Alexander (332). He wrote in Greek; his works are known only by the quotations from them in Eusebius and other historians, but these have been strikingly verified by inscriptions brought to light within a few years. His story of the Deluge is the same as the one found on Assyrian tablets. His table of Babylonian Dynasties is perhaps the most valuable of the fragments. The number of years assigned to the first dynasty, is, of course, not to be believed any more than the still wilder statement that the 432,000 years preceding the deluge comprised the reigns of only ten kings. The last of these kings was Sisuthrus, the hero of the flood.

The following is the order of Dynasties after the Deluge, according to Berosus:

I	86	Chaldæan	kings reigned	34,060	years.	
II	8	Median	“	224	“	commencing B. C. 2458.
III	11	Chaldæan	“	258	“	2234.
IV	49	Chaldæan	“	458	“	1976.
V	9	Arabian	“	245	“	1518.
VI	45	Assyrian	“	526	“	1273.
VII	8	Assyrian	“	122	“	747.
VIII	6	Chaldæan	“	87	“	625.
		Persian Conquest.				538.

3. Of the buildings of ancient Babylon, now to be seen only in ruins, Prof. Rawlinson says: “Rude and inartificial in their idea and general construction, without architectural embellishment, without variety, with-
Hist.—2.

out any beauty of form, they yet affect men by their mere mass, producing a direct impression of sublimity, and at the same time arousing a sentiment of wonder at the indomitable perseverance which, from materials so unpromising, could produce such gigantic results. In their original condition, when they were adorned with color, with a lavish display of the precious metals, with pictured representations of human life, and perhaps with statuary of a rough kind, they must have added to the impression produced by size a sense of richness and barbaric magnificence. The African spirit, which loves gaudy hues and costly ornament, was still strong among the Babylonians, even after they had been Semitized; and, by the side of Assyria, her colder and more correct northern sister, Babylonia showed herself a true child of the South,—rich, glowing, careless of the laws of taste, bent on provoking admiration by the dazzling brilliancy of her appearance.”—*Anc. East. Monarchies*, II, 557.

4. The stories of the mythical Semiramis were told by the Greek physician, Ctesias, who heard them at the court of Artaxerxes Mnemon (258), king of Persia. Now the Persian kings, who claimed to be the heirs of the Assyrian Empire, were flattered by whatever enhanced the greatness and glory of their predecessors. They were quite willing, therefore, to believe that Ninus, the supposed founder of Nineveh, and Semiramis, the reputed builder of Babylon, had extended their joint sway over all the lands from the Mediterranean to the Indus.

F. Lenormant remarks (in *Anc. Hist. of the East*, I, 367): “Such is the legend that Ctesias first related to the Greeks. We repeat that there is not one word of truth in it; the Assyrian monuments contradict it at all points. Such personages as Ninus and Semiramis belong in no way to real history; they never existed in fact. Ninus, as the name clearly indicates, is only a personification of the whole history of the city of Nineveh, and of all its power. . . . So all the useful or gigantic works, whatever their origin, executed at different periods by various Asiatic sovereigns have contributed to the glory of the name of Semiramis. To her have been attributed all the buildings of Babylon, from the Tower of Babel, identical with the Temple of Bel, to those of the age of Nebuchadnezzar and his successors.”

Herodotus, who lived B. C. 484-408 (see §150), had never heard of the mythical Semiramis, but he mentions a real queen of that name as having “raised magnificent embankments to restrain the river Euphrates, which, till then, used to overflow and flood the whole country around Babylon.” This was the Sammuaramit mentioned in the text, who seems to have been a descendant of the old Babylonian kings, married to a king of Assyria, who had thus strengthened his authority over the discontented provinces in the Euphrates Valley. To please them, all royal acts in that region were done in her name. The historian above quoted calls this royal pair, “the Ferdinand and Isabella of Mesopotamia.” See §433.

5. *Raphia* was on the coast of the Mediterranean Sea, between Gaza and the “River of Egypt.” The battle is described as “the first combat between the two great powers of Asia and Africa.” Shebek and the Egyptian forces were put to flight, while the Philistine prince was carried captive to Assyria. “The battle of *Raphia* foreshadowed truly enough the position which Egypt would hold among the nations from the time that she ceased to be isolated, and was forced to enter upon the struggle for preëminence, and even for existence, with the great kingdoms of the neighboring continent. With rare and brief exceptions, Egypt has, from the time of Sargon, succumbed to the superior might of whatever power has been dominant in western Asia, owning it for lord, and submitting, with a good or a bad grace, to a position involving a greater or less degree of dependence. Tributary to the later Assyrian princes, and again probably to Nebuchadnezzar, she had scarcely recovered her independence when she fell under the dominion of Persia. Never successful, notwithstanding all her struggles, in thoroughly shaking off this hated yoke, she did but exchange her Persian for Greek masters when the empire of Cyrus perished. Since then Greeks [§161], Romans [§239], Saracens [§299], and Turks [§418] have each, in their turn, been masters of the Egyptian race, which has paid the usual penalty of precocity in the early exhaustion of its powers.”—*Rawlinson's Anc. E. Mon.* III, 145.

CHAPTER II.

SMALLER ASIATIC STATES.



Phœnicia.—The narrow strip of land between Mt. Lebanon and the sea held some of the most important communities of early times. They were not a nation, but a mere cluster of commercial cities,¹ of which Tyre and Sidon were the chief. Now and then some great danger led them to form a league; but usually they were only united by a common language and religion, each city having its king or judge, who was also its high-priest. The name *Phœnicians* was given them by the Greeks. They called themselves Canaanites, and were of the same race as the tribes expelled or conquered by the Hebrews.

23. The importance of Phœnicia was owing to her wonderful maritime enterprise. The Mediterranean and western Atlantic, the Red Sea, Persian Gulf, and Indian Ocean, all were highways for her ships, and their coasts and islands were dotted with her colonies. In her markets might be found silver from Spain, tin from Britain, and amber from the Baltic; gold and apes from Africa; pearls,

rubies, and diamonds from India and Ceylon; no less than engraved seals from Babylon; copper and horses from Armenia; oil, honey, and balm from Palestine; wine and white wool from Damascus; lambs and kids from the the Bedouin Arabs; and embroidered linen from Egypt. In return, the gold, silver, bronze, and glass-wares of the Phœnicians, and the precious dye known as Tyrian purple, found great favor in foreign markets.

24. Penetrating the remotest corners of the ancient world, the Phœnicians were carriers of ideas as well as of merchandize. Our greatest debt to them is the alphabet (§ 8). They were not inventors either in art or literature, nor were they inspired, like the Greeks, with a love of freedom. So long as trade flourished, they were content to pay tribute to Assyria, or to lend their ships and sailors to the Pharaohs. This is true especially of Sidon and the smaller cities. Tyre withstood three memorable sieges: one of five years by Sargon, B. C. 720-715; another of thirteen years by Nebuchadnezzar, and a third by Alexander of Macedon (B. C. 333, 332), after which 8,000 of her people were slain, and 30,000 sold into slavery. The second of these sieges is celebrated in the Hebrew Scriptures (Ezekiel xxvi-xxviii). The bravery of the Tyrians probably secured favorable terms, for while a great number sailed away with their families and goods to Carthage, others removed to an island half a mile from the mainland, and soon made New Tyre richer than the Old.

25. When Nebuchadnezzar's kingdom was overthrown, the Phœnicians submitted to Cyrus, and their ships made the principal part of the Persian fleets. They brought cedar-wood from Lebanon to rebuild the Temple at Jerusalem, as their forefathers had done in the days of Solomon and Hiram (1 Kings v: 6-18. Ezra iii: 7).

26. **Syria.**—The most important Syrian state had its seat at Damascus, one of the oldest cities in the world.

It alone was able to hold out against David and Solomon, who reigned over all the remaining country from the Mediterranean to the Euphrates; but three centuries later it became subject to the Assyrian kings. Other Syrian nations were the Hamathites, in the valley of the Orontes; the northern and warlike Hittites, whose chief city was Carchemish; and the southern Hittites, a peaceable trading people near the Dead Sea.

27. Asia Minor.—Probably the earliest inhabitants of Asia Minor were the *Phrygians*, a hardy race of farmers and vine-dressers, who had come from Armenia and brought thence a tradition of the Flood. Later came the *Cappadocians*, also sons of Japhet (§ 6), who crowded the Phrygians westward of the River Halys; then the *Thracians*, who took possession of the north-western coast, to which they gave the name Bithynia, from one of their tribes. The “brave, shield-bearing *Paphlagonians*” occupied the rest of the Euxine coast. A mixed population of Aryans and Shemites inhabited Lycia, Pamphylia, and Cilicia on the southern shore; while the borders of the Ægean were very early colonized by Greeks.

28. Among all these nations, *Lydia*² became supreme under its last five kings, who ruled B. C. 694–546. In the time of Ardys, the second of these kings, occurred one of those great movements of the northern barbarians, which have been mentioned in § 2. The Cimmerians (Crimeans) of southern Russia, ancestors of the modern Cossacks, swarmed over Asia Minor, captured Sardis, the Lydian capital, and ravaged all the western provinces. Successive waves of the same great tide of migration spread through Italy; another, taking a more northerly direction, reached the western coast of Britain, where the *Cymry*, their descendants, still live.

29. Cræsus, the fifth and last king of Lydia, was noted for his enormous wealth.³ Having become master of all

Asia Minor and the Isles of Greece, he leagued himself with the great empires of Egypt and Babylon, to resist the Persian power, which was then becoming formidable. His efforts were vain; having fought one battle in Cappadocia, Cyrus marched swiftly upon Sardis, defeated and captured its king, and made Lydia a province of the Persian Empire.



Map 2. Asia Minor.

Point out, on Maps 1 and 2, the following countries and cities:
Phœnicia—Sidon, Tyre, Berytus.

Syria—Damascus, Hamath, Carchemish. River Orontes.

Asia Minor—Phrygia, Cappadocia, Bithynia, Paphlagonia, Lycia, Pamphylia, Cilicia, Lydia, Sardis. River Halys. Bound Asia Minor.

Read Rawlinson's *Ancient Monarchies*, Vol. II, pp. 402-412, 444; Vol. III, 51-53, 392. Herodotus, Book I, § 1; III, § 19; IV, § 42; V, § 58. Grote's *History of Greece*, Chapters XVII, XVIII, XXXII.

NOTES.

1. Sidon was the oldest of these cities, and its people are said to have been the first to abandon the wandering ways of their ancestors, and, building huts by the sea, find their subsistence in its waters. The name *Sidonians* meant *fishermen*. But the descendants of nomads by land soon betook themselves to wider wanderings by sea. Their first ventures were in quest of the little purple fish, each one of which afforded a single drop of the precious coloring matter with which the costliest cloths were dyed. "All the coasts of the *Ægean* were examined by means of divers and pointer-dogs; and probably nothing produced so immediate a contact between the old and new world of antiquity as the insignificant muscle in question." As the fish could not be transported to any distance, factories were established at various points on the Greek islands and coasts, and even in southern Italy.

Timber was cut and ships built wherever a safe harbor could be found in the neighborhood of forests, for in those early days there was no other maritime power to interfere. The half-savage natives of Sicily, Corsica, and Sardinia, were glad to exchange the wild products of their islands for eastern wares, and gained at the market fairs of the Phœnicians some ideas of numbers, weights, and measures.

It was, however, the discovery of the precious metals in Spain that made the Tyrians and Sidonians the wealthiest of all the nations of antiquity. The Tarshish of the Old Testament—which the Greeks called Tartessus—included the modern provinces of Andalusia and Murcia. "The first traders to these fortunate shores were said to have replaced their leaden anchors with masses of silver, rather than abandon any of the precious substance lavishly flung at their feet in exchange for cargoes of slight intrinsic value. The valleys of the Guadiana and Guadalquivir were strewn with nuggets of silver. The mountains from which these rivers flowed, yielded iron, copper and lead. Gold, derived from the washings of the Tagus, and tin, extracted from the granite of Galicia, were brought by long lines of inland traffic to the general mart."

Spain was, in its turn, the starting-point for yet more distant voyages. "From Tartessus these hardy navigators reached the shores of Britain in search of tin, and penetrated the Baltic in search of amber. From Tartessus they colonized—to the number, as traditionally reported, of three hundred—the peninsulas and islands in which Atlas sinks beneath the Atlantic."

2. The Lydians were probably a Semitic people, who had pushed westward from the Euphrates Valley to the "fertile lowlands of the river Hermus," where they became mingled with the earlier settlers of the country. Prof. Curtius says (*Hist. of Greece*, I, 86): "As long as we remain unacquainted with the spoken and written language of the Lydians, it will be impossible to define with any accuracy the mixture of peoples which here took place. But speaking generally, there is no doubt of the double relationship of this people, and of its consequent important place in civilization among the groups of the nations of Asia Minor. The Lydians came on land, as the Phœnicians by sea, the mediators between Hellas and Anterior Asia. As a people whose wits had been at an early period sharpened by intercourse with the rest of the world, full of enterprise and engaged in the pursuits both of commerce and of domestic industry, they were the first who knew how to take every advantage of the treasures of the valley of the Hermus. At the base of Tmolus they discovered, in the sand of the deciduous rivulets, the seemingly insignificant gold dust, and thus, in the vicinity of the Greeks, brought to light the power of gold, so infinitely important, so fatal, for Greek history. The Lydians reckoned three epochs under three generations of rulers, the first of which derived its source from Atys, a god belonging to the mythic circle of the Mother of the mountains, whose worship filled with its tumultuous music all the highlands of Lydia and Phrygia. Their second dynasty, the Lydians, led back to a Heracles, whom they called the son of Ninus. Independently of this myth, Ctesias narrated to the Greeks that King Ninus [see note 4, Ch. I.] had conquered Phrygia, the Troad, and Lydia. Plato, too, had heard of the power of the Ninevites as supreme in Asia Minor at the time of

the Trojan War." It appears, therefore, that, "through five centuries or thereabouts, the Lydian empire was a state in vassalage to Nineveh on the Tigris." The third dynasty is the one mentioned in our text.

3. "As rich as Croesus" was the proverbial expression in ancient times for enormous wealth; but the last Lydian king was not less celebrated for his misfortunes. In Rawlinson's Herodotus, I, 368, we learn how his story was regarded by the Greeks. "They had seen the rapid rise and growth of a magnificent empire upon their borders, and had felt its irresistible might in opposition to themselves; they had been dazzled by the lavish display of a wealth, exceeding all that their poets had ever fabled of Colchis or Hesperia; they had no doubt shared in the confident expectation of further conquests with which the warrior-prince, at the head of his unvanquished bands, had crossed the Halys to attack his unknown enemy. And they had been spectators of the result. Within a few weeks the prosperous and puissant monarch, master of untold treasures, ruler over thirteen nations, lord of all Asia from the Halys to the sea, was a captive and a beggar, the miserable dependant upon the will of a despot whose anger he had provoked. Such a catastrophe had in it something peculiarly calculated to excite the feelings of the Greeks. Accordingly, the story of Croesus seems to have become to the romancers of the period what the old heroic tale of *Œdipus* was to the tragedian, the type of human instability."

The following is an abridgment of the tale told by Herodotus: When Solon, the Athenian, was on his travels (see § 112, and note), partly to gain knowledge, but chiefly to rid himself of the questions and complaints of the Athenians concerning the laws that he had made for them, he came to the Lydian court at Sardis. Croesus entertained him with great splendor; and after the wise man had seen the gold and jewels of his treasures, thus addressed him: "Stranger of Athens, we have heard much of thy wisdom and of thy travels through many lands. I am curious, therefore, to inquire of thee whom of all the men that thou hast seen, thou deemest the most happy?" This he asked, because he thought himself the happiest of mortals; but Solon answered him without flattery: "Tellus, of Athens, Sire." To the sharp inquiry of Croesus he replied that Tellus was happiest because his country was prosperous, his children beautiful and good, and his death glorious. Hoping still for the second place, Croesus asked whom Solon ranked next in happiness. Then he heard the names of two strong young Greeks who had gained prizes in the games (§ 102). Their mother was one day going to the temple, and the oxen not arriving in time, they yoked themselves to her car, and drew her thus five and forty furlongs. The crowd assembled at the temple, praised the strength and filial devotion of the youths, and their mother, overjoyed at the honor they had won, prayed aloud that the goddess would reward them with the highest blessing that mortals could attain. They fell asleep in the temple, and never woke again.

Croesus then angrily demanded whether he was not to be numbered among the happy ones of earth. Solon calmly answered, that so many are the changes of life—every day bringing some new circumstance—no man could be called really happy until his life was ended.

Croesus let his visitor depart without the customary gifts, displeased that he could win no flattery. . . . Afterward the king was visited by many sorrows, ending with the great calamity which made Cyrus the master of his kingdom. Croesus himself was placed upon a funeral pile, to be burnt alive with fourteen noble Lydian youth. Now it entered his mind that there was a divine warning in the words that had come to him from the lips of Solon: "No one while he lives is happy." When this thought struck him, he fetched a long breath, and, breaking his deep silence, groaned forth, "O Solon, Solon, Solon!"

Cyrus, who was closely watching the scene—perhaps not really intending to make so cruel an end of his captive—bade his interpreters ask what god or man it was whom the king had thus invoked in his distress. Croesus replied that it was a man with whom he wished that every monarch might be acquainted, and told of the visit of the serene philosopher whom he had been unable to dazzle by his splendor. Cyrus took the lesson to his own heart, and, admiring the wisdom of Croesus in his self-condemnation, made the vanquished king his most honored friend and counselor.

CHAPTER III.

THE HEBREWS.



Jewish High-Priest.

AROM the Shemites east of the Euphrates, God called Abraham to remove westward and become the founder of a great nation. The story of this people—comprising its education out of heathenism into the belief in One God, and the successive captivities which placed it at school in the great empires of Egypt and Babylonia just at the periods of their highest civilization—is among the most wonderful records in ancient history.

31. Driven by famine into Egypt, the descendants of Abraham became slaves, and remained in bondage until they numbered about 3,000,000 of souls. Then Moses arose—trained in all the “learning of the Egyptians”—to be the liberator, leader, and lawgiver of his people. Crossing the Red Sea, they were led to and fro in the desert forty years, receiving the Divine Law from Mt. Sinai, and suffering many penalties for their cowardice and disobedience, until most of those who had been slaves were dead. Then Joshua, Moses’ successor, led their children into the Promised Land, which lay mainly between the Jordan and the Mediterranean.¹ By a remarkable series of victories, the Canaanites were subdued or driven out, and the wanderers of the desert then became tillers of the soil.

32. **The Judges.**—After Joshua’s death, the people departed from the true faith, and were often subdued by

their heathen neighbors. From time to time a "Judge" arose, and delivered them from their oppressors; but, when he was dead, "every man did that which was right in his own eyes," until a new calamity called for a new deliverance (Judges ii: 10-19).

33. The Monarchy.—At length they demanded a king. Saul was chosen, and by a series of successful wars established the independence of Israel. But he lost the favor of God by disobedience, and David was anointed as his successor. The Philistines invaded the country; Saul and his sons were slain, and David was crowned at Hebron. For seven years Saul's only surviving son ruled nominally over eleven tribes; but on his death David became king of the whole country.

34. He made Jerusalem his capital, and the home of the Hebrew worship. David was a great conqueror, and his kingdom extended from the borders of Egypt to the Euphrates. But his fame as a sacred poet is greater than as king or warrior. In lyrical strains, that have never been equaled for purity and elevation, he sang the victory of the soul that trusts in God. His old age was clouded with sorrow for the misconduct of his sons. But the successive rebellions of Ab'salom and Adoni'jah were ended by the death of the offenders, and Solomon, David's favorite son, came peacefully to the throne.

35. Under Solomon, Israel first became a commercial nation. The king kept fleets of merchant vessels in the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, by means of which the luxuries of Europe, Asia, and Africa were brought to Jerusalem. His greatest work was the building of the Temple. Its dedication (B. C. 1004) was so important an event as to make the beginning of Hebrew chronology. (Read 1 Kings viii.) Solomon's wisdom surpassed that of all the children of the East and of Egypt (1 Kings iii: 5-14; iv: 29-34; x: 23, 24); but in old age his heart was

corrupted by luxury and power. His people were heavily taxed to maintain his court and his great public works. After his death, ten tribes revolted against Rehoboam, his son, and established the rival kingdom of Israel.

36. Jeroboam, the first king of ISRAEL, set up an idolatrous worship, in order to wean his people from Jerusalem and the House of David. His wicked plan succeeded, and for centuries the only witnesses to the true God were solitary prophets (1 Kings xvi: 1-3; xvii-xix). The nineteen kings of Israel belonged to nine different families, and many of them died by violence. The later kings had wars with Assyria, which ended in the overthrow of their kingdom, and the captivity of their people. The land was left so desolate that wild beasts prowled in the cities, until colonists were brought from beyond the Euphrates to replace the captive Israelites. (§ 12.).

37. The kingdom of JUDAH remained loyal to the House of David; and, notwithstanding its exposed position between the great warring empires of Egypt and Assyria, it kept its independent existence nearly a century and a half longer than Israel. Of the eighteen kings who reigned over Judah alone, eight "did right in the sight of the Lord." The rest were idolaters. The last of the good kings, Josiah, repaired the temple and discovered the Book of the Law, which had long been lost. A solemn Passover was now held (B. C. 623), at which not only the men of Judah but all true believers who were left in the desolate land of Israel were present, and renewed their allegiance to the God of their fathers.

38. During this reign, Palestine had its share in the Scythian invasions² (§ 15), and a still greater calamity marked its close. Josiah was slain in battle (2 Chron. xxxv: 20-27). His son became a captive in Babylon, but the next king, Zedekiah, revolted and allied himself with Egypt. Nebuchadnezzar then besieged and took Jeru-

saalem, destroyed the Temple, and carried all its treasures, with the king and the whole nation, away to Babylon. The land was desolate, and Jewish history ceased, B. C. 586, for fifty years.

39. The empire of Nebuchadnezzar was then in its turn overthrown by the Persians, who, like the Jews, worshiped one God, and abhorred idolatry. Their great king, Cyrus, whom the Hebrew prophets had long ago described as the deliverer of their nation (Isa. xlv: 28—xlv: 4), B. C. 536, ordered the return of the Jews to their own land, and the rebuilding of Jerusalem and its temple. The neighboring heathen tribes violently opposed the work; but Ar'taxerx'es, the great-grandson of Cyrus, conferred great powers on Ezra, the priest, and Nehemiah, the last of whom completed the defenses of Jerusalem. Ezra, meanwhile, collected and edited the sacred books which make the Old Testament.

40. After his death, and Nehemiah's departure, the old troubles returned. Even the High Priest proved a traitor; and the Sabbath was profaned by common traffic and labor. Nehemiah came back from Persia as a royal governor, reformed these abuses, and expelled the new high-priest because he had married a pagan woman. Thereupon, her father built a rival temple³ upon Mt. Gerizim, in Samaria, for the exiled priest; and there to this day the rites of Hebrew worship are maintained. But "the Jews had no dealings with the Samaritans;" indeed, at this point, the mixture of Jewish and pagan practices wholly ceased.

Point out, on Map I, Jerusalem, the Red Sea, the River Euphrates.

NOTE.—The story of the Hebrews—briefly outlined in this chapter—is told in the historical books of the Old Testament, from Genesis to Esther, and illustrated by the Psalms and Prophecies. Read, beside, Josephus' "Antiquities," Milman's "History of the Jews," and Stanley's "Lectures on the History of the Jewish Church."

NOTES.

1. The narrow mountain region at the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea, which formed the Promised Land of the Hebrews, is a country of the greatest interest aside from the remarkable history of which it has been the scene. The following account is condensed from a volume on "Sinai and Palestine," by the late Dean Stanley.

"Between the great plains of Assyria and the shores of the Mediterranean, a high mountain tract is interposed, reaching from the Bay of Issus to the Desert of Arabia. It is with the southern division that we are now concerned. From the summits of Lebanon flow four rivers of unequal magnitude, on which, at different times, have sprung up the four ruling powers of that portion of Asia. The northern River—the channel of life and civilization in the northern regions of Syria—is the Orontes, the river of the Greek kingdom of Antioch and Seleucia [see §168]. The western is the Litany, rising near Baalbec, and falling into the Mediterranean close to Tyre—the river of Phœnicia. The eastern is the modern Barada, the Abana or Pharpar of the Old Testament—the river of Damascus. The fourth and southern river, which rises in the point where Hermon splits into its two parallel ranges, is the River of Palestine, the Jordan. Its name signifies "the Descender," and it plunges down so rapidly through its narrow gorge, that its end in the Dead Sea is thirteen hundred feet below the level of the Mediterranean. The heat and fertility of the Jordan Valley make it a tangled wilderness of tropical vegetation, where lions from the neighboring desert shelter themselves.

The total extent of the Holy Land was 180 miles from north to south, and about 50 from the Jordan to the western sea. The contrast between the littleness of Palestine and the vast extent of the empires which hung upon its northern and southern skirts, is rarely absent from the mind of the Prophets and Psalmists. From almost every high point in the country, its whole breadth is visible, from the long wall of the Moab hills on the east, to the Mediterranean on the west. Yet, by its natural outworks, the people were effectually "set apart" from the rest of the world. The deep cleft of the Jordan Valley, the hills to the eastward, and the desert, were their defenses against the great empires of Assyria and Babylonia. They were protected from Egyptian invasion by that "great and terrible wilderness," which rolled like a sea between the valley of the Nile and the valley of the Jordan, reaching up to the very frontier of their own land. The two accessible sides were the west and the north. But the west was only accessible by sea, and when Israel first settled in Palestine, the Mediterranean was not yet the thoroughfare—it was rather the boundary and the terror—of the eastern nations. It is true that from the north-western coast of Syria, the Phœnician cities sent forth their fleets. But they were the exception of the world, the discoverers, the first explorers of the unknown depths,—and, in their enterprises, Israel never joined. In strong contrast, too, with the coasts of Europe, and especially of Greece, Palestine has no indentations, no winding creeks, no deep havens, such as in ancient, even more than in modern times, were necessary for the invitation and protection of commercial enterprise. One long line, broken only by the bay of Acre, containing only three bad harbors, Joppa, Acre, and Caïpha, is the inhospitable front that Palestine opposed to the western world. On the northern frontier, the ranges of Lebanon formed two not insignificant ramparts. But the gate between them was open, and through the long valley of Cœle Syria, the hosts of Syrian and Assyrian conquerors accordingly poured.

Palestine, though now at the very outskirts of that tide of civilization which has swept far into the remotest west, was then the vanguard of the eastern, and, therefore, of the civilized world; and, moreover, stood midway between the two great seats of ancient empire, Babylon and Egypt. It was on the high road from one and the other of these mighty powers, the prize for which they contended, the battlefield on which they fought,—the high bridge over which they ascended and descended respectively into the deep basins of the Nile and Euphrates. Its first appearance on the stage of history is as a halting-place for a wanderer from Mesopotamia, who "passed through the land," and "journeyed, going on still toward the south," and "went down into

Egypt." The first great struggle which that wanderer had to maintain, was against the host of Chedorlaomer,* from Persia and from Babylon. The battle in which the latest hero of the Jewish monarchy perished, was to check the advance of an Egyptian king on his way to contest the empire of the then known world with the king of Assyria, at Carchemish. The whole history of Palestine, between the return from the Captivity and the Christian Era, is a contest between the "kings of the North and the kings of the South"—the descendants of Seleucus and the descendants of Ptolemy (see Ch. XI)—for the possession of the country. And, when, at last, the West begins to rise as a new power on the horizon, Palestine, as the nearest point of contact between the two worlds, becomes the scene of the chief conflicts of Rome with Asia. There is no other country in the world which could exhibit the same confluence of associations, as that which is awakened by the rocks which overhang the crystal streams of the Dog River, where it rushes through the ravines of Lebanon into the Mediterranean Sea; where, side by side, are to be seen the hieroglyphics of the great Rameses [?71], the cuneiform characters of Sennacherib [?13], and the Latin inscriptions of the Emperor Antoninus [?254].

2. This "was the earliest recorded of those movements of the northern populations, hid behind the long mountain-barrier, which, under the name of Himalaya, Caucasus, Taurus, Hæmus, and the Alps, has been reared by nature between the civilized and uncivilized races of the old world. Suddenly, above this boundary, appeared those strange, uncouth, fur-clad forms, hardly to be distinguished from their horses and their wagons, fierce as their own wolves or bears, sweeping toward the southern regions, which seemed to them their natural prey. The successive invasions of Parthians, Turks, Mongols in Asia [see B. II, Ch. VIII], of Gauls, Goths, Vandals, Huns in Europe [I, Ch. XVIII], 'have,' it is well said, 'illustrated the law and made us familiar with its operation. But there was a time in history before it had come into force, and when its very existence must have been unsuspected.' No wonder that now, when the veil was the first time rent asunder, all the ancient monarchies of the south,—Assyria, Babylon, Media, Egypt, even Greece and Asia Minor—stood aghast at the spectacle of these savage hordes rushing down on the seats of luxury and power. It must have been about the middle of Josiah's reign, that one division of them broke into Syria. They penetrated, on their way to Egypt, as far as the southern frontier of Palestine, and were then bought off by Psammetichus [?72], and retired after sacking the temple of Astarte, at Ascalon. One permanent trace of their passage they left as they scoured through the plain of Esdraelon. The old Canaanitish city of Bethshan, at the eastern extremity of that plain, from them received the name which it bore throughout the Roman empire in the mouths of the Greeks, Scythopolis, 'the city of the Scythians.' . . . In these tremendous forms, not without a prophetic sense of their vast importance, was hailed the first apparition of the future fathers of the coming northern world. Gog and Magog are the primeval names which, now first introduced, were revived in the Apocalypse as representatives of the vast barbarian tribes which threatened the empire of Rome, as that of Assyria had been threatened by the Scythians of old."—*Stanley, History of Jewish Church*, II, 557.

3. "There is, probably, no other locality in which the same worship has been sustained with so little change or interruption for so great a series of years, as that of this mountain, from Abraham to the present day. In their humble synagogue, at the foot of the mountain, the Samaritans still worship—the oldest and the smallest sect in the world. And up the side of the mountain, and on its long ridge, is to be traced the pathway by which they ascend to the sacred spots where they yearly celebrate, alone of all the Jewish race, the Paschal Sacrifice."—*Stanley, Sinai and Palestine*, 236.

* See Genesis xiv. Chedorlaomer was a king of Elam, between the 21st and 23d centuries B. C., who had made himself "master of the whole Tigro-Euphrates Valley. He had as vassals, Amraphel, king of Shinar, or Chaldea; Arioch, king of Ellasar, the chief of the Assyrian cities of that time, and Thargal [Tidal] king of nations; i. e., nomadic tribes of Scythians or Turanians.—*Lenormant, Ancient History of the East*, I, 352.

CHAPTER IV.

THE MEDO-PERSIAN EMPIRE.



Bas-Relief from Persepolis.

BY the victories of Cyrus, the Aryan or Indo-Germanic race became predominant in Western Asia, and it has ever since filled a chief place in universal history. The Medes and Persians were united under one king; but while the former had become enfeebled by luxury (§ 16), the latter still kept their hardy habits. "To ride the horse, to draw the bow, and to speak the truth," was the education of

their noblemen. Their religion—the purest, probably, of unrevealed faiths—taught them a belief in one God, and an abhorrence of idols. The Medes, on the contrary, had abandoned the doctrines which they and the Persians had received from Zoroas'ter,¹ and, by contact with the Turanians, had adopted a gross form of Nature-worship. Fire was the chief object of their adoration. The Magi were their priests, without whose aid no man could pray, so elaborate were their religious rites.

42. Cyrus, the Persian prince, spent many years of his youth at the court of Ecbat'ana, and gathered about him a party of the younger Medes, who at length revolted against Astyages and secured to their young chief the crown of the two kingdoms. No sooner was his power

confirmed at home, than a league of Babylon, Egypt, Lydia, and some Grecian states, demanded his attention abroad. He subdued Lydia (§ 29), and added all Asia Minor to his dominion; then, turning eastward, he spent thirteen years in conquering the country between Media and Hindustan, including the populous provinces of Hyrcania, Parthia, Bactria, etc.

43. His greatest success was the siege and capture of Babylon. This great capital of Nebuchadnezzar was the strongest city of the ancient world. Its walls were 200 cubits high, and fifty in thickness. The Euphrates flowed through the city, but its banks were guarded by walls and brazen gates, while a network of canals, sluices, and reservoirs, above and below Babylon, was so contrived that the whole country could be laid under water in case of an enemy's approach.

44. Nevertheless, the city fell. Cyrus had turned off the waters of the Euphrates into a lake without the walls, leaving its usual bed dry. The crown-prince, Belshazzar, trusting in the strength of his defenses, left the river gates unguarded, while he and his courtiers were engaged in drunken revelry. Cyrus and his army entered the city; Belshazzar was slain at his palace gates; his father surrendered himself a prisoner, and Babylon became the winter-capital of the Medo-Persian Empire.*

45. Cyrus was killed in a war with the wandering tribes east of the Sea of Aral, and his son, Camby'ses, inherited his crown. He first took possession of Phœnicia and Cyprus, thus gaining fleets in the Mediterranean, and then proceeded with his father's plans for the conquest of Egypt. He desired also to conquer Carthage, and extend

* Read the story in Daniel v. "Darius, the Median," was probably the deposed king, Astyages (§ 42), who was consoled for his lost kingdom by the rich satrapy of Babylon.

his empire to the Atlantic, but the Phœnicians refused to serve against one of their own colonies (§ 24). His attempts upon the interior of Africa miserably failed. One army of 50,000 men was buried in the sands; another nearly perished of starvation.

46. Cambyses enraged the Egyptians by ridiculing their worship, and stabbing their sacred calf with his own dagger. Their priests declared that he was smitten with madness, as a punishment for this act; but in truth his only insanity sprang from his unregulated passions. He had caused his only brother to be put to death. He now heard that the younger son of Cyrus had taken possession of the throne. This was, in fact, a Magian impostor, who happened to resemble the murdered prince; but as the crime of Cambyses was a secret, every one believed that his brother was really reigning at Ecbatana. In the act of setting out for home, Cambyses was mortally wounded, and died bewailing his crimes and follies.

47. The usurper meanwhile closed the Persian temples, stopped the rebuilding of that of the Hebrews (Ezra iv: 17-24), and restored the corrupt Magianism (§ 41) which Cyrus had overthrown. The Persian nobles began to suspect him, and by a bold attack put an end to his life and reign.

48. Dari'us Hystas'pes, cousin of Cyrus, then became king of the Medes and Persians, and proceeded to make a compact and well governed empire out of the many countries which Cyrus and Cambyses had conquered. The native kings were removed, and the 20 *satrapies* or provinces, into which the empire was newly divided, were committed to Persian or Median governors. Each province had three chief officers: the *satrap*, who ruled in civil affairs; the *general*, who controlled the army; and the royal *secretary*, who kept the king informed of all that was done. Neither of these could revolt without the others, and mutual jealousies kept them from combining.

49. Instead of levying immense and arbitrary contributions at any time, like other Asiatic monarchs, the Great King required from each province a regular yearly tribute according to its wealth. The satraps were permitted to support themselves out of the possessions of the people; but if convicted of extortion, they were sure to be punished. Each satrap lived in royal magnificence; but the court of the Great King far surpassed those of the provinces. 15,000 persons fed daily at his expense; a great army guarded his person. Chief among these were the 10,000 "Immortals," whose armor glittered with gold, and who were chosen from all the nation for their strength, stature, and beauty.

50. Darius endeavored to reconcile the Persian religion with Median fire-worship, which better suited the ceremonious splendor of his court. The Magi accepted the chief doctrines of Zoroaster, and were entrusted with the care of religious services. They kindled the sacred fires in the temples and on the summits of the mountains, and chanted hymns at the rising of the sun. They studied the starry heavens, and believed that they read the purposes of God in the motions of the planets, as well as in the interpretation of dreams (Daniel ii: 1-10). The education of princes was committed to them, and they became the most trusted councilors of the king.

51. Darius conquered an important part of western India, increasing his revenues one third by its gold tribute; then turned his arms against the Scythians. Their incursions a century before had not been forgotten (§ 15); like a black thunder-cloud in the north they seemed always threatening the existence of his empire; and, moreover, Darius was now planning a conquest of Greece, a movement which might easily be defeated by the wild tribes north of the Danube, unless they were first over-awed by his power. With an army of more than 700,000 men, he marched as

far as the present Russian town of Voronej, and burnt a Greek trading station, then the only town existing on that vast, desolate plain. The barbarians avoided a battle; having no settlements to defend, they only retired into remoter wildernesses; but Darius, returning in triumph two months after crossing the Danube, added to the number of his subjects the "Scythians beyond the sea." One of his generals meanwhile conquered the Thracian coast, and extended the Persian power over Macedonia, which submitted to tribute and allegiance.

52. The Asiatic Greeks soon afterward revolted, and their united forces surprised and burned Sardis. But Miletus, the chief of the Greek cities, and the leader of the revolt, was subdued in the sixth year of the war. The vengeance of Darius was then excited against the Athenians,² who had aided their Asiatic brethren in rebellion (§ 109). His first expedition against European Greece was baffled by storms and the valor of the Thracians; the second was defeated by the Athenians in the battle of Mar'athon (§ 115). Before he could go in person to punish the Greeks, Darius³ died (B. C. 486).

53. His son Xerx'es—probably the Ahasue'rus of the Book of Esther—spent seven years in arming and drilling recruits and providing stores of food; then, with more than 2,000,000 of fighting men, he crossed the Hellespont into Europe. A fleet of 1,200 first-class, and 3,000 smaller vessels, bearing another half million of men, attended him along the shore. At Thermopylæ, a narrow pass between Mt. Ceta and the sea, the Spartan king, Leon'idas, awaited him with 6,000 men. For several days this little band withstood the whole Persian host, which was then admitted to the pass only by the treachery of a Greek. Leonidas now dismissed all his force except 300 Spartans and 400 Thespians, who fought until the last man but one was slain.

B. C. 480.

54. Meanwhile, storm and battle had destroyed 600 Persian ships; but Xerxes marched on, receiving the submission of the greater part of central Greece. He plundered and burnt Athens, and prepared for a decisive naval battle off the Isle of Sal'amis. Here the Greeks won a still more glorious victory than that of Marathon. Well acquainted with the narrow seas, they drove their brazen-pointed ships dexterously into the clumsy Persian galleys. From early dawn till night the combat raged, while Xerxes watched it from his throne on Mt. Æga'leos. At length, humbled and depressed, he withdrew his forces and marched for the Hellespont.

55. His brother-in-law, Mardo'nius, remained with 300,000 men in Thessaly, and was defeated and slain the next year in the battle of Plataë'a. No Persian army was ever again seen in Greece, and for twelve years no Persian sail appeared in the Ægean. Xerxes, having wrecked his youthful hopes by vain ambition, gave up his later years to idle luxury, and was murdered at last by two of his servants (B. C. 465).

56. B. C. 465-425. During the forty years' reign of his son Ar'taxerxes, the Long-handed, the power of the empire declined. Egypt and Syria revolted, with aid from the Athenians; and though the Persian power was reëstablished, the king was unable to punish the rebels as Darius would have done. He acknowledged the freedom of the Asiatic Greeks, and promised not to visit their shores with either fleet or army.

57. Three sons of Artaxerxes wore the crown in rapid succession, while the empire constantly became weaker. Under Darius II (B. C. 424-405), the queen, Parys'atis, ruled in the palace, and her cruel passions alienated those who should have been the best supports of the throne. Egypt threw off the Persian yoke. Cyrus, a younger son of Darius and Parysatis, was satrap of Phrygia, Lydia,

and Cappadocia; but with his mother's aid he plotted for the possession of the whole empire.

58. At this point Darius II died, and Artaxerxes II succeeded him. Cyrus hired an army of Spartans, whom he kept ignorant of his true designs; and, marching against his brother, was defeated and slain at Cunax'a.

The Greeks who had been entrapped into the war were now in a perilous case,⁴ but Xen'ophon, whom they chose for one of their leaders, rescued them by a bold and successful movement toward the Black Sea. His story of the "Retreat of the Ten Thousand" is a wonderful record of hardships borne and dangers surmounted. Artaxerxes not only kept his kingdom, but he extended his power over the Greeks, in revenge for the aid which they had afforded his brother.

B. C. 401.

59. B. C. 359—338. Artaxerxes III was a spirited and powerful monarch, and under him Egypt became again a Persian province. After the short and insignificant reign of his son, Arses, Darius Codomannus, one of the best, but also the most unfortunate of the Persian kings, came to the throne. The Greeks had been nursing their revenge against the Persians for nearly 200 years. In the young king Alexander, of Macedon, they had now a leader abler than Cyrus, and more ambitious than Xerxes.

B. C. 336.

60. Crossing the Hellespont with his 35,000 Greeks, Alexander defeated the Persians at the little river Granicus, and proceeded to set free all the cities of the western coast. At Issus, near the gates of Syria, he first met Darius; and the latter, with his half million of men, was utterly overthrown. After conquering Syria, Phœnicia, and Egypt, Alexander marched eastward for the grand contest which was to decide the fate of Asia. The battle is named from Arbela, where the Persian stores were deposited, though it was 20 miles from

B. C. 333.

the field. Darius had mustered more than a million of men, next to the Greeks the finest soldiers in the world. He had chosen his ground on a great plain, east of the Tigris, where his chariots and horsemen, as well as the enormous numbers of his foot-soldiers, could act with the greatest advantage.

61. Nevertheless, the Macedonian phalanx* proved invincible, as usual. Penetrating to the very presence of Darius, who was fighting bravely at the center of his army, they broke up the Persian lines, and the king became a fugitive. Two of his officers wished to betray him to Alexander, but finding themselves too closely pressed, they wounded him and left him by the road-side to die. The Battle of Arbela put an end to the Medo-Persian Empire, which had lasted from the first victories of Cyrus, 227 years (B. C. 558-331).

62. The Persians were a keen-witted race, loving poetry and art, though less inventive than the Babylonians or the Greeks. Our knowledge of their religion is derived from the Zend Avesta, a very ancient collection of hymns, prayers, and directions for religious ceremonies. It was the work of Zoroaster, a Bactrian prophet, who lived and taught long before the Medes or the Persians existed as

* "The phalanx, which formed the center of Alexander's army, was the most effective body of heavy-armed troops known to ancient tactics. The men were placed sixteen deep, armed with the *sarissa* or long pike, twenty-four feet in length. When set for action, the spear-heads of the first six ranks projected from the front. In receiving a charge, the shield of each man, held over the head with the left arm, overlapped that of his neighbor; so that the entire body resembled a monster, clothed in the shell of a tortoise, and the bristles of a porcupine. So long as it held together, the phalanx was invincible. Whether it advanced its vast weight upon an enemy, like a solid wall of steel, bristling with spear-points, or kneeling, with each pike planted in the ground, awaited the attack, few dared to encounter it." — Anc. Hist., §83, p. 100.

settled nations. This great reformer protested against the corrupt Nature-worship then prevalent in the East, and became the founder of a more spiritual faith (§ 41).

63. The Persians were a frank, generous, and friendly people. They hated fraud and debt, and even contemned commerce, as involving temptations to deceit. Their Greek enemies declared that no one could surpass them in courage. Their devotion to their kings was admirable, until it became so excessive as to destroy their self-respect, and make them sacrifice all that was dearest to them to the lightest whim of their sovereign. Thus when Cambyzes (§ 46) brutally shot the son of one of his courtiers, the wretched father only complimented the king on his skillful archery!

64. The Medo-Persians excelled all other Asiatics in their talents for government; and the dominion organized by Darius I was very different from the loosely connected countries which had been conquered and ruled by Sargon and Nebuchadnezzar. Darius and his successors knew what was passing in the remotest corners of their empire by means of a myriad of spies, who were called the "King's Eyes" and the "King's Ears," and by the swift couriers who continually traveled over the royal roads.

Trace, upon Maps 1, 2, and 3, the conquests of Cyrus, Cambyzes, Darius. The march of Xerxes. The sites of Alexander's victories. Point out Ecbatana, Cunaxa, Plataea, Issus.

Read the story of the Retreat of the Ten Thousand in Xenophon's "Anabasis," or in Grote's History of Greece.

For general Persian history, see Rawlinson's Ancient Monarchies, Herodotus, and Heeren's Historical Researches; Asiatic Nations, Volume I.

NOTES.

1. Zoroaster was a great religious teacher, who lived in Bactria, according to the best ancient accounts, about twenty-five centuries before Christ. His system of doctrine was called Mazdeism or Universal Knowledge, and it was the purest and most ennobling of uninspired creeds. Indeed, he declared that it was revealed to him by the "Excellent Word" of the Author of Light, and was merely a revival of primitive belief, which had been forgotten during the enslavement of the Aryan people by an Arabian conqueror. Many of the Aryans refused to accept his teaching, and, after violent contests, in which they were worsted, took up their march to the south-east, where, in time, they became the conquerors of India. The Indian and Iranian branches of the Aryan race were thenceforth distinct.

The Zend-Avesta, or sacred writings attributed to Zoroaster, comprised twenty-one books, of which only one is now complete; but we have three collections of hymns and fragments, and a later Persian translation of the story of the Creation.

The distinctive feature of Zoroaster's teaching was the division of the world between the two opposing principles of Light and Darkness. All good and wholesome things were created by Ahura Mazda, or Ormazd; all evil and noxious ones by Ahriman, the spirit of darkness. "If Ormazd created a paradise, Ahriman sent into it a venomous serpent. All poisonous plants, reptiles, and insects; all sickness, poverty, plague, war, famine, and earthquakes; all unbelief, witchcraft, and deadly sins, were the work of Ahriman." Of course, there was a ceaseless conflict between the two kingdoms, and it was the duty of every man to fight against the evil spirit by cultivating pure and healthy things, and destroying all that were harmful. "He is a holy man," Ormazd is represented as saying, "who has built a habitation on the earth, in which he maintains fire, cattle, his wife, his children, and flocks and herds. He who makes the earth produce barley, who cultivates the fruits of the soil, cultivates purity; he advances the law of Ormazd as much as if he had offered a hundred sacrifices."

The Persians agreed with the Hebrews in their belief in angels and demons. Six great princes of light served about the throne of Ormazd, and beneath them were innumerable messengers, who were scattered about the universe on errands of mercy. Ahriman also had his army of spirits, whom he sent to work mischief in all parts of the world. They first led man into sin, from which Ormazd sought to recover him by the revelation of his truth, and more especially by the mediation of Mithra. This mysterious being was probably the subject of some of the lost books of the Zend-Avesta; we only know that he was the guardian of men during life, and their judge after death, and was more nearly related to Ormazd than any angel. He had gained a great victory over Ahriman, and had expelled him from heaven.

Although good and evil were so nearly balanced in the present condition of the world, yet devout Zoroastrians believed that the Author of Good only was eternal, and that at some far distant day all men would be converted into willing subjects of light and truth. "Evil then should be finally conquered and destroyed; the creation should become as pure as on its first day, and Ahriman should disappear forever."

An interesting passage of the Vendidad describes fourteen stages in the progress of the western Aryans, from the mountain region of Thibet to their final settlement in Persia. At every place Ahriman sent upon them some disease or other calamity, to compel them to go farther. In Ragha, or northern Media, the twelfth stage of their journey, they encountered a large Turanian population, their ancient enemies. One body of immigrants remained in this region, and a thousand years of war ended in the establishment of the Aryan kingdom of Media; but, in the meantime, the religion which their fathers had learned from Zoroaster, became sadly corrupted by mixture with the serpent-worship of the Turanians, the idolatry of the neighboring Assyrians, and the Chaldean adoration of the seven planets. To this day the Yezidees, or devil-worshippers, of the same region, profess the dual belief that Zoroaster taught, but worship only the evil which they fear, because, they say, the Good Spirit, being already kind and indulgent, does not need to be conciliated.

2. "Athens was the mother-city of the Ionic states, and the Athenians were disposed to sympathize with the Ionians as their kinsmen and colonists." They had, moreover, their own grievance in the reception of their exiled tyrant Hippias (§114) at the Persian court. But, though disposed to favor and restore Hippias, Darius does not appear to have thought the tyrant's late fellow-citizens worth remembering until they gave him cause. When he heard of the burning of Sardis, by the allied Greeks, the king exclaimed with contemptuous rage, "The Athenians! who are they?" When he was informed, he seized his bow, and, shooting an arrow high into the air, he cried, "Oh, supreme God, grant me to take vengeance upon the Athenians!" And every day at dinner, an attendant was ordered to say three times, "Sire, remember the Athenians."

3. An interesting record of the early years of Darius's reign has been found cut on a perpendicular rock-tablet of Behistun, the face of the cliff having been smoothed for the purpose. It bears four sets of inscriptions, one of which is ascribed to Semiramis (§11, and note); but the most important is in the words of "Darius the King." For a long time after this was known to exist, it was supposed to be wholly out of reach for purposes of information; for it was 300 feet from the base of the mountain-wall, and the reader must be drawn up with ropes by a windlass placed on the summit. This perilous feat was performed many times by Colonel Rawlinson, of the British army, then holding an official post at Bagdad. He spent some weeks in obtaining a copy of the pompous sentences which Darius had ordered to be inscribed in three languages, Persian, Babylonian, and Scythic, and which scholars have since, with incredible patience, industry, and learning, succeeded in deciphering. Their English version may be read in Rawlinson's "Herodotus," Vol. II, Appendix.

4. Their Persian allies were scattered; they were in the heart of an unknown and hostile country, two thousand miles from home, and surrounded by the victorious army of Artaxerxes. The wily Tissaphernes, who had been rewarded with the dominions of Cyrus, detained them nearly a month by false pretenses of negotiation; and, having led them as far as the head waters of the Tigris, gained possession of all their officers, whom he caused to be put to death. At this crisis, the Athenian Xenophon called together the principal Greeks, at midnight, and urged the election of new officers, who should lead them back to their native land. The suggestion was adopted; five generals were chosen, of whom Xenophon was one, and, by break of day, the army had been mustered for its homeward march.

Their course lay over the table-lands of Armenia, where many perished in the freezing north winds, or were blinded by the unusual glare of snow.

Here is Xenophon's own account of their arrival in sight of the Black Sea. "On the fifth day they came to the mountain; and the name of it was Theches. When the men who were in the front had mounted the height, and looked down upon the sea, a great shout proceeded from them; and Xenophon and the rear-guard, on hearing it, thought that some new enemies were assailing the front; for in the rear, too, the people from the country that they had burned were following them, and the rear-guard, by placing an ambuscade, had killed some, and taken others prisoners, and had captured about twenty shields, made of raw ox-hide with the hair on. But, as the noise still increased, and drew nearer, and as those who came up from time to time kept running at full speed to join those who were continually shouting, the cries becoming louder as the men became more numerous, it appeared to Xenophon that it must be something of very great moment.

"Mounting his horse, therefore, and taking with him Lycius and the cavalry, he hastened forward to give aid, when presently they heard the soldiers shouting, 'The sea! the sea!' and cheering on one another. They all then began to run, the rear-guard as well as the rest, and the baggage-cattle and horses were put to their speed; and, when they had all arrived at the top, the men embraced each other and their generals and captains, with tears in their eyes. Suddenly, whoever it was that suggested it, the soldiers brought stones, and raised a large mound, on which they laid a number of raw ox-hides, staves, and shields taken from the enemy."—*Anabasis*, Book IV, Ch. VII.

CHAPTER V.

AFRICAN STATES AND COLONIES.



Cleopatra's Cartouch.

AFRICA is, of all the continents, least fit for the home of man.

One fifth of its surface is covered by a sea of sand, and the interior consists often of marshes and tangled forests. Its northern coast, however, is among the most favored regions of the globe. Here are the great Moorish corn-fields which once fed the hungry millions of Rome; while the Nile valley in the north-east has sustained, from the earliest times, a swarming population. This great river, in its overflow, spreads every year over the lowlands a new deposit of fertile soil, so that the farmer has only to cast his grain upon the retiring waters, and a plentiful harvest springs up without further tillage. No wonder that the old idolaters worshiped the Nile!

66. Egypt.—Long before our oldest records were written, Hamites, from south-western Asia, had settled in the valley of the Nile (§7). At first they formed a multitude of petty states, but gradually these became united into the two kingdoms of Upper and Lower Egypt. Now and then some powerful monarch, reigning at Thebes or Memphis, reduced both kingdoms under his sway, and reigned from the Isle of Elephantis to the sea.

67. The Egyptians were great builders, and their pyra-

mids, temples, and palaces seem destined to stand as long as the earth itself endures. More than this, they were great writers, and, now that the key to their language has been found, we may read their characters and daily employments, their thoughts about life, death, and immortality, almost as familiarly as those of our own ancestors.

68. Egyptian history, before the Persian conquest, is divided into three Periods:

I. The Old Empire, from unknown antiquity to 1900 B. C.

II. The Middle Empire, or that of the Shepherd Kings, 1900-1525 B. C.

III. The New Empire, 1525-525.

During these three periods, 26 *Dynasties*, or families of kings, are on record; but sometimes two, three, or even five of these were reigning at once in different parts of the country. The kings of the Fourth Dynasty built most of the pyramids. These enormous masses of stone face the four main points of the compass; and one, known as the Great Pyramid, is so delicately adjusted for observations of the heavens that some wise men believe it to have been built by Divine direction. The useful and elegant arts made great progress under the Pyramid-Kings. The copper-mines of the peninsula of Sinai were worked chiefly by captives taken in war; and the pictures on the tombs indicate a refined and intelligent life among the people. B. C. 2440 - 2220.

69. Egypt was soon divided into five separate kingdoms, and these, one by one, became the prey of invading tribes from Asia, led by the Shepherd Kings.¹ These rude and ignorant people made slaves of the Egyptians, and arrested the progress of arts and sciences for 400 years.

70. At length a deliverer was found in the Theban Amo'sis, who rallied the spirit of the Egyptians and drove out the intruders. He became king of the whole country,

and founder of the Eighteenth Dynasty.² For 800 years Egypt continued to be a united kingdom, and enjoyed the brightest period of its history. The government, though strong, was mild to its native subjects, but probably cruel to the captive Hebrews, whose lives were made bitter with hard bondage (§ 31) in the brick-kilns, and who built many of the vast temples and palaces for which this period is celebrated (Exodus, i: 7-14).

71. Greatest of Egyptian monarchs was Rameses II, who made conquests in Asia, Africa, and Europe, and brought home a great train of captives to build new monuments of his glory. Fearing the increasing numbers of the race already enslaved, he ordered every Hebrew boy to be thrown into the Nile. It was probably his son, Meneph'thah, who suffered the ten judgments of God for his oppressions, and finally let the Israelites go out from the land (Ex. vii: 19-xi: 5; xii: 29-33). For twenty years the buildings ceased, and the glory of the Egyptians was long in decline.

72. During the seventh century B. C. the country was ruled by Assyria (§ 14); but when that empire fell, Psammet'ichus,³ and his yet greater son, Ne'cho, revived the Egyptian power. By conquering Phœnicia, Necho gained power on the sea, and the continent of Africa was first circumnavigated by his fleets. The story of the successful navigators was scarcely believed by the ancient world, because they declared that in rounding the southern cape, they had seen the sun to the northward. With our better system of astronomy we find this circumstance a strong confirmation of their truthfulness. Necho reigned for three years over all the country between the Mediterranean and Euphrates; but he was then defeated by Nebuchadnezzar (§ 19) in the great battle of Car'chemish, and lost all his possessions in Asia. His successors paid tribute to Babylon, and, when freed from that yoke, they soon fell under

the greater power of the Persians. Egypt was conquered by Cambyses, and became a part of the Persian Empire.

73. The RELIGION of the Egyptians contained some true and noble principles, mingled with a disgusting idolatry. They believed in a future life,⁴ and that its happiness depended on their well doing while here. Their tombs were always in sight, in the sandstone ridges which bounded the narrow valley of the Nile. Between the city of the living and that of the dead lay a sacred lake, before passing which to his final rest, every man, whether king or peasant, had to be approved by the judges. If his life was found to have been unworthy, he was forever shut out from the sepulcher of his fathers. It was believed that the soul also must appear before a judgment-seat of the gods, and only when sealed as "justified," could it enter the abode of the blessed.

74. If acquitted by the judges, the body was embalmed and returned to the house of its earthly abode, to be kept at least a month, and sometimes even a year, while joyful feasts were held in its honor. It then passed the sacred lake, and was laid away in a tomb which was more richly ornamented than the home of the earthly life. In late years the repose of these Egyptian tombs has been broken, and many "mummies"—the mortal forms of the men and women who walked about the streets of Thebes or Heliop'olis thousands of years ago—have been added to the "curiosities" of our museums.

75. The Egyptian priests were philosophers, who knew a great deal more than they chose to tell the people. They believed in one Supreme God, and thought it impious to represent Him by any work of human hands; but they made Him known to the multitude under various names and attributes. As the Creator, he was Phthah; as the Revealer, he was Amun; as the Benefactor and the Judge of men, he was Osiris, etc. Even plants and animals were

supposed to possess some portion of his life, and were accordingly worshiped by the ignorant. Thus Memphis had its bull, Apis, which was regarded as a living symbol of Osiris. It was worshiped in life, and buried after death with great pomp and solemnity. Heliopolis, likewise, had its sacred calf, Ombos and Arsinoë their crocodiles, Thebes and Sais their sheep, all objects of local adoration. Every year at the rising of the Nile a seven days' feast was held in honor of Osiris, the preserver and benefactor of men.

76. Castes.—The priests constituted the highest rank in the kingdom, and by their knowledge, especially of physical science, they exercised great power over the common people. Not only religious services, but all the learned professions were entrusted to them. Their medical skill was widely famed, so that kings of Assyria sent to Egypt for physicians. Their power over body and soul was equally great, for, as the earthly judges of the dead, they could refuse to any man the passport by which he hoped to enter the abode of Osiris.

77. Next below the priests stood the soldier-caste. During intervals of service, the soldiers lived on their own lands, each man having an allotment of about six acres. The kings sprang either from the priestly or the military order, usually the former, and in any case each monarch was made a priest as part of the ceremony of his coronation. He bore the title Phrah (Pharaoh), signifying the sun; and as representing the god of light, was head of the state religion not less than of the monarchy.

78. Below the two privileged classes were the great mass of the people, divided into four castes: farmers, boatman, artisans, and herdsmen. They owned no land, at least after the time of Joseph, the Hebrew prime-minister, who during a famine required all proprietors to sell their acres for food, holding them afterward merely as tenants of the king (Gen. xlvii: 18–26). The system

of castes crushed all ambition among the people. Every man was compelled to follow his father's occupation, and when the labor market became over crowded, the king had only to project some grand, but often useless work, and draft thousands of men into the quarries to draw stones for a new pyramid. One huge stone required the labor of 2,000 men, three years, for its transportation.

79. In the crowded cities of Egypt many industries were carried on. Vases of glass and porcelain, and engraved gems, still exist to prove the skill and industry of this ancient people. They excelled all other nations in the fineness of their linen fabrics and in embroidery. Doubtless the Hebrew women learned of them the art by which they contributed to the beauty of the Tabernacle (*Exodus* xxvi: 36; xxxv: 25).

80. The genius of the Egyptians is chiefly shown in their architecture, which, for grandeur of proportions and the masses of material employed, has never been equaled. In the great Hall of Karnak, the whole Cathedral of Notre Dame could stand without touching either walls or ceiling; and the Temple of Karnak is connected with the palace of Luxor by an avenue of 1,000 colossal sphinxes. Egyptian sculpture was huge rather than beautiful; yet there is an imposing dignity in the gigantic figures of kings who guard the entrances of some temples. In painting, the Egyptians aimed to represent facts rather than to please the imagination; and though the pictures in their tombs afford most interesting views of the daily life of the people, they are hardly to be considered as works of art.

81. **Carthage.**—The numerous Phœnician colonies have already been mentioned (§23). Of these, the most important was Carthage, a daughter city of Tyre, founded about 850 B. C. The neighboring African tribes were friendly, and the new city grew rapidly in size and wealth. Every known sea was penetrated by her ships; the Atlantic

coast was explored from Norway to the Cape of Good Hope, and the products of the whole ancient world filled her markets. The destruction of the mother city by Nebuchadnezzar (§ 24) threw nearly all of the western commerce of Tyre into the hands of the Carthaginians. All the Phœnician settlements in the western Mediterranean acknowledged Carthage as their leader, while her own colonies were scattered over Sicily, Sardinia, Spain, western Africa, Madeira, and the Canary Islands.

82. The government of Carthage was copied, with little alteration, from that of Tyre. In place of the king were two officers called Suffetes or Judges, elected for life from certain noble families. They were aided, or perhaps oftener opposed, by a grand council of several hundreds of citizens, from which committees were chosen to administer the various departments of state. Another Council of One Hundred was afterwards appointed, before which all generals, returning from war, had to render account of their actions; and so severe were its judgments, that an unfortunate commander sometimes chose to kill himself rather than appear before it.

83. The religion of Tyre, of course, descended to her daughter, with the same gloomy and cruel observances. In times of calamity, children were thrown into the heated arms of a brazen image of Moloch, whence they rolled into a furnace of burning coals. No military movement was made without the direction of a prophet or diviner; and the progress of a battle was often interrupted while the general offered sacrifices.

84. Three hundred years after her foundation, Carthage came into fierce collision with the Greek cities of Sicily and southern Italy, and destroyed one of their fleets in a naval battle. The Greeks were great traders, and, therefore, rivals of the Carthaginians. In 509 B. C., Carthage made a friendly treaty with the infant republic of Rome, which

seemed less likely to become her rival, as the Romans despised trade, dividing their attention between farming and war with their Italian neighbors. They grew to be, however, the bitterest enemies, and finally the destroyers of Carthage. But the story of these later days will be more conveniently told in the history of Rome. See Ch. XIV.

Point out, on Maps I and 5, the course of the Nile. Thebes. Memphis. Carthage.

Read, concerning Egypt, Wilkinson's *Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians*; Herodotus, Book II; Brugsch Bey's *Egypt under the Pharaohs*; Rawlinson's *History of Egypt*, and Palmer's *Egyptian Chronicles*; Eber's *Uarda and Egyptian Princess*. Concerning Carthage, read Heeren's *Historical Researches*; *African Nations*.

NOTES.

1. The best authorities consider it "in the highest degree probable" that it was the last of the Shepherd Kings, Apepi, who raised Joseph out of prison to be his prime minister (see Gen. xli). "The elevation of a foreigner and a Semite to so exalted an office, is thought to be far more likely under Hyksos than under native Egyptian rule; the marriage with the daughter of the high-priest of Heliopolis to be less surprising, and the Egyptian words and names connected with the history to point to this period."

If this be so, the "shepherds" must have become civilized to a great degree by the example of the people whom they had enslaved. "For," continues Prof. Rawlinson, "the Pharaoh of Joseph is no rude and savage nomad, but a mild, civilized, and somewhat luxurious king. He holds a grand court in a city not named, has a number of cup-bearers and confectioners, sits upon a throne or rides in a chariot, wears a ring on his hand, has vestures of fine linen and collars of gold to bestow on those whom he favors, uses the Egyptian language, and is, in fact, undistinguishable from a native Egyptian monarch. He does not oppress any of his subjects. On the contrary, he sustains them in a time of scarcity when he becomes their landlord, takes a moderate rent, is especially lenient to the priests; and, when he receives the Israelites, even concedes to his subjects' prejudice against 'shepherds.' If he is by birth and descent one of the Hyksos, he has adopted all the ordinary habits and modes of life of the Egyptians; he is even, it would seem, tolerant of their religion."

It can easily be understood that when the foreign rulers had been cast out, the favor in which the Hebrews had been held by them would give way to a very different treatment.

2. The greatest king of the Eighteenth Dynasty was Thothmes III., who was a mighty conqueror, both by land and sea. The French historian Lenormant infers from an inscription at Thebes "that the fleets of the great Pharaoh, after having first conquered Cyprus and Crete, had further subjected to his scepter the islands of the southern archipelago, a considerable portion of the seaboard of Greece and Asia Minor, and even, perhaps, the lower extremity of Italy." He concludes "from the same monument, that the war-vessels of Thothmes III. penetrated pretty frequently into the waters of the Black Sea, where Herodotus pretends

that the Egyptians had before this founded a colony in Colchis for the working of the mines. . . . Memorials of the reign of Thothmes III. have been found at Cherchell, in Algeria; and it is not at all impossible that they really mark the limit whereto the power of this prince extended on the north coast of Africa." English and German Egyptologists read the names in the inscriptions differently, but there is no doubt that Thothmes ruled the coasts of Syria, Cilicia, and Cyprus, as well as of Egypt. By his great buildings "he has left the impress of his presence in Egypt more widely than almost any other of her kings, while, at the same time, he has supplied to the great capitals of the modern world their most striking Egyptian monuments. The memorial which he erected to commemorate his conquest of the land of Naharain (Mesopotamia), looks down upon the place of the Atmeidan in the city of Constantine; one of his great Theban obelisks rears itself in the midst of the Piazza in front of the Church of St. John Lateran, in Rome; while the twin spires, which he set up before the temple of the Sun at Heliopolis, after long adorning Alexandria, have been conveyed, respectively, to London and New York."—*Rawlinson*.

3. Esarhaddon (§14) divided Egypt into twenty districts, over which he placed twenty rulers,—some Assyrian, some native Egyptian, but all subject to his commands. One of these was Psammetichus or Psamatik, a Libyan, king of Sais. The powerful Ethiopian king, Tirhakeh, who had previously ruled Egypt, was driven away to the southward. But "no sooner did Esarhaddon, in B. C. 669, show signs of physical decay, than Tirhakeh issued from his Ethiopian fastnesses, descended the valley of the Nile, expelled the kings set up by Esarhaddon, and reestablished his authority over the whole country. The kings fled to Nineveh, where they found Asshur-bani-pal, the son of Esarhaddon, established in power. Learning from them what had happened, he at once put his forces in motion, and, in B. C. 668, led them through Syria and Palestine into Egypt, defeated the Egyptians and Ethiopians in a great battle near Karbanit, stormed Memphis and Thebes, and forced Tirhakeh once more to take refuge in his own proper country. After this he retired, having first reinstated the princes in their former governments and strengthened the Assyrian garrisons in the various towns."

A new revolt was followed by a new invasion, and so Egypt continued to be "a shuttle-cock between Ethiopia and Assyria for some ten or twelve years." The perpetual advances and retreats of hostile armies "half ruined the towns, and carried desolation over the broad and fertile plains on either side of the river. The great city of Thebes, long the admiration of the Greeks, and probably for many years quite the most magnificent city in the world, passed into a by-word for depression and decay."—*Read Nahum III, 8, 9.*

In this time of trouble and weakness, Psamatik, king of Sais, found his opportunity to reestablish the Egyptian monarchy. With the aid of a body of soldiers, mostly Carians and Ionian Greeks, sent by King Gyges of Lydia (§28), he defeated the forces of the vassal-kings, and "proclaimed himself lord of the two Egypts, the upper and the lower country."

"The introduction into Egypt of a large body of Asiatic Greeks, warlike, and yet civilized and refined, and the close relationship in which they henceforth stood to the king, were events of considerable importance in their effect upon Egyptian art, manners, and habits of thought. The spirit of inquiry was suddenly awakened in the inert Egyptian mind, which had hitherto been content to work in a traditional groove, and had eschewed all needless speculations. Psammetichus himself had his curiosity aroused and began experiments and investigations. . . A question having been raised as to the relative antiquity of different races of mankind, Psammetichus had two children isolated from their species, brought up by a dumb herdsman, and suckled by a goat, in order to see what language they would speak, since he presumed that, if they never heard a word uttered, they would revert to the primitive type of speech. The result of his experiment was thought to prove the Phrygians to be the most ancient nation."

"It would seem that another consequence was the opening of free communication and commercial intercourse between Egypt and Asiatic Greece, such as had certainly not existed previously. The Egyptians had hitherto been jealous of foreigners, and scarcely allowed them to

land on their coast. Now Greek trade, and even Greek settlements, were encouraged." Merchants from Miletus established two cities at different mouths of the Nile, of which, Naucratis, the more westerly, became an important seat of Greek commerce. Here Solon resided during those years of his early manhood, when he was not only repairing his injured fortune, but enriching his mind by observations of laws and customs which might be made useful to his fellow-citizens."—See note, p. 68.

By his employment of foreign soldiers, Psammetichus gave great offense to the Egyptian warrior-class, who seceded to the number of 200,000, and, passing through Nubia and Ethiopia, established a military colony on the White Nile, only nine degrees from the equator.

4. "How it happened"—says Prof. Rawlinson, in his History of Egypt—"that in Egyptian thought the future life occupied so large a space, and was felt to be so real and so substantial, while among the Hebrews and the other Semites it remained, even after contact with Egypt, so vague and shadowy, is a mystery which it is impossible to penetrate. We can only say that so it was; that from a time anterior to Joseph, or even Abraham, the children of Mizraim, in their bright and fertile land on either side of the strong-flowing Nile, thought as much of the future life as of the present; that their religious ideas clustered rather about the tomb than about the temple; and that their worship, domestic rather than national, though it included, among its objects, some beings regarded as wholly divine, was directed especially toward the spirits of those who had been their fathers in the flesh."

"There was another worship, also of a practical character, which belongs almost certainly to this early period—the worship of the reigning monarch. Each king was regarded as an incarnation of Horus, was assigned a priest or priests, and a temple; or, at any rate, a chapel. He was styled 'the victorious Horus,' 'the divine lord,' 'the ever-living.' His subjects worshiped him, not only during his life, but after his death."

Diodorus of Sicily wrote of Egypt in the first century before Christ: "The inhabitants of this region consider the term of man's present life to be utterly insignificant, and devote by far the largest part of their attention to the life after death. They call the habitations of the living 'places of sojourn,' since we occupy them but for a short time; but, to the sepulchers of the dead they give the name of 'eternal abodes,' since men will live in the other world for an indefinite period. For these reasons they pay little heed to the construction of their houses, while in what concerns burial they place no limit to the extravagance of their efforts."



Egyptian Sculptors.

PART II. — HELLENIC STATES.

PERIOD I. — *The Age of Fable.*

CHAPTER VI.

EARLIEST HISTORY OF THE GREEKS — THEIR RELIGION.



Bust of Homer.

EXCEPTING the Jews, the nations hitherto described have given but few ideas to our modern life. The influence of Egypt, Babylonia, and Persia has doubtless reached us indirectly through their dealings with the Hebrews and Greeks; but those mighty empires are too remote in time and circumstances to have affected us greatly. Greece, on the contrary, by her art, literature, and philosophy, has exerted a controlling influence upon the intellectual life of the world.

86. The Greeks were Aryans, like the Medes, Persians, Bactrians, and the Brahmins of India, and were probably among the earliest emigrants from the original home in

Asia (§ 5). The first-comers were called *Pelasgi*; their successive abodes in Asia Minor, Greece, and Italy may be traced by remains of their buildings, which may still be seen, composed of enormous masses of rough stone joined without cement. Many other tribes followed, among whom the *Hellenes* at length gained the chief power in Greece, and gave their name to all the Aryan settlers of



Map 3. — Greece.

that peninsula and its neighboring islands. "Wherever the Hellenic tongue was spoken, there was Hellas;" the names of *Greece* and *Greeks* were of later origin.

87. If you look upon Map 3, you will see that the Greek peninsula is divided, by deep gulfs, into a northern, a central, and a southern part. These are, moreover, in-

tersected by mountain-chains, so that twenty-four separate states existed within this little peninsula, which is only 250 miles long and 180 miles wide at its greatest extent. Northern Greece contained two countries, Thessaly and Epirus; Central Greece, eleven, of which Attica was the most celebrated, though not the largest; and the Peloponnesus, or Southern Greece, had also eleven, among which Lacedæmon, with Sparta for its capital, long held the supremacy.

88. The Greeks were a bright, active, and enterprising people. Tempted by the bays and inlets which so deeply indent their coasts, and by the many islands which afford easy stepping-stones to Asia, they very early became sailors and traders to foreign lands. Their cities in Asia Minor, Sicily, and southern Italy surpassed those of the motherland in wealth and beauty. Thus open on every side to foreign influences, the Greeks could not fail to profit by the civilization of older nations.¹ They learned the art of alphabetic writing from the Phœnicians, and derived many ideas concerning philosophy and religion from "the learning of the Egyptians."

89. Hellenic history will be treated in four periods:

I. The Age of Fable, ending with the Dorian Migration, 1100 B. C.

II. Authentic History, from the Migrations to the Persian Wars, 500 B. C.

III. From the Beginning of Persian Wars to the Supremacy of Macedon, 338 B. C.

IV. Empire of the Greeks in Europe, Asia, and Africa, until their conquest by the Romans, 146 B. C.

90. The Age of Fable is also called the Heroic Age. The Heroes were supposed to have been sons of the gods, and to have surpassed all common men in strength, beauty, and greatness of soul. Among the most celebrated were Her'cules, whose "twelve labors" delivered the land from

noxious pools, savage beasts, and still more dangerous men; The'seus,² the civilizer of Attica, and founder of the Isthmian Games (§ 103); Mi'nos, king of Crete, a great lawgiver and judge; and Ja'son, a Thessalian prince, who sailed with fifty brave comrades through the Black Sea to Colchis in quest of the Golden Fleece. The stories of these and many other heroes may be read in the Greek Mythology.

91. Last and greatest of the heroic deeds, was the ten years' siege of Troy, in Asia Minor. Paris, son of the Trojan king Priam, had carried away Helen, wife of Menela'us, king of Sparta. All the Greek princes mustered their ships and men to punish the wicked deed; and, choosing Agamem'non, brother of the injured Menelaus, as their leader, they sailed across the blue Ægean, and besieged Troy. The closing scenes of the war are narrated by Homer in the Iliad, one of the greatest poems of the whole world's literature.

92. Achil'es, the favorite hero of the Greeks, quarreled with Agamemnon and shut himself up in his tent. Hector, the bravest of the Trojan princes, now gained the advantage and drove the Greeks to their ships. Pat'roclus then borrowed the armor of Achilles, and at the head of his Myrmidons drove back the Trojans and saved the ships, but was himself slain by Hector. To avenge his friend, Achilles reappeared in battle, and killed the brave Hector, whose corpse he dragged behind his chariot about the walls of the city. Achilles himself perished in the fight, but the Greeks were victorious. Troy fell, and for ages lay so buried in ruins that some have even doubted whether it ever existed. Within a few years, however, the efforts of Dr. Schliemann have brought to light the palace of Priam, and many of its ornaments in gold, silver, and bronze, together with a gate and temple which were described by Homer.

93. Whether we believe the poet's story or not, his descriptions afford true pictures of early Greek customs in war, government, and home life. Each little state (§ 87) had its king, who was supposed to be descended from Zeus (§ 95), and who was at once the father, the judge, the general, and the priest of his people. A council of nobles, also sons of the gods, aided him with their wisdom and their arms. They had broad lands, many slaves, and treasures of gold and silver; but king and nobles lived simply and industriously, plowing and reaping their fields, building and rowing their boats, and even sometimes cooking their own dinners.

94. Queens and noble ladies wove the wool and flax of their husbands' estates into garments for themselves and their families, while princesses brought water from the well, or helped their slaves to wash garments in the rivers. These early Greeks loved poetry, music, and all the arts; and in every house a cordial welcome awaited the minstrel who sang the brave deeds of heroes, or the visits of the gods to men. In this way Homer's poems passed from mouth to mouth centuries before they were committed to writing.

95. **Greek Religion** was for the most part a refined form of Nature-worship. All Hellenes believed in *Zeus*,³ the Thunderer, king of gods and men; in *Poseidon*, god of the sea; *Apollo*, the sun-god; *Ares*, god of war; *Hephaestus*, of fire and the useful arts; and in *Heracles*, the promoter of commerce and wealth. The six chief goddesses were *Hera*, wife of Zeus; *Athena*, his favorite daughter; *Artemis*, the moon-goddess; *Aphrodite*, the impersonation of beauty and love; *Hestia*,⁴ the guardian of domestic life; and *Demeter*, the bountiful mother of harvests. These twelve constituted the supreme council of the gods, on the heights of Mt. Olympus; but every field, river, and forest was supposed to be inhabited by its separate divinity.

96. "Mysteries," in honor of Demeter, were celebrated every year at Eleusis, in Attica; and so reverently were they regarded, that it was a crime even to mention them in the presence of foreigners or others who were not admitted to a share in them. Of course we have no means of knowing what rites or doctrines were so secretly commemorated; but ancient writers seem to intimate that they were connected with the hope of a future life. They gave a feeling of comfort and security to their participants; and, in case of sudden peril, strangers often asked each other, "Have you been initiated?"

97. Much less respectable were the *orgies* or drunken rites held in honor of Diony'sus, god of the vine. Troops of women, called Bacchantes, spent whole nights upon the mountains, shouting, leaping, and clashing noisy instruments, even tearing human victims to pieces and devouring their flesh. They believed that this frenzy arose from the presence of the god, and that those who resisted it would be punished with madness.

98. In spite of these strange occasional excesses, the Greeks believed that the Ruler of the world demanded truth, purity, and justice from men. In the earliest times, if deadly sins were committed, there was no hope; the guilty person was haunted by avenging goddesses, who never slept, but stood or walked by his side with flaming eyes until his crime was punished. Afterward the idea of atonement for sin was derived from Asia—perhaps indirectly from the Hebrews. In case of famine, pestilence, or defeat in war, whole cities or states endeavored to cleanse themselves by prayers and sacrifices, from some known or hidden crime.

99. From very early times the gods were supposed to make known their will to men by dreams, oracles, divinations, and the motions of the stars. The most celebrated oracle was that of Apollo at Delphi. His priestess seated

herself at the mouth of a cave, whence issued an intoxicating vapor, and, when sufficiently giddy or inspired, uttered a response so obscure that the inquirer needed more wit to discover what it meant than to decide upon the best course of conduct for himself. It is said that Cræsus, king of Lydia, asked counsel at Delphi, whether he should make war against Cyrus (§ 29). The reply was, "If thou make war against the Persians, thou shalt ruin a great empire." When Cræsus had lost his crown, he was not much comforted by the priestess' explanation, that his own empire had been great, and was now ruined.

100. The Heroic Age ended with important movements among the four Hellenic tribes.* The barbarous Illyrians crossed the northern border, and crowded the Hellenes into closer quarters. The Dorians of central Greece then passed over to the Peloponnesus, of which they made themselves masters; and their leaders became kings respectively of Argos, Messenia, and Lacedæmon. Many Ionians, thus crowded out of southern Greece, founded twelve new cities on the islands and eastern coasts of the Ægean. These soon became rich and flourishing, and were early noted for the brilliant genius of their people. The poets Homer and Anac'reon were Ionians of Asia.

101. The Dorians, not content with their conquered peninsula, seized the islands of Cos and Rhodes, and a small portion of the Asiatic mainland, where they built Cnidus and Halicarnassus. The Æolians also built many new cities, both in Asia and in Italy.

Great changes occurred in the Grecian governments during the time of the Migrations. Almost all the monarchies were replaced by republics. Cities acquired much greater importance; in fact, each state now consisted of a city, with its little tract of subject territory. Though completely independent, and often envious and hostile toward each

* The Dorians, Ionians, Achæans, and Æolians.

other, the Greeks of all these states, in Europe and Asia, prided themselves upon their common language, religion, and ancestry, which distinguished them from the rest of mankind, whom they called *barbarians* or *babblers*.

102. This national feeling was kept alive by the great games and festivals, which, at least once in every year, drew together throngs of Greeks from the remotest corners of Hellas. Here were chanted the war-ballads of Homer, which described all the Greeks as united against a common foe. Here, too, were friendly contests in running, leaping, wrestling, and racing with horses and chariots. Every Greek, however poor or unknown, was admitted to the competition; but all *barbarians*, though of royal birth, were excluded. The victor was crowned with wild olive, laurel, or pine; he was welcomed home with choral processions, and with all the honors that his native city could bestow.

103. Oldest and most famous of all were the Olympic Games—said to have been founded by Hercules—which were celebrated once in four years, in E'lis, the Holy Land of the Hellenes. While these games lasted, all wars ceased; and so great was their importance, that the Greeks of later years used the period of their recurrence as a measure of time. The *First Olympiad* was B. C. 776-772. Next in rank were the Pythian Games, in honor of Apollo, held in Phocis, the third year of every Olympiad. They included competitions in music and poetry, as well as athletic contests. The praises of Zeus were again celebrated by the Nemean Games, every two years, near Cleonæ in Argolis; and those of Poseidon, the sea god, in the alternate years, by the Isthmian Games, near his temple on the Isthmus of Corinth.

104. Another bond of union was formed by leagues of kindred tribes, for worship and for mutual counsel and defense. The sacred Isle of Delos was the religious me-

tropolis of the Cyclades, whither all the Ionian cities sent yearly embassies to offer sacrifices to Apollo. The Ionian and Dorian cities, in Asia Minor, had each a federal union, whose meetings were celebrated by games and religious festivals; and on the Greek peninsula a grand "Amphictyonic Council" of twelve tribes met twice every year—in the spring, at Delphi, and in the fall, at Anthela, near Thermopylæ. The faith of the Council was pledged to the protection of every member by the following oath: "They would destroy no city of the Amphictyons, nor cut off their streams in war or peace; and if any should do so, they would march against him and destroy his cities; and should any pillage the property of the god (Apollo), or plan any thing against his temple, at Delphi (§ 99), they would take vengeance upon him with hand and foot and voice, and all their might."

Name the natural boundaries of Greece. Point out, on Maps 2 and 3, the Ambracian, Corinthian, and Saronic gulfs. The states of northern Greece. Of central Greece. Of the Peloponnesus. The islands of Eubœa, Delos, Samos, Lesbos, Lemnos, Rhodes, Crete. Miletus, and other *Ionian* cities in Asia Minor. Mitylene, and other *Æolian* cities. Cnidus, and other *Dorian* cities. Troy.

For illustration, read Kingsley's "Heroes;" Hawthorne's "Wonder Book" and "Tanglewood Tales;" Homer's Iliad, in Bryant's or Lord Derby's translation; and Bryant's translation of the Odyssey.

For information, see Felton's Smith's Greece, Book I, and the early volumes of Grote's History of Greece.

NOTES.

1. The **Greeks** believed that their remote ancestors learned the arts of civilized life from Oriental and Egyptian strangers. Athens was said to have been founded by *Cecrops*, a native of Sais in Egypt, who instituted its forms of worship and domestic life. Its citadel was called the *Cecropia* down to the latest times. *Danaus* was fabled to have come from the Nile-country with his fifty daughters, to escape the persecution of their fifty suitors, who were all sons of his brother *Ægyptus*. He became king of Argos, and, as this kingdom enjoyed a certain leadership in early times, Homer often calls all the Greeks *Danaï*. *Pelops* was believed to have come from Asia Minor and founded the kingdom of Mycenæ. From him the *Peloponnesus* derived its name.

A grain of truth may be found in the story of Cadmus the Phœnician, who was reputed to have founded Thebes, in Bœotia, and to have taught the people the arts of mining and vine-culture, and the use of the alphabet. It is certain that both the names and the forms of Greek letters were derived from the Phœnicians; and, as these people planted colonies at a very early time in the islands of the Grecian Archipelago, they may very likely have penetrated the main land. The fortress of Thebes bore the name *Cadmea* to a late period.

The stories of Egyptian colonies are thus accounted for by Dr. Smith: "The speculative Greeks [see note, p. 50] who visited Egypt in the sixth and fifth centuries before the Christian era, were profoundly impressed with the monuments of the old Egyptian monarchy, which, even in that early age of the world, indicated a gray and hoary antiquity. The Egyptian priests were not slow to avail themselves of the impression made upon their visitors, and told the latter many a wondrous tale to prove that the civilization, the arts, and even the religion of the Greeks, all came from the land of the Nile. These tales found easy believers; they were carried back to Greece, and repeated with various modifications and embellishments; and thus, no doubt, arose the greater number of the traditions respecting Egyptian colonies in Greece.

"The only fact which lends any countenance to the existence of an Egyptian colony in Greece, is the discovery of the remains of two pyramids at no great distance from Argos; but this form of building is not confined to Egypt. Pyramids are found in India, Babylonia, and Mexico, and may, therefore, have been erected by the early inhabitants of Greece, independently of any connection with Egypt."—*Fellon's Smith's "Greece."*

2. Among the many memorable achievements of Theseus, son of King *Ægeus*, "the most famous was his deliverance of Athens from the frightful tribute imposed upon it by Minos for the murder of his son. This consisted of seven youths and seven maidens whom the Athenians were compelled to send every nine years to Crete, there to be devoured by the Minotaur, a monster with a human body and a bull's head, which Minos kept concealed in an inextricable labyrinth. The third ship was already on the point of sailing with its cargo of innocent victims, when Theseus offered to go with them, hoping to put an end forever to the horrible tribute. Ariadne, the daughter of Minos, became enamored of the hero, and, having supplied him with a clew to trace the windings of the labyrinth, Theseus succeeded in killing the monster, and in tracking his way out of the mazy lair. As he returned towards Athens, the pilot forgot to hoist the white sail agreed upon as the signal of success; whereupon *Ægeus*, thinking that his son had perished, threw himself into the sea, which afterwards bore his name.

Theseus, having now ascended the throne, proceeded to lay the foundations of the future greatness of Athens. He united into one political body the twelve independent states into which Cecrops had divided Attica, and made Athens the capital of the new kingdom. In order to accommodate the increased population of the city, he covered with buildings the ground lying to the south of the Cecropian citadel; and, in commemoration of the union, he instituted the festivals of the Panathenæa and Synœkia, in honor of Athena, the patron goddess of the city. He then divided the citizens into three classes; namely, *Eupatridæ*, or nobles; *Geomorî*, or husbandmen; and *Demiurgi*, or artisans. He is further said to have established a constitutional government, retaining in his own hands only certain definite powers and privileges, so that he was regarded in a later age as the founder of civil equality at Athens. He also extended the Attic territory to the confines of Peloponnesus, and established the games in honor of Poseidon, which were celebrated on the Isthmus."—*Fellon's Smith's "Greece,"* p. 18.

Theseus was revered for ages as the great local hero. The temple erected in his honor is to this day the best preserved of all the beautiful works of Athenian architecture. In times of national danger, as at the battle of Marathon (? 115) the gigantic shade of Theseus was believed to be seen fighting in the midst of the Athenian ranks.

3. It has been common to call the Greek gods and goddesses by the names of Roman divinities who most nearly resembled them in character; but this is often misleading. The Romans tried to find, in the deli-

ties of other nations, something in common with their own; and, there is no doubt that many of the Greek and Roman conceptions of divinity were common to them with other branches of the Aryan family.

The following table gives the Greek and Roman names of some of the principal deities that have been thus identified:

GREEK.	ROMAN.
Zeus	Jupiter
Poseidon	Neptune
Hades	Pluto
Ares	Mars
Hephæstus	Vulcan
Hermes	Mercury.

Apollo bore the same name for both; *Helios* is an old Greek name for the sun-god, but is not identical with Apollo.

GODDESSES.

Hera	Juno
Athena	Minerva
Aphrodite	Venus
Artemis	Diana
Hestia	Vesta
Demeter	Ceres
Persephone	Proserpina.

4. "The religion of the sacred fire dates from the dim and distant epoch when there were as yet no Greeks, no Italians, no Hindus, when there were only Aryans. When the tribes separated, they carried this worship with them—some to the banks of the Ganges, others to the shores of the Mediterranean. Later, when these tribes had no intercourse with each other, some adored Brahma, others Zeus, and still others Janus; but all preserved, as an ancient legacy, the first religion which they had known and practiced in the common cradle of their race.

"This fire was something divine; they adored it and offered it a real worship. They made offerings to it of whatever they believed to be agreeable to a god—flowers, fruits, incense, wine, and victims. They believed it to have power, and asked for its protection. They addressed fervent prayers to it, to obtain those eternal objects of human desire—health, wealth, and happiness.

"At certain moments of the day they placed upon the fire dry herbs and wood; then the god manifested himself in a bright flame.

"Before eating, they placed upon the altar the first fruits of the food; before drinking, they poured out a libation of wine. This was the god's portion. No one doubted that he was present; that he ate and drank; for did they not see the flame increase as if it had been nourished by the provisions offered?"—*Fustel de Coulanges, "The Ancient City."*

Cities, like families, had their sacred hearth-fires, before which a sacred banquet was held every day. "In Athens, the men who took part in this common meal were selected by lot. Every guest had a crown upon his head; it was a custom of the ancients to wear a crown of leaves or flowers when one performed a solemn religious act. For the same reason, the banqueters were clothed in robes of white—white was the sacred color, that which pleased the gods. The meal invariably commenced with a prayer and libations, and hymns were sung."

When a new city was to be founded, fire was carried from the sacred hearth—the *prytaneum* of the mother-city—and placed upon that of the daughter, which had henceforth the same religion. Exile was considered as a capital punishment, and from the complaints of its victims we should judge it to be worse than death. For the exile had no religion; his own gods could be approached only at their own altars, and he had no right to enter the temple of an alien divinity.

CHAPTER VII.

SPARTA AND ATHENS.



Pallas Athena.

THE history of the Greeks is mainly involved in that of the two leading states, Sparta and Athens. These not only represented the two more important tribes, the Dorians and Ionians, but the two opposing principles which divided every state in Greece, except, perhaps, Sparta herself: namely, the principles of *oligarchy* and *democracy*, the former aiming to place the government in the hands of a few powerful men, the latter, to entrust it to the people themselves. The Dorians were remarkable for their

severe and simple manners; the Ionians, for the brilliancy and harmonious balance of their minds, and their genius for all the arts which beautify life.

106. The laws of Sparta were said to be the work of Lycurgus,¹ who lived about 850 B. C.; but, probably, he only shaped the customs already prevailing into more exact form. When the Dorians conquered the Peloponnesus

(§ 100), most of the former occupants of the country became tenants and slaves of their conquerors. The Spartans were but few in comparison with these subject Achæans, and Lycur'gus resolved to make up, by military drill and efficiency, what they lacked in numbers. To this end, every Spartan was a soldier, and was taught that his life belonged to the state.

107. Every newly-born babe was brought before a committee of old men, who decided upon his right to live. If puny or sickly, he was cast into a ravine to perish; but if he seemed likely to be strong, he was accepted as a son of Sparta, and was endowed with one nine-thousandth part of the public lands. At seven years of age he was taken from his mother, and, until he was sixty, lived the life of a soldier. He ate black broth at the public tables; he was toughened by exposure to heat, cold, hunger, thirst, fatigue, and scourging, and thought himself disgraced if a word or sound of complaint escaped him. The girls were almost as severely trained as their brothers, and learned to prefer the glory of Sparta above all home affections. One mother shouted for joy when told that her eight sons had perished on one battle-field.

108. Sparta had always two kings, supposed to be descended from twin grandsons of Hercules; but their power was only that of priests and generals, subject to the Senate, and, later, to the committee of five "Ephors," who really governed the state. The population of Lacedæmon was divided into three classes: (1) the *Spartans* proper, descended from the Dorian conquerors, who kept to themselves all honors and power in the government, and lived in the city of Sparta as in a camp, always ready for military duty. Commerce and all useful arts were left to (2) the subject *Achæans*, who inhabited the country towns. The fields were cultivated by (3) *Helots*,² a race of serfs attached to the soil, who were kept in a most cruel slavery. To

shut out foreign luxuries, Lycurgus ordered Spartan money to be made of rusted iron, so that no other nation would receive it.

109. For three hundred years from the time of Lycurgus, Sparta was engaged in contests with her neighbors in the Peloponnesus—the Messenians, Arcadians, and Argives—which gave her the control of the peninsula. So great was her power, that she would, perhaps, have become mistress of all Greece, if the Persian Empire, now dominant in Asia, had not tried to extend itself into Europe. King Darius turned his revengeful eyes upon the Athenians (§ 52), and his efforts to subdue them—or, rather, their brave resistance—made them, after the wars, the leading power in Greece.

110. Athens was not only the rival, but the perfect contrast of Sparta. More than any other people that ever lived, the Athenians loved music, poetry, eloquence, and all the arts of expression; while the Spartans prided themselves upon their blunt, *laconic* speech, and thought it a crime to use three words where two would suffice.

111. The last king of Athens fell in battle with the Dorians (§ 100), and for several centuries the nobles governed the state. Their power was often oppressive—especially when, in times of calamity, the poor were compelled to borrow money from them at a ruinous rate of interest, and became slaves from inability to pay their debts. At length, the people made their voice heard in a demand for written laws. To rebuke their presumption, the nobles appointed Dra'co, the sternest of their number, to prepare a code. Draco's laws were said to have been written with blood: the slightest crimes were punished with death, and the lives of all the people were placed at the mercy of the nobles.

112. These cruel enactments drove the people to revolt, and the nobles, now convinced of their error, chose So'lon,⁸

the wisest of their class, to prepare a more just and liberal constitution. He abolished slavery for debt, B. C. 594. gave to every freeman the right to vote, and laid the burdens of the state on those who were best able to bear them.

113. Still the rights of the people were not fully secured. Pisis'tratus, a kinsman of Solon, the most popular and accomplished man of his time, but also the most ambitious, managed to usurp the supreme power. B. C. 560. For this reason he was called a tyrant;⁴ but, though he gained his power by force, we can not deny that he used it wisely and well. He strictly enforced Solon's laws, and did much for the improvement of the people. He first collected the war-ballads of Homer into the great epic poem called the Iliad; and his library, the first in Greece, was freely open to all who wished to consult it. Though he was twice expelled from Athens, and once remained in exile eighteen years, Pisistratus at length established his power; and his sons, Hip'pias and Hippar'chus, succeeded him peaceably at his death, 527 B. C.

114. But the Athenians had now learned to be more careful of their liberties. Hipparchus was murdered by a citizen whom he had offended, and his brother, Hippias, was sent into exile. To prevent any citizen's becoming too powerful in future, the singular custom of *ostracism** was introduced. The best of men could be exiled for ten years, without accusation, trial, or defense, simply by a vote of one fourth of the Athenian freemen.⁵ To be ostracised was no disgrace, for it implied no crime, but was a tes-

* So called from *οστρακον*, the Greek name for the tile, or oyster-shell, on which the name of the person was written. If the Senate decided that public safety demanded the ostracism, the citizens assembled, on an appointed day, in the market-place, and cast these ballots in a heap. If one man's name was found on 6,000 tiles, he left the city within ten days.

timony to the talents and sometimes even to the virtues of its victim. This precautionary measure was the work of Clis'thenes, who, next to Solon, may be considered as the founder of Athenian liberty. He "took the people into partnership," and extended the rights of citizens to all free inhabitants of Attica. These he enrolled in ten tribes, each having an equal share in the control of civil and military matters. From this time Athens always had a "government by the people," excepting at two calamitous periods, when the Spartan faction, which existed in almost every city, was able to revolutionize its affairs.

About ninety years after the adoption of Clisthenes' constitution, it happened that two great men called for the vote of the Senate, under which each hoped that the other would be ostracised. The Senate pronounced that *some one* must be exiled; but, before the day appointed for the popular vote, the rivals made up the quarrel, and agreed to "fire off the safety-gun of the republic" against an insignificant man, whose presence or absence could make no difference to his fellow-citizens. But the ostracism, thus degraded, was never called for again. "It was not against such as he," said a Greek writer, "that the shell was intended to be used."

Name the boundaries of Lacedæmon. Of Attica. Of Argolis, Arcadia, Messenia.

Grote's History of Greece is the best authority for this period. Read, also, in Rawlinson's Herodotus, the two Essays following Book V.

NOTES.

1. So much doubt has been thrown upon the history of Lycurgus, that some writers have denied that he ever lived at all. We have reason, however, to believe that he was the brother of a Spartan king, who died early, and whose infant son he afterwards cared for as guardian and regent. Dorian customs had fallen into some confusion in Sparta, and Lycurgus, during his regency, restored and confirmed them, adding such special provisions as were required by the circumstances of the state. His discipline and laws are well known, whatever we may think of their author; and they raised Sparta "in a little while to a proud and wonderful eminence."

Having finished his work, Lycurgus made kings, senators, and people swear that they would make no change in his laws until his return.

He then left Sparta forever. He offered sacrifices to Apollo at Delphi (299), and received an assurance that Sparta should be the most glorious city in the world so long as she obeyed his laws. "Where and how he died nobody could tell. He vanished from the earth like a god, leaving no traces behind but his spirit; and he was honored as a god at Sparta, with a temple and yearly sacrifices down to the latest times."

2. The Helots were never allowed to forget that they were slaves. They were clothed in the skins of sheep and dogs, and were cruelly scourged for no fault of theirs. Sometimes they were forced to become intoxicated, that Spartan boys might be taught to despise drunkenness. Worse than all, from time to time, bands of young Spartans, armed with daggers, were ordered to range over the country, murdering the strongest and best of the Helots. This was partly to improve their own military discipline, but also to keep down the rustic population, who were constantly increasing in numbers, while the Spartans were diminishing. In war, every heavy-armed Spartan was attended by a certain number of light-armed Helots, sometimes as many as seven. If a Helot rendered very distinguished service, he was sometimes rewarded by freedom; but this was rare. On one occasion, when Sparta, in a great emergency, had been well served by these subject people, a proclamation was issued that the bravest and best might come and claim their freedom;—two thousand presented themselves and were treacherously put to death.

It is clear that Spartan cruelty arose in this case from fear; but the danger was the result of a false and wicked system, which must have destroyed all sentiments of justice and generosity in the master, as well as of manliness in the serf.

3. Though Solon was of a great Athenian family, being descended from King Codrus, he was poor; and, to mend the fortune which his father's extravagance had impaired, he betook himself to foreign trade. He was not, however, ambitious to become rich, but desired rather to improve his mind by the widest experience and observation. While he was exchanging his Attic oil and honey for Egyptian millet at Naucratis, he was studying the life of the people under the rule of the Pharaohs, and unconsciously fitting himself to be of service to his fellow-citizens. Attica was suffering then, as many a state has since, from a violent strife of parties. The *Plain*, the *Shore*, and the *Mountain*, were party names for the proud and wealthy nobles, the *merchants*, and the *peasants*. The latter were often very poor, and, under the hard laws of the time, many had become the slaves of their creditors, from whom they had borrowed money at enormous rates of interest. Solon's experience enabled him to sympathize with all parties, to two of which he belonged. He repealed the harsh laws of Draco, and relied upon the Athenian love of fame and approval as sufficient motives to good citizenship. Special acts of patriotism were rewarded by crowns, public banquets, places of honor in the popular assemblies, or by a statue in the market place or the streets. On the other hand, a citizen who remained indifferent in time of public danger, was declared to be disgraced.

4. The name *tyrant* had no bad meaning until the men who bore it made themselves odious by their abuse of power. The earliest tyrants took sides with the common people, and often secured for them a welcome relief from the oppressions of the nobles. The great danger connected with a tyranny was, that it was subject to no laws, and was limited only by the tyrant's own good disposition or his fear of revolt. This he was usually able to prevent by means of a force of foreign soldiery, whom he paid out of the revenues of the state.

The first step of Pisistratus toward absolute power was certainly ingenious. When his plans were ready for execution, he appeared one day in the market-place, bleeding with self-inflicted wounds, which he assured the people he had received in defense of their rights, from his and their enemies, the factious nobles. The people, in their grief and indignation, voted him a guard of fifty club men. Solon saw the danger that lurked in this measure, but his remonstrances were unheeded. Pisistratus did not limit himself to the fifty men allotted him, but raised a much larger force, with which he seized the Acropolis, and made himself master of the city. His *first tyranny* lasted but a short time;

then he was driven from Athens, and his property was sold at auction for the benefit of the state. After he was gone, the two parties of the *Plain* and the *Shore* quarreled between themselves, and the latter invited Pisistratus to return. To explain matters to the Athenians, or, as some say, to secure their consent, a new scheme was invented. A tall and very beautiful peasant girl was found in one of the country districts of Attica, who, when arrayed in glittering armor, looked stately enough to represent Athena herself. A rumor was set afloat among the people that their tutelary goddess was coming in her own person to bring back her chosen vicegerent to her city. Accordingly, a great crowd assembled to worship Athena and acknowledge Pisistratus as their ruler.

The *second tyranny*, like the first, was short; for his old enemies made peace with each other and united in expelling him. This time he did not wait to be recalled, but raised contributions of men and money among the other cities of Greece, and landed with a great army at Marathon. Here he was joined by a crowd of friends from Athens, and gained an easy victory over the troops that were hastily sent to oppose him. Then marching upon the city he secured himself in power by keeping his foreign mercenaries, and by sending sons of the first Athenian families to be hostages with his friend and ally, Lygdamis, on the island of Naxos. The gold mines which he owned near the river Strymon, afforded the means, not only of paying his troops, but of gaining favor with the Athenians by beautifying their city with temples and other architectural works. The greatest was the temple of the Olympian Zeus, a colossal structure, 359 feet in length by 173 in width, which was completed 650 years after its foundation, by the Roman Emperor Hadrian.

This *third tyranny* of Pisistratus was by far the longest, lasting, some say, sixteen years. It was the period of all his peaceful enterprises, among others the institution of the greater Panathenæa, or twelve-days' festival in honor of Athena. It was distinguished from the lesser Panathenæa instituted by Theseus (see note, p. 61) by a sacred procession carrying a crocus-colored robe, embroidered with representations of the victories of Athena, to her temple, the Erechtheum, and more especially by recitations of the poems of Homer, which Pisistratus had collected for this purpose. The greater Panathenæa occurred in the third year of every Olympiad; the others, in the first, second, and fourth years.

5. Probably the most illustrious victim of this peculiar custom was Aristides (§120) whose honorable character was universally known and esteemed. When he held the office of archon, the courts of law were said to be deserted, because all suitors felt safer in submitting their causes to his arbitration.

He was opposed on almost every point of public policy by Themistocles (§117 and note), who desired to make Athens a maritime power, while Aristides wished her to remain an agricultural state. Their disputes ran so high that the ostracism was proposed, and Aristides was banished. It is said that during the voting he was asked by a man who could not write, to inscribe the name of Aristides on an oyster-shell for him. "Why?" said the great archon, "has Aristides ever injured you?" "No," said the man, "nor do I even know him by sight, but it vexes me to hear him always called 'the just.'" Aristides wrote his own name on the shell, which was cast into the heap.

As he left his beloved city, he exclaimed, "May the Athenian people never know a day which shall force them to remember Aristides!" This generous wish was not fulfilled. The great crisis of the Persian wars, to be described in the next chapter, demanded the best efforts of all loyal Greeks. At midnight, before the battle of Salamis (§118), Themistocles was called from a council of officers on board ship to meet Aristides, who had crossed in an open boat from Ægina, to inform his ancient rival of the danger to which he was exposed. "At any time," said the just man, "it would become us to forget our private dissensions, but now especially, in contending who should most serve his country."

His exile ended with the victory at Salamis, which restored all the Athenians to their burned or shattered homes; and the following year he was general-in-chief of the Athenian forces. Three years after the battle, as president of the Hellenic League, he was raised to the highest honor ever conferred by all the Greek states upon a citizen of one.

*PERIOD III.—From the Beginning of the Persian Wars
to the Ascendency of Macedon.*

CHAPTER VIII.

MARATHON, THERMOPYLÆ, SALAMIS: SUCCESSIVE SUPREMACIES OF
ATHENS, SPARTA, THEBES, MACEDON.



A Grecian Soldier.

WE have learned in the history of Persia (§ 52) how the Athenians drew upon themselves the vengeance of the great King Darius, by aiding their brethren in Asia to revolt. The first fleet which he sent to conquer Greece was wrecked at Mt. Athos; but the second—after burning Carystus and Eretria, on the island of Eubœa—landed B. C. 490. 100,000 men on the eastern coast of Attica. The Athenians, led by Milti'ades,¹ met them upon the plain of Marathon. Both armies fought long and bravely. The Medes and Persians were the most magnificent soldiery in the world, and they outnumbered the Athenians ten to one. Nevertheless, they were driven to their ships with great slaughter, and sailed away to Asia. A ten years' breathing-space then enabled the Greeks to collect their forces.

116. In the spring of 480, B. C., the greatest army that the world has ever seen (§ 53) came pouring into Greece. The two Spartan commanders, Leonidas on land, and Eurybiades with his fleet upon the sea, met Xerxes at Thermopylæ. In this narrow pass between Mt. Cæta and the Malian Gulf, a mere handful of Greeks held the whole Persian host at bay for more than a week. At length a treacherous Greek showed the Persians a path over the mountain, by which they could attack the little army in the rear. Thus betrayed, Leonidas dismissed all his forces excepting 300 Spartans and a few hundreds of Thespians and Thebans, and, rushing upon the enemy, fought until every man but one was slain.

117. The gates of central Greece were now open, and the army of invaders pressed on. Eurybiades would have withdrawn the whole fleet to the Peloponnesus, leaving Athens to its fate; but Themistocles,² the Athenian leader, persuaded him to stay long enough at Salamis to allow the people of Athens to find places of safety. The oracle at Delphi had directed them to seek refuge in "wooden walls," which Themistocles assured them must mean their ships. A mournful procession of refugees immediately withdrew from the city, leaving behind only a few who were too poor or too feeble to be removed. Beautiful Athens was burnt, in revenge for the destruction of Sardis.

118. The great decisive combat between the Greek and the Persian forces, took place in the straits of Salamis. Xerxes himself, from a golden throne upon the shore, watched the battle between his magnificent armament of 1200 ships and fewer than 400 on the part of the Greeks. But the Greek pilots knew all the currents and soundings of these narrow seas, and could drive the brazen beaks of their light craft straight into the cumbrous Persian vessels. The battle was long and obstinate, but it ended in a glorious victory for the Greeks. Xerxes sailed away

in bitter humiliation to his own land. The next autumn, his great general, Mardo'nius, was defeated and slain at Plataea, and the remnant of his fleet was destroyed the same day at Mycale on the opposite side of the Ægean.

119. The Persian kings gave up the attempt to conquer Greece, but for two hundred years they never ceased to meddle in her affairs by bribery and by stirring up the jealousies of the several states. Even the Spartan regent Pausanias, who had won the victory of Plataea, was persuaded by their golden promises to betray his country. His treason, however, was discovered in time, and he was starved to death in a temple of Athena, his own mother bringing the first stone to block up its gates. Athens, instead of Sparta, now became the leading state in Greece.

120. A Hellenic League was formed for the protection of the islands and coasts of the Ægean against the Persians. Its treasury, to which all the maritime states contributed, was on the sacred isle of Delos. "Aristides the Just"—the best and greatest Athenian of his time—was the first president of the league; and such confidence did all men place in his wisdom and integrity, that he alone decided how much each state should pay into its treasury, and no one ever complained of his assessments.

B. C. 477.

121. His successor was Cimon, the son of Miltiades. In 466 B. C., he gained a great victory over the Persians at the River Eurymedon, and swept the coasts of Asia Minor of their ships and armies. Cimon's immense wealth and generosity made him the idol of the Athenians, whose city he adorned with marble colonnades and temples, with groves and fountains, until it became the glory of all Greece. Yet even he had to suffer, as Aristides and Themistocles had suffered before him, from the ingratitude and fickleness of the Athenians.

122. Sparta was in great trouble through a revolt of the Helots (§ 108). These wretched people found courage at last to revenge themselves for centuries of ill-treatment; and the Messenians seized the opportunity to strike a blow for independence (§ 109). During the ten years' war which followed, Cimon persuaded the Athenians to forget their causes of complaint against Sparta and send her aid in her distress. He himself twice led an army to her assistance. But Spartan hatred of Athens could not even now be suppressed. The Athenian troops were insultingly dismissed; and so great was the vexation at home, that Cimon was ostracised as a friend of Sparta (§ 114).

123. The popular party now came into power, with Pericles, the most brilliant of all Athenian leaders, at their head. Knowing that freemen can only be governed by reason and persuasion, he had spent his youth in studying the history and the interests of Athens, the science of government, and the arts of eloquence. Nothing could exceed the power and beauty of his oratory, or the influence he acquired over his countrymen.

124. The "Age of Pericles" is celebrated as the culminating period, both in the power and genius of Athens. Her maritime empire extended over all the Greek coasts and islands, and on the main-land she was the successful rival of Sparta. At the same time sculptors and architects, painters and dramatic poets were producing the most perfect works of art that the world has ever seen; and the liberal encouragement offered to talent drew to Athens the greatest intellects from every land. Athenian citizens spent a large portion of their time in discussing public affairs, for private business was chiefly in the hands of slaves, who were three or four times as numerous as the freemen. Hence, it happened that the whole mass of citizens was better trained to civic duties than was ever any similar class of people, before or since. We must not imagine

Attic slaves to have been in condition at all like the Helots (§ 108). The Athenians were of more gentle and generous nature than the Spartans, and no cases of cruelty are on record.

125. The perpetual rivalry of the two leading states occasioned several wars, one of which grew from a dispute for the control of the Delphic oracle. Pericles, though free from superstition himself, well understood its power over others, and he desired to enlist Apollo on the side of Athens. The rashness of the younger Athenians led to a sad defeat at Coronaea in Bœotia; and most of the allied cities in central Greece now resumed their oligarchic governments under the influence of Sparta (§ 105).

126. From these and many other elements of strife arose the Peloponnesian war, which, for twenty-seven years (B. C. 431-404), involved all Greece in calamities. Almost every summer a Spartan army ravaged the fields of Attica, and the people took refuge within the walls of Athens. Every nook was crowded; a plague broke out among the swarming population, who ascribed it to the wrath of Apollo, the especial protector of the Spartans. Their complaints were loud against Pericles, whose cautious policy they were unable to understand. He was even accused of embezzling the public funds, and was heavily fined.

127. Pericles bore their unjust accusations with admirable patience, but his strength was now broken by affliction. His son and nearest friends had died of the plague; a slow fever seized the great statesman himself. As he lay dying, his friends around his bed were talking of his great deeds, when he interrupted them, saying, "All that you are praising was due to the favor of Heaven. What I pride myself upon is that no Athenian has ever had occasion to mourn on my account."

128. The war grew more cruel every year. Mitylene, having revolted against Athens, was brought back to its allegiance by its own popular party, which outnumbered the friends of Sparta. Nevertheless, the Athenian assembly which was called to decide the fate of the recaptured city—carried away by the eloquence of Cleon, a violent demagogue—sentenced all the men of Mitylene to death, and its women to slavery! The author of this brutal decree dispatched a galley to Lesbos with orders for its immediate execution. But a night's rest brought a better mind to the Athenians; they revoked their cruel act, and sent another galley in still greater haste to save the lives of the doomed people.

129. Happily, it arrived in time; the Mityleneans were spared, but the walls of their city were destroyed, and their fleet was absorbed into that of Athens. Corcyra soon afterward suffered a reign of terror in which brothers murdered brothers, and fathers their own sons. Sparta, afraid of her slaves, treacherously murdered 2000 Helots, the bravest and, therefore, the most dangerous of their class. Floods, earthquake, and pestilence combined with the evil passions of men to destroy unhappy Hellas.

130. All parties were now wearied out, and, in 421 B. C., the Peace of Nicias provided for fifty years' truce between Sparta and Athens. Unhappily, war soon broke out again, through the ambition of Alcibiades,³ a brilliant young Athenian, whose genius might have made him the glory of his native city, but who was in fact the chief occasion of its ruin. He persuaded his countrymen to take part in a war between the Doric and Ionic colonists in Sicily; and was one of the three generals who commanded the Athenian forces. But he was soon called home to answer a charge of sacrilege: namely, of having burlesqued the Eleusinian Mysteries (§ 96) in a drunken frolic. He took refuge with the Spartans, and betrayed to them all the

plans of the Athenians. The Sicilian expedition ended in a miserable failure. The Athenian fleet was destroyed in the harbor of Syracuse; the soldiers perished either in battle or of starvation; and the few who survived were sold as slaves.

131. All the rivals, enemies, and unwilling subjects of Athens now took advantage of her distress. Sparta made a treaty with the king of Persia, offering to put him in possession of the whole Grecian territory north of the Corinthian Gulf, with all the islands and coasts of the Ægean. But Alcibiades had found a new refuge with the Persian governor of Asia Minor, and by skillful flatteries he partly defeated the Spartan plans. By several great naval victories he regained control of the grain-fleets in the Black Sea, and so relieved a famine in Athens. For these services his offenses were pardoned, and he was made general with unlimited powers.

132. Persian gold and Spartan skill, however, turned the scale against the Athenians; and they suffered a defeat at Ægos-Potami, which ended their supremacy
B. C. 405. in Greece. The Spartans besieged and took Athens. Its walls were destroyed, and its government was remodeled on the Spartan pattern. The chief power was committed to Thirty Tyrants, who for eight months subjected the citizens to fines, imprisonment, or death at their will. The second period of Spartan supremacy (B. C. 404-371) was marked by the overthrow of free governments throughout Greece.

133. But Sparta's leadership was not easy to maintain. The king of Persia was enraged by the aid she had given to his rebellious brother (§ 58), and a league of many Grecian states, disgusted by her overbearing tyranny, brought on the Corinthian war. Sparta had her best and greatest man, the king Ages'ila'us, for her chief commander, and gained decisive victories over her enemies at Corinth

and Coronæa. A great naval battle with the Athenians and Persians off Cnidus was less fortunate to her, for it resulted in the destruction of the greater part of her fleet and the rapid decline of her power.

134. Athens meanwhile had been rescued from Spartan rule by Thrasybu'lus, one of her exiled citizens, who mustered an army of his fellow-exiles and defeated the Spartan forces at Phy'le and Muny'chia. The laws of Solon were restored. The only blot upon the happy time was the execution of the philosopher Soc'rates—one of the best and wisest men that ever lived—on a false charge of having introduced a new worship and corrupted the Athenian youth. Socrates was, in fact, too wise to believe in all the superstitions of the Greeks; but he was also too prudent to destroy the childish faith of his pupils until they were able to receive something better in the place of it. He refused to accept his life on the condition of forbearing to teach; for the great aim and passion of his life was to promote virtue and wisdom in the young. He spent the thirty days of his imprisonment in cheerful converse with his friends, expressing to the last his firm conviction of the soul's immortality. When the appointed moment arrived, he drank the poison hemlock and calmly expired.

135. The Spartans, weary at length of the disastrous war, sent a messenger to the Persian court, begging the Great King to interfere and settle the affairs of Greece. This was his sentence: "King Artaxerxes thinks it just that the cities in Asia and the islands of Clazom'enæ and Cyprus should belong to him. He thinks it just to leave all the other Grecian cities, both small and great, independent, except Lemnos, Imbros, and Scyros, which are to belong to Athens as of old."—B. C. 387.

136. Spartan power having fallen, Thebes became the next leader of the Greeks. This Bœotian city had been for some years governed by a Spartan garrison; it was

rescued by the bold and ingenious contrivance of one of its own noblemen, and became the head of a new confederacy numbering seventy cities. The Theban Epam'ion'das was the greatest general whom Greece ever produced, and his purity of character was still more admirable than his military genius. At Leuctra, a few miles north-west of Plataea, the most fiercely contested of all Grecian battles was fought, resulting in a victory for Epaminondas, which ended the leadership of Sparta.

137. Four times he invaded the Peloponnesus, where he established an Arcadian League to balance the Spartan power, and called home the exiled Messenians, who had been for three hundred years a banished race, but whom he now settled in the homes of their fathers (§ 109). Sparta itself, which in all the centuries of its existence had never seen an enemy in arms, was threatened by the Thebans, but it was saved by the energy of its old king Agesilaus. During his fourth invasion of southern Greece, Epaminondas was slain in the fatal battle of Mantinea. With his death the Theban power fell, and Athens enjoyed another short period of leadership in Greece.

138. The kingdom of Macedon on the north had now become powerful enough to be regarded with fear. The Macedonians were barbarians (§ 102), but their kings claimed to be descendants of Hercules, and as such had been admitted to a share in the Olympic Games. Philip II, one of the ablest of these kings, had in his boyhood been a hostage at Thebes, where he had learned the art of war from Epaminondas. He had, moreover, become proficient in the Greek language; while he had acutely studied the fatal dissensions among the Greeks, which promised a fair field for his talents both as general and as orator.

139. Soon after his return to Macedon and assumption of the crown, Athens became weakened by the "Social

War," in which many of her late allies and subject states turned against her. Philip seized the opportunity to conquer all her dependencies on the Thermaic Gulf. Then, availing himself of the Sacred War* to interfere in central Greece, he was made a member of the Amphictyonic Council (§ 104) and commander of its forces.

140. Demos'thenes, the great Athenian orator, saw the danger and used all his eloquence to avert it. It was in vain; gold and persuasion were working secretly for Philip, while his arms were advancing in the north; and at length the great battle of Chærone'a, in which his army defeated that of Thebes and Athèns, B. C. 338. made all Greece subject to Macedon. The Congress of Corinth, the next year, acknowledged Philip's supremacy, and appointed him to command the Hellenic forces in a war which was now preparing against Persia. But Philip was murdered at a feast, and this new enterprise was left to the yet greater genius of his son Alexander.

Point out, on Maps 2 and 3, Marathon, Salamis, Plataea, Eretria, Carystus, Thebes, Coronæa, Chæronea, Corcyra, Corinth. The Thermaic Gulf. Macedonia. The Hellespont. Thrace.

The authorities for this chapter are the same as for the preceding.

NOTES.

1. Miltiades, though an Athenian, had been prince or "tyrant" of the Chersonese—that narrow tongue of land north of the Hellespont—owing to a curious incident that occurred during the first reign of Pisistratus.

His uncle, also named Miltiades, was sitting one day at the door of his mansion, when he saw approaching him a group of men whom he knew to be foreigners by their singular dress and by their long spears. With his usual courtesy he invited them to become his guests; the strangers gladly consented, and soon told their story.

They were Thracians from the Chersonese, where their countrymen were even now hard pressed by the hostility of a neighboring tribe. These men had been sent to ask direction from Apollo at Delphi (§ 99), and had been commanded by the priestess to choose for their ally the first man who should offer them hospitality after they quitted the temple. They had traveled all through Phocis and Bœotia without receiving

* So called because the Phocians seized the treasures of Apollo's temple at Delphi, and the Thebans undertook to punish the sacrilege.

any attention; now they gladly hailed Miltiades as their leader, and begged him to found a Greek colony on the Hellespont. It happened that Miltiades, as well as many other nobles, was on bad terms with Pisistratus. A large party of Athenians joined him in establishing an independent state in the Chersonese, and victory rewarded the Thracian guests for their obedience to the oracle. As Miltiades had no son, his sovereignty passed in turn to his two nephews, of whom one commanded at Marathon. He had drawn upon him the wrath of Darius by conquering for Athens the two islands of Lemnos and Imbros, so that, when the Persian fleet advanced in B. C. 490, he had to flee and take refuge in his native city.

Here he was chosen to be one of the ten generals who commanded one day at a time by turns; and it was his energetic spirit that mainly decided the question whether at Marathon ten thousand Athenians should attack one hundred thousand of what were hitherto regarded as far better soldiers than themselves.

The other states of Greece stood aloof; only the friendly little city of Plataea sent all the troops she had—one thousand men—and these arrived just on the eve of battle. The Greek force was drawn up on the eastern slope of the mountains that overlook the plain of Marathon. "The trumpet sounded for action; and, chanting the hymn of battle, the little army bore down upon the host of the foe. . . . Instead of advancing at the usual slow pace of the phalanx, Miltiades brought his men on at a run. They were all trained in the exercises of the palaestra, so that there was no fear of their ending the charge in breathless exhaustion; and it was of the deepest importance for him to traverse as rapidly as possible the mile or so of level ground that lay between the mountain-fort and the Persian outposts, and so to get his troops into close action before the Asiatic cavalry could mount, form, and maneuver against him."

The combat that followed is ranked by Sir E. Creasy, the author above quoted, among the "Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World;" for on its result "depended, not merely the fate of two armies, but the whole future progress of human civilization." "It secured for mankind the intellectual treasures of Athens, the growth of free institutions, the liberal enlightenment of the western world, and the gradual ascendancy for many ages of the great principles of European civilization."

Soon after the battle, Miltiades asked the Athenians for seventy ships furnished with men and stores. He did not make known his purpose, except that it was to enrich Athens. Glad and grateful for the victory, the people could refuse him nothing, and, moreover, they imagined that he was going to surprise some treasure city of Darius and gain wealth for them all. But this time Miltiades was only bent on gratifying a private revenge. He laid siege to Paros, which was strongly fortified, and repelled all his attacks. Grievously wounded, he returned to Athens, where he was immediately brought into court on the capital charge of having deceived the people. His friends could bring forward no other defense than the two names "Lemnos" and "Marathon." These availed to commute his sentence of death into a fine of \$62,500, which covered the cost of the expedition; but, during the year following his great victory, Miltiades died in prison, unable to discharge this debt to the state, which was afterwards paid by his son.

2. The ambition of Themistocles set him against all who were in power before him, of whom the greatest was Aristides. After the victory at Marathon, he became moody and restless, and remarked to his friends that the trophy of Miltiades would not suffer him to sleep. His ambition, however, together with his great ability, was of great service to his country; for he alone seems to have perceived that the battle at Marathon was not the end, but only the beginning, of the struggle with the Persian Empire, and that Athens must be prepared by increasing her naval power. To this end he persuaded his fellow-citizens to spend the revenue from the silver mines at Laurium in building ships, instead of dividing it, as had been usual, among the free-born Athenians. A war between Athens and Ægina furnished the pretext; but, when news arrived in Greece that Xerxes was mustering his enormous forces for a new invasion, Themistocles persuaded the Athenians to make peace with their rival neighbors, and join with all faithful Greeks in the defense against Persia. He was the soul of the movement

that ended in the victory of Salamis, and afterwards secured the rebuilding of Athens and the fortification of her port in spite of the jealous opposition of the Spartans.

But the glory of Themistocles ended with the Persian wars. He had already enriched himself by unfair means. He was now accused of having part in the treacherous plans of Pausanias (§ 119). After extensive wanderings he took refuge with the Persian king who had succeeded Xerxes, and promised to aid him in conquering the Greeks. Artaxerxes was delighted, and gave him at once three cities, whose tribute would provide his support. But, with all his selfish ambition, Themistocles probably never intended really to betray his country; and, to avoid fulfilling his promise to the king, he is said to have poisoned himself. He had been in exile twenty-two years.

3. Alcibiades was the most popular Athenian of his day; not only on account of his personal beauty and brilliant talents, but of his great wealth, which, joined with his gayety of temper, led him to provide amusements for the people on a most liberal scale. When the Sicilian envoys applied to Athens for help, he eagerly seized the opportunity for adventure, hoping also to lead his fellow-citizens to the conquest of Carthage.

Nicias was more prudent; he persuaded the Athenians to send messengers into Sicily to find out whether the people of Egesta were able to fulfill their share in the undertaking. But the messengers were deceived by a curious trick. They saw in the temple at Egesta, a magnificent display of altar-furniture, which they supposed to be solid gold, but which was in fact only silver-gilt. They were invited to a long succession of private entertainments, and were surprised to find every house supplied with glittering table-service of gold and silver; not knowing that the cunning Egesteans passed on these precious utensils from house to house. So they returned to Athens to urge an expedition in aid of such wealthy allies. The plan was very popular; volunteers crowded the recruiting offices, and the generals had difficulty in restricting the number that should be allowed to go.

The Dorian League in Sicily had for its head the powerful city of Syracuse, which had been founded by Corinthians about B. C. 734, and, in the war then raging in Greece, it had joined the Peloponnesian Confederacy. The great operation of the war was the siege of Syracuse by the Athenian fleet. After its failure, the besiegers might still have withdrawn in safety, but for an eclipse of the moon, which occurred on the very night before their proposed departure. The soothsayers declared that the army must remain just where it was for three times nine days. Nicias was too superstitious to follow his better judgment; the Syracusans heard of his plans, and, after defeating the Athenians in a naval battle, blocked up the entrance to the harbor, and cut off every way of escape, either by land or sea.

Alcibiades, having been condemned to death by the Athenian judges, made himself a great favorite, first with the Spartans, and afterwards with the Persians, with whom he successively took refuge. But the spoiled child of Athens was at length restored to her favor. "The records of proceedings against him were sunk in the sea, his property was restored, the priests were ordered to recant their curses, and he was appointed commander-in-chief of all the land and sea forces." Some reverses, however, gave new power to his enemies; he went into voluntary exile, and ended his days as a sort of independent chief in the Thracian Chersonesus.

4. This was Pelopidas, a young Theban of great wealth and influence, who had taken refuge at Athens B. C. 382, on the seizure of the citadel of Thebes by the Spartans. Here, in secret agreement with Phyllidas, secretary of the Theban government, he planned with his fellow-exiles the deliverance of their native city. Phyllidas invited the principal Spartan leaders to a banquet at his house, and when they were somewhat stupid with food and wine, informed them that he was going to introduce some Theban ladies. At this moment, a messenger brought a letter to Archias, the chief general, begging his immediate attention, as it contained a matter of importance. But the general thrust the letter under the cushions of his couch, saying, "Serious matters to-morrow."

Pelopidas and eleven young friends, who had arrived that day in

the city, disguised as hunters, now entered the hall in the long white veils and festive garb of women. They dispersed themselves carelessly among the guests, and were courteously received; but, as one of the Spartan lords attempted to lift the veil of the person who was addressing him, he received a mortal wound. Swords were now drawn from beneath the silken robes, and no Spartan left the room alive. The prisons were thrown open, and 500 honorable citizens, who had suffered a three years' captivity rather than submit to Spartan rule, joined the forces of the revolutionists. As day dawned, the people were summoned to the market-place, and a unanimous vote affirmed the independence of Thebes. The Spartan garrison in the Cadmea (see note 1, Ch. VI), deprived of its officers, and despairing of reinforcements, speedily surrendered.

For fifteen years after this, Pelopidas rendered distinguished service to his native city, both in war and diplomacy, and fell in battle, in defense of the Thessalian allies of Thebes against the tyrant Alexander of Phœræ, B. C. 364.

5. **Epaminondas**, though of noble birth, was born and reared in poverty. His principal teacher was a Pythagorean philosopher (§ 153), Lysis of Tarentum; and he illustrated the highest virtues of the sect in the truthfulness, purity, and justice of his character. Though Pelopidas was his dearest friend, he took no part in the scheme above mentioned (note 4), because it involved deceit and the possible shedding of innocent blood; but he constantly urged a manly resistance of the Theban youth to the Spartans, and had raised their confidence by matching them in athletic contests with these rivals.

An eight years' war followed the expulsion of the Spartans from Thebes. All the Boeotian cities, excepting two, cast off the Spartan influence (§ 105) and formed popular governments, joining themselves at the same time in a new "Boeotian League," with Thebes at its head.

In the spring of 371 B. C., a congress of all the Grecian states met at Sparta, for the purpose of putting an end to the war. When the treaty was drawn up, Sparta signed it for the whole Laconian confederacy; but each of the other states was expected to sign separately. Athens consented to this, but Epaminondas, representing Thebes, claimed his right to ratify the treaty in the name of the whole Boeotian League, of which his city was as truly the head as Sparta of Laconia. But this was denied him, and the war between Thebes and Sparta still went on. Cleombrotus, the Spartan king, invading Boeotia, was defeated and slain in the battle of Leuctra, where the new tactics of Epaminondas were first put to the proof. The second Spartan supremacy, which had lasted 34 years from the battle of Ægos-Potami (§ 132), now gave way to a nine years' supremacy of Thebes, which was to end B. C. 362, at the death of Epaminondas.

6. **Agésilæus II.** ascended the Spartan throne B. C. 398, on the death of his brother Agis. In one of the earliest years of his reign he led an army into Asia, defeated two powerful satraps, Tissaphernes and Pharnabazus, and was about to advance to the very heart of the Persian empire, when the five ephors, who were supreme in Sparta, even over the kings, summoned him home. He wrote back, "We have reduced most of Asia, driven back the barbarians, made arms abundant in Ionia. But since you bid me, according to the decree, come home, I shall follow my letter, and may, perhaps, be even before it. For my command is not mine, but my country's and her allies." He immediately marched by Xerxes' route, from Asia to Greece.

Sparta was now engaged in war against a powerful league of states, and had just gained a great victory over the allies at Corinth. Agésilæus, hearing of it, exclaimed, "Alas for Greece! she has killed enough of her sons to have conquered all the barbarians." He himself defeated the allies at Coronæa, in Boeotia, and ravaged the territories of Argos and Corinth. It was with his full approval that Phœbidæus, a Spartan captain, seized the Cadmea in 382 B. C., and that eleven years later Thebes was excluded from the peace, and the fatal campaign of Leuctra began. In the spring of 361 B. C., Agésilæus, now eighty years of age, crossed the sea with a band of soldiers, to the aid of Tachos, king of Egypt, who had revolted against Persia. The appearance of the little, lame, old man, a true Spartan in his contempt for kingly pomp and

splendor, excited ridicule among the Egyptians; but when Agesilaus transferred his aid to Nectanabis, who, in turn, had risen against Tachos, the importance of the little Spartan was felt, for Nectanabis obtained the throne. Agesilaus died on his march to Cyrene, whence he was to have sailed to Sparta; his body, embalmed in wax, was conveyed with great honors to his native city. An ancient oracle had foretold that Sparta would lose her power under a lame sovereign. The prediction was fulfilled, but through no fault of the king, who has been justly called "Sparta's most perfect citizen and most consummate general, in many ways, perhaps, her greatest man." He had all the virtues of his countrymen without their too common faults of avarice and deceit. His remark upon the victory at Corinth, shows that his patriotism was not narrowed to the boundaries of his own state. Many incidents are preserved which prove his warm and tender affection, both for his own children and for friends,—a rare trait among the Spartans.

He was the nineteenth king of the Proclid or Eurypontid line. It will be remembered (§108) that there were two lines of Spartan kings named from twin grandsons of Hercules, Procles and Eurysthenes; but Eurypyon, the third Proclid king, gave his name to his house.

7. Demosthenes, the greatest of ancient orators, was born about 385 B. C. He was only seven years old when his father died, and the ample property which was left for Demosthenes and his sister, in the care of three kinsmen, was shamefully squandered before the boy was able to plead for his rights in the Athenian courts. His sense of wrong, meanwhile, fostered in him habits of self-reliance and independent judgment, and incited him to a diligent study of oratory, by which he hoped to win at last a favorable decision. His discouragements were many; for he had a weak constitution and defective utterance; but his perseverance was rewarded, and, at the age of twenty-one, he regained from one of his guardians a great part of his property. The power which he had gained for his own interests he now devoted to the service of his country. Philip of Macedon had seized some possessions of Athens north of the Ægean, and was daily increasing his influence among the states of Greece. Demosthenes was almost the only Greek who had the courage and the honesty to withstand the bribes and flatteries of the king. His *Philippics* are the most splendid and spirited remonstrances against unjust power that any language contains. His *Olynthiac Orations* did indeed move his countrymen to fit out an expedition for the relief of Olynthus when besieged by Philip; but the rescue was prevented by a treacherous plot in the town itself, and the whole Chalcidic peninsula fell into the power of Macedon.

After the death of Philip, Demosthenes was the soul of the new struggle for Greek independence. The Athenians, though submitting to Alexander, steadily resisted his demand for the surrender of their great orator. Demosthenes was subsequently thrown into prison through an intrigue of the Macedonian party, and escaping with the secret permission of the magistrates, remained in exile until the death of Alexander. A state-trireme was then sent to bring him back in triumph to his native city, and the most glorious day of his life seemed to mark a new dawn of Athenian freedom. The "Lamian War," however, ended in defeat (§176), and Antipater, regent of Macedonia, advanced upon Athens. Deserted by all her allies, that city was forced to overthrow her free government at the Macedonian dictation, to receive a foreign garrison in her fortress of Munychia, and condemn to death Demosthenes and his friends, who had fled at the approach of the conqueror. Demosthenes had taken refuge in the temple of Poseidon at Calauria. He had long carried poison about him, in expectation of such an emergency; and, by its means, he escaped the officer of Antipater, dying B. C. 322.

* So called because its principal action was the siege of Lamia, in Thessaly, which was held by Antipater, the Macedonian Regent, against the confederate Greeks.

CHAPTER IX.

GREEK LITERATURE, PHILOSOPHY, AND ART.



IT is time for a brief sketch of those poets, historians, and philosophers, to whom—even more than to her great generals and statesmen—Greece owes her fame; and whose dominion in the minds of civilized men has never been shaken, though their native land has for ages been trampled by barbarians.

142. For one practical reason, if for no other, poetry must have existed in Greek literature long before prose. The art of writing, though very early known to the Greeks, was for a long time used almost exclusively for inscriptions on bronze or marble tablets in temples and palaces. There were no cheap and convenient materials for writing; so that a ship-master, whom Homer mentions in the *Odyssey*, had no written list of his cargo, but carried the items in his memory. Now a poet might produce his song or epic, and retain it, by the help of rhythm, in his memory, until others had learned it from his lips (§ 94); but this would be almost impossible in the case of long compositions in prose.

143. A better reason is found in the intense love of poetry and music, which was universal among the Greeks. All their life, public and private, in war or peace, was associated with song. Hymns to the gods were probably their earliest compositions. Triumphal odes welcomed the victor at the Games (§ 102) home to his native city. The ten thousand Athenians rushed down from the heights, and across the plain of Marathon, singing a battle-hymn, which the poet Æs'chylus, who was one of them, has preserved for us. The Greek ships moved into the combat at Salamis to a similar strain: "On, sons of the Greeks! Strike for the freedom of your country! Strike for the freedom of your children and your wives!—for the shrines of your fathers' gods and the sepulchers of your sires."

144. The two great *epic* (narrative and heroic) poets of Hellas were Homer and He'siod. Homer¹ was an Ionian of Asia—of what city can not now be known, though many contended for the honor of his birth. An English poet has written:

"Seven ancient cities claimed the Homer dead,
Through which the living Homer begged his bread."

This may not be literally true, but it is probable that the "Father of Poetry" lived a sad and wandering life, shadowed in his old age by blindness. He lived about 850 B. C. Besides the *Iliad*, which has been mentioned (§ 91, 92), he was the author of the *Odyssey*, which described the adventures of Ulys'ses, king of Ithaca, after the fall of Troy.

145. Hesiod² lived about a hundred years later, in Bœotia, where he tended his flocks upon the slopes of Mt. Helicon, sacred to the Muses. In contrast with Homer, who sang the mighty deeds of princes and heroes, he depicted the homely, rustic scenes with which he was familiar. His chief poem is the "Works and Days," consisting mainly of maxims for common life. Besides this is the "Theogony,"

which described the origin of the world, and of the gods and heroes; but it is believed to have been composed by some poet of his school, not by Hesiod himself. The poems of Homer and Hesiod constituted the "Bible of the Greeks;" for these first put into permanent form the beliefs concerning the gods.

146. Epic poetry naturally flourished most while the kings ruled in Greece (§ 93, 101), for it celebrated the doings of gods and heroes, from whom the kings supposed themselves to be descended. When the common people gained power, lyric and dramatic poetry sprang to life. The two great lyric poets of Sparta were Tyrtaeus and Alcman; but neither was Spartan-born. The one was Athenian, and the other a Lydian Slave. The story goes, that the Spartans, being in great distress during the second Messenian war (§ 109), were directed, by the oracle, to borrow a leader from Athens. Not daring to disobey the priestess, but not wishing to render any real aid, the Athenians sent the poor, lame school-master, Tyrtaeus, to be the general of their rivals. But Apollo was not to be thwarted. The stirring songs of Tyrtaeus³ did more than martial feats could have done to reinforce the courage of the Spartans; they immediately began to gain victories, and the lame school-master became the hero of the war.

147. Simonides lived during the Persian wars, and his songs celebrate the heroes who fought and fell at Marathon, Thermopylae, Salamis, and Plataea. Pindar was a Theban poet, but he studied at Athens, and was honored by all the states of Greece. His triumphal odes in honor of victors at the Games (§ 102) are all that have come down to us, though he wrote many hymns, dirges, and processional songs.

148. Aeschylus was the father of dramatic, as Homer was of epic poetry. The first tragedies and comedies were recited by a chorus alone, and were not really dramas, as

we understand the term. Both had their origin in the songs and dances which were part of the festivals of Dionysus; and these festivals, which occurred every spring, in Athens, continued to be the occasion when new plays were produced. So fond were the Athenians of this sort of entertainment, that they would sit all day long in the theater, while ten or twelve plays were successively performed. Their theater was open to the sky, and, from the hill-side on which it was situated, commanded a magnificent view of land and sea.

149. *Æschylus* is distinguished by the rugged grandeur of his dramas; *Sophocles*, for the exquisite perfection of his art; *Euripides*, for his tender and pathetic pictures of every-day life. These three are confessedly at the head of the Athenian tragic drama, and were unsurpassed by any ancient poets. *Aristophanes*, on the other hand, was the master of comedy. In his fun-producing plays, he fearlessly attacked the greatest Athenians of his day—the half divine heroes, and even the gods themselves.

150. If we turn to prose literature, we find that Greek historical writing, like philosophy and poetry (§ 100, 152), had its origin among the Ionians of Asia. *Hecataeus*, of Miletus, was the first prose-writer of note. He traveled extensively, and wrote books on history and geography. *Herodotus*, the “Father of History,” was a native of Halicarnassus (§ 101), but he early removed to Samos and learned the Ionian dialect. He traveled in many lands, and took the greatest pains to ascertain the truth of events which he wished to narrate. His theme was the great conflict between the Persians and the Greeks; but he found occasion for many interesting accounts of other nations. There is a story that he recited the whole nine books of his history at one of the Olympic Games, and that *Thucydides*, then a boy of thirteen years, hearing him, was moved to tears of admiration. The assembly greeted

the great work with shouts of delighted applause, and conferred on each book the name of one of the Muses.

151. Thucydides was the greatest philosophic historian among the Greeks; some competent critics declare him to be the greatest of any age or nation. He wrote the history of the Peloponnesian War (§ 126) to its twenty-first year; and his account of its causes and incidents is our best authority concerning the relations of Greek states and parties. He was an actor in the events which he describes. Xenophon was a pupil of Socrates (§ 134); he continued the history which Thucydides left unfinished, and wrote a narrative of the "Retreat of the Ten Thousand" Greeks from the mad expedition of Cyrus the Younger (§ 58). He had accompanied the army as a volunteer, but, when the Greek generals had been slain, he was chosen one of the leaders of the homeward march. His story presents a lively picture of the countries through which the route lay. Among his other works are a defense of Socrates, and a romance, called the *Cyropædia*, concerning Cyrus the Great.

152. The "Seven Wise Men⁴ of Greece" flourished during the sixth century B. C. They were Solon of Athens (§ 112), Tha'les of Miletus, Pit'tacus of Mitylene, Perian'der of Corinth, Cle'obu'lus of Lindus, Chi'lo of Sparta, and Bi'as of Priene. (Notice that four of the seven lived in the Asiatic colonies, § 100.) Thales⁵ was also celebrated as the founder of the earliest school of Greek philosophy, called the *Ionic*. His most illustrious successor in that school was An'axag'oras, the teacher of Pericles, Socrates, and Euripides. He, first of the Greeks, believed in a creative *Mind* as the author and ruler of the universe; and to this purer faith we may trace the elevation of spirit which enabled Pericles to bear serenely the unjust reproaches of the mob, and Socrates to look calmly into the face of Death (§ 134). Anaxagoras, like his great

pupil afterward, was tried in the Athenian courts for impiety; but his life was spared on the condition of his departure from Athens.

153. The second school of Greek philosophy took its name from Elea, in Italy. Xenoph'anes, the founder of the *Eleatic* school, censured Homer and Hesiod for ascribing human passions and weaknesses to the gods, and taught that the Creator is one. B. C. 530.

Still more important was the *Pythagorean* school, which also had its headquarters in Italy. Pythag'oras, of Samos, its founder, had studied not only with earlier Greek philosophers, but with Egyptian priests (§75), and, perhaps, with Babylonian and Hindu B. C. 570-500. sages. He made some great discoveries in music and mathematics; but his most important work was that of a religious teacher. He believ'd himself inspired of Heaven to make known a purer mode of life than was prevalent among the Greeks. The last forty years of his life were spent at Crotona, in Italy, where he became the head of a numerous and powerful society. Its members bound themselves, by strict rules, to temperance and self-control, and aspired to a serene life, above the dominion of the passions. Similar clubs were formed in many cities of Italy; and the Pythagoreans numbered many thousands—among them some of the best and noblest men in Greece.

154. The death of Socrates has been mentioned (§134). Though one of the wisest of the Greeks, he did not teach any system of philosophy, but aimed rather to put his disciples in the way of finding the truth for themselves. He was unattractive in person, humble and simple in life; he received no payment for his teachings, but taught in the street or the market-place, wherever any chose to listen. The greatest of his disciples was Pla'to, the founder of the *Academic* School, so called because his lectures were given in the grove of Academus, near a gate of Athens.

We are indebted to Plato for most of what we know of Socrates; for a great portion of his writings is made up of dialogues, in which Socrates had part. His own philosophy is the highest and purest of which the ancient world could boast.

155. Aristotle,⁶ the tutor of Alexander the Great, was the founder of the *Peripatetic* School of philosophy. His lectures, at Athens, drew about him a throng of listeners from all the Hellenic cities in Europe and Asia; and he discoursed to them while walking up and down in the shady groves which surrounded his Lyceum. Aristotle was an acute and patient student of physical, as well as mental, science. When Alexander, the greatest of his pupils, became the master of Asia, he caused rare collections of animals and plants to be sent from all his provinces to his old teacher, who found in them materials for his great works on natural history.

The mental philosophy of Aristotle continued for two thousand years predominant in Europe.

156 In the arts of architecture and sculpture the pre-eminence of the Greeks is even more decided than in literature. Greek poetry and philosophy have been rivaled, and, in some respects, surpassed; but the greatest modern sculptor admits the impossibility of attaining that perfection of repose and beauty which distinguishes the works of Phid'ias and Praxit'eles.⁷ The stirring scenes of the Persian War aroused all minds to their highest pitch of energy; and the seventy years of Athenian supremacy were the blossoming time of Hellenic genius. The necessity of rebuilding ruined Athens afforded the opportunity which Themistocles, Cimon, and Pericles gladly embraced, to make their idolized city the glory of all lands.

157. Then arose the Par'thenon, or temple of Athena, the Virgin, which, for exquisite beauty of proportion, has never been surpassed. Then was cast the colossal statue

of Athena Prom'achos, from the bronze spoils of the Persians, which were found upon the field of Marathon. Its glittering helmet and spear might be seen far off at sea, as if the goddess were keeping perpetual guard over the city which bore her name. This was the work of Phidias, the greatest of the Greek sculptors, and, therefore, the greatest whom the world has yet produced.

158. Other works of Phidias were the gold and ivory statue of Athena, which stood in the Parthenon; and, most admirable of all, the colossal statue of Zeus, in his temple at Olympia, in Elis. Though size was the least of its merits, we may say that the figure, though sitting, was nearly sixty feet in height. The throne and the pedestal on which it stood were adorned with elaborate sculptures in gold. The figure itself represented perfect majesty in repose, as if the god were presiding at the games which were held in his honor.

159. As Ionia had her schools of poetry and philosophy (§152), so she had her peculiar order of architecture: perhaps the most refined and graceful of the three Greek orders—equally removed from the simple grandeur of the *Doric*, and the exuberant ornament of the *Corinthian*. The most noted example of the *Ionic* order was the temple of Ar'temis, at Ephesus; of the *Doric*, the Parthenon, at Athens; of the *Corinthian*, the temple of the Olympian Zeus, begun by Pisistratus and his sons, at Athens, but completed 650 years after its foundation by a Roman emperor.

The Iliad and Odyssey of Homer have been best translated by our countryman W. C. Bryant; the existing Tragedies of Æschylus and Sophocles, by Prof. Plumptre; Herodotus, by Prof. Rawlinson. Translations of Thucydides and Xenophon are found in all large libraries. Read accounts of the Greek philosophers in Grote, Chapters xvi, xxxvii, lxxviii, and in K. O. Müller's History of the Literature of Greece. Find descriptions of Greek Orders of Architecture in Fergusson's "Handbook," Book VI, Chapter ii.

NOTES.

1. Of the 17 or 19 cities that are named by various ancient writers as birthplaces of Homer, all but Smyrna and Chios are rejected by the best critics, and of these Smyrna has generally the choice. Nothing is known of Homer's life; the Greeks universally considered him as their greatest poet; it was left for modern critics to question his existence, or, at least, his authorship of the works which bear his name. In 1795, Prof. F. A. Wolf, of Halle, in Germany, published his startling theory that the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* were never complete poems, but collections, first made in the time of Pisistratus (§ 113), of the songs of various minstrels, who had lived at different times during the preceding 500 years. After long contention, the best opinion seems to be that the two poems, as they have come down to us, are the work of one great poet, who may have used the rude ballads of earlier bards, but certainly created them anew, and gave them unity by his own powerful genius.

A party of ancient critics supposed the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* to be the work of two different authors, but Longinus, the rhetorician, a courtier of Queen Zenobia (§ 262, note), accounted for the contrasts found in the two poems by affirming that Homer wrote the *Iliad* in the vigor of youth, and the *Odyssey* in his old age. "In the *Iliad*, the men are better than the gods; in the *Odyssey*, it is the reverse." In the *Odyssey*, protection and punishment are both bestowed upon mortals for just cause; in the *Iliad*, from mere caprice. Zeus, in the latter, sends a dream to deceive Agamemnon; Athena prompts Pandarus to treachery; Paris, who has vilely abused the hospitality of Menelaus, goes uncondemned; while, in the *Odyssey*, the gods are the avengers of wrong. It may be that Homer, in his earlier poem, adhered to the traditions of a ruder stage of society, while, in the latter, he expressed his own higher ideas concerning the gods.

2. Hesiod had a brother Perses, who, instead of earning a support by honorable toil, spent his time in idleness or in hanging about the courts, where he contrived to obtain an award of more than his just share of his father's property. The poet, who was frugal and industrious, seems to have composed the "Works and Days," either with the hope of reclaiming Perses from his evil habits, or with the purpose of punishing him by holding him up to reproof. Critics have said that the poem might have been named "Farming Operations," or "Lucky and Unlucky Days," or "A Letter of Remonstrance and Advice to a Brother." It is in three parts; the first cites many popular stories and proverbs to show how much better is honest labor than laziness and extravagance; the second gives practical rules for farming; and the third is a religious calendar, pointing out the days which are favorable or unlucky for plowing, sowing, etc. Among his homely directions to the farmer, is the following for the winter months: "Now is the time to go warm-clad, thick-shod, and with a waterproof cape over the shoulders, and a fur cap, lined with felt, about the head and ears." He adds that in cold and wet weather workmen must have more food, but cattle less. Sixty days after the winter-solstice, vine-dressing must begin; but when the snail quits the earth and climbs the trees, this work gives place to early harvesting. The advantages of early rising, especially at this busy time, are strongly urged.

The poem is full of curious pictures of primitive Greek life on a farm, and tells us, in fact, nearly all we know of the manners of the common people in those remote times.

The *Theogony* opens thus: "In the beginning was Chaos, next the Earth, with its broad bosom, the immovable foundation of all beings, the vast Tartarus in the depth of its abyss, and Love, the most beautiful of all the immortal gods."

Chaos produced Erebus and Night; Night became mother of Ether and Day. Children of Heaven and Earth were Ocean and the Titans, the Cyclopes, and the hundred-handed giants. Uranus was the first ruler of creation, but he was dethroned by his son Kronos. The latter had a habit of devouring his own children, but Zeus, his youngest born, having been rescued by a trick, grew up to make war upon his father. The Titans fought on the side of Kronos, while with Zeus were the Cy-

clopes and the giants whom he had befriended. At last the Titans were overwhelmed by a storm of heavy stones, and were imprisoned as far under the earth as earth is from heaven, with Day and Night pacing as sentinels before the brazen gates of their dungeon.

3. "The martial appeals of Tyrtæus are enlivened by illustrations of the soldiers' duties and of the scenes and adventures of the battlefield. Among the most graphic of his pictures is the description of the warrior advancing to the encounter 'with compressed lips and firm step, brandishing his spear in his hand, while his plume nods terribly from his helmet.' The excellence of a glorious death is placed in spirited contrast with the wretchedness of life purchased by loss of honor."

4. The sayings of the Seven Wise Men were inscribed on bronze tablets in the temple of Apollo at Delphi. The following are among the most celebrated:

Solon, being asked how he would banish injustice from a republic, replied, "By making all men feel the injustice done to any."

Pittacus declared that "the greatest blessing a man can enjoy is the power of doing good." Periander, that "a wise governor would prevent rather than punish crime."

Cleobulus, that "a man should never leave his dwelling without considering well what he was about to do, nor reënter it without reflecting on what he had done."

Chilo, when asked what were the three most difficult things in a man's life, replied, "To keep a secret, to forgive injuries, and to make a profitable use of leisure time." His most celebrated maxim was, "Nothing in excess." Bias pronounced the most unfortunate of men to be he who knows not how to bear misfortune.

5. "Thales was born at Miletus about 640 B. C. According to Herodotus, he predicted the eclipse of the sun which occurred during a battle between Cyaxares the Mede, and Alyattes, king of Lydia, about 609 B. C. [§16]. He considered water to be the origin or principle of all things, fixed the length of the year at 365 days, and attributed the attractive power of the magnet to a soul or life by which it is animated."

6. Aristotle, born at Stagira, in Thrace, B. C. 384, has had probably a wider and more lasting influence in the progress of human intelligence than any other man that ever lived. His father, Nicomachus, was a physician at the Macedonian court, and the author of some medical and scientific works. At the age of seventeen, Aristotle went to Athens, where he remained twenty years and became the most successful pupil in the school of Plato. As his own opinions became more clearly defined, he was unable to accept some of Plato's doctrines, but he never lost his affection and reverence for his teacher; perhaps thus originating the ancient proverb, "Plato is dear, but Truth is dearer."

When Alexander came to the throne of Macedon, Aristotle removed to Athens and established a school, which was called the *Lycæum*, because it was near the temple of Apollo Lycius. His active and restless temperament caused him to walk up and down while delivering his lectures; hence the name Peripatetic. After Alexander's death, the Athenians brought charges of impiety against Aristotle, who departed from their city without awaiting his trial, "that the Athenians might not incur the guilt of twice sinning against philosophy" (See §134). He died at Chalchis, in Eubœa, at the age of sixty-two.

7. Phidias was a son of Charmides, an Athenian, and is supposed to have been born about the time of the battle of Marathon, though the date is uncertain. He was the founder of the Classical School of Greek Sculpture, which replaced the rudeness and stiffness of the older statues with forms of ideal beauty and grandeur. The school of Praxiteles, which followed that of Phidias, had less of majesty, but even more of beauty and grace.

Examples of the Early or Archaic School may be seen in the Cesnola Collection of Cyprian Antiquities in the Metropolitan Museum of New York; of the School of Phidias, in the Elgin Marbles of the British Museum, and the Venus of Melos, of which there are many copies in this country; of the later school, in the "Marble Faun" which Hawthorne has described, the group of Niobe and her children, and perhaps the Venus de' Medici.

PERIOD IV.—Hellenic Kingdoms in Europe, Asia, and Africa.

CHAPTER X.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT.



Demosthenes.

ALLEXANDER III. of Macedon,¹ though only twenty years old when he became king, had already proved his extraordinary genius for war and government. A new congress at Corinth conferred upon him the same command which his father had held (§ 140), and in the spring of 334 B. C. he crossed the Hellespont with a Greek army of 35,000 men. As before, the perfect training of the Greeks more than matched the immense numbers of the Persians (§§ 115, 118). At the passage of the Granicus, Alexander defeated a superior force which opposed him; then, turning southward, he quickly made himself master of Asia Minor. Darius III, with half a million men, was defeated at Issus, and fled, leaving his mother, wife, and children in the hands of the conqueror.

161. Alexander then purposely left him time to collect the whole force of his empire for a decisive combat, while he himself turned aside to receive the submission of Phœnicia, Palestine, and Egypt, and thus prevent any

attack by sea upon Macedonia or Greece. Egypt and Palestine gladly threw off the Persian yoke; and—though Tyre withstood a long and obstinate siege—in less than two years, all the Mediterranean coast, as far as Libya, was added to the dominion of Alexander. Near the western mouth of the Nile he built a new city, called from his own name Alexandria,² which has ever since been an important mart of exchange between the East and the West.

162. At length he marched eastward for the grand battle which was to decide the fate of western Asia. Darius had mustered and drilled more than a million of men, and had carefully chosen a field, near Arbela, which gave him all the advantage of this immense number. The ground was leveled and hardened, so that his scythe-armed chariots might operate with full effect. He himself was present in the midst of his men, and his example increased their bravery. Nevertheless, Alexander and his Macedonian phalanx were again victorious, and Darius became a fugitive and a captive (§§ 60, 61). The three Persian capitals, Susa, Persepolis, and Babylon, soon submitted to the conqueror.

B. C. 331.

163. The young Greek general was now an Oriental monarch. His court, composed equally of Asiatics and Europeans, was as splendidly ceremonious as that of Xerxes himself. He put on all the haughty airs of a Persian king. His old comrades were required to prostrate themselves on their faces in approaching his throne; and some of his best friends were put to death for daring to express their opinion of these new pretensions. But if his sudden successes were fatal to Alexander's good sense, they did not destroy his energy and talents. During the remainder of his short life, he reduced all the remaining provinces of the Persian empire to his sway. (See §§ 48, 51.).

164. He was no brutal conqueror, like those Asiatic chiefs (p. 12, note) whose tracks were marked by the ashes

of burnt cities and by pyramids of human heads. Wherever his armies advanced, rivers were cleared for navigation; roads were made through tangled forests; new cities sprang up; trade revived, or was led into new channels; and western thrift took the place of oriental indolence and stagnation. Learned men accompanied his fleets and armies; and their reports afford our first definite knowledge of India.

165. But while Asia gained, Europe lost in almost equal measure. The Greeks, like the Persians before them (§ 63), lost their free spirit, and learned the slavish habits of courtiers. Art and literature declined as the spirit of the people became enslaved.

The grand result of Alexander's short and brilliant career was to diffuse Greek civilization from the Adriatic to the borders of India, and from the Crimea to the cataracts of the Nile. By giving to all this region one common language for government and literature, Alexander's conquests prepared the way for the more rapid progress of Christianity.

166. Having extended his empire eastward beyond the Indus, Alexander was planning the conquest of Italy, Carthage, and all the western coasts of the Mediterranean. His schemes were, however, broken off by his sudden death from a fever, at Babylon. He was 32 years of age, and had reigned 12 years and 8 months.

Trace, on Map 1, Alexander's progress from the borders of the Ægean Sea to Arbela. Point out the countries and cities which he conquered.

Read the story of Alexander in Felton's Smith's Greece, Ch. XLIV., and in Plutarch's Lives; in Thirlwall's History of Greece, and in Williams's Life and Actions of Alexander the Great.

MAP No. IV.

IMPORTANT GREEK COLONIES.

IN SPAIN.

Saguntum, and 5 other towns

IN FRANCE.

Massilia (Marseilles)

IN ITALY.

Cumæ
Sybaris, and 25 subject cities
Crotona
Tarentum
Locri Epizephyrii
Rhegium
Siris, or Heraclea
Metapontum

IN SICILY.

Naxos
Syracuse
Catana
Leontini
Gela
Zancle, or Messene
Himera
Hybla
Selinus
Camarina
Agrigentum

IN AFRICA.

Naucratis, in Egypt
Cyrene
Barca
Hesperides

ON IONIAN ISLANDS AND COASTS.

Corcyra
Ambracia
Anactorium
Leucas
Apollonia
Epidamnus

IN THRACE.

Methone
Potidæa
Olynthus
Amphipolis
Sestus
Byzantium

ON THE BLACK SEA.

Istria
Apollonia
Odessus
Mesambria
Tomi
Cherson

The Greek cities of Asia Minor were wealthiest and most important of all; but they are to be considered as independent states, rather than as colonies.





GREECE and her COLONIES.

0 25 50 150
Miles.

Natural Scale 1:7,900,000.

GREEK SAGES AND ARTISTS.

<i>Philosophers.</i>			
Thales	B. C. 639-546.		Euripides B. C. 480-406.
Anaximander	610-547.		Aristophanes 444-380.
Pythagoras	570-499.		<i>Poetesses.</i>
Anaximenes	548-484.		Sappho 611-573.
Xenophanes	540-500.		Corinna 500.
Parmenides	520-460.		Myrtis 500.
Anaxagoras	500-428.		<i>Sculptors.</i>
Zeno	488-448.		Ageladas 500-450.
Socrates	469-399.		Phidias 490-432.
Plato	430-347.		Polyclitus 452-412.
Xenocrates	396-314.		Myron 480-431.
Aristotle	384-322.		Alcamenes 444-400.
<i>Poets.</i>			Agoracritus 440-425.
Homer	850-776.		Scopas 395-350.
Hesiod	790-640.		Praxiteles 364-350.
Archilochus	714-676.		Apollodorus 320.
Terpander	700-650.		<i>Painters.</i>
Alcman	671-631.		Polygnotus 463-426.
Tyrtæus	683-657.		Zeuxis 424-400.
Alcæus	590.		Apollodorus 408.
Stesichorus	632-552.		Parrhasius 400-344.
Anacreon	563-478.		Pamphilus 390-350.
Simonides	556-467.		Eupompus 375.
Æschylus	525-456.		Apelles 352-306.
Pindar.	522-442.		Protogenes 332-300.
Sophocles	495-406.		Asclepiodorus 330.
			Melanthius 330.

Note.—*Single* dates fall within the time of the greatest fame or power of the person named. Where *two* dates are given they usually include the period of greatest activity, in a few instances the whole life, of author or artist. The most ancient names, those of Homer and Hesiod, are involved in the greatest doubt; the opinions, even of ancient writers, differing by no less than 500 years as to the time of their birth. The dates in the table are those of Smith's Dictionary of Biography.

NOTES.

1. Of the four greatest military leaders that the world has known, Alexander of Macedon was earliest in time; and, if we compare the shortness of his career with the duration of its results, we can hardly refuse to call him the most extraordinary character in history. Through his mother, Olympias, he was descended from the kings of Epirus, who traced their origin to Achilles (§92). His ruling passion in childhood was a thirst for warlike achievements; he slept with his sword and a copy of the Iliad under his pillow; and his waking hours were spent in manly exercises, in which he excelled all the youth of his time. A magnificent war-steed, named Bucephalus, was once brought to Philip, but proved so fierce and fiery that neither grooms nor nobles could mount him. Alexander begged leave to try, and brought him under perfect control. The king wept for joy at this proof of his son's genius for command, and declared that Alexander must seek another kingdom, for Macedonia was too small to give exercise to his powers.

At the age of thirteen, Alexander became for three years the pupil of Aristotle, "the greatest intellect of that, or perhaps of any age" (see note 6, Ch. IX). Under his influence, "the boy awoke to the knowledge that a wonderful world lay before him, of which he had seen little, and threw himself, it is said, into the task of gathering, at any cost, a collection for the study of natural history. While his mind was thus urged in one direction, he listened to stories which told him of the great quarrel still to be fought out between the East and the West, and learnt to look upon himself as the champion of Hellas against the barbarian despot of Susa." At sixteen, Alexander acted as regent of the kingdom during his father's absence, and seized every opportunity to increase his knowledge by conversations with foreign ambassadors. At eighteen, he contributed largely to Philip's victory at Chæronea (§140).

Several Greek states hailed his accession to the throne as a signal of their release from the Macedonian yoke. But the young king soon showed them that in energy and ability he was at least not inferior to his father. A second revolt in Thebes was avenged by the storm and capture of the city, and the destruction of all its houses, excepting that of Pindar, the poet (§147). All the Thebans were sold into slavery, save the descendants of Pindar and the opponents of the revolt. This terrible act of severity deterred other states from following the example; and Alexander took his place without opposition at the head of the Grecian forces.

After the battle of Issus, the mother, the wife, and two daughters of the Persian king were left in the hands of the conqueror, but they were treated with the utmost generosity. Most of the maritime cities welcomed Alexander as a deliverer from the hated rule of the Persians. Tyre and Gaza were the only exceptions, and they were punished for their resistance by frightful massacres.

His unbroken series of successes began to have an evil effect in the once manly and sincere character of Alexander. While in Egypt, he made a visit to the temple of Amun (§75), in the Libyan oasis, and caused himself to be recognized by the too-obedient priesthood as a son of the god. After his conquests in Asia, he ordered the death of Parmenion and his son Philotas, only because the latter had claimed too large a share of credit for his father and himself in the victories of the Greeks. Enraged by the reproof of his faithful friend Clitus for his drunken boasting, he murdered Clitus with his own hand; but we must add, to his credit, that, as soon as he was sober, he declared himself unfit to live, and would neither eat nor drink for three days.

Having subdued the whole realm of Darius, Alexander advanced into India, a land of wonders, of which scarcely even the name had reached the Greeks. The naturalists who accompanied his expedition noted with curiosity the "wool-bearing trees" (cotton plants) and other strange productions of the country. The soldiers, however, refused to go farther than the Hyphasis (Sutlej), and, building a fleet on another branch of the Indus, he descended the great river to the sea. Leaving his admiral, Nearchus, to take the ships through the Persian Gulf to the Tigris, he proceeded with his army across the Gedrosian desert to Susa.

The hardships of the march were terrible, and great numbers perished.—7.

ished of hunger and thirst. Resting at Susa, the conqueror had time to mature his plans for making one great empire of the lands he had subdued. He married a daughter of Darius, and gave liberal gifts to nearly ten thousand of his veteran troopers, who had also taken Asiatic wives. He received into his army 20,000 Persian soldiers, whom he caused to be drilled in Macedonian tactics; and placed over several provinces Persian officers whom he could trust. Some of his veterans mutilated at this elevation of the conquered people to equal place with themselves; but Alexander soothed their discontent with great skill, and then sent them home.

He was planning to combine all the then-known countries into a great empire, extending from the Indus to the Straits of Gibraltar, with Babylon as its capital. The distribution of waters over the great Babylonian plain enlisted his personal attention. He returned from a visit to the canals, to give a great banquet to Nearchus and the other officers of the fleet, who were about to sail for Arabia. In the midst of their preparations the king was attacked by a fever, which, in eleven days, ended his life.

2. The quick eye of Alexander discerned the extraordinary advantages of the site between Lake Mareotis on the south, and the Mediterranean on the north. Summoning Dinocrates the architect—who had won great fame by rebuilding the temple of Diana at Ephesus—he commanded him to build here a city that should outrival Tyre. Within a few years the densely peopled Alexandria was the greatest commercial city in the world. The island of Pharos, crowned by its light-house-tower, 400 feet in height, was connected with the mainland by a mole protected by forts. The island is now a peninsula, and the artificial causeway has grown, by accumulations of earth and sand, into a broad isthmus, on which a great portion of the modern city stands.

The ancient city consisted of three parts: the Jewish quarter in the north-east; *Rhacotis*, the Egyptian quarter, in the west, and *Bruchœum*, the royal or Greek quarter, covering the remainder.

The Greek quarter surpassed all the rest in magnificence, for it contained the palaces of the Ptolemies (§ 172), the Mausoleum of Alexander, and many other splendid buildings. But the city's best title to fame consisted in the *Museum*, a sort of university which drew together the most brilliant company of learned and accomplished men that were ever assembled in one place. Demetrius Phalereus, "the last of Attic orators," is said to have inspired the first of the Ptolemies with the idea of the great Alexandrian Library, the first institution of its kind in the world (§ 172). Part of this collection was kept in the temple of Serapis, on the inland rising ground of the Egyptian quarter; the rest was connected with the palace and museum.

Among the great men of Alexandria were Euclid, the Geometer; Hipparchus, the "father of Astronomy;" Eratosthenes, the first of Geographers; Callimachus, the chief Librarian, and the most celebrated grammarian, critic, and poet of his time; Apelles and Antiphilus, the painters. With all these and many more the king lived on terms of intimacy, delighting in their conversation and liberally forwarding their studies. At his request, Manetho, an Egyptian priest, wrote in Greek an account of the doctrines, wisdom, history, and chronology of his country, "based upon the ancient works of the Egyptians themselves, and more especially upon their sacred books."

"Eratosthenes had heard that in Syene, in Upper Egypt, deep wells were enlightened to the bottom on the day of the summer solstice, and that vertical objects cast no shadows." He had already "calculated the obliquity of the ecliptic closely enough to serve for a thousand years after." He now perceived that Syene must be under the ecliptic, and, by comparing its latitude with that of Alexandria, 625 miles distant, was able to calculate the circumference of the earth. His result was too large—31,500 miles—owing to an error in his first measurement; but his method was right, and he had taken the first great step towards a knowledge of mathematical geography. "The wise men of Ptolemy's court well understood the spherical form of the earth; their knowledge—being mainly theoretical—was lost during the ages of ignorance which followed; and it was left for Columbus and his successors to prove its correctness by actual experiment."

CHAPTER XI.

SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.



A Greek Lady.

ALLEXANDER'S great empire fell to pieces shortly after his death, and his principal officers fought over the division of the spoils. After twenty-two years of fierce contention, a battle at Ipsus in Phrygia, B. C. 301, finally gave Syria and the East to Seleucus; Egypt to Ptolemy; Thrace, with part of Asia Minor, to Lysimachus; Macedonia and Greece to Cassander.

168. The Seleucidæ.—The kingdom of Seleucus¹ was by far the greatest and richest of these divisions, and under his energetic reign it rapidly became *Hellenized*. His capital, Antioch² on the Orontes, continued for a thousand years to be one of the most beautiful and flourishing cities in the world. The last survivors of those who had marched and fought under Alexander were Seleucus and Lysimachus; and these two made war in their old age against each other. Lysimachus was slain, and his dominions in Asia Minor were added to the kingdom of Seleucus; but the latter was soon afterward murdered in Europe, where he was still pushing his conquests.

169. The successors of Seleucus were inferior to him in character; and two independent kingdoms, Parthia and Bactria, sprang up in the north-eastern part of their do-

minion. (See map 1.) The Bactrians were of the Aryan race (§ 6), and their new kingdom was thoroughly Greek in spirit; the Parthians, on the contrary, were nearly related to the barbarous Scythians; and their movement for independence was a revolt against Hellenic ideas.

170. Anti'ochus III,³ the fifth of the Seleucidæ, had many wars but few successes: nevertheless, his flatterers called him "the Great." His reign is marked by the first serious collision of the Greek kingdoms with Rome. He suffered four signal defeats from the Romans, who took from him Asia Minor, except Cilicia, with all his ships and elephants, and an enormous treasure. His son, Antiochus Epiph'anes,⁴ had nearly conquered Egypt, when the Romans again interfered and made him resign all that he had taken. He obeyed, but revenged himself by plundering and desecrating the Temple at Jerusalem, B. C. 168.

171. The Jews sprang to arms, inspired by their brave leader Ju'das Maccabæ'us.⁵ Antiochus, who was now beyond the Euphrates, set out in a great rage to punish their revolt; but, in attempting to plunder another temple in Elymais, he was seized with a furious madness in which he died. Rome took the part of the "Maccabees," and Judæa became a separate kingdom. Between the Parthians on the east and the Romans on the west, the Seleucidæ were engaged for a hundred years in constant wars, until, in 65, B. C., their whole dominion was absorbed into that of Rome.

172. **The Ptolemies.**—B. C. 323–30. The Egyptian kingdom of Ptolemy⁶ was the most brilliant of all the Hellenic dominions. Under his thrifty management Egypt became a market for the whole world's wealth. Traders, scholars, and artists thronged in multitudes to Alexandria, which soon rivaled Athens in its beautiful buildings, while it surpassed the Attic city by its famous library—the greatest in the ancient world. To enrich this collection, Europe

and Asia were ransacked for literary works, and copies were obtained at any cost. A special embassy was sent to Jerusalem to ask of the High Priest a copy of the Hebrew Scriptures and the services of a company of learned men who could translate them into Greek. These were royally received and entertained by Ptolemy, and the version which they produced became one of the chief treasures of the Alexandrian Library. It is called the *Septuagint*, either because the translators were seventy in number, or because it was sanctioned by the Sanhedrim, or Council of Seventy, at Alexandria.

173. The first Ptolemy was perhaps the greatest and best man among Alexander's generals—distinguished in an age of fraud and violence for his truthfulness and self-control. None of his descendants equaled him in character; but his son, Ptolemy Philadel'phus, continued the patronage of learned men with still greater liberality, while his wise commercial policy made Egypt the richest country in the world.

174. Ptolemy III., called Euer'getes, was a great conqueror, and extended his kingdom both westward and northward along the Mediterranean from Cyrene to the Hellespont. He even made conquests east of the Euphrates, and brought back some old Egyptian images which had been carried away by Sargon or Esarhaddon (§§ 13, 14), but his eastern acquisitions were abandoned almost as soon as they were made. The rest of the twelve Ptolemies had hardly any history worth recording. Egypt, like all the other Mediterranean countries, became subject at last to the Roman power. Cleopa'tra, a brilliant but unscrupulous princess, was the last of this royal line; she tried to beguile the Roman generals by her arts, when she could not oppose them by arms; and for some years she was successful. But at length An'tony, her lover, was defeated in his contest with Octa'vian, and Cleopatra killed

herself to escape from adorning the triumphal procession of his conqueror. Egypt became a Roman province.

175. The Egyptians, under the Ptolemies, kept their own language, religion, and customs, while, as in all the other Hellenic kingdoms, Greek was the language of the government. Royal and priestly decrees, intended to reach all the mixed population of the country, were written in three languages: the *hieroglyphics*, or sacred language of the priests, the *demotic* speech of the common people, and *Greek*. About eighty years ago, a stone, bearing one of these threefold inscriptions, was accidentally found by a French engineer near the Rosetta mouth of the Nile. Learned men, with immense patience, compared the Greek sentences, which they could easily read, with the corresponding characters of the unknown tongues, and thus obtained a key to the long-sealed writings of the ancient Egyptians. The Rosetta Stone contained a decree of the priests, ordering divine honors to be paid to the fifth of the Ptolemies at his coronation.

176. **Greece**, led by Athens, vainly attempted to make herself free from Macedon after the death of Alexander. The "Lamian War" ended in only confirming the Macedonian supremacy, while Demosthenes (§ 140) and most of his party were condemned to exile or death. In this time of calamity, the Greeks learned too late the necessity of a closer union of the states. Several federations were formed, of which the most important were the Achæan League in southern, and the Ætolian in central Greece. But, unhappily, the several states were still divided by jealousies, which gave every advantage to their enemies. Rome and Macedon played off one League against the other almost at will; while the Romans were steadily advancing toward universal dominion.

177. Philip V, the greatest of the later Macedonian kings, was at length so ruinously defeated by them at Cyn'oceph'

alæ, that he gave up all attempts to control the Greeks, having, indeed, more than enough to do in keeping a foothold in his own land. Philopœmen,⁷ the chief of the Achæan League, was the greatest man in Greece at this crisis. He infused his own brave and energetic spirit into the whole nation, and enabled it for a while to resist the encroachments of Rome. After his death, B. C. 183, the Roman power became irresistible. Perseus, the last of the Macedonian kings, was defeated at Pydna, B. C. 168, and was afterward carried as a prisoner to Italy, where he died in a dungeon near Rome. B. C. 197.

178. A few years later, the remnant of the Achæans made a desperate effort to shake off the Roman yoke. One of their leaders was defeated and slain near Thermopylæ; another made a final stand at Corinth, but he, too, was defeated and the city was taken, plundered, and destroyed. But captive Greece ruled her conquerors by her intellectual greatness. Roman nobles sought instruction at Athens; and Greek philosophy and poetry inspired all that was best in the literature of Rome. B. C. 146.

Point out on Maps 1, 2, 3, and 4, Antioch, Alexandria, Actium, Cyncephalæ, Pydna, Corinth, Athens, Thermopylæ.

The latest period in the History of Greece may be read in Grote, Chs. XCV, XCVI, and in Freeman's History of Federal Government, Vol. I.

Some account of the Seleucidæ will be found in Rawlinson's Sixth Monarchy. Their history and that of the Ptolemies may be found in Smith's Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography. Read also of Alexandria and its schools in Smith's Dictionary of Geography, in Charles Kingsley's four lectures on the subject, and in Draper's Intellectual Development of Europe. The "Lives" of Aratus and Philopœmen are in Plutarch.

NOTES.

1. **Seleucus**, surnamed *Nicator*, or the Conqueror, rivaled the fame of Alexander as a founder of cities and patron of learning. In all the seventy-two provinces of his kingdom, Greek towns became centers of Greek intelligence and enterprise in the midst of Asiatic indolence. Seleucia, on the Tigris, was intended as a rival to Babylon; but subsequently wishing to keep watch of his rivals, Ptolemy and Lysimachus, he removed his capital from that eastern valley to the Mediterranean, and built Antioch, which long ranked as the third city in the world, Rome and Alexandria being its only superiors. Dying in B. C. 280, Seleucus was succeeded by his son Antiochus I., who won the name of *Soter* (savior) by a victory over the Gauls, but was afterward killed in battle with those barbarians, B. C. 261.

2. This **Antioch** was one of sixteen new cities of the same name, given to them by Seleucus in honor of his father Antiochus. The Syrian Antioch, however, surpassed all the rest in wealth, beauty, and resources for enjoyment. Within a few miles was the celebrated cypress-grove of Daphne, which, for the beauty of its winding walks and numerous rivulets and fountains, was compared to the Vale of Tempe. The road thither lay along the river and through the pleasure-grounds attached to private villas, whose well-watered lawns, gardens, and shrubberies contributed to the delight of every sense; and, in the month of August, the annual festival of Apollo and Artemis drew great crowds from all the region to the temple of those divinities which Seleucus had erected in the midst of the grove.

The city itself was noted for the magnificence of its colonnaded streets, and the gayety of its inhabitants. It was visited, however, by frequent and terrible earthquakes. One of the most severe occurred in the time of Trajan, A. D. 115; another, in that of Justin, A. D. 528, when the city was entirely destroyed, and a quarter of a million of lives were lost. Twelve years later it was sacked and burnt by the Persians; and, though partly rebuilt by Justinian (§§ 292, 293), never regained its high rank as Queen of the East.

3. **Antiochus III.** was only fifteen years of age when he succeeded his brother Seleucus III. in 223 B. C. He gained some advantages over Ptolemy IV., but was afterwards defeated by him in a great battle at Raphia, near Gaza, B. C. 217. In one campaign he recovered Media from the Parthian king who had overrun it. Extending his march to India, he made friendly alliances with several Hindoo princes. In 195 B. C. he received at his court the great but unfortunate Hannibal (§§ 210-214), who gladly led the Syrian armies against his ancient enemies, the Romans. But Hannibal's advice was not followed, and Antiochus, having invaded Greece in 191 B. C., was defeated by the Romans at Thermopylae. The next year he suffered a still more signal overthrow near Magnesia, in Lydia, leaving more than half his army dead upon the field. In the peace which followed, he surrendered all his ships and elephants, and all Asia Minor except Cilicia, while he engaged to pay nearly \$20,000,000 for the expenses of the war. In attempting to take part of this amount from the treasures of the temple of Belus, he provoked a riot in which he was killed, 187 B. C.

4. **Antiochus IV.** was undeservedly styled Epiphanes (the Illustrious), for his reign brought little honor to himself or his kingdom. He had been one of twenty hostages, given by his father to the Romans as securities for the payment of his enormous war indemnity (see note 3); and, in his twelve years' residence at Rome, he adopted notorious and habits which proved displeasing to his people, when, in 175 B. C., he returned to be their king. Both Jews and Greeks believed that the wild insanity which ended his life was a judgment of Heaven for his impious desecration of their temples.

5. As a part of the studious insults heaped by Antiochus Epiphanes upon the religious observances of the Jews, they were required to offer swine's flesh upon their most holy altar at Jerusalem. Mattathias, the officiating priest, was a brave old man, and, instead of complying with the royal mandate, struck down with his axe the Syrian officer

who brought it; then, with his four sons and other loyal followers, he marched against the Syrians and overthrew the altars which they had set up. The surname Maccabæus from the Hebrew word *Makkab*, a hammer, was given to Judas, the most famous of the sons of Mattathias, in consequence of his victories over Antiochus about 165 B. C., but his descendants were called Maccabees, as well as Asmonæans (from their ancestor, Asmonæus). They ruled Judæa until B. C. 37. Judas fell in battle with the Syrians, B. C. 160, and was succeeded by his brother Jonathan, as ruler and high priest. He was followed by a younger brother, Simon, under whose leadership the independence of the Jews was recognized, even by the king of Syria.

6. Alexander was not destined to carry out his own magnificent project [in the development of Egypt]. That was left to the general whom he most esteemed, and to whose personal prowess he had once owed his life; a man than whom history knows few greater, Ptolemy, the son of Lagos.

It was his wisdom which perceived that the huge empire of Alexander could not be kept together, and advised its partition among the generals, taking care himself to obtain the lion's share, not in size, indeed, but in capability. He saw, too, that the only way to keep what he had got was to make it better and not worse than he found it. It had not escaped that man what was the secret of Greek supremacy. How had he come there? How had his great master conquered half the world? How had the little semi-barbarous mountain-tribe up there in Pella risen under Philip to be the master-race of the globe? How, indeed, had Xenophon and his Ten Thousand [§ 58], how had the handfuls of Salamis and Marathon, held out triumphantly, century after century, against the vast weight of the barbarian? The simple answer was, Because the Greek has mind; the barbarian, mere brute-force. Because mind is the lord of matter; because the Greek, being the cultivated man, is the only true man; the rest are mere things—clods, tools for the wise Greek's use, in spite of all their material phantom strength of elephants and treasures, and tributaries by the million. Mind was the secret of Greek power; and for that Ptolemy would work. He would have an aristocracy of intellect; he would gather around him the wise men of the world, and he would develop to its highest the conception of Philip when he made Aristotle the tutor of his son Alexander.—*Abridged from Alexandria and her Schools. By Charles Kingsley.*

7. Philopœmen, "the last of the Greeks," was a native of Megalopolis, in Arcadia. In his youth he was fired with zeal by the genius and virtues of Epaminondas (§ 136), and devoted himself to the study of the art of war. In B. C. 208, he was appointed general-in-chief of the Achæan League, one of the too-late efforts of the Greeks to find strength in federal union. If they had learned the secret earlier, the history of Greece might have been longer and more prosperous. Originally, the League was only a union of twelve small towns in the north of the Peloponnesus, for purposes of common worship; but the people who formed it were so respected for their virtues, that powerful states sometimes submitted disputes to their decision. In the year 280 B. C., the League, long discontinued, was revived, not now chiefly for religious purposes, but for a substantial political union. Aratus, of Sicyon, was its most famous leader before Philopœmen. The Encyclopædia Britannica says: "Thus did this people, so celebrated in the heroic age, once more emerge from comparative obscurity, and become the greatest among the states of Greece in the last days of its national independence. The inhabitants of Patræ and of Dyme were the first assertors of ancient liberty. The tyrants were banished, and the towns again made one commonwealth. Many neighboring towns, which admired the constitution of this republic, founded on equality, liberty, the love of justice, and of the public good, were incorporated with the Achæans and admitted to the full enjoyment of their laws and privileges. The Achæan League affords the most perfect example in antiquity of the federal form of government, and, allowing for difference of time and place, its resemblance to that of the United States is very remarkable."—I, 94.

The resemblance may perhaps be accounted for by the fact that the founders of our great Republic were acquainted with Greek history.

PART III. — ROME.

CHAPTER XII.

THE ROMAN KINGDOM — ITS RELIGION.



Standard-Bearer.

THE Italian peninsula had now become the seat of the most powerful and long-enduring government that the world has ever known. But, if we would trace the stream of conquest to its source, we must go back to a little village on the Tiber, founded in the eighth century before Christ, if common report* be true, by a band of shepherds and robbers. Southern Italy and Sicily were already occupied by many Greek cities; while north of the Tiber were the Etruscans,¹ a civilized and powerful people, whose singular religious customs largely affected those of the Romans.

180. The latter belonged to the Latin branch of the Italian race, and soon allied themselves with the League of thirty Latin cities, between the Liris and the Tiber. They resembled the Spartans in their stern and haughty character; and the influence of Rome in Latium, as of Sparta in Greece, was

* For the legendary account of the founding of Rome, see Ancient History, pp. 249, 250.

always in favor of government by the nobles, against any assumption of power by the common people.

181. Rome was governed by kings for more than two centuries after its foundation (B. C. 753–510). Tradition names seven monarchs: *Rom'ulus*, the mythical founder of the state, and *Nu'ma*, of the religion of Rome; *Tul'lus Hostil'ius* and *An'cus Mar'tius*, who extended its dominion by conquests; the first *Tar'quin*, who enriched the city by many grand and useful works; *Ser'vius Tul'lius*, who gave to every free Roman the right of voting, divided public lands among the people, and organized the whole state into a military system; and *Tarquin the Proud*, who, trying to rob the people of their newly found rights, was expelled with all his family.

182. A republic was then established under the "good laws" of *Ser'vius*. Two chief magistrates, afterwards called *consuls*, were elected every year, with full kingly powers. They were attended by a guard of twelve *lictors*, bearing *fascas*, or bundles of rods, as symbols of authority. At the end of their year of office, the consuls could be tried and punished for any abuse of their power.

183. In the earliest times, Rome contained only the *patricians*—consisting of 300 families—with their *clients* and *slaves*. The clients,² though free, had no civil rights; they were represented in courts of law by the patrician whom they chose as their patron—whose lands they cultivated, or whose influence protected their trade. Each patrician was proud of the number of clients who assumed his family name. The heads of the 300 noble houses constituted the Senate, an august assemblage, mostly of old men, distinguished by the broad, purple stripe upon their mantles, and by their thrones and scepters of ivory. The whole body of patricians constituted the *Comitia Curiata*, which confirmed or annulled all laws proposed by the magistrates.

184. Later, there arose at Rome a new class, called *plebeians*, who were either foreign settlers, or children of mixed marriages, or clients whose protecting families had become extinct. The patricians were very angry when the new Assembly of the Hundreds, formed by the good king, Servius Tullius (§ 181), included even plebeians in the right to vote. They believed that patricians alone could approach the gods with prayers and sacrifices, and that, therefore, it would be an insult to Heaven if a plebeian were admitted to any office which must be entered with religious rites. Another point of jealousy was found in the division of lands conquered in war. The patricians wanted these for the pasturage of their enormous flocks; but Servius thought it right to give the plebeians also a share.

185. Every free Roman was a soldier, and was enrolled, according to his wealth, in one of five ranks. The richest, being able to equip themselves in complete brazen armor, fought in front of the army; the rest, according to their means and equipment, were placed in successive ranks toward the rear.

186. The RELIGION of the Romans was less poetical than that of the Greeks; but it was bound up with their love of home and country, and strongly affected their daily life. As Greek monarchs were supposed to be descendants of *Zeus*, so the first Roman king was fabled to be a grandson of *Mars*, the war-god; and the whole history of this martial people justifies the legend. The two chief divinities of the Romans were *Jupiter* and *Mars*; and almost all their yearly religious festivals were connected either with war or tillage. The worship of some of the other divinities was borrowed from abroad; e. g. that of *Apollo* from the Greeks, and that of *Miner'va* from the Etruscans.

187. But the "household gods" were nearest and dearest to every Roman heart. Every house was a temple, and

every meal a sacrifice to Ves'ta, the home-goddess. Her temple was the hearthstone of the city, where six noble maidens guarded the sacred fire by night and day. Over the door of every house was a little chapel of the *Lares*, or ancestors of the family, to whom the father paid his devotions whenever he entered.³

188. The Romans, like the Greeks, believed in oracles (§99), while from the Etruscans they borrowed rules for the interpretation of signs in the heavens, of the appearance of sacrifices, and of dreams. The Four Sacred Colleges were those of the *Pontiffs*, the *Augurs*, the *Heralds*, and the *Keepers of the Sibylline Books*.⁴ The first regulated public worship and kept the calendar; the second consulted the gods with reference to all public affairs; the third guarded the honor of the nation in its dealings with foreign powers; the fourth, in times of great public calamity, looked into the Sibylline Books, which were supposed to prophesy the fate of Rome.

189. Once in five years, after the taking of the census, there was a solemn purification of the city and all the people, by means of prayers and sacrifices, to avert the anger of the gods. In like manner farmers were supposed to purify their fields, and shepherds their flocks; generals their armies, and admirals their fleets, to guard against disasters which might be visited upon some secret or open impiety.⁵

Name the boundaries of Italy. The tribes who occupied it in the early days of Rome. What islands near Italy?

Read the early history of Rome in Arnold, Niebuhr, and Mommsen.

NOTES.

1. The **Etruscans**, or Tuscans, differed much from the other nations of Italy in language, appearance, and character. Probably they were two races combined,—the mass being Pelasgi (§86), who were conquered and absorbed, perhaps even before they entered Italy, by a more powerful people from the North, called by themselves *Rasena*. History first finds this conquering people in Rhoetia, the country about the head-waters

of the Adige, the Danube, and the Rhine, where, until lately, their language was still spoken, and works of art like theirs were found. Entering Italy, they formed, in time, three distinct confederations, of twelve cities each. The first was in the plain of the Po; the second, in Tuscany, which still bears their name; the third, in Campania; but the last was lost in wars with the Samnites.

At a very early period, the Etruscans were a luxurious and wealthy people. They had treaties with the Carthaginians; they sent three ships to aid the Athenians in their war in Sicily (§ 130). Their architecture, as still existing in city walls and amphitheatres, is of the most massive character, and their tombs contain untold wealth of bronzes and jewelry.

Their religion was gloomy and superstitious, consisting mainly of contrivances for averting calamities and predicting future events. Their elaborate books of divination were said to be made up of the sayings of a miraculous dwarf named Tages, whom a plowman found one day in his furrow, and who, though only a boy, had gray hair, and was wiser than any ancient sage. His sentences were delivered in verse, like oracles (§ 99), and were carefully written down. They taught how to avert the wrath of the gods by sacrifices, and to learn their will by auguries drawn from the flight of birds, from thunder and lightning, and from the entrails of slain beasts. The fifth and seventh kings of Rome (§ 181) were Etruscans from Tarquinii. The first Tarquin adorned his capital with magnificent buildings, and drained it by an extensive system of sewers. A characteristic specimen of Etruscan architecture is seen in the still perfect round arch of the Cloaca Maxima.

2. After the plebeians had obtained equal civil rights with the patricians, the character of clientage changed; but great men still prided themselves upon having a crowd of dependents waiting in their reception-halls, or following them through the streets. One chief duty of the client was the morning salutation. The Romans were early risers, and the vestibules of great houses were thronged before sunrise with those who came to pay their respects to the proprietor. About sunrise the hall doors were thrown open, and the patron made his appearance, spoke with each of his callers, invited some to dinner, and heard the requests of any who needed advice or aid. Originally food was either served to the guests or given out in baskets; as this became inconvenient, a fixed salary was assigned to each client, which was often his only means of support. Special distributions were made on occasions of domestic festivity; when there was a wedding in the patron's family, a piece of gold was given to each client.

3. Here is a picture of the life of a well-born Roman, from "The Ancient City," by M. Fustel de Coulanges: "Each one of his daily actions is a rite; his whole day belongs to his religion. Morning and evening he invokes his fire [note 4. p. 62], his penates, and his ancestors; in leaving and entering his house he addresses a prayer to them. Every meal is a religious act, which he shares with his domestic divinities.

"He leaves his house, and can hardly take a step without meeting some sacred object—either a chapel, or a place formerly struck by lightning, or a tomb; sometimes he must step back and pronounce a prayer; sometimes he must turn his eyes and cover his face, to avoid the sight of some ill-boding object.

"Every day he sacrifices in his house, every month in his *curia*, several months a year, with his *gens* or his tribe. Above all these gods, he must offer worship to those of the city. There are in Rome more gods than citizens.

"He offers sacrifices to thank the gods; he offers them, and by far the greater number, to appease their wrath. . . . There is a festival for seed-time, one for harvest, and one for the pruning of the vines. Before corn has reached the ear, the Roman has offered more than ten sacrifices, and invoked some ten divinities, for the success of his harvest. He has, above all, a number of festivals for the dead, because he is afraid of them. He never leaves his own house without looking to see if any bird of bad augury appears. There are words which he dares not pronounce for his life. If he experiences some desire, he inscribes his wish upon a tablet, which he places at the feet of the statue of a divinity.

"He steps out of his house always with his right foot first. He has

his hair cut only during the full moon. He carries amulets upon his person. He covers the walls of his house with magic inscriptions against fire. He knows of formulas for avoiding sickness, and of others for curing it, but he must repeat them twenty-seven times, and spit in a certain fashion at each repetition.

"He does not deliberate in the senate if the victims have not given favorable signs. He leaves the assembly of the people if he hears the cry of a mouse. He renounces the best-laid plans if he perceives a bad presage, or if an ill-omened word has struck his ear; he is brave in battle, but on condition that the auspices assure him the victory.

"This Roman, whom we present here, is not the man of the people, the feeble-minded man whom misery and ignorance have made superstitious. We are speaking of the patrician, the noble, powerful, and rich man. This patrician is, by turns, warrior, magistrate, consul, farmer, merchant; but every-where and always he is a priest, and his thoughts are fixed upon the gods."

4. These books were kept with the greatest care in a stone chest under the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus. A curious story was told of their origin. A strange woman came one day to King Tarquin—whether the First or the Second the legends did not agree—and offered him, for a certain price, nine books of prophecies. The king refusing to purchase, she went away and burned three volumes, then, returning, asked the same price for the remaining six. The king again refused, and the Sibyl again disappeared, but came back, demanding the same price for the books that were left. This time the king bought the mysterious volumes, and the woman was never seen again.

At first, two keepers of the books were appointed, subsequently there were ten, and at last fifteen. The prophecies were written on palm leaves, and probably in Greek. It is not known whether they foretold future events or merely dictated the forms of worship by which the supposed wrath of the gods could be appeased in times of pestilence or other calamity. The Sibyls, if indeed they had any real existence, seem to have been Asiatic prophetesses, who wandered from place to place with their sacred books. Six of these weird women are mentioned by ancient writers: the Erythræan (to whom the Roman volumes above-mentioned were ascribed), the Samian, the Egyptian, the Sardinian, the Cumæan, and the Hebrew. There are said to have been four more, whose names and origin can not be discovered.

5. One feature of Roman religion has neither been borrowed nor imitated. "They built temples and offered sacrifices to the highest human excellencies—to Valor, to Truth, to Good Faith, to Modesty, to Charity, to Concord. The Virtues were elevated into beings, to whom disobedience could be punished as a crime; and the superstitious fears which run so often into mischievous idolatries, were enlisted with conscience in the direct service of right action. On the same principle the Romans chose the heroes and heroines of their national history. . . . On the same principle, too, they had a public officer, a *Censor Morum*, who might examine into the habits of private families, rebuke extravagance, check luxury, punish vice and self-indulgence, nay, who could remove from the senate, the great council of elders, persons whose moral conduct was a reproach to a body on whose reputation no shadow could be allowed to rest.

"Such the Romans were in the day when their dominion had not extended beyond the limits of Italy; and, because they were such, they were able to prosper under a constitution which, to modern experience, would promise only the most hopeless confusion. . . .

"The sense of duty is present in each detail of life; the obligatory *must*, which binds the will to the course which right principle has marked out for it, produces a fiber like the fiber of the oak. The educated Greeks knew little of it. They had courage and genius and enthusiasm, but they had no horror of immorality as such. The Stoics saw what was wanting, and tried to supply it; but, though they could provide a theory of action, they could not make the theory a reality; and it is noticeable that Stoicism, as a rule of life, became important only when adopted by Romans."—*Froude's "Cæsar."*

CHAPTER XIII.

THE ROMAN REPUBLIC — SAMNITE WARS.



Tribune and Lictor.¹

THE 480 years' history of the Roman Republic is a record of almost continual wars; but there were four distinctly marked periods, which will help us to understand the development of this remarkable nation.

I. Wars for existence, and growth of the Republican Constitution, B. C. 510-343.

II. Wars for possession of Italy, B. C. 343-264.

III. Wars for Foreign Dominion, B. C. 264-133.

IV. Civil Wars, B. C. 133-30.

191. Patricians and Plebeians.—In the contests with the Latins and Etruscans, which followed the expulsion of the kings (§ 181), a great part of the Roman territory was lost, and the rest was laid waste. The poor people, who derived their living from the soil, were in great distress, and had to borrow money from the patricians at ruinous interest in order to go on with their farming. Some even sold themselves as slaves, and others were thrown into the dungeons of their creditors. At length, tired of a government which cared only for the rich, and had neither justice nor pity for the poor, the plebeians seceded to the Sacred Mount, and resolved to form a new city.

192. The patricians now consented to cancel the debts of all who were unable to pay, and agreed to the yearly election of two *tribunes*, whose duty it should be to defend the interests of the plebeians. The next year an "Agrarian Law" provided for the distribution of a certain part of the public lands among the plebeians, while the rents of those leased to patricians were applied to the payment of soldiers who had hitherto been compelled to give their services to the state. The consul who proposed this law was condemned and beheaded at the expiration of his term; and the first tribune who attempted to enforce it was murdered. But its enemies only defeated themselves, for so violent was the popular rage that the next tribune, Publil'ius, was able to obtain a still greater security for the rights of the plebeians. This was, the power to elect their own officers* in their own Meeting of the Tribes; and there, too, to discuss all questions affecting the whole nation, before they were presented to the Assembly of the Hundreds. This prevented the plebeians being outvoted by the clients of the noble houses, who of course were controlled by their masters.

193. Some proud patricians, rather than share their power with inferiors, went over to the enemies of Rome. Among these was Ca'ius Mar'cius—called Co'riola'nus, because he had taken the town of Corioli from the Volscians; but it was with these same Volscians that he now took refuge, and even led their armies against his native city. A sacred embassy of priests and augurs went out to meet him, but he refused all terms of peace. At last, his mother, his wife, and his little children appeared, followed by a procession of noble ladies, entreating him to spare

* "From that time," says a Roman historian, "the election of tribunes and ædiles was made *without birds*," alluding to the ceremony of "taking the auguries," which must precede every election in which patricians had part. See § 184.

their altars and their homes. Coriolanus yielded, but with the despairing cry: "Mother, thou hast saved Rome, but thou hast lost thy son!" He led away his army. Some say the Volscians killed him in their revenge, but others, that he lived to great age, lamenting, in the loneliness of exile and infirmity, the foolish pride that had robbed him of home and honor.

194. After many years of contention, all classes agreed to appoint ten men (*Decemviri*), who should consider and adjust all conflicting claims and make a new constitution for Rome. The results of their labor were B. C. 451, 450. the Laws of the Twelve Tables,* which became the "source of all public and private right" in Rome for a thousand years. They were approved by the Senate, and ratified by the Assembly of the Hundreds. But, though formally accepted, the laws were not enforced until two secessions and many violent tumults, caused by patrician outrages, had proved the power of the plebeians.

195. Rome was soon afterward visited by a terrible calamity. The Gauls,² who had conquered northern Italy, came pouring through the defiles of the Apennines, and defeated the whole Roman army with great slaughter in the battle of the Allia; then, pushing on with B. C. 390. irresistible fury, captured and burned the city. The rocky height of the Capitol was bravely defended for several months, and then ransomed for 1000 pounds of gold. The Gauls continued for many years to ravage Italy, and twice encamped within a few miles of Rome, but at last they withdrew to the fertile plain between the Alps and the northern Apennines, which was thenceforth named from them Cisalpine Gaul. They learned letters and civilized habits from the Etruscans, and taught them in some degree to their wild kindred among the Alps.

* So called because they were inscribed on bronze tablets.

196. The poverty and distress of the plebeians, resulting from the ravages of the Gauls, made the patricians only more haughty and overbearing. Rome was a shapeless heap of rubbish, through which even the direction of former streets could not be traced; while orchards and farm-buildings outside the walls had all been burnt. Again the dungeons beneath the patrician houses on the hills were crowded with insolvent debtors, who cried out against the cruelty of their tormentors.

197. The tribune Licin'ius Sto'lo, and his colleague L. Sex'tius, then brought forward a series of laws, which were designed to raise the plebeians to absolute equality with the patricians in civil rights and the use of the public lands. Of course the latter violently opposed the measures; but, after some years, the "Licinian Laws"³ were passed, and Rome had for the first time a really popular government. Of the two consuls chosen every year, one was henceforth a plebeian. The consuls still had unlimited military power; but most of their judicial duties were now committed to a *prætor*, who for a time was chosen only from the patricians. B. C. 367.

198. **Wars in Italy.**—At peace with herself, Rome now looked out upon the broader field where she was to become mistress of the world. The Samnites to the southward were more civilized and powerful than the Latins. They had conquered most of the Greek settlements (§ 88) in southern Italy, and had adopted Greek ways of living and thinking, so that they were superior in intellectual culture to their neighbors, with whom they were now to contest the rule of the peninsula. But the Romans had already proved that wonderful genius for government which afterward enabled them to bind together all their conquests into one great empire; while the Samnites had only a loose confederation of cities without any recognized leader.

199. All Italy was engaged on one side or the other; and the three Samnite Wars lasted, with brief intervals, more than half a century (B. C. 343-290). The Latin allies, becoming unruly, were reduced to obedience by a war, which broke up the League (§ 180) and subjected all

Latium to Roman law. Two incidents of the B. C. 339. Latin war illustrate the Spartan-like sternness of the Romans. All soldiers were forbidden to leave the camp on pain of death; but Titus Manlius, the consul's son, vexed by the challenge of a Latin warrior, went out and killed him, and, returning in triumph, laid the spoils at his father's feet. The consul ordered his guards to behead the young man before his tent in the presence of all the army.

200. The battle which decided the fate of Latium, took place at the foot of Mt. Vesuvius, 339 B. C. The augurs had declared (§ 188) that Fate demanded the destruction of an army on one side and a general on the other. It was therefore agreed by the Roman commanders that, if any portion of their army should begin to give way, the consul commanding in that quarter would devote himself to death for the deliverance of the state. Manlius led the Roman right; Decius, the plebeian consul, the left. All fought bravely, but at length the Roman left wavered. Decius called the pontiff, and with his aid repeated the solemn words in which he devoted himself and the Latin army to the gods of death and the grave; then, mounting his horse, plunged into the thickest of the fight and was almost immediately killed.

201. B. C. 326-304. The Second Samnite War lasted 22 years. The Romans suffered a disgraceful defeat at the Caudine Forks, where the remnant of their army which survived had to "pass under the yoke," in token of submission. A treaty of peace was then made; but the Roman Senate refused to be bound by it, and sent the

two consuls and two tribunes who had signed it, bound in chains, to suffer the vengeance of the Samnites. Pon'tius, the Samnite general, generously released them. After many reverses and a few great victories, the Romans were at length acknowledged as masters of Italy.

202. The Samnites, however, made use of the six years' interval of peace to enlist all the Italian nations in a new league against Rome, and, in 298 B. C., the Third Samnite War broke out. Etruscans, Umbrians, and Gauls, on the north, were allied with Lucanians, Apulians, Greeks, and Samnites on the south. In a great battle at Sentinum, the Gauls and Samnites were defeated, and 25,000 men were slain. Pontius, the Samnite general, still defended his country by his brilliant genius; but at length the Romans gained a victory, in which he was made a prisoner and compelled to walk the streets of Rome loaded with chains to adorn the triumph⁴ of the consul. When the procession reached the foot of the Capitoline Hill, he was led aside and beheaded in the Mamertine Prison. Samnium was completely subjected, and a Roman colony of 20,000 people guarded its territory.

203. Two short wars added to the Roman possessions the lands of the Æqui and Sabines, rich in oil, wine, and forests of oak. These were divided among the people, many of whom had been made poor by the long wars; and, by the wise laws of Hortensius, Rome was saved from civil strife for 150 years.

204. The next important contest was with Pyrrhus,⁵ king of Epirus, an ambitious and able prince who was invited into Italy by a league of many nations, with the Greek city of Tarentum at their head. At Heracle'a, his elephants put the Roman horse to flight; and his military genius was proved by many other victories. But while Pyrrhus was fighting for glory, Rome

was fighting for existence. As often as one army was destroyed, another was ready to oppose him; and at length he withdrew into Sicily, hoping to recruit his forces for a fresh attempt. He was defeated two years later at Beneventum, and left Italy never to return. His allies submitted, and the whole Italian peninsula, properly so called, was now subject to Rome.

205. Her power was secured by many new colonies and by military roads, the remains of which may yet be seen. The maritime colonies possessed the full "Roman right;" *i. e.*, the colonists retained all the powers and privileges of Roman citizens. They could go to Rome and vote in the assemblies; and they could be elected to any office which would have been open to them when living in the mother city. The "Latin right" was that which had been given to the cities of Latium when they were first made subject to Rome. It was bestowed on the less favored colonies; but it included commercial and other privileges, which bound them to Rome by ties of interest.

Point out, on Map 5, the nations engaged in the Third Samnite War: see § 202. Point out Sentinum. Tarentum. Beneventum. Heraclea.

Read the story of this period, more fully told, in Arnold's History of Rome.

NOTES.

1. Lictors were public officers who attended every great magistrate of Rome, in greater or less number, according to his rank. They carried *fascēs*, which were bundles of birch or elm rods, bound together, and usually having an axe in the middle. Each king had been preceded by twelve lictors; after the republic was established, one of the consuls was attended by twelve, bearing the *fascēs* and axe; the other consul had twelve lictors, but their *fascēs* consisted of rods only. There is a curious story told by Livy, which shows how much importance was attached to the pomp and dignity supposed to be derived from these attendants:

"Fabius Ambustus, one of the most illustrious patricians, had two daughters whom he gave in marriage—one to a patrician, who became a military tribune, the other to Licinius Stolo, a prominent plebeian. This plebeian's wife was one day at the house of her sister, when the lictors, conducting the military tribune to his home, struck the door with their *fascēs*. As she was ignorant of this usage, she showed signs of fear. The laughter and teasing questions of her sister showed her how much she was degraded by the plebeian marriage that had placed

her in a house where such honors could never come. Her father guessed the cause of her trouble, and consoled her by promising that she should see at her own house what she had seen at her sister's." Accordingly, he joined with her husband in obtaining for the plebeians a share in the consular office, B. C. 366.

"From that time the plebs had every year one of the two consuls, and they were not long in succeeding to other magistracies. The plebeian wore the purple dress, and was preceded by the fasces; he administered justice; he was a senator; he governed the city, and commanded the legions."

Licinius Stolo was himself consul for the years B. C. 364 and 361; and we may hope that Fabia often enjoyed the noise of the twelve lictors at her door.

2. The Gauls were a warlike and powerful people belonging to the Celtic branch of the Aryan family (see note 1, p. 16). At this time, and for a century later, they were continually passing the mountain-barrier which divides Central from Southern Europe; and their dominion, at its greatest extent, is said to have been as great, though, of course, far less compact and well organized, than the Roman empire was afterwards.

On their approach to Rome, the Vestal Virgins (§ 187) withdrew, still carefully guarding the sacred fire in urns, to Cære, in Etruria; the mass of the people, with the fugitives from the conquered army, took refuge in other Etruscan towns; but the noblest of the patricians resolved to hold the capital. Those who were too old to fight, hoped to serve their country equally well by a heroic death. They repeated after the Pontifex Maximus, a solemn imprecation (see § 200) devoting themselves and the army of the Gauls to death for the deliverance of Rome. Then, arrayed in their most magnificent apparel, holding their ivory scepters, and seated each upon his ivory throne at the door of his own house, they sat motionless while the tumult of plunder and pillage was going on around. The barbarians were struck with admiration of these venerable figures; and one of them began reverently to stroke the long white beard of Papirius. Enraged by this profaning touch, the old senator struck him with his ivory scepter. It was the signal for slaughter. The Gauls, recovering from their momentary awe, massacred the noble old men without delay.

The siege of the capital continued six or eight months. At one time it was nearly taken, the enemy having scaled the steep cliff by night. The garrison were asleep, but some geese, sacred to Juno, gave a timely alarm, and the citadel was saved. Marcus Manlius, who was the first to awaken, flung the first assailants down the cliff, and thus maintained the fortress until his comrades could come to his aid.

3. The "Licinian Laws" were three:

1. To relieve present distress,—the enormous interest already paid upon debts, was reckoned as part of the principal, and so deducted from the sum still due.

2. To prevent future poverty,—the lands belonging to the state, but hitherto absorbed by the patricians, were to be thrown open equally to the plebeians, and no man could hold more than 312 acres, or pasture more than 100 oxen and 500 sheep on the undivided part.

3. One consul every year should be a plebeian.

4. A "Triumph" was the greatest reward ever bestowed upon a Roman general by the gratitude of his compatriots. It was subject to the following conditions: The victory must have been over foreign foes, for it was reckoned as unseemly to exult over fellow-countrymen, however guilty they might be—it must have been an actual extension of Roman territory, not the recovery of something lost—and the war must be completed, so that the army was withdrawn from the field, for the soldiers must share in the honor paid to their general. Moreover, the general himself must be of consular, or at least pretorian, rank; an officer of lower grade could receive an *ovation*, in which he entered the city on foot, but the chariot was a mark of kingly state permitted only to the highest. It will be noticed that the *ovation*—though much misquoted in our day—was only a secondary honor; it took its name from the sheep (*ovus*) which was sacrificed at the end of the ceremony in the

temple of the Latin Jupiter on the Alban Mount; while a Triumph was ended by a more costly sacrifice of oxen in the temple of the Roman Jupiter on the Capitoline Hill.

The victorious chief must wait without the walls until the senate decreed him the honor of a Triumph; and until a special vote of the people had continued his military command within the limits of the city; for, without this, it must be laid down on entering the gates. On the appointed day, he was met at the Triumphal Gate by the senate and all the magistrates in their most magnificent apparel. Taking the lead of the procession, they were followed by a band of trumpeters and a train of wagons laden with the spoils of the conquered countries (§ 230), which were indicated by tablets inscribed in large letters with their names. Models, in wood or ivory, of the captured cities; pictures of mountains, rivers, or other natural features of the region subdued; loads of gold, silver, precious stones, vases, statues; and whatever was most rich, curious, or admirable in the spoils of temples and palaces made an important part of the display (see note 2, Ch. XVI). Then came a band of flute-players preceding the white oxen destined for sacrifice, the horns of the oxen being gilded and adorned with wreaths of flowers and fillets of white wool. Elephants, or other strange animals from the conquered countries, were followed by a train of captive princes or generals, with their families, and a crowd of captives of inferior rank loaded with fetters.

Then came the twelve victors of the "Triumphator" in single file, their fasces (note 1) wreathed with laurel; and lastly, the general himself in his circular chariot drawn by four white horses. His robes glistened with golden embroidery; he bore a scepter; and his head was crowned with Delphic laurel. A slave standing behind him held a diadem of Etruscan gold; he was instructed to whisper from time to time in his master's ear, "Remember that thou art but a man." Behind the general rode his sons and lieutenants, and then came the entire army—their spears adorned with laurel—who either chanted hymns of praise, or amused themselves and the bystanders with coarse jokes and doggerel verses at their general's expense. This rude license of speech was thought to prevent the injurious effects of overmuch flattery, which the Romans, like the modern Italians, were taught especially to dread. All the people, in gala-dress, thronged the streets, and every temple and shrine were adorned with flowers.

As a terrible contrast to the joy of the day, just as the procession had nearly finished its course to the capital, some of the captured chiefs were led aside and put to death. That the noble Pontius suffered this fate, is one of the greatest blots upon the honor of Rome. A little more than a century later, Jugurtha, after walking in chains in the triumph of Marius (§ 220), was cast into the lower dungeon of the same Mamertine prison to perish of hunger. The execution of the victims having been announced, the sacrifices were offered in the temple of the Capitoline Jupiter; the laurel crown of the general was placed as a votive offering in the lap of the image; a magnificent banquet was served; and the "Triumphator" was escorted home late at night by a throng of citizens bearing torches and pipes. The state presented him with a site for a house, and, at the entrance to this triumphal mansion, a laurel-wreathed statue of its founder perpetuated the memory of his glory to his latest descendants.

5. **Pyrrhus** greatly admired the many virtues of the Romans, and, in reviewing his prisoners, is said to have exclaimed, "If I had soldiers like these, I would conquer the world." Hoping to make peace with the senate, he refused to ransom or exchange the multitude of captives whom he held, but he allowed them all to return to Rome for their winter holidays—the Saturnalia—on their simple promise to return if the government refused a treaty. The senate refused, and every man returned.

In military genius, Pyrrhus was undoubtedly the greatest leader of his age, and Hannibal is even said to have ranked him second only to Alexander (see p. 127, note 3.) Expelled from his kingdom at the age of seventeen, he distinguished himself in the wars of Alexander's generals (§ 167), and, in a few years, not only regained his own dominion, but conquered all Macedonia; of this, however, he was deprived by his treacherous ally, Lysimachus. By his Italian expedition he gained nothing but a great name in history.

CHAPTER XIV.

ROMAN REPUBLIC, CONTINUED—PUNIC WARS.



Hannibal Crossing the Alps.

HAVING conquered Italy, Rome was now to come into collision with the great Republic of Carthage, on the opposite coast of the Mediterranean. The island of Sicily was the object of dispute. The Romans, like the Spartans, despised commerce, and had few ships, their wars having hitherto been upon land; but they prepared, with great spirit, to meet Carthage upon her own element. A Carthaginian war-vessel, wrecked on their coast, served them for a model; in two months they had a fleet of 100 ships, and in their very first sea-fight gained a decisive victory. A second

and third were equally successful, and the consuls now invaded Africa, laying waste the rich lands about Carthage with fire and sword, B. C. 256.

207. One half the victorious army returned to Rome on the approach of winter, while Reg'ulus,¹ one of the consuls, remained, and, for a time, carried all before him. Multitudes of towns fell into his power, and Carthage itself might have been starved into submission, but for the arrival of Xanthip'pus, a Spartan general, and an army of Greek hirelings. With this timely aid, the Carthaginians were at length able to defeat and capture Regulus. The fleet, which was carrying home the shattered remnant of the Roman force, was wrecked in a storm, and the Sicilian coast was strewn with the remains of 260 ships and 100,000 men. Nevertheless, Roman courage never wavered, and a few years later, Metel'us gained a brilliant victory over the Carthaginians at Panor'mus. A hundred elephants made part of the triumphal procession which attended his return to Rome.

208. The next eight years were full of disasters to Rome. Hamilcar Barca, father of the great Hannibal, ravaged the coasts of Italy, and there was no Roman leader of equal genius to oppose him. At length her wealthy citizens rallied all their forces, and fitted out a fleet with which the consul Luta'tius gained a decisive victory among the Ægu'sæ. The exhausted Carthaginians, disheartened by this reverse, now agreed to surrender Sicily and all the neighboring islands, pay 2000 talents (\$2,500,000), and release all Roman prisoners without ransom. The First Punic War had lasted nearly 24 years (B. C. 264-241).

209. In the interval which followed, Rome seized Sardinia and Corsica, and, by a three years' war, conquered Cisalpine Gaul. The latter was planted with Roman colonies; but the three islands, Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica,

were organized into *provinces*—the first examples of the system of government by which Rome afterward managed her immense foreign possessions. The consuls, on completing their term of office, divided the provinces between them; and each exercised, in his own province, both civil and military command. One tenth of the whole produce of these countries went as tribute to Rome, beside a duty of one-twentieth on all imports and exports. The fertile fields of Sicily became the granaries of Rome, while the forests of Corsica afforded abundant materials for her fleets.

210. If Carthage had seemed to submit, it was only for a time. Her great general, Ham'ilcar,² foreseeing a renewal of the war, devoted all his energy to the conquest of Spain, and, at his death, left B. C. 236-228. to his son-in-law, Has'drubal, the task of improving the resources of that rich country. Hasdrubal built towns, fostered trade and tillage, drilled the natives into soldiers, and, by working the newly found silver-mines, laid up an ample treasure for the coming war. Han'nibal, son of Hamilcar, had meanwhile grown to manhood. When only nine years old, he had sworn, at his father's command, an oath of eternal hatred to Rome; and a youth spent in the Spanish wars had only strengthened this feeling, while it developed and trained his wonderful genius.

211. Placed at the head of the army,³ Hannibal first made sure of his power over Spain, and then deliberately sought a quarrel with Rome, which led to the Second Punic War. The Romans expected him to cross the sea to the western coast of Italy; but Hannibal surprised them by a far bolder movement. Crossing the Ebro and the Pyrenees, with an army of 90,000 foot, 12,000 horse, and many elephants, he marched through the friendly tribes of southern Gaul; climbed the snowy Alps, fighting his way against hosts of enemies, as well as the mightier

forces of nature; and descended upon the plain of the Po, attended by scarcely more than one fourth of the mighty army with which, in the spring of 218 B. C., he had set out from Carthage.

212. The Cisalpine Gauls hailed him as a deliverer; and in three great battles he routed the best and bravest of the Roman soldiery. Fa'bius was now made Dictator, with unlimited powers. Seeing the impossibility of defeating Hannibal in battle, he tried to weary him with harassing marches, cutting off his stragglers and supply-trains while refusing to fight. But the Romans murmured at this "Fabian policy;" and the consuls, listening at length to their demands for a battle, led a great army B. C. 216. to Cannæ, only to suffer the most overwhelming defeat that Rome ever knew. One consul, 80 senators, and nearly 50,000 men lay dead upon the field. All southern Italy, except the garrisoned towns, submitted to Hannibal. The kings of Macedon and Syracuse allied themselves with Carthage, and for fourteen years Hannibal maintained his footing in the peninsula.

213. The two Scip'ios, Cne'ius and Pub'lius, meanwhile managed the Roman interests in Spain with great skill, and prevented reinforcements from reaching Hannibal. When, at last, his brother came to his relief, he was defeated and slain near the Metau'rus. Hannibal B. C. 207. held out four years longer in the mountain-fastness of Bruttium; but at last the younger Scipio,⁴ son of Publius, conducted an army into Africa, and the Carthaginians were compelled to recall their great general. The final battle was fought at Za'ma; the power of B. C. 202. Carthage was overthrown; and, in the peace which followed, she was compelled to surrender Spain and all her island settlements, with her fleets and elephants, and to engage, beside paying a yearly tribute, to make no war without the permission of Rome.

GROWTH OF ROMAN FREEDOM.

1. The "Good Laws" of Servius Tullius . . . B. C. 578-534.
2. Expulsion of Kings; two Praetors elected . . . 510.
3. Secession of Plebeians; Tribunes of the People
elected 494-
4. First AGRARIAN LAW divides State Lands . . . 486.
5. PUBLILIAN LAW gives Plebeians the right to elect
their own Magistrates 471.
6. Laws of the TWELVE TABLES; Consuls chosen
by the whole people 449.
7. Right of Intermarriage between Patricians and
Plebeians 444-
8. LICINIAN LAWS relieve the poverty and distress
which follow the Gallic Invasion, by abating
usury, re-dividing public lands, and admitting
one Plebeian Consul 366.
9. HORTENSIAN LAWS distribute the Sabine Lands . . . 286.
10. AGRARIAN LAWS of Tiberius and Caius Gracchus
lighten burdens of soldiers and common peo-
ple, and favor plebeian merchants and bankers . . . 133-121.

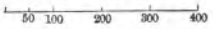




THE ROMAN EMPIRE

IN ITS GREATEST EXTENT.

Scale of Miles.



Greenwich. 35 40 50

SARMATIA

Boths

Danube R.

HUNN

Volga R.

CASPIAN SEA

Sea of Azov

CRIMEA

Black SEA (EUXINE)

Dacia

Moesia

Dardania

Thrace

Byzantium

Nicomedia

Phrygia

Pontus and Bithynia

Armenia

Albania

Asia

Galatia

Cappadocia

Cilicia

Armenia

Mesopotamia

Media

Cyprus

Cyrenaica

Egypt

Arabia Deserta

Arabia Felix

Red Sea

Antioch

Damascus

Palmyra

Jerusalem

Joppa

Tyre

Beirut

Ascalon

Gaza

Heliopolis

Pelusium

Sais

Memphis

Abydos

Thebes

Berenice

Elephantine

Syene

Mount Ararat

Mount Sinai

Ctesiphon

Babylon

Cunaxa

Nineveh

Solera

Tigris R.

Euphrates R.

Adrianople

Nice

Ipsus

Magnesia

Sardis

Styria

Corinth

Thessalonica

Philippi

Thrace

Crete

35 40 50

30 40

INCREASE OF ROMAN TERRITORY.

<i>Roma Quadrata</i> on the Palatine Mount	B. C. 753.
The "Seven Hills," inclosed by wall of Servius Tullius	578-534
Conquest of Latium	338.
" " the Æquian lands	304.
" " the Samnites and Sabines	290.
" " Umbria and Etruria; Italian Peninsula subject to Rome	266.
" " Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica	241-238.
" " Carthaginian possessions in Spain	206.
" " Cisalpine Gaul	201-191.
" " Macedonia and Greece	168-146.
" " Carthaginian possessions in Africa	146.
" " Spain, completed	133.
Pergamus becomes the Roman "Province of Asia"	130.
Bithynia conquered, 74; Cilicia, 67, 66; Syria	65.
Paphlagonia and Palestine, 63; Pontus	62.
Conquest of Gaul completed by Cæsar	58-51.
Egypt becomes a Roman province	30.
Conquest of Britain	{ B. C. 55- A. D. 79.
" " Dacia (Roumania and Transylvania) "	106.
" " Mesopotamia	115.

214. Scipio, now called Africa'nus, in honor of his victory, was welcomed at Rome with a magnificent triumph (§207, note). Rome rewarded her veteran soldiers with the confiscated lands of the Italian nations who had aided Hannibal; then turned her attention to the East, where Antiochus the Great (§170) had welcomed the great Carthaginian to his court, and seemed to be challenging a contest. The battle of Magnesia, B. C. 190, destroyed his hopes, and made the opening scene of Roman conquests in Asia. A war with Macedon ended in the captivity of the last of her kings (§177), and Rome was now acknowledged as the leading power in the whole civilized world.

215. Carthage, her disarmed and humbled victim, was only awaiting her doom. Ca'to,^b the sternest of the Roman statesmen, never ended a speech in the Senate without the words, "Carthage must be destroyed." To prolong their existence, the Carthaginians submitted to the most unreasonable demands; but, when ordered to destroy their beloved city and remove to a new site away from the sea, they refused with one voice. Then began a four-years' war, in which the sole operation was the siege and defense of Carthage. Night and day every man, woman, and child toiled at the defenses of the city. A new fleet was built in the blockaded port, and a channel was cut through the land to enable it to reach the sea. Two thousand shields or weapons were made every day in the arsenal, and the women gave their long hair for bowstrings. When at last the Romans forced an entrance to the city, they had to fight their way, house by house and street by street. Fires were kindled in all directions; and when, after 17 days, the flames were arrested, only heaps of ashes remained of the homes of 700,000 human beings.

216. The lands of Carthage became the Roman "Province of Africa." The same year Corinth, also, was destroyed (§178), and Greece became the "Province of Achaia."

War was still going on in Spain,⁶ where the town of Numantia withstood a long siege with heroic courage. It was starved into surrender, 133 B. C.; and at length the whole peninsula, except the Asturias, submitted, and was divided into three provinces, Hither and Farther Spain, and Lusitania, now Portugal. All southern Europe, with an important part of Africa, was now subject to Rome; and in Egypt and Asia Minor many client-states owned her power and begged her protection. The relation of Rome to Egypt, Pergamus, Judæa, etc., was much like that of a proud patrician to his dependents whom he fed and domineered over, while permitting no other person to injure them. See Ch. XII, note 2.

Trace, on Map 5, the march of Hannibal from Spain. Point out Cannæ, the Metaurus, Magnesia, Carthage, Tunis, Panormus (now Palermo), Corsica, Sardinia, Sicily.

Mommsen is the best authority for this and the following periods. Arnold's History of Rome was, unhappily, left unfinished in the midst of the events described in this chapter.

NOTES.

1. **Regulus** was sent to Rome in company with the Carthaginian ambassadors who were to offer terms of peace. He was to return if the terms were rejected, and the inhuman cruelty of the Carthaginians (§83) in dealing with their prisoners, was well known. Nevertheless, Regulus strongly urged the senate not to make peace, and reluctantly they yielded to his arguments, for they would gladly have purchased his life by some concession, though, of course, no one dreamed of his violating his promise to return. He went to Carthage, and suffered, it is said, a most painful death at the hands of his disappointed captors.

2. **Hamilcar** had commanded in Sicily during the First Punic War, and defended himself successfully for five years against the Romans. He was the leader of the popular party in Carthage, where, in the interval between the two wars, he put down a formidable revolt of the mercenary troops.

"Before departing for Spain, the general performed a solemn sacrifice to propitiate the gods for the success of his enterprise. The omens were declared favorable. Hamilcar had poured the libation on the victim, which was duly offered on the altar, when, on a sudden, he desired all his officers and the ministers of the sacrifice to step aside to a little distance, and then called his son Hannibal. Hannibal, a boy of nine years old, went up to his father, and Hamilcar asked him kindly if he would like to go with him to the war. The boy eagerly caught at the offer, and, with a child's earnestness, implored his father to take him. Then Hamilcar took him by the hand and led him up to the altar, and bade him, if he wished to follow his father, lay his hand upon the sacrifice and swear that he would never be the friend of the Ro-

mans. Hannibal swore, and never to his latest hour forgot his vow. He went forth devoted to his country's gods, as the appointed enemy and destroyer of their enemies; and the thought of his high calling dwelt ever on his mind, directing and concentrating the spirit and enthusiasm of his youth, and mingling with it the forecast, the great purposes, and the deep and unwavering resolution of the maturest manhood.

"The story of his solemn vow was told by Hannibal himself, many years afterwards, to Antiochus, king of Syria (see § 214); but, at the time, it was heard by no other ears than his father's; and, when he sailed with Hamilcar to Spain, none knew that he went with any feelings beyond the common, light-hearted curiosity of a child. But the Romans viewed Hamilcar's expedition with alarm, and were probably well aware that he would brook his country's humiliation only so long as he was unable to avenge it."—*Arnold's History of Rome*, pp. 450, 460.

Hamilcar was killed in battle B. C. 229.

3. Hannibal was probably born B. C. 247, and was scarcely 26 years of age, when, on the death of his brother-in-law, Hasdrubal, the will of the soldiers, confirmed by the government in Carthage, placed him at the head of the forces in Spain. In two campaigns he subdued the Spanish tribes that were hostile to his rule; then, in the spring of 219 B. C., laid siege to Saguntum, a city in alliance with Rome. Its resistance was long and desperate, but in eight months Hannibal was master of the place. His march from Carthage to Italy occupied five months, of which only fifteen days were spent in passing the Alps. On the left bank of the Trebia, he met a Roman army of greatly superior numbers to his own, and routed it with heavy loss. All the Gauls now declared in his favor, and he wintered in security while filling up his broken ranks with recruits that pressed in from every side. His second encounter with the Romans was in a narrow pass between Lake Thrasymenus and a rocky declivity of the Apennines. Here his victory was more complete than before. Thousands of Romans, including the Consul Flaminius, fell by the sword; thousands perished in the lake, and 15,000 remained as prisoners in Hannibal's camps. Of these, he dismissed all the Italian allies, without ransom, hoping to separate their people from Roman influence. His third great battle was at Cannæ; and if, after his victory, he had marched directly upon Rome, it seems probable that he might have put a triumphant end to the war. But he waited for reinforcements which never came, and it is said that his veterans were rendered less warlike by the luxury of their winter in Capua. Hannibal's energy never flagged; appearing suddenly in the most unexpected quarters, he bewildered the Romans by the swiftness of his movements; and not only throughout Italy, but in Macedonia, Sicily, and Africa, he was the soul of the great contest.

When, after the battle of Zama, Hannibal saw all his labor of twenty years set at naught, he only set himself to find means of renewing hostilities with Rome. As chief magistrate of Carthage, he effected reforms in the finances and other departments of the government; but, in so doing, he enraged the opposite party, and was at length compelled to flee from his native city. He was received with great honor by Antiochus III., of Syria, who was glad to employ him as a commander, but failed to profit by his advice. One condition demanded by the Romans in making peace with Antiochus, B. C. 190, was the surrender of Hannibal; but the great general was warned in time, and took refuge with the king of Bithynia. Seven years later, the Romans sent an embassy to demand him, and, seeing that escape was hopeless, he put an end to his life by poison.

Plutarch says that Hannibal and Scipio once met at the court of Antiochus, in Ephesus, and had a friendly discussion concerning military rank. Hannibal declared that Alexander was the greatest general the world had ever seen, Pyrrhus the second, and himself the third. Scipio smiled and said, "But in what rank would you have placed yourself if you had conquered me?" "O Scipio," was the reply, "then I would have ranked myself not third, but first."

4. To the Scipios more than to any other family Rome is said to have been indebted for her conquest of the whole Mediterranean world. Four of the family bore the surname *Asiaticus*, on account of their suc-

cesses in the East; and an equal number, that of *Africanus*; but the conqueror of Hannibal is regarded as the greatest man Rome ever produced, with the exception of Julius Cæsar. He never engaged in any important business without first preparing his mind by prayer in the temple on the Capitoline Mount. At the age of 24 (B. C. 210), he was appointed to the command of the Roman forces in Spain, and distinguished himself by the capture of Carthagena and all its stores of arms and food. The next year he gained a brilliant victory over Hasdrubal, the brother of Hannibal, and, in a few years, less by fighting than by his personal influence, he had won all Spain to obedience to Rome. His energy and courage were fully equaled by his generosity and courtesy toward all who fell into his power; and the Spanish people even wished to make him their king. Returning to Italy, he was unanimously chosen consul for the year 205 B. C., and earnestly desired to carry the war into Africa; but the senate, jealous of the successes of so young a general, refused him an army. They could not, however, prevent his being joined by volunteers, and so many young men from the allied towns flocked to his standard, that he soon had a great force, both on land and sea. His success in Africa has been told in the text. On his return to Italy, in 201 B. C., the delight of the people at their deliverance from the long terror in which Hannibal had held them, broke forth in extravagant demonstrations. They would even have made him consul and dictator for life, and would have placed his statue in the temple of the Capitoline Jupiter. But Scipio knew the jealousy of the senate, and refused these marks of honor, only accepting the surname *Africanus* in memory of his chief victory. He afterwards distinguished himself both in war and negotiations against Antiochus III., at whose court he is said to have met Hannibal (see note 3). These two men were noble enough to recognize each other's greatness, and Scipio was the only Roman senator who opposed the mean persecutions by which his countrymen showed their fear of the great Carthaginian. He is said to have died in the same year as Hannibal and Philopœmen, B. C. 183.

4. Cato the Censor, or the Elder, was of plebeian family, and was born at Tusculum, among the Sabine hills, B. C. 234. In his youth he served against Hannibal, and to the end of his life he was the most relentless foe of Carthage. In the intervals of war he worked on his farm, and, though he afterwards became celebrated as an orator in Rome, he always prided himself on retaining the plain and simple habits of his boyhood. His talents were first recognized while he was pleading the causes of his poorer neighbors in the courts. He was invited to Rome, and soon rose high in office. He bitterly opposed the Greek tastes and luxurious manners, which, with increasing wealth, had become fashionable among his countrymen; and, when elected Censor (*i. e.*, keeper of the public morals) in 184 B. C., his attempt to force his own sober and frugal style of living upon the patricians, occasioned great discontent. Still, he was generally respected as a model of old-fashioned Roman virtue.

His great-grandson, "Cato the Younger," was one of the most determined opponents of Cæsar, and killed himself when opposition proved to be hopeless.

6. "Spain was the only one of the great countries of Europe where the mass of the people were not of the Aryan stock (see note 1, p. 16). The greater part of the land was still held by the *Iberians*, as a small part is even now by their descendants, the Basques. But, in the central part of the peninsula, Celtic tribes had pressed in, and we have seen that there were some Phœnician colonies in the south, and some Greek colonies on the east coast. In the time between the First and Second Punic Wars, Hamilcar, Hasdrubal, and Hannibal had won all Spain for Carthage. But during the Second Punic War, between the years 211 and 206, the Carthaginian territories in Spain were all won for Rome by the Scipios. Spain has always been a hard country to conquer, and the Romans had constant wars with the native tribes. Still we may look on the Roman dominion in Spain as finally established in B. C. 133, when the younger Scipio took Numantia. From this time all Spain was a Roman province, except some of the mountainous parts in the north, where native tribes still remained free."—*Freeman's "General Sketch,"* pp. 68, 69.

CHAPTER XV.

ROMAN REPUBLIC, CONTINUED—CIVIL WARS.



Roman Soldier.

A CENTURY of internal conflict ends the history of the Roman Republic. The strife between patricians and plebeians was long ago ended; but in its place had arisen a grinding, ignoble jealousy between the rich and the poor. Rome was a "commonwealth of millionaires and beggars." Many rich proprietors held four times the amount of public lands to which the law entitled them; and, instead of hiring free labor, preferred to cultivate by means of gangs of slaves who could be bought cheap after every Roman victory. These slaves, often the

equals of their masters but for misfortune in war,—strong, intelligent, and trained to the use of arms—constituted one of the greatest dangers to which Rome was now exposed.

218. In the year 133, B. C., Tibe'rius Grac'chus,¹ Tribune of the People, brought forward a bill for a re-distribution of the state lands, limiting the patricians, as before, to 500 *jugera* (about 312 acres), and dividing the remainder into homesteads for the poor. His fellow-tribune, Octa'vius, vetoed the bill; but Tiberius moved the people to depose him, and the Agrarian Law was passed. Other propositions followed, designed to raise up a middle-class of peasants, which would prevent collision between the two extremes of society. But the wrath of the wealthy class was now excited, and Tiberius was murdered on the steps of the Capitol.

219. His younger and yet abler brother,² Ca'ius Grac'chus, became Tribune of the People, B. C. 124. He provided for the hungry crowd by forming new colonies, not only in Italy, but beyond the seas, and by building immense granaries at Rome, whence the government dealt out wheat at less than half price to all who chose to apply for it. The first of these measures was wise and beneficent; the second was very dangerous, for it drew into Rome a thriftless crowd from all the country, and there were never wanting leaders whose wicked ambition made use of these people for their own ends—sometimes for the destruction of the state. Caius Gracchus lost his life in a popular tumult; 250 of his followers fell with him, and 3000 were strangled in prison by order of the Senate.*

220. Roman virtue, if not dead, was in a fatal decline.

A war with Jugur'tha—an African prince, B. C. 110-109, who had murdered two heirs to the kingdom of Numidia in order to seat himself on its throne—brought to light the disgraceful fact that even senators and consuls would sell themselves for gold. One general made a dishonorable peace, and another, with his whole army, passed under the yoke (§ 201). At this humiliating crisis, when neither great wealth nor noble birth escaped reproach Caius Ma'rius, a Latin farmer's son, was made consul and entrusted with the war in Africa. Among his officers was Corne'lius Sul'la, a young patrician, of dissolute character,

*The noble character of the Gracchi was due, in great measure, to their mother, Cornelia, a daughter of Scipio Africanus. Their father died when they were very young, and Cornelia, refusing all the lures of ambition—among others a royal crown—devoted herself to the training of her boys. She lived to see both of their young lives sacrificed for the good of their country; and, though the Senate forbade her to mourn for them, a grateful people afterwards placed upon her tomb the proudest of inscriptions: "*Cornelia, the Mother of the Gracchi.*"

but great ability, to whose tact and bravery the capture of Jugurtha was due. That wily prince was starved to death in a Roman dungeon, B. C. 106.

221. Marius, in violation of the law, was reëlected to the consulship five successive years. Italy was trembling at the approach of two great hordes of barbarians from beyond the Danube, who had destroyed a Roman army of 80,000 men at Arausio, on the Rhone, and now threatened the peninsula. The Teutones were to enter Italy from Roman Gaul, while the Cimbri were to pass through Switzerland and descend upon the Lombard plain to the eastward. Marius and Sulla hastened to meet them, and gained a victory at Aix, which ended in the total destruction of the Teutones. The next spring the Cimbri were defeated at Vercellæ, and 60,000 captives were sent to the slave-markets of Rome. B. C. 102.

222. The danger arising from so numerous and warlike a slave-class (§ 217) was already felt in Sicily. In the First Servile War (B. C. 134-132), 200,000 rebels were in arms; and the Second, which broke out B. C. 102, taxed for three years the best Roman generals. It was suppressed B. C. 99; but the masters did not soon forget their terror.

223. Another peril threatened Rome from her Italian allies, who, disappointed in the hope of full "Roman rights," which Caius Gracchus had wished to give them, formed a federal Republic by themselves, and defeated several armies which were sent to subdue them. Rome gained peace only by yielding to the just demands of the states. All the Italians were admitted to full Roman citizenship; the "Latin right" (§ 205) being reserved for Spaniards and other provincials—and so the "Social War" was ended.

224. A furious contest, which now arose between Marius and Sulla for the command in a war against Pontus,³ ended by making Sulla master of Rome and driving Marius into

exile. But when Sulla had departed for the East, Marius returned. By capturing the corn-fleets from Sicily and Africa, he starved Rome into surrender, and proceeded to massacre all who were opposed to him. But he died on the eighteenth day of his seventh consulship, and Sulla, returning with his victorious army, soon turned the tables.

225. In five campaigns he had brought the Pontic War to a triumphant conclusion, and had recovered the revolted provinces of Achaia, Macedonia, and Asia. He came laden with treasure and followed by a devotedly attached soldiery, with whom he many times defeated the "Marians" and established a new Reign of Terror at Rome. Six thousand soldiers were massacred by his order; new "proscription-lists" were published every day, and the streets flowed with blood.

226. Sulla was made Dictator, with unlimited power; and he now tried, with some show of reason, to restore at once the simple virtues and the patrician rule which had belonged to the early days of the Republic. But, though aristocratic government was restored for a time, Roman virtue was dead; and Rome, enslaved by luxury, could no longer hope to escape an outward servitude, whenever her master should appear. At the end of three years, Sulla suddenly resigned his power and retired to Puteoli, where he died, B. C. 78.

227. The Romans, though rich and luxurious, were hardly less brutal than the wolves whom tradition made their foster-brothers. Their favorite sport was to see the bravest of their captives fight with wild beasts, or butcher each other in the arena, "to make a Roman holiday." One of these "gladiators," named Spartacus, moved his comrades to revolt; they were joined by enslaved herdsmen from the mountains, so that their number rose, the first year, to 40,000, and the second, to

100,000 men. For two years they defeated all the armies of Rome, and convulsed all Italy with terror; but jealousy divided their forces; Spartacus was defeated and slain by Cras'sus, and the remnant of his followers, attempting to escape northward, were met and destroyed by Pom'pey.

228. This general had been a favorite lieutenant of Sulla; and he had distinguished himself by conquering the remnant of the Marian party in Africa and Spain. He now received the consulship with B. C. 67. Crassus. After its expiration he rendered yet more brilliant services by sweeping the Mediterranean of Cilician pirates, who were ravaging all its coasts; by ending the wars with Pontus and placing that country, as well as Bithynia and Syria, under Roman rule. He captured Jerusalem by a three months' siege, B. C. 63, and established Hyrca'nus as High Priest and ruler of the people.

229. Rome, meanwhile, barely escaped ruin from the corrupt elements within her borders. Cat'iline, a dissolute nobleman, plotted with comrades like himself to murder the consuls, overthrow the government, and assume control of affairs. Plans were laid with great skill and secrecy, and the wicked plot seemed likely to B. C. 63. succeed; but, happily, it became known in time to Cic'ero, the great lawyer and orator, who was then consul, and by his prompt measures it was brought to naught. Catiline fell, fighting at the head of his legions, and most of his accomplices were put to death. Cicero was rewarded by the unbounded gratitude of his fellow-citizens, and by the title, "Father of his Country."

230. Pompey might now have been master of the Roman world; but, to avoid exciting alarm, he disbanded his army as soon as he set foot in Italy, and journeyed privately to Rome. In the triumph (§ 207, note) decreed him by the Senate, he was declared to have conquered 22 kings and 12,000,000 of people, and to have almost doubled the rev-

enues of Rome. Nevertheless, the aristocracy, who had opposed his appointment in Asia, now refused to ratify his acts, or to give lands to his veteran soldiers. Pompey, though by birth and taste an aristocrat, had to ally himself with Ju'lius Cæ'sar, the rising leader of the Marian party, in order to fulfill his pledges to his troops.

231. Crassus, on account of his great wealth, was admitted as a partner in their plans; and the three formed the *First Triumvirate*, which for several years B. C. 60. ruled the Roman world. It was not a magistracy, but a private agreement—what, in modern times, would be called a “Ring.” Cæsar was made consul, and, by dividing the rich Campanian fields among the poorer citizens, satisfied the claims of Pompey's veterans. At the end of his term he chose the government of Gaul (§ 216)—the poorest and most turbulent of all the provinces.

232. Pompey and Crassus became consuls. When their year was out, Pompey went to Spain, and Crassus undertook a war with Parthia—now a vast empire reaching westward to the Euphrates—in the hope of increasing his wealth by the plunder of the Asiatic cities. But he suffered an overwhelming defeat near Car'rhæ, and was treacherously murdered by a Parthian officer, B. C. 53.

233. By swiftness, energy, and good management, Cæsar subdued the Gauls in eight campaigns, beside invading Britain and Germany. In choosing the most difficult of the provincial governments, he had especially wished to train an army which would enable him to carry forward the great scheme which he was maturing. He perceived that the mere city-government which had sufficed for Rome in her poorer days, was unfit for the almost world-wide dominion which she had now attained. He wished to civilize western Europe, give equal rights of Roman citizenship to all the provinces, and make one compact Empire out of so many scattered nationalities.

234. Pompey's friendship was now turned into jealousy and hatred, and with many powerful men at Rome he was plotting Cæsar's destruction. The Senate ordered the whole army in Gaul to be disbanded on a certain day. Cæsar's resolution was quickly taken. Crossing the little river Ru'bicon, which separated his province from Italy, he marched with his devoted legions upon Rome. Pompey retired into Greece; and the nobles following him organized a new Senate at Thessalonica. B. C. 49.

235. Pompey was master of Spain, Africa, and the Eastern provinces, while Cæsar had only Italy, Illyricum, and Gaul; but the wonderful energy of the latter turned the balance in his favor. His able policy soon restored order and confidence in Italy; then, by a toilsome but decisive campaign of forty days, he conquered the Pompeian party in Spain; and, returning to Rome only long enough to be elected consul and pass some laws giving relief to debtors and proscribed persons, he pressed on into Greece, where the great decisive combat took place at Pharsalia in Thessaly. Pompey was defeated, and, fleeing into Egypt, was murdered by an officer of Ptolemy, B. C. 48.

236. His party rallied in great force in the province of Africa, but Cæsar defeated them at Thapsus, where 50,000 Pompeians were left dead upon the field. Cæsar was now the acknowledged head of the Roman world. The Senate declared him Dictator and Imperator* for life, with liberty to name his successor. His statues were placed in the temples, and his name was invoked in legal oaths like that of a god. Cæsar used his power in a way that proved his genius to be even greater for govern- B. C. 46.

*This title had often been given by acclamation to successful generals; it now acquired a special meaning equivalent to the modern *Emperor*. Cæsar's name has also given to three great empires their title for the highest dignitary: *Kaiser* and *Czar*.

ment than for war. Instead of the proscriptions and massacres which had followed the return of Marius and Sulla (§§ 224, 225), amnesty to all was his policy. He seemed to have forgotten the injuries which he had personally received, and sought out men of merit in all parties to aid him in the restoration of order and prosperity.

237. He reformed the calendar,⁴ which had fallen into great confusion, and with such wisdom that it has needed only one slight amendment from his time to our own. He planned great works of public utility for Rome, while he equally studied the interests of every part of his vast empire. He rebuilt the cities of Corinth and Carthage, and founded many new colonies in Europe, Asia, and Africa, giving to all the people as nearly as possible the same privileges as to those of Italy. Yet all these works and many more were accomplished in the intervals of seven toilsome campaigns, which he conducted between his crossing the Rubicon and his death—a period of little more than five years.

238. Cæsar still had bitter enemies, and they were joined by a few honest Republicans, who believed that the one-man power had destroyed Roman freedom. On the eve of his departure for Asia—where he meant to punish the

B. C. 44.

Parthians for the fate of Crassus (§ 232)—Cæsar was murdered in the Senate House. But though the Dictator was dead, the Romans were not free. It was easier to destroy one man's life than to restore to the nation the strong and simple character which had been the true foundation of the Republic. The conquests in the East had brought to Italy a crowd of Asiatics, who lowered the tone of Roman society; and, ever since ease and wealth had been regarded by the people at large as of more value than honesty and freedom, the Republic had been doomed. A new *Triumvirate* (§ 231), composed of Mark An'tony, Lep'idus,

and Cæsar Octavia'nus—nephew and heir of the great Dictator—soon divided the world among them. A proscription followed, in which 2,000 knights and 300 senators—among the latter, Cicero,⁵ the Father of his Country—lost their lives. The last of Cæsar's murderers were defeated at Philippi, 42 B. C., and ended their lives by suicide.

239. The Triumvirate was soon broken by the defection of Lepidus, and a quarrel between Antony and Octavian. Antony was enslaved by the arts of the Egyptian queen, Cleopatra (§ 174), on whom he bestowed Syrian territories which belonged to Rome, and for whose sake he forgot both duty and honor. In a great battle off Actium, he was deserted by many of his officers, and fled to Egypt, leaving the victory to Octavian. The next year he was again defeated at Alexandria, and in despair put an end to his own life. Cleopatra followed his example. Egypt was made a province of Rome, and the younger Cæsar was now lord of the world.

B. C. 31.

Point out, on Map 5, the provinces of Cæsar and of Pompey before the battle of Pharsalia, § 235. The site of Crassus' defeat, § 232.—Pharsalia, Thapsus, Philippi, Actium, Gaul, Britain, Germany, Numidia, the Danube, the Rhone, Arausio, Aquæ Sextiæ (Aix), Vercellæ, Puteoli, Thessalonica.

Read Merivale's History of the Romans under the Empire, Forsyth's Life of Cicero, Cæsar's Commentaries, and Mommsen's History of Rome, Vol. IV.

NOTES.

1. **Sempronius Gracchus**, the father of the two Tribunes, was a plebeian, but a distinguished general, and twice a consul, who, in 176 B. C., had conquered the island of Sardinia for Rome. Tiberius Gracchus had served at the capture and destruction of Carthage (§ 215) under his brother-in-law, Scipio Africanus the Younger, and had afterwards distinguished himself in the Numantian war in Spain. The measure which cost him his life, through the violent opposition of the nobles, was only the revival of the Licinian Law (§ 197 and note), which had never been repealed, though completely disregarded.

2. **Caius Gracchus**, while still a youth, had drawn upon himself the jealousy of the aristocracy by his great talents and persuasive eloquence; but during his service in Sardinia he had risen high in the favor of

soldiers and people. As tribune, one of his laws transferred the judicial power from the senate to the equestrian order, and another created the class of great merchants and bankers, hitherto unknown in Rome, by assigning to distinguished plebeians the collection of revenues in the provinces. He himself conducted a colony to Carthage, and, after attending to their establishment, returned in seventy days.

He desired to give the full rights of Roman citizenship to all free Italians. But the senate had now undermined his influence with the people by a stratagem. They induced M. Livius Drusus, the new tribune, to propose still more radical changes, which, however, were never intended to be carried out. Opimius, a bitter enemy to Gracchus, became consul, while the latter descended to a private station, and several of his laws were repealed. Fulvius Flaccus, a rash partisan of Caius, took up arms in his defense, but Caius abstained as far as possible from all violence. He perished in a general massacre, ordered by Opimius, B. C. 121.

3. Pontus, south of the Black Sea, from which it took its name, was one of the kingdoms that had been formed from the fragments of the old Persian Empire. When the "Province of Asia" was organized, Pontus, under its king, Mithridates the Great, became the next neighbor of Rome. Mithridates was an ambitious and able prince, who combined the qualities of a barbarian chief and a European statesman in remarkable proportions. He spoke Greek with fluency, and was equally familiar with the Asiatic dialects of the tribes among which he had passed his wandering and adventurous life. By means of spies he was a keen observer of all that was going on in Rome; and, encouraged by the corruption of the ruling classes, and the dangers arising from slaves and allies, he hoped to make himself undisputed sovereign of the East. He had already annexed the Euxine coast as far as the Crimea, and, "with the help of pirates from the Mediterranean, formed a fleet which gave him complete command of the Black Sea."

"When the news of the Social War reached Mithridates, he thought it needless to temporize longer, and he stretched out his hand to seize the prize of the dominion of the East. . . . He called under arms the whole force of which he could dispose; frightened rumor spoke of it as amounting to 300,000 men. His Corsair fleets poured down through the Dardanelles into the Archipelago; and so detested had the Roman governors made themselves by their extortion and injustice, that not only the islands, but the provinces on the continent, Ionia, Lydia, and Caria, rose in revolt. The rebellion was preconcerted and simultaneous. The Roman residents, merchants, bankers, farmers of the taxes, they and all their families, were set upon and murdered; 150,000 men, women, and children were said to have been destroyed in a single day. If we divide by ten, as it is safe to do in historical round numbers, still beyond doubt the signal had been given in an appalling massacre to abolish out of Asia the Roman name and power. Swift as a thunderbolt, Mithridates himself crossed the Bosphorus, and the next news that reached Rome was that northern Greece had risen also and was throwing itself into the arms of its deliverers."—*Froude's "Cæsar."*

The victories of Sulla deprived the Pontic prince of all his conquests, but left him in possession of his hereditary kingdom. The second Mithridatic War began B. C. 74, and continued ten years, ending with a complete triumph of the Romans under Pompey (§ 228).

"The barbarian king who had so long defied the Roman power, was beaten down at last, and fled across the Black Sea to Kertch, where his sons turned against him. He was sixty-eight years old, and could not wait till the wheel should make another turn." "He had fortified himself against poison until it would no longer take effect; he therefore, "sought a surer death, and fell, like Saul, by the sword of a slave. Rome had put out her real strength, and at once, as before, all opposition went down before her. Asia was completely conquered up to the line of the Euphrates. The Black Sea was held securely by a Roman fleet."—*Ibid.*

4. The Pontiffs (§ 188), who had the care of the calendar, had abused their high office for political purposes, lengthening the term of a favorite consul, or bringing to an abrupt end the power of one who was thwarting their wishes. In this way the civil year had become three months in advance of the real course of the seasons; solstices were in

spring and autumn; and equinoxes, in summer and winter: harvest-festivals took place at the first budding of the leaf; and those of the late vintage, in the midsummer heat. Cæsar used his arbitrary power as *Pontifex Maximus* with better effect and higher motives than his predecessors had done; he added ninety days to the current year, and ordained that three out of four of all succeeding years should contain 365 days, the fourth having 366. He abolished the use of the lunar calculations, which had caused a part of the confusion, and regulated the civil year entirely by the sun. He made the twelve months consist of 30 and 31 days alternately—a more convenient division than the later one, now in use, which was adopted for the purpose of flattering Augustus (§ 241) by making the month known by his name of equal length with the preceding one, which was named from the great Julius. A day was accordingly taken from February and added to *August*; then, to avoid having three long months in succession, September and November were shortened, and October and December lengthened.

Cæsar had planned his reformation of the calendar at Alexandria with the aid of Sosigenes, the astronomer. The civil year was now too long by 11 minutes and 14 seconds. It was set right in A. D. 1582, by Pope Gregory XIII.—also 'Pontifex Maximus at Rome—who suppressed ten days of that year, and whose reformed calendar is now used in every Christian country excepting Russia.

5. **Marcus Tullius Cicero** was born B. C. 106, at Arpinum, seventy miles south-east of Rome. His father is described as a country gentleman in good circumstances, given to literature, residing habitually at his estate on the Liris, and paying occasional visits to the capital. The boy Marcus, by his keen delight in poetry and eloquence, and by his severe and constant study, proved those rare talents which made him afterwards the most illustrious of Roman orators. His education was directed by Archias, the Greek poet, and he became deeply versed in Hellenic literature and philosophy.

He first appeared as an advocate in the Forum—where Roman courts of law were held—at 25 years of age; but his health was so delicate, that he resolved to devote two years to foreign travel, perfecting himself meanwhile in his favorite studies at Athens and Rhodes.

The fame of Cicero was established once for all, by his prosecution of Verres, Roman governor of Sicily, for his cruelty and rapacity. It was a test case, for the extortions of Roman officials were beginning to be felt as a national disgrace. Verres in three years had accumulated nearly four millions of our money—a sum of much greater value than now—of which he expected to spend two thirds in buying a favorable decision from the court which ought to condemn him, and the remaining third would still support him in luxury all his days. The scathing eloquence of Cicero, supported as it was by evidence which he had personally collected in Sicily, overturned the governor's calculations, and, dropping his defense in despair, Verres fled to Marseilles.

Of Cicero's other orations, the most celebrated are those against Cati-line (§ 229), and the fourteen Philippics (so called from the speeches of Demosthenes against Philip of Macedon, § 140) which he pronounced against Antony. Of almost greater value, for the light they throw on the life of his time, are the 800 letters, still existing (see note 7, Ch. XII, B. II), in which, with the confidence of friendship, he poured forth his views of men and things. The only faults of Cicero were the vanity which led him to imagine that the affairs of the Roman world revolved about himself, and a lack of manly sincerity, which, in the contest between Cæsar and Pompey, kept him in a state of painful vacillation. "The gratitude of mankind for his literary excellence, will," it has been truly said, "forever preserve his memory from too harsh a judgment."

His death occurred in the woods of his own beautiful villa at Formiæ, near Gaëta, while his servants were carrying him toward the sea, in a last hope that he might escape. "To his slaves he had always been the gentlest of masters. They would have given their lives in his defense if he would have allowed them; but he bade them set the litter down and save themselves. He thrust his head out between the curtains, and it was instantly struck off."

CHAPTER XVI.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE.



Gladiatorial Combats.

THE history of Imperial Rome will be best understood if divided into four periods:

- I. Nominal Power of the Senate. B. C. 31–A. D. 192.
- II. Tyranny of the Soldiers. A. D. 193–284.
- III. Absolute Imperialism. A. D. 284–395.
- IV. Eastern and Western Empires Divided. A. D. 395–476.

241. Cæsar Octavianus¹ is best known to history by his new title, AUGUSTUS. He carefully avoided all kingly show and parade, though he exercised more than kingly power: living in his private house on the Palatine hill, and walking the streets unattended, like any other citizen. The forms of the republic were still kept up. The people elected consuls, tribunes, etc., every year, but they always chose the persons proposed by Augustus; and at length these offices were, one by one, granted to him for life. The multitude were kept in good humor by a continual succession of games, and by liberal supplies of corn, wine, and oil, dealt out by the Emperor. The Senate passed all the laws which he introduced, and was treated in return with perfect respect.

242. Augustus boasted that he "found Rome of brick, and left it of marble." Commerce and all the industries flourished; the peace of the city was never broken during his reign; and so many great writers enjoyed his protection, that the brightest period of every nation's literature is called, in allusion to them, its "Augustan Age." Among them were Vir'gil, Hor'ace, Ov'id, and other poets, and Liv'y, the first Roman historian.

243. But the chief distinction of the age was little dreamed of by the brilliant circles at Rome. In the twenty-seventh year of Octavian's reign, the long promised Mess'i'ah was born at Bethlehem, in Judæa. Over His cross, thirty-three years later, men read the announcement, "This is the King of the Jews," written in *Hebrew*, and *Greek*, and *Latin*: perhaps a hint of what was meant by the "fullness of times," when the three highest human types, thus far, had reached their perfection in Hebrew religion, Greek intelligence, and Roman law; and the world was waiting for the spiritual kingdom which was to outlast the glories of imperial Rome.

244. The Roman Empire now embraced the whole Mediterranean, with its coasts and islands, from Sahara to the Rhine, Danube, and Euxine, and from the Atlantic to the Euphrates. Its 27 provinces were divided by Augustus between himself and the Senate. Those which were securely at peace were called Senatorial Provinces, and governed by proconsuls; those which needed the presence of an army were Imperial Provinces, managed by the emperor or his legates. The standing army, which kept this vast dominion in awe, consisted of 25 legions; each legion, in horse, foot, and artillery, numbered nearly 7,000 men. Beside these, the provinces furnished an equal number of auxiliary troops, so that the emperor had at his command not fewer than 350,000 soldiers. These do not include the "City Cohorts," an armed police, who

kept order in Rome, nor the 10,000 Prætorian Guards, who protected the person of the emperor.

245. The only military disaster of Augustus' reign was the destruction of three legions in Germany, putting an end to Roman conquests north of the Rhine.

B. C. 9. The victor was Her'man²—the Romans called him Armin'ius—the first great champion of German independence. Modern Germany has lately honored him by a colossal statue on the site of his great victory.

246. Augustus died, A. D. 14, and the Senate conferred his titles upon his adopted son, Tibe'rius. The army would gladly have crowned German'icus, its favorite general, the nephew and adopted son of Tiberius, but Germanicus refused the honor. The new emperor never forgave him for being more beloved than himself: he recalled him from Germany, when he was on the point of reconquering it, and sent him to the East, where he was probably poisoned by order of the emperor. Tiberius was suspicious of all abler and better men than himself; but as he could not govern alone, he raised a low-lived man named Seja'nus to the post of prætorian præfect, and committed the empire to his disposal.

247. The new laws of Tibe'rius destroyed the last remains of popular government in Rome. He assumed the right to put any person to death without trial; and placed on the list of capital crimes words or even thoughts unfavorable to himself. At length he detected Sejanus in a plot against his life, and, with the just execution of that minister, he lost the only man whom he ever trusted. Thenceforth the best and noblest persons in Rome fell victims of his jealousy; and the world breathed more freely when it heard of the sudden death of Tiberius, A. D. 37.

248. Army and people gladly united in putting the purple robe upon Caius Cæsar, the only surviving son of Germanicus. In his childhood he had been the pet of his

father's soldiers, and, from the little military boots which he wore to please them, he acquired the nickname *Calig'ula*, which has always clung to him. He began well, but, soon spoiled by too much power and wealth, he became the maddest of tyrants. He demanded to be worshiped as a god; he rejoiced in the death-agonies of victims slain for his amusement, and wished that all the Roman people had only one head, that he might chop it off at a single blow!

249. After four years, Caius was murdered by his guards, and his uncle Clau'dius, a weak old man, became emperor. His reign is chiefly marked by the evil deeds of his wives, Mes'sali'na and Ag'rippi'na. The latter persuaded him to disinherit his own son, and name hers by a former marriage as his heir; then poisoned him, to make way for the accession of Ne'ro. A. D. 41-54.

250. Nero's tutor was Sen'eca,³ a wise and upright philosopher; but as soon as the new Cæsar was old enough to assume power for himself, he proved a wicked tyrant. He murdered his mother, his wife, and the best of his ministers and generals. He is said to have ordered the kindling of a fire which destroyed two thirds of Rome; but he charged it upon the Christians, multitudes of whom were burnt to death as a punishment. To do him justice, he rebuilt Rome on a greatly improved plan, both for health and safety. Instead of narrow, crooked streets, there were ample thoroughfares; and every house had an abundant supply of water. A. D. 64.

251. At length Roman patience was exhausted by the vanity and tyranny of Nero; and Galba was chosen to succeed him. Knowing that resistance would be vain, Nero killed himself, and with him ended the descendants—even by adoption—of the great Julius, though the names of *Cæsar* and *Augustus* were retained as titles by all succeeding emperors. After three short reigns, each ended by violence, the general, Vespa'- A. D. 68.

sian, assumed the purple robe of Augustus, and soon restored order and prosperity to the Empire. Rome was adorned by the Coliseum and the Temple of Peace; Britain submitted to Roman rule; and the Jewish War of Independence was ended by the capture and destruction of Jerusalem.

252. Vespasian was succeeded by his son Titus, the conqueror of Jerusalem.⁴ He was a brave and able soldier; but his earlier years had been so stained by cruelty and excesses that the people feared they were to have another Nero for their ruler. On the death of his father, however, Titus sent away all his bad associates, and set himself diligently to the duties of his high place. During his short reign of little more than two years, he did all that wise liberality could do to repair the calamities of fire, pestilence, and earthquake, which afflicted Rome.

A. D. 79-81. It was at this time that Herculaneum and Pompeii, beautiful Campanian towns, were suddenly destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius. Domitian, a brother of Titus, was the next emperor. He proved himself a morose and cruel tyrant, and was murdered by his guards, A. D. 96.

253. Five good emperors,—Nerva, Trajan,⁵ Hadrian, and the two Antonines,—followed in turn. Trajan (A. D. 98-117) was not only a great general, but a wise, just, and painstaking ruler. He carefully studied all causes which were brought before him; wrote letters to the provincial governors to aid them in difficult cases; lightened the taxes, and yet managed so well as to have means for many useful works. The emperors had hitherto respected the dying advice of Augustus, to regard the Rhine, the Danube, and the Euphrates (§ 244) as the limits of their dominion. Trajan, however, conquered Dacia, Armenia, Assyria, and Mesopotamia. The first continued to be a Roman province, guarded by colonies and forts; but the Asiatic conquests were surrendered by Hadrian.

254. During a peaceful reign of 20 years, Hadrian visited every part of his great empire, which is said to have been better governed at this period than ever before or since. Peace and prosperity continued, however, during the 23 years which followed, under T. Aurelius Antoninus, the first emperor who especially protected the Christians. Marcus Aurelius,⁶ the adopted son and successor of Antoninus, was one of the best characters whom History has portrayed; but his reign was marked by many calamities. Parthians on the East, and Germans on the West, overran the Empire, while 43 years of peace had unfitted the legions for the toils of war. The only exception to the justice and gentleness of the emperor was his persecution of the Christians. This was owing to the bigoted Stoics who were his chief advisers, and who could not bear to see their boasted virtues surpassed by even the humblest disciples of Christ. The venerable bishop, Polycarp, a friend and disciple of St. John, suffered a martyr's death at Smyrna, A. D. 167; and ten years later the churches of Vienne and Lyons, in France, were subjected to frightful massacres. Aurelius labored unceasingly, and often with success, to repel the invaders of his empire, and it was during a war with a German tribe that he died at Vienna, on the Danube, A. D. 180.

A. D. 138-161.

255. His only son, Commodus, was already associate-emperor, at the age of 17. He was one of the worst of the tyrants; and, under his weak and dissolute reign, the very foundations of order and peace seemed broken up. Soldiers obeyed no one, but plundered and ravaged Roman territories at their pleasure, while citizens lived in lazy luxury, unmindful of the poverty which was creeping over the world.

Trace, upon Map 5, the boundaries of the Roman Empire under Augustus. Under Trajan. Read Merivale and Josephus.

NOTES.

1. **Caius Octavius**, who afterwards became, by adoption, **C. Julius Cæsar Octavianus**, was born September 23, B. C. 63. Even in childhood his beauty and talents attracted attention; and his grand-uncle, the great **Julius**, having no son of his own, carefully watched over his education, with a view of making the promising boy his heir. The pride and ambition of Octavius were, doubtless, stimulated by the distinctions that were heaped upon him; but the sudden and rapid changes which he witnessed in public affairs also developed a prudence far beyond his years. He was scarcely nineteen when he heard, at Apollonia, in Illyricum, of the murder of his great-uncle. The soldiers immediately thronged about him, clamoring to be led into Italy and to avenge the death of their Imperator. Octavian quieted them, and journeyed to Rome, as a private person, to claim, in the courts, the property which Cæsar had bequeathed him. Though he made no secret of his intention to avenge his uncle's death, he was careful at this time to commit no offense against the laws. His position was most difficult, for he had to defend himself, not only against the powerful faction that had destroyed the Dictator, but against some of Cæsar's friends, who were ambitious to succeed him in absolute power. Mark Antony refused to give up the money and papers of Cæsar, which were in his possession. Octavian managed, however, with wonderful tact, to gain the favor of the senate and judges, as he had already that of the soldiers and people. Even Cicero, who had opposed the elder Cæsar, now declared that the younger was the only man who could save the republic. Antony was pronounced a public enemy, and the conduct of the war against him was intrusted to Octavian, together with the two consuls. But Octavian, with his usual coolness, now perceived that the senate was losing power, and would not long be able to resist the combined armies of Lepidus and Antony. He listened, therefore, to the mediation of Lepidus—a trusted officer of the elder Cæsar, and once his colleague in the consulship—and, in a conference with him and Antony at Bologna, became a member of the triumvirate (§ 238). The most disgraceful feature of this agreement was the proscription, in which each of the partners sacrificed some of his nearest friends to the vengeance of the other two. Lepidus wrote the name of his own brother in the fatal list; and Octavian consented to the death of Cicero—the most illustrious survivor of the great age of the republic—to satisfy Antony's implacable hatred. Of the foreign provinces of Rome, it was agreed that Antony should govern Gaul; Lepidus, Spain; and Octavian, Sicily, Sardinia, and Africa. The triumvirate was to last five years, and it was renewed for another equal period, in B. C. 37, in spite of the jealousies and mutual suspicions which constantly threatened to separate the allies. In B. C. 36, Lepidus, tired of being treated as a subject by his ambitious partners, made an effort to gain Sicily for himself and to resume an equal place in the triumvirate. But his twenty legions, won by the popularity of Octavian, melted away so fast that he was compelled to throw himself at the feet of his rival and beg for his life. Octavian granted him this, together with the enjoyment of his large fortune and the dignity of chief pontiff, but he was deprived of all military command.

The victory of Cæsar at Actium restored peace to the Roman world, and the Gates of Janus, between the Quirinal and the Palatine Mounts—through which armies always passed in going to war—were closed for the first time in many years.

With all the splendor of his public career, Augustus, as we must now call him, had many misfortunes in his family. His third wife, Livia—though she enjoyed the love and confidence of her husband to the end of his life—was an unscrupulous plotter, who procured the death of his two grandsons in order to make way for her own son by a former marriage, the gloomy and merciless Tiberius. Augustus did, in fact, adopt Tiberius as his heir, and even associated him in the government during his own life-time. The next year, A. D. 14, Tiberius set out for a campaign in Illyricum, and the aged emperor accompanied him as far as Naples. Augustus was taken ill on his return, and died at Nola, on the 29th of August, the month that had been especially named for him (see p. 139). Livia kept the event secret until Tiberius could return to Nola, where he was received with acclamations, as emperor and "Augustus."

2. "Arminius was familiar with the Roman language and civilization; he had served in the Roman armies; he had been admitted to Roman citizenship, and raised to the rank of the equestrian order. It was part of the subtle policy of Rome to confer rank and privileges on the youth of the leading families in the nations which she wished to enslave. Among other young German chieftains, Arminius and his brother, who were the heads of the noblest house in the tribe of the Cherusci, had been selected as fit objects for the exercise of this insidious system. Roman refinements and dignities succeeded in denationalizing the brother, who assumed the Roman name of Flavius, and adhered to Rome throughout all her wars against his country. Arminius remained unbought by honors or wealth, uncorrupted by refinement or luxury.

"Vast and admirably organized as the fabric of Roman power appeared on the frontiers and in the provinces, there was rottenness at the core. . . . Slaves, the chance sweepings of every conquered country, shoals of Africans, Sardinians, Asiatics, Illyrians, and others made up the bulk of the population of the Italian peninsula. The foulest profligacy of manners was general in all ranks. . . . Conscious of being too debased for self-government, the nation had submitted itself to the absolute authority of Augustus. With bitter indignation must the German chieftain have beheld all this, and contrasted it with the rough worth of his own countrymen: their bravery, their fidelity to their word, their manly independence of spirit, their love of their national free institutions, and their loathing of every pollution and meanness.

"Arminius found among the other German chiefs many who sympathized with him in his indignation at their country's abasement, and many whom private wrongs had stung still more deeply. . . . Seeing that the infatuation of Varus was complete, he secretly directed the tribes between the Weser and the Ems to take up arms in open revolt against the Romans. This was represented to Varus as an occasion which required his prompt attendance at the spot; but he was kept in studied ignorance of its being part of a concerted national rising. . . . He therefore set his army in motion and marched eastward in a line parallel to the course of the Lippe. . . . For some distance Varus was allowed to move on, only harassed by slight skirmishes, but struggling with difficulty through the broken ground, the toil and distress of his men being aggravated by heavy torrents of rain, which burst upon the devoted legions, as if the angry gods of Germany were pouring out the vials of their wrath upon the invaders. After some little time their van approached a ridge of high, woody ground, which is one of the offshoots of the great Hercynian forest, and is situated between the modern villages of Driburg and Bielefeld. Arminius had caused barricades of hewn trees to be formed here, so as to add to the natural difficulties of the passage. Fatigue and discouragement now began to betray themselves in the Roman ranks. Their line became less steady; baggage-wagons were abandoned from the impossibility of forcing them along; and, as this happened, many soldiers left their ranks, and crowded round the wagons to secure the most valuable portions of their property; each was busy about his own affairs, and purposely slow in hearing the word of command from his officers. Arminius now gave the signal for a general attack. The fierce shouts of the Germans pealed through the gloom of the forests, and in thronging multitudes they assailed the flanks of the invaders, pouring in clouds of darts on the encumbered legionaries, as they struggled up the glens or floundered in the morasses, and watching every opportunity of charging through the intervals of the disjointed column, and so cutting off the communication between its several brigades. . . . Unable to keep together, or force their way across the woods and swamps, the horsemen were overpowered in detail, and slaughtered to the last man. The Roman infantry still held together, but more through the instinct of discipline and bravery than from any hope of success or escape. . . . The Roman host, which, on the yester morning had marched forth in such pride and might, now broken up into confused fragments, either fell fighting beneath the overpowering numbers of the enemy, or perished in the swamps and woods in unavailing efforts at flight. Few, very few, ever saw again the left bank of the Rhine. Never was victory more decisive, never was the liberation of an oppressed people more instantaneous and complete. Throughout Germany the Roman garr-

sons were assailed and cut off; and, within a few weeks after Varus had fallen, the German soil was freed from the foot of an invader."—*Sir E. Creasy, "Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World."*

From this decisive point the Rhine continued to be the frontier between Rome and the Germans, until, five centuries later, the tide of conquest turned in the other direction, and the Teutonic races divided the empire into the kingdoms of modern Europe.

3. **Seneca**, the son of a Roman knight, was born at Cordova, in Spain, a few years before the birth of Christ. In the reign of Tiberius he gained distinction by pleading causes in the courts; his eloquence drew upon him the hatred of Caligula, who detested excellence of every kind, and who would have ordered the orator to instant execution, but that some one pointed to the consumptive frame of Seneca and whispered that it "was useless to extinguish a waning lamp." Among the first acts of Claudius was the banishment of the philosopher to Corsica; but, after eight years, he was recalled by Agrippina, and became the tutor of her son. The worst stains on Seneca's character came from his consent to some, at least, of Nero's crimes. His philosophy was high and pure, but his life was governed by an excessive love of wealth. He "declaimed in praise of poverty with two millions sterling out at usury, and celebrated the divine beauty of virtue with the same pen which had written a defense of the murder of a mother by a son."

But Seneca's weak compliance failed of its desired end. His unspoken condemnation, of which Nero could not but be conscious, was as irksome as open remonstrance would have been. Seneca was accused of having part in a conspiracy against the emperor, and by Nero's order he put an end to his own life by opening his veins.

4. The **Assmonæan Dynasty** (‡ 171 and note) had been succeeded, B. C. 37, by that of the Herods, who were Edomites by descent. Herod the Great, the first of these kings, was a man of remarkable ability, but of cruel and ungoverned passions. It was he that ordered the murder of all the infants in Bethlehem, with the vain hope that the Savior of the world might perish among them. His own death occurred the same year. His son, Archelaus, forfeited his kingdom by many crimes, A. D. 6; and with a short interval, A. D. 41-44, under Herod Agrippa I. (see Acts xii), Judæa remained subject to Roman procurators or governors, under the Imperial Legate of Syria. It was under Pontius Pilate, the sixth of these governors, that Christ was crucified. The series of officials that followed Agrippa I. were, if possible, more criminally corrupt than their predecessors. "All the bonds of social order were dissolved; no property was secure; assassins alone prospered, and the procurators went shares with them in the profits."

At last, in A. D. 66, Gessius Florus plundered the treasures of the temple, gave up Jerusalem to open robbery, and crucified a number of its inhabitants. Revolt could no longer be delayed; the Roman garrison in the Castle of Antonia were put to the sword; the Syrian Legate, after a short siege of Jerusalem, was compelled to withdraw; and his retreat was changed into flight by a fierce attack near Bethhoron. Nero intrusted the suppression of the Jewish revolt to his best and ablest general, Vespasian, who, within a year, had reduced the whole country, excepting Jerusalem and one or two other fortresses. But the death of Nero and the rivalry of the generals for the crown suspended the war for two years. No sooner was Vespasian proclaimed emperor than he charged his son Titus with the completion of the work which he had begun. Jerusalem itself was divided between two parties. John of Gischala, the Galilean leader of the "Zealots" holding the temple and the height of Mt. Moriah; while the guerrilla captain, Simon Bar Giora, occupied Mt. Zion and the Upper City. But when, in the spring of A. D. 70, Titus, with his legions, had encamped upon the heights to the northward, and had taken the Lower City, the two leaders found it necessary to forget their differences and strain every nerve for the common defense. Finding that the two heights could not be carried by assault, Titus surrounded the whole city with a strong wall, and resolved to reduce it by famine. Rather than submit, mothers are said to have devoured their own children; and still the daily sacrifice went on in the temple. At length, Aug. 10, a firebrand flung by a Roman soldier, set fire to the temple, and, after a frightful slaughter, Mt. Moriah was

abandoned, its surviving defenders cutting their way across the bridge to Mt. Zion. The garrison of the Upper City, meanwhile, was so reduced by famine, that when, on the 7th of September, the final assault was made, there was no power to resist. Multitudes were slain; the rest were sold off as slaves, and divided among officers and soldiers as booty. Titus carried away the two leaders, and 700 of their brave comrades to adorn his triumph at Rome, together with the seven-branched candlestick and other golden spoils of the temple. Representations of these may still be seen at Rome, upon the "Arch of Titus," which commemorated this victory.

Even the fall of the Holy City did not wholly break the spirit of the Jews, for the fortress of Masada, on the Dead Sea, remained in the hands of the Zealots. With its capture, A. D. 73, the last spark of resistance died out.

5. **M. Ulpius Trajanus** was born near Seville, in Spain, A. D. 52, being the first Roman emperor, though by no means the last, who was not a native of Italy. He was commanding the Roman forces in Germany, having his head-quarters in Cologne, when he was adopted by the Emperor Nerva, as his heir; and, the next year, A. D. 98, became emperor. Trajan had the hardy, simple, and industrious habits of the earlier Romans; as a warrior, he shared the hardships of the camp and the march, and was both loved and revered by his soldiers.

He appointed the younger Pliny, A. D. 103, to be governor of Bithynia; and Pliny's letter asking the emperor's direction concerning the Christians in his province, is the first mention of the new religion in profane literature. Trajan's reply shows him more just and merciful than his lieutenant; though any proved disrespect to the gods of Rome is to be punished, informers are not to be encouraged, and slight concessions on the part of the accused are to be accepted as proof of repentance.

The so-called Column of Trajan at Rome is supposed to be a memorial of this emperor's victories beyond the Danube. Remains of the bridge by which he crossed that river are still visible at Szernecz; and both the name and the prevailing language of the new kingdom of Roumania are interesting results of Trajan's conquest and settlements.

The emperor was at Antioch at the time of the great earthquake, A. D. 115, which destroyed many buildings and multitudes of lives. It is uncertain whether his interview with Ignatius, the saintly bishop of Antioch, took place at this visit or earlier. To stay the persecutions of his flock, the bishop freely offered himself as a martyr; and, after a long and toilsome journey, he was indeed thrown to the wild beasts in the Coliseum at Rome. It is hard to reconcile the usual justice of Trajan with this iniquitous sentence. The emperor died A. D. 117, in Cilicia, having reigned 19 years and 6 months.

6. In the first book of his "Meditations" M. Aurelius thanks the gods for "good grandfathers, good parents, a good sister, good teachers, good associates, good kinsmen and friends, nearly every thing good." At the age of eleven, he assumed the plain, coarse dress of a philosopher, and even injured his health by hard study and scanty food. As he grew up he gained the serenity of the Stoics, without their harshness; and, amidst all the stern and absorbing duties of his imperial station, found time to "live according to nature and reason." The weightiest of his maxims is this: "Love mankind; follow God." How far Aurelius was guilty of the persecutions of the Christians, it is impossible to tell; the records of his reign are scanty; and many things were done in the emperor's name of which he did not even know. The policy of the government toward Christians had been fixed by Trajan and Hadrian. Still, there is reason to fear that some persecuting edicts were issued by Aurelius himself. He knew of the Christians only from their resistance to the Roman law, which declared all religions equal in their right to be, only requiring divine honors to the emperor, which the Christians, of course, were unable to render. The story of the "Thundering Legion" belongs to this reign. During the war against the Quadi, the Roman army was near perishing by thirst, when a sudden storm drenched it with rain, while discomfiting its enemies with fire and hail. The great victory which followed was ascribed—one report says by the emperor himself—to the prayers of the Christian soldiers who made up a greater part of the legion above mentioned.

CHAPTER XVII.

ROMAN EMPIRE. — CONTINUED.



Roman Lady and Servant.

HERE followed a disgraceful time when the Prætorian Guards set up and put down emperors at their will, even once selling the crown at public auction! The legions on the borders (§ 244) thought they had a still better right to dictate; and three rival generals were at once proposed as masters of the Roman world. Septim'ius Seve'rus was the successful candidate; and he proved one of the ablest of the emperors.

In a war with the Parthians, he took their capital, Ctes'iphon, by storm, and added, not only Mesopotamia, but a large tract east of the Tigris, to the dominions of Rome. He replaced the old Prætorians with 40,000 troops chosen from the legions, and made their chief, the prætorian præfect, the most powerful person in the world, next to the emperor. Severus made war, in person, against the Caledonians, in the north-western extremity of his empire, and died at York, the Roman capital of Britain, A. D. 211.

257. His two sons reigned together for a year, but Car'acal'la, the elder, then murdered his brother, and,

goaded by a guilty conscience, made the whole world suffer five years from his agonies of remorse. He put to death 20,000 persons on the pretext that they were his brother "Ge'ta's friends." The only good act recorded of this wretched prince is the gift of full Roman citizenship to all the inhabitants of the Empire. Very likely this was done only to simplify his tax-rolls; but it had the important effect of making the protection of Roman law the equal right of every person.

258. Macri'nus, the murderer and successor of Caracalla, was himself defeated and slain by the armies of Elagab'alus, a Syrian boy of fourteen years, whom the armies in the East had been bribed to acknowledge as their emperor. In his infancy he had been made a priest of the Sun; and the worship of Ba'al was now placed at Rome above that of Jupiter himself. Old Roman worship, however mistaken in its objects, had at least been decorous and solemn. Elagabalus added to the disgust inspired by his gluttony and drunkenness, by profaning every thing that the Romans held sacred. At last he was murdered by the prætorians, A. D. 222.

259. His cousin, Alexander Severus, a very different character, was gladly acknowledged by both army and Senate as their chief. His blameless life and noble aims promised happiness to the Empire. Good men were called to the highest offices, the public money was honestly spent, and the Senate was respected as in the days of Augustus. A great revolution had taken place in Asia. The Parthian Empire (§§ 169, 232) was now overthrown by the new Persian monarchy of the Sassan'idæ, who aimed to govern all the provinces of Darius the Great (§ 51). Alexander met the new Artaxerxes and defeated him on a plain east of the Euphrates. Then, returning to the West, he set out for a campaign in Germany, but was slain in a mutiny of his troops, A. D. 235.

260. It is needless to name all the puppet-chiefs who were set up in turn by the soldiers—now a Thracian peasant, now an African proconsul, now a child of twelve years—each one sure to be deposed and slain as soon as the whim or resentment of his masters called for a change.

Under De'cius,¹ the second great persecution of Christians took place; and the bishops of Rome, Antioch, and Jerusalem were among the martyrs. Decius fell in battle with the Goths—one of the most powerful German tribes—who were ravaging the country south of the Danube.

261. Vale'rian (A. D. 254–260), the bravest and ablest of this series of emperors, had to struggle against countless hordes of barbarians from the north, and against the rising power of Persia in the east (§ 258). At last he was made prisoner by Sa'por, the Persian king, in a great battle near the Euphrates, and spent the rest of his days in a cruel captivity at the Persian court. Various fragments of the Roman Empire set up independent governments under many chiefs, known in general as the "Thirty Tyrants."

262. Aurelian² (A. D. 270–275) reunited the Roman dominions, defeated the pretenders to sovereignty within, and the hostile barbarians beyond, its limits; and extended one victorious empire again from the Atlantic to the Euphrates. Several of his successors were wise and good men; but their reigns were short and usually ended by violence, until the dangerous power of the legions was overthrown by Diocle'tian, A. D. 284.

263. PERIOD III. Perceiving that the Roman dominion was too large to be well governed by a single sovereign, Diocletian³ shared his title of *Augustus* with his friend Maxim'ian. A few years later each emperor adopted a son and successor, who bore the title of *Cæsar* during his adoptive father's lifetime, and was especially charged with

the defense of the frontiers. Almost every province needed the presence of a great army, so fierce and constant were the attacks of barbarians. Diocletian had his capital at Nicomedia, in Asia Minor; Maximian, his at Milan, in northern Italy; while the Cæsar Constan'tius fixed his head-quarters at York (§ 256), and the Cæsar Gale'rius at Sirmium, on the Danube.

264. The succession being thus regularly provided for, the soldiers lost their power of dictating the choice of new emperors. The removal of the government from Rome, destroyed the influence of the Senate. The emperor's edict had all the force of law; and instead of veiling his power under simple, citizen-like manners, he now assumed the state of an eastern monarch, and could only be approached with ceremonies of reverence.

265. The religion taught by Christ and His Apostles had now reached every portion of the Empire; and, in those times of ruin and corruption, Christians were known as the most orderly, industrious, and worthy members of any community. Nevertheless, for their refusal to worship the emperor's image, they were subjected to a horrible persecution. In 303, A. D., Diocletian published an edict ordering the destruction of all their churches and sacred books, and the death of all persons who presumed to hold secret meetings for worship. The passions of envy and hatred were let loose, and every soil was wet with innocent blood.

266. In 305, A. D., Diocletian, weary of power, laid aside his crown, and compelled Maximian to do the same. Some years of contention followed, during which the Roman world had at one time six masters, then four, then two, and finally only one, who was Con'stantine', son of Constantius. This great general had always esteemed the virtues and protected the lives of the Christians so far as he was able, even in times of persecution. He was now

to do more. On his march into Italy it is said that he saw a flaming cross in the heavens, with the inscription: *By this, conquer!* He adopted the emblem as his standard, and soon gained two victories over Maxentius, son of Maximian, which gave him the possession of Rome and all Italy.

267. As soon as his power was established in the East, Constantine issued a circular-letter to all his subjects, advising them to follow his example and become Christians. Though pagans were allowed the free exercise of their religion, Christianity became, in an important sense, the religion of the Empire. The first general Council of Christian bishops was convened by Constantine at Nice,⁴ in Bithynia, A. D. 325.

268. On the ruins of old Byzantium, Constantine built a new capital of the world, which he called New Rome, but which bears in history his own name—Constantinople, the city of Constantine. The last trace of the republican forms, so carefully cherished by Augustus, had now vanished; and Constantine's court was a gorgeous assemblage of officials, whose ceremonious behavior rivaled the homage paid to Xerxes or Darius. He created three new ranks of nobles throughout the Empire, to whom the nobility of modern Europe may trace their titles.

269. A standing army of 645,000 men was now constantly maintained (see § 244); but, as Roman citizens were no longer of the same stuff with the followers of Decius and Fabius, great numbers of barbarians were received into the pay of the emperor. Nothing could so have shown the weakness of Rome as thus to arm her late enemies and future conquerors. Besides multitudes of Franks in the imperial armies, 300,000 Sarmatians were received as vassals of the Empire, and settled in Pannonia, Thrace, Macedonia, and Italy.

270. Upon the death of Constantine, A. D. 337, his three sons divided the empire among them and put to death all their relatives, excepting two cousins. Within a few years, Con'stans and Constantine II. were slain in war, and Constan'tius II., the surviving brother, reigned over the whole Roman world. He had a long and calamitous war with the Persians, who defeated the Roman armies in nine pitched battles, and extended their raids westward to the Mediterranean.

A. D. 350.

271. His cousin Ju'lian was, meanwhile, commanding, with great ability, near the Rhine, where he gained important victories over the Germans. Constantius, jealous of his fame, ordered the greater part of Julian's army to the East. The soldiers in Gaul mutinied at this unjust command, and proclaimed their beloved general Emperor. The Senates of Athens and Rome confirmed their choice. Before the two cousins could meet in arms, Constantius died, A. D. 361, and Julian was every-where received with joyful acclamations.

272. He reduced the luxury of the court, and declared himself the "Servant of the Republic." But Julian was a pagan, chiefly, perhaps, because the kinsmen who had murdered all his family, called themselves Christians. He publicly renounced Christianity, placing himself and his dominions under the protection of the "immortal gods." After sixteen months' reign he died in war with the Persians, and his successor, Jovian, restored Christian worship and universal tolerance, A. D. 363.

Trace, upon Map 5, the wars of Septimius Severus. Point out the four capitals of Diocletian's empire. The new capital of Constantine.

Gibbon's "History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" is the great authority from the time of the Antonines. For a very interesting account of the Nicene Council, read Stanley's "Lectures on the History of the Eastern Church."

NOTES.

1. Decius was a native of Pannonia, on the Upper Danube, a region which afterwards gave birth to a long series of emperors. The manner of his elevation to imperial rank was singular. The army in Mœsia had revolted; and Decius, who stood high in the confidence of the Emperor Philip, was commissioned by him to reduce them to obedience. On his arrival at the scene, the soldiers, feeling that their guilt was beyond forgiveness, thronged about him with drawn swords, and commanded him to choose between instant death and an imperial crown. For the moment he accepted the latter, but wrote to assure Philip that he had only acted under compulsion, and would lay down his uncomfortable dignity as soon as he could escape from his jailers. The emperor, however, distrusted his loyalty, and marched with an army to meet him. A battle was fought near Verona, in which Philip was defeated and slain, A. D. 249.

The short reign of Decius was marked by two very different attempts to restore the ancient manners, and with them the ancient power, of Rome. It was widely felt that the calamities that had come upon the empire were due to the corruption of its people. Some of the more superstitious believed also that the gods were angry because a new religion, hostile to their worship, had become prevalent. So it was resolved both to revive the censorship (note to § 215) and to persecute the Christians. Valerian, afterwards emperor, a Roman of the old school, was chosen by the senate to be censor; but the untimely end of Decius relieved him from the embarrassing and, indeed, hopeless task of restoring the order and decency of the early times to Rome. The second measure was only too successful, for the wicked passions of men are ready to break forth with or without a pretext. Beside the martyrdoms mentioned in the text, a terrible massacre of Christians occurred in Alexandria; and thousands, through fear, disowned their faith.

2. Aurelian was of humble origin—his father having been a farm-servant in the wild country near the Danube—and the son was indebted solely to his own strength, courage, and talents for his rapid rise in military rank. Having expelled the Goths from Illyria and Thrace, he received the public thanks of Valerian, with the title of consul-elect. Thirteen years later, the shouts of the legions hailed him as emperor, and his short reign was crowded with brilliant successes. The Goths, Vandals, and Alemanni were first vanquished by hard fighting; then he turned against Zenobia, Queen of the East, who, since the death of her husband, Odenatus, had ruled at Palmyra over a great part of Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt. The Palmyrenes were twice defeated, and their city was taken after a long and brave resistance. Their queen was carried as a captive to Rome. Learning, on his way, that the Palmyrenes had revolted and had destroyed the Roman governor and garrison, Aurelian instantly reversed his march, massacred the whole population of the city, and razed its buildings to the ground, giving orders, however, for the reconstruction of the Temple of the Sun, which he regarded as his own special divinity.

The whole empire east of the Adriatic was now subject to Aurelian; but Britain, Gaul, and Spain were ruled from Bordeaux by Tetricus, the last of a succession of "tyrants." His armies were defeated, perhaps by his own consent, at Chalons; and the west of Europe submitted to the conqueror. Aurelian celebrated his victories by such a "triumph" as Rome had not seen since the time of Julius Cæsar. His visit to the capital was still more happily marked by wise laws for the relief of the poor, and by the building of a new and strongly fortified wall around the whole city, which, however, was not completed until the reign of Probus. Aurelian was on his march against the Persians, when he was slain by one of his officers, A. D. 275.

3. Diocletian was the son of a Dalmatian freedman; some accounts even assert that he himself had been a slave, but this is improbable. He held high commands in the army under Aurelian, Probus, and Carus. The last-named emperor died suddenly in Asia, and his son, Numerian, was murdered by his father-in-law, the prætorian præfect, who hoped to succeed him. The soldiers, learning of the crime, set on Diocletian,

who was captain of the body-guards, to avenge and succeed their idolized emperor. Carinus, brother of Numerian, marched against the usurper and defeated him in Mœsia; but was himself murdered by one of his own officers, and his army came over to Diocletian. A new era in the history of Rome was now begun. To guard against the violence which had destroyed so many emperors, the sovereign was surrounded by retinues of soldiers, and, far from making any pretense, like Augustus (§241), of republican simplicity, he put on all the magnificence of an oriental monarch. His robe was cloth of gold; his shoes, of purple silk, were embroidered with jewels; a kingly diadem, such as Cæsar could not venture to wear, encircled his brow; and he could only be approached by a complicated series of ceremonies. Some said the head of the Dalmatian peasant had been turned by his elevation; but, in fact, Diocletian had carefully planned all this as a necessary part of his new scheme of government, together with the military and political changes, and his success might seem to have proved the wisdom of his plan. "He found the empire weak and shattered, threatened with immediate dissolution from intestine discord and external violence. He left it strong and compact, at peace within, and triumphant abroad, stretching from the Tigris to the Nile, from the shores of Holland to the Euphrates."

The worst effect of the revolution was, perhaps, in the increased burdens it imposed upon the people. To support four courts, with the palaces and other costly buildings which the new plan required, with the increased retinues and guards, both civil and military, was more than the starved and exhausted empire could bear. Great regions of once fertile country had become depopulated by centuries of civil war; and the diminished numbers who had to support the increased burdens, endured untold miseries at every visit of the tax-gatherers.

4. "In the close of May or beginning of June, Nicæa was approached by the representatives of the Christian Church from every part of the Eastern Empire and from a few parts of the Western also. . . . The posting arrangements of the empire made such a convention far more easy than would have been the case at any period in the Middle Ages. The great lines of communication were like railroads, straight as arrows, from one extremity of the empire to the other. From Bordeaux to Constantinople, a few years later, we have the record of 200 post-stations and 91 inns—an inn at the interval of every half-day's journey.

"There were present the learned and the illiterate, courtiers and peasants, old and young, aged bishops on the verge of the grave, beardless deacons just entering on their office; and it was an assembly in which the difference between age and youth was of more than ordinary significance, for it coincided with a marked transition in the history of the world. The new generation had been brought up in peace and quiet. They could just remember the joy diffused through the Christian communities by the edict of toleration (§286), published in their boyhood; but they had themselves suffered nothing. Not so the older, and by far the larger, part of the assembly. They had lived through the last and worst of the persecutions, and they came like a regiment out of some frightful siege or battle, decimated and mutilated by the tortures or the hardships they had undergone. . . . It was on their character as an army of confessors and martyrs, quite as much as on their character as an Œcumenical Council that their authority reposed. In this respect, no other council approached them." . . . "The whole assembly rose. . . . and then, for the first time, set their admiring gaze on Constantine, the conqueror, the august, the great. Gazing at his splendid figure, as he passed up the hall between their ranks, remembering, too, what he had done for their faith and for their church—we may well believe that the simple and the worldly both looked upon him as though he were an angel of God, descended straight from heaven. . . . There was a gentleness and sweetness in his voice which arrested the attention of all. . . . 'It has, my friends, been the object of my highest wishes to enjoy your sacred company. . . . I rejoice at the mere sight of your assembly. But the moment that I shall consider the chief fulfillment of my prayers will be when I see you all joined together in heart and soul, and determining on one peaceful harmony for all, which it should well become you who are consecrated to God, to preach to others.'"

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE NORTHERN BARBARIANS.

DURING these last years of the Roman Empire in the West, the main interest centers upon the

swarms of free warriors who were pressing down upon it from the plains of central and northern Europe. Though rude in their ways of living, these people—with the exception of one tribe, soon to be mentioned—belonged to the same Indo-Germanic race (§ 6) with the Greeks and Romans; they had much of the same capacity for art, science, literature, and government; and they were able



Captives in War.

to appreciate and admire in the Roman cities the proofs of a civilization far beyond what they had yet been able to create. One of their great chiefs¹ declared that he would rather renew and perpetuate the fame of Rome by Gothic strength, than found a new Gothic Empire of which he himself should be the Cæsar Augustus.

274. With such feelings many Germans had enlisted in the Roman armies, even in the first days of the Empire; and, after the time of Constantine, the "barbarians" constituted the great body of the legions. These gigantic warriors were far braver and hardier than the people of

the south; and their virtues often put Romans to shame. As soldiers they were faithful to the emperors who employed them; but this did not prevent their free countrymen from being the terror of the declining Empire. The principal German tribes were the Goths, Franks, Alemanni, Saxons, and Burgundians.

275. As early as the reign of Valerian (§ 261), the Franks and Alemanni had overrun Gaul, Italy, and Spain, and had crossed the straits into Africa. The Goths had built fleets from the woods near the Danube, with which they sailed along the coasts of Asia Minor and Greece, plundering and burning many cities, among others Ephesus, Corinth, and Athens. Western Europe was, meanwhile, afflicted by swarms of Saxon pirates, while Roman Britain was ravaged by the Picts and Scots. The emperor Valentinian—the successor of Jovian—and his great general, Theodosius, gained important victories over the western marauders.

276. The Gothic kingdom of Hermanric now extended from the Danube and Euxine to the Baltic; but, under the reigns of Valentinian in the west, and his brother Valens in the east, the Huns, a new race of savages—
more fierce, hideous, and terrible than had yet
been seen—appeared from Asia and conquered the Ostrogoths, north of the Black Sea. Their brethren, the Western Goths, or Visigoths, begged the protection of the Roman emperor in the East. Valens gave them lands; and a million of men, women, and children crossed the Danube. But the Roman officers, appointed to receive and feed this hungry crowd, were so false to their trust that the Goths were driven to revolt. In a great battle near Hadrianople, Valens and two-thirds of his army were slain.

A. D. 376.

277. His successor, Theodosius,² being called to interfere in western Europe in behalf of the sons of Valentinian, united the whole Roman dominion for the last time under

one sovereign. This great emperor well deserved to be called "Theodosius the Great." He made friends of the Goths by settling colonies of them in Thrace and Asia Minor. He put an end to pagan worship in every part of the Empire, demolishing the temples or turning them into Christian churches. Yet, by one act of needless cruelty he incurred the displeasure of the famous Archbishop Ambrose of Milan, and was forbidden to enter a church until he had publicly confessed his guilt. Theodosius submitted, and, after eight months, was restored to his standing as a Christian.

278. Upon his death, A. D. 395, the Empire was divided between his sons Arca'dius and Hono'rius; and the East and the West were never again united except in name. Al'aric,³ king of the Visigoths, was placed at the head of the imperial armies in the East, and we can not tell whether it was as Gothic king or Roman general that he three times invaded the dominions of Honorius. The first time (A. D. 400-403), he was defeated and driven back by Stil'icho, the guardian and minister of the young emperor; five years later he advanced to Rome, and only withdrew on receiving an enormous ransom, after thousands of its citizens had died of famine or pestilence; the third time, the "eternal city" was actually taken and given up for six days to plunder and massacre.

A. D. 410. The spoils of Asia, brought home by Sulla, Pompey, and others, from their great campaigns, fell into the hands of the barbarians. Alaric died during his retreat from Rome.

279. His brother-in-law, Adol'phus, who succeeded him, founded the new kingdom of the Visigoths in Spain. Nearly at the same time the Vandals conquered Roman Africa; the Franks settled themselves in northern, and the Burgundians in eastern France. Britain was left to be conquered by the Saxons and kindred tribes from Germany.

EMPERORS OF ROME.

Augustus	B. C. 31.	Gallienus	A. D. 260.
Tiberius	A. D. 14.	Claudius II.	268.
Caligula	37.	Aurelian	270.
Claudius	41.	Tacitus	275.
Nero	54.	Florian, Probus	276.
Galba	68.	Carus	282.
Otho	69.	Carinus and Numerian	283.
Vitellius	69.	Diocletian with Maximian	284.
Vespasian	69.	Constantius with Galerius	305.
Titus	79.	Constantine I. with Galerius,	
Domitian	81.	Severus, and Maxentius	306.
Nerva	96.	" with Licinius	307.
Trajan	98.	" with Maximinus	308.
Hadrian	117.	" alone	323.
Antoninus Pius	138.	Constantine II., Constantius	
M. Aurelius Antoninus	161.	II., Constans	337.
Commodus	180.	Julian	361.
Pertinax	193.	Jovian	363.
Didius Julianus	193.	Valentinian I	364.
Septimius Severus	193.	Gratian and Valentinian II.	375.
Caracalla and Geta	211.	Theodosius (East and West)	392.
" alone	212.	Honorius	395.
Macrinus	217.	Theodosius II. (E. and W.)	423.
Elagabalus	218.	Valentinian III.	425.
Alexander Severus	222.	Maximus, Avitus	455.
Maximinus	235.	Majorian	457.
Gordians (father and son)	238.	Libius Severus	461.
Philip the Arabian	244.	Anthemius	467.
Decius	249.	Olybrius, Glycerius	472, 473.
Gallus	251.	Julius Nepos	474.
Valerian	253.	Romulus Augustulus	475, 476.



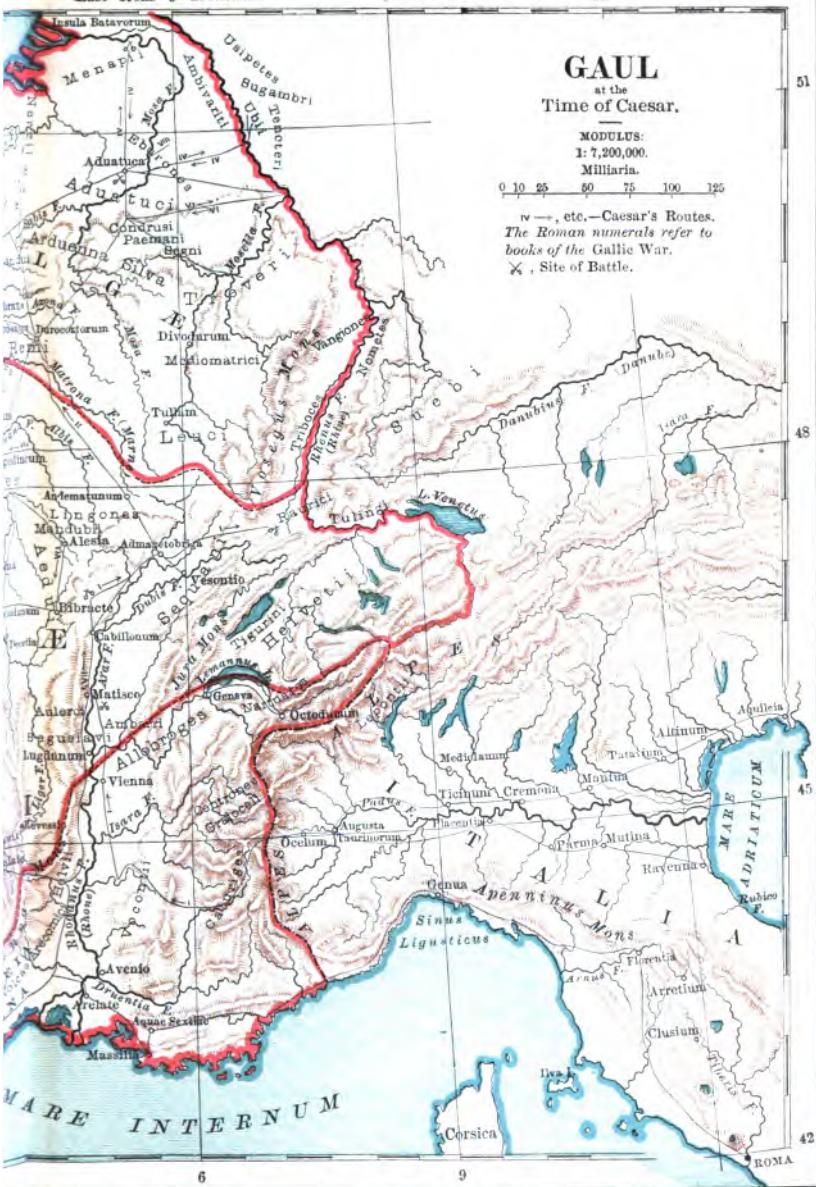
GAUL

at the
Time of Caesar.

MODULUS:
1: 7,200,000.
Milliaria.

0 10 25 50 75 100 125

—, etc.—Caesar's Routes.
The Roman numerals refer to
books of the Gallic War.
X, Site of Battle.



51

48

45

42

MARE INTERNUM

ROMA

ROMAN WRITERS.

Poets and Dramatists.

B. C.

- Livius Andronicus, 240.
 Nævius, 235: Tragedies, Comedies.
 Ennius, 239-169: "Annals."
 Plautus, 254-184: Comedies.
 Terence, 195-159.
 Pacuvius, 220-130: Tragedies.
 Attius, 170-90: Tragedies.
 Lucilius, 148-103: Satires.
 Lucretius, 95-51: Philosophical Poem.
 Catullus, 87-47: Lyrics.
 Virgil, 70-19: the "Æneids," "Georgics," and "Bucolics."
 Horace, 65-8: Odes, Satires, and Epistles.
 Tibullus, about 54-18: Elegies.
 Propertius, born ab. 51: Elegies.
 Ovid, B. C. 43-A. D. 18: "The Metamorphoses," "Fasti," and "Epistles."

A. D.

- Phædrus, 25: Fables.
 Persius, 34-62: Satires.
 Juvenal, about 100: Satires.
 Martial, 43-104: Epigrams.
 Lucan, 39-65: Epic Poem, "Pharsalia."
 Statius, 61-96: "Silviæ," "Thebaid," and "Achilleid."

Historians.

B. C.

- Fabius Pictor, 216.
 Cincius Alimentus, 218-190.
 Cato the Censor, 234-149: "The Origins," "Agriculture," etc.
 Varro, 116-28: "Agriculture," etc.
 Julius Cæsar, 100-44: "Commentaries on Gallic War."
 Sallust, 86-34: "Jugurthine War" and "Conspiracy of Catiline."
 Livy, 59-A. D. 17: "Annals."

A. D.

- Tacitus, about 57-117: "Annals," "Histories," "Germany," etc.
 Suetonius, about 70-117.

Philosophers and Orators.

B. C.

- Cicero, 106-43: "Tusculan Disputations," "Duties," "Old Age," "Friendship," etc.

A. D.

- Seneca, died 65: Epistles, etc.
 Pliny the Elder, 23-79: "Natural History."
 Pliny the Younger, 61-110: "Panegyric on Trajan," etc.
 Celsus, 20: Medical Treatises.
 Pomponius Mela, 45: Geographical Treatise.

NOTE.—The dates are from Smith's Dictionary of Biography, with a few additions from Woodward and Cates' Encyclopædia of Chronology. In some cases they are conjectural, as no ancient authorities exist.

280. The Roman generals were called to fight with Attila, king of the Huns, a monster so hideous and hitherto so irresistible, that he was known to the terror-stricken world of his time as the Scourge of God. He had rapidly built up a kingdom extending from the Rhine to the Volga, and from the Black Sea to the Baltic; and a host of subject chiefs served in his army of 700,000 men. In a great battle at Chalons, he was completely overthrown by the combined force of Romans and Goths. Within two years he had collected a fresh horde of barbarians, with which he ravaged northern Italy and threatened Rome; but a sudden death ended his career. A. D. 451.

281. A series of crimes and quarrels at court, drew the Vandals into Italy. They plundered Rome fourteen days, and sailed away to Carthage laden with all the treasure which the Goths had left. They conquered the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, from which they could easily descend at any time upon the Italian coasts. After half a dozen insignificant emperors had been set up and put down by the German chiefs of the army, Romulus Augustulus, a harmless boy, became the last of the Roman Emperors of the West. But the Goths wanted to be paid for their services by one-third of all the lands in Italy. Being refused, they deposed Augustulus, and conferred sovereign power upon their own chief, Odoacer. A. D. 455.

282. The Roman Senate now sent the purple robe and diadem, which had been worn by Augustulus, to Ze'no, emperor of the East, acknowledging that Constantinople was the seat of government for all the world, but requesting that Odoacer might rule Italy with the title of *Patrician*. A. D. 476.

Trace the boundaries of Hermanric's kingdom; of Attila's. Site of Attila's defeat. Settlements of Goths, Franks, Vandals, Burgundians, Saxons.

NOTES.

1. This was Athaulf, or Adolphus, the Visigoth, brother-in-law and successor of Alaric (see § 278). See Bryce's "*Holy Roman Empire*," Chapter III., for a very interesting sketch of the relation of the barbarians to the declining Roman power.

2. The Emperor Theodosius I., was a son of the General Theodosius named in § 275. The western countries of Europe were always inclined to be independent; and Maximus, a Spaniard, now made himself master, for a time, of Gaul, Spain, and Britain. Gratian, the elder son of Valentinian, was put to death by the usurper at Lyons; and his brother, Valentinian II., gained, at first, by the intervention of Theodosius, only Italy, Africa, and western Illyricum. But Maximus, not content with the rich countries that he had usurped, invaded Italy. The feeble Valentinian could do nothing in his own defense; but Theodosius again took up his cause, and Maximus was defeated and slain, A. D. 388. Four years later, Valentinian II. was murdered, probably by order of Arbogastes, general-in-chief of his armies, who, not daring to assume the imperial crown himself, set up Eugenius, his former secretary, as Emperor of the West. Theodosius marched to avenge the murdered Valentinian, whose sister was his wife. He was victorious as before. Eugenius was beheaded in the very presence of his conqueror, and Arbogastes, after wandering, nearly starved, in the desolate mountain passes, killed himself with his own sword. Theodosius reigned four months over the vast dominions of Augustus; but, upon his death, at Milan, in the January following the defeat of Eugenius, his son Honorius received the crown of the western empire, while Arcadius reigned at Constantinople over the Roman dominion in the East.

Theodosius was not baptized until the end of the first year of his reign; but he immediately signalized his zeal by an edict, which denounced not only pagans, but those who held the Christian faith in any other form than that which had been authorized by the Council of Nicæa. In May, 381, he convened, at Constantinople, a second general council to confirm and complete the work of its predecessor. The crowning victory over paganism was the destruction of the colossal image of Serapis and his magnificent temple at Alexandria. Egypt was the home of the most monstrous superstitions, and the worship of Serapis was among the most widely spread and deeply seated. It must be remembered that even Christians, at this time, believed the pagan deities to be living and powerful beings, though evil in character; and there was a general fear that Serapis would avenge any violence done to his dwelling-place. At last, a soldier, braver than the rest, mounted a ladder, and with his axe aimed a heavy blow at the cheek of the image. The face fell, and no harm came to the assailant. Then the crowd, relieved of its terrors, pulled down the monstrous frame and dragged it in triumph through the streets of Alexandria.

The crime for which the emperor suffered penance at Milan was a general massacre which he ordered at Thessalonica, capital of the province of Macedonia. His provocation had been serious, but the punishment far exceeded the offense. In A. D. 390, a charioteer of the circus had been imprisoned for just cause; the people, after vainly demanding his appearance, broke out into a riot, murdered the general and his officers, and dragged their bodies about the streets. This was the act of the lowest of the mob; but, to avenge it, Theodosius sent an army of barbarian mercenaries, invited all the Thessalonians to witness the games in the circus, and, when thousands were assembled, commanded an indiscriminate slaughter. Innocent and guilty perished alike, some say to the number of 14,000, others estimate it at half that number. The personal humiliation of the emperor, though it might prove his return to right feeling, could not undo his atrocious act.

3. Alaric had studied the arts of war under Theodosius, who well knew how to make friends of the Goths and to strengthen his armies by the enrollment of their brave youth. As soon as the great emperor was dead, the Visigoths threw off the imperial yoke, chose Alaric to be their leader, and, issuing from Thrace, overran Greece and captured Athens. Arcadius, alarmed by his successes, tried to enlist the Gothic

leader on his own side by making him master-general of the imperial armies; and, as the eastern and western empires were now at war, Alaric was sent to invade Italy in A. D. 403. The Emperor Honorius abandoned Milan at the approach of the Goths, and shut himself up in the fortress of Asta. Alaric besieged him there, but Stilicho advanced to the relief of his master and gained an advantage over the invaders at Pollentia. The Goths were still more decisively defeated at Verona, and Alaric now agreed to leave Italy and to serve Honorius as master-general of the Roman forces in western Illyricum, turning his arms against his late master Arcadius. But the fame of Alaric soon drew throngs of German youth to his personal service, and he resumed his plans against Italy. In A. D. 408 he sent messengers to Honorius, demanding an extravagant reward for his three years' service, and intimating that, if this were refused, war would be the result. The Roman senate voted for war rather than submission to this haughty demand; but the great influence of Stilicho overruled their objection, and persuaded them to buy peace with 4000 pounds' weight of gold. This was done. But while Alaric and his Goths were still at the foot of the Alps, the weak and cowardly Honorius procured the assassination of Stilicho, with his son and almost all his officers. At the same time, the wives and children of Gothic soldiers in the Roman service were massacred in the Roman cities. This insane and wanton outrage seemed designed to provoke the vengeance of Alaric just when the only man who could have resisted him was dead. He crossed the Venetian plains without meeting a man in arms, marched on Rome, and besieged the city. Again a heavy ransom induced him to retire, but Honorius even now failed to keep his agreements, and Alaric besieged Rome a second time in A. D. 409. In spite of all provocations, he tried to save the city from the worst consequences of war, charging his soldiers to respect the churches, and, as far as possible, to spare innocent lives. Conferences were in progress with the imperial ministers, when the Goths in Ravenna were again treacherously assaulted by order of Honorius. Alaric's patience was now exhausted, and, entering Rome August 24, 410, he gave the city up to pillage for six days, still under the same restrictions as to life, and sacred things. Then he led off his troops; but soon afterward, while besieging Cosenza, in Calabria, the great chief died, and was buried, by his own desire, in the bed of the little river Busentinus, which had been turned from its course by the labor of a multitude of his captives. "The royal sepulcher, adorned with the splendid spoils and trophies of Rome, was constructed in the vacant bed; the waters were then restored to their natural channel, and the secret spot where the remains of Alaric had been deposited was forever concealed by the inhuman massacre of the prisoners who had been employed to execute the work."—*Gibbon*.

The story of Alaric well illustrates the weakness of the divided empire, and the vacillating policy of the imperial ministers, who, while fearing the Goths, often used them as instruments of their own vengeance upon their rivals.

4. Attila succeeded, about A. D. 432, to his hereditary chieftainship of the nomadic Huns north of the Danube. The victory at Chalons was the last one ever gained by the armies of the western Roman empire, and the conflict which it ended was one of the most memorable and decisive battles in history. To all human views, it settled the great question whether modern Europe should be Teuton or Tartar. The Goths were already Christian; their rude energy was well adapted to the laws and institutions of civilized life. The Huns were savage, heathen, destructive; mighty to ravage and desolate, but never to build and organize a state. Most of what we admire in European history would have been reversed if Attila had gained the battle of Chalons. He died in Hungary A. D. 453 or 454. The terror and excitement he had caused are voiced in many old German songs and legends, notably in the *Nibelungen Lied*.

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BOOK II.—MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

INTRODUCTION.

283. When the empire of the Cæsars was falling into the hands of barbarians, and Rome itself—the Eternal City—was plundered by Goths and Vandals, most people thought the end of the world had come. The old world had, indeed, passed away: the magnificence of Persia, the learning of Egypt, the brilliancy of Greece, the majesty of Rome were all in the past; but out of the northern forests had come the founders of new nations, who now possess Europe and America, India and Australia, and many islands of which Rome never dreamed.

284. Mediæval history covers the thousand years from the time when the barbarian Odoacer became king of Italy to the time when the present system of European nations was established. It is to be studied in two parts: the first six hundred years, when the destructive passions of men were in ascendancy, are called the Dark Ages; the last four hundred, when the tendencies to order and civilization had gained strength, are called the Middle Ages.

285. Even in the Dark Ages some powerful civilizing agencies were at work. Most of the barbarians in southern Europe were Christians, and held the clergy in great respect. They also admired the Roman skill in government, and gladly availed themselves of the services of Roman officials. So it came to pass that most of the

cities in Gaul, Spain, and Italy kept their Greek or Roman charters, with their bishops for chief magistrates; and that life in these cities was, for a time, as orderly and secure as it had been in the days of the Empire.

Learning had almost wholly disappeared from among the laity; the clergy alone could read and write, and possessed the universal Latin language which was used in dealings between the several nations. They framed laws, negotiated treaties, kept the records of public events, and executed missions to foreign kings. The education of young chiefs was entrusted to them; and their influence did not cease when their pupils had grown to manhood. Thus the power of the Church rose rapidly upon the ruins of imperial Rome. It was, indeed, the only power which could hold in check the proud and passionate conquerors; and the "Dark Ages" would have been darker still, but for the lights of reason and piety which the churches kept alive. Many men of superior talents withdrew from the turmoil of public life into monasteries, where they gave themselves to study and devotion. All that was left of the treasures of ancient learning was gathered within these convent walls, and the industry of the monks multiplied copies of the old manuscripts, which afford our only means of knowing the thoughts of the Greek and Roman writers.

PART I.—THE DARK AGES.

CHAPTER I.

SETTLEMENTS OF THE NORTHERN TRIBES.



A Frankish Warrior.

AT the end of the fifth century from the birth of Christ, the western European nations may already be traced in their rude beginnings. The heathen Angles and Saxons were crowding the Celtic Britons into the mountain-region of Wales, and giving its present name to England. They learned Christian doctrines a hundred years later from Roman missionaries, and taught them to their heathen brethren on the continent. The

continental Saxons occupied most of the land between the lower Rhine and the Baltic.

287. The *Alemanni* possessed southern Germany and part of Switzerland, while the *Burgundians* had the valley of the Rhone and the Swiss lakes. The *Franks* held the country between the Loire and the Rhine. Chlodwig¹ or Clo'vis, their chief, gained many victories over the Alemanni, the Burgundians, and the Visigoths, and made himself king of nearly all France. His wife, Clotil'da, was a Christian; and Clovis, though a pagan, was so

impressed by her faith that he called upon "Clotilda's God," at the turning point of a battle. He gained the victory, A. D. 496, and, with thousands of his warriors, was immediately baptized. The Eastern emperor sent him the purple robe and diadem of a consul, making him a lieutenant of the Empire. The descendants of Clovis, though often divided by fierce contentions, ruled the countries which are now Belgium, Western Germany, and a great part of France, for more than two hundred years.

288. One powerful Gothic kingdom occupied Spain (§ 279) and south-western Gaul; another, under Theodoric,² king of the Ostrogoths, embraced Italy and the lands between the Adriatic and the Danube. This great chief had been a hostage at Constantinople during his youth; and the education which he there received added the quick intelligence of the Greek to the rude energy of the Goth. He learned, also, a profound respect for the imperial system of laws, and his firm rule of thirty-three years was a happy time for Italy. Two consuls, one chosen by himself and one by the emperor of the East, kept up the ancient forms of government. All religions were protected, and, though the Goths held one-third of the lands and formed a kind of military aristocracy, they paid an equal share of the taxes, and respected all the rights of their Italian neighbors. Theodoric was the greatest German monarch of his time; the chiefs of the other nations referred their differences to him and regarded him as their head.

289. In the confusion that followed Theodoric's death, the Eastern emperor interfered, and, in spite of a long and brave resistance from the Goths,³ made Italy a subject-province. But a new German race, the Lombards, or Long-Beards, soon appeared and overran the whole peninsula, which was afterwards divided among their thirty

dukes. Rome, Ravenna, Naples, and some other cities still remained subject to the Empire, while the Lombards ruled the rest with Pavia for their capital. The great northern plain of Italy still bears their name. The Lombards were a fierce and cruel race, never mingling in a friendly manner with the Italians, as the Goths had done. Still, they became educated, in the course of years, by contact with wiser and better people than themselves; so that the system of laws published by their king, Rotharis, in 643 A. D., was the best of all the barbarian codes.⁴ It was founded upon the ancient customs of the German tribes, but it borrowed some of its best features from the Roman laws, and especially from the Bible.

290. All the tribes hitherto described were Germans: west of them was a narrow border of Celts in Scotland, Ireland, Wales, and north-western France; while eastward were the Slavonians, far more numerous, though less warlike, than the Germans—fathers of the modern Poles, Bohemians, Bulgarians, Illyrians, and a very large proportion of the Russians.

Point out, on Map 4, the settlements of the German tribes. The Lombard capital of Italy. The Italian cities which belonged to the Eastern Empire. The dominions of the Slavonians and Celts.

Read Gibbon's "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire;" Parke Godwin's History of France; and Hallam's Middle Ages.

NOTES.

1. Chlodwig* was born about A. D. 466, and, at the age of fifteen years, succeeded his father, Childeric, as king of the Sallian Franks. Five years later he gained a victory over the Romans and Gauls, capturing from them the town of Soissons, which he made his capital. More than half of France was then occupied by the Goths and Burgundians. Alaric, king of the Visigoths, ruled from the Loire to the Pyrenees; but he was defeated and slain in a great battle near Poitiers, A. D. 507, and his whole dominion was added to the kingdom of the

*The General History admits the common French names of the Frankish sovereigns, only because the usage has been too long established to be easily changed; and many allusions in literature would fail to be understood if the German names had been used. In strict accuracy, *Clouis* should be *Hlodwig* or *Chlodwig* (the original of *Ludwig* or *Lewis*); *Charlemagne* (†308) is *Karl* the Great; *Albert* is *Albrecht*; and *Egbert* is *Egberht*. It is important to remember that the descendants, both of *Hlodwig* and of *Karl* were Germans; and they spoke the Old High German language, which is the parent of Modern German, and were regarded as foreigners by the Gauls and Romans whom they conquered and ruled. The modern French monarchy dates from the accession of *Hugh Capet* (†338) A. D. 987.

Franks. Clotilda was a niece of the king of Burgundy, by whom, in her helpless orphanage, she had been cruelly oppressed. Clovis, of course, made her quarrel his own, and gained decisive victories over her kinsmen. His conversion gained for him the powerful support of the clergy; but it does not seem to have greatly altered the fierceness of his nature. He destroyed many princes of his own family in order to gain the sovereignty of all the Franks, which he succeeded in doing toward the end of his life.

The dynasty which he founded is called Merovingian, from Merowig, his grandfather.

2. Theodoric the Great, a son of King Theodemir, was born A. D. 455. The East Goths were then settled between the Danube and the Adriatic; and, though allies of the Eastern Empire, were usually regarded with suspicion and required to give hostages for their friendly behavior. This was, perhaps, a fortunate state of things for Theodoric, for it procured him the opportunity to study the highest civilization of his age; and the lessons which he learned at Constantinople were of rich benefit to his Italian subjects in later years.

At the age of twenty, Theodoric succeeded his father as king of the Ostrogoths; and soon afterward was involved in war with Zeno, Emperor of the East, who had usurped the throne of Theodoric's late host and benefactor, Leo I. The Gothic king was on the point of capturing Constantinople, when Zeno, who had been driven from the city, had the art to engage him in the conquest of Italy. Odoacer, a Gothic or Herulian chieftain, had put an end to what remained of the Western Roman Empire. Theodoric three times defeated him in battle, and finally besieged him in Ravenna, which surrendered after three years, and the whole peninsula submitted to the Gothic king. For some years Theodoric was regent for his grandson Amalaric, the young king of the West Goths, and ruled all the country from Sicily to the Danube, and from Belgrade to the Atlantic. But as soon as Amalaric was of age, he was lifted upon the shields of the Visigothic chiefs, according to the custom of all German tribes, and was thus invested with royal power A. D. 522. Subsequently, his grandfather aided him in wars against the sons of Clovis, with varying success.

So large a mind as that of Theodoric could not fail to be in advance of an age in which civilization and barbarism were curiously mixed. In the latter part of his reign, a fierce, fanatical rage against the Jews broke out into a riot, in which houses, shops, and synagogues in several cities were burnt. Theodoric, with impartial justice, required the mobs to make good the property they had destroyed. But their rage was then turned against the king. Disheartened by his failure to maintain order, or, perhaps, depressed by failing health, he became a prey to unjust suspicions.

Boëthius, a distinguished statesman and philosopher, the brightest ornament of the court, was accused by his envious rivals of having conspired with the Emperor of the East to drive the Goths out of Italy. He was thrown into prison, where he wrote in prose and verse, his admirable treatise on the "Consolation of Philosophy," a work which Alfred the Great so valued that he translated it into the Saxon English of his time (§ 329).

The execution of Boëthius by the king's order was soon followed by that of his father-in-law, the venerable Symmachus; but grief and remorse for these two acts hastened the death of Theodoric, who died within a year, A. D. 526.

The good effects of Theodoric's reign were not all lost, even when, after sixty years' duration, his kingdom was overthrown, A. D. 553.

Cassiodorus, his learned secretary and chief minister, had founded, at Ravenna, the first of modern public libraries. After thirty years of high office under Theodoric and his successor, Cassiodorus retired at the age of seventy, to a monastery, which he established at Squillace; and, during his thirty remaining years—for he lived nearly a century—he gave an impulse to monastic learning which lasted through the Middle Ages. He spent large sums of money for manuscripts which he encouraged the monks to copy; and thus set a fashion which insured the safe preservation of many treasures of ancient literature through ages of war and tumult. But for the convent-libraries, modern learning would have been a new creation—robbed of all its rich inheritance from the past.

3. Rome was surrendered without a blow by its senate and clergy, A. D. 536; but Vitiges, the third successor of Theodoric, mustered a powerful army and besieged Belisarius more than a year in the Eternal City. The sepulcher of Hadrian, now the castle of St. Angelo, was then first used as a fortress, and the beautiful Greek statues which adorned it were hurled down upon the heads of the besiegers.

In a single assault the Goths lost 30,000 men; and, at length, Vitiges was compelled to draw off his reduced army to Ravenna, leaving all Italy to Belisarius. Ten thousand Burgundians, who had come to the aid of the Goths, destroyed the splendid city of Milan; and the next year, Theodebert, their Frankish sovereign, passed the Alps with 100,000 men, disguising his intentions until he fell, almost at the same moment, upon both the Gothic and the Roman army near Pavia, and gained a complete victory, A. D. 539. This was a double treachery; for he had accepted great gifts both from the emperor and the Gothic king, as the price of his alliance. Theodebert then ravaged Italy until famine and disease had reduced his army to one third of its original numbers, and he withdrew beyond the Alps. Ravenna, which, secure within its marshes, could not be reduced by the Roman forces, at length yielded to famine. The Goths, weary of the unfortunate reign of Vitiges, begged Belisarius himself to become their king. He pretended to accept their offer, but, as soon as the keys of the fortress were in his hands, he declared that he held them only as the faithful subject and lieutenant of Justinian.

Pavia alone, with its garrison of 1,000 Goths, still held out; but, as soon as Belisarius had been recalled to Constantinople, the new king, Totila, commenced his rapid and triumphant march for the recovery of Italy. Rome was retaken, A. D. 546; its senators were carried away to Campanian prisons, and its people were scattered in exile. Belisarius, returning, soon regained the city and defeated the Goths in a decisive battle. But the great general was fettered by the ungenerous suspicions of his master (notes 1, 2, Ch. II). Totila, A. D. 549, again took Rome, following up his success by the conquest of Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, and the invasion of Greece. An embassy, undertaken by the Pope himself, now induced Justinian to send a sufficient force, under Narses, for the recovery of Italy. In a great battle near Tagina, Totila was slain, and Rome, for the fifth time in one reign, changed masters, A. D. 552.

All Italy was ruled for a time by the lieutenants of the empire, who bore the title of Exarchs of Ravenna. Narses, the first and greatest of the exarchs, reigned A. D. 554-568.—*Manual of Medieval and Modern History*, pp. 22, 23, § 290.

4. Within about a century, all the German tribes systematized their ancient customs or usages into written codes of law. Thus Theodoric, the eldest son of Clovis, reigning at Metz over the north-eastern portion of his father's dominion, caused three codes to be prepared for his Alemannic, Bavarian, and Ripuarian subjects, respectively. Six codes were in force under the Lombard kings, after their conquest of Italy,—the Roman, Gothic, Salian, Ripuarian, Alemannic, and the Lombard of King Rotharis. Any man, when summoned into court, might declare by which code he lived and desired to be judged; but, unless he could prove himself a member of a Teutonic tribe, the Roman law prevailed. All the codes, though embodying immemorial customs, were formed under more or less influence from the clergy, and were modified by the principles of the Scriptures.

After the Lombard conquest, the exarchate of Ravenna comprised only what were lately the States of the Church, together with Venice, Naples, and the Calabrian coast.

CHAPTER II.

THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE EAST.



Byzantine Priest.

THOUGH the emperor at Constantinople still called himself lord of all the countries which Augustus or Trajan had ruled, and though the German chiefs acknowledged him their superior (§ 281), his actual dominion was but little more extensive than that of the modern Turks.

292. During the sixth century the greatest emperor was Justinian,¹ A. D. 527-565. the grandson of a Gothic farmer. He had fierce and costly wars with Persia, and obtained peace at last only by paying tribute to the Sassanidæ (§ 259). His military glory is all due to his great generals, Belisa'rius² and Nar'ses. The former conquered northern Africa, Sardinia, and Corsica from the Vandals (§ 279); Sicily and all Italy from the Goths (§ 288). Theodoric's kingdom fell, sixty years from its foundation. Italy, Africa, and the islands were then governed by *exarchs*, or lieutenants of the Empire, one having his seat at Carthage and one at Ravenna. Narses, who had an important part in the conquest of the Goths, was exarch of Ravenna fourteen years.

293. Justinian is noted for the splendid buildings with which he adorned his capital, among which the Church of Santa Sophia was said to surpass the Temple of Solomon. But his best title to fame is in the legislative work

which afforded a model of civil law for all the nations of Europe. The ablest jurists, under his direction, compared the decisions of all the best judges since the preparation of the Twelve Tables (§ 194). These, when edited, formed the *Pandects*. The *Code* was an abridgment of the acts of all the emperors since Hadrian. The *Institutes* set forth the elementary principles of law, and afforded a text-book to the great law-schools of Rome, Athens, Beirut, and Constantinople.

294. By the wars of Herac'lius,³ one of the greatest of Justinian's successors (A. D. 610-641), the Persian Empire was overthrown, but the same emperor saw the rise of a new and greater power in the East, which will be described in the next chapter. Leo III.⁴ is called the second founder of the Eastern Empire. His brilliant defense of the capital against the Saracens, saved it from destruction, while his firm and wise government gave it a new era of security. His subjects were the most prosperous people of that age. The commerce of Europe with Asia had its center at Constantinople, and the cities of central and eastern Asia were then far more flourishing than now. Leo's attempt to put down the worship of images led to a violent contest, both in the East and in Italy, and was a chief cause of the separation between the Greek and Roman churches.

295. The Macedonian Dynasty, of which Basil I. was the founder,⁵ governed the Empire nearly 200 years, and, in 867 A. D., raised it to its highest military fame by wars with the Saracens, Russians, and Bulgarians. Basil II. was the greatest of the imperial generals.⁶

Trace, on Map 5, the conquests of Belisarius. Point out the capitals of the two Exarchates (§ 292). Justinian's capital.

Read Gibbon, and Finlay's "History of the Byzantine Empire."

Also, Rawlinson's "Seventh Ancient Eastern Monarchy."

NOTES.

1. Justinian was born A. D. 483, in Dardania. At the age of 35, he was associated with his uncle, Justin I., in the imperial dignity, and nine years later became sole emperor. The rivalries of the circus in Constantinople, between the "Blue" and the "Green" faction led to open riot and rebellion, in which 30,000 lives were destroyed, but the promptness of Belisarius, general of the Imperial Guard, quelled the insurrection, and the clemency of Justinian soothed the discontents and enmities out of which it had arisen. The Church of Santa Sophia (Holy Wisdom) was among the buildings destroyed in the conflagration; and Justinian caused it to be rebuilt on a far more magnificent scale from the plans of the architect Anthemius. It is now said to be one of the most remarkable buildings of any age or country; and Justinian considered himself, by reason of it, as a rival of Solomon. Upon the Turkish conquest of Constantinople (§ 379) this great church was converted into a mosque.

Other temples, as well as convents, roads, bridges, aqueducts, and fortifications in various parts of the empire attested the architectural zeal and liberality of Justinian.

The laws of Rome had never been reduced to a system since the time of the *Decemviri* and the Twelve Tables (§ 194), for Julius Cæsar had not been allowed time to fulfill his purpose (§ 237). Every thing depended upon precedents, and these could be learned only from a mass of separate decisions "which no fortune could buy, and no intelligence could comprehend." The need and importance of Justinian's work is therefore evident. At the head of the commission of ten, who prepared the first code, was Tribonian, a celebrated jurist and a great favorite with the emperor.

Justinian was a liberal patron of many industrial arts, and it was during his reign that the eggs of silkworms were first brought from China to the West. The culture of mulberry plants and the manufacture of silk were encouraged by the emperor, and became a very important industry in Greece and the Mediterranean islands.

2. Belisarius was an officer of Justinian's guard before the latter became emperor in 527, and he was soon afterward promoted to be general-in-chief in the army of the East. In this capacity he defeated the Persians at Dora, in 530, and put down a dangerous riot in the capital, 532. His greatest victories were over the Vandals and the Goths, as mentioned in the text; but his most powerful enemy was the Empress Theodora, who poisoned the mind of Justinian against him, deprived him of the men and war materials that he had a right to expect for his enterprises in Italy, and thus detracted from his success, and more than once deprived him of his command. On a false accusation of conspiracy against Justinian, he was imprisoned and robbed of all his possessions. There is a story that blindness was added to his misfortunes of poverty and old age; and that he was seen begging in the streets of Constantinople: "Give a penny to Belisarius the general." But this is more picturesque than true. We may be certain, however, that no great man ever suffered more from the malice and jealousy of those who ought to have been his friends; and we may reasonably conjecture that if Belisarius, like Cæsar and Napoleon, had possessed means commensurate with his talents, he would have ranked with them among the greatest generals of all ages.

3. Heraclius was born about A. D. 575, in Cappadocia, the son of a Roman governor of Africa, of the same name. He had gained distinction in the army before the violent death of Phocas, an odious tyrant, opened for him the way to the imperial throne. His empire was already in the grasp of Chosroës II., king of Persia, one of whose armies had conquered Syria, Egypt, and northern Africa as far as Tripoli, while another had advanced to the Bosphorus and held its camp for ten years in sight of Constantinople. The genius and courage of Heraclius shone brightest in these years of adversity. He conveyed his army by sea to the borders of Syria and Cilicia, and, on the very spot where Alexander, nearly a thousand years before, in the battle of Issus (§ 160) had overthrown the ancestor of Chosroës, inflicted a decisive defeat upon

the Persian hosts. In a second expedition he carried the war into Persia, and forced Chosroës to recall his forces from the Nile and the Bosphorus; in a third, he gained a battle on the ground that covered the ruins of Nineveh, utterly destroying the armies of Persia. The power of the second Persian empire expired with Chosroës, and its existence was soon ended by the Mohammedans.

But these extraordinary efforts had exhausted the forces of the empire, and the Saracens soon gained all that Heraclius had wrested from the Persians. The emperor, as if content with his early achievements, gave himself up to excessive luxury, while province after province was seized by the enemy; and his empire covered only Constantinople and its suburbs. The glory of his youth was lost in the disgrace of his old age. Hallam well says: "That prince may be said to have stood on the verge of both hemispheres of time whose youth was crowned with the last victories over the successors of Artaxerxes, and whose age was clouded by the first calamities of Mohammedan invasion."

4. Leo III., the son of an Isaurian farmer, rose, by his military talents, to the highest command in the armies of Anastasius II. When Theodosius III., in 716, deposed Anastasius and commanded the army to acknowledge him as emperor, Leo instantly marched against him and defeated him. Instead, however, of reinstating his former sovereign, he made himself master of the empire. Scarcely was he seated on the throne, when the Saracen forces advanced to their third siege of Constantinople (see § 299). This lasted just two years, Aug. 15, 718, to Aug. 15, 720, and was pressed with all the energy and fury of the earliest Saracen period. But Leo, issuing with his galleys from the Golden Horn, three times consumed the Moslem fleets with storms of Greek fire, and returned laden with plunder and with multitudes of captives. At length he gained a complete victory by land, and the caliph retreated after a loss of 28,000 men.

While the emperor was so long shut up in his capital, the besiegers took good care that no news of their defeat should reach the provinces; and it was even believed in the West that the empire had been overthrown. But Leo's energy and promptness soon regained Sicily and the portion of Italy that still obeyed the eastern Caesars. Leo's edict against images, was a political, quite as much as a religious measure, for he hoped to soothe the enmity of Jews and Mohammedans, which had been excited by the novel practices in the churches. We have seen that he failed; indeed, his edict was the signal for a general revolution, in which Ravenna, Rome, and the other Greek possessions in Italy were lost to the empire.

5. Basil I. was said to be descended, on the father's side, from the Arsacidae, rulers of the Parthian Empire; on the mother's, from Constantine the Great, and, perhaps, from Philip and Alexander of Macedon. It is probable, however, that the name of "Macedonian," borne by his dynasty, was derived only from the great estates which he had purchased in Macedon. As a boy, he was made a prisoner and slave by the Bulgarians; but, after many surprising turns of fortune, arriving at Constantinople, he rose into favor at court, and at last attained the imperial crown itself. His reign was signalized by the Christianization of Bulgaria, an event of lasting importance. Though no general himself, Basil had the talent to discern and employ military talent in others; and his armies gained great victories over the Saracens, whom they expelled from the Italian peninsula, though not from Sicily. Basil I. reigned A. D. 867-886.

6. Basil II. was born in the imperial palace at Constantinople A. D. 958, and came to the throne A. D. 976, in partnership with his younger brother, Constantine. Constantine, however, was idle and luxurious, while Basil bore all the burdens of a reign troubled by many wars, both civil and foreign. His sister Theophania was the wife of Otho II., Emperor of the West (§ 322), but Basil had need to fight against his brother-in-law no less than against the Arabs and Bulgarians. The powerful kingdom of the latter was overthrown by a series of conflicts extending over 30 years.

CHAPTER III.

THE SARACENS.



Saracens.

FROM the sandy deserts of Arabia a power had now arisen, which threatened to subdue and govern the whole extent of the Roman dominion. Moham'med,¹ an Arabian camel-driver, in his journeys from Mecca to Damascus, met travelers from all nations. He had the wit to perceive that all the old religions were dead, while the Christian church was weakened and divided by the war against images; and he conceived the bold idea of replacing all the creeds by

the worship of One God, of whom he himself was to be the prophet.

297. His own tribe, however, were so angry at his pretensions, that they vowed to kill the self-appointed prophet.

A. D. 622. He fled to Medina, where he soon had a powerful party; and from this flight (Hegira) his followers still date their history. Within seven years, all Arabia submitted to be not only taught, but governed by Mohammed. He claimed to have received from the Archangel Gabriel a volume containing the decrees of God. These he made known only in fragments to his disciples, who wrote them on palm-leaves or on bits of bone. After his death they were collected and published in the Koran.

298. He now commenced a wonderful career of conquest, A. D. 629. All who would not believe in his
(178)

mission were subjected to tribute or death. The bravery of his followers was sharpened by religious zeal. They were told that the moment of every man's death is written in the Book of Fate. At that moment he will fall dead, wherever he may be; until it comes, he is safe in the fiercest storm of battle.

299. In less than a hundred years the successors of Mohammed had conquered Persia, Syria, Egypt, northern Africa, and Spain. Alexandria was twice re-taken by the Greek armies and fleets, after it had submitted to the Moslem force, but it was twice re-captured, and its library, containing inestimable treasures of ancient literature, was destroyed. Constantinople was more fortunate. Thrice besieged by the Moslem, once for seven years (A. D. 668–675), again for thirteen months, and a third time for two years, it was saved by Greek Fire, an explosive liquid, whose composition—of naphtha, sulphur, and pitch—was then known only to the Byzantines.

300. The great battle that gave Spain to the Saracens, was fought at Xeres, on the Guadalete,² A. D. 711. It lasted seven days; but at length King Rod'eric was put to flight, and the Mohammedans, in a few months, overran the whole peninsula. Prince Pelay'o, with a few brave Goths, retreated to the mountains of Asturias, and kept alive the Christian power, which grew, in time, to be the kingdom of Spain. Multitudes of Moslems, from Syria and Arabia, flocked into the country. Their victorious forces crossed the Pyrenees, and conquered a great part of southern France. They meant to subdue the northern shores of the Mediterranean as they had the southern, and make the Saracen Empire as extensive as that of Augustus or Trajan.

301. But a great power had now arisen in France. The descendants of Clovis (§ 287) had lost character and energy, so that for a hundred years they had no better

name in history than that of *do-nothings* and *idiots*. Their authority was in the hands of the Mayors of the Palace, a succession of able officers who ruled both kingdom and king. Charles Martel, one of the greatest of these mayors, mustered all the German tribes to meet the Moslem hosts who were advancing for the conquest of France.

302. The decisive battle was fought, for several days, on a plain between Tours and Poitiers. The Saracens had better armor, and the confidence derived from a century of almost uninterrupted victories. The Germans had greater personal strength, and they were fighting for home and faith. At length the Arab ranks were broken, their general was slain, and they stole away in the night, leaving their camp, rich with the plunder of southern Europe, to reward the Franks.

303. Within a few years, the Saracen Empire was divided among three families: The *Ommi'ades*, who had hitherto ruled the whole, lost all but Spain; the descendants of A'li, son-in-law and one of the first converts of Mohammed, obtained Persia, Egypt, and Mauretania; while the *Abbas'sides*, descendants of the Prophet's uncle, ruled the rest of the Saracen dominion, from their capital, Bagdad, on the Tigris. The Abbasside sovereign was called the *caliph*, or successor of Mohammed; and was the religious head of Islam, as well as the ruler of the empire.

304. The first rude era of conquest was succeeded by a brilliant period of intellectual progress. The Arabs became the teachers of Europe in botany, chemistry, and medicine. From Samarcand to Cordova,³ the capital of Spain, their great cities were enriched by libraries and colleges, and adorned with Moorish architecture. Ha'roun al Rasch'id⁴ and his successor Alma'mun,⁵ invited learned men from all nations to their magnificent court at Bagdad, and, by their orders, the writings of the Greek philosophers were translated into

A. D. 786-833.

Arabic. Western Europe was now sunk in comparative ignorance, and the few great scholars had to seek instruction at the schools of the Saracens.

305. But the Saracens were not all learned or refined. Mohammedan freebooters conquered Sicily and Crete, and made the latter their slave-market, where captives from all the Mediterranean countries were bought and sold. All the Sicilian ports were nests of pirates, who preyed upon Italy, and even twice attacked Rome. The gold and silver in the churches were carried away, but the city was saved by the energy of its Pope, Leo IV. In honor of him, the quarter of Rome where the popes live, has ever since been called the Leonine City. Thessalonica, the second city of the Eastern Empire, was taken by the Saracens; and, after most of its people had been massacred, 22,000 of its youth were sold into slavery, A. D. 904.

A. D. 846, 847.

On Maps 5 and 7, point out Arabia, Mecca, Medina, Xeres, Tours. Trace the Saracen conquests, actual and intended. Point out the three Saracen kingdoms. Bagdad. Samarcand. Cordova. Thessalonica.

Read Irving's "Mahomet and his Successors," Finlay's "History of the Byzantine Empire," Gibbon's "Decline and Fall," and Southey's "Roderick," with the notes.

NOTES.

1. As the founder of one of the most widely diffused religions on the globe—one which, by its vigor and fierce fanaticism, seems able, even now, to involve all Europe in war—Mohammed must always afford an interesting subject for study. Until lately, he has been most commonly regarded in Christendom as not only the teacher of a false system of belief, but a conscious and cunning impostor. But, when we consider how real and lasting were the results of his actions, we can hardly doubt that he, at least, believed in himself. "A false man found a religion!" says Carlyle. "Why! a false man can not even build a brick wall." Through his long career, and even in the hour of death, Mohammed never betrayed the weakness which attends intentional deception. But he was of a peculiarly excitable, nervous constitution, subject to visions and other illusions of a powerful imagination; and his visions took their form from the strong conviction of his waking hours that his pagan countrymen needed a purer faith. At first he was tolerant of those who differed from him. "If you meet an unbeliever, say to him, You have your religion, I have mine," was his direction to

his followers. But, after his enforced flight to Medina, he changed his plans. "The sword," said he, "is the key of heaven and of hell; a drop of blood shed in the cause of God, or a night spent in arms, is of more avail than two months of fasting and prayer; whoever falls in battle, his sins are forgiven him; and, at the day of judgment, the loss of his limbs shall be supplied by the wings of cherubim." The only choice offered to unbelievers was "the Koran, tribute, or the sword."

Mohammed's first convert was his generous and faithful wife, Khadijah; and for years his only adherents were his household and intimate friends. His uncle, Abu Talib, though refusing to regard him as a prophet, was his firm friend and protector; while Ali, the son of Abu Talib, was his cousin's bravest and most devoted adherent. For his courage and lofty spirit, Ali was called the "Lion of God." He married Mohammed's only daughter, Fatima, and became, in later years, the founder of the sect of Fatimites, or Shiites, to which the Persians still belong. Among other adherents, was Abu Bekr, the first successor of Mohammed, and Omar, the prophet's kinsman and second successor, the conqueror of Jerusalem, and builder of the mosque which bears his name upon the site of Solomon's Temple.

Seven years from the Hegira, Mecca was taken by storm, and Mohammed's late bitter enemies received him as their prophet and king. "What mercy can you expect," said he, "from the man whom you have so deeply wronged?" "We trust to the generosity of our kinsman," was the reply. "And you shall not trust in vain," rejoined the conqueror, "go; you are safe; you are free."

After four years more of almost constant victories, Mohammed was seized with a violent fever. "When he perceived that his end was near, supported by the arms of Ali and another relative, he went into the mosque and asked publicly if he had injured any one;—if so, he was ready to make full amends, or to suffer himself what he had inflicted on others. As no one answered, he asked again if he owed any man any thing. A voice replied, "Yes; to me, three drachms of silver." The prophet ordered the money to be paid, and thanked his creditor that he made his complaint now, instead of deferring it till the day of judgment." He died on his 63d or 65th birthday, in the eleventh year of the Hegira, A. D. 632.

His followers, led by Omar, refused to believe that he was dead, but Abu Bekr quieted the tumult. "Is it Mohammed," said he, "or the God of Mohammed that you worship? God liveth for ever and ever; but Mohammed, though his prophet and apostle, was mortal like ourselves, and, in dying, has but fulfilled his own prediction."

Abu Bekr was the first *Caliph*, i. e., successor of Mohammed; the term is now applied to the religious head of Islam, and has been assumed in late years by the Sultan at Constantinople.

Mohammed named no successor, nor did he even direct how the choice of one should be made. Strife soon arose, therefore, between his near kinsmen, led at first by Ali, his son-in-law,—and the family of Ommeyah, to which Othman, the third caliph, belonged. After the death of Khadijah, the prophet had married Ayesha, daughter of Abu Bekr. When Ali had gained the throne by the murder of Othman, Ayesha took up arms against him, and the first civil war in Islam began with the battle of Bosrah, A. D. 656. Ali was victorious, and reigned four years, but he was then (A. D. 660) murdered in his turn, and Moawiyeh, the second Ommiad Caliph, established his government at Damascus, where he and his fourteen descendants maintained the supremacy of their house for 89 years. The last of them was dethroned by a descendant of Abbas, an uncle of Mohammed, who gained a great battle near Arbela (‡ 162) on the river Zab, and founded the dynasty of the *Abbasides*.

The descendants of Ommeyah were now hunted to death with atrocious barbarities. Only one escaped—the young prince Abderrahman—who wandered from one hiding-place to another, through northern Africa into Spain, where he reestablished, at Cordova, the brilliant dynasty of the *Ommiades*.

The two sons of Ali and Fatima came to untimely ends; but their descendants, in a somewhat irregular manner, kept possession of Persia, Egypt, and northern Africa. They were despised for their heretical doctrines by the orthodox Moslems or "Soonnites," and to this day their followers are known as *Sheeah*, *Shiites*, or Separatists.

2. The kingdom of the Visigoths in Spain (§§ 279, 288) was weakened during its later years by the enmities of two rival royal families, so that it became a comparatively easy prey to the invaders. Report says that Count Julian, a powerful lord among the Visigoths, and commandant of the African fortress of Ceuta, enraged by an injury received from King Roderick, invited the Saracens into Spain.

"Desperate apostate! on the Moors he called;
 And, like a cloud of locusts, whom the South
 Wafts from the plains of wasted Africa,
 The Mussulmen upon Iberia's shore
 Descend. A countless multitude they came;
 Syrian, Moor, Saracen, Greek renegade,
 Persian and Copt and Tartar, in one bond
 Of erring faith conjoined,—strong in the youth
 And heat of zeal,—a dreadful brotherhood
 In whom all turbulent vices were let loose. . . .
 Then fell the kingdom of the Goths; their hour
 Was come, and Vengeance, long withheld, went loose.
 Famine and Pestilence had wasted them,
 And Treason, like an old and eating sore,
 Consumed the bones and sinews of their strength,
 And, worst of enemies, their sins were armed
 Against them. Yet the scepter from their hands
 Passed not away inglorious, nor was shame
 Left for their children's lasting heritage.
 Eight summer days, from morn till latest eve,
 The fatal fight endured, till perfidy
 Prevailing to their overthrow, they sank
 Defeated, not dishonored. On the banks
 Of Chrysus, Roderick's royal car was found,
 His battle horse Orello, and that helm
 Whose horns, amid the thickest of the fray
 Eminent, had marked his presence. Did the stream
 Receive him with the undistinguished dead,
 Christian and Moor, who clogged its course that day?
 So thought the conqueror; and from that day forth,
 Memorial of his perfect victory,
 He bade the river bear the name of Joy."
 —Southey, "*Roderick, the Last of the Goths.*"

Pelayo was a cousin of Roderick, and ancestor of subsequent kings of Spain.

3. Cordova, founded, probably, by the Carthaginians, was taken by the Romans, B. C. 152, and became the seat of the first Roman colony in Spain. In the war between Cæsar and the sons of Pompey (§ 235), Cordova took part with the latter, and was punished after Cæsar's victory at Munda, by the massacre of 20,000 of its people. It was the home of Seneca (§ 250), and of many other distinguished Romans. Under the Goths it was still an important city, and Hosius, its bishop, was president of the Council of Nice (§ 267). After the Saracen conquests, Cordova became the capital of the Moorish dominion in Spain, and a seat of luxury and learning.

4. Haroun al Raschid (Aaron the Just), the most splendid and powerful of the Abbassides, reigned from A. D. 786 to 806. "About 804 he waged a successful war against the Byzantine emperor, Nicephorus, whom he compelled to pay tribute. He is chiefly renowned as the principal hero of the 'Arabian Nights Entertainment.'" His excessive cruelty to the people of the eastern empire, whose lands he ravaged, and his murder of the Barmecides, his own intimate friends and faithful servants, make us doubt whether his surname of the Just was deservedly bestowed.

5. Almanun, son of the preceding, conquered his elder brother, and reigned from 813 to 833. His court at Bagdad was the great center of learning for the world; and his reign was signaled by the first accurate measurement of the earth's orbit.

CHAPTER IV.

THE WESTERN EMPIRE RESTORED.



Priest and Paladin.

BESIDES preventing a Saracen conquest of Europe, the victory of Charles Martel, at Tours, had another result almost equally important. It caused the Frankish chief to be regarded as the champion of western Christendom, and the natural ally of the Pope. While the exarchate of Africa was falling into the hands of the Saracens, that of Ravenna was losing most of its power in Italy. During the war for the Images (§ 294), the Romans declared themselves a republic, with the Pope at their

head, and destroyed the fleet which the Emperor of the East sent to compel their submission. But the Lombards (§ 289) were now masters of a great part of Italy, and threatened Rome. Pope Greg'ory III. sent an urgent appeal for help to the great mayor, Charles Martel, who, by conquering Burgundy, Provence, and Aquitaine, had extended his power over all modern France.

307. Charles died too soon to fulfill the wishes of Greg'ory; but his son Pe'pin twice invaded Italy with great armies, and conquered 22 cities from the Lombard king, who, moreover, had to resign one third of all his treasures to the Pope. Pepin was already crowned King of the Franks;¹ he now received the title of "*patrician*," with

almost the power of the ancient consuls at Rome. Money was coined and justice administered in his name, and the election of the popes, by the clergy of their diocese, was subject to his approval.

308. Pepin's son Charles was one of the greatest characters in history, whether considered as sovereign, lawmaker, or military chief. By the Pope's invitation he, too, crossed the Alps and made war with the Lombards. Pavia, their capital, was taken after fifteen months' siege; their king and his family were imprisoned for the rest of their lives; and Charles received the iron crown, which made him King of Italy. He also extended his protection to the Gothic Christians in Spain, and added the land between the Pyrenees and the Ebro to his dominion.

309. In pursuance of his plan for civilizing and Christianizing all Europe, he waged war for 33 years with the heathen Saxons and Slavonians A. D. 772-805. in the north and east. At this time there was not a city in northern Germany. Many towns were founded by Charles, as centers not only of trade but of intelligence and Christianity. Every town had its bishop, and every bishopric and monastery maintained a college. Libraries were founded, and copies of the great writings of antiquity were distributed among them. The old ballads which told of the brave deeds of German heroes were now first collected by Charles' order.

310. Before the Saxons were thoroughly reduced to submission, the Bavarians revolted against the Frankish power, and called the Avars to their aid. These were a Tartar tribe, of the same race with Attila's Huns (§ 280), and had been encamped more than 200 years in what is now known as Hungary. Not only was Bavaria subdued, but, after a long and fierce contest, the Avars also submitted to Charles. The spoils of Europe and Asia, which had been laid up for centuries in their fortified camp,

went to enrich their conquerors. The long eastern frontier of the Frankish dominion, extending from the Adriatic to the Baltic, was now guarded by chiefs who were thence known as *margraves*, or Counts of the Border.

311. On Christmas day, A. D. 800, as Charles was praying in the church of St. Peter, at Rome, the Pope placed upon his head the crown of the Cæsars, saluting him as "Charles AUGUSTUS, crowned of God, great and peace-giving Emperor of the Romans." The throne of Constantinople had lately been usurped by Irene, a most unnatural mother, who had put out her son's eyes to unfit him for reigning, and had then thrust herself into his place. It was now thought that Old Rome might take back the importance which Constantine had given to the New (§268), and, as Constantine VI., the blinded emperor, was sixty-seventh in order from the first Augustus, Charles was numbered sixty-eighth as his successor.

312. Charles the Great was recognized as the head of Christendom, not only by Goths and Saxons in the West, but by the caliph Haroun al Raschid (§304), who sent him, among other gifts, the keys of the Holy Sepulcher at Jerusalem. It was, in fact, the great aim of Charles' life to give to his whole dominion that security and peace which the Roman world had enjoyed under the best of the emperors. Instead of the armed assemblies, which had transacted the affairs of the German tribes at the March- and May-fields, *diets* were now instituted, in which the bishops had an important part; and the discussions were in Latin, so that members from all nations might understand.

313. Charles delighted in the conversation of learned men, and continued his own studies all his life, with their advice. Wherever he might be, in court or camp, in the ancient cities, or in the wildernesses of northern Europe, he was surrounded by his learned friends; and

his house or tent was a school for younger princes, who sought his instruction in the arts of war and government. With the majesty of the Cæsar, he combined the simple habits of the Frankish chief. His long and incessantly active reign of 46 years went far to transform the Dark Ages into order and enlightenment; but, unhappily, his imperial genius did not descend to his sons, and the succeeding ages were darker than ever.

A. D. 768-814.

314. Louis the Mild, or the Pious, was the only surviving son of Charlemagne, and was already crowned as emperor at his father's death, A. D. 814. He shared the imperial dignity with his eldest son Lothaire', giving kingdoms to his other sons; but they, dissatisfied with their portions, made war against each other, and even against their father. After Louis' death, a terrible battle between the brothers at Fontenaye was followed by the Treaty of Verdun,² which divided the dominions of Charles the Great among his three grandsons. The emperor Lothaire had Italy, and a long, narrow territory reaching from the Mediterranean to the German Ocean, including the two capitals, Rome and Aix.* Louis, henceforth called *the German*, had the countries north and east of the Rhine, while Latin France, west of the Rhone and Saône, was allotted to Charles the Bald.

A. D. 843.

315. For more than a hundred years the Empire could scarcely be said to exist, though its titles were worn, in turn, by all three branches of Charlemagne's family. The real power rested in the great dukes and margraves, or

* The "Middle Kingdom" of Lothaire fell apart, under his sons, into its three natural divisions: Italy, Burgundy, and Lorraine. The latter was soon divided: Lower Lorraine including the Netherlands south of the Rhine, while Upper Lorraine continued to be a great duchy on the borders of France and Germany. Burgundy was likewise divided into two kingdoms, Upper and Lower, the latter having a new name, Provence.

marquises, who were the defenders of Europe against a host of enemies. The Magyars, a new race of Huns, were over-running the continent from the north-east; the Mediterranean swarmed with Saracen pirates (§ 305), and the Northmen, wild sea-rovers from beyond the Baltic, were ravaging all the Atlantic coasts. During these calamities, those who were bravest and ablest naturally rose into power. Thus the counts of Anjou and Paris on the west, the dukes of Saxony, Thuringia, Franconia, Bavaria, and Suabia on the east, the marquises of Friuli, Spoleto, and Tuscany in Italy, were really greater princes than those whom they acknowledged as their lords.

316. The Feudal System was now in force throughout the Western Empire; *i. e.*, knights and nobles held their lands on condition of military service and homage to the chief who had granted them. "Great vassals" held directly from the king or emperor; but they had vassals under them, until the whole land was parceled out in "knight's fees," some of them barely large enough to hold a castle. When a king made war, he summoned his vassals, who in turn summoned theirs; and, when all met at the appointed place, the great army was made up of a cluster of little armies. The great lords vied with each other in the multitude of their retainers; the knights, in their costly armor and skillful horsemanship, and all in their bravery in the fight. When there was no real war, mock combats, called tilts and tourneys, were often held, to cultivate and display their skill.

317. The ceremony by which feudal obligation was acknowledged, was called *homage*, because the vassal, kneeling before his king or lord, vowed to be *his man* in life and limb. In return, the chief was bound to protect his vassal against injustice or violence, and to punish any who injured him. The poor people who cultivated the lands, and were given away with them, had no rights except

what humanity would concede—that of being protected with their families in time of danger.

318. A king sometimes did homage to another king for lands within his dominion; the kings of the Franks even did homage to the abbot of St. Denis for their county of Paris. The kings of Naples, as we shall see, held their whole realm as a “fief of St. Peter;” and some of the popes insisted that all kingdoms ought to be so held.

319. The “feudal tenure,” as it is called, gradually took the place of all other holdings. Absolute owners of land were glad to put themselves under the protection of some powerful lord, especially of the great abbots, whose lands were more secure and better tilled than any others. So it came to pass that the Church owned half the territories of western Europe.

320. After the descendants of Charlemagne had proved unfit to reign, several great chiefs in Italy and Provence fought for the imperial crown until the Pope called another king out of Germany to end their disputes. This was O'tho the Great, who was crowned at Rome, A. D. 962. His father, Henry the Fowler,³ had been duke of Saxony, and was elected king of the Germans. In many fierce battles he had subdued the pagan Wends and the Magyars, and had planted in the eastern wilderness many towns, to be centers of orderly life and strongholds against the barbarians.

321. The crown of the “*Holy Roman Empire*,” as it now began to be called, was bestowed, for more than 800 years upon the kings chosen by the German princes. They were first crowned at Aix as Emperors-Elect, but could not bear the titles of Cæsar and Augustus until they had received the imperial diadem from the hands of the Pope. They also assumed the iron crown of Italy at Milan, and some of the emperors wore that of Burgundy at Arles (§ 314 note).

322. One third part of Italy still obeyed the emperors of the East, whose forces Otho and his son vainly attempted to expel. Otho II. married a Greek princess;⁴ and their son, Otho III.,⁵ who was crowned emperor at A. D. 996. sixteen, was the "wonder of the world" for his brilliant genius and his high aims in governing. But he died in the very dawn of his manhood, and the bright promise passed away. The choice of the German princes now fell upon Henry II., duke of Bavaria, and, after his death, upon Con'rad II., chief of the Franconian line.

323. Under Henry III., son of Conrad, the power of the empire reached its height. He rescued A. D. 1046-1056. Rome from the disgrace of several unworthy popes, who had used their high office for selfish and corrupt purposes. Setting aside three who laid claim to the dignity, he appointed a better man than any of them; and the emperors thenceforth claimed the right to nominate the popes.

324. Henry III. died suddenly, A. D. 1056, when his only son was but a child. While the little prince was growing to manhood, Hil'debrand,⁶ a Tuscan monk, gained great power in the Church, and became almost as important a figure in the panorama of those Dark Ages as Charlemagne himself. He, too, had a plan for bringing order out of the misery and confusion of the times—to subject all ranks and classes to the absolute authority of the popes. As the vicegerents of God upon earth, he taught that they had the right to crown or depose kings at their pleasure.

325. About the time that Henry IV. attained his majority, A. D. 1073, Hildebrand became Pope Gregory VII. Then began a violent contest between the two rulers of Christendom. The emperor summoned a Diet at Worms, which deposed the pope; and the pope convened a Council at Rome, which dethroned and excommunicated the emperor. These great revolutions, it will be understood, were only

accomplished on parchment; but the war of words soon became an affair of hard blows. Henry was a man of proud and passionate nature; the pope was equally bold and resolute, and on his side were enlisted nearly all the intellect and learning of the time, as well as the sympathy of the common people, in whose rank he had been born. At his command the German bishops and abbots declared against Henry; and the Saxons, who were angry at the passing of the crown from their ducal line to the Franconian (§ 322), broke out into revolt. In this desperate case, Henry crossed the Alps in winter and stood barefoot in the snow for three days at the gates of the Castle of Canossa⁷ before he was admitted to kiss the feet of Gregory and humbly confess his faults. Even this did not save him; a rival emperor was chosen; and though Henry defeated him, and outlived Pope Gregory by twenty years, yet all his life was embittered by the malice of his enemies. His sons rebelled against him, with the aid of the popes, and at last he died of a broken heart, in poverty and humiliation.

Trace, on Map 7, the conquests of Charles Martel. Of Charlemagne. The divisions made by the Treaty of Verdun. Of Lothaire's Middle Kingdom. The great fiefs mentioned in § 315. Point out Aix-la-Chapelle, Arles. Milan, Rome.

Read Book IV, of Parke Godwin's History of France; Bryce's "Holy Roman Empire;" and a chapter on the Feudal System in Hallam's "Middle Ages."

NOTES.

1. The first appearance of the name "Franks" in history is said to have been in a rude camp-song, sung by Aurelian's soldiers (§ 262) as they marched out of Rome on their way to the Persian wars:

"Mille Sarmatas, mille *Francos*, semel et semel occidimus;
Mille mille mille mille Persas quaerimus."

It merely meant *free*, and designated the unconquered German tribes on the middle and lower Rhine. These tribes were in two principal groups: the Salians, west of the Yssel; and the Ripuarians, or bank-defenders, on either side of the Rhine above and below Cologne. The Emperor Julian admired their brave and independent spirit; after his

time many Franks took service in the Roman armies, and their chiefs often filled high offices, both civil and military.

Clovis was chief of the Salian Franks; the yet greater family of the Carolingians, who succeeded his, seem to have been of the Ripuarian group. Both had important parts to play in European history.

When Charlemagne came to the throne, the Franks were already the acknowledged heads of all the German tribes excepting the Saxons, and were thus the champions of western Christendom against both the Saracens on the south-west, and the worshipers of Odin on the north-east. The Saracen inroads had been effectually checked by the great victory of Charles Martel; the Saxons, the only remaining upholders of German heathenism, gave him occupation enough for the greater part of his long reign. It was easy to defeat them in many successive battles, but, as there was no responsible head of the whole people, one chief naturally disregarded engagements which another had made. Charlemagne was, therefore, often recalled from his campaigns beyond the Alps or the Pyrenees, to quell some fierce outbreak of the Saxons. Their greatest hero and leader was Witikind, called "the Great," who had married a sister of the king of Denmark, and was aided by him in his wars with the Franks. But, after the massacre of Verdun, in which 4,500 Saxons were destroyed, and a subsequent defeat near the river Hase, even Witikind submitted, and was baptized in A. D. 885, with many of his followers. Hundreds of irreconcilable Saxons fled to the Baltic peninsulas, and stirred up the northmen (§§ 326-328) to many attacks by sea upon the Frankish dominions.

Charlemagne regarded himself—and more especially after his coronation at Rome—as divinely appointed to establish and maintain order and justice in his great dominion. It is interesting, in this point of view, to know that his favorite book—often read to him at his meals—was St. Augustine's "City of God,"—that noble work in which the Bishop of Hippo reassured his followers, during the calamitous times (§ 283), when the Roman empire was falling under the assaults of Goths and Vandals, by predictions of the new Kingdom of Righteousness and Peace, which Christ had come to establish.

The Encyclopædia Britannica V. 403, says: "Thus, from the Eider to Sicily, and from the Ebro to the Theiss, the will of Charles was supreme; while over the Slavonic tribes, as far as the Oder or even the Vistula, his influence was felt in no feeble way. The genius and energy of one man had succeeded in arresting the progress of political disintegration, and, in the interest of culture and constructive order, in welding into one great monarchy all the races of continental Germany. . . . Charles was far more than an ordinary conqueror. He displayed not less energy in the internal organization and administration of his kingdom than in foreign affairs. The whole empire was divided into districts, presided over by counts, who were responsible for their good government; while in the exposed frontiers or marches, other counts (*Markgrafen*) were stationed with forces capable of defending them. . . . Two great assemblies were held every year—the Champ-de-Mai (May-field), which was a kind of national muster, essentially military, and another in autumn, of the high officials, of a deliberative and advisory nature. In the *Capitularies* (edicts issued as the necessities of the empire required) in his endeavors to promote education, in his organization of the church and the definitive institution of tithes, in the unsuccessful attempt to join the Danube and the Rhine by a canal, he gave proof of the noblest desire to conserve and propagate the culture of former times."

2. Germany dates her national existence from the Treaty of Verdun. Eastern or *Teutonic* was then forever separated from Western or *Latin France*, which, in later times, gained exclusive possession of the name, the heart of the Frankish dominions being known as *Franconia*. The oaths taken respectively by the armies of Louis the German, and his brother Charles, show that the two languages were already distinct. The Frankish conquerors of Gaul were largely Latinized by intercourse with the former subjects of the Cæsars; and, while the soldiers of Louis swore allegiance in Old German, the oath of Charles' army was almost equally like Latin, Provençal and modern French. The Teutonic and Roman elements in European society and speech were from that moment separate.—*Manual of Mediæval and Modern History*, p. 39.

MAP No. VII

EMPERORS OF ROME AND KINGS OF THE GERMANS.

Charlemagne	A. D. 800.
Louis the Mild	814.
Lothaire	840.
Louis II., the German	855.
Charles II., the Bald	875.
Charles III., the Fat	876-888.

Holy Roman Empire.

Otho the Great, of Saxony	962.
Otho II., " "	973.
Otho III., " "	983.
Henry II., of Bavaria	1002.
Conrad II., of Franconia	1024.
Henry III., " "	1039.
Henry IV., " "	1056.
Henry V., " "	1106.
Lothaire II., of Saxony	1125.

House of Hohenstaufen.

Conrad III.	1138.
Frederic I. Barbarossa	1152.
Henry VI.	1191.
Philip, Otho IV.	1198.
Frederic II.	1212.
Conrad IV.	1250.
William of Holland	1250-1256.

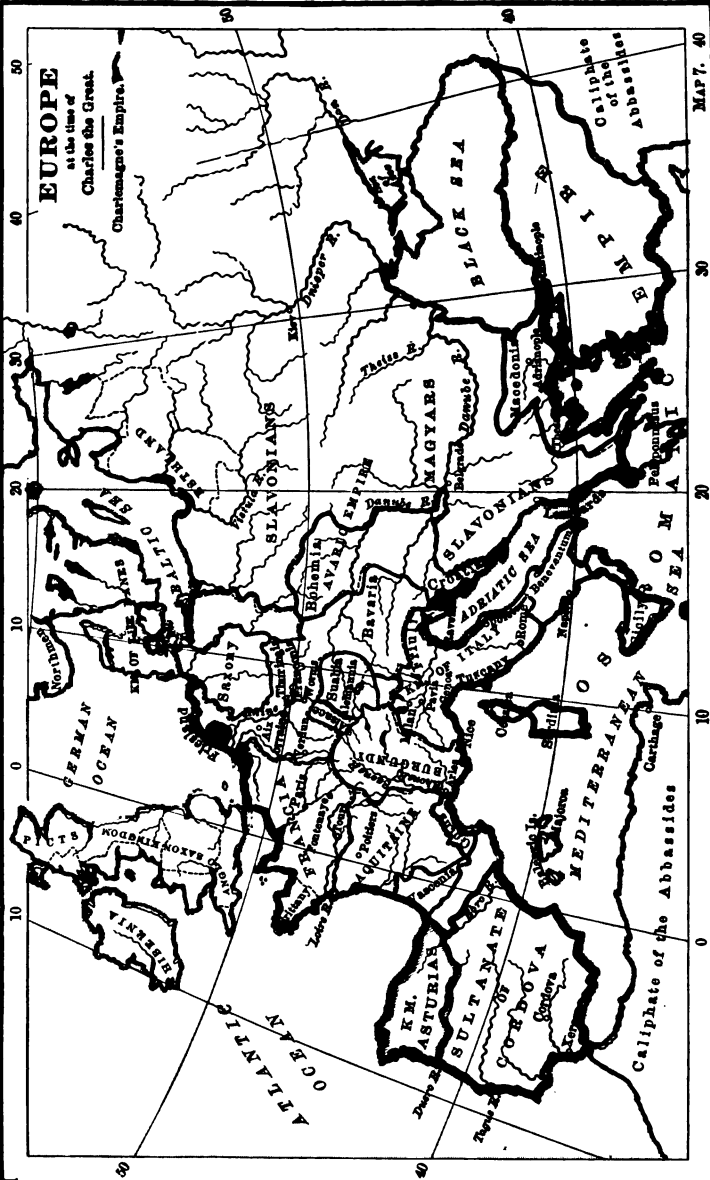
House of Hapsburg.

Rudolph I.	A. D. 1273.
Adolph of Nassau	1292.
Albert of Hapsburg	1298.
Henry VII.	1308-1313.
Louis V.	1330.
Charles IV., of Luxemburg	1347.
Wenceslaus	1378.
Rupert	1400.
Sigismund	1410.
Albert II.	1438.
Frederic III.	1440.
Maximilian I.	1493.
Charles V.	1519.
Ferdinand I.	1558.
Maximilian II.	1564.
Rudolph II.	1576.
Matthias	1612.
Ferdinand II.	1619.
Ferdinand III.	1637.
Leopold I.	1658.
Joseph I.	1705.
Charles VI.	1711.
Charles VII.	1742.
Francis I.	1745.
Joseph II.	1765.
Leopold II.	1790.
Francis II.	1792.
Empire overthrown	1806.

EUROPE

at the time of
Charles the Great

Charlemagne's Empire.



3. The headship of the German nations had now passed from the Franks to the Saxons. On his death-bed, the Emperor Conrad I., though a Frank, and a former opponent of Duke Henry on the battle-field, recommended him to the German princes for their chief. The pagan Slavonians were now overrunning the north-eastern borders of the empire. Henry wrested from them the Mark of Brandenburg, which became, in after ages, the nucleus of the kingdom of Prussia. He subsequently gained a decisive victory over the still heathen Magyars, at Merseburg, in Saxony. He reigned A. D. 919-936.

4. This was **Theophano**, or Theophania (§ 322), daughter of Romanus II. and step-daughter of Nicephorus Phocas, Emperor of the East. She brought to the German court much of the musical and literary culture which still reigned at Constantinople; and her son happily combined the best qualities of Greek and Teutonic genius.

5. **Otho III.** was only three years old at his father's death, but he was sixteen when Pope Gregory V. placed the imperial crown upon his head at Rome in A. D. 996. Rome was still ruled by Crescentius, a factious noble, who, taking advantage of the real miseries of the age and the blind enthusiasm of the people, had obtained the title of consul (§ 182), with supreme power, in A. D. 980. He was defeated by the combined forces of the Pope and the emperor, and was beheaded by Otho's command in 998. Stephania, the widow of Crescentius, desiring to avenge his death, is said to have first won the entire confidence and affection of the young emperor by her charms, and then to have destroyed his life by poison.

6. Though of humble birth, Hildebrand had acquired the highest influence by his talents, energy, and zeal, so that even kings submitted their plans to his decision. Five successive popes, "Leo, Victor, Stephen, Nicholas, and Alexander, had each been indebted to his authority for the pontificate, and to his counsels for the policy with which it had been administered," when the spontaneous acclamations of the people, echoing, as was then believed, the voice of St. Peter himself, declared him raised to the highest dignity in the church. The two great objects which he succeeded in securing against the bitterest opposition, were the celibacy of the clergy, and the investiture of bishops and abbots by the popes instead of by secular princes.

His reconciliation with Henry was only apparent and transient. As he refused to bestow the imperial crown, without which Henry's election by the German princes would have little effect (§ 321), Henry set up a rival pope, Guibert, who crowned him at Rome, while Gregory took refuge in the castle at St. Angelo.

But Robert Guiscard (§ 331), the Norman king of southern Italy, advanced to the rescue, and the emperor made a hasty retreat. His adherents in Rome kept up the strife, and, in the pillage and conflagration that followed, the imperial city suffered more than even from the Vandals. "Himself a voluntary exile, Gregory sought in the castle of Salerno, and, under the protection of the Normans, the security he could no longer find among his own exasperated subjects." Worn out by anxiety and toil, he recognized the approach of death. "He forgave and blessed and absolved his enemies, with the resolute exceptions of the emperor and the anti-pope." His last words were: "I have loved righteousness and hated iniquity; and therefore I die in exile!"

7. **Canossa** was the favorite residence of Matilda of Tuscany, known as "The Great Countess," who, for sixty-one years (A. D. 1054-1115) after her father's death,—first, in connection with her mother, Beatrice, and afterwards alone,—ruled a great portion of central and northern Italy. She is one of the most remarkable figures in that turbulent age. "Though she married Godfrey of Lorraine in her youth, and Guelph of Bavaria in her more mature age," she kept her sovereign rights over her own dominions, and is chiefly noted for her devotion to the church. In 1077 she made a reversionary grant of all her territories to the papal power. She led her own armies to battle, and such were her acquirements that her orders were equally well understood by her Italian, French, and German soldiers, while they were intelligible to levies from almost every part of Europe.

Hist.—13.

CHAPTER V.

THE NORTHMEN.



Danish Pirates.

THE last of the northern nations who conquered a place in southern and western Europe were the natives of Denmark and the Scandinavian peninsula; but these were found superior to all the rest, excepting, perhaps, the Goths, in vigor of mind and body, and in their aptitude for civilized life. Their native land being too poor to support them all, multitudes of young Northmen sought their fortunes abroad. As early as the eighth century a large body of them passed overland to Constantinople, and enlisted in the guards of the emperor of the East.

327. Successive bands of their countrymen, moving in the same direction, conquered the Slavic kingdoms of Novgorod and Kiev, and became founders of the Russian Empire. Ru'ric was the first Norman ruler of Russia. Christianity was introduced by

Greek missionaries, and, in A. D. 955, Queen Ol'ga¹ was baptized at Constantinople. Vlad'imir² the Great increased his empire by conquest, A. D. 980-1015. and civilized it by many churches and schools. Yar'oslav was a still greater benefactor, for he procured the translation of the Holy Scriptures and many other books into the Slavonic language, and made the first Russian code of laws.

328. Greater numbers of the Northmen³ became sea-rovers, the terror of all western Europe. Wherever they landed, the smoking ruins of houses, churches, and monasteries marked their track. At first they only ravaged the coasts; then, as they grew bolder and more numerous, they established fortified camps near the mouths of the rivers, whence they pursued their depredations over a wide extent of country. At length their numbers and powers were so great that they settled themselves on extensive tracts of land, the inhabitants of which they had expelled or destroyed. Thus a great part of eastern England and north-western France became their permanent abode, and they now proved that extraordinary genius for order and good government which no one certainly would have expected of the terrible sea-robbers.

329. One condition exacted by King Alfred^{4*} in England, from Gu'thrun, the Danish chief, and by King Charles, in France, from Rollo, was that both, with their principal followers, should become Christians. This they did with apparent good faith. The English Danes could not, however, prevent their pagan countrymen over the sea from trying their good fortune; and, under the weak reign of Eth'elred II., they gained such power that Eng-

*Alfred, the West Saxon, A. D. 871-901, was the best of the early English kings. By many years hard fighting, he reclaimed his kingdom from the Danes, and then civilized it by wise laws, schools, and books, which he either translated, or caused to be translated, from Greek and Latin. He is truly called Alfred THE GREAT.

land was added, for a time, to the Scandinavian Empire of Knut.

330. The duchy of Normandy had, meanwhile, become the richest and best governed part of France. A succession of able rulers was descended from Rollo, and many beautiful cathedrals and abbey-churches expressed their zeal for the religion which they had so lately adopted. Their restless spirits and their new faith were equally indulged by pilgrimages, which, indeed, many western Christians undertook, but of which the Normans were especially fond. On their way to the tomb of our Lord, or the shrines of His saints and apostles, the Norman knights had their eyes wide open for any warlike adventures that might offer.

331. In passing through southern Italy, they did not fail to remark the weakness and wealth of the Greek cities, which, though belonging to the Eastern Empire, were always exposed to the attacks of Saracens or Lombards. By taking sides with one party or the other, the Normans gained great power for themselves, and, at length, became masters of twelve cities, which they formed into a military republic. After a victory over the Pope's forces at Civitella, they declared themselves vassals of the Church, and so gained his favor and protection (§ 317). Under Robert Guiscard, their duke, they gradually drove out the Greek magistrates of the cities and conquered from the Lombards their last possession, thus making the Norman power supreme in southern Italy. At the same time Roger Guiscard was conquering Sicily* from

*Of the Normans in Sicily, an English historian says: "No conqueror ever deserved better of the conquered. The noble island of Sicily, so long the battle-field of Europe and Africa, became, under Norman kings, the *one* example of really equal and tolerant government which the world could then show. Under the Norman scepter, the two most civilized races of the world, Greeks and Saracens, could live together in peace, and enrich their common country with results of skill and industry such as no northern realm could rival."

the Saracens, and held it as a fief from his brother. Thus arose the kingdom of Naples, or the Two Sicilies.

332. A still more important Norman conquest was that of England. Duke William,^b the sixth from Rollo, was a cousin of Edward the Confessor, the last English king of the family of Alfred. William declared that Edward, having no children, had promised him the English crown. This weakest of claims was, however, supported by strong arguments, in the favor of the Pope and the arms of 60,000 warriors. He landed, with a great army, in the south of England; Harold, the Saxon king chosen by the people, was slain in the Battle of Hastings; and the whole country submitted, in time, to "William the Conqueror." A. D. 1066.

333. He divided the land in fiefs among his barons, and gave all the chief places in church and government to foreigners. The Saxon nobles descended to the rank of *thanes*, or country gentlemen. William was the ablest prince of his age, and he usually aimed to be just; but he was terribly cruel and obstinate when his will was crossed. Among his most tyrannical acts was the devastation of a belt of land, 60 miles wide, in northern England, by which 100,000 people were made homeless, and thousands perished of hunger and cold. This was done to guard against invasions from Scotland and Norway. There was even less excuse for the burning of 60 villages, in Hampshire, to provide the "New Forest" for the king's favorite sport of hunting.

334. William Rufus (A. D. 1087-1100), the second son and successor of the Conqueror, was an able but wicked king, caring more for his own wild pleasures than for the dearest interests of his people. He was killed by an arrow, while hunting in the "New Forest." His brother, Henry I, had been carefully educated for his duties as an English sovereign, and in many ways pleased the

people, especially by marrying the heiress of their Saxon kings. But he unjustly deprived his eldest brother, Robert, of his Norman inheritance, and kept him shut up in Cardiff Castle for the last twenty-eight years of his life.

335. Henry's only son, William, was drowned in the Channel, and the king attempted to secure the English crown to his daughter Matil'da. Some of the barons would have sustained her claim; but her haughty spirit offended them, and, after ten years of distracting civil war, Matilda fled to the continent, while her cousin, Stephen, was acknowledged as king. The people suffered infinite miseries as a consequence of these royal disputes. The land was left uncultivated; for the poor people had no encouragement to sow or plant, when the fruits of their toil were sure to be swept away by knightly robbers whose castles commanded the whole country. Famine created solitudes, where once had been villages full of happy homes. The dispute was settled in A. D. 1153, by the death of Stephen's only son. He then consented to acknowledge Matilda's son, Henry, as his heir.

336. France During the Dark Ages.—It has been seen how the feeble successors of Clovis gave way to the family of Pepin, and how the dominions of Charlemagne were divided among his grandsons (§ 314). The western part of those dominions remained longer under Carolingian rule, than did either Italy or Germany, and kept exclusively the name of France. The descendants of Charlemagne had but little of his genius for war and government; and the defense of the country against Saxon and Norman pirates was left to the great nobles, especially to Robert the Strong, Count of Anjou and Orleans. Three times Paris was besieged by the Northmen, twice it was taken by storm, and the banks of the Seine were whitened with the bones of its murdered people. Charles

III., called the Fat, who, for a little while, reunited the whole empire of Charlemagne, only bribed the pirates and suffered them to carry their ravages farther inland, while he spent his strength in fighting the members of his own family. A. D. 885, 886.

337. Count Robert was killed in battle, but his son, Eu'des, bravely defended Paris, and was called to the throne from which Charles had been deposed for his cowardice, A. D. 887. But a small party crowned Charles the Simple, who reigned north of the Seine while Eudes lived, and afterwards over all France. He gave up a large region, in north-western France, to Rollo the Dane, on condition of his followers becoming Christian and civilized. To do them justice, the wild sea-rovers soon excelled their masters in the arts of orderly living (§ 330).

338. Under the descendants of Charles IV., the real power rested with Hugh the Great, Duke of France and Count of Paris, who, for thirty-three years, set up and put down princes at his pleasure. His son, Hugh Capet, was chosen king by the nobles, A. D. 987, and his family continued to rule France more than eight centuries. His actual power was less, however, than that of some of his vassals. When he tried to compel the obedience of one by demanding, "Who made you a count?" the reply was, "Who made you a king?" Continental Europe was then divided into great fiefs, and royalty was little more than a shadow. The dukes of Normandy, Burgundy, and Aquitaine, the counts of Flanders, Champagne, and Toulouse, were sovereign in their own dominions, paying little respect and still less obedience to the king.

339. The reigns of Hugh and his son, Robert the Pious, were among the darkest periods of history. Under a deluded notion that the year 1000 was to be the end of the world, the terror- A. D. 987-1031.

stricken people refused to cultivate the ground. Famine and pestilence ensued, and some of the starved peasantry even fed on human flesh. A terrified crowd filled the churches; many princes and rich nobles bestowed their wealth upon the monks, and set off on pilgrimages to the Holy Land, where it was believed Christ would soon appear. When the fatal year had passed, the western world breathed again; but it was long before the injury springing from this delusion was repaired.

Another and long prevailing source of misery was found in the private wars of the barons. No one dreamed of mercy or even common justice toward the peasants, whose fields were laid waste and their families reduced to starvation by the quarrels of their masters. Under Henry I. (1031-1060), the French clergy succeeded in establishing what was called the "Truce of God," and, in some degree, abated these calamities. All fighting was forbidden between Wednesday evening and Monday morning, as well as on all holy days.

Trace, on Map No. 7, the conquests and settlements of the Northmen.

Read Freeman's "Norman Conquest;" Palgrave's "Normandy and England;" Green's "Short History of the English People;" Hume's or Knight's "History of England;" Michelet's "History of France."

NOTES.

1. Olga is regarded in Russia as a saint, and a special patroness of the imperial family.

She was the wife of Igor, son and successor of Ruric, and, upon her husband's death, A. D. 945, she became regent for her son. Ten years later, she made a visit to Constantinople with a brilliant and imposing train, and received baptism in the Church of St. Sophia. She died at a great age in 969.

2. Vladimir was the first Christian sovereign of Russia. He sent an embassy in 988 to Constantinople, demanding in marriage the Greek princess Anna, sister of the emperors Basil II. and Constantine IX., and marched an army to the Crimea, by way of enforcing his suit. This was successful, and Vladimir became not only a faithful ally of the emperors, but a zealous adherent of the Greek Church and enemy of the ancient paganism. Christianity became the established religion of his realm; and he founded many schools and churches to spread its influence among his people.

3. The eleventh century seems to have been the great age of Scandinavian enterprise; for, while the Normans were pushing their conquests in Italy, Sicily, Russia, and England, the Icelandic branch of their family had already reconnoitered the North American coast, and were making settlements, if tradition be true, within the present limits of the United States.

Greenland was discovered and colonized by them in A. D. 985; and fifteen years later, Leif the Fortunate cruised near the shores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island. A German sailor of his crew was delighted with the wild grapes of the New England coast, which reminded him of his native land. If the Northmen made settlements in America, they did not keep up communication with Europe, so that all record of them is lost.

4. When a child of four years, Alfred was taken by his father, King Ethelwolf, on a pilgrimage to Rome; and, doubtless, during their long stay, his active mind received many impressions which influenced his later life. Though so long the prey of conquerors, Italy still surpassed all western Europe in learning and civilization. On his homeward journey, Ethelwolf visited the court of the French king, Charles the Bald, where—his own queen having died many years before—he married the princess Judith. Among her bridal gifts was a volume of old English poems, which she used to read to her step-sons, and one day offered it as a prize to the one who would first learn to read. Alfred, though the youngest, was the one who gained the reward; and good books were ever afterward the dearest delight of his life.

Four of Alfred's brothers wore the English crown before he was himself called from his beloved studies to the heavy burdens of kingship.

The whole country north of the Thames was now in the possession of the Danes, who reigned at York; and, after seven years' hard fighting, they had so nearly conquered the south country, that Alfred was compelled to hide himself among the marshy forests of Somersetshire. But he established a camp on an island of firm ground in the midst of a bog; and, collecting some of his loyal subjects, often surprised the enemy by a night attack, while bringing in supplies of food. When he was ready for a more decisive battle, he first put on the disguise of a harper, and, entering the camp of Guthrun at Ethandune, informed himself thoroughly of the numbers and condition of the Danes. He found them lazy and negligent, despising the English and fearing no attack. Then, swiftly and secretly mustering his forces, he gained a complete and decisive victory. Guthrun acknowledged the over-lordship of Alfred, and agreed to content himself with the lands assigned him in the northern and eastern part of England. His followers renounced their heathen worship and their marauding habits, and became as orderly as the German invaders had become four centuries before.

Alfred improved the years of peace which followed, by providing for the defense and civilization of his people. He rebuilt cities that the Danes had destroyed, and guarded his coasts by a powerful fleet, and the land by a regularly trained militia. He founded schools, and required all owners of land to send their sons thither for instruction. One of these was at Oxford, and Alfred is hence called the founder of the university. Learned men were employed in translating Greek and Latin books, and foreign artisans introduced useful manufactures into the country.

Even the king found time, in the midst of his many cares, to write or translate several books for the benefit of his people. Among his translations were Orosius's History of the World, and Boëthius's Consolations of Philosophy, but most valuable of all, the Psalms and other portions of the Scriptures.

So great improvements were made by Alfred in the administration of justice, that he is sometimes named as the author of trial by jury, and some other safeguards of personal rights. He certainly did reorganize and enforce all that was best in the old German customs, from which our later institutions have been developed. This great king and lawgiver died in A. D. 901, after a reign of thirty years. His moral greatness was shown in the sacrifice of his personal tastes for the good of his kingdom; and historians rank him with Washington and William the Silent (§§ 514-521) as one of the three highest examples of human character.

5. William became Duke of Normandy at the age of ten years in 1035, his father, Duke Robert, having died in Asia Minor on his return from a pilgrimage to the Holy Land. Though so young, William soon proved his energy and courage by putting down a rebellion of his barons. It was six years after William's accession in Normandy, when his cousin Edward—twenty-one years his senior—who had been a resident at the Norman court during the Danish occupation of his own land—was called to the throne of his ancestors. Subsequently, William paid Edward a visit in England, where he doubtless gained some influence among the nobles; but if there is any truth in the story that he received a promise of the crown from his cousin, the latter must have used words which he had neither the right nor the power to make good. The English crown could only be conferred by a free vote of the notables or wise men; and when the time came, they bestowed it upon Harold, son of the powerful Earl Godwin, and brother-in-law of Edward. A year before, Harold had been shipwrecked upon the Norman coast, and, though treated with courtesy, was really the prisoner of the Duke, who resolved to extort the utmost possible advantage from his misfortune. Before a full assembly of the Norman barons, Harold was required to do homage (§ 317) to Duke William as heir-apparent to the English throne. Kneeling down, Harold placed his hands between those of the duke, and repeated the solemn form by which he acknowledged the duke as his lord, and promised to him fealty and true service. But William exacted more. He had caused all the bones and relics of saints, that were preserved in the Norman monasteries and churches, to be collected into a chest, which was placed in the council-room, covered over with a cloth of gold. On the chest of relics, which were thus concealed, was laid a missal. The duke then solemnly addressed his titular guest and real captive, and said to him: "Harold, I require thee, before this noble assembly, to confirm by oath the promises which thou hast made me, to assist me in obtaining the crown of England after King Edward's death." . . . "Harold, taken by surprise, and not able to deny his former words, approached the missal, and laid his hand on it, not knowing that the chest of relics was beneath. The old Norman chronicler who describes the scene most minutely, says, when Harold placed his hand on it, the hand trembled and the flesh quivered; but he swore. . . to deliver up England to the duke, and thereunto to do all in his power according to his might and wit, after the death of Edward, if he himself should live. Many cried 'God grant it!' and when Harold rose from his knees, the duke took off the pall that had covered the chest, and showed Harold upon what holy relics he had sworn; and Harold was much alarmed at the sight."—*Creasy, Fifteen Decisive Battles of the World.*

The same day, Jan. 5, 1066, which witnessed the burial of King Edward, the Confessor, in Westminster Abbey, saw the coronation of Harold in the same building. Tradition says that from his death-bed, the king stretched out his arms to the earl with the words: "To thee, Harold, my brother, I commend my people." Within eight months the new king had to withstand two formidable attacks from the North and the South. Harold Hardrada, bravest and strongest of the Norwegian kings, claimed England, as representative of Knut (§ 329), and Tostig, an unworthy brother of the English Harold, treacherously espoused his cause. The Saxon king met and defeated them in the battle of Stamford Bridge, near York—a battle so obstinately fought that all the flower of the Norwegian nobility perished with their king, and Norway continued for a quarter of a century to be exhausted and weak. Harold's losses were also great; and, while he was thus absent in the North, the duke of Normandy effected a landing in the South, with the results already stated.

The ruins of Battle Abbey at this hour attest the place where Harold's army was posted, and the high altar stood on the very spot where Harold's own standard was planted during the fight.

PART II.—THE MIDDLE AGES.

CHAPTER VI.

THE CRUSADES.



Crusader.

THE Saracen Empire in Asia was now in decline, and all its real power had fallen into the hands of the Turks,¹ a fierce Tartar tribe, whose dominion, under Malek Shah, extended from Arabia to the borders of China. In A. D. 1073 they conquered Jerusalem,² and put an end to the indulgence which Christian pilgrims had enjoyed under the caliphs. Multitudes, returning to Europe, told stories of cruel outrages inflicted by the barbarians; and the rage

and grief excited by these stories came to their height when Peter the Hermit, a French monk, who had been in the East, traveled through Italy and France, with the approval of Pope Urban II., setting forth his plan for wresting the holy places from the infidel. All Europe was ablaze with zeal. Thousands of every rank and age put the red cross on their shoulders, which declared their purpose to die, if need were, for the deliverance of the Holy Land. Hence the wars which followed are called *Crusades*, or wars of the Cross.

A. D. 1096.

341. Not only soldiers, but old men, women, and children took part in the First Crusade. An unnumbered host of these, without order, officers, or plan, set out in the spring of 1096 A. D. In their ignorance, they expected to be fed by miracle, and to arrive at Jerusalem in a few days. Disappointed in both hopes, they either perished miserably of starvation and fatigue, or were killed in battle by the people whose corn-fields and granaries they attempted to rob. The two divisions led by Peter the Hermit and Walter the Penniless, were attacked by the Turks near Nice in Asia Minor, and a pyramid of their bones was the only monument of this vanguard of the crusading hosts.

342. The regular army of Crusaders moved in the autumn, by four different routes, toward their rendezvous at Constantinople. The most northerly division was led down the valley of the Danube by God'frey³ of Bouillon, duke of Lower Lorraine; the next, across northern Italy by Ray'mond of Toulouse,⁴ the greatest lord in southern France; the third, across Epirus by Bo'emond⁵ of Taranto, son of Robert Guiscard (§ 331); and the last, by four princes, of whom one was Robert of Normandy, eldest son of the king of England.

343. The emperor Alex'is, who had before been in terror of the Turks, was now equally alarmed by the numbers and power of his allies. The free and haughty bearing of the Franks⁶—as all western Christians were, and are still, called at Constantinople—shocked his ceremonious court; and he was glad to “speed the parting guest” across the Bosphorus. He was rewarded for his somewhat grudging hospitality by the town and fortress of Nice, which the Crusaders wrested from the Turks and restored to the Eastern Empire.

344. Another great victory was gained over the Turks at Dorylæ'um; but much had yet to be suffered before the Christian host arrived at Antioch, the capital of Syria

(§168). The Turks had laid waste the country, and filled or poisoned the wells; so that multitudes died on the march, of hunger and thirst. Antioch withstood a siege of seven months; and when it was taken, the Christians were besieged in turn by a fresh army of 200,000 Turks, while a violent plague carried off 100,000 of their own forces. Nevertheless, a victory was gained, which opened the way to Jerusalem; but it was a pitiful remnant of the gallant armies, which, three years before, had assumed the Cross, that now arrived, with tears and shouts of joy, before the Holy City. A. D. 1098.

345. This was again in the possession of the Saracens from Egypt, who had wrested it from the Turks; but a forty days' siege—during which the assailants suffered agonies of thirst in the midsummer heat—ended in its capture by the Christians. By the votes of his brave comrades, Duke Godfrey was chosen to be the first Christian king of Jerusalem. He refused to wear a golden crown in the city where his Master had worn the crown of thorns; but he consented to be styled Guardian of Jerusalem and the Holy Sepulcher. Godfrey survived his consecration to this office only one year, and was succeeded by his brother Baldwin. A. D. 1099.

346. By successive conquests, the Christian kingdom of Jerusalem⁷ was extended eastward to the Euphrates, and southward to the borders of Egypt. The French language, customs, and laws prevailed throughout the lands once ruled by David and Solomon, which were parceled out into four great feudal baronies. The first of the three famous Orders of Chivalry, which added monkish vows to those of the knight, had its origin in the First Crusade. This was the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, or the "Knights Hospitallers." They were followed, in 1117, by the "Templars," who undertook the defense of pilgrims, and, in 1191, by the "Teutonic" Order. §§ 360, 361, 460, 560.

347. The Second Crusade was preached by St. Bernard,⁸ abbot of Clairvaux—the greatest mind in Christendom in his time—and was led by two great monarchs, the emperor Conrad III.⁹ and king Louis VII. of France. Nevertheless, it ended in nothing but disaster and disgrace.

348. Sal'adin,¹⁰ the prince of Moslem warriors for valor, courtesy, and gentleness of soul, now became sultan of Syria and Egypt. In a great battle near Lake Tiberias he broke the power of the Christians, and captured their king, Guy of Lusignan, with the grandmaster of the Templars, and many other nobles. Most of the important towns in Syria—and, last of all, Jerusalem—fell into his hands. This calamity aroused all Europe. The great emperor, Frederic Barbaros'sa, with his son and eighty-eight German princes, assumed the Cross, and so did the kings Philip Augustus of France and Richard¹¹ the Lion-Hearted of England. A. D. 1189.

349. The emperor never saw Jerusalem, for he was drowned in a little river in Asia Minor. All the Christian forces in Syria were mustered for the siege of Acre, when the arrival of the French and English kings effected its capture. The prodigious strength and valor of Richard were the admiration of the Christians, and the terror of the Saracens. But Philip was jealous, and, feigning illness, he returned home. Richard took and re-fortified Jaffa, Ascalon, and Gaza, and, fighting every step of the way, advanced within sight of Jerusalem. But his allies refused to join him in besieging it, and he withdrew in grief and shame, covering his face with his shield.

350. News now came that King Philip was plotting with Richard's brother John for a partition of his dominions. John was to have England, while Philip seized all the fiefs in France for which Richard was his vassal (§ 318). These

were the two great duchies of Normandy and Aquitaine, with the counties of Maine, Anjou, Poitou, and Touraine. After making an honorable truce with Saladin, Richard embarked for home; but he was shipwrecked in the Adriatic, and landing at Zara, tried to make the journey across Europe in the disguise of a pilgrim. He was recognized, seized, and imprisoned, by his bitterest enemy, the duke of Austria, whom he had insulted after the capture of Gaza. At length, being summoned to plead his cause before the Diet of the Western Empire (§ 312), Richard was permitted to be ransomed and restored to his kingdom.

351. A Fourth Crusade was proclaimed, A. D. 1200, by Pope Innocent III. The overland route had now been found too dangerous, and the French barons made a treaty with the Venetian Republic, then the greatest maritime power in Europe, to transport their armies, by sea, to the Holy Land. But first they undertook the cause of Isaac Angelus, emperor of the East, who had been dethroned, imprisoned, and deprived of his sight by an unnatural brother. By two attacks they captured Constantinople, and restored the blind old emperor to his throne; but a quarrel afterward broke out between the Greeks and the Franks, which ended in a second capture of the city, and the foundation of the Latin Empire A. D. 1204. of the East. Most of the crusaders never reached the Holy Land at all. The Latin Empire lasted till 1261.

352. The Fifth Crusade was marked by the siege and capture of Damietta in Egypt, though the Christian forces were afterwards overwhelmed with calamities by an overflow of the Nile. The emperor Frederic II. was now engaged in a fierce contention with the Pope, who had first excommunicated him for delaying to join the Crusade, and again, for presuming to go while under censure. His presence in the Holy Land, A. D. 1229, however, secured the surrender of Jerusalem, Jaffa, Bethlehem,

and Nazareth to the Christians, and he assumed the crown of Jerusalem in the Church of the Holy Sepulcher.

353. The Sixth Crusade was led by the king of Navarre, and by the English Prince Richard, a nephew of the Lion-hearted. By peaceful agreement, the greater part of Palestine was surrendered to the Christians, and the walls of Jerusalem were rebuilt. Christians and Saracens were now compelled to join their forces against a pagan horde of Tartars, who had been expelled from Korasmia by

A. D. 1244. Genghis Khan, and who, sweeping over Palestine, captured Jerusalem, and murdered a vast multitude of its people. A two days' battle ended in the almost complete extermination of the Syrian hosts. But Bar'bacan, the Tartar chief, was soon slain, and western Asia breathed again.

354. The Seventh Crusade was led by the good king Louis IX. of France. He captured Damietta, but afterwards, overwhelmed with disasters and himself a prisoner, he had to surrender it for his ransom. He then spent four years in the Holy Land, where he repaired the fortifications of Acre, and ransomed many thousands of Christian captives. He never saw Jerusalem.

355. The Eighth Crusade was occasioned by the fall of Antioch; 17,000 of its people being slain, and 100,000 carried away as slaves, by an army of Korasmian Turks, called Mamelukes, from Egypt. King Louis heartily engaged in it, but he died of the plague, in Tunis, before he could

A. D. 1272. reach Palestine. Prince Edward, the future king of England, gained a victory over the Turks, and secured a favorable truce of ten years.

356. The last general effort for the deliverance of the Holy Land is not even numbered by most historians among the Crusades, though the emperors of the East and West were enrolled in it. Acre was the only remaining possession of the Christians in the East, and it was

THE CRUSADES.

FIRST, led by Godfrey of Bouillon and others,	A. D.	1096.
SECOND, “ the Emperor Conrad III. and King Louis VII. of France . . .		1147.
THIRD, “ Emperor Frederic I. of Rome, Philip II. of France, and Richard I. of England . . .		1189.
FOURTH ends in capture of Constantinople by Venetians and French . . .		1204.
FIFTH, led by Emperor Frederic II. . . .		1228.
SIXTH, “ Theobald I. of Navarre and Richard of Cornwall . . .		1238.
SEVENTH, “ King Louis IX. of France . . .		1248.
EIGHTH, “ “ “ “ “ “ and Prince Edward of England . . .		1270.

NOTE.—The Crusades are differently numbered by historians. Some omit the Sixth above mentioned, and name as the Fifth an ineffectual enterprise led by Andrew of Hungary, in 1217.

besieged by a great army of 200,000 Mamelukes. The defense was long and obstinate, but at last the city fell, and all Palestine was overrun by the Turks.

357. Although the Crusaders had failed of the end they sought, they had gained others of far more value. Their minds were enlarged by contact with customs different from, and usually superior to, their own. Compared with the art, learning, and refined society of Constantinople, the Franks were barbarians. Even from the Saracens, whom they had pictured as inhuman monsters, they had much to learn. They were amazed to find the "infidel dogs" better behaved than themselves; but they could not fail to admire the delicate generosity of Saladin, who sent snow from Lebanon to Richard in sickness, and presented him with two beautiful Arabian horses when Richard's own had been killed in battle.

358. Several peculiar products of Asia—sugar, the silk worm, and fine wheat, for example—were first brought into Europe by Crusaders, and a brisk trade now sprang up between the East and the West. Venetian merchants visited the great cities of China, and it is probable that they found there two inventions, gunpowder and printing, which were to change the whole current of European life.

359. The immediate results in the West were not less great. Europe was divided, as we have seen, into a multitude of duchies and counties, whose holders were perpetually making war upon each other. Now it was good for those quarrelsome chiefs to be moved for once by a common feeling, the only feeling that could move kings and vassals, priests and peasants, alike. The power of the Church was for a time supreme; the age of chivalry began; the authority of the leading sovereigns became centralized and better established; Venice and Genoa secured an immense increase of trade. The lands which knights and barons had sold to pay the expenses of their

crusades, were bought in many cases by the Church, but in others by thrifty citizens, and thus a middle class sprang up between nobles and peasants.

360. The three Orders of Chivalry, which had arisen from the Crusades, were now rich and powerful. The Templars, having no fit use either for their vast wealth or their knightly energies, became haughty, luxurious, and dangerous to the governments under which they lived. Their order was dissolved about 40 years after the last Crusade, and their lands were given to the Knights of St. John. See §404, and note, p. 240.

361. These, in their successive stations at Cyprus, Rhodes, and Malta, kept up a rigorous discipline, and bravely defended southern Europe from the Turks. The Teutonic Knights had yet harder work to do. The Prussians, and several other tribes near the Baltic, were still heathen, and a century and a half of fierce conflict preceded the establishment of Christianity in the northern wilds. The industry of the brotherhood meanwhile turned the salt marshes into fertile fields by means of dykes and drainage; and Marienburg, their fortress and capital, became a center of civilizing influences for all that pagan region.

Trace, on Maps 8 and 13, the general course of Crusaders in 1096 A. D. Point out their first conquest; Antioch, Jerusalem, Acre, Jaffa, Ascalon, Gaza, Damietta. Lake Tiberias. Boundaries of the Christian Kingdom of Jerusalem. Stations of the Knights of St. John. Territory of the Teutonic Knights.

Read Hallam's "Middle Ages," Ch. I, Part I, and Ch. VI; Mill's History of the Crusades; Michelet's History of France; Morrison's Life and Times of St. Bernard; Milman's Latin Christianity, Book VI.; Heeren's Essay on the History of the Crusades; and Finlay's History of the Byzantine and Greek Empire. Rev. James White's History of France, in one volume, will be found very useful by those who lack time or opportunity to consult larger works.

NOTES.

1. These were the Seljukian Turks, so called from Seljuk, their chief, who, expelled from Turkestan by the reigning prince, had settled with all his tribe in Bokhara, and had embraced the religion of Mohammed. Falling in battle when more than a hundred years old, Seljuk was succeeded by his grandson, Togrul Beg, the real founder of the dynasty. He overran most of the realm of the Abbassides, and even the caliph became his prisoner, but was treated with perfect respect, and appointed Togrul to be his lieutenant. From this time the caliphs were little more than the spiritual heads of Islam, the military power being committed to the Turkish chiefs. Togrul was succeeded in 1063 by his nephew, Alp-Arslan (the Strong Lion), of whose justice and clemency wonderful stories are told. Under Alp-Arslan and his son, Malek Shah, the Seljukian empire reached its greatest extent and power, and soon began to decline. For the character of the Seljukians in general, see note 2, below. The Ottoman Turks, who still hold their ground in western Asia, were a later arrival. See § 378.

2. Since its capture by Titus (§ 251), Jerusalem had undergone many changes. Rebuilt by Hadrian (§ 254) as a Roman city, it became, under Constantine (§ 267), the great center of Christian pilgrimages. Helena, the mother of Constantine, is said to have discovered the real sepulcher and cross of Christ on this sacred ground, in A. D. 325; and she built the two churches of the Nativity and the Holy Sepulcher, whose remains still exist. In 611 or 614, Jerusalem was captured by Chosroës, king of Persia. It was re-occupied by Heraclius, A. D. 629, but was conquered by the caliph Omar, A. D. 637, and continued under Saracen rule more than four centuries.

The Saracens favored Christian pilgrimages, which resembled their own religious usage; and, they were not only enriched by the taxes imposed upon pilgrims, but shared with Christian merchants in the profits of the great Easter fairs, which drew fleets of vessels from the Mediterranean ports, Genoa, Pisa, and Amalfi.

After the year 1000 had passed (§ 339), and a new Christian age had begun, the tide of pilgrimage set eastward with greater energy than ever.

"Now, however," says Dean Milman, "the splendid, polished, and more tolerant Mohammedanism of the earlier caliphs had sunk before the savage yet no less warlike Turks. This race of the Mongol stock had embraced all that was enterprising, barbarous, and aggressive, rejecting all that was humane, or tending to a higher civilization, in Mohammedanism. They were more fanatic Islamites than the followers of the prophet, than the prophet himself. The Seljukians became masters of Jerusalem; and, from that time, the Christians of Palestine, from tributary subjects, became despised slaves; the pilgrims, from respected guests, intruders, whose hateful presence polluted the atmosphere of pure Islamism. Year after year came back the few survivors of a long train of pilgrims, no longer radiant with pious pride at the accomplishment of their holy purpose, rich in precious relics, or even the more costly treasures of the East; but, stealing home, famished, wounded, mutilated, with lamentable tales of their own sufferings and of those who had died of the ill-usage of the barbarous unbelievers.

At length, the afflictions of the Christians found a voice which woke indignant Europe; an apostle who could rouse warlike Latin Christendom to encounter with equal fanaticism this new outburst of the fanaticism of Islam. This was the mission of the hermit, Peter."—*Latin Christianity*, IV., Ch. VI.

3. Godfrey was a younger son of Count Eustace, of Bologne, but early distinguished himself in the armies of the Emperor Henry IV., who rewarded him with the duchy of Bouillon, of which Sedan is the capital. His courage and genius for command were equaled by the patience and generosity which enabled him to pacify the conflicting passions of his comrades in arms. Tasso has made Godfrey the hero of his poem, *Jerusalem Delivered*.

4. Count Raymond IV., of Toulouse, conquered for himself from the Mohammedans the district of Tripoli, in Syria, and held it as a vassal (§ 316) of the king of Jerusalem.

5. Boemond was an able and ambitious prince, discontented with his secondary rank, and aspiring to an imperial crown, either in the East or West, perhaps both. In his father's life-time he had wrested Illyria, Macedonia, and Greece from the Eastern Empire, but these provinces had been lost. When Urban II. took counsel with him, first of all the western princes, about the feasibility of a crusade, he warmly furthered the scheme, hoping to regain the eastern provinces, or at least to find exercise for his military talents in some profitable enterprise. He was the leader in the siege of Antioch, and received that city, with a large territory, as an independent principality.

6. The Princess Anna Commena, daughter of Alexis, was a girl of fifteen years at the time of the First Crusade. In her *Alexiad*, written thirty years later in the seclusion of a convent, she has given a lively account of the manners of the Frankish chiefs, which shocked the refined tastes of the Greeks. One of the western counts even seated himself on the imperial throne, at the very time when his companions in arms were taking their oath of obedience to Alexis. Being admonished of his rudeness, he still continued to mutter between his teeth, while staring fixedly at the emperor: "What rustic fellow is this, to be seated alone, while such leaders stand around him!"

Alexis (1080-1118) was the first emperor of his family—the Comneni.

7. The Kingdom of Jerusalem lasted 88 years, being overthrown by Saladin in 1187 (§ 348).

8. Bernard was born in Burgundy, in 1091, of noble and pious parents. At 22 years of age he quitted the pleasures of the world, and, with thirty young companions, including his five brothers, entered the convent of Cîteaux. Two years later, he was made abbot of Clairvaux. The new abbey was only a rude wooden structure, erected by Bernard and his twelve monks with their own hands; but, from this humble dwelling went forth a power which was felt in all the courts of Europe. After Edessa had been captured by the Mussulmans in 1145, Bernard roused the French and German people to a second Crusade, and, by his personal appeals, overcame the extreme reluctance of the Emperor Conrad to engage in it in person. The power of genius, eloquence, and energy of will was heightened in Bernard by a supreme and unselfish devotion to what he considered right. He died in 1153.

9. Conrad III. was a son of Frederic of Hohenstaufen, and uncle of Frederic Barbarossa. It was in the battle of Weinsberg, between Conrad and his rival, Henry the Proud of Saxony, that the war cries of "Welf" and "Weiblingen"—more familiar to us in their Italian equivalents, Guelph and Ghibelline (§ 363) were first heard. The Guelphs were dukes of Bavaria; the Hohenstaufen, dukes of Franconia, Suabia, and Saxony.

After losing thousands of his men in the march through Asia Minor—mainly through the treachery of his Greek guides—Conrad joined his forces with those of King Louis of France, in laying siege to Damascus. It proved a miserable failure, owing to the jealousy of the Christian barons of Palestine, and the two sovereigns returned to their western dominions more like fugitives than mighty princes.

10. Saladin was a Kurd by birth, and had been vizier to Nouredin, sultan of Damascus, who dethroned the Fatimite (note, p. 182) caliph at Cairo, and added Egypt to his dominion. On Nouredin's death, Saladin made himself sultan of all his dominions. Even his enemies admired Saladin's perfect humanity toward his prisoners, and high-minded generosity toward his adversaries in arms. His character is depicted in doubtless exaggerated colors in Scott's *Talisman*, and in Lessing's poem, *Nathan the Wise*.

11. See Chapter IX. for an account of the family to which Richard belonged. He is brilliantly pictured in Scott's romances, *Ivanhoe* and *The Talisman*. His real character is thus summed up by Hume: "Of an impetuous and vehement spirit, he was distinguished by all the good as well as the bad qualities incident to that character; he was open, frank, generous, sincere, and brave; he was revengeful, domineering, ambitious, haughty, and cruel."

CHAPTER VII.

GUELFs AND GHIBELLINES. RISE OF ITALIAN AND GERMAN CITIES.



Venetian Nobleman.

THE two great powers of Europe, during the Middle Ages, were the Church and the Empire, and these, as we have seen, were often at deadly strife (§ 325). The emperor was the civil head of Christendom, as the pope was the spiritual head; and they often differed as to the boundaries of their respective jurisdictions. This rivalry probably had one advantage, in preventing either from becoming absolute. The haughty will of the Cæsar could bow to none but the vicegerent of God; while the ambition of the Pope could only be curbed by a power which, like his own, was held to be of divine appointment. The Church had done good service in maintaining order during the Dark Ages; and, if it did not enlighten the people, it guarded the treasures of ancient learning for the benefit of later times.

363. The Guelfs and the Hohenstaufen, two powerful German families, contended for the imperial crown. The latter obtained it, A. D. 1138; and the name *Ghibelline*, taken from one of their castles, was adopted, by the adherents of the emperors, to distinguish them from the Pope's party, who more commonly sided with the Guelfs. The cities of Italy, most of them independent republics, declared themselves either Guelf or Ghibelline; and as

they were almost constantly at war, either among themselves or against the emperor, these battle-cries rang through the peninsula for centuries. (See note 9, p. 212.)

364. The great city of Milan, once an imperial capital (§ 263), led the opposition to Frederic I., the greatest of the Hohenstaufen. Twice it was besieged and taken, and after the second capture its stately walls were leveled with the ground. Even its enemies and rivals now joined it in a "Lombard League," which gained a great victory over Frederic at Legnano, A. D. 1176. Seven years later the Peace of Constance established the independence of all the Lombard cities. See § 348.

365. By marrying the heiress of the last Norman king (§ 331), Frederic's son, Henry VI., obtained the crown of the Two Sicilies, in addition to that of the Empire. His son, Frederic II., was called *Stupor Mundi* A. D. 1212-1250. (the Amazement of the World), by reason of his brilliant talents. He enriched his native Italy by improved laws, and by his liberal patronage of literature and commerce (§ 352). Nevertheless, he was continually at war with the popes, who, at length, deposed him and offered all his crowns (§ 324) to other princes. His death was followed by 23 years of confusion, several rival emperors being acknowledged by different parties. The imperial crown was given, at last, to Rudolph of Hapsburg,¹ who had the good sense to leave Italy to itself, and use his power against the turbulent princes and robber-knights who were destroying the peace of Germany. He demolished 70 castles, the strongholds of these marauders.

366. Italy became almost wholly Guelf. The Two Sicilies were bestowed upon Charles of Anjou,² a French prince, who, moreover, ruled Provence in right of his wife, and exerted imperial power in Rome and several northern cities. But his harshness drove the Sicilians to revolt, and 8,000 French were massacred, A. D. 1282. The island

became a separate kingdom, ruled for a century and a half by Arragonese princes. The "Two Sicilies" were reunited in 1435, under Alfonso of Arragon. See §331.

367. The cities of Lombardy soon lost their freedom and submitted to *podestas*, or tyrants, of whom the greatest were the Visconti of Milan. Rome was filled with murder and robbery, especially after Pope Clem'ent V. had removed the "Chair of St. Peter" to Avignon, in southern France. The 72 years absence of the popes was known to writers of that day as a "Babylonish Captivity." During this time the Roman tribune, Rienzi,³ succeeded, for a few months, in restoring order and dignity to his native city. Turbulent nobles submitted to his authority; not only Italian cities, but foreign kings, recognized the new Republic; robbery ceased, and prosperity revived. But Rienzi's head was turned by his success; he was expelled; and when, after six years' exile and imprisonment, he returned with the support of the pope, he was slain in a popular riot.

368. In 1377, Pope Gregory XI. came back to Rome; but his death was followed by the Great Schism (§ 419), during which two, and even three, popes were obeyed at once by different nations. In spite of these troubles, Italy was by far the richest and most civilized portion of Europe. The merchant-princes of Genoa and Venice lived in palaces surpassing those of kings, or even emperors, north of the Alps. Their commerce embraced all Europe, with southern and central Asia; and, handling the money of all nations, they were the first modern bankers. The Bank of Venice dates from 1171 A. D. While the Eastern Empire was falling to pieces through its own weakness and the attacks of the Turks, Venice became sovereign of the Morea, with Cyprus, Crete, and many of the Greek islands. Her great rival was Genoa, which monopolized

the commerce of the Black Sea, and this rivalry occasioned many wars.

369. Florence is most celebrated of all the Italian republics for the freedom of her government and the genius of her people. The wealth of her great bankers, traders, and manufacturers of wool made many princes their debtors. After 1343 A. D., magistrates could be chosen only from the "Arts," or trades-unions, and thus the industrial classes had supreme control of the government. Dan'te, the greatest poet of the Middle Ages, was a Florentine, but he spent most of his manhood in exile, owing to the deadly strife of Guelfs and Ghibellines.

370. The chief power in Florence fell, during the fifteenth century, into the hands of the Med'ici, a family of wealthy citizens. Cosmo de Medici was the first who assumed to nominate candidates for public office. His grandson, Loren'zo the Magnificent, promoted the revival of learning and the arts. He collected ancient gems and statues, which stimulated the genius of the young artists whom his liberal patronage drew about him. His ascendancy marks the most brilliant period of Florentine history.

371. Meanwhile the German cities had also risen to great importance. Each was governed by a Council of its own choosing; and, free from the jealousies which often ruined the Italian cities, they formed leagues for the common defense. Their chief enemies were the knights and nobles, who lived by plunder, and liked nothing so well as to rob a merchant of his costly wares. The idea that a mere tradesman could have rights which they were bound to respect never occurred to these noble high-waymen.

372. The League of the Rhine, A. D. 1255, numbered 60 cities: that of Suabia, in 1376, was still larger. Several free cities of Upper Germany—now Switzerland⁴—joined

the Forest Cantons in a league, which at length secured the independence of the Swiss republics. Equally remarkable was the union of the Hanse^b towns of northern Germany, for the protection of their trade from pirates at sea and robbers on land. This league of merchants became so powerful that its fleets controlled the northern seas, and kings were proud of its alliance. Among its foreign factories were London and Bruges, where the German and Italian merchants met to exchange the gems, silks, and finer fabrics of Asia and the south for the fish, hemp, and timber of the north; for, to the slow navigation of those days, the voyage from the Mediterranean to the Baltic was too long to be made in a single summer.

373. During the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the common people were gaining power in almost every country in Europe. Before this time, society, outside of the Church, had been chiefly made up of nobles, with their vassals and serfs. But the cities of Italy, Spain, and southern France had always kept something of the freedom which they had enjoyed under the Romans; and, in Germany, England, and the Low Countries, the wealth of artisans and merchants was now so great as to make them important to the sovereigns, who were always in want of money. Accordingly, representatives of the cities began to be called to a share in the government of all these countries.

Point out, on Map No. 9, Genoa. Venice, and her dominions. Florence. Milan. Avignon. Lubec. Hamburg. Bruges. London.

Read Sismondi's *History of the Italian Republics*; Campbell's *Life of Petrarch*; Dante's "*Vita Nuova*," translated by Norton; Longfellow's "*Dante*," with the Notes; Roscoe's *Life of Lorenzo de' Medici*; J. A. Symonds's *Renaissance in Italy*, Vol. I., *The Age of the Despots*.

NOTES.

1. **Hapsburg** was a rather insignificant little castle in southern Swabia, though its name has become one of the most illustrious in Europe, from its having been the cradle of so powerful a family. Knight Rudolph, the founder of the ducal and imperial line, was so poor that he is said to have mended his own clothes; but he was a brave and prudent man, well able to cope with the disorderly elements within the empire. Ottocar, king of Bohemia, was the most dangerous of the great princes; but he was subdued, and his kingdom was added, a few years later, to the dominions of the House of Luxembourg. Subsequently it became a part of the Austrian dominion, to which it still belongs.

Rudolph bestowed the Duchy of Austria upon his son Albert, who was afterwards elected King of the Germans, though he was never crowned at Rome.

2. **Charles** married Beatrice, daughter of Count Raymond-Berenger of Provence, who is said to have been bitterly dissatisfied with the title of Countess, while her sisters were the wives of kings. One of them was Eleanor, consort of Henry III. of England (§ 384). The ambition of Charles, however, needed no incitement from his wife's complaints; and the events of that turbulent age afforded him abundant opportunity for self-aggrandizement. The Pope having excommunicated the two sons of Frederic II., bestowed upon him the Sicilian kingdoms; while the titles of senator of Rome and imperial vicar, which he held during the interregnum in the empire (§ 365), gave him the control of all the rest of Italy. By his orders, young Conradin, grandson of Frederic II.—who had come into Italy to claim his inheritance, but had been defeated and captured—was beheaded with five of his companions in the market-place at Naples. On the scaffold the prince solemnly bequeathed his kingdom to his cousin Constance, wife of the king of Aragon; and Sicily soon became a possession of her family. Naples and its territories were for centuries in dispute between the French and the Aragonese princes. Charles of Anjou died in 1285, the same year with the kings of France and Aragon.

3. **Nicolas**, or **Colas di Rienzi** was born at Rome, was liberally educated, and became a friend of the poet Petrarch about A. D. 1340. In 1342 he accompanied Petrarch and others in a deputation sent by the citizens to the Pope at Avignon, beseeching him to return to Rome. The city was a prey to tumult and anarchy—the great nobles issuing from their castles to rob and murder at their will, while their armed followers had almost daily fights in the streets. Since neither Emperor nor Pope would come to the rescue, Rienzi proposed to the citizens a restoration of the "Good Estate" of the ancient republic. Refusing the proud title of Senator, which they would gladly have bestowed, he chose to be called Tribune, or champion of the people; and, for a few months, Rome resumed something of her ancient rank. The king of Hungary and the queen of Naples submitted their cause to his arbitration, and the republics of northern Italy sought his protection. He cited the Emperor Louis to appear and submit his election, as of old, to the choice of the Roman people, and he required the Pope and the cardinals to return to their lawful seats. The story of Rienzi is well told in Bulwer's *Rienzi, the Last of the Tribunes*.

4. **Beginning of the Swiss League.** "While the three kingdoms which belonged to the empire were thus getting weaker and more divided, and while the kingdom of France to the west of them was growing stronger and stronger, two new powers gradually arose in what we may call the border-land of all these kingdoms. One of these lasted but a short time, but the other has lived on to our own day. These are the *Duchy of Burgundy* and the *League of the Swiss Cantons*. This last began among three small mountain districts on the borders of Germany, Burgundy, and Italy, called *Uri*, *Schwytz* and *Unterwalden*. They were German-speaking members of the empire, and there was nothing to distinguish them from other German-speaking members of the empire, except that they had kept far more of the freedom of the old times than most other lands had. Like many other districts and cities of the

empire, they joined together in a league for mutual defense. This they had doubtless done from earlier times, but the first written document of their union belongs to the year 1291. The Counts of Hapsburg (See § 365 and note), who had now become Dukes of Austria, and who had estates within the three lands themselves, were now very dangerous neighbors, and the confederates had to keep close together in order to guard their freedom. This they made safe by the battle of Morgarten, which they won over Duke Leopold of Austria, in 1315. Presently several of the neighboring cities, Lucerne, Zurich, and Berne, joined their alliance, as did also the smaller towns of Zug and Glarus; so that in the course of the fourteenth century they had a league of eight states. Its name was the Old League of High Germany, and its members were called the *Eidgenossen* or *Confederates*; but the name of the Canton of Schwytz gradually spread over the whole league, and they came to be commonly called Swiss, and their country Switzerland. . . .

"Such a league was, of course, much dreaded by the neighboring nobles, but it was for a long time favored by the Emperors. . . . But the Dukes of Austria were their constant enemies, and therefore, when the empire passed into the Austrian House, the confederates had to be on their guard against a power which had hitherto been friendly. But they did not throw off their allegiance to the empire. . . . They were simply one of many German leagues, which circumstances allowed to become more independent than the others, and, as it turned out, to survive them."—*Freeman's Gen. Sketch*, 219-221.

The Swiss republics were first recognized as a separate power by the Treaty of Westphalia (§ 572) in 1648. Switzerland is now a Federal Republic, composed of 25 states, or 22 cantons, whose constitution closely resembles that of the United States.

5. The name *Hansa* was used in the middle ages to denote a union, first of merchants and afterwards of towns, for commercial purposes. The *Hansa*, or *Hanseatic League*, which became so extensive as usually to monopolize the name, grew from a union of Hamburg and Lubeck—the one commanding the North Sea, the other the Baltic—to avoid by a land route, the dangerous passage of the Sound and the Belts, and escape the "Sound Dues" levied by the Kings of Denmark. The merchants of those days had great need to combine for mutual protection; for the seas swarmed with pirates and the land with robbers—often of noble birth—who regarded peaceful traders as their natural prey. The feudal system had no place for merchants, but recognized only lords, vassals, and serfs. It was necessary, therefore, for the inhabitants of cities to look to their rights as against the landed aristocracy. It is not known how early the northern League was formed; but in 1362 it was powerful enough to storm and capture Copenhagen. In a subsequent war all Denmark fell into the hands of the League, and, by the Treaty of Stralsund, A. D. 1370, King Waldemar resigned to them two thirds of all his revenues for fifteen years, as the price of his return to his throne. This war had a great effect in consolidating the League and leading it to adopt a regular federal constitution. In later times it was divided into four quarters, with their respective capitals at Lubeck, Cologne, Brunswick, and Dantzic. The foreign factories were London, Bruges, Bergen in Norway, and Novgorod in Russia—the latter then a town of 300,000 inhabitants, and an important center of art, learning, and industry. After more than three centuries of power, the League declined, partly because of the diversion of commerce to the new maritime routes (§ 435); partly, perhaps, because of the better protection afforded by governments. A minor cause is curious: the annual shoals of herrings changed their course to the southward, greatly enriching Holland, but withdrawing from the Swedish and Norwegian coasts, where the *Hansa* had a monopoly of the fisheries. The last general assembly of the League took place in 1668. Lubeck, Hamburg, and Bremen continued to call themselves Hanse-towns, but the union ceased.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE TARTAR CONQUESTS.



Mongol Warrior.

DURING the last Crusades, Asia and Eastern Europe suffered the most terrible devastations from the nomadic races (§ 2) which history records. The Turks, a brutal race of Tartars, had been, first, the hired soldiers and then the conquerors of the caliphs (§ 303). Their dominion, during the last half of the eleventh century, extended over the greater part of central and western Asia. Another Tartar family conquered India, and plundered its temples of an untold wealth of gold and jewels.

375. But the greatest of these Scythian hordes were the Mongols, led by Tem'ujin, whose irresistible power gained for him the name of *Gen'ghis Khan*,¹ or Universal Lord. Followed by an immense army, he first undertook the conquest of China. The Great Wall, built fourteen centuries before, to keep out the ancestors of the Mongols, proved to be no sufficient barrier; nor could the artificial thunders and lightnings, which were launched from the walls of

A. D. 1215. Peking—for the Chinese had long known the uses of gunpowder—prevent the capture of that capital and the conquest of northern China. Subsequent wars made Genghis master of all central Asia, from the Pacific Ocean to the Black Sea, a country which was then richer and more civilized than now. Hundreds of

populous cities, stored with the treasures of art, learning, and industry, were destroyed; and five millions of human lives are said to have been sacrificed to this monster's thirst for dominion.

376. The descendants of Genghis overthrew the feeble remnant of the Abbasside Empire at Bagdad, and extended their raids to the Adriatic, the borders of Germany, and the Polar Sea. Russia paid tribute to them for more than two hundred years; and the Mongol dominion was the most extensive that the world has ever seen. Ku'blai Khan, a grandson of Temujin, conquered southern China, and ruled all Asia, except Hindustan, Arabia, and Syria. He invited Christian missionaries to his court at Pekin; and kept the famous Venetian traveler, Marco Polo,² many years in his service. A. D. 1239-1481.

377. During the next century the Mongol Empire fell to pieces; but, about 1365 A. D., Ti'mour, or Tam'erlane,³ a descendant of Genghis, set out on a career of conquest which nearly reünited all his ancestor's dominions, with the addition of Hindustan. Pyramids of human heads marked the fields of his victories, and 100,000 captives were murdered at one time in cold blood, lest they should hinder his march! In a battle with the Ottoman Turks, at Angora, in Asia Minor, Timour defeated and captured Bajazet, their chief, whom he kept the rest of his life in an iron cage. Not only the Ottomans, but the Roman Empire of the East, paid tribute to the conqueror. Ba'ber, a descendant of Timour, founded the great Mogul Empire in India. Its seat was at Delhi, and its magnificence has probably never been surpassed. A. D. 1402.

378. The Ottoman Empire was founded, A. D. 1288-1326, by Oth'man, who fixed his capital at Brusa. One by one the provinces of the Eastern Empire, both in Asia and Europe, fell into his hands, until only Constantinople remained to the Cæsars; and even within its walls

the Turks had a colony. The first regular standing army in Europe was formed by Am'urath I. from Christian captives taken in childhood, whom he trained with the greatest strictness to be soldiers and Mohammedans. These *Janizaries*⁴ were the best soldiery the world then knew, and were perfectly devoted to their sultan.

379. The chief defenders of Europe were the Hungarians, but their king, Sig'ismund, was twice defeated by the Turks, and, at Nicopolis, his army of 100,000, numbering the bravest knights in Christendom, was routed, or destroyed, by Bajazet (§ 377). Constantinople was four times besieged without effect, but at length, in 1453, Mohammed II. encamped, with an irresistible force, about its walls. His cannon soon effected a breach, the Janizaries rushed in, and, on the fifty-third day of the siege, the imperial city fell. Constantine XII., the last of the eastern Cæsars, was slain in its defense.

380. This great event filled all Europe with terror. The "Turks' Bell" rang at noon from every spire, calling all Christians to pray for the defeat of the infidel. The Hungarians kept up a brave resistance; and their leader, Hunia'des, by a victory over Mohammed II., rescued the important fortress of Belgrade, commanding the Danube. The Pope's attempt to unite all the powers of Europe in a crusade failed. Venice carried on war fifteen years with the intruders on her own account; but at length made peace, and even entered upon a disgraceful traffic with the Turks for Christian slaves.

Trace, on Maps No. 4 and 7, the conquests of Genghis Khan and his descendants. The progress of the Ottoman Turks. Point out Bagdad. Belgrade.

The last chapters of Gibbon, and the first of Dyer's History of Modern Europe, are the best authorities. Read, also, Finlay's History of the Byzantine and Greek empires.

NOTES.

1. The title Genghis Khan is spelled in twenty different ways, with almost equal authority, and is variously interpreted. Some suppose it to be equivalent to the Chinese Chingsze or Perfect Warrior. On his father's death, Temujin succeeded to the chieftainship of the Mongol tribes at the age of thirteen, A. D. 1175. Most of the secondary chiefs had been held in subjection by the iron rule of the old warrior, and had no mind to submit to be led by a child; but the precocious spirit of the lad and his mother's energy soon established his supremacy. Many years of war were required, however, before the chief of a few tribes could call himself the ruler of an empire. In 1206, at the age of 44, he convened a great assembly of the notables of his kingdom at his birthplace in Mongolia, and, at their request, assumed the title above quoted. His followers were called the Golden Horde. He died A. D. 1227, in Mongolia.

2. Marco Polo was the greatest traveler of the Middle Ages, and the first who, from his own experience, made known to Europeans the wonders of the farthest extremities of Asia. The good king, Louis the Ninth of France, had indeed sent the Franciscan Rubruquis (or Ruysbrock) on a mission to the Tartar courts (‡876), and his vivid pictures of the almost unknown world of central Asia are invaluable to students of that time; but his travels were much less extensive than those of Polo. The latter, says Col. Yule, "was the first to trace a route across the whole longitude of Asia, naming and describing kingdom after kingdom which he had seen with his own eyes; the deserts of Persia, the flowering plateaus and wild gorges of Badakhshan. . . . The Mongolian Steppes, cradle of the power that had so lately threatened to swallow up Christendom; the new and brilliant court that had been established at Cambaluc; the first traveler to reveal China in all its wealth and vastness,—its mighty rivers, its huge cities, its rich manufactures, its swarming population, the inconceivably vast fleets that quickened its seas and inland waters; to tell us of the nations on its borders with all their eccentricities of manners and worship. . . . of Japan, the eastern Thule, with its rosy pearls and golden-roofed palaces; the first to speak of that museum of beauty and wonder, still so imperfectly ransacked, the Indian Archipelago, source of those aromatics then so highly prized, and whose origin was so dark; of Java, the pearl of islands; of Sumatra, with its many kings, its strange, costly products, and its cannibal races. . . . of India the great, not as a dream-land of Alexandrian fables, but as a country seen and partially explored. . . . the first in mediæval times to give any distinct account of the secluded Christian empire of Abyssinia, and the semi-Christian Island of Socotra; to speak, though indeed dimly, of Zanzibar, and of the vast and distant Madagascar, bordering on the Dark Ocean of the south; . . . and, in a remotely opposite region, of Siberia and the Arctic Ocean, of dog-sledges, white bears, and reindeer-riding Tunguses."

The father and uncle of Marco Polo, who were merchants, were the first to visit the court of Kublai Khan in Cathay, or Eastern China. The Tartar prince was delighted with their accounts of Europe, and, on their return, made them the bearers of a very important message to the Pope. He desired a hundred educated missionaries to convert his people to the Christian faith. Kublai himself was perhaps indifferent towards all religions; but he strongly wished to improve and civilize his rude Tartar kinsmen, and judged from the conversation of these worthy Venetians that their faith would better effect this result than Mohammedanism or any other form of belief that he had met.

On their arrival at Acre, in 1280, the brothers found that Pope Clement IV. had died, and no successor had been elected. It was more than two years before they could obtain an answer to their request, and then only two Dominican friars were willing to undertake the toilsome journey. Even they drew back at the first experience of its hardships; and Kublai Khan, for want of Christian instructors, was forced to commit the spiritual care of his people to the Lamas of Thibet.

Marco Polo, now seventeen years old, joined his father and uncle in this second expedition, and, after an adventurous journey of three years and a half, arrived, in A. D. 1275, at the Cathayan court. He was kindly

received by the monarch, and set himself diligently to learn the many languages spoken in this mixed dominion. He was soon employed in important missions to the various provinces, whose people were "in every stage of uncivilization," and "afforded him an acquaintance with many strange products and eccentric traits of manners." He "had observed the Khan's delight in hearing of strange countries, their marvels, manners, and oddities, and had heard his Majesty's frank expressions of disgust at the stupidity of his commissioners, when they could speak of nothing but the official business on which they had been sent. Profiting by these observations, he took care to store his memory or his note-books with all curious facts that were likely to interest Kublai, and related them with vivacity on his return to court." Thus he cultivated his powers of observation and description, and became the most delightful of story-tellers.

After twenty years spent in the service of the Tartar prince, the three Venetians were allowed to depart by sea with a fleet consisting of thirteen Chinese junks. They cruised among the islands and along the coasts of India nearly two years, but landed at length at Hormuz, in the Persian Gulf, and proceeded northward to Tabreez, and thence westward by Trebizond, Constantinople, and Negropont to Venice.

They found their house occupied by others, and themselves unknown even to their nearest kin; but, when they produced from the seams and linings of their "shabby Tartar raiment," the wealth of rubies, diamonds, and emeralds which the great Khan had conferred upon them, they began to be recognized. "And straightway the whole city, gentle and simple, flocked to the house to embrace them," and to hear the wonderful stories of their adventures.

Subsequently Marco was taken prisoner by the Genoese in the battle of Curzola, and it was during the tedious hours of captivity at Genoa that the story of his travels was written down from his lips.

3. This name is a corruption of Taimoor-Leng—Timour the Lame. Timour was born A. D. 1336, at Kesh, in Independent Tartary. His military career began about 1361, when he took part with Husein, Khan of northern Khorassan, against some neighboring tribes, and received the wound which made him lame for life—though it did not diminish his warlike energy. His subsequent conquests extended from the Grecian archipelago to central India. An Afghan dynasty was now reigning in great magnificence at Delhi, its enormous wealth drawing upon it frequent attacks from the Mongols; but the invasion of Timour led, in a few years, to its fall. Crossing the Hindu Kush, A. D. 1398, with 90,000 horsemen, the Tartar chief penetrated to the plain of Delhi, conquered the city in a great battle, and gave it over to his followers, who loaded themselves with gold and jewels. Savage though he was in his cruelty, Timour delighted in the conversation of learned men, and in enriching Samarcand, his capital, with works of art and collections of choice manuscripts. He died on his march toward China, 1406.

4. The Janizaries were the favorite soldiers of the Sultan; and their place of honor near his person, the splendor of their equipment, and the liberality with which they were treated, all combined to attach them to his service. They had usually been taken from their homes at so early an age that they had forgotten their parents and the scenes of childhood; and trained, as they were, in the Mohammedan religion, there was nothing to conflict with their new allegiance. After the Turkish power began to decline, their ranks could no longer be recruited by captives taken in war, and the odious child-tribute was imposed on the Christian populations subject to the Porte. No family was secure from the visits of the recruiting officer, who seized the most promising boys and dragged them away to the barracks at Constantinople. Naturally, as the Turkish government grew weaker, this powerful soldiery became a source of danger rather than of strength. Each sultan in succession had to buy the obedience of the Janizaries by an increased donative, and, like the Prætorian guards of ancient Rome (§§ 256, 260), they presumed to set up, depose, and even murder sultans at their will. Othman II., after reverses in war, was murdered in 1622 by his Janizaries, who then dragged from a dungeon his imbecile uncle, Mustapha, and placed him upon the throne. At last, in 1826, Sultan Mahmoud put an end to this dangerous body of troops by a summary massacre.

WRITERS OF THE LATER MIDDLE AGES
AND THE RENAISSANCE.

Italian.

- Dante, A. D. 1265-1321: "The Divine Comedy," etc.
Petrarch, 1304-1374: Sonnets, etc.
Boccaccio, 1313-1375: "The Decameron."
Ariosto, 1474-1533: "Orlando Furioso."
Tasso, 1544-1595: "Jerusalem Delivered."
Machiavelli, 1469-1527: "History of Florence;" "The Prince," etc.
Guicciardini, 1482-1540: "History of Italy."

French.

- Froissart, 1333-1400. "Chronicles."
Philippe de Comines, 1445-1509: "Memoirs."
Queen Margaret of Navarre, 1492-1549: "The Heptameron."
Rabelais, 1483-1553: "Gargantua and Pantagruel."
Montaigne, 1533-1592: "Essays."

English.

- John Wicliffe, 1324-1384: First English Translation of the Bible.
Sir John Mandeville, 1300-1372: "Voyage and Travel."
Robert Langland, 1332-1400: "Vision of Piers Plowman."
Geoffrey Chaucer, 1328-1400: "Canterbury Tales," etc.
John Gower, 1327-1408: "Confession of a Lover."
Sir Thomas Malory, 1430-1465: "Morte d' Arthur."



EUROPE.

Showing the Places Important
in the
15th. & 16th. Centuries.
Scale of Miles

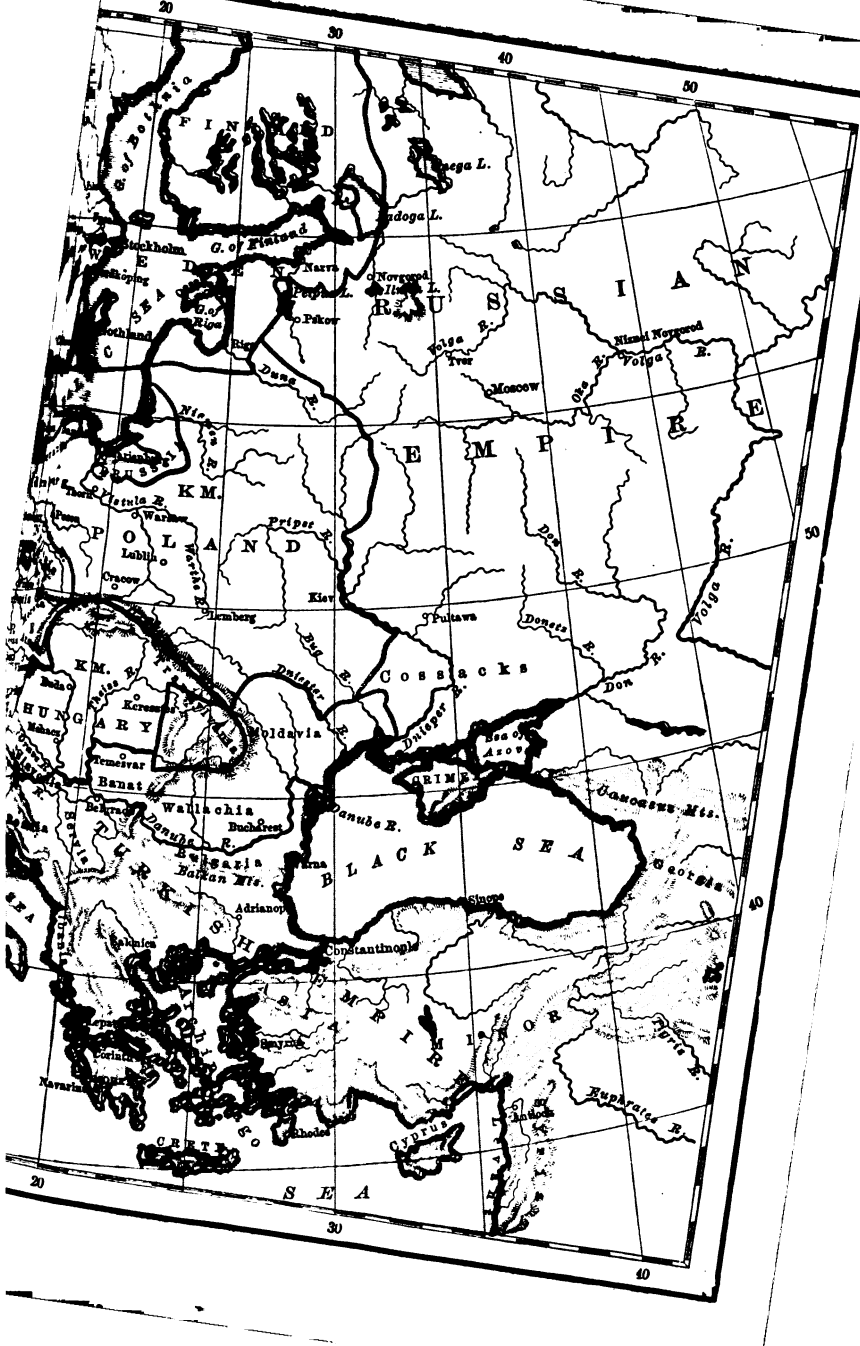
0 50 100 150 200 250

ATLANTIC OCEAN

NORTH SEA

MONARCHY

MEDITERRANEAN SEA



MEDIÆVAL AND RENAISSANCE ARTISTS.

- Cimabue, A. D. 1240-1302: Founder of Italian School of Painting.
- Giotto, 1276-1336: Frescoes, Bell Tower at Florence, etc.
- Orcagna, 1329-1376: Frescoes in Campo Santo, at Pisa.
- Hubert and Jan Van Eyck, 1366-1440: Founders of Flemish School of Painting.
- Lorenzo Ghiberti, 1381-1455: Bronze Gates of Baptistery at Florence.
- Brunelleschi, 1377-1444: Dome of Cathedral at Florence.
- Donatello, 1383-1466: Statues of St. George, St. Peter, etc.
- Masaccio, 1402-1429: Frescoes, etc.
- Leonardo da Vinci, 1452-1519: "Last Supper," at Milan, etc.
- Michael Angelo Buonarroti, 1475-1564: Statues, Frescoes, Church of St. Peter at Rome.
- Raphael Sanzio d' Urbino, 1483-1520: Paintings.
- Ghirlandajo, 1451-1495: Frescoes at Florence, etc.
- Perugino, 1446-1524: Frescoes at Perugia and Rome.
- John of Bellini, 1424-1514: Founder of Venetian School.
- Francesco Francia, 1450-1517: "Madonna Enthroned," etc.
- Fra Bartolommeo, 1469-1517: Paintings.
- Giorgione, 1477-1511: Paintings of Venetian School.
- Titian, 1477-1576: "The Assumption," etc.
- Andrea del Sarto, 1487-1530: Frescoes in Florence, etc.
- Giulio Romano, 1492-1546: Frescoes in the Vatican, etc.
- Correggio, 1494-1534: Paintings of the "Ascension," etc.
- Albert Dürer, 1471-1528: Founder of German School of Painting, Inventor of Etching, Perfecter of Wood Engraving.
- Hans Holbein, 1495-1543: Portraits, etc.

NOTE.—The dates are those of Woodward and Cates' Encyclopædia of Chronology.

CHAPTER IX.

PLANTAGENETS IN ENGLAND.



Insurgent Peasants.

THE violence and misery of Stephen's reign (§ 335) were exchanged for comparative order and peace under the strong hand of Henry II. (A. D. 1154-1189), one of the greatest monarchs of his age. He was the first of the English Plantagenets,* a family who wore the crown 331 years. By inheritance and by marriage, he was lord of more than half of France; and, though he did homage (§ 317, 350) to Louis VII.

for his two great duchies and four counties,¹ his power greatly exceeded that of his suzerain.

382. Ireland was conquered by the arms of his brave barons, aided by the quarrels of its native chiefs; but for centuries it brought little more than a new title, with endless vexations to the English king. Henry had a seven years' contention with his former friend, Thomas à Becket, whom he had made Archbishop of Canterbury. It ended with the murder of Becket,² at the altar of his own cathedral; but King Henry afterwards made a penitential pilgrimage to the tomb at Canterbury, where he humbly begged the monks to scourge him "for the good

* From *planta genesta*, a sprig of broom-corn, his father's badge.

of his soul." The same day, his armies defeated and captured the king of the Scots, and Henry joyfully accepted the victory as a token of St. Thomas' forgiveness.

383. Henry's son, Richard I. (A. D. 1189-1199), is best known to us as a crusader (§§340, 353), for he paid little attention to his kingdom. His brother John (A. D. 1199-1216) lost all his French dominions through his crimes and cowardice; and the English barons, taking the defense of the kingdom into their own hands, forced him to grant the Great Charter³ (*Magna Charta*), which secured A. D. 1215. the foundations of justice and freedom. Pope Innocent III. called upon all Christian princes to join in a crusade to dethrone John, and his late feudal chief, the king of France, gladly obeyed the summons. But John's sudden death put an end to the French invasion; for the barons who had opposed him bravely defended the rights of his son Henry, who was only nine years old.

384. During the weak reign⁴ of Henry III. (A. D. 1216-1272), the barons had to assume the government again, and their great leader, Earl Simon de Montfort, summoned the first parliament in which citizens had part as well as nobles and bishops. In war with the barons, King Henry and his son were made prisoners; but A. D. 1265. the next year Earl Simon was defeated and slain at Evesham.

385. Edward I. (A. D. 1272-1307), was recalled from his crusade (§355) to assume the crown. He put an end to the bold robberies, and other disorders, which his father's weakness had encouraged; conquered Wales, and might have subdued Scotland, but for the brave resistance of Wallace and Bruce. While marching to meet the latter, who had been crowned as King Robert I., Edward died. He was an able and generous king, loving his people, and seeking their welfare by wise laws and a firm execution of justice.

386. Edward II. (A. D. 1307-1327), was the exact opposite of his father—weak, cowardly, and vicious. His defeat by Bruce, at Bannockburn, secured the independence of Scotland. His fondness for worthless favorites offended the barons, who joined his French queen, Isabella, in dethroning him. He was afterwards murdered by the queen's orders.

A. D. 1314.

387. His son, Edward III. (A. D. 1327-1377), was a warlike and powerful king. The very slight claim, which he had inherited from his mother, to the crown of France, tempted him to invade that country; and he gained a decisive victory over king Philip VI.

A. D. 1346.

at Cre'cy. His eldest son, a youth of 16 years, greatly distinguished himself in the battle. Finding among the slain the body of the blind old king of Bohemia, Prince Edward adopted his motto, "I serve," and the black armor, from which he became known as the "Black Prince."

388. King Edward followed up his victory by the siege and capture of Calais, which remained for 200 years an English port, valuable for purposes of trade, and as an ever open door to France. It is said that when Calais had been starved into surrender, King Edward demanded the lives of six chief citizens as a ransom for the rest. Freely offering themselves, six of the principal men repaired to his camp, with ropes around

A. D. 1347.

their necks, bearing the keys of the city, and were ordered to execution. But Queen Philip'pa had just arrived from England to render account of her own successful management of the war with the Scots. She fell on her knees and begged, as her reward, the lives of these brave men. The king could not refuse her; and, after entertaining them most generously, she sent them back to their families loaded with gifts. (§§ 477, 502).

389. In a subsequent war, King John was defeated and made prisoner, at Poitiers, A. D. 1356, by a far inferior

force under the Black Prince. By the Treaty of Bretigny he engaged to pay an immense sum of money for his ransom; but the king of England at the same time renounced his claims to the French crown, with all the fiefs of William and Geoffrey (§350). He kept Aquitaine, which was made an almost independent sovereignty for Prince Edward.

390. The Black Prince died a year before his father; and his son, Richard II., became king in 1377. The wars had brought intolerable suffering to the poor people of both countries; and peasant insurrections, called in France the *Jacquerie*, in England, Wat Tyler's rebellion, alarmed the ruling classes. One hundred thousand armed insurgents marched upon London, plundering and murdering those who opposed them. Richard met the mob with great coolness, and disarmed their rage by promising all they asked. He did, indeed, try to secure freedom for the serfs; but, in so doing, he offended the nobles, without gaining any thing for the people. Richard was unable to restrain the ambition of his three uncles, who quarreled for the chief power; and he made an enemy of his cousin, Henry of Lancaster. Returning from exile upon his father's death, Henry was joined by a great army, including most of the royal forces. With consent of parliament he assumed the crown, and put Richard in prison, where he is supposed to have died, A. D. 1400.

391. During this reign, Wic'liffe preached against the abuses which had crept into the church. Though among the most learned of Oxford doctors, he spoke and wrote a language which the poor people could understand. His greatest work was a translation of the Bible into their common tongue. He was bitterly opposed, but he had a powerful friend in John of Gaunt, the father of Henry of Lancaster. After his death, his bones were burned as those of a heretic, and his ashes were thrown into the Avon; but his teachings were already the property of the world (p. 245).

392. The House of Lancaster.—Henry IV. (A. D. 1399–1413), tried to please the clergy by persecuting the *Lollards*, or followers of Wicliffe; but the insecurity of his title was shown by three formidable insurrections. His son, Henry V. (A. D. 1413–1422), was more popular. Already as prince he had contributed much to the victory at Shrewsbury, by which the rebellion of the Percies was overthrown; but in times of peace he seemed wholly given up to gay and dissolute company. Some have thought that this was merely an artifice to disarm his father's suspicion; for Henry IV. was haunted by the fear that his son might treat him as he himself had treated Richard.

393. Upon the king's death, however, Henry V. dismissed all his wild companions, called about him his father's best counselors, and bestowed especial favor upon one who had been honest enough to rebuke his own misconduct. He soon afterwards prepared for war with France,⁵ whose wretched condition, under a crazy king, a wicked queen, and recklessly selfish nobles, made conquest seem an easy matter. At the field of Agincourt, Henry's brave yeomanry gained a victory over four times their number of French. The treaty of Troyes made Henry regent of France during the life of Charles VI., whose daughter he was to marry, and upon whose death he was to succeed to the crown. Two years later, Henry V. and his infant son entered Paris in triumph. But the triumph did not last long. The two kings died in one year, and the crowns of France and England rested upon the baby brow of Henry VI., who during his life-time of 50 years never became, in intellect, more than a feeble child. §§409, 410.

394. For six years the English ruled France, the heir to the crown having only a few cities south of the Loire. In 1428 came a wonderful change of fortune. Jo'an of Arc, a simple peasant girl, believed herself inspired of

heaven to rescue France. With her consecrated banner she appeared at the head of the dauphin's army, and excited such hopes in the French, or such terror in the English, that the latter broke up their camp and withdrew from Orleans, which they had nearly taken. She then conducted the dauphin to Rheims, where he
A. D. 1429. was crowned; and this event did much to turn the hearts of the French toward their native king. To the disgrace of Charles VII. and the English chiefs, the "Maid of Orleans," having been taken prisoner, was condemned and burnt as a witch.

395. From amidst the smoke and flame of her execution, Joan declared that God's vengeance would pursue the English into their own land. Her prophecy was fulfilled. Step by step they were driven from all their conquests in France; while the incapacity of their king and the quarrels of his ministers left England a prey to the worst disorders. Henry married Margaret of Anjou, a brave and accomplished princess, but her haughty spirit offended a powerful party among the English nobles.

396. The Duke of York now asserted his claim as a descendant of Edward III. by an elder line than the king (see Table, p, 434). Thence arose the "Wars of the Roses," so called because the Yorkists wore a white rose, and the Lancastrians a red one as their badge. The Duke of York was slain in the battle of Wakefield; but his claim to the crown was inherited by his eldest son, who, in 1461, was acknowledged as King Edward IV. Henry VI. found a more peaceful abode in the Tower.

397. House of York.—Among the foremost figures of that time is the Earl of Warwick, who was called the "Kingmaker." His estates covered many miles of territory; his armed followers were a mighty host; and victory leaned to either side where he declared himself. He aided largely in the elevation of the House of York, but, being griev-

ously offended by Edward IV., he transferred his allegiance to Henry VI., whom he released from prison, while Edward fled beyond the sea. But Edward IV. returned, and the great earl was slain at Barnet. Young Edward of Lancaster was defeated and basely murdered at Tewkesbury, and his unhappy father died a few days later in prison. The reign of Edward IV. (A. D. 1461-1483) is signalized by the introduction of printing into England by William Caxton,⁸ in 1474.

398. Edward V. was but thirteen years old at his father's death. His uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester, having gained possession of the young king and his brother, caused them to be murdered in the Tower, and made himself King Richard III. Richard was, undoubtedly, the ablest of his family; and though he had "waded through slaughter to a throne," he ruled wisely and well. But the nobles were horrified by his crimes, and called for Henry Tu'dor, a descendant of the House of Lancaster, who had been living in exile (see Table p. 433).

399. Henry landed in England with a small army, which was joined by half of Richard's forces, and, in the Battle of Bosworth, gained a complete victory. King Richard was slain; his crown, found upon a thorn-bush, was placed on the head of the conqueror, who was hailed with the cry, "God save King Henry the Seventh!"

The Wars of the Roses had lasted 30 years. By exterminating many noble families, they had undermined the feudal system, which, in England, may be said to have ended with the Plantagenets. With the accession of the Tudors, modern history begins.

Read Green's "Short History," Chapter v, and Chapter vi, Sections 1-3. For illustration, read Shakespeare's Henry IV., V., VI., and Richard III.; and Bulwer's "Last of the Barons."

NOTES.

1. These were Normandy and Guienne (the more modern name for Aquitaine); Anjou, Maine, Touraine, and Poitou.

Normandy was inherited from his maternal grandfather, King Henry the First; Anjou, Maine, and Touraine from his father, Geoffrey Plantagenet; Guienne and Poitou were the dowry of his wife, Eleanor of Aquitaine. It must be remembered that France was then bounded on the east by the rivers Meuse and Rhone, and was less extensive, both to the north and to the south, than at present. See § 402.

"Previous to her marriage with Henry II. of England, Eleanor of Aquitaine had been the wife of Louis VII. of France (§ 400), a man greatly inferior to herself in intellect, taste, and force of character, but earnestly pious, and of grave and decorous manners. The young southern princess fretted and struggled against the change from the homage and flattery of the poetical knights of her native court to the severity of principle and action exhibited by Louis, the pupil of the great Abbot Suger, and the disciple of the rigid Cistercian, St. Bernard. Yet, for a time she yielded to the superior influences which surrounded her. When Bernard preached at Vezelay (§ 347), rousing the nations of Europe to undertake a new Crusade, Eleanor heard and was excited by his eloquence. Louis VII. undertook to conduct the holy war, and Eleanor accompanied him, but in Palestine she showed such levity of conduct that Louis, on his return home, determined to obtain a divorce."—*E. M. Sewell*.

2. In the first year of Henry's reign, Becket was raised to the dignity of chancellor, having won the king's favor by his great abilities and pleasing accomplishments.

"The private intercourse of the sovereign with his minister was on the most intimate footing. When serious business was over, says Fitz Stephen, they played together like boys of the same age.

"They were companions in all manner of amusements; and often, when the chancellor was at dinner, entertaining, as his custom was, a splendid party of nobles and knights, the king, in returning from the chase, would walk in without ceremony, and would either drink a cup and begone, or leap over the table and seat himself as a guest. . . .

"In procuring the chancellor's elevation to the primacy, Henry no doubt supposed that he should continue to find him a ready instrument of his will, especially in matters relating to the church. His surprise, therefore, was great at receiving from the new archbishop a request that he would provide himself with another chancellor. Not a word had Becket breathed as to retiring from the king's service until, by Henry's earnest exertion, he had been seated on the throne of Canterbury. But Becket was no longer the servant of the Crown, but purely the representative of the Church; he was independent of the king; he might become his antagonist, and this seemed very like a preparation for coming out as such."—*T. C. Robertson, Life of Becket*.

The main point of opposition was in the claim of the Church to judge all crimes committed by persons in her employ, independently of the secular courts. In 1164, Henry summoned a great council of bishops and nobles at his palace of Clarendon. With their consent an important charter, called "The Constitutions of Clarendon," was given to the people, requiring even clerical criminals to be judged by the civil laws. Becket, after violent resistance, swore to support the Constitutions; but afterwards professed to be deeply penitent for his sin in so doing. He fled to France, where King Louis, having many causes for jealousy against Henry, gladly received him with the honors due to a saint and a martyr. During his two years' absence, the king's eldest son was crowned as associate-monarch by the Archbishop of York, though that ceremony could only be lawfully performed by the primate. King Henry, having afterwards passed over to Normandy, Becket returned to England and was received by clergy and people with shouts of welcome. When Henry heard of his triumphal entrance into Rochester and Southwark, he exclaimed, "Is there none of all my servants who will rid me of this pestilent priest?" Four gentlemen of his household understood these words as intimating a desire for Becket's death; and, hastening to England, they murdered the archbishop within his own cathedral at Canterbury. His

tomb was long afterwards revered as the shrine of a martyr, and, in a single year, 100,000 pilgrims are said to have flocked thither from all parts of Christendom.

3. At Runnimede, on the Thames, the two parties met in conference; and the result of the meeting was the king's signing *Magna Charta*, the foundation of English constitutional liberty. Clergy, barons, and people were alike secured in their rights of person and property. Taxes were not to be levied without the consent of the Great Council. No person should be seized or imprisoned, or outlawed or exiled, or in any way brought to ruin save by lawful judgment of his peers. "We will sell to no man, we will not deny or delay to any man, justice or right." The poor man, even if convicted of crime, could not be deprived of his tenement, the merchant of his goods, or the peasant of his wagon. Twenty-four barons were charged with enforcing upon the king the fulfillment of his solemn oath. "They have given me four-and-twenty over-kings!" cried John, in a rage, as he threw himself on the floor and gnawed like a wild beast at whatever came within his reach.—*Hist. of Eng.* pp. 79-81.

4. King Henry's extortions and his slavery to foreign favorites disgusted his brave barons. Several times he was made to renew the Great Charter, and to pronounce the most dreadful curses upon whomsoever should dare to infringe it; but scarcely had the awful words died away among the arches of Westminster Hall, when every promise was broken. Chief of the French courtiers was Simon de Montfort, whom the king had made Earl of Leicester, and honored with the hand of his own sister. But, unlike his countrymen, Earl Simon faithfully served the people among whom he dwelt, and was rewarded by their love. . . . In 1257, a terrible famine visited England. King Richard (brother of Henry III.—crowned as king of the Romans at Aix-la-Chapelle, 1256; §§ 853, 865), sent over a supply of corn from Germany for the relief of the people; but King Henry seized and sold it for his own advantage. This enraged the barons, who met in arms at Oxford, and insisted upon a Council of Regency, to be chosen, half by the king, and half by themselves. Parliament was ordered to meet three times every year, whether summoned by the king or not, and "twelve honest men" were to represent the commonalty.

After the victory at Lewes, in which the king and his son were made prisoners, the Earl of Leicester, now really at the head of the realm, summoned a parliament in the king's name, to be composed of two citizens from each borough, and two knights from each shire, in addition to the bishops and nobles. This was a great event, for it was the first meeting of the English Commons according to their present constitution.—*Id.*, pp. 84, 85.

5. The French king, Charles V., had broken the Peace of Bretigny (§ 389) not long after it was signed; and, before the death of Edward III., all Aquitaine, excepting the cities of Bordeaux and Bayonne, had been lost to the English. The great nobles preferred to be vassals of France, but the cities clung to English rule, which gave them greater freedom and commercial advantages. The treaty thus broken on the French side, the English sovereigns resumed the title of Kings of France, which they never ceased to bear until the beginning of the present century, though no serious attempt at conquest was ever made after the time of Henry the Sixth.

6. William Caxton was a successful merchant in London, when he was commissioned by Edward IV., in 1464, to negotiate a commercial treaty with Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy. Three years later the Duke was succeeded by his son, Charles the Bold, who, in 1468, married Margaret of York, sister of the King of England. This lady appointed Caxton to be a member of her court, and employed him in translating a history of Troy from French into English. Having learned the new art of printing at Cologne, Caxton printed his translation about 1474—the first book ever printed in the English language. Subsequently, he carried his press to London. Though he acquired the art in his sixtieth year, and died in his eightieth, sixty-five books—of many of which he was author or translator as well as printer—bear witness to the industry and zeal of this father of English publishers.

CHAPTER X.

HOUSE OF CAPET IN FRANCE.



Louis XI. and his Barber.

LOUIS VI. (A. D. 1108—1137) gave the first communal privileges to French towns—in this and other ways lessening the power of his great vassals and raising up a class of industrious citizens between nobles and serfs. His son, Louis VII. (1137—1180), granted many more of these charters, and founded new cities for the reception of serfs who escaped from their masters. By marrying the heiress of Aquitaine, Louis annexed that great territory to the crown (see Map 7), but the misconduct of the queen led him to part with her and her lands, which were soon afterward transferred to Henry II. of England (§ 381). A life-long rivalry grew from this. Louis not only sheltered the exiled archbishop Becket (§ 382), but even aided Queen El'eanor and her sons in their rebellion against Henry. (see note, p. 232).

401. Philip II. Augustus (A. D. 1180—1223) curbed the great nobles by his wise management. In his reign Pope Innocent III. declared a crusade against Ray'mond, Count of Toulouse, for having sheltered his own subjects, the Albigenses, whose religious belief differed from that of the Roman Church. Even their enemies admitted that

their religion made them obedient to all just laws, and that they were the most industrious, orderly, and valuable members of any community. The king took little notice of the contest; but many of his vassals, foremost of whom was Simon de Montfort, father of the great English earl of Leicester (§ 384), hastened to join the crusade.

402. The war raged more than twenty years. Towns, villages, and fertile fields—the most prosperous region in Europe—were laid waste; the songs of the troubadours (§ 427) ceased; and their very language was smitten with decay. The war went on, through the short reign of Louis VIII. (1223–1226), and ended in that of his son, by the addition of all Count Raymond's dominions, either by direct surrender or by marriage, to the royal family. France thus became a greater maritime power; for before this it had not reached the Mediterranean.

403. The crusades of the good King Louis IX. (A. D. 1226–1270) have been mentioned (§§ 354, 355). His reign in France was marked by a cessation of feudal violence; the nobles no longer had power of life and death over their serfs; but uniform laws were enforced throughout the kingdom. On certain days all men might bring their complaints to the king,¹ who sat under a tree in the forest of Vincennes, ready to do justice and redress wrongs, without the delay incident to the best of courts. Not content with doing justly himself, Louis restored all lands that had been wrongfully seized by his father and grandfather. Even foreign princes sometimes referred their causes to him; in England he helped to reconcile Henry III. with his barons (§ 384).

404. Philip III. inherited a great tract of land, now in the south of France, which brought him in contact with the neighboring princes of Spain and Italy. It happened that his uncle, Charles of Anjou, was engaged in a fierce rivalry with the king of Aragon for the possession of

Sicily; and this led to the first long foreign war in which France was ever engaged. It was during this war that the Sicilian Vespers occurred (§ 366). Philip IV. (A. D. 1285-1314) is called *the Fair*, but the term applies to his person, and not to his conduct. His ambitious schemes made him always in want of money, which he extorted in turn from Jews, abbots, Flemish merchants, and, finally, from the Knights Templars² (§ 360). Pope Clement V., having removed his court from Rome to Avignon, was Philip's obedient tool. By their joint orders the Grand Master, Jacques de Mo'lay, was burnt to death. The order of Templars was dissolved in France, and, though their lands and fortresses were given to the Knights of St. John, their immense wealth in gold went into the coffers of the king.

405. Philip's three sons, Louis X., Philip V., and Charles IV., all succeeded him within fourteen years, A. D. 1314-1328. The infant son of Louis died when only four days old. His brothers left only daughters.

The ancient custom³ of the Franks had lately
A. D. 1316. been made a law, excluding women from the throne. The crown, therefore, passed to Philip of Valois (A. D. 1328-1350), a grandson of Philip III.

406. House of Valois.—The rival claims of Edward III.,⁴ the battles of Crécy and Poitiers, and the fall of Calais have already been described (§§ 387-389). The

wars were interrupted by the Black Death,
A. D. 1348-1351. a frightful pestilence, which, sweeping over Europe, destroyed, in three years, nearly half the population. The truce gave leisure to thousands of hireling soldiers, who roamed over the country, robbing and murdering at their will. Even the pope had to ransom himself with 40,000 crowns. The poor peasants, driven to desperation by famine, pestilence, and manifold oppressions, turned upon their masters and, in some instances,

demolished castles and massacred their inhabitants. Their ignorant warfare was, of course, speedily put down, and they were hunted to death like wild beasts.

407. King John (A. D. 1350-1364) was four years a prisoner, while, in addition to other miseries, Charles the Bad of Navarre, another claimant to the French crown, made much mischief in the kingdom. Charles V. (1364-1380) was called *the Wise*;—his wisdom had been learned in a hard school. Both as regent during his father's captivity, and afterwards as king, he managed so wisely that, though he seldom took the field in person, his great captains⁵ drove the English from all their conquests (§ 389).

408. The kingdoms of England and France were placed, after his death, in very similar circumstances: Richard II., in the one (§ 390), and Charles VI. (A. D. 1380-1422), in the other, were minors—each at the mercy of three powerful uncles,⁶ who used the public treasures to help their own ambition. In Naples, the House of Anjou (§ 404) had ended in Queen Joan'na, who, having no children, adopted Louis, uncle of Charles VI., as her heir. This adoption cost France more than a hundred years of war. The Duke of Anjou, seizing all the gold he could lay his hands on, marched into Italy, where he and most of his army died of the plague (note 6, p. 240).

409. The princes who stayed at home, made still more trouble. The Duke of Burgundy⁷ married the heiress of Flanders, and thus became richer than any sovereign prince in Europe. His son murdered his cousin, the duke of Orleans, and, a few years later, was himself murdered by a servant of his victim. Believing that the dauphin, who saw the crime, had planned, or at least permitted it, the new duke of Burgundy joined the English who had invaded the country (§ 393). The king had now become a hopeless maniac. Henry V., of England, married his daughter, and was proclaimed regent of France. But the

crazy king and his son-in-law died within eight weeks of each other, A. D. 1422.

410. The infant son of Henry and Catherine of France was crowned at Paris, while the true heir to the crown was so poor that he is said to have been arrested by a shoemaker, whose bill he could not pay. His fortunes were retrieved by the interposition of Joan of Arc⁸ (§ 394). Dissensions among the English saved France. In spite of his own indolence, Charles VII. (A. D. 1422-1461) regained all that himself and his father had lost, and only Calais remained to the English of all their conquests in France.

411. Louis XI. (A. D. 1461-1483), son of Charles VII., was a far abler man than his father, but his falsity of character made him one of the most contemptible figures in history. While dauphin,⁹ having incurred his father's displeasure, he took refuge with Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, who received him with great generosity. Louis proved his gratitude by poisoning the mind of the duke's only son with unfilial suspicions, and tampering with his servants. He and Charles of Burgundy were ever afterwards enemies and rivals.

412. The great effort of Louis' reign, was to exalt the power of the crown by weakening the Church and the nobles. His great vassals joined against him in a "League of the Public Weal," which had, at one time, 100,000 men on foot. Louis dissolved this force more by gold than steel. He stirred up rebellions in the Flemish cities, and once was caught in the trap which he had set, being imprisoned, by Charles, in the tower of Peronne.

413. Charles the Bold, as he is called, having made himself master of all the Netherlands, by purchase or inheritance, wished to revive the "Middle Kingdom" of Lothaire (see Map No. 7, and § 314, note). The emperor, Frederic III., promised to crown him at Trèves,

but, changing his mind, stole away in the night, leaving Charles with his unconsecrated crown. Louis stirred the

A. D. 1477. Swiss to attack Charles, who was defeated by them at Granson and Morat, and shortly afterwards slain at Nancy, in a battle with the duke of Lorraine. The king of France seized his duchy of Burgundy; but the rich inheritance of the Netherlands passed, with the hand of the young duchess Mary, to Maximilian of Austria (§ 424).

414. Louis suffered the natural consequences of a life of fraud in the wretched suspicions which haunted his last years. He shut himself in a lonely castle and ordered his archers to shoot at every living thing that approached. Even his own children were excluded; his constant companions were Oliver le Daim, barber and hangman, and James Cœttier, astrologer and physician. The latter governed Louis through his superstition by declaring that his own death would shortly precede that of the king. Never was man's health more cared for than that of this wily doctor. But at length the wretched king died, leaving his only son, at the age of fourteen, deformed in body and feeble in mind. The reign of Charles VIII. (A. D. 1483-1498) belongs, properly, to modern history.

Point out, on Maps No. 7 and 11, Granson, Morat, Crécy, Poitiers, Calais. The duchy of Burgundy. The Netherlands (named, § 512, note).

Read Michelet's *History of France*; Kirk's *Charles the Bold*; Scott's *Quentin Durward and Anne of Geierstein*; De Quincey's *Joan of Arc*, in his *Miscellaneous Essays*; and Harriet Parr's *Life and Death of Jeanne d'Arc*.

NOTES.

1. This was an advantage under so good a king, but it was dangerous, because it increased the royal prerogative, which was sure to pass into less worthy hands than his. The English institutions, established during the same years, were better, for they lodged power where a greater number could be held responsible for the right use of it (see § 384, and note). The policy begun by the justice of St. Louis was continued by the ambition of his successors, and the 102 years dating from the com-

mentement of his reign are called by Sismondi the Age of the Lawyers—a century in which the legal powers of the crown were established above the claims of the feudal chiefs. Much that was good in the character and reign of Louis, was due to his mother, Blanche of Castile, who managed the kingdom with great ability and firmness during his minority. Louis was only eleven years of age at his father's death.

2. This order, which had consisted at its foundation, about A. D. 1124, of only nine poor knights, now numbered 15,000 of the most splendid chivalry in the world. Their fortresses were the strongest in Europe, and their Grand Master had the dignity of a sovereign prince. They were independent of all kings, even those in whose realms their castles were situated; and doubtless there was reason for objection to so great a power in irresponsible hands. But the manner of their suppression was iniquitous. They were accused of Mohammedanism, atheism, and idolatry, any one of which charges must, of necessity, exclude the other two. The witnesses against them were examined by torture, and afterwards indignantly denied the truth of what they had affirmed. Upon this they were sentenced to be burned as apostates. Jacques de Molay, the Grand Master of the Order, was immured seven years in a dungeon until his intellect became disordered by suffering and deprivation of light. His defense was then refused, and he was sentenced, with two companions, to the stake. From the midst of the flames he summoned the Pope and the king of France to meet him, ere long, at the bar of God. Both died within the year 1314.

The character of a majority of Templars is probably not too severely drawn in that of Brian de Bois Guilbert in *Ivanhoe*, by Sir Walter Scott.

3. The Salic Law, so called because it was founded upon a custom of the Salian Franks (note, p. 173), has ever since prevailed in France, though rejected by Spain (§ 727), where a branch of the French House of Bourbon has reigned, with a few years exception, since 1713. The original Salic custom, however, referred to property and not to dominion.

4. Edward III. was a grandson of Philip IV., of France; and he affected to think (§ 387) that though his mother, Isabella, could not reign herself, she could transmit a right to him. This reasoning applied better, however, to Queen Jane of Navarre, who was daughter of Louis X., and to her son, Charles the Bad (§ 407). The right which King Edward hoped to maintain was only the right of the strongest; though he was, doubtless, provoked to war by the attempts of Philip VI. to get possession of Aquitaine (§ 400).

5. The greatest of these leaders was Bertrand Duguesclin, whom Hume calls "the first consummate general that had yet appeared in [modern] Europe." Having no followers of his own, he placed himself, according to the custom of the time, at the head of a company of adventurers, and first distinguished himself in a war for the Duchy of Brittany, in which the kings of France and England supported opposing claimants. Having thus attracted the attention of Charles V., he was made Constable of France (the highest military office in the kingdom) about 1370. His last act was the siege of a fortress in Languedoc. The English commander had promised conditionally to surrender on a certain day. Meanwhile Duguesclin died of disease, but the besieged commander kept his faith, and, marching out with his garrison, placed the keys on the coffin of the dead hero.

6. These were the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, in England; and of Anjou, Berri, and Burgundy, in France.

King Robert of Naples, grandson of Charles of Anjou (see § 366 and note), had been succeeded by his granddaughter Joanna, who, at the age of sixteen, married her cousin, Andrew of Hungary. The boorish manners of the king-consort displeased the elegant court of Joanna, and his assumed claim to govern in his own right alarmed her Neapolitan counselors. King Andrew was murdered, A. D. 1345, by the adherents, though it may be hoped without the consent, of his wife; and his brother, the king of Hungary, avenged his death by invading the Italian kingdom and expelling the queen. Having gained the Pope's favor by ceding Avignon to him, she was restored to her kingdom in

1352; but, having no children, she, in 1381, adopted the French prince as her heir. Joanna has been called the Mary Stuart (see § 504) of Italy, and some incidents of her eventful life do indeed call to mind the Scottish queen.

7. This was Philip the Bold, who, as a boy of fourteen years, had fought by his father's side at Poitiers (§ 389), and, with him, had been carried a prisoner to England. His bravery was rewarded with the great Duchy of Burgundy, whose first line of French dukes soon afterward (1361) expired. "Thus commenced that famous line of dukes which played so great a part in the history of France during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and by the splendor of its achievements and the magnificence of its patronage rivaled the greatest dynasties of the time. Philip's marriage with Margaret brought him the countships of Burgundy (Franche Comté), Flanders, Artois, Rethel, and Nevers, and, at a later period, he purchased Charolais from the Count of Auvergne. He was succeeded, 1404, by John the Fearless, who was assassinated on the Bridge of Montereau, 1419, and left the duchy to his son, Philip the Good. . . . By very questionable proceedings Philip obtained possession of Hainault and Holland. Namur was purchased in 1429, and the following year Brabant and Limburg also fell into his grasp. In 1435 there were yielded to him, by treaty with France, Macon, Auxerre, Bar-sur-Seine, and various other towns in that district. His son, Charles the Bold (§§ 411-413), followed in the same course of territorial aggrandizement, and even began to aim at the founding of a great Gallo-Belgian kingdom, but his splendid plans came to an untimely end with his death at the battle of Nancy."

8. Joan d' Arc was born about 1411, in the little village of Domremy, in Lorraine, of poor but excellent parents. In her childhood she saw and heard many proofs of the misery of her country, desolated as it was, not only by the wars of the great nobles, but by the ravages of free companies of soldiers, who, responsible to no government, roamed over the land, robbing and plundering at their will, or sold their services alternately to either party which would restrain them the least and pay them the most. Joan "was untiring in her efforts to relieve the sufferings of the poor about her, and even sold her bed and the greater part of her clothing in order to procure them supplies. She afterwards stated that as early as the age of thirteen she received commands from Heaven to go and liberate France." Her parents tried to suppress her enthusiasm, but the "voices" and "visions" continued to haunt her, and, in her eighteenth year, she could no longer disobey. Though the French officers treated her pretensions with scorn, she gained the favor of the Dauphin, and set forth, bearing her consecrated banner at the head of her troop, for Orléans, which was then besieged by the English, and at the very point of surrender. She first threw herself into the town with a supply of much-needed provisions; then, by a succession of sorties, so confounded the besiegers that they abandoned the siege and departed. When the second part of her mission was fulfilled (§ 394) she saluted the Dauphin as king, and begged his permission to return to the care of her sheep. But Charles, hoping to gain further advantage from her presence with his soldiers, refused to let her go. Her "voices" now ceased to be heard; and the high spirit that had sustained her seemed to fall. Wounded and a prisoner, she pined in her dungeon for the sunshine and green fields of her native hamlet. Yet, when brought before her judges, she steadfastly maintained the integrity of her motives in all that she had done, and she died declaring that her voices had not deceived her. A secretary of the king of England exclaimed, "We are lost, we have burned a saint!" and even her executioner was overwhelmed with remorse.

9. Charles V. was the first king who had borne the title of Dauphin. Dauphiny had been a part, first of the kingdom of Burgundy (note, p. 141), and afterwards of the empire. Its most important county was the Viennois, pertaining to the ancient city of Vienne (§ 254). Count Hubert II., having lost his only son in 1335, made over his lands to King Philip VI. with the condition that the privileges and independence of his province should be maintained. After the count's death, his title was always borne by the eldest son of the reigning king.

CHAPTER XI.

THE EMPIRE AND THE CHURCH.



John Huss.

THE history of Germany during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries is a story of turbulence and misrule (see § 363). A quarrel, over the choice of an emperor, occasioned a distracting civil war, A. D. 1314-1328. Most of the nobles chose Frederic of Austria;¹ but the primate and the people of the great towns preferred Louis of Bavaria, who at length took his rival prisoner at the battle of Mühldorf, and reigned, though not in peace, until 1347.

416. His successor, Charles IV., settled the rank and privileges of the seven Electors, whose duty it was to choose the emperors and assist at their coronation. They were the three archbishops of Mentz, Trèves, and Cologne, and four lay-princes: the king of Bohemia, the duke of Saxony, the margrave of Brandenburg, and the count-palatine of the Rhine. Until he was crowned at Rome, the chosen prince bore only the title of *Emperor-elect*. His successor was usually chosen during his life-time, and was called King of the Romans.

417. Wenceslaus (A. D. 1378-1400), son of Charles, cared only for his kingdom of Bohemia, and neglected his imperial duties, spending much of his time, moreover, in

drunken revelings. At length, in 1400, the electors deposed him and gave the crown to Count Ru'pert of the Rhine (A. D. 1400-1410), an energetic and able ruler who would have done much for Germany if his reign had been long enough.

418. Sigismund (A. D. 1410-1438), brother of Wenceslaus, was next chosen.² His first care was to call together a general council for the reformation of the Church—a duty which had been considered as devolving on the emperors ever since Constantine convened the Council of Nice (§ 267). The free city of Constance was appointed for the meeting; and thither came 18,000 clergymen, including patriarchs and bishops; hundreds of learned men from the universities; sovereign princes, or their ambassadors; last of all, Pope John XXIII. and the Emperor Sigismund.

419. The occasion was serious enough to justify the imposing display. Three popes were claiming obedience in France, Spain, and Italy: the damaging truths which they told of each other were undermining men's reverence for the Church; and several great reformers, especially in England and Bohemia, were preaching boldly against the evil lives of the priesthood. Though the Council had come together for purposes of reform, among
its first decisive acts was to burn a reformer. A. D. 1415.

John Huss,⁴ one of the great doctors of the University of Prague, was summoned to answer for his teachings, and the imperial word of Sigismund was pledged for his safe return. He was tried and condemned as a heretic; and chose death rather than denial of what he believed to be the truth. The princes and prelates who stood around the emperor, saw a deep flush of shame overspread his face when the sentence was read. Huss was burnt at the stake; and his friend and fellow-professor, Jerome⁵ of Prague, suffered the same fate within a year.

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417. Wenceslaus (1379-1419) cared only for his kingdom, and neglected his imperial duties, spending his time in

drunken revelings. At length he imposed him and gave the empire to Rhine (A. D. 1400—1410) who would have done better had he been long enough.

418. Sigismund, emperor of Austria, was next chosen to convene a general council for the discharge of a duty which had been incumbent upon the emperors ever since the council of Nice (§ 267). The place chosen for the meeting was Constance, including patriarchs and bishops from the universal church, and Sigismund.

419. The occasion was an imposing display of power in France, Spain, and elsewhere. They told of each other's oppressions for the Church, and the rise of a confederation of England and Bohemia against the evil lives of the papacy. They came together in 1414, and its first decisive act was the deposition of John Hus.

John Hus, one of the reformers of Prague, was summoned to the council, though for a time resisted, had ultimately acquiesced, as their incursions would have taxed the imperial resources, and he was returned. He was condemned to death for those death-bearing heresies of the truth. The emperor, however, who had committed to be confined in the same prison as his trial, and commanded his doctrines of Wicliffe, and commanded and his body removed from the conse-

of Rudolph of Habsburg, had much difficulty in his oppressions. His oppressions were the cause of a confederation of England and Bohemia against the evil lives of the papacy. In 1422, Frederic signed a decree which was bestowed upon Louis

the years (§ 418) been king of King Louis of Hungary and connection of the empire with though for a time resisted, had ultimately acquiesced, as their incursions would have taxed the imperial resources, and he was returned.

people were at one time assembled in which had only about 7,000 permanent members, at its fullest sessions, 3 patriarchs, 150 bishops, 50 provosts, 1,800 priests, besides delegates from the Hospitallers and ambassadors from the kings of France, England, Sweden, Poland, Cyprus, and others. The first session, but afterwards resigned, was committed to be confined in the same prison as his trial, and commanded his doctrines of Wicliffe, and commanded and his body removed from the conse-

420. When the news reached Bohemia, a civil war⁶ broke out. Prague, the capital, was taken by the Hussites, and monks were every-where put to death in revenge for the two martyrs. The popular fury became fiercer when, by the death of Wenceslaus in 1419 A. D. (§ 417), the guilty Sigismund became king of Bohemia. The war raged nearly twenty years; and, though all the force of the empire was exerted against the insurgents, Sigismund only gained possession of his kingdom a few months before his death.

421. The Council of Constance deposed all three of the rival popes (§ 419) and elected Ot'to Colon'na,⁷ a better man than any of them, but who did little to realize the needed reforms. Another council met at Basle, in 1431, and carried on the work begun at Constance. It declared that the voice of the whole Church, in general council, was of supreme authority, and provided for such assemblies at regular intervals.

422. Pope Euge'nus IV., finding that he could not manage the council at Basle, summoned a rival one at Ferrara, where very important visitors were received. These were John Palæol'ogus, emperor of the East, and the patriarch of the Greek Church, with a train of courtiers and clergy. It may be remembered (§§ 294, 306) that the eastern and western churches had separated upon the question of image-worship; and they had since been more widely parted by a difference of belief. The eastern Cæsar, now finding that he could not stand alone against the Turks (§§ 340, 378), offered to give up the points in dispute and admit the supremacy of the pope, on condition that the European princes would come to his aid. The bargain was signed and sealed, but the authorities at Constantinople refused to ratify it; and fifteen years later the eastern empire was overthrown.

423. Upon the death of Sigismund, the crown of the

western empire was bestowed upon Albert of Austria, his son-in-law, and, though still elective and often contested, it continued to be worn by the dukes of Austria for more than three centuries.

424. Frederic III.⁸ reigned fifty-three years (A. D. 1440-1493), but his vacillating character afforded few acts worth telling. He secured the marriage of his son Maximilian with the young duchess Mary of Burgundy (§ 413), which made him lord of her rich inheritance in the Netherlands. Mary died young; but, as regent for his son Philip, Maximilian still ruled the Low Countries, and Philip's marriage with the heiress of Spain made the Hapsburgs the most powerful family in Europe.

Point out, on Map No. 9, the dominions of the Seven Electors. Prague. Constance. Basle. Ferrara.

Read Menzel's History of Germany, Vol. II., and the Introduction to Dyer's Modern Europe; also, Coxe's House of Austria.

NOTES.

1. Frederic was eldest son of Albert I., and grandson of Rudolph of Hapsburg (§ 365); but the cruelty and avarice of Albert had much diminished the good-will formerly felt towards his family. His oppressions had driven the Swiss to revolt, and thus led to the rise of a confederation of free states.

Louis of Bavaria was supported by the Ghibellines (§ 363), and Frederic by the Guelfs. After his capture at Mühldorf, in 1322, Frederic signed a renunciation of the imperial crown, which was bestowed upon Louis at Rome, in 1328.

2. Sigismund had already for twenty-three years (§ 418) been king of Hungary, having married a daughter of King Louis of Hungary and Poland in 1386. With him began that connection of the empire with the Hungarian dominions, which, though for a time resisted, had important effects for centuries. Hungary was now the great battle-ground of Europe with the Turks (§ 379), and their incursions would have taxed the best energies of even a braver and abler prince.

3. It is said that nearly 100,000 people were at one time assembled in the little city of Constance, which had only about 7,000 permanent inhabitants. The Council itself numbered, at its fullest sessions, 3 patriarchs, 29 cardinals, 33 archbishops, 150 bishops, 50 provosts, 1,800 priests, and 300 doctors of theology, besides delegates from the Hospitallers and Teutonic Knights (§ 346), and ambassadors from the kings of France, England, Castile, Aragon, Navarre, Sweden, Poland, Cyprus, and others. Pope John XXIII. presided at the first session, but afterwards resigned his pontifical honors and submitted to be confined in the same prison where John Huss was awaiting his trial.

The Council condemned the doctrines of Wicliffe, and commanded that his books should be burnt and his body removed from the conse-

crated ground in which it lay (§391). This was done, 33 years after Wicliffe's death.

4. Huss was born, 1373, at the village of Husinec (or Hussinetz), in Southern Bohemia. He was appointed, 1402, preacher at the Bethlehem Chapel in Prague, and soon incurred censure by advocating (§419) the doctrines of Wicliffe, the great English reformer. Communication between England and Bohemia had become more frequent through the marriage of the Princess Anne, daughter of the Emperor Charles IV. with Richard II., about 1380. Unlike her brother Sigismund, Anne favored the reformation. She was accompanied to England by many of her young countrymen who had come to study at Oxford, where Wicliffe was then the most distinguished professor. They carried his writings home with them; and Huss, when rector of the University of Prague, caused them to be translated into the Bohemian language.

5. Jerome was one of the most distinguished followers of Huss, whose doctrines he preached with great effect in Bohemia, Hungary, and Poland. When his friend was cited before the Council of Constance, Jerome set out to follow and defend him; but, yielding in a moment of weakness to representations of the great dangers which awaited heretics, he halted in his journey and would have returned. He was arrested, however, and sent in chains to Constance, where he was thrown into prison and treated with great cruelty. Being examined three times before the Council, he consented at last to retract his adhesion to some of the doctrines of Huss; but he afterwards withdrew his recantation, bitterly repenting that fear of death had overcome his loyalty to what he still believed true. He endured a most cruel execution by fire, May 30, 1416, with a heroism that won the admiration of even his enemies. He was a very learned man, having received degrees from the three great universities of Paris, Heidelberg, and Cologne.

6. The greatest Bohemian general was Ziska, who had already distinguished himself in wars against the Teutonic knights in the North, the Turks in the South, and, in the English service, against the French in the battle of Agincourt (§393). Being a loyal Bohemian and a faithful disciple of Huss, he persuaded the king to avenge the death of the former as a national affront. In spite of his relationship to the emperor, Wenceslaus consented, for a time at least, and Ziska took the chief command in the armies. In August, 1420, he defeated the imperial army near Prague. The next year he lost, in a siege, his only remaining eye; but, though totally blind, he still commanded in person, and gained many victories. He died 1424, and the chief command devolved upon Procopius. Not only Bohemia, but Saxony, Brandenburg, Franconia, Bavaria, and Austria were overswept by the desolating storm of war. However justly offended they may have been at first, we can not deny that the Hussites carried on the war with needless and revolting brutality. The Council of Basle (§421) succeeded in reconciling the more moderate Hussites, and the extremists were defeated at Lepan, 1434, with the loss of their great general, Procopius.

7. He took the name of Martin V. His personal character was above reproach; but he disappointed the expectations of the Council by failing to carry out its measures for the better discipline of the Church.

8. Frederic III. was the last emperor crowned at Rome. Indeed, the Empire, as such, had entered upon a new phase of its existence, and had lost much of its importance. Though several emperors were very powerful sovereigns, they derived most of their power and all their wealth from their personal dominions; while their imperial title gave them only the dignity of precedence among European princes. Thus Maximilian, the son of Frederic, was indeed a great ruler, but it was as Archduke of Austria, Duke of Styria and Carinthia, and Regent of the Netherlands, rather than as Emperor. Maximilian's grandson, Charles V., was the last emperor who went to Italy for coronation; and he received the two crowns of Italy and the empire both together at Bologna, instead of assuming one at Milan and the other at Rome, according to the ancient custom (§321). After being chosen by the seven electors, the sovereign was now formally styled King of Germany and Emperor Elect, though he was commonly spoken of as "Emperor," without waiting for coronation.

CHAPTER XII.

LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE.



A Minnesinger.

DURING the rude ages, knowledge of books belonged only to priests and monks. Some of these were wonders of learning, and a few were noted teachers. Such were the "Venerable Bede,"¹ who, early in the eighth century, drew six hundred English youth about him at Jarrow, and instructed them in all the learning of the time; Ab'elard,² a bold and brilliant thinker, whose disciples were numbered by thousands, but whose writings were condemned by the Church; Albert the Great³ and Thomas Aquinas,⁴ the most learned of theologians; and Roger Ba'con,⁵ whose lectures attracted thousands of youth to Oxford, but whose experiments in physical science caused him to be imprisoned as a sorcerer.

426. Latin was still the universal language of the learned; so that scholars from the remotest corners of Europe listened to the same teachers at the great schools of Bologna, Paris, and Oxford. Most of them traveled thither on foot, and begged their way as they went. Poverty was considered no disgrace, when it was willingly

embraced for the sake of the dearer riches of the mind. Among the privileges granted to students of colleges, by kings and emperors, was a license to obtain their living by beggary! Acquaintance with the great Arabic scholars led to new zeal for learning after the crusades, and new schools sprang up at Padua, Toulouse, Montpellier, and elsewhere. During the twelfth century an intense zeal for the study of Roman law became manifest, especially in Italy. This may be accounted for by the growth of freedom in the cities (§ 363) during the wars of the Lombard League (§ 364) with the German emperors. Subjects of despotic governments have to be content with the will of their rulers; but free citizens require their judges to give reasons for their decisions, drawn either from universal principles of justice, or from ancient law; and hence a demand for a class of men learned in the laws, who could instruct common citizens concerning their rights.

427. At the same time most of the languages of Europe began to settle into their present forms. Troubadours sang songs of love and war in the Provençal tongue; *trouvères* of northern France wrote endless tales of chivalry in the popular Latin spoken by Franks and Northmen—whence such tales are still called *romances*. The earliest poem in the Spanish language rehearses the brave deeds of the Cid Ruy Diaz, who died A. D. 1099. Modern Italian first appears in the poems of Frederic II. (§ 365), and his chancellor, Peter de Vin'ea. Later, the great Florentine, Dan'te,⁶ described his visions of hell, purgatory, and paradise in the common speech of Italy. His countrymen, Petrarch⁷ and Boccac'cio,⁸ perfected the Tuscan dialect, the one in his sonnets, the other in his prose tales.

428. The northern nations, which had never been conquered by the Romans, kept their own languages, but enriched them with many Roman words. The songs of the troubadours had their echoes in German castles; or,

perhaps we should rather say that the same poetical impulse spread like a wave over all Europe in the thirteenth century, much as the religious and knightly impulse of the crusades spread over it in the eleventh; at any rate, the great German epic poem of the Nibelungen assumed its present form about 1210, and a swarm of *minnesingers* filled Germany with their songs of love. Old English, as written by King Alfred and the monkish historians, became mingled with the *romance* of the Norman conquerors, making the modern English which first appears in the travels of Sir John Man'deville,⁹ the sermons of Wicliffe,¹⁰ and the poems of Chaucer.¹¹

429. The progress of the Turks in conquering the Eastern Empire, drove many learned men to take refuge in Italy, and the manuscripts which they brought excited fresh zeal for the records of antiquity. Petrarch was among the greatest promoters of the revival of Learning. He spent many years in searching the dusty libraries of convents for lost works of the Greek and Roman writers, which he copied with his own hand. It was more than a hundred years later that Lorenzo de' Medici¹² (§ 370), who was a poet and scholar, not less than a statesman, gave a still greater impulse both to the literature and art of Florence.

Find, on Maps No. 4 and 10, the cities distinguished by the three great Universities of the Middle Ages.

Read Hallam's "Literature of Europe;" Fauriel's History of Provençal Poetry, translated by Adler; Taylor's Survey of German Poetry; Campbell's Life of Petrarch; Morley's English Writers, before and after Chaucer. J. A. Symonds's Renaissance in Italy, Vols. II, IV, V.

NOTES.

1. **Bede**, or **Bæda**, was not more admired for his great learning, than loved and revered for his pure and saintly character. He was born about A. D. 673, in the county of Durham, in England, and became a priest at the age of 30. For the benefit of his pupils, he compiled familiar Latin text-books, setting forth all that was then known of astron-

omy, mathematics, grammar, and music; but his most important work is his Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation, which was written in Latin, but afterwards translated into Old English by King Alfred the Great (§ 329 and notes).

2. "Very early in life Abelard (1079-1142) became the most powerful combatant in the intellectual tilting-matches of the schools. Before the age of twenty, he had wandered through a great part of France, as an errant logician, and had found no combatant who could resist his prowess. He arrived at Paris, where the celebrated William of Champeaux was at the height of his fame. The schools of Paris, which afterwards expanded into the renowned university, trembled at the temerity of the youth who dared to encounter that veteran in dialectic warfare, whose shield had been so long untouched, and who had seemed secure in his all-acknowledged puissance. Abelard in a short time was the pupil, the rival, the conqueror, and of course an object of implacable animosity to the vanquished chieftain of the schools. He seized at once on the weak parts of his teacher's system, and in his pride of strength scrupled not to trample him in the dust.

"There was no branch of knowledge on which Abelard did not believe himself, and was not believed, competent to give the fullest instruction. Not merely did all Paris and the adjacent districts throng to his school, but there was no country so remote, no road so difficult, but that the pupils defied the toils and perils of the way. Even Rome, the great teacher of the world in all arts and sciences, acknowledged the superior wisdom of Abelard, and sent her sons to submit to his discipline. . . . So great was the concourse of scholars, that lodging and provision could not be found for the countless throng. On the one side he was an object of the most excessive admiration, on the other of the most implacable hatred."

"Abelard fled. . . . After some delay he found a wild retreat, where, like the hermits of old, he built his solitary cabin of osier and of thatch." Almost immediately "the desert was peopled around him by his admiring scholars. . . . They built lowly hovels, . . . fed on bread and wild herbs. . . . reposed contentedly on straw and chaff. A monastery arose, which had hardly space in its cells for the crowding votaries. Abelard called it the Paraclete, a name which, by its novelty and seeming presumption, gave new offense to his multiplying enemies. . . . His whole system of teaching, the foundation and discipline and studies in the Paraclete, could not but be looked upon with alarm. This new philosophic community—a community at least bound together by no religious vow—. . . in which the profoundest and most awful mysteries were freely discussed, . . . awoke the vigilant jealousy of the two great reformers of the age, Norbert, Archbishop of Magdeburg, . . . and Bernard, whose abbey of Clairvaux was the model of the most rigorous, most profoundly religious monastic life. . . .

"Abelard, in all his pride, felt that he stood alone, an object of universal suspicions. . . . His overweening haughtiness broke down into overweening dejection. In his despair he thought seriously of taking refuge beyond the borders of Christendom."

By his Breton countrymen "he was offered the dignity of abbot in a monastery on the coast of Brittany. It was a bleak and desolate region, the monks as rude and savage as the people. There, on the very verge of the world, on the shores of the ocean, Abelard sought in vain for quiet."

The greatest of his opponents was St. Bernard (§ 347 and note), who procured the condemnation of his doctrines by the Council of Sens, and afterward by the Pope.

"Absent, unheard, unconvicted, Abelard was condemned by the supreme Pontiff. The decree of Innocent condemned all public disputations on the mysteries of religion. Abelard was condemned to silence, his disciples to excommunication.

"Still, for the last two years of his life, he found peace, honor, seclusion, in the abbey of Clugny. He died at the age of sixty-three."—*Abridged from Milman's Latin Christianity.*

3. Albert the Great (A. D. 1200-1280) had no superior among the "schoolmen" of the Middle Ages. He lectured three years at Paris, and

for many years at Cologne, and left many writings on logic, theology, philosophy, and physical science. He was a native of Bavaria, and belonged to the Dominican Order.

4. **Thomas Aquinas** (A. D. 1225-1274), a pupil of Albert the Great, was of a noble family in the kingdom of Naples, having been a grand-nephew of the Emperor Frederic I. His fame as a teacher has never been surpassed; he was called the Angelic Doctor, and crowds of attentive hearers gathered about him at Paris and at Rome. The most important of his many works is his *Sum of Theology*.

5. **Roger Bacon** (A. D. 1214-1292, called *The Admirable Doctor*, and the greatest philosopher of the thirteenth century, was an Englishman, having been born in Somersetshire and educated at Oxford and Paris. He was thoroughly acquainted with Latin, Greek, Hebrew, metaphysics, and theology, but was especially remarkable among the learned schoolmen for his fondness for and acquirements in physical science. His skill in mechanics was indeed so great as to draw upon him the suspicion of dealing in magical arts, and he was sentenced by a Council of his own Franciscan Order to an imprisonment which lasted ten years. His *Opus Majus* treats of nearly all the sciences as then known.

6. **Dante Alighieri** was born in Florence, A. D. 1265, and was liberally educated at the universities of Padua, Bologna, and Paris. Critics call him the most original of all writers and the greatest poet that appeared between the age of Augustus (§242) and that of Elizabeth (§511). He may almost be said to have created the language in which he wrote, which, though spoken in common intercourse, had never been made a medium of literature. His genius was early stimulated by his love for Beatrice Portinari, which, after her early death, inspired the greatest of his poems.

The family of Dante were Guelfs, and he at one time held high office in Florence, where that party was supreme. But the Guelfs themselves were divided into the Whites and the Blacks; and Dante, belonging to the defeated Whites, was condemned in 1302 to exile and confiscation of his property. The rest of his life was spent in exile; and, though a welcome and honored guest at the courts of several princes, he never ceased to long for his beloved city.

He became a Ghibelline by principle, and, in his Latin treatise *De Monarchia*, set forth the loftiest ideal of the empire, as a divine institution for the maintenance of justice in the world. His greatest work—the one mentioned in the text—is the *Divina Commedia*. It is called a comedy, neither in the classical nor the modern sense; for it is the most somber of poems; but, because it is written in the language of the common people. There is an admirable English translation by Professor H. W. Longfellow, with notes, which contain a treasure of information concerning mediæval literature and life.

7. The father of Petrarch was, with Dante, an exile from Florence, and his son was born, A. D. 1304, at Arezzo, in Tuscany. The family afterwards removed to Avignon, the seat of the papal court. Francis Petrarch studied law at Montpellier and Bologna; but the chief delight of his life, then and afterwards, was the reading of Latin authors, some of whose long-lost manuscripts he discovered in the dust and rubbish of old monasteries. In this way he rescued two lost orations of Cicero at Liege, and the same author's "Familiar Letters" at Verona. He spent much time in copying and arranging fragments of ancient writings, often making complete what had existed only in scattered pieces; and thus contributed more than any other man of his age to the Revival of Learning. He was, moreover, one of the three founders of Italian literature, which attained perfection in his three hundred sonnets and fifty *canzoni* addressed to Laura de Sade. This lady was distinguished not more by her rank, wealth, and beauty, than by her lofty purity of character, which added a reverent respect to the life-long devotion of Petrarch. One of his finest poems is that in which he describes her death in 1348. Petrarch received the laurel-crown of poetry in the capital at Rome in 1341, by the award of the senate. For a time he was an adherent of Rienzi (§367), and shared his dream of a new Roman Republic.

He was Archdeacon of Parma, and canon of several cathedrals, but declined the higher dignities that were offered him, for fear of losing his independence and leisure for literary work. He had great influence with the princes of his time, who employed him in important embassies. His favorite residence was the beautiful Vaucluse, a romantic glen in the mountains near Avignon. He died A. D. 1374, at Arqua, his later home among the Euganean Hills.

8. **Boccaccio** was born in Paris, A. D. 1313, though the son of a Florentine merchant. He was forty years of age when he wrote, at the request of Queen Joanna of Naples (§ 408 and note), his *Decamerone* or *Hundred Tales*, on which his fame principally rests. In later life he lectured on Dante, and wrote a commentary on the *Inferno*. Like his friend Petrarch he did good service in the Revival of Learning by collecting and copying manuscripts, many of which he found during his missions to various foreign courts. He died a year after Petrarch.

9. **Sir John Mandeville**, sometimes called the English Herodotus, was born at St. Albans about 1300. After practicing medicine for a time, he set out for Palestine, where he entered the service of the sultan of Egypt. He traveled extensively through various countries of Asia, and reached Peking, where he spent three years. The narrative which he wrote of his wonderful adventures, is always amusing and sometimes true; but he borrowed many extravagant stories from the romances of the Middle Ages. The chief value of his work is in its being the first extended example of English prose.

10. **Geoffrey Chaucer** was born at London, A. D. 1328, and became a favorite of King Edward III. and his court. In 1378 he went to Genoa on a mission from the king, and met the then aged poet, Petrarch, whose influence appears in some of his poems. Chaucer's chief work is the "Canterbury Tales," the plot of which is said to have been suggested by the *Decamerone*. The several stories are told by pilgrims journeying to the shrine of Thomas à Becket (§ 382), who represent all varieties of character, from sailor to baron, and from parson to plowman. The language differs much from the English of our day, but its difficulties are soon conquered, and there is an inexhaustible charm in the liveliness of the descriptions and the rich and varied humor of the narrative.

11. **John Wicliffe** (§ 381) was born about 1324, and was educated at Oxford, where, in 1361, he became master of Balliol College. Though often called in question by high tribunals for his denunciation of the corruptions of the times, he had a powerful protector in John of Gaunt, and in later years in Queen Anne, wife of Richard II. The citizens of London also sympathized with him, and rallied in his defense. He was expelled at last from his chair at Oxford, and, retiring to his parish of Lutterworth, devoted his last three years to his translation of the Bible, and to the writing of tracts for the religious instruction of the common people. He died December, 1384.

12. **Lorenzo** was a zealous collector of ancient manuscripts, gems, and statuary, which he liberally placed at the service of students, and in every way promoted and encouraged their use. His library, still existing in Florence, contains many rare treasures. During Lorenzo's life-time, Matthias Corvilius, King of Hungary, kept a secretary for many years in this library employed in copying rare manuscripts; so that the Florentine citizen's liberal tastes benefited distant lands. The "New Academy" founded by Lorenzo, was an association of learned men, whose influence, so far as it extended, recommended the philosophy of Plato as a substitute for that of Aristotle, which had hitherto been supreme. The new school of Italian sculpture, of which Michael Angelo was the greatest representative, owed its origin to his patronage, and the pre-eminence of Florence, in the history of Art, dates from his time.

CHAPTER XIII.

DAWN OF THE MODERN ERA.



Costumes of XV. Century.

THE two centuries following the Crusades were full of changes. A rich commercial class sprang up, whose travels and enterprises drew the north and the south, the east and the west, into closer acquaintance. Three arts, borrowed from the remote east, occasioned immense revolutions in Europe. The first was the manufacture of gunpowder, which put an end to feudal power and the supremacy of armed knights. Hitherto, the castle on the cliff, as long as food and water held out, could withstand all attacks of common citizens, while a single

horseman, encased in steel, could put to flight a hundred unarmed peasants. Gunpowder went far to equalize ranks.

431. The inventions of paper and printing did still more to equalize knowledge. So long as the only books were copied with the pen on costly parchment, learning was for those who could devote life or fortune to its pursuit. Paper was made from cotton, at Samarcand, as early as the seventh century; but cotton was then rare and costly in Europe, and it was six hundred years later that linen rags were found to answer the same purpose. Printing from solid blocks had long been practiced in China; but,

in 1438 A. D., a Dutch mechanic, named Kos'ter, invented movable types of wood; and, six years later, John Gutenberg, of Mentz, cut similar types from metal, with which he printed the first edition of the Bible. The new art was eagerly adopted in England, France, Italy, and Spain, and books were soon within the reach of the common people.

432. During the fifteenth century most of the great duchies and counties became absorbed into centralized monarchies. The seventeen provinces which were called collectively the "Low Countries," or Netherlands, were united under the dukes of Burgundy. The marriage of Charles VIII. (§ 414) with the Duchess Anne of Brittany, annexed the last of the great fiefs to the crown of France. The Wars of the Roses (§§ 396-399) had destroyed feudalism in England. Many noble families had become extinct, and their lands were bought, in some instances, by merchants—marking a great rise of the industrious classes into honor and dignity.

433. The kingdom of Naples was reunited with that of Sicily and Aragon (§ 366) under Alfonso V. His successor added the crown of Navarre to those of his other dominions; and all Spain soon afterwards became consolidated by the marriage of Fer'dinand¹ of Aragon with Isabella of Castile and Leon, and by their joint conquest of the Moors in the south. These brave and brilliant people had maintained a Mohammedan empire in Spain for nearly eight hundred years, and in arts and learning they far surpassed their conquerors. Their cities were adorned with the most beautiful buildings in Europe, but their power had long been declining. In 1492, their capital, Granada, was taken by Ferdinand and Isabella, and the great peninsula was again under Christian rule.

434. The greatness and goodness of Isabella were sullied by cruel bigotry. The Spanish Inquisition, a secret

court for the punishment of heretics and dissenters, was established early in her reign. On the suspicion of heresy, any man might be brought before the black-hooded inquisitors, who sat in a dark chamber underground. He had no opportunity for defense; he did not see the faces of his judges, nor know the special acts of which he was accused; and rarely, if ever, did he again see the light of day. Another cruel act was the exile of the Jews, who had hitherto been better treated in Spain than in any other country of Europe, and were the most enlightened and useful of her subjects. Thousands died from the hardships of the voyages; those who survived, enriched other lands by their skill and industry, and the fatal decline of Spain began at the proudest moment of her triumph.

435. Age of Discoveries.—The greatest glory of Isabella is connected with the discovery of America. The Portuguese² had been first to explore the Atlantic to the southward, and find a sea-route to India by passing the Cape of Good Hope. The rich Indian traffic, as carried on by Alexandria and the Red Sea, had afforded much of the wealth of Venice. It was now diverted to the Atlantic, and the great Republic began to decline. The Portuguese established a number of important trading posts (§ 574) in India, of which “Goa the Golden,” on the western coast, was the principal. A. D. 1487.

436. The yet bolder enterprise of Chris'topher Colum'bus, with the aid of Queen Isabella, resulted in the opening of a *New World* to the knowledge of Europeans. In his first and second voyages, Columbus³ visited what we know as the West India Islands; in his third, he touched the mainland of South America, near the mouth of the Orinoco, 1498. One year before, Sebas'tian Cab'ot,⁴ a Venetian in the service of Henry VII. of England (§ 399), had explored the North American coast from Hudson to Chesapeake Bay. The Portuguese A. D. 1492.

Cabral', in 1500, took possession of Brazil in the name of his king.

437. The great Columbus died in poverty in the country which he had enriched by his discoveries. His son, as viceroy of the New World, conquered and colonized Cuba. Other Spaniards followed, moved by the same romantic spirit of adventure that had been nourished by the wars against the Moors. Vas'co Nu'nez de Balbo'a,⁵ in 1513, ascended the mountains of the Isthmus, and, first of Europeans, looked westward over the waters of the Pacific. Magel'lan, in 1520, passed the southern-most point of the American continent, crossed the Pacific, and discovered the islands afterwards called Philippine, from Philip II. of Spain. He was killed on one of these islands, but his squadron completed the first circumnavigation of the globe.

438. Most of the natives of the New World were savages, living by hunting and fishing, or upon the spontaneous products of the soil. They were inclined to be friendly, and, in their awe of superior power, regarded the white men as messengers from heaven; but the cruelty and deceit of the Spaniards soon changed their minds. Two great empires, Mexico and Peru, had gained a high degree of civilization. Their cities were guarded by a well-ordered police; their magnificent temples were adorned with exquisite carvings in stone and wood, and their markets were filled with delicate and costly merchandise. By the possession of fire-arms and horses, two Spanish adventurers, Cor'tez in Mexico and Pizar'ro in Peru, were able to conquer these two empires with mere handfuls of European troops. To satisfy the Spanish thirst for gold, the natives were driven to work the mines, and it is said that, in Peru, four-fifths of the laborers perished in these unaccustomed toils. The good priest Las Cas'as⁶ made every effort to relieve their sufferings. When a brilliant young student of the University of Salamanca, he had

A. D. 1519-1536.

accompanied the second expedition of Columbus; and his heart was so touched by the helplessness and heathenism of the natives, that he renounced all ambition and chose a life of poverty, in order to elevate and help them. His fifty years of devoted effort were not in vain, though few of his countrymen shared his humane spirit. Among other plans, he procured the introduction of Africans, who seemed better able to endure the hardships of the mines and the plantations; but he lived to pronounce the scheme a failure, for it enslaved one race without rescuing the other.

439. Other Spaniards explored the western coasts of North America, and laid the humble foundation of our modern California. Ferdinand A. D. 1540-1542. de So'to, from the eastward, penetrated to the Mississippi, in 1539, and explored the basin of the Arkansas; but he died in the wilderness, leaving no monument of his discoveries. The French were, very early, attracted to the fisheries of Newfoundland, but they were among the last to make settlements in the New World.

The unveiling of this great continent, with its wonderful products and its immeasurable wealth, had a great effect in arousing the mind of Europe to new enterprise, and was among the chief causes that led to the Modern Era.

Point out the several Christian and Moorish kingdoms in Spain. The different commercial routes between Europe and Asia. Trace the voyages of Columbus, Cabot, Balboa, Magellan. Point out Mexico and Peru.

Read Prescott's History of Ferdinand and Isabella, Conquest of Mexico, and Conquest of Peru; Irving's Life of Columbus; and Major's Life of Prince Henry the Navigator.

NOTES.

1. Ferdinand, surnamed the Catholic, was, perhaps, the ablest and most successful monarch of his age. His own kingdom, since the acquisition of Catalonia in the twelfth century, had been the third maritime power in the world; his marriage with Isabella united all the Christian kingdoms in Spain under one rule; and their joint efforts soon established order and peace in place of the turbulent violence of the nobles. The two sovereigns sat as judges once a week to hear the complaints of their poorer subjects, who could not afford the expense

of ordinary lawsuits. They also provided for the better education of the youth of their realms, inviting learned men to settle in the country, and founding universities. The shrewd policy of Ferdinand often degenerated into fraud, especially in his wars with Louis XII. of France for the possession of southern Italy. It is said that "Spain called him the Wise; Italy, the Pious; France and England, the Perfidious."

2. The chief promoter of Portuguese enterprise in this direction was Prince Henry, called "the Navigator" († A. D. 1394-1460), "to whose enlightened foresight and perseverance the human race is indebted for the maritime discovery within one century, of more than half the globe." He was half an Englishman; for his mother, Philippa, was daughter of John of Gaunt, and granddaughter of King Edward III. (see §§ 387-391). At the age of 21, he had so distinguished himself in war against the Moors, that the Pope, the emperor, and the kings of England and Castile offered him the chief command in their respective armies. But the prince desired something better than military glory. He was Grand Master of the Portuguese military "Order of Christ," and believed that its immense revenues could be spent in no better way than in extending the boundaries of Christendom, and in satisfying man's rightful craving for knowledge concerning the world that has been given him for a home. "Accordingly, in 1418-19, he took up his abode on the extreme south-western point of Europe, the promontory of Sagres in Algarve, of which kingdom he was made governor in perpetuity, with the purpose of devoting himself to the study of astronomy and mathematics, and to the direction and encouragement of the expeditions which he proposed to send forth. There he erected an observatory—the first in Portugal—and, at great expense, procured the services of Mestre Jacome, from Majorca, a man very skillful in the art of navigation and in the making of maps and instruments, to instruct the Portuguese officers in those sciences." The prince had gained much information from the Moors concerning the people and natural features of western Africa; the main practical results of his enterprises were the rediscovery and colonization of Madeira, the settlement of the Azores, and the exploration of the western African coast as far as the Gambia. But he accomplished more than this in leading the way to bolder theories of navigation. "Until his day the pathways of the human race had been the mountain, the river, and the plain; the strait, the lake, and the inland sea. It was he who first conceived the thought of opening a road through the unexplored ocean—a road replete with danger, but abundant with promise."

The above facts and quotations are from the *Encyclopædia Britannica*.

3. Christoforo Colombo, or, as he afterwards Latinized his name, Columbus, was of Genoese birth. In childhood he studied geometry, astronomy, and navigation at the University of Pavia, but at the age of fourteen he entered upon that sea-faring life in which he attained greater glory than any mariner before or since. For many years he sailed the Mediterranean, engaged now in commerce and then in war; but, in 1470, at the age of thirty or thirty-five, he repaired to Lisbon, which Prince Henry (note 2) had made the chief center of maritime enterprise. Here he married, and in the intervals of expeditions to the west coast of Africa, supported his family by making maps and charts for navigators. A grand scheme was already taking possession of his mind; viz. to push boldly to the westward until he should reach, as he confidently believed, Japan. In 1477 he sailed a hundred leagues north of Iceland. His first efforts to obtain means for his great enterprise were in vain, and he became so poor that on his way to the Spanish court, he was compelled to beg for bread at a convent. Still his lofty resolution sustained him, and, after eight years' delay, Queen Isabella, with a spirit as noble as his own, exclaimed, "I will undertake the enterprise for mine own crown of Castile, and, if it be needful, I will pawn my jewels to defray the expense." Columbus was made High Admiral and Viceroy of all the lands he might discover; three small ships were placed at his disposal, and he set sail from Palos, Aug. 3, 1492. After stopping at the Canaries to refit, the little squadron pushed westward into those unknown regions which were peopled with indescribable terrors for the ignorant and superstitious seamen. It is said that Columbus was heading for what is now the coast of Georgia, when

a flight of birds from the southward convinced him that he should find land sooner in that direction; and so it was ordered that the Bahamas instead of our own territory were first occupied by Spaniards. Just as the discontent of the sailors was breaking into dangerous mutiny the glad cry, "Land ahead!" was heard from the mast, and a low, green island bordered with trees was soon seen. With joy and thankfulness only to be measured by the painful burden of anxiety which he had borne, the great admiral knelt on the threshold of the New World, and named the island *San Salvador*. Still, and always, he believed that he had only touched unknown parts of Asia; he identified the mines of Veragua with those from which Solomon had obtained the gold for his temple, being in the same latitude, and, according to his calculations, equally distant from the River Ganges.

Irving says of Columbus, "His conduct was characterized by the grandeur of his views and the magnanimity of his spirit. Instead of scouring the newly-found countries, like a grasping adventurer eager only for immediate gain, he sought to ascertain their soil and productions, their rivers and harbors; he was desirous of colonizing and cultivating them; of conciliating and civilizing the natives; of building cities, introducing the useful arts, subjecting every thing to the control of law, order, and religion, and thus of founding regular and prosperous empires."

While Queen Isabella lived, Columbus had a friend who shared his high enthusiasm, and comforted him in calamities which she could not entirely prevent. Her death, in 1504, left him at the mercy of a crafty and ungrateful king, and his last years were full of sorrows.

4. John Cabot, a Venetian pilot and navigator, received from Henry VII. a patent authorizing himself and his sons to take possession, in the king's name, of any "islands or regions inhabited by infidels," which they could discover at their own risk and expense. Sebastian Cabot, the most distinguished of the sons, was born at Bristol, England, in 1477. A few years after the voyage mentioned in the text, he sailed as far south as the extreme point of Florida. Entering the service of the King of Spain, in 1512, he became a member of the Council of the Indies, at Seville; but afterwards returned to England, where he died at great age.

5. Vasco Nunez de Balboa, a Spanish adventurer, had been told by the natives of Central America, of a vast ocean beyond the mountains and the southward. With a chosen band of hardy men, he climbed, first through miles of tropical forests, and then over rocky precipices, until he reached an airy region within sight of the summit. Then, leaving his followers behind, "with a palpitating heart he ascended alone the bare mountain-top. It was as if a new world were unfolded to him; separated from all hitherto known by this mighty barrier of mountains. Below him extended a vast chaos of rock and forest, and green savannas and wandering streams, while at a distance the waters of the promised ocean glittered in the morning sun." "At this glorious prospect, Vasco Nunez sank upon his knees and poured out thanks to God."

He marked the scene of the discovery with a cross made from a fair and tall tree, and with a mound of stones, inscribing, also, the names of the Spanish sovereigns on the trees. Afterwards, descending to the sea, he marched into the water with drawn sword and waving banner, and proclaimed that he had taken "actual possession of these seas and lands and coasts and ports and islands, and was prepared to maintain and defend them in the name of the Castilian sovereigns."

6. Irving states (Columbus and his Companions, Appendix XXVIII.) that it was the father of Las Casas who accompanied Columbus on his second voyage, and that the young priest first visited the New World in company with Ovando, in 1502. In any case he devoted a long life to the service of the oppressed. "As a missionary, he traversed the wilderness of the New World in various directions, seeking to convert and civilize them; as a protector and champion, he made several voyages to Spain, vindicated their wrongs before courts and monarchs, wrote volumes in their behalf, and exhibited a zeal and constancy and intrepidity worthy of an apostle. He died at the advanced age of ninety-two years."

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BOOK III.—MODERN HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

THE FRENCH IN ITALY.



French Troops Entering an Italian City.

WE have seen that the invention of gunpowder (§ 430) destroyed the military supremacy of knights and nobles, but at first it seemed likely to aggrandize the kings more than it elevated the people. Instead of the feudal levies, which served, at most, only forty days at a term, and were always crumbling away when most needed, a king could now have a regular standing army at his command; and long foreign wars became possible.

441. The first of these modern expeditions was the madcap invasion of Italy by Charles VIII.¹ of France (§ 414). The pretext was in the claim of his house to the crown of Naples (§ 408), but an imme-

A. D. 1494.

diate reason was that Lu'dovi'co Sfor'za² wanted to poison his nephew, the duke of Milan, and thought that the presence of a French king as his ally might prevent the punishment of his crime.

442. Alexander VI.³ occupied the throne of St. Peter from A. D. 1492 to 1503, and, during his pontificate, all Italy was filled with corruption and violence. At Florence the eloquent sermons of Savon'aro'la,⁴ a Dominican monk, effected a partial reformation of morals. He declared that the French were ministers of divine wrath against the wickedness of the times; and welcomed their king to Florence; but, when Charles proposed to tax the city and recall the Medici (§ 370) who had just been expelled, the Florentines flew to arms, and he was forced to retire.

443. Charles passed through Rome to Naples. The Aragonese king (§ 366) abdicated, his son was expelled from the capital, and the whole kingdom was gained by the French almost without a blow. But Charles' foolish vanity and arrogance roused the indignation of the Neapolitans; and by this time all Italy had recovered from its first shock of alarm, and had united in a league against him. He quitted Naples for the north, and the kingdom was lost as speedily as it had been won.

444. This foolish war kindled a thirst for conquest in the kings of France, for which Italy suffered long. At the same time it led to better acquaintance among the nations, which resulted in some important alliances. Philip,⁵ heir of the Netherlands, married Joan'na,⁶ daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain; while her younger sister, Cath'rine, became the wife of Arthur of England, and, upon his death, of his brother Henry, the heir of the English crown. These two marriages may be said to have shaped the history of the sixteenth century. Charles,⁷ son of Philip and Joanna, inherited Spain and the Indies,

southern Italy and the Netherlands, and was elected to the imperial crown, A. D. 1519, which made him the foremost figure in that eventful age.

445. Charles VIII. of France left no son, and, upon his early death, the crown went to his cousin Louis, duke of Orleans. To the royal claim upon Naples, Louis XII. added a title of his own to the duchy of Milan, and soon sent an army to enforce it. All Lombardy was annexed without a blow, and the kingdom of Naples was almost as easily reconquered. But Ferdinand of Aragon—the craftiest monarch of his age—though an ally of Louis, gained possession of the Neapolitan fortresses by trickery, and drove out all the French. And, though Louis doomed thousands of brave men to die of pestilence in the marshes of southern Italy, he never succeeded either in regaining the kingdom or in punishing the fraud. A. D. 1498.

446. The League of Cambray united the emperor, the pope, and the kings of France and Spain against the Venetian Republic. It was the first close alliance of great European powers since the crusades; and, oddly enough, its manifesto declared their main object to be a war against the “Infidel,” after having first put an end to the ambition and greed of Venice. This republic was, in fact, the only effective opponent of the Turks, and had just ended a war which deprived them of important dominions in the Levant. A. D. 1508.

447. The war of the League was carried on with frightful brutality. In one instance 6,000 men, women, and children were smothered in a cave near Padua, the French soldiers having deliberately kindled a fire at its entrance. The pope, Julius II., suddenly turned the balance by quitting his allies and forming a “Holy League,” with Spain and Venice, against the French. A. D. 1511.
Untamed by old age or his peaceful profession, he con-

stantly appeared on horseback at the head of his troops, enduring all the hardships of a severe winter. Gaston de Foix, the French commander, was called the "Thunderbolt of Italy" on account of his swift, decisive movements. He gained many victories, but he was killed in the great battle of Ravenna, A. D. 1512, and a few weeks later only three towns and three fortresses remained to the French of all their conquests in Italy.

448. The warlike Pope Julius was succeeded, in 1513, by the Cardinal de' Medici, who took the name of Leo X. He resembled his father, Lorenzo (§370) in the perfection of his tastes in art and literature, and in his liberal and courteous manners. But he was a pagan in faith and a libertine in morals; and he used his great power chiefly to enrich his family, who were again supreme in Florence. Louis XII. died in 1515, and his rival, Ferdinand, in 1516. Ferdinand was the most successful monarch of his age, but his character is stained by falsehood, ingratitude, and base injustice.⁸ (see note, p. 257).

449. Francis I. (A. D. 1515-1547), succeeding his cousin as king of France, lost no time in renewing the war in Italy. His generals conducted an army of 64,000 men across the Alps by paths trodden hitherto only by mountain goats, and surprised the enemy by a sudden appearance upon the Lombard plain. The battle of Marignano regained the Milanese duchy for Francis.

450. The emperor Maximilian died in 1519, and the seven electors bestowed the crown upon Charles of Spain. In his envy and disappointment, Francis sought the alliance of Henry VIII. of England against the new emperor, and had with him, near Calais, a famous interview, known as the Field of the Cloth of Gold, from the brilliant display of trappings on either side. But the emperor was, at the same time, courting the friendship of Henry and his great minister Wolsey, promising his

A. D. 1520.

influence to make the latter pope at the next vacancy. Henry tried to make peace between his two great allies; but the causes of enmity were too deeply seated, and the contests for Burgundy, Milan, and Naples broadened into an almost continuous war of two hundred years between France and the House of Austria.

451. In 1521, Francis lost the duchy of Milan, and Pope Leo X. is said to have died of joy at the news. He was succeeded, in the papal chair, by Adrian, tutor of Charles V.—an honest man, who purified the Roman court during the few months of his reign. Francis was just ready for a new invasion of Italy, when he was deserted by his kinsman and most powerful subject, the Duke of Bourbon. Having been injured and bitterly insulted by the king's mother, Bourbon went over to the emperor, and agreed with him and the English king, upon a triple partition of France. Henry VIII. actually advanced within thirty-three miles of Paris; but his allies failed to support him, and France was not divided.

452. In 1524, Francis marched into Italy with every prospect of victory. He was defeated, however, in a great battle before Pavia, and was made a prisoner. For a year he was held a captive in Spain, and finally released only upon his promise to restore Burgundy (§413) to Charles. As soon as he was free, Francis broke his royal word, and hostilities were renewed. He gained little, although Pavia was taken and given up to pillage in revenge for his disaster before its walls. A truce was agreed upon in the treaty of Cambray—known as the Ladies' Peace, because it was negotiated by the emperor's aunt and the king's mother, A. D. 1529.

Trace the march of Charles VIII. through Italy. Point out Ravenna. Padua. Pavia. Milan. Venice. The dominions of Charles V., §444.

Read Villari's *Life of Savonarola*; Ranke's *History of the Popes*; Dyer's *History of Modern Europe*, Vol. I.

NOTES.

1. Charles VIII., son of Louis XI., and Charlotte of Savoy, became king by his father's death, in 1483; but, as he was only in his 14th year, the regency had been committed to his elder sister, Anne of Beaujeu. Either from jealousy or simple indifference, Louis had paid no attention to his son's education; and, to the power and duties of a king, Charles could only bring an untrained and ignorant mind. No wonder that his judgment was constantly at fault, and that his impulses, though sometimes generous and kindly, led him into ruinous undertakings. The festivities with which he celebrated his departure for Italy, used up the entire sum which was to have defrayed the expense of the war, and he could only proceed by borrowing and pawning the jewels of his kinswomen, the Duchess of Savoy and the Marchioness of Montferrat. The weakness and corruption of Italy, rather than his own power, led to his rapid conquests, and he had no ability to keep what he had so easily won.

Charles married Anne, Duchess of Bretagne; their three little children died before an accident put an end to his own life in 1498.

2. Ludovico Sforza, or Louis the Moor—so called from his swarthy complexion—was one of those adventurers, not uncommon in his day, who gained wealth and power by practicing upon the weaknesses of sovereigns. His brother, the Duke of Milan, was murdered in 1476, leaving a little son eight years old. The widowed Duchess was recognized as Regent; but Ludovico wrested the power from her hands, imprisoned his nephew, and, when the King of Naples interfered, invited the French king to invade Italy and make good his title to the southern kingdom. Ludovico was successful for a time, but, in 1496, was captured by Louis XI., and spent the last 11 years of his life as a prisoner in France.

3. Alexander VI. was a Spaniard whose secular name was Rodrigo Borgia. He first distinguished himself as a lawyer, afterwards in military service; but, upon his uncle's elevation to the papal throne, he entered the Church and was made a cardinal at the early age of 28. He became Pope in 1492, the same year that Columbus discovered America, and it was by his edict that the newly found continents and islands were divided between the Spaniards and the Portuguese.

4. Savonarola was born at Ferrara, 1452, and became Prior of San Marco, in Florence, in 1491. He used his great power in advocacy at once of republican freedom and of Christian morality. Lorenzo de' Medici, who greatly admired him, made many efforts to win the eloquent prior to his side; but Savonarola was firm, and even refused his blessing to Lorenzo when dying, except upon the condition that he would restore liberty to Florence. After the expulsion of the Medici, in 1494, the liberal party, with Savonarola at its head, gained ascendancy, and established a new constitution, based upon Christian principles. Abjuring the former luxury and license of Florentine life, this party called its members *Pignoni*, or weepers. But its extreme measures led to a re-action; Alexander VI. interfered, and Savonarola, resisting his authority, was "arrested, tortured, condemned, and strangled in May, 1498."

5. Philip was the son of Maximilian I. and the Duchess Mary, of Burgundy (§ 424), and inherited from his mother the seventeen wealthy provinces known collectively as the Netherlands or Low Countries. They are named in § 512, note.

6. In 1504, upon the death of Queen Isabella, Joanna was crowned Queen of Castile and Leon; but, so feeble was her mind, that the royal power was exercised, first by her husband, afterwards by her father, and finally by her son. Upon Philip's death, in 1506, she became totally insane, and spent the nearly fifty years that remained of her life in a dismal seclusion. She died in 1555, and her son abdicated the same year (§ 470).

Her sister Catherine, an intelligent and amiable princess, suffered even greater sorrows during the last years of her life (§§ 490-492).

7. The great events in the life of Charles are told in the text (§§ 450-471). He was a dull youth, sluggish in mind and weak in body; but his motto, *Non Dum* (Not Yet), which he assumed at the age of 18, showed, perhaps, his consciousness of unawakened power. Ten years later, he took the motto, *Plus Ultra* (More Beyond).

Motley ascribes his popularity, among other causes, to "a singularly fortunate manner. He spoke German, Spanish, Italian, French, and Flemish, and could assume the characteristics of each country as easily as he could use its language. He could be stately with Spaniards, familiar with Flemings, witty with Italians. He could strike down a bull in the ring like a matador at Madrid, or win the prize in the tourney like a knight of old; he could ride at the ring with the Flemish nobles, hit the popinjay with his cross-bow among Antwerp artisans, or drink beer and exchange rude jests with the boors of Brabant. For virtues such as these, his grave crimes against God and man have been palliated, as if oppression became more tolerable because the oppressor was an accomplished linguist and a good marksman. But the great reason for his popularity, no doubt, lay in his military genius. Charles was inferior to no general of his age. He was constitutionally fearless, and he possessed great energy and endurance. He was ever the first to arm when a battle was to be fought, and the last to take off his harness. He was calm in great reverses. The restless energy and magnificent tranquility of his character made him a hero among princes, an idol with his officers, a popular favorite every-where."—*Rise of the Dutch Republic*, I, 117.

8. "The crown passed at length to Francis of Angoulême. There were in his nature seeds of nobleness—seeds destined to bear little fruit. Chivalry and honor were always on his lips; but Francis the First, a forsworn gentleman, a despotic king, vainglorious, selfish, sunk in debaucheries, was but the type of an era which retained the forms of the Middle Age without its soul, and added to a still prevailing barbarism the pestilential vices which hung fog-like around the dawn of civilization. Yet he esteemed arts and letters, and, still more, coveted the *éclat* which they could give. The light which was beginning to pierce the feudal darkness gathered its rays around his throne. Italy was rewarding the robbers who preyed on her with the treasures of her knowledge and her culture; and Italian genius, of whatever stamp, found ready patronage at the hands of Francis. Among artists, philosophers, and men of letters, enrolled in his service, stands the humbler name of a Florentine navigator, John Verrazano.

"The wealth of the Indies was pouring into the coffers of Charles the Fifth, and the exploits of Cortéz had given new luster to his crown (§ 438). Francis the First begrudged his hated rival the glories and profits of the New World. He would fain have his share of the prize; and Verrazano, with four ships, was dispatched to seek out a passage westward to the rich kingdom of Cathay." Sailing from Madeira, "in 49 days they neared a low shore, not far from the site of Wilmington, in North Carolina. 'A newe land!' exclaims the voyager, 'never before seen of any man, either auuncient or moderne' . . . Verrazano's next resting-place was the Bay of New York. Rowing up in his boat through the Narrows, under the steep heights of Staten Island, he saw the harbor within dotted with canoes of the feathered natives coming from the shore to welcome him. . . . Following the shores of Long Island, they came to Block Island, and thence to the harbor of Newport. Here they stayed fifteen days, most courteously received by the inhabitants. . . . Again they spread their sails and . . . steered along the rugged coasts of New England, and surveyed, ill-pleased, the surf-beaten rocks, the pine-tree and the fir, the shadows and the gloom of mighty forests. . . .

"Verrazano coasted the sea-board of Maine, and sailed northward as far as Newfoundland, whence, provisions failing, he steered for France. He had not found a passage to Cathay, but he had explored the American coast from the 34th to the 50th [degree], and, at various points, had penetrated several leagues into the country. On the 8th of July he wrote from Dieppe to the king the earliest description known to exist of the shores of the United States."—*Parkman, Pioneers of France in the New World*, pp. 174-179.

CHAPTER II.

CHARLES V. AND THE REFORMATION — THE TURKS.



A German Nobleman.

THE separation of most of the northern nations of Europe from the Roman Church was the greatest event of the sixteenth century. Its causes had been at work ever since the time of the Crusades. Wealth and undisputed power had brought abuses into the church; and the more men learned to think for themselves, the less they were able to believe that such popes as Alexander VI. were the true representatives of Christ upon earth.

454. The principal leader of the Reformation was Martin Luther, a German miner's son. In his youth he was a charity scholar, earning his bread by singing hymns from house to house. The sudden death of a friend aroused his religious feelings, and, quitting the study of the law, he became a monk. Visiting Rome, he saw evidences of the corruption of the clergy, which filled him with horror.

455. The sale of "Indulgences" soon attracted the attention and excited the opposition of Luther. At first money had been paid merely as a commutation for temporal penalties. The kings of the Middle Ages had assuaged their remorse for deeds of violence by erecting costly and magnificent churches, which are still the greatest ornaments of

central Europe. Humbler penitents contributed in their measure to the Church, and hoped by faith and sacrifice to have made their peace with Heaven. But the age of the Renaissance regarded matters from a more worldly point of view. Pope Leo X. wanted immense sums of money to support the artists who were beautifying Rome, and an increased sale of indulgences afforded the needed supply.

456. Lu'ther, now a famous professor at Wittenberg, preached boldly against this traffic, and the good sense of the German people sustained him, even when he nailed to the church door his 95 theses, declaring that remission of sins is from God alone. He A. D. 1517. was summoned to Rome to be tried for heresy, but his sovereign, the elector of Saxony,¹ forbade him to go. The pope excommunicated him, and the emperor cited him to appear before the diet at Worms. Here he firmly refused to retract any of his teachings unless they could be refuted from the Bible. Many urged the emperor to imprison him for his boldness; but Charles respected his own word, which was pledged for Luther's safety, and replied, "No, I will not blush like Sigismund at Constance" (§419). The reformer was, however, declared an outlaw, together with all who should shelter him, or print, buy, sell, or read his books. Seeing his danger, the elector Frederic ordered him to be shut up in the Wartburg, where he spent a year in making a German translation of the Scriptures.²

457. Luther was called from his retreat by news of disorderly movements among the people, who hoped that the "new religion" was going to right all their wrongs at once. Some of them even expected an equal distribution of property, and began to plunder churches, convents, and castles. While urging the princes and nobles to do justice, and provide for the education of the people, Luther advised the latter to submit to their lawful rulers. Order was not restored without the loss of 100,000 lives.

458. While the pope himself was a prisoner in the hands of the emperor (§461), and the Turks were threatening all Christendom alike, Charles was compelled to favor the reformers, who united themselves in the league of Torgau, 1526. Three years later, the diet at Spires decreed that no changes from the worship and doctrine of the old church should be allowed. Nine German princes and fifteen free cities *protested*³ against this decree; whence the reforming party took the name of *Protestants*.

459. By this time, Denmark and Sweden, as well as a great part of Germany, had accepted the doctrines of Luther. A similar reformation had been going on in Switzerland under Zwing'li,⁴ who persuaded the Council of Zurich to declare the Scriptures to be the only standard of faith. In French Switzerland, Farel⁵ and Cal'vin⁶ continued the work which Zwingli had begun; while in France itself, a numerous party, including the king's sister, Queen Margaret of Navarre,⁷ believed in the reformed doctrines.

460. In the meantime, all Europe trembled at the progress of Sol'yman the Magnificent,⁸ the ablest of the Turkish monarchs. Three great fortresses of Hungary were taken by him in the summer of 1521; and, the following year, the island of Rhodes was surrendered, after a long and heroic defense by the Knights of St. John (§§346, 360, 361). In vain Pope Adrian tried to unite the princes of Europe in a crusade; their mutual enmities were too strong. In 1523 he died, and was succeeded by Clem'ent VII., one of the Medici.

461. Clement's pontificate was marked by greater losses and calamities than ever pope endured before. At its beginning he was besieged by Cardinal Colon'na, who plundered his palace and the church of St. Peter; the next year a Spanish and German army took Rome
A. D. 1527. by storm, and for two weeks made havoc of the treasures which all Europe had been pouring into it for

centuries in offerings of devotion. Pope Clement was imprisoned half a year, and was finally released **only** upon paying an enormous ransom, and promising to convene a general council for the reformation of the Church. This promise he broke; and, before his death, England and a great part of northern Europe (§459) cast off their obedience to the popes.

462. Solyman had by this time subdued Egypt, and nearly conquered Persia: turning again to the westward, he declared himself lord of all the dominions of Constantine. The Hungarians were unable to resist him. In the fatal battle of Mohacz their young king was slain, and his army destroyed. Their capital Aug. 1526. was taken by the Turks, and all its treasures went to enrich Constantinople. Instead of uniting even now, the Christian princes spent their strength in a dispute over the vacant crowns of Hungary and Bohemia. The latter was conferred upon Ferdinand of Austria, the emperor's brother and successor in the imperial title; the former was contested by John Zapol'ya, the greatest of the Hungarian nobles, who was aided by the French king, the pope, and, finally, by Solyman himself.

463. Zapolya did homage (§317) for his crown to the sultan, whom he acknowledged as successor of the eastern Cæsars; then accompanied him to Buda, and helped to put its Christian garrison to the sword! Vienna itself was besieged by the Turkish fleet and army, but was so well defended that Solyman was compelled to depart.

The threatening attitude of the Turks compelled Charles V. to favor the Protestants, who were now united in the **league of Smalcald.** Full liberty was granted to the doctrines of the Augsburg Confession, lately adopted as the standard of Lutheran faith.

464. In 1532, Solyman marched into Hungary at the head of 350,000 men and an immense train of artillery.

But he spent his forces in trifling operations, and the next year made peace with Charles. He still kept his "flying squadrons" of pirates in the Mediterranean, whose most formidable chief was Barbaros'sa, sultan of Algiers. Along the northern coasts no man slept in security, for at any hour the corsairs might appear and drag away as captives any whom they might find. Thousands of these wretched victims were in slavery on the African coast.

465. In 1535, the emperor undertook, in person, the punishment of this freebooter. Landing near Tunis he stormed its fortress, routed Barbarossa in a pitched battle, occupied the city, and restored its rightful sovereign, whom Barbarossa had expelled. He moreover set free a vast multitude of Christian captives, whom he clothed and sent home to Europe. Francis I., though many of his own subjects were thus liberated, hated Charles all the more for his great success. He took Barbarossa into his own pay, and renewed hostilities with the emperor. To guard against invasion, he laid waste a rich and beautiful tract of his own dominion, on the lower Rhone. Villages were destroyed, crops burned, and wells poisoned. Charles marched to besiege Marseilles; but this horrid plan of defense was too successful, and he had to retreat with a loss of 30,000 men.

466. Upon the death of Zapolya, Solyman seized Buda, the capital of Hungary, which for 150 years continued to be a Mohammedan city, both in religion and government. A second African expedition, made by Charles V. in 1542, resulted in failure. His fleet was destroyed by tempests, and his army by famine and pestilence. The king of France, rejoicing in these disasters, raised five great armies to attack the various dominions of the emperor; but his enterprises ended in much loss and very little gain. His Turkish allies meanwhile found a ready market at Marseilles for the Christian slaves whom they carried away from the coasts of Italy!

467. Again, as in the days of Charles Martel (§§ 300-302), it seemed possible that the Mediterranean would be surrounded by a great Mohammedan empire; but the prospect was far more terrible than before, for the Turks were a brutal race compared with the refined and intellectual Saracens. All the Christian powers were indignant at the alliance of Francis I. with these pirates; and Henry VIII. of England again joined Charles V. in an invasion of France. He captured Boulogne, while the emperor took several towns and fortresses, and advanced within two days' march of Paris. A. D. 1545.

468. Francis was now forced to abandon his unnatural allies: he made peace with Charles, and promised to join him in the suppression of heresy. The Vaudois, a harmless people, who occupied the high Alpine valleys between France and Piedmont, were the first sufferers from this new alliance. They had kept the simple faith of the early Christian ages, and were glad to find themselves in substantial agreement with the Reformers. The armies of Francis now pursued them like wild beasts among their mountains, hurling mothers with their children from the cliffs, and dragging off men to be chained in the royal galleys. In many towns of France and the Netherlands persons were burned to death for heresy.

469. In December, 1545, the Council of Trent was opened (§ 461). But, without waiting for its decisions, the emperor collected a great army, and made war on the Protestant princes. By a mixture of violence and fraud, he captured the elector of Saxony, and the landgrave of Hesse, and bestowed the dominions of the former on Duke Maurice of Saxony, whose descendants still retain them. The duke was a cousin of the rightful elector, who, while leading the Protestant armies, trusted him to govern and defend his dominions. His betrayal of the trust was almost a death blow to the Protestants. But Maurice,

having gained all he wanted, turned against the emperor, and nearly made him prisoner by a sudden movement. The bishops in council at Trent made a hasty retreat, and only met again after ten years' vacation. This first religious war in Germany was ended by the peace of Passau, 1552. The Smalcaldic League was dissolved, and its forces went to fight the Turks, who were overrunning all southern Hungary, and ravaging the Mediterranean coasts and islands.

470. In 1555, the sick and weary emperor resolved to throw off the burden of public care, and snatch a little repose before his death. His two rivals were already dead. He invested his son Philip with the lordship of all the Netherlands and the crown of Spain, while he recommended his brother Ferdinand (§ 462) to the electors for the imperial crown. He then took up his residence in a convent, at Yuste, in southern Spain, where he amused himself with gardening, watch-making, and music; though he still kept a keen eye on public affairs, and aided his children by his advice. Two years after his retirement, he was seized with a strange desire to celebrate his own funeral. Clothed as a monk, he joined the chant of the brotherhood about his empty coffin, but within a month this solemn farce was turned into reality. He died on the 21st of September, 1558.

471. The reign of Charles V. was one of the most eventful periods in history. Conquest and colonization in America, and struggles of religious principles in Europe, had made the world on which he closed his eyes, in 1558, a different one from that on which they had opened with the century. The Reformation had at one time affected Italy and Spain, Austria and Hungary, no less than northern Germany and England; but it was now checked in all the dominions of the Spanish-Austrian family.

472. The new society of Jesuits had much to do with this counter-reformation. Their founder was Ignatius Loy-

o'la, a Spanish cavalier, who in his youth had been severely wounded in battle. While slowly recovering, his mind, full of remorse for past sins, plunged eagerly into schemes for atonement by extending the Christian faith into regions of heathendom. So, while Luther was shaking the dominion of the church by his preaching, Loyola was preparing a movement which reestablished and extended its power. The Jesuits differed from most of the other religious orders by their liberal studies, which developed all their talents, and made them the ablest of teachers. The influence which they gained over the princes and leading minds of Catholic Europe, may be read in the history of the next three centuries. The General of the order, residing at Rome, was made acquainted with each member's character and talents; and while he made use of the commanding intellect of some to manage kings and emperors, he could employ the humble piety of others in missions to the savages of America, and the crowded cities of China and Japan.

Point out the dominions of Charles V. on Map 9. §§444, 451. The conquests of Solymán. Trace the expeditions of Charles V. Point out the country of the Vaudois. Spires, Worms, Augsburg, Trent.

Read Ranke's History of the Popes, and History of Germany during the Reformation; Robertson's Life of Charles the Fifth, edited by Prescott; Coxe's House of Austria.

NOTES.

1. **Frederic the Wise** was among the greatest German princes of his day. On the death of Maximilian, in 1519, the Saxon Elector became regent of the Empire, and was even offered the imperial crown; but, feeling that he had not the means to act with the energy which the times demanded, he steadily refused it, and gave his vote to Charles of Austria. Under this obligation to the wise Elector, Charles could not immediately use extreme measures against Luther, who was a favorite professor in the new university of Wittenberg, founded by Frederic, in 1502. It is said that Charles, in later years, regretted that he had not put an end to Luther's teachings by condemning him to the stake; but now he quieted the fears of the people by re-affirming his safe conduct, remarking that "if truth and faith abode nowhere else, they ought ever to find a refuge in the courts of princes."

2. Luther's version of the Scriptures first gave literary forms and permanence to the German language. It was closely modeled upon the speech of the common people; "How does the mother say it?" was the question which he continually asked of his friends, whose notes, taken in the cottages of the poor, gave him valuable aid in his great undertaking.

The New Testament appeared in 1522, shortly after his friendly detention in the Wartburg; the Old Testament, in 1534.

Luther was highly esteemed by many great German princes, who relied upon his counsel in matters affecting their dominions. He died in 1546, the year after the opening of the Council of Trent, in the 63d year of his age.

Though of moderate stature, Luther had a commanding presence; his eyes were dark and brilliant, his voice rich, clear, and of great power. Decision and energy marked every movement. Carlyle has said of him, "No more valiant man ever lived in that Teutonic kindred whose character is valor; the thing he will quell before exists not on this earth or under it." And Heine has remarked, "He was not only the greatest, but the most German man of our history. In his character all the faults and all the virtues of the Germans are combined on the largest scale. He was not only the tongue, but the sword of his time."

3. The princes were: John the Steadfast, Elector of Saxony, who had succeeded his brother, Frederic the Wise, in 1525; Prince Wolfgang of Anhalt; the Dukes of Grubenhagen, Celle, and Mecklenburg; two Counts of Mansfeld; George, Margrave of Brandenburg; and Philip, Landgrave of Hesse. The cities were Magdeburg, Strasburg, Nuremberg, Ulm, Constance, Reutlingen, Windsheim, Memmingen, Lindau, Kempen, Heilbronn, Issny, Weissenburg, Nördlingen, and St. Gallen.

4. Zwingli, or Zwingle, had received a liberal education at Basle and Vienna, and added to his familiarity with Plato, Aristotle, and Seneca a profound and intimate acquaintance with the sacred writers in their original languages. He was present, as chaplain, with a body of Swiss mercenaries, in the battle of Marignano; but afterwards used his great influence in dissuading his countrymen from the foreign military service which marked the period of greatest degradation in the Swiss republics. Becoming preacher to the famous monastery of Einsiedeln in 1516, Zwingli found himself in the midst of the grossest superstitions of his age and country; and thenceforth he sought to substitute Christian intelligence and right living in his hearers for mere observances. He was of almost exactly the same age as Luther, and the two reformers began about the same time to preach against the errors and abuses which both found in their respective fields of labor. But while Luther was willing to retain all rites and doctrines which were not expressly forbidden in the Scriptures, Zwingli went further, and wished to reject all that were not expressly commanded by the same authority. Called in 1518 to be preacher in the Cathedral at Zurich, Zwingli produced much excitement by the bold and frank spirit of his teachings; but the great Council of the canton sustained him against all opponents, and often sought and followed his advice concerning public affairs. The reformed faith was declared to be the state-religion of Zurich, Glarus, and Bern, while the Catholic party was stronger in most of the other cantons. These differences led to open war, and Zwingli was killed in the battle of Cappel, 1531.

5. William Farel was born at Gap, in France, 1489, studied in Paris, and preached the reformed doctrines with great eloquence and success in most of the towns of Switzerland. It was through his influence that Protestantism was established in Geneva, and that Calvin was induced to take up his abode there. When both reformers were banished for a time from Geneva, Farel removed to Neuchâtel, and founded a church which still exists.

6. John Calvin was a native of Picardy, in northern France. Being destined for the priesthood, he was sent to the University of Paris, where he became intensely engaged in a study of the Scriptures, and was led to a belief in the reformed doctrines. The zeal and energy of his preaching soon drew upon him the displeasure of the church, and, quitting his

native land, he took refuge in Basle. Here he published the most important of all his works, the "Institutes of the Christian Religion," which he dedicated to King Francis I. Visiting Italy, he was kindly received by the Duchess Renée, of Ferrara, a daughter of King Louis XII., who, like her cousin, Margaret of Navarre, was a warm friend of the reformers. But even her influence could not secure his safety, and he withdrew to Switzerland, intending to proceed into Germany. At Geneva, however, he yielded to Farel's urgent entreaty, and was elected preacher and teacher of theology in that city. During the re-action which ensued against the severe doctrine and discipline of the reformers, Calvin withdrew to Strasburg, and established a reformed congregation which served as a model to all the Protestant churches in France. In 1541, he complied with the pressing invitation of the senate of Geneva, and returned to the city, where he was welcomed with great joy and affection. The 23 years that remained of his life were spent in untiring efforts to establish the Genevese church and state on firm foundations of intelligence and morality, and the results of his labors are still felt. He lived in poverty, steadily refusing to receive more than a bare support from those whom he was serving. It should be remarked that what we now call French Switzerland, had then no connection with the Swiss Confederation. Geneva was a free city, having thrown off the civil jurisdiction of her bishop-counts, together with their spiritual authority. Valais was a part of the Duchy of Savoy, and Neuchâtel belonged to the principality of Orange, on the Rhine. All three became Swiss states in 1815.

7. This princess, sometimes called the "Pearl of Valois," was distinguished for her beauty, genius, and liberal culture. She was first married to the Duke of Alençon, but, two years after his death, in 1525, she became the wife of Henry d'Albret, king of Navarre. She was tenderly attached to her brother, Francis I., and, during his captivity in Spain (§ 452), made the toilsome journey to Madrid to comfort him in his loneliness, and to negotiate a treaty with the emperor for his release.

Queen Margaret constantly used her influence for the protection of the Reformers and their adherents. The poet Marot was attached to her court, and dedicated to her his popular French version of the Psalms. The queen herself was the author of many works in prose and verse, of which the best known is a collection of tales called the "Heptameron." Her daughter, Jeanne d'Albret, married Antony of Bourbon, and was the mother of King Henry IV., of France. See §§ 484, 611.

8. Solyman was an enlightened as well as a powerful prince; he adorned his cities with magnificent buildings, provided for the instruction of youth, and encouraged artists and learned men. Not content with ruling all the dominions of the eastern Cæsars, he aimed to make Constantinople the capital of the world; and the dissensions in Christendom gave him every prospect of adding all western Europe to his realm. While, in 1526, the royal Council of Hungary were disputing about the means of resisting him, he was marching directly upon them with 300,000 men and 300 well-mounted cannon of the latest and most effective design. King Louis II. awaited him, with only 20,000 men, on the marshy plain of Mohacz, but was defeated and slain. Solyman marched on toward Buda, marking his track by the smoking ruins of towns and villages. After two weeks' residence in Buda, he withdrew, carrying with him the valuable library of Matthias Corvinus (§ 429, note), and many works of art, to enrich Constantinople.

Three years later, having conquered Bosnia, Croatia, Dalmatia, and Slavonia, Solyman advanced again and laid siege to Vienna; but the German princes now forgot their dissensions for a time, and joined in so spirited a defense that he was compelled to retreat.

Solyman long outlived his great ally and opponents in the West (see §§ 560, 561), and the wave of Turkish conquests having reached its height in him, has ever since been declining.

CHAPTER III.

THE HOUSE OF ORLEANS IN FRANCE.



A Leaguer.

THE last six kings of the House of Valois (see Table, p. 214, and §405) belonged to the Orléans branch.

The wars of Louis XII. in Italy have been mentioned (§445). At home he proved himself a wise and good king, by lightening the burdens and studying the welfare of his people. The hard lessons of his early life had not been lost upon him. He had been treated with injustice by the court, especially by the Lady of Beaujeu, a worthy daughter of Louis XI., who had been regent during her brother's minority; but when the early and sudden death of Charles VIII. raised him unexpectedly to the throne, the courtiers began to fear that they had damaged their own prospects. Louis quieted their uneasiness by the generous remark that "it would ill become a king of France to remember the quarrels of a duke of Orléans."

474. The character of Francis I. (A. D. 1515-1547) has been shown in his dealings with Charles V. and Henry VIII., and with his Vaudois subjects (§468). He little cared though his people were starving at home, so long as his hunger for "glory" could be fed by conquests in Italy; and though he talked much of the "honor of a

king," he broke his word without uneasiness. His intercourse with Italy, however, brought some increase of refinement to France; and he claimed the proud title of "Restorer of Letters and the Arts." (see §452).

475. During the reign of his son, Henry II. (A. D. 1547-1559), the Guises,¹ an ambitious and powerful family descended from the dukes of Lorraine, gained great ascendancy at the French court. Mary of Guise became the wife of James V. of Scotland, and her daughter, the young Queen Mary (§498), was married to the dauphin, afterwards Francis II. During the regency of the elder queen, the Guises ruled the Scottish court, where they strongly opposed the English and Protestant influence.

476. Henry II. married Catherine de' Medici,² a niece of Pope Clement VII. Though he persecuted his own heretical subjects, Henry allied himself with the Protestants of Germany, that he might seize Metz, Toul, and Verdun, free imperial cities, which until very lately (1870) were still held by France. The Duke of Guise distinguished himself by defending Metz against the Emperor Charles V., who, with a grand army of 100,000 men, vainly tried to recapture it.

477. In war with Philip II., the French forces suffered a severe defeat at St. Quentin; but Guise partly consoled the king by the capture of Calais,³ A. D. 1557. which, for more than 200 years, had been held by the English (§388). The treaty of Cateau Cambre'sis, two years later, closed this war with Philip. France agreed to resign all her claims in Italy, but retained Savoy. Calais was to be restored to England after eight years, or put to ransom for 1,500,000 crowns, to be paid by the French. But Calais was never restored, nor was the ransom ever paid. During the festivities following the treaty, Henry II. was accidentally killed by the lance of one of his courtiers, whom he had challenged to a tilt.

478. The Reformed Church of France, deriving its doctrines from Calvin, was first organized in the reign of Henry II. The French Protestants were now first called *Huguenots*. During the successive reigns of Henry's three sons, their mother, Catherine de' Medici, tried to rule France by playing off the Catholic party, led by the Guises, against the Huguenots who had the great Bourbon⁴ family, including the princes of Condé and the young king of Navarre,⁵ at their head.

479. Francis II.⁶ reigned less than a year and a half, and was succeeded, in 1560, by his brother, Charles IX., then only ten years old. The religious wars broke out with an attack of the duke of Guise and his armed retainers upon a congregation of Huguenots, who were met for worship in a barn. Frightful scenes of violence soon occurred in all parts of France. The pope and the king of Spain sent aid to the Catholics, while Elizabeth of England furnished men and money to the Huguenots.

480. The queen-mother, who cared only too little for any religion, but who wanted to marry her favorite son Henry to the queen of England, at length procured a treaty of peace, by which the Huguenots were guaranteed freedom of worship, and restoration to all their rights. The good Admiral Coligny,⁷ one of their leaders, was invited to court, and was treated with the greatest affection by Charles.

481. Two years later, the Princess Margaret was married to the young king Henry of Navarre, now the chief of the Huguenots, and all good men rejoiced in this token of a settled peace. It is hard to tell when the friendly policy was abandoned, but within six days after the wedding, before daylight of St. Bartholomew's Day, a signal was given from the palace for a general massacre of the Huguenots! Instantly, as if a myriad of wild beasts had been let loose, the streets of Paris

Aug. 24, 1572.

resounded with the yells of murderers and the despairing cries of their victims. Eight days and nights these horrid scenes went on in Paris, and they were repeated in all the cities of France.

482. King Charles had opposed his mother's plan, first suggested to her by the Duke of Guise. She took as an order from him his frantic exclamation: "Well, then, kill them all, that not one may live to reproach me!" Soon, however, his better soul awoke, and conscience never afterwards allowed him to rest. His sleep was broken by the cries of his victims, or by visions of their blood-stained faces, and the only approach to comfort he enjoyed was in listening to the hymns of his old Huguenot nurse. He died within two years of the massacre, in the 24th year of his age; A. D. 1574.

483. His brother, Henry III., was a shallow youth, who gave more attention to his monkeys, parrots, and fantastic dress, than to the parties that were tearing France to pieces. The great feudal chiefs—even commandants of single towns and fortresses—set up independent governments in contempt of the royal power. The king's only surviving brother joined the Huguenot party in order to secure some new provinces for himself, and obtained for them a more favorable treaty than they had ever before enjoyed.

484. The Guises and most of the Catholic nobles now joined themselves in a league for the extirpation of the Huguenots. They accepted the protection of the king of Spain, and secretly planned the dethronement of Henry III. Henry yielded all that they asked. He declared himself the head of the league, hoping thus to disarm its treasonable designs; and he revoked all grants of freedom of conscience. His weak policy did not succeed; his nominal leadership only lasted three months, and the duke of Guise, a man of immense force of character, was always the true leader. The death of the king's brother made the

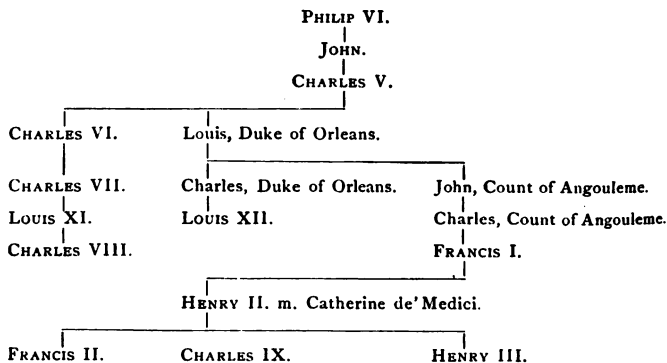
leaguers yet more zealous, for Henry of Navarre, the head of the Huguenot party, was the next heir to the throne. The Duke of Guise seized Paris, and set up a revolutionary government, which continued six years in force.

485. Unable to meet this powerful subject in a fair field, Henry invited Guise to a conference, and caused him to be murdered in his very presence, A. D. 1588. This base deed was soon requited; for a Dominican monk, named Clement, obtained an audience, and stabbed the king to the heart. Henry III. was last of the descendants of Philip of Valois, who had ruled France 260 years. The queen-mother, Catherine de' Medici, died a few days after the murder of Guise.

Point out, on Maps 7 and 13, the duchy of Lorraine. The cities of Metz, Toul, Verdun, Paris, Calais.

Read Histories of France already mentioned, and Pressensé's History of Protestantism in France.

TABLE—HOUSE OF VALOIS.



NOTES.

1. Lorraine was then a German duchy, and the Guises were regarded as foreigners by the French. The first Duke of Guise was a younger son of Duke René II., of Lorraine, and received his title from King Francis I., whom he served with distinction in the battle of Marignano and elsewhere (? 449).

It was his son, the second Duke of Guise, who defended Metz in 1553, and captured Calais in 1557. Mary of Guise, Queen Regent of Scotland, was daughter of the first and sister of the second Duke.

2. Catherine was daughter of Lorenzo II.—grandson of Lorenzo the Magnificent (§§ 370, 429, and note), and was born at Florence in 1519. Married in 1533, she had a comparatively quiet and unobtrusive part in public affairs, as Dauphiness and afterwards as Queen-consort, finding her satisfaction in the grace and brilliancy of her court. Her real ambition became apparent during the successive reigns of her three sons. As regent for Charles IX., and later, by artfully balancing the several parties, she held, for many years, the chief power in France, and used it for purely selfish ends, without regard to justice or mercy. Shakespeare is said to have depicted her character, as well as the similar traits of Jezebel and Herodias, in his *Lady Macbeth*.

The only good trait, if we may call it such, which this singular woman possessed, was the love of the fine arts, which she shared with all her family.

3. "For the last ten years the French had kept their eyes on Calais. The occupation of a French fortress by a foreign power was a perpetual insult to the national pride, while it gave England inconvenient authority in the narrow seas. The defenses had been repaired by Henry VIII.; but, in the wasteful times of Edward, the work had fallen again into ruin, and Mary, straitened by debt, [and] a diminished revenue, had found neither means nor leisure to attend to them. . . . Lord Wentworth was left at Calais with not more than 500 men. A proclamation had forbidden the export of corn from England, and, by the middle of the winter, there was an actual scarcity of food.

"On the 6th of January, after a furious cannonade, Guise stormed the town. The English attempted to blow it up when they could not save it, but their powder-train had been washed with water, and they failed. Wentworth, feeling that further resistance would lead to useless slaughter, demanded a parley, and, after a short discussion, accepted the terms of surrender offered by Guise. The garrison and the inhabitants of Calais, amounting in all, men, women, and children, to 5,000 souls, were permitted to retire to England with their lives, and nothing more. The spoil was enormous, and the plunder of St. Quentin was not unjustly revenged; jewels, plate, and money were deposited on the altars of the churches, and the inhabitants, carrying with them the clothes which they wore, were sent as homeless beggars in the ensuing week across the Channel. Then only, when it was too late, the Queen roused herself. As soon as Calais had definitely fallen, all the English counties were called on by proclamation to contribute their musters. But the opportunity which had been long offered, and long neglected, was now altogether gone; the ships were ready, troops came, and arms came, but change of weather came also, and westerly gales and storms. . . . The fragments of the wrecked fleet were strewn on Dover beach, or swallowed in the quicksands of the Goodwin.

"The last remnant of the continental dominions of the Plantagenets was gone. Measured by substantial value, the loss of Calais was a gain. English princes were never again to lay claim to the crown of France, and the possession of a fortress on French soil was a perpetual irritation. But Calais was called the 'brightest jewel in the English crown.' A jewel it was, useless, costly, but dearly prized."—*Abridged from Froude's History of England*, Ch. XXXIV.

4. The Bourbons date from Robert, Count of Clermont, a younger son of King Louis IX. His son Louis served Charles IV. so well, in his wars with the English, that he received the ducal title, and became the first Duke of Bourbon. One of the most powerful members of the family

was that Duke and Constable of Bourbon (§ 451), who deserted the cause of Francis I., and fell in the attack on Rome in 1527 (§ 461). "Constable" was the title of the highest military officer in France.

The princes of Condé took their title from the town of Condé, in Hainault, which, with other towns, was added to the possessions of the family, in 1487, by the marriage of Mary of Luxembourg, a great Netherland heiress, with the head of the House of Bourbon. "The Great Condé," mentioned in §§ 618, 619, was the sixth of her descendants. The Bourbons occupied the throne of France (see next note) from 1589 to the Revolution, and, after the fall of Napoleon, from 1815 to 1848, if we include Louis Philippe, who belonged to the younger Orléans branch of the family.

5. **Navarre** was a little kingdom on the confines of France and Spain, and often a subject of dispute between the sovereigns of those countries. Its independence dated from 887, but in 1512, Ferdinand the Catholic wrested the part of it which lay south of the Pyrenees from Jean d'Albret, and governed it thenceforth by viceroys of his own family, until it was absorbed as a mere province of Spain. The northern or French portion continued to give a title, and little else, to several members of the family of Albret, until it passed, by the marriage of Jeanne, sole heiress of that family, to the head of the House of Bourbon. Her son, King Henry of Navarre, became Henry IV. of France, 1589. Queen Jeanne herself died at Paris, shortly before the marriage of her son with the Princess Margaret.

6. **Francis II.**, the eldest son of Henry II. and Catherine de' Medici, was in his seventeenth year when he came to the throne, and was little more than a puppet in the hands of his wife's two uncles, the Duke of Guise and the Cardinal of Lorraine (§ 475). The King of Navarre, the Prince of Condé and other great nobles, incensed by seeing France thus ruled by foreign adventurers, formed a national party in alliance with the Protestants, and tried by the "Conspiracy of Amboise" to get the young king into their own power. The conspiracy, which took its name from the royal castle of Amboise, was discovered and defeated. The Prince of Condé was condemned to lose his head; but the death of the king prevented the execution of the sentence. Dec. 5, 1560.

7. **Gaspard de Coligny** (ko-leen-ye) was one of the most liberal men of his time. Henry II. made him Admiral of France in 1552, and he soon conceived the idea of founding, in the newly discovered countries beyond the Atlantic, a great French empire which should at once increase the glory of France and afford a refuge to those of her children who were now persecuted for their faith. In 1555, two vessels, laden with French emigrants, sailed for the coast of Brazil. But the commandant, Villegagnon, was either faithless or incompetent, and the Portuguese soon drove out the intruders upon land which they claimed (§ 436). Coligny's two attempts to plant colonies within the present limits of the United States, were equally unsuccessful, the only permanent result being the name *Carolina*, which was given to both settlements in honor of Charles IX.

Coligny defended St. Quentin for the king, and remained a prisoner after the capture of the place. Having embraced the reformed religion about 1560, he acted as second in command to the Prince of Condé in the wars against Catherine de' Medici and the Guises. The young King, Charles, seems to have felt a real confidence and respect for the Admiral. Four days after the wedding of the Princess Margaret with Henry of Navarre, Coligny was shot in the street, though not fatally, by a follower of the Duke of Guise. The Queen-mother and the King visited the wounded man in his bed-chamber, and expressed indignation at the crime, which they promised to punish. But, on the night of the general massacre, Guise, with his armed retainers, came to Coligny's house; a servant, named Le Besme, ascended to the Admiral's room and stabbed him several times as he lay in bed. "Young man," said the victim, "you ought to respect my gray hairs; but, do what you will, you can only shorten my life by a few days." He was quickly killed, and his body was thrown out of the window into the court below, where it fell at the feet of the Duke.

CHAPTER IV.

THE TUDORS IN ENGLAND.



Costume of XVI.
Century.

BY marrying a daughter of Edward IV., Henry VII. (A. D. 1485-1509) united the rival houses of York and Lancaster, and ended the Wars of the Roses (§§ 396-399). The Yorkists, however, put forward two claimants¹ to the crown, one pretending to be the Earl of Warwick, nephew of Edward IV. and grandson of the "King-maker," the other personating young Richard of York, who had been smothered in the Tower (§ 398). Both rebellions were easily put down; but the king's narrow, grasping disposition did not win the love of his people.

487. The middle class made great advances, however, during this reign. Poor nobles were permitted to sell their estates, which were bought, in many cases, by thrifty citizens. The number of retainers in noblemen's households was also limited by law, and thus a great many idlers were driven to honest work. Englishmen had their full share in exploring the bays and coasts of the New World—a welcome field of adventure for many bold and restless spirits, who, like their ancestors (§§ 328-329), delighted in the perils of the sea.

488. Henry VIII. (A. D. 1509-1547) succeeded, at the age of eighteen, to a clear title and a full treasury. He was the first king since Richard II. (§ 390) whose claim
(287)

to the crown had been undisputed, and his popularity was unbounded. For the first twenty years of his reign, no one doubted his sincere desire to rule justly. He married Catherine of Spain (§ 444); his eldest sister was already wife of the king of Scotland. (see Table, p. 295).

489. Henry's ambition soon led him into wars on the continent. Hoping to regain the almost forgotten possessions of his ancestors (§§ 350, 381) he invaded France, and gained the "Battle of the Spurs," so called from the sudden flight of the enemy. Meanwhile James IV. of Scotland marched into England, but he was defeated and slain with 10,000 of his followers at Flodden Field. Henry hastened to make peace with his sister, who was regent for her infant son, James V. Peace with France was soon afterward sealed by the marriage of his younger sister with Louis XII.

490. Henry's chief minister was Thomas Wolsey,² who, by his own remarkable talents and the king's favor, was raised from a humble position to great power. He was archbishop of York, cardinal, and chancellor of the kingdom; his palaces almost equaled the king's in magnificence and crowds of attendants. The emperor Charles flattered Wolsey, as the surest way to win the favor of Henry (§ 450). He gave him the revenues of two Spanish bishoprics, and promised his influence to make him pope. Two elections passed (§§ 451, 460) without the fulfillment of this promise, and Wolsey became the chief opponent of Queen Catherine and the Spanish party in England.

491. Of all the children of Henry and Catherine, only the sickly princess Mary survived infancy. Henry saw in the death of his sons a sure proof of the wrath of heaven for his marriage with his brother's widow, which was contrary to the rules of the church. Wolsey, as priest and counselor, encouraged the thought. His importance would have been increased by arranging a new marriage with a

MAP No. X.

CHIEF ENGLISH WRITERS

OF THE TUDOR AND EARLY STUART PERIODS.

Prose Writers.

- Sir Thomas More, A. D. 1480-1535: "Utopia," etc.
Wm. Tyndale, 1485-1536: Translation of New Testament.
Roger Ascham, 1515-1568: "Toxophilus;" "The Schoolmaster."
Richard Hooker, 1554-1600: "Ecclesiastical Polity."
Sir Philip Sidney, 1554-1586: "Arcadia;" "Defense of Poesie."
Sir Walter Raleigh, 1552-1618: "History of the World," etc.
William Camden, 1551-1623: "Britannia," etc.
Richard Hakluyt, 1553-1616: "Voyages," etc.
Francis Bacon, 1561-1626: "Essays;" "Advancement of Learning," etc.
Robert Burton, 1576-1639: "Anatomy of Melancholy," etc.
Izaak Walton, 1593-1683: "The Complete Angler," etc.

Poets and Dramatists.

- Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey, 1516-1547: Poems.
Edmund Spenser, 1553-1599: "The Shepherd's Calendar;" "The Faerie Queene," etc.
Thos. Sackville, Lord Buckhurst, 1536-1608: "Mirror of Magistrates," etc.
Samuel Daniel, 1562-1619: "Musophilus," etc.
Christopher Marlowe, 1565-1593: "Doctor Faustus," etc.
William Shakespeare, 1564-1616: Plays, Poems, and Sonnets.
Ben Jonson, 1574-1637: Comedies, Masques, etc.
Beaumont, 1585-1616, and Fletcher, 1576-1625: Plays.
Philip Massinger, 1584-1640: Comedies, etc.
Robert Herrick, 1591-1674: Lyric Poems.
Francis Quarles, 1592-1644: Poems.
George Herbert, 1593-1633: "The Temple," etc.
Sir John Suckling, 1609-1643: "Ballad on a Wedding," etc.

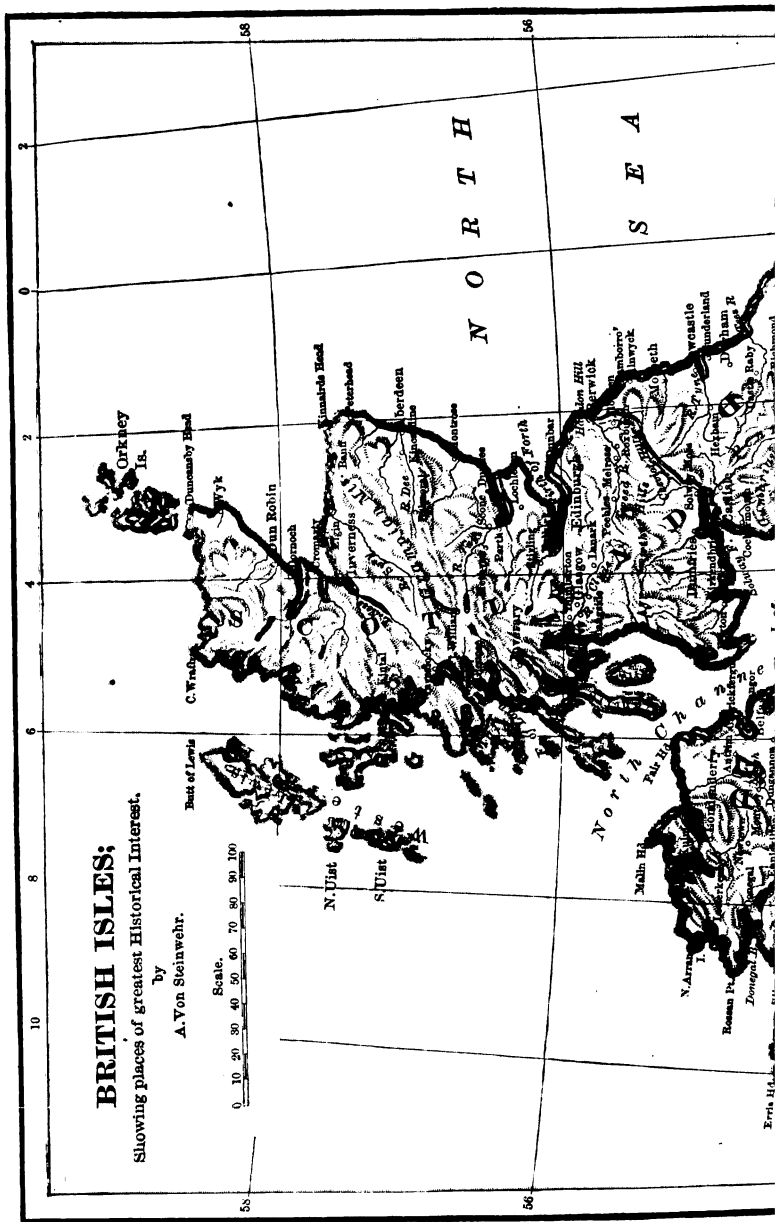
BRITISH ISLES;

Showing places of greatest Historical Interest.

by

A. Von Steinwehr.

Scale.



STEPS IN EUROPEAN DISCOVERIES.

Canary Islands discovered by Spaniards about A. D.	1360.
Western coast of Africa explored by Portuguese about	1415.
Madeira discovered and settled by Portuguese about	1420.
Cape of Good Hope passed by Diaz	1487.
San Salvador, Hayti, and Cuba disc. by Columbus	1492.
North American Continent discovered by Cabot	1497.
South American Continent discovered by Columbus	1498.
Sea-route to India established by Vasco de Gama	1497-1499.
Brazil discovered by Cabral	1500
Florida and the Gulf Stream, by Ponce de Leon	1512
Pacific Ocean at Darien, by Nunez de Balboa	1513.
Mexico disc. and conquered by Spaniards	1517-1521.
Philippine Islands discovered, and the world } circumnavigated by Magellan's fleet }	1519-1522.
Harbors of N. Y. and Newport disc. by Verrazzano	1524.
River St. Lawrence visited by Cartier	1534, 1535.
Peru conquered by Spaniards	1531-1536.
Pacific coast of N. America explored by Spaniards	1540-'42.
Mississippi River discovered by Ferdinand de Soto	1541.
Richard Chancellor discovers site of Archangel	1553.
Martin Frobisher explores the northern seas	1576-1578.
Davis Strait discovered by John Davis	1585-1587.
Australia discovered by Dutch navigators	1605.
Baffin Bay explored by William Baffin	1616.
New Zealand discovered by Tasman	1642.
Mississippi River explored by La Salle	1682.
Sandwich Islands re-discovered by Captain Cook	1778.
Africa crossed from east to west by Livingstone	1850.
Congo River explored by Stanley	1876.

French princess, and so he pushed the application for the king's divorce.

492. Pope Clement (§ 461) had a hard question to decide. The Reformation had so affected all the countries in Europe, that if he offended the emperor—Catherine's nephew—Germany and the Netherlands would certainly become Protestant; while, if he refused the divorce, both England and France were almost equally sure to separate from the Roman Church. He tried to gain time by parleys. Wolsey, finding that the king chose to marry Anne Boleyn, a maid of honor to Queen Catherine, instead of the French princess, lost his zeal for the divorce.

493. This occasioned his fall. He was ordered to retire to his archbishopric of York; but the next year he was arrested on a charge of high treason, and died on his way to London. On his death-bed he uttered these memorable words: "Had I but served my God as diligently as I have served the king, He would not have given me over in my gray hairs." Cranmer, an obscure priest, now advised the king to lay the question of his divorce before all the universities in Europe. Their opinion was against it; but Cranmer was raised to the primacy of England, and held a court in which he pronounced the marriage annulled. A. D. 1533.

494. Parliament confirmed the decision, and recognized Anne Boleyn as the lawful wife of their king. They had previously declared Henry to be the head of the English Church, and annulled the pope's claim to tribute and obedience. A subsequent parliament suppressed all the abbeys and convents in England. Part of their revenues were applied to schools, colleges, and six new bishoprics, but a large part went to enrich the courtiers; and Charles V., referring to the immense loans which former kings had drawn from the abbeys, laughingly remarked that his

“brother of England had killed the goose that laid the golden egg.”

495. Though he had thus separated from the pope, Henry hated the Reformation. He had distinguished himself, in his early years, by writing a book against Luther, which gained for him the title, “Defender of the Faith.” His wrath was pretty equally divided between the Catholics, who denied his supremacy, and the Protestants, who disbelieved his doctrines. Among the former, who died for conscience’ sake, were Sir Thomas More, the brightest genius and most virtuous and amiable man of the time; Fisher, the good bishop of Rochester, and the monks of the Charterhouse in London, a brotherhood whom scandal never accused of any other crime than faithfulness to their convictions.

496. Three years from her coronation, Queen Anne was beheaded on frivolous charges, and her late attendant, Jane Sey’mour, became queen. The next year, the whole nation rejoiced in the birth of a prince, who was afterward King Edward VI. Queen Jane died peaceably; and the king’s next marriage was with Anne of Cleves,³ a German princess. She failed to please him, and the marriage was annulled. The misconduct of Catherine Howard,⁴ his fifth wife, compelled the king to sign her death-warrant, and she was beheaded on Tower Hill. His sixth and last wife, Catherine Parr,⁵ nearly lost her head in consequence of a theological discussion, but her ready wit saved her life.

497. In his last years Henry became an intolerable tyrant, and the lives of some of his most noble and blameless subjects were sacrificed to his suspicion. He died in 1547, the same year with Francis I. of France. His son, Edward VI. (A. D. 1547–1553), was only nine years old, and the duke of Somerset was made Protector. He was a warm friend of the Reformation. A commission appointed by him, with Archbishop Cranmer at its head,

gave to the English Church the forms of doctrine and worship which it still retains.

498. James V. of Scotland (§ 489) had died in 1542, leaving only an infant daughter, the afterwards celebrated Mary, Queen of Scots, to inherit his crown. A leading policy of Henry VIII., and of Somerset after him, was to marry the young Edward to this baby queen, and thus peaceably unite the two kingdoms. The Protestant nobles of Scotland favored this alliance, but their opponents hurried the little queen over to France and betrothed her to the dauphin.

499. Somerset's talents were not equal to the great changes he tried to effect. He was at length deprived of all his offices, condemned for treason, and beheaded. His power passed into the hands of his rival, the duke of Northumberland.⁶ This unscrupulous plotter persuaded the young king to set aside his two sisters, Mary and Elizabeth, who were next him in the succession by his father's will, and to bequeath the crown to his cousin, Jane Grey,⁷ who was married to Guilford Dudley, Northumberland's own son (see Table, p. 295). This having been done, Edward's health declined more rapidly, and he died in the sixteenth year of his age.

500. Lady Jane was crowned, against her will, and for ten days a small circle called her queen. But the true queen, Mary Tudor, was welcomed to London with shouts of loyalty; and Northumberland, with his chief accomplices, was beheaded for high treason. Lady Jane and her husband were spared on account of their youth and innocence; but the next year a rebellion of some of their friends brought them to the scaffold.

501. Queen Mary (A. D. 1553-1558) soon consented to a marriage with her cousin, Philip of Spain (§ 470), though her best councilors dreaded that great power which ruled so large a part of Europe and the New World (§ 444),

and was believed to be aiming at universal dominion. Mary's strongest desire was to restore the pope's supremacy in England, and in this she was aided by her husband and her cousin, Cardinal Pole, who was appointed papal legate. The latter was a good man and counseled gentle measures, but Philip and Mary leaned rather to the brutal policy of Gardiner, under which nearly three hundred persons were burned to death as heretics. Among them were Cranmer and the good bishops, Ridley and Latimer.

502. To please her husband, Mary plunged into a war with France, and lost Calais, the last remaining foothold of the English on the continent. Vexation at this loss and at Philip's neglect threw her into a fever, of which she died in the sixth year of her reign (see § 477).

503. The accession of Elizabeth (A. D. 1558-1603), daughter of Anne Boleyn, was welcomed with universal joy. Learning wisdom by her sister's mistake, she refused all offers of marriage from Philip of Spain and others, declaring that she was wedded only to her realm, and would never give it a foreign master. Her first Parliament restored the English Church as in Edward's day, with the queen instead of the pope at its head. Almost as many persons lost their lives by denying Elizabeth's supremacy, as had suffered under her unhappy sister's persecutions; but it must be remembered that many of them were also traitors. The pope had publicly denied Elizabeth's claims as queen, and her mother's as wife (§ 492); and her cousin, Mary of Scotland, who was in fact the next heir, had, with his approval, adopted the arms and title of Queen of England (see Table, p. 223).

504. Two years after Elizabeth's accession Mary returned, a widow, to her native land. She had been educated as a Catholic, amid the gay and elegant amusements of the French court, and both her religion and her manners shocked the grave Reformers who now had the chief in-

fluence in Scotland. In 1565 she married Lord Darnley (see Table), a dissolute and contemptible youth, who soon lost her confidence. In revenge for her displeasure, he brutally murdered her secretary at her very feet. A few months later, the house in which Darnley alone was sleeping was blown up with gunpowder, and he was killed. The dark suspicion which fell upon the queen was deepened by her marrying the Earl of Bothwell, who was known to have been concerned in the murder of Darnley.

505. Mary was imprisoned, and her infant son was crowned. She escaped, was defeated in battle, and took refuge in England, where she was tried by a commission of Scottish and English nobles for the murder of her husband. No sentence was pronounced, but she was imprisoned nineteen years in England, the center of innumerable plots against the life and government of Elizabeth, and was at length beheaded in Fotheringay Castle.

506. Elizabeth, meanwhile, by wise and thrifty management, had restored happiness and order to her kingdom. While Philip's persecutions in the Netherlands were driving the most skillful and industrious of his subjects into exile, Elizabeth welcomed all artisans on condition of their taking one English apprentice each, and thus many fine manufactures became established in the country. English merchants and sailors joined heartily in the maritime adventures of the time.

507. Francis Drake⁸ sailed around the globe, and came back laden with Spanish gold. Others penetrated the northern seas and opened a trade with Archangel in Russia, while the gold and ivory of the Guinea coast enriched the merchants of Southampton. Sir Walter Raleigh⁹ attempted a settlement in a region of North America, which was named Virginia, in honor of the maiden queen. The enterprise was abandoned for a time, owing to perils

at home; but the capital of North Carolina still commemorates the gallant adventurer.

508. In 1588 Philip of Spain fitted out an immense fleet to avenge the death of Mary Stuart, and assert his own claim to the English crown, which she had bequeathed him. If any thing had been wanting to unite all English hearts in love and loyalty to Elizabeth, this insolence would have supplied it. All ranks, classes, and religions worked together with a common zeal for the defense, and Elizabeth proved her generous confidence by bestowing on Lord Howard of Effingham, a Catholic nobleman, the command of her fleet.

509. At length the "Invincible Armada" appeared, stretching seven miles from wing to wing, and composed of the largest vessels that had ever been seen. The English ships were smaller and lighter, but their captains knew the coast and could easily harass the clumsy enemy. In the "English Salamis," as in the Greek (§§ 54, 118), valor and patriotism won the day against immensely superior numbers. Attempting to retreat northward, the Spaniards were wrecked among the Orkneys and upon the west coast of Ireland; and it was only a tattered remnant of the Invincible Armada that re-entered the ports of Spain. From this time England ruled the sea. The great Spanish galleons, laden with the gold of Mexico and Peru, often fell into the hands of Drake and his brave comrades; and their capture lessened Philip's power for mischief.

510. Ireland was, as usual, in rebellion, and Elizabeth's chief favorite, the young Earl of Essex, failed in his attempt to subdue it. The queen's displeasure drove him into sedition, and she reluctantly signed his death-warrant, but she never recovered from the grief which it cost her. She shut herself up in her palace, refused food, and died in the 70th year of her age and the 45th of her reign.

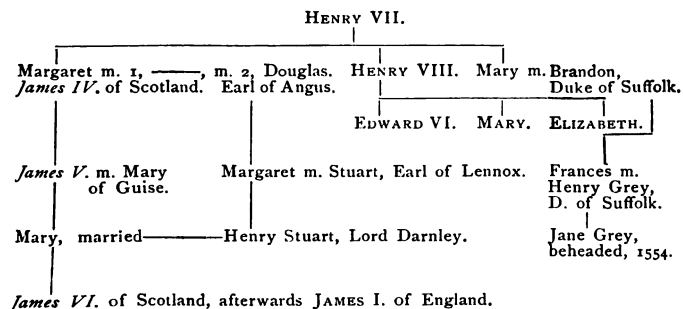
With her ended the English Tudors, and James VI. of Scotland, son of the unfortunate Mary, came to the throne.

511. The Elizabethan Age was, perhaps, the brightest of England's literary eras. The wonderful events and discoveries of the day kept all minds active, and the language reached its perfection in the musical verse of Spenser, the romance of Sidney, the rugged treatises of Hooker, the wise philosophy of Bacon, and the wonderful dramas of Shakespeare. The queen was well versed in Greek, Latin, and several modern languages.

The success of Elizabeth's reign was largely owing to her able ministers, Ce'cil, Wal'singham, and others; but, in spite of many faults of personal character, the queen herself must rank among the greatest sovereigns of her time.

Read Green's "Short History," Ch. VI, Sections iv and v, and Ch. VII.

THE TUDORS IN ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.



Sovereigns of England are in Capitals, those of Scotland in Italics.

NOTES.

1. The first of these "pretenders" was Lambert Simnel, a baker's boy, whom an Oxford priest, named Simon, undertook to instruct in the behavior suitable to a prince. When his lessons were completed, he was accompanied by his tutor to Ireland, where the people were known to be warmly attached to the House of York, and especially to the Duke of Clarence, father to the real earl whom Simnel personated, who had been their lord-lieutenant. Landing in Dublin, the supposed prince was greeted with loyal acclamations as "King Edward the Sixth." In England the imposture was quickly exposed by bringing the true Edward from his prison in the Tower, and parading him in the streets of London. But the Dowager Duchess of Burgundy, widow of Charles the Bold (§ 413, and note, p. 233), either willingly deceived or easily convinced by the representations that were made to her, sent over a force of German mercenaries to co-operate with Simon's Irish troops. The rebellion was effectually crushed, however, by the royal victory at Stoke, and the pretended Plantagenet, being too insignificant to be feared, became a scullion in the king's kitchen.

The second attempt was more serious. It was led by Perkin, or Peterkin, Warbeck, son of a merchant of Tournay. He probably bore some real resemblance to the Yorkist princes, and, as the murder in the Tower had been carefully concealed, there was no apparent improbability in the story of the escape and subsequent hiding of Richard. In any case, there were enemies of Henry VII. who were willing to countenance any claimant of his crown. King Charles VIII., of France (§§ 441-445), entertained the Pretender in Paris with all the splendor that befitted a royal reception, and the Duchess of Burgundy, after close scrutiny and questioning, professed herself perfectly satisfied that he was her long-lost nephew. The King of Scotland went farther, and not only received him with royal honors, but gave him a noble lady for his wife, and invaded England in the hope that at least the Yorkshire people would rise in favor of their native prince. But this hope was disappointed, and Perkin took refuge in Ireland. Meanwhile, the poor miners of Cornwall had been driven to desperation by the heavy taxes laid upon them by the king; and, when the pretended prince appeared among them, he was soon at the head of 7,000 brave men. But, on the approach of the royal army, "King Richard IV." fled, leaving his followers to their fate. The Plantagenets, with all their faults, never lacked personal bravery; and thus Perkin's imposture was proved by his own act. No one mourned when he was hanged at Tyburn; but many were shocked and grieved a few days later by the iniquitous execution of the young Earl of Warwick, an innocent victim of other people's crimes.

2. There is a tradition that Wolsey was the son of a butcher; but if so, it is the more remarkable that he obtained his degree at Oxford when only fifteen years of age. He first distinguished himself as chaplain to Henry VII. by the promptness and tact with which he executed a difficult mission to the Emperor Maximilian. Early in the reign of Henry VIII., Wolsey became royal almoner, and, thus introduced to the king's notice, his talents as a courtier ensured his rise. Though he was really the mainspring of all that was done in England, he contrived to make every measure of the government appear the direct act of the king, to whom he behaved with the most humble deference and submission. Like the king himself, Wolsey was a friend of the New Learning, and a munificent patron of learned men. He founded the first professorship of Greek in England; he established a school at Ipswich and a college at Oxford. The latter was first called Cardinal College, but, after his fall, its name was changed to Christ's Church. Its magnificent buildings still attest the Cardinal's taste and liberality. His two mansions, Hampton Court and Whitehall, became royal palaces.

3. The Duke of Cleves, Anne's brother, was one of the greatest Protestant princes on the continent; for, besides his hereditary provinces of Cleves, Berg, Juliers, and Ravensberg—the territories which afterwards constituted West Prussia—he had lately become possessed of Zutphen and Guelders. Henry was led to this marriage by his resentment against Francis I., who had broken his friendly alliance, and was even

said to be plotting with Charles V. and the King of Scotland for a partition of Henry's dominions. Though he had been willing to please his Protestant courtiers and ally himself with the league of German princes, Henry's marriage was as transient as the cause out of which it grew. Anne meekly accepted a home and revenues in England, and survived the King by ten years.

4. Catherine Howard was a niece of the Duke of Norfolk, and cousin of Anne Boleyn. During her married life, the duke had much influence at court, and used it to oppose Protestant interests. Shortly before the King's death, Norfolk and his accomplished son, the Earl of Surrey, were arrested for treason and sentenced to execution. Surrey was beheaded, but the timely decease of Henry spared his father's life.

5. Catherine Parr was the widow of Lord Latimer, when, in 1543, she became the wife of Henry VIII. With the progress of disease, the king became increasingly fond of disputes, and the liveliness of the queen's replies once offended him so seriously that he was on the point of ordering her to the scaffold. But, perceiving her danger, Catherine assured him that she had only taken the opposite side to afford him the pleasure of refuting her, and lest the discussion should grow dull. The king could hardly afford to lose so entertaining a companion, and was soon reconciled.

6. Northumberland was a son of Edmund Dudley, a lawyer who had been a notorious tool of Henry VII. in extorting money from his subjects (§ 486). On the accession of Henry VIII, Dudley was tried and condemned to death. His son, however, gained the King's favor, and was made Lord High Admiral of England. His ambition knew no limits.

7. No character in history surpasses in grace and loveliness that of Jane Grey. She always preferred a modest and studious retirement to the splendid amusements of a court. At fifteen she was studying Hebrew; while in Greek and Latin, French and Italian, she was able to converse and correspond with the most learned men of the age. At the time of her marriage, no one informed her of the plot to make her queen, and when the Council of Nobles announced to her Edward's death, and her own accession to the crown, she fell into a dead swoon from grief and terror. Submitting herself at length to her father's command, she nerved herself to act with justice and decision, and to thwart, if possible, the ambitious schemes of her father-in-law. When the short farce of her queenship was over, she expressed a joyful sense of relief, and begged that she might go home to her studies. She endured her imprisonment in the Tower with gentleness and patience, and tried to inspire courage in her husband. They were executed in February, 1554.

8. Drake was born in Devonshire about 1540. After various buccaneering enterprises against the Spanish, West Indian, and American settlements, he conducted five vessels to the Pacific, and obtained immense treasures on the coast of Chili and Peru. He afterwards explored the western shores of North America, wintered near San Francisco, crossed the Pacific to the Moluccas, and returned by the Cape of Good Hope. Queen Elizabeth knighted him as a reward for this daring cruise, and dined with him on board his ship, which she ordered to be preserved as a monument. It must be confessed that most of Drake's enterprises were piratical, as they were executed when the governments of Spain and England were at peace. He had, however, his part in open warfare, and contributed largely to the defeat of the Armada.

9. Raleigh also was a native of Devonshire. After studying at Oxford he served five years in France in aid of the Huguenots, and afterwards against rebels in Ireland. He is said to have gained the favor of Queen Elizabeth by flinging his velvet cloak upon a muddy place in the path by which she was walking from her barge to her palace. In 1584, he received from her a patent authorizing him to colonize and govern any territories he might acquire beyond the seas. His two attempts on Roanoke Island failed; but he is said to have introduced the potato and tobacco into Europe from the New World.

CHAPTER V.

RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.



Flemish Costume,
XVII. Century.

WE have seen that the seventeen duchies, counties, and baronies, known collectively as the Netherlands,* or Low Countries, had all become subject to the French dukes of Burgundy (§§ 409-413). On the death of Charles the Bold, in 1477, Burgundy was reannexed to France, but the Netherlands, by the marriage of his daughter Mary to Maximilian, were transferred to the House of Austria. No part of Europe was so fertile and prosperous as these Low Countries; none had so many thriving cities or such intelligent and industrious people. Their silks, velvets, woolen cloth, and fine armor were celebrated

throughout Europe. Though ruled by one sovereign, each province had its own government, and their representatives were only now and then called together in the "States General" when Charles or Philip wanted money.

* These were the *duchies* of Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, and Guelders; the *margravate* of Antwerp; the *counties* of Artois, Flanders, Hainault, Namur, Zutphen, Holland, and Zealand; and the *baronies* of Mechlin, Utrecht, Friesland, Overysse, and Groningen.

Name these countries and their chief cities from Map No. 11.

513. Charles V. had been born in Ghent,¹ and was supposed to favor his Flemish subjects, to the great discontent of the Spaniards. But he constantly violated the chartered rights of the provinces which he had sworn to maintain. By eleven successive edicts, and by the establishment of the Inquisition, Charles tried to stop the Reformation in the Netherlands, and many of his best subjects sealed their faith with their blood.

514. Philip II. (§470) was a still more cruel bigot.² He declared that he would lose a hundred thousand lives rather than see any of his dominions severed from the ancient church. On his departure for Spain, Philip entrusted the regency of the Netherlands A. D. 1559 to his half-sister, the Duchess of Parma. Among her councilors was William, Prince of Orange,³ then chiefly renowned for his vast wealth and illustrious descent, but soon to win a nobler fame by his self-denying patriotism.

515. Philip's stern order of "death to heretics," led many thousands to seek safety in other lands (§506). The Prince of Orange, as governor of Holland and Zealand, refused to permit the burning of his countrymen, and many nobles and citizens leagued themselves to demand a retraction of the hated edicts. The duchess was alarmed, but her council branded the petitioners as a "pack of beggars." The name was adopted by the nobles themselves at a banquet, with shouts of merriment and cries of "Long live the Beggars!"

516. Thousands of the people now began to meet in excited crowds, which broke into cathedrals, shattered the beautiful stained glass of their windows, and dashed the images to the ground. In a battle near Ant- A. D. 1567 werp, 1800 "Beggars" were slain. Philip now sent the Duke of Alva, a pitiless monster, to put down resistance with fire and sword. Defying all the laws, he organized a "Council of Blood" in his own house, and

summoned before it the chief opponents of the edicts. The Prince of Orange, now in Germany, refused to appear. Counts Egmont and Horn were tried and beheaded in the great square at Brussels, A. D. 1568. A decree of the Inquisition condemned the entire population of the Netherlands, with a few special exceptions, to death! Of course this was not literally executed, but it removed the protection of law from all; and Alva boasted of 18,000 lives destroyed during his regency of six years.

517. Industry ceased; towns were deserted; all the wealthy who could leave fled beyond the sea; many bold spirits took to privateering, and made the name of "Sea Beggars" a terror to Spanish sailors. Their prizes were at first carried into English ports; but, after four years, Queen Elizabeth forbade this for fear of involving herself in a war with Spain. The Sea Beggars then seized Briel, the capital of Zeeland, and made it the beginning of a new Republic. The four provinces of Holland, Zeeland, Friesland, and Utrecht declared the Prince of Orange their lawful "stadtholder," or lieutenant, during the absence of Philip II. In 1573, Alva was succeeded by Requesens, a just man, who at least put a stop to indiscriminate murders. But the war still went on.

518. The prince lost several battles, and, in 1574, his brother, Louis of Nassau, was slain near Nimeguen. But the spirit of the whole people was aroused, and their constancy was proved by their heroic defense of Haarlem, Alkmaar, and Leyden, against the besieging forces of the Spaniards. Leyden was relieved only by cutting the dykes and letting the sea overflow the surrounding country, that the fleet of the prince might approach its walls. At last the starving citizens were fed, and then all went in procession to the cathedral to thank God for His great deliverance.

519. The death of Requesens, in 1576, was followed by new horrors; for his unpaid soldiery were set loose upon the cities, plundering, destroying, and murdering at their will. In Antwerp alone 1,000 houses were burned, and 8,000 people were killed. Under this distress, the Prince of Orange persuaded all the provinces to unite themselves in the Pacification of Ghent, and afterwards in the still closer Union of Brussels. But, unhappily, the different parties could not agree; the union was dissolved, and the seventeen provinces were never reunited until 1814. The prince, however, secured a permanent union of the seven northern states, under the name of the United Netherlands. Holland far excelled the others in power and wealth, and the whole confederation is commonly called the Dutch Republic.

520. John of Austria, the hero of Lepanto (§561), was now intrusted, by Philip, with the government of the Netherlands. He gained a great victory at Gemblours, which almost annihilated the army of the States; but he died two years later, and was succeeded by Alexander of Parma, son of the former regent, and the greatest general of his time. In 1581, the thirteen Flemish and northern provinces formally cast off their allegiance to Philip II., and conferred their sovereignty upon the Duke of Anjou, brother of the French king, who solemnly swore to defend and maintain their liberties according to the charters. But he was a traitor at heart, and, upon his giving up Antwerp to be plundered by his soldiers, he was driven into France.

521. In 1584, the Prince of Orange was murdered in his own house by a hired agent of Philip of Spain. This foul crime seemed a death-blow to the liberties of the Netherlands; for the wisdom, firmness, and incorruptible fidelity of the prince had been their only sure dependence amid dissensions within and dangers from without. But

the blow aroused the States to the necessity of united action; and, on the very day of the murder, the representatives of Holland declared their resolution "to maintain the good cause, with God's help, to the uttermost, without sparing gold or blood."

522. The year following the prince's death was sadly marked by the fall of Antwerp. It had bravely withstood thirteen months' siege by Alexander of Parma; when it was taken, the ruined homes of its citizens supplied materials for a new fortress, while grass grew and cattle fed in streets which had been crowded with traders from all parts of the world. Antwerp had succeeded Florence (§369) as the banking center of Europe; this distinction now passed to London, whither great numbers of its bankers and merchants removed.

523. In 1596, both England and France became allies of the States against Spain. Cadiz was taken and plundered, and many treasure-laden vessels from the Spanish colonies became the prizes of the Sea Beggars. The war was ended by the Peace of Vervins in May, 1598. A few days later, the ten southern provinces of the Netherlands were settled upon Philip's daughter Isabella and her husband; and, for fear that either should exceed the other in rank, both were styled "*the Archdukes.*"

524. The eldest son of the Prince of Orange was a prisoner in Spain. The second son, Maurice of Nassau, succeeded to the command of the States' forces, and, as he grew to manhood, developed extraordinary talents for war. He gained the battle of Turnhout by the then novel device of arming his cavalry with pistols. At length, in 1609, an honorable truce closed forty years' war with Spain, and secured to the Dutch Republic not only its undisputed territory at home, but the Spice Islands, and freedom of trade with both Indies. Not until forty years later, however, did Spain acknowledge its independence.

525. In 1598, Philip died. His 42 years' reign had begun in unexampled prosperity, and ended in disgrace. In 1580 he had conquered Portugal and added all her rich possessions in Asia and America (§§ 435, 436) to his own dominions, which now included one third of all the land on the globe. But he had ruined his realms by his stupid tyranny; and, with all the gold and diamonds of the New World at his disposal, he died a bankrupt. His son, Philip III., was a dull bigot, and though his dominion was still the greatest in Europe, it ceased to have a controlling part in the world's affairs.

The United Netherlands were already the chief maritime nation in the world. Their sailors were the boldest and most skillful, their ships the best modeled; and a Dutch Indiaman would sail round the globe while a Spaniard or Portuguese was making only the outward passage to Asia. Naturally, therefore, the rich commerce with the Indies fell into the hands of the Dutch. They had a thousand vessels engaged in the Baltic trade, and nearly as many more in fisheries. Meanwhile the industry of farmers and manufacturers had made the Seven States the most prosperous and productive portion of the European continent.

Point out, on Map No. 11, Ghent, Antwerp, Brussels, Leyden, Amsterdam. The seven (northern) United Netherlands. The ten (southern) Spanish Netherlands.

Read Motley's "Rise of the Dutch Republic" and "History of the United Netherlands."

NOTES.

1. "As early as the fourteenth century, the age of the Artevelde, Froissart estimated the number of fighting men whom Ghent could bring into the field at 80,000. The city, by its jurisdiction over many large but subordinate towns, disposed of more than its own immediate population, which has been reckoned as high as 200,000. Its streets and squares were spacious and elegant; its churches and other public buildings, numerous and splendid. The sumptuous church of St. Bavon, where Charles V. had been baptized, the ancient castle whither Baldwin Bras de Fer had brought the daughter of Charles the Bold; the well-known belfry, where swung the famous Roland, whose iron tongue had called the citizens, generation after generation, to arms, were all conspicuous in the city and celebrated in the land. Especially the great bell was

the object of the burghers' affection, and, generally, of the sovereign's hatred; while to all it seemed a living historical personage, endowed with the human powers and passions which it had so long directed and inflamed."—*Molley's Rise of the Dutch Republic*, I.

In 1540, for its just resistance to an enormous tax, Charles "annulled all the charters, privileges, and laws" of his native city; confiscated all its public property, sentenced the great bell Roland to removal, and required several hundreds of the most noted citizens, as representing the rest, to beg his pardon on their knees, and with halters around their necks, for their "disloyalty, disobedience, etc." He made "a fine show of benignity" in granting this pardon; but his sentence was meant for the death-blow of the liberties of all the Netherlands. The northern provinces, after eighty years' heroic struggle, wrested their freedom from his successors; but the prosperity of Ghent, Antwerp, and most of the cities of the ten southern provinces was effectually destroyed.

2. "Thus the provinces had received a new master. A man of foreign birth and breeding, not speaking a word of their language, nor of any language which the mass of the inhabitants understood, was now placed in supreme authority over them, because he represented, through the females, the 'good' Philip of Burgundy, who, a century before, had possessed himself by inheritance, purchase, force, or fraud, of the sovereignty of most of those provinces." Philip possessed nothing of his father's gift of popularity. "He was disagreeable to the Italians, detestable to the Flemings, odious to the Germans." He was "sluggish in character, deficient in martial enterprise, as timid of temperament as he was fragile and sickly of frame." "His mental capacity was likewise not very much esteemed. His talents were, in truth, very much below mediocrity. His mind was incredibly small. . . . He was slow in deciding, slower in communicating his decisions. He took refuge in a cloud of words, sometimes to conceal his meaning, oftener to conceal the absence of any meaning, thus mystifying, not only others, but himself.

"His education had been but meager. In an age when all kings and noblemen possessed many languages, he spoke not a word of any tongue but Spanish. . . . The gay, babbling, energetic, noisy life of Flanders and Brabant was detestable to him. The loquacity of the Netherlanders was a continual reproach upon his taciturnity. His education had imbued him, too, with the antiquated international hatred of Spaniard and Fleming. . . . Of the 150 persons who composed his court at Brussels, nine tenths were Spaniards. Thus it is obvious how soon he disregarded his father's precept and practice in this respect, and began to lay the foundation of that renewed hatred to Spaniards, which was soon to become so intense, exuberant, and fatal throughout every class of Netherlanders."—*Molley*, I.

3. "The Nassau family first emerges into distinct existence in the middle of the eleventh century. It divides itself into two great branches. The elder remained in Germany, ascended the imperial throne in the person of Adolph of Nassau, and gave to the country many electors, bishops, and generals. The younger and more illustrious branch transplanted itself to the Netherlands, where it attained to great power and large possessions. The ancestors of William, as Dukes of Gueldres, had begun to exercise sovereignty in the provinces four centuries before the advent of the House of Burgundy. That overshadowing family afterwards numbered the Netherland Nassaus among its most staunch and powerful adherents. Engelbert the Second was distinguished in the turbulent councils and battle-fields of Charles the Bold, and was afterwards the unwavering supporter of Maximilian." His nephew Henry, "received the family possessions and titles in Luxembourg, Brabant, Flanders, and Holland, and distinguished himself in the service of the Burgundo-Austrian House. The confidential friend of Charles V, whose governor he had been in that emperor's boyhood, he was ever his most efficient and reliable adherent. It was he whose influence placed the imperial crown on the head of Charles." He married a sister of Prince Philibert of Orange, and his son René succeeded Philibert. "The little principality of Orange, so pleasantly situated between Provence and Dauphiny, but in such dangerous proximity to the 'Babylonian captivity' of the Popes at Avignon (‡367), thus passed to the family of Nassau. The title was of high antiquity. Already in the reign of Charlemagne,

MAP No. XI.

THE NETHERLANDS.

- The Netherlands subject to Charlemagne A. D. 785.
Divided into 17 fiefs under great vassals . . . 800-900.
Reünited under Duke Philip of Burgundy . . . 1437.
Become subject to House of Austria by marriage
of Maximilian with Mary of Burgundy . 1477.
Independence of the Seven Northern Provinces: 1594.
 { Zeeland, Utrecht, Overyssel, }
 { Holland, Guelders, Friesland. }
 { Groningen, }

THE SPANISH NETHERLANDS:

- { Artois, Namur, Brabant, Liège, }
 { Flanders, Luxemburg, Mechlin Hainault, }
 { Limburg, Antwerp, }
- Conferred upon the Archdukes (p. 228) . . . 1598.
Become "Austrian Netherlands" upon Isabella's
death 1633.
Conquered, or liberated, by French revolutionists 1794, '9
Join the Northern Provinces in Kingdom of the
Netherlands 1815.
Separate from Holland and form Kingdom of
Belgium 1830.



SPANISH NETHERLANDS
and
THE UNITED PROVINCES
in the
Seventeenth Century.

Scale of Miles.
0 10 20 30 40 50 100

NORTH
SEA

ENGLAND

Str. of Dover

Guillaume au Court Nez, or "William with the Short Nose," had defended the little town of Orange against the Saracens. The interest and authority acquired in the demesnes thus preserved by his valor became extensive, and in process of time hereditary in his race. The principality became an absolute and free sovereignty. . . . In 1544, Prince René died at the emperor's feet in the trenches of St. Dizier (§ 467). He left all his titles and estates to his cousin, William of Nassau, who thus, at the age of 11 years, became William the Ninth of Orange. For this child, whom the future was to summon to such high destinies and such heroic sacrifices, the past and present seemed to have gathered riches and power together from many sources."

"At a very early age he came, as a page, into the emperor's family. Charles recognized, with his customary quickness, the remarkable character of the boy. At fifteen, William was the intimate, almost confidential, friend of the emperor, who prided himself, above all other gifts, on his power of reading and of using men. There seemed to be no secrets which the emperor held too high for the comprehension or discretion of his page. His perceptive and reflective faculties, naturally of remarkable keenness and depth, thus acquired a precocious and extraordinary development. He was brought up behind the curtain of that great stage where the world's dramas were daily enacted. Carefully to observe men's actions, and silently to ponder upon their motives, was the favorite occupation of the prince during his apprenticeship at court. As he advanced to man's estate, he was selected by the emperor for the highest duties. . . . It was the Prince's shoulder upon which the emperor leaned at the abdication (§ 470); the prince's hand which bore the imperial insignia of the discrowned monarch to Ferdinand at Augsburg. With these duties his relations with Charles were ended, and those with Philip begun. He was the secret negotiator of the preliminary arrangement with France, soon afterwards confirmed by the triumphant treaty of April, 1559. . . . He was one of the hostages selected by Henry for the due execution of the treaty, and, while in France, made that remarkable discovery which was to color his life. While hunting with the king in the forest of Vincennes, the prince and Henry found themselves alone together and separated from the rest of the company. The French monarch's mind was full of the great scheme which had just secretly been formed between Philip and himself, to extirpate Protestantism by a general extirpation of Protestants. . . . This conspiracy of the two kings against their subjects was the matter nearest the hearts of both. The Duke of Alva, a fellow hostage with William of Orange, was the plenipotentiary to conduct this more important arrangement. The French monarch, somewhat imprudently imagining that the prince was also a party to the plot, opened the whole subject to him without reserve. . . . The prince, although horror-struck and indignant at the royal revelations, held his peace and kept his countenance. . . . William of Orange earned the surname of 'the Silent,' from the manner in which he received these communications of Henry, without revealing to the monarch, by word or look, this enormous blunder which he had committed. His purpose was fixed from that hour. . . . Although having as yet no spark of religious sympathy for the reformers, he could not, he said, but feel compassion for so many virtuous men and women thus devoted to massacre, and he determined to save them if he could. . . . In one of his last interviews with Philip, the king had given him the names of several 'excellent persons suspected of the new religion,' and had commanded him to have them put to death. This, however, he not only omitted to do, but, on the contrary, gave them warning, so that they might effect their escape, 'thinking it more necessary to obey God than man.' . . . Yet we are not to regard William of Orange, thus on the threshold of his great career, by the light diffused from a some what later period. He was disposed for an easy, joyous, luxurious, princely life. . . . His house, the splendid Nassau palace of Brussels, was ever open. He entertained for the monarch, who was, or imagined himself, too poor to discharge his own duties in this respect, but he entertained, at his own expense. Twenty-four noblemen, and eighteen pages of gentle birth officiated regularly in his family. . . . Such, then, at the beginning of 1560, was William of Orange, a generous, stately, magnificent, powerful grandee."—*Id.* I, 233-245.

CHAPTER VI.

THE STUARTS IN ENGLAND.



English Costumes, XVII
Century.

UPON the death of Elizabeth (§ 510) the crowns of England and Scotland were united in James Stuart, a great grandson of Henry VII. (see Table, p. 223), though the two countries had still their separate parliaments. James I. (A. D. 1603-1625) brought a new idea of royalty into England, namely, that of his "divine right" as the "Lord's Anointed" to overrule all laws. He told the House of Commons that it existed by the gracious permission of his ancestors, and would continue to exist only so long as it suited him. The king's slovenly, slouching person and undignified manners made a curious contrast to these high pretensions.

527. James hated the Puritans, now a large party in the English Church, who desired some further reforms in the ritual; and he offended them by his "Book of Sports," in which he recommended public amusements on the Lord's day. Finding that they could expect no favor, nor even justice at home, several congregations, now deciding to

quit the established Church, took refuge in Holland. We owe to King James, however, the accepted Protestant version of the Bible,¹ which was made by a commission of learned men at his command. A. D. 1611.

528. Several conspiracies disturbed the early years of this reign. One was the "Gunpowder Plot" of the discontented Romanists, to blow up the Parliament houses when all the members were assembled to hear the king's speech. It was detected in time, and Guy Fawkes, a paid agent of the conspirators, was put to death. In another and less atrocious plot, Sir Walter Raleigh was accused of having part. He was thrown into the Tower, where he beguiled twelve gloomy years of imprisonment by writing his *History of the World*. Then, without removing his sentence, the king sent him to lead a perilous attack upon Guiana, where Raleigh lost his son and all his fortune, and returned only to lay his head upon the block. "'Tis a sharp medicine," said he, with a smile, as he passed his finger along the executioner's axe, "but it is a cure for all ills."

529. The reign of James is more honorably noted as an era of colonization. Thousands of Scottish settlers established their linen-making and other industries in the north of Ireland, which had been laid waste by Tyrone's Rebellion. The East India Company, which had received its first charter from Elizabeth, set up a factory at Surat, in Hindustan. The earliest English town within the present limits of the United States bore the king's name. At first idle adventurers flocked to Jamestown, expecting to find gold without labor, and they were nearly cut off by famine; but the energy and good sense of Captain John Smith brought about a better state of affairs. A different sort of adventurers landed, in 1620, on the sandy coast of Plymouth Bay. They were the refugees from Holland (§ 527), who had now resolved A. D. 1607.

to found a new state, where they could bring up their children in the language and customs of their native land, while enjoying a freedom of worship which England would not afford.

530. Europe was now trembling with the first shock of the Thirty Years' War. Frederic, elector-palatine, had married the English princess, Elizabeth, and looked to her father for aid in his resistance to the Austrian power (§§ 564, 566). But James seemed not even to understand the policy of his great predecessor, which made England the head of Protestant interests in Europe. He allowed Frederic to be driven, not only from his new kingdom of Bohemia, but from the home of his fathers; and Elizabeth, with her children, had to beg for shelter at foreign courts. James, meanwhile, was sacrificing his own dignity and the interests of his people for the sake of a Spanish marriage² for his son, which, after all, was refused him. Charles married a Bourbon princess, Henrietta Maria, sister of Louis XIII.

531. Charles I. (A. D. 1625-1649) began his reign, without money, on the eve of war with Spain. The Commons distrusted him, and would grant supplies only for a year at a time. Charles thereupon dismissed them, and tried to raise money by forced loans and arbitrary taxes; but these unlawful proceedings offended the people more than they helped the king. His war resulted in failure; but he was soon led by his favorite Buckingham to aid the Huguenots of Rochelle against the armies of Louis XIII. This, too, failed, and Buckingham was assassinated while preparing for a new attempt.

532. In his domestic relations, Charles was worthy of all respect; but, in his acts as a king, he added his father's arbitrary temper to that falsity of character which had cost his grandmother her crown and her life (§ 505). The Parliament of 1628 demanded his assent to a Petition of

Rights, before it would take up the question of supplies. The king signed this "second great charter of English Freedom" (§ 383), but he violated it almost as soon as the Parliament had dispersed, by levying "ship-money" on his own authority.

533. John Hampden,³ a wealthy gentleman who had been twice a member of Parliament, refused to pay this tax, that he might bring the matter to a test before the courts. Seven of the twelve judges decided against him, because they dared not displease the king; but his bold resistance was an example and encouragement to the nation.

534. Thomas Wentworth, earl of Strafford, who had at first resisted the king's demands, deserted the cause of the people and became a chief agent in oppression. Archbishop Laud carried the same spirit into matters of religion, by restoring some ancient usages in worship which the mass of the nation regarded as idolatrous. The king wished to impose the same ritual upon Scotland, but here he met a sturdy resistance. The famous Covenant, signed partly with the blood of the writers, A D. 1638. bound the whole Scottish people to oppose all "errors and corruptions" contrary to the reformed faith.

535. In 1640, an army of the "Covenanters" invaded England, and threatened York, where the king was residing. Charles was now compelled to summon the "Long Parliament," so called because it continued its sessions thirteen years. Before it would grant money, it impeached Strafford and Laud, abolished the Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission, which had become infamously corrupt, and ordered to trial all the tools of the king's oppressions. Strafford was beheaded; and Laud, after four years' imprisonment, suffered the same fate.

536. A fierce rebellion broke out in Ireland, in October, 1641. The Scotch colonists (§ 529) were massacred or

driven from their homes, and only Dublin remained subject to the English. A rash attempt of the king to arrest five members of Parliament now plunged England into civil war. London and the great cities, with the Puritans, were generally on the side of Parliament; while the nobles and clergy and all the young cavaliers, who loved a gay life and hated Puritan strictness, took part with the king.

537. Charles' cavalry was led by his nephew, Prince Rupert, son of that German elector who had tried to be king of Bohemia. In 1644, Parliament allied itself with the Scots, who sent an army to besiege York. In a furious battle on Marston Moor, Prince Rupert and the royal forces were defeated, and the next year Fairfax and Cromwell,¹ the parliamentary generals, gained a still more decisive victory over the king's army at Naseby.

538. Charles at length took refuge with the Scots, but he refused to sign the Covenant, and was therefore surrendered to the English Parliament. He was treated with respect, but all attempts at agreement came to naught. Charles would abate nothing of his "divine rights," while his opponents stood firmly for the liberties of the people. At length a court of one hundred and fifty judges was appointed to try Charles Stuart for treason in having levied war against the Parliament. He was condemned, and, notwithstanding the protest of the Scots, was beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, 1649.

539. The Commonwealth.—The English Commons proceeded to abolish monarchy and all titles of nobility, and to proclaim the Commonwealth (A. D. 1649–1660). The Scots crowned Charles the Second as their king, upon his signing the Covenant and declaring himself humbled and grieved in spirit for the sins of his father. Charles afterwards exacted a bitter revenge for the hypocrisy he had been made to practice. Cromwell and his "Ironsides" first subdued the Irish rebellion (§ 536), then gained a

great victory over the Scots at Dunbar and captured Edinburgh and Leith. Charles seized the opportunity to slip into England, hoping that many royalists would join him, but he was disappointed, and so thoroughly defeated at Worcester that he had to take refuge beyond the sea; while Scotland, Ireland, and the American colonies submitted to the Commonwealth. A. D. 1651.

540. Parliament soon provoked a war with the neighboring republic of Holland, England's maritime rival. The English admiral Blake and the Dutch Van Tromp fought many obstinate battles, after one of which Van Tromp tied a broom to his masthead and sailed triumphantly up and down the channel, showing his determination to sweep the English from the seas. The war closed, however, with reverses to the Dutch, who consented to lower their flags whenever they met an English vessel.

541. The Long Parliament had now become an insufferable despotism, but there was no power that could legally dissolve it. Cromwell undertook to do this by military force. Repairing to Westminster with a guard of soldiers, he reproached the members with their tyranny, ambition, and robbery of the people, and ended by crying out: "For shame! Get you gone! Give place to honest men! You are no longer a parliament!" His soldiers cleared the hall and locked the doors. He then summoned a new Parliament, in which, for the first time, the representatives of Scotland and Ireland sat with those of England. This Parliament conferred sovereign power upon Cromwell, with the title of Lord Protector for life. A. D. 1653.

542. England now regained the respect which she had lost under the vacillating rule of the Stuarts. Cromwell demanded justice for the persecuted Vaudois as a condition of his alliance with France against Spain. From the latter he wrested the rich island of Jamaica, and the im-

portant harbor and fortress of Dunkirk. But Cromwell bitterly felt that his power was usurped and despotic. Some of his acts were more arbitrary than those for which Charles was beheaded. He, too, had levied taxes without consent of Parliament, and had imprisoned lawyers who appeared in defense of the victims.

543. Assassins, paid by Charles II., constantly dogged his steps; the reproaches of his conscience, deepened, it is said, by those of his dying daughter, harassed his mind. A slow fever consumed him, and he died, on the anniversary of his great victories of Dunbar and Worcester, September 3, 1658. His son Richard, though acknowledged as Protector, found himself unequal to the office, and resigned his place. No one was great enough, though several men were quite willing, to be intrusted with the government, and the dread of anarchy led the nation to welcome Charles II. as their king.

544. The Restoration.—Charles II. (A. D. 1660–1685) entered London amid the clang of bells, the blaze of bonfires, and the shouts of a rejoicing people. He began his reign with amnesty to all political offenders, except a few who had been actively concerned in his father's death. The church was restored to the authority it had enjoyed under James I., and 2,000 dissenting ministers were expelled from their parishes. Greater severities were inflicted upon the Scots, who chose to meet for worship in lonely recesses of mountain and moor, rather than be false to their covenant. These congregations were often ridden down by the king's troopers, and men, women, and children were put to the sword.

545. In 1664, a new war broke out with the Dutch, who lost their American province between the Hudson and Delaware rivers. It was conferred on the king's brother, James, duke of York, and the northern part has ever since borne his title. During this war two great

calamities visited London—the Plague, in 1665, which destroyed 100,000 lives, and the great fire, in 1666, which consumed 13,000 dwellings and 90 churches.

546. Charles, by this time, had disgusted his best friends by the shameful licentiousness of his court. He dismissed his faithful chancellor, Lord Clarendon, who reprov'd his vices, and allowed his government to fall into the hands of unscrupulous politicians. He married a Portuguese princess, Catharine of Braganza; but he treated her with rude neglect, and even allowed her to be insulted by his courtiers. He sold Dunkirk to the French to raise money for his idle pleasures, and actually accepted a pension from Louis XIV., to betray the religion and the independence of England. He was, however, compelled by Parliament to join in the Triple Alliance (§ 622) to restrain the aggressions of his too-powerful cousin.

547. The duke of York, about this time, declared himself a Romanist, and the king was, secretly, of the same mind, so far as he had any religion at all. The people, recalling the dangers of a hundred years before (§§ 505–508), were ready to believe the false stories of one Titus Oates, who told of a “popish plot” to A. D. 1678, kill the king and all Protestants, burn London, and crown the duke of York. The excitement became so great, and such rewards were offered for further evidence, that every day brought forth a swarm of new stories, each more atrocious than the last. But, when the aged and estimable Lord Stafford was actually beheaded for supposed complicity in the “plot,” remorse and grief took the place of credulity, and Oates was at last punished as he deserved.

548. The “Rye-House Plot,” A. D. 1683, was a real scheme to kill the king and his brother on their way to the Newmarket races. Its authors were common ruffians, who were easily detected and punished. Six nobles and gentlemen were at the same time planning some change in the

government, though their designs did not probably include either treason or murder. One was the duke of Monmouth, a son of the king and a low-born woman; another was Algernon Sidney, a noble-minded republican by theory, who had opposed the absolute power of Cromwell as well as that of Charles. Monmouth ran away, but was afterwards pardoned and received at court; Sidney and Lord Russell were tried, condemned, and beheaded on unproven charges of having had part in the Rye-House Plot.

549. The names of "Whig" and "Tory" now first appeared in England, the former applied to the party which stood for the rights of the people; the latter, to that which accepted the Stuart notion of the absolute authority of kings. To the Whigs we owe the full establishment of the *Habeas Corpus* Act, entitling every prisoner to a speedy trial, and thus preventing arbitrary imprisonments. This guarantee of personal freedom is found in every nation which has derived its ideas of law and justice from England.

550. The reign of Charles II. was a great era in science. Newton⁶ discovered the law of gravitation; Boyle⁶ investigated the properties of the atmosphere; Hobbes and Locke discoursed of the human mind, its laws and relations to matter. Meanwhile, Milton,⁷ in blindness and poverty, was composing the greatest epic poem in the language—*Paradise Lost*. He had been secretary to Cromwell, and devoted his splendid talents to the service of the Commonwealth. He was treated with contemptuous neglect by the courtiers of Charles, but later ages know better how to appreciate him. John Bunyan, tinker and preacher, during his twelve years' imprisonment in Bedford jail, wrote the "*Pilgrim's Progress*," which has probably had more readers than any other English book.

551. Charles left no son entitled to succeed him, and his brother James (A. D. 1685-1688) accordingly became

king upon his death. Taking advantage of the popular fear of popery, the duke of Monmouth made a rash attempt to seize his uncle's crown. With his little army he met the king's forces at Sedgemoor, where he was defeated, made a prisoner, and condemned to the scaffold. A brutal revenge for this insurrection was taken by Kirke with his dragoons, and afterwards by Jeffreys, the drunken chief justice, who condemned innocent and guilty alike.

552. The king soon took steps for the restoration of popery, and thrust into the Tower seven venerable bishops, who had ventured to remonstrate. The people had been patiently waiting for the king to die, that his daughter, who had married the Prince of Orange—great grandson of the liberator of the Netherlands (§§ 514-521)—might come to the throne. The birth of an English prince, in 1688, disappointed this hope and hastened the Revolution.

553. William of Orange was the leader of Protestant Europe against Louis XIV., as Elizabeth had been against Philip of Spain. The best men in England now joined in inviting him to come and deliver them from misrule. In November, 1688, he appeared with a fleet on the English coast, and both parties declared for him. The queen and her baby-son escaped to France, where the king soon joined them. Louis received them with kindness, maintained a court for them and their needy followers, and supplied fleets and armies to enforce their claims in Ireland.

554. Parliament conferred the crown upon William and Mary as joint sovereigns, and they set their seal to a new Bill of Rights, which established just relations between the people and the throne. The Scotch Parliament also acknowledged William and Mary, but in Ireland an immense majority held out for James, and there the deposed king landed with a French force, and besieged Londonderry. The citizens bravely endured a three months' siege, though hundreds died in the streets

A. D. 1689.

from hunger and disease, and at length James had to withdraw. The last decisive battle was on the River Boyne, where both kings were present in person, and William was completely victorious. The last of James' adherents, in the highlands of Scotland, were destroyed in the Massacre of Glencoe—a wicked and needless act, for it occurred after their submission.

555. Queen Mary II. died in 1694, and William III. reigned eight years as sole monarch of the three kingdoms. England was drawn into his wars on the continent, which, for the first time, burdened her with a national debt. By the peace of Ryswick, 1697, the king of France recognized William as a rightful sovereign, and promised to give no more aid to the exiled Stuarts. He violated this engagement, however, and, on the death of James II., proclaimed his son as "King James III. of England, Scotland, and Ireland." The English nation felt itself insulted, and, in voting supplies for the war of the Spanish Succession (§ 628), Parliament begged the king never to make peace until Louis had atoned for this act. While preparing for the war, William suddenly died, March, 1702.

556. Anne, second daughter of James II., was crowned at Westminster, April 23, and joined the emperor and the Dutch republic in a grand alliance against France and Spain, of which her great general, the duke of Marlborough, was the moving spirit. The details of the war will be found in the chapter on France. In 1707, England and Scotland became one kingdom, under the name of Great Britain. Ireland kept her separate parliament until 1800, when the three kingdoms were united.

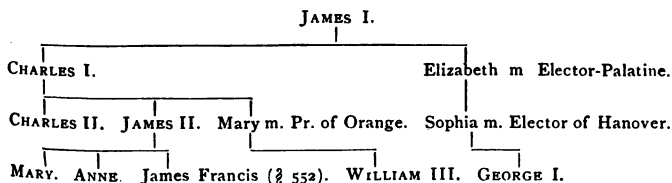
557. Queen Anne's heart was, doubtless, better than her head, and she was easily controlled by those who were about her. The duchess of Marlborough ruled her for years with the tyranny which a strong mind sometimes exercises over a weak one, scolding the poor queen un-

mercifully for some little domestic arrangement, which the humblest woman might be allowed to make in her own house, but which the haughty duchess chose to manage herself. At last she was dismissed from court, and her place in the queen's favor was taken by a Mrs. Masham. The duke was too justly accused of prolonging the war in order to make himself rich with army contracts. He was removed from command, and soon afterward the treaty of Utrecht restored peace to Europe.

558. Queen Anne left no children, and, by a special act of Parliament, the House of Stuart was succeeded by that of Hanover. Perhaps it would have consoled the Electress Elizabeth (§ 530) in her poverty and exile, if she could have foreseen that her grandson would sit upon the throne of Great Britain. The prevalence of French taste may be clearly marked in the writers of Queen Anne's time, who are distinguished for neatness and polish of style, rather than for great thoughts or energetic feeling. Pope translated Homer's *Iliad*, and wrote his own moral *Essays* and *Epistles*, in the same stiff measure and artificial rhymes. Addison and Steele, two charming prose-writers, produced the *Tatler* and afterwards the *Spectator*—forerunners of our literary weeklies and monthlies.

Read Green's Short History, Chs. VIII and IX.

HOUSES OF STUART AND HANOVER.



Notice that the mother, as well as the wife, of William III. was an English princess, and that he was himself the third in the line of succession to the crown.

NOTES.

1. In the course of two centuries, the English language had undergone so many changes that Wicliffe's Bible (§ 391) could no longer be read except by scholars. The foundation for all the modern versions was laid by William Tyndale, an exile for his belief in the reformed doctrines, who, in 1526, published at Antwerp his translation of the New Testament. Tyndale was afterwards imprisoned for heresy, and, in 1536, was strangled and burnt at the stake. His books were burnt by order of the government, but his work formed the basis of Coverdale's translation of the whole Bible, which appeared in 1535, with the sanction of Henry VIII. This was followed by the "Great Bible" of 1539-1541, also sanctioned by the king; and by the "Bishops' Bible" of 1568-1572, in the reign of Elizabeth. Fifty-four scholars and divines were employed upon King James's translation, and these were divided into six "Companies," four for the Old Testament and two for the New. Their work occupied two years and nine months.

In June, 1870, a Revision of King James's Version was commenced by two English Companies appointed by the Convocation of Canterbury, who afterwards invited two Committees in America to co-operate with them. The Revised New Testament was presented to the public in May, 1881.

2. The "Spanish Marriage" scheme was met in England with the strongest remonstrance from Parliament and all the king's best councillors. It was promoted, however, by the Duke of Buckingham, "a handsome young adventurer," whom James had "raised rapidly through every rank of the peerage, and intrusted with the direction of English policy. . . . But the selfishness and recklessness of Buckingham were equal to his beauty, and the haughty young favorite was destined to drag down in his fatal career the throne of the Stuarts."

James flattered himself that if his son should marry a Spanish princess, his own influence with the Spanish court would secure some protection to his daughter's interests in Germany, and he preferred this crooked policy to a direct use of his own power, in which the Commons would most heartily have sustained him. But Frederic, driven from Bohemia, found a Spanish army encamped in the heart of his hereditary dominions, and was subsequently forced to take refuge in Holland. Prince Charles, who was then in Spain, urging his own suit, demanded Spanish interference in his sister's behalf; but was answered that there was an unalterable maxim of state that the King of Spain must never fight against the Emperor. "If you hold to that," replied the Prince, "there is an end of all;" and he not unwillingly returned to England.

3. When only three years old, Hampden was left fatherless and heir to one of the largest estates in England. Educated at Oxford, he afterwards studied law in London, and entered the House of Commons in 1621.

To the first illegal demand of Charles I. for a loan, "Hampden replied that he 'could be content to lend, but feared to draw upon himself the curse in Magna Charta (§ 383), which should be read every year against those who infringe it.' He was punished by so hard an imprisonment that he never afterwards did look like the same man he was before."

The levying of ship-money dated from Alfred the Great (§ 329 and notes), who had required each maritime town to provide and maintain a ship for the defense of the coast. But this was done only with the advice and consent of his "wise men." Hampden's firm and reasonable resistance encouraged all true patriots; and even the Earl of Clarendon (§ 546) remarks in his "History of the Civil Wars," that Hampden "grew the argument of all tongues, every man inquiring who and what he was, that durst, at his own charge, support the liberty and prosperity of the kingdom."

Hampden was mortally wounded on Chalgrove Field, 1643.

4. Oliver Cromwell was born in Huntingdonshire, 1599, was educated in Cambridge, and studied law in London. He was a cousin of Hampden. Although over forty years of age when he entered the army, "he never lost a battle, and his victories were always decisive."

With the consent of Fairfax, the commander-in-chief, Cromwell introduced a "New Model" of discipline into the Parliamentary armies. His first aim was to collect a body of honest, self-respecting, and God-fearing men, and never, probably, was such another army seen. Wherever they moved, every man's house and field were respected, and provisions were honestly paid for, while the wild marauders who followed Prince Rupert, and many of whom had learned their trade among the hideous ravages of the Thirty Years' War, hurt the King's cause more by their disgraceful misconduct than they helped it by their bravery.

The events of Cromwell's life are briefly noted in the text. His character should be studied in Carlyle's "Letters and Speeches of Cromwell," in "Macaulay's Review of Hallam's Constitutional History of England," and in "Forster's Statesmen of the Commonwealth of England."

5. **Sir Isaac Newton** was a farmer's son, born in Lincolnshire, 1642. In his boyhood he proved his ingenuity by constructing a wind-mill, a water-clock, and other pieces of mechanism. While a student at Cambridge, he discovered the binomial theorem in Algebra, and soon afterwards the differential calculus. In his retirement to the country during the Great Plague (1665), the fall of an apple from a tree led him into a train of reasoning which ended in a demonstration of the law that holds the planets in their orbits. It was "the germ of his greatest work, the 'Principia,' which La Place regarded as 'pre-eminent above all other productions of the human intellect.'" Among his other discoveries was his theory explaining that which Sir John Herschel calls "the chief of all optical facts—the production of colors in the ordinary refraction of light by a prism." Read the accounts of Newton in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," or in "Lippincott's Biographical Dictionary," also "Sir David Brewster's Memoirs of Sir Isaac Newton."

6. **Robert Boyle**, a younger son of the "great Earl of Cork," was born at Lismore, in Ireland, 1626. This was the year of Lord Bacon's death, and, as if destined to succeed him, Boyle is "accounted the most zealous and successful" of Bacon's disciples. After a liberal education, followed by travels in Italy, Boyle returned to England, and became one of the founders of the Royal Society of Science. The most noted of the practical results of his studies and experiments was the perfecting of the air-pump. He is entitled to admiration as well by the noble liberality of his character as by his splendid contributions to science.

7. **John Milton** was born in London, 1608. After seven years at the University of Cambridge, he spent five years in rural quietness, studying music and the classical writers, and composing the most beautiful of his poems; "Comus," "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," and "Lycidas." He afterwards traveled in Italy, visited Galileo in his prison, and enjoyed the society of many great men. "When I was preparing," he says, "to pass over into Sicily and Greece, the melancholy intelligence which I received of the civil commotions in England made me alter my purpose; for I thought it base to be traveling for amusement abroad while my fellow-citizens were fighting for liberty at home."

Taking up his residence in London, Milton soon afterwards married Mary Powell, a lady of royalist family. Being accustomed to much gay society, Mrs. Milton found her husband's house so dull that she soon returned to her early home, and, as her father had begun to repent "having matched his eldest daughter to a person so contrary in opinion," Milton's letters and attempts at reconciliation were treated with contempt. Finding, however, that he was about to cast her off irretrievably for disobedience and desertion, the now repentant wife begged to be taken back. The reconciliation was perfect, and Mrs. Milton's kindred had reason to rejoice in it, for they soon needed a refuge under the protection of the now powerful republican.

As "literary champion of the Commonwealth," Milton was called upon to answer the arguments of its opponents. His "Defense of the English People" cost him his sight. He was warned of the danger, but says, "I did not balance whether my duty should be preferred to my eyes." Thus it was in total darkness that he composed his greatest poem, "Paradise Lost," and another epic, second only to it, the "Paradise Regained." He died in 1674. Prof. Masson's great work on the "Life and Times of Milton" is the highest authority on the subject.

CHAPTER VII.

THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA AND THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.



An Arquebusier.

UPON the abdication of Charles V., the Hapsburgs were separated into a Spanish and a German branch—his brother Ferdinand becoming duke of Austria and emperor, while Philip reigned over Spain, Italy, and the Netherlands. Still the two branches usually acted in concert, and together continued to be the leading power in Europe.

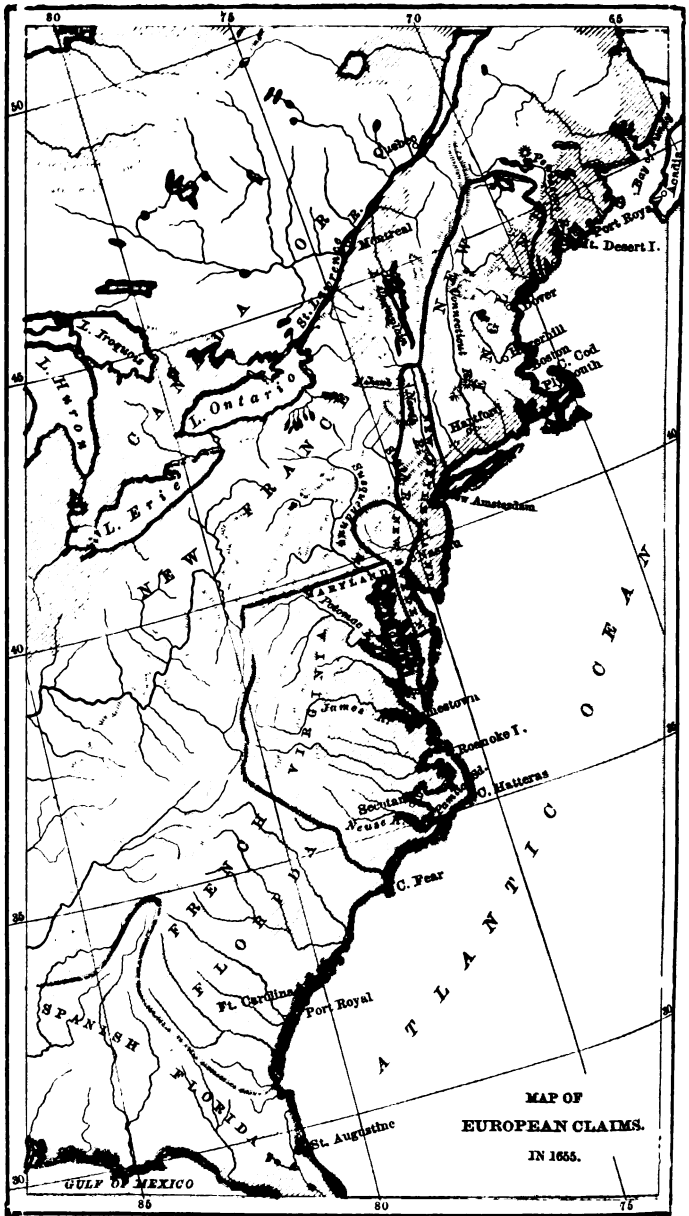
560. The main interest of Ferdinand's reign (A. D. 1558–1564), and that of his son, centers about the wars with the Turks, who now exacted a yearly tribute from the emperor, and were fighting for the control of the Mediterranean. In 1565, Solyman (§§ 460–467) besieged Malta¹ with an immense fleet and army; but the Knights of St. John defended it so bravely that he abandoned the enterprise and sailed away to Constantinople in a rage. Five years later, the whole island of Cyprus, for eighty years a possession of Venice, was conquered by the Turks, and all Europe was alarmed.

MAP No. XII.

CHIEF ENGLISH WRITERS

OF THE COMMONWEALTH, THE RESTORATION, AND
QUEEN ANNE'S REIGN.

- Thomas Fuller, A. D. 1608-1661: "Worthies of England,"
etc.
- Jeremy Taylor, 1613-1667: "The Liberty of Propheying,"
etc.
- Abraham Cowley, 1618-1667: Poems.
- John Milton, 1608-1674: "Paradise Lost," etc.
- Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, 1608-1674: "History
of the Rebellion," etc.
- Samuel Butler, 1612-1680: "Hudibras."
- Sir Thomas Browne, 1605-1682: "Religio Medici," etc.
- Edmund Waller, 1605-1687: Poems.
- Ralph Cudworth, 1617-1688: "True Intellectual System
of the Universe," etc.
- John Bunyan, 1628-1688: "The Pilgrim's Progress."
- Richard Baxter, 1615-1691: "The Saints' Rest," etc.
- John Dryden, 1631-1700: "Absalom and Achitophel," etc.
- John Locke, 1632-1704: "Essay concerning Human Un-
derstanding."
- Gilbert Burnet, 1643-1715: "History of the Reformation,"
etc.
- Joseph Addison, 1672-1719: "Cato," "The Spectator," etc.
- Sir Isaac Newton, 1642-1727: "Mathematical Principles,"
"Optics," etc.
- Sir Richard Steele, 1671-1729: Comedies, "The Tatler," etc.
- Daniel DeFoe, 1661-1731: "Robinson Crusoe," etc.
- Alexander Pope, 1688-1744: "Essay on Criticism," "The
Dunciad," etc.
- Jonathan Swift, 1667-1745: "Gulliver's Travels," etc.



561. A fleet of 300 Spanish and Venetian vessels were soon assembled under the command of John of Austria, a half-brother of the king of Spain, and met the Turkish armament in the Gulf of Lepanto² (see Map 4).

The ensuing combat was perhaps the most important naval battle of modern times; for it was the point where the Ottoman Empire, having reached its greatest power, began steadily to decline. The Turks lost 224 ships, and 30,000 men. The great Solyman had died in 1566, and his son Se'lim, who reigned till 1574, was weak and self-indulgent.

Oct., 1571.

562. Ferdinand's son and successor, Maximil'ian II. (A. D. 1564-1576), was one of the best monarchs of the age. He gave religious liberty to his own dominions of Hungary and Bohemia, and steadily opposed the Jesuits, though his wife, a sister of Philip II. of Spain, was willingly ruled by them. His son, Ru'dolph II. (A. D. 1576-1612), on the contrary, expelled all Lutherans from his hereditary states. The laws of the empire did not permit persecution in Germany, but the bigotry of Rudolph prepared the way for the most terrible war of religion on record. He was a weak-minded and superstitious man; but his belief in the magical influences of the stars was of some use, for it led him to endow an observatory at Prague, where the great astronomers, Kepler³ and Tycho Brahe,⁴ pursued their studies of the heavens.

563. Europe was again alarmed by the progress of the Turks under Moham'med III., a monster who had secured his possession of the throne by murdering his nineteen brothers. In a three days' battle at Keresztes, fifty thousand Christians were slain; but the war resulted unfavorably to the Turks, and the treaty which ended it dispensed with any further tribute from the emperors, who were now named by their proper titles instead of being called "Kings of Vienna" as before.

A. D. 1596.

564. The long weak reign of Rudolph ended in 1612, and his brother Matthi'as became emperor; but the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia were soon resigned to Ferdinand of Styria, their cousin. The Bohemians revolted against Ferdinand, threw his council out of the window of the castle at Prague, and ultimately chose Frederic, the elector-palatine, a son-in-law of James I. of England, to be their king. This was the first act in the Thirty Years' War, in which almost every nation in Europe was engaged, though Germany was the chief sufferer.

565. The old enmity between the reigning houses of France and Austria led the former to take an important, though at first a secret, part in the war. Richelieu's shrewd management strengthened the Protestant cause, and aided the king of Sweden, who soon appeared as its champion. Wallenstein,⁵ the imperial general, was the most singular character of his time. He believed that a great destiny was written for him in the stars; and his soldiers followed him with the blindest obedience and confidence, as if all the forces of heaven and earth were on his side. The magic of his name drew about him 50,000 volunteers, whom he maintained, without expense to the emperor, by turning them loose upon the unhappy people, whose homes and fields they ravaged.

566. King Frederic was not only driven from Bohemia by Ferdinand's troops, but lost his dominion on the Rhine, and ended his life in exile and poverty. Ferdinand, on the death of his cousin Matthias in 1619, received the imperial crown. The first years of the war favored the imperialists. Wallenstein and his freebooters swept over the Protestant states, leaving a broad track of misery and desolation behind them. The king of Denmark, who came to the aid of the Protestants, was driven back even to his islands in the Baltic—his dominions on the mainland being occupied by the emperor's forces. With the aid of the king of

Sweden, he was able, however, to relieve the fortress of Stralsund, before whose walls Wallenstein lost nearly half his army. Soon afterward the Diet insisted upon the dismissal of Wallenstein for his brutal tyrannies and extortions, and Count Tilly was appointed as his successor.

567. In 1630, Gustavus Adolphus,⁶ king of Sweden, invaded Germany. His army, unlike that of Wallenstein, respected all the rights of the people, paying honestly for whatever food it required. One by one all the fortresses of Pomerania and Mecklenburg were either taken, or willingly surrendered to the Swedish king. The electors of Saxony and Brandenburg, descendants of the great leaders of the Reformation, were neither able to fill their place at the head of Protestant Germany, nor willing that any other should fill it. Angry because the people looked to Gustavus as their great deliverer, they refused him their aid, and even resisted his progress, so that he was compelled to leave the ancient city of Magdeburg to the vengeance of Count Tilly and his brutal Croats and Walloons.

A. D. 1631.

Thirty thousand citizens were massacred, and the entire city, excepting the cathedral, was consumed by fire.

568. Tilly then ravaged and plundered Saxony; and the smoke of two hundred burning villages at length made the Elector willing to join his forces to those of the king of Sweden. The great victory of Leipsig was the result, in which the imperial army was wholly dispersed or destroyed. All Germany lay open to Gustavus; he might, apparently, have marched to Vienna, captured the emperor, and received for himself the crown of the Cæsars. The Austrian courtiers no longer laughed at the "Snow-King," who, at his head-quarters in Mentz, on the Rhine, was surrounded by a brilliant array of ambassadors and princes. Ferdinand was reluctantly compelled to recall Wallenstein, who, with haughty insolence, accepted command only on the condition that the entire military power of the empire

should be placed in his hands, and that neither the emperor nor any of his family should come near the army.

569. The last victory of Gustavus was at Lutzen, where Wallenstein and his troops were defeated, but the great king was slain. The Spanish and Austrian governments ordered public rejoicings for his death, as a victory to their cause; but the rest of the world mourned the loss of the noblest character of the time. The Protestant states of Germany chose the Swedish chancellor Ox'enskiöld⁷ to succeed his master as the protector of their interests, while Duke Bernhard of Weimar became their military chief.

570. It was soon evident that Wallenstein meant to make himself king of Bohemia. Instead of bringing him to a just and open trial for this treason, the emperor ordered a secret assassination, and the foul deed was performed by some of Wallenstein's own officers. King Ferdinand of Bohemia, the emperor's eldest son, assumed chief command of the army, and, in the summer of 1634, inflicted a ruinous defeat upon the Swedes at Nördlingen. The elector of Saxony, and most of the other princes, soon made peace with Ferdinand; and the imperial armies invaded France, though with little success.

571. In 1637 the emperor died, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III., a more liberal and peace-loving prince. Yet the war went on, and its last years were more hideously brutal than even its beginning. The Swedes had lost the perfect discipline of Gustavus Adolphus, while the German soldiers lived wholly by plundering the wretched people. Hunger was the great weapon constantly employed, each army destroying all the food it could not eat, for the purpose of starving its opponents; and, of course, women, children, and helpless men suffered more than the soldiers. In Bohemia alone more than a thousand castles and villages were burned.

572. At last all parties were sufficiently worn out to unite in an earnest effort for peace. Two congresses were opened at Münster and Osnabruck, one for the Catholic and one for the Protestant powers; and, after five years' labor of ambassadors from nearly all nations of Europe, the treaty of Westphalia was signed. Spain recognized the United Netherlands after eighty years' struggle as an independent republic. The son of Frederic V. was restored to his electorate (§566). Religious freedom was guaranteed to all the German states. Many imperial powers were now bestowed upon the Diet, which was hereafter to meet, at stated intervals, at Frankfort, instead of attending the emperor whenever and wherever he chose to call it. Oct., 1648.

573. The Holy Roman Empire ceased to exist, except in name; and 300 sovereign and separate states, each with its distinct coinage, constitution, and laws, existed between the Alps and the Baltic. One could hardly travel a day, even in the slow coaches of that period, without paying duties at several custom-houses, which marked the boundaries of as many governments. The peace of Westphalia was an important turning point in the history of Europe—ending 130 years of religious strife, and marking the decline of the Spanish and Austrian Hapsburgs. A few years later saw an immense increase in the power of France.

Find the sites of all the sieges and battles mentioned in this chapter. Where is Westphalia? Saxony? Brandenburg? Mecklenburg? Pomerania? Bohemia? Point out the separate dominions of the two branches of the Hapsburgs.

Read Schiller's "Thirty Years' War;" Dyer's History of Modern Europe; and, for illustration of the times, Schiller's three-fold drama of Wallenstein, translated by Coleridge. Also, and especially, S. R. Gardiner's "The Thirty Years' War," a brief sketch, which brings into strong relief the chief events and results.

NOTES.

1. Upon the capture of Rhodes (1480), the Knights of St. John received from Charles V. a gift of the island of Malta for their permanent residence, and their industry soon converted its rocky cliffs into both a garden and a fortress. Their grand-master at this time was La Valette, a veteran in his 68th year, who, in his youth, "had witnessed the memorable siege of Rhodes, and had passed successively through every post in the Order, from the humblest to the highest, which he now occupied." Learning Solyman's designs, he "summoned the knights absent in foreign lands, imported provisions from Sicily and Spain, drilled the native militia, and worked with his own hands upon the repair of the fortifications." Then summoning his brethren to the chapel of the convent, he reminded them that they were the "forlorn hope of Christendom," the "chosen soldiers of the cross;" and the whole number, having partaken together of the sacrament, solemnly renewed their vows. On the morning of May 18, 1565, the Turkish fleet appeared—180 ships, besides transports and 80,000 men. The castle of St. Elmo was first invested, and, after a month's siege, sustained with incredible heroism, was reduced to a heap of ruins, in which nearly all its defenders were buried. The attacks upon Il Borgo and its protecting castles of St. Michael and St. Angelo were, if possible, more determined; but the resistance was also more successful. "Mustapha ran his mines under the Christian defenses, until the ground was perforated like a honey-comb, and the garrison seemed to be treading on the crust of a volcano. La Valette countermined in his turn. The Christians, breaking into the galleries of the Turks, engaged them boldly underground; and sometimes the mine, exploding, buried both Turk and Christian under a heap of ruins. Baffled at every point, with their ranks hourly thinned by disease, the Moslem troops grew sullen and dispirited." At this crisis, the Viceroy of Sicily arrived with a fleet and army to the aid of the brave defenders of the island, and Mustapha, getting his enormous cannon on board his galleys, sailed away for Constantinople. His arrival threw Solyman into a furious rage, and stamping on the letters that announced it, he declared that as he had no officer whom he could trust, he would himself lead an expedition to Malta the next year and kill every man on the island. To avoid public notice, he caused the fleet bearing the shattered remnants of his army to come into port in the night—a striking contrast to the sailing of the brilliant armament from the Golden Horn amidst the joyous acclamations of the multitude. In Malta, on the other hand, the eighth of September, the day of the Turks' departure, is still celebrated as a most glorious anniversary.

Read the full account in "Prescott's Philip II.," Vol. II., pp. 390-505.

2. "What brought most pleasure to the hearts of the conquerors was the liberation of 12,000 Christian captives, who had been chained to the oar on board the Moslem galleys, and who now came forth, with tears of joy streaming down their haggard cheeks, to bless their deliverers."—*Prescott, Philip II.*, Vol. III., p. 356.

3. Kepler's greatest discovery was of three Laws which determine the motions of the planets. Sir John Herschel pronounced them "the most important and beautiful system of geometrical relations which have ever been discovered by a mere inductive process." In his devout joy at the grandeur of the truth that had dawned upon him, Kepler exclaimed, "O God, I think Thy thoughts after Thee!" And when it was said to him that few would ever be able to understand his abstruse reasonings, he replied, "It matters not; I can well afford to wait a hundred years for a reader, since God has waited six thousand years for an observer."

4. Tycho Brahe was of a noble Swedish family. An eclipse of the sun, which occurred in August, 1560, four months before he completed his 15th year, gave direction to his whole life. For, while supposed to be reading law at Leipsic, he employed the whole time while his tutor was asleep, in a study of the stars and planets. Subsequently, Frederic II. of Denmark, gave him an island near Copenhagen, and

built for him there the magnificent observatory called Oranienborg, or City of the Heavens. After twenty years spent in important discoveries, Tycho lost his royal patron, and soon afterwards the pensions by which he had been enabled to maintain his establishment. He accepted the patronage of the Emperor Rudolph, and settled, in A. D. 1600, at Prague, where Kepler became his assistant. Tycho Brahe discovered the true theory of comets, catalogued 777 stars, and made some great improvements in the theories concerning the moon.

5. This extraordinary man was born Baron von Wallenstein, but became, by imperial appointment, Duke of Mecklenburg, Friedland, and Sagau, and Prince of the Holy Roman Empire. Though his parents were Protestants, he was educated in the Jesuit college at Olmütz and afterwards studied at Bologna and Padua. His belief in astrology—i. e., in the power of the stars over human destiny—he held in common with most of the men of his time. He had powerful enemies at court, and it is possible that his treasonable designs were exaggerated. But it is certain that, after the battle of Lelpsic, Wallenstein sent a messenger to Gustavus, offering, if the king would entrust him with 15,000 men, to conquer Bohemia and Moravia, surprise Vienna, and drive the emperor into Italy. The king did not trust a man who could so openly avow himself a traitor, and declined the offer.

6. Gustavus Adolphus was a son of Charles IX. of Sweden, and grandson of Gustavus Vasa, the founder of the dynasty (§585). Becoming king before he was 17 years of age, he found himself engaged in war with Denmark. Before this was ended, a conflict with Russia had begun, and this was followed by a 9 years' war with the powerful kingdom of Poland. Gustavus secured at last an honorable peace, together with accessions of territory south and east of the Baltic; but the greatest advantage of all was the self-discipline gained through experience which fitted him for his great part in the Thirty Years' War.

Schiller says: "The glorious battle of Leipsic effected a great change in the conduct of Gustavus Adolphus, as well as in the opinion which both friends and foes entertained of him. . . . In all his subsequent operations, more boldness and decision are observable, greater determination, even amidst the most unfavorable circumstances, a more lofty tone toward his adversaries, a more dignified bearing towards his allies, and even in his clemency something of the forbearance of a conqueror."

Gustavus hated flattery. Shortly before the battle of Lutzen, when the country people were crowding about him, eager to look upon one whom they considered as their guardian angel and avenger, and, if possible, to touch the sheath of his sword or the hem of his garment, he exclaimed, "Is it not as if this people would make a God of me? I fear heaven will punish us for this presumption, and soon reveal to this deluded multitude my weakness and mortality!"

On the morning of the battle of Lutzen, the whole Swedish army, kneeling, joined in the devotions of their king, and then broke forth in singing Luther's hymn, "*Ein feste Burg ist unser Gott*," which has been called the "Battle-song of the Reformation." It was the first time that Gustavus and Wallenstein—the two greatest generals in Europe—were to meet in battle on equal terms, and every soldier felt how much was at stake. Three imperial brigades were put to flight by the impetuous onset of the Swedes, but were rallied and led back by Wallenstein. A colonel of Swedish cavalry having fallen, the king took his command, and charging far in advance of his men, received a mortal wound. His cousin, the Duke of Lauenburg, was close behind him, and received him in his arms. "Brother," said the king, "I have enough; look only to your own life." His men fought all the more bravely in the grief of their loss; and, after nine hours' desperate combat, the troops of Wallenstein were withdrawn.

7. To Oxenstiern, the lifelong counselor of Gustavus Adolphus, and guardian of his daughter (§586), we owe the only attempt at Swedish colonization in America (§588). Though its connection with Sweden was short, the settlement remained under Dutch and English control, and descendants of Oxenstiern's colonists may still be found in Philadelphia and the adjacent country.

CHAPTER VIII.

EUROPEAN COLONIES.



THE bold explorers of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were followed by a more patient and plodding set of men, who founded permanent settlements in the newly discovered lands.

The Hindu peninsula was already the seat of a great empire (§ 377), and of a swarming population far more skillful and industrious than their European visitors. Here, then, was no room for colonization; the Portuguese, and, after them, the Dutch, French, and English, had to content themselves with a few trading factories guarded by forts.

575. Jesuit missionaries opened the way for Portuguese traders into China and Japan. Macao was given them by the Chinese emperor, and continued in their possession until it became a free port, in 1846. The Japanese seem to have been less favorably impressed by their first acquaintance with Europeans, for, in 1637, the government ordered a general massacre of native Christians and the expulsion of all foreigners, while natives were forbidden to leave the country. For more than two centuries Japan shut herself up from all the world; but in our day she has suddenly opened her doors and welcomed not only trade, but the most familiar intercourse with the western nations.

576. The great rich domain of Brazil,¹ in South America, was divided, by the king of Portugal, into extensive fiefs, called *captaincies*. By their subjection to Spain (§ 525), the Portuguese lost their whole eastern dominion, and, for a time, that of Brazil; but the latter was regained and at length became an independent empire, ruled by a branch of the royal family of Portugal.

577. Spain treated her colonists in the New World in the most selfish and despotic manner. They were forbidden to make their own clothes, furniture, tools, or even some necessary articles of food; for all these things must be bought of the mother-country. They were not permitted to build ships, nor to trade with the colonies of other nations. Once a year a merchant fleet from Spain brought whatever they were supposed to need, in exchange for American products; and the colonists must pay whatever their masters chose to ask, or lose all opportunity to dispose of their merchandise. Their governors were natives of Spain, who had no interest in the colonies except to enrich themselves as soon as possible. Under such bondage, it is needless to say that the Spanish colonies did not flourish; and, though they have now

secured their independence, the people are still lacking in enterprise.

578. Doubtless, this stupid tyranny was fortunate for the European Protestants of the sixteenth century; for a wise and liberal system of government would have drawn enormous wealth from these vast and rich domains, and Charles V. and Philip II. might, indeed, have been lords of the world (§§ 444, 525). But, then, if Spain had been either wise or liberal, she would not have chosen to crush the Reformation, to ruin the Netherlands, or to deprive herself of the industry of the Moors and Jews (§ 434).

579. The false theory that only gold and silver constituted wealth led to a comparative neglect of the fertile soil of the colonies, and to stringent edicts against exporting the precious metals from Spain; while the decay of industry left the Spaniards very little to buy at home; and so their gold would have been nearly useless if the edicts had not been disobeyed. It must be confessed that the Dutch and English shared the same erroneous ideas. Their colonies were supposed to exist only for the benefit of the parent state, and were narrowly watched lest they should grow too prosperous.

580. Though the whole western continent, with the exception of Brazil, had been given to Spain by Pope Alexander VI., France and England made good their claim to a large share of North America. The beautiful meadows of Acadia, now Nova Scotia, were settled by French peasants about 1604; Quebec was founded in 1608, and Montreal in 1640. The French policy was to treat the Indians like friends and brothers, and so secure their aid. They slept in the wigwams of the savages, ate of their loathsome food, and fought their battles with the terrible firearms which were sure to give victory over those who encountered them for the first time.

581. In this way, with an Algonquin war-party, Samuel

Champlain,² in 1609, explored the beautiful lake which now bears his name, and encountered the Iroquois of central New York. At another time he penetrated the Canadian wilderness to the headwaters of the Ottawa and to Lake Huron, gaining a host of savage allies. La Salle³ explored the Mississippi River from its source to the Gulf of Mexico; and caused a loud-voiced herald to proclaim that the "most high, mighty, invincible, and victorious prince, Louis the Great, king of France and Navarre," was lord of all the country from which the great river drew its waters. His attempt to colonize "Louisiana"—so the whole vast region was called in honor of Louis XIV.—resulted in a sad failure. A. D. 1682.

582. The first settlement within the present limits of the United States was made by French Protestants, in 1564, under the patronage of Coligny (§ 480). It was exterminated by Spaniards from St. Augustine; but the recollection of the attempt led many exiled Huguenots to seek homes in the Carolinas, when, in 1685, the revocation of the Edict of Nantes deprived them of safety at home.

583. Early in the seventeenth century, Henry Hudson,⁴ in the service of the Dutch Republic, while looking for a north-west passage to India, discovered the river which now bears his name. The Dutch West India Company undertook to colonize the "New Netherlands," including, under that name, the whole tract between Chesapeake Bay and Connecticut River, which Hudson had explored. A fort and a few huts were built on Manhattan Island, for purposes of trade with the Indians, and hence grew, in time, the greatest city of the western hemisphere. A settlement of Swedes on the Delaware was conquered and absorbed into New Netherlands; but soon afterwards the whole Dutch territory was ceded to the English (§ 545), who divided it into the colonies of New York and New Jersey. A. D. 1614.

584. The English colonies in America were founded, mainly, by private enterprise, and owed nothing to the home government except the land which they occupied. They covered only a strip of Atlantic coast from the St. John's River to the Penobscot; but, though far less extensive than the French settlements, they were, at the close of the seventeenth century, more populous and flourishing. Each of the thirteen colonies had its House of Assembly chosen by the people, like the "Commons" at home; while the royal power was represented by a governor appointed by the king.

The oldest colony was Virginia, so named in honor of Queen Elizabeth, though it was not permanently founded until the reign of her successor. Its capital city, as well as the river by which it stood, bore the name of James I. Among the earliest adventurers in Virginia were many young cavaliers, who had ruined their fortunes by a self-indulgent life, and hoped to find gold and jewels enough in the New World to make them rich again. These hopes were, of course, doomed to disappointment, and the colony was nearly destroyed by famine and the hostility of the natives; but, as soon as industry and good sense took the place of idle speculation, Jamestown began to flourish.

The New England colonies were founded in no expectation of sudden wealth. The first pilgrims willingly accepted lives of toil, hardship, and peril for the sake of "freedom to worship God" in a manner which their consciences approved. It must be confessed that they sometimes denied to others the religious freedom which they had taken such pains to require for themselves. But religious liberty grew by all these trials. The colony of Rhode Island was founded by an exile from Massachusetts. Rhode Island has the honor of the first distinct enactment that no man should be disturbed, or in any way called in question, on account of his religion; and Maryland was not long in following the good example. In his colony

on the Delaware, the Quaker, William Penn,⁵ put in practice the just and peaceable principles of his sect. He dealt with the Indians as if they had been Christians like himself; and so well did the savages appreciate his confidence that no Quaker settlement ever suffered from their attacks.

SYNOPSIS OF EUROPEAN SETTLEMENTS

BEFORE A. D. 1700.

Portuguese:—Madeira, 1421; the Azores, 1432; Malabar Coast, 1498; Cochin, 1503; Goa, 1510; Ormuz, 1515; Macao, 1517; Bombay, 1530; Gold Coast (Africa), 1610; Brazil, 1501-1530; Capital at Bahia, 1549.

Spanish:—Canaries, 1405; Hayti, 1495; New Grenada, 1510; Cuba, 1511; Venezuela, 1520; Mexico, 1521; Nicaragua, 1522; Peru, 1532; Quito, Guayaquil, and Buenos Ayres, 1535; Santiago de Chili, 1540; Philippine Islands, 1566; Porto Bello, 1584.

French:—Nova Scotia, 1604; Quebec, 1608; Montreal, 1640; Guiana, 1604; Senegal, 1637; Pondicherry, 1674.

Dutch:—Guiana, 1580; Spice Islands, 1607; Java, 1612; Gold Coast, 1611; New Amsterdam, 1614; Curaçao, 1634; Mauritius, 1644; Cape of Good Hope, 1650.

British:—Surat, 1612; Madras, 1639; Bombay, 1662; Guiana, 1630; Gold Coast, 1661; Virginia, 1607; Massachusetts, 1620, New Hampshire, 1623; Connecticut, 1635; Rhode Island, 1636; North Carolina, 1653; South Carolina, 1670; Pennsylvania, 1683.

Read Robertson's "America;" Parkman's "Pioneers of France in the New World;" and Bancroft's "History of the United States," Vols. I, II, and III.

NOTES.

1. **Brasil** was the seat of the first agricultural colonies in the New World. The sugar cane was early brought from Madeira, and was found well suited to the soil. Great plantations and manufactories were established, and quantities of sugar were exported to Europe. King John III., of Portugal, made the first attempt to give Brazil a regularly organized government, by granting domains called captaincies, each extending 50 leagues along the coast, and as far inland as the means and courage of the proprietor allowed him to penetrate. The first captaincy was in the present province of San Paulo; and here, about 1552, the first college was founded. It exists to this day, as a great law school.

The magnificent harbor of Rio Janeiro was first explored by Martin de Sousa, in 1531, but his settlement was upon the island of St. Vincent; and the site of the present capital was first occupied by the French under Villegagnon, in 1538. Villegagnon gained the favor of Coligny (§ 480 and note) by intimating that his colony would serve as a refuge for the persecuted Huguenots; and thus secured a large number of industrious and valuable settlers. But as soon as he thought himself safe beyond the sea, he began to oppress and ill-treat his colouists, so that many of them felt obliged to return, and 10,000 more, who were waiting in France to embark, changed their minds. Finding that his treachery had defeated itself, Villegagnon sailed for France, and the Portuguese Governor General attacked and dispersed the settlement, replacing it by a Portuguese colony.

The first Governor General of Brazil, Thome de Sousa, had founded, in 1549, the city of Bahia for a common capital of all the settlements which now dotted the coast from the Amazon to the La Plata. Many orphan boys and girls were sent out by the Portuguese government—the boys to be educated by the Jesuits, who were teaching the elements of religion and morality to both colonists and savages.

While Brazil was nominally subject to Spain, the Dutch, who were at war with that power, made many efforts to establish themselves on the coast. They captured Bahia, and, though it was soon lost, Count Maurice of Nassau maintained Dutch supremacy in Brazil for fourteen years, and aspired to be the founder of a great western empire.

But in 1640, a revolution in Portugal placed the Braganzas, the present ruling family, on the throne, and, in a few years, the Brazilian provinces were reduced to obedience.

2. **Samuel de Champlain**, first Governor of Canada, was born at Brouage, in France, 1577. He gained the favor of Henry IV. by his gallant service in the French navy in the war against Spain, and, in 1603, visited the St. Lawrence under the king's patronage. Five years later, he laid the foundations of Quebec, and the next summer joined the Algonquins in one of their expeditions to the interior. His first meeting with the Iroquois was at the present site of Crown Point, in the State of New York. They had never seen fire-arms, and were confident of victory. Champlain placed himself at the center of the Algonquin line, his two French comrades at either end, and at their first aim three Iroquois chiefs fell dead. Dismayed by this novel mode of warfare, the Iroquois fled, thinking themselves pursued by bolts from Heaven. Champlain became Governor of Canada in 1620. The English captured Quebec in 1628, but restored it a year or two later on the conclusion of peace, and there Champlain died in 1635.

3. The exciting story of La Salle's adventures must be read in Parkman's History of the "Discovery of the Great West." La Salle was the discoverer of the Ohio and the Illinois Rivers; he built and launched above Niagara Falls the "first vessel that ever plowed the waters of Lake Erie," and explored the lakes as far as Green Bay; built Fort Crèvecoeur below Peoria, and thus claimed Illinois for the French by right of first settlement; explored the Mississippi, and finally was murdered in Texas by some of his own men, after twenty years of incredible hardships.

4. In 1607, Hudson, in the service of London merchants, had cruised along the eastern coast of Greenland farther than any mariner had gone before, and finding his northward progress at length blocked by ice, had crossed the polar sea to Spitzbergen, and vainly tried to reach

the Pacific through the frozen passage between that island and Nova Zembla. The next year, in the service, now, of the Dutch East India Company, he renewed this search for a north-east passage to China; but, being again thwarted by the ice, he turned westward, and, after a stormy voyage of nearly three months, reached the banks of Newfoundland. Continuing his voyage to the southward, he touched the coast of what is now Maine, cruised in sight of Cape Cod, and explored Delaware Bay, before, retracing part of his course, he entered the beautiful harbor of New York. He landed a boat's crew at Coney Island, Sept. 4, 1609. Afterwards he ascended what he called the "great north river," to beyond where Albany now stands, hoping to find that it afforded an entrance to the Pacific. His next voyage was his last. In 1610 he discovered and explored the great northern bay which bears his name, and spent the following winter there, in great suffering for want of provisions. In the spring of 1611, his crew mutinied, and turned Hudson and his son adrift in an open boat on that stormy sea, while they returned with the ship to Europe.

5. William Penn was the eldest son of Admiral Penn, an able and distinguished officer in the British navy. While studying at Oxford, he became interested in the new sect of Friends or "Quakers" and his adherence to their principles as to dress, manners, and worship brought upon him the stern displeasure of his father, who had destined his son to the gay court life to which his wealth and station entitled him. Twice the younger Penn was expelled from his father's house, and twice at least he was imprisoned for his dissent from the established worship. The admiral, however, became fully reconciled with his son, whose course he even approved in his dying words: "Let nothing in this world ever tempt you to wrong your conscience."

Coming into possession of his father's large fortune, William Penn took an active part in the liberal politics of his time, warmly furthering the election of Algernon Sidney to parliament (§ 548). Disappointed for the time in his hopes of England, he resumed his youthful project of establishing a better society among the American forests. He had been called to act as umpire in the settlement of a dispute concerning Western New Jersey, and used his power afterwards as trustee for that colony, in securing a very liberal constitution, and promoting the emigration of "Friends" to the eastern banks of the Delaware. In 1680, he procured from Charles II. a large tract west of that river, with full sovereign rights, in payment of a large debt which the English government owed his father. He intended to call it *Sylvania*, as a land of forests; the king insisted on naming it *Pennsylvania* in spite of Penn's remonstrances, who "feared lest it should be looked on as vanity." Here the "Quaker Prince" desired to establish a "free colony for the good and oppressed of all nations," using his sovereign power only for the full trial of his "holy experiment," whether perfect justice and good will, without severe restrictions, would constitute a secure foundation for a state. The name which he gave his new capital was a pledge of the "brotherly love" that he hoped to see prevailing.

Swedes, Finns, and Dutch were already numerous along the Delaware (see Ch. VII., note 7). *Germantown*, now a part of Philadelphia, was founded by a company of "Friends" from Kirchhelm, near Worms. In November, 1682, Penn made a treaty with the chiefs of the neighboring Indians, promising them the same just and equal friendship which he designed for his white tenants.

The Duke of York, who, in 1685, became King James II. of England, had been a comrade and warm friend of Admiral Penn, and faithfully kept his promise to the dying Admiral by continuing his friendship and protection to his son. In 1682, the duke bestowed upon Penn the "three lower counties" on Delaware Bay, which now constitute the state of Delaware.

Penn became poor in the prosecution of his great "experiment." He was defrauded by his agents, and preferred to go to prison rather than attempt to satisfy their unjust claims. A moderate loan, which he asked of the colonial legislature, was refused him, and he died, 1718, having spent a long life in the service of others, with some reason to doubt whether his attempt to promote justice and brotherly love were altogether a success.

CHAPTER IX.

THE NORTHERN KINGDOMS.



Frederic the Great.

DENMARK, Sweden, and Norway were in 1397 united under one queen, Margaret Waldemar. Her successor was less fortunate; he lost all three kingdoms, and ended his days as a pirate. Christian of Oldenburg reunited Margaret's dominions, and his family continued to rule Denmark more than 400 years; but the barbarous tyranny of his grandson occasioned a revolt in Sweden, and the rise of a new royal race, with Gustavus Vasa as its founder. This young nobleman had suffered grievous wrongs from the "Nero of the North" — his father hav-

ing been beheaded for no crime, and himself imprisoned. He escaped, and, putting on the coarse garments of an ox-driver, hid himself among the peasantry until he could raise an army of volunteers, with which he defeated the Danes, captured Upsala, and restored the independence of Sweden. The Diet then declared him king, and made the crown hereditary in his family.

586. His grandson was the great hero of the Thirty Years' War (§§ 564-569). The early death of Gustavus Adolphus, upon the field of Lutzen, left the crown to his little daughter, Christina,¹ then only six years old. As she grew up, Christina displayed wonderful talents and accomplishments, but no steadiness of purpose. She was

soon tired of governing; and, bestowing her kingdom upon her cousin, Charles X., spent the rest of her life in aimless wanderings.

587. The vast but ill-governed realm of Poland held discordant elements enough to keep not only itself but all its neighbors in a perpetual stir. The kings were elected, and had little power compared with the nobles. These were entitled to levy armies and make war whenever any proceeding of king or diet failed to please them; and, naturally, war went on almost all the time. The powerful neighbors of Poland—Sweden, Denmark, Brandenburg, Russia, and Austria—found many occasions to interfere in her affairs at the invitation of one or another party; and at length, as we shall see, the last three named divided her whole territory among them.

588. Russia, after a hundred years' fighting, was made free from her Mongol oppressors (§ 376), about A. D. 1481, by I'van III. Still she was only an inland grand duchy, less powerful than Poland or Bohemia—very different from that mighty empire which now occupies nearly half of Europe and all northern Asia, while her victorious armies have almost reached the borders of India. The Black Sea was still surrounded by the dominion of Turkey, the Baltic and its gulfs by that of Sweden; and it was a hundred years later that an entrance for English traders into Russia was effected through the Arctic Ocean, by the new port of Archangel.

589. Under Ivan the Terrible, the first "Czar of Muscovy" (A. D. 1538–1584), Kazan and Astrachan were taken from the Tartars; and the vast frozen plains of Siberia, extending eastward to the Pacific, were added to the Russian dominion. Ivan's son, Fe'odor, was last of the line of Ruric (§ 327), and his death was followed by years of civil war. In A. D. 1613, Michael Ro'manoff, ancestor of the present Czar, came to the throne.

590. His grandson, Feodor II., having no children, and passing over his incompetent brother Ivan, bequeathed his crown to his half-brother Peter, a bright but obstinate boy of ten years. Though Ivan was too feeble to protest, his sister Sophia interfered in his behalf, and managed to have the two crowned as joint sovereigns, with herself as regent. Even in boyhood Peter perceived the needs of his empire, and resolved to redeem it from barbarism, and give it a high rank among the European states. He studied diligently, and practiced himself in all that he wished his people to know. He drilled in the ranks of a new company of soldiers, with which he meant to replace the Strelitz, or imperial guard, which had become too powerful; and he attended so closely to all the details of his little navy, that he became "the best carpenter, the best pilot, and the best admiral in the North."

591. Still further to educate himself, he resolved to visit the western nations. Traveling as a servant in one of his own embassies, he arrived in Holland, and engaged as a ship-builder in one of the dock-yards of Amsterdam. Here he toiled, in rough clothes, among the other workmen, obeyed orders, and received his weekly wages like the rest. In England he took less pains to disguise his imperial rank, and was treated with friendly attention by William III. (§555).
A. D. 1697.

592. On his homeward journey he heard of a new revolt planned by his sister, and hastened to put it down with cruel severity. Sophia was immured in a convent, the Strelitzes were disbanded, and Peter's new regiments took their place. Then came a struggle for reform, in which the Czar had need for all his obstinacy, to overcome the superstitions and fixed notions of his people. The long robes and bushy beards of the men were cut short by imperial decree; for, in small things as in great, Peter meant that his own will should control all the millions who called

him lord. In essential matters, he met less resistance; colleges, foundries, factories, and frigates were soon created, and one great war-vessel was built by the Czar himself. Having thus taken measures to civilize his empire, Peter thought the time had come to give it an outlet to the Baltic.

593. Charles XII. was now king of Sweden²—an ambitious youth, whose favorite hero and model was Alexander the Great (§§ 160–164). His accession, in 1697, when only fifteen years old, tempted three powerful neighbors to increase their dominions at his expense. The Czar besieged Narva with 80,000 men while Charles was engaged in a war with Denmark. A. D. 1700. But this war ended sooner than Peter had expected, and Charles, with only 8,000 men, came to the relief of his beleaguered town. The Russian troops were mostly barbarians, clothed in skins of wild beasts, and armed with arrows and clubs. The Czar's magnificent train of artillery was useless, for want of gunners. He suffered a ruinous defeat, his entire army being killed or captured.

594. Peter had that rare wisdom which can learn of an enemy, and draw strength even from disaster: "The Swedes will defeat us for a time," said he, "but in the end they will teach us how to conquer them." Charles turned aside to conquer Augustus of Saxony, who was king of Poland, but whom he succeeded in dethroning. Peter seized the land he wanted near the Gulf of Finland, transported thither 300,000 peasants from all parts of his empire, and, among the marshes formed by the Neva, laid the foundations of his splendid new capital, St. Petersburg.

595. Having disposed of Poland, Charles invaded Russia with a great army. Here cold, hunger, and the fatigues of marching through forests and bogs made sad havoc with his troops; and at Pultawa he met his first defeat (A. D. 1709). Both sovereigns were present. Charles was

carried on a litter, being disabled by a wound; but when the battle was lost, he mounted a horse and made his retreat into Turkey. He soon persuaded the Sultan to join in war against the Czar, whose ambition he had reason to fear. Peter, marching to meet the immense Turkish force, was disappointed by his allies, and found himself in almost as dangerous a case as was Charles at Pultawa, surrounded by superior numbers, cut off from supplies, and unable to advance or retreat. He was saved by the adroitness of his wife, the Empress Catherine, who, presenting all her jewels to the Grand Vizier, managed to secure a peace favorable to the Czar.

596. Charles remained more than five years in Turkey, a troublesome and unwelcome guest, while his kingdom, surrounded by many enemies, was going to ruin for want of its head. At last he was forced to depart, and made the whole journey on horseback in sixteen days. Arriving A. D. 1714. at Stralsund, he ordered war to be prosecuted more fiercely than ever. But his good fortune was now exhausted; he lost all his territories east and south of the Baltic, and met his death while besieging a town in Norway.

597. Peter's untiring perseverance wrought immense benefits to his country, and justified his new title, Emperor of all the Russias; while all subsequent times have agreed with his own in styling him Peter the Great. Before his death he bestowed the crown upon his wife,³ who reigned two years alone as the Empress Catherine I., (A. D. 1725 - 1727). This remarkable woman had been a Swedish peasant, and was one of the many prisoners taken by the Russians at the capture of Marienburg. She became a servant in the house of Prince Menschikoff—himself once a baker-boy—where the Czar saw her, and soon recognized a quickness and firmness of mind equal to his own. She aided him in all his plans, while her even temper was able to soothe the violent fits of anger to which he too often gave way.

598. Prussia was conquered by the Teutonic Knights (§361) about A. D. 1231-1243. They redeemed it from a wilderness of marshes and thickets, and gradually civilized its pagan and half savage inhabitants. After a long series of wars with Poland, a large part of its territories were absorbed into that kingdom, while the Grand Master had to do homage for the rest; but, in 1526, Prussia became an independent duchy, and, in 1618, it was annexed to Brandenburg.

599. After the Thirty Years' War had passed by, like a desolating storm, the able management of the "Great Elector," Frederic William (A. D. 1640-1688), restored prosperity to the country. He gave lands and homes to 20,000 French refugees from the persecutions of Louis XIV. (§626), and their industry converted the sandy wastes about Berlin into gardens and orchards. Many of the exiles, too, were learned and accomplished people, whose language, literature, and manners brought refinement hitherto unknown into Prussian society.

600. The son of the Great Elector was made King Frederic I. of Prussia by the Emperor Leopold, who wanted his help in the War of the Spanish Succession. Prussia was already a great military power, and it became still greater under Frederic William I., its second king (A. D. 1713-1740). He was a morose and insufferable tyrant—so penurious that his children went away hungry from his table, and so violent of temper that he threw the plates at their heads if they dared to complain. He flogged his son, the crown-prince, when eighteen years old, before the eyes of his future subjects; and when the prince attempted to escape to foreign parts, he was imprisoned as a deserter, and would probably have been shot if the emperor had not interfered.

601. One of the king's whims was to have a brigade of the tallest grenadiers in Europe, and he took the greatest

pains to collect them from all the northern countries. Every man was more than six feet high, and some even approached eight feet. If any king wanted to please Frederic William, he sent him a present of the tallest man he could find. His recruiting agents were always on the watch, and once they made a serious mistake by kidnapping the imperial ambassador! The most humble apologies were made, for the only being on earth that the king stood in awe of was the "Cæsar." For all this, Frederic William was an honest, shrewd, and generally well-meaning man; and he left his kingdom in much better condition than he found it

602. Frederic II., the Great, was the most noted general of his times; and his wars began the long contest between Austria and Prussia, which has lately ended in making the latter supreme in Germany. He came to the throne in May, 1740, and the next autumn the direct male line of the House of Hapsburg ended with the emperor Charles VI. Having no son, Charles had tried to secure his hereditary dominions to his daughter, and the imperial crown to her husband, Francis of Lorraine. The daughters of his elder brother had a better right; but, during his lifetime, Charles obtained their consent, and that of most of the European sovereigns, to his "Pragmatic Sanction," which arranged the succession as he wished it.

603. No sooner was Charles dead than most of the powers forgot their promises. Frederic II. marched into Silesia, and soon made himself master of it; while the electors gave the imperial crown to Charles Albert of Bavaria, nephew of the late emperor. Maria Theresa was in a perilous position. Great Britain was her only ally, while Prussia, Poland, Sardinia, and the three Bourbon courts of France, Spain, and Naples were against her, beside many of the German states. Her cousin was instated as archduke of Austria and king of Bohemia.

604. Taking refuge in Hungary, Maria Theresa presented herself, with her infant son in her arms, before the assembly of nobles, and asked their aid in regaining her rights. Though they had many causes of complaint against her house, the brave princes were moved by the sight of their young sovereign in her beauty and distress. The great hall rang with their shout, "Let us die for our *king*, Maria Theresa!" One hundred thousand men were soon under arms: not only were Austria and Bohemia reconquered, but Munich, the capital of Bavaria, was taken, and the emperor Charles VII. was expelled from his own hereditary dominions.

605. In 1745 he died, and Francis of Lorraine then received the crown of Charlemagne. The "War of the Austrian Succession" was ended three years later by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. Though formally at peace, the empress-queen cherished a bitter resentment against Frederic of Prussia, who had seized the moment of her distress to rob her of her province of Silesia; and she deeply laid her plans to combine all continental Europe against him. Russia, Sweden, Saxony, and France—the latter ultimately joined by the other Bourbon kingdoms (§ 603)—took sides with Austria.

606. Frederic struck the first blow by a sudden invasion of Saxony. The Austrians, coming to its relief, were defeated at Lowositz, and the entire Saxon army then surrendered to him, most of its common soldiers enlisting in his service. Pushing into Bohemia, Frederic gained a great victory over Prince Charles of Lorraine, the emperor's brother. Still his affairs were so desperate—his whole dominion overrun by enemies eager for its destruction—that he at one time almost decided to give up the single-handed contest, and end his days by poison. He took braver counsel, rallied his few remaining forces, and by his brilliant victories of Rossbach and Leuthen, A. D.

1757, astonished the world. Mr. Pitt (§644), becoming premier in Great Britain, sent a liberal supply of the sinews of war; a wild horde of Russians, Cossacks and Calmuck Tartars, was defeated at Zorndorf.

607. Yet greater dangers and disasters were in store for Frederic. Three Austrian armies surrounded him in Silesia, while an overwhelming force of Russians occupied Berlin, destroyed its arsenals and foundries, and plundered its citizens. His genius and resolution did not fail. He defeated the Austrian generals one by one; and Russia was soon changed from an enemy to a devoted friend. The Empress Elizabeth, youngest daughter of Peter the Great, died in 1762, and was succeeded by her nephew, Peter III. The young Czar had a romantic admiration for Frederic, and immediately stopped the operations of his armies in Prussia. The "Seven Years' War" was ended early in 1763, having cost nearly a million human lives, without making any change in the boundaries of the warring nations. Prussia kept Silesia, the original cause of dispute, and took her place among the great powers of Europe.

608. Peter III. had reigned scarcely six months, when his wife caused him to be deposed and assassinated, and herself assumed the crown as Catherine II.⁴ Though so wicked a woman, the Czarina had extraordinary talents for governing. She perfected many reforms which Peter the Great had only begun; made herself the leader of the northern nations; dismembered Poland;⁵ conquered the Tartars of the Crimea—the last of the Mongol hordes which had once enslaved Russia (§376); and established her power on the Black Sea.

609. Maria Theresa, the Austrian empress-queen, was still living, but her son, Joseph II., had succeeded his father as emperor of the West. Catherine's ambitious movements alarmed both him and Frederic the Great, lest Poland and Turkey were to be swallowed up by Russia. Austrian and

Prussian armies were marched into Poland, and the Czarina, unable to seize the whole prize herself, signed a treaty by which a third part of the Polish territory was divided among the three powers. Maria Theresa resisted the unjust scheme as long as she could, and at last signed the treaty with the following protest: "*Placet*,"* because so many great and learned men will A. D. 1772. it; but when I am dead, the consequences will appear of this violation of all that has hitherto been held just and sacred."

610. After her death, two successive "partitions" completed the work of spoliation, and Poland, as a kingdom, ceased to exist. The Poles made heroic efforts to preserve their independence; their general, Kosciusko,⁶ after fighting many battles, was captured and immured in a Russian dungeon; the last king was compelled to abdicate, and the central part of the kingdom, with the capital, became a mere province of Russia. Catherine the Great died one year after the completion of this crime, of which the main guilt rests upon her.

* *Literally*, "It pleases me"—the form in which emperors and kings usually gave their consent to laws and treaties.

Point out the dominions of Margaret Waldemar. Of Gustavus Adolphus. Of Peter the Great at his accession. Of the present Czar. The old and the new capital of Russia. The Polish capital. That of Sweden. Of Prussia. The dominions of Maria Theresa. The province conquered from her by Frederic the Great. Pultawa, Stralsund.

Read Voltaire's "Peter the Great" and "Charles the Twelfth," Carlyle's "Frederic the Great," and Dyer's "Modern Europe."

NOTES.

1. The education of Christina was directed by Chancellor Oxenstiern and four other learned men, according to the substantial and solid plan marked out by her father. "She learned Latin, Greek, Hebrew, history, politics, and other sciences," but no feminine accomplishments; her only amusements being horsemanship and the chase. When a mere baby she had clapped her hands in delight at the thunder of artillery; and her subjects saw in her the worthy daughter of a heroic father. She drew to her court the most distinguished scientific and literary men, whose conversation interested her more than the duties of her kingdom. She lived 35 years after her abdication, chiefly at Rome, where she founded an academy and made rich collections of medals and objects of art. She died in 1689, at the age of 63.

2. Charles XII. was grandson of Charles X., the cousin and successor of Christina (§ 588). In his boyhood, his firmness amounted to obstinacy, but he could always be influenced by an appeal to his honor. When threatened at once, at his accession, by Russia, Poland, and Denmark, he surprised his senate by his energy, and re-assured it by the spirited declaration: "I have resolved never to wage an unjust war, nor ever to close a just one except by the destruction of my enemies." Determined to leave nothing to chance, he inured himself to severe fatigues and privations, and took part in all the exercises of his soldiers. He was aided by the sound advice of Count Piper, who had been his father's councillor of state, and became his own prime minister, accompanying him in all his campaigns. Charles allied himself with England and Holland; and their fleets, combined with his own, covered his descent upon Denmark. The plan was so well laid that, without battle or bloodshed, the King of Denmark was forced to make large concessions for the safety of his capital, and undo the mischief he had already done.

Charles never saw his capital (Stockholm) after 1700, though he reigned till 1718. Having driven Augustus from Poland, he followed him into Saxony, and, fixing his camp at Leipsic, received ambassadors like a conqueror and sovereign prince. Augustus abdicated the throne of Poland in favor of Stanislaus Leczinsky, whom Charles had placed upon it. After his defeat at Pultawa, the character of Charles appears less admirable. His long neglect of his kingdom left it at the mercy of its enemies. Augustus resumed the crown of Poland, and allied himself again with Russia and Denmark, while Stanislaus took refuge in France. All the treaties that Charles had made were broken; and, when envoys from the Swedish senate came to his camp in Turkey, imploring him to return and govern his kingdom, he insultingly replied, "I will send one of my old boots to govern you." In his satire on the "Vanity of Human Wishes," Dr. Johnson has written these lines:

"On what foundation stands the warrior's pride,
How just his hopes, let Swedish Charles decide.
A frame of adamant, a soul of fire,
No dangers fright him and no labors tire. . . .
His fall was destined to a barren strand,
A petty fortress and a dubious hand;
He left the name at which the world grew pale
To point a moral or adorn a tale."

3. Peter's eldest son, Alexis, was a quiet and studious youth, with neither ambition nor taste for war, and averse to the reforms which his father was introducing. He was claimed by the party of "Old Russians," as their leader in opposition to these reforms, and this drew upon him the violent wrath of his father, whose brutality, when roused, was scarcely less than that of Ivan the Terrible. During one of Peter's absences from Russia, Alexis took refuge at Vienna, and afterwards at Naples. It was a crime for any Russian noble to leave the empire without the czar's especial permission, and Peter chose to consider his son's act as amounting to treason and rebellion. Alexis was persuaded to return, but was compelled to renounce his claims to the crown, and was soon afterwards tried on a charge of conspiracy and condemned to death. Early in 1718, he was found dead in his prison, and there is

little doubt that he had been poisoned by his father's order. He was 28 years of age, and left an infant son, who, nine years later, became the Emperor Peter II. The only remaining son of Peter the Great died the following year, and, of all his children, only two daughters survived him. One of them, Elizabeth, became empress in 1741 (§ 607).

It was upon the conclusion of the Peace of Nystadt, in 1721, which ended his 21 years' war with Sweden, that the senate and synod conferred upon their czar the new titles "Peter THE GREAT, Emperor of all the Russias and Father of his Country." He wrote to his ambassador in Paris: "Apprenticeships usually end in seven years, ours has lasted thrice as long; but, thank God, it is at length brought to the desired termination."

4. Catherine II, was of German birth, being a daughter of the Prince of Anhalt-Zerbst. The present division of Russia into "governments," dates from her reign; she also re-organized the army and civil service, "promoted agriculture, commerce, and education, and liberally patronized scientific men."

Her powerful favorite, Potemkin, was the conqueror of the Crimea, and, in 1787, the czarina visited her new provinces, to do him honor and to receive the homage of her Tartar subjects. Embarking at Kiev, she descended the Dnieper with a magnificent flotilla of 22 vessels, accompanied by the exiled king Stanislaus of Poland, and by the Emperor Joseph II. To give the new dominions an air of prosperity, Potemkin had caused temporary villages to be erected along the route, and peopled with inhabitants brought from a distance and dressed in holiday attire. Herds of cattle grazed in the intervening pastures; but as soon as the gay procession had passed, hamlets, people, and herds vanished like a scene in a play.—*Medieval and Modern History*.

During the War of American Independence, Catherine rendered valuable service to our cause by her proclamation of Armed Neutrality, in which she was joined by Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, Austria, Portugal, and the United Netherlands, 1780.

5. The following description of Poland explains the temptation that kingdom offered to ambitious neighbors, and the ease with which their plans were carried out. Two thirds of the nation were serfs, whose ignorance and squalid misery made them scarcely different from brutes. By law, they were debarred from possessing property; if a crop failed, thousands died of starvation. The remaining one third consisted of three orders of nobility—with clergy, lawyers, citizens, and Jews. Of the magnates, or highest nobles, there were not more than 120, of whom four or five were the heads of powerful factions at war with each other. The middle class of nobles numbered 20,000 or 30,000 persons; and the lower nobility, more than a million. These were an idle, ignorant, and often beggarly class of people, too proud to engage in any employment and too poor to exist in comfort without it, and yet the most insignificant of them could nullify the proceedings of a whole diet by his single veto. The citizens chiefly consisted of 40,000 or 50,000 artisans, who, scattered in wretched villages, were almost as completely subject to the oppressions of the nobles as the serfs themselves. Taxation fell only on Jews, artisans, and clergy. The heads of all departments of government were responsible to the diet and not to the king, and the diet was divided into hostile parties. With all these tendencies to chaos added to the right of the nobles to make war against the king (§ 587), it was evident that a downfall was near. More than a hundred years before it took place, John Casimir, the last of the Vasa dynasty, clearly predicted a dismemberment of Poland by Russia, Austria, and the House of Brandenburg.

6. Kosciusko was one of the Polish heroes who aided in our War of Independence, having come to this country in 1777. He enjoyed the friendship of Washington, and fought with distinction in the battles on the Hudson and at Yorktown. After his release from his Russian prison, he re-visited the United States. A monument at West Point commemorates his services. He refused to join in conspiracies against Russia, but wrote an eloquent letter to the Emperor Alexander I., entreating him to grant a free constitution to Poland. He died at Soleure, in Switzerland, 1817.

CHAPTER X.

THE BOURBONS IN FRANCE.



Prince of Condé.

HENRY IV. (A. D. 1589-1610) the first of the royal House of Bourbon, came to the throne in the midst of a civil war. Though the nearest heir to the monarchy, he was only eleventh cousin of the last king; and, as hereditary leader of the Huguenots, he encountered violent opposition from nearly all adherents of the old church. The League (§484) was strong in the support of Philip of Spain, who wanted the French crown for his daughter, and who had at his command the greatest general and the finest soldiery in the world. Nevertheless,

Henry gained a brilliant victory over the forces of the League at Ivry, and his generous and gallant character drew many even of the Catholic nobles to his side.

612. Paris was besieged by the royal forces, but Henry would not let his people starve. Food was carried in, and the city was thus enabled to await the arrival of the Spanish army. In 1593, Henry reconciled himself with

the Roman Church, and soon obtained by management what he had been unwilling to gain by force. Being at length victorious over all his enemies, he proclaimed universal toleration in the Edict of Nantes, and thus ended the religious wars of a third of a century. A. D. 1598.

613. Aided by his great minister, Rosny, duke of Sully, Henry undertook to redeem France from the poverty and misery occasioned by so many years of misrule. Under their careful management, tillage, trade, and fine manufactures soon began to flourish, and the people enjoyed a prosperity such as neither they nor their fathers could remember. A favorite scheme with Henry was the humbling of the House of Austria; and to this end he wished to league all Europe in a great Christian commonwealth,¹ in which each power should have only its due share of importance, and disputes should be settled by reason rather than by arms. As a first contribution toward this balance of power, he resigned the French claims upon Italy, which had been the cause of so many wars (§§404, 408, 445).

614. But on the eve of his departure for the Netherlands, the great king was assassinated by a frantic Jesuit. His queen, Marie de Medici, became regent for her son Louis XIII. (A. D. 1610-1643), who was then only nine years old. Herself an Italian, and ruled by Italian favorites, the queen wholly changed the policy of the government. She made a close alliance with Spain, marrying her son to the Spanish infanta, and her daughter to the crown-prince, afterwards Philip IV. The treasures, which Henry's good management had collected, were squandered upon her worthless favorites, while Sully retired from the council. When he was sixteen years of age, Louis took the government into his own hands, caused Concini, his mother's chief tool, to be put to death, and called some of his father's old councilors about him.

615. The great Cardinal-minister, Richelieu,² was now rising into power. Like Henry IV. and Sully, he aimed to abate the proud ascendancy of the Hapsburgs; and to this end he constantly aided the Protestants of England, Holland, and Germany, though, for political reasons, he made war against those of France. We have seen that the great Huguenot chiefs had made themselves almost independent during the wars of the League (§483). They coined money and executed justice like sovereign princes; indeed, the inefficiency of the last of the Valois had made it quite necessary that some strong hand should repress the robbery and violence that everywhere prevailed. France had almost fallen apart into the great duchies and counties that held its territories in the time of Hugh the Great (§338).

616. Richelieu was far more a Frenchman than a Roman cardinal. He put down the feudal chiefs, but he had no disposition to persecute the Huguenots. He besieged and captured Rochelle, their stronghold, but he confirmed the people in the free exercise of their religion, and renewed the Edict of Nantes. Other Huguenot towns submitted, and all fortresses not needed for the defense of the country against foreign enemies were ordered to be leveled with the ground.

A. D. 1627-1628.

617. Not satisfied with ruling France, Richelieu took a leading part in the affairs of Europe. In the Thirty Years' War, France was an important actor, though secretly at first, through money and counsel supplied in equal measure to the Swedish king; and by the peace of Westphalia she was confirmed in the possession of Lorraine and Alsace, with several fortresses on the upper Rhine. But before this, in 1643, Richelieu and his king had both died, and Louis XIV., at the age of five years, had come to the throne, under the regency of his mother, Anne of Austria, and her chief minister, Cardinal Maz'arin.

618. We come, now, to the greatest era of the French monarchy—a reign of seventy-two years (A. D. 1643–1715), during which France became the leader of the world in art, literature, and social refinement; while her king's ambition seemed almost to threaten his absolute and universal dominion. At its beginning, Condé³ was gaining brilliant victories over the Spanish forces in the Netherlands; but the expenses of war and a luxurious court soon drove the Parisians into a civil strife, called the *Fronde*, which raged for several years.

619. Condé thought his great services were slighted by the regent, and, after being driven from Paris, actually accepted a commission from the king of Spain to lead those armies which he had lately conquered. Mazarin, on the other hand, knew little, and cared less, concerning the laws of the land which he undertook to govern; while he disgusted the people by his greed for gold. He was several times dismissed, but soon recalled to office, while the young king⁴ and his mother, hiding in a suburb of Paris, often went cold and hungry, owing to the impossibility of collecting taxes. The *Fronde* was ended in 1652, and Mazarin was soon reinstated.

620. The war in the Netherlands favored France, and in the treaty of the Pyrenees, which closed it, Spain gave up the proud preëminence which A. D. 1659. she had held ever since the days of Ferdinand and Isabella. It was agreed that the French ambassador should walk before the Spanish at every foreign court where both countries were represented—a precedence which Louis thought so important that he was ready to go to war upon its least infringement.

621. Upon the death of Mazarin, in 1661, the king, who was now 23 years of age, announced to his council—“For the future, I shall be my own prime minister.” He at once undertook the actual business of governing,

and, though fond of pleasure, he thenceforth devoted many hours every day to the routine of affairs. He detected the frauds of the finance-minister, Fouquet, and condemned him to a dungeon for life, while he put the honest Colbert⁶ in the vacant place. Colbert was able to lighten the taxes, and yet keep the king's treasury full, by encouraging all useful industries and, thus, multiplying sources of wealth.

622. Louis had married a Spanish princess, and, upon her father's death, in 1665, he marched into the Netherlands, declaring that the ten provinces, with Luxemburg and Franche Comté, belonged, of right, to her. This bold movement was checked by a triple alliance of England, Holland, and Sweden, which forced Louis to sign the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. His wrath was chiefly excited by the little republic of Holland, which had wrested her own freedom from the iron hand of Spain, and now was able to protect her late oppressor.

623. He first bribed England and Sweden to withdraw from the alliance; then, with his army of 200,000 men, he marched into the States, occupied Guelders, Utrecht, and Overysse, and encamped within sight of Amsterdam. The Dutch stood alone against all the world, but the temper which had been proved in eighty years' war with Spain was not likely to yield to the groundless demands of France. The young Prince of Orange, now at the head of affairs, proposed that in the last extremity they should give back Holland to the sea, and, embarking with wives and children on their immense merchant fleet, seek new homes on the opposite side of the globe.

624. The dykes were cut near Amsterdam; the ocean flowed over the fertile fields, and the fleet was able to surround and defend the capital. Spain and the empire soon sent aid to the States, and the war became general. On the Rhine and in the Mediterranean, the French were still victorious; and when peace was finally made at

Nimeguen, A. D. 1678, the glory of the "Grand Monarch" was at its height. In contempt of his treaty, he went on "reuniting" territories, on the pretense that they had once belonged to the dominion of the Franks! Among the rest, the free imperial city of Strasburg was thus appropriated, and the skill of Vauban, the famous military engineer, soon made it a fortress of surpassing strength.

625. After the death of his Spanish queen, Louis married Madame de Maintenon, a woman of good sense, who wrought a great reformation in the court. Unhappily the king conceived the idea that he could atone for his sins by persecuting his Protestant subjects. The Huguenots, though no longer a political party (§§478, 615), numbered several millions, and were now the most useful and orderly class in France. Colbert had especially encouraged them on account of their skilled industries; but Colbert was now dead. The war-minister, Louvois, by the king's order, quartered troops of dragoons in all the provinces, who abused the defenseless people at their will.

626. This "dragonnade" was followed by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes (§612). The churches of the Huguenots were ordered to be demolished, their ministers exiled, their children deprived of all instruction save that of the parish priest. Those who resisted the decree were shot without mercy. Half a million of the persecuted people found means of escaping. Other countries, in Europe and America, gained what France lost, and most of them still bear marks of the improvements they owe to the exiled Huguenots.

627. Perceiving the French king's blunder, his great enemy, the Prince of Orange, who was now king of England (§553), stirred up a grand alliance against him. It comprised the emperor and the chief German states, with England, Holland, Sweden, Spain, and Savoy. The war, which soon broke out, was conducted with the greatest

brutality by the French on the Rhine. Louis ordered his generals to burn every village which they could not garrison; and 100,000 people were thus made homeless in a few weeks. His own subjects were suffering no less cruelly from starvation, owing to the ruinous wastes of war. At length, ministers from all the European nations met at Ryswick, in Holland, and, in 1697, concluded a treaty of peace.

628. It was soon broken by the "War of the Spanish Succession," which for thirteen years taxed the energies of Europe, and extended all around the globe. Charles II. of Spain died in 1700, leaving no children, but bequeathing all his dominions to Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV. Now it happened that the Emperor Leopold was just as nearly related to the Spanish family as was the King of France (see Table, p. 283). In alliance with England and Holland, he proclaimed his second son, the archduke Charles, king of Spain. The English Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene of Savoy gained splendid victories over the French at Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. England became mistress of Gibraltar, the strongest fortress in the world, and of the island of Minorca, a second key to the Mediterranean.

629. "Louis the Great" was at length completely humbled. His people were starving, while the wealth and lifeblood of his kingdom were poured out on foreign battlefields. Year after year he begged for peace, offering larger and larger concessions, but the allies did not trust him, and the war went on. At length, in 1711, the emperor Joseph died, and his brother Charles was elected to succeed him. The allies had gone to war to prevent Bourbon supremacy in Europe, but they had no mind to see the head of the Hapsburgs ruling Spain, Italy, and the empire, as in the days of Charles V. (§§ 424, 444).

630. Eighty ambassadors of the several powers now met those of France at Utrecht, in Holland (A. D. 1713), and,

after more than a year's deliberation, articles of peace were signed. The next year, a conference at Rastadt settled the points in dispute between France and the empire. Philip V. was recognized as king of Spain and the Indies, but all the Spanish possessions in Italy and the Netherlands were ceded to Charles VI.

631. Louis XIV. died in 1715, a weary old man, bereaved of all his children and most of his grandchildren, and disappointed in that glory which had been the idol of his life. With his last breath he charged his great-grandson and successor to undo the mischiefs he himself had done, and be content with his rightful dominions.

632. The age of Louis XIV. was the most brilliant period in French literature. The tragedies of Corneille and Racine, the comedies of Molière, the "Letters" and "Thoughts" of Pascal, the fables of La Fontaine, the sermons of Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Fénelon, and Massillon, are unsurpassed in their different kinds of excellence. The good Fénelon was tutor to the younger dauphin, and wrote the story of *Telemachus* for the benefit of his pupil.

633. Louis XV.⁶ (A. D. 1715-1774) was only five years old at his accession, and the regency was bestowed on the Duke of Orléans, a nephew of the late king. France was buried in debts, and the regent gladly consented to a scheme of Law, a Scotch banker, to pay the bondholders with paper money, representing shares in the "Mississippi Company." A fever for speculation now began to rage. The less people knew, the more they imagined concerning the wealth of the North American continent: lords, ladies, princes, and prelates crowded to buy shares, and the public debt vanished as by magic. But suddenly it was found that there was no real money to meet these paper promises to pay, and thousands of fancied millionaires awoke to beggary. During the excitement, a company of emigrants founded the city of *New Orleans*, so

A. D. 1720.

named in honor of the regent, and this was the only lasting result of the "Mississippi Scheme."

634. Louis married Maria Leczinska, daughter of an exiled king of Poland, and, in 1733, undertook the "War of the Polish Succession," in a vain attempt to restore him to the throne. Still more important was the War of the Austrian Succession, in which all Europe was engaged, and which extended to the colonies in Asia and America. France gained nothing by it, while her already hopeless debt was increased by \$250,000,000. Even the gay and thoughtless courtiers of Louis XV. felt that they were dancing on the edge of a precipice. The fair promise of the king's youth had been broken by selfish dissipation: the control of his kingdom rested now in the hands of the Marchioness de Pompadour, a bad though tolerably bright woman, who was persuaded by the flatteries of Maria Theresa to plunge that exhausted kingdom into a seven years' war with Prussia. The latter had England for an ally, while the three Bourbon kingdoms of France, Spain, and Naples united in a "Family Compact."

635. The war began in America. France claimed the entire basins of the Mississippi and St. Lawrence, and attempted to guard them by a chain of forts reaching from Quebec to New Orleans. The kings of England, on the other hand, had given charters for lands running westward from the Atlantic to the Pacific; and collisions soon occurred on the head-waters of the Ohio.⁷ In America the contest was known as the French and Indian War, because the savage allies of the French often attacked English settlements, burned their villages, and either dragged away mothers and children through the snow, or murdered all the settlers with their tomahawks. This horrid warfare was successful at first, but, in the end, the forts on the Ohio and St. Lawrence were taken by the English. In 1760, General Wolfe, with a small British force, scaled the

rugged Heights of Abraham, and captured Quebec, the strongest natural fortress on the western continent.

636. The treaty of Paris, 1763, left all boundaries in Europe unchanged, but deprived France of her whole American dominion. The northern part became *British America*, while the Mississippi Valley was ceded to Spain, to pay for her losses by the Family Compact.

637. Louis XV. died in 1774, leaving a starving people and a treasury in hopeless ruin. His grandson, Louis XVI., was a young man of the best intentions, but of no great energy of mind or will. He had married the Austrian archduchess, Marie Antoinette,⁸ who, though beautiful and kind-hearted, was not a favorite with the people. She was known to share the despotic temper of the Hapsburgs, and to urge her husband to arbitrary measures.

638. Great sympathy was felt in France for the Americans in their struggle for independence (§§ 650-652), and the king was reluctantly compelled to declare war against Great Britain. It was a dangerous step, for, great as were the grievances of the Americans, the French, at home, had infinitely more to complain of, and naturally began to think of asserting *their* rights. A. D. 1778.

639. Several finance-ministers⁹ tried, in turn, to diminish the national debt, and relieve the general poverty; but abuses were too deeply rooted in the constitution of the state. The nobles and clergy, who owned two-thirds of all the land in France, paid no taxes; and so the whole burden of the government rested on those who had no voice in making or executing the laws. At length, A. D. 1789, the States-general were called, for the first time in 175 years, and with their meeting, at Versailles, the great French Revolution may be said to have begun.

Read Dyer's *Modern Europe*; Martin's *History of France*; Weiss's *History of the French Refugees*; Bancroft's *History of the United States*.

NOTES.

1. The great Confederation planned by Henry was to consist of fifteen states, in three groups: (1) Six Elective Monarchies: the Empire, the States of the Church, Venice, Hungary, Bohemia, and Poland; (2) Six Hereditary Monarchies: France, Spain, Great Britain, Denmark, Sweden, and Lombardy—the last to be formed of the two duchies of Savoy and Milan; (3) Three Federal Republics: Switzerland, the Netherlands, and a Confederation of Italian states. The Czar of Muscovy—afterwards to become Emperor of Russia (§ 589, 597), was considered as belonging rather to Asia than Europe, but he could be admitted to the Commonwealth if he desired it. His own age and later ones poured great contempt on what they called the visionary schemes of Henry IV.; but it nevertheless contained the essential principle of international law; and the more human reason prevails over brutal impulses, the nearer the world will come to a realization of the spirit of his plan.

Henry IV. was, of all their monarchs, the greatest favorite with the French. His generous confidence and forgetfulness of injuries soon quieted the dissensions in his kingdom; his valor and his gay good humor made him the idol of his armies. At Ivry he prefaced the word of command with this brief address: "Fellow-soldiers, you are Frenchmen; behold the enemy! If you lose sight of your ensigns, follow my plume; you will always find it on the high road to honor!" Macaulay has commemorated the incident in a spirited ballad. It was by the treaty of Vervins in 1598, that Henry made peace with Spain. Philip II., aged, infirm, and straitened in resources (§ 525), restored to France all his conquests excepting the fortress of Cambray.

2. Armand Jean du Plessis, afterwards Cardinal Richelieu, was the ablest and most celebrated of French prime ministers. At the early age of 22 he obtained the bishopric of Luçon, chiefly by his address and ready wit in asking the Pope for it, though it had been for some time in his family. In 1614, he entered the service of Marie de' Medici, and used his influence in making peace between her and her son. In 1622, he became cardinal, and in 1624 a member of the royal council, in which he speedily rose to the head. His policy, clearly conceived and firmly pursued, aroused the bitter opposition of the Queen-mother, but she was exiled in 1630, and from that time till his death, Richelieu ruled France. In 1635 he founded the French Academy of 40 members, the most dignified and illustrious of literary institutions—the supreme authority in all that relates to the French language and literature. Almost the only weakness of the great statesman was his fancying himself a poet. Richelieu died in December, 1642, five months before the king, Louis XIII.

3. For the connection of Condé with the Bourbons see § 478 and note.

4. Louis XIV., called the GREAT, was the eldest son of Louis XIII. and Anne of Austria, daughter of Philip III. of Spain. The hardships which he suffered in his childhood made him only the more determined to use his power absolutely when he should obtain it. The war of the Fronde had for its chief mover the Cardinal de Retz, a restless and ambitious adventurer; but many great nobles and even fine ladies of the court took an active part in it. Most important of the latter was Mademoiselle de Montpensier, the king's own cousin, sometimes called "the Great Mademoiselle," and the richest heiress in France. She gained a battle for the Prince of Condé by directing the cannon of the Bastille with her own hands against the forces of the king. In fulfilment of the Treaty of the Pyrenees, Louis XIV. married his cousin, Maria Theresa, daughter of Philip IV. of Spain.

5. Jean Baptist Colbert was born at Rheims, 1619, in comparatively humble circumstances. His early travels made him acquainted with many parts of France, and he studied especially the state of trade and the means by which it could be improved. Cardinal Mazarin, who had perceived his merits and employed him in the care of his own estates, recommended him to the confidence of Louis XIV.; and, as controller general of finances, he became the "founder of commerce and protector

of all the arts." He either originated or greatly extended the manufactures of glass, silk, and woolens; established a Chamber of Commerce, connected the Mediterranean with the Atlantic by the Canal of Languedoc; chartered companies for trade with the East and West Indies, and planted colonies in Canada. As minister of marine, he established great naval arsenals at Toulon, Brest, Havre, and Dunkirk, and kept the fleets in the highest state of efficiency. Himself a member of the French Academy, he founded two others, of Inscriptions and of Sciences, as well as an Astronomical Observatory. He died in office, 1683.

6. Louis XV. is said to have been remarkable in his childhood for purity and loveliness. But the court of the regent was a scene of scandalous corruption, and the character of the young king was not strong enough to withstand evil influences. In 1723, though only 13 years old, he was declared of age, and, as the Regent d'Orleans died about the same time, the Duke of Bourbon became prime minister. Three years later, he was succeeded by the excellent Cardinal Fleury, who had been Louis's preceptor and possessed his entire confidence. Under his prudent and peaceful management, some degree of order and prosperity returned to France. Still the decline of the monarchy was so manifest, that there was a standing jest at court: "After us, the Deluge." Cardinal Fleury died in 1743, and the king, in imitation of his predecessor, resolved to be his own prime minister (§ 621). But his devotion to business lasted only five years, and, in 1748, abandoning himself to dissipation, he left the interests of his people to the reckless hands of whoever might be the court favorite of the hour.

The disasters of the Seven Years' War, followed by greatly increased taxation, destroyed the king's popularity, and, to crown all, he increased his private fortune by speculating in grain and in government bonds, thus enriching himself by the starvation of his people. In his youth he had been called "Louis the Well Beloved," but his successor now began to be called "Louis the Desired."

7. It was in the beginning of this contest that Washington, then 21 years of age, first distinguished himself by bearing a message from Gov. Dinwiddie, of Virginia, to the French commandant on the Alleghany. The next year he led a party against Fort du Quesne (kane), now Pittsburg; but, being insufficiently supported by the colonies, he had to retire, leaving the whole Ohio basin four years longer to the French.

8. Marie Antoinette, daughter of Maria Theresa (§§ 602-605, 609), and the Emperor Francis I. was only fifteen years of age when her marriage with the dauphin placed her at the head of the brilliant society of Paris. The liveliness and freedom of her manners offended the stately traditions of royal etiquette, and it is even said that her French tutor had inspired her with contempt for the manners of her future subjects, that he might increase his own importance. The arbitrary temper which she had inherited from her mother had not time to be corrected by experience before the storm of the Revolution burst upon her. But whatever were her youthful mistakes, she met adversity with noble firmness, thinking only of her husband and children, and commanding some respect even from her brutal jailors by her firm and queenly dignity. See §§ 680-685.

9. The most popular of these was Jacques Necker, a wealthy Swiss banker, who, in 1777, became director-general of French finances. He first published an annual account of the revenue and expenses of the government, and thus inspired confidence, while by order and economy he was able to diminish the taxes. Though in great favor with the people, he had many enemies at court, and, 1781, he resigned his office and retired to Switzerland. His recall, in 1788, was followed by an immediate rise of 30 per cent in the public funds. In 1789, a note from the king ordered him to leave the kingdom privately, and it was the rage of the mob at his dismissal that led to the storming of the Bastille (§ 680). Louis was forced to recall Necker, who re-entered Paris ten days after his departure, and was received with unbounded enthusiasm. The next year he resigned his office and passed the rest of his life in studious retirement at Coppet, in Switzerland. Mme. de Staël, the brilliant authoress, was his daughter.

CHAPTER XI.

GREAT BRITAIN UNDER THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.



A Grenadier.

GEORGE LEWIS, elector of Hanover,* became king of England, in 1714, by an act of Parliament, which excluded all papists from the throne. He naturally favored the Whigs, to whom he owed his crown;† while the Tories, or Jacobites, as they were now called, inclined to Prince James (§§ 552, 555), whom his sister, Queen Anne, would gladly have named as her successor. The prince invaded Scotland, with a small French force, the next year, but without success; and, after the death of Louis XIV., the Regent (§ 633) made a close alliance with England, Holland, and the Empire, to keep the peace of

Europe. The Stuarts, driven from France, kept up a cheerless show of royalty in their poverty-stricken court at Rome.

* See Table, p. 241. The electorate of Hanover was conferred, in 1692, on the father of George I., a duke of Brunswick-Luneburg, who married a daughter of Frederic, elector-palatine, and the English princess, Elizabeth. The House of Brunswick was one of the oldest and most powerful in Germany, being a branch of the Guef family (§ 363), whose estates, in the twelfth century, extended from the Danube to the Baltic.

641. George I. felt and acted more as a German prince than as a British king, much to the displeasure of his new subjects. His reign was marked by many wild speculations in finance, among them the "South Sea Bubble," which closely resembled the Mississippi scheme in France (§633). When the crash came, bringing poverty to a multitude of paper-millionaires, a strong reëction set in, and Robert Walpole,² a sensible country squire, who had opposed the scheme from the first, was placed at the head of the government, a position which he held twenty-one years.

642. George I. died in Hanover, 1727, and his son, George II., became king. Under Walpole's thrifty administration, the country rapidly advanced in industry and wealth. In the "War of the Austrian Succession" (§§602-605), England was the steadfast friend of Maria Theresa. The king and his son were both present in the battle of Dettingen, 1743, by which the French were driven out of northern Germany.

643. The last attempt of the Stuarts to regain the British throne was led by the "Young Pretender," Charles Edward, son of James Francis, who invaded Scotland in 1745. His brave and gallant bearing attracted many young Scots: Edinburgh was taken by surprise, and a grand ball was given at the palace in honor of King James the Eighth. A substantial victory, at Prestonpans, gave the Pretender the cannon which he needed; the French government, now believing in his certain success, sent arms and money, and he boldly invaded England. But the English, however little they loved their dull German king, dearly loved the prosperity which they had begun to enjoy, and felt no obligation to risk all for the Stuarts. Few joined the prince, while the superior forces of the Hanoverians began to close around him, and he retreated to Scotland. He was finally defeated at Culloden, in 1746, and escaped beyond the seas.

644. Several colonies were founded during this reign. In honor of the king, Gen. Oglethorpe³ gave the name of *Georgia* to his settlement on the Savannah River, which he had planted chiefly to provide homes for orphans, and for refugees for conscience' sake. The efforts of the Ohio Company to settle lands west of the Alleghanies, led to a collision with the French. In an attempt to capture Fort Duquesne, Gen. Braddock and his British regulars were defeated by Indians, and only saved from utter destruction by the cool bravery of Washington. The fort was subsequently abandoned by the French, and the English renamed it *Fort Pitt*, in honor of the firm friend of America, William Pitt. The next year forts Niagara and Ticonderoga, and the yet more important fortress of Quebec, were also taken by the British.

645. These colonial contests were part of the Seven Years' War, to which—or rather to the energetic policy of Mr. Pitt⁴—three great empires may trace their rise. British conquests from the French in Hindustan laid the foundations of the vast Indian Empire; the share taken by the thirteen American colonies in the war led to the independence of the United States; and, by enabling Prussia at a most critical moment to withstand the hostility of all continental Europe, the rise of the present German Empire may have been rendered possible. (§ 606).

646. George III. (A. D. 1760–1820) succeeded his grandfather while the Seven Years' War was in progress. It was closed by the treaty of Paris, 1763, in which France ceded to England all that is now British America, while Spain gave up Florida in exchange for Havana and the Philippine Islands, which had been taken by the English.

647. The early years of this reign were marked by a wonderful increase in the power of newspapers. John Wilkes, in his journal, the *North Briton*, attacked the

policy of the government; and the king's favorite minister, the Earl of Bute, was compelled to resign. Wilkes was imprisoned for his boldness; but this despotic action only brought more clearly to light the need of a free press for the security of a free government; and, thus, an important step in constitutional liberty was gained. The *London Times* was established January 1, 1788.

648. The king, though well-meaning, was obstinate and narrow-minded; and his subjects, both at home and in the colonies, had to look well to their rights. The French and Indian War had added immensely to British possessions, -but it had also added to the public debt; and it was now proposed to tax the three kingdoms and the colonies alike to meet the expense. This was quite right as far as the British people at home were concerned, for the tax was levied by their own representatives; but the colonists had no seats in Parliament; and as Englishmen they claimed their rights, conceded as long ago as the reign of Edward I., in refusing to pay a tax which they had no share in imposing.

649. Pitt, the Great Commoner, declared, in parliament, that the colonists were right; but the king hated Pitt, whose ill-health, moreover, withdrew him, about this time, from public affairs, so that the Americans lost this powerful friend at court. Lord North's ministry repealed all taxes, excepting that of three pence A. D. 1770. a pound upon tea. But it was the principle, not the pence, that the colonists were contending for. Most of the tea-ships were sent back to England with their cargoes untouched; while the Bostonians, in their excitement, discharged several shiploads into their harbor.

650. The American Revolution.—A British army was now sent over, and the war began with a skirmish at Lexington, Massachusetts, April, 1775, in which the "red-coats" were put to flight. In the Battle of Bunker

Hill, on the other hand, the Americans were dislodged from their position; but their valiant resistance had amazed their opponents, and commanded new respect for colonial character. A congress of all the colonies had now met in Philadelphia to take measures for the common defense; and George Washington became general-in-chief of the American forces.

651. The colonists had desired nothing more than their just rights as British subjects, but the king's harshness compelled them to go farther, and, in July, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was signed at Philadelphia. During that summer the British, under Lord Howe, captured New York, which they kept until the end of the war. The next year Philadelphia, too, fell into their hands, though Washington earnestly tried to save it by the battle of the Brandywine. The winter which followed was the hardest period of all to the colonists; and the struggle of the weakest nation in the world against the strongest seemed utterly desperate.

652. Nevertheless, the tide had already turned in favor of American independence. Burgoyne, descending with a fresh army from Canada to join Lord Howe, was defeated near Saratoga and surrendered his whole
October, 1777. army with its cannon and treasures to General Gates. France, Spain, and Holland soon made friendly treaties with the United States, and the fleets of all three nations attacked British ships and settlements in all parts of the globe. The main actions of the following years were in the southern states; and, in October, 1781, the war was virtually ended by the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, with his whole command, at Yorktown, in Virginia. In September, 1783, a treaty of peace was signed at Versailles, by which George III. acknowledged the independence of his late colonies, now the UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

653. England took a leading part in the wars following the French Revolution, but these will be described in another connection (Ch. XIII). It is no wonder that the excitements and responsibilities of that eventful time overcame the mind of the king. After reigning fifty years he became insane, and the regency of the kingdom was committed to his son, who was afterwards King George the Fourth. A. D. 1816.

654. The wars of the French Revolution burdened Great Britain with a debt of four thousand millions of dollars, which pressed, most heavily, upon the working classes. At the same time the use of steam in manufactures threw thousands of worthy people out of employment, while the price of food was raised by the Corn Laws, which prohibited the importation of grain. For many years the government had a difficult task in dealing with the popular discontent under these miseries, which it could not at once remove.

655. George III. died in 1820, and the Prince Regent became king. His only child, the Princess Charlotte, was already dead, and his ill-treated wife, Caroline of Brunswick, did not long survive his accession. George IV. was a selfish and profligate king, spending the money of his starving people on the most frivolous amusements. Fortunately, the government really rested in better hands than his. Some liberal measures were carried by his ministers; notably, that of "Catholic Emancipation," removing disabilities which had existed ever since the time of Charles II. (§544). There was no longer any danger of the Pope's ruling England; and it was seen to be wrong that millions of people in Ireland should be unrepresented in Parliament merely on account of their religious belief.

656. Many Englishmen, of whom Lord Byron was most distinguished, took part in the Greek revolution, which

delivered the land of Pericles and Plato, after four hundred years' degrading servitude to the Turks. The government at last followed their lead, and, in alliance with France and Russia, defeated the Turkish fleet in the Bay of Navarino (§ 722).

657. In 1830, William IV.⁵ succeeded his brother. His seven years' reign is noted as the period of long-needed parliamentary reform. Since the application of steam to machinery, many towns had grown immensely in wealth and population, but had no voice in the government to protect their rights; while some ancient boroughs, once important, had lost all or nearly all their inhabitants, but, as they were entitled to representation, their seats in parliament were filled by the appointment of some great landed proprietor, who thus had far more power than was just. In 1832, fifty-six of these "pocket-boroughs" were abolished, and one hundred and forty-three seats were distributed among the great towns, while the right to vote was extended to every man who owned property or paid rent to a certain small amount.

658. One of the first acts of the reformed Parliament abolished slavery in all the British colonies. Wilberforce and others had succeeded, in 1807, in putting an end to the slave trade. Improvement was also made in the Poor Laws, so that a laborer could seek employment beyond the limits of the parish in which he was born.

659. In 1837, the crown of Great Britain and Ireland passed to Victoria,⁶ daughter of the duke of Kent, while that of Hanover was inherited by her father's younger brother (see Table, p. 369). Many troubles beset the three kingdoms and their dependencies. Canada was in revolt, Jamaica nearly so, a commercial war was on the eve of breaking out with China, and the discontent at home was greater than ever, owing to scanty harvests and the high price of food. Riotous meetings were held near the great

towns, demanding a repeal of the Corn Laws, and some radical changes in the government.

660. The cold, wet summer of 1845 injured the grain crop all over Europe and blighted the potato in Ireland. A terrible famine was the consequence, carrying off thousands of the Irish peasantry and leaving whole parishes uninhabited. In 1846, parliament repealed all duties upon articles of food, and gradually the discontent died away in a better condition of the people.

661. In 1840, the queen married Prince Albert⁷ of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, a truly "blameless prince," who, seeking neither honors nor power for himself, devoted his rare talents to promoting the success and happiness of her reign. Among other enterprises which he aided, was the first "World's Fair," for which a "Crystal Palace" was erected in Hyde Park, London, A. D. 1851.

662. Her alliance with the new French Empire (§§ 738, 739) plunged England into the Crimean War, the object of which was to protect Turkey against the aggressions of the Czar Nicholas.⁸ The Turks had a prophecy that their dominion in Europe was to fall just four hundred years from the time of its establishment (§ 379). When that year of fate arrived, the Czar, who coveted Constantinople, proposed to the British gov-
A. D. 1853.
 ernment to share the spoils by seizing Egypt and Crete. This was refused, and Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, English ambassador at Constantinople—whom the Czar spitefully called the "English Sultan" from his influence over the Turks—was warned to watch the Russian movements.

663. Nicholas soon marched an army to the lower Danube, and seized the provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia. The Sultan declared war, and his general, Omar Pasha, gained several brilliant victories over the invaders, forcing them at length to give up the disputed provinces.

To make it sure that the peace of Europe would not be disturbed again in the same way, the French and English fleets moved up the Black Sea and besieged the fortress of Sevastopol in the Crimean peninsula. For nearly a year its strong defenses resisted all attempts to reduce them, though the Russians were repulsed at Balaklava and signally defeated at Inkermann. The British soldiers suffered more from cold and hunger, owing to inefficient management, than from the necessary hardships of war; but the sick were kindly and skillfully cared for by Florence Nightingale and her noble band of volunteer nurses—ladies who had left the comfort of English homes for a pilgrimage of charity to this Tartar wilderness, and whose only reward was the happiness of relieving pain.

664. The Czar died in March, 1855; and his son, Alexander II., a prince of more moderate views, came to the throne. Lord Palmerston was now at the head of the British ministry, and new energy appeared in the movements of the allies. A fleet, cruising in the Sea of Azof, destroyed immense magazines of grain, which were to have fed the garrison of Sevastopol; while another, penetrating the Baltic, shut up the Russian ships in their harbor of Cronstadt. At last the Redan and the Malakoff, two great forts which guarded the south side of Sevastopol, were taken by storm. The Russians sunk their fleet in the harbor, set fire to the town, and retired to the north forts.

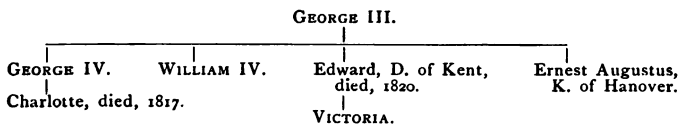
665. The Czar was now ready for peace, and in March, 1856, a treaty was signed at Paris. The Black Sea was thrown open to the commerce of all nations, but no warships, either Turkish or Russian, were permitted to enter it. The provinces on the lower Danube were united in the almost independent sovereignty of Roumania, free to regulate all matters of religion and law for themselves, and to choose their own prince with the formal consent

of the Sultan. Christians in Turkey—who outnumbered the Mohammedans almost six to one—were declared to be under the protection of the great Christian Powers.

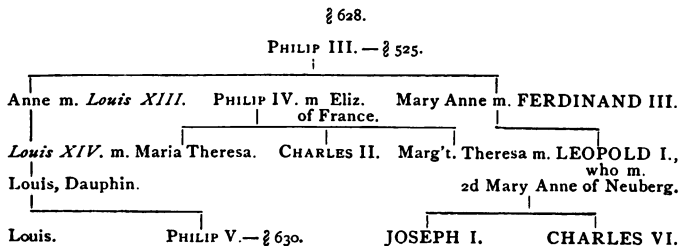
Point out Trafalgar. Navarino. Sevastopol. What seas were traversed by the allied fleets in 1854? Where is Cronstadt? Roumania?

Read Chapter X of Green's "Short History;" Macaulay's History of England and Essays on Clive and Hastings; Bancroft's History of the United States, volumes relating to the French and Indian and Revolutionary wars.

FAMILY OF GEORGE III.



THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.



Names of Emperors are in large capitals, Kings of Spain, in small capitals, and Kings of France, in italics.

NOTES.

1. **Lecky**, in his "History of England in the XVIII. Century," notices the "great multitude of disputed titles" in Europe as having an important effect upon the popular views concerning monarchy. "The throne of England was disputed between the House of Hanover and the House of Stuart. The Spanish throne was disputed between Philip V. and the emperor. In Italy, . . . the successions of Tuscany and Parma were disputed by the emperor and Spanish Queen. In Poland, the rival claims of Stanislaus, who was supported by Charles XII., and of Augustus (§ 594), who was supported by Peter the Great, were, during many years, contested by arms. In France, the title of the young king was, indeed, undisputed, but his fragile constitution made men look forward to his speedy death, and parties were already forming in support of the rival claims of the regent and the king of Spain. Among the causes which were lowering the position of monarchy in Europe in the Eighteenth Century, the multiplication of these disputed titles deserves a prominent place. They shook the reverence for the throne; they destroyed the mystic sanctity that surrounded it; they brought the supreme authority of the nation into the arena of controversy. In England, since the period of the Restoration (§ 544), the doctrine of the divine right of kings, and of the absolute criminality of all rebellion, was, as we have seen, a fundamental tenet, not only of the Tory party, but also of the Established Church. But, from the accession of George I. it began rapidly to decline. The enthronement of the new dynasty had, for a time at least, solved the doubtful question of the succession according to the principles of the Revolution."

2. **J. R. Green**, in "A Short History of the English People," says that a complete transfer of political power from the House of Lords to the House of Commons, was marked by "the series of 'Great Commoners,' who, from this time, became the rulers of England. . . . Of these Great Commoners, Robert Walpole was the first. Born in 1676, he entered Parliament two years before William's death, as a young Norfolk land owner of fair fortune, with the tastes and air of the class from which he sprang. . . . He was ignorant of books; he 'loved neither writing nor reading,' and if he had a taste for art, his real love was for the table, the bottle, and the chase. . . . Walpole was the first minister—it has been finely said—'who gave our government that character of lenity which it has since generally deserved.' No man was ever more fiercely attacked by speakers and writers, but he brought in no 'gagging act' for the press, and though the lives of most of his assailants were in his hands through their intrigues with the Pretender, he made no use of his power over them. . . . Walpole was not only the first English Peace Minister; he was the first English minister who was a great financier, and who regarded the development of national wealth and the adjustment of national burdens as the business of a statesman. His time of power was a time of great material prosperity. . . . But if Walpole's aims were wise and statesmanlike, he was unscrupulous in the means by which he realized them. Personally, he was free from corruption; and he is perhaps the first great English statesman who left office poorer than when he entered it. But he was certainly the first who made parliamentary corruption a regular part of his system of government. . . . A vote was too valuable to be given without recompense. Parliamentary support had to be bought by places, pensions, and bribes in hard cash."

3. **James Edward Oglethorpe** was one of the most remarkable men in the English society of his day. In youth he served under Marlborough and Prince Eugene in Germany. Returning to England, he became interested in philanthropic efforts, chiefly in behalf of orphans and poor debtors, and obtained from the king a large grant of American lands "in trust for the poor." He came over with the first settlers and lived for a year in a tent, where he afterwards laid out the streets of Savannah. During the War of Austrian Succession, he had to defend his colony against the neighboring Spaniards. He himself invaded Florida, and repulsed an invasion of his own territory. Returning to

England in 1743, he continued for forty years to be a warm friend of America. He died at great age in 1785.

4. **William Pitt, the Elder**, was born in Cornwall in 1708, educated at Eton and Oxford, and entered Parliament in 1735. In 1746, he received what was considered the most lucrative office in the gift of the government, that of paymaster of the forces. "But its profits were of an illicit kind, and, poor as he was, Pitt refused to accept one farthing beyond his salary." In 1757, he became Secretary of State, and the energetic support which he gave Frederic II. of Prussia, turned the tide of the Seven Years' War (§ 606). In the debates on taxation which followed this war, Pitt constantly denied the right of Parliament to lay burdens upon the colonies, condemning the Stamp Act, in one of his most eloquent speeches. After the War of American Independence had begun, he used his most fiery eloquence in denouncing the employment of savages to fight against the colonists. Still he opposed the acknowledgment of our independence, and his speech to this effect was the last effort of his life. Lord Brougham says of Pitt: "He is the person to whom every one would at once point if asked to name the most successful statesman and most brilliant orator that his country ever produced." Pitt sacrificed much of his popularity by accepting a peerage in 1766, becoming the first Earl of Chatham. He died in 1778.

5. **William IV.**, the third son of George III., was born in London, 1765. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1779, and spent a winter in New York during the occupation of that city by the British (§ 651).

6. **Queen Victoria** was born at Kensington Palace, May 24, 1819. She was carefully educated under the care of her mother and the Duchess of Northumberland, and is said to have first discovered her title to the crown from her reading of history when about thirteen years of age. Surprised and moved by this sudden perception of the responsibilities that awaited her, she laid her hand in that of her governess and exclaimed, "I will try to be good!" In her simple and quiet life, exempt from the flatteries of courts, she had learned to be "brave, self-reliant, and systematic. Prudence and economy had been taught her as though she had been born to be poor."

7. **Prince Albert** was descended from the elder or ducal Saxon line, descended from the electors Frederic the Wise and John the Steadfast, protectors of Luther, while the royal House of Saxony have for their founder that Duke Maurice (§ 469) who supplanted his cousin.

8. **Nicholas I.** was the third son of the Emperor Paul I., and brother of Alexander I. (§ 703), whom he succeeded in 1825. A dangerous revolt broke out among the troops at St. Petersburg immediately on his accession, for there were already secret societies in Russia which were plotting radical changes in the government. Many nobles were exiled to Siberia for their share in this plot, and the severity used in its suppression only confirmed the arbitrary temper of Nicholas. This was equally shown against the Poles, who, in 1830, made a desperate but heroic effort to regain their lost independence, and in the intervention of Nicholas on the side of Austria in the Hungarian Revolution (§ 732) of 1848 and '49. In both cases the movement toward freedom was sternly checked, though later events, in the war of 1866, brought to the Hungarians most of the constitutional changes they desired.

The cares inseparable from the despotic control of so vast an empire, aggravated by his vexation at the reverses of the Crimean War, wore out at last even the iron frame of Nicholas, and he died during the siege of Sebastopol.

9. **Henry John Temple, Viscount Palmerston**, one of the most popular of English statesmen, was born 1784, and died 1865. His Irish peerage gave him no place in the English House of Lords, but he was fifty years a member of the Commons, where his business-like energy and skill in debate found their most appropriate field. As minister for Foreign Affairs, Palmerston was among the first to recognize the French Republic, and he even approved the steps by which Napoleon III. gained supreme power.

CHAPTER XII.

BRITISH EMPIRE IN THE EAST.



Palanquin Bearers in India.

FOR a hundred years from its foundation, the English East India Company confined itself to trade—building a few forts and warehouses on lands given it by the Mogul emperors. After the time of Aurungzebe, who died in 1707, the empire founded by Baber (§377) rapidly declined; and, though a Great Mogul still reigned in his jeweled palace at Delhi, the twenty-one native princes of the peninsula paid him little respect and still less obedience, but spent their time in quarreling among themselves and oppressing their subjects.

667. By helping the weaker party in these disputes, the Company began to acquire power and wealth, which were often increased by buying the sovereignty of some bank-

rupt *nizam* or *rajah*. Conquests from the French and their Hindu allies, during the Seven Years' War (§645), laid the foundation of the British Indian Empire. In 1756, Sura'jah Dow'lah, the native viceroy of Bengal, captured Calcutta, and thrust all the British residents into a loathsome dungeon called the Black Hole, where most of them died in agonies of thirst and suffocation in a single night. Robert Clive,¹ formerly a poor clerk in the Company's counting-house, now at the head of only 3,000 men, recovered Calcutta and gained a complete victory over the army of Dowlah, who soon afterwards lost his station and his life. Clive was made Governor of Calcutta, and Baron of Plassy, from the scene of his victory.

668. In 1773, the three Presidencies of Bombay, Madras, and Bengal were united under Warren Hastings,² who, as Governor-General, resided at Calcutta. He carried on a fierce conflict with Hyder Ali, the native sultan of Mysore in southern India, who was aided by the French during the war of American Independence (§652). He was conquered at last, but the struggle was renewed by his son, Tippoo Sahib, when the French Revolution had reawakened the hostilities in Europe between the French and the English. The whole kingdom of Mysore was at length absorbed into the British Empire.

669. The Company's servants usually made themselves rich at the expense of the Hindus, perhaps quieting their consciences with the assurance that no amount of extortion and oppression could equal the cruelties of the native rulers. But this excuse did not satisfy English feeling at home. In 1786, Hastings was accused, by Edmund Burke, before the bar of the House of Lords; and, though he was finally acquitted on the ground that the directors of the company were more guilty of extortion than he, effectual measures were taken to protect the helpless natives of India from future abuse.

670. In 1833, the Indian trade was thrown freely open to all British subjects. The Chinese government was soon alarmed by the enormous quantities of opium brought into its markets from northern India. The Chinese people were only too fond of the ruinous drug; their government made stringent laws to prevent its introduction; and, when these were violated, British merchants were shut up in their factory at Canton until they gave up all the opium in their possession. The English home-government went to war for the protection of its subjects. Canton and several other towns were taken by storm, and, at length, the Chinese officials signed a treaty ceding Hong Kong to the British, and opening several ports to foreign trade.

671. This was a great concession; for the oldest of empires had kept itself closed for ages against all the rest of the world. It soon afterwards made treaties with France and the United States. A new war was occasioned, in 1855, by some trifling encroachment on the part of the Chinese. Canton was again captured by a French and English force, and, by the treaty of Tientsin, more cordial relations were established.

672. A far more serious war soon threatened England with the loss of her whole Indian Empire. The native soldiers, called Sepoys, by means of whom this great peninsula was kept in subjection, numbered nearly a quarter of a million. Better fed, paid, and treated than they ever had been by their native rulers, the Sepoys obeyed their officers with childlike confidence. But they were a superstitious race, and any slight to their religion enraged them beyond endurance. The government held itself bound to respect their religion wherever it did not violate the universal principles of humanity—only interfering to prevent the burning of widows and the drowning of children as a sacrifice to the Ganges.

673. In 1856, new rifles came out from England for the Sepoy regiments; and with them greased cartridges, which were supposed to contain beef-tallow. To bite off the ends of these would be pollution to a Hindu; and, feeling their ancient faith insulted, several regiments mutinied. Frightful massacres of the white residents occurred at Delhi, Meerut, and Cawnpore; and Lucknow, capital of Oude, was besieged, all the summer of 1857, by thousands of infuriated rebels. Gen. Havelock brought a small force from Persia, and, after many battles with far greater numbers of Sepoys, he was able to enter Lucknow and save it until relief could come from home.

674. At length Sir Colin Campbell, with a brigade of Highlanders, appeared, and the scene changed. Delhi, the rebel capital, was taken, and its king, the "last of the Moguls," with his sons, was executed for mutiny. The rebellion was soon over. The government of India was taken from the company and vested in the crown. The queen—now called Empress of India—appoints a viceroy to represent her at Calcutta; and efforts have been made to extend even to the lowest orders of Hindus the benefits of enlightened and Christian government. The British rulers refrain, as before, from directly interfering with the native religion; but the liberal education provided for Hindu youth is rapidly relieving them from the bondage of ancient superstition. A. D. 1858.

675. The great continent of Australia was first colonized, by English convicts, in 1788. A thousand of these wretched creatures, from prisons at home, arrived in Sydney Cove with their officers, and began to clear the wilderness, make roads and bridges, and prepare the way for better colonists. Hard work proved its advantages; many reformed their lives, and became useful citizens and even magistrates. Australian wool became celebrated in European markets; and thousands of free settlers were

glad to follow where the convicts had prepared the way. The original colony of New South Wales was divided, Victoria being set off on the south and Queensland on the north.

In May, 1851, gold was discovered in Victoria, and a great immigration of adventurers followed. Melbourne, the capital of Victoria, has become a thriving city of nearly 200,000 inhabitants, and is the seat of a university, while Sydney, the first settlement founded, is hardly less important. Australia and the neighboring island of Tasmania are united by submarine telegraph with London, while the great inland wilderness is fast being turned into homes for civilized men.

676. The chiefs of New Zealand^a acknowledged Queen Victoria as their sovereign in 1840. Covering more space than the British Islands, New Zealand is said to be unsurpassed by any country in the world for richness of soil, healthfulness of climate, and grandeur of scenery. The native Maoris are a noble race, who have gladly accepted civilized and Christian teaching. Their skill in war has, however, made them dangerous enemies whenever the settlers have provoked their hostilities. The Fiji islanders have lately put themselves under the protection and control of the British Queen, and have sent her the great war-club which, for hundreds of years, has been used as a scepter by their chiefs.

Point out the Mogul capital of Hindustan. The present capital of British India. The three presidencies. Canton. Hong Kong. The provinces of Australia. Melbourne. Sydney. New Zealand. The Fijis.

Read Mills' "British India;" Articles in *Encyclopædia Britannica* on Hindustan, Australia, and New Zealand; Macaulay's *Essays* on Clive and Warren Hastings.

NOTES.

1. Robert Clive was born at Market Drayton, in the west of England, in 1725. His "strong will and fiery passions" unfitted him for peaceful pursuits at home, and, at 18, his family "shipped him off to make a fortune or die of a fever at Madras." In the East India Company's contests, first with the French, and afterwards with the native princes, Clive found a field for his great military talents. His first feat was the surprise and capture of Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, with a force of only 200 English and 300 native soldiers. Here he was almost immediately besieged by 10,000 natives and French. Macaulay says: "The walls were ruinous, the ditches dry, the ramparts too narrow to admit the guns, the battlements too low to protect the soldiers. The garrison began to feel the pressure of hunger. But the devotion of the little band to its chief surpassed any thing that is related of the Tenth Legion of Cæsar, or of the Old Guard of Napoleon. The Sepoys came to Clive—not to complain of their scanty fare, but to propose that all the grain should be given to the Europeans, who required more nourishment than the natives of Asia. The thin gruel, they said, which was strained away from the rice, would suffice for themselves!" The defense was a complete success, and Clive thenceforth occupied a front rank among English soldiers. Macaulay thus sums up the services which entitle him to be considered the Founder of the British Empire in Hindostan: "From his first visit to India dates the renown of English arms in the East. With the defense of Arcot commences that long series of Oriental triumphs which closes with the fall of Ghazni. Nor must we forget that he was only 25 years old when he approved himself ripe for military command. . . . Clive, an inexperienced youth, had yet more experience than any of those who served under him. He had to form himself, to form his officers and to form his army. . . . From Clive's second visit to India dates the political ascendancy of the English in that country. . . . Such an extent of cultivated territory, such an amount of revenue, such a multitude of subjects, was never added to the dominion of Rome by the most successful proconsul. . . . From Clive's third visit to India dates the purity of the administration of our Eastern empire. When he landed at Calcutta in 1765, Bengal was regarded as a place to which Englishmen were sent only to get rich by any means, in the shortest possible time. He first made dauntless and unsparing war on that gigantic system of oppression, extortion, and corruption. In that war he manfully put to hazard his ease, his fame, his splendid fortune. . . . If the reproach of the Company and its servants has been taken away—if in India the yoke of foreign masters, elsewhere the heaviest of all yokes, has been found lighter than that of any native dynasty, . . . the praise is in no small measure due to Clive. His name stands high on the roll of conquerors. But it is found in a better list—in the list of those who have done and suffered much for the happiness of mankind."

Clive was brought to trial before the House of Commons for his administration in India; but his great services and the general elevation of his policy overbalanced all the charges against him. He died in 1774.

2. Hastings, like Clive, had been a clerk in the East India Company's employ, and he served as a private volunteer in one of Clive's first expeditions. "But the quick eye of Clive perceived that the head of the young volunteer would be more useful than his arm," and, after the battle of Plassy, Hastings was appointed to reside as agent of the company at the court of the new Nabob of Bengal. He rose, by successive steps, to be member of Council at Calcutta, afterwards at Madras, Governor of Bengal, and, at last, Governor General of the whole country. At all stages of his career, his studious tastes led him to delight in the languages and literature of the East, and his general policy as a ruler was enlightened and liberal. Still, the urgent demands of the company at home for large remittances of money, led him into two or three transactions which were felt to be inconsistent with the honor of England. One of these was the lending of an English army—for two millions of dollars—to Sujah Dowlah, prince of Oude, for the conquest of the Rohillas, the finest race in India. They could bring 80,000 men into the field. "Sujah Dowlah had himself seen them fight, and wisely shrank

from a conflict with them." They were defeated by the English. "Then the Nabob Vizier and his rabble made their appearance, and hastened to plunder the camp of the vallant enemies, whom they had never dared to look in the face. . . . The horrors of Indian war were let loose on the fair valleys and cities of Rohilcund. The whole country was in a blaze. More than 100,000 people fled from their homes to pestilential jungles, preferring famine and fever and the haunts of tigers to the tyranny of him, to whom an English and a Christian government had sold their substance and their blood. The rich province which had tempted the cupidity of Sujah Dowlah became the most miserable part of even his miserable dominions."

The directors of the Company condemned the conduct of Hastings in this matter; but they could not fail to approve his energy and promptness in dealing with Hyder-Ali, who invaded the Carnatic in 1780. This Mohammedan warrior was king of Mysore, and the 'ablest enemy the English ever had to contend with in India.' The war of American Independence had now drawn England and France into conflict, and a French fleet was daily expected on the Coromandel coast. Hyder had attacked and defeated two British generals, and had advanced almost to the walls of Madras, when "a swift ship, flying before the south-west monsoon, brought the evil tidings to Calcutta." Hastings promptly dispatched men and money to the scene of action, superseded the incompetent governor of Madras, and entrusted Sir Eyre Coote, the ablest British general of his time, with the conduct of the war. The reinforcements reached Madras before the arrival of the French: "the progress of Hyder was arrested, and in a few months the great victory of Porto Novo retrieved the honor of the English arms."

To meet the expense of this war Hastings expelled the rich king of Benares from his dominions and confiscated all his revenues; then despoiled two widowed princesses of Oude, mother and grandmother of the Nabob Vizier, who was a son of Sujah Dowlah.

In 1785 Hastings resigned his office and returned to England. Within a week after his landing at Plymouth, Edmund Burke gave notice in the House of Commons of a motion for his impeachment. The trial came on in 1788, and lasted seven years. It ended in the acquittal of Hastings, whose great services were rewarded by an annuity of \$20,000. He died, 1818, at the age of 88.

3. The Colonies and foreign dependencies of Great Britain embrace about one seventh of the land surface of the globe, and nearly one fourth of its population, having more than sixty times the extent of the United Kingdom itself. They are under 40 different colonial governments, of which 4 are in Europe, 11 in or near America, 10 in or near Africa, 7 in Asia, and 8 in Australasia. The European colonies are Heligoland, Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus, all of which have rulers appointed by the crown. The American possessions are, 1, The Bahamas, a group of 800 islands, of which 20 are inhabited; 2, The Bermudas, about 300, of which 15 are inhabited; 3, The Dominion of Canada, comprising the provinces of Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Manitoba, British Columbia, Prince Edward's Island and the territories; 4, The Falkland Islands; 5, Guiana; 6, Honduras; 7, Jamaica; 8, The Leeward Islands; 9, Newfoundland; 10, Trinidad; 11, The Windward Islands. In Asia, besides the great empire of India, which numbers nearly 200,000,000 of human beings, England possesses the town of Aden, at the entrance of the Red Sea; the Island of Ceylon; the "Straits Settlements," comprising the Islands of Singapore and Penang, with the territory of Malacca; the Island of Hong Kong; and two of less importance.

New Zealand was first visited by the Dutch navigator, Tasman, in 1642; explored by Captain Cook, 1769; settled first by deserters from whaling ships and escaped convicts from New South Wales, but afterwards, about 1835, by respectable colonists from England and Scotland, pioneered by Wesleyan and other missionaries. Its House of Representatives has 88 members, of whom 4 are Maoris, chosen by their own people. Speaking of the progress in civilization under English rule, the Encyclopædia Britannica says: "A chief now, instead of leading his followers on to plunder and massacre the white men, may be seen walking into a banking office in Auckland or Wellington, and writing a check for a portion of his money deposited there; or sitting in a news-room perusing a newspaper printed in his own language."

CHAPTER XIII.

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.



The "Sans Culottes."

MANY changes were silently going on in Europe during the eighteenth century. A skeptical sort of philosophy had taken possession of the higher classes, while the newspapers and debating clubs excited everywhere a spirit of inquiry among the common people. The oldest and most sacred things were questioned; and, in France especially, neither Church nor State was in a condition to bear questioning. The national religion had become merely a splendid cloak for wickedness; while the government seemed to exist only to provide gayety and luxury for the court, caring nothing for the intolerable miseries of the people.

678. Louis XVI. was a good, but rather dull, prince—earnestly wishing to reform the evils of his government, but knowing how as little as did that princess of his family, who, being told that thousands of peasants were starving to death, exclaimed “Poor things! If there is no bread, why do you not give them cake?” As a last resort, the States-general—*i. e.*, the three “Estates,” or orders of Nobles, Clergy, and Commons—were summoned to meet at Versailles, in May, 1789.

679. The Assembly numbered more than a thousand, and included some of the wisest and best men in France. They struck at the root of the prevailing misery by taxing clergy, nobles, and even the royal domains (§639), throwing the burdens of the state on those who derived most benefit from it. But the abuses of a thousand years could not be so easily cleared away, though a mania for change seemed suddenly to seize the Assembly. A duke and a viscount moved the abolition of all titles and privileges belonging to the nobles. Serfdom, too, was abolished; offices in the army and the state were thrown open to all ranks; and all religions were made equal before the law. A medal was struck, representing Louis XVI. as the restorer of French liberty; and a solemn *Te Deum* was sung to celebrate the hopes of the nation.

680. Already, however, a dangerous and desperate class of men had become conscious of their power—men who thought that liberty meant the supremacy of their passions. A furious mob stormed and demolished the Bastille, a grim old fortress, which had been the scene of many cruel imprisonments, but which now contained only a garrison of invalid soldiers. Another riotous company, composed largely of women, took the road to Versailles, where the Assembly was sitting, and where the royal family was residing. They forced the palace, and would have murdered the queen but for the intervention of Lafayette,¹ who commanded the National Guard. The king and queen, with their children, were escorted to Paris by the whole mob—the heads of their murdered guards being borne on pikes beside them.

681. Most of the nobles and princes of the blood now quitted France, leaving the king to his fate. His own attempt to escape with his family was in vain. They were arrested and brought back to a brutal imprisonment. The Assembly, having finished its work of making a new

constitution for France, was dissolved, and was succeeded by a Legislative Assembly, composed wholly of different members. The Girondists, so called from the district whence most of them came, were the leaders. They desired a constitutional monarchy, like that of England, or, at most, a well-ordered republic, but they had to seek the favor of the mob by many unwise measures.

682. The Jacobin Club now possessed an immense power in France, and its journals and almanacs made it the terror of all Europe—advocating, as they did, the overthrow of all existing institutions, and a revolt against all authority, human and divine. Under their influence, the Reign of Terror began in Paris, with the September Massacres of 1792. A tiger-like thirst for blood seized the mob, who broke open asylums and prisons, and murdered all whom they could find—priests, women and children, paupers and lunatics. The king and his family were thrown into the gloomy prison of the Temple. The beautiful Princess de Lamballe, the intimate friend and late attendant of the queen, was immured for a few days in the prison of La Force, and then brutally beheaded. Three thousand persons, suspected of favoring the king, were dragged from their beds by night and hurried to the dungeon, and from there to the guillotine.

683. The Mountain—so the Jacobins were called from the high seats they occupied—became supreme in the Convention which succeeded the Legislative Assembly. “Louis Capet” was tried by the Convention, and found guilty of various crimes against his people. Some would have imprisoned or exiled him for life, but a majority, and among them his kinsman, Philip Egalité—so called since his title of Duke of Orleans had been abolished—voted for immediate execution.

684. On a frosty morning in January, 1793, Louis XVI. was led out to die. A sea of silent faces surrounded the

guillotine. The king was about to address them, but his voice was drowned in the roll of drums. One faithful friend, the Abbé Edgeworth, stood beside him to the last. When his head had fallen beneath the fatal knife, some of the crowd, more brutal than the rest, dipped pikes and staves in the blood and marched away, shouting "Long live the Republic!"

685. The queen was guillotined the next October. Her little son, whom royalists called Louis XVII., became idiotic through fright, hunger, and neglect, and is supposed to have died in his wretched dungeon. Some people believe a happier story: that he was secretly conveyed to a home among the American forests, where he grew up to be a humble missionary to the Indians, and learned of his high birth in his old age from a grandson of Philip Egalité.

686. The Girondists were the next to fall. Their leaders were guillotined, and with them Madame Roland,² whose genius and spirit had done much to inspire the party. The three leaders of the Jacobins were Marat, Danton, and Robespierre. The first was a brutal wretch, whose ferocity would have better suited a bloodhound than a man. A noble-hearted woman, Charlotte Corday³ by name, devoted her life to the rescue of her country from this monster. From her home in Normandy she hastened to Paris, gained admission to the house of Marat, and stabbed him to the heart; then, with perfect calmness gave herself up to the guillotine.

687. But France could not be saved by such means. The storm of passion became wilder than ever. Christianity itself was abolished by law; and over the gates of cemeteries was written "Death is an eternal sleep." A "goddess of Reason" was carried in pompous procession through the streets, and enthroned at Notre Dame. A more innocent sign of the general rage for destruction, was the abolition of old names for months and days of

the week, and the substitution of new and fanciful ones. All events were now dated from the rise of the French Republic, September 22, 1792.

688. Danton at length wearied of the carnival of bloodshed, but his attempt to arrest it only carried him and his associates to the guillotine. Robespierre reigned for three months over the Revolutionary Tribunal, which placed the lives of the whole French nation at his disposal. With all his crimes this man was not an atheist, and he made the Convention pass a decree affirming the existence of God, and the immortality of the soul. But the butchery of the guillotine went on with more method and less interruption than ever before. At last some few found courage to conspire against him; he and eighty of his accomplices were brought to the scaffold, and as his head fell, a joyful shout arose from the multitude, declaring that the Reign of Terror was ended.

July, 1794.

689. The Convention had declared itself the "friend of all peoples, but the enemy of all governments." A grand Coalition of nearly all the powers of Europe was now in arms to put down so dangerous a neighbor, and its forces were increased by many of the emigrated princes and nobles (§681). The French seaport of Toulon revolted against the Republic, and received 16,000 soldiers of the Coalition into its forts. The Convention declared that it must be retaken, or the French general commanding the besiegers must be guillotined. At this point, a young Corsican captain of artillery⁴ showed how, by seizing a little fort called the "Needle," the English position could be "turned inside out," and the place taken. The old general was amazed at his subaltern's presumption; but any thing was better than the guillotine; the advice was followed. A "tiger-spring" by the Corsican and his followers secured the fort; the allies abandoned Toulon; and *Napoleon Bonaparte* had won his place in history.

690. The Revolution had now plunged France into greater poverty and misery than even Louis XIV. had done—the rich being exiled or massacred, the poor without employment. Paris was starving: the mass of the people had only two ounces of bread and a handful of rice dealt out daily to each by the government. The royalists of the western coast proclaimed Louis XVIII. as their king, and asked aid of the allies; and even the drowning of 15,000 people, at Nantes, by order of the Convention, did not put an end to this counter-revolution.

691. A new and better government was established at Paris in 1795, though not without a “whiff of gunpowder” from the cannon of General Bonaparte, who had been called to the defense of the capital. A Directory of five persons was intrusted with the execution of laws, which were made by two Councils, resembling our Senate and House of Representatives. Something like order and prosperity was now restored; the rule of the rabble ceased, and respectable people, who had fled from the Reign of Terror, returned.

692. Meanwhile the French armies had been victorious in the Netherlands, where, indeed, they met little resistance. The existing governments were exchanged for the Belgian and Batavian Republics, which allied themselves with France. In 1796, Bonaparte’s first campaign in Italy astonished the world. Perhaps it astonished himself, by proving what tireless energy and an indomitable will can achieve; for he dated from his tremendous passage of the bridge at Lodi, swept by the Austrian cannon, that wonderful career which made him master of continental Europe.

693. All northern Italy was now subdued by his arms—including the Venetian Republic, which had stood for 1345 years—and, invading Austria from the southward, he advanced within a few days’ march of Vienna.

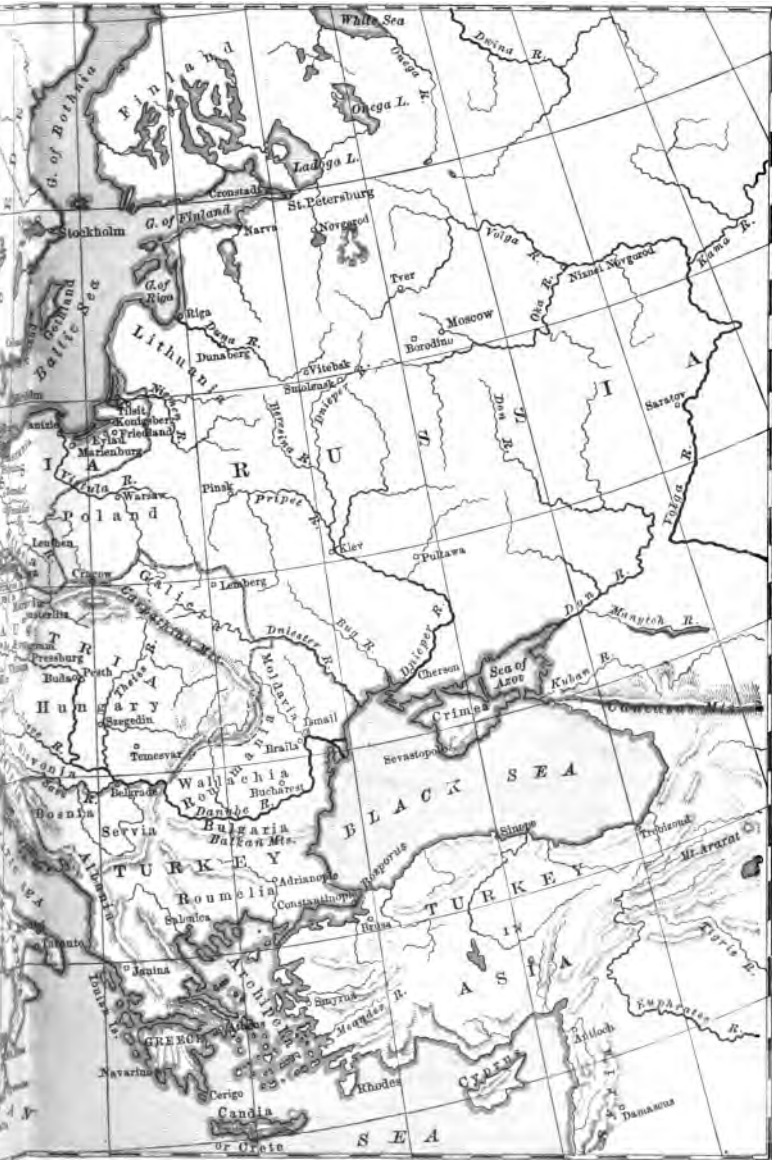
MAP No. XIII.

BRITISH WRITERS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

- John Keats, 1795-1820: "Endymion," "Hyperion," etc.
Percy Bysshe Shelley, 1792-1822: Poems.
Lord Byron, 1788-1824: "Childe Harold," etc.
Sir Walter Scott, 1771-1832: "Waverly Novels," Poems, etc.
Samuel Taylor Coleridge, 1772-1834: Poems, Essays, etc.
Thomas Arnold, 1795-1842: "History of Rome," etc.
Robert Southey, 1774-1843: "Curse of Kehama," etc.
Thomas Campbell, 1777-1844: "Pleasures of Hope," etc.
William Wordsworth, 1770-1850: "The Excursion," etc.
Thomas Moore, 1779-1852: "Irish Melodies," "Lalla Rookh," etc.
Samuel Rogers, 1763-1855: "Pleasures of Memory," etc.
Felicia Hemans, 1793-1855: "Forest Sanctuary," etc.
Leigh Hunt, 1784-1859: Essays, Poems, etc.
Thomas Babington Macaulay, 1800-1859: "History of England," "Essays," "Lays of Ancient Rome."
Elizabeth Barrett Browning, 1809-1861: Poems.
Wm. Makepeace Thackeray, 1811-1861: "Pendennis," etc.
Walter Savage Landor, 1775-1864: "Imaginary Conversations," etc.
Henry Hart Milman, 1791-1868: "Hist. of Latin Christianity."
Charles Dickens, 1812-1870: "Pickwick Papers," etc.
Thomas Carlyle, 1795-1881: "French Revolution," etc.
Alfred Tennyson, 1810-: "In Memoriam," "Idyls of the King," and other poems.
Robert Browning, 1812-: "Bells and Pomegranates," etc.
Philip James Bailey, 1816-: "Festus," etc.
James Anthony Froude, 1818-: "History of England," etc.
Edward Freeman: "History of the Norman Conquest," etc.
"George Eliot" (Mrs. Lewes): "Adam Bede," etc.

EUROPE
 (1715-1830)
 Illustrating Napoleon's Wars.
 Scale of Miles.
 0 50 100 150 200 250 300





INVENTIONS AND PUBLIC WORKS.

Steam Engine patented by James Watt	A. D. 1769.
Hargreave's Spinning Jenny patented	1770.
First Power Loom patented by Cartwright	1785.
Sewing Machine, Saint's, patented in England	1790.
Cotton-gin by Eli Whitney	1793.
Trevethick's Steam Locomotive used in Welsh mines	1802.
Steamboat CLERMONT carried passengers from New York to Albany	1807.
LONDON TIMES first printed by Steam Power Press, Nov.	1814.
Streets of London and Paris lighted by Gas	1815.
Steamship SAVANNAH crossed the Atlantic	1819.
Passenger Trains first moved by Steam in England and United States	1829.
Sewing Machine, Thimonnier's, patented in France	1830.
Sun Pictures made by Daguerre	1839.
Electro-magnetic Telegraph, Baltimore to Washington	1844.
Sewing Machine, Elias Howe's practical improvement	1846.
Submarine Cable, Dover to Calais	1850.
Photo-engraving by Talbot	1852.
Spectrum Analysis finds metals in stars and sun	1814-1860.
Submarine Cable, Ireland to Newfoundland	1858, 1866.
Suez Canal, Mediterranean to Red Sea, opened	Nov. 1869.
Pacific Railway completed	1869.
Telegraphic wires completed, London to Bombay	1870.
Mont Cenis Tunnel, 7½ miles long, France to Pied- mont	Sept. 1871.
Hoosac Tunnel, 4¾ m. long, in Massachusetts	Nov. 1873.
Telephones patented in England and U. S.	1874.
Phonograph improved by Edison	1877.

By the peace of Campo Formio, the Emperor Francis II. received the Venetian territory in exchange for the Austrian Netherlands, which were now the Belgian Republic.

694. The Coalition being thus dissolved, England alone remained at war with France, and the Directory resolved to strike a blow at her possessions in the East. For this purpose Bonaparte sailed, with a great army, to Egypt, occupied Alexandria, and gained Cairo by a furious battle with the Mamelukes, on the plain of the Pyramids. The English admiral, Nelson,⁵ following with his fleet, destroyed almost all the French vessels in the Bay of Aboukir. He was rewarded by the title of "Baron Nelson of the Nile." In spite of his losses, Bonaparte pushed on into Syria, and captured Gaza and Jaffa. Acre, however, withstood him, and, a plague breaking out, he returned to Egypt, where he gained a victory over the Turks, and then sailed for France. A. D. 1798.

695. Arriving at Paris, he overthrew the Directory, and made himself head of the republic, with the title of First Consul. A second Coalition of the European powers had now liberated Italy, but Bonaparte reconquered it in a swift campaign of five weeks, including his defeat of the Austrians at Marengo. General Moreau had almost as remarkable success in Germany; and his victory at Hohenlinden was followed by peace with Austria. The other powers—England the last of all, at Amiens—made peace with France. A. D. 1800.

696. Bonaparte now proved himself no less able in government than in war. A new and much needed code of laws was compiled by the best lawyers, with his advice and assistance; and so just were his conclusions, that France has kept the *Code Napoléon* under all the changes of government which she has undergone since it was made. The Roman Church was reëstablished, though all sects and creeds were still equal before the laws. 150,000

emigrants returned, and their estates were restored to them as far as possible.

697. The Peace of Amiens was soon broken by Great Britain; and Mr. Pitt, second son of the Great Commoner (§649), stirred up a Third Coalition, of all the chief powers, against France. The exiled Bourbons kept a secret army of assassins about Bonaparte; and both sides felt that his death would ensure the restoration of the old monarchy. This made the French people willing to exchange their consulate for an empire; and, in May, 1804, a decree of the Senate, confirmed by the Legislative Corps, made Napoleon I. emperor of the French, the throne being declared hereditary in his family. Pope Pius VII. came all the way from Rome to crown the new Charlemagne (§311).

698. Immense preparations were now made for an invasion of England; but, to the astonishment of the world, Napoleon suddenly marched his army into Germany, surprised General Mack at Ulm, and captured that general's entire command, with cannon and stores. He then pushed forward to Vienna, which he entered in triumph, while Francis II. made a hasty retreat. In the battle of Austerlitz, soon afterward, the three emperors of Russia, Austria, and the French were present with their armies: Napoleon gained one of the most thorough of all his victories, and the czar and kaiser threw up the game in despair.

699. By the treaty of Presburg, Francis II. resigned his last foothold in Italy, and the oldest territory of his house, including the castle and county of Hapsburg (§365). Soon afterward the "Holy Roman Empire" was dissolved, and the 120th of the Cæsars became merely Francis I., hereditary emperor of Austria, and king of Hungary and Bohemia.

700. Lord Nelson fought his last battle off Cape Trafalgar, in Portugal, October, 1805; destroying the French and

Spanish fleets, and thus securing to England the supremacy of the seas. He was struck by a ball early in the action. Drawing his cloak over the decorations he wore, so that his men might not know him, he lay three hours in mortal agony while the battle raged about him. At last he was told that a signal victory had been gained, and died, exclaiming "Thank God! I have done my duty!"

701. The King of Prussia's weak and timid policy made him a mere dupe of Napoleon, who first forced him to accept Hanover, in order to plunge him into a war with England, and then took it away from him when another arrangement seemed more to the advantage of the conqueror. Frederic William III. had lost the friendship of the other powers by seeking the favor of Napoleon, and he now had to stand almost alone against him. The French legions moved northward with their customary swiftness, and by the two victories of Jena and Auerstadt, which were gained on the Oct. 14, 1806. same day, captured or destroyed almost the entire Prussian army. Several strong fortresses surrendered to the French; and, in less than a year from Napoleon's seizure of the Austrian capital, he was entering that of Prussia as a conqueror. The sword of Frederic the Great was sent to Paris as a trophy.

702. At this point Napoleon published his famous "Berlin Decree," forbidding all commerce and intercourse with Great Britain. By attacking the source of England's wealth, he hoped to destroy the opposition to his supremacy; for he well knew that the other nations could not long continue at war with him, but for the never-failing supply of British gold. His Continental System, however, did more harm to the continent than to England. George III. replied to the Berlin Decree by an Order in Council, declaring a blockade of all ports in Europe from which the British flag was excluded, and directing his shipmasters

to seize and search all vessels which they found approaching those ports.

703. Russian armies soon came to the relief of the Prussians; and, in the terrible battle of Eylau, inflicted such losses upon the French, that Napoleon offered terms of peace. These were refused, and soon afterward he was decidedly victorious at Friedland, while the great fortress of Dantzic was taken by his troops. The czar now proposed peace, and met Napoleon on a raft, moored midway in the Niemen River, which separated his dominion from Prussia. Alexander was filled with admiration for the military genius of his late opponent, and for a time they were good friends. The poor king of Prussia was deprived of half his dominions, part of which went to make the new kingdom of Westphalia, for Jerome Bonaparte. Two other brothers of Napoleon were recognized by the czar as kings, the one of the Two Sicilies, and the other of Holland.

704. Portugal meanwhile disobeyed the Berlin Decree, and General Junot was ordered to put an end to her existence. It was done, and the Braganzas, quitting their European kingdom, established a vaster empire in Brazil. French troops, about the same time, marched into Rome, and overthrew the pope's temporal power. Spain was the next victim. Her Bourbon king, Charles IV., cared more for his lazy ease than for the duty he owed his people. He sold his kingdom to Napoleon for a castle and a pension; his sons, refusing to do likewise with their inheritance, were imprisoned at Valençay; and the crown of Spain was bestowed on Joseph Bonaparte. He resigned that of the Two Sicilies to his brother-in-law, Murat, and was crowned at Madrid, in January, 1809.

705. The Spaniards felt themselves wronged and insulted by this bargain. They organized a new government, at Seville, in the name of Ferdinand VII., the eldest son

of Charles, and besought the help of England. Portugal followed their example; and Sir Arthur Wellesley, landing at Mondego Bay, defeated Junot so severely that he had to quit the country with all that remained of his army. The English were almost equally successful in Spain, until Napoleon came in person to his brother's relief. Then his imperious will, as usual, swept all before it, and the British army, under Sir John Moore, was driven from the peninsula. Before embarking, they defeated the French at Corunna, but with the loss of their brave leader.

706. The Austrian emperor, always bitterly enraged at the treaty of Presburg (§ 699), thought his time for revenge had come while his great enemy was far away in Spain. Hastily collecting a force twice as numerous as the French, he pushed into Bavaria. But his movements were watched. Almost as swiftly as a thunderbolt Napoleon traversed France, entered Germany, and by five battles, fought in five successive days, cleared his way to Vienna, which surrendered to him, May 12, 1809. The treaty of Schönbrunn, which followed, was more humiliating to Austria than even that of Presburg had been. The next year Francis I. accepted his conqueror as a son-in-law. Napoleon, having dissolved his marriage with Josephine, espoused the archduchess Maria Louisa. In 1811, a son was born to him, who received the title of King of Rome.

707. King Louis of Holland, having offended his brother by opposing the restrictions on trade which were ruining his people (§ 702), retired into Austria, and his kingdom was annexed to France. The czar was equally injured by the "Continental System," and by many other acts of Napoleon. He now joined with Sweden—whose regent and crown-prince was Bernadotte, a former general of Napoleon—in resisting that oppressive system; and a new war broke out, on a grander scale than even those that

had preceded it. Austria and Prussia were now allies of France; Great Britain and Sweden, of Russia. Napoleon, while mustering his forces, summoned a throng of princes to meet him at Dresden, and indulged his pride by such a display of imperial grandeur as Europe had never seen before.

708. Then, with half a million of men, splendidly equipped, he marched into Russia. But the forces of nature seemed all arrayed against him. A terrible hurricane, followed by floods and excessive cold, swept away multitudes of horses and men. Space itself, which his swift, decisive movements had hitherto overcome, now mastered him. The Russians retreated, destroying all their harvests, and burning towns through which the French must pass; and when he arrived at Moscow, the ancient capital, it, too, was silent and deserted. The French took possession; but in the night, fires, kindled by long trains, burst forth in every part of the city.

709. Conquered by frost and flame, Napoleon at length ordered a retreat. The track of his grand army was strewn with corpses like one long battle-field. In a single night, thousands of men and all the remaining horses were frozen to death. Troops of Cossacks harassed the march; and, arriving at the River Beresina, the French had to cross a bridge under furious fire from the Russian cannon. Nine-tenths of the grand army were left dead upon Russian plains, and the rest were frightfully maimed and shattered.

710. The enemies and unwilling allies of Napoleon took courage from his misfortunes; and the whole continent was engaged in the war of 1813. Napoleon's extraordinary genius was never more manifest than in this season of tremendous difficulties. Wherever he commanded in person—at Lutzen, Bautzen, and Dresden—great victories were won; but his generals were almost every-where defeated.

At length, in a three days' battle at Leipsic, the allies were victorious, and Napoleon was compelled to retreat.

711. A crowd of deposed princes—among them Pope Pius VII.—now returned to their deserted thrones. Early in 1814, the allies were ready to move from the north, east, and south upon Paris. Still Napoleon's movements were as firm and decisive as ever. Though immensely outnumbered by his enemies, he still acted upon his old principle of so massing his troops as to be always the strongest at the point of attack. In this way he drove back Blucher, the Prussian general, defeated the Austrians, and was even carrying the war into Germany, when he heard that the allies were marching directly upon Paris.

712. After a battle in the suburbs, the czar and the king of Prussia entered that city, followed by their victorious armies. Wellington was on his march from Spain, having completed the Peninsular War by the restoration of Ferdinand VII. A congress of the allies disposed of France and her chosen ruler at their will. Napoleon received the little island of Elba, and a pension, in exchange for his empire. France was deprived of all her conquests since 1792, and was forced to accept Louis XVIII., a brother of the guillotined monarch (§ 684), as her king.

713. The next spring, Napoleon, quitting Elba, landed almost alone in the south of France. He was soon joined by many devoted adherents. The king's brother, sent with an army to oppose him, had to make an unprincely retreat; for, at sight of the familiar and idolized figure in the gray surtout, nearly his whole force broke into shouts of "*Vive l'Empereur!*" and passed over to Napoleon's side. The Bourbons fled from Paris, and the emperor reigned a hundred days with greater energy than ever. Every nerve was strained to provide new armies for the defense

of the restored empire. The multitude of mere boys who thronged the recruiting offices, at once proved the devotion of the people, and showed how the strength of France had been exhausted by twenty years of almost perpetual war. The graves of their fathers were scattered the length of Europe, from Malaga to Moscow. The allies also mustered their forces, and in the great battle of Waterloo, Wellington,⁶ the British, and Blucher, the Prussian commander, gained a victory which overthrew the Empire of the French. Napoleon tried to secure the crown to his son, who was now four years old; but the Senate insisted upon his abdicating without conditions. The allies refused to make any treaty with France, until the emperor should be placed in their keeping. He then attempted to make his escape to America, but the coast was too well guarded by British cruisers, and he was forced to surrender himself to one of their officers. He was not permitted to touch the soil of England, but was conveyed, as a prisoner, to the rocky islet of St. Helena, where he died, less than six years later, May 5th, 1821.

Trace, on Map 13, the campaigns of Napoleon.

Read Carlyle's *French Revolution*, and Dyer's *Modern Europe*; Taine's "Revolution;" Mignet's, Von Sybel's, or Thiers' *History of the French Revolution*; Thiers' "Consulate and Empire;" Lanfrey's *History of Napoleon I.*

For illustration, read Dickens's "Tale of Two Cities" and Victor Hugo's "Ninety-three."

NOTES.

1. **Gilbert Motier**, Marquis de Lafayette, born in 1757, was one of the most wealthy and powerful of the young nobles of France, when, at the age of 19, he devoted his talents to the cause of American Independence. The French government had not yet recognized the United States as a nation, but was nominally at peace with Great Britain, so that it was against the wishes of his king (§ 638) that Lafayette fitted out a ship at his own expense, and, sailing for America, accepted the rank of major-general in the colonial army. He was wounded at the Brandywine, and received the thanks of Congress for his conduct at Monmouth. Returning to France in 1779, he brought supplies of money and arms to aid our cause, which the king had now embraced. Lafayette had an important part in the victory at Yorktown (§ 652). He enjoyed, from his

first arrival in America, the confidence and affection of Washington, to whom he sent the key of the Bastille—after the destruction of that fortress in 1789—as a token of his admiration. It is still among the objects of interest at Mt. Vernon.

Lafayette's service in America made him immensely popular in France. As a member of the States-General he drew up a Declaration of the Rights of Man which was adopted. The same year he was placed by acclamation at the head of the militia of Paris, which took the name of the National Guard. He desired for France a constitutional monarchy like that of England, with perfect guarantees of the rights of the people; but, in trying to serve the best interests of all parties, he pleased none. The court hated and feared him for his influence with the people; the republicans suspected him for his efforts to save the king. Being placed in command of one of the three revolutionary armies, he had to contend at once against the Austrians in Flanders and the Jacobins in Paris. In 1792, he fell into the power of the Austrians, who kept him a prisoner in the dungeons of Neiss and Olmütz, until, in 1797, Bonaparte insisted on his liberation. He refused office under Napoleon; but, in 1815, he also opposed the restoration of the Bourbons. He frequently spoke in the Chamber of Deputies, and always in behalf of "liberty, equality, and order." In 1824, he revisited America, and spent about a year in traveling through the 24 states of the Union, received every-where with grateful enthusiasm. Congress voted him \$200,000 as a recognition of his services in the War of Independence. On the accession of Louis Philippe as king of the French (§§ 724, 726), Lafayette said to him, "You know that I am a Republican, and that I regard the Constitution of the United States as the most perfect that ever existed." He died, May 20, 1834.

2. Marie Jeanne Phlipon, afterwards Madame Roland, one of the most celebrated of French women, was born at Paris, 1754. Her father was an engraver, and she received an uncommonly liberal education for the times. Plutarch's "Lives" were her delight from her ninth year; from them she derived her love of liberty and her enthusiastic admiration for whatever was great and noble in character. In 1780, she married M. Roland, then Inspector-general of Manufactures; afterwards as a Girondist, to hold high office in the government. The two visited England and Switzerland, where their love of constitutional freedom became even stronger than before. Mme. Roland, especially, by her genius and the charms of her conversation, became the "inspiring soul" of the Girondist party. When her husband, in 1792, was Minister of the Interior, she composed some of his most important state-papers. In May, 1793, having been proscribed by the Jacobins, M. Roland took refuge in the country. His wife remained in Paris and was thrown into prison. On the scaffold, recalling her lifelong enthusiasm for the very watch-words which were now falsely used for her condemnation, she exclaimed, "O Liberty! what crimes are committed in thy name!"

2. Charlotte Corday, born in Normandy, 1768, spent several of her early years in a convent at Caen, where she was noted for her sweet and earnest piety. In appearance, she was tall, beautiful, and of commanding dignity. She sympathized warmly with the new movements for popular rights, so far as they were orderly and just, but mourned the proscription of the Girondists and the brutal excesses to which the revolutionary mania had run. By a long course of silent meditation, she came to the resolution to save many lives, by the sacrifice of her own. She was executed in July, 1793.

4. Napoleon Bonaparte was born at Ajaccio, Corsica, in August, 1769. His father had been one of the bravest defenders of that island against the French, but it was conquered a few months before Napoleon's birth, so that he was born a subject of the Bourbons. Before he was ten years of age, the little Napoleon quitted his home for the military college at Brienne. He could speak only Italian, was poor, and suffered much from the rudeness of his fellow-students; but he was diligent in study, and gave proof already of those wonderful talents for war and administration, in which he surpassed almost every man who has ever lived. He was fond of history, especially delighting in the writings of Cæsar, Plutarch, and Arrian. His military education was completed at Paris, and he became captain of artillery in February, 1792.

The chief events of his life are narrated in the text. In comparing him with the two or three other generals of the first rank whom History has described, it has been remarked that Cæsar had, perhaps, more fertility of invention, but no great ruler was ever so completely the architect of his own fortunes as Napoleon. "Cyrus and Alexander each inherited as his birthright a powerful kingdom; Hannibal and Cæsar were respectively the representatives of high and influential families. Napoleon, on the contrary, except his energy and genius, possessed not a single advantage that might not have fallen to the lot of the humblest citizen of France."

5. **Horatio Nelson**, born in Norfolk, England, 1758, distinguished himself, even in boyhood, by his brave, impetuous, and energetic character. At the age of 13 he entered the navy, served some years in the East Indies, and fought in several battles of the American Revolution. In 1793, he obtained command of a ship in the Mediterranean fleet, had part in a victory over the Spaniards four years later, at Cape St. Vincent, and rose to the rank of Rear Admiral. In an attack on Teneriffe, he lost his right arm.

In the Battle of the Baltic, 1801, he was second in command to Sir Hyde Parker, and his obstinacy won the day.

Off Cape Trafalgar he encountered 40 French and Spanish ships, his own numbering only 31. Before the fight began, he signaled from his mast-head, "England expects every man to do his duty." Southey pronounces him "the greatest naval hero of our own and of all former times." His memory is warmly cherished by the English people.

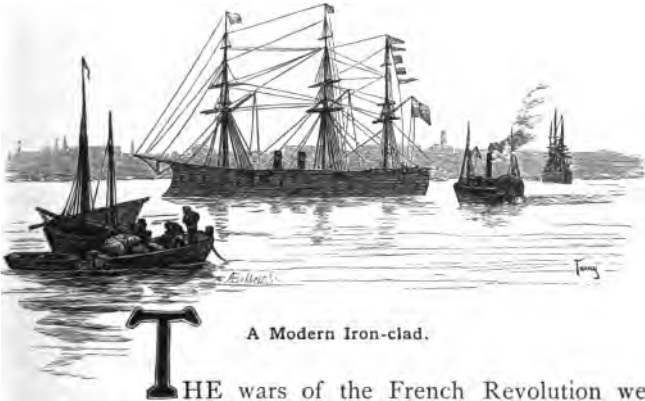
6. **Arthur Wellesley**, first Duke of Wellington, was born in Ireland, 1769, four months earlier than the young Corsican who was to be his chief antagonist. He was educated at Eton, and at a military school in France, and, in 1787, was commissioned as ensign. In 1794, he served in the Netherlands under the command of the Duke of York. Becoming colonel in 1796, he was ordered to India, where his eldest brother, Lord Mornington, was soon afterward made Governor-General. War soon broke out with Tippon Sahib, son of Hyder Ali (see note 2, Ch. XII), and Colonel Wellesley distinguished himself by his energy and sagacity, both in military matters and afterwards as Governor of Seringapatam. Returning to England in 1805, he was elected the next year to a seat in the House of Commons, and, in 1807, became Chief Secretary for Ireland. His greatest military fame was attained in the Peninsular War. At first the French bore down all before them, "Wellington was aware," says a French writer, "that Fortune could not change sides at a leap, . . . and that before acquiring the art of gaining great victories it was necessary to begin by learning to avoid defeats." By constructing his triple lines of defense at Torres Vedras, near Lisbon, and by his firm, but patient and cautious method of warfare, profiting by every blunder of his adversaries, he succeeded at length in overthrowing French ascendancy in Spain and Portugal. His success was largely due to the confidence which he inspired by his perfect integrity and truthfulness. Both in the Peninsula and in France, he compelled the troops to respect private property, and thus in time gained the goodwill of the people among whom he was obliged to pass. For his repeated successes in Spain he was raised to the peerage, first as Baron Douro of Wellesley, and Viscount Wellington of Talavera, subsequently as Marquis, and finally, Duke of Wellington.

The battle of Waterloo was fought June 18, 1815. It was the object of Napoleon to defeat Wellington before Blücher could arrive with his Prussian Army; and to this end he put forth his mightiest efforts. They were vain, for, at 4 P. M. 16,000 Prussians arrived upon the field, and the day was lost.

Wellington and the allied armies entered Paris, July 7, and the duke was subsequently appointed to command the army of occupation (‡715), which, for five years—afterwards, by Wellington's advice, reduced to three—was to keep France in subjection. In England, he held several high positions in the government, of which he was for some years at the head; always distinguished by his strict Tory or conservative principles, which led him to oppose parliamentary reform (‡657). He died 1852; and his burial in St. Paul's Cathedral was commemorated by Tennyson the Poet Laureate, in a grand Ode.

CHAPTER XIV.

ABSOLUTISTS AND LIBERALS IN EUROPE.



A Modern Iron-clad.

THE wars of the French Revolution were now ended, and a grand congress of sovereigns, or their representatives, met at Vienna, to consult together for the restoration of order. The “balance of power” which they then arranged, lasted more than forty years. A. D. 1815.

715. Prussia received back her lost territories and more; so that she now became one of the Five Great Powers. Austria was consoled for the loss of the Netherlands by all of northern Italy, except the kingdom of Sardinia. France, Spain, and Naples were again subjected to the Bourbons; and humiliated France had to maintain a foreign army of 150,000 men, who were quartered upon her frontier, to keep her from again disturbing the general peace.

716. Thirty-nine German sovereigns and free cities formed a new confederation, with its capital at Frankfort-

on-the-Main. Holland and Belgium were united in the kingdom of the Netherlands, with the Prince of Orange for their king. The Five Great Powers—Great Britain, France, Russia, Austria, and Prussia—held themselves responsible for maintaining the balance of power, by interfering in behalf of any state which might be injured and unable to defend itself.

717. The czar¹ proposed to the other sovereigns a Holy Alliance, binding them to “remain united in true brotherly love; to govern their subjects as parents, and to maintain religion, peace, and justice.” This promised well, but it was soon found that the allied sovereigns meant to be very despotic “parents,” by no means allowing their children to act or think for themselves. Hence arose a conflict between Absolutism and Liberalism, which led at last to the revolutions of 1848.

718. Spain, trying to throw off the stupid tyranny of Ferdinand VII.—who had restored the Inquisition and all the abuses of his ancestors—was subdued by a French army of 100,000 men, under the influence of the Alliance. The liberal constitution was overthrown, and absolute despotism restored. In Italy multitudes of Liberals joined themselves in secret societies to resist the Hapsburgs in the north and the Bourbons in the south (§634).

719. That of the *Carbonari* (charcoal-men) numbered half a million. In 1820, they made an open attack upon the government at Naples in such force that the king granted all they asked—the Spanish “Constitution of 1812” and a Liberal ministry. The Holy Alliance again interfered, and an Austrian army restored despotism in Naples. The rule of the Hapsburgs, in northern Italy, was, if possible, more odious than that of the Bourbons. Persons who were only suspected² of sympathy with the Carbonari, suddenly disappeared, and spent the rest of their lives in solitary dungeons.

720. Liberalism was kept alive, in Germany, by the youth in the Universities, whose high spirits doubtless taxed the patience of the paternal governments. Some outbreak of eloquence, on the third centennial of the Reformation, brought a reprimand from the Alliance. A half crazy student of Jena thereupon murdered Kotzebue,³ the Russian consul; and the sovereigns, fancying some wide-spread conspiracy, insisted upon taking away the freedom of the Universities.

721. The revolt of the Greeks against the cruel oppressions of the Turks was met in the same spirit; but that brave people persevered until their independence was won. Prince Ypsilanti,⁴ in 1821, publicly announced that the servitude of four hundred years was ended, and that Greece was determined to be free. Hundreds of Greek students hastened to enroll themselves in a Sacred Band, bearing upon their shields the Spartan motto, "Either this or on this." The Turks tried to crush the movement by atrocious massacres; the Sacred Band was cut to pieces, and the beautiful isle of Scio was laid waste; forty thousand of its people perished, while the strongest and most beautiful youth were dragged away to the Turkish slave-markets.

722. The next year Marco Bozzaris⁵ and his Suliote band fell upon a Turkish camp by night and gained a complete victory, with the loss of his own life. Though governments might be indifferent or hostile, the people all over Europe were thrilled with sympathy for the Greeks; money, food and clothing were supplied, and many volunteers sought the honor of serving in their ranks (§ 656). At last the governments of Great Britain, France and Russia were moved to interfere, and their combined fleets defeated the Turks in the Bay of Navarino.

723. The soul of the Holy Alliance departed when Alexander I. died, in 1825. His brother Nicholas, who succeeded

him, coveted the Turkish possessions on the Black Sea, and his movements in that direction forced the sultan to acknowledge the independence of the Greeks. Prince Otho of Bavaria⁶ was chosen to be their king, under the influence of the allied powers.

724. In 1830 the Liberal spirit became powerful enough to accomplish several peaceful revolutions. Charles X., who had succeeded his brother Louis XVIII. as king of France, offended the people by limiting the freedom of the press and of voting. He was forced to resign his crown and take refuge in Great Britain. The duke of Orléans,⁷ son of Egalité, was called to the throne as "King of the French," with a liberal constitution, much like that of England.

725. Belgium at the same time separated from Holland and chose Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg to be its king. The Poles made a brave but vain effort to throw off the harsh yoke of the Russians, which was made harder to them by the tyrannical temper of the viceroy, the grand-duke Constantine, brother of the czar. Their very nationality was now blotted out; 80,000 patriots were sent A. D. 1832. in one year to toil in the frozen deserts of Siberia; and children were even separated from their parents to be trained in military colonies.

726. Under the reign of Louis Philippe, France enjoyed some years of peace and prosperity. Still, the "citizen-king" found it impossible to please all parties. Strict monarchists thought that no one could rightfully reign over France excepting Henry V., the grandson of Charles X.; Bonapartists longed for the military glories of the Empire; and a growing multitude of Liberals desired a French Republic. A severe loss was felt in the death of the duke of Orléans, the heir to the crown, whom all men loved and trusted.

727. The king's interference in the Spanish marriages hastened his fall. Ferdinand VII. had died in 1833,

leaving only two little daughters, the oldest of whom was three years old. His brother, Don Carlos, claimed the crown under the "Salic Law" (§ 405), but Louis Philippe and a strong party in Spain upheld the little queen, who afterward became the too noted Isabella II. The French king wished to increase his own power by choosing husbands for the queen and her sister. To the former he allotted the half-idiotic Francis of Assis, but for her sister, whom he thought likelier to live and reign, he destined his own son, the duke of Montpensier. The marriages both took place, but the Orléans Dynasty was less benefited by them than had been hoped.

728. The Liberals were now powerful in France; and at one of their great Reform Banquets in the open air, the usual toast to the king was omitted, while the "sovereignty of the people" was received with great applause. The government tried to suppress the next meeting of this kind, at which 100,000 people were expected to be present. The guns of the forts were pointed inward upon the city, and 60,000 soldiers were ready Feb., 1848. to fire upon the mob. This aroused the fury of the lowest class of the people, who, swarming together from their dens and cellars, barricaded the streets and raised the cry, "Long live the Republic!"

729. The king and his sons fled, but the widowed duchess of Orléans⁸ came with her little son into the revolutionary assembly,—calm and undaunted, though weapons were aimed at her heart. She reminded the deputies of her husband's exalted character, and promised that she would teach his son to be like him, true to the people. But a voice from the tribune cried, "Too late!" and a republic was proclaimed.

730. National workshops were now opened, where all who applied found employment and wages. But this plan, though it seemed benevolent, proved very dangerous;

100,000 workmen were soon massed together in the public shops, and any attempt to control them aroused their fury. The attempt to abate this peril by dismissing a great number of men led to a terrible four days' battle in the streets of Paris. General Cavaignac⁹ by his cool, wise and prompt measures restored order. A new constitution was now adopted, and Louis Napoleon Bonaparte,¹⁰ a nephew of the emperor, became president of the French Republic.

731. The Liberals were every-where in arms, especially in Germany, Hungary and Italy, and the year 1848 was marked by revolutions all over Europe. In a riot at Vienna, the war-minister La Tour was beaten to death by the mob, and the Emperor Ferdinand fled, leaving his capital in their hands. He soon afterward resigned in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph I.

732. The Hungarians revolted against the long-hated dominion of the Hapsburgs, and set up a republic with Louis Kossuth at its head. Many Poles, having no country of their own, became "soldiers of liberty" and rendered good service to the Hungarians, while the Czar Nicholas sent armies to the aid of his Austrian ally. The brave Hungarians were unable to hold out long against the combined forces of despotism. In May, 1849, the brutal field-marshal Haynau, who had crushed the revolution in northern Italy, was placed at the head of the Austrian armies, and by a great victory at Temesvar, overthrew the republic. Kossuth resigned, and Gorgei was made dictator; but within two days Gorgei surrendered his whole army with its cannon and stores to the Russians. Kossuth and a few companions escaped into Turkey, where they were kindly received by the Sultan, the hereditary foe of the Czar; a few years later he visited America, where his eloquent speeches awakened great sympathy for his oppressed countrymen.

733. The Italian insurgents were scarcely more successful

in their stroke for liberty; but one important step was gained in the acknowledged leadership of the House of Savoy, which, ten years later, secured the unity and independence of Italy. Pope Pius IX. had begun his reign in 1846 with liberal measures, which excited great hopes; but when the people demanded war against Austria in aid of the Lombard insurgents, he refused. His minister, Count Rossi, was murdered, and the pope's palace was assaulted, but he himself escaped to Gaëta.

734. Among the noted actors in the Italian revolution was Joseph Garibaldi, a defender of freedom, and a foe to despotism in every form. Garibaldi entered Rome with a band of volunteers; and an Assembly was called, which deposed the pope and proclaimed a republic with Mazzini at its head. The French president sent an army to the aid of Pope Pius; it was defeated by Garibaldi before the walls of Rome; but after more troops arrived from France, the city was taken and the republic was overthrown, July 3, 1849. Feb. 1849.

735. In Germany a national parliament proposed to re-vice the Empire and to place the king of Prussia at its head. But Frederic William IV. refused the crown, and for some years the multitude of German states were less united than ever. Most of the petty sovereigns gave free constitutions to their people; *i. e.*, they conceded freedom of speech and of the press, and shared the law-making power with representatives chosen by ballot.

Point out the dominions of the Hapsburgs in Hungary, Germany, and Italy. Of the Bourbons in Spain and Italy. See §740.

NOTE.—The kingdom of Naples had been conferred upon Charles VI. of Austria, by the treaty of Rastadt, in 1714 (see §630), but in 1734 it was conquered by the Spanish Bourbons, and reunited with Sicily under a younger branch of that family. §634.

Read Dyer's *Modern Europe*; "Memoirs" of Guizot and De Tocqueville.

NOTES.

1. This was Alexander I., son of Paul I. of Russia, and grandson of Catherine the Great (§ 608 and note). Born at St. Petersburg, in 1777, he was educated under the special care of his grandmother, who herself wrote stories for his amusement and instruction, and designed that he should be her immediate successor, to the exclusion of his father. Paul, however, destroyed the will, and reigned five years after his mother's death, before his foolish and tyrannical conduct provoked the conspiracy which ended his life. Alexander came to the throne at the age of 34, a far nobler and better sovereign than any of his predecessors. The invasion of his dominions in 1812 (§ 706), roused all the energy of his nature, and from that time until his death he held a foremost place in European politics. Since the Peace of Tilsit (§ 708) he had been a friend of Napoleon; henceforth he was a powerful but generous enemy. In 1814, he protected Paris from the rage of his own soldiers, and obtained for Napoleon the most favorable terms that the allies would grant. He liberated 150,000 French prisoners of war who had been detained in Russia, and freely forgave all his own subjects who had taken part against him. He labored with great diligence for the reform of abuses in every part of his government, both military and civil. But with all the czar's humane intentions, he dared not trust his people with the smallest degree of freedom; his idea of his own duty involved the exercise of absolute control, like that of a wise and powerful parent over very young and ignorant children. In his later years, his morbid hatred of revolutions grew upon him, and he devoted most of his energy to the repression of liberal movements, not only in his own dominions, but in Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Germany. He died, December, 1825, and, having no son, was succeeded by his brother Nicholas. § 662 and note 8.

2. Silvio Pellico, an Italian poet, has given in his beautiful narrative, "My Prisons," a true account of the sufferings inflicted in Austrian dungeons. For no other crime than membership in a secret society, he was immured for eight years in the fortress of Spielberg, Moravia. He was a man of refined culture, a friend of Lords Brougham and Byron and of Mme. de Staël.

3. Kotzebue was a German dramatist of some merit, born in Weimar, 1761. At the age of 20 he entered the Russian service, and was made governor of Esthonia, and, some years later, in 1817, was charged by Alexander I. with the task of watching and reporting to him the movements of the popular mind in Germany. Kotzebue had already made himself odious to many Germans by his openly expressed contempt for liberal opinions, and Karl Ludwig Sand put him to death as a "traitor to liberty."

4. Alexander Ypsilanti, one of a family of patriotic statesmen, was born at Constantinople, 1792. He fought with distinction in the Russian armies, and, at the age of 25, attained the rank of major-general. In 1820 he was made president of the Hetaeria, a secret society formed for the promotion of Greek independence. He was imprisoned six years in an Austrian dungeon, and, though released at the intercession of the Czar Nicholas, whose father he had so ably served, he died a year after his release, in 1828. His brother Dimitri commanded the army of freedom in Eastern Greece, 1828-1832.

5. Marco Bossaris was born at Suli, in Albania, about 1790, served in the army of Napoleon, 1808-1815, but threw himself with zeal into the Greek Revolution as soon as it broke out, in 1820. He became general of the forces of Western Greece in 1822, and fell the next year in his assault upon a Turkish camp. This event has been immortalized by our American poet, Fitz Greene Halleck.

6. Otho was a son of King Ludwig I. of Bavaria. He was born 1815, and chosen in 1832 to be king of the Greeks. In many respects his reign proved uncongenial to his people. The allies had meant to make him an arbitrary sovereign, but, in 1843, the people demanded a representa-

tive assembly, and the king was compelled to yield. In 1862 he resigned his crown, and the next year Prince George of Denmark, brother of the Princess of Wales, became king of the Hellenes.

7. This was Louis Philippe, eldest son of Philippe Egalité (§ 688), whose cruel desertion of his cousin's cause did not save his own head from the guillotine.

The younger prince was a better man than his father. He had imbibed liberal principles in his childhood while acquiring habits of prudence and self-control under the teachings of his governess, Mme. de Genlis, and he favored the popular cause in the French Revolution. He had need for all that he had learned during the strange adventures of his exile, for as a prince he could hardly escape the suspicions of the successive revolutionary governments, though he had served in their armies against the Austrians. At one time he was a professor in a German college under an assumed name; at another, teaching French in the United States; and afterwards, for eight years, a resident in England. When Louis XVIII. came to the throne in 1814, the duke of Orleans returned to France, and received all the honors and estates that were his by inheritance. He affected popular manners, and even displeased the king (Charles X.), by sending his sons to the public schools and colleges, but he kept aloof from public affairs until the revolution of 1830 called him to the throne.

Though peaceful as far as Europe was concerned, the reign of Louis Philippe was marked by the beginning of French conquests in Africa. Algeria became a military colony of France; and it was not till 1871 that a civil government was established in the settled districts. After the king's abdication, he retired to England, where he died at his estate of Claremont, 1850.

8. Helene Louise Elisabeth, Duchess of Orleans, was a German princess of beautiful and noble character—a daughter of the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin. She retired to England with the rest of the royal family and died at Richmond in 1858.

9. General Louis Eugène de Cavaignac had proved and developed his military talents in Algeria, where he served, 1832-1848, when, in the year of revolutions, he was called home to defend the government against the Parisian mob. The Assembly invested him with absolute power, but as soon as order was restored he resigned his dictatorship, only to be called immediately to the position of President of the Republic under the provisional government. This place he held six months, until a general election had decided in favor of Bonaparte for permanent president. He then took his seat in the Assembly as a moderate Republican. After the empire was declared, he refused to take the oath of allegiance, and retired to private life, leaving an unsullied record.

10. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte was a son of Louis, king of Holland (§§ 703, 707), brother of the Emperor Napoleon I., and of Hortense, daughter of the Empress Josephine. Born at the palace of the Tuilleries, 1808, he, at seven years of age, became an exile with his mother, upon the fall of the empire. On the death, in 1832, of his cousin, the king of Rome (§ 706), he became the representative of the Bonapartist claims; and, in 1836, made a foolish and unsuccessful attempt, with a few followers, at a capture of Strasburg. Being arrested, he was soon set at liberty and took refuge in the United States. Four years later, he made an equally vain attack upon Boulogne, and this time was sentenced to perpetual imprisonment in the fortress of Ham. After six years he made his escape, and lived for two years in London. The revolution of 1848 opened a way for his return to France, where he was elected in June to be a member of the National Assembly, and, in the following December, to be President of the Republic for four years.

The remaining events of his life belong to general history. His literary tastes were exercised, before his accession to power, chiefly in writings on political and military subjects, his most noted work being "Napoleonic Ideas," published in 1839. After he became emperor, he commenced, but never finished, a "Life of Cæsar," in which he is supposed to have designed a double parallel between his imperial uncle and the great Julius; and between himself and Augustus (see §§ 238, 239).

CHAPTER XV.

THE SECOND FRENCH EMPIRE.



A Prussian Soldier.

THE French Republic, like that of half a century before, was soon exchanged for an imperial government. Having first placed at the head of the army men who were committed to his plans, President Bonaparte caused the principal generals and statesmen of France to be suddenly seized and imprisoned during the night following December 1, 1851. An army was already massed in Paris, the newspaper offices were occupied by soldiers, and the morning editions suppressed, while the government printers were setting up placards which appeared before daylight on all the walls.

737. These declared the capital in a state of siege, the National Assembly dissolved, and called for a new election by universal suffrage. The telegraph told the remotest corners of France that the revolution was already accomplished, and that Bonaparte was responsible head of the government for ten years. The deputies, protesting, were carted away to prison; and the Supreme Court was broken up by an armed force. The *coup d'état* seemed to have succeeded without bloodshed, for the prosperous classes

liked any thing better than anarchy, or the reign of the mob; and all who remembered the First Empire felt sure of a strong and efficient government under a Bonaparte.

738. But, on December 4, the army in the streets began to fire, apparently without orders, upon a throng of peaceable citizens; multitudes more were massacred in prison, and 26,500 were transported to Cayenne and the African coast. Whatever resistance there might have been, was now crushed: the people conferred the whole executive power on Louis Napoleon Bonaparte for ten years; and the next autumn, by a similar vote, he became "Napoleon III,* by the grace of God and the will of the people, Emperor of the French."

739. The war in the Crimea, in which France and England were the allies of the Turks against Russia, has been described (§§ 662-665). It was brought about mainly by Napoleon, who wished to please his army and nation by a taste of military glory, such as they associated with his uncle's name. The war was ended by the treaty of Paris, 1856; and, soon afterward, France became the ally of Victor Emanuel,¹ king of Sardinia, in a war against Austria.

740. Brave men from all the states of Italy sought the camp of Victor Emanuel, and the contest which followed is called the War of Italian Nationality. The Austrian rulers of Tuscany, Modena, and Parma fled from their misgoverned dominions, and their armies joined the allies, who gained decisive victories at Montebello, Palestro, and Magenta. To the latter, General McMahon A. D. 1859. contributed by coming up with reserves at the right moment, and he was rewarded with the rank of Marshal of France and Duke of Magenta.²

* His cousin, the King of Rome (§ 706), had died near Vienna, in 1852.

741. A few days later Napoleon and Victor Emanuel entered Milan in triumph. The last great battle of the war was fought at Solferino, June 24; and, by the treaty of Villafranca, Francis Joseph surrendered all his claims to Lombardy and the protection of the three duchies. The next year Sicily was conquered by Garibaldi and his volunteers, and the Bourbon king, Francis II., fled from Naples. The Two Sicilies united of their own accord with the Kingdom of Italy, which now embraced the whole peninsula excepting the territories of Rome and Venice. French troops still occupied Rome and protected the sovereignty of the pope.

742. Napoleon III. was now at the height of his power, and his history is inseparable from that of all Europe. In 1861 he even interfered in American affairs, by assuming a protectorate of the "Latin Race" on that continent. Mexico was in a state of revolution, and a French army, occupying its capital, secured a vote for an hereditary empire in place of the republic. The archduke Maximilian,³ brother of Francis Joseph, was chosen emperor under French influence; and entered the City of Mexico with the Empress Carlotta in June, 1864. President Juarez removed the seat of his government to Monterey, and war between the empire and the republic went on for three years with varying fortunes. In 1867, the French troops having been withdrawn, Maximilian was taken prisoner and was shot at Queretaro. The republic was reëstablished.

743. Napoleon had now met a powerful opponent to his management of European affairs. This was Count von Bismarck,⁴ the Prussian chancellor, who had resolved to see his sovereign at the head of united Germany. Austria and Prussia had lately engaged together in the Schleswig-Holstein war, which ended in the separation of those duchies from Denmark; but, in the division of the spoils, a new war arose—a short but very decisive contest, which revolutionized Germany.

744. The Prussian armies had been thoroughly reorganized; the infantry had the needle-gun, which, for swiftness and accuracy in firing, had never been surpassed. The king of Italy made a close alliance with Prussia, and attacked the Austrians at Custoza with less good fortune than his northern friends. The main action of the "Seven Weeks' War" was the battle of Sadowa, where the needle-gun won the day for the Prussians, while the white-coated Austrian cavalry,—hitherto considered the best and bravest in Europe,—was put to flight by the Uhlans. A. D. 1866.

745. By the treaty of Prague, Austria withdrew at once from Germany and Italy, ceding Venetia to Victor Emanuel, and recognizing Prussia as the head of the North German Confederation, which succeeded to the arrangement of 1815 (§ 716). Thus shorn of his German and Italian dominions, Francis Joseph took the wise course of reforming his own hereditary states. A representative parliament was convened at Vienna, which in a single session swept away abuses of a thousand years, making all classes, religions, and races equal before the laws. The "Austro-Hungarian Monarchy" is now as liberal as any in Europe.

746. The swift and surprising changes made by the Seven Weeks' War were little relished by Napoleon III., who had thought that his aid would be needed by Prussia. Several little diplomatic moves,—made in order to regain his lost importance,—were quietly checkmated by Bismarck, but at length a revolution in Spain afforded the desired cause of war.

747. Isabella II. had been compelled to quit her kingdom and take refuge in France, while the reign of the Spanish Bourbons was declared to be ended. Many candidates sought the vacant throne,—among them a new Don Carlos, grandson of the queen's uncle (§ 727). But Carlos was the representative of absolutism and priestcraft, and the Spaniards had no mind to crown another Philip II. They invited

Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern, a very distant relative of the king of Prussia, to be their sovereign. Napoleon chose to consider this as a Prussian aggression, though King William I. declared that he had nothing to do with the matter, and could not prevent Leopold's taking the crown if he chose it. Leopold himself refused to be a candidate, as soon as he heard of the excitement at Paris.

748. All was in vain. The French armies began their march to the Rhine on the day of Leopold's resignation. On July 19th, Napoleon declared war against Prussia, and, leaving the Empress Eugénie as regent during his absence, went to the frontier with his son. It was soon found that the French army was unfit for service. No regiment was full, and no supplies of food were provided. Thousands of men went starving into battle, and it is no wonder that the gallant army which left Paris so gayly for the "march to Berlin" found itself unable even to defend France.

749. The Prussians were drilled, fed and equipped to the highest degree of efficiency, and, when joined by the South-German forces, had more than twice the numbers of the French. Napoleon gained a slight advantage at Saarbrücken, but it was almost the last of the French victories. Three German armies crossed the frontier into France. The Crown Prince threatened Paris; while his cousin Frederic Charles three times severely defeated Bazaine, who was now at the head of the main French army, and finally shut him up in Metz with his whole command.

750. McMahon was meanwhile mustering a new force for the relief of Bazaine; but the Crown Prince contrived to crowd him back upon Sedan, where, after a tremendous battle, the fortress itself and the whole French army, including cannon, horses and 108,000 men, were surrendered to the Germans. The French emperor, who was with McMahon, surrendered himself, September 2d, 1870, and remained for a time a prisoner at Wilhelmshöhe, an old

palace of his uncle, King Jerome. He died at Chiselhurst, in England, the 9th of January, 1873.

751. Paris was filled with terror; the Crown Prince and his victorious army were daily expected at her gates. The Legislative Assembly declared that the empire had ceased to exist. The Empress-Regent and her son took refuge in England, and a provisional republic was proclaimed with General Trochu at its head. A large party in France now desired peace. The king of Prussia had constantly declared that he had no quarrel with the French people, but only with their emperor who had insulted him; but he now demanded Alsace and Lorraine (§ 617), while the republic, though willing to pay a large amount of money, refused to cede an "inch of its land or a stone of its fortresses." For this cause the war went on.

752. On September 18, the Crown Prince took up his quarters at Versailles and his armies besieged Paris. Gambetta, escaping in a balloon, joined some other members of the provisional government at Tours, which was for a time the French capital. Strasburg was taken by the Germans, September 28, after a fierce cannonade; and a month later Bazaine surrendered the stronghold of Metz, with his army of 180,000 men and officers and an immense number of cannon.

753. Germany gained its long-desired unity, while France was on the verge of ruin. All the German states joined in requesting the king of Prussia to assume the imperial crown. This time (§ 735) the offer was accepted, and the Emperor William I. was crowned in the great hall at Versailles. Paris at last was starved into submission. On the 28th of January, 1871, the sixteen forts which formed her outer circle of defense were surrendered. Three weeks' truce was allowed so that the French people might vote for a new government. A republic was proclaimed, and Thiers^b was chosen as its president. The gov-
Jan., 1871.

ernment made peace with Germany, ceding Alsace and Lorraine and engaging to pay one thousand millions of dollars as war indemnity to the conqueror.

754. A still greater calamity now befell Paris. That fierce, ignorant and lawless rabble, which had made the worst element in all previous revolutions, gained control of the city, while the rightful government was forced to retire to Versailles. Many battles were fought for the forts south of Paris. Strong parties in other great cities sympathized with the Commune, for it was suspected that Thiers' government favored a restoration of monarchy, while the towns were uniformly republican.

755. Victory at last remained with the Versailles forces; and the Communists, becoming desperate, fired Paris with trains of petroleum, destroying the Tuileries, the Hotel de Ville and other splendid buildings. The archbishop of Paris and many others were wantonly murdered, and the desolation wrought by the Commune far exceeded that of the German siege.

756. The French troops having meanwhile been withdrawn from Rome, that city was occupied by Victor Emanuel, and the people of the States of the Church signified, by an almost unanimous vote, their desire to be united with the Kingdom of Italy. Pope Pius IX.⁶ was recognized in all his dignities as head of the Roman Church; and princely revenues were secured to him, with undisturbed possession of the Leonine City (§305); but his temporal sovereignty ceased to exist.

The first months of 1878 were marked by the death of the two chief actors in recent Italian affairs. King Victor Emanuel died, January 9, in the Quirinal Palace at Rome; and Pope Pius IX., February 7, in the Vatican. Humbert I. succeeded his father as king of united Italy, and Cardinal Pecci became Pope Leo XIII. Under several able ministers, Italy has gained importance among European states.

757. In 1873, Thiers having resigned, Marshal McMahon was chosen to be president, for seven years, of the French republic. The war debt was promptly paid by a popular loan, and in spite of this enormous tax upon the industry of the people, the national finances were restored to a healthy and prosperous condition. A year before the expiration of the "Septennat" McMahon resigned his office, and M. Grévy, President of the Chamber of Deputies, was chosen to succeed him. Gambetta,—always a leading spirit in the republic, through his great abilities and his liberal policy,—became President of the Deputies, and in November, 1881, was placed at the head of the Cabinet. The seat of government was removed from Versailles to Paris in June, 1879.

The same month, Prince Louis Napoleon, son of the late Emperor (§750), was killed in a fight with the Zulus in southern Africa. He had named his cousin, Prince Victor, to succeed him at the head of the Bonapartists, who still hope to regain the ascendancy in France.

758. Spain, after a short-lived republic, and a two years' attempt at constitutional monarchy under Amadeo, son of the king of Italy, restored her Bourbon line in the person of Alfonso XII., son of the ex-queen Isabella. Alfonso guaranteed freedom of worship and some provision for popular instruction, and invited the Jews, after their exile of centuries (p. 191), to return to Spain. Under this enlightened policy, it may be hoped that the great peninsula, so richly endowed by nature, will in time recover from the effects of ages of misrule.

759. It is long since the Turks, as conquerors (§§560, 563), threatened the peace of Europe; but the vast interests of England and Russia, in the East, render them jealous of any changes in the Turkish territories. Meanwhile the Christian subjects of the Sultan have had to suffer intolerable oppressions. In June, 1875, the little province of

Herzegovina revolted, with the hearty sympathy of her neighbors. The next May the French and German consuls at Salonica were murdered by a Turkish mob. Russia, Austria, and Germany then united in what is called the "Berlin Memorandum," requiring Turkey to reform her government, and give security of life and property to Mussulmans and Christians alike. England refused to join in the demand; and within a month Bulgaria was the scene of horrid brutalities by the Turks. All Europe was inflamed with indignation; Servia and Montenegro declared war, with secret aid from Russia; the Sultan, Abd-el-Aziz, was deposed, and probably murdered by his ministers; and in December, 1876, a conference of six great powers met at Constantinople. The Turkish government refusing to accede to their demands, the Czar declared war, and marched his armies to the Danube and into Armenia.

760. Fierce fighting went on for a year in the Balkan passes and the mountains south of the Black Sea. The decisive events were the surrender of Kars, in Armenia, with
Nov. 18, 1877. 300 cannons and 10,000 prisoners, and of
Dec. 10. Plevna, in the Balkan region, with 30,000 men. The Trojan and Shipka Passes were immediately seized by the Russians, and both parties were now ready to treat for peace. By the treaty of San Stefano, May 3, 1878, Russia was confirmed in the possession of her recent conquests in Asia, including the port of Batoum on the Black Sea. England protested against this easy settlement of affairs, and by a special agreement with the Sultan, June 4, engaged to protect Asiatic Turkey against future invasion, on the condition of pledges of reform in the government of that region, and the assignment to her of the island of Cyprus.

This protectorate would of itself prove the decay of the Ottoman power, but additional evidence is found in the rapid decline of population, which has turned large tracts of once fruitful land into wildernesses.

761. On the 13th of June, 1878, a Congress of European Powers* assembled at Berlin, under the presidency of Prince Bismarck, and devoted a month to the discussion of questions growing out of the recent war. Bulgaria was secured in a Christian government of her own, her reigning prince being chosen by the people, but confirmed by the Sultan with the consent of all the "Powers." Eastern Roumelia was made equally free as to internal affairs, but had her prince appointed by the Sultan. Bosnia and Herzegovina were added to Austria. Roumania, Servia and Montenegro became wholly independent.

762. A "Supplementary Conference" was held at Berlin in June, 1880, to insist upon the needed reforms in Turkey, and to settle the boundaries of Greece and Montenegro. A league of Albanian mountaineers were resisting the transfer of territory to the latter which the Turks were ready to make; but upon the appearance of combined fleets of six Great Powers in the Mediterranean, and their proposal to seize the wealthy port of Smyrna as security for the execution of the treaty, the Sultan found strength to fulfill his promises, and late in November Dulcigno and its dependent territories were surrendered to Montenegro.

763. Russia, meanwhile, though victorious abroad, was threatened by enemies at home. Alexander II., by emancipating twenty-two millions of serfs in 1861, and by other liberal measures, had studied the best interests of his people; but the change from despotism to constitutional government could not be made in a day; and the Nihilists, a party opposed to all restraints of law or religion, were secretly acquiring great influence. They made repeated attempts upon the life of the Czar and some of his chief officers, the boldest of which was the undermining of the Winter Palace at

* These were Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Russia and Turkey.

St. Petersburg, in February, 1880, with dynamite and gun cotton. The Czar escaped, but ten soldiers were killed. Count Melikoff was then placed at the head of a Supreme Executive Commission, with absolute power to maintain order throughout the empire. In spite of his rigorous measures to discover and defeat the plots of the Nihilists, the Czar was fatally wounded by the explosion of a bomb, March 13, 1881, and died in a few hours. His son, Alexander III., became "Emperor of all the Russias." A similar spirit in Germany led to two attacks upon the venerable Emperor William, but though once wounded he recovered, and his assassins were captured.

764. The jealousies of England and Russia as to their possessions and influence in Asia caused an invasion of Afghanistan by a force from British India in November, 1878. The Governor-General, in his proclamation, charged the Ameer, Shere Ali, with favoring a Russian Embassy while refusing to receive one from Great Britain. He disclaimed any intention of conquest, and promised to respect the independence of the Afghans, but declared that England would never permit any other power than herself to interfere in their affairs. The frontier fortresses were seized by a British force, and the Kuram district was annexed to British India. Shere Ali fled into Turkestan, and a new Ameer was proclaimed under the influence of the invaders; but two days later they were severely defeated in a three hours' fight before Candahar. The British garrison of that place was relieved by General Sir Frederic Roberts, who after a long march defeated the Afghan army before the place, August 31, 1880; but the war resulted in enormous expense and little credit to its authors. It was, in fact, one of the most unpopular measures of the government of Lord Beaconsfield,⁷ who was succeeded, in April, 1880, by Mr. Gladstone,⁸ long the head of the Liberal party in England.

765. In Ireland scanty harvests in 1877 and 1878, and a total failure in 1879, occasioned famine and misery, and led to an open revolt against the land laws. A Land League was formed in October, 1879, having for its object an immediate reduction of rents and an ultimate division of the land among those who cultivate it. The present English Premier, Mr. Gladstone, has always favored peasant proprietorship so far as it can be secured in a just and orderly manner, but the unlawful proceedings of the "Land Leaguers" have called for repressive measures. Mr. Parnell, president of the League and member of Parliament, was expelled from the House of Commons, January 24, 1881, and was subsequently imprisoned in Ireland. Twenty-nine other Irish members, known as "Home Rulers," were suspended for obstructing the business of the House.

The starvation in the western counties of Ireland called forth the generous sympathy of friends in America. Half a million of dollars were promptly sent from New York, and the U. S. frigate *Constitution* was dispatched with a liberal supply of food. The Mayor of Dublin and the Duchess of Marlborough, wife of the Lord-Lieutenant, also raised a relief fund from English charity; and the government, by bringing in a new Land Bill, strove to apply a remedy at the root of the distress. The rapid progress of French power in Tunis⁹ and the armed intervention of Great Britain in Egyptian affairs,¹⁰ are among the notable events of 1881 and 1882.

Trace on Map 13, the campaign of Napoleon III. in Italy. Point out Sadowa (in Bohemia), Sedan, Metz, Strasburg. Schleswig, Holstein, Alsace, Lorraine. Point out Salonica, Constantinople, Bosnia, Servia, Roumania, Roumelia; the Balkan Mountains, Cyprus.

Read Kinglake's "Invasion of the Crimea;" Lamartine's "History of the Revolution of 1848;" Blanchard Jerrold's "Life of Napoleon III.;" E. Dicey's "Victor Emmanuel;" Count Arrivabene's "Italy under Victor Emmanuel;" Hozier's "History of the Seven Weeks' War;" Rüstow's "The War for the Rhine Frontier;" Broadley's "The Fourth Punic War, or Tunis Past and Present."

NOTES.

1. **Victor Emmanuel II.** of Sardinia, but I. of all Italy, was born in 1820, at Turin. His family—that of the Dukes of Savoy—was one of the oldest reigning houses in Europe; but his kingdom was now in a depressed condition, owing to the predominant power of Austria. After a crushing defeat at Novara, in March, 1849, Charles Albert, the father of Victor Emmanuel, abdicated his crown in favor of his son, and soon afterward died. The younger king was fortunate in securing the services of Count Cavour, one of the greatest of Italian statesmen, who became his prime minister in 1852. His wise and liberal policy rallied about the House of Savoy the growing enthusiasm for Italian nationality, which was intensified by the unendurable despotism of the Bourbons and the Hapsburgs (§§ 718, 719). In 1861, Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed king of Italy; in 1866, the whole province of Venetia was surrendered by Austria, and in September, 1870, Rome was occupied by the royal troops. The seat of government, which had been removed, in 1865, from Turin to Florence, was now fixed at the ancient capital of Italy. See § 756.

2. **Marshal McMahon** was of Irish descent, his family having been settled in France since the days of Louis XIV. and James II. (§ 553). After 20 years' service in Algeria, he commanded a division of the French forces in the Crimean War, and distinguished himself in the siege of Sebastopol. See §§ 750, 757.

3. **Maximilian**, born 1832, had held the rank of admiral and commander-in-chief in the Austrian navy before he was called to the Mexican throne. He married, in 1858, the Princess Carlotta, daughter of King Leopold I. of Belgium, and, in domestic life, was remarkable for his amiable character. He was deceived as to the popular feeling in Mexico; and, after his cause was hopeless, refused to leave the country with the French troops, from unwillingness to desert those who had imperiled their lives for his sake. His unhappy wife lost her reason, from the shock of his untimely fate.

4. **Otto Eduard Leopold von Bismarck-Schönhausen** was born at Brandenburg in 1815; studied law at Göttingen and Berlin, and became a member of the Diet in 1847. After filling several important diplomatic stations, he became Prussian prime-minister in 1862. His policy, always steadily pursued, was the increase of Prussian power over the German states, to the exclusion of Austria. This came to complete success in 1866, as a result of the Seven Weeks' War, and in the subsequent establishment of the German empire with the king of Prussia at its head. In July, 1867, Bismarck was made Chancellor of the North German Confederation, and he has held the same office in the empire.

5. **Louis Adolphe Thiers** was born at Marseilles in 1797, when the Directory was still ruling France, and the stirring scenes in which his youth was passed intensified not only his love of his native land, but his efforts to comprehend her best interests. In 1821, he became sub-editor of a liberal journal in Paris, and, two years later, published the first volume of his "History of the French Revolution." In 1830, he used all his influence to place Louis Philippe upon the throne, and became the new king's first Councillor of State. He desired a monarchy like that of England, in which the ministry should be responsible to the people for all public acts; and originated the popular maxim, "The king reigns, he does not govern." In 1840, as the king would not assent to his policy towards Mehemet Ali (see note 10), Thiers resigned his post, and was succeeded by Guizot.

He voted for Louis Napoleon as President, but censured his subsequent acts, and firmly opposed the war with Prussia in 1870. When the empire had fallen, he threw all his energy into the service of the Republic, and, though now an old man, visited several European courts to present the claims of France to moral support and sympathy. He died in 1877, four years after his retirement from the presidency.

Besides his "History of the Revolution," in 10 volumes, M. Thiers has left a "History of the Consulate and the Empire," in 20 volumes; both works of standard authority.

6. **Giovanni Maria Mastai Ferretti**, who, in 1846, became Pope Pius the Ninth, was born in 1792, of a noble Italian family, near Ancona. In 1823 he visited South America on a religious mission, and is said, then and afterwards, to have spent almost his entire personal income in works of charity, contenting himself with the most frugal allowance.

His chosen policy was liberal; he reduced the expenses of the papal court, granted amnesty to political offenders, and introduced many needed reforms. But the excited revolutionists of 1848 demanded greater and greater concessions, and, after his return from Gaëta (§ 733), the Pope assumed a re-actionary policy. As early as 1860, Rome was declared to be the capital of united Italy; but the papal interests were maintained by a garrison of French soldiers. They were withdrawn by Louis Napoleon in 1866, and "Italy, for the first time in a thousand years, was free from the presence of foreign troops." The pontificate of Pius IX. is the longest on record, having lasted from 1846 to 1878.

7. **Benjamin Disraeli**, later the Earl of Beaconsfield, was a Jew by birth, though he early became a member of the Church of England. He was first distinguished as a novelist, but in 1837 he entered Parliament, where his first speech was a decided failure. Amid the storms of derisive-laughter, he exclaimed, "I shall sit down now, but the time will come when you will hear me." In truth, his career almost from that moment was marked by unexampled success. He gained reputation by his brilliant speeches against free trade, and raised himself to the position of leader of the Tory or Conservative party. Though he opposed all liberal movements toward Reform, he proposed and carried in 1867 a more radical Reform bill than any Liberal statesman had advocated. It extended the right of suffrage to every householder in a borough, and to every freeholder to the amount of 40 shillings. Disraeli favored the alliance with the Turks, and, in many respects, his Eastern policy was contrary to the best sentiment in England. It was during his ministry that the queen assumed the title of Empress of India. He died April 19, 1881.

8. **William Ewart Gladstone** was born in Liverpool, 1809; graduated with the highest distinction from Oxford, 1831, and the next year became a Conservative member of Parliament. For some months, in 1834 and 1835, he was a Lord of the Treasury. In 1841, under the ministry of Sir Robert Peel, he became vice-president of the Board of Trade, and subsequently president. He has always been noted for his skill in finance, and his aversion to war, having strenuously opposed the invasion of the Crimea, the Chinese War of 1857, and the interventions in Afghanistan and Eastern Europe.

9. **Tunis** is a Berber or Moorish town, close by the site of ancient Carthage, and possibly older than Carthage itself. For twelve centuries it has been a Moslem city. After its capture by Charles V., in 1535 (see § 465), it remained nearly 40 years under a Spanish protectorate; but, in 1574, the Turkish power was restored. The province or "regency" of Tunis extends from the Mediterranean 440 miles southward to the Great Desert, and is 160 miles wide, from Algeria on the west, to Tripoli and the sea on the east.

Since the establishment of French power in Algeria, there has been much jealousy in Italy concerning her commercial and agricultural interests in Tunis, and the remark has been heard in the Italian parliament that, "Carthage may be permitted to rise again, but not to the injury of Rome."

Early in 1881, the murder of some French citizens by Khamirs, or Kroumirs, on the border of Algeria and Tunis, led to the advance of French forces into the latter territory; and a naval armament appeared before Bizerta, which was taken May 1. In two weeks the army was before the gates of the capital and had imposed upon the Bey, Mohamed es Sadek, a treaty which made him virtually a vassal of the French Republic. Kairwan, the Holy City of the Moors, was taken Oct. 26, 1881. Until lately it had been sacredly guarded from even the sight of Europeans, and for a stranger to enter one of its mosques would have been instant death. It was from Kairwan that Tarik set out, in A. D. 711, for the conquest of Spain. See p. 183.

10. The present century has witnessed a new era of Egyptian history under the dynasty of Mehemet Ali. This noted chief was born in Roumelia in 1769. In 1798, at the head of the Turkish force, he took part with the British in Egypt, against the French. After foreign troops were withdrawn, he was appointed by the sultan first Pasha of Cairo, and afterwards governor of Upper Egypt. Here he set himself against the Mamelukes, who formed the military aristocracy of the country; and finally invited all their chief officers to a banquet in the citadel at Cairo, where he caused them to be shot down without mercy. Mehemet would have made himself the independent sovereign of Egypt, but for English intervention. As it was, his dependence was only marked by an enormous annual tribute, the oppressed people being compelled to support two governments instead of one.

Having served the sultan well by quelling a revolt in Syria, he received that country as his dominion, still under vassalage to Turkey, in 1833; but, in 1841, the sultan, becoming jealous of his powerful vassal, took away Syria, making the pachalic of Egypt hereditary in the family of Mehemet, by way of partial compensation. France and England concurred in the treaty by which this was arranged. Mehemet died in 1849.

The modernizing of Egypt proceeded much more rapidly under his grand-nephew, Ismail, who became viceroy in 1863, and four years later received the higher title, *Khediv-el-Misr*, or King of Egypt, though burdened with a still heavier tribute to the sultan, than his predecessors had borne. The cost of his government to his people is said to have hardly a parallel in even Oriental expenditures. His outlay was chiefly, though by no means exclusively, for public improvements. "He built railroads, launched steamers, established telegraph lines, tore down villages and constructed new model villages in their place, erected palaces; lighted the cities with gas and supplied them with water; created the modern harbors at Alexandria and Suez, by what are among the notable engineering achievements of the century; constructed canals for irrigation, and made large expenditures for the Suez Canal, from which almost every modern state reaps greater benefit than Egypt. The army was re-organized; a new and measurably efficient school-system was put in operation, and a post-office communication established. In a word, Ismail undertook in a lifetime to bring Egypt out of the barbarism of the past into the civilization of the present, to enable her to traverse in thirty years the ground which other nations had occupied centuries in traveling."

All this burdened the country with an enormous debt, held chiefly by French and English capitalists. Moreover, "modern civilization required moderns to carry it on," and all the lucrative places in the country were soon held by foreign officials. In 1875 the khedive barely escaped bankruptcy by selling his shares in the Suez Canal to the English government. A joint Commission was soon afterward sent by the governments of England and France to restore order to Egyptian finances. Their plan was to entrust the whole collection and disbursement of the revenues of Egypt to two Controllers-General, French and English, appointed by the khedive; a second foreign commission was to collect interest on the bonds, and a third to administer the railways. The growing resentment of the people under this foreign interference, has been led and fostered by two men—Mohammed Achmet, the False Prophet of the Soudan, and Arabi Pacha, late chief-of-staff to the khedive, but since February, 1881, in open revolt against him. In June, 1882, hundreds of Christians were massacred by a Mohammedan mob in the streets of Alexandria. The English fleet now interfered and bombarded the city, but failed to land a sufficient force to protect life and property. The European quarter was set on fire and destroyed by the retreating forces of Arabi, while a swarm of Bedouins joined with the lowest and worst of the people of the town to plunder the deserted houses and murder all Christians who were left. Mohammed Achmet, meanwhile, having conquered all Egyptian Soudan, began to descend the Nile to the aid of his ally. The combination was prevented by the prompt movements of Sir Garnet Wolseley, the English commander, who, advancing westward from the canal, gained a decisive victory at Tel-el-Kebir, September 13th. Arabi surrendered himself to the English, but was handed over by them to the Egyptian authorities, who sentenced him to exile for life.

CHAPTER XVI.

AMERICAN AFFAIRS.



Crossing the Plains.

AT the close of the Revolution (§§ 211-213), the United States were poor even to ruin, and hardly knew what to do with the freedom they had gained. Each state stood jealously for its own independence of all the rest; and the people who had fought against British taxation, were not always willing to pay heavier taxes at the demand of Congress. After four years of danger, the National Convention, at Philadelphia, prepared a federal constitution which left each state sovereign in its own affairs, but intrusted the matters in which all were equally interested—postal service, coinage, and dealings with foreign nations—to a general government.

767. This constitution was agreed to by the several states, and, in 1789, George Washington¹ was unanimously chosen to be the first president of the Union. His noble and steadfast character did much to establish order, confidence, and peace. After eight years' service in this highest office, Washington declined to be reëlected, and was succeeded by John Adams,² one of the signers of

the Declaration of Independence. Thomas Jefferson,³ the brilliant author of that document, was the next president. Under his administration, the whole Mississippi Valley was purchased from France.

768. The claim of the British to search American vessels for their runaway sailors, forced the United States into a war with the mother-country in 1812. Beginning, almost without a navy, to contend with the greatest maritime power on the globe, the president gave commissions to a swarm of privateers, which preyed upon British commerce, and captured, in the course of the war, more than 1,500 vessels. Fleets were, however, built both on the ocean and the lakes, which gained many victories in regular battle.

769. Three invasions of Canada resulted in loss and failure to the Americans, and the whole territory of Michigan was at one time surrendered to the British; but the brilliant victory of Commodore Perry,⁴ in Lake Erie, was followed by General Harrison's⁵ triumphant campaign in Canada, and the recovery of the lost ground. The Indians of the northwest, who were allies of the British, were subdued by the death of their chief, Tecumseh, and their confederacy was broken up.

770. The next year, the Americans gained decisive victories at Chippewa, at Lundy's Lane near Niagara Falls, and at Plattsburgh, where an army of Wellington's veterans was defeated on land at the same time that Commodore McDonough was capturing the British fleet on the waters of Lake Champlain. The coasts of Virginia and Carolina were ravaged by a British force, which, landing in the Chesapeake, burned Washington with all its public buildings; but a great victory of General Jackson,⁶ on the lower Mississippi, defeated a similar attempt upon New Orleans. News soon afterward arrived that peace had been concluded at Ghent.

771. Our victorious navy won fresh laurels by Commodore Decatur's expedition against the pirates of the Barbary coast. They were compelled to liberate a multitude of American captives, to pay for property which they had destroyed, and to enter into a treaty which bound them to respect the flag of the United States in future.

772. The history of these States, from the treaty of Ghent to the Mexican War, is hinted at in the philosopher's saying: "Happy is the people that has no annals." Every year more of the western prairies were converted into harvest-fields; and every year thousands of the European poor found homes in the New World, where their industry brought to light more of the untold wealth of the soil and the mines. Navigation by steam, first successfully accomplished by Fulton, on the Hudson River, did much to bring the interior of the continent into communication with the coast and with Europe.

773. Taking courage from the success of the United States, the Spanish colonies in North and South America resolved to be free from the oppressive rule of Ferdinand VII. (§ 718). The moment was favorable when Spain was absorbed in the wars with Napoleon; and, in 1810, Mexico in the north, Chili and the great viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres on the south, declared themselves independent. The latter was divided into the republics of La Plata, Uruguay, Paraguay, and, ultimately, Bolivia. The five colonies of Central America, and the countries on the Caribbean sea were not long in following the example.

774. The great hero of the revolution was Simon Bolivar, a native of Caraccas. While a youth, studying in Europe, he learned all that was best in the principles of the French Revolution; and fired still more by the example of Washington and Franklin, he vowed that he would become the liberator of his country. The three provinces of Quito, New Granada, and Venezuela united themselves in the

Republic of Colombia, with Bolivar as their president, in 1819; and the Spanish Royalists were finally defeated at Carabobo, in 1821.

775. Peru was the last of the South American countries to throw off the Spanish yoke; and Bolivar, with a Colombian army, marched to its assistance in 1822. The Spaniards were expelled, and Great Britain and the United States acknowledged the independence of Peru. Its more mountainous southern portion, formerly governed by the viceroy of Buenos Ayres, was formed into a separate republic, named Bolivia, in honor of the "Liberator," who became its president.

776. Bolivar desired to unite all South America in a great Federal Republic, like the United States of the northern part of the continent; but mutual jealousies made this impossible. His last years were embittered by the ingratitude of his countrymen, to whose service he had devoted his whole life and fortune.

777. Mexico, after twelve years of revolution, accepted Iturbide, a military officer, as its emperor in 1822. But Iturbide had reigned less than a year when he found that both army and people were hopelessly disaffected toward his government. He consented to be exiled with an ample pension; but returning the next year he was shot as a traitor. A federal republic was then established.

778. The great territory of Texas was included in Mexico; but, upon the overthrow of the federal constitution by Santa Anna, in 1833, Texas seceded, and sought admission into the United States. This was refused for several years; but, in 1844, President Polk was elected by a party favoring annexation, and Texas was duly admitted, the next year, by act of Congress.

779. War with Mexico followed. General Taylor,⁷ with a small United States army, invaded the northern provinces, which he conquered by his remarkable victories at

Monterey and Buena Vista. General Scott⁸ landed at Vera Cruz, and capturing, by hard fighting, many cities and castles, became master of the capital, which he entered September 16th, 1847. Meanwhile General Kearney had conquered New Mexico, and, with Fremont and Stockton, completed the conquest of California. These territories were ceded to the United States by the Treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, which fixed the southern boundary of Texas at the Rio Grande.

780. Rich deposits of gold had already been discovered in California, and a tide of adventurers, from all parts of the world, immediately set toward the diggings. San Francisco, from an obscure Spanish "mission," soon became a thriving city, destined, doubtless, to become one of the greatest in the world. Its importance has been immensely increased by the completion of a railway across the continent, in 1869, and by the opening of a line of steamships to Japan and China.

781. In spite of some discords and dangers, the bond of Union, established in 1787 (§766), had been strong enough, so far, to keep the several states at peace with each other. But the great increase of territory, by the Mexican War, gave new force to the elements of discord between the north and the south. The former favored a strong central government, the latter the sovereignty of the several states. A subject of bitter controversy was negro slavery, which the north desired to exclude from the new states and territories.

782. Soon after the election of Abraham Lincoln, in 1860, eleven southern states seceded from the Union, and chose Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, to be their president. War was begun in April, 1861, by an attack of the Confederate forces upon Fort Sumter, in Charleston Harbor. The south had at first the advantage of better trained officers; and the north sustained a severe defeat at Bull

Run, July 21. The Federal Congress immediately voted half a million of men, and 500 millions of dollars, for a more vigorous prosecution of the war.

783. A large part of the Atlantic coast was regained, by the Union forces, in the autumn of 1861; and, during the next two years, several great victories reopened the Mississippi to federal commerce.

So long as the southern states remained in the Union, their holding of slaves had not been interfered with by the general government. They were now beyond its protection; and the president's proclamation of January 1st, 1863, declared all negroes free, and invited them to enlist in the Federal fleets or armies.

784. The southern armies, under General Lee, made their farthest advance to the northward in an invasion of Pennsylvania, June, 1863; but they were defeated, at Gettysburg, during the first three days of July. This was the turning-point of the war, though much hard fighting was yet to be done on both sides. The next spring a general forward movement was made by the Union forces, from the Potomac to the James River, and from the Tennessee southeast to the Atlantic. Richmond and Petersburg, in Virginia, were besieged by the armies of Grant; Atlanta, Savannah, Charleston, and Columbia were taken by those of Sherman.

785. In the autumn of 1864, President Lincoln was reelected, and the south, now nearly exhausted, put forth her last resources. After three days' hard fighting, in Virginia, the Confederate government abandoned Richmond, its capital, and Generals April, 1865. Lee and Johnston soon afterward surrendered their entire commands. The war being thus ended, the whole country observed the fourth anniversary of its beginning as a day of thanksgiving. Its joy was suddenly turned into grief and horror by news of the murder of the president. But

this crime did not break the peace which had been so happily restored. Andrew Johnson, the Vice-President, quietly succeeded to the highest office. The late Confederate States repealed their ordinances of secession, and consented to amendments of the Constitution, which put an end to slavery.

786. The United States emerged from the civil war with a debt of nearly \$3,000,000,000. A million of lives had either been ended in battle or enfeebled by wounds and disease; industries were paralyzed, while an immense issue of paper money had tempted the people to unprecedented extravagance. Wild speculations were followed by great failures and consequent "hard times" for thousands who were thrown out of employment. The government, however, set itself to the work of redeeming its credit; immense harvests of grain brought renewed prosperity; and on the first day of 1879 payments in gold were resumed by the Treasury and the national banks.

787. Much injury had been done to American commerce during the Civil War by Confederate cruisers built in England and sailing under the British flag. It was feared that the claims thence arising might lead to war; but the two nations wisely agreed to refer the whole matter to peaceful arbitration. A Board of Commissioners from Italy, Switzerland, Brazil, Great Britain and the United States, met at Geneva in the summer of 1872, and the sum of money which they awarded for damages under the "Alabama claims" was promptly paid by Great Britain. The same year a question of boundary lines between Washington Territory and British Columbia was referred to the Emperor of Germany, and his decision was accepted by both nations.

788. In 1867, all the Russian possessions in America were purchased by the United States. Difficulties have occurred with the Indians of the western plains, who were either dissatisfied with the lands reserved to them or justly

indignant at the frauds of agents and traders appointed by the government. The treacherous Modocs were subdued in 1873, and their chiefs were executed. A more serious war with the Sioux in Montana and Wyoming marked the summer of 1876. General Custer, with a regiment of cavalry, was surprised by a larger Indian force, and every white man was slain. The war was then prosecuted until the chiefs, many times defeated, escaped with a small following into Canada.

789. The one-hundredth anniversary of American independence was celebrated, in the summer of 1876, by a grand exposition, at Philadelphia, of the whole world's industries and arts. Dom Pedro II.,⁹ the enlightened and energetic emperor of Brazil, was present and took a hearty interest in the opening ceremonies. He afterwards traveled through the United States from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, studying whatever might be of use to his great empire, whose natural wealth has only begun to be brought to light. His eldest daughter was regent of Brazil in his absence.

790. General U. S. Grant, who had held the highest military command during the latter part of the Civil War, was elected to the presidency in 1868, and reëlected in 1872. He was succeeded by R. B. Hayes, of Ohio, in a term of great prosperity. In the autumn of 1880, James A. Garfield, also of Ohio, was chosen to be the twentieth president. Great benefits were anticipated from his long experience in public affairs and his pacific character; but his administration was cut short by the crime of an assassin, and he died September 19, 1881. The Vice-President, Chester A. Arthur, of New York, succeeded to the vacant place.

791. The British colonies in America received a new constitution in 1867. The Dominion of Canada now consists of seven provinces, under the rule of a Governor-General

appointed by the Crown. Each province has its separate parliament and deputy governor, and is independent in local affairs, like each of the United States. In 1878 the Queen's son-in-law, the Marquis of Lorne,¹⁰ became Governor-General. By an Order in Council in 1880, the Queen ordained that all the territories of British America, excepting the Island of Newfoundland, should be included in the Dominion of Canada.

792. Several recent changes have occurred in other parts of the American continent. The war of several years between Chili, Bolivia, and Peru resulted, in 1881, in the capture of the Peruvian capital, the destruction of the fleet, and the overthrow of the government. A provisional government, under the control of Chili, was proposed. A special envoy was sent by the government of the United States to each and all the contending powers in the hope of restoring peace by friendly mediation, and preventing consequences which, as President Arthur said in his message to Congress, December 6, 1881, might be "dangerous to the interests of republican government on this continent, and calculated to destroy the best elements of our free and peaceful civilization."

The long war of revolution in Cuba ended in the surrender of the last insurgent force to the army of King Alfonso, June 27, 1880.

Read Irving's "Life of Washington;" "Washington's Correspondence Concerning Western Lands;" the "Life and Works of John Adams," edited by his grandson; Hildreth's "History of the United States;" Randall's or Parton's "Life of Jefferson;" Parton's "Life of Jackson;" Dawson's or Burr's "Life of Harrison;" "National Portrait Gallery of Distinguished Americans;" J. Fennimore Cooper's "History of the American Navy;" R. S. Ripley's "The War with Mexico;" "Histories of the Civil War," by the Count of Paris, by J. W. Draper, by Pollard, and in Greeley's "American Conflict;" Badeau's "Life of Grant."

NOTES.

1. **George Washington**, born February 22, 1732, in Virginia, became employed in 1748 as a surveyor upon the lands of Lord Fairfax, and endured much hardship for three years. At 19 he was Adjutant-General with the rank of Major, and two years later made a perilous journey through the wilderness to the French outpost on the Allegheny. As Colonel, he served as aide to General Braddock (who lost his life through disregarding Washington's advice), and, in 1755, became commander-in-chief of the Virginian forces. In 1758 he was elected a member of the House of Burgesses of Virginia, in 1773 was delegate to a convention at Williamsburg, which asserted the right of the colonies to self-government, and the next year to the General Congress at Philadelphia. In 1775 he was made commander-in-chief of all the American forces; in 1787 was President of the Convention which prepared the Constitution of the United States; and, from 1789 to 1797, was President of the Federal Republic. Returning to the country life which he had always preferred to public service, he died at Mt. Vernon, Dec. 14, 1799.

2. **John Adams**, second President of the United States, was born in Braintree, Mass., in Oct., 1735; studied law; was a delegate to the First and Second Continental Congresses, and was one of the five who drafted the Declaration of Independence. He was commissioner to France, 1778, minister to Holland, 1781, and one of the four commissioners who concluded the treaty of peace with Great Britain, 1782. He held the difficult and delicate post of first minister from the now liberated states to George III. As Vice-president under Washington, and afterwards as President, he belonged to the Federal party, which leaned to the English alliance, and resisted the efforts of the French to drag the United States into war. Retiring, in 1801, to private life, he lived to see his son become President in 1825, and died on the fiftieth anniversary of the signing of the Declaration, July 4, 1826. Jefferson died the same day.

3. **Thomas Jefferson**, born 1743, in Virginia, was educated at William and Mary College, where he distinguished himself by hard study and especially by proficiency in languages. Studying law, he gained an early and remarkable success. In 1773, in concert with Patrick Henry and other patriots, he devised the intercolonial correspondence, which drew the best men of the several colonies together in sentiment, and was of immense service in preparing the way for union. His profound knowledge of English law and his admirable style as a writer gave Jefferson a leading position in Congress. From his pen came the first draft of the Declaration of Independence, one of the ablest state-papers which the world has ever seen. Among his great services to his native state, was a revised code of laws, and a plan for a complete system of elementary and collegiate education. He was Governor of Virginia, 1779-81. In 1785 he succeeded Dr. Franklin as minister to Paris, where he spent four of the happiest years of his life, and formed that strong attachment to France and the interests of the French people, which led him into opposition to Adams and the Federal party during the wars of the French Revolution (See note 2). As President, 1801-1809, he introduced great simplicity into the style of Executive living; sent a written message to Congress instead of going in state to deliver a personal address, and was accessible to the humblest who desired to speak with him. Declining a re-election after two prosperous terms of office, he spent his last years in private and social life, and died 1826.

4. **Oliver Hazard Perry** was a native of Newport, R. I., and was only 28 years of age when he first built his fleet from the forests by Lake Erie, then fought and gained a complete victory.

5. **William Henry Harrison**, born in Virginia, 1773, entered the U. S. army 1791; represented the Northwest Territory in Congress, 1799; was Governor of Indiana Territory, 1801-1813; many times defeated the Indians and their British allies; represented the Cincinnati district in Congress, 1817, 1818; and became U. S. Senator from Ohio in 1824. In 1828 he was U. S. minister to Colombia; but, being recalled in 1829, he spent some ten years at his farm near North Bend, Ohio. He became President of the United States in March, 1841, but died one month later.

6. **Andrew Jackson** was born in Carolina, of Irish parentage. His childhood was spent in great poverty, with few opportunities for education; but, having studied law, he removed, at the age of 21, to Nashville, Tennessee, and soon obtained a large practice. He was a member of the Convention which framed the State Constitution for Tennessee in 1796, and was the sole representative of that state in Congress, until, the next year, he became its Senator. From 1798 to 1804, he was Judge of the Supreme Court of Tennessee. Volunteering for the War of 1812, Jackson rendered brilliant service against the Creek Indians, and afterwards against the British in the decisive Battle of New Orleans. After a successful war against the Seminoles, he was made Governor of Florida in 1821; was U. S. Senator from Tennessee in 1823, and was elected President of the United States in 1828. Always strong in his personal and party animosities, he began his administration by sweeping all his political opponents from public offices, removing ten times as many officials in one year, as all the preceding Presidents had done in 40. He acted with energy and decision against movements for disunion of the states during his first term of office. The 8 years of his administration were a period of unexampled prosperity, but his financial measures led to a disastrous crisis under his successor. Retiring from public life in 1837, Jackson died near Nashville, in 1845.

7. **Gen. Zachary Taylor** was born in Orange Co., Virginia, 1784, but during his infancy the family removed to Louisville, Kentucky, where he was educated. Entering the army, in 1808, he served as captain in the War of 1812, and for many years afterwards was engaged in Indian warfare, completing, in 1842, the work which Gen. Jackson had begun against the Seminoles in Florida. In the Mexican War he was one of the most prominent and successful actors. In 1848 he was elected to be President of the United States. The chief events of his short administration were the rapid settlement of California owing to the recent discovery of gold, and the debates in Congress upon the question of her admission to the Union as a free state. During the violent discussion President Taylor died, July 9, 1850, after only 16 months of office.

8. **Gen. Winfield Scott**, also a native of Virginia, first distinguished himself greatly in the War of 1812, in which he rose to the rank of Major-General. At its close he received a gold medal and the thanks of Congress for his "uniform gallantry and good conduct in sustaining the reputation of the arms of the United States." He held the chief command in the war with Mexico, and was subsequently the candidate of the Whig party for the Presidency, but was defeated by the Democratic vote for Pierce. The honorary rank of Lieutenant-General was created for him in 1855, to cease at his death. At the outbreak of the Civil War, Gen. Scott threw the whole weight of his influence on the side of the Union, but soon afterward, at the age of 75, retired from active duty, and died at West Point, 1866.

9. **Dom Pedro II.** was born at Rio Janeiro, Dec., 1825. When he was only six years old, his father, Pedro I., abdicated the Brazilian throne in his favor, and, returning to Portugal, resumed the crown of that kingdom, which he had previously bestowed upon his daughter, Maria da Gloria. The young emperor was declared of age in 1840, while lacking some months of fifteen years. The development of the yet unexplored resources of his empire by the encouragement of science was among his earliest cares; he delights in the conversation of scientific men, and himself presides at examinations in schools and colleges. In his extensive travels he takes nothing at second-hand which the most energetic industry will enable him to see and investigate for himself; printing-houses, factories, telegraphs, telephones, and every form of applied science engage his attention. He has been compared, certainly to his own advantage, with another imperial Peter (§ 591) who became a traveler for the benefit of his realm.

10. The **Marquis of Lorne** is the eldest son of the Duke of Argyle, distinguished as a writer and lecturer on philosophical subjects, not less than as holding the highest rank and belonging to one of the oldest and most powerful families in Scotland.

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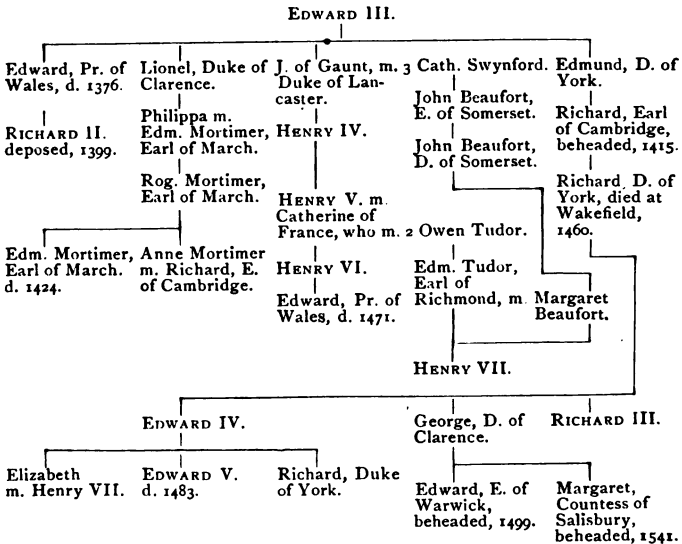
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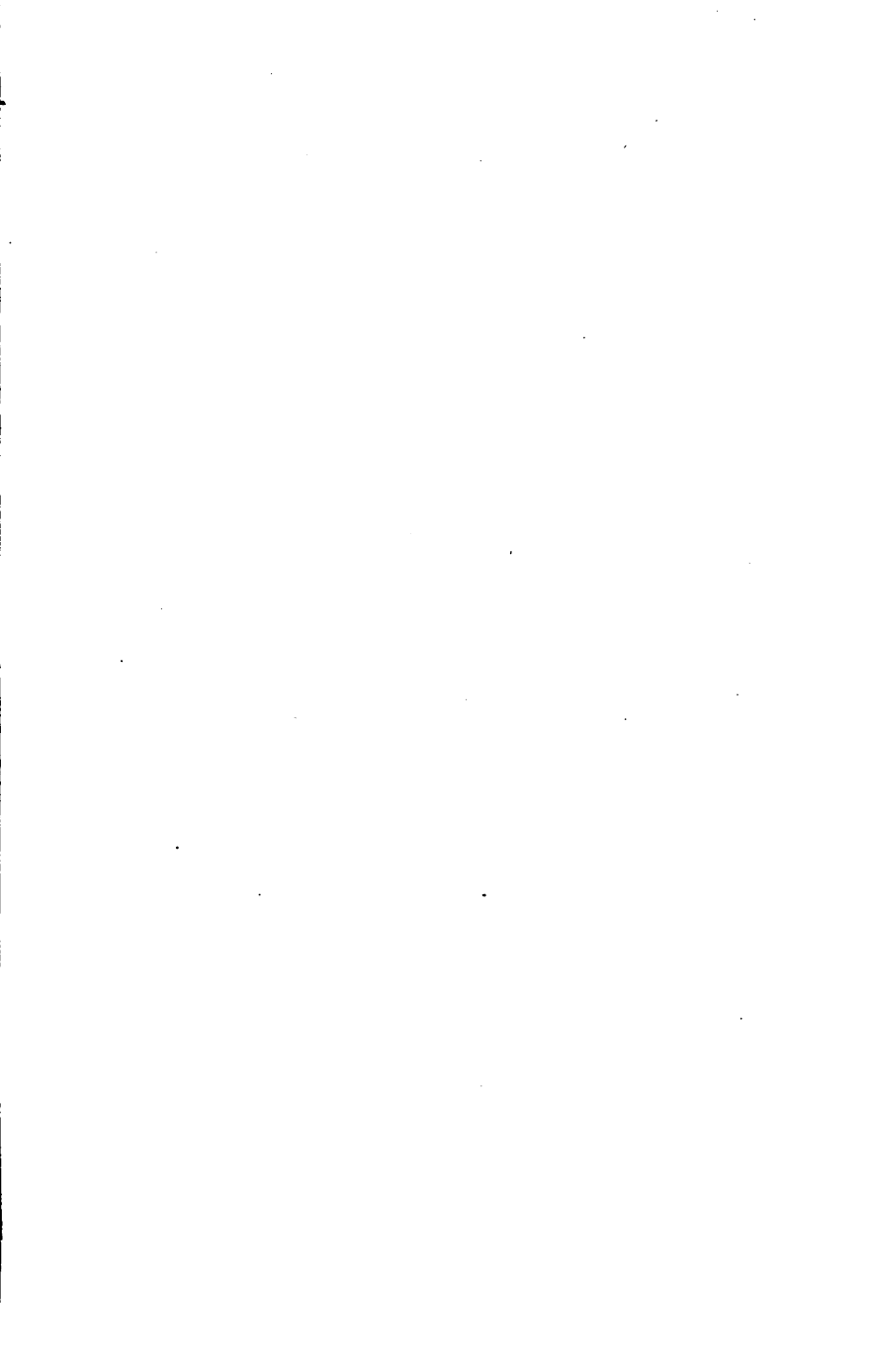
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