





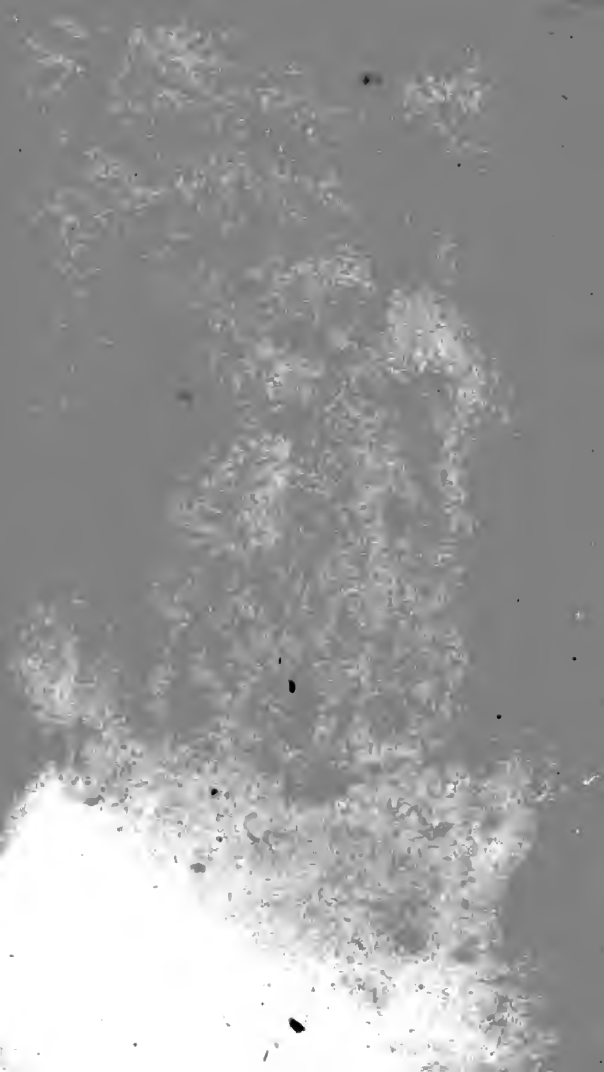
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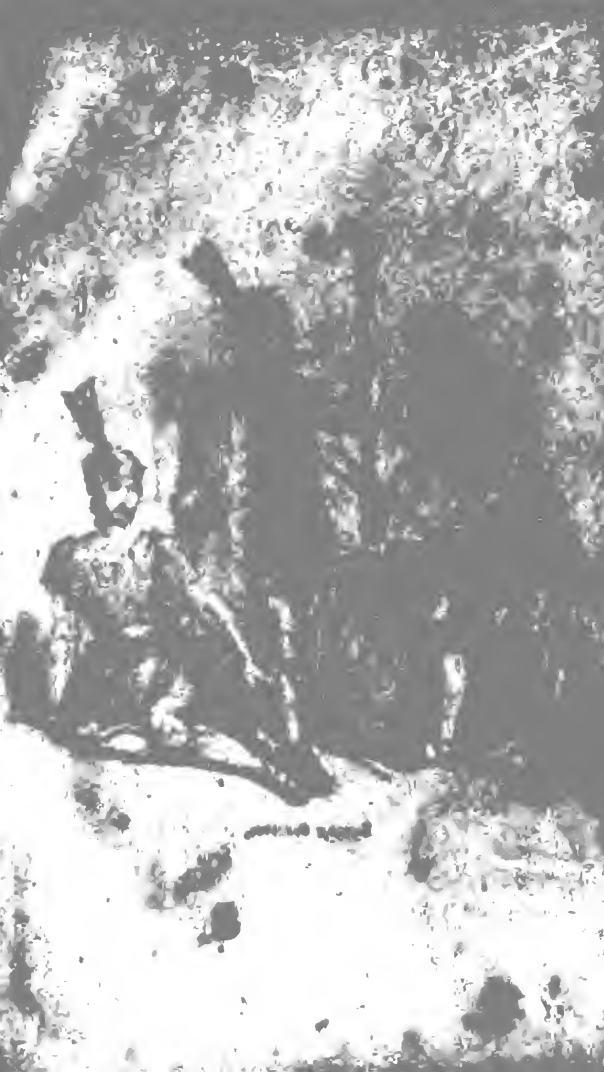
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Thomas Keith







Roman Soldiers.



HISTORY  
OF  
ANCIENT AND MODERN  
ROME:

BY FRANCIS B. JEFFERY.

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WITH NUMEROUS ILLUSTRATIONS.

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PHILADELPHIA:  
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## PREFACE.



THAT the principal events of Roman History may be condensed into a small compass, is sufficiently proved by the manuals which have been prepared by several distinguished writers. In this little volume we have endeavoured to give all that is important in a concise, and at the same time, clear and pleasing form. As it is intended to serve chiefly as an introduction to Pinnock's edition of Goldsmith's History of Rome, or some similar work, we believe it will be found sufficiently full.

Questions are placed at the end of the volume for the aid of learners and teachers. The embellishments consist of authentic costumes of the military classes, and likenesses of the emperors. The latter are taken from medals which were, in each case, struck during the lifetime of the person represented. Such illustrations are of themselves historical documents, and will no doubt be satisfactory to all who use the work.

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## INTRODUCTION.

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**GEOGRAPHICAL OUTLINE OF ITALY.—ITS DIFFERENT NAMES.—ITS DIVISION IN ANCIENT TIMES.—SUBDUE BY THE ROMANS.—BY THE BARBARIANS.—CHARACTER OF THE EARLY ROMAN HISTORY.**

ITALY lies between seven and ten degrees of east longitude, and between thirty-seven and forty-six degrees of north latitude. On the north, north-west, and north-east it is bounded by France, Switzerland, the country of the Grisons, and Germany; on the east by the Adriatic Sea, or Gulf of Venice; and on the south and west by the Mediterranean; its figure bearing some resemblance to that of a boot. Its length from Aosta, at the foot of the Alps in Savoy, to the utmost verge of Calabria, is about six hundred miles; but its breadth is very unequal, being in some places nearly four hundred miles, in others not above twenty-five or thirty.

Italy was anciently known by the names of *Saturnia*, *Ænotria*, *Ausonia*, and *Hesperia*. It was called *Saturnia* from Saturn, who, being driven out of Crete by his son Jupiter, is supposed to have taken refuge here. The names of *Ænotria* and *Ausonia*, were borrowed from its ancient inhabitants, the Ænotrians and Ausones; and that of *Hesperia*, or *Western*, was given it by the Greeks from its situation with respect to Greece. The name of *Italia* or *Italy*, which in process of time prevailed over all the rest, is by some derived from *Italus*, a king of the Siculi: by others from the Greek word *italos*, signifying an ox; this country

abounding, by reason of its rich pastures, with oxen of an extraordinary size and beauty. All these names were originally peculiar to particular provinces of Italy, but afterwards were applied to the whole country.

Italy, like most other countries, was, in ancient times, divided into a great number of petty states and kingdoms. Afterwards, when the Gauls settled in the western, and many Greek colonies in the eastern parts, it was divided, with respect to its inhabitants into three great parts, namely, *Gallia Cisalpina*, Italy properly so called, and *Magna Græcia*. The most western and northern parts of Italy were in a great measure possessed by the Gauls; and hence took the name of *Gallia*, with the epithets *Cisalpine* and *Citerior*, because they lay on the side of the Alps next to Rome; and *Togata*, with relation to the Roman gown or dress, which the people wore; but this last epithet is of a much later date than the former. This appellation was antiquated in the reign of Augustus, when the division of Italy into eleven provinces, introduced by that prince, took place. Hence it is that the name of *Cisalpine Gaul*, frequently occurs in the writings of the authors who flourished before, and scarcely ever in the works of those who wrote after, the reign of Augustus. This country extended from the Alps and the river Varus, separating it from *Transalpine Gaul*, to the river *Æsus*; or, as Pliny will have it, to the city of Ancona, in the ancient *Picenum*. On the north it was divided from *Rhætia* by the Alps, called *Alpes Rhæticae*; and from *Illyricum* by the river *Formio*: but, on this side, the borders of Italy were in Pliny's time extended to the river *Arsia* in *Istria*. On the south it reached to the *Ligustic Sea*, and the *Apennines* separating it from *Etruria*; so that under the common name of *Cisalpine Gaul*, were comprehended the countries lying at the foot of the Alps, called by Pliny and Strabo, the *Subalpine Countries*, *Liguria*, *Gallia Cispadana*, or on this side of the *Po*, and *Transpadana*, or on the other side of the *Po*.

Italy properly so called, extended on the coast of the



Adriatic, from the city of Ancona to the river Trento, now the Frotore ; and on the Mediterranean from the Macra to the Silarus, now the Sele.

Magna Græcia comprised Apulia, Lucania, and the country of the Brutii. It was called *Greece*, because most of the cities on the coast were Greek colonies. The inhabitants gave it the name of *Great*, not because it was larger than Greece, but, as Pliny informs us, merely out of ostentation.

All these countries were inhabited by a great number of different nations settled at different times, and from many different parts. The names of the most remarkable of them were, the *Aborigines*, or those whose origin was utterly unknown, and who, consequently, were thought to have none ; the *Sabines*, *Hetrurians* or *Tuscans*, the *Umbri*, *Samnites*, *Campani*, *Apulii*, *Calabrii*, *Lucanii*, the *Brutii*, and the *Latins*. From a colony of the latter, proceeded the Romans, who gradually subdued all these nations, one after another, and held them in subjection for upwards of seven hundred years. All these nations were originally brave, hardy, temperate, and well skilled in the art of war ; and the Romans much more so than the rest. Their subjection to Rome, however, inured them to slavery ; their oppression by the emperors broke their spirit ; and the vast wealth which was poured into the country from all parts of the world, during the time of the Roman prosperity, corrupted their manners and made them degenerate from their former valour. Of this degeneracy, the barbarous nations of the north took the advantage to invade the empire in innumerable multitudes. Though often repelled, they invariably returned, and it was found necessary to take great numbers of them into the Roman service, in order to defend the empire against the rest of their countrymen. In the year A. D. 475, these barbarians demanded a third part of the lands of Italy as remuneration for the services they had done the empire. This was refused, and the Roman empire in the West was destroyed.

The early Roman history, until the time of Camil-

lus, has been considered by Neibuhr and Arnold, and by all recent historians after them, as chiefly legendary, if not fabulous. It was formed by the Romans themselves, from their old national songs and legends; and as there were no contemporary historians in the other countries who would take the trouble to contradict or gainsay them, they were made the means of raising the national spirit of the Romans, and were accordingly so fashioned. We, however, having nothing better to substitute for them, have followed the example of Dr. Arnold, and given the legends with this caution, that the correctness of the legendary history is not to be relied upon; and that until after the age of Camillus, the whole of the popular and generally received history of Rome is more or less discredited by recent inquirers.



# HISTORY OF ROME.

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## I. ORIGIN OF THE ROMANS.—FOUNDING OF ROME.— ESTABLISHMENT OF THE GOVERNMENT UNDER ROMULUS.

THE ancient Romans claimed their origin from the celebrated Trojan prince Æneas. The history of their ancestors, before the period of the foundation of Rome, is so mixed with fable as to be very uncertain. It is said, that after the taking of Troy (a city on the coast of Asia Minor) by the Greeks, which is supposed to have happened about 1200 years before the coming of Christ, Æneas, with his family and a large body of followers, fled from the city, and having prepared a fleet, sailed in search of a settlement in some other land. They arrived on the coast of Latium, in Italy, near the mouth of the river Tiber, and were received in a friendly manner by Latinus, the king of that country. Æneas married Lavinia, the king's daughter; and, upon his death, succeeded to the kingdom of Latium.

Æneas had two sons, Ascanius, who had accompanied him from Troy, and Æneas Sylvius, who was born of Lavinia. Ascanius resigned to his brother the kingdom of Latium, as belonging to him in right of his mother: and founded a new settlement for himself called *Alba*. These two states were afterwards united under Æneas Sylvius; *Alba* being the capital.

The descendants of Æneas Sylvius reigned in *Alba* for nearly 400 years. One of them, named Procas, had two sons, Numitor and Amulius; and was succeeded by

Numitor, the elder. Amulius, however, drove his brother from the throne, and sentenced his daughter, Rhea Sylvia, to perpetual imprisonment, and her two infant sons, Romulus and Remus, to be thrown into the Tiber. The boys, who were twins, were rescued from the water by a shepherd, named Faustulus, and nursed by his wife Laurentia, whose surname, *Lupa*, gave rise to the fable that they were suckled by a she-wolf.

Numitor, though expelled from the sovereignty of Alba, was settled in its neighbourhood and a proprietor of flocks and herds. When Romulus and Remus grew up, they happened to engage in a quarrel between the herdsmen of Numitor and those of Amulius, taking the side of the latter. Remus being taken and brought before Numitor, the old man, struck by the dignity of his air, questioned him respecting his birth, and discovered him to be his grandson. Romulus and Remus undertook to restore their grandfather to the throne; and, having roused the people by the relation of their wrongs, they attacked the palace of Amulius, and killed him, after he had reigned forty-two years.

Numitor, being thus restored to his kingdom, advised Romulus and Remus to found a new colony, and bestowed lands upon them for that purpose. A number of people followed them; and they went in quest of a situation for their new settlement. A dispute arose between the brothers, as to the spot on which they should found their city; and it is said that Remus fell by the hand of Romulus.

Romulus now fixed on Mount Palatine as the situation of the city; the compass of which he marked by drawing a furrow round it. Wherever there was to be a gate, the plough was lifted up and carried; hence came the word *Porta*, a gate, derived from *portare*, to carry.

The time of the foundation of Rome has not been precisely ascertained. The most correct opinion seems to be that it was about the year 750 before Christ; and 3258 from the creation of the world. This was about thirty years before Samaria was taken and the ten tribes of Israel carried into captivity by the Assyrians;—about

the time that the government of Athens was changed, after the death of Codrus, from a monarchy to a republic; and about the period of the war between the Spartans and Messenians.

Rome, as built by Romulus, was a poor village, consisting of about a thousand houses, or huts; and the habitation of the king differed but little from those of his subjects. The principal inhabitants were husbandmen, cultivating the neighbouring lands, which were divided among them. The town and surrounding territory appear to have contained about three thousand men, of whom the population almost entirely consisted.

When the building of the city was completed, Romulus was elected king, and proceeded to establish a form of government. He selected a body of the oldest inhabitants, to form a council of state, or senate. These were called "patres," or fathers. Their dignity descended to their families, who formed the order of *patricians* or nobility, and were the only persons whom Romulus allowed to become magistrates. The rest of the people were called *plebeians*, or commoners. In order to create a good understanding between these two orders of people, Romulus formed that sort of connexion between them, known by the name of *patron and client*. Every plebeian was allowed to choose from among the patricians a protector or patron, who should attend to his interest, and defend him from injustice or oppression; the client, on the other hand, being bound to respect and honour his patron, and to assist him when in difficulty or necessity.

The relation between them was considered as having something of the sacred nature of the ties of blood; and it remained in full force for many centuries, even during the most troubled periods of the republic.

Romulus also divided his people into thirty *curiæ*, of an hundred men each, each of which had a small temple or chapel for the offices of religion. These divisions resembled the parishes of England: the chief difference is one for which they have great cause to be thankful; namely, that their land is thus portioned out, not, as Rome was, for the exercise of a debasing superstition.

but for the worship of the living God. Ten *curiæ* made a *decuria*, or tribe, consisting of a thousand men.

The office of the king was to be the guardian of the laws; to decide the more important civil and criminal causes; to assemble the senate and people, in order to lay before them matters of public business; to ratify by his consent the laws and measures agreed on by the majority of the senate and people; to command the army in the time of war; and to take care of the public money.

The senate were to act as a court of justice in such causes as were not judged by the king in person; to debate upon matters proposed by the king, and to decide by a majority of voices. The people, assembled separately in their different *curiæ*, were allowed to elect magistrates, enact laws, and resolve upon measures proposed by the king; the consent of the senate and king being necessary to confirm their resolutions.

Such was the constitution of Rome, as originally established, and as it existed, with some variations, during the period of the kings.

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## II. THE KINGS OF ROME.

ROMULUS soon found it necessary to obtain wives for his subjects, who were almost all men. As the neighbouring nations refused to bestow upon them their women in marriage, Romulus determined to procure them by an unlawful stratagem. He invited the people of the surrounding states to witness the celebration of solemn games; and, in the midst of the solemnity, when a great concourse of strangers, consisting chiefly of a neighbouring people called the Sabines, was assembled, a band of Romans, rushing in with drawn swords, seized all the young women and carried them off. Romulus gave them to his subjects as wives; keeping, it is said,

to himself the only married woman found among them, named Hersilia.

This outrage, which was an offence at once against God and man, produced war with the neighbouring nations. After vanquishing some of the smaller states, and removing their inhabitants to Rome, which was thus much enlarged, Romulus had to make head against a formidable invasion of the Sabines. Some bloody actions took place; when the Sabine women, who had now become reconciled to their situation, and attached to their husbands, threw themselves at the feet of their parents and relatives; and pleaded so effectually, that the contending parties agreed to unite themselves as one people.

Rome became the capital of this united kingdom, which was governed jointly by Romulus and Titus Tatius, the Sabine king. Five years afterwards Tatius was murdered, and his colleague was suspected of having been concerned in his death.

Romulus, in the latter part of his reign, became tyrannical, and was murdered by a conspiracy of the senate. They concealed his body, and persuaded the people that he had been carried up to heaven. Under this belief, he was worshipped as a deity, by the name of *Quirinus*. He reigned thirty-seven years.

After a short interval, called an *interregnum*, Numa Pompilius, a Sabine, was elected king. His reign was tranquil and prosperous. He endeavoured to soften the manners of the Romans, encouraged agriculture, and divided the people of the city into distinct communities, or corporations, according to their different trades and occupations.

Numa reigned forty-three years, and was succeeded by Tullus Hostilius, the son or grandson, of the Sabine woman, Hersilia. He was of a warlike disposition, and soon engaged in hostilities with the Albans. After some time a treaty of peace and union was entered upon; but the parties could not agree, whether Rome or Alba should be the chief city. It was at last agreed that the difference should be settled by combat between three

champions from each army. Each party of champions consisted of three brothers: the Horatii on the part of the Romans, the Curiatii of the Albans. After a desperate combat, two of the Horatii were slain, while all the three Curiatii were wounded. The surviving Roman to separate his antagonists, pretended to fly; and, as they, weakened by loss of blood, were following him, at unequal distances, he turned on them, and slew them one after the other. In consequence of this battle, Rome became the capital of the united nations.

Tullus afterwards subdued the Fidenates, and some other states formerly conquered by Romulus, but which had revolted. He died after a reign of thirty-three years, leaving the city greatly increased.

The next king, Ancus Martius, was the grandson of Numa. Though naturally inclined to war, he endeavoured to encourage husbandry and the arts of peace; but he was engaged in wars from the revolts and inroads of the surrounding states, particularly the Latins, Sabines, Fidenates, and Veientes. These he vanquished; and, having greatly improved the city, he died, in the twenty-fourth year of his reign.

Ancus Martius left two sons, both very young. They had been put under the guardianship of Tarquin, a Roman senator, who found means to set them aside, and assume the royal dignity. He was a warlike king, and among other military exploits, vanquished the Hetrurians, then accounted the most powerful nation in Italy, who had invaded the Roman territory with a great army. Having obliged this formidable enemy to sue for peace, Tarquin turned his attention to the improvement of the city. Among other great works, he constructed the celebrated common-sewers, which have deservedly been considered one of the wonders of the world. He was murdered in the eightieth year of his age, by the sons of Ancus Martius, whom he had deprived of the kingdom.

On the death of Tarquin, the sons of Ancus Martius, instead of obtaining their object, were, through the intrigues of Servius Tullius, the son-in-law of Tarquin's



wife, obliged to fly from the city, and Servius Tullius assumed the sovereign power. He was soon afterwards regularly elected by the tribes, but the senate would not assent to his election.

Servius Tullius was an excellent king. He devoted himself to the improvement of the institutions of the state; he added another tribe to the three originally fixed by Romulus. The public taxes had hitherto been raised at so much a head, without distinction of rich and poor; but Servius divided the people into classes, according to the amount of their property, and levied the taxes in proportion to the amount of property belonging to each class. At the same time he bestowed the greatest influence, as well as the largest burdens, on the richest class of the citizens\*, by making it so numerous as to be able to out-vote all the other classes taken together. He also voluntarily gave up a portion of the royal power, committing to the senate the right of trying all ordinary suits, and reserving to himself only that of judging in cases of crimes against the state.

The long and prosperous reign of Servius Tullius had a tragical end. He had married his two daughters to Lucius Tarquin and Aruns, the grandsons of the former king. Tarquin was ambitious and unprincipled, and Tullia, the wife of Aruns, was of a similar character. An intimacy was formed between them, and they resolved to obtain possession of the throne by the most infamous crimes. The one destroyed his wife, and the other her husband, by poison: and they obtained the old king's consent to their marriage. They then gained over the senators, who had never been favourable to Servius Tullius, to their interest, and, by means of money, corrupted many of the poorer citizens. Having secured a party sufficiently strong, they threw off the mask; and Tarquin clothing himself in royal robes, proceeded openly to the senate-house, and seated himself

\*The most considerable citizens of the first class were formed into an order called *equites*, or knights, who formed an intermediate rank between the patricians and plebeians, and, in time of war, fought on horseback.

on the throne. While he was addressing the senate in a speech, in which he reviled the king as an usurper, a favourer of the populace, and an enemy of the patricians, Servius arrived; and, seeing the usurper in his chair, attempted to pull him from it. A struggle took place, in which no one interfered: Tarquin, young and vigorous, seized the old man in his arms, and, hurrying him through the hall, threw him down the steps into the forum.

In the meantime Tullia arrived, and, meeting her husband on the top of the steps, joyfully saluted him as king, an example which was followed by a great portion of the senators; and the old king was instantly murdered by some of the guards, who were sent after him for that purpose. The orders for this horrid deed were no sooner given, than Tullia mounted her chariot to return home. Her road lay through the street where her father's body lay. The charioteer, struck with horror, checked his horses; but Tullia forced him to go on, and the blood of the father dyed the wheels of the chariot, and even stained the robe of the unnatural daughter.

Tarquin proved a cruel tyrant: he abolished the wise regulations of his predecessor, and put to death or banished numbers of the patricians and most wealthy citizens, that he might take possession of their estates, and rendered himself equally terrible and odious to every class of his subjects.

Tarquin engaged in a war with the Rutuli, and besieged their capital, Ardea, which was at a short distance from Rome. While the Romans were lying before that town, Sextus Tarquinius, the king's son, gave a banquet, during which the conversation of the guests happened to turn upon their wives. Each extolled the good qualities of his own; but Collatinus, a noble Roman, so far surpassed all the others in the praises of his Lucretia, that some of the party, heated with wine, resolved to mount their horses, and visit the ladies they had been talking of, Lucretia in particular. Though taken unprepared, she was found occupied with the cares of her household, while the others were engaged in trifling

amusements. She charmed her visitors by the sweetness and modesty of her manners; and Sextus, influenced by an unlawful passion, gained admittance to her chamber in the dead of the night. She resolved not to live after this dishonour. Sending for her husband, and the friends of her family, she informed them of the outrage she had suffered, exhorting them to avenge it, and stabbed herself to the heart. This desperate deed produced the utmost grief and indignation in the minds of all present. Lucius Junius Brutus, a young patrician, whose father had been a victim of Tarquin's cruelty, and who had escaped by feigning to be an idiot, suddenly throwing off the mask, and drawing the bloody dagger from Lucretia's bosom, swore by the blood upon it, that he would pursue, even to death, the tyrant and his family, and administered the same oath to all his friends.

The gates of the city were immediately closed; the dead body of Lucretia was exposed to public view; and Brutus, addressing the people, called on them to unite in overthrowing so detestable a tyrant. The people joined him with loud shouts; the senate concurred with them, and, by a decree of the senate and people, Tarquin was deposed from the throne, and condemned, with his posterity, to perpetual banishment, before he had obtained the slightest information of what had taken place.

As soon as the army before Ardea heard of the event in Rome, they espoused the cause of the people; and Tarquin, with his wife and sons, fled into Hetruria, where he hoped to find assistance for the recovery of his throne.



Plebeians.

III. FORMATION OF A REPUBLIC.—INVASION OF POR-  
SENA.—MUTIUS SCÆVOLA.—INVASION OF THE LATINS.  
—APPOINTMENT OF DICTATOR.—TRIBUNES OF THE  
PEOPLE.—CORIOLANUS.—WAR WITH THE ÆQUI AND  
VOLSCI.—CINCINNATUS.

THE hatred inspired by Tarquin's conduct extended itself to the kingly office, which was now abolished. It was resolved that the state should, in future, bear the name of a *Republic*, and that the highest functions of

the government should be performed by two magistrates, called *Consuls*, elected annually. The senate, the different degrees and classes of the people, and, in general, the existing laws and institutions, remained unchanged.

The two first consuls were Brutus and Collatinus, who entered on their office in the year 508 before Christ. Rome was now in a dangerous state: her own territory bore no proportion to the size and population of the city, and was not even sufficient to supply it with provisions; and the neighbouring states, who had been compelled to ally themselves or submit to Rome, seized the opportunity of forsaking her, and either sided with the banished king, or remained neutral. Tarquin's success, therefore, was probable; and a conspiracy was formed within the city to bring about his restoration. Among the conspirators were some of the nearest relations of the consuls, including the two sons of Brutus. The plot was discovered, and the criminals apprehended. Brutus sat in judgment on his sons, whom he condemned to be beheaded; and remained on the judgment-seat till he saw his sentence executed.

Collatinus soon afterwards resigned the consulship, and Valerius (called *Poplicola*, or "popular," from the manner in which he was regarded by the people) was chosen in his room. Tarquin, having engaged the Volsci to support him, now advanced towards Rome with a large army, and was met by the consuls. A battle took place, attended with great slaughter on both sides. Brutus and Aruns, one of Tarquin's sons, encountering each other, fell by mutual wounds. The Volsci, though their loss was not greater than that of the Romans, fled in confusion, and returned home.

Tarquin then found another ally in Porsena, king of Clusium in Hetruria, who advanced to the gates of Rome; and, after being repulsed in an attack on the city, by the desperate valour of Horatius Cocles, he closely invested it. The inhabitants were soon in want of provisions; and a young patrician, named Mutius Cordus, determined to relieve them by killing Porsena.

He made his way, in disguise, into the king's tent, and by mistake slew Porsena's secretary, who was beside him. Being seized, he avowed his design; and, on being threatened with torture, expressed his contempt of it by thrusting his right hand, which had missed the king, into a pan of burning coals, and holding it there till it was disabled, declaring at the same time, that three hundred young Romans had sworn to take the king's life or perish. Porsena, struck with admiration, restored Mutius to liberty, and entered into a treaty with the Romans. Mutius acquired the surname of *Scæola*, or left-handed.

Being thus abandoned by Porsena, Tarquin prevailed on the Latins to espouse his cause. The Latins being more numerous and powerful than the Romans, they endeavoured, but in vain, to obtain assistance from the surrounding nations: and the state was endangered by a spirit of mutiny which was spreading among the lower classes. By the existing law, no capital punishment could be inflicted unless after an appeal to the people themselves, among whom this seditious spirit was prevalent; and the consuls and senate had thus no means of restoring order by punishing the guilty. They, therefore, represented to the people the necessity of appointing one magistrate, who should possess absolute power, for a period of not more than six months; in order that he might take such vigorous measures as the public danger required. This was agreed to; and Titus Lartius, one of the consuls, was appointed *Dictator*.

Lartius, on assuming his office, surrounded himself with such an army of officers of justice, guards, and executioners, that he completely overawed the seditious, and restored tranquillity in the city. He then called out the whole male inhabitants of Rome, amounting to 150,000, who were capable of bearing arms. The Latins, not prepared for so vigorous a resistance, made a truce; and Lartius resigned his dictatorship.

The following year, the Latins, having the family of Tarquin with them, invaded the Roman territory with an army of 40,000 men. Posthumius, one of the consuls,

was appointed dictator, and marched to meet the enemy. He encountered them near the lake Regillus, and defeated them with great slaughter. The three generals of the Latins, one of whom was Sextus Tarquinius, were slain; and of the 40,000 men who came into the field, scarce 10,000 returned home. The Latins now submitted to the discretion of the Romans, and were admitted to terms of peace, on condition of driving the Tarquin family out of their country. Tarquin, now without further resource, retired into Campania, where he died in the ninetieth year of his age.

Rome, thus freed from foreign enemies, became distracted by disputes between the nobility and the people, which rose to such a height, that an army, which had been raised to repel some inroads of the Sabines, deserted its officers, and retired to a hill, called *Mons Sacer*, in the neighbourhood of the city. A civil war was on the point of breaking out, when matters were accommodated by the institution of *Tribunes of the People*, who were magistrates chosen from among the plebeians, and possessed of power to prevent the passing of any law that might be injurious to the people. This change in the constitution increased greatly the influence of the people in the state.

Order being thus restored, the Roman army marched against the Volsci, with whom a war had broken out. In one day they gained a victory over the Volsci, and carried by assault their chief city, Corioli: of both which actions the whole glory was gained by Caius Martius, a distinguished patrician. For his exploits Martius received high honours; and the consul bestowed on him the surname of *Coriolanus*.

Soon afterwards a famine broke out in Rome, owing to the people, during the late disturbances, having been too intent on their political rights to think of ploughing and sowing. Hunger revived the spirit of discontent; and the tribunes of the people, who were factious and turbulent men, stirred up the lower classes against the patricians, whom they accused of causing the public distress. In these disputes Coriolanus took a leading

part, and thus incurred the especial enmity of the tribunes, who accused him of aspiring to the sovereign power, and summoned him to a trial before the people. Coriolanus appeared, and defended himself with firmness and vigour; but the influence of his enemies prevailed, and he was unjustly condemned to perpetual banishment.

Indignant at this ungrateful treatment, Coriolanus joined the Volsci, by whom he was joyfully received, and placed, jointly with their general, Tullus Aufidius, at the head of the army. They invaded the Roman territories; and having repeatedly defeated their troops, at last besieged the city. The Romans were in despair, and sent deputations to Coriolanus, who now exercised the sole command of the Volscian army, imploring him to spare Rome; but he sternly refused to listen to them. At length Veturia, his mother, yielded to the request of the senate and people, that she would intercede for them with her son; and accompanied by his wife Volumnia, his two children, and a number of the principal Roman matrons, she presented herself before him. Coriolanus, agitated by contending passions, listened for a long time in silence to the supplications of his family. At length he started as from a dream; and raising up his mother, who had fallen at his feet, exclaimed, "O my mother, thou hast saved Rome, but lost thy son!" He then gave orders to draw off the army, alleging that the city was too strong to be taken. His colleague, who had been reduced to insignificance by his superiority of character, easily seized this opportunity of causing his ruin. On their return, he accused Coriolanus of betraying his trust; and the people, thus excited against him, slew him in a sudden insurrection.

After an interval of some years, the Volsci, joined by a neighbouring people, the Æqui, renewed their hostilities against Rome. Minutius, one of the consuls, marched against them; but having allowed his army to be hemmed in by the enemy, in a narrow defile between two mountains, they were in a desperate situation. The senate, being informed of this disaster, could find no one whom they could deem capable of rescuing the army.



but Cincinnatus, a man who had formerly held the highest offices in the state, but had now retired to occupy himself with the cultivation of his little farm. Him they named dictator: and those who went to invest him with office, found him holding the plough. He repaired to Rome, assembled a body of troops, and, putting himself at their head, came upon the rear of the Æqui, who were blockading the Roman army. He instantly attacked them; and the army, finding themselves thus succoured, attacked them on the other side. The Æqui, being completely defeated, laid down their arms; and Cincinnatus, having given up the spoils of their camp to his soldiers, without reserving anything to himself, returned to Rome, and resigned the dictatorship, after having possessed it for fourteen days. The senate would have loaded him with riches and honours; but he declined them, and returned to the retirement of his farm.

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IV. LAWS OF THE TWELVE TABLES.—DECEMVIRI.—SICCIVS DENTATUS.—VIRGINIA.—MILITARY TRIBUNES.—CENSORS.—SIEGE OF VEII.—INVASION OF THE GAULS.—DESTRUCTION OF THE CITY OF ROME.—DEFEAT OF THE GAULS BY CAMILLUS.

ROME had now grown to such magnitude, that the want of a regular written body of law was much felt. It was therefore agreed that ambassadors should be sent to the cities of Greece to obtain from them such laws as experience had proved to be most just and useful. The results of this proceeding were the celebrated laws known by the name of the *Laws of the Twelve Tables*.

For the purpose of considering these new laws, putting them in proper form, and superintending their execution, a body of new magistrates, ten in number, and called *Decemviri*, were appointed. Their power was to last for a year, and was to be equal to that of the con-



Standard Bearers.

suls, in whose place they were to come. These Decemviri soon became possessed of absolute power; and, refusing to lay down their office at the limited period, conducted themselves in the most tyrannical manner; the citizens being completely overawed by their numerous guards, and the idle and profligate crowd, whom they had gained to their interest, and by whom they were constantly surrounded.

In this state of things, Rome was again invaded by

her constant enemies, the Æqui and Volsci. An army under one of the Decemvirs, marched against them; but the Roman soldiers would not fight under the orders of a general they detested, and abandoned their camp on the approach of the enemy. At Rome the general was blamed for the fault of the men; and Siccius Dentatus, an old tribune of the people, who had long been hated by the Decemvirs, was loud in his expressions of contempt for the general. He was, consequently, marked out for destruction; and sent by Appius, one of the Decemvirs, with some supplies for the army. On arriving there, he was despatched on an expedition at the head of a body of men, who had instructions to murder him. They attacked him on the way; but the old soldier placing his back to a rock, defended himself with such courage and skill that he killed and wounded a considerable number of them; and the issue might have been doubtful, had his enemies not climbed up the rock against which he stood, and crushed him with stones thrown from above. The Decemvirs pretended to regret the death of so brave a man, but their share in it was well understood, and rendered them more than ever the objects of general hatred.

An atrocious outrage, soon afterwards committed by Appius, one of the Decemvirs, at last caused his own ruin, and that of his colleagues. He had observed a beautiful girl, named Virginia, the daughter of Virginius, a centurion (or commander of a hundred men), who was then with the army. Seized with a guilty passion, he endeavoured to corrupt her nurse; but, failing in this, he instructed one of his dependants, named Claudius, to claim the girl as his slave. Claudius accordingly seized her in the school, where she was playing among her young companions, and dragged her before the tribunal of Appius, where he asserted that she was not the daughter of Virginius, but of a female slave belonging to himself, who had sold her to the wife of Virginius; and accordingly claimed her as his own. Appius at first adjudged that Claudius should take pos-

session of her till the cause should be tried; but the indignation of the people who filled the forum was so violent, that he found it prudent to delay this sentence. The day following was fixed for the trial; and the friends of Virginius found means to inform him of what had taken place. He hastened to Rome, where he arrived in time to appear at the trial, and pleaded his own and his daughter's cause, in a manner that left not a doubt upon the subject. To prevent the effects of his words upon the people, Appius hastily concluded the proceedings by adjudging Virginia to Claudius, and ordering the lictors\* to carry her off.

Virginius, finding that all was lost, begged to be allowed to embrace his daughter for the last time. His request was granted; and, while she was weeping in his arms, he suddenly snatched up a knife that lay on the shambles that surrounded the forum,† and plunged it in her heart; then holding it up streaming with his daughter's blood, he exclaimed, "Appius, by this innocent blood, I devote thy head to the infernal gods!" He then rushed through the streets with the bloody knife in his hand, calling on the people to rise against their oppressors. The whole city was instantly in a flame, which spread to the army. Appius and another Decemvir were thrown into prison, where they perished by their own hands. The other Decemvirs were allowed to go into banishment.

The old consular form of government was now restored; but the disturbances between the patricians and plebeians still continuing, another change was made, for the purpose of putting an end to them. This was to appoint, in place of the consuls, a new kind of magistrates, called *Military Tribunes*, six in number, who were to have the power and offices of consuls; but, from their greater number, each had less power singly. This plan, which, after the experience of the Decemvirs, was not

\* The *Lictors* were officers who attended the courts of justice, guarded the persons of the magistrates, and executed their orders.

† The *Forum* was an open place in Rome, where public meetings and courts of justice were held.

very likely to succeed, was soon abandoned; and consuls once more came into office: but to assist them in the exercise of their duties, a new office was instituted, that of *Censors*, two of whom were elected every fifth year.

The Romans now resolved upon the destruction of the people of Veii, who had long been their rivals. They besieged that city; but such was its strength, that the Roman army lay before it for ten years; and the loss of life among the soldiers was so great, that it threatened to drain Rome of its inhabitants. A law was therefore made, obliging the bachelors to marry the widows of the slain soldiers. At last Veii was taken by Camillus, who secretly wrought a mine into the heart of the citadel, and thus gained admission for his troops. Camillus was equally successful in a war against the Falisci; he defeated their army and took their capital city, Falerii. He became, however, obnoxious to the tribunes of the people, who excited the multitude against him by false accusations; he went therefore, into voluntary banishment, and took refuge at Ardea.

The Romans had soon reason to repent of their ingratitude; for they were invaded by an immense army of Gauls, under their king, or leader, Brennus. When the invaders approached Rome, they were met by the Roman army, 40,000 strong; but the Gauls, who were 70,000 in number, completely defeated the Romans, and advanced to the city. The Romans who were able to bear arms, threw themselves into the strong fortress called the Capitol; and the old men, women, and children, fled to the neighbouring towns. The city was thus deserted, except by a small number of the oldest and most eminent senators, who seated themselves in the *Forum*, and awaited the entrance of the enemy. Brennus and his barbarian troops were at first awed by the venerable appearance of these old men; but this feeling was only momentary. The senators were slain, and the city entirely destroyed.

The Gauls now laid siege to the Capitol; and the Romans, in their despair, resolved to entreat the forgiveness of Camillus, and to appoint him dictator

They found means to inform him of this resolution ; he accepted the office, and was soon joined by above 40,000 men, consisting of the remains of the Roman army, and of allies.

In the meantime the besiegers, as well as defenders, of the Capitol began to suffer grievously from famine ; and both parties became desirous of making a treaty. Accordingly it was agreed, that the Gauls, on receiving one thousand pounds' weight of gold, should quit the Roman territories. But when the parties were met for the purpose of delivering and receiving the gold, Camillus, who had advanced with his army to the gates of Rome, suddenly appeared at the head of a body of troops, and ordered the gold to be carried back to the Capitol: Brennus and his followers drew their swords, and a skirmish ensued, in which the Gauls were driven into their camp. During the night, Brennus retreated, but was pursued by Camillus, who came up with him on the following day and totally defeated him. A great part of his army was slain in battle ; and the remainder were cut to pieces by the inhabitants as they straggled over the country ; so that not a single Gaul escaped. These occurrences took place in the year 390 before Christ.

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#### V. WARS WITH THE SAMNITES ; WITH PYRRIUS, KING OF EPIRUS ; AND WITH THE CARTHAGINIANS.—FALL OF CARTHAGE.

THE Romans, thus freed from the Gauls, applied themselves diligently to the rebuilding of the city. This work was hardly completed, when a combination of almost all the surrounding states was formed for their destruction. Camillus was again appointed dictator ; and a series of wars took place, in which the Sabines, the Hetrurians, the Latins, the Æqui, and the Volsci, were successively defeated.

After these victories, the Romans turned their arms against the Samnites, a people inhabiting a large territory in the southern part of Italy, now part of the kingdom of Naples. They, too, were defeated and subdued. A neighbouring people, the Tarentines, the inhabitants of the southern extremity of Italy, alarmed at the success of the Romans, invited into Italy Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, a country of Greece, lying on the eastern coast of the Adriatic Sea.

Pyrrhus accepted the invitation, and arrived with an army in the Tarentine territories. He encountered the Roman army under the consul Lævinus, and defeated him; but the victory cost Pyrrhus dear, a great number of his best soldiers being slain; and he was heard to exclaim, that if he gained another such a victory, he should be undone.

This victory enabled Pyrrhus to march almost to the gates of Rome. But, by this time the Romans had raised another army, stronger than that which they had lost; and Pyrrhus, unwilling to run the risk of engaging it, retired to Tarentum. Finding the Romans a more formidable enemy than he had expected, he was now desirous to put an end to the war. He therefore made proposals of peace; but the Romans answered that they would enter into no treaty of peace till he had left Italy. Another battle took place near Asculum, a town in Apulia, in which Pyrrhus was defeated, and dangerously wounded; but he withdrew the remains of his army in good order from the field; and both parties retired to winter quarters. The following year a decisive battle took place, in which the Romans, under Curius Dentatus, obtained a complete victory; and Pyrrhus returned to Greece, where he was soon afterwards killed, at the siege of Argos.

The Romans now, without further obstacle, made themselves masters of all Italy. Part of the nations were united to the Roman republic, and others were tributary; but they were all reduced to entire subjection to Rome. It was about the year 270 before Christ, and 480 years from the founding of the city, that Rome

reached this height of power. At that time, it appeared by an account taken at Rome, that the number of citizens was 280,000.

About the year 256 before Christ, war broke out with Carthage, a powerful republic on the northern coast of Africa. The Mamertines, a people of Sicily, being reduced to great straits by Hiero, king of Syracuse, had



Hamilcar.

applied to the Romans for assistance, which was granted, and an army sent into Sicily. The Carthaginians, who had considerable possessions in Sicily, and were jealous of the interference of the Romans, joined the Syracusans against them. Thus originated the wars between Rome and Carthage, known by the name of the *Punic Wars*.

The first Punic war lasted twenty-four years. For several years, it was carried on, under the direction of Hamilcar, the Carthaginian general, in Sicily, and in the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. In the ninth year



the Romans invaded Africa, having first defeated and destroyed the Carthaginian fleet which opposed them. Regulus, the Roman general, defeated the Carthaginians in several battles, and advanced to the walls of Carthage. Elated with his victories, he became incautious, and was at last totally defeated, his army destroyed, and himself taken prisoner. He was sent by the Carthaginians to Rome, to propose terms of peace, under an oath that he should return, if the terms were rejected. He himself persuaded the Romans to reject the terms; and then, faithful to his promise, returned to Carthage. The Carthaginians, enraged at his conduct, treated him with inhuman cruelty. His eyelids being cut off, he was exposed to the rays of a burning sun; and he was then enclosed in a cask, the sides of which were full of iron spikes, till he expired. The war, during its remaining period, was carried on with various success; but the Carthaginians suffered so much, that they were obliged to make peace on very disadvantageous terms; among which were the payment of a large sum of money, and the entire abandonment of the island of Sicily.

This war being concluded, the Romans greatly extended their conquests in other quarters. A large army of Gauls having invaded Italy, it was defeated and almost entirely destroyed: and the Romans, entering Gaul, subdued a part of that country, and reduced it to a Roman province. They also made themselves masters of the islands of Corsica, Sardinia, and Malta.

After the peace of twenty-three years, the second Punic war broke out. During the interval of peace, Rome became jealous of the extensive conquests which the Carthaginians were making in Spain; and entered into a treaty with them, for the purpose of limiting the extent of their possessions in that country. Hannibal, the Carthaginian general, made an attack upon Saguntum, a city protected by the treaty; and the Carthaginians having refused to give satisfaction for this breach of faith, war was declared.

Hannibal determined to invade the Roman territories. Leaving Spain, at the head of an army of 60,000 men,

he crossed the Pyrenean mountains; and, traversing the southern part of Gaul, crossed the Alps and entered Italy. In this passage, his army endured such dreadful hardships, that, on arriving in Italy, he found the number of his foot reduced from 50,000 to 20,000; and the survivors were wasted by fatigue and famine. Having refreshed his troops, he marched forward; and defeated the Romans in a succession of bloody engagements; in the last of which, near the lake Thrasymenus, the Roman consul Flaminius, and 15,000 of his men, were slain.

The Romans now named Fabius Maximus dictator; who, following the plan of watching the movements of the Carthaginians, cutting off their stragglers, and seizing their supplies, without suffering himself to be brought to an engagement, greatly distressed them. By this conduct, however, he raised discontents in his own army, and was recalled to Rome.

The following year, the Romans took the field with an army of above 80,000 men, under the consuls Æmilius Paulus and Terentius Varro. Hannibal's army amounted only to 50,000; but he was stronger in cavalry than the Romans. The armies met at Cannæ, a town in Apulia; and a battle ensued, which is one of the most bloody recorded in history. The Romans were totally routed, with the loss of 50,000 men; and the consul Æmilius, with his most distinguished officers, were among the slain.

After this great battle, a considerable part of Italy submitted to Hannibal. But from this time his fortune declined. Owing to the influence at Rome of an unfriendly faction, proper means were not taken to recruit his army, which now amounted only to 35,000 men. With this small army Hannibal maintained himself against all the forces that Rome could bring against him, even though commanded by Marcellus, one of their ablest generals. He fought many battles, in which he was sometimes victorious, and sometimes defeated; and, in the ninth year of the war, drew into an ambuscade and killed Marcellus himself. His brother Asdrubal,



Hannibal.

who was marching to his assistance with an army from Spain, was met by a Roman army in the north of Italy, defeated and slain. Still Hannibal sustained himself in such a position that the Romans did not venture to attack him.

In the mean time the Roman general, Scipio (afterwards surnamed *Africanus*), had driven the Carthaginians out of Spain, and had passed over into Africa. The Carthaginians, alarmed for their own safety, recalled Hannibal from Italy. Having arrived at Carthage, he immediately marched against Scipio, whom he met at Zama, about five days' journey from the city. A battle took place, in which Hannibal was completely defeated, with the loss of 20,000 slain, and almost as many taken prisoners, while the loss on the part of the Romans amounted only to about 2000 men. The Carthaginians now sued for peace, which was granted them on severe terms. They agreed to pay a large sum of money: to deliver up their navy; to engage in no war without the consent of the Romans; and to assist them whenever called upon.

After this peace was concluded, Masinissa, king of Numidia, unjustly seized a part of the Carthaginian territory, and was supported by the Romans, with whom

ne was in alliance. The Carthaginians complained of this breach of the treaty; but in vain. The Romans, who only wanted a pretext for the total destruction of Carthage, pretended to feel great indignation at their complaints. For a number of years the Carthaginians submitted to a course of encroachments on the part of Masinissa; till, at last, their repeated demands for justice were answered by the Romans declaring war against them. A large army was sent to Africa: and the generals had secret instructions from the senate, not to conclude their operations but by the destruction of Carthage.

On their arrival in Africa, the Roman commanders received a deputation from Carthage, offering submission. The Romans, concealing their secret intentions, and with a view of deceiving the Carthaginians, made a number of demands upon them; taking care that one demand was yielded before the next was made. The last of these demands was, that they should deliver up their arms; and when they had done so, they were next ordered to leave their city. The despair occasioned by this dreadful command, restored the courage of the Carthaginians. They resolved to defend themselves to the last extremity; they made new arms, strengthened their ramparts, and laid in provisions; and when the Romans assaulted the city, they were repulsed with much slaughter. At the same time, the Carthaginian general, Asdrubal, who had raised a considerable army in the country, gave the Romans such employment, that they were unable to make any further attack on the city.

The following year Scipio Æmilianus was chosen consul, and sent to take the command of the army in Africa. He closely besieged the city of Carthage, blocking up every avenue to it both by land by sea. In this manner he remained before the town, during the winter, till the inhabitants were reduced to extremity by famine. Early in the spring he determined on an assault; and, having made a feigned attack, so as to draw away the defenders from one of the principal gates, he broke it

down and entered the city. A dreadful scene of slaughter now took place. The Romans in advancing through the streets in order to attack the citadel, had to contest every step with the Carthaginians, who poured darts and stones upon them from the houses. They at length established themselves before the citadel: and Æmilianus ordered the adjoining quarter of the city to be set on fire. Multitudes of the inhabitants perished in the flames, or by the fall of the houses. When the fire ceased, Æmilianus opened a large space by removing the rubbish, and was thus enabled to bring his whole army before the citadel. Its defenders, seeing resistance was vain, surrendered themselves; and their lives were granted to all except a body of Roman deserters. These took refuge in a temple; and being there attacked by the Romans, set fire to it, and perished in the flames. The city was then plundered; its towers and ramparts levelled with the ground; and its destruction completed by fire, not a house being left standing.

Thus fell the once powerful state of Carthage, and its capital, one of the greatest and most magnificent cities of ancient times. It was above twenty miles in circumference, and, at the beginning of this war, contained 700,000 inhabitants. The treasure carried off by Æmilianus, even after the soldiers had plundered the city, amounted to four millions and a half pounds of silver. The fall of Carthage took place in the year 146 before Christ.

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## VI. CONQUESTS OF THE ROMANS.—THE GRACCHI.— THE CIMBRI AND TEUTONES.—THE SOCIAL WAR.— MARIUS.—SYLLA.

AFTER the destruction of Carthage, the Romans went on extending their conquests in all directions. They completely subdued Spain, and rendered it a Roman province. Under pretence of supporting the Grecian states

against the Macedonians, they first conquered that people, and reduced their country to the condition of a Roman province, and afterwards subdued all the other states of Greece. Antiochus, king of Syria, a powerful kingdom of Asia, lying on the eastern side of the Mediterranean Sea, having given protection to Hannibal, the Carthaginian general, who fled to him after he was defeated by the Romans at Zama, was persuaded by Hannibal to undertake a war against the Romans. Its result was, that Antiochus was defeated, and rendered a tributary of Rome; and soon afterwards Syria became a Roman province.

During these conquests, Rome was incessantly distracted by dissensions among the different classes at home. Soon after the fall of Carthage, the sedition of the Gracchi broke out. Tiberius and Caius Gracchus were two brothers, descended from a family, which, though plebeian, was highly distinguished. Tiberius Gracchus, at an early age, made himself remarkable for his hatred of the patricians, and his zeal for the privileges of the plebeians. Having been appointed one of the tribunes of the people, he determined to revive an old law, which had been out of use during the last two or three hundred years, namely, that no citizen should possess more than five hundred acres of land. Many of the patricians possessed estates far beyond that extent; and Gracchus proposed that those who possessed more than five hundred acres should part with the overplus, which should be divided among the poorer citizens. This proposal was eagerly received by the multitude, and violently opposed by the patricians, and even by Octavius Cecina, the other tribune of the people. But Gracchus, by his speeches, stirred up the people to a degree that rendered all opposition vain. They first deprived Octavius of his office of tribune, and then passed the law; the deposed tribune being with difficulty rescued from their fury.

When the year of his office was about to expire, Gracchus was anxious to be again elected, being aware that his continuance in office was necessary for his safety. When the day of election came, he was keenly opposed;

and the tumult was so great that it was necessary to dismiss the assembly till next day. On the following day, at the same time that the people met for the election, the senators assembled in an adjoining temple; and apprehending the most fatal consequences from the inflamed passions of the multitude, if Gracchus were permitted longer to work upon them, they determined to dissolve the meeting, and seize Gracchus by force. At the head of those who urged this measure, was Scipio Nasica, a relative of the great Scipio Africanus. He, leaving the temple at the head of a number of senators, attended by a large body of their clients and dependants, entered the place of meeting, and attacking the unarmed crowd with clubs and staves, easily dispersed it. Gracchus himself, endeavouring to escape, fell over one of the benches, and was killed by the blows of his enemies. The tumult continued after his death; and about 300 of his friends lost their lives. Their bodies, with that of Gracchus, were thrown into the Tiber. This happened in the year 133 before Christ. Twelve years afterwards, his brother, Caius Gracchus, having again attempted to get the above law revived, a price was set upon his head, and he was put to death by the consul Opimius.

In the year 101, the safety of Rome was endangered by a formidable invasion of the Cimbri and Teutones, nations who inhabited parts of the country now known by the name of Germany. Before they could reach however, the Italian territory, they were met in Transalpine Gaul (or Gaul beyond the Alps), by the consul Caius Marius, and defeated with immense slaughter; not less than 100,000 of them being slain in the battle. Their numbers, it is said, were so prodigious, that the Teutones alone were six whole days in marching past the Roman camp. The inhabitants of the neighbouring country for a long time used the bones of the slain as fences for their vineyards.

This war put a stop, for some time, to the discords at Rome; but, on its being ended, they broke out more violently than ever. It being observed by the consuls that many persons belonging to allied states resided at

Rome, pretending to be Roman citizens, and that they contributed to increase the power of the plebeians, by generally voting on their side, a decree was passed, ordering all those persons to leave Rome. This was so much resented by the Italian states to whom they belonged, that most of them revolted, and formed themselves into a republic, in opposition to that of Rome. A war, consequently, broke out with them, in which the Romans were repeatedly defeated; but Lucius Sylla, having taken the command of the Roman armies, at last reduced the revolted states to subjection. This war is known by the name of the *Social War*.

Marius, the conqueror of the Cimbri and Teutones, and Sylla, were now the most powerful persons in the state. They became rivals; Marius espousing the cause of the people, and Sylla adhering to the patricians. Each of them was at the head of a strong party; and their disputes produced a civil war, in which sometimes the one leader, sometimes the other, was successful, while his opponent was driven from Rome. When Marius's party gained the advantage, and recalled him to Rome, he resolved to murder, without mercy, all the senators of Sylla's party. A general slaughter commenced, which lasted five days, during which the greatest part of those senators was slain, their heads stuck upon poles, and their bodies thrown into the forum, to be devoured by dogs. These bloody scenes were not confined to Rome; the soldiers were dispersed all over the country, in search of those who fled, and murdered them wherever they could find them.

While Marius was governing at Rome, Sylla was pursuing a victorious career in the east. Mithridates, king of Pontus, (a powerful kingdom of Asia, lying on the south side of the Euxine or Black Sea,) had subdued Greece; and Sylla was sent to command the Roman army employed against him. After several victories over Mithridates, Sylla completely defeated him at Orchomenus, and compelled him to sue for peace. Hearing of the transactions at Rome, and the murder of his friends,



Sylla concluded a treaty with Mithridates, and marched towards Rome. By this time Marius had died; and his son, who had succeeded him as consul, having met Sylla, was completely defeated, and killed himself to avoid falling into the hands of his enemy. Sylla now entered Rome without opposition, and assumed the absolute control of the state. His cruelties were more atrocious, because more cool and deliberate, than those of his rival. He ordered 8000 persons, who had thrown themselves on his mercy, to be put to death in the *Campus Martius*, an open space in the neighbourhood of the senate-house. In the meantime he entered the senate, and began to address the assembly. While he was speaking, the senators were thrown into confusion by the horrid shrieks of the sufferers; but Sylla sternly desired them to listen to him, instead of attending to the noise made by a few criminals, who were undergoing punishment by his orders.

Having cut off every one whom he thought capable of opposing him, Sylla caused himself to be declared *Perpetual Dictator*, or, in other words absolute monarch of Rome. This revolution took place in the year 80 before Christ: and it may be considered as the termination of the republic.

Sylla's love of debauchery overcame his love of power. He unexpectedly resigned his dictatorship at the end of two years, and retired into the country, where he spent the remainder of his life in luxurious indulgence. He died in the sixtieth year of his age.



Julius Cæsar.

**VII. CATILINE'S CONSPIRACY.—THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE.—CIVIL WAR BETWEEN CÆSAR AND POMPEY.**

AFTER the death of Sylla, Marcus Licinius Crassus and Cneius Pompeius (or Pompey) became rivals for supreme power. Both of them were already distinguished by their military exploits. Pompey had subdued an extensive rebellion in Spain; and Crassus had de-

feated a great insurrection of slaves under Spartacus. They were made joint consuls; and Pompey being appointed general of the forces in Asia, went to prosecute the Roman conquests in that part of the world, while Crassus remained at Rome.

At this time Rome was nearly overturned by a conspiracy formed by Lucius Catiline. His object was, to murder the consuls and the greatest part of the senators, to set fire to the city, and then to seize the government. The plot was discovered by the vigilance, and frustrated by the prudence, of Cicero, the great orator, statesman, and philosopher, at that time one of the consuls. He assembled the senate, and disclosed to them the plot of Catiline and the other conspirators. After an ineffectual attempt to deny the charge, Catiline openly took the field at the head of a considerable army; but he was soon defeated and slain.

During the absence of Pompey, Julius Cæsar became the rival of Crassus in the affections of the people. After Pompey's return, Cæsar proposed that they should unite, for the purpose of jointly acquiring the supreme power. They accordingly formed an association, or *Triumvirate*, which was for a long time kept secret. Cæsar was made one of the consuls, and undertook a military expedition into Gaul, where his exploits gained him the highest fame. Crassus went, at the head of a great army, to make war upon the Parthians, a powerful eastern people, by whom he was defeated and slain.

Cæsar and Pompey were now left to contend for the supreme power. Cæsar continued, however, to prosecute the war in Gaul, till that country was reduced to a Roman province. From Gaul he crossed over into Britain, and in two expeditions subdued that island, after considerable resistance. So rapid was his victorious career, that in less than nine years he conquered, besides Britain, all that country which extends from the Mediterranean to the German Sea.

Pompey then obtained from the senate an order that Cæsar should disband his army; which Cæsar refused to do, so long as Pompey remained at the head of his

troops. The senate then deprived Cæsar of his office of governor of Gaul; and intrusted Pompey with the defence of the republic against him.

Cæsar immediately marched towards Rome. Having arrived at the Rubicon, a small river which formed the boundary of Italy, the thought of the calamities he was about to bring upon his country made him hesitate to pass the river. The reflection that his own safety depended on his going forward, determined him; and, exclaiming, "The die is cast!" he threw himself into the river, and was followed by his troops. He then pushed forward to Rome; and Pompey finding himself unable to oppose him, embarked, with his army, for Dyrrachium, a town on the eastern coast of the Adriatic Sea; to which place the consuls, with a considerable body of troops, had already retired.

Cæsar, on arriving in Rome, assumed the entire control of the state. He made immense preparations for war against Pompey; sending armies into all the provinces where Pompey had established governors; and reserving to himself the conduct of the war in Spain. Thus the civil war between these great rivals extended over the greatest part of the then known world.

Cæsar, on entering Spain, had to contend with very powerful armies, under three of Pompey's generals, and was at first reduced to great straits. By the most surprising exertions of courage and military skill, however, he overcame all his difficulties, and in a few months drove the whole of Pompey's troops out of Spain. He then returned to Rome, and made preparations for following Pompey into the east.

Meanwhile Pompey remained at Dyrrachium, where he was surrounded by the greatest part of the senators, and the most distinguished men of Rome. Among these were Cicero, the celebrated orator, and Cato, the great patriot and philosopher. The latter had endeavoured to prevent a civil war between Cæsar and Pompey, and had taken the side of Pompey, when he saw that Cæsar was resolved to destroy the republic. Among the Romans at this time, the cause of Pompey was generally



Pompey.

considered the cause of freedom. He was at the head of a numerous army, and had a great fleet at his disposal.

Cæsar landed, with an army greatly inferior to that of Pompey, at a short distance from Dyrrachium. Pompey was besieged in his encampment; but, making an attack on the besiegers, he completely defeated them. After this misfortune, Cæsar retired, followed by Pompey, whose design was to avoid a battle, but to harass him and cut off his supplies. At last, however, he was forced to abandon this plan, in consequence of the complaints of his troops; and resolved, against his own judgment, to hazard a battle. He accordingly gave battle to Cæsar at Pharsalia, and was defeated, with the total destruction of his army, in the year 48 before Christ.

This defeat ruined the fortunes of Pompey. He fled to Egypt, and was treacherously murdered by order of

Ptolemy, the king of that country, as soon as he arrived. Cæsar, who pursued him into Egypt, was met on his landing, by the murderers, who brought him the head of his enemy. But Cæsar turned away with horror from the sight, and indignantly dismissed the ruffians, who had expected to be rewarded for their crime. Soon afterwards he ordered a magnificent tomb to be erected for his great rival on the spot where he fell.

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VIII. DEFEAT OF POMPEY'S PARTY, AND DEATH OF CATO.—ASSUMPTION OF THE SUPREME POWER BY CÆSAR.—HIS MURDER.—FLIGHT OF BRUTUS AND THE OTHER CONSPIRATORS.—THE SECOND TRIUMVIRATE, OF ANTONY, OCTAVIUS, AND LEPIDUS.—BATTLE OF PHILIPPI.—DEATH OF BRUTUS AND CASSIUS.—LEPIDUS DEPOSED BY OCTAVIUS.—ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA.

WHILE Cæsar remained in Egypt a dispute took place respecting the crown of that kingdom, between Ptolemy, who possessed it, and his sister Cleopatra, who aspired to it. Cæsar favoured the cause of Cleopatra, and, being besieged in the city of Alexandria, by Ptolemy, was in great danger. He was at last relieved by a large body of troops who arrived to his assistance; and, having defeated the army of Ptolemy, placed Cleopatra on the throne.

Soon afterwards Cæsar turned his arms against the remnant of Pompey's party, who had assembled in Africa, and were assisted by Juba, king of Mauritania. Their army, commanded by Scipio and Juba, advanced against Cæsar; but they were completely defeated, and the generals slain.

There now only remained a small force stationed in the city of Utica, under Cato. Notwithstanding the defeat of the army, he determined to defend this town:



Cicero.

but, being unable to persuade his party to stand a siege, he stabbed himself with his sword. The death of Cato took place in the year 45 before Christ.

Cæsar now returned to Rome, and celebrated his victories by a splendid triumph. To every one of his soldiers he gave a sum equal to about \$700 of our money; and larger sums to the officers, according to their rank. He also gave to every citizen ten bushels of corn, ten pounds of oil, and a sum equal to about \$10.

His last military expedition was against the two sons of Pompey, who had raised an army in Spain. He completely defeated them at Munda: and thus became master of the Roman empire.

The power of Cæsar was now absolute, but he used it with great moderation. His sway was mild and just;

and he formed many plans for increasing the prosperity of the Roman empire, and the splendour of Rome.

Though Cæsar had thus destroyed the liberties of Rome, the moderation of his government made him generally beloved by the people. A conspiracy, however, was formed against him among the senators. Its principal movers were Brutus and Cassius, both of whom had been adherents of Pompey, and had experienced the mercy of Cæsar after the battle of Pharsalia. Brutus, who was a descendant of him who freed Rome from the Tarquins, was influenced by a pure love of freedom; but Cassius appears to have been incited chiefly by personal hatred to Cæsar. The conspirators determined to execute their purpose in the senate-house: and on the day they had fixed, as soon as Cæsar took his place, one of their number, approaching him in a suppliant posture, took hold of his robe so as to prevent him from rising, while the others attacked him with their daggers. He defended himself, though unarmed, with great vigour, till he received a wound from the dagger of Brutus: when, exclaiming, "and you too Brutus!" he covered his face with his robe, and sank down at the base of Pompey's statue, pierced with twenty-three wounds. He fell in the year 44 before Christ, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and fourth of his reign.

This murder of Cæsar produced the utmost confusion. The conspirators attempted to address the senate; but the greater number of the senators fled from the hall. They then retired to the Capitol. In the meantime, some of Cæsar's friends, at the head of whom was Marcus Antonius (or Antony), brought his body into the forum, and exposed it, covered with wounds, to the view of the people. Antony had served under Cæsar in his wars, and was now one of the consuls. He addressed the people, enlarging on Cæsar's virtues, and his affection for them, as a proof of which he read his will, by which he had bequeathed to them his extensive gardens, and a considerable sum of money to each citizen. In this manner he raised the indignation of the people to



such a pitch, that they destroyed the houses of the conspirators, who were forced to fly from the city.

Antony, whose object in thus ingratiating himself with the people, was to obtain for himself the possession of sovereign power, as soon as he found his authority established, no longer even pretended to think of revenging the death of Cæsar. Octavius, the grand-nephew and adopted son of Cæsar, then a young man of eighteen years of age, hastened to Rome to claim the inheritance, and avenge the murder of his uncle. But he was coldly received by Antony; and finding himself disappointed in his expectations from him, endeavoured successfully to gain the affections of the people. A quarrel broke out between them, which ended in a war.

Brutus had gone into Cisalpine Gaul,\* where he had raised a small body of troops. Antony marched against him, and besieged him in the city of Mutina. Octavius, in order to diminish the power of Antony, prevailed on the senate to command him to abandon the siege, and wait their orders. Antony treated this message with contempt; and the senate sent an army, under the consuls, to reduce him to subjection. Octavius accompanied the expedition with a body of troops commanded by himself. After several engagements, a general battle took place, in which Antony was defeated. One of the Roman consuls who was mortally wounded, on his death-bed informed Octavius that it was the design of the senate to get rid of him as well as Antony, and that it was for this purpose that they opposed them to each other. Octavius, deeply moved by this information, resolved to form an alliance with Antony, instead of contending with him longer.

Antony, after his defeat, had resorted to Lepidus, a man who had favoured his views, and then commanded some troops in Gaul beyond the Alps. Octavius now proposed to join his forces to theirs; and a conference took place, at which it was agreed that they should

\* That part of ancient Gaul which lay on the Italian side of the Alps and is now the North of Italy.



Mark Antony.

jointly possess the supreme authority for the space of five years, under the title of *Triumvirate*; that the government of the different parts of the empire should be divided among them; and that all their enemies, as contained in lists furnished by each of them, should be destroyed.

This treaty being concluded, the Triumvirs immediately renewed the horrible cruelties of Marius and Sylla. Great numbers of the most distinguished senators and citizens of Rome were put to death, and their estates divided among their murderers. Having fully satisfied their covetousness and vengeance, they declared the *proscription* at end. Octavius and Antony marched to oppose Brutus and Cassius, who were now at the head of a large army in Greece; leaving Lepidus to govern in Rome.

The army of the Triumvirs met that of Brutus and

Cassius near the city of Philippi, in Thrace. A bloody battle took place, in which the conspirators were defeated, and Cassius slain. Brutus collected the remains of the army; and another battle took place a few weeks afterwards, in which he was again defeated. Escaping from the field with a few followers, Brutus sat down under a rock that concealed him from the pursuers. Here, finding that his fortunes were desperate, and that most of his friends were slain, he resolved to die also, and prevailing on one of his attendants to present to him the point of his sword, he threw himself upon it, and immediately expired. The destruction of Brutus and his party took place in the year 42 before Christ.

The Triumvirs now reigned without control over the Roman empire; but the real power was possessed by Octavius and Antony, Lepidus enjoying only the appearance of it. Octavius remained in Italy; while Antony went to regulate the affairs of the empire in the east.

Octavius, who seems to have been long determined to possess himself of the sole power, soon found a pretext for getting rid of Lepidus. That person, dissatisfied with the small share of authority allowed him, demanded an equal share of power with his colleague. This produced a quarrel; and Octavius, knowing his influence even in the army of Lepidus, went alone to his camp, and declared his intention of deposing him. Lepidus, deserted by his soldiers, was obliged to submit; and Octavius, sparing his life, banished him to Circaëum, where he spent the rest of his days in obscurity.

Antony's conduct, in the meantime, had made him contemptible to the Romans. Having been engaged in some transactions respecting Egypt, he became so captivated by the beauty of the queen, Cleopatra, that he sacrificed every consideration of duty and interest to his passion for her. He treated his wife, Fulvia, with such cruelty as to shorten her days; and, having had some differences with Octavius, their apparent reconciliation was followed by his marriage with Octavius's sister. After this, he roused himself for a time from his slothful



Cleopatra.

and luxurious life, and led a very large army against the Parthians. But he was worsted by that warlike people; and returned with the loss of a fourth part of his army, and all his stores. Disregarding the contempt and resentment which this conduct excited at Rome, Antony returned to Cleopatra, and gave himself up to the allurements of her society. He bestowed on her many of the kingdoms of the east which belonged to the Roman empire; and resolved, in order that he might marry her, to divorce his wife Octavia.

This foolish and vicious behaviour afforded Octavius ample grounds for proceeding to extremities against Antony. War was declared against him by the senate; and Octavius took the command of the forces. Antony raised an army of 100,000 foot and 12,000 cavalry; and he had a fleet of 500 ships. The army and fleet of Octavius were considerably smaller. The fate of the

war was decided by the first great engagement, which took place at sea, near Actium in Epirus. It was fought in a gulf, or bay, on the opposite sides of which the land armies of Octavius and Antony were drawn up as spectators. The fight had continued with great fury for some time, without advantage on either side; when suddenly Cleopatra, who commanded a division of Antony's fleet, was seen flying at the head of sixty ships; and Antony disgracefully followed her. His fleet, however, though thus deserted, fought with great obstinacy, till they were at last obliged to yield. The land forces submitted to Octavius, without striking a blow.

Antony returned with Cleopatra to Egypt, and resolved to defend that country against his rival. Octavius having marched to Alexandria, Antony met him, and fought so desperately that he repulsed him. Elated by this success, he challenged Octavius to decide the dispute between them by single combat; but Octavius, well aware of the inequality of their situations, coolly replied, that Antony had ways enough to die, besides falling by his hand. Antony then ordered his ships to attack the fleet of Octavius; and they sailed in good order, apparently for that purpose; but he had the mortification to see them salute the vessels of Octavius, and, the whole uniting, sail into the harbour. This desertion took place in consequence of secret orders from Cleopatra, who betrayed Antony that she might make her peace with his conqueror. Finding his situation utterly desperate, he stabbed himself with his sword. Cleopatra fell into the hands of Octavius, and at first endeavoured, by all her arts, to gain his affection; but finding that she was to be sent to Rome to grace his triumph, she put an end to her life by the bite of an asp. The death of Cleopatra, which took place in the year 30 before Christ, terminated the monarchy of Egypt, which had existed from the earliest ages of the world.



Augustus.

IX. AUGUSTUS.—TIBERIUS.—CALIGULA.—CLAUDIUS.

OCTAVIUS, now the sole master of the Roman empire, exercised his authority for several years under the title of consul, to which office he was re-elected every year, along with some other person whom he chose to invest with the empty title. At length he assumed the royal power, taking the titles of *Emperor* and *Augustus*; which latter title, though it was taken by his successors, became the name by which he particularly was distinguished. This event took place twenty-seven years before the birth of Christ.

The Roman empire now comprehended the greatest part of Europe, Asia, and Africa; and was nearly 4000 miles in length, and 2000 in breadth. Augustus, who had gained his power by means of the army, took every method to preserve its favour; he kept up great military establishments in every part of the Roman empire; and the standing army thus supported amounted to above 170,000 men. He also maintained a powerful navy, to

keep the seas clear of pirates, and protect the immense trade carried on between Italy and the distant parts of the empire.

The extent of the empire exposed it to frequent attacks from the nations on its borders. About ten years after the accession of Augustus, the province of Gaul was invaded by those rude tribes inhabiting the north of Europe, who went under the general name of Germans: and the Rhætians, a people of the country now called Switzerland, soon afterwards invaded Italy, where they committed horrible ravages. These invaders, however, were soon repulsed by the Roman armies. Having restored peace throughout the empire, Augustus ordered the temple of Janus, which had remained open since the days of Numa Pompilius, to be closed.\*

During this interval of universal peace, the Saviour of the world was born in Judæa.

The northern nations having renewed their attacks, a Roman army, under Quintilius Varus, was entirely cut to pieces by them. Augustus suffered the most violent grief on account of this disaster; for several months he allowed his hair and beard to grow, tearing his clothes, and exclaiming like a madman, "Restore the legions, Varus!" Soon after this he died, in the seventy-sixth year of his age, and fifty-sixth of his reign; not without suspicion of having been poisoned by the Empress Livia, a woman of a wicked character.

Livia, before her marriage with the emperor, had two sons, Tiberius and Drusus. Tiberius, after divorcing his wife, by the command of the emperor, married Julia, his daughter, a princess infamous for her debaucheries. Drusus, after distinguishing himself in Germany, died, leaving a son named Germanicus, whom the emperor obliged Tiberius to adopt, though he had a son of his

\* Janus, a Roman deity, was said to have been an ancient king of Italy, who, after his death, was worshipped as a god, in consequence of his having taught his subjects husbandry, and other peaceful arts. His temple, erected by Romulus, was kept open in time of war, and shut during peace.

own. Augustus himself adopted Tiberius as his son; and before his death, made him his colleague in the sovereignty. On the death of Augustus, consequently, Tiberius became emperor.



Caligula.

At the beginning of Tiberius's reign, an extensive revolt took place among the troops in Germany. It was quelled by the efforts of Germanicus; who afterwards turned his arms against the Germans, and performed many brilliant exploits. Germanicus was distinguished for his virtues and talent. He died at an early age, cut off, as was supposed, by poison, given him by Piso, his colleague in the government of Syria.

Tiberius bestowed his confidence on Sejanus, a Roman knight, whom he had made his minister. Sejanus was a monster of wickedness and cruelty. Aspiring to the throne, he resolved to remove every obstacle that stood in his way. His first victim was Drusus, the son of the emperor, whose wife, Julia, he corrupted, and then persuaded her to poison her husband. The emperor, destitute of feeling, showed no grief for his son's death. He even made a jest of it; for, when deputies from Troy arrived, somewhat late, to condole with him, he consoled with them on the death of Hector.

To prevent the emperor from hindering the execution of his further designs, Sejanus persuaded him to retire



from the cares of government, and spend a life of pleasure at a distance from Rome. Tiberius accordingly, in the twelfth year of his reign, retired to the island of Capreæ, a beautiful spot, where he resided during the rest of his life; and which he polluted by the most abominable debaucheries and cruelties. Sejanus, whose influence with him was unbounded, easily persuaded him to put to death every one he wished to remove; among whom were Tiberius and Drusus, the sons of Germanicus. As his power increased, he assumed greater state and magnificence, and was more dreaded than the emperor himself.

But his fall was sudden and dreadful. It appears that a plot, which he had formed against the life of the emperor, was discovered and revealed to Tiberius. The tyrant, however, found it necessary to dissemble; and loaded the traitor with fresh honours, while he was preparing to destroy him. At last he wrote to the senate, ordering Sejanus to be imprisoned; but they, venturing beyond their instructions, decreed his immediate death. The universal hatred now burst forth: as he was led to execution, the people loaded him with insults and curses. He attempted to hide his face with his hands: but, to deprive him even of this poor relief, they were bound behind him. His mangled body was dragged about the streets: and the multitude, in their fury, murdered his whole family.

After this event, Tiberius seemed to be devoured by an unceasing thirst for blood. Not a day passed without executions, in which the victims suffered the most horrible torments. When one of them killed himself to avoid the torture, "Ah!" the tyrant exclaimed, "how has that man been able to escape me?" When another entreated that he might immediately be put to death, "No!" cried Tiberius, "I am not sufficiently your friend to shorten your torment."

In the meantime the remoter provinces were overrun by the surrounding nations, and the whole empire was in a state of disorder that alarmed him for his safety, and excited in him such a hatred of all mankind, that

he was heard to wish that the whole human race might perish along with him. Exhausted by his debaucheries, he began to think of a successor; and chose Caligula, the remaining son of Germanicus. He was at last seized with a sickness which appeared to be mortal; and Caligula, supposing him to be on his death-bed, proceeded to assume the government, when he was alarmed by the news that the emperor seemed to be recovering. He secured his own safety, by ordering the emperor to be despatched. Thus Tiberius died, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, and twenty-second of his reign.



Caligula.

Caligula at first conducted himself with great moderation. He refused to listen to an account of a conspiracy which was alleged to have been formed against him, saying that having done nothing to deserve any

man's hatred, he was not afraid of any man. He set about reforming the abuses of the state, and restored to the people their ancient right of electing magistrates; he endeavoured, too, to correct the prevailing corruption of manners, not only by punishing vice, but by bestowing rewards on virtuous conduct.

But this seemingly excellent behaviour was merely a cloak, under which he concealed the wickedness of his mind. In less than a year he threw it off, and gave a loose to his covetousness, lust, and cruelty. His barbarities were committed in mere sport and wantonness. Having been sick, and hearing that a person had devoted himself to death in case he should recover, he compelled the fulfilment of his vow, by ordering him to be thrown over the ramparts. The emperor's father-in-law was put to death on some slight suspicion; and Grecinus, an eminent senator, shared his fate, for refusing to give false testimony against him. Crowds were thus daily sacrificed to his suspicions, and his mere love of cruelty. His luxury and prodigality were unexampled. He exercised his ingenuity in inventing the most expensive dishes: and, to make them more costly, had jewels dissolved among the sauces. He sometimes employed himself, for days together, in scattering money among the people. He had large ships built of cedar, inlaid with gold and precious stones, and with silken sails; in these he used to coast along the shore of Campania, attended by the ministers of his luxuries. In the midst of these entertainments he amused himself by throwing many of his attendants into the sea. On one occasion he ordered several vessels, filled with spectators, to be attacked and sunk; many were drowned, and some, who endeavoured to escape, were struck down by the emperor's command.

By his unheard-of prodigality, Caligula, having squandered a sum equal to 18,000,000*l.* sterling, amassed by Tiberius, totally exhausted his treasures. To supply the means of his profusion, he now extorted money from his subjects in every way he could devise. Taxes were laid upon everything, even to the wages of the poorest.

tradesman. He kept a gaming-house, of which he received the profits. On one occasion, having had a run of ill luck, he happened to observe two rich knights passing by, on which he suddenly rose up, and ordered their estates to be confiscated. Then, joining his companions, he told them he had never made a better throw in his life. On another occasion, being in want of money for a stake, he went out, and ordered several noblemen to be put to death; and, on his return, told the company that they sat playing for trifles, while he had won sixty thousand sesterces\* at a cast.

In the third year of his reign, Caligula undertook an expedition against the Britons and the Germans, in which he acted in a manner that can be accounted for only on the supposition of his having been insane. He sometimes hurried on so fast, that the troops were obliged to leave their standards and baggage behind: at other times, he moved with the slowness of a religious procession. Instead of marching into Germany, he led his troops to the sea-shore in Batavia: and there, drawing up the army in order of battle, and causing the warlike instruments to sound, he made his men gather shells in their helmets. He then made them a speech, extolling their exploits, and erected a lofty tower as a trophy of his victory.

This dreadful career of folly and wickedness was short. A conspiracy against Caligula was formed, chiefly by Cherea, an officer of the guards, whom the emperor was in the habit of insulting, because he had an effeminate voice. The conspirators seized the opportunity of the emperor going to the bath. As he was entering, Cherea struck him to the ground, crying, "Tyrant, think on this!" the rest of the conspirators rushed in; and, while the emperor continued struggling, and crying that he was not yet dead, they despatched him with their swords. He was in the twenty-ninth year of his age, and had reigned nearly three years.

As the conspirators had made no provision for ap-

\* Nearly 500,000*l.* sterling.

pointing a successor, Caligula's death produced great confusion. A number of the conspirators were cut to pieces by the soldiers; who, having discovered Claudius, the emperor's uncle, in a secret place where he had hid himself, suddenly resolved to make him emperor. They carried him on their shoulders to the camp, where they proclaimed him; and his appointment was confirmed by the senate, who had no power to oppose it. Cherea, and some others of the conspirators, were immediately seized and put to death.



Claudius.

Claudius was fifty years of age when he began to reign. He had been subject to diseases which had weakened both his body and mind. His conduct, at first, however, showed good sense and good intentions. He was diligent in dispensing justice; and sometimes displayed considerable acuteness in doing so; as when, on one occasion, he obliged a woman to acknowledge a son whom she had disowned, by decreeing that she should marry him. He was attentive to the supply of the city with provisions; and constructed an aqueduct of wonderful magnitude, which brought water from forty miles distance. He also made a magnificent har-

bour at Ostia, in the mouth of the Tiber. He acted, too, with vigour, in defending the extremities of the empire; and undertook, personally, an expedition into Britain.

But Claudius was unable to act steadily for himself, and soon gave himself up to the influence of wicked favourites. His chief adviser was his wife Messalina, a woman abandoned to every vice. He allowed her and her associates to commit, in his name, the most atrocious acts of cruelty and rapacity; and the fears and suspicions to which he became a prey, soon made him act in the same way himself. He grew more and more bloodthirsty; and the use of torture became his chief enjoyment. Such, at the same time was his insensibility, that he would frequently invite to supper persons whom he had put to death but the day before. No less than thirty-five senators, and three hundred knights, were executed during his reign.

Messalina, meanwhile, relying on the emperor's weakness of mind, set no bounds to her wickedness. Having quarrelled, however, with one of her companions in vice, he informed the emperor of circumstances which roused even his insensibility, and filled him with fears for his own safety. He ordered Messalina and her infamous companions to be seized and put to death. He was feasting when informed that she was dead; but continued at table with the utmost composure, and next day while at dinner, inquired what was the cause of her absence.

Soon afterwards, Claudius married Agrippina, the daughter of his brother Germanicus, a woman not less vicious than Messalina had been. Her chief object was to secure the succession to her own son, Nero, by her former husband, Domitius Ahenobarbus, to the exclusion of Britannicus, son of the emperor and Messalina. For this purpose she married Nero to the emperor's daughter, Octavia, and caused the emperor to adopt him as his son. The violent and domineering temper of Agrippina became intolerable to Claudius; and he having on some occasion expressed his feelings in a manner that

alarmed her for her own safety, she determined to secure herself by his death, and caused poison to be given him in a dish of mushrooms. He died in the year 54 of the Christian era.



Nero.

## X. NERO.

NERO, by the influence of his mother, was immediately proclaimed emperor, to the exclusion of Britannicus. He was seventeen years of age, and his former character was good. The beginning of his reign gained for him the love of his subjects. He appeared to be just, humane, and liberal. When a warrant for the execution of a criminal was brought to him to be signed, he used to exclaim, "Would to heaven that I had never learned to write!" The senate having paid him some compliments on his conduct, he replied with seeming modesty, "that they should defer their thanks till he had deserved them."

In this manner Nero conducted himself for five years. All this while he restrained his natural disposition, for

the purpose of establishing his power. His first crime was the murder of Britannicus, the son of the late emperor, and the true heir to the crown. This young man, by his orders, was poisoned at a banquet. After this, the emperor soon threw off all restraint, and showed himself in his real colours. He gave himself up to the most profligate indulgences; and divorced his wife Octavia, in order to marry Poppea, the wife of one of his favourites, a woman of a very vicious character. Poppea used all her arts to excite the emperor's hatred of his mother, and persuaded him to put her to death. He first endeavoured to have her poisoned, but this failing, he had her invited on board a ship, so contrived as to fall to pieces in the water. This plot also failed, as she was taken out of the water by a trading vessel that happened to be passing. Nero, thus disappointed in his horrid schemes, determined to put her to death openly. He caused a report to be spread that she had conspired against his life; and, under this pretence, sent a party of soldiers to despatch her. Next day he defended his conduct in the senate, who were so sunk in meanness as to applaud him for it.

While Nero gave a loose to the cruelty of his disposition, he showed great fondness for all sorts of amusement. Chariot-driving was one of his favourite pursuits. He used to exhibit his skill at the public chariot races in the circus, greedily listening to the shouts of the people. He was fond of music, and believed himself to be a fine singer. He attempted also to write poetry, and was very vain of his productions. He made a journey through different parts of the empire, for the purpose of displaying his talents. Wherever he went, he performed at the public theatres. While he was on the stage, nobody was permitted to leave the theatre. Soldiers were stationed in different places to make the audience applaud. An old senator named Vespasian (who was afterwards emperor), happening to fall asleep on one of these occasions, narrowly escaped with his life.

In the eleventh year of his reign, a great part of



Rome was consumed by fire. It raged for six days: and a great number of the inhabitants perished, in their attempts to save their property from the flames, which spread with surprising rapidity. Many men were seen preventing, by threats, those who attempted to stop the fire, and even throwing firebrands into the houses, loudly declaring that they had orders to do so. Scarcely had this fire ceased, than a new one broke out in certain buildings belonging to Tigellinus, a favourite of the emperor. While the flames raged, Nero appeared on the stage in his palace, singing the destruction of Troy.

Nero himself was generally suspected to have caused this fire, from the desire, it was said, of having the glory of building a new city, and calling it by his name. He immediately set about the rebuilding it according to a regular plan; and the city, as now restored, became more beautiful than before. He endeavoured to remove from himself the odium of this deed, by accusing the Christians, who were by this time numerous in Rome, of having committed it; and, in consequence of this false charge, they were subjected to a barbarous persecution. Great opposition was, indeed, often made by the heathen emperors of Rome to the infant church of Christ; but our holy religion, being derived from God, was sustained by his Almighty power, and thus was made to triumph in the end over that violence, cruelty, and persecution, which must otherwise have driven it from the world.

The emperor's tyranny produced a conspiracy against him, formed by Piso, one of the most distinguished men in Rome. It was discovered before it was ripe for execution; and a great number of eminent persons, either concerned in it, or suspected of being so, were put to death. Among them, the most remarkable were Seneca, the celebrated philosopher, who had been Nero's tutor, and Lucan the poet, who was Seneca's nephew. Bodies of soldiers were sent through the surrounding country in search of those who were accused. Crowds of prisoners, loaded with chains, were daily brought to the palace-gate to receive their sentence from Nero's own mouth. He presided in person at the torture and at

executions; and appeared to delight in the agony and death of his victims. The empress Poppea did not escape his fury. She died of a miscarriage, caused by his having kicked her in a fit of savage fury.

While the Romans were thus enslaved and wretched at home, they carried on some successful wars abroad. The inhabitants of Britain having endeavoured, under their queen Boadicea, to free themselves, were so completely subdued, that they never again made an attempt to revolt, so long as the Romans remained among them. Many victories were gained over the Parthians; and Tiridates, king of Armenia, who had been assisted by the Parthians, was compelled to go to Rome, and make a complete submission to the emperor.

Revolts now broke out in different quarters. The first appeared in Gaul, under Julius Vindex, who commanded the troops there. He publicly protested against the tyrannical government of Nero; proclaimed Sergius Galba emperor, and invited him to join in dethroning the tyrant. Galba, at that time governor of Spain, was a man who had greatly distinguished himself both in peace and war. He was now an old man; and had long desired to live in obscurity, in order to avoid the suspicions and jealousy of the emperor. After some hesitation, he joined Vindex.

When Nero heard of this event, he was at supper. Struck with terror, he overturned the table with his foot, and fainted. On recovering his senses, he struck his head and tore his clothes, crying that he was utterly undone. He next began to meditate the wildest schemes of vengeance and destruction. He thought of murdering all the Gauls in Rome, of putting to death all the governors of the provinces, of poisoning the senate, burning the city, and letting loose the wild beasts upon the people. These furious thoughts were mixed with the most trifling cares. He was anxious to provide wagons for the carriage of his musical instruments; and dressed up a number of the profligate women who surrounded him, in military attire, in order to meet the enemy. His despair became actual madness.

In the meantime, the troops in Germany, Africa, and Lusitania, as well as the armies in Spain and Gaul, declared against Nero: and the whole empire was soon in a state of revolt. The prætorian guards left the palace, and proclaimed Galba emperor. Nero sent for his friends; but every friend had forsaken him. He went himself from house to house in search of them; but all had disappeared. His servants followed the example, and, after plundering his apartments, made their escape. In his desperation, he desired that one of his favourite gladiators might come and kill him; but no one complying with his request, he cried, "Alas! have I neither friend nor enemy?" He then asked for a hiding-place; and Phaon, one of his attendants, offered him his house at a short distance from the city. Nero, half-dressed, and with his face covered, set out for his place of concealment, attended by four servants who had remained with him. He heard the confused shouts of the people, and cries of the soldiers. A passenger, meeting him on the way, cried, "There go men in pursuit of Nero." Another asked him if there was any news of Nero in the city. His horse taking fright at a dead body that lay on the road, he dropped his handkerchief from his face; and a soldier addressed him by name. He now left his horse, and made his way on foot to Phaon's house. When he arrived at the back of the house, and was waiting till a hole was made in the wall to admit him, he took up some muddy water in the hollow of his hand, to quench his thirst, saying, "To this liquor is Nero reduced!" Having got into the house he threw himself upon a pallet. A slave of Phaon arrived with the tidings that Galba had been declared emperor, and he himself condemned to die, according to the rigour of the ancient laws. He inquired what that meant; and was told that the criminal was to be stripped naked, to have his head fixed in a pillory, and in that posture to be scourged to death. Struck with horror, he seized two daggers he had brought with him, examined their points, and laid them down again, saying, the time was not yet come. The sound of horses' feet was now heard; and Nero,

finding all was lost, stabbed himself. Before he was dead, the soldiers burst in the room: and one of them, pretending he came to his relief, endeavoured to stop the blood with his cloak. But Nero, fixing his eyes sternly on him, exclaimed, "It is too late: is this your fidelity?" and expired. His death took place in the thirty-second year of his age, and fourteenth of his reign.

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### XI. GALBA.—OTHO.—VITELLIUS.

GALBA was seventy-two years of age when he began to reign; and it is a striking circumstance, that the possession of supreme power, even at that age, called into action vices of his character which had not been remarkable during his former long life. Before he entered Rome, he committed an act of rigour which deserves the name of cruelty. A large body of seamen, who had obtained certain privileges from Nero, met the new emperor to request a confirmation of those privileges. Galba making no answer, they insisted with some clamour upon their demand; whereupon the emperor ordered his cavalry to ride among them and put them to the sword. Seven thousand of them were thus killed; and the emperor, not content with this punishment, ordered the remainder to be decimated, that is, every tenth man to be put to death.

His avarice, too, soon became remarkable. Soon after his coming to Rome, he ordered the ministers of Nero's cruelties to be seized and publicly executed; but it was observed that Tigellinus, the most infamous of them all, was not among the number; and it was afterwards discovered that he had, by means of his ill-gotten wealth, purchased his pardon from Galba. Other great criminals employed similar means to screen themselves from justice. This passion grew to such a height, that,

in a short time, all punishments could be redeemed, and all offices bought with money.

Galba, from these vices, became very unpopular; and concluding that he might make himself more respected if he had an heir, he resolved to adopt some person in that character whose virtues might command public esteem. Otho, a patrician of ancient family, who had been one of the first to espouse Galba's cause, endeavoured to persuade the emperor to select him for this distinction; but Galba rejected his suit, and adopted Piso Lucinianus, a man of character in all respects superior to that of Otho.

Otho, thus disappointed, resolved on obtaining the empire by force. His extravagance had rendered his circumstances so desperate, that he was heard to say, that it was equal to him whether he was destroyed by his enemies in the field, or his creditors in the city. Having contrived to raise a sum of money, he succeeded, partly by bribes and partly by promises, to corrupt the soldiers, who were already sufficiently ill-disposed towards the emperor. Otho was proclaimed by the troops, who immediately followed up this act by the murder of Galba, after he had reigned only seven months.

Otho began his reign by actions of mildness as well as justice. He not only pardoned some faithful followers of Galba, but bestowed great favours on them, saying, that fidelity deserved every reward. At the same time Tigellinus, the agent of Nero's cruelties, who had bought his pardon from Galba, was put to death.

The emperor was hardly seated on the throne, when a revolt broke out among the troops in Germany. Their general, Vitellius, who had long desired to obtain the empire, now persuaded them to proclaim him emperor, and to march to Rome. Otho left the city at the head of a great army to oppose him. They met near Placentia; and three bloody battles were fought in the space of three days. In these encounters Otho had the advantage; but he was at length totally defeated in a general engagement near a village called Bedriacum. Finding

himself utterly ruined, he fell on his own sword, after a reign of only three months.

Vitellius, having thus gained the empire by means of his soldiers, was proclaimed as a matter of course, by the senate. On arriving at Rome he entered the city at the head of his army, not as a capital of his own dominions, but as a town that he had conquered. He marched through the streets, mounted on horseback and in armour; the senate and people walking before him like captives in a triumph.

This emperor was as wicked as any of those who had gone before him. His favourite vice was gluttony. His entertainments were prodigiously expensive, though generally at the cost of his subjects, to whose tables he used to invite himself. The nobility and courtiers sought to raise themselves, not by virtue or capacity, but by the greatness of their entertainments.

His cruelty was still more detestable than his gluttony. Going to visit one of the companions of his pleasures, who was in a violent fever, he mixed poison with his water, and gave it to him with his own hands. He never forgave any one who came to ask him for payment of money he had borrowed. Having condemned one of these to death, he ordered his two sons to be executed along with him, for having presumed to beg for their father's life. A Roman knight on his way to execution having cried out that he had made the emperor his heir, Vitellius demanded to see the will; and finding himself named heir jointly with another person, he ordered that person to be executed also, that he might enjoy the whole of the legacy.

Vitellius having thus made himself intolerable to his subjects, revolts, as usual, broke out in the first place among the soldiers. Vespasian, who had for a long time commanded the armies in the east, was proclaimed emperor at Alexandria. He at first professed unwillingness to accept the title, till the soldiers compelled him to do so by threats of immediate death. He sent an army into Italy under one of his generals; himself remaining in the east to raise forces.

On hearing of this danger, Vitellius roused himself from his sloth, and made an effort to defend himself. He despatched an army to meet that of Vespasian; but his troops were defeated near Cremona, with the loss of 30,000 men. Sabinus, one of his officers, raised an insurrection in Rome, and seized the Capitol; but the soldiers of Vitellius attacked him there, set fire to that beautiful building, and took Sabinus, who was immediately executed by the emperor's command; and all his followers who escaped the fire were put to the sword.

In the mean time, Antonius, Vespasian's general, arrived at the gates of Rome. He attacked the city with great fury; and it was obstinately defended by the troops of Vitellius. The combat lasted a whole day: till at last the defenders were driven into the city, followed by the besiegers, who made a dreadful slaughter of them in the streets. All the while the populace stood by as spectators, clapping their hands, as if they had been in a theatre, and killing and plundering the soldiers of either party, who turned their back, or straggled from the bodies to which they belonged. This bloody scene took place during the time of one of those festivals called *Saturnalia*, which the people were not prevented, by the horrors that surrounded them, from celebrating; so that the city exhibited a shocking mixture of mirth, riot, strife, and slaughter.

Vitellius, deserted by every one, endeavoured to hide himself in his palace; but he was soon dragged from his retreat by a party of the conquering soldiers. He begged earnestly for life; or at least to be kept in prison till Vespasian's arrival, pretending he had secrets to reveal. But his entreaties were vain; the soldiers, tying his hands behind him, and putting a rope about his neck, led him half naked into the forum. The people threw filth upon him as he passed, and loaded him with revilings and curses. Being brought into the forum, he was beaten to death; and his body, after being dragged through the streets by a hook, was thrown into the Tiber. Thus perished Vitellius, in the fifty-seventh year of his age, after a reign of eight months.



Vespasian.

## XII. VESPASIAN.—TITUS.—DOMITIAN.

AFTER the death of Vitellius, Vespasian was proclaimed emperor, and messengers sent into Egypt, where he still remained, desiring his return to Rome. Before he set out for Rome, he gave his son, Titus, the command of the army that was to lay siege to Jerusalem. On his arrival he began to reign in a manner that justified the hopes that were formed from his virtuous character. He began by restraining the lawless behaviour of the soldiers, and reducing them to their ancient state of discipline. He improved the proceedings of the courts of justice, and took measures for shortening the extravagant length of law-suits. He rebuilt the Capitol; and erected the famous amphitheatre, the ruins of which are to this day a striking monument of the glory of ancient Rome. He extended his care to the whole empire; and employed a long reign in acts of justice, moderation, and wisdom.

In one instance only did Vespasian act in a manner inconsistent with his usual love of mercy. Julius Sabinius was commander of a small army in Gaul; and, on the death of Vitellius, had declared himself emperor. Being defeated, he was forced to conceal himself in a



cave, where he remained for nine years, attended by his faithful wife, Empona, who provided provisions for their subsistence. Sabinus at length was discovered, carried prisoner to Rome, and executed, notwithstanding the supplications of Empona, who, with her two children, threw herself at the emperor's feet, and implored his forgiveness. Vespasian's fear of a dangerous rival silenced the voice of humanity.

The only fault in his disposition was a tendency to avarice. He imposed severe taxes; and is accused of having appointed men of known rapacity to the government of provinces, in order that he might share in their exactions. The exhausted state of the public treasury, however, when he began to reign, furnished an excuse for the heaviness of his taxation.

Vespasian brought all parts of the Roman empire to a state of tranquillity. The final subjection of the Jews, and the destruction of Jerusalem, were effected by his son Titus, in the year 70; whereby a signal fulfilment was given to the remarkable prediction of our blessed Saviour, respecting the fate of that guilty city, and an illustrious proof of the sovereign rule which the Divine Being exercises over the affairs of nations. The generals who commanded in Britain, reduced the greatest part of that island to subjection. After a reign of ten years, Vespasian died, and was succeeded by Titus.

Titus even surpassed his father in the virtues which became a monarch and a man. In his youth he had been given to pleasure; but he now forsook every inclination and pursuit inconsistent with the duties he was called on to perform. He loved, and wished to marry, Berenice, sister of Agrippa, king of Judæa: but finding this connexion disagreeable to the Romans, he overcame his passion, and, what was a still greater effort, resisted her love for him, and sent her away. He dismissed all the companions of his looser recreations, and surrounded himself with wise and virtuous counsellors. His whole thoughts were directed to the good of his subjects; and it is related, that one night recollecting that he had not

during the day done anything useful to mankind, he exclaimed, "I have lost a day!"

In this reign a dreadful eruption of Mount Vesuvius did great damage to the neighbouring country; and Rome was visited, first by a fire, which continued for three days and nights, and then by a plague, during which 10,000 persons were buried in a day. These disasters called forth the utmost exertions of the emperor's humanity. It was during the above eruption that Pliny, the celebrated writer on Natural History, lost his life.

Titus died suddenly, not without suspicion of treachery from his brother, Domitian, in the forty-first year of his age, having reigned between two and three years.

Domitian, who succeeded his brother, was in all respects his opposite. Like Nero, however, at the beginning of his reign, he affected virtues which he did not possess. He appeared to abhor cruelty, avarice, and injustice; but in a short time the wickedness of his character became apparent. He gave himself up to gaming, and the exhibition of expensive shows; and his amusements in solitude were of the most childish and contemptible kind. His favourite pastime was catching flies and sticking them through with a bodkin. One of his servants, being asked if the emperor was alone, answered that he had not so much as a fly in his company. His vices seemed to increase every day; and as he felt that he was becoming more and more hateful to the people, his hatred of them increased in the same degree. Agricola, the famous general, who had performed the most important services in Britain and other parts of the empire, became the object of his jealousy and ingratitude. Agricola was deprived of his command in Britain, and ordered to return to Rome. Soon afterwards he died in retirement; and it was believed that his death was hastened by the emperor.

The general hatred of Domitian encouraged Lucius Antonius, who governed in Germany, and was at the head of a large army, to revolt, and assume the imperial dignity; but he was totally defeated by the emperor's troops. Domitian's cruelties were heightened by this

conspiracy: in order to discover who were concerned in it, he put those he suspected to the most unheard-of tortures. The terrors and sufferings of his subjects now became his most common amusements. On one occasion, having invited the senators to a banquet, he conducted them into a hall dimly lighted, and hung round with black. The room contained various instruments of torture and death; and round it were placed coffins, on which each of the terrified senators beheld his own name. While they gazed upon these dreadful objects, a body of men, with their bodies blackened, and each holding a sword in one hand, and a torch in the other, burst into the hall, and danced around them with fierce gestures. At last, when the guests were expecting instant death, the doors were thrown open, and a servant announced that the emperor gave the company leave to withdraw.

The Jews were exposed, in an especial manner, to the cruelty of this monster, partly on account of the wealth of many of them, which excited his avarice, and partly owing to the prophecy, long current in the east, that a person of the line of David should rule the world; to prevent the accomplishment of which, he commanded all the Jews of the line of David to be sought out and put to death. He persecuted the Christians, too, with great barbarity; putting great numbers of them to death by the most dreadful tortures.

Domitian at length fell a victim to the fears of those who surrounded him. His wife Domitia, who had offended him, having obtained, by accident, a sight of his tablets, on which he was accustomed to mark the names of those whom he intended to destroy, was struck at finding her own name in the fatal list. She immediately showed it to several officers of the household, whose names were also in it; and they agreed to save themselves by the death of the tyrant. On the night fixed for the attempt, his chamberlain informed him that Stephanus, the steward of his household, desired to speak with him on urgent business. Stephanus, being admitted, began to give information of a pretended con-

spiracy, and showed a paper containing the particulars. While Domitian was eagerly reading it, Stephanus stabbed him in the groin with his dagger. The wound not being deadly, a desperate struggle ensued, during which a number of the other conspirators rushing in, despatched the emperor with many wounds. Some of the guards, being alarmed, came to his assistance, but too late to save him. Stephanus, however, was slain.

On hearing of this event, the senate hastily assembled; and, resolving to provide a successor before the army could take the appointment on themselves, they immediately chose Cocceius Nerva.

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### XIII. NERVA.—TRAJAN.—ADRIAN.—ANTONINUS PIUS.—MARCUS AURELIUS.—COMMODUS.

NERVA, by birth a Spaniard, was at this time one of the most eminent men in Rome. He was sixty-five years of age, and more remarkable for the virtuous tenour of his life than for his talents. His conduct during his reign was consistent with his former character. He was liberal, but too indulgent, and often imposed upon by designing courtiers; and his generosity went the length of profusion. His regard for money was so small, that when one of his subjects had found a great treasure, and wrote to the emperor inquiring how he should dispose of it, Nerva answered that he might use it: but the finder having again written, saying that it was a fortune too large for the use of a private person, Nerva, pleased with his honesty, sent him word that then he might abuse it.

Nerva was just and humane; and many of his laws were judicious. The mildness of his government, however, encouraged turbulence: and after a dangerous insurrection of the prætorian guards, he determined to obtain the assistance of a man whose energy might

assist him in curbing the insolence of the soldiery. He accordingly adopted as his successor Ulpius Trajan, who then governed in Germany; a man unconnected with his family, but well qualified to give the assistance required. This was the last of his public acts; he soon afterwards died, having reigned only about a year and a half.



Trajan.

Trajan, like Nerva, was a Spaniard. He had spent his youth in the army, and acquired great military fame. On being informed of the death of Nerva, he repaired to Rome, and was invested with the imperial dignity. On delivering the sword to the commander of the prætorian guards, he used this remarkable expression: "Take this sword and use it: if I have merit, for me; if not, against me:" and added that he who gave laws was the first who was bound to obey them.

Trajan was, on the whole, the greatest and best of the Roman emperors. He was distinguished for his love of justice, his application to business, his moderation, his liberality to those who deserved it, and his frugality in his own expenses. His chief failing was too great a love of military glory. This passion led him into many wars, in which he headed his own armies, and penetrated into the remote parts of Asia, adding to the Roman

empire extensive countries in that quarter of the world. These conquests, however, were more brilliant than advantageous; and, while they extended this already overgrown empire, at the same time exhausted its resources.

The only blot on the memory of Trajan is the cruel persecution of the Christians, which began about the ninth year of his reign. His great veneration for the established superstition made him an enemy to every appearance of change, and he was alarmed by the progress of Christianity. Hence he was induced to sanction the persecution of those who professed this religion; and great numbers of them were cruelly put to death in all parts of the empire. This persecution took place in the year 107: like all the others it contributed to show how unable are even the greatest of mortals to withstand the power and to defeat the purposes of God.

Trajan died in the sixty-third year of his age, and the twentieth year of his reign; and was succeeded by his nephew, Adrian.



Adrian.

Adrian began his reign by taking a course quite different from that of the late emperor. He avoided war; and, being anxious only to preserve the ancient limits



ping the persecution of the Christians, and the suppression of a revolt in Britain. He was more anxious to preserve the bounds of the empire than to extend them; and often made use of an expression ascribed to the great Scipio, that he would rather save the life of one citizen, than kill a thousand enemies. He died, lamented by his subjects, in the year 161; in the seventy-fifth year of his age, and twenty-third of his reign; and was succeeded by Marcus Aurelius, whom he had adopted.



Aurelius.

Marcus Aurelius, on succeeding to the empire, assumed the name of Antoninus, and at the same time joined Lucius Verus with him in the government. The two emperors governed jointly with great harmony till Lucius Verus died, while engaged in an expedition against the Germans. During the reign of Antoninus he was engaged in several wars against the German tribes, who had taken up arms against the Romans. He died in the year 180, in the nineteenth year of his reign; having acquired the character of a distinguished philosopher, as well as of a virtuous monarch.

After the death of Marcus Aurelius, or the second Antoninus, he was succeeded by his son Commodus.

The disposition of Commodus led him to tread in the steps of Nero and Vitellius; and he even exceeded those monsters in the extent of his cruelties. The ac-





Commodus.

counts given of his barbarities are almost incredible. He is said to have cut asunder a large and fat man whom he met in the street; partly to try his own strength, which was extraordinary, and partly for the pleasure of seeing the entrails drop out. He took pleasure in cutting off the feet and putting out the eyes of persons whom he met in his rambles, and then making them the subjects of his witticisms. He murdered some because they were too negligent, and others because they were too trim, in their attire. Trusting to his strength and skill, he entered the lists with the common gladiators in the circus, and is said to have come off victor above seven hundred times.

Few public events took place in the reign of Commodus. Several revolts and conspiracies were organized against him without success. At last one of his concubines, named Martia, having discovered that he meditated her death, gave him poison; and, as it appeared to operate slowly, caused him to be strangled by a restler, in the thirteenth year of his reign.



Aurelian.

XIV. PERTINAX.—DIDIUS JULIANUS.—SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS.—CARACALLA AND GETA.—MACRINUS.—HELIAGABALUS.—ALEXANDER SEVERUS.—HIS SUCCESSORS, TO PROBUS.

HELVIUS PERTINAX, a man who had raised himself from a low condition, was chosen emperor on the death of Commodus. He governed with wisdom and moderation; but having attempted to introduce a strict discipline among the prætorian guards, who had been corrupted by the indolence and profusion of former emperors, an insurrection broke out among them, in which he was murdered, after a reign of three months.

The soldiers, whose power no one could now resist, resolved to sell the empire to the highest bidder. It was purchased by Didius Julianus, a lawyer of immense wealth, for a sum equal to about a million of pounds sterling. The senate was obliged to confirm the choice of the soldiers. Didius wishing to enjoy what he had bought at so large a price, gave himself up to sloth and luxury, and made himself contemptible both to the soldiers and the people. Whenever he appeared in public, he was received with outcries and abuse; the people

calling out that he was a thief and had stolen the empire. The affairs of the empire went into confusion; Niger, the governor of Syria, and Severus, commander of the army in Germany, threw off his authority, and endeavoured to obtain the sovereignty for themselves. Niger trifled away his time in his province; but Severus marched directly to Rome. On hearing of the approach of Severus, the senate and people openly declared against the emperor. The senate decreed, that Julianus should be deposed, and put to death, and that Severus should be proclaimed emperor;—and this sentence was immediately executed.

Septimius Severus was an African by birth, and in the forty-seventh year of his age when he was made emperor. He immediately marched against his rival, Niger, whom he defeated in a great battle upon the plains of Issus, the spot where Alexander the Great had formerly conquered Darius, king of Persia. Niger was taken prisoner, and put to death. Severus then subdued the Persians, Parthians, and other nations who had taken up arms, on pretence of supporting the cause of Niger, and established peace in the eastern part of the empire.

Severus afterwards undertook an expedition into Britain, where the Roman power was in danger of being destroyed. He attacked the Caledonians, the inhabitants of the northern part of the island; and, after a destructive warfare, in which he is said to have lost 50,000 men by fatigue and sickness, he forced them to beg for peace, and surrender a considerable part of their country. He then built the famous wall across the island, from the river Tyne on the east to the Solway Firth on the west, to prevent the inroads of the northern barbarians. He afterwards retired to York, where he died in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and eighteenth of his reign.

Severus governed the empire with vigour and prudence: his disposition was warlike, but he was cunning and faithless, and committed many acts of cruelty.

Severus was succeeded by his sons Caracalla and Geta, who were jointly proclaimed emperors. Caracalla was fierce and cruel, while Geta was of a gentle disposition. Caracalla soon afterwards, by the murder of his

brother, obtained the sole power, and proved a detestable tyrant. Relying entirely on the support of the soldiers, upon whom he bestowed immense sums, extorted from the people, he disregarded the public hatred. He was at last murdered by Macrinus, one of his officers, in the sixth year of his reign.



Macrinus.

Macrinus was proclaimed emperor by the soldiers; but, being displeased by the rigour of his discipline, they revolted, and set up against him Heliogabalus, a natural son of Caracalla. Macrinus was put to death, and Heliogabalus became emperor, at the age of fourteen.

Notwithstanding his 'early age, Heliogabalus (or Elagabalus) was a monster of gluttony, lust, prodigality, and cruelty. His reign was a succession of infamous actions; till he was murdered by the soldiers in his eighteenth year.

Heliogabalus was succeeded by his cousin, Alexander Severus, a youth of seventeen years of age. He displayed the wisdom and virtues of a riper age; and his government was prosperous, both at home and abroad. He was strict, yet merciful, in dispensing justice. He extended his clemency even to the Christians; and, notwithstanding the unfavourable light in which they were then regarded, would not permit them to be persecuted, or treated with injustice. A contest having arisen be-

tween them and a company of tavern-keepers, respecting a piece of ground, which the one party claimed as a place for worship, and the other for the erection of houses of entertainment, he decided the dispute in favour of the Christians, saying, "It is better that God should be worshipped there in any manner, than that the place should be employed for the purpose of riot and drunkenness." He was successful in defending the extremities of the empire, which were now frequently attacked on every side. These virtues, however, could not save him from the lawless violence of the soldiers, who revolted, and murdered him, in the twenty-ninth year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign.

Maximinus, the mover of the revolt, was (as had now become usual) proclaimed emperor. He was a man of great stature and extraordinary strength, and had risen from the lowest rank in the army by his merit as a soldier. After he became emperor, he continued to display his military talents by reducing the Germans to subjection, but his government was cruel and tyrannical; and after several unsuccessful revolts, he was slain, in a mutiny of his soldiers, in the third year of his reign.

Maximinus was succeeded by Gordian, Gordian by Phillip, and Phillip by Decius. Of these emperors it is sufficient to say, that each of them, after a short reign, was murdered by his soldiers, to make way for his successor.

Decius, who succeeded in the year 248, was slain in a battle with the Goths, and was succeeded by Gallus, who died after an unhappy reign of about two years, and was succeeded by Valerian.

The empire was now in a deplorable state. It was attacked on every side by the Goths and other surrounding nations. Valerian, though seventy years of age, made a vigorous attempt to resist the Persians, who had invaded Syria. He was defeated and taken prisoner; and, after being treated with the utmost indignity by Sapor, the Persian king, he was cruelly put to death.

Valerian was succeeded by his son Gallienus. He was a man of infamous character; and so much was the

distracted state of the empire increased by the hatred with which he was regarded, that at one time no less than nineteen individuals revolted in different provinces, and made pretensions to the crown. Several of those were men distinguished for ability and virtue, who were forced into this measure against their will. "You have lost," said Saturninus, one of their number, to the soldiers, who were proclaiming him, "a very useful commander, and made a very wretched emperor!" The whole of these men perished by violent deaths; and Gallienus himself was murdered by Martian, one of his generals, and succeeded by Flavius Claudius.

Claudius, by his vigour and activity, did a great deal towards retrieving the affairs of the empire. An immense swarm of barbarians, said to have amounted to 300,000, having descended the Danube, spreading devastation whenever they came, he marched against them, and cut them to pieces. He was equally successful against the revolted Germans; but, in the middle of this victorious career, he died, in the second year of his reign.

On the death of Claudius, the army chose as his successor, Aurelian, who was esteemed the ablest commander of his time. He was equally successful as his predecessor had been in subduing the foreign enemies of the empire; but his severity was the cause of his death. His secretary, who had been threatened with punishment for some fault, stirred up a conspiracy, in which the emperor was murdered, after a reign of about five years.

Aurelian was succeeded by Tacitus, a man of merit, who died in about six months. His brother Probus, who was his successor, was distinguished for his military talents, and his successes in war. He subdued almost all the enemies of Rome, and overcame several pretenders to the empire; but was killed, in a mutiny of his soldiers, in the seventh year of his reign.

**XV. CARUS. — DIOCLESIAN. — CONSTANTINE. — ESTABLISHMENT OF CHRISTIANITY. — CONSTANTINE'S SUCCESSORS. — JULIAN THE APOSTATE. — VALENTINIAN AND VALENS. — DIVISION INTO THE WESTERN AND EASTERN EMPIRES. — REIGNS OF THE LAST EMPERORS OF THE WEST. — FALL OF THE EMPIRE.**

CARUS, the commander of the prætorian guards, was chosen by the army as the successor of Probus. He joined his two sons, Carinus and Numerianus, along with him in the government. He died after a very short reign; and his two sons were both killed by the mutinous soldiery.

Dioclesian, who next assumed the government, had a long and prosperous reign. He repeatedly defeated the barbarous nations who surrounded the Roman empire, and for a time restrained their inroads. During his reign the Christians suffered their last great persecution, which exceeded all the former in severity. Dioclesian, soon after his accession, made his general Maximian his partner in the government; and after he had reigned twenty years, the world was surprised by both himself and his partner laying down the government at the same time.

During the obscure and short reigns of several succeeding emperors, the history of Rome presents little that is worthy of notice, till the accession of Constantine, the first Christian emperor, which took place in the year 306.

Constantine succeeded his father Constantius, who died in Britain. Maxentius, a person of low extraction, but much favoured by the soldiers, having pretended to the throne, Constantine marched against him at the head of an army, and during this expedition, made a public profession of Christianity. Maxentius was defeated and killed; and Constantine afterwards overcame Licinius, a general who had assumed the government in the east-



Constantine the Great.

ern part of the empire. Having thus obtained undisputed power, Constantine established the Christian religion throughout all his dominions.

Soon afterwards, Constantine removed the seat of government from Rome to Byzantium, the name of which he changed to Constantinople.

Constantine died in the year 337, after a reign of thirty-two years. After his death, his three sons were proclaimed joint emperors. In consequence of their disagreements with each other, and of the appearance of several pretenders to the crown, the empire was for a number of years wasted by civil wars, till at last Constantius, one of the sons of Constantine, remained its sole master.



Constantius.

During these divisions, the Germans and other barbarous nations, had ravaged different provinces of the



empire. Constantius, not thinking it safe to leave Italy himself, for the purpose of opposing them, raised his cousin Julian to the dignity of Cæsar,\* and sent him against the barbarians who had invaded Gaul. Julian drove the invaders out of that province; and, following them into Germany, compelled them to sue for peace.

The Persians having begun hostilities, Constantius himself marched against them; and Julian, taking advantage of his absence, had himself proclaimed emperor. Constantius, giving up his expedition against the Persians, marched against the usurper, but died before he reached him.

Julian now assumed the imperial dignity without opposition. He had been educated in the Christian religion, but had abandoned it secretly some time before. He now openly avowed his paganism, and caused the temples of the heathen gods to be again opened. From this act he is called the *Apostate*.

He afterwards marched against the Persians, and penetrated into their country; but, after suffering great losses, he was compelled to begin a retreat, during which he was killed in a skirmish, in the year 363, after a reign of twenty months.

Julian was succeeded by Jovian, who concluded a peace with the Persians. He restored the public profession of the Christian religion, and revoked all the laws against it made by Julian. He died suddenly, after a reign of only seven months.

Valentinian, being now chosen emperor, made his brother Valens his partner in the sovereignty, and separated the empire into two great divisions. The *Western Empire*, with Rome for its capital, he retained to himself: giving to Valens the *Eastern Empire* of which the capital was Constantinople.

Valentinian was employed during his whole reign in

\* Cæsar was the title given by the emperors to the persons whom they adopted as their successors, with royal authority subordinate to their own.

repelling the inroads of the barbarians, which were now unceasing. He died in the year 375, in the twelfth year of his reign, and was succeeded by his son Gratian.

Soon afterwards, Gratian, by the death of Valens, the eastern emperor, became master of the whole empire. He took Theodosius as his partner, and committed to him the government of the eastern provinces. The empire was now attacked by the Goths and other barbarous nations, and Theodosius, though he was an able commander, could not prevent a number of provinces from falling into the hands of those barbarians.

In 383, a military commander of the name of Maximus, revolted against Gratian, and having got him into his power, put him to death. The usurper was soon overcome and executed by Theodosius.

Theodosius died in 395, after a reign of sixteen years: having again divided the government, by appointing his son Honorius emperor of the west, and bequeathing the eastern empire to Arcadius.

The western empire now fell rapidly into decay. Immediately on the death of Theodosius, the Goths, under their celebrated king, Alaric, invaded Italy. Honorius was weak and timid; but his general, Stilicho, a brave and able commander, defeated the invaders and drove them out of Italy.

Immediately after this deliverance, another immense swarm of barbarians, from the countries adjoining the Baltic Sea, poured into Italy, under a king called Rhodogast, or Radagaisus. This multitude, consisting of not less than 200,000 fighting men, besides women and children, having crossed without resistance, the Alps, the river, Po, and the Appenines, and ravaged and destroyed many cities, laid siege to Florence. Here, however, they were attacked by Stilicho, and totally destroyed; and their chief, being taken prisoner, was put to death. Stilicho was thus a second time the deliverer of Italy.

Notwithstanding these signal services, Stilicho fell a victim to the jealousy of the emperor, who appears to have feared the great powers and abilities of his vic-

torious general. On some charges of treasonable conduct Stilicho was put to death; and his family and friends perished along with him.

Alaric again invaded Italy; and having taken Rome, delivered it up to his soldiers to be plundered, who set it on fire in different places, and murdered a great number of the inhabitants; after which he left Italy, leaving Honorius still in possession of the throne. This emperor died in 423, after an unhappy reign of twenty-eight years.

Honorius was succeeded by his nephew Valentinian, who was scarcely seated on the throne, when the empire was invaded by the Huns, under the famous king Attila. They were vigorously resisted, and driven back by the Roman general Aetius: but this able commander was soon after murdered by Valentinian with his own hand, in consequence of a suspicion that he aspired to the empire. Valentinian was killed by a senator named Maximus, whose wife he had violated. Maximus seized the empire, and forced the emperor's widow, Eudoxia, to marry him. Eudoxia, in revenge for this treatment, invited Genseric, king of the Vandals, to invade Italy. Genseric entered Italy with an army; on his appearance before the gates of Rome, a tumult took place in the city, in which Maximus was slain; and Genseric entered it, without any opposition, plundered it of everything the soldiers of Alaric had spared, and returned with the spoils to Carthage, from whence he had come.

After the death of Maximus, Avitus, who had commanded the forces in Gaul, was raised to the throne by Theodoric, king of the Goths, who, in the character of an ally of the Romans, had acquired an irresistible control in the affairs of the empire. After a short and contemptible reign, Avitus was deposed by Count Ricimer, a Goth, one of the principal commanders of the barbarian troops, who now formed the military defence of Italy. During the vacancy thus produced, Ricimer governed Italy under the title of patrician; but at last consented to the wish of the Romans, that Majorian should be made emperor.

Majorian, who was chosen emperor in the year 458, was possessed of qualities which, in more prosperous times, would have made him a great monarch. He defeated the Vandals, and drove them out of Italy; and he determined to attack them in their settlements on the coast of Africa. For this purpose he fitted out a fleet, which was surprised and burnt by the enemy; and Ricimer, who was now jealous of his great talents and increasing power, made this misfortune a pretext for stirring up a sedition against him, in which he was slain.

The government again fell into the hands of Ricimer; who, though he refused the title of emperor or king, ruled with absolute power. During what may be called his reign, the kingdom of Italy, a name to which the western empire was gradually reduced, was afflicted by the incessant invasions of the Vandals, who every year sent out a formidable fleet from the port of Carthage and made descents, not only on Italy, but on all the countries bordering upon the Mediterranean Sea. Ricimer, reduced to the greatest difficulties, by these constant attacks, was at length obliged to apply for assistance to the Emperor Leo, who then governed the eastern empire, and to agree that Italy should receive an emperor chosen by that monarch.

Leo invested Anthemius, one of the most distinguished of his subjects, with the dignity of emperor of the West; and the appointment of Anthemius was followed by the marriage of his daughter with Ricimer. But discord soon arose between the emperor and the powerful patrician. Ricimer, who could not brook a superior, retired from Rome, and fixed his residence at Milan, and Italy was gradually divided into two independent kingdoms. Open war soon broke out between these rivals. Ricimer marched to Rome, and, after a siege of three months, took the city by assault; Anthemius was murdered, and the city given up to be plundered by the barbarians.

The events of the concluding years of the western empire are indistinctly recorded by historians. On the

death of Anthemius, Olybrius was raised to the empire. He died soon after his accession; and the throne was usurped by Glycerius, on whose deposition, Julius Nepos succeeded. Julius Nepos, in a few months, was deposed by his general, Orestes, who caused his son Augustulus to be proclaimed emperor, in the year 475.

In the following year, the barbarians who served in the Roman armies, demanded, as a reward for their services, the third part of the lands in Italy. This being refused by Orestes, who administered the government (his son being a mere boy), the barbarians revolted, and placing at their head a man named Odoacer (a private soldier of the guards, but possessed of uncommon abilities), marched against Orestes and Augustulus. The emperor and his father took refuge in Pavia; but Odoacer, having assaulted and taken the place, put Orestes to death, but spared Augustulus on account of his youth.

Rome immediately submitted; Odoacer caused himself to be proclaimed king of Italy; and thus was finally extinguished the western empire.



**XVI. THE EASTERN EMPIRE USURPED BY BASILISCUS.—  
HE IS STARVED TO DEATH.—THE ORIGIN OF THE  
DECLINE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.—IT REVIVES  
UNDER JUSTIN AND JUSTINIAN.—BELISARIUS.—THE  
EASTERN EMPIRE—WAR WITH THE PERSIANS.—  
THE SARACENS.**

FROM the time of Theodosius to the time when the Roman empire of the west was totally destroyed by the Goths, we find but very little remarkable in the history of Constantinople. At this time the eastern empire was usurped by Basiliscus, who had driven out Zeno the lawful emperor; being assisted in his conspiracy by the Empress Verina his sister. Zeno fled into Isauria, whither he was pursued by Illus and Trecondes, two of the usurper's generals; who having easily defeated the few troops he had with him, forced the unhappy prince to shut himself up in a castle, which they immediately invested. But in a short time Basiliscus having disoblged the people by his cruelty, avarice, and other bad qualities, for which he was no less remarkable than his predecessor had been, his generals joined with Zeno, whom they restored to the throne. After his restoration, Zeno having got Basiliscus into his power, confined him in a castle of Cappadocia together with his wife Zenonides, where they both perished with hunger and cold. This happened in the year 467, after Basiliscus had reigned about twenty months. During the time of this usurpation a dreadful fire happened at Constantinople, which consumed great part of the city, with the library, containing 120,000 volumes.

The misfortunes which Zeno had undergone did not work any reformation upon him. He still continued the same vicious courses which had given occasion to the usurpation of Basiliscus. Other conspiracies were formed against him, but he had the good fortune to escape them. He engaged in a war with the Ostro-

goths, in which he proved unsuccessful, and was obliged to yield the provinces of Lower Dacia and Mœsia to them. In a short time, however, Theodoric their king made an irruption into Thrace, and advanced within fifteen miles of Constantinople, with a design to besiege that capital: but the following year, 485, they retired in order to attack Odoacer, King of Italy; of which country Theodoric was proclaimed king in 493. The Emperor Zeno died in the year 491, in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and seventeenth of his reign.

The Roman empire had now for a long time been on the decline: the ancient valour and military discipline which had for such a long time rendered the Romans superior to other nations, had greatly degenerated; so that they were now by no means so powerful as formerly. The tumults and disorders which had happened in the empire from time to time by the many usurpations, had contributed also to weaken it very much. But what proved of the greatest detriment was the allowing vast swarms of barbarians to settle in the different provinces, and to serve in the Roman empire in separate and independent bodies. This had proved the immediate cause of the dissolution of the western empire; but as it affected the eastern parts less, the Constantinopolitan empire continued for upwards of nine hundred years after the western one was totally dissolved. The weak and imprudent administration of Zeno, and Anastasius who succeeded him, had reduced the eastern empire still more; and it might possibly have expired in a short time after the western one, had not the wise and vigorous conduct of Justin, and his partner Justinian, revived in some measure the ancient martial spirit which had originally raised the Roman empire to its highest pitch of grandeur.

Justin ascended the throne in 518. In 521 he engaged in a war with the Persians, who had all along been very formidable enemies to the Roman name. Against them he employed the famous Belisarius; but of him we hear nothing remarkable till after the acces-

sion of Justinian. This prince was the nephew of Justin, and was by him taken as his partner in the empire in 527; and the same year Justin died, in the seventy-seventh year of his age and ninth of his reign. Justinian being now sole master of the empire, bent his whole force against the Persians. The latter proved successful in the first engagement; but were soon after utterly defeated at Dara. They advanced against that place, which was defended by Belisarius, with only 25,000 men; and so confident were they of success, that the Persian general issued a proclamation signifying the day and the hour on which the citizens should prepare a bath for his refreshment after the toils of victory. The two armies met in the open plain, in front of the town. At first the Roman centre was shaken; but Belisarius, by a rapid charge, captured the Persian standard, and compelled the enemy to fly, leaving 8000 of their companions dead on the field of battle. In the next campaign, the Persians were pursued from post to post, and Belisarius would have driven them out of Syria, without any opposition, had not the Arabs in the Roman army deserted, and left the Romans; thus greatly reduced in numbers, to withstand the attacks of innumerable hosts. They were defended, however, by their heroic and persevering courage; Belisarius, himself, dismounting from his horse and fighting at their head on foot, showed them that intrepidity was their only safety. After a conflict of many hours, the Persians withdrew and embarked in silence, under the cover of night.

The war continued with various success during the first five years of Justinian's reign. In the sixth year a peace was concluded upon the following terms: 1. That the Roman emperor should pay to Chosroes, the King of Persia, 1000 pounds weight of gold. 2. That both princes should restore the places they had taken during the wars. 3. That the commander of the Roman forces should no longer reside at Dara on the Persian frontiers, but at a place called *Constantina* in Mesopotamia, as he had formerly done. 4. That the



Iberians, who had sided with the Romans, should be at liberty to return to their own country or stay at Constantinople. This peace, concluded in 532, was styled *eternal*; but in the event proved of very short duration.

About this time happened at Constantinople the greatest tumult mentioned in history. It began among the different factions in the circus, but ended in an open rebellion. The multitude, highly dissatisfied with the conduct of John, the *prefectus prætorio*, and of Trebonianus, then questor, forced Hypatius, nephew to the Emperor Anastasius, to accept the empire, and proclaimed him with great solemnity in the forum. As the two above-mentioned ministers were greatly abhorred by the populace on account of their avarice, Justinian immediately discharged them, hoping by that means to appease the tumult: but this was so far from answering the purpose, that the multitude only grew the more outrageous upon it; and most of the senators joining them, the emperor was so much alarmed, that he had thoughts of abandoning the city and making his escape by sea.

In this dilemma the Empress Theodora encouraged and persuaded him rather to part with his life than the kingdom; and he at last resolved to defend himself to the utmost, with the few senators who had not yet abandoned him. In the mean time, the rebels having attempted in vain to force the gates of the palace, carried Hypatius in triumph to the circus; where, while he was beholding the sports from the imperial throne, amidst the shouts and acclamations of the people, Belisarius, who had been recalled from Persia, entered the city with a considerable body of troops.

Being then apprised of the usurpation of Hypatius, he marched straight to the circus; fell sword in hand upon the disarmed multitude; and with the assistance of a band of Heruli, headed by Mundus, Governor of Illyricum, cut about 30,000 of them in pieces. Hypatius, the usurper, and Pompeius, another of the nephews of Anastasius, were taken prisoners and carried to the emperor, by whose orders they were both beheaded,

and their bodies cast into the sea. Their estates were confiscated, and likewise the estates of such senators as had joined with them; but the emperor caused great part of their lands and effects to be afterwards restored, together with their honours and dignities, to their children.

Justinian having now no other enemy to contend with, turned his arms against the Vandals in Africa. His general, Belisarius, completely subdued the Vandals, and captured their capital, Carthage; and soon after the surrounding country submitted to his arms; and the more distant provinces were successively subdued by the terror of his name and the report of his great success. Tripoli voluntarily offered her allegiance; Sardinia and Corsica surrendered; and the islands of Majorca, Minorca, and Yvica, acknowledged their dependence on the kingdom of Africa. Belisarius returned to Constantinople in 534, and was the first general who, in that city, obtained the honours of a triumph.

From the palace of Belisarius, the procession was conducted through the principal streets to the hippodrome. The wealth of nations was displayed, and the trophies of martial or effeminate luxury, rich armour, golden thrones, and the chariots of state which had been used by the Vandal queen. Then followed the massive furniture of the royal palace, precious stones of great splendour, statues and vases of the most elegant forms, the more substantial treasure of gold, and the holy vessels of the Jewish temple, which were finally deposited in the Christian church of Jerusalem. A long train of the noblest Vandals reluctantly advanced, gracing the triumph by their lofty stature and manly countenances. Gelimer, their king, slowly advanced; he was clad in a purple robe, and still maintained the majesty of a king. Not a tear escaped from his eyes, not a sigh was heard; but his pride or piety derived some secret consolation from the words of Solomon, which he frequently repeated, *Vanity! vanity! all is vanity.* Belisarius marched on foot at the head of his



Triumph of Belisarius.

army; and the procession entering the gate of the hippodrome, was saluted by the acclamations of the senate and people, and halted before the throne, whereon Justinian and Theodora were seated to receive the homage of the captive king and the victorious hero. With a little violence, Gelimer was persuaded to perform the customary adoration, by falling prostrate before the throne, and respectfully touching the footstool of the emperor. At another triumphal procession on the same day Belisarius was borne on the shoulders of African slaves through the streets, scattering coins, rich belts, and golden cups among the people. Belisarius was rewarded with the consulship for the ensuing year.

In 537, Belisarius was sent by Justinian against the Goths in Italy. He soon reduced Naples, Apulia, and

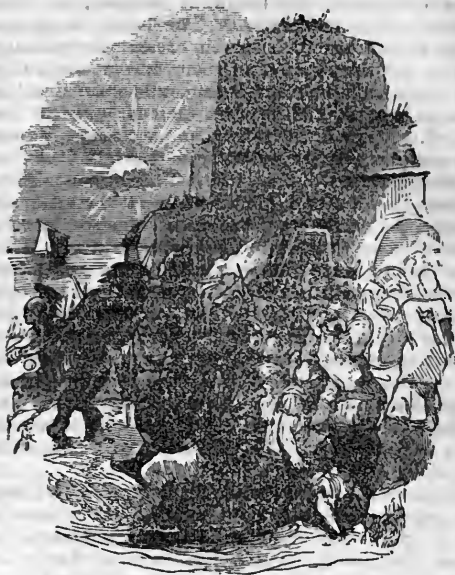
Calabria; and when he approached the city of Rome, the gates were thrown open to him by the people, who exclaimed that the apostolic throne, and the tombs of the Cæsars, should no longer be violated by the barbarians of the north. They fondly hailed the restoration of a Roman emperor, as a new era of freedom and prosperity; but they trembled, when they heard that the Goths intended to besiege their city, and that Belisarius had resolved to defend the place to the last extremity.

Vitiges, the Gothic king of Italy, did not spend the winter in inaction. From their rustic habitations, from their distant garrisons, the Goths assembled at Ravenna for the defence of their country; and such were their numbers, that after an army had been detached for the relief of Dalmatia, one hundred and fifty thousand fighting men marched under the royal standard. According to the degrees of rank or merit, the Gothic King distributed arms and horses, rich gifts and liberal promises. He moved along the Flaminian way, declined the useless sieges of Perugia and Spoleto, respected the impregnable rock of Narni, and arrived within two miles of Rome, at the foot of the Milvian bridge.

That narrow passage was fortified by a tower, and Belisarius had computed the value of the twenty days which must be lost by the Goths in the construction of another bridge. But the consternation of the soldiers of the tower, who either fled or deserted, disappointed his hopes, and betrayed his person, into the most imminent danger. At the head of one thousand horse, the Roman general sallied from the Flaminian gate to mark the ground of an advantageous position, and to survey the camp of the barbarians; while he still believed them on the other side of the Tiber, he was suddenly encompassed and assaulted by their innumerable squadrons. The fate of Italy depended on his life: and the deserters pointed to the conspicuous horse, a bay with a white face which he rode on that memorable day. "Aim at the bay horse," was the

universal cry. Every bow was bent, every javelin was directed, against that fatal object, and the command was repeated and obeyed by thousands who were ignorant of its real motive. The bolder barbarians advanced to the more honorable combat of swords and spears; and the praise of an enemy has graced the fall of Visandus, the standard-bearer, who maintained his foremost station, till he was pierced with thirteen wounds, perhaps by the hand of Belisarius himself. The Roman general was strong, active, and dexterous. On every side he discharged his weighty and mortal strokes. His faithful guards imitated his valor and defended his person; and the Goths, after the loss of a thousand men, fled before the arms of a hero. They were rashly pursued to their camp; and the Romans oppressed by multitudes, made a gradual, and at length a precipitate retreat to the gates of the city. The gates were shut against the fugitives; and the public terror was increased by the report that Belisarius was slain. His countenance was indeed disfigured by sweat, dust, and blood; his voice was hoarse; his strength was almost exhausted; but his unconquerable spirit still remained. He imparted that spirit to his desponding companions, and their last desperate charge was felt by the flying barbarians as if a new army, vigorous and entire, had been poured from the city. The Flaminian gate was thrown open to a real triumph on the return of the general; but it was not till Belisarius had visited every post, and provided for the public safety, that he could be persuaded by his wife and friends, to taste the needful refreshments of food and sleep.

After this first and unsuccessful trial of their enemies, the whole army of the Goths passed the Tiber, and formed the siege of the city, which continued above a year, till their final departure. Eighteen days were employed by both armies in strengthening their fortifications and in preparing all the instruments of attack and defence which antiquity had invented. On the morning of the nineteenth day, a general attack was made



Siege of Rome.

by the barbarians, from the Prænestine gate to the Vatican. Seven Gothic columns, with their military engines advanced to the assault, and the Romans who lined the ramparts, listened with doubt and anxiety to the cheerful assurances of their commander. As soon as the enemy approached the ditch, on the outside of the wall, Belisarius himself drew the first arrow; and such was his strength and dexterity, that he transfixed the foremost of the barbarian leaders. A shout of ap-

plause and victory was re-echoed along the wall. He drew a second arrow, and the stroke was followed with the same success, and the same acclamation. The Roman general then gave the word, that the archers should aim at the teams of oxen. They were instantly covered with mortal wounds; the towers which they drew remained useless and immovable, and a single moment disconcerted the laborious projects of the king of the Goths. After this disappointment, Vitiges continued, or feigned to continue, the assault of the Salarian gate, that he might divert the attention of his adversary, while his principal forces more strenuously attacked the Prænestine gate, and the tomb of Hadrian, at the distance of three miles from each other. Belisarius calmly surveyed the whole plan of attack and defence, transported himself to the places where the greatest danger threatened, and communicated his spirit to his soldiers in calm and decisive orders. The contest was fiercely maintained from the morning till the evening, when the Goths were repulsed on all sides. Thirty thousand of them, according to the confession of their own chiefs, perished in this bloody action; and the multitude of the wounded was equal to that of the slain.

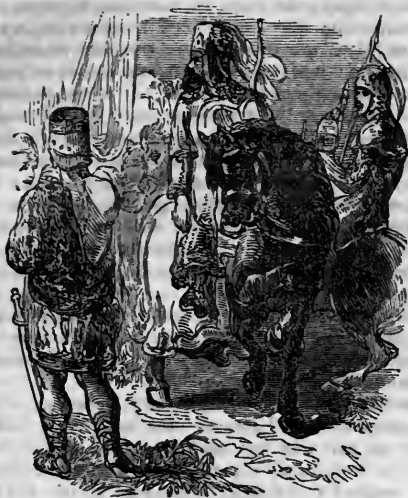
On the retreat of the Goths, Belisarius sallied from the gates, and reduced the hostile engines of war to ashes. Such was the loss and consternation of the Goths, that, from that day, the siege of Rome, degenerated into a tedious and indolent blockade; and they were incessantly harassed by the Roman general, who, in frequent sallies and skirmishes, destroyed above five thousand of their bravest troops.

The siege of Rome was maintained for one year and nine days, during which time, nearly the whole nation of the Ostrogoths perished before her walls. While Vitiges struggled with his fortune, while he hesitated between shame and ruin, his retreat was hastened by domestic alarms. Before he retired, he made a last effort to surprise or storm the city. Failing in this, his army, so lately strong and triumphant, burnt their

tents, and tumultuously repassed the Milvian bridge. They repassed not with impunity. Their thronging multitudes, oppressed in a narrow passage, were driven headlong into the Tiber, by their own fears and the pursuit of the enemy; and the Roman general, sallying from the Pincian gate, inflicted a severe and disgraceful wound on their retreat. So powerful was this flying army, that Vitiges spared 10,000 men, for the defence of the cities which he was most solicitous to preserve, and detached his nephew with an adequate force for the chastisement of rebellious Milan; while he himself, at the head of his chief force laid siege to Rimini. This place, however, was so obstinately and courageously defended by John the Sanguinary that the Goths, overwhelmed with astonishment and despair, on seeing Belisarius again advance against them, abandoned the siege, their tents, their standards, and their leaders; and Vitiges flying almost alone, never halted till he found shelter within the walls and morasses of Ravenna.

But before Belisarius had time to establish fully the Roman power in Italy, he was recalled in order to carry on the war against Chosroes, king of Persia, who, in defiance of the treaty formerly concluded in 532, entered the Roman dominions at the head of a powerful army. The same year, however, a peace was concluded between the two nations upon the following conditions: 1. That the Romans should within two months, pay to the Persian king 5000 pounds weight of gold, and an annual pension of 500. 2. That the Persians should relinquish all claim to the fortress of Daras, and maintain a body of troops to guard the Caspian gates, and prevent the barbarians from breaking into the empire. 3. That upon payment of the above-mentioned sum, Chosroes should immediately withdraw his troops from the Roman dominions. The treaty being signed, and the stipulated sum paid, Chosroes began to march back again; but by the way plundered several cities as if the war had still continued. Hereupon Justinian resolved to pursue the





Chosroes at the head of his Army.

war with the utmost vigour; and for that purpose despatched Belisarius into the east. But soon after he was obliged to recal him in order to oppose the Goths who had gained great advantages in Italy after his departure.

The Persian war was then carried on with indifferent success till the year 558, when a peace was concluded upon the emperor again paying an immense sum to the enemy. The same year the Huns, passing the Danube in the depth of winter, marched in two bodies directly for Constantinople; and laying waste the countries through which they passed, came, without meeting the least opposition, within one hundred

and fifty furlongs of the city. But Belisarius marching out against them with a handful of men, put them to flight; the emperor, however, to prevent them from invading the empire anew, agreed to pay them an annual tribute, upon their promising to defend the empire against all other barbarians, and to serve in the Roman armies when required. This was the last exploit performed by Belisarius, who on his return to Constantinople was disgraced, stripped of all his employments, and confined to his house on pretence of a conspiracy against the emperor. In the year 565 a real conspiracy was formed against Justinian, which he happily escaped, and the conspirators were executed; but the emperor did not long survive it, being carried off by a natural death in 566, in the thirty-ninth year of his reign.

During the reign of Justinian the majesty of the Roman empire seemed to revive. He recovered the provinces of Italy and Africa out of the hands of the barbarians, by whom they had been held for a number of years; but after his death they were soon lost, and the empire tended fast to dissolution. In 569 Italy was conquered by the Lombards, who held it for the space of two hundred years. Some amends, however, was made for the loss by the acquisition of *Persarmenia*; the inhabitants of which, being persecuted by the Persians on account of the Christian religion which they professed, revolted to the Romans.

This produced a war between the two nations, who continued to weaken each other, till at last the Persian monarchy was utterly overthrown, and that of the Romans greatly reduced by the Saracens. These new enemies attacked the Romans in the year 632, and pursued their conquests with incredible rapidity. In the space of four years they reduced the provinces of Egypt, Syria, and Palestine. In 648 they were also masters of Mesopotamia, Phœnicia, Africa, Cyprus, Aradus, and Rhodes; and having defeated the Roman fleet, commanded by the emperor Constans in person, they concluded a peace on condition of keeping the

vast extent of territory they had seized, and paying for it 1000 nummi a year.

An expedition against the Lombards was about this time undertaken, but with very little success, a body of 20,000 Romans being almost entirely cut off by one of the Lombard generals. In 671 the Saracens ravaged several provinces, made a descent in Sicily, took and plundered the city of Syracuse, and over-ran the whole island, destroying every thing with fire and sword. In like manner they laid waste Cilicia; and having passed the winter at Smyrna, they entered Thrace in the winter of the year 672, and laid siege to Constantinople itself. Here, however, they were repulsed with great loss; but next spring they renewed their attempt, in which they met with the same bad success; many of their ships being burnt by the *sea-fire*, as it was called, because it burnt under water; and in their return home their fleet was wrecked off the Scyllæan promontory. At last a peace was concluded for thirty years, on condition that the Saracens should retain all the provinces they had seized; and that they should pay to the emperor and his successors 3000 pounds weight of gold, fifty slaves, and as many choice horses.



**XVII. THE EMPIRE INVADED BY THE BULGARIANS.—  
THEY ARE DEFEATED AND THEIR COUNTRY SUB-  
DUEDED BY BASILIUS II.—THE SARACENS.**

THE peace with the Saracens was scarcely concluded, when the empire was invaded by a new enemy, who proved very troublesome for a long time. These were the Bulgarians; who breaking into Thrace, defeated the Roman army sent against them, and ravaged the country far and wide. The emperor consented to pay them an annual pension, rather than continue a

doubtful war; and allowed them to settle in Lower Mæsia, which from them was afterwards called *Bulgaria*. In 687, they were attacked by Justinian II. who entered their country without provocation, or regarding the treaties formerly concluded with them. But they falling suddenly upon him, drove him out of their country, and obliged him to restore the towns and captives he had taken.

In 697, this emperor was deposed; and in his exile fled to Trebelis king of the Bulgarians, by whom he was kindly entertained, and by whose means he was restored to his throne; but soon forgetting this favour, he invaded the country of the Bulgarians, with a design to wrest from them those provinces which he had yielded to them. He was attended in this expedition by no better success than his ingratitude deserved, his army being utterly defeated, and he himself, obliged to make his escape in a light vessel to Constantinople.

The Bulgarians continued their inroads and ravages at different times, generally defeated the Romans who ventured to oppose them, till the year eight hundred, the seventh of the reign of Nicephorus, when they surprised the city of Sardica in Mæsia, and put the whole garrison, consisting of 6000 men, to the sword. The emperor marched against them with a considerable army: but the enemy retired at his approach; and he, instead of pursuing them, returned to Constantinople. Two years after, he entered Bulgaria at the head of a powerful army, destroying every thing with fire and sword. The king offered to conclude a peace with him upon honourable terms; but Nicephorus, rejecting his proposals, continued to waste the country, destroying the cities, and putting all the inhabitants, without distinction of sex or age, to the sword.

The king was so much affected with these cruelties which were exercised on his subjects, that he sent a second embassy to Nicephorus, offering to conclude a peace with him upon any terms, provided he would quit his country. But Nicephorus dismissing the

ambassadors with scorn, the Bulgarian monarch attacked unexpectedly the Roman camp, forced it, and cut off almost the whole army, with the emperor himself, and a great number of patricians. His successor Michael likewise engaged in a war with the Bulgarians; but being utterly defeated, he was so grieved that he resigned the empire. After this the Bulgarians continued to be very formidable enemies to the empire, till the year 979, when they were attacked by Basilus II.

The Bulgarians were at that time governed by a king named *Samuel*; who having ravaged the Roman territories, as was the common practice of his nation, Basilus sent against him one Nicephorus Uranus at the head of a powerful army. Uranus, leaving his baggage at Larissa, reached by long marches the Sperchius, and encamped with his whole army over against the enemy, who lay on the opposite bank. As the river was greatly swelled with the heavy rains that had lately fallen, Samuel, not imagining the Romans would attempt to pass it, suffered his troops to roam in large parties about the country in quest of booty. But Uranus having at length found out a place where the river was fordable, passed it in the dead of the night without being perceived.

He then fell upon the Bulgarians who were left in the camp, and lay for the most part asleep; cut great numbers of them in pieces; took a great number of prisoners, with all their baggage; and made himself master of their camp. Samuel and his son were dangerously wounded; and would have been taken, had they not all that day concealed themselves among the dead. The next night they stole away to the mountains of *Ætola*, and from thence made their escape into Bulgaria. The following year the emperor entered Bulgaria at the head of a numerous and well-disciplined army; defeated Samuel in a pitched battle, and took several strong cities.

The emperor himself, however, at last, narrowly escaped being cut off with his whole army; being un-

expectedly attacked by the Bulgarians in a narrow pass. From this danger he was relieved by the arrival of Nicephorus Xiphias, governor of Phillipopolis, with a considerable body of troops; who falling upon the enemy's rear, put them to flight. Basilius pursued them close; and having taken an incredible number of captives, caused their eyes to be pulled out, leaving to every hundred a guide with one eye, that he might conduct them to Samuel.

This shocking spectacle so affected the unhappy king, that he fell into a deep swoon, and died two days after. The Roman emperor pursued his conquests, and in the space of two years made himself master of most of the enemy's strong holds. He defeated also the successor of Samuel in several engagements; and having at last killed him in battle, the Bulgarians submitted themselves without reserve. The vast treasures of their princes were by Basilius distributed among his soldiers by way of donative. Soon after, the widow of the late king, with her six daughters and three of her sons, surrendered themselves to the Roman emperor, by whom they were received with the utmost civility and respect. This obliging behaviour encouraged the three other sons of the late king, and most of the princes of the blood, who had taken shelter in the mountains, to submit, and throw themselves on the emperor's mercy.

Ibatzes, however, a person nearly allied to the royal family, who had distinguished himself in a very eminent manner during the whole course of the war, refused to submit, and fled to a steep and craggy mountain, with a design to defend himself there to the last extremity. Basilius endeavoured to cause him submit by fair means, but he equally despised both threats and promises. At last Eustathius Daphnomelus, whom Basilius had lately appointed governor of Achridus, the chief city of Bulgaria, undertook to secure him by a most desperate and improbable scheme.

Without communicating his design to any, he repaired, with two persons in whom he could confide, to

the mountain on which Ibatzes had fortified himself. He hoped to pass undiscovered among the many strangers who flocked thither to celebrate the approaching feast of the Virgin Mary, for whom Ibatzes had a particular veneration. In this he found himself mistaken; for he was known by the guards, and carried before the prince. To him he pretended to have something of importance to communicate; but as soon as Ibatzes had retired with him into a remote place, Daphnomelus threw himself suddenly upon him, and with the assistance of the two men whom he had brought with him, pulled out both his eyes, and got safe to an abandoned castle on the top of the hill.

Here they were immediately surrounded by the troops of Ibatzes; but Daphnomelus exhorting them now to submit to the emperor, by whom he assured them they would be well received, they congratulated Daphnomelus on his success, and suffered him to conduct the unhappy Ibatzes a prisoner to Basilius. The emperor was no less surprised than pleased at the success of this bold attempt; and rewarded Daphnomelus with the government of Dyrrhachium, and all the rich moveables of his prisoner. After this, having accomplished the entire reduction of Bulgaria, he returned to Constantinople with an incredible number of captives; where he was received by the senate and people with all possible demonstrations of joy.

All this time the Saracens had at intervals invaded the Roman dominions, and even attempted to make themselves masters of Constantinople. Their internal divisions, however, rendered them now much less formidable enemies than they had formerly been; so that some provinces were even recovered for a time out of their hands; though the weak and distracted state of the empire rendered it impossible to preserve such conquests.

**XVIII. THE TURKS.—THEY INVADE THE EMPIRE.—  
TANGROLIPIX.—EUDOCIA.—THE TURKS DEFEATED  
BY ROMANUS DIOGENES.—AXAN.—THE EMPEROR  
TAKEN PRISONER.—HIS DEATH.—THE EMPIRE  
AGAIN INVADED BY THE TURKS.—ALEXIOUS COM-  
NENUS.—PEACE WITH THE TURKS.**

IN 1041, the empire was invaded by an enemy, not very powerful at that time indeed, but who by degrees gathered strength sufficient to overthrow both the Roman and Saracen empires. These were the Turks; who, having quitted their ancient habitations in the neighbourhood of Mount Caucasus, and passed the Caspian Straits, settled in Armenia Major, about the year 844. There they continued an unknown and despicable people, till the intestine wars of the Saracens gave them an opportunity of aggrandizing themselves. About the year 1030, Mohammed the son of Sembrael Sultan of Persia, not finding himself a match for Pissaris Sultan of Babylon, with whom he was at war, had recourse to the Turks, who sent him 3000 men under the command of one Tangrolipix, a leading man among them. By their assistance Mohammed defeated his adversary; but when the Turks desired leave to return home, he refused to part with them. Upon this they withdrew without his consent to a neighbouring desert; and being there joined by several discontented Persians, began to make frequent inroads into the sultan's territories. Against them Mohammed immediately despatched an army of 20,000 men; who, being surprised in the night, were utterly defeated by Tangrolipix.

The fame of this victory drew multitudes to him from all parts; so that in a short time Tangrolipix saw himself at the head of 50,000 men. Upon this Mohammed marched against them in person, but was thrown from his horse in the beginning of the engagement, and killed by the fall; upon which his men threw down their arms, and submitted to Tangrolipix.



After this victory the Turkish general made war upon the Sultan of Babylon; whom he at length slew, and annexed his dominions to his own. He then sent his nephew, named *Cutlu-Moses*, against the Arabians; but by them he was defeated, and forced to fly towards Media. Through this province he was denied a passage by Stephen the Roman governor; upon which Cutlu-Moses was obliged to force a passage by encountering the Roman army. These he put to flight, took the governor himself prisoner, and without any further opposition reached the confines of Persia, where he sold Stephen for a slave. Returning from thence to Tangrolipix, he excused, in the best manner he could, his defeat by the Arabians; but at the same time acquainted him with his victory over the Romans in Medja, encouraging him to invade that fertile country, which he said might be easily conquered, as it was inhabited by none but *women*, meaning the Romans.

At that time Tangrolipix did not hearken to his advice, but marched against the Arabians at the head of a numerous army. He was, however, attended with no better success than his nephew had been; and therefore began to reflect on what he had told him. Soon after he sent Asan his brother's son with an army of 20,000 men to reduce Media. Pursuant to his orders, the young prince entered that country, and committed everywhere dreadful ravages; but being in the end drawn into an ambush by the Roman generals, he was cut off with his whole army. Tangrolipix, no way discouraged by this misfortune, sent a new army into Media near 100,000 strong; who after having ravaged the country without opposition, laid siege to Artza a place of great trade, and therefore reckoned the most wealthy in those parts. Not being able to reduce it by any other means, they set it on fire; and thus in a short time it was utterly destroyed; the buildings being reduced to ashes, and 150,000 of the inhabitants perishing either by the flames or the sword.

After this, Abraham Halim, half brother to Tangro-



Tangrolipix in Iberia.

lipix, hearing that the Romans, re-inforced with a body of troops under the command of Liparites governor of Iberia, had taken the field, marched against them, and offered them battle; which they not declining, the two armies engaged with incredible fury. The victory continued long doubtful; but at length inclined to the Romans; who nevertheless did not think proper to pursue the fugitives, as their general Liparites was taken prisoner.

The emperor, greatly concerned for the captivity of Liparites, dispatched ambassadors with rich presents, and a large sum of money to redeem him, and at the same time to conclude an alliance with Tangrolipix. The sultan received the presents; but generously returned them, together with the money, to Liparites, whom he set at liberty without any ransom; only requiring him, at his departure, never more to bear arms against the Turks. Not long after, Tangrolipix sent a person of great authority among the Turks, with the character of ambassador, to Constantinople; who having arrogantly exhorted the emperor to submit to his master, and acknowledge himself his tributary, was ignominiously driven out of the city.

Tangrolipix, highly affronted at the reception his ambassador had met with, entered Iberia while the emperor Constantine Monomachus was engaged in a war with the Patzinacæ, a Scythian nation. Having ravaged that country, he returned from thence to Media, and laid siege to Mantzichierta, a place defended by a numerous garrison, and fortified with a triple wall and deep ditches. However, as it was situated in an open plain country, he hoped to be master of it in a short time. But finding the besieged determined to defend themselves to the last extremity, he resolved to raise the siege, after he had continued it thirty days. One of his officers, however, named *Alcan*, prevailed on him to continue it but one day longer, and to commit the management of the attacks to him.

This being granted, *Alcan* disposed his men with such skill, and so encouraged them by his example, that, notwithstanding the vigorous opposition they met with, the place would have probably been taken, had not *Alcan* been slain as he was mounting the wall. The besieged, knowing him by the richness of his armour, drew him by the hair into the city, and cutting off his head threw it over the wall among the enemy; which so disheartened them, that they gave over the assault and retired.

The next spring Tangrolipix returned, and ravaged Iberia with the utmost cruelty, sparing neither sex nor age. But on the approach of the Roman army he retired to Tauris, leaving 30,000 men behind him to infest the frontiers of the empire. This they did with great success, the borders being, through the avarice of Monomachus, unguarded. Till the time of this emperor, the provinces bordering on the countries of the barbarians had maintained, at their own charge, forces to defend them; and were on that account exempted from paying tribute: but as Monomachus exacted from them the same sums that were paid by others, they were no longer in a condition to defend themselves.

In 1063 died the emperor Constantine Ducas, having left the empire to his three sons, Michael, Andronicus, and Constantine: but as they were all very young, he appointed the empress Eudocia regent during their minority, after having required of her an oath never to marry; which oath was with great solemnity lodged in the hands of the patriarch. He likewise obliged the senators solemnly to swear that they would acknowledge none for their sovereign but his three sons. No sooner, however, was he dead, than the Turks, hearing that the empire was governed by a woman, broke into Mesopotamia, Cilicia, and Cappadocia, destroying all with fire and sword.

The empress was no way in a condition to oppose them, the greater part of the army having been disbanded in her husband's life-time, and the troops that were still on foot being undisciplined, and altogether unfit for service. The concern which this gave the empress was aggravated by the seditious speeches of a discontented party at home, who repeated on all occasions that the present state of affairs required a man of courage and address at the helm, instead of a weak and helpless woman; and as they imagined the empress would never think of marrying, in consequence of the oath she had taken, they hoped by these speeches to induce the people to revolt, and choose a new em-

peror. This Eudocia was aware of; and therefore determined to prevent the evils that threatened herself and her family, by marrying some person of merit who was capable of defeating her enemies both at home and abroad.

At this time one Romanus Diogenes, a person of a most beautiful aspect, extraordinary parts, and illustrious birth, being accused of aspiring to the empire, tried and convicted, was brought forth to receive sentence of death. But the empress, touched with compassion at his appearance, gently upbraided him with his ambition, set him at liberty, and soon after appointed him commander in chief of all her forces. In this station he acquitted himself so well, that the empress resolved to marry him if she could but recover the writing, in which her oath was contained, out of the hands of the patriarch. In order to this, she applied to a favourite eunuch; who, going to the patriarch, told him, that the empress was so taken with his nephew, named *Bardas*, that she was determined to marry and raise him to the empire, provided the patriarch absolved her from the oath she had taken, and convinced the senate of the lawfulness of her marriage.

The patriarch, dazzled with the prospect of his nephew's promotion, readily undertook to perform both. He first obtained the consent of the senate by representing to them the dangerous state of the empire, and exclaiming against the rash oath which the jealousy of the late emperor had extorted from the empress. He then publicly discharged her from it: restored the writing to her; and exhorted her to marry some deserving object, who, being entrusted with an absolute authority, might be capable of defending the empire. The empress, thus discharged from her oath, married a few days after Romanus Diogenes; who was thereupon proclaimed emperor, to the great disappointment of the patriarch.

As the new emperor was a man of great activity and experience in war, he no sooner saw himself vested with the sovereign power, than he took upon him the

command of the army, and passed over into Asia with the few forces he could assemble, recruiting and inuring them on his march to military discipline, which had been utterly neglected in the preceding reigns. On his arrival in this continent, he was informed that the Turks had surprised and plundered the city of Neocæsarea, and were retiring with their booty. On this news he hastened after them at the head of a chosen body of light-armed troops, and came up with them on the third day. As the Turks were marching in disorder, without the least apprehension of an enemy, Romanus cut great numbers of them in pieces, and easily recovered the booty; after which he pursued his march to Aleppo, which he re-took from them, together with Hieropolis, where he built a strong castle.

As he was returning to join the forces he had left behind him, he was met by a numerous body of Turks, who attempted to cut off his retreat. At first, he pretended to decline an engagement through fear; but attacked them afterwards with such vigour when they least expected it, that he put them to flight at the first onset, and might have gained a complete victory had he thought proper to pursue them. After this, several towns submitted to him; but the season being now far spent, the emperor returned to Constantinople.

The following year, he passed over into Asia early in the spring; and being informed that the Turks had sacked the rich city of Iconium, besides gaining other considerable advantages, he marched in person against them. But the Turks, not thinking it advisable to wait his coming, retired in great haste. The Armenians, however, encouraged by the approach of the emperor's army, fell upon the enemy in the plains of Tarsus, put them to flight, and stripped them both of their baggage and the booty they had taken.

The spring following, the emperor once more entered Asia at the head of a considerable army which he had raised, and with incredible pains disciplined during the winter. When the two armies drew near to each other, Axan, the Turkish Sultau, and son of the famous

Tangrolipix, sent proposals to Romanus, for a lasting and honourable peace. These were imprudently rejected, and a desperate engagement ensued, when, in spite of the utmost efforts of the emperor, his army was routed, and he himself wounded and taken prisoner. When this news was brought to Axan, he could scarcely believe it; but being convinced by the appearance of the royal captive in his presence, he tenderly embraced him, and addressed him in affectionate manner: "Grieve not," said he, "most noble emperor, at your misfortune; for such is the chance of war, sometimes overwhelming one, and sometimes another: you shall have no occasion to complain of your captivity; for I will not use you as my prisoner, but as an emperor."

The Turk was as good as his word. He lodged the emperor in a royal pavilion; assigned him attendants, with an equipage suitable to his quality; and discharged such prisoners as he desired. After he had for some days entertained his royal captive with extraordinary magnificence, a perpetual peace was concluded betwixt them, and the emperor was dismissed with the greatest marks of honour imaginable. He then set out with the Turkish ambassador for Constantino-ple, where the peace was to be ratified; but by the way he was informed that Eudocia had been driven from the throne by John the brother of Constantine Ducas, and Psellus a leading man in the senate, who had confined her to a monastery, and proclaimed her eldest son, Michael Ducas, emperor.

On this intelligence, Romanus retired to a strong castle near Theodosiopolis, where he hoped in a short time to be joined by great numbers of his friends and adherents. But in the mean time John, who had taken upon him to act as guardian to the young prince, dispatched Andronicus with a considerable army against him. Andronicus having easily defeated the small army which Romanus had with him, obliged him to fly to Adana a city in Cilicia, where he was closely besieged, and at last obliged to surrender. Andronicus

carried his prisoner into Phrygia, where he fell dangerously ill, being, as was suspected, secretly poisoned. But the poison being too slow in its operation, John ordered his eyes to be put out; which was done with such cruelty that he died soon after, in the year 1067, having reigned three years and eight months.

Axan was no sooner informed of the tragical end of his friend and ally, than he resolved to invade the empire anew; and that not with a design only to plunder as formerly, but to conquer, and keep what he had once conquered. The emperor dispatched against him Isaac Comnenus, with a considerable army; but he was utterly defeated and taken prisoner by Axan. Another army was quickly sent off under the command of John Ducas the emperor's uncle. He gained at first some advantages, and would probably have put a stop to their conquests, had not one Ruselius, or Urselius, revolted with the troops he had under his command, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, and reduced several cities in Phrygia and Cappadocia. Against him John marched with all his forces, suffering the Turks in the meantime to pursue their conquests; but coming to an engagement with the rebels, his army was entirely defeated, and himself taken prisoner.

Notwithstanding this victory, Ruselius was so much alarmed at the progress of the Turks, that he not only released his prisoner, but joined with him against the common enemy, by whom they were both defeated and taken prisoners. Axan, however, was for some time prevented from pursuing his conquests by Cutlu-Moses, nephew to the late Tangrolipix. He had revolted against his uncle; but being defeated by him in a pitched battle, had taken refuge in Arabia, whence he now returned at the head of a considerable army, in order to dispute the sovereignty with Axan. But while the two armies were preparing to engage, the Kalif of Babylon, who was still looked upon as the successor of the great prophet, interposed his authority. He represented the dangers of their intestine dissen-



sions; and by his mediation, an agreement was at last concluded, on condition that Axan should enjoy undisturbed the monarchy lately left him by his father, and Cutlu-Moses should possess such provinces of the Roman empire as he or his sons should in process of time conquer.

After this agreement, both the Turkish princes turned their forces against the empire; and before the year 1077, made themselves masters of all Media, Lycaonia, Cappadocia, and Bithynia, fixing the capital city of their empire at Nice in the latter province. During all this time, the emperors of Constantinople, as well as their subjects, seemed to be in a manner infatuated. No notice was taken of the great progress made by these barbarians. The generals were ambitious only of seizing the tottering empire, which seemed ready to fall a prey to the Turks; and, after it was obtained, spent their time in oppressing their subjects, rather than in making any attempts to repulse the enemy.

At last Alexius Comnenus, having wrested the empire from Nicephorus Botoniates, in 1077, began to prepare for opposing so formidable an enemy. But before he set out, as his soldiers had committed great outrages on his accession to the empire, he resolved to make confession of his sins, and do open penance for those he had suffered his army to commit. Accordingly he appeared in the attire of a penitent before the patriarch and several other ecclesiastics, acknowledged himself guilty of the many disorders that had been committed by his soldiers, and begged of the patriarch to impose upon him a penance suitable to the greatness of his crimes.

The penance enjoined him and his adherents by the patriarch was to fast, lie upon the ground, and practise several other austerities, for the space of forty days. This command was religiously obeyed, and the emperor then began to prepare for war with so much vigour, that Solyman, the Turkish sultan, son and successor to Cultu-Moses, despatched ambassadors to Alexius

with proposals of peace. These were at first rejected; but the emperor was at last glad to accept them on certain advice, that Robert Guiscard, Duke of Puglia and Calabria, was making great preparations against him in the West.

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### XIX. GUISCARD'S EXPEDITION AGAINST THE EMPEROR.

—THE WAR ENDED BY HIS DEATH.—THE SCYTHIAN WAR.—THE HOLY WAR.—JOHN THE HANDSOME.—MANUEL.—ANDRONICUS.—ALEXIS II.—ANDRONICUS EMPEROR.—ISAAC II.—GREAT FIRE AT CONSTANTINOPLE.—JOHN DUCAS.—MOURZOUFLE.—CONSTANTINOPLE TAKEN AND PLUNDERED BY THE LATINS.

ROBERT GUISCARD was the fourth son of a noble of the middle order, of Hauteville, in Normandy. A narrow patrimony, and the mischiefs of poverty and discord, tempted him to seek in foreign wars a more glorious inheritance than that of the family. He was a man of a lofty stature and imposing presence, fit to impress obedience and terror in the midst of the tumult of battle; of great wisdom, and boundless ambition. In the pursuit of greatness, he was never arrested by the scruples of justice, and seldom moved by the feelings of humanity. With but five followers on horse back, and thirty on foot, Robert departed from Normandy, and commenced a kind of predatory war in Calabria. His forces increasing by the arrival of Normans and of numerous bands of mercenaries, with which the country was infested, he soon conquered Apulia and Calabria, Salerno, Amalphi and Beneventum; which correspond with the limits of the kingdom of Naples. For some service rendered to the Roman pontiff, Nicholas II. conferred on him the title of duke, and Robert then styled himself,

“ By the grace of God and St. Peter, duke of Apulia, Calabria, and hereafter of Sicily.” The possession of these places, however, was inadequate to satisfy his ambition, and he resolved to seize the first opportunity of invading the Roman empire of the east.

One of the daughters of Guiscard was betrothed to the son and heir of the emperor Michael; but the throne of Constantinople was shaken by a revolution, and the imperial family of Ducas was imprisoned in the palace or the cloister, by Nicephorus Botoniates. Towards the end of the usurper's reign, it is said that Michael escaping from the monastery in which he had been confined, fled into the west, where he was received by Robert, who was easily prevailed upon to favour his cause.

For this purpose, Robert made great preparations; and these were continued even after the deposition of Botoniates. He sailed with all his forces from Brundisium; and landing at Buthrotum in Epirus, made himself master of that place, while his son Bohemond, with part of the army, reduced Aulon, a celebrated port and city in the country now called *Albania*. From thence they advanced to Durazzo, which they invested both by sea and land; but met with a most vigorous opposition from George Palæologus, whom the emperor had intrusted with the defence of that important place.

In spite of the utmost efforts of the enemy, this commander held out till the arrival of the Venetian fleet, which had been solicited by the emperor. The first day's action was not disadvantageous to Bohemond, a beardless youth, who commanded his father's navy. All night the Venetian galleys remained at anchor, in the form of a crescent, and the victory of the following day was decided by the dexterity of their evolutions, the station of their archers, the weight of their javelins, and the borrowed aid of the Greek fire. The Apulian vessels fled to the shore, but several of them were cut from their cables and dragged away by the conqueror; and a sally from the town carried slaughter

and dismay to the tents of the Norman duke. As the Venetians were now masters of the sea, the besieged were supplied with plenty of provisions, while a famine began to rage in the camp of the enemy; and this calamity was soon followed by a plague, which in the space of three months is said to have destroyed ten thousand men.

Notwithstanding all these disasters, however, Robert did not abandon the siege: having found means to supply his famished troops with provisions, he continued it with such vigour, that the courage of the besieged began at last to fail them; and Paleologus sent repeated messages to the emperor, acquainting him that he would be obliged to surrender unless very speedily assisted. On this Alexius marched in person to the relief of the city, but was defeated with great loss by Robert. The whole right wing of Alexius's army, finding themselves hard pressed by the enemy, fled to a church dedicated to St. Michael, imagining they would there find themselves in a place of safety; but the victorious army pursuing them, set fire to the church, which was burnt to ashes with all who were in it. The emperor himself with great difficulty made his escape, leaving the enemy masters of his camp and all his baggage. Soon after this defeat, the city surrendered; and Alexius being destitute of resources for carrying on the war, seized on the wealth of churches and monasteries, which gave much offence to the clergy, and was near occasioning great disturbances in the imperial city.

At the same time, Alexius entering into an alliance with Henry emperor of Germany, persuaded him to invade the dominions of Robert in Italy. At first Henry met with great success; but was soon overcome, and driven out of that country by Robert. Bohemond, in the mean time, reduced several places in Illyricum; and, having defeated Alexius in two pitched battles, entered Thessaly, and sat down before Larissa. This place, being defended by an officer of great courage and experience in war, held out till the

emperor came to its relief. Soon after his arrival, he found means to draw a strong party of Bohemond's men into an ambuscade, and cut them off almost entirely.

However, in the battle which was fought a few days after, Bohemond had the advantage; but his troops mutinying and refusing to carry on the war, he was obliged to return to Italy. Alexius taking advantage of his absence, recovered several cities; and being informed that Robert was making great preparations against him, he had recourse once more to the Venetians. By them he was assisted with a powerful fleet, which defeated that of Robert in two engagements; but being soon after surprised by him, they were defeated with the loss of almost their whole navy.

Robert is said to have used his victory with great barbarity, putting many of his prisoners to death with unheard-of torments. The Venetians equipped a second fleet; and joining that of the emperor, fell unexpectedly upon Robert's navy, who were riding without the least apprehension in Buthrotum, sunk most of his ships, and took a great number of prisoners, his wife and younger sons having narrowly escaped falling into their hands. Robert made great preparations to revenge this defeat; but was prevented by death from executing his designs; and, after his decease, his son Roger did not think proper to pursue so dangerous and expensive a war. He therefore recalled his troops, and the places which had been conquered by Robert and Bohemond submitted anew to the emperor.

This war was scarce ended, when the Scythians passing the Danube laid waste great part of Thrace, committing everywhere the greatest barbarities.—Against them the emperor dispatched an army under the command of Pacurianus and Branas. The latter insisted upon engaging the enemy contrary to the opinion of his colleague; and his rashness caused the loss of the greater part of the army, who were cut off by the Scythians, together with the two generals. *Talicius*, an officer who had signalized himself on

many occasions, was appointed to command the army in their room. He fell upon the enemy as they lay securely in the neighbourhood of Philippopolis, cut great numbers of them in pieces, and obliged the rest to retire in great confusion.

The following spring, however, they returned in such numbers, that the emperor resolved to march against them in person. Accordingly he set out for Adrianople, and from thence to a place called *Lardea*. Here, contrary to the advice of his best officers, he ventured a battle; in which he was utterly defeated with the loss of vast numbers of his men, he himself escaping with the utmost difficulty.

The next year he was attended with no better success, his army being entirely defeated with the loss of his camp and baggage. In the year following, 1084, the emperor retrieved his credit; and gave the Scythians such an overthrow, that very few escaped the general slaughter. Notwithstanding this disaster, however, they again invaded the empire in 1093. To this they were encouraged by an impostor called *Leo*, who pretended to be the eldest son of Romanus Diogenes. The young Prince had been slain in a battle with the Turks; but as the Scythians only wanted a pretence to renew the war, they received the impostor with joy. By a stratagem, however, Leo was murdered; and the Scythians being afterwards overthrown in two great battles, were obliged to submit on the emperor's own terms.

Since the year 1083, the war had been carried on with the Turks with various success; but now an association was formed in the west against these infidels, which threatened the utter ruin of the Turkish nation. This was occasioned by the superstition of the Christians, who thought it a meritorious action to venture their lives for the recovery of the Holy Land, possessed at that time by the Turks and Saracens. Had the western princes been properly assisted by the emperors of the East in this undertaking, the Turks had undoubtedly been unable to resist them; but so far

from this, the Latins were looked upon by them as no less enemies than the Turks; and indeed whatever places they took from the infidels, they never thought of restoring to the emperors of Constantinople, to whom they originally belonged, but erected a number of small independent principalities, which neither having sufficient strength to defend themselves, nor being properly supported by one another, soon became a prey to the Turks.

John, the son and successor of Alexius Comnenus, governed the kingdom with the greatest clemency; and feared by his nobles, and beloved by his people, he was never reduced to the painful necessity of punishing, or even after the treason of his sister Anna Comnena, of pardoning his personal enemies. During his government of twenty-five years, the penalty of death was abolished in the Roman empire. Severe to himself, indulgent to others, chaste, frugal, and abstemious, John despised and moderated the stately magnificence of the Byzantine court, which had been so oppressive to the people. Under such a prince, innocence had nothing to fear, and merit had everything to hope; and without assuming the tyrannic office of censor, he introduced a gradual though visible reformation in the public and private manners of Constantinople. The only defect of this accomplished character, was the frailty of noble minds, the love of arms and military glory. He directed his arms, however, to a good object, that of expelling the Turks from the Hellespont and the Bosphorus. He soon drove the barbarians to the mountains, liberated the maritime provinces of Asia, and was beginning to indulge the ambitious hope of restoring the ancient limits of the empire, when a singular accident put a period to his useful life. Hunting the wild boar in the valley of Anazarbus, he fixed his javelin in the body of the furious animal; but in the struggle, a poisoned arrow dropped from his quiver, and a slight wound in his hand, which produced a mortification, was fatal to the best and greatest of the Comnenian dynasty.

John was in 1143 succeeded by his son Manuel, who carried on the war against the Turks with indifferent success. Andronicus, the nephew of the Emperor John, and grandson of Alexius Comnenus, was accused by Manuel of treason, and strictly confined in a palace of the tower of Constantinople.

In this prison, he was left above twelve years, when one day, alone and pensive, he displaced some broken bricks in a dark corner of his chamber, and gradually widening the passage, he struck upon and explored a dark and forgotten recess. Into this hole he conveyed himself and the remains of his provisions, replacing the bricks in their former position, and erasing with care the footsteps of his retreat. At the hour of their customary visit, his guards were amazed by the silence and solitude of the prison, and reported with shame and fear his incomprehensible flight. The gates of the palace and city were instantly shut; the strictest orders were despatched into the provinces for the recovery of the fugitive; and his wife, on the suspicion that she had aided his escape, was basely imprisoned in the same tower. At the dead of night she was visited by her husband, who nightly came from his recess, and alleviated the tediousness of his confinement by the embraces of his wife.

In the custody of a woman, the vigilance of the keepers was insensibly relaxed; and the captive found means to accomplish his real escape, when he was discovered, brought back to Constantinople, and loaded with a double chain. At length, he found the moment and the means of his deliverance. A boy, his domestic servant, intoxicated the guards, and obtained in wax, the impression of the keys. By the diligence of his friends, similar keys, with a bundle of ropes, were introduced into the prison in the bottom of a hogshead. Andronicus unlocked the doors, descended from the tower, concealed himself all day among the bushes, and at night scaled the garden wall of the palace. A boat awaited him; he visited his own house, embraced his children, cast away his chain, mounted a fleet horse,



and directed his rapid course towards the banks of the Danube.

At Anchialus, in Thrace, being supplied by a friend with horses and money, he crossed the river, traversed with speed the desert of Moldavia and the Carpathian hills, and had almost reached the town of Halicz, in Polish Russia, when he was intercepted by a party of Walachians, who resolved to convey their important captive to Constantinople. By his presence of mind, he soon extricated himself from this new danger. Under pretence of sickness, he dismounted in the night, and was allowed to step aside from the troop. He planted his long staff in the ground, clothed it with his cap and upper garment, and, stealing into the wood, left a scarecrow to amuse, for some time, the vigilant Walachians.

He arrived in safety at Halicz, and placing himself under the protection of the Russian government, was honourably conducted to Kiow, the residence of the great duke. There he soon ingratiated himself into the confidence of the Russian prince, and obtained the forgiveness of Manuel by obtaining the assistance of the Russians for the empire in the invasion of Hungary. Andronicus marched at the head of the Russian calvary from the Borysthenes to the Danube, and his free pardon was won from the emperor by the valour and courage displayed by him in the assault of Zemlin.

No sooner was he restored to freedom and his country than his ambition revived. It was, however, kept in check during the life of Manuel, but when he died in 1180, the evils attending the minority of the young prince, Alexius II., induced him to declare his authority, at first as the guardian of the young emperor; and soon, by the murder of the empress and her son, he ascended a bloody throne. His cruelty soon turned his subjects against him, and in less than two years, he was dragged from the throne by Isaac II., a descendant, in the female line, of the great Alexius. Isaac, instead of a legal trial, abandoned him to the many sufferers whom he had deprived of a father, a husband, or

a friend. His teeth and hair, an eye and a hand, were torn from him as a poor compensation for their loss; and a short respite was allowed that he might feel the bitterness of death. Mounted on a camel, without any danger of rescue, he was paraded through the streets of the city, and the basest of the populace inflicted upon him blows and outrages. Andronicus was then hung by the feet between two pillars that supported the statues of a wolf and a sow; and every hand that could reach him, inflicted on his body some mark of ingenious or brutal cruelty, till two friendly or furious Italians, plunging their swords into his body, put a period to his sufferings.

The descendants of Andronicus usurped the sovereignty of Trebizond; and at Constantinople, Constantine Angelus, by his marriage with a daughter of Alexius, arrived at the imperial throne. His son Andronicus was distinguished only for cowardice. His grandson Isaac punished and succeeded the tyrant; but he was destroyed by his own vices, and the ambition of his brother; and their discord introduced the Latins to the conquest of Constantinople, the first great period in the fall of the Eastern empire.

In the year 1203, happened a dreadful fire at Constantinople, occasioned by some Latin soldiers. These had plundered a mosque, which the Turks residing in Constantinople had been suffered to build there. For this reason they were attacked by the infidels; who, being much superior to them in number, the Latins found themselves obliged to set fire to some houses, in order to make their escape with safety. The flames spreading in an instant from street to street, reduced in a short time great part of the city to ashes, with the capacious storehouses which had been built at a vast expense on the quay. The late emperor Isaac Angelus, who had been restored to his throne by the Latins, died soon after their departure from Constantinople, leaving his son Alexius sole master of the empire.

The young prince, to discharge the large sums he had promised to the French and Venetians for their

assistance, was obliged to lay heavy taxes on his subjects; and this, with the great esteem and friendship showed to his deliverers, raised a general discontent among the people of Constantinople, who were sworn enemies to the Latins. This encouraged John Ducas, surnamed Mourzoufle from his joined and thick eyebrows, to attempt the sovereignty. Unhappily he found means to put his treacherous designs in execution; and strangled the young prince with his own hands. After this he presented himself to the people; told them what he had done, which he pretended was in order to secure their liberties; and earnestly entreated them to choose an emperor who had courage to defend them against the Latins, that were ready to oppress and enslave them. On this he was instantly saluted emperor by the inconstant multitude; but this usurpation proved the ruin of the city.

The Latins immediately resolved to revenge the death of the young prince; and, as they had been so often betrayed and retarded in their expeditions to the Holy Land by the emperors of Constantinople, to make themselves masters of that city, and seize the empire for themselves. In consequence of this resolution they mustered all their forces in Asia, and having crossed the straits, laid siege to Constantinople by sea and land. The tyrant, who was a man of great courage and experience in war, made a vigorous defence.

The Latins, however, after having battered the walls for several days together with an incredible number of engines, gave a general assault on the 8th of April 1204. The attack lasted from break of day till three in the afternoon, when they were forced to retire, after having lost some of their engines, and a great number of men. The assault was nevertheless renewed four days after; when, after a warm dispute, the French planted their standard on one of the towers; which the Venetians observing, they quickly made themselves masters of four other towers, where they likewise displayed their ensigns.

In the mean time three of the gates being broken

down by the battering rams, and those who had scaled the walls having killed the guards, and opened the gates between the towers they had taken, the whole army entered, and drew up in battle array between the walls. The Greeks fled up and down in the greatest confusion; and several parties were by the Latins dispatched to scour the streets, who put all they met to the sword, without distinction of age or condition.

Night put a stop to the dreadful slaughter, when the princes sounding the retreat, placed their men in different quarters of the city, with orders to be upon their guard, not doubting but they should be attacked early next morning. They were surprised, however, at that time by the entire submission of the Greeks; to whom they promised their lives, but at the same time, ordering them to retire to their houses, they gave up the city to be plundered by the soldiers for that day. They strictly enjoined their men to abstain from slaughter, to preserve the honour of the women, and to bring the whole booty into one place, that a just distribution might be made according to the rank and merit of each individual.

The Greeks had undoubtedly concealed their most valuable effects during the night; many persons of the first rank had escaped, and carried along with them immense treasures; the soldiers had probably, as is usual in such cases, reserved things of great value for themselves, notwithstanding all prohibitions to the contrary; and yet the booty, without the statues, pictures and jewels, amounted to a sum almost incredible. As for Mourzoufle he made his escape in the night: embarking on a small vessel with *Euphrosyne*, the wife of *Alexius Angelus* a late usurper, and her daughter *Eudoxia*, for whose sake he had abandoned his lawful wife.

**XX. BALDWIN I.—HENRY.—PETER OF COURTENAY.—  
ROBERT.—JOHN OF BRIENNE.—BALDWIN II.—THE  
LATINS EXPELLED FROM CONSTANTINOPLE.—MICHAEL  
PALÆOLOGUS.—HIS TREACHERY AND INHUMANITY.  
—ANDRONICUS.**

THE Latins immediately (A. D. 1204,) elected Baldwin, Count of Flanders and Hainault, emperor of the East. Two fugitives, however, who had reigned at Constantinople, still claimed the title of emperor; and the subjects of their fallen throne might have been moved to pity by the misfortunes of the elder Alexius, or excited to revenge by the spirit of Mourzoufle. A common interest and a common enemy, now induced the more recent usurper to unite with his predecessor. Mourzoufle was received with smiles and honours in the camp of his father Alexius; but the wicked can never love, and should rarely trust their fellow-criminals; he was seized in the bath, deprived of his eyes, stripped of his troops and treasures, and turned out to wander, an object of horror and contempt to those, who with more propriety could hate, and with more justice could punish the assassin of the Emperor Isaac and his son. As the tyrant, pursued by fear or remorse, was stealing over to Asia, he was seized by the Latins of Constantinople, and condemned, after an open trial, to an ignominious death. From the summit of the Theodosian column, a pillar of white marble of one hundred and forty-seven feet in height, he was cast down headlong, and dashed in pieces on the pavement, in the presence of innumerable spectators, who filled the forum of Taurus, and admired the accomplishment of an old prediction, which was fulfilled by this event.

The fate of Alexius is less tragical. He was sent by the Marquis of Montserrat, a captive to Italy, and a gift to the king of the Romans. His daughter, how-

ever, before the national calamity, had been given in marriage to a young hero, Theodore Lascaris, who continued the succession, and finally restored the throne of the Greek princes. After the capture of Constantinople, and the flight of Mourzoufle, he retired to Anatolia, and there, assuming first the title of despot, and afterwards of emperor, drew to his standard the bolder spirits who were fortified against slavery by the contempt of life; and as every means was lawful for the public safety, implored without scruple the alliance of the Turkish sultan. Nice, where Theodore established his residence, Prusa, and Philadelphia, Smyrna, and Ephesus, opened the gates to their deliverer. He derived strength and reputation from his victories, and even from his defeats; and the successor of Constantine preserved a fragment of the empire, from the banks of the Meander to the suburbs of Nicomedia, from the hands of the Latins.

Another portion, distant and obscure, was possessed by the lineal heir of the Comneni, a son of the virtuous Manuel, a grandson of the tyrant Andronicus. His name was Alexius; and the epithet of great was applied perhaps to his stature, rather than to his exploits. By the indulgence of the Angeli, he was appointed governor or duke of Trebizond: his birth gave him ambition; the revolution, independence; and without changing his title, he reigned in peace from Sinope to the Phasis along the coast of the Black Sea. The title of Emperor of Trebizond was first assumed by his grandson.

In the west, a third fragment was saved from the common shipwreck by Michael, a bastard of the house of Angeli, who, before the revolution, had been known as a hostage, a soldier, and a rebel. He fled from the camp of the Marquis of Montserrat, married the daughter of the governor of Durazzo, succeeded him in the command of that place, assumed the title of despot, and founded a strong and conspicuous principality in Epirus, Ætolia, and Thessaly, which have ever been peopled by a warlike race.

In the meantime, the Greeks, who had offered their services to their new sovereigns, were excluded by the haughty Latins from all civil and military honours. Incensed at this treatment, and oppressed by the double weight of the priests vested with temporal power, and of the soldier inflamed by fanatic hatred, whoever was learned or holy, whoever was noble or valiant, removed to the independent states of Trebizond, Epirus, or Nice, and held themselves in readiness to revolt. As long as the crusaders were united at Constantinople, the memory of their conquest, and the terror of their arms, imposed silence on the captive land; their dispersion, however, betrayed the smallness of their numbers, and the defects of their discipline; and some failures and mischances revealed the secret that they were not invincible. As the fear of the Greeks abated, their hatred increased. They murmured, they conspired, and before a year of slavery had elapsed, they accepted the proffered aid of the Bulgarians. The Latins were attacked and defeated, and the emperor Baldwin taken prisoner. He soon after died in prison, and was succeeded on the throne of Constantinople by his brother Henry, who, aided by the fickle Greeks, soon defeated the Bulgarians, and concluded with them an honourable peace. Henry reigned ten years with courage and prudence, and dying in 1216, he was succeeded by his brother-in-law, Peter of Courtenay, cousin to the king of France.

The poverty of Peter, obliged him to attempt the journey from Durazzo to Thessalonica by land. He was soon lost in the mountains of Epirus. The passes were fortified against him by his enemies. His provisions were exhausted, he was delayed and deceived by a treacherous negotiation: and, after Peter and the Roman legate were arrested at a banquet, their followers, without leaders or hopes, were eager to exchange their arms for the delusive promise of mercy and bread. The Pope thundered forth excommunications against Theodore of Epirus, for the detention and imprisonment of his legate, while the emperor was

forgotten. No sooner was he satisfied by the deliverance of the priest, and a promise of obedience, than he pardoned and protected the despot of Epirus. His peremptory commands prevented the ardour of the Venetians and the king of Hungary, who wished to liberate Peter, and it was only by a natural or untimely death that he was released from his hopeless captivity.

Constantinople remained subject to the Latins under the successive reigns of Robert, the successor of Peter of Courtenay, John of Brienne, and Baldwin II., until A. D. 1261. At that period, they were expelled by Alexius Strategopulus, the general of Michael Palæologus, emperor of Nice. Alexius was a person of an illustrious family; and for his eminent services, was distinguished with the title of *Cæsar*. He had been sent against Alexius Angelus, despot of Epirus, who now attempted to reconquer some places in Thessaly and Greece from Michael Palæologus, one of the Greek emperors, that, since the capture of Constantinople, had kept their court at Nice; and to try whether he could on his march surprise the imperial city itself. Alexius having passed the straits, encamped at a place called *Rhegium*, where he was informed by the natives that a strong body of the Latins had been sent to the siege of *Daphnusa*, that the garrison was in great want of provisions, and that it would be no difficult matter to surprise the city.

Hereupon the Greek general resolved at all events to attempt it; in which he was encouraged by some of the inhabitants, who, coming privately to his camp, offered themselves to be his guides. He approached the walls in the dead of the night, which some of his men scaled without being observed; and, killing the sentries whom they found asleep, opened the gates to the rest of the army. The Greeks rushing in, put all they met to the sword; and at the same time, to create more terror, set fire to the city in four different places.

The Latins, concluding from thence that the enemy's forces were far more numerous than they really were, did not so much as attempt either to drive them out, or





Flight of the Emperor Baldwin.

to extinguish the flames. In this general confusion, the Emperor Baldwin, quitting the ensigns of majesty, fled with Justinian, the Latin patriarch, and some of his intimate friends, to the sea-side; and there embarking in a small vessel, sailed first to Eubœa, and afterwards to Venice, leaving the Greeks in full possession of Constantinople.

When news of this surprising and altogether unexpected success of Alexius were first brought to Palæologus, he could scarce give credit to it; but receiving soon after letters from Alexius himself, with a

particular account of so memorable an event, he ordered public thanks to be returned in all the churches, appeared in public in his imperial robes, attended by the nobility in their best apparel, and ordered couriers to be despatched with the agreeable news into all parts of the empire.

Soon after, having settled his affairs at Nice, he set out for Constantinople with the empress, his son Andronicus, the senate, and nobility, to take possession of the imperial city, and fix his residence in that place, that had originally been designed for the seat of the Eastern empire. Having passed the straits, he advanced to the *golden gate*, and continued some days without the walls, while the citizens were busied in making the necessary preparations to receive him with a magnificence suitable to the occasion.

On the day appointed, the golden gate, which had been long shut up, was opened, and the emperor entering it amidst the repeated acclamations of the multitude, marched on foot to the great palace. He was preceded by the bishop of *Cyzicus*, who carried an image of the Virgin Mary, supposed to have been done by St. Luke, and followed by all the great officers, nobility, and chief citizens, pompously dressed. Public thanks were again returned in the church of St. Sophia, at which the emperor assisted in person, with the clergy, the senate, and nobility. These exercises were succeeded by all sorts of rejoicings; after which the emperor carefully surveyed the imperial city. This survey greatly allayed his joy. He saw the stately palaces and other magnificent buildings of the Roman emperors lying in ruins; the many capacious buildings that had been erected by his predecessors, at an immense charge, destroyed by fire, and other unavoidable accidents of war; several streets abandoned by the inhabitants, and choked up with rubbish, &c.

These objects gave the emperor no small concern, and kindled in him a desire of restoring the city to its former lustre. In the meantime, looking upon Alexius as the restorer of his country, he caused him to

be clad in magnificent robes; placed with his own hand a crown on his head; ordered him to be conducted through the city, as it were in triumph: decreed that for a whole year the name of Alexius should be joined in the public prayers with his own; and, to perpetuate the memory of so great and glorious an action, he commanded his statue to be erected on a stately pillar of marble before the church of the Apostles.

His next care was to re-people the city, many Greek families having withdrawn from it while it was held by the Latins, and the Latins now preparing to return to their respective countries. The former were recalled home; and the latter, in regard of the great trade they carried on, were allowed many valuable privileges, which induced them not to remove. The Greeks were allowed to live in one of the most beautiful quarters of the city, to be governed by their own laws and magistrate, and to trade without paying customs or taxes of any kind. Great privileges were likewise granted to the natives of Venice and Pisa, which encouraged them to lay aside all thoughts of removing, and the trade they carried on proved afterwards highly advantageous to the state.

It was not long, however, before these regulations were altered. The emperor being soon after informed that Baldwin, lately expelled from Constantinople, had married his daughter to Charles king of Sicily, and given him, by way of dowry, the imperial city itself, he ordered the Genoese, who were become very numerous, to remove first to Heraclea, and afterwards to Galata, where they continued. As for the Pisans and Venetians, who were not so numerous and wealthy, they were allowed to continue in the city.

Palæologus, though he had caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, and was possessed of absolute sovereignty, was as yet only guardian to the young emperor John Lascaris, then about twelve years of age. But having now settled the estate, and having gained the affections both of natives and foreigners, he began

to think of securing himself and his posterity in the full enjoyment of the empire; and for this reason cruelly ordered the eyes of the young prince to be put out, pretending that none but himself had any right to the city or empire of Constantinople, which he alone had recovered out of the hand of the Latins.

This piece of treachery and inhumanity involved him in great troubles. The patriarch immediately excommunicated him; and he would in all probability have been driven from the throne by a combination of the western princes, had he not engaged pope Urban IV. to espouse his cause, by promising to submit himself, and his dominions to the Latin church. Thus, indeed, he diverted the present storm; but this proceeding caused the greatest disturbances, not only in Constantinople, but throughout the whole empire, nor was Palæologus able to reconcile his subjects to this union.

In 1283 Michael died, and was succeeded by his son Andronicus. His first step was to restore the ancient Greek ceremonies, thinking he could not begin his reign with a more popular act. But thus he involved himself in difficulties still greater than before. Though Michael had not been able fully to reconcile his Greek subjects to the Latin ceremonies, yet he had in some degree accomplished his purpose. The Latins had got a considerable footing in the city, and defended their ceremonies with great obstinacy; so that the empire was again thrown into a ferment by the imprudent step.

**XXI. WAR WITH THE TURKS.—THEIR FIRST APPEARANCE IN EUROPE.—THEIR DEFEAT.—CONSTANTINOPLE BESIEGED BY BAJAZET.—BY AMURATH.—BY MOHAMMED.—DEATH OF CONSTANTINE.—CONSTANTINOPLE TAKEN BY THE TURKS.**

ALL this time the Turks had been continuing their encroachments on the empire, which had it not been for the crusades published against them by the Pope, they would in all probability have made themselves masters of before this time. They were now however, very successfully opposed by Constantine, the emperor's brother: but his valour rendered him suspected by the emperor; in consequence of which he was thrown into prison, along with several persons of great distinction.

On the removal of this brave commander, the Turks, under the famous Othoman, made themselves masters of several places in Phrygia, Caria, and Bithynia; and, among the rest, of the city of Nice. To put a stop to their conquests, the emperor despatched against them Philanthropenus and Libadarius, two officers of great experience in war. The former gained some advantage over the enemy; but being elated with his success, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor. This rebellion, however, was soon suppressed, Philanthropenus being betrayed by his own men: but the Turks, taking advantage of these intestine commotions, not only extended their dominions in Asia, but conquered most of the islands in the Mediterranean; and, being masters of the sea, infested the coasts of the empire, to the utter ruin of trade and commerce.

From this time the Roman empire tended fast to dissolution. After the revolt of Philanthropenus, the emperor could no longer trust his subjects, and therefore hired the Massagetes to assist him: but they, behaving in a careless manner, were first defeated by

their enemies, and afterwards turned their arms against those they came to assist. He next applied to the Catalans, who behaved in the same manner; and having ravaged the few places left the emperor in Asia, returned into Europe, and called the Turks to their assistance.

This happened in the year 1292, and was the first appearance of the Turks in Europe. This enterprise, however, was unsuccessful. Having loaded themselves with booty, they offered to depart quietly if they were allowed a safe passage, and ships to transport them to Asia. To this the emperor, willing to get rid of such troublesome guests, readily consented, and ordered the vessels to be got ready with all possible expedition. But the Greek officers observing the immense booty with which they were loaded, resolved to fall upon them in the night, and cut them all off at once. This scheme, however, was not managed with such secrecy but that the Turks had notice of it, and therefore prepared for their defence.

They first surprised a strong castle in the neighbourhood, and then found means to acquaint their countrymen in Asia with their dangerous situation. Their brethren, enticed with the hopes of booty, were not long of coming to their assistance; and having crossed the Hellespont in great numbers, ravaged the adjacent country, making excursions to the very gates of Constantinople. At last the emperor determined to root them out; and accordingly marched against them with all his forces, the country people flocking to him from all quarters. The Turks at first gave themselves over for lost; but finding the Greeks negligent of discipline, they attacked their army unexpectedly, utterly defeated it, and made themselves masters of the camp. After this unexpected victory, they continued for two years to ravage Thrace in the most terrible manner. At last, however, they were defeated; and being afterwards shut up in the Chersonesus, they were all cut to pieces or taken.

Soon after new commotions took place in this un-

happy empire, of which the Turks did not fail to take advantage. In 1327, they made themselves masters of most of the cities on the Mæander; and among the rest, of the strong and important city of Prusa, in Bithynia. The next year, however, Othoman, who may justly be styled the founder of the Turkish monarchy, being dead, the emperor laid hold of that opportunity to recover Nice, and some other important places, from the infidels. But these were lost the year following, together with Abydus and Nicomedia: and in 1330, a peace was concluded upon condition that they should keep all their conquests.

This peace they observed no longer than served their own purposes; for new commotions breaking out in the empire, they pursued their conquests, and by the year 1357, had reduced all Asia. They next passed the Hellespont under the conduct of Solyman, the son, or as others will have it, the brother of Orchanes, the successor of Othoman, and seized on a strong castle on the European side.

Soon after the Turkish sultan died, and was succeeded by Amurath. He extended the conquests of his predecessors, and in a short time reduced all Thrace, making Adrianople the seat of his empire. Amurath was slain by treachery in a little time after, and was succeeded by his son Bajazet. This prince greatly enlarged his dominions by new conquests.

In a short time he reduced the countries of Thessaly, Macedon, Phocis, Peloponnesus, Mysia, and Bulgaria, driving out the despots or petty princes who ruled there. Elated with his frequent victories, he began to look upon the Greek emperor, to whom nothing was now left but the city of Constantinople and the neighbouring country, as his vassal. Accordingly he sent him an arrogant and haughty message, commanding him to pay a yearly tribute, and send his son Manuel to attend him in his military expeditions. This demand the emperor was obliged to comply with, but died soon after, in the year 1392.

Manuel no sooner heard of his father's death than

he hastened to Constantinople, without taking leave of the sultan, or acquainting him with the reason of his sudden departure. At this Bajazet was so highly offended, that he passed with great expedition out of Bithynia into Thrace, ravaged the country adjoining to Constantinople, and at last invested the city itself both by sea and land. In this extremity Manuel had recourse to the western princes; who sent him an army of 130,000 men, under the command of Sigismund king of Hungary, and John count of Nevers. But though the western troops proved at first successful, they were in the end defeated with great slaughter by Bajazet, who then returned to the siege with greater vigour than ever.

As he found, however, that the citizens were determined to hold out to the last, he applied to John, the son of Manuel's elder brother, who had a better title to the crown than Manuel himself. With him he entered into a private agreement, by virtue of which Bajazet was to place John upon the throne of Constantinople; on the other hand, John was to deliver up the city to the Turks, and remove the imperial seat to Peloponnesus, which the sultan promised to relinquish to him and his posterity.

At the same time he sent deputies to the inhabitants of Constantinople, offering to withdraw his army, and cease from further hostilities, provided they expelled Manuel and placed John upon the throne. This proposal rent the city into two factions; but Manuel prevented the mischiefs which were ready to ensue, by a voluntary resignation, upon condition that he should be allowed to retire to whatever place he thought proper with his wife and children.

With this condition John readily complied; and Manuel having received him into the city, and conducted him to the palace, set sail for Venice. From thence he went to the courts of all the western princes to solicit their assistance against the Turks, whose power was grown formidable to all Europe. He was everywhere received with the greatest demonstra-



tions of esteem, and promised large supplies; all Christendom being now alarmed at the progress of the infidels.

In the meantime Bajazet did not fail to put John in mind of his promise; but the citizens refusing to comply with such a scandalous treaty, the siege was renewed, and the city assaulted with more fury than ever. When it was already reduced to the last extremity, news was brought the sultan that Tamerlane, the victorious Tartar, having over-run all the East with incredible celerity, had now turned his arms against the Turks, and was preparing to break into Syria. Bajazet, alarmed at the danger that threatened him, raised the siege in great haste, and advanced against Tamerlane with a very numerous and well-disciplined army; but the Tartar totally defeated and took him prisoner, after having cut most of his men in pieces: and thus Constantinople was preserved for the present.

But this relief was of short duration. In 1424 the city was again besieged by Amurath II. The inhabitants defended themselves with great bravery; but must in the end have submitted, had not the emperor prevailed upon the prince of Caramania to countenance an impostor and pretender to the Turkish throne. This obliged Amurath to raise the siege, and march with all his forces against the usurper, whom he soon reduced. Having then no other enemies to contend with, he entered Macedon at the head of a powerful army; and having ravaged the country far and near, he took and plundered Thessalonica, as he did also most of the cities of Ætolia, Phocia, and Bœotia. From Greece he marched into Servia; which country he soon reduced. He next broke into the dominions of the king of Hungary, and besieged the strong city of Belgrade; but here he met with a vigorous repulse, no fewer than 15,000 Turks being slain by the Christians in one sally, which obliged the sultan to drop the enterprise and retire.

In his retreat he was attacked by the celebrated

John Hunniades, who cut great numbers of his men in pieces, and obliged the rest to fly with precipitation. Not long after he gained a still more complete victory over the enemy in the plains of Transylvania, with the loss of only 3000 of his own men, whereas 20,000 of the Turks were killed on the field of battle, and almost an equal number in the pursuit. Amurath, who was then at Adrianople, sent an army into Transylvania far more numerous than the former; but they were attended with no better success, being cut off almost to a man by the brave Hungarian. He gained several other victories no less remarkable; but was at last entirely defeated in 1448; and with this defeat ended all hopes of preserving the Roman empire.

The unhappy emperor was now obliged to pay an annual tribute of 300,000 aspers to the sultan; and to yield up to him some strong holds which he still held on the Euxine Sea. However, as he doubted not but Amurath would soon attempt to become master of the city itself, he renewed the union between the Greek and Latin churches, hoping that this would induce the western princes to assist him in the defence of the city against the Turks. This union produced great disturbances, which the emperor did not long survive, but died in 1448, leaving the empire, now confined within the walls of Constantinople, to his brother Constantine.

Amurath, the Turkish sultan, died in 1450, and was succeeded by his son Mohammed. In the beginning of his reign he entered into an alliance with Constantine, and pretended a great desire to live in friendship with him and the other Christian princes; but no sooner had he put an end to a war in which he was engaged with Ibrahim, king of Caramania, than he built a strong fort on the European side of the Bosphorus, opposite to another in Asia; in both of which he placed strong garrisons. These two castles commanded the straits; and the former being but five miles from the city, kept it in a manner blocked up. This soon produced a misunderstanding between him and

the emperor, which ended in the siege of the city. The siege commenced on the 6th of April, 1453. Mohammed's numerous forces covering the plains before it on the land-side, and a fleet of three hundred sail blocking it up by sea.

The emperor, however, had taken care to secure the haven, in which were three large ships, twenty small ones, and a great number of galleys, by means of a chain drawn across the entrance. Mohammed began the siege by planting batteries as near the city as he could, and raising mounts in several places as high as the walls themselves, whence the besieged were incessantly galled with showers of arrows. He had in his camp a piece of ordnance of prodigious size, which is said to have carried a ball of one hundred pounds weight, made of hard black stone brought from the Euxine Sea. With this vast piece the enemy made several breaches in the walls; which, however, were repaired with incredible expedition by the besieged. But Mohammed, the better to carry on the siege, caused new levies to be made throughout his extensive dominions, by which his army was soon increased to near 400,000 men; while the garrison consisted only of 9000 regular troops, viz., 6000 Greeks, and 3000 Genoese and Venetians.

As the enemy continued to batter the walls day and night without intermission, a great part of them was at last beaten down; but while the Turks were busy in filling up the ditch, in order to give the assault, a new wall was built. This threw the tyrant into a prodigious rage, which was greatly heightened when he saw his whole fleet worsted by five ships, four of which were laden with corn from Peloponnesus, and the others with all manner of provisions from the isle of Chios. These opened themselves a way through the whole Turkish fleet; and, to the inexpressible joy of the Christians at last got safe into the harbour.

The Turks attempted several times to force the haven; but all their efforts proving ineffectual, Mohammed formed a design of conveying eighty galleys

over land for the space of eight miles into it. This he accomplished by means of certain engines, the contrivance of a renegado; and having then either taken or sunk all the ships contained in it, he caused a bridge to be built over it, with surprising expedition. By this means the city was laid open to an assault from that side likewise.

The place was now assaulted on all sides; and Constantine being well apprized that he could not long hold out against such a mighty fleet, and so numerous an army, sent deputies to Mahommed, offering to acknowledge himself his vassal, by paying him yearly what tribute he should think proper to impose, provided he raised the siege and withdrew. The tyrant answered that he was determined at all events to become master of the city; but if the emperor delivered it up forthwith, he would yield up to him Peloponnesus, and other provinces to his brothers, which they should enjoy peaceably as his friends and allies; but if he held out to the last extremity, and suffered it to be taken by assault, he would put him and the whole nobility to the sword, abandon the city to be plundered by his soldiers, and carry the inhabitants into captivity.

This condition was rashly rejected by the emperor; who thereby involved himself and all his subjects in the most terrible calamity. The siege was renewed with more vigour than ever, and continued till the 25th of May; when a report being spread in the Turkish camp that a mighty army was advancing in full march to the relief of the city under the conduct of the celebrated John Hunniades, the common soldiers, seized with a panic, began to mutiny, and press Mohammed in a tumultuous manner to break up the siege. Nay, they openly threatened him with death, if he did not immediately abandon the enterprise and retire from before the city, which they despaired of being able to reduce before the arrival of the supposed succours. Mohammed was upon the point of complying with their demand, when he was advised by Zagan, a Turkish officer of great intrepidity, and an irreconcilable enemy

to the Christian name, to give without loss of time a general assault. To this he said the soldiery, however mutinous, would not be averse, provided the sultan solemnly promised to abandon the city to be plundered by them. As such an advice best suited the humour of Mohammed, he readily embraced it; and caused a proclamation to be published throughout the camp, declaring, that he gave up to his soldiers all the wealth of that opulent city, requiring to himself only the empty houses.

The desire of plunder soon got the better of that fear which had seized the Turkish army; and they unanimously desired to be led on to the attack. Hereupon Constantine was summoned for the last time to deliver up the city, with a promise of his life and liberty; but to this he answered that he was unalterably determined either to defend the city or to perish with it. The attack began at three in the morning on Tuesday the 29th of May; such troops were first employed as the sultan valued least, and designed them for no other purpose than to tire the Christians, who made a prodigious havock of that disorderly multitude.

After the carnage had lasted some hours, the Janizaries and other fresh troops advanced in good order, and renewed the attack with incredible vigour. The Christians, summoning all their courage and resolution, twice repulsed the enemy: but being in the end quite spent, they were no longer able to stand their ground; so that the enemy in several places broke into the city. In the meantime, Justiniani, the commander of the Genoese, and a select body of Greeks, having received two wounds, one in the thigh, and the other in the hand, was so disheartened, that he caused himself to be conveyed to Galata, where he soon after died of grief. His men, dismayed at the sudden flight of their general, immediately quitted their posts, and fled in the utmost confusion. However, the emperor, attended with a few of the most resolute among the nobility, still kept his post, striving

with unparalleled resolution to oppose the multitude of barbarians that now broke in from every quarter. But being in the end overpowered with numbers, and seeing all his friends lie dead on the ground, "What!" (cried he aloud) "is there no Christian left alive to strike off my head?"

He had scarce uttered these words, when one of the enemy, not knowing him, gave him a deep cut across the face with his sabre, and at the same time, another coming behind him, with a blow on the back part of his



Capture of Constantinople.

head, laid him dead upon the ground. After the death of the emperor, the few Christians that were left alive betook themselves to flight, and the Turks, meeting with no further opposition, entered the city, which they filled with blood and slaughter. They gave no quarter, but put all they met to the sword, without distinction.

Many thousands took refuge in the church of St. Sophia, but they were all massacred in their asylum by the enraged barbarians; who, prompted by their

natural cruelty, the desire of revenge, and love of booty, spared no place nor person. Most of the nobility were, by the sultan's orders, cut off, and the rest kept for purposes more grievous than death itself. Many of the inhabitants, among whom were some men of great learning, found means to make their escape while the Turks were busied in plundering the city. These embarking on five ships then in the harbour, arrived safe in Italy; where, with the study of the Greek tongue, they revived the liberal sciences, which had long been neglected in the West. After the expiration of three days, Mohammed commanded his soldiers to forbear all further hostilities on pain of death; and then put an end to as cruel a pillage and massacre as any mentioned in history. The next day, he made his public and triumphal entry into Constantinople, and chose it for the seat of the Turkish empire, which it has continued to be ever since.



**XXII. CHARLEMAGNE CROWNED EMPEROR OF THE ROMANS.—FOUNDATION OF THE PAPAL DOMINION.—THE SUCCESSION OF THE POPES.**

IN the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, being crowned emperor of the Romans, the western empire, the image of that of ancient Rome, was revived, Italy renounced all political connection with Constantinople, and the greater part of it fell under the dominion of Charlemagne.

But a new power had gradually arisen in Rome, and it aspired to subdue the world by other methods than by force of arms. This was the authority of the pope, or bishop of Rome.

From the end of the fourth century, he was the first among the five patriarchs or superior bishops of Christendom; for the circumstance that Rome was the ancient capital of the kingdom, and according to tradition, the last dwelling-place of the Apostle Peter, had long since given to him, as pretended successor of Peter, an extensive authority, but no peculiar jurisdiction over foreign dioceses. This, however, the popes obtained by the wealth of the Roman church, which had property in most other dioceses, by arbitration in ecclesiastical contentions, and availing themselves of many opportunities favorable to the extension of their influence.

A provincial synod at Sardica, in the year 344, and a decree of the emperor Valentinian III., in 445, had acknowledged the bishop of Rome as primate, and as the last tribunal of appeal from the other bishops; but even in the West, where alone these edicts had the force of law, the measures of the popes, until the eighth century, often met with violent opposition. About this time, several circumstances contributed to open to them the way to supreme control over all churches. Among these



were the establishing new churches in Germany, which, like those of Britain at an earlier period, being founded by their missionaries, were at first subject to their power; the political confusion, and the change of government in Italy and France; the decretals of the pretended Isidore, forged between 830 and 850, probably by Benedict, a deacon of Mentz (which, in those times of ignorance, contributed much to support the claims of the Roman church to exercise supreme power, by supposititious letters and statutes of former bishops of Rome, dated back to the first centuries;) the schism between the Eastern and Western churches, which bound the latter still more closely to the popes, as their leaders; the gradations of ecclesiastical rank, every where introduced by the ambition of the popes, all derived and gradually descending from them, who had usurped the highest place; and finally, the personal superiority of some popes over their contemporaries.

Leo the Great, in the fifth century; Gregory I., called the great, a zealous, good, and able man, in the sixth century; and Leo III., who crowned Charlemagne, in the eighth century, had obtained for the papal title an authority which the patriarchs of the East could not attain, and against which the power of princes availed little. The story of the female pope, Johanna or Joan, an English woman, educated at Mentz and Athens, who concealing her sex, rose by her learning and talent from the office of a notary at Rome to the papal chair, but after a reign of two years and a half, was detected by becoming a mother, is a fable and satire. There were, indeed, unworthy popes during the middle ages; but, after the brilliant victory which Nicholas I. (who was first solemnly crowned) obtained over Lothaire, king of Lorraine, in the affair of a divorce in 865, and over the bishops of Treves and Cologne, whom he deposed by his papal authority; and after the example which John VIII. had given, in 875, of a disposal of the imperial crown, which he conferred on Charles the Bald,—the

power of the popes could receive but little injury from the violence and corruption which prevailed in the papal see above a hundred years, beginning from the influence of the Tuscan counts at Rome, under Sergius III., in 904, and continued by the wicked and licentious favorites and relations of the infamous princesses Theodora and Marozia (one of whom, John XII., in 956, while but eighteen years old, and another, Benedict IX., in 1033, a boy of twelve years, obtained the dignity of pope,) and even from the scandalous circumstance that, in 1045, three popes, chosen by means of bribery, were living together in Rome. The rudeness of the age concealed the scandal of such things.

In the midst of all this darkness, a ray of light appears in the reign of the excellent Sylvester II., between 999 and 1003, who was one of the most learned men of his time, and whom the world regarded as a magician. The troubles arising during the decline of the Carlovingian dynasty in France and Germany offered an extensive and continually enlarging field of action to the ambition of the popes; and their dignity and independence of the nobles and people of Rome, which they had often lost during the contentions of factions, were regained by the constitution of Nicholas II., in 1059, placing the right of election to the papal chair in the hands of the cardinals, to the exclusion of the laity.

After this, a succession of good rulers, of great talents and excellent character, sat upon what was then the first throne in Christendom;—Gregory VII., who surpassed them all in spirit and in power, and who began to carry through with wonderful perseverance, the project of universal dominion; Urban II., who was several times driven from Rome by the antipope, Clement III., but who, from 1088 to 1099, ruled with extensive influence and extraordinary vigor; Alexander III., who, during his reign, between 1160 and 1181, survived two rivals, and overcame a third, who brought the kings of England and

Scotland to unconditional obedience in religious matters, who made the Emperor Frederic I. hold his stirrup, and confirmed the system of the election of popes; and Innocent III., whose reign, between 1198 and 1216, raised the papal see to the highest degree of power and dignity. What the popes in earlier times had only attempted in peculiar circumstances, these great men, so superior to their age, made the settled usage, by a regular series of bold usurpations and persevering efforts. They united the clergy of western and central Europe closely to the papal see, by the introduction of a new form of oath, by the law of celibacy, and by the law of investiture, which broke the union of bishops with their temporal princes, and under Innocent III., was extended to a power of disposing, at pleasure, of all the dignities and benefices of the church. By means of their legates and nuncios, they obtained the bishop's right of deciding in ecclesiastical and matrimonial affairs, and the exclusive right of canonization; and they thus made the popes the sole fountain of ecclesiastical dignity and power in western Christendom. By eventually assuming the sole right of convening councils and national synods (whose decrees became valid only by being ratified by the pope,) and by maintaining, with more and more boldness, their claims to infallibility, they at length obtained complete dominion over the church. Of the orders of monks, especially of the mendicant orders, they created a spiritual army, who, having in their hands the inquisition, the right of hearing confessions, and of preaching, together with the public superintendence of schools and universities, became the most useful instrument of their policy, and one of the strongest supports of their power.

The success of these advances towards unlimited spiritual dominion, gave them courage to strive also after temporal power. But the claims of the popes to worldly dominion are of much later origin than the histories of the court of Rome have maintained

Constantine the Great gave them merely some buildings and estates in and near Rome. By the gift of Pepin, the pope obtained merely the *dominium utile*, that is, the use of lands intrusted to him. In this way he became, in a manner, a vassal of the Frankish kings, and afterwards of the German emperors, who exercised, without opposition, the right of sovereignty over the papal dominions, and, until the twelfth century, suffered no election of pope to take place without their ratification. Innocent III., first established the rule that Rome, the Marches, and the hereditary possessions of Matilda, should do him homage, as lord paramount, in 1198; and thus vanished the last shadow of the power of the emperors over Rome and the pope.

Favorable circumstances had already made several kingdoms tributary to the papal see. England, from the time of its conversion to Christianity, was thus dependent upon them; in like manner, Poland and Hungary, from the eleventh century, Bulgaria and Aragon, from the beginning of the thirteenth, and the kingdom of the Two Sicilies (whose Norman kings had been vassals of the pope,) from 1265, when Clement IV. gave it to the house of Anjou through hatred towards the house of Hohenstaufen. Even the East would have fallen under the power of Rome; if the success of the crusades (which had given rise in the West to much confusion in regard to the rights of citizens and private property, and thereby promoted the influence of the pope) had been less transitory. Innocent III. dared to depose and proclaim kings, as, for instance, John of England, and to threaten the whole world with excommunication. The emperor Otho IV. called himself such by the grace of God and of the pope. Kings were called "sons of the pope;" and the fear of the terrible consequences of the interdict, which they pronounced, as vicars of Christ, upon disobedient princes and their kingdoms, the rebellious spirit of the barons, the ill-regulated constitution of

States, and the great want of laws, subjected the rulers of those times to the authority of a lord, whose court was the cradle of modern politics, and whose power and influence were irresistible, because supported by public opinion and by superstition. It was with reason, then, that popery, at that time, was called a "universal monarchy;" the cardinals being counsellors; the legates in the different kingdoms of Europe, viceroys; the archbishops and bishops, governors and lieutenant-governors; the priests, ministers of police and of the finances; and the religious orders, the standing armies of the Roman pastor; who thus had at his beck 300,000 servants of different ranks scattered among the different nations, entirely devoted to his interest, and powerful by the arms of religion and fanaticism. In fact, this priestly government did good by accustoming the rude princes and people to laws and Christian manners; and at a time when rights were first beginning to be understood, its inconsistency with true independence was not felt.

France alone, which had acquired more consistency and power than the other monarchies of Europe, by the subjugation of the great vassals, and the reduction of their territories under the royal government, first successfully resisted the popes. In Philip the Fair, Boniface VIII., one of the boldest and ablest popes, found a master, and his successors, during their residence at Avignon, between 1306, and 1376, remained under French influence. The independence of the popes visibly suffered from the circumstance that they were now bound to a particular political party, though they continued to exercise, over all the Christian countries of the West, the power which their arts and perseverance had obtained. Their dignity sunk still lower when, in 1378, two rival popes appeared—the Italian, Urban VI., and a count of Geneva, chosen by the French cardinals, who took the name of "Clement VII." Europe was divided by their quarrel, the Italian being supported by Italy,

Germany, England, and the northern kingdoms; the French pope by France, Spain, Savoy, Lorraine, and Scotland; and the schism long remained.

The public sale of offices, the shameful extortions and the low artifices, which most of these rival popes used against each other, gave rise, in England and Bohemia, to much complaint, and to demands



John Huss.

for a reform in the state of the church. The council of Constance had, indeed, succeeded in putting an end to the great schism, by deposing both of the rivals; but pope Martin V., who was chosen, in 1417, in their place, did not correct the abuses which had grown up under his predecessors, and even the most express decrees for reform, passed by the council of Basle, were rendered nugatory by the artifices and

the perseverance of Eugene IV., of the house of Ursini, who was pope between 1431 and 1477. He had gained the friendship of France, in 1438, by the pragmatic sanction, which laid the foundation of the freedom of the Gallican church; and the negotiations of Æneas Sylvius, ambassador of Frederic III., with him and his successor, the excellent Nicholas V., a friend to ancient literature, and the protector of the learned exiles from Greece, effected the concordate of Vienna, in 1448. Why the grievances of the German nation were so little remedied by this instrument, while the interests of the pope were carefully attended to, the German princes, whom the eloquence of the cunning negotiator Æneas Sylvius had induced to accept it, first perceived when he was chosen cardinal, and, in 1458, pope, under the name of "Pius II." In this concordate, the popes obtained the confirmation of the annates, of the right of ratifying the election of prelates, and among many other privileges, that of the "pope's months," so called, or the right of conferring benefices (which they exercised alternately with the founders,) not on the occurrence of vacancies, but on particular months, of which six in every year were reserved to the pope. By a general extension of the privilege, to which, under different pretences, the other Christian kingdoms were obliged to submit, the popes, in the fifteenth century, had gone so far, that full half of the ecclesiastical revenues of the West flowed into their coffers, under various pretences. Assistance against the Turks was the most common pretext; but rarely were any of the immense sums thus collected so employed.

It was necessary to buy the favor of the parties in Rome, among which the old families of Colonna and Ursini had long been rivals; and so much was spent on their relations, that very little remained for the common good of Christendom. In care for his family, no pope ever surpassed Alexander VI., between 1492 and 1503, whose policy and whose private life were equally strangers to morality and religion. His suc-

cessor, Julius II. between 1503 and 1513, employed all his powers in politics, and in a war with France, in which he commanded his own army, but was obliged to fly before Bayard. Fortunately for him and for his successor, Leo X., Maximilian I. was prevented by circumstances, and finally by death, from



Leo Tenth.

uniting upon his own head the papal and imperial crowns. The circumstance that Austria, France, and Spain were fighting for Lombardy and Naples, and, therefore, sought alternately the favor of the pope, had caused the latter to raise anew in political importance towards the end of the fifteenth century; but the spirit of the times was acquiring an irresistible strength, and the policy of Leo X. was of no avail



against it. Luther, Zuinglius, and Calvin were the heralds of an opposition which tore almost half



John Calvin.

of the West from the popes, while the policy of Charles V. was at the same time diminishing their power.

What the ages of ignorance had allowed to the pope, the council of Trent, indeed, now ratified; and the society of the Jesuits came forward as the guards of his throne, striving to erase all traces of the reformation in the States which had remained Catholic, and to regain by missions among the heathen what had been lost in Europe; yet neither this new support, nor the policy of artful popes, such as Clement VII., between 1523 and 1534 (whom Charles of Bour

bon, the general of the Emperor, drove, in 1527, into the castle of St. Angelo,) and Paul III., between 1534 and 1549, who gained for his family Parma and Placenza; nor the monkish devotion of Paul IV., between 1555 and 1559; nor the moderation of Pius IV., between 1559 and 1566, who condescended to grant the cup to the Bohemian Hussites; nor the severity of Pius V., between 1566 and 1572 (who offended both princes and people by his bull *In cœna Domini*, worthy of his previous character as a proud Dominican, and furious persecutor of heretics, although his severe austerity obtained him the honor of canonization;) still less the useful activity of Gregory XIII., between 1572 and 1585, who gave to the world the amended calendar (Gregorian;) the magnanimity and wisdom of Sixtus V., between 1585 and 1590; the good fortune of Clement VIII., (Aldobrandini,) between 1592 and 1605, who, in 1597, added Ferrara to the States of the Church; the learning of Urban VIII., between 1623 and 1644, who added Urbino to his dominions, and obliged Galileo to abjure his doctrine of the motion of the earth round the sun,—could restore the old authority of the papal throne.

In vain did the court of Rome employ the language of Gregory VII. and Innocent III.; even in Catholic States, the distinction between ecclesiastical and political affairs had been perceived so clearly, that the influence of the popes upon the latter was now very limited. Since the middle of the sixteenth century, no German emperor had been crowned by a pope. The princes, who had learned his policy, withdrew themselves from his authority. The national churches obtained their freedom, in spite of all opposition, and the peace of Westphalia, which the papal see never acknowledged, gave public legality, guaranteed by all the powers of Europe, to a system of toleration which was in direct contradiction to the papal doctrines. Under such circumstances, the question no longer was, how to extend the papal authority, but how to

prevent its utter destruction ; and the vicar of Christ, who, when he began to call himself servant of servants, was lord of lords, was obliged to play the part of a suppliant, who claims compassion and toleration, rather than obedience. Jansenism, also, took from the popes a considerable part of the Netherlands ; their bulls were no longer of avail, beyond the States of the Church, without the consent of the sovereigns, and the revenues from foreign kingdoms grew smaller and smaller. In France, and soon after in Germany, they became the objects of ridicule ; and the excellent men who occupied the pontifical chair in the eighteenth century, the learned Lambertini from 1740 to 1758, and the enlightened Ganganelli, from 1769 to 1774, were forced to expiate the guilt of their predecessors, and sought to obtain by patience, condescension and personal merit, the esteem which the others had haughtily claimed.

Still greater misfortunes fell upon their successors, Pius VI., from 1775 to 1798, and Pius VII., 1800 to 1823. The first, after a bitter experience of the progress of knowledge, just when the death of Joseph II. had inspired him with new hopes, was witness of the revolution, which tore from him the French church, and deprived him of his dominions. The other was forced to buy his personal freedom, and the possession of his diminished States, by an equivocal concordate with Bonaparte, in 1801, and by much personal humiliation, and lost them both again in 1809. He owed his restoration, in 1814, not to the excommunication which he had pronounced against Napoleon, but to a coalition of temporal princes, among whom were two heretics (the English and Prussian) and a schismatic (the Russian.) Nevertheless, he not only restored the inquisition, the order of the Jesuits, and other religious orders, but advanced claims and principles entirely opposed to the ideas and resolutions of his liberators. The return of this pope to the spirit of the eleventh and twelfth centuries agreed with what was always the

principal maxim of the Roman court, "never to give up the slightest of its claims, but to wait only for op-



Napoleon Bonaparte.

portunities." When the archives of the popes were carried to Paris, in 1809, among other surprising things, a practice came to light which the popes had, of declaring null and void, by secret mental reserva-

tion, the contracts which were made in public. Thus Alexander VII., February 18, 1664, made such a reservation with regard to the treaty of Pisa, of the 12th of the same month, and Clement XIII., September 3, 1764, with regard to the banishment of the Jesuits from France. Pius VII. openly declared against the tolerance of the philosophic sects, against Bible societies, and translations of the Bible.

Pius VII. was succeeded by Leo XII., who, in 1829, gave place to Pius VIII. Upon his death, Gregory XVI. was elected, and in 1847, he was succeeded by John de Ferrati, under the title of Pius IX., whose reign was destined to be signalized by many astonishing events.

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### XXIII. LIBERAL CONCESSIONS OF PIUS IX.—REACTIONARY MEASURES.—REVOLUTION.—FLIGHT OF THE POPE.—ESTABLISHMENT OF THE REPUBLIC.—SIEGE OF ROME BY THE FRENCH.—CAPITULATION OF THE CITY AND RESTORATION OF THE POPE.

FOR many years before the accession of Pius IX. there had existed an extensive and powerful organization of liberals throughout Italy. Their objects were the union of the Italian States, and the establishment of republican institutions. They had made numerous attempts at revolution but foreign bayonets had always been successfully employed to crush them, and many of their noblest spirits had become martyrs to their cause. They believed Pius IX. was favorably disposed towards them, and accordingly hailed his accession to the papal see with exultation. The new pope made some gratifying concessions to the liberal spirit which served to raise the popular expectations. Rome needed many reforms, and it

was believed that Pius IX. was disposed to become the chief of the reform party.



Pope Pius IX.

Suddenly, however, the pope changed his policy. He had granted the people a representative assembly; but he now refused them the grand want—the exclusion of the priests from a controlling influence in the temporal government. The pope was then denounced as a timid reactionary, and in the autumn of 1848, signs of an approaching revolution were manifest in Rome.

On the 15th of November, the Chamber of Deputies was to open at one o'clock, and a large crowd was consequently assembled around the gateway of the Palazzo della Cancelleria. When Count Rossi,

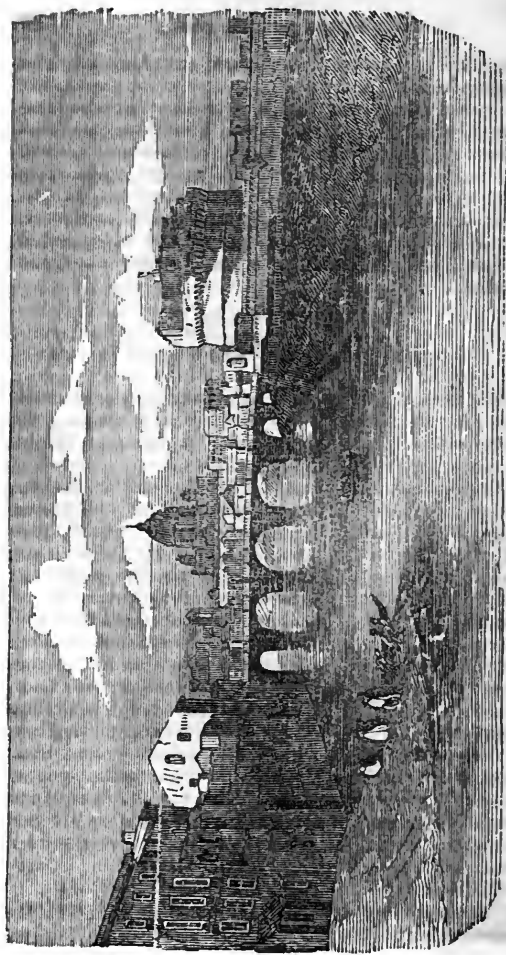
the prince, appeared they hissed and hooted. The haughty count confronted them with an expression of scorn, whereupon a man rushed forward and plunged a dagger into his neck. The dying man was taken up to the rooms occupied by Cardinal Guzzoli, and in five minutes expired. This deed appears to have been unpremeditated. But many of the Romans approved it and applauded the murderer. Groups of mingled soldiers and citizens, with lighted torches, were heard singing the chorus along the streets.

"Benedetto quella mano  
Che il tiranus pugnato."

"Blessed be the hand which smote the tyrant."

The death of Rossi was the signal for an insurrection, for which Rome was already predisposed. At half-past ten, A. M., on the 16th, a gathering began in the great Piazza del Popolo, and symptoms of a menacing character were perceptible in the leading streets. The Civic Guards and troops of the line, in fragmentary sections, mingled with the people; and the carbineers, whose uniform had hitherto been invariably arrayed against the populace, were now for the first time seen to fraternize with the mob. From the terrace of the Pincian Hill the spectator could count nearly 20,000 Romans, in threatening groups, and mostly armed. Printed papers were handed eagerly about, all having the same purport, and containing the following "Fundamental Points:" 1. Promulgation and full adoption of Italian nationality. 2. Convocation of a Constituent Assembly and realization of the Federal Pact. 3. Realization of the vote for the war of independence given in the Chamber of Deputies. 4. Adoption, in its integrity, of the Programme Mamiani, 5th June. 5. Ministers who have public confidence—Mamiani, Sterbini, Cambello, Saliceti, Fusconi, Lunati, Sereni, Galletti."

The pope announced that he would not brook dictation; whereupon, the armed mob attacked the pa-



Rome.



lace, and compelled Pius to yield the appointment of a popular ministry.

On receiving intelligence of these events, the English admiral sent a steamer to Civita Vecchia to receive the pope, should he be a fugitive; and the French government hastily despatched three steam-frigates, with a force of 3500 men, to protect the pontiff. He does not appear, however, to have been exposed to any personal danger; but being resolved not to give even the implied sanction of his presence to the ministry imposed upon him by the populace, he committed the fatal imprudence of quitting his dominions as a fugitive. His flight was the signal for the dispersion of his cardinals. The veteran, Lambruschini, escaped in the uniform of a dragoon; while Pius fled in the less appropriate guise of a servant, to the Bavarian ambassador, and crossing the frontier, arrived at Gaeta, where the King of Naples received him with worshipful homage.

Depositions were sent by the Roman ministry to solicit the pope's return; but they were not even allowed to cross the Neapolitan frontier. As the pontiff persisted in declaring the ministry to be illegal, and all its acts null and void, an act was passed by both Chambers, provisionally depriving the pope of temporal power, and decreeing the election of a "Provisional Supreme Junta," for the purpose of carrying on the government. The act states, that "The commission shall discontinue its functions on the return of the sovereign pontiff, or when he shall himself appoint, according to constitutional forms, a substitute of his own selection." Neither of these conditions being fulfilled, an act was passed, at the instance of the Junta, and in compliance with the demands of the people, convoking a Constituent Assembly for the Roman States. The Chambers were then dissolved on the 29th of December.

At sunset, that evening, the Castle of St. Angelo, by the consecutive discharge of 101 great guns, announced to this metropolis and the world in general,

that the dynasty which had reigned over Rome for 1048 years had come to a close, and a new government was to be called into being by the mandate of the whole population assembled in a constituent representative body by universal suffrage. The great bell of the capitol, which only tolls for the death of a pope, pealed solemnly. It was exactly on the 24th of November, (the fatal night of the flight of Pio Nono,) that, in the year of our Lord 800, Charlemagne arrived in Rome to be crowned on Christmas day of that year, by Leo III., and to institute and



Joseph Mazzini.

formally corroborate the donation of Pepin, by the erection of the papal sovereignty.

The Constituent Assembly comprised many able

members, and its proceedings were dignified and consistently liberal. As soon as it was ascertained that the pope not only would not return, but denounced the movement of the people, the Assembly proceeded to elect an executive Triumvirate. The wise and eloquent Joseph Mazzini was the most active and influential of the three men who exercised the executive power. The brave and patriotic General Avezzana was his valuable aid. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, treacherous to the principles of the French Republic, resolved to send an expedition to crush the Roman patriots and restore the pope's temporal authority. On the 22d of April, 1849, a considerable French force, under General Oudinot, sailed for Italy, and after landing at Civita Vecchia, marched toward Rome. The troops had hitherto been kept in ignorance of the object of the expedition. The general now issued a proclamation to them, stating "that the government, being resolved to maintain in all quarters of the globe their old and legitimate influence, would not allow the destinies of the Italian people to be at the mercy of a foreign power, or a party which is but a minority."

The Romans knew that the statement of the French general was entirely unfounded. They acted with a resolution worthy their ancestors. On the 24th of April, the Constituent Assembly declared itself permanent—passed a resolution denouncing as a traitor any deputy who should desert his post—despatched a protest to General Oudinot, and issued an address to the people. The members then declared that, while willing to receive the pope as head of the church, they had discarded his temporal sway. At the same time, they called upon the lately constituted Triumvirate to assist them in supporting the declaration. The people responded to the sentiments of their leaders. Men of all classes armed themselves, private houses were fortified, barricades thrown up, and every means taken to inspire a spirit of patriotic enthusiasm. "On the first sound of the alarm-bell,"

says one of the placards, "the holy sacrament will be exposed in the principal churches, to implore the safety of Rome and the triumph of the good cause."

On the 30th of April, the French arrived before the city. They found the citizen soldiery, under General Garibaldi, ready to receive them. While the French were planting their batteries and preparing for an assault, shots were fired from the wall and adjacent houses. At half-past ten, the attack commenced at the Porta Cavalleggieri; but so spirited was the resistance, that in less than two hours, Oudinot's vanguard was driven back. At that moment, a body of Roman troops was thrown toward St. Paul's Church, while another body of armed citizens, carrying a red flag, hurried to defend the Porta Cavalleggieri. By noon, the French had posted their artillery upon a bastion; but Garibaldi attacked them at different points. A conflict with cannon, musketry, and rockets took place. At one o'clock, the assailants were silenced. The Triumvirate immediately published the following proclamation:

"Romans, our honour is safe; God and our muskets will do the rest—energy and order. Be worthy of your fathers. Let no voice spread alarming news. Let no shot be fired in the direction of the city. Let every shot be for the enemy; and let every one cry, *Viva la Republica!*"

At two o'clock, the attack was renewed; but after a spirited contest of two hours, the French were compelled to retreat.

In the meantime, M. Frapold, the Roman envoy at Paris, protested in the name of his government, against the interference of the French in Italian affairs, declaring at the same time, that his government was willing to accept the mediation of France. He received answer, that as far as France was concerned, Rome was the pope; and that France interposed to prevent too violent a revolution. The news of Oudinot's repulse threw Paris into an uproar, and gave great strength to the republican opposition to

Bonaparte's government. But the president declared that, since the Romans would not receive the French as friends, they should receive them as foes; and said he would send re-enforcements to General Oudinot.

On the 13th of May, the French army attempted to cross into Rome by a bridge, but the bridge was blown up, and the assailants desisted. General Oudinot then commenced a blockade, which was maintained until early in June, at which time the French succeeded, after hard fighting, in taking possession of Villa Pamfila, the church of St. Pancras, and other points. We condense from General Oudinot's official report the account of his subsequent operations up to the 6th of June. "On the 4th," says the general, "at half-past eight in the evening, the trenches were opened at a distance of three hundred metres from the wall. At this part the ground is very uneven, and covered with vines and hedges. The tracing of the parallel, and the distribution of the workmen, were very difficult; on some points the work could not be undertaken before midnight. At this moment I ordered a feigned attack on the side of Villa Pamfila. The result of this diversion surpassed my hopes; all the efforts of the Romans were turned toward the gate of St. Pancras, which they might suppose to be seriously menaced."

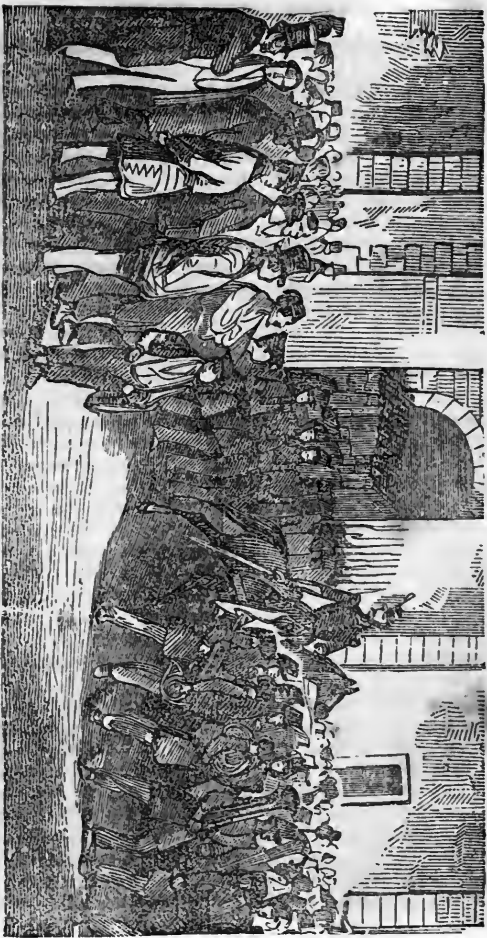
The French continued their approaches with slow but sure success, until the 12th, when General Oudinot announced to the Triumvirate his intention to take the city by storm. He was answered that the Vatican, St. Peter's, and the palaces of the nobility were mined and charged with powder; and that before the assailants should obtain entrance, the besieged would fire those works, and die amid their ruins. The attack was made on the 14th, and during that day and the next, the fire of cannon and musketry was incessant; on the 15th, Garibaldi made a sortie with fourteen hundred men, but was driven back with loss; yet after a continuous cannonade of

twenty-four hours, the French effected no available breach.

General Oudinot continued his advances upon Rome until the close of June. Some spirited attempts were made upon separate points of the defences; shells and other missiles were thrown into the city; and the garrison was repeatedly summoned to surrender. But notwithstanding the loss of their property, the destruction of many monuments of art, and their personal sufferings, the soldiery and inhabitants still persisted in their resistance. Early in July, the Constituent Assembly unanimously voted the constitution of the republic, and ordered it to be deposited in the capitol. They also ordered funeral services to be celebrated in St. Stephen's for those who had fallen in defence of the republic.

But it had now become evident that further resistance was useless. The French had surrounded the city; their cannon pointed toward its most populated quarters; the garrison, though determined, was small; and an assault, besides causing great slaughter, would in all probability terminate in the capture of the city and the ruin of some of its finest monuments of art. To prevent such a calamity, negotiations were opened with the French; terms of capitulation were signed; and, Rome opened her gates to a French army. At the same time Garibaldi passed through the city with ten thousand men, and succeeded in effecting his escape. The Assembly announced by proclamation the arrival of the French troops, and recommended abstinence from all vengeance, denouncing it as useless and unworthy the dignity of Roman citizens. The French army entered, July 3, in the evening; the soldiers cleared the streets of barricades, and by dark the troops were consigned to their various quarters. A new government was formed; the troops were stationed in places favorable for suppressing disturbances; some companies were despatched in pursuit of Garibaldi.

The republic established by the Romans, having



The French Entering Rome.

been thus overthrown by reckless invaders, the pope was invited to return to resume the government; but several months elapsed before he could be induced to go back among a people who detested his authority and watched constantly for an opportunity of throwing it off. He now rules in Rome, supported by foreign bayonets, while the able and gallant republicans who were chosen to conduct the government are in exile. Yet Mazzini remains the most powerful man among the Italians, although compelled to reside far from his native land; and he labors steadily for the accomplishment of the great object of his life—the freedom of Italy.



# QUESTIONS

FOR THE

## EXAMINATION OF PUPILS.

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### I. *Origin of the Romans.—Founding of Rome.—Establishment of the Government under Romulus.* (p. 7.)

FROM whom did the ancient Romans claim their origin? When is the taking of Troy supposed to have happened? Who founded the settlement of Alba? When was Rome founded by Romulus? What remarkable events took place in other parts of the world about the same time? What was the form of the government established by Romulus? What was the senate? What were patricians and plebeians, patrons and clients? What were the offices of the king and the senate? What were the privileges of the people.

### II. *The Kings of Rome,* (p. 10.)

In what manner did Romulus obtain wives for his subjects? What was the consequence of the seizure of the Sabine women? Who governed the united Romans and Sabines? What became of Tatius? What was the fate of Romulus? How long did he reign? Who succeeded Romulus? What was the nature of the government of Numa Pompilius, and the length of his reign? What was the result of the war with Alba? What were the chief events in the reign of Tarquin, and what was his fate? What was the character of the second Tarquin? What became of Tarquin and his family? What hopes did he entertain?

III. *Formation of a Republic.—Events to the Dictatorship of Cincinnatus.* (p. 16.)

What form of government was established after the expulsion of Tarquin? What were the chief magistrates called? What conspiracy was formed in the consulship of Brutus? What caused the appointment of a *Dictator*; and what was the nature of his office? What gave rise to the appointment of *Tribunes of the People*? and what was the nature of this office? What was the story of Coriolanus? What occasioned the appointment of Cincinnatus as Dictator? What was his success? How long did he hold office? What is said of the senate?

IV. *Laws of the Twelve Tables.—Decemviri.—Events to the Defeat of the Gauls by Camillus.* (p. 21.)

What were the laws of the Twelve Tables? For what purpose were the Decemviri appointed? How was Veii taken? and by whom? How was Camillus treated by the people, after his victories? When did these occurrences take place?

V. *Wars with the Samnites—with Pyrrhus, king of Epirus—and with the Carthaginians.—Fall of Carthage.* (p. 26.)

In what wars were the Romans engaged, after the defeat of the Gauls? What were the chief occurrences in the war with Pyrrhus? When did the first war with Carthage break out? What was the interval between the first and second Punic wars? What conquests did the Romans make during that interval? What caused the second war with Carthage? What gave rise to the third Punic war? In what year did the destruction of Carthage take place? What were the extent and population of Carthage?

VI. *Conquests of the Romans.—The Gracchi.—The Cimbri and Teutones.—The Social War.—Marius.—Sylla.* (p. 33.)

What were the principal conquests made by the Romans, after the destruction of Carthage? Who were the Gracchi? When did the invasion of the Cimbri and Teutones take place? What produced the *Social War*? and how was it terminated? What was the conduct of Marius, when he gained the advantage over the party of Sylla? Who was Sylla? How long was he *Perpetual*

*Dictator?* and how did he pass the latter part of his life? When did he die?

VII. *Catiline's Conspiracy.—The First Triumvirate.—Civil War between Cæsar and Pompey.* (p. 38.)

What was the object of Catiline's conspiracy, and its result? What proposal did Cæsar make to Pompey and Crassus? and what steps did they take in consequence of it? How did the war between Cæsar and Pompey arise? What was the fate of Pompey? How did Cæsar act towards Pompey's murderers? What did he order?

VIII. *Events from the Defeat of Pompey's Party to the Death of Antony.* (p. 42.)

What happened to Cæsar while he remained in Egypt? What was his last military expedition? In what year did the death of Cæsar take place? What took place in Rome in consequence of Cæsar's murder? In what year did the battle of Philippi take place? Who took the command against Antony, when war was declared against him by the senate? What took place at the battle of Actium? What was the fate of Antony, and that of Cleopatra? When did she die?

IX. *Augustus.—Tiberius.—Caligula.—Claudius.* (p. 50.)

In what year did Octavius become emperor? When did Augustus close the temple of Janus? What was the meaning of that ceremony? What great event took place in Judæa during this period of universal peace? What was the fate of Quintilius Varus? What was its effect on the mind of Augustus? Who were Tiberius and Drusus? How did Caligula govern at the beginning of his reign? What remarkable instances are mentioned of his extravagance, rapacity, and cruelty? What was his fate? How old was Claudius when he began to reign? What was the character of Agrippina? What caused the death of Claudius? When did he die?

X. *Nero.* (p. 59.)

Who succeeded Claudius? What remarkable event happened in the eleventh year of Nero's reign? How did Nero act during

the burning of Rome? How were the Christians treated? What were the circumstances attending the death of Nero? When did he die?

XI. *Galba.—Otho.—Vitellius.* (p. 64.)

How old was Galba when he began to reign? How did Otho begin his reign? Who was proclaimed emperor on the death of Otho? How did Vitellius act on his entrance into Rome? What was his character? What were the circumstances of the death of Vitellius? When did he die? How long did he reign?

XII. *Vespasian.—Titus.—Domitian.* (p. 68.)

Who was proclaimed emperor after the death of Vitellius? How did Vespasian reign? What remarkable events took place during his reign? How long did he reign? and by whom was he succeeded? What was the character of Titus? What calamities happened in Italy during his reign? What great writer perished in consequence of the eruption of Mount Vesuvius? How long did Titus reign? Who succeeded Titus? What was the character of Domitian? How did Domitian treat the Jews and Christians? What were the circumstances of Domitian's death? Whom did the senate choose for his successor?

XIII. *Nerva.—Trajan.—Adrian.—Antoninus Pius.—Marcus Aurelius.—Commodus.* (p. 72.)

Of what country was Nerva? and what was his character? Of what country was Trajan? What was his chief failing? and what were its consequences? In what manner did he treat the Christians? By whom was he succeeded? What was Adrian's character? What did Adrian do during his residence in Britain? What put a stop to the persecution of the Christians? By whom was Adrian succeeded? What was the character of Antoninus Pius? What name did Marcus Aurelius assume on succeeding to the empire? Whom did he join with him in the government? In what year did Marcus Aurelius die? What was the character of Commodus? What was his fate? How long did he reign?

XIV. *Emperors from Pertinax to Probus.* (p. 78.)

Who was chosen emperor on the death of Commodus? What was the cause of his death? Who succeeded Pertinax? In what

manner did Didius Julianus obtain the empire? How did he govern? What was his fate? How old was Septimius Severus when he became emperor? What was the character of Severus? Who succeeded him? What became of Geta? What was the character of Caracalla? What was the manner of his death? Who succeeded Caracalla? Who succeeded Macrinus? What was the character of Heliogabalus? and what became of him? Who succeeded him? What was the character of Alexander Severus? How did he treat the Christians? What was his fate? Who succeeded Alexander Severus? What was the character of Maximinus? Who were the successive emperors down to Valerian? How many pretenders to the empire were there at one time, during the reign of Gallienus? Who succeeded Gallienus? How did Flavius Claudius conduct himself? What caused the death of Aurelian? For what was Probus distinguished? What was the manner of his death? How long did he reign?

XV. *From Probus to the Fall of the Empire.* (p. 83.)

Who succeeded Probus? What was the fate of Carinus and Numerianus? What were the chief events of Dioclesian's reign? When did the accession of Constantine take place? What other memorable circumstance took place in his reign? Against what nation did Constantius undertake an expedition? For what act is the memory of Julian most remarkable? What became of him? What remarkable act did Jovian perform? Who succeeded Jovian? What great event took place in the reign of Valentinian? Whom did Gratian make his partner in the government? What became of the usurper Maximus? Who succeeded Theodosius in the western, and who in the eastern empire? Who invaded the empire on the death of Theodosius? When did Honorius die? and how long did he reign? Who invaded the empire in the reign of Valentinian? What became of Aetius? What was the fate of Valentinian? Who invited Genseric, king of the Vandals, to invade Italy? and for what reason? Who succeeded Maximus? By whom was Avitus deposed? Who governed Italy on the deposition of Avitus? Who was afterwards raised to the empire? In what year did Majorian become emperor? What were the chief events of his reign? Who assumed

the government after his death? What induced Ricimer to apply for assistance to the emperor of the East? Whom did Leo, the Eastern emperor, make emperor of the West? What became of Anthemius? What were the names of the last emperors of the West? What produced the dethronement of the last emperor, and the fall of the empire?

*XVI. The Eastern Empire from Basiliscus till the Fall of Belisarius. (p. 96.)*

Who now usurped the Eastern empire? Whither did Zeno fly? By whom was he pursued, and with what success? By what means was he restored to the throne? What became of Basiliscus? When did this happen? What calamity occurred at Constantinople during this usurpation? What was the course of Zeno's after life? What was his success in the war with the Ostrogoths? What prevented the Ostrogoths from besieging Constantinople? When did Zeno die? What was now the state of the Roman empire? What were the principal causes of this decline? When did Justin ascend the throne? With whom did he engage in war? Who was Justinian? When did he ascend the throne? Give an account of the battle of Dara. Who commanded the Roman army? What was his success in the next campaign? When was peace concluded; and on what terms? Give an account of the tumult which happened at Constantinople about this time. Who saved the empire? What was done by Belisarius? What was the fate of the usurper? What was done by Belisarius in Africa? Describe his triumph. What was the conduct of Gelimer? How was Belisarius rewarded for his services in Africa? Against whom was he sent in 537? What was his success? How was he received at Rome? How did the Goths spend the winter? What rendered the approach of the Goths to Rome easy? Into what danger did Belisarius fall? Describe the combat. Of what imprudence were the Romans guilty? What was the consequence? How did the Romans finally triumph? How did the Goths advance to the assault of the city? How was the defence commenced? What followed this exhibition of the skill of the Roman general? How did Vitiges continue the assault? What was the conduct of Belisarius? What the result of the attack? What was afterwards the charac-

ter of the Gothic operations? How long was the siege maintained? What hastened the retreat of Vitiges? Describe his retreat. What is known of the strength of this flying army? By whom was Rimini defended? What forced the Goths to raise the siege of Rimini? How did Vitiges escape? What occasioned the recal of Belisarius from Italy? What were the terms of the peace concluded with Persia? What caused the renewal of the war? How long did it continue? How did the emperor then purchase peace? What other enemy now approached Constanti-nople? What was the last exploit of Belisarius? What means did the emperor take to prevent the Huns from again invading the empire? What happened to Belisarius on his return? What happened in the year 565? When did Justinian die? When was Italy conquered by the Lombards? How long did they hold it? What in some measure compensated the Romans for the loss of Italy? To what did the revolt of the Persamenians lead? By whom were both nations reduced? When did the Saracens at-tack the Romans? What was their success during the first four years of the war? Of what places were they the masters in 648? On what terms did they conclude a peace? What was the suc-cess of the expedition against the Lombards? What was done by the Saracens in 671? What place did they besiege the next year? Were they repulsed? On what conditions was a peace concluded? For what time?

*XVII. The Bulgarians and Saracens invade the Empire. (p. 109.)*

What new enemy now invaded the Roman empire? How did the emperor avoid the war? Where did they settle? When and in what way did the emperor violate the treaty? What success attended him? When was Justinian II. deposed? Whither did he retire? How was he received? How did he repay the hos-pitality of the Bulgarians? What was his success this time? How long did the Bulgarians continue their inroads? How did they treat the garrison of Sardica? Who marched against them? What was his conduct in Bulgaria? How did these cruelties affect the king? How did the emperor receive his proposals for a peace? What was the consequence? Who succeeded Nice-phorus? How did he carry on the Bulgarian war? When were they attacked by Basilius II.? Who governed the Bulgarians then?

Who was sent against him? Where did Uranus come up with the enemy? How did he succeed in surprising them? What did he effect? How did Samuel escape? What was done by the emperor in the following year? Into what great danger did he soon after fall? How was the Roman army relieved? How did the emperor treat his prisoners? What was the effect of this cruelty upon Samuel? How was Bulgaria finally conquered? Who of the royal family refused to submit? Who undertook to secure him? In what way did he accomplish it? How did he save himself from the just fury of the people? How was he rewarded by the emperor? How was he received at Constantinople? What rendered the Saracens less formidable at this time than formerly?

*XVIII. The Turks invade the Empire. (p. 114.)*

When did the Turks invade the empire? Give an account of their origin. What was the effect of the victory of Tangrolipix over the Persians? What country did Tangrolipix then annex to his dominions? What was done by *Cultu-Moses*? With what success did the Turks meet in Arabia? What in Media? What place was besieged by Tangrolipix? How was it reduced? What was the result of the battle between the Romans and Halim? Who was taken prisoner? What was consequently done by the emperor? How were the Turkish ambassadors received at Constantinople? What was the consequence? Describe the siege of Alcan? What was done by Tangrolipix the next spring? Why were the frontier provinces of the Roman empire unable to defend themselves? When did Constantine Ducas die? To whom did he leave the empire? Who was appointed regent? Under what oaths? What was done by the Turks when they heard of his death? Why was Eudoxia unable to oppose the Turks? In what way did she determine to avert the evils which threatened her? Relate the story of Romanus Diogenes. How did Eudoxia procure her absolution from the oath imposed on her by Constantine? How did the patriarch proceed? Whom did the empress marry? What was his conduct on being raised to absolute power? With what success did he meet as he was returning? What did he do in the following year? How did the Armenians aid him? What occurred in the following spring?



How was Romanns treated by Axan? What news did he hear on his way to Constantinople? To what place did he retire? Who was sent against him? How did he succeed in his enterprize? How did John treat the captive Romanus? What was then done by Axan? What drew the attention of John Ducas from the Turkish invasion? What was the result of the engagement with the rebels? What division now existed in the Turkish empire? To what agreement did the two princes finally come? What was their united success in the invasion of the Roman empire? What was the condition of the empire during this time? Who became emperor in 1077? What did he do before setting out against the Turks? Why did he conclude a peace with the Turks?

*XIX. The Eastern Empire until the plundering of Constantinople by the Latins. (p. 124.)*

Who was Robert Guiscard? What was his character? Give an account of his actions before his invasion of the Eastern empire. What led him to that invasion? Who opposed him at Durazzo? Describe the sea-fight. What calamities befel the besiegers? Who attempted to relieve the city? Give an account of his defeat. What was the result of the siege? To what place did Bohemond next lay siege? What obliged him to return to Italy? How did Alexius take advantage of his absence? What naval engagements ensued? What put an end to the war? Relate the events of the first year of the Scythian war. Of the second year. The third. The fourth. When did they again invade the empire? What was their success? What now threatened the ruin of the Turkish nation? What prevented the complete success of the Crusaders? Who succeeded Alexius Comnens? What was his character and that of his government? To what object did he direct his arms? With what success? Relate the manner of his death. Who succeeded him? Who was thrown into prison by John? How long was he there confined? By what means did he secure the society of his wife? By what means did he at length escape from prison? Where was he recaptured, and how did he manage to extricate himself? How did he obtain his pardon from Manuel? What was his conduct on the death of Manuel? By whom was he deposed? Relate the manner of his death. Who succeeded to the throne of Trebizond

and Constantinople? What happened at Constantinople in 1203? What occasioned it, and what was its effect? Who succeeded Isaac Angelus? In what way did John Ducas usurp the throne? What was now determined upon by the Latins? When did they make a general assault on the city? With what success? When did they renew the attack? Describe the capture of Constantinople by the Latins? What happened on the next day? What became of Mourzoufle?

*XX. The Eastern Empire from the Capture of Constantinople by the Latins till the accession of Andronicus to the throne. (p. 135.)*

Who was elected emperor by the Latins? What was the fate of Mourzoufle? Of Alexius? Who was Theodore Lascaris? What fragment of the empire did he preserve? By whom was Trebizond preserved? What was saved by Michael Angelus? How were the Greeks treated by the Latins? To what places did they withdraw? What was done by the Bulgarians? Who succeeded Baldwin? When did Henry die? Who succeeded him? What happened to Peter in Epirus? How long did Constantinople remain subject to the Latins? By whom were they expelled? What led him to attempt the capture of Constantinople? What was his success? What was the conduct of Baldwin? How did the Emperor Palæologus receive the news? Describe his progress and triumph? What allayed the joy of the emperor? How did he reward Alexius? What means did he take to re-people the city? What caused an alteration in these regulations? By what act of inhumanity did Palæologus endeavour to secure the throne to himself? In what troubles did this treachery involve him? How did he succeed in diverting the storm for a time? When did he die; and by whom was he succeeded? How did Andronicus immediately throw the empire into another ferment?

*XXI. Another War with the Turks, who finally capture Constantinople, and put an end to the Eastern Roman Empire. (p. 143.)*

How had the Turks carried on the war? What places did they capture? Who was sent against them? What was the conduct of Philanthropenus? What was the effect of that revolt upon the emperor? Whom did he hire to assist him? What was the conduct of the Massagates and the Catalans? When did the

Turks first make their appearance in Europe? What prevented them from retiring to Asia? How were they finally rooted out? What conquests did the Turks make in 1327? When and upon what condition was a peace concluded? When did the Turks again commence hostilities? How did Amurath extend the conquests of his predecessors? By whom was he succeeded? What conquests did Bajazet make? What message did he send to the Greek emperor? Was he obliged to comply? What induced Bajazet to besiege the city? Who came to the assistance of Manuel? What agreement did Bajazet make with Manuel's nephew? What message did he send to Constantinople? How did Manuel prevent the mischiefs which were likely to ensue? What did Manuel then do? How did John keep his promise? How was Constantinople preserved for a time? When and by whom was the city again besieged? What obliged him to raise the siege? What places were next plundered by Amurath? How was he received at Belgrade? By whom was he attacked in his retreat? What successes did Hunniades gain in Transylvania? What happened to him in 1448? How did the emperor now endeavour to secure the safety of the empire? When did the emperor die? By whom was he succeeded? When did the sultan die? By whom was he succeeded? What led to the siege of Constantinople by Mohammed? When was the siege commenced? How did the emperor secure the haven? How did the sultan commence the siege? What was the force of the besiegers? What that of the besieged? What enraged the sultan, and brought joy to the Christians? How did Mohammed gain command of the haven? What offer was made by Constantine? What by Mohammed? Was either of them accepted? What happened in the Turkish camp on the 25th of May? How were the mutineers appeased? How did Constantine answer the summons to surrender? What was the plan of attack, and when did it commence? Describe the assault. What was the fate of Constantine! What was the conduct of the Turks after all opposition had ceased? How did a few of the inhabitants contrive to escape? How long was the pillage and massacre continued? When did Mohammed make his triumphal entry into Constantinople? Of what empire has it since been the capital?

*XXII. Foundation of the Papal dominion, and succession of the Popes. (p. 154.)*

When was Charlemagne crowned Emperor of the Romans? What new power had gradually arisen in Rome? What rank had the bishop of Rome held from the end of the fourth century? How did the popes obtain jurisdiction over foreign dioceses? What did the synod of Sardica and Valentinian III. acknowledge? Until what period did the measures of the popes meet with violent opposition? What circumstance opened the way to the supreme control of the papal power over the churches? What is said of Gregory I.? Of Leo III.? What is said of the story of the female pope, Johanna, or Joan? What victory did pope Nicholas I. achieve? What did pope John VIII. do with the imperial crown? When? During what period was the papal see extremely corrupt? What concealed the scandal of its deeds? What is said of pope Sylvester II.? What troubles opened a field for the ambition of the popes? By what constitution did they establish their independence of the people of Rome? What is said of Gregory VII.? Of Urban II.? Of Alexander III.? What is said of Innocent III.? How did the great popes unite the clergy of western and central Europe to the papal see? What did they obtain by means of legates and nuncios? How did they gain complete dominion over the church? How did they use the orders of monks? What did Pepin, king of the Franks, grant to the pope? What did the pope become in consequence? What rule did Innocent III. establish in 1198? What kingdom became tributary to the papal see? What pope first dared to proclaim and depose kings? What did the emperor Otho IV. call himself? What new titles were given to kings? Why was popery called universal monarchy in the day of Innocent III.? How did this priestly government do good? What kingdom first successfully resisted the authority of the popes? In whom did Boniface VIII. find a master? During what period did the popes remain under French influ-

ence? What two rival popes appeared in 1378? What countries became involved in the struggle? What abuses gave rise to much complaint? How was the great schism ended? Were the abuses corrected? Who rendered decrees of reform nugatory? How did he gain the friendship of France? Who effected the concordate of Vienna? Who was chosen pope in 1458? What privileges did the popes obtain by the concordate of Vienna? What was the common pretext for extortion? What rival parties compelled the popes to purchase their favor? What is said of pope Alexander VI.? How did Julius II. employ his powers? Who sought to unite the papal and imperial crowns? Did he succeed? What circumstance increased the political importance of the pope towards the end of the fifteenth century? Who now headed an opposition to the papal authority? What did the council of Trent ratify? What society appeared as guards and missionaries of the pope? What is said of Clement VII.? What territories did Paul III. gain for his family? What act of moderation did Pius IV. perform? What is said of Pius V.? What great work did Gregory XIII. give to the world? What state was added to the papal dominions by Clement VIII.? What is said of Urban VIII.? Did these great men restore the old papal authority? What circumstances diminished the political power of the popes? What creed took from the popes a considerable part of the Netherlands? How were their bulls treated? Where did the popes become objects of ridicule? What is said of Lambertini and Ganganelli? What misfortunes befell Pius VI.? How did Bonaparte humiliate Pius VII.? To whom did he owe his restoration? What measures did he then adopt? What was the principal maxim of the Roman court? What practice of the popes was discovered in 1809? What instances of mental reservation on the part of the popes are mentioned? What intolerant declaration did Pius VII. put forth? Who succeeded him? Who succeeded Pius VIII.? When, and under what title, did John de Ferrati succeed to the papal chair?

*XXIII. The Revolution of 1848-'49. (p. 167.)*

What were the objects of the liberal organization in Italy? What success had the attempts of the liberals at revolution met with? How did they regard Pius IX.? What did the pope grant? What did he refuse? How was he then stigmatized? When and where did a crowd assemble in Rome? How did Count Rossi treat the people? What was the immediate consequence? What chorus was then sung in the streets? For what was the death of Rossi the signal? How did the revolution commence? What points of concession did the people demand? What did the pope announce? What was Pius IX. compelled to grant? What measures did the English and French adopt for the protection of the pontiff? To what measure did the pope and his cardinal now have recourse? By whom was Pius IX. entertained? Who solicited his return? What act was passed by the Chambers upon the pope's refusal? What legislative body succeeded the Chambers? How was the termination of the papal dynasty announced? What event had occurred on the 24th of November, 1800? What kind of an executive did the Assembly elect? Who was the most active member of the Triumvirate? What general was his aid? Who resolved to crush the Roman republic? When did the French expedition sail? Who commanded the forces? Where did they land? What did Oudinot state in his proclamation? How did the Romans act? What measures did the Assembly adopt on the 24th of April? How did the people act? When did the French arrive before the city? Who commanded the Romans? Describe the attack at the Porta Cavallagieri? What was the result? What proclamation was now issued by the Triumvirate? Who protested against the interference of the French in Italian affairs? What answer did he receive? What declaration did President Bonaparte now make? What occurred on the 13th of May? What did Gen. Oudinot then commence? How long was the blockade maintained? What occurred on

the 4th of June? When did the French general announce his intention of taking the city by storm? What was the reply of the Triumvirate? What occurred on the 14th? What sortie was made on the 15th? Until what time did General Oudinot continue his advances upon Rome? How did the Romans sustain the attack? What did the Constituent Assembly vote in July? Why were negotiations opened? What was the result? Who escaped? What did the Assembly announce? When did the French army enter Rome? What followed? How long was it before the pope could be induced to return to Rome? What is said of his authority? What is said of Mazzini?

The first part of the book is devoted to a general history of the Indian people, from the earliest times to the present. The author discusses the various tribes and their customs, and the influence of European civilization upon them. He also touches upon the political and social changes that have taken place in the Indian mind since the discovery of America.

The second part of the book is a collection of documents, including treaties, laws, and historical records, which illustrate the progress of Indian civilization and the efforts of the government to improve their condition. These documents are arranged chronologically, and each is accompanied by a brief explanation of its contents.

The third part of the book is a series of essays, each dealing with a different aspect of Indian life and culture. These essays are written in a clear and concise style, and they provide a valuable insight into the thoughts and feelings of the Indian people. The topics covered include the Indian religion, the Indian art and literature, the Indian music and dance, and the Indian social organization.

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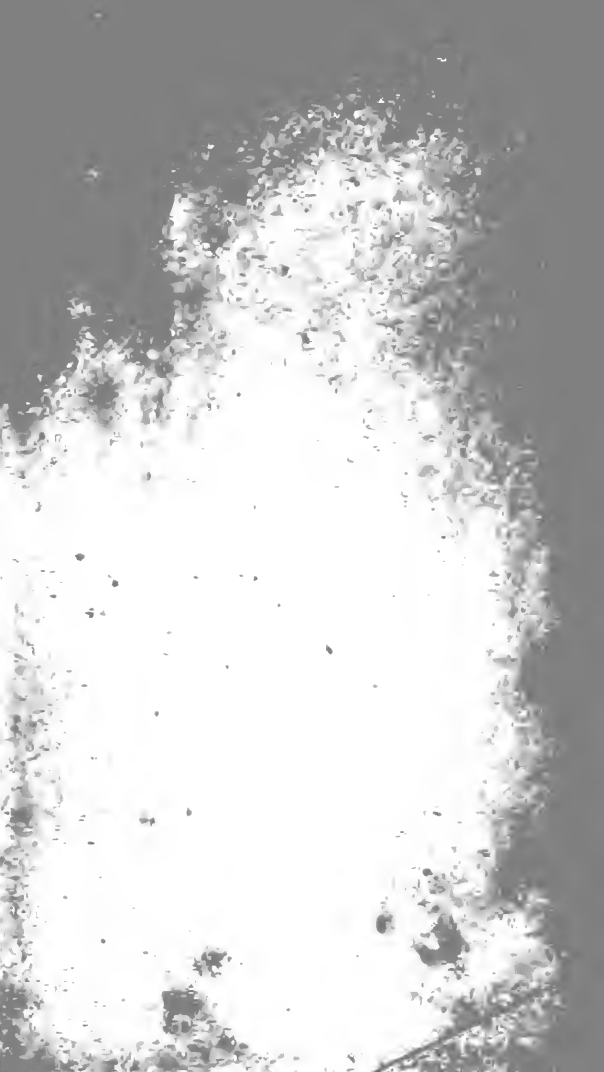
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