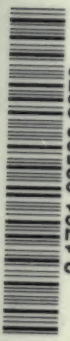


937
B45



3 1761 03530 8378

LAURIE'S
ENSINGTON SERIES

A
SMALLER
HISTORY
OF
ROME
by
E. BERKLEY

THOMAS LAURIE
EDUCATIONAL PUBLISHER

937

L95

R25



Presented to the
 UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO
 LIBRARY

by the
 ONTARIO LEGISLATIVE
 LIBRARY

1980

ic
 s,
 =
 /0
 /3
 /6
 /7.
 =
 /7.
 /7.
 /0
 /2
 /6
 /0
 =
 /7.
 /0
 /4
 /0
 /7.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND ANALYSIS.

Collier's (Dr.) First Lessons in Grammar	6d.
Collier's (Dr.) New Practical English Grammar	1/0
Laurie's Easy English Grammar	2d.
Wilson's First Step to Grammar	4d.
Wilson's Grammatical Primer	1/0
Wilson's Complete English Grammar.....	2/0
Ross's Grammatical Analysis	6d.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ETYMOLOGY.

Campbell's History of the English Language, 9d. ; Enlarged Edition	1/0
Wilson's Historical Introduction and Specimens ...	4d.
Kensington Etymological Exercises.....	6d.
Wilson's Etymology	3d.

COMPOSITION, SPELLING, AND DICTATION.

Laurie's First Steps in Composition.....	6d.
Laurie's Text Book of Composition	1/0
Monfrie's Course of Composition	1/0
Campbell's Spelling and Dictation. 3 Pts., 4d. ; 1 Vol.	1/3

POETRY, ELOCUTION, AND LITERATURE.

Armstrong's Poetical Readings	1/0
Richson's Elements of Elocution	1/6
Gray's Odes, with Notes	6d.
Deserted Village, with Notes.....	2d.
Three Hundred Lines of Poetry, Notes.....	2d.
Armstrong's Compendium of English Literature.....	1/6
Laurie's Selections for Reading and Recitation	1/6
Monfrie's Chaucer, with Notes	2/0
Wilson's Selections, with Notes	2/0
Wilson's Poetical Reader.....	9d.

Laurie's Kensington Series.

ROMAN HISTORY.

**A NEW HISTORY OF ROME FOR
SENIOR CLASSES.**

By **E. BERKLEY**, Author of "Smaller History
of Rome," &c.

Pp. 500. Crown 8vo, with Map, Marginal Notes, &c.
Price 5s.

From Professor **NICHOL**, Glasgow University.

"I most cordially recommend this work as the best existing manual for the use of higher classes in schools and students at the Universities. It presents in a fresh and attractive form the latest results of German scholarship. The want of such a book has long been felt, and it has now been admirably supplied."

From the "Athenæum."

"This new history may be safely adopted as a text-book fully up to the demands and requirements of the time."

From Professor **SELLAR**, Edinburgh University,
Author of "Roman Poets of the Republic."

"... A very valuable and interesting work. I have recommended it to my students. It seems to me especially a work likely to excite interest in the subject among young students."

A SHORTER HISTORY OF ROME.

*From the Earliest Times to the Fall of the
Western Empire.*

By the same Author. Pp. 300. Price 2s.

"Very well done, and likely to be very useful. This is what I expected from the larger history, which is used here with great benefit to the pupils."—Rev. E. H. BRADBY, *Head Master of Haileybury College.*

Thomas Laurie, Publisher, London.

Thomas Laurie, Educational Publisher.

HISTORY OF ROME:

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE
FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE.



BY

E. BERKLEY,

AUTHOR OF "A NEW HISTORY OF ROME FOR SENIOR CLASSES."

NEW EDITION.

A SHORTER HISTORY OF ROME.

*From the Earliest Times to the Fall of the
Western Empire.*

By the same Author. Pp. 300. Price 2s.

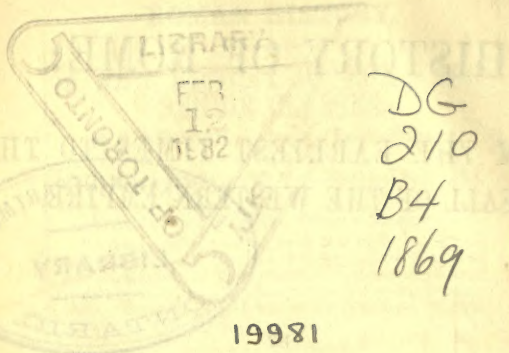
"Very well done, and likely to be very useful. This is what I expected from the larger history, which is used here with great benefit to the pupils."—Rev. E. H. BRADBY, *Head Master of Haileybury College.*

Thomas Laurie, Publisher, London.

THOMAS LAURIE,

12 STATIONERS' HALL COURT, PATERNOSTER ROW, LONDON,
J. MENZIES & Co., EDINBURGH AND GLASGOW.

Thomas Fisher Educational Publishers



DG
210
B4
1869

18681

*Butler & Tanner,
The Selwood Printing Works,
Frome, and London.*



THOMAS FISHER
EDUCATIONAL PUBLISHERS
10, BROADWAY, LONDON, E.C. 4

PREFACE.

THE appearance from time to time of new books for the use of Schools is explained by an urgent necessity arising from the ever-widening researches of modern times. There is no field left unexplored by the spirit of investigation, and Roman History is only one amongst the many subjects on which prolonged and critical labour has been recently bestowed. A "New History of Rome for the Use of Schools and Families," lately published, was based chiefly on the "Römische Geschichte" of Mommsen, and thus endeavoured to "bring the latest results of German research and criticism within the reach of English Schools."

As, however, that work is adapted only for the higher classes of a School, it has been thought necessary to follow it up by a smaller History designed for junior classes, written in the same spirit. It embraces the whole course of Roman History from the foundation of the city to the fall of the Western Empire; the period subsequent to the Antonines being much condensed.

I have given the time-honoured legends of early Rome, prefaced by a few words explanatory of the nature and

meaning of legendary stories ; and have afterwards (Chap. II.) endeavoured to fill up the blank left by the absence of all historic detail concerning the earliest period by a short sketch of what we have reason to suppose was the everyday life of the old Romans.

I have only briefly indicated, and in the simplest language I could use, the leading features of the constitutional changes* and of the political and social development of Roman society. For young readers, the interest of the story must gather round the names of its great characters. The attention of children can hardly be gained to the working of abstract principles, or the succession of political movements ; but there is little doubt that they are able to appreciate the glory and the pathos of the life and death story of a Hannibal, a Cæsar, or an Aurelius.

The book is adapted to the requirements of the Matriculation Examination in London University.

* These subjects are more fully entered into in the larger history.

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.

LEGENDS OF EARLY ROME.

What is a Legend?—The Story of Romulus and Remus.—The Foundation of Rome.—Stories of the Seven Kings of Rome.—Romulus—Numa Pompilius—Tullus Hostilius—Ancus Martius—Tarquinius Priscus—Servius Tullus—Tarquinius Superbus.—Banishment of the Tarquins.—Stories of the Invasion of Porsenna and of the Battle by the Lake Regillus. Pp. 1-16

CHAPTER II.

THE EARLY ROMANS.

The Kings, the Senate, and the Assembly.—A Roman Farmhouse and Fields.—The Roman Family—Customs at Feasts and Funerals. Pp. 16-20

CHAPTER III.

PATRICIANS AND PLEBEIANS.

Consuls chosen to govern Rome.—The Patricians and Plebeians.—Suffering of the Poor.—Tribunes of the People appointed. Pp. 20-24

CHAPTER IV.

WARS WITH THE ÆQUI AND VOLSCL.

Long Wars with the Æqui and Volsci.—Story of Coriolanus belonging to the Volscian Wars.—Story of Cincinnatus belonging to the Wars with the Æqui. Pp. 24-28

CHAPTER V.

THE DECEMVIRS.—STORY OF VIRGINIA.—THE LICINIAN LAWS.

Written Laws wanted at Rome.—Decemvirs appointed.—Laws of the Twelve Tables.—Cruelty of the Decemvirs.—Their Overthrow.—Story of Virginia.—Licinian Law.—Peace at Rome. Pp. 28-32

CHAPTER VI.

WAR WITH THE ETRUSCANS.—DESTRUCTION OF ROME BY THE GAULS.

Invasion of Rome by the Etruscans.—War for Nine Years.—Peace.—Second War.—Story of the Siege of Veii.—The Gauls march on Rome.—The Romans Defeated on the Allia.—Rome taken and Destroyed.—The Capitol Saved.—The Gauls return Home, and Rome is Rebuilt. Pp. 32-38

CHAPTER VII.

THE ITALIAN WARS.

Wars with Neighbouring Nations.—Stories of Manlius and of Valerius.—Curtius leaping into the Gulf.—War with the Samnites.—Disaster of the "Caudine Forks."—Long Wars.—The Italians Defeated at Sentinum.—The Romans Masters of Italy. Pp. 38-42

CHAPTER VIII.

KING PYRRHUS.

Greek Towns in Italy.—Character of the People of Tarentum.—Their Outrage on a Roman Fleet.—Treatment of the Roman Ambassador.—The Tarentines invite Pyrrhus to Italy.—Battle of Heracleia.—The Roman Senate refuses Peace.—Pyrrhus finally Defeated.—His Death. Pp. 42-46

CHAPTER IX.

THE ROMAN PEOPLE AFTER THE DEPARTURE OF KING PYRRHUS.

Growth of the City.—Strength of the People.—Agriculture their Chief Employment.—Peace and Plenty.—Public Works.—Rome supreme in Italy. Pp. 46-49

CHAPTER X.

THE CITY AND PEOPLE OF CARTHAGE.

Carthage a Colony of Tyre.—The Carthaginians' Love of the Sea.—
 Busy Commerce and Love of Money.—Slave Labourers and
 Mercenary Soldiers.—Differences between Carthaginians and
 Romans. Pp. 49-51

CHAPTER XI.

THE FIRST PUNIC WAR.

The Mamertines.—Their Embassy to Rome.—Beginning of the
 First Punic War.—The Romans want a Fleet.—They build
 one.—Naval Victory.—Expedition and Defeat of Regulus.—
 War in Sicily.—Disasters at Sea.—Final Victory of the
 Romans. Pp. 52-57

CHAPTER XII.

BEGINNING OF THE SECOND PUNIC WAR.—HANNIBAL CROSSES
 THE ALPS.

War of the Carthaginian Mercenaries.—Hamilcar and his Sons.—
 Hamilcar's Designs.—Hannibal chosen General in Spain.—He
 determines on War.—Passes the Rhone.—Terrible Sufferings
 and Losses of the Carthaginian Army in Crossing the
 Alps. Pp. 57-64

CHAPTER XIII.

HANNIBAL IN ITALY.

The Romans Defeated on the Ticinus and on the Trebia.—Han-
 nibal Crosses the Apennines.—Battle of Thrasymene.—Fabius
 appointed Dictator.—His cautious Policy.—Paulus and Varro
 command the Roman Army.—Terrible Defeat of the Romans
 at Cannæ.—Fortitude of the Senate. Pp. 65-73

CHAPTER XIV.

SECOND PUNIC WAR.—FROM THE BATTLE OF CANNÆ TO THE END
 OF THE WAR.

Difficulties and Hopes of Hannibal after Cannæ.—His Disappoint-
 ment.—Siege of Capua.—Failure of Hannibal's Attempts to

Relieve the Siege.—Capua taken.—Defeat and Death of the Two Scipios in Spain.—Scipio Popular with the People.—Distress and Suffering in Italy.—Scipio in Spain.—Hasdrubal in Italy.—Battle on the Metaurus.—Invasion of Africa.—Battle of Zama, and End of the War. . . . Pp. 73-83

CHAPTER XV.

WARS IN THE EAST.—DEATH OF HANNIBAL.

The Greeks.—Philip of Macedon.—He Allies himself with Antiochus of Syria.—War of Philip with the Romans.—War of Antiochus with the Romans.—Exile and Death of Hannibal.—War with Perseus.—Battle of Pydna.—War with the Greeks.—Greece becomes the Province of Achaia. . . . Pp. 83-87

CHAPTER XVI.

EXTENT OF THE ROMAN DOMINIONS.—DESTRUCTION OF CARTHAGE.

Growth of the Roman Power.—Roman Provinces.—Ill-will of the Romans towards Carthage.—Masinissa and Carthage.—Injustice of the Romans.—Landing of a Roman Army in Africa.—Siege of Carthage.—Desperate Defence.—Scipio chosen general.—Terrible Sufferings in the City.—Carthage taken and utterly Destroyed. . . . Pp. 88-95

CHAPTER XVII.

STATE OF ROME.—TIBERIUS AND CAIUS GRACCHUS.

Discontent and Suffering.—Slavery.—The Populace of Rome.—Gladiatorial Shows.—Feebleness of the Government.—Misrule in the Provinces.—Tiberius and Caius Gracchus.—Tiberius Tribune.—His Agrarian Law and Death.—Laws of Caius Gracchus.—His Colonies.—He is Murdered in a Tumult.—Affection of the People for the Memory of the Gracchi. Pp. 95-102

CHAPTER XVIII.

SERVILE, JUGURTHINE, AND CIMBRIAN WARS.

Increase of Slavery.—Slave Trade.—Revolt and Wars.—Jugurtha, Prince of Numidia.—Dealings with the Roman Government.—

War and Disgraceful Peace.—Metellus gains a Victory over Jugurtha.—Caius Marius made Consul and General by the People.—He brings the War to an End.—Death of Jugurtha.—Invasion of the Cimbri.—Victories of Marius over the Teutones at Aquæ Sextiæ, and over the Cimbri near Vercellæ.
Pp. 103-110

CHAPTER XIX.

MARIUS.

Triumph of Marius.—Exultation of the People.—Early Life and Poverty of Marius.—Insults of the Nobility.—Marius secretly resolves on Vengeance.—The People supersede Sulla, and appoint Marius to command in the East.—Sulla marches on Rome.—Flight and Adventures of Marius.—His return to Rome.—Terrible Massacres.—Death of Marius. Pp. 110-116

CHAPTER XX.

SULLA.

Character of Sulla.—Mithridates, King of Pontus.—His great Power.—His Edict of Massacre.—Sulla goes to the East.—Takes Athens.—Conquers the Generals of Mithridates, and concludes Peace.—He returns to Italy.—Battle at the Colline Gate.—Sulla supreme at Rome.—The Proscriptions.—Sulla abdicates his Powers.—Death and Funeral.—Change in the Army.—Results of that Change. . . . Pp. 116-124

CHAPTER XXI.

POMPEY, SURNAMED THE GREAT.

Insurrection of Lepidus.—Formidable Insurrection of Sertorius in Spain.—Pompey sent to Spain.—Mithridates and the Pirates.—Close of the Spanish War and Murder of Sertorius.—Insurrection of Spartacus and the Gladiators.—Victories of Lucullus in the East.—Difficulties and recall of Lucullus.—Pompey appointed Commander-in-Chief with unusual Powers.—He crushes the Pirates and defeats Mithridates.—Flight and Death of Mithridates.—Progress and Triumphs of Pompey in the East. . . . Pp. 124-132

CHAPTER XXII.

CATILINE.

Crassus and his Wealth.—Julius Cæsar, his Early Life and Connexions.—Feebleness of the Government and Restlessness of the Public Mind. Conspiracies headed by Catiline.—Opposed and Denounced by Cicero.—His Audacity, Failure, and Flight.—Arrest and Death of Five Conspirators.—Catiline Defeated and Killed in Etruria. Pp. 132-137

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE.—DEATH OF CRASSUS.

Union of Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus.—Cæsar leaves for Gaul.—Anarchy at Rome.—Cato and the Republican Party.—Marriage of Pompey and Julia.—Expedition of Crassus into Parthia.—Miserable Failure, Defeat, and Death.—Clodius and Milo at Rome.—Death of Julia.—Rivalry of Pompey and Cæsar. Pp. 137-145

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE CONQUEST OF GAUL.

Cæsar in Gaul.—Position of the Gauls.—Invasion of the Helvetii.—They are Defeated by Cæsar.—The Germans Defeated.—Terrible Conflict with the Nervii.—Invasion of Britain.—Peril of the Army in Gaul.—Treachery of the Eburones.—Cæsar rescues the Army and devotes the Eburones to Destruction.—Great Insurrection of the Gauls under Vercingetorix.—Siege of Alesia.—Gaul finally Subdued. Pp. 145-154

CHAPTER XXV.

CIVIL WAR BETWEEN POMPEY AND CÆSAR.

Cæsar is recalled—He marches into Italy.—Flight of Pompey and the Senators.—Cæsar in Spain.—He follows Pompey to the East.—Battle of Pharsalia.—Flight and Death of Pompey.—Cæsar in Alexandria.—Ptolemy and Cleopatra.—Battle on the Nile.—Mutiny quelled.—Battle of Thapsus and End of the War.—Death of Cato at Utica. Pp. 154-166

CHAPTER XXVI.

CÆSAR.

Honours and Titles conferred on Cæsar.—His Ideas and Plans.—Discontent and Jealousy.—Conspiracy of Brutus, Cassius, and others.—Murder of Cæsar.—The Consul, Mark Antony.—Funeral of Cæsar and Oration of Antony.—Outbreak of Grief and Indignation.—Flight of the Conspirators. Pp. 167-177

CHAPTER XXVII.

ANTONY, OCTAVIUS, AND LEPIDUS.—THE SECOND TRIUMVIRATE.

Proceedings of Mark Antony.—Octavius, adopted Son and Heir of Cæsar, comes to Rome.—Jealousy of Antony.—Prudence and Policy of Octavius.—Defeat of Antony.—He unites with Octavius and Lepidus.—Proscriptions of the Triumvirate.—Murder of Cicero.—Battles of Philippi.—Defeat and Death of Brutus and of Cassius. . . . Pp. 178-186

CHAPTER XXVIII.

ANTONY AND OCTAVIUS.

Distress in Italy.—Meeting of Antony and Cleopatra.—Antony in Egypt.—Marriage of Antony and Octavia.—Division of the Empire between Antony and Octavius.—Antony in Egypt again.—Disgust of the Roman People.—War between Octavius and Antony.—Battle of Actium.—Death of Antony and of Cleopatra. . . . Pp. 187-197

CHAPTER XXIX.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE EMPIRE.

Supremacy obtained by Octavius.—Peace and Plenty restored.—Cautious Policy of Octavius to secure his Power.—Assumes the name of Augustus.—The Roman Empire.—Habits of the Romans.—Simplicity of the Personal Life of Augustus. Pp. 197-202

CHAPTER XXX.

AUGUSTUS CÆSAR.

Domestic Life of Augustus.—Livia and her Sons Tiberius and Drusus.—Julia, Daughter of Augustus.—Marcellus married to

Julia.—His early Death.—Marriage of Agrippa and Julia.—Character of Tiberius.—His Marriage with Julia.—Wars and Death of Drusus.—Retirement and Gloom of Tiberius.—Conduct of Julia ; her Banishment.—Death of the Grandsons of Augustus.—He adopts Tiberius.—Closing years of Augustus.—Defeat of Varus in Germany.—Death of Augustus.

Pp. 203-212

CHAPTER XXXI.

TIBERIUS CÆSAR.

Scene between Tiberius and the Senate.—Germanicus, Nephew of Tiberius.—His Campaigns in Germany.—His immense Popularity.—Death in the East.—Trial of Piso.—Rise of Sejanus and his ambitious Schemes.—The Law of Treason and the Delators.—Conspiracy of Sejanus.—Murder of Drusus, Son of Tiberius.—Overthrow of Sejanus.—Tiberius at Capreæ.—Sufferings and Death of Agrippina and her Elder Sons.—Caius at Capreæ.—Death of Tiberius. . . . Pp. 212-227

CHAPTER XXXII.

CAIUS CÆSAR (CALIGULA).

Joy at the Accession of Caius.—Character of Caius.—Dissipated Life and Illness.—Madness.—Absurd and Bloodthirsty Freaks.—He claims Divine Worship.—He is Assassinated.

Pp. 227-232

CHAPTER XXXIII.

CLAUDIUS CÆSAR.

Hopes of the Senate.—Claudius made Emperor by the Soldiers.—Early Life of Claudius.—He is Universally neglected.—His habits of Study and Application.—War in Britain.—Carac-tacus.—Messalina and Agrippina.—Fall of Messalina.—In-trigues of Agrippina.—She murders Claudius.—Nero, Son of Agrippina, proclaimed Emperor. . . . Pp. 233-241

CHAPTER XXXIV.

NERO.

Pride and Ambition of Agrippina.—Decline of her Influence.—Murder of Britannicus.—Popularity of Nero at first.—Nero

divorces Octavia and marries Poppœa.—Murder of Octavia.—Cruelty of Nero.—Great Fire at Rome.—Persecution of the Christians.—Nero's Cruelties and Wickedness increase.—He travels to Greece.—Revolts in the Provinces.—Cowardice of Nero, his Flight and miserable Death. . . . Pp. 242-254

CHAPTER XXXV.

GALBA, OTHO, AND VITELLIUS.—THE FLAVIAN EMPERORS: VESPASIAN, TITUS, AND DOMITIAN.

Galba, Otho, Vitellius.—Vespasian elected Emperor.—Civil War between Vespasian and Vitellius.—Character and Reign of Vespasian.—Titus in Judæa.—Siege and Defence of Jerusalem.—Destruction of Jerusalem and the Temple.—Reign of Titus.—His great Popularity.—Accession, Tyranny, and Death of Domitian.—Agricola in Britain. . . . Pp. 254-265

CHAPTER XXXVI.

NERVA, TRAJAN, HADRIAN, ANTONINUS, AURELIUS.

Nerva.—Trajan.—His Military Exploits.—Wise and Firm Government.—Peace of the Empire under Hadrian.—His Prudence, Vigour, and Spirit of Enquiry.—Character of Antoninus Pius.—His tranquil Reign.—Marcus Aurelius.—Noble Character and Love of Study.—Troubles of his Reign.—Pestilence and War.—Death of Aurelius in the Camp on the Danube. Pp. 266-274

CHAPTER XXXVII.

SPREAD OF CHRISTIANITY.—DECLINE AND FALL OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

Long Period of Tranquillity and Happiness.—Inner decay.—Spread of the Christian Faith.—Persecutions under Trajan and Aurelius.—Decline of the Empire begins under Commodus.—Invasion of the Goths.—Disastrous Period.—Recovery of the Empire.—Diocletian and his Policy.—Civil Wars.—Constantine Emperor.—Removes the Seat of Empire to his New City of Constantinople.—Makes Christianity the Nominal Religion of the Empire.—Decline and Extinction of the Western Empire.—Alaric.—Genseric.—Attila.—Odoacer, first Barbarian King of Italy. . . . Pp. 274-293



LEGENDS AND STORIES

OF THE

EARLIEST DAYS OF ROME.



CHAPTER I.

LEGENDS OF EARLY ROME.

WHAT ARE LEGENDS ?

WHEN travellers land in a strange country where the people can neither read nor write, they are sure to find strange stories told amongst them—stories which the people quite believe—about their own past history, how they first came into the country, and what has happened since they came ; and these tales will be chiefly about the wonderful doings and adventures of great chiefs and warriors, mixed up with tales of gods and goddesses.

We cannot tell for certain that any one of these stories is true, and we must see that many of them are about things that never could have happened at all ; but we can always learn something from the stories as to what sort of people they must have been who made them. If they were a great and clever people, the stories will be grand

and interesting ; they will come to be written down, and will be remembered to all time. If they were a stupid and savage people, the stories will be dull and not worth anybody's remembering.

The early Greeks told stories without end about themselves and their past history—tales of their great men, their gods and goddesses, and they sang many beautiful poems about their deeds. In later times they made statues of their gods and heroes, finer than any made before or since, fragments of which remain to the present day ; and they wrote down those old tales in books, some of which we have now. The Romans, whose history you are going to read in this book, were a great people, stronger and more warlike than all others ; but they were not clever, and full of bright and beautiful thoughts and fancies like the Greeks. The early Romans made no poetry ; they had only a few stories to tell, and it was a very long time after they had learned to read and write before they wrote them down in books. What we can chiefly see in these stories is, that the one thought and feeling that filled their minds was, pride in the greatness and glory of their city.

The first thing, then, that we have to do in reading the history of Rome is to learn these stories about its earliest days.

ROMULUS AND REMUS.

Rome was said to have been founded by Romulus, 754 B.C. The father of Romulus, the founder and first king of Rome, was Mars, the great god of war, and his mother was a priestess, Rhea Sylvia. Rhea Sylvia was a princess by birth, for her father, Numitor, had formerly been king of

the city of Alba Longa.* But his younger brother, Amulius, snatched the kingdom from him, murdered his sons, and shut up his only daughter, Rhea Sylvia, as one of the priestesses of the goddess Vesta, whose care it was to keep ever alight the sacred fire upon her altar. When Amulius heard of the birth of Romulus and his twin-brother Remus, he was very angry, and ordered that their mother should be shut up in prison all her life, and that the two little boys should be thrown into the river Tiber. This river flowed deep and strong, and the children could not have escaped death had they been thrown into it. But it so happened that the stream had at this time overflowed its banks, so those who had to execute the cruel orders of the king could not reach the main current, but they left the children exposed in still water under a fig-tree which stood there. Presently the waters went down, but

* The story of the founding of Alba Longa was as follows :—When Æneas, the son of the goddess Aphrodite and of the Trojan Anchises, escaped from Troy after the burning of the city, he landed on the shores of Italy after many hardships and dangers. Here he made friendship with the king, Latinus, and married his daughter, Lavinia : he built a city, and called it Lavinium, after the name of his wife. The spot on which he was to build it was pointed out to him by a white sow with a litter of thirty young ones, for he had been told that a four-footed beast should point out the place. And a voice told him that the thirty young ones meant thirty years that must pass away before his people should move to a better place, for the ground on which Lavinium was built was dry and sandy. Æneas died, and the thirty years passed away. His son, Ascanius, finding that Lavinium was over-crowded, left that city to the government of his mother, and built for himself a new one at the foot of Mount Alba. The city was called Alba Longa—*Alba* from the white sow, and *Longa* because it was extended along the slope of the hill. Here Ascanius reigned, and his successors after him, to the days of Numitor and Amulius.

the children had only escaped drowning to be in danger of a lingering death by hunger, when a she-wolf, coming down to drink, heard their cries, came up to them, and taking pity on them, carried them to her cave ; there she suckled them and caressed them, gently licking them with her tongue, and a woodpecker came backwards and forwards to the cave to bring them food. At last the king's shepherd, Faustulus, came by, and wondered at the strange sight ; pitying the forsaken children, he took them up in his arms and carried them home to his wife, Laurentia, to nurse. Faustulus had heard of the king's command, and could not help wondering if the boys he had saved were the young princes, but he said nothing about it to any one. As the children grew up, he found more and more reason for thinking it might be so, for they were of noble and valiant nature. They would not follow the mean and laborious life of a shepherd, watching over and feeding the silly sheep, but they roamed about the forests, attacking and slaying the wild beasts that lived there, and when robbers passed that way with their booty, these youths would destroy them and divide the spoil amongst the shepherds. A company of the bravest youths gradually gathered around them, and took them for their leaders.

At last there came a day when some of the robbers of that country took Remus prisoner on a feast-day, and brought him before Numitor on the charge of having plundered his lands. Remus told Numitor how he and his twin-brother had been preserved, and when the old man heard it, and observed the princely bearing of the youth, he could not but remember his lost grandchildren. Faustulus now came forward and told all he knew, and the secret suspicions he had always had. Numitor then

acknowledged the young men as his grandchildren, and soon afterwards they contrived to kill the king, Amulius; then they restored their grandfather to his throne again, to the joy of the whole country.

Romulus and Remus loved the spot where they had been brought up on the banks of the Tiber, and as they were desirous to become the founders of a new and mighty city, they chose that spot on which to build it. But each of them wished to have the honour of naming and of governing the city when it should be built. As they could not decide the question, they determined to look for some sign of the will of the god of that place. The brothers both watched, and presently Remus saw six vultures, but Romulus soon afterwards saw twelve. Upon this they were both saluted as kings, each one by his own followers, and they were as far from agreeing as ever. Whilst they were disputing, Remus in scorn jumped over the little wall that Romulus had built, and was instantly killed by his brother, who said, "Thus may every one perish who shall dare to leap over my fortifications."

ROMULUS, FIRST KING OF ROME.

Romulus named the new city Rome, and became its king. He opened the city to all comers, and men flocked into it from every part. But there were no women in Rome, and none of the people round would give their daughters in marriage to the Romans, so greatly did they despise them. King Romulus then proclaimed a solemn feast in honour of the god Neptune, and although his people were poor, they made the shows as splendid as they could. Notice was given in all the surrounding countries, and strangers were invited to be present.

When the time appointed came, there was a great gathering from the tribes around, and Rome was filled with foreigners, who wondered greatly when they saw how the city had prospered and increased. The Sabine people were there with their wives, their sons and their daughters, and the Romans entertained them hospitably and did them much honour. Whilst the shows were going forward, and the spectators suspected no evil, a signal was given, and immediately the Roman youths rushed upon them and carried off the maidens from amongst them to be their wives. The feast broke up in haste and disorder, and the parents and friends of those who had been carried off returned home angry and bewildered, bitterly reproaching their treacherous entertainers.

The women themselves were soon pacified by the gentle words and promises of the king, and by the kindness of their husbands. But the Sabines and the neighbouring tribes gathered together against the Romans to avenge the wrong that had been done them.

The Sabines laid siege to the citadel, which was under the command of one Spurius Tarpeius; and his daughter, the fair Tarpeia, when she saw the golden bracelets and the costly rings that the Sabines wore upon their left arms, promised to betray the citadel to them if they would give her "that which they carried on the left arm." But after they had gained entrance they threw upon her their heavy shields, and thus the traitress died by treachery.

The battle was renewed next day, and the Romans were everywhere giving way, when Romulus cried to Jupiter for aid, praying him to stay this disgraceful flight, and promising to build a temple in his honour. Then he called out to his people, "O Romans! Jupiter commands you

to stand still and to renew the battle." As if they had heard a voice from heaven, they obeyed the king, and the fight once more began in the plain below. Then the Sabine women, overcoming their natural fears, rushed in between the armies, with dishevelled hair and torn garments; they begged the angry soldiers on both sides to stay their fury, for, said they, "the battle must leave us either widows or orphans." Silence fell upon the armies, and the Romans and Sabines agreed upon a peace; and not only so, but the two nations were henceforth joined in one, and the two kings were to reign together over them, Rome being the seat of government. Not long after, the Sabine king, Tatius, died, and Romulus reigned alone over the united people.

Romulus conquered the enemies of Rome on every side, and he gave laws to his people. He chose two hundred of the chief men to form the Senate, who were to be the advisers of the king. The rich and the great did not like his government, because he favoured the poor; but the common people honoured him, and the soldiers loved him greatly. He reigned gloriously for seven and thirty years. Then one day as he was holding an assembly of the people, there came a violent storm of thunder and rain, and the rain fell so thickly that it hid the king from the sight of the people. When the storm had passed away he was not there, nor was he ever again seen upon earth. Then the people honoured him as a god—as the son of Mars, the father and the king of Rome. Not long after a man named Julius Proculus came before the people and said, "Romulus has appeared to me from heaven in more than mortal glory, and he bade me go and tell the Romans that it was the will of the gods that his city of Rome should

become the chief city of the whole world, and that the Roman people should therefore learn to be strong in war, so that none might be able to resist them. And having said this he ascended up to heaven again." Ever afterwards Romulus was worshipped under the name of the god Quirinus.

NUMA POMPILIUS, SECOND KING OF ROME.

After the death of Romulus the Senate kept the government in their own hands. They divided themselves into tens, and each ten possessed the power in turn. But the people began to murmur, and said that now they had a hundred sovereigns instead of one. Numa Pompilius was then chosen king. He was a Sabine—a man of pure and gentle nature, wise, learned, and fearing the gods, nor would he consent to reign until he had found that it was the will of the gods.

Numa loved peace, and he built the Temple of Janus, which was to stand open in times of war, and be closed in times of peace. Then he shut the doors, and all through his reign the land had rest, and the people were at peace with their neighbours. This king directed his people how to worship the gods; he appointed the order of the sacrifices and the priests who were to offer them. It was not by his own wisdom that he was guided in all he did. There was a sacred grove near the city, through which there ran a stream of water which came forth from a dark grotto. Here he met the nymph Egeria, who taught him the secret lessons of wisdom, and showed him how men on earth ought to worship the gods above. And she so loved the good and gentle Numa that she took him for her husband. The Roman people enjoyed peace and plenty, and the fear of the

gods prevailed amongst them until Numa died, by gentle decay, at the age of eighty, having reigned for forty years.

TULLUS HOSTILIUS, THIRD KING OF ROME.

Then the people made Tullus Hostilius their king; he was brave, and loved war rather than peace. In his reign there was war with the people of Alba; but when the armies met it was agreed that the quarrel should be settled without a battle. A few men were to be chosen on each side to fight together, and the fate of the Romans and the Albans was to be decided by the result. It happened that in the Roman camp there were three brothers called the Horatii, and in the Alban camp there were three called the Curiatii; and they were chosen and consented to fight. Both armies looked on with breathless anxiety to see how the battle would end. The Curiatii each received wounds, but two of the Horatii were killed. Then the Albans shouted for joy, but the Romans were filled with a great fear. But Horatius, the last of the three Roman brothers, was unhurt, and he retreated before his enemies, knowing that they would follow with different speed because of their wounds. Then he turned suddenly round, and seeing them each at a great distance from the other, he furiously attacked him who was the nearest, and killed him, then running to meet the others, he encountered them singly and slew them both. Thus the Albans became subject to the people of Rome.

Not long after, the Albans behaved deceitfully to the Romans, and did not keep their promise to aid them in battle, so King Tullus commanded that the city of Alba should be destroyed, and the people removed to Rome. So the Roman soldiers destroyed the city, its houses and

its temples, amidst the tears and cries of the people. Then all the Albans were taken to Rome, and they became one people with the Romans.

Thus the city of Rome flourished greatly, and the number of the people was doubled. But a pestilence broke out amongst them, and the king himself fell sick. For the gods were angry because Tullus Hostilius had neglected their worship, and had thought it beneath the greatness of a king to care about religious ceremonies. Now he was afraid and wished to make peace with the gods; and he tried to inquire of Jupiter in the way that Numa had done. But Jupiter was angry, and would not hear him, but destroyed him and his house by lightning. This happened after Tullus had reigned thirty-two years.

ANCUS MARTIUS, FOURTH KING OF ROME.

The Romans now desired to have a king who should follow the example of Numa, so they chose his grandson, Ancus Martius. He restored the laws of Numa about religion, which had been forgotten, and had them written out and hung up where all the people might see them. But Ancus was ready for war, and when the Latins invaded the country, he drove them back and conquered them. During his reign, there came a foreigner to Rome, who took the name of Lucius Tarquinius Priscus. When he first entered the gates an eagle came and took off his cap, then after flying about the chariot, with a great noise, he placed it upon his head again. Then his wife, Tanaquil, told him that this was a sign that he should rise to the highest honours. Tarquinius was very rich, and he was often at the court of Ancus, and the king honoured him so greatly that he named him in his will to be the guar-

dian of his children after his death. Ancus Martius died after reigning twenty-four years.

TARQUINIUS PRISCUS. FIFTH KING OF ROME.

The sons of Ancus were not quite fourteen years old when he died. So Tarquinius Priscus persuaded the people to choose him for their king, and he reigned for thirty-eight years. He made many wars and prospered greatly. He also enlarged the city of Rome, and adorned it with many great buildings.

In the palace of Tarquinius there was a young man who was brought up as a servant, but he was in great favour with the king. His name was Servius Tullus. When he was a boy his head was seen one day surrounded by flames whilst he was asleep, and the queen, Tanaquil, would not allow water to be brought to put it out. When the boy woke the flame was gone, and the queen said that it was a sign that Servius was to be a light and a guide to them all. The king gave him his own daughter in marriage, and it was said that he intended him to be king after him. When the sons of Ancus, who had fled from the country, heard this, they were very angry, and they hired men to try and kill Tarquinius. They were to pretend that they had a dispute which the king must settle. Tarquinius sent for them, and whilst one of them was telling his story, the other struck the king on the head with a hatchet. Tanaquil managed to keep the king's death a secret for some days, and she said that he had appointed Servius Tullus to rule till he should be well again. So he ruled for a time, and when it was known that Tarquinius was dead, the sons of Ancus could not prevent the Senate from choosing Servius Tullus to be their king.

SERVIUS TULLUS, SIXTH KING OF ROME.

Servius Tullus reigned for forty-four years. He was good and just, and the people loved him more than any of their kings, for he cared for the poor and would not let the rich men do them wrong. Servius had two daughters, and he gave them in marriage to the two sons of the last king. His elder daughter was good and gentle, but Lucius, whom she married, was very wicked ; his younger daughter was proud and bad by nature, but her husband, Aruns, was good and meek. It ended in the wicked daughter agreeing with Lucius that he should secretly kill his good wife, and she would secretly kill her good husband ; and when they had done this they were married to one another.

Then this wicked woman, whose name was Tullia, stirred up her husband to make himself king ; and one day Servius Tullus, who was very old, found that Lucius had seated himself on his throne, and Lucius declared that he had more right to sit upon it than the king had. Then he threw the old man down the steps, and as he was fleeing away nearly dead with fear, he was overtaken by some men whom Lucius Tarquinius had sent after him, and killed. Then Tullia mounted her chariot and drove to the Senate-house, and hailed her husband as king. But he told her to leave that place, where there was a very great crowd, and to drive home. On her way the driver stopped the horses in great terror, for there was the body of the old king, her father, lying in the street before him. But Tullia bade him drive on, and the wheels of her chariot passed over the dead body of her father. Thus Lucius Tarquinius gained the crown.

LUCIUS TARQUINIUS THE PROUD, SEVENTH AND LAST KING
OF ROME.

Lucius Tarquinius was called Superbus or the Proud, for he desired to rule everything by his own will, and he cared nothing for the laws and customs of Rome. He never asked the advice of the Senate, but did exactly as he pleased ; and because he knew that he was hated, he kept a guard of soldiers always about him. For twenty-five years Tarquinius reigned ; he was a great and powerful king, and when he went out to war he subdued his enemies. He made great buildings in Rome ; but whilst the city grew more grand and beautiful, the poor people murmured, for they were forced to do all the work for the king. But the king cared nothing at all for the poor and their complaints, and he took away all the laws that the good King Servius had made for the sake of the poor. Yet the rich people and the great men hated Tarquin as much as the poor hated him, for they could not endure his pride, and his cruelty was such that no man was sure of his life.

When the cruelties and oppression of Tarquin and his sons could no longer be borne, the spirit of the Roman people rose up against him. There was a nephew of the king's named Brutus, who had pretended to be dull and stupid that the king might take no notice of him ; and it was he who stirred up the Romans against the tyrant. After he had set before them all the wrongs and the evils that Tarquin and his sons and his wicked wife Tullia had done, they all declared that he should no longer be king, and they banished him and his family from Rome for ever. Then Brutus persuaded the people to take a

solemn oath that they would never again let kings reign over them.

Soon after this, the sons of Brutus himself were found guilty of taking part in a plot to bring Tarquin back again to Rome. The young men were brought before Brutus, who was sitting on the judgment-seat. And they, together with those who had joined with them, were put to death by the command of their father, for he would show no favour to his own children when they had so greatly offended against their country.

INVASION OF PORSENNA.

King Tarquin went to the nations around, and begged them to aid him in getting back his kingdom. The Etruscans were the most powerful of all the neighbouring people, and Lars Porsenna, their king, promised to help Tarquin, and he raised a great army to march against Rome. Then the Senate and the people were in great fear, but Rome was saved that day by the courage of one man. As the Etruscans were on the point of crossing the bridge over the Tiber, Horatius Cocles stood firm and kept them back whilst the Romans who had fled were busy destroying the bridge. As the crash of the last beams were heard, Horatius leapt into the river, and, in spite of all the darts of the enemy, he got safely over to the other side.

Then Porsenna besieged the city, and food began to be scarce, when a young man named Mucius resolved to go and slay the king of the Etruscans and save Rome. He went into the enemy's camp, but he mistook the king's secretary for the king himself, for he was splendidly dressed, and killed him instead of the king. Then the

soldiers gathered round him and took him prisoner, and threatened him with the most cruel torments. But Mucius said, "I can bear death myself as well as I can slay another ;" and then, to show how little he cared for pain, he thrust his hand into a fire that was burning there, and held it in the flame until it was consumed. King Porsenna so admired his courage that he sent him home in safety. Mucius told the king that there were three hundred Roman youths ready to do as he had done. Then Porsenna was afraid, and made peace with the Romans.

BATTLE OF LAKE REGILLUS.

After this there was a war between the Romans and the Latins, and the armies met by the Lake Regillus. And in the Latin army was King Tarquin, who was now a very old man, but he fought bravely until he was wounded and carried off the field. But the sons of Tarquin and their friends rode fiercely into the battle, and the Romans began to be afraid. In the midst of the hottest battle the Roman general saw two horsemen riding on horses white as snow, and they seemed to be taller and fairer than men. These two warriors rode on in front of the Romans, and the enemy could no longer stand, but fled away ; and the Romans pursued them, and took their camp. But the horsemen were nowhere to be seen, only on the hard rock there was the mark of a horse's hoof. But that evening, when the people of Rome were watching and longing to know how the battle had ended, two white horses, whose riders were taller and fairer than men, rode into the city, and the horses were covered with foam. The horsemen went down to a deep pool of water, and gave their horses drink, and when the people crowded

round to learn the news, they told all that had happened. Then they rode away, and no man ever saw them any more. So the Romans knew that the "great twin-brethren," the gods Castor and Pollux, had heard the prayer which the Roman general had made to them, and had fought for Rome that day. And the general built a temple in their honour, and offered rich and costly offerings.

QUESTIONS.—What sort of tales are legends? What do legends show us? When was Rome said to have been founded? Who was its founder? What was his early history? What was the end of Remus? How did the Romans procure wives? Relate the story of Tarpeia. How was the dispute between the Romans and Sabines ended? What was the end of Romulus? What was the character of Numa? How was he inspired? Relate the story of the Horatii and Curiatii. What was the end of Tullus Hostilius? Who came to Rome during the reign of Ancus Martius? What did he become? What is the early history of Servius Tullus? What kind of reign was his? Relate the story of Tullia. What was the character of Tarquinius Superbus? What happened to him? Who was Brutus, and what is told of his sons? How did Horatius Cocles distinguish himself? What is the story of Mucius? How was the battle of Lake Regillus gained?

CHAPTER II.

THE EARLY ROMANS.

THE KINGS.

THE SENATE.

THE ASSEMBLY.

CITY OF ROME.

A ROMAN FARM-HOUSE.

FARMYARD AND FIELDS.

A ROMAN FAMILY.

ROMAN BOYS.

FEASTS.

THE GREAT FEAST AT ROME.

COUNTRY FEASTS.

MUSIC AND SINGING.

ROMAN FUNERALS.

THERE is very little real history of the early days of Rome. The stories you have been reading are not the history of things that really happened. One thing is certain, that during those early times the Romans must

have fought many battles, and kept gaining more power. Alba had been the chief and centre of the Latin tribes, but Rome came to take the place of Alba, and to be the head of all Latium.

As to the condition of the Romans at home, for a long time they were governed by kings. The king of Rome had great power; no one might dispute his word. In times of war he commanded the army; in times of peace he was the judge of the people. He sat on an ivory throne, holding an ivory sceptre in his hand, and was attended by twenty-four men called lictors, who carried axes bound up in rods. Then there was a Senate, that is, about two hundred of the oldest and wisest men, that the king used to call together to ask for their advice. And when there was anything very important to be decided, the king would call all the people together, and ask them what they thought. This meeting was called the Assembly of the People.

The laws of Rome were very strict, and every one was obliged to obey them. Every Roman citizen was absolutely equal in the eye of the law. All wore the same dress, called the toga, made of white woollen stuff, and nobody, excepting the king, ever rode in any sort of carriage. In the city of Rome there was a good deal of business done, and ships sailed out of the Tiber to trade with other nations. Rome was built upon hills on the banks of the Tiber; these hills were not high, but their sides were steep and rocky; here and there they were covered with wood. A great deal of the country round was flat and marshy, and this was one reason why people liked to come and live on the hills where the air was better and healthier. In those days the famous city must have

looked like a large scattered village, as the houses were built of wood, and thatched with straw. But the Romans did not generally live in town; they came there for business or for change of air, but their home was in the country. Some of them were rich, and had large estates, with a great many servants and slaves; but most of the Romans of those days had only small farms, perhaps of about twenty acres. Let us suppose we are going to see one of them.

You would find the house of wood, thatched with straw, and on going in you would come into a large square room, with only one opening in the roof to let the light in and the smoke out, and a hole in the ground for the rain. This would be the whole of the house, though sometimes there might be small sleeping-rooms and store-rooms opening out of it. In this room all the business of the house goes on—the baking and cooking, and the eating of the meals; here the women of the family, mother, daughters, maids, sit and spin at their wheels—here visitors are received. It is not at all likely that you would see pictures, books, or music, unless it were a simple flute, but you would be sure to see the images of the gods of the family; before them simple offerings are set every day, and that fire always burning on the hearth is in their honour. You will see no ornaments of gold—no silver plate—no gay dresses—no idle hands. The women are busy in the house-work and the spinning; the master and his sons are hard at work in the fields. He has no slaves, but perhaps now and then a few labourers. If you now leave the house you will pass through the farm-yard, where you will see pigs and poultry, especially geese. The sheep and cows are not here—they are out grazing on the common, which belongs to the people. The farm land is carefully and diligently

ploughed, and no pains is spared; oxen are used to plough; corn and vegetables are grown, and very likely a few vines.

You will find, if you stay longer, that every Roman is like a king in his own house, and that his wife and children are like slaves; they belong to him as much as his sheep or his cows, and he may do anything he pleases, even put them to death, and he cannot be punished. And you may very likely find that the children have learned to read and to write, and to know the laws of their country. A Roman boy went with his father everywhere—helped him to plough, sow, and reap, went with him to his friends' houses to banquets, and sat by his side in the Senate-house. When he grew up he too would have to take part in the public business, to go to the Assembly of the People, and give his vote, and when war came he must be ready, as every Roman was, to go out to battle if called upon, for there were no paid soldiers.

Every eighth day was a market-day, and the Romans left their farms and met for business; exchange and buying and selling went on. The only money used was copper, and that paid by weight, not coined. Then there were feast-days, when all rested from work—masters, servants, and cattle. At the country feasts there was dancing and play, and sometimes singing, with plenty of rude jokes made by the country people at each other.

The great festival of the year was held at Rome itself in September. At this festival there was a grand procession, headed by all the boys of Rome on foot or horseback, according to their rank in the militia; then followed the competitors, the dancers, the priests, and lastly the images of the gods carried on litters. Races, games, wrestling,

and boxing-matches took place, and a simple wreath rewarded the victor.

The Roman citizen was too grave and serious to practise music or singing himself ; it was left almost entirely to the women and boys. It was the custom for boys to go with their fathers to banquets, where they sang in turn, either alone or accompanied by the flute, the praises of their forefathers, the heroes of old. When a Roman died, funeral songs to the accompaniment of the flute were sung by women, not sad and melancholy dirges, but records of the worthy deeds of the departed citizen, to excite the younger citizens to follow in his steps. No costly monument was erected over his grave, it was generally covered only by the green grass.

QUESTIONS.—Of what city did Rome take the place? What was the power of the early Roman kings? What was the Senate? What other power was there in the city? What was the manner of life amongst the Romans? Describe a Roman farm. What was the condition of a Roman family? What was the life of a Roman boy? Describe the Roman festivals. How was a Roman buried?

CHAPTER III.

PATRICIANS AND PLEBEIANS.

<p>CHANGE IN THE GOVERNMENT OF ROME.</p> <p>CONSULS.</p> <p>THE PATRICIANS.</p> <p>THE PLEBEIANS.</p>	<p>HOW THE PATRICIANS TREATED THE PLEBEIANS.</p> <p>SUFFERINGS OF THE POOR.</p> <p>HOW THE TRIBUNES OF THE PEOPLE WERE APPOINTED.</p>
---	---

You have read the story of King Tarquin the Proud, and how the Romans resolved that kings should never again reign over them. This was a great change, that

really happened in the year 510 B.C. The last king had offended the rich and the powerful, and had oppressed and ill-used the poor; for now there began to be many rich men in Rome, and others became very poor. So all united to banish the king, and from this time the people chose every year two magistrates to govern them called "consuls." They were judges as the kings had been, but their power was not so great, for they could not condemn any man to death, so that their lictors carried only the rods—no axes.

I have told you of the early Romans—how each was looked upon as equal to the other—how each was like a king in his house—how each alike could vote in the Assembly of the People. These early Romans were called *Patricians* or fathers. But as time passed on numbers of other people came to settle in the country. A great many were people who had come from other lands to live in Rome, or else persons who had once been slaves but had been set free by their masters. These freedmen and strangers used to join themselves to the family of some patrician; he was then called their *patron*, and they were called his *clients*.

He protected them and they obeyed him. He gave them small pieces of his lands to cultivate, or else they settled in Rome itself and did business there, buying and selling. Besides, the Romans had conquered the nations round, so that there were many thousands of people living under the laws of Rome, but yet not Roman citizens or patricians. All these people together, the strangers, the freedmen, the conquered nations, were called *Plebeians*. A law was passed during the reign of one of the kings, by which they were all obliged to be ready to go out to war when called upon, as the patricians were. So they had to bear

their share in the burdens of the country, yet they were treated as though they belonged to a lower race. They were strictly forbidden to intermarry with the patricians, and no plebeian could be chosen a consul or a magistrate of any kind.

As time passed on many Romans became rich and others very poor. The later kings of Rome had made many magnificent buildings, and had forced the poor to work in the building of them as if they were slaves, which caused much hardship and discontent. And after the kings were expelled, there came times of great distress. The Romans lost a great part of the lands they had won, and there was much hard fighting to keep what was left them. The distress amongst the poor increased; they had to leave their houses and their little farms to go and serve in the wars; they had to fight without wages, and they could not afford to pay any one to look after their farms whilst they were away. The rich, who turned out hundreds and hundreds of cattle to feed on the large commons, would not allow the poor to turn out the one or two cows and sheep that belonged to them, so that the poor and their cattle were in danger of being starved for want of food. Then if a poor man borrowed money he was in another danger; for if he could not pay it back, the law of Rome said that he might be taken for a slave by the man who had lent him the money; so the poor people got poorer and poorer, and the rich men willingly lent them money, and when they could not pay, they seized them for slaves, and made them work for nothing, often treating them with the greatest cruelty. There was no one to help them, for the consuls who decided every case were never chosen from amongst the people, and always favoured the patricians.

At length the people could endure their wrongs no longer. The story is, that in the year 495 B.C. soldiers were needed for a dangerous war. The people at that time were suffering the utmost hardships. They refused to enlist. The consul appeased them by releasing those who were in slavery, and promised that no more debtors should be sold for debt. The people then went out to the war, and a victory was gained. They returned home, and found the old laws still at work, and those who had been set free were shut up in their dungeons again.

When the people were called out to serve the next year, they once again refused, and this time they put no faith in the consul's promises. A dictator was appointed, M. Valerius ; he was a man greatly respected and trusted by the people, and they agreed to serve under him. Again they returned home victorious, and Valerius tried to persuade the Senate to make some reform, but they would not listen to him. The army was still outside the gates ; when they heard that their old fate was waiting for them again, they retreated in a body to a hill three miles from Rome, and declared that they would found another city there, unless they could be assured that the future should be different from the past. The Senate were obliged to give way, and it was agreed that the people should thenceforth have magistrates of their own to see that they were fairly treated. These magistrates were to be chosen every year ; they were to live in the city, and their doors were to be open day and night. They were to hear all complaints, and if they thought the consuls had done any thing unjust, they could alter it. If any one touched or hurt them he was to be put to death ; and they had power to call any one, even a consul, to account for what he had

done. The plebeians then returned to the city, and the new magistrates were chosen; they were called the *Tribunes of the People*.

QUESTIONS.—What change took place in the government? Who were the patricians? The plebeians? How did the patricians treat the plebeians? What were the chief hardships of the poor? On what occasion were the tribunes of the people first chosen? What was their office?

CHAPTER IV.

WARS WITH THE ÆQUI AND VOLSCI—STORIES OF CORIOLANUS AND OF CINCINNATUS.

LONG WARS WITH THE ÆQUI AND
VOLSCI.
STORY OF CORIOLANUS.
HIS BRAVERY.
HIS PRIDE.
HE IS HATED BY THE PEOPLE AND
BANISHED.
HE JOINS THE VOLSCI AND MARCHES
ON ROME.

ROME IS SAVED BY THE PRAYERS OF
HIS MOTHER AND HIS WIFE.
STORY OF CINCINNATUS.
DANGER OF A ROMAN ARMY SUR-
ROUNDED BY THE ÆQUI.
WHILST CINCINNATUS IS WORKING IN
HIS FARM, HE IS MADE DICTATOR.
HE SAVES THE ARMY FROM DESTRUC-
TION.

AFTER the battle of Lake Regillus there was peace between the Latins and the Romans, and they made friendship together, and promised that they would help each other against their enemies. The enemies that they most feared were the Volsci and the Æqui. These two nations conquered a great many towns belonging to the Latins, and once the Volsci were only twelve miles off from the city of Rome itself. For about a hundred years from the time of the first consuls, hardly a year passed by without some fighting against them. But they grew gradually weaker and weaker, and the Romans grew stronger and

stronger, and in the end both these nations were conquered by the Romans.

I must now tell you two well-known stories that the Romans told about these wars—and first we have the

STORY OF CORIOLANUS.

Some time* after the tribunes of the people had been appointed, the Volsci were very dangerous to Rome. They plundered the country, and the country people fled for refuge into Rome. Then there was a want of food in the city, and soon after a terrible sickness broke out and carried off great numbers. And there were other troubles at Rome, for the patricians and plebeians went on disputing and quarrelling. Caius Marcius, who was afterwards called Coriolanus, was a patrician; he was very brave and warlike, but so proud and haughty that the people hated him, and he hated and despised the people. By his valour and bravery he took the city of Corioli from the Volsci, and was thence surnamed Coriolanus. There was great want of food in Rome about this time, and there came into the city a present of corn from Sicily; then the senators said that this corn should be sold cheap to the poor, lest they should die of hunger. But Coriolanus said that they ought not to be allowed to have any of the corn unless they would agree to give up their tribunes, at which the people were in so great a rage that they were ready to tear him in pieces: and the tribunes promised that he should be accused and tried; then Coriolanus went away from Rome and lived amongst the Volsci.

Now the Volsci made war again upon the Romans, and their king, Attius Tullius, commanded them, and with him

* The traditional date assigned to Coriolanus is 491.

was C. Marcius Coriolanus, the Roman. The army marched on and took many towns, and at last the Volsci encamped near the city of Rome, and messengers came from the Senate to ask for peace, but Caius would not hear them.

Now the mother of Coriolanus was named Vetruria, and he had ever greatly loved and honoured her. When the city of Rome was filled with disappointment and fear, this noble lady, together with Volumnia, the wife of Coriolanus, and other Roman ladies, went together to the Volscian camp, and when Coriolanus saw his mother, he ran to meet her and kiss her. But she said, "Let me first know if thou art an enemy or a son." And she lamented the fate of her country, and said, "If I had never had a son, Rome would not now have been besieged." Then his wife and children came up and kissed him, and all the Roman ladies wept and bewailed their country and themselves, until the heart of Coriolanus was touched, and he said to his mother, "O my mother, thou hast gained a victory for Rome, but thou hast brought ruin upon thy son." Then Coriolanus led the army away from Rome, and some say that the Volsci were so displeased that they put him to death, but others relate that he lived amongst them till he was very old, and that he was heard to say that it was only an old man who could know all the bitterness of banishment.

There is another famous story belonging to the wars with the Æqui; this is the

STORY OF CINCINNATUS.

During a war with the Æqui, news came to Rome that the Roman army had been enclosed by the enemy in a valley from which they could not get out. In this distress

the Romans could think of no one who could help them but Lucius Quinctius, who was surnamed Cincinnatus, or the "Crisp-haired," and it was resolved to appoint him dictator; for it was the custom of the Romans in times of great danger to appoint some man in whom they trusted to govern for six months, with as great powers as those which the kings used to have, and this man was called the dictator, or master of the people.

Now Cincinnatus lived on the other side of the Tiber, on a little farm of four acres, which he cultivated with his own hands, and when the messengers arrived, they found him digging with his spade in his ground. They told him that they brought a message from the Senate, at which he was alarmed, and asked if evil had happened to the state. Then he bade his wife, Racilia, bring his cloak or toga, and he put it on and received the message of the Senate which appointed him dictator.

Cincinnatus went immediately to Rome, and next day he ordered every citizen to meet in the Field of Mars before the sun went down, bringing provisions for five days and twelve stakes each. And when they had all met together they set forth. Before midnight they reached Algidum, where the Roman army was besieged. Then the dictator ordered his men to surround the enemy, and each soldier was directed to dig a ditch and set up his stakes. Then the men gave a great shout, and when the Roman army that was shut up heard it, they rejoiced that help had come, and they attacked the enemy from the inside, whilst the soldiers of Cincinnatus went on with their work. When the day broke the Æqui saw that they were shut in between two armies. So they laid down their arms and begged for peace, and Cincinnatus suffered them to

depart, only he made them pass under the yoke,* and they returned home with great dishonour.

QUESTIONS.—What two nations were for a long time enemies of Rome? Why was Coriolanus hated? What vengeance did he purpose to take? How did the Romans escape? What was a dictator? When was Cincinnatus made dictator? What service did he render to his country?

CHAPTER V.

THE DECENVIRS—STORY OF VIRGINIA—THE LICINIAN LAWS.

DISPUTES AT ROME.

WRITTEN LAWS ARE WANTED.

TEN MEN APPOINTED TO DRAW THEM UP.

LAW OF THE TWELVE TABLES

CRUELTY AND OPPRESSION OF THE
DECENVIRS.

STORY OF APPIUS CLAUDIUS AND
VIRGINIA.

END OF THE DECENVIRS.

NEW LAWS MADE.

PEACE AT ROME.

AFTER the tribunes of the people were appointed, the plebeians felt themselves much stronger than before. But there was no peace or quiet in Rome. The consuls were always patricians, and on the side of the patricians; as they were the judges, they passed what sentence they pleased, and their sentences were often unjust and cruel. But then the tribunes could come in and prevent any sentence from being carried out, or they could even accuse the consul for what he had done. And the feeling in the city was so strong and so bitter, that there were quarrels and fights in the streets between those who belonged to the different sides. The young patricians were the most

* Passing under the yoke was a mark of the deepest disgrace. It was made of three spears, two stuck in the ground and one across, and each man had to pass under it disarmed.

cruel, and sometimes went so far as to bring about the murder of a man who had distinguished himself on the side of the plebeians.

Many people in Rome thought that the chief cause of all these disturbances was, that the consuls decided the cases that came before them according to their own pleasure, and not by any fixed rule. If laws were carefully drawn up and written down, and the consuls were obliged to decide by these laws, the people would, it was said, have little reason to complain. So at last it was determined, in 454, to appoint decemvirs, (that is, *ten men*) to draw up laws for the government of Rome; and men were sent to Greece to bring home copies of the Grecian laws to help in the work of law-making. The decemvirs finished their task in two years, and the laws were written on twelve tables of copper, and hung up in a public place in Rome, 450. They were called the "Law of the Twelve Tables," and were ever after the written law of Rome.

Whilst the decemvirs were thus occupied, no consuls and no tribunes were chosen, but when their work was finished, they were expected to give up their office and let the usual magistrates be chosen. But this they refused to do, and continued in power. They ruled with such tyranny and cruelty that the city was filled with indignation, but the people now had no tribunes to protect them. At last they resolved to bear it no longer, and as they had done once before, they left the city, and refused to return until the decemvirs were thrown into prison, and tribunes were chosen again.

There is a story which tells how the end of the decemvirs' power was supposed to have come about; it is the

STORY OF APPIUS CLAUDIUS AND VIRGINIA.

Appius Claudius was the chief of the decemvirs—he was the most cruel and the most hated by the people. One day he saw a beautiful girl, the daughter of a plebeian, named Virginius, as she was going to school with her nurse. Her name was Virginia, and she was to be married to Icilius, who had formerly been a tribune of the people. When Appius saw her, he formed a cruel plan for carrying her off from her father's house. He told one of his men to seize upon her, and to say that she was his slave. So the man went and laid hands upon her, but when the people who crowded to the spot heard that a free-born Roman maiden was about to be carried off as a slave, they were very angry. Then the man who had seized her said that he would be quite content to have the question decided by law, and he took her before Appius Claudius. The people were so excited, that the wicked judge was obliged to pacify them, by letting the case stand over until the next day, to see if her father would appear, for he was with the Roman army at some distance from Rome. But Appius secretly sent messengers at the same time to the generals, who were his friends, asking them to prevent Virginius from coming to Rome. However, the friends of the girl had been before hand, and had already sent to let Virginius know in what danger his daughter was. And he had left the camp before the messengers of Appius arrived there.

Next morning Virginia again appeared before the judgment-seat, and her father and her lover were with her; and many Roman mothers stood by, and they wept tears of pity for the girl. But Appius heeded not the sorrow

of the women nor the angry murmurs of the people; he would not so much as let Virginius speak, but declared the girl to be the slave of the man who had seized her. And when the people around tried to defend her, Appius ordered his lictors to drive them away by force. Then Virginius asked that he might be allowed to speak one last word in private to his child. He drew her aside to the booths or shops which stood near, and snatching a knife from a butcher, he plunged it into his daughter's breast, saying, "O my daughter, I set thee free by the only means in my power." Then there was a terrible uproar and a great tumult in the city. The people were joined by the soldiers of the army in which Virginius had served, and they all, with the women and children, left Rome, and would not return until the decemvirs laid down their power, and tribunes were chosen again. The people were so enraged that they demanded at first that the decemvirs should be given up to them to be burnt alive, but they were afterwards persuaded to leave them to the law. Appius Claudius and one other killed themselves in prison, the rest went away into banishment.

The plebeians had got their tribunes to protect them again, nor could the consuls now decide cases after their own pleasure, but only by the laws which had been agreed upon and hung up in public, which were known to all. So they were encouraged to go on, and they got the old law taken away which would not let patricians marry plebeians; then new laws were passed at different times which allowed plebeians to be chosen to various offices,—and at last, in 367, about eighty years after the fall of the decemvirs, a law was passed by which one of the consuls must always be a plebeian. This law was called the

Licinian Law, from the name of the man who first proposed it. Peace prevailed now in Rome, there was no longer any disputing between the patricians and the plebeians, and for about a hundred and fifty years there were no more tumults and disturbances in the city.

QUESTIONS.—What want was much felt at Rome? Who were appointed to draw up laws? What were their laws called? How did they afterwards act? What cruel plan did Appius Claudius form against Virginia? How was it defeated? What law did the plebeians succeed in passing?

CHAPTER VI.

WAR WITH THE ETRUSCANS—STORY OF THE SIEGE OF VEII—DESTRUCTION OF ROME BY THE GAULS.

THE ETRUSCANS.
THEIR INVASION OF ROME.
WAR FOR NINE YEARS.
PEACE FOR FORTY YEARS.
SECOND WAR.
STORY OF THE SIEGE OF VEII AND ITS FALL.
THE GAULS WHO HAD INVADED ETRURIA MARCH ON ROME.

THE ROMAN ARMY DEFEATED ON THE BROOK ALLIA.
ROME TAKEN AND DESTROYED BY THE GAULS.
HOW THE CAPITOL WAS SAID TO HAVE BEEN SAVED BY GESE.
THE GAULS ABANDON THE SIEGE.
ROME REBUILT.

You will find in the map of ancient Italy that the country of Etruria lies to the north of Latium. Its inhabitants were called the Etruscans; they were different in appearance and in manners from the other nations of Italy, and they spoke a very different language. They were a very strong and warlike people, but their armies were filled up by men of other countries, foreigners whom they hired to fight for them. They were the only Italian people that cared for the sea; their vessels were to be

seen everywhere; but the sight of an Etruscan vessel was by no means welcome, for they were not content with honest trade, but were great sea-robbers or pirates. There was a city called Carthage in Africa, of which you will hear a great deal presently; this city sent out a great many ships too. The people of Carthage were friends with the Etruscans, and the two nations together made the Mediterranean sea unsafe for travellers and sailors.

As the Etruscans went from one country to another, and were so busy in trading, they saw more of foreigners than the Romans and the Latins or the other nations of Italy saw. They took several ideas from the Greeks, and tried to imitate their buildings, &c.; and thus they had grander houses and temples than were then to be found amongst the Italians, and they made many expensive ornaments and vases. You will see a great many of the Etruscan vases in the British Museum.

You have read the story of Porsenna, king of the Etruscans. The real history of his invasion, however, is as different as possible from the story as it was told amongst the Romans. The real fact was, that the Etruscans then, 507 B.C., took Rome itself, and the Romans had to make peace on condition of never using iron for any purpose but making ploughshares and such useful articles. The Romans could not bear to confess so dishonourable a fact, and there grew up amongst them instead wonderful stories about Horatius Cocles, Mucius Scævola, &c.

The Etruscans were driven out of Latium back into their own country next year by the Latins, and Rome was thus free from their power. Rather more than twenty years after this there was a war between the Romans and Etruscans which lasted for nine years. Very little is known of this

war, which was ended in 474 by a peace which was to last for forty years.

When the forty years had passed, a longer and a more terrible war broke out, during which happened the famous siege of Veii, one of the greatest cities in Etruria, only ten miles from Rome. This siege is said to have lasted ten years; and so great were the hardships suffered by the Romans, that now for the first time the soldiers received pay for their services. At last the rich and beautiful city was taken and destroyed. The tale which arose about the way in which this happened is as follows:—

STORY OF THE FALL OF VEII.

The Roman armies had been besieging Veii for seven weary years, and still there seemed no prospect of taking the city. Then, to the astonishment of all men, the waters of the lake of Alba began to rise without rain; and they rose so high that they overflowed their banks and flooded the plains beyond. And it seemed a strange thing that this should be in the midst of summer, when all the rivers and pools were very low. Then the Romans were told by an old man, a soothsayer, that Veii could never be taken until the waters of that lake were dried up. So the Romans dug channels through the mountains, and drew off the waters of the lake. Marcus Furius Camillus was carrying on the siege of Veii, and by his orders the soldiers dug underground, and made a pathway which led beneath the walls, and ended just below the temple of Juno, which was in the citadel of Veii. When this work was done, Camillus ordered an assault to be made on the city from every side, and at the same time he commanded a chosen band to enter

the secret passage. The King of Veii was preparing to offer a sacrifice to Juno in the temple, and the priest who was standing by prophesied and said that the goddess had accepted the sacrifice, and that Veii should belong to him who should offer it upon her altar. The Romans were at that moment beneath in the secret passage, and they heard the words spoken by the prophet; they burst into the temple, and Camillus offered the sacrifice instead of the King of Veii. Then the Romans who were in the citadel rushed out and opened the gates of the city, and Veii was taken on that day. After this, certain youths chosen out of the army washed themselves in pure water, clothed themselves in white garments, and approached the image of Juno; but they were afraid to touch it, though they greatly desired to carry it to Rome, that Juno might henceforth dwell amongst the Roman people. Then one of them said to the goddess, "Juno, is it your pleasure to go to Rome?" And lo! the image bowed her head, as if saying, "I will go." And when they removed it, it was as though it moved of its own accord, for the bearers felt no fatigue. Then the Romans built a temple in honour of Queen Juno, upon the Aventine Hill, and Juno forsook the people of Veii, and thenceforth took up her abode amongst the Romans.

To go back to the history. The Romans were full of joy and triumph after Veii was destroyed; but their joy was changed into sorrow, and their triumph into distress and misery. There was a nation called the Gauls—a restless and a roving people; they loved fighting, but they never settled anywhere, though they wandered everywhere, troubling and tormenting the nations wherever they came. Some of these Gallic tribes had been entering

Etruria from the north while the Romans were besieging Veii. After the taking of Veii, the Gauls marched further south, and reached Clusium. Here they were met by messengers from Rome, and it is said that these messengers offended the Gauls, and that they therefore determined to march upon Rome. On they came, numbered at 170,000, commanded by Brennus, their king; they laid the country desolate before them, and drew nearer and nearer to Rome, like a gathering storm. The Romans little knew the danger their city was in, and the Gauls had reached the brook Allia before a Roman army met them. Here, on the 18th of July 390, was fought one of the most disastrous battles in the history of Rome. The Roman soldiers were terrified at the first by the very sight of these wild barbarians, and by the sound of their yells and war-cries; then the Gauls rushed furiously upon them with their heavy swords, and such a terrible fear came upon the Romans, that they fled in the wildest disorder, and a great part of the army took refuge in Veii. Thus Rome lay open to the enemy without any defence. The few soldiers who were left within the walls shut themselves up in the Capitol, determined to hold it to the very last. The helpless, the women, and the children, were forced to leave the city, and take refuge in the towns and villages of the country round. There was only food enough in the Capitol for the soldiers who defended it. The Gauls, happily for the Romans, had delayed their march a day or two, fearing, it seems, some surprise; but on the third day they came. The city was forsaken and empty; only a few old men remained behind, who would rather die than leave the city in which they had been born, and they calmly awaited the stroke of death. The Gauls entered; they murdered all

they found, and plundered the houses and temples, and then the Roman garrison shut up in the Capitol saw flame and smoke arise on every side, for the city was set on fire by the Gauls, and burnt to the ground. The Gauls now besieged the Capitol, and hoped to starve the garrison into surrendering it.

During this siege it is said that the Romans were once in the greatest possible danger. A young man had come with a message to the garrison from the Romans who had fled to Veii, and had climbed up the steep sides of the cliff and returned by the same way. When the Gauls saw the foot-marks they resolved to try and clamber up by night and surprise the garrison, for there was no guard on that side because it was so steep. The Gauls crept up in the darkness, and neither the soldiers nor the watch-dogs heard their steps; but there were some geese which had been preserved alive in spite of the scarcity of food, because they were sacred to Juno, and these birds, hearing a noise, began to cry out and flap their wings. Then Marcus Manlius awoke and ran to the edge of the rock; a Gaul had just reached the top, and Manlius knocked him over with his shield, so that he fell down the rock and others with him. Then the Romans gathered to the spot and drove back the enemy.

After a while the Gauls grew weary of the siege, and hearing at the same time that the land they had left in the north of Italy had been invaded, they agreed to depart from Rome on condition of receiving a large sum of money.

It must have been a sad day when the Romans met again on the spot where their city had stood, but where, excepting the citadel, there was nothing left now but a heap of blackened ruins. So heartless and hopeless were many of them, that it was proposed to leave the Seven Hills

altogether and to build their new city on the spot where Veii had stood. But the general, Camillus, persuaded them to give up this idea, and the city was rebuilt where it had stood before.

QUESTIONS.—What was the character of the Etruscans? What was the real history of Porsenna's invasion? How long did the Romans besiege Veii? How did Camillus take the city? How was Juno removed to Rome? Who were the Gauls? Describe the battle on the brook Allia. What befell the city of Rome? How was the Capitol saved? What was the end of the siege

CHAPTER VII.

THE ITALIAN WARS.

WARS WITH NEIGHBOURING NATIONS.
STORIES OF MANLIUS, VALERIUS, AND
CURTIUS.
WAR WITH THE SAMNITES.

THE CAUDINE FORKS.
LONG WARS.
BATTLE OF SENTINUM.
THE ROMANS MASTERS OF ITALY.

AFTER Rome had been rebuilt, 390 B.C., the war with the Etruscans, which had been interrupted by the coming of the Gauls, went on again until the Romans had conquered a great part of Etruria, and another long peace was made.

The history of the hundred years that passed away after the burning of Rome is full of little else than wars and fightings. We shall only give one short chapter to it.

The Etruscan war, as you have read, went on, and there were wars also in Latium and Campania, and elsewhere, all of which ended in victory for the Romans. Have you ever watched the tide coming in on the sea-shore—wave after wave creeping up a little higher and a little higher, slowly but surely coming on, and no power can keep the waters back? Just so the power of Rome was slowly but surely spreading, wave by wave, over Italy.

The Gauls often appeared again in the north, but were always driven back. The Romans told the stories of two famous single fights against two Gallic giants, which, they said, happened in these wars. They were the

STORIES OF MANLIUS AND OF VALERIUS.

Manlius fought with a Gaul on a bridge over the river Arno, and although the Gaul was a giant, he slew him, and took from his neck the gold chain that he wore, and Manlius wore it himself; so the soldiers called him Torquatus (from *torques*, necklace or chain), and his family ever after bore that name.

Another giant Gaul was killed by Valerius, a young Roman, during a great battle between the Romans and the Gauls. Whilst Valerius was fighting with his enemy, a strange thing happened. A crow flew down and settled upon his helmet; there he sat, and during the fight he soared again and again into the air, and flew at the Gaul, and so struck and annoyed him with beak and claws that he knew not how to fight, and soon yielded to the Roman. Then the crow flew away and was seen no more. Valerius took the surname of Corvus (the Latin for crow), and it remained in his family ever after.

There is one other famous Roman story that I must tell you belonging to this time, before we pass to the real history again. It is the

STORY OF CURTIUS LEAPING INTO THE GULF.

There were three years of pestilence in Rome, and the Tiber had overflowed its banks and had put a stop to the yearly games in the Circus. Because these calamities came upon them, the Romans thought that the gods were

angry. Then two years later, in 362 B.C., a deep and wide gulf suddenly opened in the Forum in the midst of Rome, and it could not be filled up again. The gods made known their purpose, that the most precious thing in Rome must be thrown into that yawning chasm; then only would it close, and so should the Roman people flourish and prosper greatly. When all men were asking and disputing what was the treasure and the strength of Rome, Marcus Curtius, a noble youth, renowned for his deeds in war, reproached them because they did not know that the strength of Rome, and that which was most precious to her, was the valour of her people. Then he put on his armour, mounted his horse, and leapt into the gulf. It closed upon him, and the place was ever after called, after his name, the Curtian Lake.

The last and the fiercest of the wars in Italy was the war between the Romans and the Samnites. You will find Samnium, the country of the Samnites, to the south of Latium. The Samnite wars broke out 327 B.C., and lasted for thirty-seven years, with a pause of only four years. Soon after the war began the Roman army met with a great disaster. The Roman generals heard that the Samnites were besieging the town of Luceria, so they ordered their soldiers to march at once, and to take the nearest way to that city. This way led through a green valley, and the only entrance to the valley was by a narrow pass amongst the hills. When the Romans had come to the end of the pleasant valley, they found the way out stopped up by trunks of trees and heaps of stones. There was no other path, so they marched back again to the pass by which they had come in, but now this was barricaded too, and armed men were defending it.

Men and officers could only stand and look at one another in despair. They had been deceived; the Samnites were not at Luceria, but were seen on the tops of the hills around, and the Roman army was shut up as in a prison, out of which was no escape. But the Samnite general let them go, on condition that the Roman Senate and people should make peace with the Samnites, and give them back all they had taken from them in the war. Then the Roman soldiers were forced to give up their arms, and to throw off their outer garments, and pass out under the yoke. And after they had gone some distance, they lay down upon the ground and waited for the night, that they might march unseen, so great was their shame. And when they came to Rome their friends received them kindly, but they would not lift up their eyes, nor could they bring themselves to utter a word.

But the Roman Senate and people agreed that the generals had had no right to make a peace in their name with the Samnites, nor would they consider themselves bound to keep it. So the war went on for many years, and the Samnites were defeated again and again, until, in 304, they were obliged to make peace. But four years afterwards the Samnites resolved to make one last effort, and the war began again. The Samnites persuaded many of the other Italians who had been already conquered to try and shake off the power of Rome, and to join them in the war. The Roman army met the Italian at Sentinum, and here, in 295, was fought the last battle of the Italian wars. It seemed at first as if the Romans were going to lose; but the consul Decius rode forward and said, he would give himself up to death if the gods would at the same time destroy the enemy. Then he rushed in

amongst the swords and spears of the Italians, and fell dead. Those of the Romans who had given way stood still at the sight for shame, and many brave men hurried up to revenge the death of their general. The Romans gained the day, and after the battle at Sentinum found themselves masters of all Italy. But they were not left to enjoy their conquests in peace.

QUESTIONS.—How long did the Italian wars continue after the burning of Rome in 390? What are the stories of Manlius and Valerius? How did Curtius devote himself for his country? Which was the fiercest of the Italian wars? What disaster did the Roman army meet with? Which was the last battle of the Italian wars? How did Decius decide the day?

CHAPTER VIII.

KING PYRRHUS.

GREEK TOWNS IN ITALY.
 CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE OF TAREN-
 TUM.
 OUTRAGE ON THE ROMAN FLEET.

PYRRHUS INVITED TO ITALY.
 BATTLE OF HERACLEIA.
 THE ROMANS REFUSE PEACE.
 FINAL DEFEAT OF PYRRHUS.

MANY Greeks had settled on the coasts of Italy in the south, some at a very early period, perhaps even before Rome was built. Several of these Greek settlements had become large towns. One of the largest and richest was Tarentum. The people of this city were called Tarentines; they were a very active and a very excitable people. Their chief pleasure was in their theatres and public promenades, and in amusements of all kinds. One afternoon they were sitting in the theatre listening to a number of poets who came to repeat their pieces, after which the best poet was to receive a prize. From the seats of the theatre there was an open view of the sea, and the Tarentines saw a Roman fleet

sailing towards their harbour to take shelter for the night. Now there was an old treaty by which Roman ships were not allowed to sail beyond the Lacinian Promontory ; but the treaty was so old that it was almost forgotten, and it is not at all likely that the Romans were wishing to quarrel with the Tarentines. But it was a feast-day in Tarentum, and the people were idle and careless, and besides this, were excited by wine ; and so, when they saw the Roman ships drawing near, they hurried down to the harbour, went out to meet them, and attacked them fiercely. Four ships were sunk and many of the soldiers killed ; the rest were sold for slaves by the Tarentines. After this they fell upon a city which was friendly to the Romans, and plundered it.

When the Romans heard what had happened, they sent messengers to Tarentum to require that those who had been chief in these outrages should be given up, and that the Romans who had been taken prisoners should be set free. When the messengers arrived, the disorderly crowd laughed at their foreign dress and way of talking. It was on another feast-day that they were admitted into the theatre to deliver their message. The message was only received with laughter, and one of the Greeks, who had been drinking, came up to Postumius, the chief of the Roman messengers, and threw dirt upon his white Roman cloak or toga. Then there was more laughing and clapping of hands in the theatre ; but Postumius said, " Laugh on if you will ; you shall weep by and by, and this stain shall be washed out in your blood." Then the messengers returned to Rome.

The Tarentines were very rich, but they were not brave and warlike. They loved ease and pleasure, and did not

mind how much money they paid to other people to fight for them and leave them to enjoy themselves. When they saw that war was coming, they sent over to a young Greek prince, named Pyrrhus, who was the king of Epirus. Pyrrhus was brave and ambitious, he was a thorough soldier, and his mind was full of thoughts and fancies of the greatness he hoped some day to reach. He was now only king of the little country of Epirus, but he longed to become the sovereign of a large and powerful empire. His subjects called him the Eagle ; they loved him, and would willingly follow wherever he led them. To him came the messengers from Tarentum, begging him to come over to Italy and help their people against the Romans ; and they said that all the Greeks in Italy were longing to drive back the Romans, and would crowd to his standard if he would come and be their leader. So King Pyrrhus came, and after a very stormy voyage, he landed at Tarentum in the winter time, at the beginning of the year 280.

Pyrrhus brought with him to Italy an army of about 25,000 men, but he found no army ready to join him. The first thing he did was to shut up all the theatres, and walks, and places of amusement in Tarentum, to stop all feasting and rioting, and to order the Tarentines to put on armour and be ready to fight. He commanded other troops to be raised in Italy. The Tarentines were very angry, but their anger was of no avail.

Next year a great battle was fought between Pyrrhus and the Romans at Heracleia. Seven times over did the two armies charge each other, and it seemed as though neither of them would give way. But King Pyrrhus had with him twenty elephants which he had kept back ; at last he brought them into the battle ; the Romans had

never seen an elephant before, and when the monstrous beasts advanced towards them they were terrified, and fell back in confusion. Pyrrhus gained a complete victory, and a great many of the Italians came over to his side, and promised him their help. But the king had lost many of his own best soldiers, and did not trust much to the Italians; so he thought he would send his friend Cineas to Rome, and ask the Romans if they would be willing to make peace, on condition of giving back to the Italians who had joined the king all that they had lost in the former wars. Cineas appeared before the Senate; he was a man who could speak well, and knew how to persuade those who heard him: there were many Roman senators who thought it would be better to agree to what Pyrrhus said; but Appius Claudius,* who was a very aged man, and quite blind, heard of it. He was a man whose long life had been spent in great public works, and he was much honoured and trusted by the people. He now ordered himself to be carried into the senate-house, and the senators kept deep silence when he rose up, old, feeble, blind, and began to speak. When he had ended, no man thought any longer of making peace, but the Senate told Cineas to go back that very day and tell his master that the Romans would not even speak of peace so long as one foreign soldier remained in Italy.

So the war went on, and next year the Romans were again defeated, but the defeat was not so great as the former one. Pyrrhus found that he had lost so many men in these two battles, and that he could trust the Italians so little—less, indeed, than ever—that he left Italy, and went over into Sicily. A few years later, he came back to help

* A descendant of the decemvir.

the Italians once more, but there were now very few of the brave men who had followed him from Greece left to fight with him. So the Romans gained a great victory at Beneventum, in which they contrived to drive back the terrible elephants by darts and stones, so that they turned and trod down their own men. King Pyrrhus left Italy in 274; all the great hopes that he had come over with had been disappointed. Two or three years afterwards, as he was besieging a town in Greece, he was killed by a piece of tiling thrown upon him from the walls by the hand of a woman.

QUESTIONS.—What was Tarentum? What kind of people were the Tarentines? How did they offend the Romans? To whom did the Tarentines send for help? Where did Pyrrhus gain his first victory? How did the Romans act? What was the end of the war? How did Pyrrhus meet his death?

CHAPTER IX.

THE ROMAN PEOPLE AFTER THE DEPARTURE OF KING PYRRHUS.

STRENGTH OF THE ROMANS.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS OF THE PEOPLE.

GROWTH AND IMPROVEMENT OF THE
CITY.

PUBLIC WORKS.

THE ROMANS ARE MASTERS OF ALL
ITALY.

I HAVE told you that Rome in its earliest days must have looked more like what we should call a large straggling village than a town, and if we called it a town or a city, still it was one amongst hundreds and hundreds of other towns in Italy, and very many of these other Italian towns were larger, and richer, and more splendid than Rome then was. However, in the days of the kings,

Rome had been enlarged and improved ; the Tarquins made large public works, and forced the people to toil so hard in making them, that it was one of the causes of their own banishment from Rome. For a long time after the banishment of the Tarquins there was much distress and suffering at Rome ; there were long disputes and quarrels at home and hard fighting abroad, with enemies on every side. Then came the great calamity of 390, the total destruction of the city. But there was a wonderful strength in the Roman people. They were like some hardy tree which may bend but does not break when the storms pass over it, and only seems to take the deeper root ; other trees fall before the hurricane on every side, but it remains standing the king of the forest where it grows. Our history has now come down to rather more than a hundred years after the burning of Rome ; the long Italian wars are over ; King Pyrrhus has come and gone ; what has Rome become ?

The chief business of the Romans is still the cultivation of land ; there is very little distress amongst the people. The long disputes between the patricians and plebeians are over, and the law allows the poor man as well as the rich to turn out his cattle upon the common-land ; besides, in the countries that had been conquered, large settlements were made, to which many thousands of the poor were sent, and each one had a small portion of land appointed for his own. So peace and plenty reigned, and the manners and customs of the people were less rude and harsh than they once were ; but no luxury was allowed. It was forbidden that any one should have in his house more than £30 worth of silver plate, and nobody was allowed to be extravagant in anything. Money was not paid now by weight,

but was coined, and silver was used for coins as well as copper.

The city of Rome was greatly enlarged and improved. Temples were built and statues of great men set up in public places. The houses were no longer the shabby, ill-built places they had formerly been. There were four magistrates, called *Ædiles*, whose business it was to look after the city and the public buildings. Any buildings that looked likely to fall, any dangerous animals, any bad smells, must be got rid of; the streets must be kept well-paved and clean, nothing unwholesome was to be sold in the market, all false weights and measures were to be destroyed, nor were any vehicles allowed to come within the city walls during the day-time.

Appius Claudius, of whom you read in the last chapter, was famous for beginning those great public roads and works for which the Romans became so famous. He made the first great public road, called, after him, the *Appian Way*; and he also made the first aqueduct to supply the city with water.

But these were the least of the changes in the city of Rome. The most wonderful change was in its importance and its power. The Romans were no longer just one people amongst a number of others, but they were the conquerors and the masters of Italy. Italy was becoming one nation; the old languages were being forgotten, and the Latin language, which the Romans spoke, began to be spoken all over the country. Roman money, too, was coming into general use. The Romans treated the Italians very well; they did not make them pay any taxes, but when war broke out, Italians were expected to join and fight by the side of the Roman soldiers. So strong had

the Roman people become, all the strength of Italy was theirs to use ; but they would need it all in the days that were coming ; for the next enemies with whom they would have to fight were very powerful, so powerful that it seemed at first very doubtful whether their strength would not prove too much even for the power of Rome and Italy to stand against.

QUESTIONS.—What change had time wrought in the city of Rome ? What in the condition of the people ? What laws prevailed against luxury ? Who became famous for great public works ? What was the most remarkable change time had brought ? How were the conquered Italians treated ?

CHAPTER X.

THE CITY AND PEOPLE OF CARTHAGE.

THE CITY OF CARTHAGE.

LOVE OF THE SEA.

TRADE.

LOVE OF MONEY.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CARTHAGINIANS AND ROMANS.

CARTHAGINIAN SLAVER.

POWER OF CARTHAGE.

WHAT COULD MONEY BUY ?

WHAT COULD IT *not* BUY ?

You must now look away from Italy altogether, across the Mediterranean Sea to the coast of Africa ; there you will see the place where the city of Carthage once stood. Many long hundred years have passed away since that great city was destroyed to the very ground, but there was a time when it was as full of busy life as Liverpool or any of our large seaport towns, and far more magnificent and beautiful. The first settlers at Carthage came from the famous city of Tyre, and the people of Carthage, like the people of Tyre, loved a seafaring life, and traded far and wide across the seas, coming, it seems, for tin even as far as these

islands, which then were wild, and perhaps uninhabited lands. Sailing east and west and north and south, their vessels brought together the riches of the world into the harbours of Carthage, and, like our city merchants, the Carthaginian merchants became immensely rich. They did not care for fighting, they did not care for power, they did not care for liberty ; but to make money was the object of their lives. And for this end they liked to keep the seas to themselves, and their ships of war could, if they pleased, prevent any foreign ships from sailing in the Mediterranean. It is said that their cruel jealousy went so far that they would drown any sailors from other countries who ventured to sail into the western parts of that sea.

You will easily see how different the Carthaginians were from the Romans in these two things—their power by sea, and their great riches. They laughed at the poverty of the Romans, and when some Carthaginians who had been on a message to Rome came back, they said that they were quite sure the great men and senators of Rome had only one silver service amongst them, for they had seen it at every house to which they had been invited. And so much did they despise the Romans at sea, that at the beginning of the war a Carthaginian admiral declared that no Roman should so much as wash his hands in the sea without his leave. There was another great difference between the two nations. The Romans of those days worked hard in their own farms and vineyards ; it was a disgrace to any man if his farming was carelessly done. But the Carthaginians, being very rich, bought slaves, and made them do all their work ; and very hard and cruel was the fate of a Carthaginian slave : he was treated far worse than we should ever treat our cattle. Those who did the

field-work had to work all day in chains, and at night were shut up in miserable, dungeon-like places, which were very often under-ground.

The greatest part of Sicily belonged to Carthage, most of the African coast, the Balearic Isles, and some parts of Spain. The Spanish silver mines brought the Carthaginians great riches. So you see that Carthage was powerful by land, and still more powerful by sea, and everything seemed at their command. The Carthaginians did not go out to battle themselves, as the Romans did, but they hired soldiers from all parts to fight for them. What could they not buy? They could buy soldiers, ships, horses, elephants,—everything needed in war; but one thing they could never buy—the love of the people they ruled over. They were hated quite as much as they were feared by those towns that belonged to them. They made the people of these towns pay immense sums of money, and were so hard and cruel to them that they could never trust them for a moment, but knew that they were ready to turn against them at any time. And if they could not buy the love of the people under them, neither could they buy the spirit with which a Roman army fought. The Carthaginian soldiers were strangers to Carthage, brought together from all parts, and they only fought for money; how could they ever go into battle, or how could they ever persevere in war like Roman and Italian soldiers, who knew that they were fighting for their country, their families, their homes? Which do you think is the stronger people—the Carthaginian or the Roman?

QUESTIONS.—Where did Carthage stand? Of what city was it a colony? What was the chief occupation of the Carthaginians? What were their possessions? In what did their power consist? How did they differ from the Romans?

CHAPTER XI.

THE FIRST PUNIC WAR.

THE MAMERTINES IN MESSANA,
 CAUSES LEADING TO THE FIRST PUNIC
 WAR.
 THE ROMANS BUILD A FLEET.

VICTORY BY SEA.
 REGULUS'S EXPEDITION TO AFRICA.
 DISASTERS AT SEA.
 THE FINAL VICTORY.

PEACE CONCLUDED.

I HAVE told you that the greater part of Sicily belonged to the Carthaginians ; but they had not got possession of it without a great deal of fighting. In all their Sicilian wars their chief enemies had been the kings of Syracuse, and on both sides many foreigners had served. A number of Italians from Campania, who had fought in the army of one of the kings of Syracuse, did not feel inclined to return home, and settle down quietly after their time of service was ended. So they seized upon the town of Messina in Sicily, killed or drove out the inhabitants, and settled themselves in the city. They called themselves Mamertines, or "Men of Mars." This happened in 284.

A few years later, when King Pyrrhus was in Italy, some Campanian soldiers who were in the service of the Romans rebelled, and treated the town of Rhegium, in Italy, as the other Campanian soldiers had treated the town of Messina. The Romans were very angry, and after Pyrrhus had been driven out of Italy, they besieged and took Rhegium, put to death the guilty soldiers, and restored the town to those of its old inhabitants who were left alive.

We must now go back to the other town, Messana in Sicily, where the Mamertines had settled themselves. Hiero, the young king of Syracuse, was besieging the city in the year 265, and the Mamertines saw that they would soon have to give it up to him ; so they determined to send over and ask the Romans to help them. Does it not seem strange that they should have thought of asking help from the very people who six years before had punished the soldiers at Rhegium for having committed the same crime as the Mamertines had done ? But it seems still stranger that, after a good deal of doubting and uncertainty, the people of Rome determined that they would grant them the help they wished. They said that they must help the Mamertines because they were Italians and their enemies were foreigners, but the real reason was, that if they had refused, the Mamertines would have given themselves up to the Carthaginians, and so the Carthaginians would have been brought *very* near to Italy.

The Romans must have known that they could not interfere in Sicily without beginning a war with Carthage ; but when they sent their soldiers across the narrow straits that divide Sicily from Italy they could little tell how long and fierce that war would be. It lasted for twenty-three years, from 264 to 241.

I shall not attempt to tell you all the battles and the sieges of this long war, but shall only mention one or two of its chief events.

From what you have read of the Carthaginians you must see that the Romans were quite helpless against them at sea. The Carthaginians could land anywhere upon the shores of Italy, and lay waste the land ; they could stop all food and supplies of every kind that were on their way

to the country. If the Romans ventured to send out against them the few little ships of war they had, they would have been destroyed at once. Do you understand enough of the character of the Romans to know that they were not likely to be easily beaten by any difficulties in their way? It so happened that a large Carthaginian vessel had been wrecked on the shore; the Romans took it for a pattern, and set to work with all possible speed at shipbuilding. They cut down a quantity of wood, and in a few months a hundred ships were ready for sea. But the Romans knew that they were not accustomed to manage ships and to fight by sea as the Carthaginians were; yet they were sure that their men were much better soldiers if they could be brought close face to face with the enemy. So they invented a curious sort of machine. On each vessel they put a long kind of drawbridge, with a strong iron spike at the end—this bridge was drawn up and fastened on to the mast about twelve feet above the deck. With these machines on board, the Roman fleet set sail, and met the Carthaginian fleet near Mylœ, on the north of Sicily. To the eyes of the Carthaginians the Roman ships looked badly-built and clumsy vessels, and they sailed up to them sure of victory almost without fighting, perhaps wondering a little what strange-looking things were those that the Romans had fastened to their masts. They found out before long. As soon as any Carthaginian vessel came near a Roman one, the bridge was loosened from the mast, and down it fell upon the Carthaginian deck, and was fixed there by the long iron spike. Instantly the Roman soldiers rushed across it, covered by their large shields, and were on board the enemy's ship in a moment, fighting hand to hand as if on a field of battle. Nor could the Carthaginians approach

anywhere without these terrible bridges seizing hold of their vessels. So great was the fear caused by this strange contrivance, that they fled in terror, after having lost fifty ships, which was nearly half their fleet.

This great victory must have been a wonderful relief to the minds of the Romans ; the news was welcomed with the greatest joy, and Duilius, who had commanded the fleet, received the highest honours from his country.

Two or three years after, in the year 256, the Romans determined to send an army over into Africa, hoping that Carthage itself might be taken, and the war ended. The army set sail, and having met the Carthaginian fleet, a great battle took place, in which more than a hundred thousand men were fighting on each side. The Romans once more gained the victory, and the Carthaginian vessels that were left hastened back to defend their city.

The Romans sailed on, and landed in Africa in a rich and beautiful country, which the soldiers soon laid waste. Their task now seemed very easy, and the Roman Senate thought it so easy that they sent word that half the army might come home again ; fifteen thousand only were left under the command of the consul Regulus. There seemed nothing to hinder the march of the little army ; all the African towns hated the Carthaginians, who were their masters, and gladly gave themselves up to the Romans ; the Carthaginian army never ventured down from the hills to fight a battle. The Carthaginians thought there was no hope, and sent to ask for peace. But Regulus seemed as if he could not make the terms hard enough on which he would make peace ; they could scarcely have been harder if he had been on the point of taking the city itself. The Carthaginians would not hear them, and spent the

whole of that winter in busily preparing for war. Regulus was as confident and careless as most boasters are, and when the spring came he was not nearly so ready for battle as the enemy he had despised. A battle was fought, and the Romans were quite defeated; Regulus himself was taken prisoner.

In this battle the Carthaginian elephants had greatly terrified the Roman soldiers; numbers of them had been crushed to death by the terrible animals. So the Carthaginians sent one hundred and forty elephants into Sicily; and for many years the Roman soldiers in Sicily did not dare to come out and fight, so great was their terror of these creatures.

The Romans met with great disasters at sea. Two fleets were wrecked at different times, and their spirit sank very low. But they were very glad when they heard, in 252, that their general in Sicily, Metellus, had gained a victory over the elephants; some he had driven into ditches, others had been forced back by darts and stones, and had trodden down their own men. Many elephants were taken prisoners, and brought to Rome for the people to see.

The war now went on in Sicily: the Romans besieged the town of Lilybœum, but could not take it. Whilst the siege was going on, the consul Claudius arrived from Rome. He was a proud, self-confident man; and wishing to do something great, he attacked the Carthaginian fleet near Drepanum, but lost the battle, and most of his ships were destroyed. Soon after, another large fleet of Roman vessels, bringing supplies for the army at Lilybœum, was destroyed at sea.

The Romans seemed to lose all heart, and no wonder, after such losses and disasters. For six years very little

was done on either side. At length, after the weary strife had lasted for twenty-three years, the Roman Government prepared for one more great effort. Two hundred ships were built and sent out to sea with many anxious fears and hopes. The Carthaginians were taken by surprise, but got ready for battle as well as they could. The Romans gained a great victory near the Ægates, and after this the Carthaginians felt they could go on with the war no longer. So peace was made, and the Carthaginians agreed to surrender Sicily, to pay a large sum of money to the Romans, and to give up all the prisoners they had taken. So ended, for a time, the war between Carthage and Rome, B.C. 241.

QUESTIONS.—Who were the Mamertines? Why did they send for aid to Rome? What might have prevented the Romans sending them help? What followed from the help the Romans sent the Mamertines? How long did the first Punic War last? How did the Romans build a fleet? By what contrivance did they gain their first victory at sea? What was the end of the expedition of Regulus? What victory did Metellus gain in Sicily? What disasters befel the Romans? How was the war ended? .

CHAPTER XII.

BEGINNING OF THE SECOND PUNIC WAR—HANNIBAL CROSSES THE ALPS.

THE WAR OF THE MERCENARIES IN
AFRICA.

HAMILCAR BARCA AND HIS SONS.

HANNIBAL'S VOW.

THE PURPOSES OF HAMILCAR.

HANNIBAL DETERMINES ON WAR.
HIS PASSAGE OF THE RHONE.

THE CARTHAGINIAN ARMY CROSSES THE
ALPS.

THEIR SUFFERINGS AND LOSSES.

You may remember that when Regulus first landed in Africa, he was joined by a great many of the African

towns. After he had been defeated and the Romans had left Africa, the Carthaginians took a most cruel vengeance on the African towns which had deserted their side and gone over to Regulus; and because of this cruel treatment the Africans hated and feared their Carthaginian masters more than ever. During the last few years of the Punic War, the Carthaginian general in Sicily was Hamilcar Barca. His soldiers were most of them Africans by birth; but such was the character of Hamilcar that his soldiers loved him although they hated Carthage. Hamilcar saw that the foot-soldiers in the Carthaginian armies were not in the least able to fight against the Roman soldiers; so he set his whole mind to the task of preparing and training them, hoping that at some future day they might be able to face a Roman army. Then came the end of the war: Sicily was given up to the Romans, and Hamilcar and his men were called back to Africa. The Carthaginians, like most rich people, did not like to part with money, and they tried to cheat these soldiers of the pay which had been owing to them for some years. Then all the hatred which lay hidden in the soldiers' hearts, burst forth in a great rebellion and war; and the people of the African towns around, who had never forgotten the barbarous cruelty which the Carthaginians had shown them, joined the angry soldiers in their rebellion. It was a most horrible war, and worse for Carthage than the war with Rome had been. It was only by asking Hamilcar Barca to take the chief command that it was brought to an end.

When Hamilcar had ended this war, he went over to Spain with his soldiers. He had one aim in life—to humble, and, if possible, to destroy, the proud city of

Rome. In Spain he meant to go on with his work of training an army for Carthage. You know that a Carthaginian army was made up of foreigners from different lands, who could care nothing at all for Carthage or for each other; but Hamilcar meant to unite them, and to put spirit into them, by filling them with confidence and love for their general, so that they should learn to fight for their general as Roman soldiers fought for their country. Hamilcar was at this time not much more than thirty years old; he took with him to Spain his three little sons, Hannibal, Hasdrubal, and Mago, to bring them up to a soldier's life by his side. He called them the lion's whelps, and hoped that if his own life was cut short, they might carry on his work after him. When Hamilcar left Carthage, his eldest son, Hannibal, was only nine years old. The boy was eager and delighted to go with his father to the wars, and before they started, Hamilcar took him into the temple of the gods, and there made him lay his hand upon the altar, and swear that he would be for ever the enemy of Rome. The boy who took that oath lived to be an old man of seventy; and you will see whether he kept the oath of his childhood.

Twenty-two years passed by after the first Punic War had ended. Hannibal was now a young man of twenty-nine; his father and his uncle had died in Spain, and he was called to be the chief of the army. Long and careful training had made the soldiers very different men from those who fought in Sicily during the first Punic War, who seemed as if they did not dare to meet the Romans in battle unless they were sheltered by elephants. They might care nothing for Carthage, but they were devoted to Hamilcar and his brave sons, and ready to

follow Hannibal without a question and without a murmur wherever he would lead them.

Hannibal thought that the hour had come at last for vengeance upon Rome ; and to show the Romans that he meant war, he besieged a town in Spain, the people of which were friends of the Romans. When the Romans heard of this they were very much surprised, but they do not seem to have feared any great danger to themselves ; and as they were engaged in ending a war in the north of Italy with some Gallic tribes, they let Hannibal go on with the siege. They sent no help to the town, which defended itself with the utmost bravery for eight months, and was then taken. Then the Romans sent Fabius and some others as messengers to Carthage to require them to deliver up the general who had attacked a people that were the friends of Rome. The Carthaginians tried to show that Hannibal had not really broken the treaty with Rome by what he had done, but the Roman messengers would not listen, and Fabius gathered up the folds of his toga, as if he were wrapping up something in it, and then held it out to them and said, "Here are peace and war ; which will you have ?" The Carthaginians said, "Whichever you please," and when the Roman said, "Then we give you war," they shouted, "We accept it with all our hearts." This happened in the spring of the year 218.

Hannibal set out on his march. Before him were the Pyrenees, the river Rhone, and the snow-covered Alps. He first crossed the Pyrenees with an army of fifty thousand foot-soldiers and nine thousand horse, without any difficulty ; no Roman army appeared to hinder his march. He reached the Rhone safely, and found no Romans to dispute the

passage of the river ; none but Gauls were there. Scipio, the Roman general, however, had by this time arrived at Massilia ; so Hannibal saw there was no time to be lost in crossing the river. He brought up every vessel and boat of any kind that was to be had, and cut down the trees to build others ; in two days the boats were ready. But there, on the other side of the river, stood the Gauls to prevent their landing. So Hannibal sent a number of his men about twenty-two miles further up the river, and told them to cross there, and then to march back on the other side and come behind the enemy, The Rhone was rolling deep and strong when the Carthaginian army prepared to cross. All was ready, the soldiers in the boats, the horses, held three or four together by their bridles, were to swim across, towed behind the vessels ; then Hannibal saw a column of smoke rising on the other side. He had been anxiously watching for this, which was to be the sign that the soldiers he had sent out had arrived at their place behind the Gauls. Not a moment was now to be lost ; the soldiers pushed across against the rapid stream, and as they rowed over, there were the Gauls shouting and singing their war-songs on the farther bank. Suddenly fire and smoke arose behind them ; they looked round, and saw their camp in flames ; frightened and confused, they knew not which way to turn. And now the soldiers of Hannibal had reached the shore ; Hannibal was amongst the first to leap to land, and when he led his men to the charge, the Gauls hardly attempted to fight, but fled in all directions. The whole army crossed in safety.

In four days more Hannibal reached the foot of the Alps, and he found that the Gauls who lived amongst those mountains were ready to do all they could to

hinder the march of his army. They took up their places on the rocks which overlooked the steep and narrow pathways, but Hannibal found out that they only stayed there during the day and went home at night. So as it grew dark he set out with some of his men and took up the places they had left. When the morning light broke, the Gauls came back, but found their places occupied. And now the Carthaginian army began to enter the narrow mountain-pass; the way was very steep and slippery, and as the soldiers, the horses, and the elephants, slowly climbed up it, the tramp of so many feet made it more slippery and dangerous than before. The Gauls rushed in upon them to plunder and steal the baggage; then the confusion was terrible; horses and men lost their footing and fell into the depths below. Hannibal now charged down from the heights with his men, and although the confusion for a time grew worse, he beat the enemy off in the end. At last, the army, wearied out and exhausted, reached a pleasant valley, where they gladly rested for a whole day.

The soldiers then marched for three days along the banks of a river without encountering any difficulties or any enemies. On the fourth day they were met by some of the natives with presents and with words of peace; they wore wreaths upon their heads, and carried branches in their hands. Afterwards the road grew narrow again and very dangerous; Hannibal had not trusted the fair speeches of the natives, and had taken care to send on the horses and baggage at once along this dangerous path. It was well he did so, for when the soldiers entered the pass, and were slowly climbing up the difficult mountain-path, they found their enemies posted on the hills around,

and from thence they rolled down stones and pieces of rock upon the poor Carthaginian soldiers, who found it hard enough to keep their footing at all. Very many lost their lives in this terrible march, but at last Hannibal forced his way with some of his soldiers to the top of a rock called the White Stone, and stayed there all that night to protect the rest of the army, who were wearily struggling out of the defile.

At last the Carthaginians had reached the highest point of their march ; they found themselves on a large plain, where they rested for two days. But it was a dreary spot, near the snowy mountain-tops, and far, far away from all human habitations. Winter set in early there, and though it was only September, the snows were already beginning to fall. The men's hearts were failing them ; how many of their friends and fellow-soldiers had they left behind them in the desolate valleys and mountain-passes ; and the cold of those high regions was terrible to men who came from Spain and sunny Africa, and perhaps had never seen snow before in their lives : besides this they were worn out with all the perils and hardships they had already passed through, and they did not know but that worse might be in store. But Hannibal encouraged them, and revived their spirits. He reminded them that the paths all led downwards now, and would soon bring them to a country where they would find friends. "And there," said he, "lies Italy ! yonder is the way to Rome !"

The downward march was if possible worse than the upward march had been. The Gauls troubled them no more, but the snow which had lately fallen made the path difficult to find ; men and beasts were continually missing their footing, and falling into the dreadful depths below.

At last they came to a place where the path itself had been swept away by an avalanche ; there was nothing but a mass of rock and snow to be seen, and on the hills all round the snow was lying so thick that it was quite impossible to cross them. The road must be repaired, and all joined in the work, for each man was working for his life. In a single day the road was mended and propped up from below, so that the horses and baggage were got over, but it took three days' more incessant labour to make the path broad and strong enough for the elephants to pass, and the poor animals were half-starved in the meantime ; what food could they find in that wilderness of snow ?

Three days afterwards the whole army arrived safely in the plains of North Italy ; and here they were amongst friends, for the Gauls who lived there had lately been at war with the Romans, and were delighted to welcome Hannibal and his brave army. Here they rested for fourteen days from their terrible fatigue and toil, in a rich and pleasant country, but of the army of nearly sixty thousand men that began the march across the Alps, only twenty-six thousand arrived in Italy.

QUESTIONS.—What war broke out in Africa after the close of the first Punic War ? Who brought it to an end ? What was the aim of Hamilcar ? Who were his three sons ? What vow did he cause Hannibal to take ? What did Hannibal resolve ? Give an account of the embassy of Fabius. What difficulties lay before Hannibal ? How did he cross the Rhone ? What people opposed his passage of the Alps ? How did they try to deceive him ? What were the thoughts of the Carthaginians when they reached the summit ? How did Hannibal encourage them ? What was the cause of their sufferings in the descent ? What loss did they sustain in passing the Alps ?

CHAPTER XIII.

HANNIBAL IN ITALY.

THE ROMANS DEFEATED AT THE		BATTLE OF THRASYMENE.
TICINUS AND THE TREBIA.		FABIUS APPOINTED DICTATOR.
HANNIBAL CROSSES THE APENNINES.		HANNIBAL IN SOUTH ITALY.
		BATTLE OF CANNÆ.

HANNIBAL'S army enjoyed the fortnight's rest, which it must have greatly needed, undisturbed by any enemy. It was fortunate indeed for him and for his exhausted soldiers that no Roman army was ready to meet them when they left the Alps. The consul Scipio, however, appeared at last, but his army was not a large one, and after having been defeated by Hannibal on the banks of the little river Ticinus, he retreated to the hills and waited till the other consul, Sempronius, joined him with his army. Scipio had been dangerously wounded, so that Sempronius had the entire command. He longed to fight, and felt sure that he could easily defeat Hannibal and destroy the Carthaginian army.

It was on a cold and dismal morning in December that Hannibal resolved to bring on a battle. The rain and snow which had fallen had swollen the river Trebia which flowed between the two armies, so that it was running high and strong. Some of Hannibal's cavalry rode across, and then retreated again, drawing some of the Romans to follow them over the river; and Sempronius commanded his whole army to cross and attack the enemy. It was cold and damp, and none of the soldiers had had any breakfast; but they were obliged to wade through the swollen river, and then draw up on the other side, hungry, and numbed

with cold and wet as they were. Hannibal had taken care that his soldiers should have a good meal in their tents, and should put on their armour by their fires. He had also directed two thousand of his best men to lie in ambush near the spot. So the battle began, and the Romans fought with wonderful courage, and stood their ground until a loud cry of alarm was heard, and the two thousand men who were lying hid, under the command of Mago, Hannibal's brother, rushed out and attacked the Romans from behind. Even now many of the Roman soldiers fought their way desperately through their enemies, and escaped to a town near at hand. But most of the army fled towards the river, and were cut down without mercy; some got across, and reached their camp again, and Hannibal would not allow his men to cross the stream and follow them, for the cold had become very piercing. The Carthaginians, indeed, suffered greatly from the weather, and all the elephants but one perished from cold.

Hannibal stayed in North Italy till the winter months were over, and during this time he was joined by many thousands of the Gauls who inhabited the country. Early in the year 217, he determined to march southwards, and to cross the Apennines. The Romans had raised new armies, and were defending the roads by which Hannibal was likely to come. Hannibal, however, came by a way that no one thought he could possibly get through. The Carthaginian army had to march for four whole days through low, marshy plains flooded with water; they could only sleep by piling up their baggage and lying on the top of it. Here Hannibal himself, who was riding upon the one remaining elephant, had so violent an attack of inflammation that he lost the sight of one eye. At

length the soldiers reached firm ground, and comforted themselves, after their sufferings and hardships, by plundering the rich and beautiful country near Fæsulæ.

When the Roman consul Flaminius, who was waiting at Arretium to prevent Hannibal's advance, heard that he had slipped by him, and was in Etruria, he resolved to follow him; he was very eager for a battle, and very confident that he should win it. Hannibal marched on, and Flaminius followed his steps, till he came near a little valley by the side of the Lake Thrasymene. It was late in the evening when the consul encamped here; early next morning he started again, hoping soon to overtake the Carthaginian army.

It was a summer's morning in June when he entered the defile; the morning mists were hanging over the lake and the valley. The Roman army marched on, and just as those that were in front reached the other end of the valley, and were beginning to ascend the hills, they came upon some Carthaginian soldiers. Then Flaminius rejoiced, for he thought he had come up with his enemies at last. The mists rose, and the Romans saw the fatal truth. The narrow passage by which they had entered was stopped up; the hills were covered with enemies; on the other side lay the waters of the lake. Few of the Roman army escaped from that scene of death,—only some of those in front who fought their way through; the rest were cut down, or rushed into the lake, and sank under the weight of their armour. Even those who had at first escaped were pursued by Hannibal's cavalry, surrounded, and taken prisoners. The consul Flaminius was amongst those who died in the battle.

You may imagine the distress and fear there was at Rome when the news of the battle of Thrasymene arrived. A dictator was appointed named Fabius Maximus; the

walls of the city were prepared for defence, and the bridges across the Tiber were broken down. New soldiers were everywhere called out to take the place of those who had fallen.

Hannibal found, to his great disappointment, that even after his last great victory the Italians were not inclined to join him against the Romans. As he passed, the cities shut their gates and would not admit him. His army was in a rich and well-cultivated land, and the soldiers enjoyed the rest and the abundance which they found. But it was a terrible time for Italy, and the land never really recovered from it. The country, so thickly dotted over with little farms, cultivated like gardens for care, was laid as waste, when the soldiers passed through it, as if a swarm of locusts had settled upon it. The Latin and the Roman inhabitants were put to death by command of Hannibal, the enemy of Rome; and as thousands and thousands of men had already been called to go out to battle, and had fallen in war, you can imagine how desolate, how barren, was the land formerly so full of people, and smiling in plenty and peace. Hannibal never thought for a moment of besieging Rome itself; he marched towards the south of Italy, and there carried on his work of ruin. And he employed his men besides in busily collecting provisions and stores of all sorts for the coming winter. Little had the country people of those lands thought, when they sowed their corn and tended their vines that year, that a Carthaginian army would reap their harvest and drink their wines. Still, not one city joined Hannibal.

Fabius Maximus, the Roman dictator, at length appeared with his soldiers, but he would not venture to fight a battle. He was an old man and very cautious, and he did nothing

more than follow Hannibal and watch his movements, although his soldiers grew most impatient, and could not endure to look on and see the fair land laid waste by fire and sword.

Once it seemed, however, as if Hannibal had been caught in a trap. He was in a valley, the hills around were occupied by the enemy, and Hannibal was anxious to make his way out without leaving behind him any of his plunder, the corn, wine, and oil of Italy. So it is said that he ordered two thousand oxen to be chosen, and bundles of wood to be fastened to their horns; then in the darkness of the night these bundles were set alight, and the oxen driven up the hills. The Romans, who were guarding the entrance, saw the moving lights and heard the noises; they thought it was the Carthaginian army trying to escape over the hills, and hurried to prevent their march. Thus the passage was clear, and the Carthaginian army left the valley in safety.

It was now autumn, and as no city had opened its gates to Hannibal, he prepared to set up his camp, ready for the winter, in the open country near Geronium, a little town in Apulia, which he had taken; after putting the inhabitants to death, he stored up his corn in the empty houses. Fabius saw all this, but was still determined not to try a battle.

The people at Rome were beginning to be very impatient; they felt sure that although the Italian towns had been faithful till now, they would, at last, go over to Hannibal if they found that the Romans did not try to protect them. But Fabius was sure that his plan was wise, and when he had to go to Rome about this time, he told Minucius, the master of the horse, on no account to risk a battle whilst he was away. Most of the Carthaginian army were employed

in foraging the country and gathering in stores for the winter. Minucius tried to cut off the foraging parties, and once even attacked the Carthaginian camp, seeing it was defended by so few. He sent home accounts of what he had done, most likely a good deal exaggerated, and when the people heard these accounts they were more discontented with Fabius than ever, and passed a foolish law that Fabius and Minucius should share equally in the command. So the Roman army was divided into two camps, placed more than a mile apart. Hannibal knew all that had passed, and tried to tempt Minucius to fight, and Minucius would have been entirely defeated if Fabius had not come up to his help. After this Minucius gave up his separate power, and placed himself again under the orders of the dictator Fabius. Nothing more happened during the time Fabius was dictator, nor after the next consuls were appointed. So the winter and the spring passed by.

Early in the year 216 Hannibal left his winter quarters; he took the little town of Cannæ, which was the great storehouse of corn for the Roman armies. The Romans might well doubt if the Italians could remain faithful if they had to endure another year of plundering and devastation like the last. The Senate were convinced that a battle must be fought; the people were impatient till it was fought. It was resolved to raise an army such as had never before been sent out by Rome; and eighty thousand infantry and six thousand cavalry were gathered together under the command of the consuls Æmilius Paulus and Varro. Paulus was the man whom the Senate trusted; Varro was the favourite of the people, and he knew well that if he wished to keep their favour, a battle must be fought with Hannibal, and that very soon. The people thought that an army of

nearly ninety thousand men must surely win the day with ease against Hannibal's, which consisted of forty thousand foot, and ten thousand horse.

The two Roman generals, Paulus and Varro, took the command day by day in turn. They were encamped opposite the Carthaginian army at Cannæ; the little river Aufidus separated the two camps. Paulus thought that as Hannibal's cavalry was more numerous than theirs, it would not do to fight just there, where the country was a large level plain, in which horse-soldiers would have great advantage. But when it was Varro's day to command, nothing could check his impatience for a battle; and as the morning broke one summer's day in June, the red flag, the sign for battle, was seen flying over his tent. The armies drew up in order of battle; Hannibal knew that the Romans had twice as many foot-soldiers as he had, but he knew that they were chiefly newly raised for service, for the old and experienced soldiers of Rome had perished by the Ticinus, the Trebia, and Lake Thrasymene; and he knew that his cavalry was almost irresistible. His men were arranged in the shape of a crescent or half-moon, presenting a convex form towards the enemy; opposite were formed the masses of the Roman infantry, eighty thousand in number, and standing in dense columns. The Roman cavalry, as might have been expected, yielded to Hannibal's, though after a brave defence; they fled across the plain of Cannæ pursued by the enemy. When the Carthaginian cavalry returned to the battle, they found a fearful scene of confusion and bloodshed going on. The Romans had attacked the enemy, but drawn up as they were in such crowded columns, they had got into confusion as they pressed onwards; the Carthaginians then formed

in lines on both sides, and just at this moment the cavalry, returning from the pursuit, came furiously upon the Romans from behind. They could not fly—the enemy was on every side; they could not fight—they were too closely crowded together, and hemmed in; no mercy was shown, and the Romans asked for none, as they fell by tens of thousands on that dreadful day. The long summer daylight was gone at last: when night came to end the slaughter, only three thousand men remained alive to make their escape out of the host which had numbered that morning nearly ninety thousand men. Varro, with seventy other horse-soldiers, had escaped in safety when the cavalry fled; but the consul Paulus was amongst the slain. Minucius lay dead, and eighty Roman senators had perished. The flower of the Roman and Italian nation was destroyed; there was no army to oppose Hannibal; the Carthaginians were full of hope and triumph. “In three days,” said Maherbal, one of Hannibal’s officers, to him, “thou shalt sup in the Capitol at Rome.”

Can you imagine the scene at Rome when the news of the battle of Cannæ arrived? the misery and the terror that must have filled the hearts of the people? There was hardly a house that did not mourn for one dead in the battle. News came that the Italians in the south were joining Hannibal at last. The Romans feared day by day to see him at their gates. But even now the Senate would not think of peace; when Hannibal sent messengers to the city, they were not even admitted within the gates. Cries of lamentation and gatherings together of the people were forbidden, and the women were ordered to keep within their houses. Varro arrived at the gates. The Senate might have visited the calamity of the nation on his head; they

might have reproached the people for their foolish choice ; but it was no time now for disputes and reproaches ; and the senators, when they heard that he was coming, went out to meet him, and “thanked him that he had not despaired of his country.” Meantime every man in Rome who could bear arms was called out,—even boys were enlisted ; eight thousand slaves were set free and armed ; workmen were busy everywhere in making armour. So the days passed by, and Hannibal did not come ; and the Romans began once more to look forward to the future with some degree of hope.

QUESTIONS.—Where did Hannibal first defeat the Romans? Describe the battle on the Trebia. What hardships did the Carthaginians endure in crossing the Apennines? Who now commanded the Romans? Into what position were the Romans drawn? What was the end of the battle of Thrasymene? How was Hannibal disappointed after that battle? Who was made dictator? What was his policy? How did Hannibal escape great danger? What great battle was fought in 216? Who were the Roman generals in that battle? Describe the scene at Rome, and the conduct of the Senate.

CHAPTER XIV.

SECOND PUNIC WAR—FROM THE BATTLE OF CANNÆ TO THE END OF THE WAR.

<p>HANNIBAL'S POSITION AFTER THE BATTLE OF CANNÆ. HIS DIFFICULTIES. HIS HOPES. HIS DISAPPOINTMENT. SIEGE OF CAPUA. HANNIBAL'S ATTEMPTS FOR ITS RELIEF. HIS MARCH ON ROME. CAPUA TAKEN. THE SCIPIOS DEFEATED AND KILLED IN SPAIN.</p>	<p>THE YOUNG SCIPIO. HIS FAVOUR WITH THE PEOPLE AND HIS GOOD FORTUNE. DISTRESS AND SUFFERINGS OF THE ROMANS. HASDRUBAL IN ITALY. BATTLE OF THE METAURUS. INVASION OF AFRICA. HANNIBAL RECALLED. BATTLE OF ZAMA, AND END OF THE WAR.</p>
--	---

HANNIBAL did not march upon Rome after the great battle at Cannæ.

One of the reasons why he had so often defeated the Romans was the strength of his cavalry. There were no such horsemen in the world as the wild Numidian riders who served in the Carthaginian army, who used neither saddle nor bridle, and charged the enemy with a fury that nothing could resist. But whatever the Numidians and Hannibal's other horsemen could do in battle, they were of very little use in the siege of a town. Indeed, Hannibal often failed of success in the sieges he undertook. He was sure that there was no hope of taking the city of Rome, and he knew, besides, that if he marched towards it, his way would lead him through a country where every man was his bitter enemy, and every town would shut its gates upon him; for the Latins were not tempted to join him even after the battle of Cannæ. But the Italians in the south came over to him; they thought it better to make friends with the conqueror. The people of Capua, which was the most important city in Italy next to Rome, went over to Hannibal's side; and there was no loss which the Romans felt so much as this, no place they were so resolved to win back again. At Capua, the richest and most pleasure-loving of Italian towns, Hannibal and his army spent the winter. For the last three years his soldiers had not had a roof over their heads, and had not lived within the walls of a town.

The war went on very slowly; Hannibal could advance no further, and all the Italians who had joined him expected him to defend them against the Roman armies. The Romans gradually recovered from the terrible defeat of Cannæ, and though they did not fight pitched battles, they checked Hannibal on every side. Hannibal now hoped for help from other countries; he thought that all

nations must so fear the growing power of the Romans that they would willingly join in the war against them. But his hopes were disappointed. After the battle of Cannæ, some horses and elephants were sent him from Carthage, but he did not find the help he expected from home. Philip, the king of Macedon, had made a treaty with him, and promised to send a fleet across to land soldiers on the east coast of Italy, but this he never did. No help came from Spain, for there the two Scipios (the Scipio who fought at Ticinus and his brother) were successful, and the Carthaginian generals in Spain needed all the soldiers they had. The young king of Syracuse had promised to help Hannibal, but the Roman general Marcellus, in 212, took the city of Syracuse, after a long and hard siege, and gave it up to his soldiers to plunder and spoil. All Sicily was gradually brought under the power of the Romans again.

In 212, the Romans prepared to besiege the town of Capua, and the people sent messages to Hannibal, imploring him to help them. He promised to send large quantities of corn for their use, if they would fetch it from the place he told them of. He sent it under the care of a number of soldiers, but the Capuans were so long in coming to fetch it, that a number of Roman soldiers succeeded in reaching the spot, seizing all the corn, and killing or taking prisoners the Carthaginian guard. And now the Roman armies gathered closer to the city; but not long after, Hannibal, who they thought was far away, suddenly appeared, and forced them to retire. Great was the joy of the Capuans when they saw the Roman camps empty; gladly did they welcome Hannibal amongst them. But Hannibal could not stay there; he was needed else-

where, for war was going on in many places at this time ; but he left some troops behind to help the people of Capua. Then the Roman armies, numbering sixty thousand men, did indeed close in upon the city, they threw up strong fortifications all round, and waited ; sure that the city must surrender, for they knew it was not well stored with provisions, and could not hold out very long. The people of Capua, in great distress and fear, contrived to send to Hannibal a messenger, a Numidian, who made his way in safety through the Roman camp, and prayed Hannibal once more to appear at Capua, and save the city before it was too late. He came, but found the Roman armies so strong, and their lines of fortification so secure, that his attacks upon their camp failed. One other way remained : Hannibal suddenly disappeared during the darkness of the night, and marched towards Rome. He had no idea that he could take the city, but he thought that when the Romans knew he was near, they would send, in their fear, to the armies at Capua to hasten back and defend Rome. He marched on, laying waste the country on his way, and encamped at last only four miles from the walls of Rome. Great beyond measure was the fear and the terror in the city ; surely, they thought, our enemy has destroyed our armies at Capua, and has now come to destroy us and our city. The women hastened to the temples to weep and to pray ; the men took up their places on the walls to defend them to the last ; the Senate guided and directed all. But when Hannibal saw that the armies did not move from Capua, and that the city of Rome was able to defend itself, he retired again towards the south. There was no help for Capua now, and the city surrendered to an enemy whom they had offended

past all hope of forgiveness. Twenty-eight of the senators of Capua died by their own hands before the Romans entered the gates. The general, Fulvius, ordered fifty-three of the senators and chief men of the city to be immediately executed; the rest were thrown into prison. Many of the inhabitants were sold for slaves; the property of the people, and all the rich and beautiful plains of Campania, which had belonged to the city, were declared to belong henceforth to the Roman people.

Soon afterwards bad news arrived from Spain. The two Scipios who commanded there had been defeated and killed, and the Carthaginians had obtained possession of the greater part of Spain. As Capua had been taken, the Romans had soldiers to spare, and these soldiers were sent to Spain under the command of Nero. Nero was a good general, but he was a hard, proud man, and when the Roman Senate saw that he was very much disliked in Spain, they made up their minds to send the young Scipio (son of one of the brothers who had lately died) to take his place. Scipio was too independent to please the Senate, but he was a great favourite with the people. He was a young and handsome man, brave and talented,—one who seemed made to be loved and admired; and the people believed him to be a favourite of the gods, sure to prosper in all that he did. He went to Spain, and, by a wonderful stroke of good fortune, took the town of New Carthage in a single day.

And now Sicily had been conquered, Philip of Macedon had not invaded Italy, Capua was retaken, and Hannibal forced to remain in the south of Italy. Scipio was gaining victories in Spain, and winning back the hearts of the Spanish people. Yet never had the war pressed more

heavily upon Rome ; it had gone on for eleven years, and seemed far from ending. The sufferings of the people had been extreme. Tens of thousands had fallen in battle, and perhaps there were now seventy thousand in arms. The fields and farms were left uncultivated, for want of hands to till them. The country too had been laid waste by the enemy far and near ; the price of provisions was enormous, and year after year money had to be raised to feed and to pay the soldiers. Yet the spirit of the Romans had not failed. But now the Latins, who had stood by them so faithfully, began at last to grow weary ; many Latin towns declared they could help no more,—they “had neither men nor money left.” And at this moment there came alarming news. Scipio had taken New Carthage, and won over many of the Spaniards to his side, but he had not prevented Hasdrubal Barca, the brother of Hannibal, who commanded a Carthaginian army in Spain, from crossing the Pyrenees, and so beginning to march towards Italy. He crossed the Alps without difficulty, and two Carthaginian armies were in Italy : the storm gathered from the north and south at once, and Hannibal hoped that at length the time had come for him to reap the fruit of all his toils.

The Romans knew and understood their danger. Two armies were sent out ; one waited for Hasdrubal, the other, commanded by Nero, was placed near Hannibal at Canusium. Hannibal was waiting for news from his brother, that he might know where to join him. Messengers were on their way to his camp—six horsemen with a letter from Hasdrubal telling all his plans. These men were taken prisoners by some of Nero’s soldiers ; they were brought into the Roman camp, and the letter written

to Hannibal was opened and read by Nero. Having thus found out the road by which Hasdrubal was to come, Nero chose out seven thousand men, and marched away hastily by night, Hannibal not knowing that he was gone. He joined the other Roman army, and met Hasdrubal on the banks of the river Metaurus. Here a battle took place—a long and hard-fought battle—but the Romans were far more numerous than the army of Hasdrubal, and they won the victory in the end. When Hasdrubal saw that all was over, he rode into the midst of the Roman army, and fell there, sword in hand.

Nero then marched back to his camp as quickly as he had left it. Hannibal, knowing nothing of what had happened, was still in his camp waiting for the letter which he was never to receive. The cruel and heartless Nero told him the news by ordering the head of Hasdrubal to be thrown into the Carthaginian camp. Hannibal saw that all hope was over, and retreated to the extreme south of Italy.

Great was the joy in Rome when the news of the victory on the Metaurus arrived. The people had waited and longed for it with unspeakable anxiety. Now all felt the worst was over, the danger of the war was past.

This important victory was gained in 207 ; but the war did not end at once. Hannibal did not leave Italy ; he went as far south as Bruttium, and there remained with his army. The Romans no more ventured to follow and attack him there than you would venture to attack a lion in his den. In Spain, Scipio was victorious, and the whole country was lost by the Carthaginians. Mago, Hannibal's other brother, received orders from Carthage to cross over to Italy with the troops that were left in Spain, and he

succeeded in accomplishing this in the year 206, but the army he brought with him was not large enough to do much, and he was himself dangerously wounded in battle. Yet the war seemed likely to linger on ; the Romans had suffered so much and spent so much that it was difficult to go on and take the only step now left—that of carrying the war into Africa. Scipio returned from Spain, and was chosen consul for the year 205. The Senate did not like and did not trust him ; he was daring and independent, and did not always choose to be tied and bound by rule and custom ; but they soon saw that there was no man who could possibly undertake the difficult and dangerous work of the invasion of Africa but Scipio, the brave and fortunate general, the favourite of the Roman people. He was quite ready to undertake the task, but the Senate would only give him the few thousand soldiers who had escaped from death at Cannæ to take with him. But volunteers flocked to his standard, and he landed safely in Africa in the spring of 204, with thirty thousand soldiers.

Syphax and Masinissa were two princes who were disputing for the kingdom of Numidia in Africa. Scipio had gone over to Africa a year or two before, and had won over Syphax to join the Romans, but since then he had changed sides, and had married the daughter of a Carthaginian general. He now brought an immense army to the help of the Carthaginians ; but Masinissa took refuge in Scipio's camp, and could only bring with him two hundred horse-soldiers.

The Carthaginians, with the help of Syphax, prevented Scipio from advancing into the country, and he was obliged to pass the winter in a camp close to the sea-

shore, and almost shut in by the enemy. Then Scipio formed a plan : first of all, he pretended to be willing to make peace, and by means of the messengers whom he sent he found out all about the enemy's camp. He heard that the two armies, the Carthaginian and the Numidian, lodged in wooden huts, covered with dried leaves or thatch. Then one dark night he contrived to set the Numidian camp on fire in several places. The flames spread, and the Carthaginians hastened to give help ; but instantly their own camp was in flames behind them. Helpless, unarmed, and terrified, they were attacked by Scipio, the fire spreading all the time and growing more furious, and the struggling crowd of those who were flying getting more and more confused and distracted.

Few escaped from the horrors of that dreadful night. Shortly afterwards Syphax himself was taken prisoner, and Masinissa became prince of Numidia.

In the year 203 Hannibal and Mago received word that they must return home to defend their country. Mago died of his wounds on his way ; Hannibal arrived safely in the city which he had left when a boy of nine years old. Preparation was made to carry on the war, but a battle was not fought till the next year, 202 B.C.

The armies of Hannibal and of Scipio were drawn up near the town of Zama. You know of what service the Numidian horsemen had been to Hannibal in Italy ; now, under the command of Masinissa, they were fighting against him. The Carthaginian cavalry was defeated before long ; but the battle between the infantry was fierce and terrible. Hannibal and the soldiers who had come with him from Italy would not give way, although they were few in number compared with the enemy. They fought and fell

upon the spot where they stood, and their places were filled up by their fellow-soldiers. But at last the Roman and Numidian cavalry, which had been pursuing the Carthaginian cavalry, returned, and attacked Hannibal's soldiers from behind. Surrounded on all sides, few escaped with their lives. Hannibal himself, with a few of his men, reached the town of Adrumetum in safety.

The battle of Zama ended the war. It had lasted for sixteen years, and is one of the most wonderful and terrible wars related in history. The power of Carthage was destroyed, and there was now no country or kingdom that could have any chance against the Romans.

Scipio made peace on condition that the Carthaginians should restore all prisoners and deserters ; pay the Romans a large sum of money every year for fifty years ; give up their elephants, and all their ships of war excepting ten, and all their possessions out of Africa. They were to make no wars without the permission of the Romans, and were to acknowledge Masinissa as prince of Numidia. Peace was made in the year 201.

Hannibal remained at Carthage. He was now forty-five years old, and had seen the plan of his whole life come to ruin. But he still worked for the good of Carthage, and reformed much that was bad in the government. Nor had he forgotten his father's early lesson. The Romans were beginning a war far off in the East, and who could tell that Hannibal might not once more land upon the shores of Italy. He was the only man whom the Romans feared, and in 195 they sent word to Carthage that they must give up Hannibal into their hands. But Hannibal had guessed what was coming, and had left Carthage, and

gone far away to the East, never to return to his native city.

QUESTIONS.—What was the chief strength of Hannibal's army? What important city joined him? How did the war go on? From what countries did Hannibal look for help? Who commanded the Roman armies in Spain? How did Hannibal try to save Capua? What was the fate of that city? What news came from Spain? What young Roman general became the favourite of the people? What was the state of Italy? Who led an army into the north of Italy? How did Nero receive this intelligence? How did he act? What victory did he gain over Hasdrubal? Who undertook to carry the war into Africa? What disaster happened to the Carthaginian camp? Where was the last battle of the war fought? What was its result? On what conditions did Scipio make peace? In what year was the peace made? Why did Hannibal leave Carthage?

CHAPTER XV.

WARS IN THE EAST—DEATH OF HANNIBAL.

PHILIP, KING OF MACEDON.

HIS ALLIANCE WITH ANTIOCHUS, KING
OF SYRIA.

WAR OF THE ROMANS AGAINST PHILIP.

WAR WITH ANTIOCHUS.

DEATH OF HANNIBAL.

WAR WITH PERSEUS, KING OF MACEDON.

WAR WITH THE GREEKS.

GREECE A ROMAN PROVINCE.

You remember that when Hannibal was in Italy, he was disappointed in not receiving the help he expected from Philip, the king of Macedon. Philip never invaded Italy, but in 214 the Romans landed upon the shores of Greece, and there stirred up the Greeks against Philip. Fighting went on for ten years, and at last Philip made peace with the Romans a few years before the battle of Zama.

You must not think that the Greeks of whom we are now writing had anything of the greatness and glory of the Greeks of old. Many of them depended upon the king of Macedon, the rest were constantly quarrelling and disputing with him and with each other.

The kingdom of Macedon was strong and warlike. As for Philip himself, he was brave and full of energy; but

he was a bad man, and one of those who seem as if they have no conscience within them. He became king when he was only eighteen, and could then be as selfish and cruel as he pleased ; he was one of those kings who think that their subjects are made simply for their pleasure, and that their people are bound to them, but they are not bound to their people. Nor did he imagine that a king was under any obligation to keep his word and his promises like other men.

In the year 205 the king of Egypt died, and the new king was a child of five years old. Philip and another king, Antiochus of Syria, immediately joined together in a plan to seize upon Egypt and its dominions, and divide them between them. Philip began at once to take possession of some of the Greek cities in Asia Minor, and treated the inhabitants with the greatest cruelty. It was the year of the peace with Carthage, and the Romans looked anxiously at what was going on in the East. Were they to let a strong barbarous power grow up there, stop the trade of Italy, destroy the Greek cities, and Egypt, and other lands that were friendly with Rome ? The Senate thought not ; and the very year after the war with Carthage was ended, a war with Philip of Macedon began.

Of that war I shall only tell you, that for two years the Romans had hardly any success ; but in 197 they gained a great victory, and Philip was obliged to make peace, to give up all his possessions, excepting Macedon itself, and to promise to keep no more than five thousand soldiers and five ships of war. The Greeks were solemnly declared to be free from that day forward, and their joy and enthusiasm were very great. The Roman army returned home.

It was mere selfishness that had made Philip and Antiochus join each other against Egypt, and Antiochus had

never thought of helping Philip in his troubles. He had gained a victory over the Egyptians, and seemed quite ready for a war with the Romans. In 195, Hannibal who had just fled from Carthage, came to his court, and was welcomed by Antiochus. The Romans had no longer any doubt that war must come.

But King Antiochus was too proud to follow Hannibal's directions, and so lost his only chance of success. He employed Hannibal on board the fleet; but, being a king, he thought it beneath him to listen to his advice. He trusted to his immense army of eighty thousand men, but Asiatics were of no use against Roman soldiers. When a great battle was fought, in the year 190, the Syrian army fled in such terror, that most of them are said to have been killed or taken prisoners, whilst the Romans only lost three hundred and twenty-four soldiers. Antiochus had to pay all the expense of the war, and to give up Asia Minor to the Romans. Nor did the Romans forget to add that Hannibal must also be given into their hands.

Hannibal had, however, escaped. After wandering hither and thither, he took refuge at the court of Prusias, the king of Bithynia. This king was at war with Eumenes, of Pergamos, a faithful friend of the Romans, and Hannibal willingly gave him his help and his best services. At this foreign court Hannibal spent the few remaining years of his life, far from his home and friends, an exile from the country he had loved so well. He was nearly seventy years old: sad and lonely were his closing days; nor was he allowed to end them in peace. It is not certain whether it was the doing of the king, Prusias, or of the Roman general, Flamininus, or of both together; but so much we know, that Hannibal one day saw his house

surrounded by murderers. He was not greatly surprised or disturbed. He always carried poison concealed about him to be ready for the worst; for he knew that the wretched king at whose court he lived was not to be trusted, and he knew that his name was the only name in the wide world that the Romans feared. When he saw the murderers, then he swallowed the poison, and died in the year 183, beyond all doubt one of the greatest men in the history of the world—one in whose character was no selfishness and no littleness. Hannibal did wonderful things for his country; he humbled the pride of Rome, and all but destroyed her power; but afterwards, though by no fault of his own, he lived to see his own glory grow dim, his country utterly cast down before the enemy; and then, after flying like a criminal from his native city, he had to spend his last years in wandering, a lonely stranger, from court to court, and to die at last without a friend, forsaken and betrayed. But he knew that his name was the only name that Rome had ever really feared; and long after his death it was with the name of Hannibal that the Romans used to terrify their children.

We must now go back to Philip of Macedon. Whilst war had been going on between Antiochus and the Romans, he had been busy in strengthening his kingdom in every way he could, and he had raised his army to a number far beyond the five thousand that were allowed him by the treaty. He hated the Romans in his heart; his pride could not endure to feel how great their power was, and he hoped one day to revenge himself upon them. It was not, however, until after his death, and after his son Perseus had come to the throne, that the war broke out again. Perseus had as little conscience, and cared as little for right and

justice, as his father, but he was a very different sort of man. He was not brave and warlike, as Philip had been. Philip loved pleasure, and Perseus loved money. But though Perseus was not a good soldier, he had the best of it at first in the war with the Romans, for the Romans now did not fight as they used to do. However, at last they sent a really good general, named Æmilius Paulus. He was the son of the general who died in the battle of Cannæ; and in 168 he gained a great victory over Perseus at Pydna. The king was one of the first to fly, and he carried with him in his flight the gold he loved so well. But finding there was no safe place of refuge, he gave himself up to the Roman general, shedding tears as he did so. He was afterwards taken to Italy, and ended his days there as a prisoner. His kingdom became the province of Macedonia, and was ruled by a governor sent from Rome.

You remember that the Romans had declared the Greeks free; that was in the year 196. Greece remained free for fifty years from that time; but there was scarcely any law or order in the country. The quarrels and disputes of the Greeks with each other went on, and they were always asking the Roman Senate to decide. Everything was in confusion and distraction. On one occasion the Romans interfered in a dispute, and this led to a war in which the Greeks were defeated very easily, and from that day Greece was governed by the Romans, and was called the province of Achaia.

QUESTIONS.—What king had disappointed the hopes of Hannibal? Describe his character. How did the war between Philip and the Romans end? What benefit did the Romans confer on the Greeks? Who had been the ally of Philip? What general came to Antiochus? On what conditions was peace made with Antiochus? Describe the close of Hannibal's life. Was Philip of Macedon satisfied with his position? Who succeeded him? In what battle was Perseus defeated? What had been the state of Greece since its freedom? What was now its fate?

CHAPTER XVI.

EXTENT OF THE ROMAN DOMINIONS—DESTRUCTION
OF CARTHAGE.

EXTENSION OF ROMAN POWER SINCE
THE DAYS OF PYRRYHUS.
THE PROVINCES.
MASINISSA AND CARTHAGE.
INJUSTICE AND CRUELTY OF THE
ROMANS.
THE SIEGE OF CARTHAGE.

DESPERATE DEFENCE.
SCIPIO APPOINTED TO COMMAND.
THE CITY BLOCKADED.
HUNGER AND SICKNESS WITHIN.
THE CITY TAKEN.
THE CLOSING SCENES.
CARTHAGE UTTERLY DESTROYED.

You remember, perhaps, that at the end of the war with Pyrrhus we noticed the great change in the importance and power of Rome since the early days when Rome was only a collection of wooden huts on the seven hills near the Tiber ; and we saw that the Romans had become masters of all Italy. Since then we have read of the wars with Carthage, and the wars in the East ; and now, if we look again, and ask how far the power of Rome reaches, we shall find that, beyond Italy, the countries of Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, Spain, Macedonia, Greece, and a great part of Asia Minor, are ruled by the Romans. These countries are called the provinces of Rome, and a governor is sent to each of them, year by year, from Rome. The people pay taxes, but do not supply soldiers for war. Egypt, Rhodes, and the part of Asia Minor that does not belong to Rome, are all quite friendly with the Romans, and are indeed too much afraid of their power to dispute their will in anything. Our history will soon take us back to Rome itself for a time ; but first we shall have to inquire the fate of the old enemy of Rome—the city of Carthage.

After Hannibal left Carthage, there was no one in the city who would dare to offend the Romans. The Carthaginians paid the money they had promised to pay year by year, and obeyed the Romans in all things. And as years passed by in peace and quietness, their trade prospered, and they became very rich; the city was filled with hundreds of thousands of inhabitants; the fields were fruitful as of old, the harbour and the streets as busy and crowded as ever. The minds of the Romans were filled with bad feelings, jealousy, envy, and ill-will at the prosperity of Carthage; and there were many who began to murmur, that unless Carthage were destroyed there could be no peace or security for Rome. In all they had to do with Carthage the Romans showed themselves unjust and cruel. The chief troubles of the Carthaginians arose from that prince of Numidia whose name you heard in the last chapter but one—Masinissa. He was always seizing upon parts of the country which belonged to Carthage, and you know the unfortunate Carthaginians were not allowed to make any war without the permission of the Romans. During the fifty years of peace which followed the battle of Zama, Masinissa was thus continually tormenting them, until at length scarcely any land was left to them, except that which lay close to the city. The Carthaginians had sent message after message to Rome, complaining of Masinissa, and begging that justice might be done. But what could be the use of their complaints, when all the Romans cared for was that Carthage should grow weaker and weaker, and presently be destroyed. At length the Carthaginians could bear the injustice of the Romans no longer, and they ventured to go to war with Masinissa. They hired soldiers to fight as usual, but they lost the

battle that they fought against the king of Numidia. The Romans were only waiting for an excuse to make war upon the Carthaginians, and the Senate had secretly made up their minds that the war, when it began, should only end by the destruction of Carthage. They now declared that by making war upon Masinissa, a friend of the Romans, the Carthaginians had broken the treaty with Rome, and must prepare for war.

The Carthaginians had dared to begin a war with Masinissa, but their courage left them now ; they were full of fear and despair. They sent the humblest possible messages to Rome, and tried to excuse themselves as well as they could. The Senate said that their excuses were not sufficient ; and when the messengers asked what then they *were* to do ? the only answer they could get was, that the people of Carthage knew very well what they ought to do. Then more messengers were sent to say that they would give themselves up entirely to the will of the Romans. When they arrived at Rome, they found that war had been declared, and that the Roman armies were on their way to Africa. The Senate told the messengers that the Romans would grant the Carthaginians their land, their liberty, and their laws, if they would send three hundred children of their noblest families as hostages, and would promise, besides, to do whatever the consuls commanded when they landed in Africa at the head of the Roman armies. With bitter sorrow and with much fear the hostages were sent. Soon after the Romans set foot in Africa. They were eighty thousand in number ; and well might the Carthaginians tremble at their coming, especially if they considered that the Senate had indeed promised them their land, their liberty, and their laws, but had

said no word about their city, the home they loved so dearly.

The Carthaginians waited to know the pleasure of the consuls ; and first of all they were told that they must give up all the armour in the city. They obeyed, and two hundred thousand suits of armour, and weapons of all kinds, were brought into the Roman camp. So the people of Carthage were left helpless and unarmed. Was anything further required ? The consul Censorinus stood up and declared that he brought with him the secret instructions of the Senate ; that the Carthaginians must leave their city, for the Romans had determined to destroy it ; but that they might settle anywhere they pleased, in a town without walls, and at least ten miles from the sea. When the cruel resolution of the Roman Senate was known in Carthage, all the patience of the people gave way at last ; nothing could stay their fury. They had no armour, no defence ; but one thing they could do, they could die, and they would perish rather than give up their city to destruction. They sent to ask the consul to grant them thirty days to send a message to Rome. He did not grant it, but he thought the message proved that the anger of the Carthaginians would cool down, and they would submit as they had so often done before. So he waited a little before marching to the city, and this was what the Carthaginians had hoped for. Meanwhile, within the walls of Carthage, men and women, young and old, worked day and night ; the buildings were pulled down to get metal, the women cut off their long dark hair to make ropes for the machines. When the Roman armies came, they expected to find the city open, and the people unarmed and helpless ; but they saw instead the walls guarded, and war-engines ready to

defend them, whilst every man within seemed armed as if by a miracle, and all were ready to die sooner than surrender.

The siege of Carthage began in the year 149. It was no easy task that the consuls had undertaken ; the walls were strong, and strongly fortified ; the people who defended them were desperate men. The year passed by, the burning heat of an African sun caused much sickness in the Roman camp ; winter came, and Carthage was not taken. Next year the new consuls arrived, but they understood war even less than the consuls of the year before, and the Carthaginians ventured to begin to hope. But in the Roman army there was an officer named Scipio *Æmilianus*, the only man who had shown any talent at all in the war. More than once he had saved the Roman army from great disaster : so the Romans resolved to make him consul and general of the army, although he was younger than the age required for a consul. He landed in Africa, and the first thing he did was to bring back order and obedience into the Roman camp, to drive away all the idlers who had crowded to it. Then the siege began in earnest. The large suburb of Megara, a pleasant spot outside the walls, filled with houses and well-watered gardens, was taken ; and then Scipio tried to block up the harbour, so that no food should be brought into the city, and he built a great stone dam across it. But whilst the Romans were busy in this work the Carthaginians were busy too, and they dug another channel from the harbour to the sea, and just when Scipio thought that he had shut up the harbour safely, and that no ships could go out or come in, the Carthaginian fleet sailed out into the open sea by the new channel of which the Romans knew

nothing. If, at this moment, whilst the Romans were astonished and confused, the Carthaginian ships had attacked theirs, the Roman fleet might have been destroyed. But the Carthaginians seemed content with showing themselves, and sailed back again. A few days after, in a fight by sea, the Romans had the best of it.

Scipio now succeeded in drawing his troops nearer to the city, and he gradually shut it in on every side. Winter came, and Scipio waited patiently, knowing that hunger and sickness were working for him inside the unhappy city. Terrible were the sufferings of that winter.

When Scipio, in the spring of 146, advanced to the inner wall, hardly any one appeared to defend it. Hasdrubal, who commanded the soldiers in Carthage, was a wicked and cruel man; the miserable Carthaginians had suffered almost as much from his cruelty as from hunger and sickness. He now retired with his men into the strong citadel, which was on the top of a steep rock. Scipio entered the city. Three long, narrow streets led up towards the citadel, with high six-storied houses on each side. It cost the Roman army six days of terrible fighting to make their way along those streets. Every house was like a fortification, and each had to be conquered one by one; and as the soldiers took possession of them, they put to death all whom they found within. At length, they forced their way, leaving the silence of death behind them as they went, as far as the rock on which the citadel stood. Then Scipio ordered the houses of the streets through which they had come to be burned, and the ruins to be heaped up against the citadel. Those who had escaped the swords of the soldiers, the women, the sick, and the aged who could

not fight, and had hidden themselves, together with the wounded, perished miserably in the flames.

Of the hundreds of thousands who had been living in Carthage three short years before, there were now left alive only thirty thousand men and twenty-five thousand women to beg for mercy from the conquerors. Scipio spared their lives, but most of them were afterwards sold as slaves.

There were now in the citadel only Hasdrubal, with his wife and children, and the Roman deserters, who knew that there could be no mercy for them. These all gathered together in a temple at the top of the rock, which they determined to set on fire, and perish in the flames. Hasdrubal himself was a worthless and cruel man. He had barbarously murdered the Roman prisoners before the eyes of the Roman army; but now his courage failed, and he escaped, and went before Scipio, and falling on his knees, begged that his life might be spared. His prayer was granted, and his life was spared, that he might follow the chariot of Scipio when, on his return home, he should enter the city in triumph and ride up to the Capitol, according to the Roman custom.

The wife of Hasdrubal saw what passed with bitter scorn. She cursed her base and cowardly husband, and then threw herself and her children into the burning flames. Fighting was over now, and the Roman soldiers plundered the magnificent city: the statues and works of art were sent to Rome.

But the Senate and the people of Rome were not satisfied so long as one stone was left standing upon another in Carthage. Orders came to Scipio to lay the city even with the ground, and then to draw a ploughshare over the

spot where it had stood so long. Scipio was unwilling to obey the hard command; he had asked that the city might be spared, but in vain. The Romans were blinded by jealousy and hatred, and had resolved that no houses should be built, no corn and fruit-trees grow, there again for ever.

The ruins of Carthage burned for seventeen days; and it is said that Scipio wept over the work he had been called to do, and feared to think how surely the anger of Heaven must follow such a deed.

QUESTIONS.—What countries were subject to Rome after the battle of Pydna in 168? How were they governed? What was the condition of Carthage? Who was their enemy in Africa? What was the difficulty of their position with respect to Masinissa? How did the Romans answer their first ambassadors? What conditions did the Senate impose? What was the first demand made by the consuls? What was the next? How was that demand received in Carthage? What did the Roman consuls find when they arrived at the city? How long did the siege last? Who ended it? Who commanded in Carthage? How was the city taken? How did Hasdrubal act? Who were the last survivors in the city? What orders did Scipio receive? For how long did the ruins of Carthage burn?

CHAPTER XVII.

THE STATE OF ROME.—TIBERIUS AND CAIUS GRACCHUS.

CHANGES IN THE CHARACTER AND THE
STATE OF THE ROMAN PEOPLE.
SLAVERY.
THE CROWDS OF POOR AT ROME.
CHEAP CORN AND SHOWS.
THE GOVERNMENT.
LOVE OF MONEY.
THE PROVINCES.
THE ITALIANS.
CORNELIA AND HERSONS, TIBERIUS AND
CAIUS GRACCHUS.
CHARACTER OF TIBERIUS.

HIS LAW ABOUT LAND.
HIS DEATH.
CAIUS GRACCHUS.
HIS LAWS.
COLONIES.
THE SENATE SET THE PEOPLE AGAINST
HIM.
HIS DEATH.
REVERENCE AND LOVE OF THE PEOPLE
FOR THE MEMORY OF THE TWO
BROTHERS.

AFTER Hannibal was defeated and Carthage was humbled, at the end of the Second Punic War, the Romans had no

enemies left that they feared. One country after another came under their power. But in spite of all these victories and all this greatness, there was discontent and suffering in Rome and Italy. The days of peace and plenty that the people enjoyed after the wars of Pyrrhus, were gone, never to return. There were many causes for this sad change. I will tell you of one or two.

If you had travelled in the country about the year 140, you would have observed one sad change in it directly. You remember it used to be covered with little farms, of a few acres each, on which the Roman families lived and worked. These farms are gone, and so are the hard-working Roman families who lived on them, once industrious and contented. Those terrible years that Hannibal spent in Italy destroyed them by hundreds and thousands, and the country had been laid so desolate that it had never recovered.

The Romans had conquered in many wars since those early days, and they had carried off tens of thousands of their enemies for slaves; and the great Roman families found it very profitable to use slaves in cultivating the land and in keeping their flocks and their cattle. Poor, honest labourers and hard-working farmers had no chance of making money. On a piece of ground where, in the old days, one hundred or one hundred and fifty free families lived, each cultivating their own little property, perhaps with the help of one or two slaves, on the same piece of ground you would see now only one free family. They are very rich, and cultivate the land by means of about fifty slaves, who get no wages for their toil.

Great numbers who found it was impossible to get a living in the country crowded to Rome. Each of these men, being a Roman by birth, could give his vote, when the

Assembly of the people met ; and so the great men of the city tried to keep them in good-humour that they might be persuaded to vote as the Government wished. They bought quantities of corn from other countries, and let the people have it very cheap ; they provided public games and amusements. Formerly it was forbidden to exhibit wild beast fights in Rome ; now they were constantly shown, and the idle mob took great delight in them. But there was another show that they enjoyed still more—that of gladiators. Men were trained in schools to fight, and then, on great holidays in Rome, they were brought out to fight together and to kill each other for the amusement of the Romans. Most of these wretched men were slaves. Gladiatorial shows had been common in Etruria, and very common at Capua, but for a long time they were absolutely forbidden in Rome. But they were very frequent now. So long as the people had cheap bread and plenty of shows they cared very little about anything else, and the government of Rome was really carried on by a few rich and noble families. And these families were bent on making all the money they could—by working their slaves—by cruelly taxing the people in the provinces. And as they did not like to spend money, they took no care, on the other hand, to defend the provinces, but let the sea-robbers or pirates land there, and steal, and kill, and burn as they pleased.

The Romans themselves were growing very disinclined to serve in war ; the poor liked the idle life they led in the city too well to care to leave it for the hardships of war ; the rich were given up to money-making and luxury. When a war came, therefore, the Italians were required to send by far the greater number of soldiers, yet after a victory

they got much less of the plunder than the Romans. Justice and honour were hardly to be found in Rome; almost anything could be done for money; magistrates and judges took bribes without hesitation. Nor did the people believe in their gods and worship them as in the days of old.

There were two young men, brothers, who grieved to see the misery of the poor and the desolation of the land, and who tried, if it were possible, to make a change for the better. Scipio, who conquered Hannibal in Africa, and was called Africanus in memory of his victory, had a daughter named Cornelia. She married Tiberius Gracchus, a man much liked and esteemed. He died, and left her the charge of bringing up her children (two sons and a daughter) alone. Cornelia was a woman of the highest and noblest character, and it is said that the king of Egypt was anxious to make her his wife; but she refused the offer, and devoted herself to the education of her children. The names of her two sons were Tiberius and Caius Gracchus. When Tiberius was a lad, he had served under the Scipio who took Carthage, first at the siege of Carthage itself, and afterwards in a war in Spain. He showed himself a brave soldier; but he was more than that. He was a good man, against whose character no one had anything to say; he was thoughtful and quiet by nature, and he could not bear the sight of cruelty and wrong. Especially had it grieved him when on his way to Rome he noticed that in all the country of Etruria there was not one free labourer working in the fields.

Tiberius Gracchus was chosen one of the tribunes of the people for the year 133; and he then made up his mind to try if he could get a law passed to relieve the distress

of the poor. One of their great troubles was, that they were prevented using the common lands. The law did not allow any one person to keep more than a certain number of cattle feeding on these lands, so that all might have some share. But now the rich people filled up all the common lands with their own cattle in such numbers that the poor could not turn out theirs. Besides, the rich men never would allow grants of the common land to be made to the people for farms as they used to be, but they kept it all as their own ground. Tiberius Gracchus proposed to the people to pass a law that the old law should be carried out, and that the common land should be once again divided amongst the people. The law was passed, but the rich and the great men of the country were very angry, and were determined to have their revenge upon the man who had dared to bring in that law. They contrived to raise a tumult, and as Tiberius Gracchus was trying to escape, some one struck him on the head with a piece of wood, and stunned him, and another of his enemies killed him. His body was thrown into the river Tiber; they would not give it up to his brother when he asked for it. After his death numbers of his friends and followers were killed; but he had succeeded in getting his law passed, and the government could not prevent its being carried out.

Caius Gracchus was nine years younger than his brother. He was as good a man as Tiberius had been; and he was much cleverer and more daring; he had wonderful powers of speaking, and could move the hearts of all who listened to his words. He felt very deeply for the present state of things at home and abroad; at the time of his brother's murder he was only about twenty years of age, and as the years passed by he thought long and often of the evil deeds

of the Roman government, of the sufferings of the poor, of the complaints of the Italians, of the miseries of the provinces. Never did he forget the cruel end of his brother; even in his dreams he seemed to see him and to hear him say, "Why dost thou delay? Thou canst not escape thy fate, which is to live and die as I have done."

Nine years passed away after the death of Tiberius Gracchus; the government of Rome were so afraid of Caius that they tried to keep him away from the city, and gave him an office in Sardinia. There he treated the people justly and kindly; in a very different way from that in which Roman governors generally treated the provinces; and he was greatly respected and loved. But at last, in 124, he returned to Rome and was chosen tribune for 123. Then he brought in several laws, which the Assembly of the people passed; for if the Assembly agreed to pass a law, there was no need for the Senate to agree to it. It became a law at once. By the new measures of Caius Gracchus, corn was to be sold to the people as cheaply as possible; this was not a wise thing to do, and it led to much mischief afterwards, for all the idle and bad people in Rome could get food and live without working, and they would be sure to be doing mischief if they had no honest work to do. But the reason of Caius Gracchus for proposing it was, that he might gain the favour of the people, and be supported by them against the Senate and the government. I cannot explain to you all the changes that Gracchus brought in. Some were very wise and good. Perhaps his best idea was that of establishing colonies beyond the seas, and settling there great numbers of the poor, for whom there was no work and no comfort at home. One colony he did establish in

Gaul, and it afterwards became a large and prosperous city. Another he wished to settle on the spot where Carthage once stood. And he went over to Africa to begin the work.

The people of Rome had been very pleased when they found that they could have corn for next to nothing ; and had at first eagerly supported Caius Gracchus. But he soon began to lose their favour ; he proposed to treat the Italians more fairly, and to let the Latins have the privilege of voting when magistrates and governors were chosen ; for he saw how angry and discontented the Italians were, and that it was only fear that kept them from actually making war. But the idea that the Italians should be treated in any way like the Romans, made the people of Rome very angry, and they never forgave Gracchus for thinking of such a thing. He was away in Africa, and they refused to pass the law. When he returned, they would not choose him again for tribune. Then the Senate tried to persuade the people that Gracchus had done a very wicked thing in attempting to build a new city on a spot which was to be barren and desolate for ever ; and they made the priests tell the people that when the first stones had been laid, hyænas had come and overturned them, and therefore it was quite plain that the anger of the gods rested upon the whole plan. So the Senate proposed that the work should stop. The people met to give their votes about it, and the first day of voting there was wild tumult and confusion. Gracchus retired to his house in the evening, and made no preparation for the coming day. But his enemies filled the streets with armed men ; and the senators and the rich merchants, with their slaves, were there. The daylight broke ; silently and unarmed,

Gracchus, with a few faithful friends, retired to the top of the Aventine Hill. The people did nothing; the consul and his armed band of senators, merchants, slaves, and foreign soldiers ascended the hill, and killed all they met. A reward for the head of Gracchus was offered—its weight in gold. Gracchus had at first retired into a temple, and wished to put an end to his own life, but his friends implored him to try and escape. As he hastened down a steep rock he fell and sprained his foot; to give him time to escape, two of his friends stood bravely against the enemies, and died for his sake; one of them on the bridge across the Tiber, famous for the story of Horatius Cocles. Gracchus reached the other side, but only one of his slaves was with him. Their bodies were found lying in a grove; and it seemed as if the servant had first put an end to his master's life, and afterwards to his own. Cræel vengeance was taken by the Senate on all who had been on the side of Gracchus. The memory of the two brothers was declared infamous; their mother, Cornelia, dared not put on mourning for her son; but they were secretly loved, and almost worshipped by the people. They had forsaken them in the hour of danger, and left them to die, but they could not be prevented from showing their reverence for the places where they had fallen, which they regarded as sacred ground.

QUESTIONS.—What was the position of the Roman people in the world after the destruction of Carthage? What was the state of Rome and Italy as compared with former times? What deplorable change had come upon the country? What was the character of the poorer classes at Rome? How did the government rule? Who was Cornelia? Name her two sons. What law did Tib. Gracchus succeed in passing? What was his fate? What kind of man was C. Gracchus? What were some of his measures? Describe his end.

CHAPTER XVIII.

SERVILE, JUGURTHINE, AND CIMBRIAN WARS.

SLAVERY.

SERVILE WAR IN SICILY.

JUGURTHA.

HIS DEALINGS WITH THE ROMAN GOVERNMENT.

WAR AND DISGRACEFUL PEACE.

VICTORY OF METELLUS.

MARIUS CONSUL AND GENERAL.

HE ENDS THE WAR.

INVASION OF THE CIMBRI.

BATTLE OF ARAUSIO.

MARIUS DEFEATS AND DESTROYS THE CIMBRI.

YOU have read how slavery had increased amongst the Romans, how the land was generally cultivated, and the cattle kept by slaves. The masters made large fortunes, and lived in magnificent houses, passing their time in pleasure; spending immense sums in eating and drinking, whilst the poor creatures who wasted their weary lives in toiling for them, received no wages, and were treated worse than the beasts of the field. When they grew sick or old, no care was taken of them; if they were useless to their masters, why should they not die? A good many of these slaves were prisoners made in war, men who had once stood face to face with Roman soldiers in battle. Some had been brought from Sardinia, but these were wretched creatures, half savages, and sold for very little in the market. But there were others—brave Spaniards, who had fought hard for their liberty; Capuans and Southern Italians, who had been punished for having joined Hannibal by being sold into slavery; and there were those unhappy men and women, whom we saw after the siege of Carthage begging for mercy from the conqueror. But by far the largest number of slaves were not prisoners,

but were brought together from many lands, chiefly from Asia Minor ; they were first hunted down like wild beasts, then torn from their country and carried for sale into the slave markets. The pirates did a great deal of this business, and the Roman merchants bought the slaves. It seems that it was thought the cheapest plan not to take much care of the slaves, but to work them as hard as possible, and to let them work themselves out soon, and then buy fresh slaves to take their place.

Nowhere were the slaves worse treated than in Sicily ; here Roman masters copied the Carthaginians ; you remember how they treated their slaves. The Sicilian slaves were a wild and savage set of men. They were chiefly employed in tending the herds and flocks amongst the hills ; and they were no better than robbers, for their masters encouraged them to steal ; if they wanted clothes they would tell them that travellers had clothes on.

There were constant revolts and rebellions amongst the slaves in Italy and in the provinces ; but in Sicily there were two actual wars ; very dangerous and horrible wars—for men who have been cruelly and shamefully treated are sure to be cruel and savage when their turn comes. The first of these wars was just before Tib. Gracchus was tribune ; the second about thirty years afterwards, in 104. In both of them it was only with great difficulty that the armies of the rebellious slaves were conquered, and in both cases you may imagine how cruel a vengeance would be taken when the war was over.

There is something very melancholy in the history of Rome at this time. After the deaths of Tib. and C. Gracchus we meet with nothing but selfishness and cruelty everywhere. The people became more and more degraded

and corrupt ; the government was really in the hands of a few families, and no one who did not belong to those families had a chance of being chosen to any office ; the votes of the people were bought. And never did any men govern worse, for their chief aim was to make money, and they did not care how they made it. A war that broke out in Numidia showed this. That kingdom had been left by will to three princes ; two grandsons of old Massinissa and a cousin of theirs named Jugurtha. The Romans had promised to see that this will was carried out. But Jugurtha, who was a bold, bad man, soon contrived to have one of his cousins murdered, and then made war on the other. He had secretly paid a great deal of money to the Roman government, and so they did not interfere, and Jugurtha besieged his cousin in the town of Cirta. In this town were many Italians, and piteous messages were sent to Rome for help, but no help came ; the town surrendered to Jugurtha, who first promised to spare their lives, but afterwards commanded every man within its walls to be put to death.

The people of Rome were now so angry that the Senate was obliged to declare war, but almost as soon as the army reached Numidia, peace was made, and the army returned to Rome. Every one knew that it was Jugurtha's money that had made the easy peace. Then one of the tribunes insisted that the king of Numidia should be sent for to Rome. But when he came everything was hushed up ; Jugurtha contrived to murder a young Numidian prince who was living at Rome, and hoping that he might possibly be king of Numidia some day. The Senate after this were obliged to send Jugurtha away, and prepare for war—"A city to be had for money," was the description he is said to have given Rome.

War began, but there was no order in the Roman camp. Nothing could be done with the men. Not a few of the Romans were secretly on Jugurtha's side, having received money from him. One night the Roman camp was surrounded, and the soldiers forced to surrender, to pass out under the yoke, and then to leave the country, having once more made peace with Jugurtha.

However, Metellus, the next general sent out from Rome, was a different sort of man from those whom Jugurtha had had to do with before. He was a proud man, but honest, and scorned bribes. He soon brought the camp into order, and then gained a victory over the Numidians in the year 108. But it was no easy task to end the war; if the African soldiers fled, they were soon lost in the deserts, and there they were at home and safe, ready to fight at another day. Next year Caius Marius, one of the officers of Metellus, was chosen consul and general, and he presently brought the war to an end. It had lasted seven years. Perhaps it would be true to say that the end of the war was due to the commander of the cavalry, whose name was Lucius Cornelius Sulla. He contrived to persuade the father-in-law of Jugurtha to betray him into his hands; and when Jugurtha was a prisoner, the war was at an end. The prisoner was brought to Rome. In chains he followed the chariot of Marius when he entered the city in triumph; then he was thrown into a dark, cold dungeon underground. Jugurtha had been born under an African sun, and had lived much in the burning desert; his teeth chattered in that freezing air—"Oh, what a cold bath!" he exclaimed as he was thrust in—and they left him to die of cold and hunger.

I have told you that Caius Marius was general of the

Roman army when Jugurtha was conquered. Marius was the son of poor country peasants; his father was a day labourer. In his boyhood he passed through many hardships; he knew what it was to bear hunger and thirst, summer's heat and winter's cold. He early entered the army, and served under Scipio in Spain; there he gained great reputation as a soldier, and attracted the especial notice of his general. Marius was a rough, ignorant man, but full of ambition and energy, and loved a soldier's life. He was not at all fit to mix with the rich and fashionable people of Rome, and never felt himself at home amongst them. However, he knew that if he wished one day to be a general, and to command a Roman army, he must work his way up to the consulship through the lower offices. For this purpose he required money, and he gained it in trade; then he married one of the family of the Julii, one of the most ancient and noble families of Rome. But it was a very hard task to work his way; he was again and again insulted and provoked all the time. It was whilst he was an officer under Metellus in Numidia, that he determined to try for the consulship. Metellus, who was a nobleman of ancient family, and exceedingly proud, was angry and scornful at the idea of a labourer's son presuming to think of being consul, and he almost prevented his being at Rome in time. But Marius was chosen consul, and under his command (as you have read) the war with Jugurtha was brought to an end. He brought the army into a better state than it had been in for a long time, and introduced great changes; the soldiers were devoted to him, and he took the greatest interest in everything that concerned them.

In the year 104, when Marius returned to Rome after

the Numidian war, there was great alarm throughout the city, and not without reason ; the Romans had taken very little care to defend the provinces, and they were suffering for their neglect. But at last the enemies were coming too near. There was fighting on many of the boundary lines ; the Gallic and other tribes often entered the Roman dominions, and brought desolation with them. There was one mighty nation called the Cimbri, a nation of wanderers who came perhaps from the country called Denmark ; they were seeking a new home. The Southern nations were astonished at their strong-built forms, their fair hair and blue eyes, seldom seen in the South. The Cimbri travelled in waggons with leather roofs, men, women, and children together ; their manners were barbarous, their customs were cruel. Any prisoners who remained in their hands after a battle were offered in sacrifice to their gods by the priestesses, gray-haired women clothed in long white linen garments.

They had gained two victories over Roman armies, and an immense army was then sent out to meet them. A battle was fought in the year 105 at Arausio ; the Romans suffered a terrible defeat like that at Cannæ, and lost, it is said, eighty thousand men. Rome itself seemed to be in danger ; there was nothing to hinder the barbarians from crossing the Alps into Italy. There the Italians were angry and ready to fight against Rome, and the Roman people themselves were not what they had been in the days of Hannibal. However, the Cimbri did not appear in Italy ; they crossed the Pyrenees, and went into Spain.

It was in the year after the battle of Arausio, that Marius returned from Africa to Rome ; the people again made him consul, and, though it was contrary to law,

they persisted in choosing him year after year, for five years; so that he had been altogether six times consul of Rome,—what else was to be done? Who but Marius was likely to save Rome from the Cimbri, if they should again threaten Italy? Marius went into Gaul, and waited there, preparing his soldiers for war. At last, in the year 102, the Cimbri, having been joined by the Teutones, once more appeared and approached Italy: the Cimbri turned off towards the Eastern Alps, the Teutones advanced to the camp of Marius; they attacked it furiously for three days, but could not take it; then they began marching past on their way to Italy, shouting as they went, and asking the Roman soldiers if they had any messages home. When they were gone, Marius followed them, and near Aquæ Sextiæ a terrible battle took place. The army of Marius fought more like the Roman soldiers of former times, and after a furious battle, they forced the Teutones to give way. They retreated to their waggons, and there again defended themselves obstinately. Scarcely any remained alive; even the women put an end to their lives rather than be taken prisoners.

Meantime, the Cimbri had crossed the Eastern Alps, and the Romans there, under Catulus, fled in terror at the sight of the wild barbarians, who remained all that winter in the rich and fruitful country of North Italy. Next year (101), Marius joined Catulus, and near Vercellæ a battle was fought like that at Aquæ Sextiæ: the Cimbri were destroyed as the Teutones had been, and the Romans were safe from the barbarians.

QUESTIONS.—How were the Roman slaves provided? Where did the servile wars break out? What was the character of the Roman government at this time? Who was Jugurtha? What first excited the anger of the people of

Rome against him? How did he get peace made? What description did he give of Rome? What disgraceful peace was concluded in Africa? Who was appointed Roman general? Who finally concluded the war? What officer in the army of Marius got possession of Jugurtha himself? What was Jugurtha's end? What was the birth and the character of Marius? What new danger threatened Rome? Whence did the Cimbri come? What kind of people were they? In what terrible battle did they defeat the Romans? Which party in Rome supported Marius? How often in succession did they choose him consul? Where did he defeat and destroy the Cimbri and their allies the Teutones? In what years were the two battles fought?

CHAPTER XIX.

MARIUS.

EARLY LIFE OF MARIUS.

RIVALRY OF MARIUS AND SULLA.

SULLA'S MARCH ON ROME.

FLIGHT AND ADVENTURES OF MARIUS.

HIS RETURN TO ROME.

TERRIBLE MASSACRE.

DEATH OF MARIUS.

MARIUS entered Rome in triumph after his victory. As he rode up to the Capitol, the joy of the people knew no bounds. It was not one of the rich and powerful men of the city that had saved Rome, but it was the son of a poor labourer whom the people had chosen year after year to the consulship, in spite of the nobles and senators.

But Marius, though a good commander in war, was not one who could rule and guide the people at home. If he had been, he might have raised himself to almost any height of power. After his return to Rome, he must soon have been ready to wish himself back again in his camp at the head of his soldiers. There he was at home; there his word was law, and, rough soldier as he was, he was loved as well as obeyed. But at Rome he seemed to have come into a nest of wasps. He had a strange, wild look,

and a loud, rough voice ; and he felt himself ill at ease in the circle of Roman society, and Roman society took care that he should feel himself ill at ease. If an upstart, a peasant's son, should intrude himself amongst them, he should feel that he was not one of them, even if he had saved Rome. And we may be sure that Marius would far sooner have found himself face to face with any number of wild Cimbrian barbarians, than meet day by day nothing but annoyances and insults. If he had had more strength of mind, he would not have cared ; if he had been a cleverer man, he would have repaid them their contempt. But he was not a great or a clever man ; he could only lay up all in his dark, revengeful heart, and delight himself in the hope of one day taking an ample vengeance on his proud and scornful foes ; and he thought he might indulge the hope, for an oracle had once promised him seven consulships. He had already been six times consul, once in the war with Jugurtha, and lately five times in five following years, and he firmly believed that the seventh was in store.

The people had welcomed Marius, and wished to make him their leader ; but it was soon seen that he was not able to guide and direct in times of difficulty and dispute. He was neglected by everybody, and left Rome for a while.

Next time we meet with Marius is in a terrible war that broke out between the Italians and the Romans, and lasted for two years. Marius had a command in one of the Roman armies and did good service. But his bad fortune followed him still. He was now in his sixty-sixth year, and the government declaring him to be too old for his work, deprived him of his command in spite of his good

service. He returned to Rome, and added this wrong to the many he would one day revenge. Perhaps you remember the name of Lucius Cornelius Sulla who was commander of the cavalry in the war with Jugurtha. He had afterwards served under Marius against the Cimbri. Against him the hatred and envy of Marius seemed to be always turned. Even in the war with Jugurtha many said that the glory of ending the war was due really to Sulla, for it was he who by a daring expedition had got Jugurtha himself into the hands of the Romans. Sulla was of an ancient and noble family; he was handsome in appearance, and fond of pleasure and of society. With him everything went smoothly and prosperously; he had met with no insults, no contempt. And now, when Marius was recalled from the Italian war, Sulla gained victories and conquered all South Italy excepting the town of Nola. There was a great war just at hand in the far East, and as soon as Sulla should have taken Nola he was to lead his army there against Mithridates, king of Pontus; an expedition which Marius was eagerly longing to undertake. His longings and strivings seemed always sure to end in disappointment, but Sulla was always successful, though he never seemed to trouble himself about anything.

In the year 88, certain measures were introduced and passed by the people at Rome, in opposition to the will of the Senate and of Sulla. There had also been a violent disturbance, in which a son-in-law of Sulla had perished. Rufus, who had brought in the new laws, felt very uneasy to think that Sulla was at the head of a victorious army, and he trembled lest when Nola was taken Sulla should march upon Rome. It is not likely that Sulla would have done this; he would most probably have sailed at once for

the East. But the people were afraid of what might happen, and they passed a resolution that Sulla should be recalled, and that Marius should take his place at the head of the army, and lead it to Asia. Two tribunes went to Nola and told Sulla the will of the people.

Sulla received the message, but never for a moment thought of obeying it. He was consul that year, and he had been especially appointed by the Senate to the command of the army, nor did he think it was in the power of the people to deprive him of it. It would have been hard to yield to any one ; it was impossible for his pride to yield to his old enemy, his hated rival Marius. And Sulla knew that the real power was in his own hands. His soldiers were devoted to him, and there was no army anywhere else. He called the men together and told them the news, he told them how unjustly he had been treated, and warned them that Marius would never lead *them* to the war, but would raise other soldiers to go with him and enjoy the rich plunder of Asia. The men burst into cries of indignation, and demanded to be led against Rome. The unfortunate tribunes who had brought the message were torn to pieces by the angry crowd. The officers refused to go, but the soldiers hastened towards Rome with their general at their head. They entered the city, and found very little opposition. Stones were at first thrown down upon them from some of the houses ; but Sulla seized a burning torch and declared he would set the city on fire, if they did not leave off. Marius escaped from the city and fled for his life. He found a vessel sailing from Ostia, and went on board, but was driven back by a storm. He wandered as far as Minturnæ, alone, often without food or shelter in the damp marshy country. The

pursuers were at hand, and to save himself, he hid in a swamp, sinking down in the mud, and buried his head amongst the reeds. At length he was discovered and dragged from his hiding-place, and the man who had once saved Rome from the barbarians, was brought before the magistrates of the little town of Minturnæ, and thrown into prison by their order. Then a slave was sent to put him to death, but it so chanced that he was a Cimbrian, and when the old man, with flashing eyes and in a voice like thunder, asked if *he* were the man to kill Caius Marius, his courage failed, and he fled from the prison. After this the magistrates let the prisoner go, and provided him with a boat and some money. Marius reached Africa in safety, and there found others of his party who had also escaped from Rome. The Roman governor in Africa warned him that he must not stay there, and Marius sent him back for answer: "Tell the governor that thou hast seen Marius sitting amongst the ruins of Carthage." The little party of wanderers could not yet find safety and rest, for the king of Numidia drove them from his country; at length they reached the little island of Kerkina, on the coast of Tunis. Here they remained for a while, and the whole soul of Marius was filled day and night with one thought and one burning desire—future vengeance on his foes—on the senators and the rich men of Rome.

Next year, 87, came the news that Sulla and his army had gone to Asia. Then Marius and those who were with him heard that the friends of his own cause who were left at Rome, Cinna and Carbo, had, after much fighting and bloodshed, gained the power in the city; Marius and his companions immediately left the little island and sailed to Italy. He set free the slaves on his march, and armed

them; then he joined Cinna, and Rome was shut in by land and water. The Senate had no choice, for famine began to prevail; they were forced to surrender the town to Marius, who was almost blind with fury, and who thirsted for nothing but revenge. They sent a message begging that no blood might be shed. Cinna said there should be none by his will—Marius stood by in terrible silence.

They entered the city, and the gates were made fast behind; and then for five days and nights the work of murder went on and never ceased—the chief men of the city perished—there was no mercy for any. The Consul Octavius, attired in his robes, and seated on the consular chair, calmly awaited the murderers, and received the stroke of death. Catulus, who, you may remember, had once fought side by side with Marius against the Cimbri in other days, was not spared; his friends vainly implored his life—the only answer was, “he must die.” Marius was accompanied by his band of slaves, and a look or a sign was the signal of death. After the bloodshed of the five days’ massacre was over, it was long before the “reign of terror,” as it has been called, came to an end. In Rome and in Italy day after day more victims fell, nor were the bodies of the slain suffered to be buried. Even the friends of Marius were horrified, and tried to stop him; but nothing could stay the fury of the old man. Marius and Cinna made themselves consuls for the next year—but only for sixteen days did Marius enjoy the seventh consulate he had at length obtained. Fever seized upon him, his days passed by in riot and intoxication, and he could not sleep at night. In his delirium he fancied himself fighting in Asia where Sulla was. After seven days’ illness, he

died on the 13th of January 86, in the seventy-first year of his age.

QUESTIONS.—Why did the people rejoice in the triumph of Marius? How was Marius treated by the senators and nobles? What thought gave him consolation? What war next broke out? Who gained distinction in this war? How was Marius treated by the government? What did the people require of Sulla? How did he answer their message? What became of Marius? Relate his adventures. After Sulla had sailed for the East, what did Marius do? How did he receive the entreaty of the Senate? What happened after he entered Rome? By what name were those days afterwards remembered? How and when did Marius die?

CHAPTER XX.

SULLA.

CHARACTER OF SULLA.

MITHRIDATES KING OF PONTUS.

SULLA TAKES ATHENS.

HIS VICTORIES OVER MITHRIDATES' ARMIES.

PEACE MADE.

SULLA'S RETURN TO ITALY.

BATTLE AT THE COLLINE GATE.

POWER OF SULLA.

THE PROSCRIPTIONS.

HE RESTORES THE POWER OF THE SENATE.

RESIGNS AND RETIRES INTO PRIVATE LIFE.

HIS DEATH AND BURIAL.

CHANGE IN THE ARMY, AND ITS RESULTS.

It is easy to understand the character of Marius; but it is not quite so easy rightly to understand the character of Sulla. The difference between the position of the two was very great. Marius, the poor man's son, had set his heart upon filling the different offices of state, but could not attain them without the utmost difficulty. Sulla, the nobleman's son had enjoyed them as a matter of course,—perhaps he would sooner have been without them, for the life he loved best was a life of luxury and enjoyment. He was a handsome man, fair, and blue-eyed, generally pale, but the colour mounted into his cheek at the least excite-

ment of feeling ; he was a well-built man, fond of hunting, fishing, and athletic sports. He had not set his heart on honour, but honour had come to him unsought. In war he was very bold and daring, and always successful, so that he took for himself the surname of Felix, or the "Fortunate." Yet you will find that Sulla has left behind him a name quite as deeply stained by cruelty as the name of Marius is. Both were cruel men ; Marius from deep, long-nourished vengeance—Sulla from utter indifference and carelessness about other men.

You remember that the last we heard of Sulla was his sudden march from Nola to Rome, when Marius fled from the city, and his setting sail soon after for the East with his army. It was after he was gone that the friends of Marius gained power in the city, and you will not have forgotten how Marius returned, and the scenes of bloodshed that followed.

We must now ask who the enemy was that Sulla went to fight against in the East. Mithridates VI., king of Pontus, had come to the throne as a boy of eleven years old. It is said that all who were around him, even his own mother, plotted against his life, and that he only escaped by leaving the court and wandering about his own dominions as a fugitive and a huntsman. In this wild, homeless life he grew up with the strength of a giant. Extraordinary stories were told of him. It was said that he could run faster than the beasts of the desert, and could tame the wildest horses. In his chariot he guided sixteen horses ; in hunting he could strike the prey whilst riding full gallop, and never miss his aim. From his childhood Mithridates had learned to trust no one ; and it was a lesson he never forgot ; he was absolutely despotic in

power, and cruel as man could be ; but he possessed an energy and an activity almost beyond belief. He conquered the lands lying to the East of the Black Sea, and added them to his own little kingdom of Pontus. His ships kept possession of the Black Sea. He contrived gradually to bring the provinces of Asia Minor which lay near Pontus more or less under his power. A quarrel with a prince of Bithynia, who was supported by the Romans, led at length to a war between Mithridates and the Romans in the year 89.

This was the second year of the Italian war. It was the year when Sulla had conquered all South Italy excepting Nola, and was besieging Nola, and when the message came which told him that the people had appointed Marius to undertake the war against Mithridates, and you remember what followed. Sulla did not leave Italy till the next year, and during that year Mithridates increased his power. He now held all Asia Minor, besides Thrace and Greece, and his fleet commanded the sea. The Romans in these days had no fleet, and found it impossible to raise more than one army. Mithridates next year published a decree, by which every Roman and Italian found in his dominions was to be put to death in one day, and their bodies to be left exposed to the beasts and birds of prey. Half their property was to go to the murderers ; the rest was to belong to the king. The edict was obeyed, and it is said that at least eighty thousand persons perished.

Sulla landed in Greece early in the year 87, and, after a long and weary siege, took Athens 1st March 86. It was during the months of that siege that the news came to Sulla of the return of Marius to Rome. He heard of his savage cruelties, and of the death of many of Sulla's friends

and supporters. His own wife and children narrowly escaped; they took refuge in his camp. In that camp gradually assembled those who succeeded in making their escape from the slaughter at Rome. Sulla heard also that he had himself been proclaimed an outlaw, his property seized, and another general appointed to the command. Sulla had not money enough to pay his men, and no ships to take them to Asia. But Mithridates sent two immense armies over to Greece in the years 86 and 85; they were armies of Asiatics, who had no chance against Roman troops led by a general like Sulla, and both were destroyed in battle. Meantime, the people of Asia Minor, who had submitted to Mithridates in the hope that he would deliver them from the tyranny and cruelty of the Roman governors, had found out their mistake. The Romans had been very cruel, but the king of Pontus was more cruel still. Immense numbers of men, sent by his orders to fight in Greece, had perished. The hatred everywhere felt for the cruel tyrant was extreme, and there were always plots against his life.

Sulla had by this time succeeded in procuring some ships, and when he landed in Asia, Mithridates felt that he was conquered, and made peace. He gave up all his conquests and his fleet. Sulla would very likely have required harder terms, but he felt that he must not delay his return to Italy.

There was great fear throughout the country when Sulla landed in the spring of 83. The Marians (as the party of Marius were called) had pacified the Italians by granting them all they desired; but the Italians did not believe Sulla when he said that he would not interfere with their new rights. Sulla gradually advanced through

the country, causing his soldiers to observe strict order, and to distress and harm nobody on their march. He defeated some of his enemies, and many went over to his side. Near Præneste he gained a victory over Marius, the son of old Caius Marius. Showing a spirit very like his father's, the defeated general sent orders to Rome for the massacre of many distinguished men of the opposite party. Young Marius was besieged in Præneste, but a large army of Samnites (those enemies of Rome in other days) were on their way to his relief. But they saw that Sulla's forces were too strong for them, and suddenly resolved to join with the army of Marius, and march straight upon Rome, and either seize the city or perish in the struggle. On the 25th of October 82, they encamped close to the Colline Gate. Rome was not fortified and defended as in the days of Hannibal; if Sulla did not arrive in time, there was no hope of saving the city. At noon he came; his men were exhausted by the long and rapid march, but he dared not delay, for every hour was precious. The battle lasted that day, and all the following night; the next morning the city was safe; Sulla had won the hard-fought day. He ordered all the prisoners of the army that had intended to destroy Rome, to be taken into the field of Mars, and to be there put to death, every man of them. Their cries were heard in the Senate House, where Sulla was making a speech; the senators were greatly agitated, but when he saw their alarm, he said, in his light, careless manner, that they need not be afraid, it was only a few rebels receiving the punishment they deserved.

The Samnite commander and young Marius had escaped after the battle at the Colline Gate; they afterwards put an end to their own lives. Italy was soon subdued, and

Pompey, a young officer who had joined Sulla soon after his landing, went over to Sicily and to Africa and put down the opposition there. He seemed to think his exploit so wonderful, that Sulla, half in ridicule, as it seems, gave him the surname of the "Great."

Sulla was now absolute master of Rome, and he made the Senate give him powers like those of the kings and dictators of old. All who, since his first victory in Italy had continued in arms, he declared were enemies of their country. They were not protected by law; rewards were offered to any who should kill them. Day by day a list of fresh names devoted to death was published. Most of those who fell were very rich, and Sulla, his wife, his friends, and favourite servants made immense fortunes; what remained was put into the treasury of the city. Rewards were offered to any who should kill any of those whose names appeared on the lists, and this was enough to make their fate certain. No one whose name appeared on the dreadful list could find safety in Rome or in Italy. Soldiers belonging to Sulla's army went up and down the country hunting out the victims. It was late in the year 82 that Sulla became dictator, or we might say, king of Rome, and the lists were published day by day till 1st June 81. The number of the slain amounted altogether to nearly five thousand.

The country of the Samnites was laid waste by Sulla's orders, and was devoted to desolation, never to be inhabited again. Many towns in other parts that had resisted the longest were punished by having part of their property and land taken away from them. The soldiers of Sulla and other colonists were settled upon these forfeited lands.

If Sulla had been an ambitious man, he might easily have reigned at Rome, trusting for support to his army. But he was not ambitious, and only meant to use his power to restore the authority of the Senate and to put down the power of the people. Then he desired to retire from Rome, and give himself up to the enjoyments of a country life. He almost doubled the number of senators, and left the government in their hands. He no longer allowed the Assembly of the people to pass laws; he deprived the tribunes of the right to propose any: the corn distribution was stopped. Then Sulla resigned all his powers in presence of the people; he demanded from the crowd that pressed to hear, whether any man had anything to lay to his charge; no one dared to speak, whatever their thoughts might be, and Sulla quietly returned to his own house on foot.

Sulla passed the closing days of his life in a beautiful country villa, chiefly employed in country sports and in writing the history of his own life. He died of a short illness in 78 B.C., the year after his abdication. His funeral was a wonderful sight. From every part of Italy his old soldiers gathered to follow in the solemn procession. As it passed on, its numbers increased at every city, and when it entered Rome, they appeared countless; two thousand golden wreaths had been prepared as offerings to the dead by his soldiers and his friends. No business was done that day in the great city; the senators, the priests and priestesses, attended in their robes, whilst the funeral discourse was made, the life of Sulla told, and his fame extolled. Senators carried the bier to the Field of Mars, where, with every funeral solemnity and festivity, the body was committed to the flames. Sulla, who had

enjoyed all the powers of a king at Rome, was buried near the tombs of the early kings, and for a whole year the ladies of Rome wore mourning in honour of L. Cornelius Sulla Felix.

As we read the history of Marius and Sulla, nothing is plainer than that the real power at Rome was now in the army, whilst the army was no longer one with the people, as of old. In old times there had been no "soldiers" distinct from the people. Every Roman was a soldier, and might be called upon to fight. The citizens at home were divided into classes according to their property, and when they went out to war they were still divided according to their classes. But the warlike spirit had passed away, and the citizens no longer cared to go out to war. It became difficult to raise an army. Marius brought in a great change. He did away with the division into classes; the army was open to all comers, and it was no longer necessary for a soldier to possess any property. Instead of taking rank in the army according to their position in the city, every soldier now took the place the general appointed, according to his merit and his services. Under Marius, the Roman army again became powerful; but it became separate from the people, so separate that it could take up arms against the Senate or people of Rome as well as against its enemies. You have seen how, under Sulla, a Roman army had even begged their general to lead them against Rome. In the old times no man could be a soldier unless he had some amount of property; now that it was open to all, it was composed chiefly of the poor, of men who had no comfortable homes to care for, no property to defend. These learned in time to make their tents their homes, and to look to the plunder of war as

their property. If any general could win the confidence of his army, he was all-powerful, for neither Senate nor people could resist him. It was true that when Sulla found the power in his hands, he had chosen to use it for the Senate, so that at his death the Senate appeared to be very strong; but the power which one general at the head of an army had set up, could quite as easily be thrown down by another if he pleased.

QUESTIONS.—What was the character of Sulla? Name some differences between Sulla and Marius. Against what enemy had Sulla gone to the East? Describe the King of Pontus. How did he treat the Romans in Asia Minor? What city did Sulla take? What news came to him whilst there? What was the end of Sulla's expedition? How did Sulla treat the Italians? What terrible danger threatened Rome? By what battle was the city saved? Who reduced the province of Africa to subjection? What name was given him by Sulla? What were the proscriptions? Was Sulla ambitious? Whose power did he wish to restore? How did he deal with the people? What step did Sulla next take? How did he pass his closing years? Describe the funeral of Sulla. Where was now the real power at Rome? What change had Marius introduced into the army? What was the result?

CHAPTER XXI

POMPEY, SURNAMED THE GREAT.

INSURRECTION OF LEPIDUS.

SERTORIUS IN SPAIN.

SPAIN NEARLY LOST.

THE WAR IN SPAIN.

SERTORIUS MURDERED IN A CONSPIRACY.

MITHRIDATES AND THE PIRATES.

THE INSURRECTION OF SPARTACUS AND
THE GLADIATORS.

WAR WITH MITHRIDATES.

VICTORIES OF LUCULLUS.

HIS DIFFICULTIES.

MUTINY OF HIS SOLDIERS.

RECALL.

POMPEY IS APPOINTED COMMANDER-
IN-CHIEF.

HE SUBDUES THE PIRATES.

DEFEAT, FLIGHT, AND DEATH OF
MITHRIDATES.

POMPEY'S PROGRESS IN THE EAST.

As if to show that the power of the Senate had depended on Sulla, there was an insurrection against it immediately

after Sulla's death. The insurrection was headed by Lepidus, who was consul in 78, but he was a man of no real power and ability, and the insurrection was soon put down. One of the generals who defeated Lepidus was Pompeius, or, as he is more familiarly called, Pompey—the same who, as you may remember, had received when quite a young man from Sulla the surname of Magnus, or the Great. There was the greatest possible want of good generals at this time in Rome; all Spain was in rebellion, and very nearly lost to the Roman government; and the senators were told to their faces that there was not one man amongst them able to undertake the command. But they were afraid of appointing Pompey, who was not at heart a friend of the Government, and they did not wish to increase his power. However, as there really seemed no choice, they sent him to Spain in the year 77.

The great rebellion by which Spain had been nearly torn from the hands of the Roman government, was the work of Sertorius. He was a brave and a noble man. He was born in a quiet country village, far from the noise and the wickedness of Rome. There he had grown up, an ardent and an earnest character, filled with a love for his country which was second only to his devoted love for his mother. As a man of the people, he had naturally joined the party of Marius, but he had taken no part in his cruelties. He had tried all he could to check the savage fury of Marius; and after the death of Marius, Sertorius had destroyed the band of slaves who had served as murderers during the reign of terror. He afterwards took refuge in Spain, but even there the strong arm of Sulla could reach, and Sertorius crossed over to Africa. Afterwards, being very weary of the evil and the misery

around, he began to think of flying far away to the distant islands of the West, which the old fables said were the Blessed Isles where peace for ever dwelt. Then Sulla died, and Sertorius was invited back from Africa. In Spain he acquired great power and influence, not only by his genius and his daring in war, but also by the charm of his character and his manners. Metellus, the Roman general in Spain, could do nothing against him, and was at length shut up in the south of Spain. In the year 76 Pompey entered from the north, and the two armies succeeded in meeting, and in gaining a victory. From this time Sertorius ventured no regular battles, but kept up a constant warfare, now here and now there, until the Roman Government was in despair at a war which seemed always ending but never ended. And other troubles were threatening. Mithridates, after a ten years' peace, once more declared war. He made an alliance with Sertorius, and the pirates of the Mediterranean were the friends of both. It was reckoned that the pirates possessed a thousand vessels, whilst the Romans kept up no fleet. The strongholds of Cilicia were their homes, and from thence these sea-robbers poured forth, stopping the Roman trade, and landing sometimes on the shores of Italy itself. Yet the Romans made no expedition to put them down.

Sertorius in Spain, Mithridates in Asia Minor, and the pirates swarming in the Mediterranean—these were the enemies of Rome. But just at this moment Sertorius found that he could no longer hold his ground. The Spaniards could not be kept together; amongst his fellow-countrymen, the Romans who had joined him in Spain, there was nothing but rivalry and disputing. A conspiracy was formed against his life, the guilt of several of

the conspirators was discovered, and they were put to death. But the conspiracy went on, and one evening at a banquet there was much more riot and confusion than was usual in the well-ordered camp. Sertorius threw himself back, as if he did not wish to hear or to notice it; then a cup was dashed to the ground, the signal for murder. Sertorius was overpowered and slain, together with his faithful Spanish guards. The Spanish war was easily brought to an end. Soon after, Metellus and Pompey celebrated their triumph in the year 71. Pompey arrived in Italy in time to aid in putting down another insurrection. I have told you of the gladiators who were trained to fight for the amusement of the people. There was one training-school for these wretched men near Capua; and from this school in the year 73, two years before Pompey returned from Spain, forty-six men succeeded in making their escape. They took refuge on the top of Mount Vesuvius; at their head was a man named Spartacus, belonging by birth to a princely house in the country of Thrace. They were joined at the top of the mountain by great numbers of escaped slaves; and driving back some soldiers that attempted to ascend the hill, they got possession of their arms. Three battles were fought, and three times were the Romans defeated by their own escaped slaves. The bands of Spartacus forced many of their prisoners to fight in their turn as gladiators with one another. If these men could have held together, if they could have made friends of the Italian towns around them, the danger to Rome would have been very great. But they showed themselves so savage and cruel to the inhabitants of all the places they came near, that there was no chance of gaining any of them to their side. Nor did

they hold together amongst themselves; they were of many different nations, and jealousies and quarrels broke out amongst them. They could not long bear the supremacy of Spartacus, the only man at all able to lead and guide them; he found it at last impossible to keep them under control. The end was, that Crassus defeated them in 71 B.C., with very little difficulty. Spartacus fought to the end with desperate valour; after he was wounded he sank upon his knees and fought on against the foe. After the victory, Crassus, with the help of Pompey, finished his work with unsparing cruelty, and "order," as it is called, reigned once more.

Meantime in the East, the Roman general Lucullus had gained a great victory over Mithridates. The king of Pontus, left almost alone, had fled to the country of his son-in-law, Tigranes, king of Armenia; and to Armenia Lucullus determined to lead his soldiers in spite of their murmurs. Lucullus was a brave and daring soldier, a refined and educated man, and was noted even in those days of luxury for extravagant indulgence; for the common soldiers he had no sympathy or regard. The army of Tigranes was enormous, numbering more than one hundred and fifty thousand men, and when he saw the little band of ten thousand Romans, led by Lucullus, he said contemptuously that they were "too many for an embassy, too few for an army." Few as they were, however, their attack threw his vast host into confusion, and then their numbers only increased the disorder. Lucullus gained a complete victory, and Tigranes would have made peace if his father-in-law Mithridates had not encouraged him to hope.

Lucullus led his army further into Armenia. Here winter

begins early, and when the snow fell, and the cold set in, the soldiers' murmurs grew louder ; and when Lucullus, as his custom was, took no heed, they broke out at last into an open mutiny, and refused to march any further. When he returned to Asia Minor, he met bad news ; Mithridates had gained a complete victory over the troops he had left behind there, and the Government of Rome had recalled him from his command. He felt himself hardly used. He had had only a small army given him for the war ; he had shown both daring and skill, and won two great victories ; but he had carried the war into Armenia without the orders of the Senate, and they were displeased at his independence, whilst his pride and haughtiness had made him the enemy of the people.

But what was next to be done ? There was Mithridates triumphant once more ; an expedition against the pirates had disgracefully failed, the very chains which the Roman admiral took with him having been employed for Roman prisoners. The Government was afraid to make any general too strong ; the forces intrusted to Lucullus had been insufficient for their task : yet without a good general and a powerful army what was to be looked for but ruin ?

Men's eyes naturally turned to the young general Pompey, but there was no one of whom the Senate stood more in fear. There was nothing really very great or remarkable in the character of Pompey, but he was a thorough soldier and a good officer ; and it so happened that he had been brought into public notice at an early age. He had returned from Spain with a victorious army, and had set his heart upon carrying on the war against Mithridates ; he joined himself with Crassus, who had just

defeated Spartacus and the gladiators. Pompey and Crassus proposed themselves as consuls for the next year, 70 ; and their armies remained near the gates of the city, so that the Senate dare not oppose them. After they had been chosen consuls, they brought in measures for restoring to the tribunes and to the Assembly of the people the power of making laws which Sulla had taken from them. Nor were the armies dispersed to their homes till the measures were safely carried. It was not that Pompey really cared for the people more than he did for the Senate, but he wished to win their favour ; and he succeeded, for they were so rejoiced at the restoration of their powers, that they were ready to entrust any authority into the hands of Pompey. Pompey, however, disbanded his army, and lived quietly in private for two years ; whilst the power of Mithridates grew stronger and the ravages of the pirates more terrible. In the year 67, by a decree of the people, Pompey was placed at the head of an immense army and of a fleet, with full power for three years over the money of the state at home and abroad. His authority was to extend everywhere in the Mediterranean, and on its coasts for fifty miles inland. Thus armed he was to crush the pirates. It was no hard task to accomplish, and Pompey did it well and speedily. The relief felt everywhere was very great ; in their gratitude the praise of Pompey was louder than ever in the mouths of the people, and next year he was chosen, by another decree of the people, to take the command against Mithridates. The troops at his disposal were more numerous than those of the king of Pontus. Pompey surrounded his enemy unperceived, and at night, by the dim light of the moon, the army of Mithridates was defeated and destroyed. It was the last

battle fought against the Romans by their old enemy. The king escaped and fled as far as the Crimea. His savage temper was soured by disaster—no one near him was safe. His own son conspired against him, and Mithridates, who had shown mercy to none, now asked for mercy in vain. He ordered poison to be given to his many wives, and afterwards took it himself, but it produced no effect upon his strong frame ; so he ordered one of his hired soldiers to kill him. His son sent his body as a welcome offering to Pompey, and by Pompey's orders it was buried with kingly pomp at the city of Sinope.

After the flight of Mithridates, Tigranes, the king of Armenia, came into the Roman camp, prostrated himself before Pompey, and gave up his royal diadem into his hands in token of perfect submission. Part of Armenia belonged to Rome from this time, and the whole of Asia Minor came into the hands of the Romans. There was not one strong nation existing in the East on this side of Parthia, and all submitted as Pompey went on his way. He drove back the wandering Arabs to their own deserts, and entered Judea. Everywhere the supremacy of Rome was acknowledged. Pompey founded a great number of new towns in Asia Minor and the North of Syria, and settled the affairs of the new provinces. It was a magnificent list of victories and triumphs that Pompey displayed—twelve millions of men subdued, fifteen hundred towns and fortresses taken. The applause that followed was loud, but there were some who asked whether it was not Lucullus who had done the hard fighting, and left only an easy task to Pompey?—whether Pompey was not reaping what another had sown ?

Pompey returned to Italy. Much had happened in Rome during his absence in the East.

QUESTIONS.—Who made an insurrection against the Senate after the death of Sulla? What was the condition of Spain? What Roman general was sent there? Who was at the head of the rebellion? What had the early life of Sertorius been? What three dangers were threatening the Romans? What was the end of Sertorius? What insurrection next threatened the Romans? Who headed it? What disgrace did the Roman armies suffer? How did the insurrection fail? Who defeated them? How did Spartacus die? Who was general against Mithridates? Describe his victory over Tigranes. Why did Lucullus fail in the end? What two generals formed an alliance together? With what powers did the people entrust Pompey? Against what enemies did he first undertake an expedition? With what success? Describe the end of Mithridates. What king afterwards submitted himself to Pompey? How did Pompey distinguish himself in Asia?

CHAPTER XXII.

CATILINE.

THE NOBILITY OF ROME.

CRASSUS.

CÆSAR.

CÆSAR'S EARLY LIFE.

STATE OF THINGS AT ROME.

CONSPIRACY AT WORK.

CATILINE.

PLOTS.

CICERO CONSUL.

AUDACITY OF CATILINE.

DEATH OF THE FIVE CONSPIRATORS.

CATILINE DEFEATED AND KILLED IN
ETRURIA.

THE events that happened at Rome whilst Pompey was absent in the East showed more plainly than ever the feebleness of the Government. Far from being able to rule the world, it could hardly keep the streets of the city safe. Many of the rich and great men of the day gave up all interest and care for public affairs, and retired to their country-houses and their magnificent estates, where, it seems, the chief concern of their lives was either the

construction of marvellous fish-ponds, or the invention of new luxuries for their tables.

Crassus, of whom we spoke in the last chapter, had some influence because of his enormous wealth. Half of the senators were in debt to him. But he had little influence beyond this, and was exceedingly jealous of his former fellow-consul, Pompey. Amongst the young noblemen of Rome, who were sunk in debt at this time, who had largely borrowed from the wealthy Crassus, was one named Caius Julius Cæsar. His character had already attracted notice. Although he was by birth one of the most ancient and noble families in Rome, he did not support the Senate, but always took the side of the people. Marius had married his aunt, his father's sister Julia; and Cæsar as a boy seems to have been much attached to the rough soldier. He was a mere boy still during the reign of terror and at the death of Marius. Soon after, he married Cornelia, daughter of Cinna, the friend of Marius. In the dark days of Sulla's proscription, he was in danger of finding his name upon the list. But he belonged to a powerful family, and Sulla was earnestly implored to spare his life. He consented; but it is said that he added, "Beware of that young trifler; there is more than one Marius concealed in him." The "young trifler" was but eighteen years of age, yet when a command came to him from Sulla to divorce his wife, he was daring enough to refuse to obey. His boldness was the more noted, as Pompey, at Sulla's word, had abandoned his wife. Cæsar lost his wife's fortune, and was obliged to conceal himself for a time at a distance from Rome. We meet with him afterwards once and again: at one time taken prisoner by the pirates and ransomed--

at another studying the arts of eloquence at Rhodes—then heading some troops hastily collected to defend the Roman province against Mithridates before Lucullus arrived. When Cæsar returned to Rome, he did not hide his opinions and feelings. He brought some who had been guilty of murder under Sulla to justice ; he restored the statue of Marius, which had been thrown down by Sulla's orders. It was found one morning standing in front of the Capitol, to the intense delight of the people. It was done secretly, and by night, but every one knew whose act it was. When Cæsar was ædile, part of his business was to provide for the amusement of the people. He exhibited three hundred and twenty pairs of gladiators all in silver armour, and wild-beast shows in which the very cages were of silver. His own fortune was not large, so that his debts became enormous ; but Crassus, who disliked Pompey, stood Cæsar's friend ; Cæsar was in debt on every side, but he possessed the art of winning friends, and he went on his way with a confidence that never faltered, and others learned to trust in the future fortune of such a bold and skilful statesman.

The Senate and people were looking angrily at one another, and both parties felt that the true power was in the hands of Pompey and his army, who were soon expected home ; but a great danger was threatening both, which no one seemed to have strength to resist. Regular soldiers were not allowed to be kept within the walls of Rome ; the Senate and people had spent their strength in quarrels, and the Government had no authority. In such times of public confusion, when a sort of nameless fear fills the mind of all and change and civil war may come at any hour, men of lost character and ruined fortunes gather

together as birds of prey do where the sick and wounded are lying. The inhabitants of Rome had not forgotten the evil days of Marius and of Sulla, and they might well tremble to think how easily those horrors might return if a man of daring and desperate character should upset the Government and defy the law. And there were dark whispers afloat of plots and conspiracies that were secretly going on. The ringleader was one Lucius Sergius Catilina (or, as he is generally called, Catiline), a young noble man who had been foremost in the work of cruelty under Sulla, but who had since turned against the Senate. His life had been stained by many crimes, yet he had a strange power of attracting and persuading other men; he was a man of reckless courage, and possessed wonderful strength both of mind and body. Around him there gathered a number of those who had no character and no fortune; most of them, it seems, were young nobles like himself. It was said that in the year 65 Catiline had formed a plot to murder the consuls, and make himself consul, and that it had only failed by accident. And all through the next year the conspiracy was growing underground—silently but surely—spreading even beyond Italy. In Etruria there was an army ready to march; the slaves and prisoners were to be set free and armed. Catiline hoped to be chosen consul for the next year, and most men were afraid of opposing so dangerous a man. But the Senate determined to propose the famous orator Cicero, who, by his power of eloquent speaking, had gained influence over the people, and he consented to stand. He found out by his spies what had been secretly going on, and appeared in the Senate before the day of election came, to set forth the deeds and the plans of Catiline.

Catiline answered boldly that he should soon be at the head of the people, and then the Senate would learn their true weakness.

Cicero was permitted to have a guard of soldiers on the day of election, to secure him from violence on the part of Catiline. The day came, and Catiline was not chosen. He now made up his mind to go to Etruria, where an insurrection had broken out, but he still appeared as usual in public. He planned once more the murder of the new consul, Cicero ; but he was warned in time. Next day Catiline again entered the Senate. Cicero was there, and made an eloquent speech when the conspirator appeared ; Catiline attempted to answer, but no one listened, and the benches near him were left empty. Catiline went to Etruria, and left instructions to the conspirators who remained behind to be ready when he drew near at the head of the insurgents, and then to set the city on fire and begin a general slaughter.

Weeks passed by in fear and suspense. The chief of the conspirators were known, but no one touched them. At length, by means of spies, Cicero obtained possession of letters and papers which proved their guilt beyond doubt. They were then taken up and the papers laid before the Senate. The people hated the Senate, and would not have been displeased at any plot against them ; but they could not forgive the plot for setting fire to the houses over their own heads.

Still the Government were in difficulty. They were afraid lest the prisoners should be rescued by their friends. Yet the Senate had no power by law to sentence any man to death. Cæsar proposed that they should be sent to different towns in Italy, and kept in perpetual imprison-

ment; but the stern senator Cato stood up and gave his voice for death. The Senate voted by a majority for death. The five prisoners were brought out, and conducted, strongly guarded, to a dungeon below the Capitol, and the people did not know what was to be their fate. There they were secretly put to death; the consul Cicero waited till all was over, and then told the gathering crowds that they were dead. There was great joy in Rome, and Cicero was hailed as the "Father of his country." Soon after, Catiline, at the head of a band of three thousand desperate men, was defeated and killed in Etruria. They all fell on the spot where they fought, and not one was taken alive.

QUESTIONS.—What was the state of the Roman government at this time? What did many of the rich nobles do? What gave Crassus influence in the city? Who began to attract public notice? To which party had Julius Cæsar attached himself? What proof of courage did he give during Sulla's proscriptions? Where do we afterwards hear of him? How did he proceed on his return to Rome? What great danger was threatening Rome? Who headed the conspirators? What was his character? What plan did he form? Whom did the Senate propose for consul? Was Catiline chosen consul? What scene occurred in the Senate-house? What were the designs of the conspirators? Describe their fate. What was the end of Catiline?

CHAPTER XXIII.

THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE—DEATH OF CRASSUS.

UNION OF POMPEY, CÆSAR, AND CRASSUS.
 CÆSAR LEAVES FOR GAUL.
 CONFUSION AT ROME.
 THE TRIUMVIRATE AT LUCCA.
 CRASSUS STARTS FOR THE EAST.

HIS EXPEDITION INTO PARTHIA.
 DISASTROUS BATTLE AT CARRHÆ.
 DEATH OF CRASSUS.
 ANARCHY AT ROME.
 DEATH OF JULIA.

RIVALRY OF POMPEY AND CÆSAR.

ALL men in Rome were anxiously waiting for the return of Pompey from the East, and were wondering what he

would say and do. But to every one's astonishment, after he had landed he dismissed his army, and appeared only as an ordinary citizen. Pompey was not much liked; he was not greatly trusted. If he had been at the head of his army he would have been feared and obeyed; but as it was, no one regarded him, and the Senate would do nothing that he wished to be done. Cæsar had gone as governor to Spain; but he returned after two years, and Pompey found that he could not overlook him, but must treat him either as an enemy or a friend. Being just now much dissatisfied with all parties in Rome, Pompey accepted the friendship of Cæsar, and Cæsar managed to reconcile Pompey with Crassus also, and Crassus was admitted to the league. The union of these three men is generally called the First Triumvirate. Pompey married Julia, a young and beautiful woman, the only child of Cæsar. Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar were called the rulers; but it was by the hand of Cæsar that all was really managed. Still he was anxious to gain a position of greater strength. He was consul in 59, and it was usual for a consul, after his year was over, to have one of the provinces assigned to him. Cæsar obtained the province of Gaul, where a dangerous war was evidently going to break out, and he was to command there for five years. To Gaul Cæsar went in the year 58, and Pompey and Crassus were left to rule as they could in the city of Rome. The next two years were years of the greatest confusion and distraction. There was neither law nor order of any kind in the city. The Senate was powerless, Crassus was nobody, and Pompey, who was supposed to rule, found it impossible to rule at all. The streets were infested by bands of armed gladiators and others, who had it all their own way.

At one time, one of these bands, under the command of Clodius, kept Pompey shut up in his house. Pompey himself was driven to employ another band in his own service. News came constantly from Gaul of the victories and triumphs of Cæsar. All the former glory of Pompey was cast into the shade, and his heart was filled with ill-will and jealousy. He soon saw that there was a strong feeling of opposition to Cæsar spreading in the city. The Senate knew that their own power was a shadow, but that Cæsar's was a reality. And many who were no friends to the Senate began to suspect that they would soon have to choose whether they would be reconciled to the old government or submit to the government of a king. The leader of those who would do or bear anything rather than acknowledge a king, or yield the power into the hands of one man, was Cato. He was a sincere but short-sighted man, who thought he could bring back the spirit of the old days of Rome if he kept stiffly to its outward forms. But although Cato and his party feared Cæsar, they dared not trust Pompey, and they would not give him the authority he wished for, or place him at the head of an army. A move was made against Cæsar, and the consul for next year was expected to propose that he should be recalled from Gaul.

In April 56, Pompey and Crassus went to Lucca, and met Cæsar there. At Lucca were gathered all the senators who sided with the Triumvirate. It was very like a king's court; nor was there any doubt who was the king. Cæsar might probably have then made himself supreme, but he did not; more than one reason kept him back. Gaul was not thoroughly subdued; he did not wish for civil war, especially as his daughter Julia, whom he greatly loved,

was the wife of Pompey, and was much attached to her husband, who, on his side, was entirely devoted to her. The three rulers then came to an understanding. Cæsar was to remain in Gaul till March 49, and then to be consul. Crassus was to have the province of Syria, Pompey the province of Spain. The two latter were to be consuls for the next year, and to raise as many troops as they pleased. We will see how it fared with them both, and then in the next chapter take up the thread of Cæsar's history from the time he first left Italy for Gaul.

Crassus loved money more and more as he grew older, and so eager was he for the treasures he hoped to acquire in the East, that he could not wait till the year of his consulship was over before setting sail. The object of his expedition was to conquer the Parthians, a strong and independent race beyond the Euphrates, with whom the Romans on the frontier were now at war. He paused on his way to plunder the temple at Jerusalem, and other sanctuaries. At sixty years of age he was dreaming of new stores of boundless wealth, and of wonderful conquests in distant lands, before which the past glories of Pompey, and the present glories of Cæsar, should grow pale and dim. As he advanced towards the Euphrates, he heard much of the enemies he was to meet; they were not feeble Asiatics, who could hardly fight like men; they were bold and daring, vigorous in their attack, and the aim of their arrows and darts was unerring. Nor was it of any use to follow them into the sandy deserts of their native land. Crassus heeded not, nor did he listen to the warnings of his officers. After he had crossed the Euphrates, he resolved, contrary to good advice, to march the direct way across the country to the Tigris, through the sandy desert

plains. He was led to this by the persuasions of an Arabian, named Abgaros, whom he chose to trust. The army left the Euphrates, and soon were far out of sight of human habitation, far from shady trees and running water, wearily marching on through the burning sandy plains, which stretched out far as the eye could reach, and seemed to have no end. Abgaros led them on, and as days passed by, the spirits of the men sank beneath the scorching heat of the shadeless plains; the officers murmured aloud, and bitterly reproached their guide; but Abgaros only asked if they had expected a pleasant excursion amongst groves and fountains like those they had left behind in Italy. At last, on the pretence of going out to reconnoitre, Abgaros and his followers disappeared.

All this time no enemy had been visible, but the Romans expected soon to hear tidings from Abgaros. No tidings came; but on the other side of a small stream (the first they had seen) there appeared some of the enemy's horsemen. Crassus only allowed his men a moment for refreshment before he led them across. Then as they advanced with the utmost speed, the war-cry of the Parthians was heard on every side. Their banners gleamed in silk and gold; their armour glittered in the noonday sunshine. Their numbers seemed countless as the sands, and all were seated on horseback; they made the air echo with the discordant sounds of their kettle-drums as they circled in the Roman army, with bows bent and arrows on the string. Amongst them was seen the treacherous Arabian prince Abgaros. There was no escape from that ceaseless storm of darts and arrows; the Parthian bowmen could shoot in retreat as well as advance; they were all mounted, so that the Roman soldiers could not come

up with them ; nor would their fatal arrows soon be spent, for camels were standing in the rear laden with fresh stores to replenish empty quivers. The gallant son of Crassus, at the head of the Roman cavalry, charged the foe, to disperse them if possible, but his numbers were so few in comparison with theirs, that they were soon overpowered, and perished, together with young Crassus, their brave captain. The Parthians rode up, brandishing his head upon a pike, that Crassus might see the fate of his son. All day the Romans stood exposed to this deadly warfare, but at night the Parthians retired ; they rode off, telling the Roman general they would give him that night to lament his son, and return the next day. Crassus was so stupefied or so terrified, that he would have let the precious night hours slip ; but his officer Cassius undertook the retreat. They were compelled to leave the wounded behind ; with all possible silence and speed they hurried from the scene of their terrible defeat, and the flying army found refuge within the walls of the town of Carrhæ, where there was a Roman garrison. The Parthians slaughtered and plundered all the wounded and stragglers, but could not undertake a siege. The Romans afterwards left Carrhæ, and dispersing in several directions, hastened towards their own frontier. Cassius, with his division, succeeded in making good his escape, and Crassus himself was only a few hours distant from the mountainous country of Armenia, where the enemy's cavalry need be no longer dreaded. The Parthian general, fearing lest his prey should escape, tried cunning and deceit. He offered peace and proposed a meeting. Crassus consented, for the army insisted on it ; and with his officers went into the enemy's camp ; they were honourably received, and a horse, richly caparisoned,

was brought for the Roman general. He was lifted into the saddle, and immediately a confusion and a scuffle arose, in which Crassus received a mortal wound. Of the Romans who remained many were taken prisoners; others were suffered to escape. The head of Crassus was taken to the Parthian court, where the marriage of the King's son was being celebrated—it was brought into the banqueting-hall, and shown in triumph to the courtiers.

The names of the Allia, of Cannæ, of Arausio, and of Carrhæ, stand side by side as the four most disastrous battles in the history of Rome. But Carrhæ was so far distant that the news of the calamity by which a Roman army had perished there, caused no actual alarm; the city was in no danger; and the citizens were too much absorbed in watching the confused struggle going on at home, to have many thoughts to spare for the greatest misfortunes abroad. Words would fail to describe the disorder prevailing at Rome. The leaders of the bands of armed gladiators cried up the names of the Senate or the people or Pompey as they pleased, and robbed or murdered at their will. In a quarrel between two of these leaders, Clodius and Milo, who accidentally met each other not far from the city, Clodius was wounded, and afterwards killed by the order of Milo. The body of the slain man was brought to Rome, and as the mob of the city had considered him a champion of their cause, there was great uproar and tumult at the sight. They tore up the seats and benches of the Senate-house for a funeral pile, and in the conflagration the building itself was burnt to the ground. Pompey had hoped that the Senate would see that all ordinary means were vain in such times as the present, and would intrust him with the powers of a dictator. They

did now consent to give him unusual authority, and Pompey began to raise soldiers throughout Italy to support him in his position. There was no longer any question whether the chief power of Rome had passed from the hands of the Senate and of the people; whether it would from henceforth be exercised by a single man; but the only question was, who that man should be. Pompey had long nourished ill-will and jealousy towards Cæsar. In the year 54 (the year in which Crassus perished) Julia, the wife of Pompey and the daughter of Cæsar, died, and the last link was broken that bound the two generals together. All those in Rome who, like Cato, hated the idea of kingly power, were beginning to unite more closely; and as they feared Cæsar far more than Pompey, it was against Cæsar they united, and Pompey, in his jealousy of Cæsar, made common cause with them.

Cæsar saw their enmity. He was anxiously watching everything that passed. He felt sure that civil war must come, but was very anxious to do nothing to provoke it, as Gaul was not yet subdued. Meantime, debates went on in the Senate as to whether Cæsar should be required to resign his command in Gaul, and return to Rome, but it was so long before Pompey could speak his mind on the subject, that Cæsar gained time to accomplish the conquest of Gaul.

QUESTIONS.—How did Pompey act on his first return from the East? What three men formed a union? By what name is this union known? Whom did Pompey marry? What province did Cæsar choose to command in? What was the state of Rome during his absence? How did Pompey begin to feel respecting Cæsar? Of what party was the senator Cato the head? Where did the Triumvirate meet in 56? What reasons may have kept Cæsar from hastening a civil war? To what understanding did the rulers come? What was the chief thought of Crassus? How did he act in the East? Against what enemy was he going? What kind of people were they? How was Crassus deceived? Into what position was he brought? Describe his fate. What were the four

most disastrous battles in Roman history? What was the state of the city? What happened during a tumult there? To whom did the Senate entrust unusual powers? What form of government was evidently at hand? What question remained to be decided? Why did the republican party side with Pompey? How was the last link broken that united Cæsar and Pompey?

CHAPTER XXIV.

THE CONQUEST OF GAUL.

JULIUS CÆSAR.

THE GAULS.

INVASION OF THE HELVETII.

CÆSAR DEFEATS THE HELVETII.

DEFEAT OF THE GERMANS.

TERRIBLE BATTLE WITH THE NERVII.

INVASION OF BRITAIN.

**CÆSAR RESCUES A DIVISION OF HIS
ARMY FROM PERIL.**

**INSURRECTION OF THE GAULS UNDER
VERCINGETORIX.**

SIEGE OF ALESIA.

GAUL FINALLY SUBDUED.

JULIUS CÆSAR left Italy for Gaul in the year 58, being then a little more than forty years old. He had scarcely seen anything of war: his life had been spent in the management of other men, in the Senate-house, or in the assembly of the people. But Cæsar was not great in one thing only; he was fitted to guide and to rule in the camp as in the city; able to be the head of an army or an empire. When he left for Gaul, people did not expect very much from one so little accustomed to war; Pompey was far more of a hero at present in the eyes of the Romans. But the dangers that threatened in Gaul were serious enough to call for all the wisdom and all the strength Rome could supply. The Gauls settled in the north of Italy had long been subject to Rome; but the Romans had not yet granted them the privileges of other Italians. Cæsar himself had always been anxious that they should receive those privi-

leges ; so he was very popular amongst them. This province was called Cisalpine Gaul,—*i. e.*, Gaul on *this* side of the Alps,—but it was *only* a province, and not part of Italy itself. Italy extended as far as the little stream of the Rubicon. South of that stream no general might lead his army. No taxes were paid. Each man possessed a right of voting at Rome.

There was another Gaul, called Transalpine or Gaul *beyond* the Alps. It was in the south-east corner of the country, now called France. Beyond these two provinces (over both of which Cæsar commanded) were many tribes of the Gallic nation independent, as yet, of Rome.

Once the Gauls had been a mighty and terrible nation, and they were still a widely-spread people. Their chief abode was in the country now called France, but they had swarmed into Spain ; they had occupied the valleys of the Alps, and passed into the north of Italy. Tribes of Gauls settled in the eastern parts of Europe, and some had even found a home in Asia Minor in the country called from them Galatia ; whilst others, wandering westward, had fixed their abode in the isles of Britain. The Gauls were the terror of more settled and civilised nations, and only they in the world could boast that they had once destroyed the proud city of Rome itself. But time had proved that the people whom they had so nearly destroyed were really stronger than they. It was only by constant and severe fighting that the Gauls had been gradually forced to give way ; but as they had no endurance or perseverance, they had not been able to hold their ground before the Romans ; and the Romans had now, as we have seen, two provinces amongst them. And at this time the Gauls began to be sore pressed by tribes of another race,

the Germans from beyond the Rhine, a bold and savage race.

The Gauls had never been able to form themselves into one people, and so to use all their strength. They were divided still into tribes or clans, as their descendants the Highlanders (or Gael) of Scotland were till very lately. And these clans were seldom at peace amongst themselves. The Gauls were weak through these divisions; they were more civilised than in former days, and so had lost something of their old fierce nature; but they were able still to annoy and to alarm the Romans in their province beyond the Alps. And at the moment when Cæsar chose the Gauls as his government, a mighty host had come out from amongst the valleys of the Alps, and alarmed the Romans not a little. They were the Helvetii, a tribe of Gauls living in the country now called Switzerland; they left their mountainous home determined to settle in the fruitful country beyond the Alps. Leaving their towns and villages in ashes behind them, they set forward on their march, men, women, and children together. Not only were the Romans in Gaul startled by the approach of this vast host (amongst which were nearly a hundred thousand who could bear arms), but the Gallic tribes themselves were dismayed at their coming. Cæsar had but few men with him, but he went with all speed to Italy, and brought back the rest of his army; he then, not without much difficulty and peril, followed the march of the Helvetii, and at length engaged them in battle, and after a hardly-fought struggle, entirely defeated them. He then ordered those who remained to return to their old homes, build again their ruined towns and villages, and defend their country from the Germans. In fact, the

greatest danger which threatened Gaul was from the advance of the Germans. Great numbers of them had already crossed the Rhine, and the Gauls were not able to resist them. The German chief was angry when Cæsar interfered. "You have your province," said he; "I will have mine." Nor would he promise that in future no more Germans should enter Gaul. Complaints of the further advance of the Germans came to Cæsar from different parts of the country. When Cæsar's troops saw that they were expected to march into an unknown land, there to meet new and strange enemies who, the people of the land told them, were hideous savages, terrible warriors who for fourteen years had not slept under a roof, their courage forsook them. It was the young nobility of Rome who set the example, and from them the alarm spread through all the camp. Cæsar addressed his soldiers, and sought to raise their spirit; he declared that he would march against the enemy if but one of the legions marched with him. He would trust to the tenth legion if all the rest deserted him. The tenth legion, with loud shouts, declared its devotion to the general, and the rest of the army, filled with shame at their cowardice, forgot their fears. Cæsar waited not a moment longer, but led them on; and after a furious battle, the Germans were defeated and driven beyond the Rhine. One year only had passed, but Gaul was safe from the Helvetii and from the Germans.

Next year Cæsar heard of warlike movements amongst the Belgæ in the north-east. The armies their united tribes could bring into the field numbered two hundred and ninety thousand men. The Belgæ were the fiercest and strongest of the Gallic tribes; no civilisation had

reached them in their distant homes, and they determined valiantly to resist the intruders. Cæsar delayed his attack, hoping that their immense armies, composed of various tribes, would find it impossible to hold together. And so it proved : they began to separate and disperse, and many of the Belgic clans submitted. He advanced into the country towards the district of the Nervii, the boldest and most warlike of the clans. A part of the Roman army had arrived at a hill, and were setting up their camp, fearing no danger, when the Nervii, who had lain concealed in a wood, suddenly appeared and made a furious charge upon them, hardly leaving them time to seize their weapons. The Romans armed and formed in order of battle as well as they could, and fighting went on on every side. One legion was almost surrounded and in the uttermost peril, when Cæsar, hastening to the spot, seized a shield from a soldier's hand, called upon the men by name, and fought himself in the first rank like one of the common soldiers. Thus he sustained their courage, and kept up the battle until the rest of the army came in sight, and victory declared itself on the Roman side. Hemmed in on all sides, the Nervii fought on with desperate valour, till nearly all had fallen on the field of battle. The Belgian tribes submitted to the conqueror, who left them their lands and their laws, but required them to give hostages and to yield up their arms. At the end of the second year of the war, all Gaul had submitted to Cæsar; and it was in the course of the same year, 56, that the meeting took place at Lucca between Pompey, Cæsar, and Crassus, which we have already described.

You may remember that Cæsar, at that meeting, desired to keep the command in Gaul until the year 49. He knew

that although the Gauls had everywhere submitted, he could not depend upon them. They had submitted readily, but would rise again easily ; and their restless, excitable spirit was far from being content with their present condition. The following year was marked by another fearful defeat of some German tribes who had ventured to cross the Rhine. Cæsar, afterwards thinking it well to impress the Germans by his own presence, commanded a bridge to be thrown over the river ; then he crossed it and spent a few weeks on German soil, and returned to Gaul, breaking down the bridge behind him.

Cæsar next took some pains to inquire into the character of the inhabitants of an island lying to the north of Gaul, within sight of its shores. The people of this island were of the same race as the Gauls, and help had come from them to the Gauls during the war. Many Gallic fugitives had found a home there. He was told that they were a rude, uncivilised race of barbarians. They wore no clothing, but tattooed their bodies with a blue dye ; they built no cities, but lived in rude huts, and supported themselves on milk and flesh, leaving the ground uncultivated. Cæsar determined to see these people for himself, and to impress them with a sense of Roman power. So, on the 26th of August 55, he crossed the straits of Dover, and landed under the white chalk cliffs of the Kentish coast. The Britons resisted at first vigorously, but soon gave way, and offered their submission. A few days after, some of the Roman vessels were dashed in pieces by a storm, and others were much injured. The Britons then took courage, and made an attack upon the Roman army, which seemed cut off from supplies by this disaster. Cæsar drove them back ; but being anxious to leave before the

stormy season of the year, he received their new offers of submission and took hostages from them ; then, repairing his damaged vessels, he set sail and returned to Gaul.

Next year Cæsar once again landed in Britain, and this time he advanced some distance into the country. He was harassed on his march by the British war-chariots, but reached the Thames, and forded it, for it was a very dry season, and the river was low. The Britons, under the command of Cassivelaunus, one of their kings, retired farther into the country, and after a while asked for peace. Cæsar granted it ; he was anxious to return to Gaul, and was contented with receiving promises of tribute, which were certainly never kept. Nor did the Roman soldiers carry away any plunder, or riches of any kind ; so poor was the land and its people. Even slaves brought from such a land would be worth very little, the Romans said, and could only be employed in the rudest possible work.

The extreme dryness of the summer, which had enabled the Roman soldiers to ford the Thames, had made supplies very scarce in Gaul, so that, when Cæsar returned, he was obliged to station his men in different detachments, and at great distances apart, that they might be more easily provisioned. For a long time anger and shame had been burning in the hearts of the Gallic people, and it seemed a favourable moment for an outbreak. One of Cæsar's detachments was treacherously led into an ambuscade by a tribe called the Eburones, and surrounded and destroyed. A second detachment was then attacked, and was in the greatest danger. Cæsar had as yet heard nothing ; a month passed before a letter reached him. He had only seven thousand men with him, but he instantly marched to the relief of the little besieged camp, & here

only one man in every ten was by this time left unwounded. The Gauls were sixty thousand strong; but they were defeated, and the Romans in the camp rescued from their great peril. Next year the Eburones were punished for their treachery. Cæsar declared that their country might be plundered and laid waste by any who chose to come, and the unfortunate people perished not only by the hands of Romans, but of Gauls.

We have now come to the time when there was danger every moment of civil war between Pompey and Cæsar. You know that Pompey had joined with the Senate, and intended to quarrel with Cæsar, but his movements were hesitating and slow. I told you in the last chapter how fortunate this delay was for Cæsar. In the year 52 a fearful insurrection broke out in every part of Gaul. Never had the Gauls appeared so strong, for they were united under the command of a leader whom all consented to obey, Vercingetorix. I will not here follow out the history of that year,—its sieges, battles, dangers, and victories,—but will pass on to the closing scene of the great Gallic war. Vercingetorix, with an army of eighty thousand men, was holding the town of Alesia. Cæsar raised a line of fortified works, which swept round the town and shut in the army. It was a terrible moment: every feeling of humanity was lost. Famine and pestilence were very near at hand, when so vast a host was cooped up within a town; and it was actually proposed by some to avoid the danger of starvation by making it lawful to kill and eat human beings. The proposal was not listened to; but the women and the sick, the old men and little children, were driven forth, and perished miserably between the two armies. Vercingetorix had sent messengers

throughout Gaul to implore aid in this last hour Cæsar, who encompassed the city, strongly fortified his camp on the outside, in a circle of fifteen miles. There was no food left in the city, when the advance of an immense Gallic army was perceived. They furiously attacked the Roman camp from without, whilst the besieged army sallied forth and attacked it from within. But all was in vain ; the assault was repeated again and again, but was again and again driven back, until at length the Gallic army grew weary. They broke up, dispersed, and left the city of Alesia and the army of Vercingetorix to their fate. The Gallic chief then offered to devote himself to the conqueror for his country. In splendid armour, and on a magnificent steed, he entered the Roman camp, and prostrated himself before Cæsar. Cæsar, however, remained stern and cold ; he kept Vercingetorix imprisoned until, five years afterwards, he celebrated his triumph ; then the brave and unfortunate Gaul followed in the procession, and was put to death as a traitor and a rebel.

Nothing could make up to the Gauls for the loss of Vercingetorix : all resistance afterwards was easily put down. In the year 51 all Gaul was reduced to submission and to quiet. By the wisdom of the conqueror, the new province was spared the miseries that had fallen upon the other parts of the Roman dominions. For Cæsar thought the old form of government had lasted too long,—the government of the Senate,—who seemed to think that the world existed only for the sake of a few families at Rome, and whose chief business was to make money out of the provinces, no matter what sufferings and wrongs were inflicted on the inhabitants. The idea of Cæsar was, that one city should no longer rule and plunder the rest of the world.

but that all the nations that had been conquered by Rome should form one empire, be ruled by the same laws, and be subject to the same power.

QUESTIONS.—When did Cæsar leave Italy for Gaul? How old was he then? How had he passed his life hitherto? Why was Cæsar popular amongst the Gauls in the north of Italy? What was that province called? What was the name of the other Gaul? Where was Transalpine Gaul? In what countries were the independent Gallic tribes settled? What other nation threatened the Gauls? How were the Gallic tribes weakened? What tribe was now threatening the Roman province of Gaul? What was the end of their expedition? What new danger threatened Gaul? How did Cæsar's army receive the idea of marching against the Germans? What did Cæsar say? What was the effect of his words? How did the campaign end? Which was the fiercest and most warlike tribe Cæsar fought with in Gaul? Describe the conflict with the Nervii. What island was visible from the coast of Gaul? How were Gaul and Britain connected? What kind of people were the Britons? Where did Cæsar land? In what year? What was the end of his first invasion? Who commanded the Britons when Cæsar again invaded them? How did the second expedition end? What disaster befell a detachment of Cæsar's forces in Gaul? What fresh danger ensued? How was it averted? What was the fate of the Eburones? What happened in the year 52? Who headed the great insurrection? Describe the siege of Alesia. What was the last act of Vercingetorix? What was his ultimate fate? What changes did Cæsar contemplate for the world

CHAPTER XXV.

CIVIL WAR BETWEEN POMPEY AND CÆSAR.

CÆSAR RECALLED.

HE MARCHES INTO ITALY.

FLIGHT OF POMPEY AND THE NOBILITY.

CÆSAR IN SPAIN.

HE FOLLOWS POMPEY TO THE EAST.

BATTLE OF PHARSALIA.

FLIGHT AND DEATH OF POMPEY.

CÆSAR IN EGYPT.

MUTINY AMONGST HIS SOLDIERS
QUIETED.

BATTLE OF THAPSUS, AND END OF THE
WAR.

DEATH OF CATO.

We have now brought the history of Cæsar's wars in Gaul down to the year 50. You will easily understand that, if his enemies in Rome had moved against him sooner,

he would have been in great danger; if, for instance, Pompey had been sent against him just when the terrible insurrection in Gaul broke out, and when Cæsar needed every soldier that he had. But Pompey hesitated and delayed; the Senate was timid; and perhaps they really trusted Pompey as little as Cæsar, although they feared Cæsar more, and felt obliged to put themselves under Pompey's protection. It was proposed in the Senate to recall Cæsar from Gaul, and require him to come to Rome as a private citizen. When the debate began as to whether Cæsar should be recalled, a young man named Curio, acting secretly for Cæsar, proposed that, instead of merely recalling Cæsar, the Senate should order both Pompey and Cæsar to give up the command of their armies. Cæsar at once agreed, but Pompey would make no promise, and months passed by. Cæsar came as near Italy as he could. No general could lead his army across the boundary line which was formed by the little stream of the Rubicon. At length, in the autumn, the Senate voted on the question; and decided by a majority of 370 against 22, to require both generals to give up their commands. But Pompey had no regard for the authority of the Senate if it was used against himself, although he was quite willing to make use of it against Cæsar. He knew war must come, and began to raise soldiers throughout Italy. He was perfectly convinced of his own strength. "I have but to stamp my foot," said he, "and legions will start up from the soil of Italy." It was thought at Rome that Cæsar's soldiers were discontented and ready to mutiny, and that it would be perfectly impossible for him to persuade them to follow him into Italy. But the army had been long absent from

Rome; indeed, many of them were Gauls by birth, and had never seen the city; and they were absolutely devoted to their general. For these men, no danger, no hardship was too great; confident of victory, they were not afraid to meet any number of enemies; every man knew that his general's eye was on him, and no service, no merit would be unnoticed or unrewarded. One mind and one will prevailed in the whole army—the mind and will of their great chief. Cato's party succeeded in getting a decree passed, that Cæsar must instantly resign both Gauls to a successor and dismiss his army, else he would be guilty of treason. The moment had now come for Cæsar to decide; and he would not hesitate or waver, as Pompey always did. He had only one legion with him at Ravenna, and it was winter; but he knew how precious every moment was, for Pompey and the nobility were gathering forces together to defend Italy. He addressed the soldiers around him, and finding them full of ardour and ready to follow him anywhere, he crossed the little river Rubicon, and stood once more upon Italian ground.

Terror spread throughout Italy when the news came that the mighty conqueror was at hand. Rome was in agitation; fear blinded the eyes of the senators and nobles; they fancied the terrible soldiers were already at their doors. They looked in vain to Pompey to revive their failing hearts. Long lines of fugitives left the gates, and hastened along the broad Appian Road towards the south. They did not even venture to stay long enough to remove the public money; they left their magnificent palaces undefended, and followed their hero Pompey, for it had been solemnly proclaimed that every senator who stayed behind would be considered as guilty a rebel as Cæsar

himself. Meanwhile Cæsar advanced, and was gradually joined by more of his soldiers. There was little resistance. Many deserted to his camp. Cæsar allowed not a single act of violence or cruelty ; and the Italians began to gain confidence. He pressed on towards the south, and Pompey gave up all hope of defending Italy ; for the people really hated the government of the Senate and nobility, and appeared quite ready to welcome Cæsar. The mildness of his conduct won their hearts ; no man was injured ; property was not touched. Very different was the language of Pompey and the senators. At a distance from Rome they made no secret of the vengeance they meant to take, should they ever return. Pompey seemed to take Sulla as his pattern, always saying, "If Sulla could do this, why not I ?" He was now at Brundisium ; and Cæsar arrived there, but could not succeed in preventing him from embarking with his army and setting sail for the East. In sixty days Cæsar became master of Italy and Rome. Many who had followed Pompey from Rome, left him in anger and disgust, when they saw he meant to fight no battle on Italian ground, and returned to the city again. Pompey really hated and distrusted his own party. In the East he thought he was strong, remembering his former triumphs there. Cicero said that he "left the city, not because he could not defend it ; nor did he leave Italy because he was driven out of it ; but this was his design from the beginning, to move land and sea, to call the kings of the barbarians to arms, to lead savage nations into Italy, not as prisoners, but as conquerors, to reign there like Sulla ; and many there are who approve of so hateful a design." He set up his camp in Macedonia, and there the emigrants of the senatorial party gradually col-

lected. Their chief concern was to live in the greatest luxury that was possible, to find fault with Pompey whenever they could, and to send the most terrible threats to Rome and Italy. They would not "leave a tile on a house throughout the country."

There can be little doubt that the furious threats which reached Rome from beyond the sea tended to keep the city quiet, and prevent any movement for Pompey or the Senate, when Cæsar left the country. He stayed but a short time in the city; but the people could not help observing the difference between his mildness and courtesy and the letters of the exiles in the East. To possess Italy, however, was only the beginning of Cæsar's task, and by no means the most difficult. He had no fleet; so, instead of crossing to the East, he went to Spain, where was a large army, commanded by two of Pompey's generals. Here Cæsar was at one time in great danger, by the sudden overflowing of a river, which broke down the bridges by which provisions came. The flood continued, and food grew scarce in the camp, although abundant stores were close by on the other side. But Cæsar escaped from the pressing danger by a very simple means. He took a hint from the light boats of basket-work covered with skin which he had seen in Britain, and had a number of them made, and carried in waggons more than twenty miles up the river. Crossing in these little vessels far away from the enemy, he was able afterwards to restore the bridge, and bring food over for his men. The enemy retreated, and Cæsar followed. With the greatest skill he succeeded in so hemming them in that the generals surrendered. He only required the army to disband, and gave the soldiers permission to remain in Spain, or to go

back to Italy, as they pleased. All Spain then submitted to the conqueror. But a more important struggle remained. All eyes were fixed on the East. There a battle must be fought, not between Romans and foreigners, not between the Senate and the people, but between two renowned generals, Pompey and Cæsar; and whoever succeeded would be ruler of Rome and the civilised world. Cæsar went first to Rome after leaving Spain, and was there chosen consul by the people. He then prepared to follow Pompey to the East; but all the vessels he could collect, were sufficient for only a part of his troops. With these he set sail and landed in Epirus. There he waited long, and with the utmost impatience, for the rest of his army. But the weather was stormy, and Pompey's fleet was now on the watch. Mark Antony, who commanded the soldiers left behind, did not venture to sail. At last they embarked and crossed in safety.

Pompey had collected and trained a large army; but very different was the spirit of the two camps. In Cæsar's, all were of one mind, and so were strong; Pompey's was full of jealousy and disputing. Pompey refused a battle; and Cæsar's men gradually raised fortified works round the whole of their enemy's camp. But one point not having been sufficiently guarded, Pompey's soldiers broke through it, and not long after a part of Cæsar's army suffered a defeat. They were not equal in number to one-half of Pompey's; so after this check their general thought it best to make a rapid retreat. He crossed the mountains into Thessaly; and there the army, only twenty-two thousand strong, encamped near Pharsalia, by the side of the little river Enipeus.

The nobles and senators in Pompey's camp were con-

fidant now of victory and vengeance. They disputed who should fill the offices next year at Rome,—who should possess the houses and land of the citizens,—who should have the gardens of Cæsar. Pompey seemed unwilling to move, and they openly accused him of wishing to lengthen out the war, that he might enjoy the pleasure of commanding. At length, Pompey marched and encamped opposite Cæsar, with forty-seven thousand foot and seven thousand horse. His infantry was twice as strong as Cæsar's, his cavalry seven times stronger, yet he was unwilling to fight. In the morning of the 9th of August 48, Pompey gave way to the eagerness and impatience of those around him, and saying that he no longer commanded but must consent to obey, he prepared for battle. Certain of victory, the nobles adorned their luxurious tents in readiness to celebrate it; tables were laid out, and services of plate stood prepared for the banquet. Some of the tents were embowered in ivy. But their numbers and their confidence proved of no avail against the discipline and spirit of Cæsar's experienced soldiers. There was hard fighting for a while; but the Pompeians yielded in the end, and fled. Pompey himself, as soon as he saw the day begin to turn against him, retired to his camp, and prepared to defend it; but the flight of his troops carried them past the fortifications; and Pompey, alone in his tent, heard the enemy approach, then mounting his horse, he hurried from the field. The conquerors entered the camp, and were for a moment tempted to give up pursuit and plunder the rich and magnificent quarters; but at Cæsar's word they hastened onwards, and completed their great victory. But when the day of battle ceased, the bloodshed stayed, and all who

asked for favour found it; very different was the measure that Cæsar meted out to his enemies from that which they had longed to measure out to him, and to every man that had followed him. We are told that he gazed sadly at the battle-field where so many Romans lay silent in death,—men who had borne, however unworthily, names of old renown in the history of Rome. “They would have it so. I should have been condemned to death after all I had done, if I had not thrown myself upon the protection of my soldiers.”

We have said that many asked for peace, and found it. Amongst them was the orator Cicero. But Cato could not yield or bend. He fled with some others to Corcyra, to consult what next to do. No one knew where Pompey was. He had fled to Egypt, where he hoped for shelter. But the unfortunate are seldom welcome visitors; and it was thought wise to seek favour from the conqueror. So Pompey was invited to land, and a boat was sent to fetch him. As he stepped in, he was stabbed in the back, before the eyes of his wife and son, who were with him in the vessel. His head and the ring he wore were preserved as a welcome offering to Cæsar. His body was left unburied on the sandy sea-shore. The vessel on which were his wife and son had sailed away in all haste from the fatal scene. The beach was deserted. It was the 28th of September, the day on which, thirteen years before, he had celebrated his great triumph over Mithridates, and the day before his fifty-ninth birthday. An old Roman soldier, and a freedman of Pompey's, performed the last sad offices to the dead in haste and fear; the wreck of a fishing-boat served for wood for the funeral pile. One hundred and sixty years later, the emperor Hadrian erected a monu-

ment to Pompey on the spot where his body had been burnt. Seldom has a life begun in glory ended in such shame and disaster as his. Cæsar arrived not long after, and the head of the murdered general was brought to him; but he turned away his face in horror and in tears from the ghastly sight. The ring he preserved, and sent to Rome, to prove the fact of Pompey's death, which was disbelieved or doubted by many.

Cæsar landed at Alexandria. The crown of Egypt was then a subject of dispute. The late king had left it to his son Ptolemy and his daughter Cleopatra, who was then sixteen years old, and already celebrated for her beauty. But Ptolemy, who was two years younger than his sister, claimed to rule alone; and his guardian, Potheinos, was endeavouring to make him sole monarch. But Cæsar claimed to decide, as representing the supreme Roman people; and calling the brother and sister into his presence, declared that both should occupy the throne, according to their father's will.

The people of Alexandria were ill pleased to see the authority assumed by Cæsar. He had landed with a mere handful of soldiers; and perceiving the angry feeling of the city crowds, he sent word that the rest of his troops should join him with all speed. Their coming was delayed by contrary winds, and Cæsar, who occupied the palace, was placed in considerable danger. He succeeded in destroying the Egyptian fleet, and so kept the sea open. Whilst trying to gain possession of a causeway in the harbour, Cæsar was once in the greatest personal danger. A party of Egyptians attacked the soldiers from behind; many were drowned; others crowded on to the vessels, some of which, being overladen, sank. Cæsar, who, as was his

custom, had been in the midst of the danger, found the ship he took refuge on beginning to sink, and only saved his life by swimming to another. Presently Cæsar heard that an army was on its way to help him, commanded by a prince of Asia Minor. He left Alexandria, and joined the approaching army; then completely defeated the Egyptians in a battle on the Nile. The boy king, who was at the head of the Egyptian forces, was drowned in the waters of the river as he was trying to escape. Cæsar then made Cleopatra and her younger brother Ptolemy king and queen of Egypt, and left Roman soldiers behind in Alexandria.

Cæsar had been detained so long in Egypt, that there had been time for the defeated party to gather strength again. Cato and the other leaders had assembled in Africa. Here they formed an alliance with Juba, king of Numidia, who had lately defeated a lieutenant of Cæsar's, and destroyed his army. The ferocity of the barbarian prince went even beyond that of his new friends. But he could bring into battle a hundred and twenty elephants, besides the multitudes of the Numidian cavalry, so famous from of old; and the Romans bore with his insolence for the sake of his help; and they also consented to his proposal to declare that any city in Africa that was even *suspected* of good-will to Cæsar should be destroyed by fire and sword. Nothing seemed wanting on their part to drive the Africans to side with Cæsar. Armies were raised with such stern harshness, that the country could not be cultivated for want of labourers. The command was given to Metellus Scipio. The soldiers called upon Cato to become their general, as he was the only man possessing any real influence or ability; but as Scipio, father-in-law of Pompey,

was of higher rank, Cato thought it more correct that he should be commander-in-chief. Unfortunately for the cause, he was a man of no ability whatever.

Whilst these preparations for war were going on in Africa, Cæsar returned to Italy. There several of his old legions had been quartered during his absence in Egypt, enjoying ease and plenty after all their toils. When a message came to them that they were to be ready to sail for Africa, they positively refused to obey; they killed some of their officers who interfered, and then marched towards Rome to see their general and force their claims upon him. Cæsar went out and met them. He asked them what they wanted; and when they cried out, "To be discharged," he told them their demand was granted: they were no longer his soldiers. He addressed them accordingly, not as usual, "Fellow-soldiers," but "Citizens;" and told them that they should still receive the gifts he had promised them, besides the gifts of land he intended for his soldiers at the end of the war, if they would come and claim them on the day he, with his other soldiers, celebrated his triumph; only he added that, of course, they could take no part in the triumph itself. The effect of these words was extraordinary; the old spirit returned; full of shame and repentance, they implored their general to receive them again as his soldiers; and after keeping them for a time in suspense, Cæsar yielded to their entreaties.

In the winter of the year 47, Cæsar landed in Africa, with only a small part of his army, for stormy weather had dispersed the fleet. Most of those with him were men new to war. He was joined by some of his other troops, but was in the greatest peril, so immense were the

numbers of the enemy, so deadly the aim of the mounted Numidians. To avoid a fate like that of Crassus, Cæsar ventured no farther into the country, but fortified himself on the coast, waiting till all his troops should have assembled. In the meantime, he laboriously and patiently trained and disciplined the newly-raised troops. Many of the African rulers were well disposed to Cæsar, and Juba was obliged to send a large part of his forces to defend his own kingdom. Cato advised a retreat from the coast to a country where Cæsar's soldiers, if they advanced, would have no chance against the enemy's cavalry; but Scipio would not consent. Cato was put in command of the large town of Utica, a town which he had been able to save from the bloodthirsty Juba and his Roman allies, who had desired to destroy it. The winter passed; and when spring came round, Cæsar's army was assembled and ready to fight. Cæsar brought on a battle near Thapsus, April 6th, 46. In spite of the numbers of the foe, they were so ill arranged that his men were eager to fight and confident of victory. Cæsar was holding them back, when the trumpet of the tenth legion sounded unbidden; and they charged the enemy, followed by the whole army. Cæsar immediately put spurs to his horse, and was at the head of his men in a moment. Little resistance was made; the enemy fled in terror and disorder, and were destroyed, with the loss of only fifty men on Cæsar's side. The victorious army would show no mercy that day; they thought that the war had gone on so long because their general had compelled them to cease from bloodshed, and had spared so many enemies; no commands or entreaties of Cæsar could stay their fury on that day. The enemy's army was destroyed, and of the leaders none

escaped but the two sons of Pompey. The news was told at Utica. Cato saw that the people were ready to surrender the city to the conqueror. So he recommended all who wished at once to make their escape, for ships were ready to receive them. As for himself, he intended neither to escape nor to surrender. Whither could he go? The world was Cæsar's now. How could he surrender, when the mercy that the conqueror would show him would be a bitterer thing than death! He passed the evening in conversation, and then retired to rest. After reading for a while, he plunged his sword into his breast, and died. Cæsar soon settled the affairs of the province of Africa, and set sail for Italy in June 46.

QUESTIONS.—To what decision did the Senate come respecting Pompey and Cæsar? How did Pompey feel and act? What was the character and disposition of Cæsar's army? What summons was addressed to Cæsar? How did he meet it? What was the behaviour of Pompey and the nobility? For what was Cæsar's conduct remarkable after he entered Italy? Where did Pompey go? Contrast the conduct of the Pompeians with that of Cæsar? To what country did Cæsar next direct his steps? To what risk was he exposed? and how did he escape? What was the result of his Spanish campaign? What dangers did he afterwards encounter in Epirus? Where was the decisive battle fought? In what year? How did Cæsar treat the survivors of the battle? Whither did Pompey fly? Describe his end. For what were his head and the ring he wore preserved? How did Cæsar receive the offering? What dispute was going on at Alexandria? How did Cæsar settle it? What dangers did Cæsar incur at Alexandria? Where were the Egyptians finally defeated, and what was the end of their king? Where did Cato and his party make their last effort? Who was their ally? How did Cæsar quell a mutiny amongst his troops in Italy? What town did Cato command? Where and in what year was the final battle fought? Describe the end of Cato.

CHAPTER XXVI.

CÆSAR

HONOURS CONFERRED ON CÆSAR.
 HIS PLANS FOR GOVERNMENT.
 DISCONTENT AND CONSPIRACY.
 BRUTUS AND CASSIUS.
 THE IDES OF MARCH.

CÆSAR MURDERED IN THE SENATE-
 HOUSE.
 HIS WILL IS READ TO THE PEOPLE.
 CÆSAR'S FUNERAL.
 ANTONY'S ORATION.

EFFECT ON THE PEOPLE.

No honours seemed too great for the new master of the Roman world. The Senate must have exhausted its powers of invention to find out new distinctions and dignities to offer him. Every title was lavished upon him,—consul, dictator, “imperator.”* The month in which he was born received the new name of “Julius” (July). He was called the “father of his country,” nay, a “demi-god.” His statue in ivory was to stand in the Capitol, opposite the seat of Jupiter. The most magnificent triumph that Rome had ever seen was decreed for him, celebrated only over foreign foes, not over Pompey and fellow-citizens. His chariot was drawn by white horses (white being the sacred colour), and followed by all the soldiers who had served under him since he first entered Gaul, and by the most famous of his prisoners. With banners flying, and with the images of the vanquished leaders carried upon litters, Cæsar ascended to the Capitol. Large gifts were made to every soldier; and every citizen received a present in money.

* The title of imperator was a military one, and signified a general in his own right, and had always been written after the proper name. It was given first to Cæsar as a regular title of office, and was then written before the name. It is of course our “emperor.”

Great festivities followed; a banquet, spread on twenty two thousand tables, was given to the populace, when the rarest dainties were served, and the choicest wines flowed freely. But all this pomp and profusion was but outward show, to please the people, and make them feel the greatness of the new ruler. There was serious work to do. The old government had passed away for ever. Senators and nobles were seeking favours and honours from their lord and master. It was for Cæsar to establish a new government. There can be very little doubt, that but for him, Rome, and every civilised land would have fallen in a short time, before the hosts of barbarians; for the Roman government was powerless, and neither Pompey or Crassus could win the hearts of the people and gain their confidence. So short was the time given to Cæsar, that we can see but little of his actual plans. His chief idea, no doubt, was gradually to raise the provinces to the dignity and privileges of Romans and Italians. He increased the Senate to nine hundred, and introduced Gauls and other foreigners into it, much to the discontent and scorn of the proud Roman nobility. He made the laws more severe against crimes of violence, and limited the numbers receiving corn to those who were really Roman citizens and in want; and that number was also not to exceed a certain amount. To relieve distress, colonists were sent abroad, eighty thousand in number: the cities of Carthage and of Corinth were rebuilt and peopled. He lessened taxation everywhere in the provinces, yet the public treasury was richer than ever, for the governors of the provinces could not cheat or bribe their master now. Nothing was too great, nothing too small for Cæsar's attention and care. Whilst forming the vastest plans for the empire, whilst anxious

about securing the boundaries of the Rhine, the Danube and the Euphrates, he did not overlook the paving of the streets, the overflow of rain ; he could attend the performances in the theatre, listen to the pieces recited for prizes, and give the wreath to the victor with verses composed at the moment. He had, however, spent but a few months in Rome before he was once more called away to the battle-field, for the sons of Pompey had raised an army in Spain, nor was it without a hard-fought battle that they were defeated. One of them was killed, but the other, Sextus, escaped, and remained concealed till after Cæsar's death. Once again Cæsar entered Rome, and once more celebrated a magnificent triumph. It might, perhaps, have seemed that at length the Roman people, and with them the civilised world, were about to enjoy long and uninterrupted peace. There was no fear that Cæsar and his army could not keep off foreign enemies. At home all seemed to have submitted. The senators and nobles crowded to Cæsar's palace, as courtiers to a king's court. It was often difficult to gain admission, so great was the throng. But there was much secret discontent and jealousy. Cæsar now received the Senate, seated on a chair of gold, without rising ; and Roman pride could not endure the slight thus put upon it. Cæsar had adopted his great-nephew Octavius, a handsome youth of nineteen, as the successor to his fortune and to his power ; nor did he appear unworthy of the inheritance appointed for him. But this fact of naming a successor excited still more discontent, for it seemed to show the people more and more clearly that the ancient oath was broken, and that kings were once more ruling at Rome. As to taking the name of king, it must ever remain doubtful what Cæsar's thoughts

really were ; nor is it known whether the hand of a friend, or of a secret enemy placed one night a laurel wreath with a royal crown on the head of Cæsar's statue. It was torn down by the tribunes, to the satisfaction of the people. Then soon after, on a public occasion, certain voices were heard saluting him as king ; but murmurs arose on all sides, and he exclaimed aloud, " I am not king ; I am Cæsar." The temper of the people was tried again at a festival in February 44. The consul, Mark Antony, long one of Cæsar's followers and friends, approached and offered him a diadem ; Cæsar put it from him, and the people burst into loud shouts of applause. " I am not a king," he said again ; " Jupiter alone is king of the Romans."

There had long been conspiracies against Cæsar's life ; and he knew it well, but could never be persuaded to have a guard around him, or to take any measures for safety. " It is better," he said, " to die once than always to live in fear of dying." Many of the nobles were ready to turn against him from mere envy and jealousy. Not a few of his own party were disappointed and angry because he had allowed no bloodshed and no plunder. They had hoped for a " reign of terror," or for such a revolution as Catiline planned. It seemed easy for any who felt ill-will towards Cæsar to raise the suspicion amongst the people that he intended to make himself king, and so to turn their hearts from him. There was indeed a wide-spread conspiracy going on ; sixty or eighty are said to have been concerned in it. Some were men who had served Cæsar, but thought they had not been sufficiently rewarded, and turned traitors in consequence, and others were enemies whom he had spared, trusted, and placed in offices of state. Caius Cassius was one of these. We have met with him before,

guiding the retreat of those who were left of the army of Crassus, after the defeat at Carrhæ. He afterwards followed Pompey, but had yielded to Cæsar, and been treated with favour. He had lately disputed for the chief magistracy of the city with M. Junius Brutus. Cæsar decided in favour of Brutus, but gave Cassius the command of the rich province of Syria, to console him for the disappointment. Cassius was chief in the conspiracy. His principal motive seems to have been dislike of the supremacy of Cæsar. He was very anxious to persuade Brutus to join in the plot. Brutus had married the daughter of Cato. He followed Pompey at Pharsalia, but was one of the first to offer his submission. He had been treated with especial favour and confidence: he had been governor of Cisalpine Gaul, and lately had been preferred by Cæsar to Cassius, when both disputed for the chief magistracy. The conspirators wished much for his name, which was sure to have power over the people, recalling the early days of Roman liberty, the expulsion of kings from Rome for ever. Papers were thrust into his hands, or thrown in his way, with the words, "Brutus, thou sleepest," "Thou art not Brutus," &c.; and a paper was found fastened to the statue of the ancient Brutus on which was written, "Would thou wert alive;" and he was gradually prevailed upon to join. His name had a sort of magic power in attracting others to the plot. It helped to hide jealousy and ingratitude, and to make them look like old Roman virtue and love of freedom. The conspiracy had spread far, but was kept secret. At length the Ides of March (*i.e.*, the 15th day) were chosen for the deed. Closely as the secret was kept, some rumours seem to have been afloat, and from a soothsayer Cæsar received a warn-

ing to "beware the Ides of March." The conspirators had probably settled little beyond the murder itself. They perhaps thought that all difficulties would be smoothed over, that Senate and people would applaud the deed, and hail them as the deliverers of the land.

A war was to be undertaken against the Parthians. There was said to be an old oracle which declared that none but a king could conquer the Parthians ; and it was believed that when the Senate met on the 15th of March it would be proposed to give the title of king to Cæsar in all places beyond Italy. The Senate met on that day, and waited for Cæsar. It was at first said that he was not coming on account of the alarm of his wife, who had been sorely distressed by dreams and fearful omens. Decimus Brutus, who had followed Cæsar in his wars, had received the greatest favours from him, and was so entirely trusted by him as to have been named one of his heirs, went to his house and persuaded him to come. There were whispers afloat. One man thrust a paper into Cæsar's hand ; he kept it in his hand, but did not unroll it. Had he read it, it might have saved his life. Seeing the soothsayer standing in the crowd, Cæsar said, "The Ides of March are come." "Ay, but not gone," replied the man. The conspirators kept close to him all the way, to keep off any who might have warned him. Cæsar entered the Senate-house, and took his place beneath the statue of Pompey, and they now closed him in, in a dense crowd. But they were men known and trusted, whom it seemed strange to no one to see so near his side. A petition was presented for the recall of a brother of one of them, named Cinna. The petition was refused. Then all joined to press it upon him, and thus crowded closer to their victim.

Casca struck the first blow, a slight wound in the shoulder. When Cæsar felt it, he exclaimed, "Accursed Casca! what means this?" The gleaming daggers drawn on every side, answered the question. At first he defended himself; but it is said that when he saw the hand of Brutus raised,—of Brutus whom he had spared, and treated with especial favour and confidence,—he exclaimed, "Thou, too, Brutus!" and resisted no longer. He drew the folds of his toga around his face, and fell beneath the murderers' strokes, pierced with three-and-twenty wounds, for each conspirator had vowed to dip his dagger in Cæsar's blood. After the deed was done, they looked for a moment one at another—all was silent—the Senate-house was empty. They had expected to receive applause and promises of support, but every senator had fled in horror and in fear. The assassins, attended by some gladiators whom they had hired, left the house. They marched to the Forum, brandishing their blood-stained daggers; a cap of liberty was borne before them on a spear. Brutus attempted to speak to the people, but they would not hear him. The city was filled with horror and consternation. The conspirators, who had formed no plan of action, when they saw the feelings of the people towards them, retired with their gladiators to the Capitol, for security during the night.

Meanwhile the dead body of Cæsar lay for hours in the deserted Senate-house, and the marble statue of Pompey seemed to look coldly down upon the form of his rival and his conqueror. It was at length secretly and hastily moved away by some who had been his attendants, and carried to the house in the Forum where he had lived. Next day, as the evening grew dark, some of the senators stole timidly up to the Capitol, and met the conspirators,

who were still there. Cicero, who was one of the new comers, proposed that the Senate should be called together. But the days when the Senate could guide and rule in a time of danger and of difficulty were long passed by. The affection of the people had been fixed on Cæsar, and clung to his memory. They were struck dumb at present, but their passions might be roused in a moment by a skilful hand. The city was filled by the old and faithful soldiers who had followed Cæsar so long. His friend Mark Antony was not idle. But the actual power for the time seemed rather in the hands of Lepidus, who was on the point of going to Spain at the head of an army. Mark Antony was, however, consul, and had been most nearly connected with Cæsar; and to him Calpurnia, Cæsar's widow, sent the private papers and the will of her husband on the night after the murder. Antony, who was a man of great skill, succeeded in making friendship with Lepidus, and waited for the next move of his enemies. But his enemies were not all secure in their position on the Capitoline, and the people remained as cold as ever towards them; so they showed themselves as friends, and sent to ask Antony as the consul to assemble the Senate. Antony agreed. He felt himself master, especially since he had obtained possession of the immense riches heaped up in the treasury by Cæsar. The Senate met before daylight, on the morning of the seventeenth, two days after the murder. The conspirators had agreed to submit the deed to their judgment—the debates were long, and very distracted. The people outside were waiting, eager and impatient to hear the result. At length it was agreed that all Cæsar's acts should be confirmed, and that no sentence at all should be pronounced upon the deed of Brutus,

Cassius, and their accomplices, all for the sake of peace. But it was not peace that was in store for Rome.

For the moment, all went smoothly. The conspirators, were encouraged to leave their defences on the Capitoline ; and that evening Brutus feasted at the house of Lepidus, Cassius at the house of Mark Antony. Hollow must have been the mirth, affected must have been the gaiety of the guests, at those evening banquets. Next morning Cæsar's arrangements about the government of the provinces were confirmed. Brutus, Cassius, and others of the assassins, would thus receive the commands intrusted to them by the man they had murdered. The Senate further decreed that every act and measure of Cæsar's was to be observed. A public funeral was demanded in honour of the dead by Calpurnius Piso, his father-in-law ; and it was also required that the contents of his will should be made public. "If the funeral be permitted," whispered a friend to Cicero, "all is lost." But the Senate consented, and the decree was passed. The consul Antony was to deliver the funeral discourse.

Cæsar's will was read aloud to the people. Octavius, who was absent in Greece, was by it declared his adopted son and heir of three-fourths of his property. A strange and painful sensation was caused when the name of the conspirator, Decimus Brutus, was read out as one of the heirs. But far stronger was the feeling excited when it was heard that Cæsar had left his palace and magnificent gardens beyond the Tiber for the use of the people, and had bequeathed to every citizen a certain sum of money. Never certainly had the crime of the conspirators appeared so odious to the people as now. And whilst their feelings were excited by the generosity of

their late ruler and benefactor, they were called upon to attend his funeral. The body had been laid upon an ivory bier, which was adorned with gold and purple. It could not be seen by the crowd ; but a waxen image was displayed, on which were represented the three and twenty wounds ; and hanging at the head of the bier was the toga he had worn on the Ides of March, pierced and torn in every part by the strokes of the murderers' daggers, and deeply stained with blood. Scenes were first acted from old Greek plays, chosen by the skill of Antony to work upon and excite the passions of the spectators. Then the consul advanced to deliver the funeral discourse before the agitated crowd. Why should he, he asked, set forth the greatness and the fame of Cæsar? Had not the Senate, had not the people already done that again and again? And he read in their hearing the decrees by which so many honours had been heaped on Cæsar—the oaths that had been taken to him. His voice faltered, and seemed choked with tears. The wild music of the chorus sent forth a funeral strain ; it sang the sorrows of heroes of old ; it celebrated the fame of Cæsar. Cries and groans were heard on every side. Before the eyes of the people had stood the waxen image and its many wounds ; now Antony held up before them the torn and blood-stained toga. The excitement grew to madness. They demanded that the body of their hero should be burned in the Senate-house where he had fallen, or in the temple of Jupiter itself. But the priests forbade it. Then arose the funeral pile. All hands were at work ; benches, branches of trees, anything and everything was seized and heaped together. When the flames burst forth, the soldiers pressed near to cast their weapons upon the burning mass. Men threw

in their garments; women and children the ornaments they wore. Nor was it only Romans that joined in that wild scene of lamentation; foreigners of many a province were there; for Cæsar was the first man who had given them relief, and a promise of brighter and better days. And amongst them all, none were louder in their cries of grief than the Jews, to whom Cæsar had shown especial forbearance and kindness.

It was only the work of a moment to change the lamentations of that mighty crowd into wild cries of fury and vengeance. They seized flaming brands from the burning pile, and hurried away to burn down the houses of Brutus and of Cassius. But the assassins had fled in time; and the storm gradually died away, very little damage having been done.

QUESTIONS.—What honours were conferred on Cæsar? How did he celebrate his triumph? What measures did Cæsar take? How did he display his power of governing? What feelings were at work against Cæsar? Whom did he name his successor? How did he meet the murmurs of the people? How was the disposition of the people tested? Why would Cæsar take no measures to secure himself against conspiracy? What motives influenced the conspirators? Who were the leading conspirators? By what means had Brutus been induced to join? Why were the conspirators anxious for his name? What day was fixed upon? What warning did Cæsar receive? What measure was it said would be proposed in the Senate? What at first was said to have detained Cæsar? Who induced him to come to the Senate-house? What occurred on the way? How did the conspirators carry on their plan? Describe Cæsar's death. Where did the murderers retire? Who acted as Cæsar's representative? To what decision did the Senate come? What was demanded in honour of the dead? Who was to deliver the funeral oration? What were the contents of Cæsar's will? What effect did the hearing of it produce upon the people? What was displayed before their eyes at the funeral? How were their feelings further wrought upon? Describe the scene that followed. What became of Brutus and Cassius?

CHAPTER XXVII.

ANTONY, OCTAVIUS, AND LEPIDUS.
THE SECOND TRIUMVIRATE.PROCEEDINGS OF MARK ANTONY AFTER
CÆSAR'S DEATH.

OCTAVIUS COMES TO ITALY.

JEALOUSY OF ANTONY.

POLICY OF OCTAVIUS.

UNION OF ANTONY, OCTAVIUS, AND
LEPIDUS.

PROSCRIPTION OF THE TRIUMVIRATE.

MURDER OF CICERO.

BATTLES OF PHILIPPI.

DEATH OF BRUTUS AND CASSIUS.

ANTONY was well known as a selfish, pleasure-loving man ; but he possessed both courage and skill, and after Cæsar's funeral, it was he who at first took the chief place, and for a time he kept order in the city. He made great use of the decree by which the Senate had declared all acts of Cæsar's to be confirmed : the papers of the dead had been sent to him, and whatever he wished to do he produced a paper of Cæsar's to enable him to do it. If a paper was not to be found such as he wanted, he forged one, and thus he had everything very much his own way. But there was great murmuring amongst the people because the will of Cæsar had not been carried out. They had never received any of the money he had left them ; and Antony, who had got possession of Cæsar's treasures, spent them as he pleased, not even waiting for the arrival of the youth Octavius, whom Cæsar had named his son and heir.

Meanwhile the conspirators moved hither and thither, restless and uneasy, having no plans, and not knowing what to do. Antony had not quarrelled with them ; hitherto he had kept friends with all parties, as far as outward appearances went. The young Octavius was

in Greece. His health had been so delicate that in his boyhood he had not been able to take part in warlike exercises; but he had been lately sent by his uncle to study the arts of war and of eloquence in Greece, where a Roman army was stationed, waiting for the expedition against the Parthians which Cæsar had meant to lead. Octavius was only nineteen, but he was already a great favourite with the soldiers; he was handsome, his features were delicate, and his manner winning; he was very ambitious, but very prudent and cautious. When he received the terrible news of his uncle's death, he would not listen to the advice of some to sail at once for Italy at the head of his soldiers then encamped in Greece; but he went over with only a few attendants. He knew little more than the fact itself when he landed; but he soon heard the story of all that had passed since the 15th of March, and learned that he had been declared son and heir of Cæsar. It was a strange position for one not yet nineteen; but Antony had no fear of a lad like Octavius, when about the beginning of May 44 he returned to Rome. Octavius first took the necessary steps to be acknowledged as the son of Cæsar, and made a speech to the people on that occasion full of praises of the great general. Then Caius Julius Cæsar Octavianus—for this was now his full name—exhibited various shows that his adopted father had promised the people, and proceeded to demand from Antony his rightful inheritance. But the money was spent; and Octavius declared that sooner than let the people be disappointed, he would himself raise the money needed and pay the legacies of Cæsar's will. He kept his word, to the great delight and satisfaction of the people. A general feeling began to prevail amongst the people and the troops that it was

Octavius who would avenge the murder of their hero; but he was exceedingly careful in all he did, and won the favour of the Senate. It was at this time that they decreed to Cæsar the honours of a god, and a day was appointed to celebrate his worship.

But it would be impossible long to avoid a quarrel with Antony, who became jealous and afraid of Octavius, when he saw him a favourite of the people. Octavius, seeing what must come, went into Campania, and there gathered many of Cæsar's old soldiers together around him, and by promising them each a large sum of money, secured their obedience. Antony had also gathered soldiers, but offered them so very small a sum that they murmured and laughed in his face. He punished the murmurers with great severity, and shortly after, half of the army went over to Octavius. Antony only kept the rest by giving them the money they desired.

Brutus and Cassius had at last gone to the East to take possession of their provinces,—Brutus to Macedonia, Cassius to Syria. Decimus Brutus had before this taken possession of his, *i.e.*, of Cisalpine Gaul, the most important of all the provinces, from its position, which seemed to command Italy. Antony prevailed upon the Senate to decree that these three provinces, Macedonia, Syria, and Cisalpine Gaul, should be taken away from the three men who occupied them and given to others,—Cisalpine Gaul to Antony himself. He then left Rome to drive Decimus Brutus out. But as soon as he was gone, bitter and angry feelings broke out against him in the city. The great orator Cicero delivered many eloquent and fierce orations against the absent general, and encouraged the people to put their trust in Octavius. Orders were sent to Antony to leave Decimus

Brutus alone; but Antony showed no inclination to obey. The new consuls, Hirtius and Pansa, both friends and generals of Cæsar, were then sent against Antony, and Octavius, who kept up an appearance of perfect obedience to the Senate, went with them and under their command. Antony was defeated; but both the consuls died from wounds received in battle. Antony then retreated across the Alps to Transalpine Gaul. There he found Lepidus, who was on his way to Spain at the head of an army; and the two generals came to an understanding, and united their forces. Meantime Decimus Brutus had wished to pursue Antony. He had not troops enough of his own, and asked Octavius to join him. But Octavius had no intention to obey the will of one of Cæsar's murderers; and even if he had himself wished to join him, his soldiers would have refused to serve.

The Senate were now displeased with Octavius, and perhaps afraid of him too; and Cicero saw that he had been quite mistaken in his opinion of the youth. The Senate began to treat him with contempt, and to try to draw away his soldiers from him. Then Octavius threw off disguise, and sent four hundred of his soldiers to Rome, to demand the consulship for their young general. At the same time he began secretly to let Antony and Lepidus know his designs. He then marched towards the city, and the senators in terror granted him the consulship, but the army continued its march. At first the senators armed and made a show of defending the city. They also sent orders that the army must not come within ninety miles of Rome.

Octavius's legions advanced more slowly than Cæsar's, for they were detained by the plunder of the country they passed through. The courage of the senators disappeared as soon as the soldiers came in sight. Many hastened to the

enemy's camp, others fled from the city. Octavius entered, amidst the applause of the crowd; his soldiers filled the city; then the election began, and on the 22d September 43, the day before his twentieth birthday, he was chosen consul. Cicero and the chief of the senators disappeared. One honour after another was heaped upon Octavius; sentence of condemnation against the murderers of Cæsar was passed. The other consul for the year was also a great nephew of Julius Cæsar, and cousin of Octavius; to him the city might be safely left when Octavius went to meet Antony and Lepidus. His hatred against Antony was deep; Lepidus he despised; but the step he was going to take was necessary, for Brutus and Cassius were successful in the East, and at the head of large armies. Sextus, the only surviving son of Pompey, had re-appeared after Cæsar's death, and held possession of the seas. Decimus saw that there was no hope of maintaining himself in Italy, and he attempted to make his way to the East. He was crossing a lofty and rugged mountain pass on his road, when his men lost heart at the prospect before them, and began gradually to forsake him. With only three hundred horsemen he pursued his way; but finding at length that only ten remained, he thought he might escape unnoticed, but he failed, and was put to death by Antony's orders.

Antony, Octavius, and Lepidus met on a little island, in a river near Bononia (Bologna). Here they decided to share the empire between them. Lepidus was to be consul, and remain at home with only a small army; whilst Antony was to command in Gaul, and Octavius to have Sicily, Sardinia, and Africa; both of them were to be at the head of a large army, and to unite in a war to recover the East from Brutus and Cassius, and to drive Sextus

Pompeius from the Mediterranean. It was decided to get rid of the chief of their enemies at home by a proscription like that of Sulla. The first list of seventeen names was sent to Rome; it included that of Cicero, Antony's bitterest foe. A few days afterwards, the triumvirs entered Rome. Then appeared, one after another, long lists of names devoted to death. Rewards were offered to the murderers, and it was forbidden on pain of death to shelter a single fugitive. In the frightful scenes of murder which followed, many a man gratified his own private hatred and revenge, whilst sons were known to give up their fathers, and friends betrayed friends to the executioners. Thus all who were likely to offer any serious opposition to the new rulers were swept away, and the triumvirs not only got rid of their enemies, but filled their coffers with abundance of money, for great numbers were proscribed simply on account of their wealth. Those who escaped took refuge in the East with Brutus and Cassius, or on board the ships of Sextus. Cicero attempted more than once to escape, but could not finally make up his mind. Twice he embarked, but, as the vessel was standing out to sea, returned to land. He went to his country-house, and passed a miserable, restless night, sure that the morning light must bring the murderers upon him. He begged those around him to let him die, but his faithful slaves forced him to get into a litter, and hastened through the dark shade of the woods towards the sea. Hardly were they gone when a band of murderers reached the house; a young man who had been much befriended by Cicero told the way the fugitives had taken. The old man from his litter saw the pursuers coming; he forbade his followers to resist, though they were strong enough to have done so; but ordering

them to set the litter down, he leant his head upon his hand, and awaited the stroke of death. By Antony's orders the head was brought to Rome, and fastened to the Rostra, where the people had so often listened to the eloquent words of the famous orator. Antony rewarded the man who brought it with ten times the usual sum of money; and Fulvia, his cruel wife, gratified her hatred by piercing with her needle the tongue that had uttered such bitter words both against her husband and herself.

Cicero died on the 7th of December, being then nearly sixty-four years of age. Nearly a month had passed since the publication of his name, which seems to show that the triumvirs were not unwilling that he should escape. It happened, not once but many times, that those who were proscribed succeeded in escaping, and others whose names had never been written in the lists of death perished. But no examination was ever made.

Next year, 42, Antony and Octavius prepared for war. Brutus and Cassius held all the East, and had eighty thousand soldiers under their command; but during the two years they had ruled there, they had made themselves detested by their merciless plunder of the cities and the lands. Sextus had seized upon the island of Sicily, and Octavius was to have driven him out, but finding it a very hard task, he left it for the present, and joined Antony. They landed safely, and met the enemy in Thrace. Near Philippi two armies of Romans stood opposed to each other—one numbering eighty thousand, the other a hundred and twenty thousand men. Octavius himself had been detained by illness, but now arrived, borne in a litter; he could not leave the honour of the day to Antony. The triumvirs were anxious to fight at once; their forces were

far more numerous, and it was almost impossible long to keep them supplied. Brutus was impatient to fight, and would not hear the advice of Cassius, who wished to delay. The battle began, and Brutus drove back Octavius's division. Octavius himself, still prostrate from sickness, was hurried from the field, to which he had been carried in a litter. Antony, meanwhile, was successful against Cassius. Cassius then perceived some horsemen coming up the hill on which he stood ; they were messengers from Brutus to bring the news of his victory, but Cassius took them for a party of the enemy. Overcome with despair, he retreated to his tent, with his freedman Pindarus. There he was afterwards found dead, his head severed from the body. It was thought that he must have desired his attendant to kill him, but Pindarus was never seen again.

Twenty days passed by ; longer delay might have ruined the cause of the triumvirs, but the army of Brutus was eager to fight, and forced their general to lead them out. The second battle of Philippi was hardly fought ; it was not till after many hours that Brutus was compelled to give way ; he retreated with some of his forces towards the mountains, but found escape impossible ; the way was blocked up by the enemy, and his soldiers refused to attempt to fight their way through. Then he withdrew with a few friends to the shelter of a thicket, near a stream, and implored them one by one to kill him. All refused, but as the night drew on, the deed was done ; either he fell upon the point of his sword himself, or one of his followers, named Strato, aided him. Many of the principal officers also put an end to their lives. The body of Brutus was honourably treated by the conquerors, and by the command of Antony it was sent to his mother,

Servilia. Octavius, still in feeble health, resolved to return to Italy; Antony remained to finish the subjugation of the East. They agreed to make a new division of the empire, leaving Lepidus nothing but the province of Africa.

Antony was as merciless in his treatment of the provinces as Brutus and Cassius and many another Roman governor before them had been. He heaped up immense sums of money, but they were chiefly spent by those who ministered to his pleasures and extravagance. It was whilst employed in settling various questions in the East, that Antony, who was then in Cilicia, met Cleopatra, the queen of Egypt, and that meeting turned the tide of events, and decided Antony's future fate.

QUESTIONS.—What was the character of Antony? What were his proceedings after the death of Cæsar? How old was Octavius? Where was he at Cæsar's death? How did he proceed on returning to Rome? Where were Brutus and Cassius? What province did Dec. Brutus hold? On whom did Antony induce the Senate to confer that province? Who displayed great enmity towards Antony after he had left Rome? Who were Hirtius and Pansa, and what was their end? What course did Octavius pursue? With whom did he determine to ally himself? Why was this alliance necessary to him? What was the fate of Dec. Brutus? Where did Antony, Octavius, and Lepidus meet? To what agreement did they come? How did they resolve to get rid of their enemies at home? Whose name did Antony have specially included in the list of the proscribed? Describe the end of Cicero. Where did Antony and Octavius meet Brutus and Cassius? In what year were the battles at Philippi fought? Whose death followed upon the first of those battles? How did Brutus die? Whom did Antony meet in Cilicia?

CHAPTER XXVIII

ANTONY AND OCTAVIUS.

OCTAVIUS IN ITALY.

MEETING OF ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA.

ANTONY AT THE EGYPTIAN COURT.

DEATH OF FULVIA, AND MARRIAGE OF
ANTONY AND OCTAVIA.ANTONY AND OCTAVIUS DIVIDE THE
EMPIRE.

ANTONY ENSLAVED BY CLEOPATRA.

DISGUST OF THE ROMANS AT HIS
CONDUCT.

POPULARITY OF OCTAVIUS.

DIVORCE OF OCTAVIA.

CIVIL WAR BETWEEN OCTAVIUS AND
ANTONY.

BATTLE OF ACTIUM.

DEATH OF ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA.

AFTER the great battles at Philippi, Octavius returned to Italy. His health was not yet restored, and he was detained on first landing by severe illness. On arriving at Rome he found himself in great difficulties; there was no money in the treasury, and none was to be expected from the rich provinces of the East, for they had fallen to Antony's share. Tens of thousands of soldiers were loudly calling for the gifts of land that had been promised them. Octavius gave up whole cities and tracts of land in Italy to satisfy them; so whilst Antony was raising immense sums of money in the East by oppression and cruelty, Octavius brought poverty and ruin upon many thousands of Italian families. Lucius, the brother of Antony, made use of all the bitter discontent and anger existing to raise up a terrible insurrection against Octavius; but he was besieged in the town of Perugia, which, after unspeakable sufferings from famine, was compelled to surrender, and the insurrection was gradually put down.

Fulvia, the wife of Antony, had joined in stirring up this war against Octavius. She hoped that the news, when it reached Antony, would bring him back from the East

There Antony had met Cleopatra, and he now found it impossible to tear himself away from her. She had gone from Egypt to meet him in Cilicia whilst he was settling the affairs of the East. She came to excuse her past neglect of the cause of the triumvirs, but she hoped for more than pardon. To win the heart of Antony, the beautiful queen of Egypt ascended up the river Cydnus in a magnificent galley with purple sails, rowed by oars of silver to the soft sound of flute and pipe; under a spangled canopy she lay, attired like Venus, the goddess of love, and surrounded by nymphs, graces, and cupids, whilst the very air was filled with the sweetest odours. When she reached Tarsus, the city was emptied of its people, who all rushed down to the river brink to behold the strange and magnificent sight. Antony was left alone sitting on his tribunal. He came on board by her invitation, and soon after he returned with her to Alexandria. All that autumn and winter, during which Italy lay bleeding and desolate, Antony passed in the most extravagant luxury and idleness at the Egyptian court. The queen was foremost in inventing new enjoyments; she exerted all her powers to charm, and Antony became her obedient slave; nothing that she wished was too wild or too cruel for the Roman general to carry out.

But in the spring of the next year Antony at last aroused himself and took his way towards Italy. A new civil war seemed close at hand. But the soldiers wished for peace, and the enjoyment of their new gains, and they let their opinion be so clearly known, that both the generals felt it would be better to come to an understanding. Fulvia had gone to meet Antony, but had been neglected by her husband, and left behind at Sicyon, where she died.

The rivals agreed to forget the past, to live in peace, and to share the empire between them, Antony ruling in the East, Octavius in the West. To seal the friendship, Antony married Octavia, sister of Octavius, a woman distinguished as well for her beauty as for her modesty and virtue. There was great rejoicing in Rome at this event, and men earnestly hoped that the reign of peace had at length begun. As regarded Italy itself, their hopes were not disappointed.

Peace was also made with Sextus Pompeius, the tyrant of the sea, which was celebrated with grand feastings and entertainments, but did not seem likely to last. In the autumn of 39, Antony and his wife Octavia went to Athens. Next year the war broke out again between Sextus and the ruler of the West. Octavius suffered more than one defeat at sea, and his fleet was afterwards destroyed by a storm. But his courage did not give way. Chiefly by the wisdom and energy of his faithful friend and minister, Agrippa, he repaired his losses, and in the year 36 entirely defeated Sextus, who escaped to the East, where he was taken prisoner by one of Antony's officers, and put to death.

Antony and Octavia had meanwhile made their chief abode at Athens.

In the year 37, the year before the defeat of Sextus, he came to Italy, it seems with the intention of quarrelling with Octavius; but peace was kept between the jealous rivals by Octavia, who was the wife of one, and sister of the other. They once more agreed to share the empire, and Antony left Octavia in her brother's care when he again set sail for the East to undertake an expedition against the Parthians.

Lepidus could not fail to see that he was regarded as of no account; and growing impatient of the position he occupied, he suddenly declared himself independent of Antony and Octavius, and placed himself at the head of the remaining followers of Sextus Pompeius. But he could gain no influence over the men, and Octavius ventured to come with only a few attendants into his camp, and called upon the soldiers to abandon the idea of another civil war. When Octavius left they followed him in crowds; and Lepidus came himself in the throng to beg for mercy. Octavius spared him, and he lived on at Rome until the year 13, regarded and honoured by no one.

Octavius, now in his twenty-eighth year, was master of Rome, and the Senate as usual were ready to heap any honours upon one who held power in his hands. He addressed the people, declaring that the former cruelties of the triumvirate were matters of necessity, but that henceforth peace, order, and plenty should prevail. The sea was open since the defeat of Sextus, and corn flowed abundantly into Rome, where the people had of late suffered much from scarcity and hunger. The taxes were also lowered. Octavius was assisted in all his measures by his wise and faithful counsellors and friends, Agrippa and Mæcenas.

It was about this time that Octavius divorced his wife Scribonia, because she was connected with the family of Sextus. He then married Livia Drusilla. She was the wife of Tiberius Claudius Nero, and mother of a young son, also named Tiberius Claudius Nero, whom we shall meet with again. But her husband made no difficulty of giving her up to the powerful Octavius. Livia remained his wife for nearly fifty years, and had great influence over him to the last.

Antony, you remember, had left Octavia in Italy when he went against the Parthians. On his way he directed Cleopatra to meet him in Asia Minor. She came, and passed some time there, rejoicing that after an absence of three years she could so easily regain her power over him. Antony made rich presents to the queen of towns and districts in the East. But he had not forgotten the war with Parthia, and in the year 36 he prepared for the expedition. He was jealous of the victory gained there lately by one of his officers, and anxious to outshine him. Cleopatra went with him as far as the Euphrates; he then desired her to return to Egypt, and advanced, guided by the king of Armenia. Thus he avoided those fearful deserts through which Crassus led his unfortunate soldiers. He besieged a city in Media, but not being furnished with materials for a siege, did not succeed in taking it. Autumn came, and he could not spend the winter in that cold and hilly land. On his retreat, the army suffered for twenty-seven days as fearfully from cold as that of Crassus had done from heat. Snow and sleet fell continually, and the arrows of the enemy incessantly annoyed the men on their desolate road. Nor would Antony allow them to remain in Armenia, but forced them to continue the weary march till they reached Syria, where Cleopatra met him. Antony was generally a favourite with his soldiers, and he contrived to regain their good-will by rich presents of money and new garments, which he gave them in the name of Cleopatra. He himself returned to Alexandria, and soon forgot the disgrace and the suffering of the Parthian expedition in another winter of riotous enjoyment.

Next year, when Antony was again preparing to go to the East, his wife Octavia came to Athens. She brought

with her provision and money for his use, and a body-guard of two thousand men, whom she had armed with much splendour for his service. He accepted the gifts, but coldly sent word that she was to come no further than Athens. Octavia returned to Rome, where she was much beloved and respected; she devoted herself to the care, not only of her own children, but of those whom Fulvia had left. Her presence, and the calm dignity of her conduct, served to keep alive a constant irritation against Antony. After an expedition into Armenia, Antony gave up his plans against Parthia, and returned to Alexandria; and the Romans heard with anger that he had celebrated his triumph there after the Roman fashion before the crowds of Alexandria.

For the next two or three years Antony was hardly ever absent from the Egyptian court. He gave up even the dress of a Roman, and appeared in the flowing robes of the Easterns. The queen exhausted her ingenuity in devising fresh pleasures. She was not only gifted with beauty, but with wit, talent, and extraordinary fascination of manner. She could converse in many languages, and was an excellent singer and musician. Cleopatra was self-willed and cruel, like all Eastern sovereigns; she was daring and ambitious, and by her power over Antony she hoped to see her boldest dreams fulfilled. He was always at her side, walking, riding, fishing, masquerading; and they would wander about the streets at night disguised amongst the rabble. Odd stories were told of the amusements and fancies of the Egyptian queen and the Roman general. At times she would send divers to fasten salt fish to his rod, and there would be great laughter when he drew it up. Once she vowed she would consume the

worth of £80,000 at one meal; and kept her word by melting in a cup of vinegar a pearl beyond all price.

Deep was the anger felt at Rome at the news of Antony's degradation. But the anger was more serious when they knew that, in a magnificent speech, he had made Cleopatra queen of many a Roman province in the East, and by a word or a wave of his hand had made her sons kings, and her daughter queen of Syria. No wonder that Cleopatra's hopes rose high; she already fancied herself sitting as sovereign at Rome, and giving laws to the world from the Capitol. The names of Antony and Cleopatra were never separated; they were painted together, and appeared together on Egyptian coins. Antony's Roman soldiers bore upon their shields the name of an Egyptian sovereign. The queen of Egypt and the Roman general appeared in public as the Egyptian deities Isis and Osiris; and thus, it seemed, claimed honours from the people more than could be due to mortal man.

Whilst Antony was thus forgetting and neglecting his wife and country, and passing his time in luxury and idleness, Octavius was gaining more and more respect and confidence. He ruled with wisdom and mildness; his manners were pleasing and courteous; nor was he inactive in war, for he defeated and drove back many of the wild tribes that threatened the Alps and the river Save. He kept up an appearance of friendship with Antony, but his troops were well exercised and ready for war. His minister, Agrippa, served as ædile, and beautified the city greatly; the streets were repaired and the fountains multiplied; public baths were opened; the people were amused by splendid shows; and the city was thoroughly cleansed and purified. Octavius also gave the Romans a large public library.

In the year 33, the bitterness which lay hidden beneath the seeming friendship of Antony and Octavius began to break forth. Angry letters passed, full of complaints, from one to the other. Antony collected troops throughout the lands of the East, and Cleopatra might justly boast of the men, the ships, and the abundance of money she had at her command.

They passed the winter of that year on the beautiful little island of Samos, in the same circle of pleasures and revelries as they had delighted in at Alexandria: singing, music, acting, filled up the hours.

Two of Antony's friends came to Rome, and joined Octavius. They knew the contents of Antony's will, and Octavius did not scruple to take it from the sacred place where it was laid up, so that the Romans could not doubt that it was true that Antony had directed that, in whatever place he should die, his body should be taken to Alexandria, and laid in the tomb where Cleopatra would be buried.

In their excitement and anger, the people demanded that Antony should be declared a public enemy; but Octavius, with his usual prudence, persuaded them to declare war against Cleopatra only, knowing that it would then be much easier for those who were with Antony to change sides. Antony was now at Athens, and Cleopatra with him; many of his friends implored him to send her from his presence, sure that the alliance with her would do his cause more harm than her ships and her money could do good. But he would not listen. He then divorced his wife Octavia. By his orders, the divorce was harshly carried out, and Octavia was driven by his messengers from the house of Antony, and forced to take refuge with her brother.

She took with her, her own children and Fulvia's, and was received with general sympathy and admiration.

Antony and Cleopatra had collected immense forces, but the year passed by without a battle. In the year 31, Agrippa crossed the sea with the fleet of Octavius, and was soon after joined by his master and friend. They reached the Ambracian Gulf, and the army encamped upon its shore. The fleet of Antony lay within this gulf, and his army was also encamped upon the shore. Not a few of Antony's officers and friends deserted to the enemy, chiefly from hatred to the Egyptian queen. He knew not whom to trust, and began to suspect every one around him. His officers implored him to fight by land, but Cleopatra persuaded him to a battle by sea. He had given himself up to be guided by the clever and crafty queen. It is even said by some writers that she had persuaded him before the fight began to agree to forsake the fleet, and return with her to Egypt.

The ships of Antony and Cleopatra were more in number and much larger than Octavius's, but the men had no spirit for the fight. They were bravely attacked by the enemy, and their very size made it difficult to manage them. The battle went on, and was not decided when the wind changed, and Cleopatra hoisted her purple sails, and fled, followed by the sixty Egyptian vessels. Then Antony leapt into a light galley and followed her also. The struggle continued for some time, but ended in the victory of Octavius and the destruction of the enemy's fleet. The two armies had stood all the while intently gazing on the scene. Antony's men refused at first to believe in the flight of their general, but after a few days they surrendered to the conqueror. This great battle, fought

September 2, 31, is called, from a point of land near the spot, the battle of Actium. It gave Octavius the Roman empire. He founded a city on the spot where his camp had stood, and named it Nicopolis, or the City of Victory.

The fugitives reached Alexandria. Antony, dispirited and disgraced in his own eyes, could hardly bear to live, but the queen's courage was high. Antony at first, it is said, shut himself up in the island of Pharos, and resolved to see no one; but we find him afterwards again with Cleopatra endeavouring to banish the feeling of shame and despair in riot and excess. Octavius landed, and soon after Antony saw himself deserted by his fleet and army.

It is said that the queen tried by secret messages to gain the favour of the conqueror, and was ready to abandon Antony for him. Perhaps she thought that her treachery was known, and feared the rage of her lover. She shut herself up in the building she had erected for her tomb, and sent word to Antony that she was dead. On hearing the message, Antony stabbed himself, but did not die at once. Cleopatra learning what he had done, sent to let him know that she still lived. He was brought to her place of refuge, and his litter drawn up to her room,—but he only lived long enough to die in her arms. She was afterwards permitted by the conqueror to bury the body with royal honours amongst the kings of Egypt. Octavius was anxious to preserve Cleopatra to adorn his triumph. He allowed her to come into his presence, but she soon perceived that she could make no impression upon him; she understood well the fate for which she was reserved, and determined to die rather than walk behind the conqueror's chariot in his triumph. She was guarded carefully and all means of destruction removed from her. But she

was found lying dead, nor was there mark or wound to tell the manner of her end. The common story among the people was, that a small poisonous asp had been conveyed to her in a basket of figs. Cleopatra was the last sovereign of Egypt; she died in the fortieth year of her age, and the twenty-second of her reign, and was buried with royal honours by the side of Mark Antony.

QUESTIONS.—What difficulties did Octavius encounter in Italy? How did he satisfy his soldiers? What war broke out, and who aided in exciting it? What was the motive of Fulvia? How had Cleopatra presented herself to Antony? How did Antony pass the ensuing winter? What fresh agreement was afterwards made between Antony and Octavius? Who was the chief support of Octavius in the war with Sextus Pompeius? Who for a time succeeded in preserving peace between Antony and Octavius? What attempt was made by Lepidus, and with what success? What was now the condition of Rome? Who were the chief friends and counsellors of Octavius? Whom did he marry? What was the name of his stepson? What war did Antony meanwhile undertake in the East? With what success? Where did he afterwards take up his abode? What treatment did Octavius receive? How did Antony and Cleopatra pass their time in Egypt? With what feelings was his conduct regarded at Rome? For what did Cleopatra's ambition hope? How was Octavius meanwhile governing Rome? What further excited the indignation of the people against Antony? Where did the fleet of Octavius meet that of Antony and Cleopatra? In what year was the battle of Actium fought? How was its result determined? How did Antony act on his return to Alexandria? What message did Cleopatra send him, and what was the result? Describe the end of Cleopatra.

CHAPTER XXIX.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE EMPIRE.

31-23 B.C.

OCTAVIUS STANDS ALONE.

HE RESTORES PEACE AND PLENTY.

PRUDENT POLICY OF OCTAVIUS.

HE BECOMES SUPREME.

ASSUMES THE NAME AUGUSTUS.

HABITS OF THE ROMANS.

OCTAVIUS remained in the East for two years after the battle of Actium. He converted Egypt into a Roman

province, and established Herod on the throne of Judea. It seems as though a silence fell upon the world at this time. The civil wars, which began a hundred years before, and had raged with such fury, ceased ; every one was weary of war and bloodshed, and sighed and hoped for peace. The eyes of the world were turned in expectation upon Octavius. He seemed to stand alone. During the late civil wars, the leading men of all parties had perished, falling on the field of battle or swept away in the proscriptions. Lepidus was forgotten, Antony was dead. Octavius, who had formerly come to Rome as a lad of nineteen, heeded and feared by no one, to claim the name and the inheritance left him by Cæsar, stood now in the prime of manhood without a rival, holding in his hands the power of the East and the West. He bore the name of the greatest of the Romans, and that name alone endeared him to the soldiers and people ; nor could the Romans forget it was he who had avenged the insults that Antony had offered to their feelings and their pride. The Senate had long known and felt how powerless they were, and seemed anxious only to gain the favour of the young conqueror. Whilst still absent, messenger after messenger came bringing tidings of new honours and distinctions they had devised for him. On his return he celebrated a gorgeous triumph, and exhibited splendid games and spectacles to the people. The proscriptions of the triumvirate had shown that Octavius could be cruel to serve his own ends, but he had no delight in cruelty, and after his final victory refrained from every act of vengeance. He meant to establish peace at home and abroad, and he caused the gates of the temple of Janus to be solemnly shut. They had only once been shut before, it was said,

since the golden days of Numa. It was no mere ceremony. The passions of the civil wars had worn themselves out, and there was little danger from without, whilst land and sea were securely guarded. Gifts were bestowed on soldiers and citizens, taxes were lessened, the corn of Egypt, once more set free, flowed abundantly into Italy, and trade everywhere began to revive. The people, seeing in Octavius the giver of peace and plenty, were ready to worship him as a god. The Senate seemed almost to crouch at his feet. Many men would have turned giddy at finding themselves raised to such a strange height, but Octavius lost not for a moment his prudence and caution. The fate of Julius Cæsar was ever before his eyes. He knew it would never do to make himself dictator or king. He determined to exercise supreme power, and yet to appear to rule only by the desire and will of the Senate. To the Senate he paid the most profound respect, and professed himself nothing but its humble servant and minister. As for the people, they were now nothing but a mob, and if they could only enjoy "fulness of bread and abundance of idleness," they cared nothing for power, and scarcely noticed when the last shadow of it was taken away from them. How unlike were they to the brave plebeians of Rome's earlier days, but not more unlike than the senators who cringed before the Cæsars to the venerable men once called by the ambassador of Pyrrhus, "an assembly of kings."

Octavius found his way very smooth, for the Senate were ready to offer even more than he would accept. He was made consul again and again, and at length for life; all the powers of a censor and a tribune were given him.*

* As consul he was chief magistrate; by assuming the powers of

He was already imperator or general of the army. He several times offered to lay down his offices, but the Senate implored him to retain them. On one occasion, when he perceived symptoms of some discontent among the people, he did lay down the office of consul and retired to the East. It was necessary then to elect new consuls, but the elections were attended with commotion and bloodshed; after which he yielded to the earnest entreaties of the people, and returned: it was then that he accepted the powers of consul and tribune for life. Knowing the effect of a high-sounding name, and not wishing to take upon himself the dangerous title of king, he assumed the name of *Augustus*, *i.e.*, sacred or venerable. So, without having seized on one of the offices of state, the imperator, or, as we may now call him, emperor, found himself possessed of all its powers for life.

Augustus ruled the Roman empire for more than forty years. That empire consisted of about one hundred different races, speaking each a different language, and all worshipping their own gods. Yet all were linked together in one, obeying the same laws, enjoying the same peace. Augustus made no designs for enlarging the empire; his wars were undertaken for defence. Yet the nations of the barbarians knew his power, and his fame spread far and wide. Once in the East the Parthians sent to him the standards formerly taken from the unfortunate Crassus, the old censors he could exclude from the Senate whom he pleased, by assuming those of a tribune, he was entitled to hear appeals, and his person became sacred; as imperator, he commanded the army. At the death of Lepidus, who was pontifex maximus, or chief priest (a dignity always enjoyed for life), Octavius (then Augustus) received that title also, and became the head of the national religion.

and at another time messengers from the distant land of India brought him presents from their king, and asked for friendship. There were many wars on the European frontiers; those against the Germans were the most severe, and lasted longer than the reign of Augustus. Three hundred and forty thousand soldiers kept the frontiers; it was a mighty force, but they did not as yet know or feel how strong they were. They were devoted to the house of Cæsar: Augustus and his brave stepsons Tiberius and Drusus were great favourites with them. The seas were safe, and all through the summer months the Mediterranean glittered with the sails of merchant vessels, going to and fro, fearless of pirates now. They brought the treasures of the East and West to Rome: corn from Egypt; costly wines from Greece; ivory, precious stones, and sweet spices from the distant East; amber from the Baltic; furs from the Scythian forests. The chief cities of the provinces—Alexandria, Antioch, Athens, Ephesus, Jerusalem—grew in riches and in splendour. Rome itself was adorned by Augustus with many magnificent buildings. He repaired the old temples, and erected new ones; the worship of the gods began to grow fashionable in the city. It is hardly possible to imagine a greater contrast than that between the simple, hard-working Romans of the old times and the inhabitants of Rome under the empire. The people were content to be idle and amused. The nobles lived in mansions surrounded with gardens on the tops of the hills: there was no regular road up to them; the ascent seems to have been generally by flights of steps.

The wealthy Romans spent immense sums of money on their houses, but they somehow fell short of the taste and elegance of the Greeks. It was on their eating and drink.

ing that the Romans squandered most money ; the sums they would sometimes spend in this way are almost past belief. Augustus himself remained free from all this extravagance. His manners and dress were simple ; his robe was woven by the hands of his wife Livia and her maidens. It was generally remarked that he was the last to arrive at, and the first to leave, the evening banquet. Indeed, he preferred not taking his food at regular meals, and the fare he chose was of the simplest,—fish, cheese, and fruit. He took little pleasure in the vulgar kind of amusements provided by many of the Roman nobles for pastime during the evening meal, such as the exhibition of dwarfs, hunchbacks, &c. Indeed, in every respect, Augustus was anxious to keep up the dignity of the nobles and senators. Separate places were preserved for them, according to their rank, at all public spectacles, and they were strictly prohibited from appearing themselves in public as singers or actors. As he tried to restore, and keep up, all the old ceremonies of the worship of the gods, so he made many attempts to put a stop to what had become a very common practice, the putting away of wives by their husbands, and to other evil habits of the times. But he could never bring back again the simplicity and virtue of early days : they were gone for ever.

QUESTIONS.—What was the position of Octavius after the battle of Actium ? For what were all men eagerly longing ? What ceremony did Octavius perform ? What benefits did he confer on the empire ? How did he display his prudence ? What offices were conferred on him ? What name did he assume ? How was the empire composed ? What were its chief cities ? How was the luxury of Rome supplied ? What was the chief indulgence of the wealthy citizens ? What were the personal habits of Augustus ?

CHAPTER XXX.

AUGUSTUS CÆSAR.

23 B.C.—14 AD.

PRIVATE LIFE OF AUGUSTUS.

LIVIA AND HER SONS.

JULIA, DAUGHTER OF AUGUSTUS.

DEATH OF MARCELLUS.

MARRIAGE OF AGRIPPA AND JULIA.

TIBERIUS, HIS DESCENT AND CHARACTER.

MARRIAGE OF TIBERIUS AND JULIA.

WARS OF DRUSUS IN GERMANY.

HIS DEATH.

RETIREMENT OF TIBERIUS.

BANISHMENT OF JULIA.

AUGUSTUS ASSOCIATES TIBERIUS WITH HIMSELF.

CLOSING YEARS OF AUGUSTUS.

DISASTER IN GERMANY.

DEATH OF AUGUSTUS.

FEW men appear at first sight to have been so deserving of envy as the emperor Augustus. Yet his private life was saddened by continual disappointment. He outlived his early and faithful friends and counsellors, Agrippa and Mæcenas ; and in his old age was left without child or grandchild of his own to gladden his house. Yet much of the misfortune and misery that darkened his private life was only the fruit of his own policy. Before he became emperor, he had been married to Scribonia ; they had one daughter, Julia ; but, falling in love with Livia, he divorced Scribonia, and married her. Livia was the mother of two little boys, Tiberius and Drusus, who thus became the stepsons of the emperor. Livia was a very remarkable woman ; she was extremely beautiful, and very clever ; and, during the fifty years of her married life, she never lost her power over her husband. She was filled with ambition, and had set her mind upon seeing her own sons established in the empire ; Augustus and Livia never had any children. It was for a very long time more than doubtful if Livia would gain the prize on which her heart

was fixed. The emperor was kind to his stepsons, but his tenderest affection was given to his only child, Julia, who grew up a beautiful and fascinating woman. She was brought up in the simple and austere habits which Augustus cultivated in his family; all she said and did was carefully watched. Her father married her to her first cousin, son of his sister Octavia, that noble and virtuous Roman lady, once the wife of Antony. His name was Marcellus, and though only about eighteen years of age, he was the favourite of the Roman people, as well as of Augustus. But two years after the marriage, Marcellus died, to the bitter grief of Augustus and Octavia: mourned indeed by the whole Roman people. B.C. 23.

M. Agrippa had long been a trustworthy friend of Augustus. He had been educated with him, and shared all his plans, his danger, and his success. He had proved a faithful friend and servant, and once, when Augustus had been so ill as to be thought on the point of death, he had given his ring to Agrippa as though he would confer his place on him. But Augustus had recovered, and Agrippa had in his turn been tormented with jealousy on account of the emperor's favour towards Marcellus.

Livia, who had also felt bitterly jealous of Marcellus, began to hope that, now he was gone, her husband's favour would turn towards Tiberius. But she was again disappointed, for Augustus married the young widow, Julia, to Agrippa, who was now forty-two years old. Julia and Agrippa had several children; Augustus became exceedingly fond of their two little boys, Caius and Lucius, his grandchildren, and liked having them near him. There was one who felt himself wronged and injured by all the favour bestowed on others—Tiberius, the elder son of

Livia. His father was Tib. Claudius Nero, a descendant of Appius Claudius the decemvir, and of Nero, the Roman general who defeated Hasdrubal in the battle of the Metaurus, and conveyed the news to Hannibal by throwing his brother's head into his camp. Livia was also descended from the same Claudian race.

The Claudian family, one of the most ancient in Rome, had been distinguished by haughtiness and often violence of character; they were never loved or trusted by the people. There was a peculiar darkness and reserve about many of them which sometimes seemed to become a sort of moody madness.

Tiberius was a true Claudius. He was a brave soldier, and possessed great abilities; but he had none of the amiable and prepossessing qualities of Julius or Augustus Cæsar. He was gloomy and unsociable; naturally full of distrust and suspicion. He never believed that any one liked him, and consequently was by no means a favourite. His mother, who had set her heart on seeing him emperor, appeared to care for him chiefly because she hoped through him to gratify her own ambition. Nor did he ever seem able to throw off the kind of fear and submission he felt towards her. He was continually employed by Augustus in public business, but felt in his secret heart that the emperor would rather choose any one else if possible to be successor to his power. First, the young Marcellus had been the favoured one; and after his death, the trusty but somewhat rough-grained Agrippa. After Agrippa's death, Livia and Tiberius had again hoped; but the favour of Augustus was given to his grandsons, the children of Agrippa and Julia, who were boys of eight and five years of age at their father's death. Yet, as they were such mere

children, Augustus found it impossible to withstand the importunities of Livia, that Julia, now for the second time a widow, should be married to Tiberius. The marriage took place B.C. 11. Tiberius was already married to Vipsania, a daughter of Agrippa, and was greatly attached to her. He was, however, compelled to put her away, for he dared not disobey Augustus and Livia. But it was a hard trial for him, and he had no liking for Julia, whose character began to be spoken against all over Rome. Soon after the marriage, he left the city to undertake a war against the Pannonians, and did not reside there again for some years.

Drusus, the younger brother of Tiberius, was a much greater favourite both with the emperor and with the people than Tiberius himself. He was brave, courteous, and of winning manners. He had married Antonia, daughter of Octavia and Mark Antony, and their life together was a model of purity and happiness, such as was seldom seen in those days. The aim of Drusus' life was the subjugation of the German tribes. They were continually making incursions upon the Roman territories, and Drusus resolved to carry the war into their own country. Young, and full of ardour, he even dreamt of one day making all Germany a province of Rome. Whilst Tiberius was reducing Pannonia, Drusus began the invasion of Germany. But he accomplished little more than worrying and harassing the fierce and warlike tribes, who would hardly ever dare to close with him in open battle, but trusted for security to the trackless forests of their dreary land. Drusus made his way as far as the Elbe. It was said that here a fatal vision appeared to him; a spectral form, a woman exceeding the stature of mortals,

stood before him, and warned him thence, announcing that the end of his career was close at hand.

The army had marched for some time through a pathless country, and had not met a foe. Drusus was afraid of advancing farther, and began a retreat. Before they regained the Rhine, Drusus met with the accident that terminated his life. He fell from his horse, and after lingering for thirty days in great suffering, died. Tiberius, hearing of his brother's danger, made a hurried journey of two hundred miles, and arrived at the camp in time to be present at his death. The body of Drusus was brought to Rome, Tiberius heading the mournful procession on foot. Augustus met it at Ticinum, and thence accompanied it to Rome, where the highest funeral honours were paid to the dead, on whom the name of Germanicus was conferred. He left two sons; the elder, called after him Germanicus, was five years old; the younger, Claudius, was an infant.

In the year B.C. 8, Mæcenas died; he had been trusted by Augustus equally with Agrippa, and had been admitted to a still more intimate friendship, until the latter years of his life, when a coldness sprang up between them. In spite of this coldness, however, Augustus must have sorely missed his long-tryed counsellor and friend. Mæcenas has been chiefly remembered in history for his love of literature and his friendship for the great Roman poets, Virgil and Horace.

The latter portion of the reign of Augustus was marked by hardly any public events, but by much domestic misery in the imperial family. As the young grandsons of Augustus grew up, they received honours and distinctions which greatly flattered their vanity and excited the jealousy of Tiberius. He resolved to give up all public

business, and to retire to the isle of Rhodes. Many said he was induced to take this step by disgust at the conduct of his wife Julia, which was the talk of all Rome, and a secret only from her father, who still retained his great affection for her. She despised and disliked her husband, whose gloomy disposition was not suited to win her love, and who never concealed the great coldness he felt towards her. During his long absences from Rome, she plunged recklessly into every kind of dissipation and vice, until at length Augustus could no longer be ignorant of her conduct. His anger and mortification were beyond bounds. He sent her and her mother Scribonia into banishment to a barren little island, where she lived in the greatest misery, not enjoying even the ordinary comforts of life. No entreaties could prevail on him to mitigate his severity and anger.*

Tiberius spent eight years at Rhodes in sullen retirement, employing himself in attending philosophic discussions and in the study of astrology, which well accorded with his dark fancy. In the year A.D. 2, he was summoned by the emperor to Rome, and obeyed the call. Caius Cæsar was in Syria, Lucius on his way to Spain. Lucius was taken ill on the journey, and died at Massilia; Caius received a wound from a Syrian governor, which seemed to injure his whole constitution. He died on his way home eighteen months after his brother's death. There were not wanting malicious tongues to insinuate that the deaths of the young Cæsars were brought about by secret means; but certainly the circumstances of their death do not seem to suggest the suspicion.

The death of his grandsons was a heavy blow to

* She died in exile soon after the accession of Tiberius.

Augustus in his declining years. Reluctantly he saw himself compelled to look on Tiberius as the sharer of his empire, the successor to his power. There was no question of his ability and vigour; he was in the strength of manhood, though past its prime; in personal appearance he was handsome and striking, though constrained and stiff in gait and manner. Wherever he was, a cloud seemed to gather and settle; Augustus trembled to foresee how that cloud might shed a chill gloom in future days upon the whole of Roman society. In the year A.D. 4, Tiberius was adopted into the Julian family, Augustus requiring him at the same time to adopt Germanicus, the son of his lamented brother Drusus, who was growing up a youth of great promise. He had soon an opportunity of displaying his ability. Tiberius was in Germany, which was in a restless and uneasy state, when a formidable outbreak occurred in Dalmatia, Illyria, and Pannonia.

Great alarm was felt at first for the safety of Rome; the legions were absent, and the military spirit of the nobles and people of Rome was extinct. New levies were made in all haste, and Germanicus, now in his twenty-first year, was placed at their head. Tiberius afterwards led his forces also to the disturbed provinces, which were not reduced to submission again till the year A.D. 9. Germanicus was married to Agrippina, a daughter of Julia and Agrippa.

The closing years of the long reign of Augustus were less prosperous and happy than its former years. The people had lamented the loss of their favourite princes one after another, and shrank from the prospect of the rule of Tiberius. Germanicus was indeed succeeding his father in the affection of the people, and becoming their

pride and hope. Augustus himself appeared less in public as the infirmities of age increased upon him. He lost much of his usual good humour and flow of spirits. Julia and Agrippa Postumus,* daughter and son of M. Agrippa and Julia, were banished, the former as a punishment for crime, the latter, it appears, simply on account of a dull and savage disposition. Rumours of plots and conspiracies were abroad. The citizens were awakening to feel the servitude to which they were reduced, and to realise that their lives and liberties were dependent on the will of one man. How unlikely that their future rulers would resemble the mild and liberal Augustus!

Public disaster also clouded the latter part of this reign. Drusus and Tiberius had subjugated the country between the Rhine and the Elbe, and had a wise governor been appointed to succeed them, the province would probably have remained in peace. But Augustus mistook his man when he appointed Q. Varus, formerly governor of Syria, proconsul in Germany. The Germans were of a different nature from the servile and effeminate Orientals. Varus excited great discontent amongst them, and Arminius, a brave German chieftain in the Roman camp, secretly fanned the flame, and laid his plans against the Roman general. Reports of an outbreak in a distant part of the province were brought to Varus, and he advanced towards the spot indicated. The rainy season was just beginning, and the swamps and forests through which the way led soon became almost impassable. Arminius, who had hitherto pretended friendship, suddenly attacked the harassed army; the Germans gathered from all sides.

* This unfortunate being was murdered, at the accession of Tiberius, probably by the order of Livia, or of Tiberius himself.

Varus and many of his officers, despairing of escape, put an end to their own lives. Left without their leaders, the soldiers fell an easy prey. Those who were taken alive were sacrificed, in the depths of the gloomy forests, to the German gods ; but very few escaped to the Rhine, which Arminius now succeeded in again making the Roman frontier. By this disaster three legions perished, and great fears were entertained for the safety of Gaul. But the measures of Augustus, and the presence of Tiberius and Germanicus, relieved those apprehensions, though the calamity left an impression on the mind of the emperor that he could not shake off. He displayed the most violent grief, and it was said, that he was known to dash his head frantically against the wall, exclaiming, "Varus, Varus, restore me my legions."

Augustus, under the impression of his approaching end, caused a census of the empire to be undertaken, and drew up a short account of his public acts, which still remains. It is written in a tone of calm dignity and satisfaction. In the prosperity of his public life he seems able to forget private disappointments and misery. The end was at hand. In A.D. 14, Augustus, then in his seventy-seventh year, accompanied Tiberius on his journey to the coast, whence he was to sail for Illyricum. They travelled leisurely onwards to Beneventum, whence they parted ; but on reaching Nola, on his way home, Augustus was attacked by illness. Tiberius was sent for ; but whether he arrived in time to see the emperor alive is not known, for Livia kept the moment of his death a secret, unwilling, probably, to reveal it till her son's position seemed secure. He expired peacefully in the arms of Livia, forty-four years

after the battle of Actium, which had made him master of the Roman world.

QUESTIONS.—What was the character of the domestic life of Augustus? What were the names of Livia's sons? Who was the daughter of Augustus? Who was Marcellus, the first husband of Julia? Whom did Julia next marry? How had Augustus testified his confidence in Agrippa? What was the character of the Claudian family? What was the disposition of Tiberius? What circumstances of his life tended to increase it? Whom was he compelled to marry? Who was Drusus? What were the feelings of the people towards Drusus? In what country did he carry on war? How was his progress said to have been stayed? How did he meet with his death? What name was afterwards conferred on him? What is the chief distinction of Mæcenas, the friend of Augustus? What was the character and fate of Julia? Where had Tiberius retired? What further trouble distressed Augustus in his declining years? Whom was he now obliged to associate in the empire? Whom did he require Tiberius to adopt? Whom did Germanicus marry? What public disaster occurred towards the close of the reign of Augustus? What was the last public act of Augustus? In what year did he die? How long after the battle of Actium did his death occur?

CHAPTER XXXI.

TIBERIUS CÆSAR.

14-37 A.D.

TIBERIUS AND THE SENATE.
 MUTINY STILLED BY GERMANICUS.
 HIS CAMPAIGNS IN GERMANY.
 GOES TO THE EAST, AND DIES THERE.
 TRIAL OF PISO.
 RISE OF SEJANUS.
 LAW OF TREASON AND THE DELATORS.

CONSPIRACIES OF SEJANUS.
 DEATH OF DRUSUS.
 RETIREMENT OF TIBERIUS TO CAPREÆ.
 FATE OF AGRIPPINA AND HER SONS.
 DOWNFALL OF SEJANUS.
 CAIUS, SON OF GERMANICUS.
 DEATH OF TIBERIUS.

AMONGST various counsels left by Augustus to the Roman people in his will, was the advice to give a share in the government to all who were capable of exercising it, and not to let all offices be held by one man. Thus he strove

to keep up after his death the pretence of his life, that he only held his powers by the will of the Senate, and that it rested entirely with the Roman people to choose how they would be governed. It pleased Tiberius and the Senate to play out the farce. It was a humiliating scene to both parties when first they met after the death of Augustus. Tiberius spoke as one filled with hesitation and fear, willing to do all he could, and yet shrinking from bearing so vast a burden as the government of the Roman empire alone. He spoke so like a man in earnest, that the senators paused a little and were silent, simply from doubt as to what his real mind was, having no wish but to carry out his wishes, if they were sure what they were. After a little fencing on both sides, they understood one another, and it was tacitly agreed upon that Tiberius should assume the place of Augustus, and exercise all his powers.

But Tiberius knew how little it signified that the Senate acknowledged his claim if the army proved to be against him. Immediately after the death of Augustus, aided by the counsel and energy of his mother Livia, he had caused the military oath to be taken by soldiers and magistrates to himself as Emperor, and had sent orders as Emperor to the troops in the provinces. But the first year of his reign was disturbed by more than one mutiny amongst the soldiers, who had many complaints to make of hardships and arrears of pay. The most dangerous outbreak was in the camp on the Rhine. The youthful Germanicus, son of Drusus and nephew of Tiberius, was the hero and the idol of the troops stationed there. If he would consent, they were ready to carry him in triumph to Rome, and give him the inheritance of the

Cæsars. The men gained the entire mastery of their officers, and the danger was extreme. But Germanicus, whose nature was generous and loyal, hurried from Gaul as soon as he heard of the mutiny, accompanied by his faithful and devoted wife Agrippina, and arrived in the disorderly camp. Here he sought by every means to satisfy their just complaints, whilst he passionately refused for himself the empire they would have conferred. His popularity stilled the mutiny, the repentant soldiers gave up the ringleaders for execution, and order was restored. Anxious to find employment for their restless and impatient spirit, he led the soldiers across the Rhine. He accomplished nothing against the Germans, however, beyond laying waste the country for fifty miles round. Next year, A.D. 15, he again entered Germany, and advanced as far as the scene of the slaughter of Varus and his legions. Here the troops mournfully paid the last honours to the bones of their unfortunate countrymen, which had lain exposed for six years. A funeral mound, of which Germanicus laid the first sod, was erected over their remains, but was destroyed by the natives as soon as the Romans were gone. In the year 16 A.D., Germanicus went by sea to a spot near the mouth of the river Amisia (Ems), and with great difficulty crossed both that river and the Weser, beyond which was stationed a strong German force under the command of the gallant Arminius.

The Roman historian Tacitus relates that Germanicus, anxious to know the feelings and disposition of his men, went secretly amongst the tents by night, and overheard the soldiers' talk. He found them full of confidence, eager to fight, and loud in the praises of their leader. Next day, as the troops were drawn up for battle, eight eagles

entered the wood. "On," cried Germanicus, "on! follow the Roman birds, your own divinities!" Two victories on two following days were gained over the Germans, and the Roman army erected a trophy claiming the conquest of the nations between the Rhine and the Elbe. On their return by the river Ems and the sea, a fearful storm caused serious losses to the Romans.

Tiberius had shown uneasiness and dissatisfaction at each campaign of Germanicus, and he now summoned him to Rome. He dared no longer trust him with an army so enthusiastically devoted to their general; nor had he forgotten the cry of the mutineers, "Cæsar Germanicus will never be a subject." Tiberius declared that it was unwise to attempt any more campaigns beyond the Rhine, for they brought danger and loss, with no lasting gains; and he advised rather to seek the destruction of the Germans by art and intrigue, by exciting and fomenting dissensions amongst them.

Germanicus returned home for the triumph promised him. The population of the city poured forth to meet him twenty miles beyond the walls; they received their favourite, who was accompanied by his wife Agrippina and his five children, with the utmost enthusiasm.

Germanicus was appointed to the command of the Eastern provinces, and he left Rome A.D. 18. He passed some time in visiting Greece and the shores of the Euxine, viewing with curiosity and interest many spots famous in ancient story. Tiberius had entrusted the government of Syria to Cnæus Piso, whose wife, Plancina, was a favourite of the empress-mother, Livia. Piso evidently considered himself sent to the East with the especial purpose of harassing and insulting Germanicus; Plancina

thought it her mission to annoy Agrippina. Germanicus on one occasion saved the life of Piso when in danger of shipwreck, but this produced no change in the policy of the governor of Syria. In A.D. 19, Germanicus indulged his love of travel by exploring the wonders of the land of Egypt, and found that in doing so he had incurred the displeasure of Tiberius; for it was against the maxims of Augustus that any high-born Roman should enter Egypt without permission.

Germanicus returned to Syria, and found that his orders had been disobeyed during his absence, and everything had gone wrong. Bitter reproaches passed between him and Piso, who belonged to one of the proudest of the old families of Rome, and scorned to obey one whom he regarded as an equal if not an inferior. Piso would not yield, and was preparing to leave the province, when Germanicus fell sick, and those about him murmured their suspicions of poison or of some foul magic arts at work. Piso embarked on his voyage home; the sick man grew rapidly worse, and feeling his end approaching, left a charge to his friends to avenge his cruel murder. He died, and was buried at Antioch, sincerely mourned by the provincials, who had felt something of the charm by which he won all hearts around him. The mourning at Rome was universal and intense, and the public grief was renewed when Agrippina, accompanied by her fatherless children, landed and brought to the city the ashes of her husband. Funeral honours were decreed to the remains, but no honour could be bestowed so precious as the sorrow of the whole people. It was not unobserved that neither Livia nor Tiberius were present at the funeral solemnities. The emperor became impatient at the exhibi-

tions of mourning: "Let every one return to his affairs," he decreed; "let every one resume his amusements."

The feelings of the people were again excited by the arrival of Piso and Plancina. Piso was accused of the murder of Germanicus, and tried before the Senate. As the days passed on, the accused man felt how strongly the tide was going against him. He could gain no encouragement from Tiberius either by word or look, and his wife had separated her cause from his, and was only thinking of securing her own safety by gaining the protection of Livia. Going home on the evening of the second day of the defence, he bathed, partook as usual of his evening meal, and retired for the night. He was discovered next morning, his throat cut, and his sword lying by his side. Some years later, after the death of Livia, Plancina also, having been at length brought to trial, put an end to her own life. Whatever guilty knowledge the husband and wife possessed, they carried the secret with them to their graves. It is not impossible that they had hoped to attain to sovereignty.

There was one, however, who began in reality to scheme for empire, and scrupled at no crimes that might clear his path,—Sejanus, the favourite of Tiberius. This man was not of high birth, but possessed great bodily strength and daring; he was ambitious and crafty, and had acquired an extraordinary power over his master.

It seems as if Tiberius never made a friend. Augustus gladly intrusted much of his great task of government to his early and faithful friends, Agrippa and Mæcenas: he had admitted to friendship and confidence the younger princes of his house: but Tiberius never seemed able to trust any one: he endeavoured for years to fulfil all

the great business of managing the empire alone, and his industry was untiring. But during the latter part of his reign he seemed to fall entirely under the control of the designing and artful Sejanus. He withdrew himself more and more into gloomy solitude, and all men crowded around the powerful favourite. The dark days of the reign of Tiberius began. But it was only on Rome itself that the shadow fell.

The provinces of the empire flourished. Tiberius undertook no wars beyond the frontiers, but provided ample means of defence. Taxation was moderate ; but so careful and frugal was the management of the emperor, that at his death the treasury contained several millions.

The only trouble indeed of which the people of Rome complained was, that Tiberius spent no money in adorning and beautifying the city ; that he stinted the people in their favourite shows, especially in the exhibition of gladiators ; that he was too morose to take any interest in public entertainments, and not good-humoured enough to pretend that he took any. They cared nothing that they had lost the last shadow of the power gained by their forefathers. The powers of choosing magistrates, of making laws, of judging causes were now said to be enjoyed by the Senate ; but the senators cared only to carry out the will of the emperor. They chose for magistrates the men whose names he introduced ; they passed without a question any measure he recommended ; they gave their judgment as they thought he wished it given. There was an old law called the law of *majestas* (majesty), or, as we should say, the law of treason ; but treason in former days meant acts done to injure the state. The law had very seldom been applied in old times.

Augustus had made it to include injurious writings, but during his long reign hardly any trials had been carried on under its provisions. Tiberius went further, and extended it from writings to words; a measure very repugnant to the Roman people, who took special delight in the free exercise of speech. But Tiberius also contrived to apply the law for his own protection. Under him the crime of treason came to mean anything done, written, or spoken against the emperor personally. Augustus knew himself to be respected and loved, and wanted no such safeguard. But Tiberius felt he was disliked, and fancied himself even more unpopular than he was; he was tormented by suspicion and fear, and was easily persuaded to weave finer meshes in the net-work of the law of treason, and to draw it in closer around the feet of his unhappy subjects. He encouraged the informers, or *delators*, as they were called; men who made their living out of giving information of crimes real or supposed. These creatures were employed by Sejanus as jackals to hunt down for him any victim on whom he had fixed an evil eye. No man felt safe, and panic gradually spread throughout Rome. Hasty reflections on the emperor, even the performing before his effigy any acts that would not be fitting to perform in his own presence, were declared to come within the law. These offences were tried before the Senate, and in their anxiety to gratify their master, they often went much further than he wished.

Tiberius thought himself safe in giving his confidence to Sejanus. It seemed so impossible that a man of humble birth, entirely dependent on the favour of the emperor, could dream for a moment of possessing the empire.

Drusus, the only son of Tiberius, was growing up to manhood ; there were also the sons of Germanicus, Nero, Drusus, and Caius, on whom the people fixed their affection, because they were the children of their favourite. And there was one elder prince of the imperial family living,—Claudius, brother of Germanicus ; but he was a dull and awkward creature ; his own mother declared that he was hardly a man, and he was left, by every one's consent, to study his books and be forgotten.

Drusus, the son of Tiberius, inherited a little of his father's character, although in many respects he differed from him. He was given to drinking and excess of every kind ; but was not unpopular amongst the people, on account of his taste for gladiatorial shows. He appeared to find special delight in witnessing the shedding of blood. The pleasantest feature in his character was his friendship for his cousin Germanicus, and his kindness towards his children, after their father's unhappy death. Yet he must have known that they were much greater favourites with the people than he was, and their mother, Agrippina, was respected, whilst his own wife, Livilla, was little regarded. She was a vain and worthless woman ; and the artful Sejanus contrived to win her affection from her husband ; they then together plotted the death of Drusus, and by the help of his physician, contrived to poison him so skilfully that no suspicion was excited, and every one believed that he had died of a lingering disease, brought on by his intemperate life. The people showed little concern for his death ; nor did the emperor betray, by word or deed, that he had any feeling of natural affection towards his only son. There seems throughout the life of Tiberius, the " gloomiest of men," no trace that he ever loved man or

woman, excepting the wife from whom he had been forced to part in his earlier years. After the death of his son, he could not conceal his deep-rooted jealousy of Agrippina and her sons ; and Sejanus maliciously endeavoured to fill the mind of the widow of Germanicus with suspicion and alarm. Her faithfulness to her husband's memory, her fortitude and devotion to her children, made it impossible for him to corrupt her, or induce her to share his schemes. Angry words passed between Tiberius and Agrippina. One evening, the emperor being next her at the evening banquet, Agrippina coldly and silently put aside every dish that was brought her, and refused even to taste some fruit which the emperor offered her with his own hands. Turning to his mother, who was on his other side, Tiberius remarked, that he might be excused if he behaved harshly towards a woman who publicly showed that she suspected him of designing to poison her.

In A.D. 26, Tiberius, who shrank more and more from appearing in public, left the city of Rome, and went to Campania with only a few attendants. It was generally believed that he had only left for a few months ; but he had quitted it never to return. Next year he took up his abode in the solitary island of Caprææ, which commands a glorious prospect of land and sea, but is almost inaccessible. In this strange retreat, the emperor, who was in his seventieth year when he entered it, resided during the closing years of his life. Sejanus was left to work his will at Rome ; nor had Tiberius any suspicion of his secret designs. His position appeared very strong. He had persuaded his master to allow the Prætorian guards, nine or ten thousand in number (the body-guards of the emperor), to be assembled together in one camp close to the city

gates. Sejanus was in command of these troops, and thought himself sure of their obedience. But the suspicions of Tiberius slept, nor did they awaken when Sejanus ventured to ask in marriage the widow of Drusus. Tiberius at first refused the request, but some time afterwards allowed her to be betrothed to him.

In A.D. 29, Livia, the empress-mother, died at the age of eighty-six. Her son, whose elevation to the throne had been the object of her life, had quitted Rome three years before, without even seeing her; and had only appeared glad to be free of her presence, which always put some restraint upon him. He declined to attend her funeral, or to show the slightest sign of mourning for her death.

Livia had protected Agrippina and her children, but immediately after her death, a letter from Tiberius was read in the Senate accusing Agrippina of violent language, and her eldest son Nero of vicious habits. A trial was hurried through, and the unfortunate mother and son were banished each to a barren and lonely island. The younger princes, Drusus and Caius, were with Tiberius at Capræ; but Sejanus, by the help of the wife of Drusus, contrived to excite the jealousy of Tiberius. Drusus was sent to Rome, and imprisoned in a kind of dungeon below the imperial palace.

But Tiberius at length began to grow uneasy and suspicious of his favourite; and Sejanus was mortified to see that the emperor was determined to distinguish the youthful Caius (the youngest son of Germanicus) with his favour, and even seemed likely to point him out as his successor. Presently proofs of the treachery of Sejanus and of a conspiracy to assassinate Tiberius were laid before the emperor—proofs which he could not disbelieve or dis-

regard. Sejanus meanwhile thought himself secure ; he had laid his mine skilfully, but a countermine was preparing whilst he knew it not. Tiberius sent to Rome an officer named Macro with secret instructions. The Senate was called together to hear a letter from the emperor, and Macro meeting Sejanus, informed him as in confidence, that the imperial despatch contained his own appointment to the tribunitian power (a dignity almost implying association in the empire). Sejanus hurried to the Senate-house overjoyed and elated. Meanwhile Macro busied himself with the Prætorian guards, telling them he was appointed their general, and promising them large sums of money. The opening of the letter was very long and very rambling, as was the emperor's custom ; it seemed as if it would never come to the point. Gradually the tone changed, and the emperor began to accuse certain friends of Sejanus. As it proceeded the senators grew uneasy and agitated. The meaning became clearer, and as Sejanus collected himself and looked around, he found he was hemmed in by a crowd of unfriendly faces ; presently he heard the last sentence of the long epistle declare him a traitor, and order his arrest. He was seized by the lictors, hurried from the Senate-house to the depths of the Mamertine dungeon, and there strangled. His body was thrown into the Tiber. And now the crime committed eight years before by Sejanus and Livilla came to light. The divorced wife of Sejanus told the story of the poisoning of Drusus. Sejanus indeed was dead, but Livilla remained. Her guilt was proved, and it seems that she was put to death by some secret means. All suspected to be friends of Sejanus were imprisoned, and some time afterwards were all put to death on one day, without

trial, by a sudden order of Tiberius. Other dark scenes followed. Nero, the eldest son of Agrippina, had before this died in his solitary misery; and now Drusus, who had lingered in his dungeon for three years, was deliberately starved to death by the orders of the emperor, who seemed to take a strange pleasure in filling a letter to the Senate with all the horrid details of his dying agonies. We do not know whether the wretched Agrippina in her banishment heard the dreadful tale, but soon afterwards she also died, putting an end to her own life by refusing all food.

Caius, the last survivor of the sons of Germanicus and Agrippina, was in close attendance on Tiberius. Whatever feelings might have been awakened in his mind by the sufferings and the miserable end of his mother and brothers, he must have kept them entirely to himself. The favour shown him by the emperor gave him hope of one day succeeding to his power; but he must have felt how easily at any moment he might lose that favour, and find himself consigned like Drusus to a hopeless prison, or banished like Agrippina and Nero to some cheerless lonely isle. Forced to study the tyrant's looks and words, he must early have learned the arts of disguise and hypocrisy. He could not, however, always conceal the jealousy he felt towards the emperor's grandson, Tiberius Gemellus, son of Drusus; and it is said that on one occasion, the emperor, divining his feelings by some passing look, exclaimed, "You will kill him, and another will kill you." The grandson of the emperor was too young to share in the honours bestowed on Caius. The emperor is said to have hesitated long as to whether he should appoint either of the youths his successor, and to have ended by appointing neither; only he left them both joint-heirs of his

private property. Macro, the bold and artful man, who had been the instrument in overthrowing Sejanus, succeeded in acquiring great influence over the weak and pleasure-loving Caius, whom he regarded as the future head of the state.

Gloomy, indeed, lonely and dark, were the closing days of the aged emperor. He had never been beloved, and now felt himself both feared and hated. It made a strange impression on his mind when more than one of the leading men at Rome deliberately put an end to their own lives rather than continue to exist in those dark days. Every kind of horrid story circulated in Rome about the doings of Tiberius in his island. It was said that all the strict and simple habits of his earlier years had been only the mask that hid his real nature, and that his only reason for retiring to Capreæ had been to indulge himself without restraint in vice and savage cruelties. A letter written by him to the Senate some few years before his death, gives a picture of a dark and miserable state of mind, that seems at least to border on insanity. "What to write to you, fathers, or how not to write, or what to refrain from writing, may the gods and goddesses torment me worse than I feel myself tormented every day, if I know."

The bodily health of the emperor, who was now in his seventy-eighth year, had always been good. He had been accustomed to laugh at those who, after they had reached the age of thirty, needed to consult a physician to know how to take care of themselves. But in the year 37 he fell sick. He had quitted his solitude, and slowly journeying on, had arrived once again within sight of Rome. But he did not enter the city; and soon after he had turned his back upon it, he was attacked by a tedious complaint. Well

accustomed to feign and to conceal the truth, he tried to keep his sufferings secret. He travelled slowly from town to town as far as the villa of Lucullus at Misenum. He indulged freely in the pleasures of the table, and no one dared to notice the change that had come upon him. All trembled lest by word or look they should arouse his jealousy, although they saw his days were numbered. The physician, however, contrived to feel his pulse, and informed Caius and Macro that he had not two days to live. On the 16th of March he fainted, and all thought him dead. Caius lost not a moment, but presented himself as emperor, and was surrounded by the thronging courtiers, who hastened from the chamber of death to salute the young sovereign. But suddenly news came that Tiberius had revived and called for food. And now it was every man's business to look as if concern for Tiberius were the only feeling in their minds, whilst Caius shook in terror, expecting an instant order for his own death. But Macro stood by and whispered, "Put on more clothes, and leave him." So they left him, and he died.

The favour of the people towards Caius, as the son of Germanicus, was so great, that they overbore the wishes of the senators, who thought that Tiberius, having left his grand-nephew and grandson co-heirs of his property, had intended them to share the empire. The will was disregarded, and Caius Cæsar, now in his twenty-fifth year, was acknowledged successor to Augustus and Tiberius.

QUESTIONS.—How did Tiberius and the Senate act on their first meeting after the death of Augustus? Who stilled a mutiny in the camp on the Rhine? What distinguished the next campaign of Germanicus? What does Tacitus narrate of the German war? What was the policy of Tiberius on this occasion? How was Germanicus received at Rome? Where was Germanicus next sent? Who were afterwards sent there? For what purpose? What suspicion attended the death of Germanicus? What were the feelings of the people at Rome, and

what circumstance renewed those feelings? How did Livia and Tiberius act? What was the result of the trial of Piso and Plancina? Who was Sejanus? For what did he begin to scheme? What was the effect of his influence on Tiberius? What was the chief complaint of the Roman populace against Tiberius? To whom were the powers taken from the people said to be intrusted? Who in reality exercised them? What ancient law was revived? What had treason formerly meant? How did Augustus, and after him Tiberius, extend its application? For what purpose did Tiberius apply the law? What set of men did he encourage, and what was their office? What effect was produced in Rome? Who was the first rival Sejanus attempted to remove? How did he effect his purpose? How did Tiberius act on his son's death? Against whom was the jealousy of Sejanus next directed? How did Agrippina incur the displeasure of Tiberius? Where did Tiberius take up his abode? On whom was Sejanus relying to carry out his designs? How did Tiberius act on his mother's death? What next befell Agrippina and her two eldest sons? Whom did Tiberius now treat with favour? Who was intrusted to countermine the plot of Sejanus? How did he proceed at Rome? What was the end of Sejanus? What former crime now came to light? Describe the fate of Agrippina and her eldest sons. What was meanwhile the position of Caius? Whom did the emperor appoint joint-heirs of his property? What were the closing days of Tiberius? What was said of him in Rome? Did he see Rome again before his death? Describe the scene at Tiberius's death.

CHAPTER XXXII.

CAIUS CÆSAR (CALIGULA).

37-41 A.D.

JOY AT THE ACCESSION OF CAIUS,
HIS CHARACTER,
HIS DISSIPATION AND ILLNESS.

ABSURD AND BLOODTHIRSTY FEARS.
CLAIMS DIVINE WORSHIP.
DEATH OF CAIUS.

THE joy of all classes at the accession of Caius was very great. The senators breathed freely, believing themselves secure from *delators*. The people, who had never forgiven Tiberius for stinting them in their favourite pastimes, were wild with joy at seeing his place occupied by a youth, who delighted in amusement and excess. Whatever the

faults of the new ruler, he must at least, they thought, be very different from the sullen old man who had ruled them from his far-off retreat as with a sceptre of lead. And above all, Caius was the son of Germanicus, and the grandson of Drusus, whom the people had loved and lost, for "brief and ill fated," said they, "are the loves of the Roman people." They had since lamented the cruel fate of Agrippina and her eldest sons, and trembled lest Caius might prove the next victim to the ambition of Sejanus or the suspicions of Tiberius. And now their fears were at rest, and they welcomed their favourite with enthusiasm and hope.

There was nothing in Caius personally to excite such feelings. His countenance and manner were unpleasing, his voice harsh and disagreeable. He was sickly in body, and his mind untrained except in the arts of deceit at Capreæ. He had grown up in the habit of yielding to every fancy, and indulging every whim. There was a strange restlessness in him, like some fitful insanity. He scarcely ever was able to sleep at night, and was haunted with strange, wild dreams. Infirm in body and mind, unfit for any serious work; young, vain, excitable even to madness, Caius found himself in his twenty-fifth year charged with the government of the world. His earliest years had been spent in the camp on the Rhine, where he was the favourite and the plaything of the soldiers; and there he had received the name of *Caligula* (from *Caligæ*, military boots which he wore), by which he is now generally known, but it was never anything more than a nickname.

For the first few months of the new reign, all went well. Every one was delighted with the liberality of the new

emperor; indeed, during the first years of his reign, he emptied the treasury of the millions stored up there by the care and frugality of Tiberius. He pardoned the exiles; he went in person to the islands where his mother and his brother had died, and brought their ashes reverently to Rome. He appeared free from jealousy; he conferred high honour on his cousin Tiberius, and made his uncle Claudius consul, although he continued to treat the latter with the contempt every one showed towards him.

For a very short time, he even taxed what powers of mind and body he possessed, to the utmost, in endeavouring to fulfil his great task. But it was a spasm that soon passed away; and, in the third month of his reign, he gave up all thoughts of business, and plunged headlong into every kind of amusement and dissipation. He indulged in the lowest vices without restraint; nothing was too absurd, nothing too brutal for his taste. In the eighth month of his reign, he was seized with a dangerous illness, the consequence of his mode of life. He was still popular, and the grief and anxiety throughout the city and the empire were intense. He recovered, and it seemed as though the shock of the illness had still further weakened his brain, and strange frenzies began to possess him. The death of his sister, Drusilla, not long after, appeared to shatter any senses he yet possessed; his grief was that of a madman, and he ordered that she should everywhere be worshipped as the universal goddess.

It is a strange thing, that if we ask for the history of the world at this time, we find a tale of a lunatic's freaks—odd freaks that the Romans must have smiled at, blood-thirsty freaks at which they must have shuddered, and with reason. Instead of being shut up within an asylum,

the madman was the emperor of the world, and however extravagant the fancy that seized him, he could try and carry it out; however cruel his whim, he was able to gratify it. Some of his designs were quite innocent, even useful. He was fond of planning new buildings, and added much to the splendour of Rome. Others indicate insanity. He vowed to drive in his chariot, attended by his soldiers, across the bay of Baiæ, and, at an enormous cost, executed his wild fancy. He constructed a bridge of boats, and made a solid road-way upon it; then before the eyes of admiring crowds, to the sound of music, he drove in a triumphal car to the middle of the bridge; there he feasted his soldiers, and as night fell, the coast and the vessels lying in the bay were brilliantly illuminated. It would have been well, if his freaks had cost no more than gold. We may smile at the stories told of his folly, and hardly believe them. For instance, we are told that he appointed his favourite horse consul; that once, he prepared for a grand expedition against Britain, and, when the legions had reached the shores of Gaul, he commanded them to be drawn up in order of battle, and afterwards to pile their arms, and pick up the shells at their feet; that he called these shells the "spoils of the conquered ocean," and on his return home, celebrated a triumph for his exploit. I say we may smile at such tales, and hardly believe them, but there are other stories of a different kind. Immediately on his recovery, he had ordered the death of the innocent youth, his cousin, Tiberius Gemellus, and of Macro, who had aided him to gain the empire. Having soon brought himself into want of money, he tried to supply his need by accusing and bringing to trial the wealthy senators, and seizing on their treasures. It is useless to repeat all

the tales of cruelty and blood we find recorded. The senators hated him in their hearts, but still cringed before him, as they had done before Tiberius, and seemed only to try who could honour and flatter him most. He had at first been a favourite with the people, because he had indulged them in endless shows, but when money was wanted, and he actually imposed a tax (a thing never known before at Rome), he lost their favour entirely; indeed, he seems to have been thoroughly hated by them at last. "Would to the gods," said he, one day, "that the people of Rome had but one neck, that I might cut it off at a single blow." Indeed, his taste for blood grew on him; and a story was told how that, when the two consuls were by his side at a banquet, the emperor burst into uncontrollable laughter, and, when they would know why he laughed, he said it was to think how easily he could cause both their heads to roll upon the floor.

Caius did not try to disguise his power as Augustus and Tiberius had done. He did not pretend to have any law or guide but his own will and fancy. The former emperors had tried to check the wish of many of their subjects to offer them divine worship. But he everywhere claimed to be a god, and required adoration as such. There is every reason to think that he really half believed himself divine. The Jews, to their unutterable dismay, received orders to set up a statue of the emperor within the temple of Jerusalem; and there is a curious account left us by Philo the Jew of a deputation that went to remonstrate with Caius. Philo himself was one of the deputation, and describes the difficulty they had in getting an interview with the tyrant. He was busy superintending some works at a country villa, and he hurried about from room to

room, giving orders here and there; while the Jews hurried after him, getting in a word as they could. "What! are you the men," were the first words they got from him, "who deny my divinity, which all the world acknowledges?" His last words were, "Men who think me no god are more unfortunate than criminal," and so he left them. He did not withdraw his orders, and the Jews were in despair, when the death of the tyrant relieved their fears. The Romans endured him for four years; but no one who came near him at the last was safe from his insults or his barbarity. One of the officers of the prætorians, named Cassius Chærea, had been again and again grossly affronted by the emperor. It was his private revenge that at last rid the world of its hateful ruler. Others were concerned in the plot he formed; but for some time they were fearful of striking the blow. Rumours of the conspiracy too had reached the emperor. He was on his way to some public shows, and conversing with some youths who were about to perform, when Chærea, approaching from behind, struck him with his dagger. He fell exclaiming, "I live! I live!" and died mangled with thirty wounds. The body was conveyed away secretly, and buried without funeral honours. Caius was in his twenty-ninth year when he died, A.D. 41.

QUESTIONS.—With what feeling was the accession of Caius regarded? What was his personal appearance and character? What nickname had he received in his childhood, and why? What were his first measures? After a few months what course of life did he adopt? What was the result? How did his sickness appear to affect his mind? What does the history of the world seem now to consist of? What were his more innocent designs? What his mad fancies? His bloodthirsty freaks? How did Caius regard himself? What command did the Jews receive? Relate the reception of their deputation. How were their fears relieved? How did Caius perish? At what age?

CHAPTER XXXIII.

CLAUDIUS CÆSAR.

41-54 A.D.

PROJECTS OF THE SENATE.

THE SOLDIERS MAKE CLAUDIUS EMPEROR.

EARLY LIFE OF CLAUDIUS.

HIS INDUSTRY AND APPLICATION.

WAR IN BRITAIN.

CARACTACUS.

THE EMPRESS MESSALINA.

RIVALRY OF AGRIPPINA.

FALL OF MESSALINA.

CRUELTY AND AMBITION OF AGRIPPINA.

MURDER OF CLAUDIUS.

NERO PROCLAIMED EMPEROR.

WHEN the news that the tyrant had ceased to breathe was told in the Senate, the name of *Liberty* began to be whispered. For eight and forty hours the senators thought it might be possible to restore the Republic. But there was no foundation on which to build. The only power in Rome was that of the soldiers, the prætorian guards, and the only name that put any check upon *them* was that of Cæsar. After the death of Caius certain prætorians, who were plundering the imperial palace, discovered a poor trembling creature seeking in vain to hide himself in some dark corner. To their surprise they found it was Claudius Cæsar, brother of the hero Germanicus, and uncle of the late emperor. They carried him off fainting and half dead with terror to their camp, where he passed a miserable night; and the next day, when the poor man was probably expecting some brutal death, it pleased the prætorians to hail him as Imperator, and to swear to him the oath of allegiance. The Senate, who were debating if the Republic should be restored, or whether one of their own order should be chosen to succeed Caius, heard that the prætorians had settled the matter, and that Claudius Cæsar was

emperor;—an “idiot instead of a madman,” exclaimed Chærea.

Claudius, who was now in his fiftieth year, was not an idiot, though it seemed as if every body had tried what they could do to make him one. This unfortunate prince, though tall and handsome, suffered from a kind of paralysis, he halted when he walked, he had a nervous trembling in the hand, and his voice was so thick and indistinct that it was hard to understand him. He had been a sickly child, and no Roman father could excuse such a failing in his son. Even his mother, Antonia, could not bear him in her sight, and knew nothing worse to say of any one whom she despised, than that he was as great a fool as her son Claudius. He was left to the care of servants and of schoolmasters, who treated him with a harshness that must have increased his natural cowardice. His family kept him as much as possible out of sight; Augustus was thoroughly ashamed of him, and would never assign the poor awkward youth any office or charge, though he spoke of him with a sort of pity. His grandmother, Livia, treated him with even greater disdain, and would scarcely have anything to do with him. He escaped the jealousy, though not the cruelty, of Tiberius. Caius was led to treat him with seeming honour, because there was a sort of universal pity at last excited for him amongst the people. But the late emperor and his courtiers treated him in reality very much as thoughtless or cruel lads will treat some harmless, good-natured idiot. Growing up in such an atmosphere, Claudius had found friends in his books; he was a well-meaning and industrious man; he pored over works of history and antiquity, and himself compiled many ponderous volumes. Forgotten by society, he gave his

confidence to his freedmen, one of whom, Narcissus by name, obtained the most unbounded influence over him. Messalina, whom he married before he came to the throne, and who was his third wife, seemed also to rule him entirely; and indeed to the wives and freedmen of Claudius may probably be ascribed most of the deeds of darkness which blacken his memory. In endeavouring to discharge the daily duties of his position, the emperor was unwearied. Feeble as he appeared in body and mind, and unaccustomed to appear and act in public, he sat the live-long day hearing and deciding causes, or watching hour after hour the performances in the circus. In his unflinching attention to business and to pleasure, he showed the same plodding industry that had compiled some seventy or eighty volumes of history in the days of his obscurity; And in the course of the daily routine of work, Claudius proved himself not incapable of bold and liberal measures. He carefully revised the Senate, as Augustus before him had done, and finding the number of the ancient and honourable families in Rome greatly reduced, he raised families of lower birth to senatorial rank; he went further, and gave to the Gauls the right of admission to the Senate. His public works were vast, but never mere freaks, like some of Caius Caligula's. The finest of them was the great aqueduct, the *aqua Claudia*, which continued for many ages to supply the city with water. The foundation of several colonies also (of Cologne and Colchester amongst others) is ascribed to this emperor.

But what renders the reign of Claudius most interesting to us, is the formation of a Roman province in Britain. Since the brief visit of Cæsar, the island had been left undisturbed. In the eastern districts were many towns

and villages, whilst the town of *Londinium* was the centre of a busy commerce. The Britons were closely connected with the Gauls; they were of the same race, and professed the same religion. Claudius had persecuted the Druids in Gaul, and many of them must have sought refuge in Britain. The island was inhabited by many different tribes, who kept up a constant petty warfare. It was easy for Claudius to undertake the settlement of one of their disputes when referred to him, and so to set foot on the island.

The Romans landed on the eastern shore, and amongst their leaders was one of obscure birth, Flavius Vespasianus by name, who afterwards came to be well known in the Roman world. Claudius himself took part for a short time in this war, gained a victory over a British tribe, and celebrated a triumph at Rome afterwards. The name of Britannicus was bestowed upon him. But Britain was not conquered. The valiant Caractacus, at the head of many gathered tribes, defied the Roman generals for nine years. At length, in 50 A.D., after an obstinate but short battle, the Britons were finally defeated; Caractacus, his wife and family, were brought prisoners to Rome, where they were led before the emperor and empress, in the presence of crowds of the citizens, who came to gaze on the hero who had kept the legions so long at bay. The bearing of the captive was undaunted, and the words he addressed to the emperor were so noble, that life was granted to the prisoners. Caractacus and his family ended their days at Rome. A Roman province was formed in the south-eastern portion of the island, but the rest of it was unsubdued at the death of Claudius.

But darker shades must be added, before the narrative

of this reign can be concluded. It is exceedingly hard to combine in one portrait the view of the emperor as just given with that presented to us when we enter the city, or venture within the palace walls. There the stupidity of Claudius is a background for setting off the crimes of his freedmen and his wives. First we see Narcissus and Messalina, leagued together, ruling the feeble mind of the emperor, and making him their minister and servant. He is the most timid of men, and fears day and night the fate of Caius. It needs only that a suspicion of danger should be excited in his mind, and he signs the death-warrant of the noblest born of Rome ; and a whisper from wife or freedman can excite his suspicion. So they weave their toils around the feet of their enemies and the ruin of any on whom they cast a malignant eye is certain. Nay, so easily does the emperor assent to their wishes, that he hardly notices what he is doing, and may sometimes inquire after one whose death-warrant he had signed the day before. If vexed for a time, he is easily soothed by the young and artful empress ; or he can forget all in the enjoyments of the banquet, for he excels his nobles in the common vice of gluttony. Indeed, there is in him a dulness, which is but little removed from cruelty, and human suffering is of no account in his eyes.

But after Messalina had worked her will for six years in the palace and the city, we perceive the signs of change. A new scene opens. Within the walls of the imperial palace resided one who dared to become the rival of the empress. This was Agrippina, a daughter of Germanicus, and niece of Claudius. She was older by many years than Messalina, ambitious and daring, a beautiful and most wicked woman. Agrippina had been formerly married to

Domitius Ahenobarbus, a man of fearful character. They had had one son, and it was reported that his father remarked, when congratulated on his birth, that the child of such parents as Agrippina and himself could prove nothing but a monster.

Claudius and Messalina had two children, a son named Britannicus, and a daughter Octavia. Fierce was the rivalry between the two mothers, for Agrippina was meditating the ruin of Messalina and Britannicus, and the elevation of her own son to power. She was encouraged in her schemes by seeing how evidently the people preferred Domitius; in spite of disappointment, they persisted in placing their hopes in one who was a grandson of Germanicus.

Claudius himself may have been scarcely conscious of the fiery passions, the cruel schemes that were at work around him. He was still devoted to Messalina, and thought no ill of her, though her faithlessness to her husband, and the shamelessness of her life, were known to all the city. But her ruin came when she quarrelled with Narcissus, and Agrippina gained him for her party. The influence of the freedman over his master was second only to that of the empress. When Narcissus poured into the ear of Claudius, then absent from the city, the tale of Messalina's crimes, and brought proof after proof of her guilty life, the emperor listened to the tale, and, as a man awakened from a dream, hastened towards Rome to take vengeance on his wife.

Messalina, revelling with her companions in drunken festivities, heard that he was at hand. With her son and daughter by her side, she went to meet him, but he refused to see them. The miserable woman repaired to some

gardens, which she had once gained by procuring their owner's death, and there, prostrate on the ground, none with her but her mother, she awaited despairingly her doom. It soon came; for Narcissus, seeing that the emperor was already fondly relenting towards the woman he had loved too well, gave his own orders to a party of soldiers, to find and slay the empress,—Claudius then sitting at the evening banquet.

Ere he rose, word was brought that Messalina was no more; but the mirth of the banquet, the wine, the music, were not interrupted by the news. Nor did he ask or care to know what had befallen. Thus miserably perished Messalina the murderess and adulteress, when little more than twenty years of age, leaving her name as a proverb and by-word to the world.

It is impossible not to suspect that the story of Messalina's crimes is at least exaggerated, for it is founded to a great extent on a narrative written by her malignant enemy, Agrippina, who succeeded her, and whose interest it would be to blacken still further a name that was already dark enough. For Agrippina succeeded in marrying the emperor in spite of the intrigues of others for that honour. The marriage of an uncle and a niece was indeed contrary to law, and odious in the eyes of the Romans; but a decree of the Senate was soon procured to declare lawful the marriage of Claudius and Agrippina.

Agrippina was triumphant, and throughout the remaining years of Claudius her influence continued to increase. Disgrace and ruin were the portion of her foes. In the year after her marriage, she persuaded her husband to adopt her son Domitius, now in his thirteenth year; he was betrothed to Octavia, daughter of Claudius, and is

known to us henceforth by the adopted name of Nero. The poor child Britannicus, though only about nine years of age, was able to understand and feel his danger. Every servant or tutor whom he had known was gradually removed from his side, and none but strange and unfriendly faces surrounded him. The ambition of Agrippina already saw herself ruling the empire through her son Nero ; and her pride led her even now to place herself by the side of the emperor on public occasions, and to have her face represented with his on the coinage. Her son received honours more distinguished than befitted his youth, whilst Britannicus continued to be treated on all occasions as a child. Claudius, in his dull, patient way, had yielded to Agrippina ; and appeared content with all she did. It seems, however, that he may have at last expressed some irritation at the treatment of his son. Whether Agrippina really feared his interference, or whether she only grew too impatient to await the slow work of time, she at any rate resolved to call in the aid of poison. There were many professors of the art of poisoning at Rome, and with these the empress held council. As Claudius was at supper one night, a carefully-prepared poison was concealed in some mushrooms that he was eating, but not operating satisfactorily, a physician who was in the secret forced a poisoned feather down his throat ; he fell back senseless, was carried from the table, and soon afterwards expired, in spite of the assiduous attentions of his wife. The fact of his death was kept secret for some hours ; Agrippina contriving to detain Britannicus and Octavia within the palace, and pretending the utmost affection and sympathy for them. Nero, who was now in his sixteenth year, attractive in appearance, and pleasing

in manner, entered the guard-house, and presented himself to the prætorians. A few voices were heard asking for Britannicus, but soon all consented to acknowledge Nero. The soldiers, having made up their mind, carried Nero on their shoulders into the Senate-house; the Senate also received the new emperor, and he was afterwards proclaimed in all the provinces without any opposition.

QUESTIONS.—What were the hopes of the Senate on the death of Caius? Who decided whilst they were deliberating? How was the election of Claudius brought about? Under what natural disadvantages did he labour? How had he been treated in early life? How had he occupied and consoled himself? Who had acquired extraordinary influence over him? How did Claudius fulfil his task as emperor? What was the state of Britain on his accession? How were Britain and Gaul connected? What British king defied the Roman arms under Claudius? For how long a time? When were the Britons finally defeated? Describe the fate of Caractacus. In what part of Britain was a Roman province formed? Who are represented to us as the actual rulers within the city and the palace? How are they said to have worked on Claudius? What marks of stupidity are ascribed to the emperor? In what vice did he excel? Who became the rival of Messalina? Whom did she design to ruin? Whom did she design to render supreme? Who brought to pass the fall of Messalina? What was her end? Who succeeded her? Whom did Claudius adopt? By what name is he henceforth known to us? Who were the children of Claudius and Messalina? To whom was Nero betrothed? How was Britannicus treated? What did Agrippina next resolve on? How did she effect the crime? How was Nero's succession brought to pass?

CHAPTER XXXIV.

NERO.

54-68 A.D.

PRIDE OF AGRIPPINA.

HER INFLUENCE DECLINES.

MURDER OF BRITANNICUS.

POPULARITY OF NERO.

POPPŒA SABINA.

MURDER OF AGRIPPINA.

NERO DIVORCES OCTAVIA AND MARRIES

POPPŒA.

MURDER OF OCTAVIA.

TYRANNY AND CRUELTY OF NERO.

THE GREATER PART OF ROME DESTROYED BY FIRE.

PERSECUTION OF THE CHRISTIANS.

NERO'S CRUELITIES AND WICKEDNESS INCREASE.

HE TRAVELS TO GREECE.

REVOLTS IN THE PROVINCES.

COWARDICE OF NERO.

HIS FLIGHT AND MISERABLE END.

CLAUDIUS received a magnificent funeral. The oration, delivered on that occasion by Nero, had been composed for him by his tutor Seneca. The multitude listened gravely, during a considerable portion of the address, but when it praised the wisdom and discretion of the late emperor, nothing could restrain their laughter. Indeed, the memory of Claudius was given up to be ridiculed or hated, and men turned to admire the rising sun—filled with high hope of a just and merciful reign at last. But it was evident that the empire was at least divided between Nero and his mother; nay, it almost seemed as though she meant to rule it altogether. She went so far as to order certain executions, or rather murders, by her sole authority. Burrus and Seneca, who had educated Nero, were jealous and indignant at her proceedings. And this proud, bad woman had enemies enough in Rome to aid in any designs against her. Agrippina was alarmed when she found her influence over her son diminish.

She vowed that she had not committed so many crimes, to lose the fruit of them—nay, she declared that, sooner than lose her hardly won power and place, she would raise Britannicus to her son's throne. The innocent boy soon became an object of bitter hatred to Nero, and Nero's hatred, even in his youth, was murderous. He was now married to Octavia, herself little more than a child, but he felt for her nothing but coldness and indifference. One evening, in the year 55, Nero and Octavia were at the supper-table, Agrippina being also present. At another table set apart for children Britannicus was placed. He had lived some years without kindness or affection, unless, perhaps, from his no less unfortunate sister. How far he knew the cruel malice of Nero towards him we cannot tell, or whether he was aware that poison had been already tried upon him without success. That night a cup was put into his hands; he tasted it and fell back insensible. Agrippina started in alarm. Octavia dared not show a sign of feeling, however the shock may have struck chill upon her young heart. Nero alone retained entire composure, and would not have the banquet cease, remarking that his brother was subject to such attacks, and would soon be himself again. That very night the body was consumed, amidst a terrible storm, which seemed to speak of the anger of heaven at the deed.

Agrippina may well have been startled to see her son already as skilled in the art of murder as herself. That dark hour alienated still further the mother and son; it seemed as though a tigress had turned, and stood at bay in fear against the cub she herself had reared into a tiger.

Meanwhile Nero was not unpopular. The murder of Britannicus was forgiven, for the general government of

the emperor was free from violence and cruelty. He was guided by the advice of the philosopher Seneca and the soldier Burrus, who had been his tutors; and whatever might be going on in the hidden recesses of the palace, none could deny that the emperor took his place on the judgment-seat, and that his decisions were just and mild. The wheels of government worked smoothly. As Caius had inherited the vast wealth stored up by Tiberius, so Nero inherited the riches laid up by the painstaking and laborious Claudius. For the first five years of his reign, the influence of his tutors, and the fear of his mother, which he could not entirely cast off, put some restraint upon Nero. All seemed to go well. The Romans declared that Nero was the best ruler they had known since Augustus.

But in the meantime the character of the young emperor was maturing within his palace walls, and those who were nearest to him first learned to understand it. Nero was ill educated and feeble in mind, though not, it seems, without some elegant tastes. At the age of seventeen he had found himself absolute master of the Roman world, able to indulge every fancy and every feeling. Even his tutors considered it good policy to allow him to gratify all his vicious propensities, hoping that thus he would be satisfied, without endeavouring to play the tyrant. But it was a dangerous and a fatal policy, and its effects were not long in manifesting themselves. Nero had fallen in love with Poppœa Sabina, the wife of his companion Otho. She was the most beautiful woman in Rome, and noted even amongst Roman ladies for the luxuriousness of her habits and way of living. Beneath a surface of apparent modesty and the most charming manners, she concealed a measureless

depth of depravity and relentless cruelty. Otho having been sent out of the way to govern a distant province, Nero and Poppœa were resolved to bring about a marriage. Of Octavia, the child wife and empress, no account was taken; she was artless and helpless. But of Agrippina both the guilty parties stood in some dread, and it was well known that Agrippina had determined to maintain the marriage of Octavia as long as she herself lived. It was no easy matter to accomplish the death of Agrippina. Thoroughly practised as she was in the arts of murder, she understood how to guard herself against it: it was of no use thinking of employing poison. But Nero outwitted his mother. Pretending to be sorry for their long estrangement, he invited her to visit him on the lovely shores of the bay of Baia. She went, and found him so affectionate and caressing, that her fears were partly set at rest. She started to recross the water in the calm starlight. But as the vessel made its way, a crash was heard; the sides of the boat began to part, and Agrippina, with her attendants, fell into the sea. The fatal truth flashed into her mind. She knew it was a vessel that had been provided for her by her son; so keeping silence, lest any should by chance know and slay her, she contrived to swim to shore, supported by pieces of the floating wreck. Having been wounded in the shoulder, Agrippina was carried to her couch. With what feelings must that woman have lain down that night, by the dim lamplight, and waited for her doom; attended by none but a female slave. She had sent to let Nero know of her happy escape, but the news had reached him before her messenger arrived. The hours of the night wore away; the room was silent and deserted; even the solitary slave forsook the couch at last. Presently

the door opened, and Agrippina recognised Anicetus, a freedman of her son's, accompanied by a band of armed men. "Tell your master I am doing well," she said, but the words were hardly uttered when she was struck on the head with a stick—one blow followed another; and thus miserably perished, mangled by many wounds, Agrippina, the unworthy daughter of Germanicus, the worthy mother of Nero. Her body was burnt the same night; nor did the Romans testify any resentment or indignation at the deed.

But another and a more innocent victim was demanded. It was indeed some time before Nero ventured to sacrifice Octavia, for his counsellors reminded him that it was she who had brought him the empire, and there was a strong feeling amongst the people in her favour. At length Poppœa prevailed, and Octavia was divorced on the plea that she had had no children. Twelve days afterwards, the marriage of Nero and Poppœa took place. Then the cruel woman, not yet satisfied, caused accusations of foul crimes to be brought against the unhappy girl whose place she had taken, and endeavoured to force lying confessions from her maidens by means of torture. Deep was the pity felt in Rome when the hapless Octavia, not yet twenty years of age, was banished to that fatal lonely island where other princesses of the house of Cæsar had suffered before her. It is hardly possible to conceive a sadder tale than the life of Octavia. Her mother died when she was yet a little child, and ignorant of that mother's evil fame. Then she passed under the cruel care of Agrippina, and ere her childhood was over, found herself betrothed to Nero, and saw her unhappy father poisoned by Nero's mother. During the first year of her married life she was present when the poisoned cup was handed to her brother, and

soon afterwards found her husband's affections, which never had been hers, given up entirely to another woman, and knew that together they were plotting her destruction. By a strange fate, Agrippina had become her protectress ; but to get rid of his wife, Nero had not scrupled to murder his mother. And now, after so short and so woeful a life, the wretched girl found herself left upon that fatal island, surrounded only by stern and pitiless soldiers. Yet she clung to life, and begged for mercy, though in vain. The fatal order came from Rome ; she was bound, and her veins opened, but as she fainted in her terror, the blood would not flow, and she was stifled in the vapour of a bath. It is said that her head was cut off, and sent as a welcome offering to Poppœa. There was a shudder of horror and of pity in Rome, but men dared not even speak, spell-bound with terror. Nero, free from every restraint, was running riot in cruelty and bloodshed. No man was safe ; his victims were murdered sometimes simply for their wealth, to refill the treasury which Nero had emptied. Yet amongst the people he still retained some popularity, and the rabble shouted with applause when they beheld the emperor himself, singing or playing in public, or driving his own chariot in the circus before two hundred thousand spectators.

In the year 64 all else was forgotten in the terrible calamity which befell the city ; a fire, the cause of which was unknown, broke out, and laid the greater part of Rome in ruins. Many priceless treasures of antiquity perished in the flames. They did not subside till they had raged for nine days, and left the greater part of the population homeless. A story circulated amongst the people that the emperor had watched the fire from the top of his

villa, and sung the "*Sack of Troy*" to his lyre; and suspicions were next whispered that the conflagration itself had been his deed,—so natural did it seem to ascribe all ill to Nero. The people were exasperated to madness against the emperor; but he escaped their rage by fixing the guilt on the little band of worshippers known as *Christians*. "A vast number of them were discovered," says the Roman historian, Tacitus, "and they were not so much convicted on account of the burning of the city as for their hatred to mankind. Their execution was attended by mockery. They were wrapped in skins and torn to pieces by dogs; they were crucified and set on fire to serve as torches by night. For this spectacle Nero lent his own gardens, and gave a chariot race, in which he mixed with the crowd himself, attired as a charioteer, or even holding the reins." Such is the first mention made of Christianity by the world—with such cruelty and contempt was it received. But the world little knew how deep and wide its hidden working was. Slowly as a "grain of mustard-seed," silently as "leaven," the new doctrine was growing and spreading, and preparing to transform the world. But few Romans heeded the new sect; their cruel sufferings seem to have extorted an unwilling feeling of compassion; but every man's interest was soon absorbed in the great work of rebuilding the city, which went on with wonderful speed. The work was done by the government, and the new streets were a great improvement on the old, being both straighter and wider. Nero took the opportunity to enlarge his own palace, or "Golden House," which became a marvel of splendour and beauty, of gold and variegated marble, of painting and the rarest sculpture.

The amount of money expended in restoring the city and

tn building Nero's palace was enormous ; and the reckless way in which the money required was extorted, added to the bitter discontent that pervaded all classes. But the cup of Nero's iniquity was not yet quite full. A conspiracy against him was discovered, and, in his vengeance, innocent and guilty perished together. Amongst other victims was Seneca, who received orders from his former pupil to put an end to his own life.

One day saw the emperor ordering an assassination, or preparing a subtle poison ; another beheld him disputing the prize of singing or of dancing on the public stage. In the year 65 Poppœa died from a kick received from her husband ; probably only in a passing fit of passion, and not of design, as he continued in love with her to the last. The people pretended to mourn, but rejoiced in their hearts. Divine honours were paid her by Nero's command.

It is hard to understand the servile patience with which the Romans endured the tyranny of Nero. Victim after victim continued to fall, and no man knew but that the turn might next be his. To be high born, to be very rich, was sufficient. And at last Thrasea was condemned, a man of noble and blameless life, who could have offended the tyrant only by his virtue. Virtue, public or private, must indeed have been rare in days which could endure a Nero as the chief of society. Men and women were so accustomed to every form of vice and low indulgence ; they were so brutalised by the constant sight of suffering and blood, that at times it only seems natural that such a body should acknowledge so vile a head. But at last Nero's court became so unspeakably corrupt that the senators and higher classes of the city, bad as they were themselves,

could not but keep in some measure apart from the loathsome creatures who composed it. The emperor relied, in the end, for support partly upon the prætorian guard, whom he petted and favoured, and who still revered the name of Cæsar, even when worn by Nero ; partly upon the rabble of the city, on whom he squandered the money he wrung from the country, distributing continually amongst them gifts and presents of every kind.

In the year 66, Nero, who had long been anxious to travel, set out to visit Greece ; his great object being to gain prizes in the various contests of dancing, singing, acting, and charioteering. Of course he won each prize for which he contended, wretched as most of his performances were. In reward for the flattery of the Greeks, he proclaimed Greece free.

At the same time his presence distressed the land not a little, so great were his exactions : not content with other plunder, he even spoiled the temples of the gods. Meanwhile Rome was relieved from the hateful presence of the emperor, and finding the freedman he had left to rule in his place disposed to follow his master's steps, murmurs of discontent were heard. But no entreaties could persuade Nero to hasten his return, for whilst he might gain even a dancing prize in Greece, he heeded not though the empire were slipping from his hands. However, in 68, he once more entered Rome in great pomp, as befitted so illustrious a conqueror ; but there was a strange sensation of murmuring and discontent abroad, and he soon again left the city for Campania. But it was not in Italy that the storm gathered. In the provinces of the empire, the soldiers of the legions were no longer Romans by birth, for the Romans had ceased to fight. Gradually

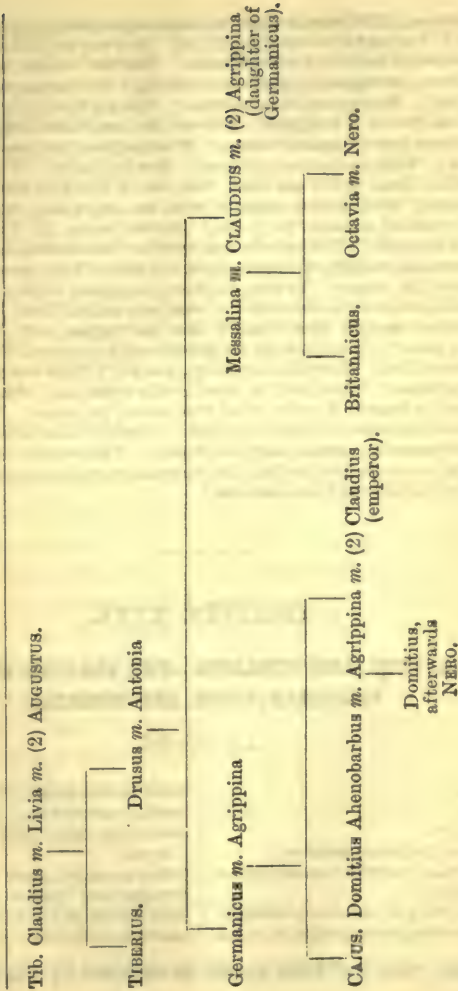
those foreign legions had learned to feel their strength, and news came to Rome that the distinguished officer who commanded in Spain, Servius Sulpicius Galba, now in his seventy-third year, had been saluted Emperor by his troops. In other provinces, the example was followed, and the soldiers hailed their favourite leaders as chiefs of the empire. Nero was in Rome; he laughed at the first intelligence of danger that reached him, but his spirit failed him when he found it true—he fainted at the news. He wept his miserable fate; he formed the wildest plans—to massacre the Senate, to let the lions loose upon the people, to go out and meet his enemies, trusting to his tears, his prayers, his beauty, to move their hearts. No man stood by him now; the senators were exulting in their hearts; the prætorians had been won over; there was a scarcity in the city, and the rabble were in ill temper and vented it on the emperor. Nero started up from the evening banquet, and prepared to escape. No one would share his flight; and one sturdy soldier asked in mockery, "*Is it then so hard to die?*" He prayed, he entreated, he hurried from room to room, in vain; no man or woman came to his aid; the palace was gradually emptying. The miserable wretch could not even find any one to cut his throat; he tried in vain to summon up courage to destroy his own life. At length, disguising himself in a dark cloak, and with a handkerchief before his face, and having found one or two of his vile favourites to accompany him, he hurried away on horseback, in the early morning, to a villa four miles from the city. He heard the muttered curses on his name, as he rode on in a storm of thunder and lightning; and the strangers travelling Rome-wards, asked, "What news of Nero?" He reached the villa,

and hid under a wall, whilst a secret passage was opened, by which he crept into the house. He lay down on a pallet, and refused the coarse bread they brought him, in spite of his hunger. He sighed and moaned, and talked of death, but dared not die. "*What an artist the world will lose,*" he groaned. At length news came from the city. The Senate had decreed Nero an enemy, and condemned him to a miserable death. Stung by the news, he tried to stab himself, but could not, and called upon himself in vain to arouse and take courage. But the sound of horses' feet was heard; and Nero placed a dagger at his breast, bidding a slave drive the weapon in. He was still living when the armed men rushed in. "*Is this your fidelity,*" muttered the tyrant, and immediately breathed his last, with a horrid stare upon his face.

Nero was only in the thirty-first year of his age when he died. He left no children; and was the last prince of Cæsar's house. Not that one drop of Cæsar's blood ran in his veins, for, like the emperors before him, it was only by adoption, and not by birth, that he bore the name of Cæsar.

Augustus himself, indeed, was a great-nephew of Cæsar, as well as his adopted son; but Tiberius, Caius, and Claudius belonged to the Claudii. Nero, also, on his mother's side, was descended from that family; his father belonged to the Domitii: both of these houses bore a dark and evil character, and Nero may certainly be said to have united in his person the vices of both.

The annexed TABLE is only intended to show the relationships between the emperors of Caesar's house.



QUESTIONS.—With what feelings and expectations was the accession of Nero hailed? Who aspired to rule through him? How was her influence checked? Against whom was Nero's hatred directed? Describe the end of Britannicus. Was Nero's government popular? For how long? Who next attained influence over Nero? Who opposed their marriage? How did Nero deceive his mother? What was the end of Agrippina? Who was the next victim demanded? How did Poppœa proceed against Octavia? What had been the former sufferings of Octavia? What was now her treatment? How did she die? What feeling was excited at Rome by her sad fate? How was it that Nero still retained any popularity? What terrible calamity befell the city in 64? What suspicions were circulated amongst the people? Against whom did Nero direct the popular suspicion? To what sufferings were the Christians exposed? Of what nature was the working of Christianity at the first? What soon absorbed the interest of the citizens? To what did Nero pay special attention? What was the consequence of the discovery of a conspiracy against Nero? Who perished by his order amongst other victims? How did Poppœa die? What was the state of Rome? Upon whom did the emperor rely for support amidst the hatred felt towards him? Where did he next go, and why? What feelings now found vent at Rome? Where did the open revolts break out? Who was elected emperor in Spain? How did Nero first receive the news? What was his behaviour afterwards? Describe his flight. How did he act when he heard the decree pronounced against him by the Senate? What was his end? Of what imperial house was Nero the last? Did he belong by birth to that family? From what two families was Nero descended?

CHAPTER XXXV.

GALBA, OTHO, AND VITELLIUS.—THE FLAVIAN EMPERORS: VESPASIAN, TITUS, AND DOMITIAN.

A.D. 68–96.

GALBA.

OTHO.

VITELLIUS.

VESPASIAN ELECTED EMPEROR.

CIVIL WAR BETWEEN VESPASIAN AND
VITELLIUS.

CHARACTER AND REIGN OF VESPASIAN.

THE TERRIBLE INSURRECTION IN JUDEA.

SIEGE OF JERUSALEM.

DESPERATE DEFENCE.

JERUSALEM TAKEN AND DESTROYED BY
TITUS.

REIGN AND POPULARITY OF TITUS.

TYRANNY AND CRUELTY OF DOMITIAN.

HE IS KILLED IN A CONSPIRACY.

AGRICOLA IN BRITAIN.

GALBA, who had been hailed as emperor by the legions in

Spain, was acknowledged also by the Senate on his arrival at Rome. The old man was more of a soldier than a citizen; his ideas of discipline were strict, and nothing could persuade him to buy the favour of the prætorian guard with money, as they had expected, and as his friends in Rome had promised in his name. The proud and lawless soldiers had found out how powerful they were: Otho, the old companion of Nero, by large gifts and promises won their support; they hailed him as emperor. Galba was deserted and killed in a tumult, 69 A.D., after having reigned a year. The soldiers hastened to put the supreme power into the hands of Otho, when news came that Vitellius, whom Galba had sent to command in Germany, had been proclaimed by the soldiers there. Civil war broke out; and in a battle fought in North Italy, Otho was defeated. He retired to rest the same night, with a dagger beneath his pillow; after sleeping some hours, he awoke, and placing its point to his heart, fell upon it. The Senate, on receiving news of his end, immediately acknowledged Vitellius as emperor. It is hardly possible to conceive a lower type of character than that of Vitellius: he had been the companion and flatterer of Tiberius, Caius, Claudius, and Nero—his passion in life was the love of eating, and he was generally stupefied with drink before noon. He ate three or four enormous meals in the course of the day, on which he spent a fortune; and sea and land were ransacked to supply his table. This brutish man only occupied the throne a few months.

There was in the Roman empire one man able and worthy to reign, Flavius Vespasianus. He had fought and commanded in Britain and many another battle-field, but had escaped the jealousy of the emperors from the mean-

ness of his birth, for the Flavian family was obscure and utterly unknown. It is said that he had incurred some danger whilst with Nero in Greece, because, blunt soldier as he was, he could not keep awake during the emperor's musical performances. But there was just then a terrible insurrection at hand in Judæa, and no one but the veteran general Vespasian could be intrusted with the task of subduing it.

The eastern provinces fixed their eyes on Vespasian as the future emperor. He was sixty years of age, prudent and cautious, and hesitated for a time, but yielded to the persuasion of the governor of Syria, and allowed his soldiers to hail him as Emperor. He did not himself come to Rome, but his generals entered Italy, and the country was again desolated by a cruel civil war. Vespasian's partisans were victorious, and advanced towards Rome. There Sabinus, the brother of Vespasian, had taken refuge in the Capitol, but it was forced, Sabinus was cut to pieces, and the sacred building itself perished by fire. But Vespasian's forces were at hand, and eager for the final struggle. The streets of Rome became once more the scene of frightful slaughter, as in the days of Marius or Sulla; the Vitellians were driven back into the prætorian camp, which was stormed and taken by the enemy, who put to death every man within it. Throughout this civil war, Vitellius himself had proved unable to think or to act. "Had others not remembered it, he would have forgotten that he was an emperor." When the soldiers entered the city he had attempted to fly, but restless and uneasy, he once more returned to the palace, and wandered about its empty halls; he was found by a soldier lurking behind a curtain, dragged forth, and immediately struck to the

ground. Every insult was heaped upon the miserable man ; the soldiers pelted, jeered, and wounded him ; at last they killed him, uttering with his dying breath the words, "*Yet I was once your Emperor.*"

Vespasian and his son Titus were still in the East, where Titus was to continue the Jewish war. Meanwhile the Senate busied themselves in rebuilding the temple of Jupiter, on the Capitol, which had been burnt, and awaited the arrival of Vespasian with some impatience, for his son Domitian, who represented him during his absence, was proving himself but too like their former tyrants. Contrary winds had detained the emperor ; but, in the course of the year 70 A.D., he arrived in the city, and brought with him the promise of better and happier times. Vespasian was a plain and homely man ; he was of poor and unknown birth, and laughed at all attempts to provide him with ancestors ; his habits were simple and frugal ; during a long public life he had never been charged with cruelty, and had laid down his authority in the provinces, poorer than when he entered upon it. When he became emperor, he went through his work in a plain old-fashioned Roman manner ; he brought the finances of the empire into order once again ; though himself without learning, he proved an encourager of all solid learning, and he gratified the people by undertaking the building of a vast amphitheatre* for their amusements.

For ten years (A.D. 69-79) Vespasian ruled the Roman empire with prudence and with mildness. A great change for the better seemed to pass over society. Men appeared "sobered" by long suffering, and the quiet frugal habits of the emperor gave an example which many followed.

* The Colosseum.

Vespasian died at the age of seventy, and left behind him a name respected, if not beloved. He was succeeded by his son Titus.

Titus reigned as emperor only two years,—but he had already been the associate of his father for many years, having earned a title to honour and trust. When Vespasian ascended the throne he had left the charge of the Jewish war to Titus, and a fearful task it proved. Often before had the restless spirit of the Jews broken forth in tumults and revolts; but now the whole nation had risen in a terrible earnestness against their conquerors.

Herod Agrippa* had been the companion and friend of the emperor Caius, whilst he was still an attendant on Tiberius; he was in great favour at the Roman court, and became king of Judæa and the adjacent districts. He was the last prince the Jews possessed; for after his death, Judæa was governed by a succession of Roman proconsuls.

The pride of the Jews revolted at the new yoke. In the districts of Galilee, armed bands, often led by some false prophet or Messiah, infested the country, and made the way to Jerusalem unsafe when the yearly feasts came round. There was one terrible faction, the "Zealots" (men "zealous for the law"), who held secret meetings, at which they devoted to death whom they pleased, and the victim they chose seldom, if ever, escaped: be he where he might, the dagger of the assassin found him out.

In A.D. 66, during Nero's visit to Greece, there was a general insurrection, in which Gallus, the governor of Syria, suffered a serious defeat; and it was at this crisis that Nero had sent Vespasian to Judæa. Vespasian first reduced Galilee, and with his usual prudence, made his

* He is the Herod of Acts xii.

conquest sure before advancing farther. He was in no haste to attack Jerusalem itself, and for a time his attention was diverted to the West ; and his own election to the empire occupied the first place in his thoughts.

Meanwhile the violence of the "Zealots" in Jerusalem dismayed all moderate men, and rendered peace for ever hopeless. They assassinated the chief men of the opposite party ; they secretly introduced into the city a band of twenty thousand banditti, whom they employed to massacre their opponents. The Zealots then, headed by Eleazar, seized on the government, and prepared to defend the city of David against the foe ; declaring that they trusted to no arm of flesh, but that Jehovah himself was on their side, and victory and triumph were awaiting the children of Judah. The Zealots themselves were divided into three different factions, filled with hatred towards each other, though the common danger forced them to some sort of union.

Jerusalem alone remained unconquered when Titus approached its walls. The Holy City, glorious in her beauty, and proudly enthroned upon the hills, seemed, from her strong fortifications, to hurl defiance at the Roman legions ; and her children within her, gathered around the sanctuary of their fathers, seemed inspired by fierce resolve to conquer or to die. Or if there were many failing and timid hearts within, the energy of the Zealots carried all before them, and allowed no word of peace to be so much as whispered.

Titus, not without much hard fighting, and many a repulse, succeeded in forcing the outer wall, and drew his lines closer around the city. Scarcity and distress began to prevail, but when crowds of terrified fugitives sought

permission from Titus to depart into the open country, he refused, and hanged many of the miserable captives upon crosses within sight of the city. The Zealots steeled themselves against the sufferings of the people as fiercely as against the advancing legions. Frightful famine began to prevail, and the scanty supplies that remained were snatched from the mouths of famishing women and children to satisfy the soldiers. So awful was the suffering from the famine, that a Jewish lady was known to have killed her own child to satisfy her hunger. Comets, meteors, strange prophetic voices, spread dismay throughout the population, and far more real and terrible dangers were staring them face to face. Multitudes perished daily of famine and of pestilence; the foe pressed on despite the most stubborn resistance, but the leaders of the people proclaimed that when all seemed lost, God himself would interpose to save them—the Messiah would at length appear.

Three months' siege brought the Romans into the fortress of Antonia, which commanded the Temple itself. Then Titus, indulging his natural humanity, gave life to those who sought it, and tried in vain to make terms with those who remained. But the band of desperate men within sternly refused every offer. Titus now began to assail the fortifications of the Temple, and after a fierce struggle, the Jewish leaders were forced to retreat; they then abandoned the Temple, and withdrew to the Upper City. Still, many remained to defend to the last that sacred building, and there was also a helpless crowd who had sought refuge within it. During the conflict which raged around, the brands thrown by the besiegers caught some of the outer woodwork; the flames

rapidly spread, and were already encircling the edifice. Titus ordered his men to extinguish the fire—he begged, he entreated them to preserve the glorious structure. But a soldier had already thrown a blazing brand within. The priests and the helpless crowd who had sought shelter in the ancient sanctuary rushed screaming in helpless terror before the flames, but only to fall upon the Roman swords. The soldiers pressed on through streams of blood, through fire and smoke, and forced their way into the holy place; and there, before the altar, where they had fallen in helpless supplication, fell the “last sacrifice” offered in the Jewish Temple—the aged and the sick, the women and the children of Jerusalem. The Holy of Holies stood as yet unscathed, and Titus forced his way to gaze for one moment behind the mysterious veil which screened it—and again he tried in vain to stay the fury of his men. A soldier pushing his way in, applied a burning torch, and soon the Temple was one sheet of flame—no hope of saving it remained.

Leaving with a sigh of regret the smoking ruins of the Temple, and abandoning the Lower City to plunder, Titus advanced to the Upper City. He once more offered to spare the lives of those who would surrender. But the besieged had sworn never to surrender. Titus contented himself with blockading them in their last stronghold. When reduced to extremity, the leaders and many of the survivors sought to make their escape through subterranean passages; then the Roman soldiers made their way into the position they had left, and accomplished the work of desolation with fire and sword. All was over. The Holy City and the Temple were a mass of smoking ruins. Only a band of miserable captives remained. Titus chose the

tallest and handsomest of these to adorn his triumph ; the rest were sold as slaves ; all above the age of seventeen were doomed to perish as gladiators or workers in the mines.

The fame of Titus's conquest soon spread far and wide ; his soldiers had already saluted him as Emperor. It may have been that some were endeavouring to sow the seeds of jealousy and suspicion between the father and son ; but Titus hastened to Rome, and into the presence of Vespasian, announcing his own arrival with the words, " Here I am, father !" Vespasian met him with equal frankness ; the father and son celebrated their triumph together ; and Titus was, as we have said, associated with the emperor in the labours and the honours of government thenceforth. During the lifetime of Vespasian, the Romans had felt some anxiety as to the character of his successor, but all fear passed away when Titus ascended the throne. He gained the good-will of all men—the friendship of the Senate, the affection of the people. He took the sacred office of chief priest, in order, as he said, that his hands might never be stained with blood, and he kept his purpose. His gentleness was almost feminine, and his love of giving pleasure so great, that when a day had passed without his bestowing anything on any one, he would say, " Friends, I have lost a day." How far the character of Titus would have stood the wear and tear of longer life, and all the temptations of his high place, can never be known—for Nero and Caligula were popular at first. Titus had always suffered from feeble health. It was said at Rome that he had been in his childhood the companion of Britannicus, and being seated by his side at that fatal supper, had partaken of the cup of poison

prepared for his friend, and that thus his constitution had been ruined. Be this as it may, his reign was cut short by sickness and death, in the fortieth year of his age, after he had been for two years the darling of the Roman people, who named him the "Delight of human kind." And it was not without reason that they mourned his death, for he left no son, and his brother, the weak and cruel Domitian, was his heir.

The short reign of this amiable prince was marked by two calamities : another terrible fire in Rome, which again destroyed the Capitol ; and the memorable eruption of Mount Vesuvius by which the cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii were overwhelmed and buried, and forgotten for centuries.

The wonderful amphitheatre, known to us as the Colosseum, was completed by Titus ; and his name was preserved both in the great public baths, the *Thermæ* of Titus, which he constructed for the convenience of the people, and in the magnificent arch erected in memory of his triumph over "*Judæa Victa.*"

On the reign of Domitian, the unworthy successor of Titus, we need not linger. It bears a melancholy likeness to those we have passed through under former tyrants ; he differed from them chiefly in the moroseness of his disposition—he preferred solitude to society. The gentle and good-natured Titus had persisted in overlooking his conduct towards himself, and tried in vain, by kindness and confidence, to gain his affection. Domitian had shown himself eager for his brother's death, and many suspected him of having hastened it.

Domitian reigned for fifteen years, 81–96. During the first years of his reign he made several useful laws, and

kept a strict watch on the governors of the provinces. But his private life was given up to vice. The wars on the frontiers with the Dacians and other barbarous nations were dangerous and expensive, and when the treasury was exhausted, Domitian resorted to the old way of filling it again; accusations were brought against the wealthiest of the citizens, and their property swept into the empty coffers. And as he became conscious that he was hated, the cowardly tyrant grew more suspicious, and plunged deeper into cruelty. Vespasian and Titus had stopped altogether the hateful system of delation, but it never flourished as under Domitian. Everywhere spies were on the watch for men's words and looks, and the emperor listened to every tale they brought him. Without trial, without proof, Roman citizens were continually led to torture, and to death. The last three years of Domitian form one of the most hideous pages in human history. Men passed through it, says Tacitus, in dumb horror. Domitian, like Nero before him, leant for support upon the rabble whom he won by shows, and the soldiers whom he won by money. At length a conspiracy amongst the members of his own household delivered the Romans from their emperor; and he was assassinated in the palace, A.D. 96.

As under the tyrants of the house of Cæsar, so under Domitian, the provinces escaped the misery endured at Rome, and continued to prosper. It was in the reign of Domitian that the Roman general Agricola completed the conquest of Britain, and not only subdued, but civilised its rude inhabitants.

QUESTIONS.—What was the character of Galba? What other emperor was chosen by the soldiers? What was Galba's end? Who was proclaimed in Germany? What was the result of the war between Otho and Vitellius? What

sort of a man was Vitellius? Who was worthy to reign? Where had a terrible insurrection broken out towards the close of Nero's reign? To whom was its suppression intrusted? What civil war next broke out? What were its results? What was the character of Vespasian? What effects did his government produce? Give the names of his sons. When did Vespasian die? How had Titus distinguished himself during his father's lifetime? Who was the last prince the Jews had possessed? How were the Jews afterwards ruled? What was the state of the country? Who were the Zealots? How was Vespasian delayed in suppressing the Jewish insurrection? To whom did he intrust the task? What was the state of things in Jerusalem? To what sufferings were the Jews exposed? What event proved the awful severity of the famine? What hope sustained them in the lowest depth of their misery? What fortress did Titus occupy, and what building did it command? How were his offers received by the besieged? What was the wish of Titus regarding the Temple? How was it disappointed? What scenes of horror attended the conflagration of the Temple? To what spot did Titus force his way? What was the fate of the Temple? What was the fate of the remnant that survived the siege? What feelings did some endeavour to awaken between Vespasian and Titus? How did Titus disarm suspicion? How did Vespasian return his confidence? How long did Titus reign after his father's death? With what feelings was he regarded? What were his especial characteristics? What public buildings owe their origin to Vespasian and Titus? By what public calamities was the reign of Titus marked? What was the character of Domitian? What peculiar disposition distinguished him from former tyrants? To what were the citizens exposed during his tyranny? How does Tacitus speak of the latter part of his reign? What was his end? Did the provinces suffer from the misery his tyranny inflicted at Rome? What country was subdued and civilised during his reign? To what Roman general is the civilisation of Britain due?

CHAPTER XXXVI.

NERVA, TRAJAN, HADRIAN, ANTONINUS, AURELIUS.

A.D. 96-180.

NERVA.

TRAJAN.

CHARACTER OF TRAJAN.

HIS WARS WITH THE DACIANS AND IN
THE EAST.

HIS DEATH.

PEACE OF THE EMPIRE UNDER HADRIAN.

HADRIAN'S TRAVELS AND SPIRIT OF
INQUIRY.

CHARACTER OF ANTONINUS PIUS.

HIS TRANQUIL REIGN.

MARCUS AURELIUS.

HIS HIGH CHARACTER AND LOVE OF
STUDY.

TROUBLES OF HIS REIGN.

PESTILENCE AND WAR.

DEATH OF THE EMPEROR AURELIUS.

THE news of the death of Domitian was welcomed in the Senate with the utmost joy, and they proceeded to elect one of their own body, M. Cocceius Nerva, emperor. Nerva was sixty-five years of age, dignified and agreeable in manners and appearance, mild and gentle in disposition. He found it difficult to control the fierce prætorian soldiers. They demanded the execution of the slayers of Domitian; and when Nerva determined to spare them, the prætorians took the execution on themselves. Nerva therefore wisely strengthened his own hands by adopting Trajan, who commanded the armies on the Rhine (a man respected and feared by the prætorians themselves), as his son and successor. Soon afterwards, in January 98, Nerva himself died, after a reign of sixteen months.

The greatest benefit Nerva conferred on the empire was his adoption of Trajan. Trajan was born in Spain, of a family in no way distinguished, but he had earned high distinction as a general and governor, and had won the love and respect of the army. He entered Rome without

pomp or show of any kind, winning the hearts of all by simplicity, and kindness. His wife, Plotina, a woman of kindred spirit, assumed no state beyond that of a senator's wife; and as she entered the palace she took the people to witness that she desired always to be what she then was. Under the influence of this virtuous empress and of Trajan's sister, Marciana, a change for the better passed over the female part of Roman society.

But the warlike spirit of Trajan found little pleasure in the capital, and he hastened to subdue the turbulent Dacians. After several hard-fought campaigns, they were finally conquered, and Dacia became a Roman province.

Trajan gave the Romans a new Forum, and adorned Rome with other splendid buildings. The arch and the column of Trajan were ornamented with sculpture, designed to tell the history of his reign to future ages. The emperor also repaired roads, aqueducts, and bridges. All he did was for the public good; but he imposed, as it seems, no extra burdens on his people. His government was just and mild, and he gained the respect and love of all classes of his subjects.

Trajan also undertook an expedition into the East against the Parthians, who had invaded Armenia, and deposed its king. The Parthian monarch submitted at the approach of the Roman emperor, and Armenia was declared to be a Roman province thenceforth. Advancing further east, Trajan crossed the Tigris. The Mesopotamian princes submitted to him, and the country was constituted the Roman province of Assyria. Nay, even the Parthians acknowledged the supremacy of Rome, and Trajan placed the crown upon the head of a king whom he had chosen for them. In 117 the emperor set out on his return to

Rome. He was sick in body, and greatly worn and harassed in mind ; little able to rejoice in the glory he thought he had acquired of extending the empire beyond the Euphrates ; for there was much trouble in the East, and terrible revolts of the Jews, accompanied by fearful massacres. Trajan died at a town of Cilicia on his journey home, in the sixty-sixth year of his age, and the twentieth of his reign. He was succeeded by his favourite, Hadrian. Trajan was greatly regretted by the Romans. Brave and warlike on the field of battle, he was just and humane in his government. He was of noble and commanding presence ; his manners were genial and courteous. Literature flourished during the reign of Trajan ; the great works of the historian Tacitus belong to this period.

Trouble seemed threatening when Hadrian ascended the throne, but the clouds passed away. Hadrian was a wise and prudent statesman. He at once relinquished the provinces Trajan had added to the empire in the East, and made the broad Euphrates again the boundary of his dominions, as Augustus had advised. But the Jewish insurrection was not crushed without terrible bloodshed. The Jews in Palestine had gathered round a leader whom they named Barcochebas, the Son of the Star, and from whom, as the expected deliverer, they fondly hoped for freedom and victory. After an obstinate and cruel struggle, their last hope was quenched in defeat and slaughter. The Jews were thenceforth dispersed throughout the world, and a Roman colony was established where Jerusalem had stood.

Hadrian reigned for twenty-two years, during which the Roman world enjoyed the profoundest peace. But the active and restless spirit of the emperor found ample

occupation. He determined to become personally acquainted with all the provinces of his vast dominions; to study men and manners everywhere; to examine for himself into the state of the country, the administration of justice, and the discipline of the army; to reform, to strengthen, if possible to perfect, the whole. He first visited Gaul, and then entered Britain, which had now become a settled and flourishing community, troubled only by the incursions of its troublesome neighbours, the Scots. Hadrian commanded the erection of a wall, and the construction of fortifications from the Solway to the Tyne, to protect the peaceful and industrious provincials. Then turning his steps southwards, he visited Spain, Mauritania, and the East, returning home by Greece. At a later period he again made a lengthened progress through the empire. Unhappily the accounts of this period of history that have come down to us are miserably scanty, and historians find it difficult merely to arrange the leading events in proper order. How much has thus been lost of deepest interest, whilst we are wearied with the details of the horrid tales told of Nero or Tiberius!

It was not only in inquiries about the state of the provinces that Hadrian interested himself. His eager spirit busied itself in studying the wonderful varieties of opinion he found amongst men. He investigated the philosophy and art of Athens, and delighted the Athenians by the magnificent buildings he erected amongst them. Hadrian indeed surpassed Trajan himself in the number and the splendour of his buildings. At Alexandria, Hadrian listened to the busy discussions in which the people delighted. He studied heathen, Jew, and Christian, and came at last to this conclusion—a bitter satire

on the universal idolatry of *money*—"they all have but one god, whom Jews, Christians, Gentiles worship all alike."

Hadrian returned to Rome, and there spent his closing years, unwearied as ever in his indefatigable labours. He had been so weak as to choose an unworthy favourite for his successor, but he fortunately died, and Hadrian's choice then fell upon a senator, a man of gentle and blameless character, Titus Antoninus, who was now in his fifty-second year. At the same time, he required him in his turn to adopt the youthful M. Annius, his own sister's son. The latter, known to us henceforth as Marcus Aurelius, was a youth of rare promise, thoughtful beyond his years from a child, guileless, pure, and gentle. For many years the accomplished Hadrian, the man of the world, had seemed to find repose in the society of the innocent and affectionate child, and had regarded him with especial love. But Hadrian's busy day was nearly over; severe illness seized upon him, and his sufferings were so intense that he only longed for death. It is said that, under the irritation thus created, he was guilty of acts of jealousy and cruelty which were contrary to the general character of his reign. He died in 138, in the sixty-third year of his age and the twenty-second of his reign.

The Senate at first appeared unwilling to grant the usual honours to Hadrian, on account of the acts which had stained his name at the last; but Antoninus would not allow any disrespect to the memory of his adopted father; and it is said to have been on account of his filial tenderness towards Hadrian that he received the surname of Pius. Immediately after his accession he associated his adopted son with himself in the government: never had

son a wiser and a better guide and example, never had father a more willing and loving pupil.

There is something of more than common interest in the character of the two Antonines. We seem to have found a refreshing oasis in the dreary waste of selfishness and cruelty which make up so much of our history. And it is with sad as well as loving interest that we dwell upon their memory ; for their light goes out in darkness, and ere Marcus Aurelius closed his eyes in death the "beginning of the end" had come. But the life of Antoninus Pius, passed in tranquillity and peace. He was never absent from Rome, and made the happiness of his people his one thought. No selfish feeling or wish seems to have entered his mind. His rule was so wise, his life so blameless, that not a breath of slander or reproach has stained his memory. His appearance was noble, his temper serene and cheerful ; and during his long and peaceful reign, he not only made others happy, but himself enjoyed happiness and tranquillity of mind. With especial hope and delight his eye rested on Marcus Aurelius, his associate in all his labours, who returned his loving care with grateful and admiring affection. The younger prince, however, differed from the elder Aurelius patiently fulfilled his daily task of business, but his heart was in his studies. Long and often did he sit in lonely meditation, pondering the hidden mystery of life. But for the wise care of Antoninus he might, he himself confesses, have become a mere sophist or book-worm. Aurelius inherited all the virtues of the good Antoninus, but with them we trace in him a depth and a sadness of spirit that was all his own. He had learned patience, endurance, and the steadfast holding to the right through pain and death itself, and he found occasion to exercise

all he had learnt. Antoninus died after having reigned twenty-two years (138–161), in the seventy-fourth year of his good old age. Marcus Aurelius thus became sole emperor, being then just forty years old. It was doubtless a hard struggle to leave his cherished studies, and apply himself entirely to the rude business of life. In vain did he strive to look hopefully on men or on things. The times were evil, and he shrank sensitively from the baseness and pollution of life. Faith and truth, he said, were fled away from earth to heaven above: how could his spirit linger here?

He longed for the quiet retreat of the mountain-side, or the lonely sea-shore; but the ruler of the Roman empire could only snatch a few passing hours for solitude and repose; and he tells us how he learned to seek for quiet, and for rest from trouble, within his own thoughts. Rude, indeed, were the times in which his lot was cast. In his reign the empire first became anxious and alarmed at the pressure of the barbarians around, and felt that in the end it would not have strength to ward off the danger. Five years of warfare in the East restored peace there for a time; but ere those years were passed, the line of the Danube was assailed, and Aurelius knew and felt that there was not the power to maintain the double strife.

The army that returned from the East brought with it a fearful guest—a deadly sickness, which spread in every town it passed, and reaching Rome at length, swept away the people by thousands. The emperor, about to depart for the war, stayed awhile to join with his people in appeasing the supposed anger of Heaven. Meanwhile the plague continued its ravages, and the dead were so many that there was no time for funeral rites, it spread

throughout the provinces, and a gloomy dismay filled the minds of all men. Under such depressing circumstances the emperor left Rome to undertake the war on the Danube, A.D. 167. It was a harassing and dangerous warfare ; the soldiers were depressed and gloomy ; Aurelius himself anxious and sick at heart. The next eight years were consumed in the weary struggle ; and the winter season brought no rest, for the hardy barbarians liked to fight in the time of frost and snow. At length a victory was gained, and Aurelius found leisure to visit the East, where his presence was required, and to make a short stay at Rome. He had scarcely celebrated a triumph over the tribes he had apparently conquered, when news came that they were again in arms. Once more the weary task must be renewed. But the hardships of the camp at length proved too much for the emperor's frame, which had never been strong, and was doubtless weakened by much study, care, and sorrow. Amongst the griefs that saddened his spirit at the last was the consciousness that his son, Commodus, was proving himself altogether unfit to reign. Marcus Aurelius sickened and died in the camp, A.D. 180, after a reign of nineteen years, and in the fifty-ninth year of his age. Shortly after his death the Romans purchased a peace from the barbarians.

QUESTIONS.—Who was elected emperor after the death of Domitian? Whom did he associate in the government and appoint his successor? How did Trajan and his wife Plotina act on assuming their imperial rank? What province did Trajan add to the empire? How did he adorn the city? What other expedition did he undertake? What were his exploits in the East? Who succeeded Trajan? How did he act respecting Trajan's conquests? What events happened in Palestine? What was the character of Hadrian? How did he display his activity both of body and of mind? What memorial of his visit did he leave in Britain? Whom did he choose for a successor? What was the character of Antoninus, and whom did he, by Hadrian's wish, adopt? What was the disposition of Marcus Aurelius? How did Antoninus acquire the surname of *Pius*?

What was the condition of the empire during his reign? What was the especial characteristic of Marcus Aurelius? Of what did the empire become conscious for the first time during his reign? What twofold warfare harassed it? What fearful visitation fell upon the whole empire? What feeling pervaded society? Where did the Emperor Aurelius spend the last eight years of his life? To what is his death attributed? In what year did he die?

CHAPTER XXXVII.

SPREAD OF CHRISTIANITY.—DECLINE AND FALL OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

ERA OF PEACE AND HAPPINESS.
INNER DECAY.
THREATENINGS FROM WITHOUT.
PROGRESS OF CHRISTIANITY.
PERSECUTIONS UNDER TRAJAN AND
AURELIUS.
DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE.
POWER OF THE SOLDIERS.
COMMODUS AND HIS SUCCESSORS.
INVASION OF THE GOTHs.

DEFEAT AND DEATH OF DECIUS.
CONFUSION AND PERILS.
CLAUDIUS AND HIS SUCCESSORS.
POLICY OF DIOCLETIAN.
CIVIL WAR.
CONSTANTINE.
HE FOUNDS CONSTANTINOPLE, AND
ESTABLISHES CHRISTIANITY.
DECLINE AND EXTINCTION OF THE
WESTERN EMPIRE.

FROM the accession of Vespasian to the time of Marcus Aurelius, that is, for about one hundred years, the Roman empire had enjoyed tranquillity and peace, hardly disturbed by an occasional war on the frontiers; and the sovereigns (Domitian excepted) had been wise and virtuous men; so that this period is generally regarded as at least one of the happiest in history, a kind of golden age. But changes were at hand. In the midst of so much prosperity there was deep corruption and vice; the empire was growing weaker and weaker, and the barbarian nations around were growing stronger and stronger, and pressing nearer and closer on all sides. The old religion too was decaying. Every nation within the empire was allowed its own gods, but few really believed

In their gods or worshipped them in truth. And another faith, that had been silently sown in the hearts of a few, was winning many from the ancient creeds. So silent, indeed, was the progress of Christianity at the first, that history hardly mentions the Christians at all. Except during the short and furious persecution of Nero, they were left unmolested and little heeded until the time of Trajan. Then we find Pliny, the governor of Asia, writing to the emperor complaining of the difficulty of dealing with persons brought before him *charged with being Christians*. Christianity had thus come to be regarded as a crime. The Christians steadily refused to be present at public games and ceremonies; and so they seemed to separate themselves from other men, and were suspected and disliked by the people. They refused to adore the image of the emperor, and met together in their own assemblies, apart from the world, having laws and rules of their own, and so became suspected as rebels to the government. But still Pliny himself acknowledges that he could find no crime, no treason amongst them. Torture could wring no confession from them of any secret practices beyond the meeting together in the early dawn to sing hymns to Christ as God, and the taking of vows not to commit any kind of crime. Trajan, in answer, left the matter very much to the discretion of Pliny. He desires that they shall on no account be sought out, and that none should be encouraged to inform against them; still, the emperor adds, "should any be brought before you, and persist in refusing to bow before the imperial statue, they must be dealt with by the law as rebels;" for to the war-like Trajan they appeared in no other light. The inquisitive and liberal-minded Hadrian understood better

the nature of the Christian profession ; he may even have inquired into its doctrines, as into so many other subjects. During his reign the Christians enjoyed peace, in danger only from sudden outbreaks of the dislike and hatred of the populace. Antoninus was too good and gentle to persecute any man, or any set of men ; and the peace of the Christian Church was unbroken until the reign of Aurelius. Humane and benevolent as this emperor was, he yet sanctioned the persecution of the Christians. But there was in his thoughtful, pure, and gentle nature so much that was really akin to Christianity, that we can only say that he knew not what he did. The Christians appeared to him as a body of men bound together by secret laws, and standing apart from the rest of the world. They were regarded as "atheists," who had no god ; and were believed to be guilty of the most abominable crimes. They were looked upon as men who delighted in prophesying a speedy and terrible destruction to the empire and the world. And when the pestilence from the East was spreading desolation and fear, and men were seeking to appease the anger of the gods, the Christians seemed marked out as victims. It may even have been thought that the sparing them so long had brought down the wrath of Heaven. And what would win back the favour of the gods so readily as to sacrifice those who had deserted their temples, and despised their worship ? The sword of persecution was drawn. Asia Minor, Lyons, and Vienne, were especially distinguished as the scenes of the affecting tales of "faith and patience" recorded by the early Church. There women, with more calmness and fortitude, if possible, than men, endured every kind of torment and death that could be devised, rather than deny their faith.

The accession of Commodus was a misfortune to the empire, but it brought peace to the Christian Church. Savage as he was, he was very weak, and was easily led by his favourites; and amongst those who had gained influence over him were some who bore the name of Christian.

From the accession of Commodus we may date the decline of the Roman empire. After the death of Aurelius the power passed into the hands of the soldiers. With few exceptions the succeeding emperors were first elected, and afterwards murdered, by them. Commodus was brutal and vicious; his chief pleasure was in the society of gladiators, and he himself fought in the amphitheatre. Again, the cruelty of a tyrant spread fear and dismay in the city, until he was assassinated in a conspiracy of his own servants, having reigned from 180 to 192. The conspirators made Pertinax, prefect of the city, emperor. He was a good and able man, who had formerly been a friend of Aurelius. But he enjoyed his dignity only for eighty-six days. He began by trying to reform the government; but when he tried also to reform the discipline of the prætorians, they were so enraged that they rose up against him, and Pertinax was murdered, March 28, 193. They then dared to put the Roman empire up to auction, to be purchased by the highest bidder. It was bought by Julian, a wealthy senator. The Senate and the people were enraged, and the soldiers themselves became ashamed of what they had done. The Roman legions abroad protested against the act of their comrades at home. Septimus Severus, chosen emperor by the army in Pannonia, marched upon Rome. The prætorians deserted Julian, and he was put

to death by order of the Senate, after a reign of sixty-six days. Severus reigned from 193 to 211, and proved a war-like and successful emperor. He ruled with the authority of a despot at Rome, and did not try to disguise his power, or to pretend any respect for the Senate.

Severus was succeeded by his sons Caracalla and Geta, to whom he left the advice to "be united, to enrich the soldiers, and despise all others." The first portion of this advice was certainly not kept. They had hated one another from their birth, and after their accession they never met but in public. At last, on pretence of wishing to be reconciled, Caracalla brought about a meeting with his brother in their mother's presence, and there caused him to be murdered. Caracalla proved himself a cruel tyrant, and his cruelties were not confined to the city of Rome, but extended throughout the empire. He was murdered at last by some of the prætorians whom he had offended, A.D. 217.

After Macrinus, whom the soldiers next made emperor, had reigned a year, the youthful Elagabalus, a connexion by marriage of the emperor Severus, was set up as a rival by the troops in Syria, and Macrinus was defeated and slain. Elagabalus was the first emperor of Asiatic birth. He had been priest of the sun in the temple of Emesa, and the great object of his reign was to introduce the worship of the sun at Rome. A conical black stone, which represented the god, was brought to the city with great pomp, and enshrined in a magnificent temple. The new emperor lived as an Eastern sovereign, revelling in the lowest and vilest pleasures, and ruling the Romans as if they were slaves. But the empire depended now on the will of the soldiers. They were at last disgusted with the odious

tyrant, and placed their hopes in his cousin, Alexander Severus. When Elagabalus began to show jealousy and hatred towards his cousin, who was to be his successor, the soldiers would endure it no longer. Elagabalus was murdered in the eighteenth year of his age, and Alexander Severus proclaimed emperor, A.D. 222.

Alexander, in his simple habits and his wise, firm government, recalled better days. He was engaged in war both in the East and West. At length he too was murdered by some discontented prætorians, A.D. 235.

The next emperor it pleased the soldiers to give the Roman world was a Thracian barbarian, named Maximin. He was a rude and savage man, whose chief distinction was his gigantic height and his enormous strength. He ruled by the sword, oppressing grievously both Rome and the provinces, though he never quitted the camp. Weary of his cruelty, the province of Africa revolted, and made the two Gordians (father and son) joint emperors, but they were defeated and slain. The Senate and people of Rome, who had taken their part, feared the rage of Maximin, and chose new emperors in the stead of the fallen—two old and worthy citizens, named Maximus and Balbinus. Maximin was on his way, breathing fire and slaughter; but his soldiers suffered greatly on their march; discontents arose, and, to the unspeakable relief and joy of the empire, the inhuman tyrant was killed in an insurrection. The younger Gordian (a grandson, it seems, of the elder) was associated with Maximus and Balbinus in the government, for he was a general favourite. But the soldiers were in a sullen mood; they were displeased to see the throne occupied by men whom the Senate had chosen. One day, when all the city was attending some

public games, a company of prætorians rushed into the palace, where they found the emperors almost alone, and the poor old men were murdered with every indignity, although during their brief reign they had certainly done nothing to deserve such a fate. Gordian, who was only a lad of fourteen, was then proclaimed sole emperor, being in high favour both with the army and the Senate. But in 244, after a reign of five years, his life also was cut short. Philip, an Arabian by birth, and at first a robber by profession, had gained the confidence of the soldiers in the East; he contrived to win their affection from Gordian, and the innocent youth was murdered in a conspiracy near the banks of the Euphrates. Philip then ruled the empire for five years. During his reign occurred the thousandth anniversary of the city of Rome, and it was celebrated with great magnificence.

The boundaries of the empire were indeed the same as in the days of Augustus, but how great the change within! A long decay had weakened its foundations and undermined its defences: it was ready to fall when the shock from without should come. And the foe was at hand. The nation of the Goths, coming from some distant region of the North, had established themselves on the borders of the empire. How tempting to the warlike barbarians was the rich prize that lay before them!—the fair, cultivated lands of the South in exchange for the gloomy forests of the North; the wealth and magnificence of ancient cities for the poverty of the bare mountain-side!

Philip perished as his predecessors had done. A rival emperor, Decius, was proclaimed by the legions in Pannonia; for wherever a sufficiently strong body of soldiers

were gathered together, there emperors could be made. Philip was defeated and slain; Decius was proclaimed emperor.

Early in his reign the Goths crossed the frontier. Decius was called away from Rome by their advance, and in a great battle fought in Mœsia, the Romans fled before the Goths. The ground was deep with ooze and slippery mud, and in that bog the Roman army was lost; the body of the emperor himself was never found. Decius had reigned three years (249–251). He was succeeded by Gallus.

The next twenty years are nothing but a series of disasters. Gallus purchased peace of the Goths by the promise of an annual tribute, and thus the barbarians discovered that the Roman empire was both wealthy and feeble, and they never forgot the lesson. But the Goths were not the only foes that harassed the empire. The warlike Franks ravaged Gaul, Spain, and Africa, whilst the Goths were devastating Greece and Asia Minor, and threatening Italy itself. And in the East, the Persians, under their ambitious monarch, Sapor, invaded Armenia. Valerian, who at the age of sixty had succeeded Gallus in 253, and who was now sixty-seven years old, marched against them. But he was defeated and taken prisoner (260), and passed the closing years of his life in sad and hopeless captivity. Sapor then overran Syria and other Eastern provinces.

Gallienus, the indolent and unworthy son of Valerian, succeeded him (260). During his miserable and distracted reign, pretenders to the throne started up in various provinces. No fewer than nineteen of these short-lived emperors arose, held their authority over a portion of the empire for a little while, and perished by conspiracy or

private murder. Gallienus treated all that passed in the provinces with careless indifference. He smiled at the news of each fresh rebellion, and asked whether they could not exist without the linen of Egypt or the cloth of Gaul? Only when danger threatened Italy itself, did he arouse himself, and prove that, feeble as he was, he was not without bravery. It was whilst hurrying in the darkness of the night to meet a sudden attack, that Gallienus met his death from a dart thrown by an unknown hand. The miseries of this distracted period were aggravated by famines and terrible pestilences which desolated the Roman world. The empire seemed on the brink of destruction, but its ruin was delayed. It was not by Romans that it was saved, but by men of poor and obscure birth, most of them peasants of Illyria, raised one after the other by the army to the throne. By Claudius, Aurelian, Probus, and Diocletian, the Goths were driven back; Gaul, Spain, and Britain were recovered; and a triumph was celebrated at Rome for victories in the East. Under Diocletian the restoration of the empire was completed. Diocletian himself was of the lowest origin, for his parents had been slaves. He too was an Illyrian peasant, raised to the throne by the army, simply on account of his merits. The Roman arms were victorious in the East and West; and in the twentieth year of his reign Diocletian, with his colleague Galerius, celebrated a magnificent triumph. It was celebrated at Rome; but the armies had long consisted of provincials, and now the emperors themselves were not of Roman, or even Italian birth. The wars in which they were engaged kept them on the frontiers, far from the city, which was not in any sense their home. Diocletian, it appears, had never visited Rome till he celebrated his triumph there.

The imperial court was at Milan or Nicomedia. Nor did he again honour the capital with his presence. He disliked the easy familiarity of manners there. Accustomed to the East, and all its pomp and stateliness, he wished to reign like an Eastern sovereign. He first wore the diadem (so hateful to Roman eyes), and his robes were of silk and gold. He surrounded himself with state and ceremony, and was seldom seen by his subjects. All who approached him were required to prostrate themselves after the Persian manner. He also first divided the empire, assigning the East and Italy to himself, and another emperor of equal rank : they ruled under the name of *Augusti*. The other provinces were allotted to two rulers, who held an inferior position, and were called the *Cæsars*. The reign of Diocletian is remarkable for the last persecution of the Christians. Their numbers had greatly increased ; they now formed regular communities in the great towns, and instead of meeting in private houses, places of public worship had arisen, dedicated in the name of Christ. Diocletian, influenced, it would seem, by the violence of his fierce colleague Galerius, resolved if possible to destroy the sect. The churches were ordered to be levelled with the ground, the sacred books destroyed, and the Christians punished by law. A cruel persecution raged, in which it was noted that the Christian Churches no longer displayed their early faith, for multitudes abandoned their religion under the pressure of fear.

After a reign of twenty years (285-305), Diocletian abdicated the throne. A fierce struggle for the empire followed, which lasted from 305 to 323.

Constantine, who had been born in Britain, and succeeded his father Constantius there, was a great favourite

with his soldiers and with the people ; and he gradually established his power in the Western provinces, which he ruled with wisdom and mildness. Italy and Africa were groaning under the yoke of the tyrant Maxentius. The people of Rome looked for deliverance to Constantine. He entered Italy, and in the battles of Turin and Verona defeated his rival. Constantine advanced to the gates of Rome ; a desperate battle ensued, in which the prætorian guards displayed desperate courage, and fell on the spot where they fought. But victory declared for Constantine, and Maxentius, in attempting to escape, fell into the Tiber and was drowned. Constantine immediately broke up the remnant of the prætorian guard and demolished their camp.

Constantine was thus master of Italy and the Western provinces. Licinius, who had vanquished the other claimants in the East, shared the empire with Constantine and married his sister. But the peace between the two emperors was hollow. Constantine defeated and drove back the Goths, and then set his mind on possessing the whole empire. Civil war began, and in 323 a great battle was fought at Hadrianople. Licinius was defeated, and took refuge in Byzantium, but was again vanquished, and submitted to the conqueror. Constantine promised him his life, but the promise was not kept.

The empire was thus, after thirty-seven years, again united under a single ruler. Two great changes followed on the accession of Constantine—the nominal religion of the empire was changed, and Rome was no longer its capital. The legend told of Constantine's conversion was, that as he was marching against Maxentius, there appeared in the sky a flaming cross, just above the sun, and inscribed upon it were the words *Hac vince* (By this

conquer). In the war with Licinius, Constantine acknowledged his new profession by the cross which appeared upon his banner, and after he became sole emperor he proclaimed the Christian faith the religion of the state. This great change, however, be it remembered, wrought no change whatever in the heart or life of any one individual man, whilst it brought into the Christian Church the whole mass of the indifferent and the time-serving. Henceforth the Church suffered no more persecution, but became herself an intolerant and cruel persecutor.

The people of Rome were unwilling to adopt the new faith ; but Rome had become of very little account : it was but one among many other cities. Constantine, who had been born on the banks of the Danube, had grown up in the camp, and been made emperor by the soldiers in Britain, cared little for the name and ancient fame of Rome. He was ambitious of founding a new city, to be called after his name, and to be the capital of a Christian empire. He chose a spot wonderful for beauty, and so strong as almost to defy an enemy, a spot which, joining together East and West, was open to receive the riches of two continents. Lance in hand, the emperor marked out the line to bound the city of Constantinople. He spent the riches of the empire, and spoiled Greece and Asia, to adorn the favoured city. We shall not here pursue the history of Constantinople, but content ourselves with following the sinking fortunes of Rome.

It was not till nearly one hundred years after the removal of the seat of empire to Constantinople that Rome was actually in the hands of the barbarians. During the greater portion of that time the empire was divided into East and West, and several feeble princes ruled at Rome

which was still the capital of the West. Wave after wave driven on from the distant East surged and broke against the empire in every part. Once the emperor Theodosius, raised from a farm to the throne, reunited East and West, and stayed a while the oncoming tide. At his death, in 395, the empire was again divided between his sons: Arcadius ruled the East, Honorius the West, with feeble sway. Honorius lived, idle and inert, at one town or another of Italy, chiefly interested in feeding poultry, whilst his brave general, Stilicho, was straining every nerve to save the country from the Goths, who, led by the warlike Alaric, had entered the north of Italy. Honorius, frightened at their advance, hid himself with his court within the inaccessible fortress of Ravenna, whose houses, raised above the marshy soil on wooden piles, were protected by the wide and deep morasses around from the approach of an enemy. Soon afterwards the brave general Stilicho, the only man the age produced worthy to bear the Roman name, was assassinated in a base court conspiracy; a few months later the Gothic army was besieging Rome. Famine soon began to prevail; the rich and luxurious nobles could scarcely procure enough of the coarsest food; the poor were reduced to starvation. Many thousands perished by famine and pestilence, and the Senate in despair sought for mercy from the Gothic prince. At first the haughty chief demanded from the trembling citizens the surrender of everything they possessed—all the wealth of the city, public and private. “But what then, O king, do you leave to us?” they asked. “Your lives,” replied Alaric; but after a while he relaxed, and consented to depart on receiving a heavy ransom (A.D. 408).

Alaric in vain attempted to conclude a treaty with Honorius. The Gothic chief determined to visit his anger and disappointment upon the city of Rome, which surrendered at his approach, and received an emperor of his appointing. But Alaric grew weary of the emperor he had made, and once again endeavoured to force Honorius to conclude a peace. He advanced within three miles of Ravenna, but a sudden sally of some barbarian troops in the pay of Honorius surprised and cut to pieces a body of the Goths. Honorius from his hiding-place refused all peace and alliance with Alaric, knowing that the vengeance of the conqueror could not reach him in his retreat, but could fall only on the defenceless city of Rome.

For the third time Alaric appeared before the gates. The Senate, terrified as they were, were yet making preparations to resist as best they might ; but at midnight, the gate was opened to the foe by a treacherous hand, and those of the citizens who had been able to close their eyes in sleep were awakened from their slumber, by the terrible sound of the Gothic trumpet (August 24, 410). The horrors of that night may be imagined. Alaric, more humane than many conquerors, had indeed ordered that the lives of the unresisting should be spared, and that the churches should be held sacred, for Alaric was a professor of the Christian faith ; yet the slaughter was cruel, the plunder immense. Torture was freely used to bring hidden wealth to light, and no insult or barbarity was spared by a brutal soldiery. Many precious works of art were damaged or destroyed. The Goths held Rome for six days. Alaric then proceeded on his march southward. Fearful was the misery and destitution at Rome. Multitudes of fugitives, men and women of illustrious birth and

the most luxurious habits of life, sought safety in some distant and obscure retreat, beggared, and often scarred with cruel wounds, rescuing, in truth, nothing but *their lives* from the merciless invaders.

The career of Alaric was, however, nearly over. The Goths occupied the rich Italian land, and inhabited the fair Roman villas on the coast. "Their trembling captives, the sons and daughters of Roman senators, presented, in goblets of gold and gems, large draughts of Falernian wine to the haughty victors, who stretched their huge limbs under the shade of plane trees, artificially disposed to exclude scorching rays, and to admit the genial warmth of the sun."* Alaric himself continued his march south, with the aim of possessing himself of Sicily; but he died, after a short illness, at Rhegium. He was buried in the bed of a river, which had been turned aside from its course to form his grave. All the workmen who had been employed were inhumanly murdered, in order that his resting-place might ever remain a secret. After the death of Alaric, his successor, Adolphus, became the ally of the Romans, and married the sister of Honorius. Honorius himself died, after what is called a reign of twenty-eight years (423).

It would be tedious to mention the names of the successors of Honorius. They have left little besides their names for history to record concerning them. They pass across the stormy scene like so many meaningless shadows. They bear the name of Roman emperors, but the empire is fast dissolving. The pirate nation of the Vandals, under Genseric, their king, occupied Africa, and thence brought ruin and havoc upon the islands of the Mediterranean and

* Gibbon.

the shores of Italy. But Attila, king of the Huns, was the great terror of the world at this time. Coming from the distant East, following in the track of Goth and Vandal, the Huns had forced the emperors of the East to allow them to settle on the confines of the empire, and to pay them an annual contribution of seven hundred pounds of gold. The Romans of the East and of the West trembled before Attila, the terrible monarch of the Huns, who was named the "*Scourge of God.*" Attila broke the seeming peace, overran great part of the Eastern Empire, and wherever he marched left desolation behind. Never before had so fierce and merciless a swarm of barbarians settled on the empire. The emperor of the East was reduced to seek forbearance from the savage conqueror. The messengers sent from Constantinople found the king of the Huns encamped near the Danube. His camp had grown into a huge village, in the midst of which stood the palace, built of wood, and embracing several distinct houses. Everywhere in the camp might be seen the rich spoils of war, excepting in the immediate residence of Attila. No material costlier than wood was employed in his service; his dress was destitute of every ornament. He received the ambassadors seated in a plain wooden chair within a tent. "What city in the empire," said he to the trembling Romans, "could hope to exist if it were our pleasure to blot it from the earth?" But he softened his haughty tone after a while, admitted the ambassadors to his table, and demanded little from the court of Constantinople beyond the ransom of prisoners (448).

In 450, the payment of the annual tribute was refused, and Attila, in great wrath, hesitated only on what portion of the empire he should direct his vengeance. To the

emperors both of the East and of the West he sent word, "Attila, my lord and thy lord, commands thee to make ready a palace for him without delay." But the conquest of the East appeared too easy a task, and Attila, with the myriads of his barbarian horde, entered Gaul, to the unspeakable terror of the inhabitants, and advanced as far as Orleans, which he besieged (451).

Ætius was the commander of the armies belonging to Rome. He was a brave and able general, and the only man equal to the great emergency. He united his forces with those of the Goths (who were still allied with the Romans), and marched to encounter the Huns on the plains of Châlons. He defeated the terrible barbarians, and compelled Attila to retreat. It was, however, only a respite that was thus procured. In 452, Attila entered Italy, took several cities in the north, and laid the country desolate. The task of the brave Ætius seemed an impossible one. The Goths did not care to aid in the defence of Italy. With such forces as he had at his disposal, he stood alone to check the march of Attila, and delay, if he could not prevent, the destruction of Rome.

A solemn embassy was sent from Rome to the barbarian camp, and the king of the Huns accepted their offer of purchasing his retreat by an immense sum of money. Next year (453) the empire was rescued from its peril; for Attila, having drunk to excess at an evening banquet, was found dead the next morning. The nation of the Huns celebrated his funeral with savage rites and the wildest lamentations. The civilised world breathed more freely, for after the death of Attila the disorderly myriads of the Huns were no longer to be feared.

Ætius was rewarded for his services as Stilicho had

been. The base and worthless Valentinian, who was now emperor, grew jealous of his protector. He had promised his daughter in marriage to the son of Ætius ; and whilst Ætius was urging the fulfilment of the engagement, the emperor, for the first time drawing his sword, murdered the "last of the Romans," and destroyed the only stay of Rome.

The last hour was indeed close at hand. The public burdens were heavy ; the rich shifted the weight on to the people, who were ground down by taxation : intense misery prevailed.

In 455, Genseric took the city of Rome, and during fourteen days the Vandals pillaged and destroyed whatever of wealth and splendour the city had recovered since the sack of Alaric in 410.

Nine more "emperors" occupied the palace in succession, whilst the real power was in the hands of Ricimer, commander-in-chief of the barbarian mercenaries. The Saxons, the Franks, the Alemanni, the Goths, and the Vandals established themselves in the provinces. In 461 the empire was reduced to the kingdom of Italy. Year by year, Genseric, now in extreme old age, steered his course to the Italian shore, and brought fresh havoc and desolation with him. A naval expedition fitted out against him failed, though aided by the forces of the East (468). Genseric himself outlived the Roman empire.

But the final blow came from within—from the foreign soldiery to whom the Romans entrusted the defence of Italy. These troops, called the *Confederates*, were formed of barbarian mercenaries, and the Romans had at least as much reason to fear as to trust them. No tie but that of pay bound them to Rome. Stilicho and Ætius had not

only proved brave men, but had maintained their loyalty to the emperors. Ricimer had contented himself with making and unmaking emperors. Orestes, commander-in-chief, 475, acted differently. The throne was filled by Julius Nepos, who had been appointed emperor by the court of Constantinople. The mercenaries, excited by Orestes, rose in a furious rebellion, and the emperor fled at their approach. Orestes then prevailed upon the soldiers to acknowledge his son, Romulus Augustulus, as emperor (476). But the price they exacted was a heavy one. Like the prætorians of former days, they felt the power was in their own hands, and they now demanded from Orestes the third part of Italy for their own. He refused the demand. Odoacer, one of their officers, then promised to grant all they asked in return for their support.

Odoacer was resolved to reign as king, and not as lieutenant of a phantom emperor. He forced Augustulus to resign the imperial title, and dismissed him on a liberal pension. Odoacer, the barbarian, then became king of Italy, 476.

Thus ended the Roman empire.

QUESTIONS.—What was the external condition of the empire from Vespasian to Aurelius? What was at work within? What new faith was spreading? How did Pliny describe the Christians in his letter to Trajan, and what was his difficulty respecting them? What was Trajan's reply? How did Hadrian and Antoninus treat the Christians? Under whom were they afterwards persecuted? How may the conduct of Aurelius towards the Christians be explained? From whose accession may we date the visible decline of the empire? What part did the soldiers take respecting the emperors of this period? What was the character and fate of Commodus? How did Pertinax, during a reign of eighty-six days excite the fury of the prætorians? What audacious step did they take after murdering Pertinax? Who appointed the next emperor; how did he rule; and what advice did he leave his sons Caracalla and Geta? Who was the first emperor of Asiatic birth? What was the aim of his short reign? What was his character? What kind of man was Maximin, elected emperor by the soldiers, 235? What was the fate of the emperors elected by the Senate as his rivals? How long did Philip the Arabian rule? What nation during his reign threatened the empire? How did Decius perish? What foes menaced the Roman empire?

under Gallus? What was the fate of Valerian? Describe the condition of the empire under Gallienus, the son of Valerian? How did Gallienus receive the news of each disaster? By what kind of men was the empire restored? Who completed that restoration? What connexion had Diocletian with Rome? After what fashion did he reign? What important change did he introduce? For what else was his reign remarkable? What followed the abdication of Diocletian in 305? Who finally triumphed over his rivals? What two important changes followed the accession of Constantine? How was the empire, generally speaking, divided after Constantine? What great emperor re-united East and West, and for a time checked the progress of the barbarians? Who were the sons of Theodosius, and where did they rule? What was the character of Honorius? What terrible foe was held back by his brave general Stilicho? What was Stilicho's reward? What soon after befell Rome? Describe the sieges of Rome by Alaric, and its final capture? What was the end of Alaric? What was the character of the successors of Honorius? What were the Vandals, and where did they, under their king, Genseric, establish themselves? Who was the great terror of the world at this time? By what name was Attila described? Give an account of the embassy sent from Constantinople to the camp of the Huns. What message did Attila send to the courts of Constantinople and Rome? Who defeated Attila on the plain of Châlons? How did Ætius perish? How was the Roman world delivered from Attila? Who pillaged Rome in 454? What were the dimensions of the Western Empire in 461? Who were the Confederates? How did their commander Orestes act? What did the soldiers demand from him in return for their services? What followed on his refusal? What became of Augustulus, the last Roman emperor? Who was the first barbarian king of Italy? In what year did he ascend the throne?



TABLE I.

CHRONOLOGICAL CHART OF ROMAN HISTORY TO THE BATTLE OF ACTIUM.

- Expulsion of the Tarquins—Kingly power abolished, 510.
The Etruscans besiege and take Rome, 507.
Etruscans driven back from Latium, 506.
Tribunes of the people appointed, 494.
Story of Coriolanus, 491.
Decemvirs appointed to draw up laws, 451.
Fall of the Decemvirs, 449.
The ten years' siege of Veii begins, 406.
Battle on the Allia, and destruction of Rome by the Gauls, 390.
Licinian laws passed, 367.
Story of Marcus Curtius, 362.
Samnite wars begin, 327.
Disaster of the "Caudine Forks," 321.
Battle of Sentinum, 295.
Peace with the Samnites—End of the Italian war, 290—The
Romans masters of Italy.
Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, lands in Italy; he defeats the Romans
at Heracleia, 280.
Pyrrhus finally defeated at Beneventum, 275.
The first Punic War begins, 264.
Naval battle at Mylœ, 260.
Defeat of Regulus in Africa, 255.
Defeat of the Romans at Drepanum, 249.
Final victory off the Ægates, and end of the war, 241.
Second Punic War begins, 219.
Hannibal crosses the Alps—Battles on the Ticinus and the Trebia,
218.
Battle of Thrasymene, 217.
Battle of Cannæ, 216.
Hasdrubal enters Italy—Is defeated on the Metaurus, 207.
Battle of Zama, 202.

- End of the second Punic War, 201.
 Philip of Macedon defeated by the Romans, 197.
 Greece declared free, 196.
 Antiochus of Syria defeated by the Romans, 190.
 Death of Hannibal, 183.
 Perseus of Macedon defeated at Pydna, 168—Macedonia henceforth
 a Roman province.
 Carthage destroyed, 146.
 Greece becomes the province of Achaia, 146.
 Tiberius Gracchus, tribune of the people, 133—He is murdered.
 Caius Gracchus tribune, 123.
 Murder of Caius Gracchus, 121.
 War declared against Jugurtha, 111.
 Marius chosen consul and general, 107.
 Jugurtha brought prisoner to Rome, 104.
 Terrible defeat of the Romans by the Cimbri at Arausio, 105.
 Marius defeats the Teutones at Aquæ Sextiæ, 102.
 He defeats the Cimbri near Vercellæ—Triumph of Marius, 101.
 Italian war, 90–89.
 March of Sulla on Rome—Flight of Marius—Massacre of the
 Romans in Asia Minor by Mithridates, 88.
 Return of Marius—Reign of terror, 87.
 Death of Marius, 86.
 Sulla concludes a peace with Mithridates, 84.
 Battle at the Colline Gate, 82.
 Dictatorship of Sulla—Proscriptions, 82–81.
 Abdication of Sulla, 79.
 Death of Sulla, 78.
 Insurrection of Sertorius in Spain, 80–72.
 War with Mithridates begins, 74.
 Insurrection of gladiators under Spartacus, 73–71.
 Pompey entrusted with extraordinary powers—He puts down
 piracy, 67.
 Mithridates defeated by Pompey—His flight, 66.
 Conspiracies headed by Catiline, 65–63.
 Arrest and execution of conspirators, 63—Defeat and death of
 Catiline in Etruria.
 Coalition of Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar—or the First Trium-
 virate, 59.

- Cæsar departs for Gaul, 58.
 Defeat and death of Crassus in the East, 53.
 Cæsar first invades Britain, 55.
 Gaul finally subdued, 51.
 Cæsar crosses the Rubicon and enters Italy—Flight of Pompey, 49.
 Battle of Pharsalia—Flight of Pompey—His murder in Egypt, 48.
 Battle of Thapsus—Death of Cato at Utica, 46.
 Conspiracy of Brutus, Cassius, and others against Cæsar—Murder of Cæsar, 44.
 Coalition of Antony, Octavius, and Lepidus, or the Second Triumvirate—Proscriptions—Death of Cicero, 43.
 Battles of Philippi—Death of Brutus and of Cassius, 42.
 Meeting of Antony and Cleopatra, 41.
 Civil war between Antony and Octavius, 32.
 Battle of Actium—Defeat of Antony—Death of Antony and of Cleopatra—Supremacy of Octavius, 31.

TABLE II.

GREAT BATTLES RECORDED IN THE HISTORY OF THE REPUBLIC.

<i>Battles.</i>	<i>Dates.</i>	<i>Gained by</i>	<i>Lost by</i>
Lake Regillus, (<i>mythical</i>)	499 or 498 (<i>supposed</i>)	The Romans.	The Latins.
Of the Allia,	390	The Gauls. (<i>under Brennus</i>)	The Romans.
Sentinum,	295	The Romans.	The confederate Italians.
Heracleia,	280	Pyrrhus.	The Romans.
Beneventum,	275	The Romans.	Pyrrhus.
Mylæ (<i>naval</i>),	260	The Romans.	The Carthaginians.
Drepanum (<i>naval</i>),	249	The Carthaginians.	The Romans.
The Ægates (<i>naval</i>),	241	The Romans.	The Carthaginians.
Ticinus,	218	Hannibal.	The Romans (<i>under P. Scipio</i>)

<i>Battles.</i>	<i>Dates.</i>	<i>Gained by</i>	<i>Lost by</i>
Trebia,	218	Hannibal.	The Romans (<i>under Sempronius</i>).
Thrasymene,	217	Hannibal.	The Romans (<i>under Flaminius</i>).
Cannæ,	216	Hannibal.	The Romans (<i>under Æmilius Paulus and Varro</i>).
The Metaurus,	207	The Romans (<i>under Nero</i>).	The Carthaginians (<i>under Hasdrubal</i>).
Zama,	202	The Romans (<i>under Scipio</i>).	Hannibal.
Pydna,	168	The Romans (<i>under Æmilius Paulus</i>).	Perseus, King of Macedon.
Aransio,	105	The Cimbri.	The Romans,
Aquæ Sextiæ,	102	Marius.	The Teutonea.
Vercellæ,	101	Marius.	The Cimbri.
Colline Gate,	82	Sulla.	The Marians allied with the Samnites.
Carrhæ,	53	The Parthians.	Crassus.
Pharsalia,	48	Cæsar.	Pompey.
On the Nile,	47	Cæsar.	The Egyptians.
Thapsus,	46	Cæsar.	The Republicans.
Philippi,	42	Antony and Octavius.	Brutus and Cassius.
Actium (<i>naval</i>),	31	Octavius.	Antony and Cleopatra.

TABLE III.

ROMAN EMPERORS FROM AUGUSTUS TO DIOCLETIAN.

	B. C. A. D.		A. D.
Augustus,	23- 14	Septimus Severus,	193-211
Tiberius,	A. D. 14- 37	Caracalla,	211-217
Caius (Caligula),	37- 41	Macrinus,	217-218
Claudius,	41- 54	Elagabalus,	218-222
Nero,	54- 68	Alexander Severus,	222-235
Galba,	68- 69	Maximin,	235-238
Otho,	69	Maximus and Balbinus,	238-239
Vitellius,	69	Gordian,	239-244
Vespasian,	69- 79	Philip,	244-249
Titus,	79- 81	Decius,	249-251
Domitian,	81- 96	Gallus,	251-253
Nerva,	96- 98	Valerian,	253-260
Trajan,	98-117	Gallienus,	260-268
Hadrian,	117-138	Claudius,	268-270
Antoninus Pius,	138-161	Aurelian,	270-275
Aurelius,	161-180	Tacitus,	275-276
Commodus,	180-192	Probus,	276-282
Pertinax,	192-193	Carus,	282-283
Julian,	193	Carinus and Numerian,	283-285
		Diocletian,	285-305

INDEX.

- ACRIUM**, battle of, 195.
Adolphus, king of the Goths, marries a Roman princess, 288.
Ædiles, office of the, 48.
Ægates, battle off the, 57.
Æmilius Paulus, general at Cannæ, defeated and slain, 70, *seq.*
Æmilius Paulus (his son) defeats Perseus at Pydna, 87.
Æneas, legend of, 3 (*note*).
Æqui, wars with, 24, 26.
Ætius defends Italy against Attila, 290.
Agarian laws, 99.
Agrippa, friend of Augustus, 189, 190, 193; receives the ring of Augustus, 204; marries Julia, *ib.*
Agrippa, Herod, 258.
Agrippina, wife of Germanicus, 209; she brings the ashes of her husband to Rome, 216; her suspicions of Tiberius, sufferings, and death, 221, *seq.*
Agrippina, daughter of Germanicus, 237; schemes the overthrow of Messalina, 238; marries Claudius, poisons him, and secures the succession to her son Nero, 239, *seq.*; ambitious schemes, 242; loses her influence over her son, *ib.*; is murdered by him, 245, 246.
Agricola civilises Britain, 264.
Alaric, king of the Goths, 286; sack of Rome by, 287; death, 288.
Alba, foundation of, 3; destruction of, 9.
Alesia, siege of, 152.
Allia, battle on the, 36.
Alps, Hannibal crosses the, 62, *seq.*
Ancus Martius, fourth king of Rome, 10.
Antiochus of Syria defeated by the Romans, 85.
Antoninus Pius, emperor, his goodness and tranquil reign, 271.
Antony, Mark, joins Cæsar in Epirus, 159; comes forward after Cæsar's death, 174; delivers his funeral oration, 176; quits Rome, and is defeated by Hirtius and Pansa, 180, 181; joins Octavius and Lepidus, 182; gains the battle of Philippi, 185; meets Cleopatra, and is enslaved by her, 188; marries Octavia, 189; again fascinated by Cleopatra, 191; his mad career in Egypt, 192, *seq.*; divorces Octavia, 194; defeated at Actium, 195; death of Antony, 196.
Appius Claudius, decemvir, 30, *seq.*
Appius Claudius, the blind, 45, 48.
Aquæ Sextimæ, battle of, 109.
Arminius, the German chieftain, 210.
Attila, king of the Huns, 289, 290.
Augustus, Octavius assumes the name of, 200; rules the Roman world as emperor, *ib.*; splendour and tranquillity of the empire, 201; simplicity of his personal habits, 202; love for his daughter Julia, 204; his domestic troubles and disappointments, 207, 208; his concluding acts and death, 211.
Augustulus Romulus, last emperor of Rome, dismissed on a pension, 292.
Aurelius, emperor, his exalted character and love of study, 271; troubles of his reign, 272; long warfare on the frontier, sickness, and death, 273.
Aurelian, emperor, 282.
BALBINUS, emperor, 279.
Barcochebas, a leader of the Jews, 268.
Beneventum, battle of, 46.
Brennus, destruction of Rome by, 36, 37.
Britain, Cæsar twice enters, 150, 151; war in, 236; Roman province formed in, 236; Agricola subdues and civilises, 264; the Emperor Hadrian visits, 269.
Britannicus, son of Claudius and Messalina, 238; he is murdered by Nero, 243.
Brutus, nephew of Tarquin the Proud,

- persuades the people to expel the king, 13; his treatment of his own sons, 14.
- Brutus conspires against Cæsar, and assists in his murder, 171, *seq.*; flees from Rome, 177; rules tyrannically in the East, 184; defeated at Philippi, 185; his death, *ib.*
- Burrus, tutor of Nero, 242.
- CÆSAR, JULIUS**, early connexion with the party of Marius, 133; unites with Pompey and Crassus, 138; his conquest of Gaul, 145, *seq.*; civil war between Pompey and, 154, *seq.*; final victory at Thapsus, 165; his triumph, 167; plans for government, 168; his great power excites jealousy and ill-will, 169; suspected of aspiring to the title of king, 169, 170; is murdered in the Senate-house on the Ides of March, 172, 173; scene at his funeral, 176.
- Caius Cæsar (Caligula), emperor, with Tiberius at Capræ, 224, *seq.*; he succeeds Tiberius, to the joy of the people, 227, 228; his appearance and character, 228: his mode of life, illness, and probable insanity, 229, *seq.*; claims divine worship, 232; is assassinated, *ib.*
- Caius Cæsar, grandson of Augustus, 204, 208.
- Caligula—*see* Caius.
- Camillus, 34, 35.
- Cannæ, battle of, 71.
- Capua, siege of, 75, 76.
- Capræ, retreat of Tiberius to, 221.
- Caracalla, emperor, 278.
- Caractacus, the British king, 236.
- Carrhæ, battle of, 142.
- Carthage, colony from Tyre, 49; power by sea, and great wealth, 50; strength and weakness of, 51; enters on a war with Rome, 52; accepts terms of peace, 57; Hamilcar and his sons leave for Spain, 58; again enters on a war, 60; fails to support Hannibal as he expected, 75; recalls Hannibal, 81; accepts terms of peace, 82; Hannibal leaves, *ib.*; humiliating position of, 89; siege and destruction of, 92, *seq.*
- Cassius conducts the retreat of the army of Crassus after Carrhæ, 142; conspires against Cæsar, 171, *seq.*; defeated at Philippi, 185; his death, *ib.*
- Cassivelaunus, a British prince, 151.
- Catiline, his character, 135: ringleader of conspirators, *ib.* opposed and denounced by Cicero, 135, 136; goes to Etruria, 136; is defeated and slain, 137.
- Cato heads the republican party against Cæsar, 139, 144; after Pharsalia flies to Corcyra, 161; joins the republicans in Africa, 163; after Thapsus puts an end to his own life at Utica, 166.
- Catulus, Roman general, 109.
- Chærea conspires against Caligula, 232.
- Christians, persecution under Nero, 248; under Trajan, 275; under Aurelius, 276; under Decius, 283.
- Christianity, unperceived growth of, 248; testimony of Pliny to, 275; misunderstanding concerning nature of, 276; becomes the religion of the empire, 285.
- Cicero the orator opposes Catiline, 135, 136; yields to Cæsar, 161; his orations against Antony, 180; is murdered in the proscriptions, 183.
- Cimbri threatens the empire, 108; victory at Arausio, *ib.*; destroyed by Marius, 109.
- Cincinnatus, story of, 26.
- Cinna, friend of Marius, 114.
- Claudius, emperor, made emperor by the soldiers, 233; his previous life, 234; habits of industry, 235; view of Claudius as presented to us within the palace, 237; his anger aroused against Messalina, 238; marries Agrippina, 239; is poisoned by her 240.
- Cleopatra, made queen by Cæsar, 162; meets Antony, 188; her power over him, 192, *seq.*; flies from the battle at Actium, 195; her death, 196.
- Clodius, 143.
- Cocles, Horatius, story of, 14.
- Colchester, foundation of, 235.
- Colline Gate, battle at the, 120.
- Cologne, foundation of, 235.
- Colosseum, the, 257, 263.
- Commodus, emperor, 277.
- Confederates, barbarian mercenaries employed by the Romans, 291.
- Constantine, emperor, vanquishes his rivals after the death of Diocletian, 284; founds Constantinople, and makes Christianity the religion of the State, 285.
- Constantinople, foundation of, 285.
- Consuls, first chosen, 21.
- Coriolanus, story of, 25.
- Cornelia, mother of the Gracchi, 98.
- Crassus defeats the gladiators, 128

- his wealth, 133; joins Pompey and Cæsar, 138; starts for the East, 140; expedition against the Parthians, *ib.*; miserable failure, defeat, and death, 141, *seq.*
- Curtius, Marcus, story of, 39.
- DEBT, Roman law of, 22.
- Decemvirs appointed, 29; their fall, *ib.*
- Decius, Roman general, devotes himself, 41.
- Decius, emperor, killed in a battle against the Goths, 281.
- Delators, 219, 264.
- Dictatorship, the, 27.
- Diocletian, emperor, restores the Roman power, 282; indifference to Rome, 283; his Eastern habits, *ib.*; divides the empire, *ib.*; abdicates, *ib.*
- Domitian, emperor, his cruelty, tyranny, and death, 264.
- Drusus, brother of Tiberius, his wars in Germany, and early death, 206, 207.
- Drusus, son of Germanicus and Agrippina, imprisoned, 222; starved to death, 224.
- ELAGABALUS, emperor, 278, 279.
- Etruscans, the, 32; wars with the Romans, 33, *seq.*
- FABIUS MAXIMUS, appointed dictator, 67; his cautious policy, 68, 69.
- Flaminius, Roman general, defeated and slain at Thrasymene, 67.
- GALBA, emperor, 255.
- Gallus, emperor, 281.
- Gallienus, emperor, 281, 282.
- Gaul, conquest of, 145, *seq.*; provinces of, 146.
- Gauls, first appearance of, 35; Rome destroyed by, 36, 37; character of, 146.
- Genseric, king of the Vandals, 288; sack of Rome by, 291; piracies, *ib.*
- Germanicus, son of Drusus, 209; expeditions in Germany, 214; recalled by Tiberius, 215; sent to the East, *ib.*; his death, 216.
- Geta, emperor, 278.
- Gladiators, 97; insurrection of, 127, 128.
- Gordians, the, 279.
- Gordian (the younger), emperor, 280.
- Goths, first invasion of, 281; their advance under Alaric, 286; sack Rome and occupy Italy, 287, 288; allied with the Romans, 288, 290.
- Gracchus, Tiberius, tribune, 98; agrarian law of, 99; is murdered, *ib.*
- Gracchus, Calus, tribune, 100; changes introduced by, *ib.*; his proposed colony, 101; he is murdered, 101, 102.
- HADRIAN, emperor, 268; his prudence and vigour, 268, *seq.*
- Hamilcar Barca in Sicily, 58; puts down the revolt of the mercenaries, *ib.*; he goes to Spain, *ib.*
- Hannibal, son of Hamilcar, chosen to command in Spain, 59; determines on war with Rome, 60; crosses the Alps, 61, *seq.*; his victories in Italy, 65, *seq.*; his expectations disappointed, 74, *seq.*; recalled to Africa, 81; defeated at Zama, 82; quits Carthage, 82; at the court of Antiochus, 85; his death, 86.
- Hasdrubal, brother of Hannibal, enters Italy, 78; is defeated and killed, 79.
- Hasdrubal, commander in the siege of Carthage, his cruelties, 93; his cowardice, 94.
- Helvetii defeated by Cæsar, 147.
- Heracleia, battle of, 44.
- Hirtius, Roman consul, killed in battle 181.
- Honorius, emperor, 286, *seq.*
- Horatii, story of the, 9.
- Huns, ravages of the, 289.
- IDES of March, the, 171, 172.
- Italy, the Romans masters of all, 42; becomes one nation, 48; sufferings during Hannibal's invasion, 68; the Roman empire reduced to the limits of, 291.
- Italians join with Pyrrhus, 44, *seq.*; war between Romans and, 111.
- JANUS, temple of, 8; shut by Augustus, 198.
- Jerusalem besieged and taken by Titus, 259, *seq.*; a Roman colony established on the site of, 268.
- Jews, favoured by Cæsar; their lamentations at his funeral, 177; fearful sufferings during the siege of Jerusalem, 260, *seq.*; last insurrection, 268.
- Juba, king of Numidia, allied with the republicans against Cæsar, 163.
- Jugurtha, prince of Numidia, 105; war with the Romans, 106; death, *ib.*
- Julia, daughter of Cæsar, married to Pompey, 138; her early death, 144.
- Julia, daughter of Augustus—his af-

- fection for her, 204; married to Marcellus, *ib.*; to Agrippa, *ib.*; and to Tiberius, 206; her dissipated conduct and exile, 208.
- Julian purchases the Roman empire put up to auction by the prætorians, 277.
- KINGS, power of the early, 17; their expulsion, 21.**
- LATINS, their fidelity during Hannibal's campaigns, 74.**
- Laws, early Roman, 17, 22.
- Legends, what are, 1; legends of early Rome, 2, *seq.*
- Lepidus joins with Antony and Octavius, 182; his insignificance, 186, 190.
- Licinian law, 31, 32.
- Licinus, rival of Constantine, defeated and put to death, 284.
- Livia, wife of Augustus, 203; her ambitious hopes often disappointed, 203, *seq.*; aids her son to secure the throne, 213; her death, 222.
- Livilla, wife of Drusus, son of Tiberius, 220; aids Sejanus to murder Drusus, *ib.*; her crime brought to light, 223.
- Lucius Cæsar, grandson of Augustus, 204, 208.
- Lucullus, Roman general, victory over Mithridates, 128; marches into Armenia, failure of his expedition, 128, 129.
- Luxury forbidden in early Rome, 47; increase of, 97; immense growth of, under the empire, 201.
- MACEDONIA, province of, 87.**
- Macedonian wars—*see* Philip, and Perseus.
- Macro employed by Tiberius against Sejanus, 223; his influence over Caius (Caligula), 225, 226; put to death by his order, 230.
- Macrinus, emperor, 278.
- Mæcenas, friend of Augustus, of Virgil, and of Horace, 190, 207.
- Mago, brother of Hannibal, enters Italy, 79, 80; recalled and dies on the way, 81.
- Mamertines, the, 52, 53.
- Manlius, Marcus, saves the Capitol, 37.
- Marcellus takes Syracuse, 75.
- Marcellus, son of Octavia, married to Julia, 204; his early death, *ib.*
- Marius, Caius, ends the Jugurthine war, 106; his early life and character, 107; is chosen consul, and commands against the Cimbri, 108; destroys the Cimbri and the Teutones, 109; disdained by the Roman nobility, 111; neglected and embittered, 111, 112; appointed by the people to supersede Sulla, 113; forced to fly from Rome, his strange adventures, 113, 114; his return, savage cruelties, and death, 115, 116.
- Marius, Caius (his son), defeated by Sulla, 120.
- Masinissa allies himself with the Romans, 80; encroachments on the Carthaginians secretly encouraged by the Romans, 89.
- Maxentius, rival of Constantine, defeated, 284.
- Maximin, emperor, 279.
- Maximus, emperor, 279, 280.
- Mercenaries, employed by the Etruscans, 32; by the Carthaginians, 51; war of the Carthaginians with the, 58; defence of Italy at the last entrusted to, 291.
- Messalina, empress, her infamous life and miserable death, 237, *seq.*
- Metaurus, battle on the, 79.
- Metellus commands in Sicily in the first Punic War, 56.
- Metellus, commander against Jugurtha, 106.
- Minucius, general under Fabius, 69, 70.
- Mithridates, king of Pontus, 117; his early life and character, *ib.*; declares war and orders a general massacre, 118; his generals defeated by Sulla, and peace concluded, 119; again declares war, 126; defeated by Lucullus, 128; finally conquered by Pompey, 130; flight and death, 131.
- NARCISSUS, freedman of Claudius, his unbounded influence, 235, *seq.***
- Navy, Romans build and equip, 54.
- Nero, emperor, early popularity, 243; poisons Britannicus, *ib.*; deceives and murders his mother, 245, 246; divorces Octavia, 246; marries Poppæa, exiles and murders Octavia, 246, 247; persecutes the Christians, 248; increases in baseness and cruelty, 249; visits Greece, 250; returns to Rome, and hears of murders and revolts, 250, 251; his extreme cowardice, flight, and miserable end, 251, 252.
- Nero, son of Agrippina and Germanicus, his exile and death, 222, 224.
- Nerva, emperor, 266.
- Nervii, terrible conflict with, defeated and destroyed by Cæsar, 149.

- New Carthage taken by Scipio, 77.
 Nile, battle on the, 163.
 Numidia—*see* Masinissa, Jugurtha, and Juba.
- OCTAVIA**, married to Antony, 189; is forsaken by him, 191; general sympathy and respect for her, 192; is divorced by Antony, 194.
Octavia, wife of Nero, 243; her sad life and early death, 246, 247.
Octavius appointed Cæsar's heir, 169; comes to Rome to claim his inheritance, 179; his prudent policy and success, 179, *seq.*; joins with Antony and Lepidus, 182; at Philippi, 184, 185; in Italy, 187; war with Antony averted, and a temporary reconciliation, 189, *seq.*; marries Livia, 190; wisdom and mildness of his rule in Rome, 193; war with Antony, 194; gains the battle of Actium, and becomes master of the Roman world, 195, *seq.*; his great power and extreme prudence, 198, *seq.*; establishes the empire, assuming the name of Augustus, 200, *seq.*—*see* Augustus.
- Odoacer**, the first barbarian king of Italy, 292.
Orestes, commander of the mercenaries, heads their rebellion, and makes his son Augustulus emperor, 292.
Otho, emperor, former companion of Nero, and husband of Poppæa, 244, 245, 255.
- PANSA**, Roman consul killed in battle, 181.
Parthians, unfortunate expedition of Crassus against, 140, *seq.*; acknowledge the power of Augustus, returning the standards of Crassus, 200; expedition and successes of Trajan against, 267.
Patricians of early Rome, 21, *seq.*; conflicts with the plebeians, 28, 31.
Patrons and clients, mutual relationship of, 21.
Pertinax, emperor, 277.
Persecution—*see* Christians.
Perseus, king of Macedon, defeated and a prisoner, 87.
Perusia, siege of, 187.
Pestilence, terrible, in the reign of Marcus Aurelius, 272.
Pharsalia, battle of, 160.
Philo the Jew, his account of a Jewish deputation to Caius Cæsar, 231, 232.
Philippi, battles of, 185.
- Phillip**, king of Macedon, fails to aid Hannibal, 83; his character and alliance with Antiochus, 83, 84; defeated by the Romans, 84.
Phillip the Arabian, emperor, 280.
Pindarus, freedman of Cassius, 185.
Piracy, Etruscan, 33; prevalence of, in the Mediterranean, 126, 129; crushed by Pompey, 130; of the Vandals under Genseric, 288, 291.
Piso sent into the East to thwart Germanicus, suspected of procuring his death, 215, 216; trial and death, 217.
Plancina, wife of Piso, 215, *seq.*
Plebeians of early Rome, 21, *seq.*; conflicts with the patricians, 28, 31.
Pliny, governor in Asia Minor; his letter to Trajan concerning the Christians, 275.
Plotina, wife of Trajan, 267.
Pompey, expedition into Africa, 121; rising power of, 125; appointed to command against Sertorius in Spain, 126; receives extraordinary powers and puts down piracy, 130; concludes the war with Mithridates, 130, 131; further progress in the East, 131; returns to Italy and disbands his army, 136; joins Cæsar and Crassus, and marries Julia, *ib.*; fails to preserve order in the city, 138, 139; ill-will and jealousy towards Cæsar, 144; hesitation and delay, 155; flight from Italy, 156, 157; defeated at Pharsalia, 160; flight to Egypt, and murder, 161.
Pompeius Sextus (son of Pompey) escapes from Thapsus, 166; defeated by Cæsar in Spain, 169; gains possession of the sea, 182; defeated by Agrippa, 189.
Poppæa Sabina, wife of Nero, her relentless cruelty, 245, 246; killed in a fit of anger by Nero, 249; receives divine honours by his command, *ib.*
Porsenna, king of the Etruscans, takes Rome, 33; story of, 14, 15.
Prætorians assembled within the city by Sejanus, 221; make emperors (Claudius), 233; (Nero), 241; (Otho), 255; put the empire up to auction, 277; after Aurelius they elect and as often murder the emperors, 277, *seq.*; defeated by Constantine, 284, and their camp finally abolished, *ib.*
Probus, emperor, 282.
Proscriptions of Sulla, 121; of the Second Triumvirate, 183.
Provinces, misrule and suffering in the, 97; Cæsar's ideas concerning,

- 153, 154 ; improvement in condition of, under Cæsar, 168, 177 ; prosperity under Augustus, 200, 201 ; under Tiberius, 218 ; and exemption from the sufferings inflicted by tyrants at Rome, 264 ; harassed by the barbarians, 281 ; finally occupied by the barbarians, 291.
- Prusias, Hannibal at the court of, 85.
- Ptolemy, brother of Cleopatra, king of Egypt, drowned in the Nile, 162, 163.
- Punic War, first, 52 ; second, 60 ; third, 90.
- Pydna, battle of, 87.
- Pyrrhus lands in Italy, 44 ; gains a victory at Heracleia, *ib.* ; his offers of peace refused, 45 ; finally defeated, quits Italy, 46 ; his death, *ib.*
- REGILLUS LAKE, story of, 15, 16.
- Regulus invades Africa, is defeated and taken prisoner, 55, 56.
- Rhea Sylvia, 3.
- Rhegium, revolt and punishment of the garrison of, 52.
- Ricimer, commander of the mercenaries, maker of emperors, 291, 292.
- Rome, story of the founding of, 5 ; head of Latium, 17 ; the city destroyed by the Gauls, 37 ; mistress of Italy, 48 ; enters on war with Carthage, 53, *seq.* (*see* Carthage, Hannibal) ; wars in the East, 83 (*see* Philip, Antiochus, and Perseus) ; state of, 95, *seq.* ; growing corruption in, 103, *seq.* ; Sulla marches on, 113 ; reign of terror in, 115 ; conspiracies in, 135 ; flight of Pompey from, and Cæsar master of, 156, *seq.* ; Octavius comes to, 179 ; splendour of the city under the empire, 201 ; tyranny of Tiberius in, 218, *seq.* ; misery suffered under tyrants, 231, 237, 249, &c. ; great fire at, 247 ; Trajan and Hadrian adorn, 267, 269 ; seat of empire removed from, 285 ; sack of, by Alaric, 287 ; by Genseric, 291.
- Romans, the early, 16, *seq.* ; a Roman farm-house, 18 ; family, 19 ; feasts and funerals, 19, 20.
- Romulus, story of, 2, *seq.*
- Rubicon, Cæsar crosses the, 156.
- SABINES, story of the, 6, 7.
- Samnites, wars with the, 40, *seq.*
- Sapor, king of Persia, defeats the Romans and takes prisoner the emperor Valerian, 281.
- Scævola, Mucius, story of, 14, 15.
- Scribonia, wife of Octavius, divorced by him, 190.
- Scipio defeated on the Ticinus by Hannibal, 65 ; goes to Spain, is defeated and killed, 77.
- Scipio (Africanus), his popularity, 77 ; takes New Carthage, *ib.* ; lands in Africa, 80 ; fires the Carthaginian camp, 81 ; defeats Hannibal, and concludes peace, 81, 82.
- Scipio (Africanus) besieges, takes, and destroys Carthage, 92, *seq.*
- Sejanus, favourite of Tiberius, 217 ; his ambition, crimes, and downfall, 219, *seq.*
- Sempronius defeated on the Trebia by Hannibal, 65, 66.
- Senate, the, in early Rome, 17 ; refuses peace with Pyrrhus, 45 ; conduct after Cannæ, 72, 73 ; cruelty towards Carthage, 90, *seq.* ; order the total destruction of, 94, 95 ; conflicts with the people (*see* Gracchus, Marius, Sulla) ; submits to Cæsar, 167 ; increased in number by him, 168 ; deference shown to, by Augustus, 199, *seq.* ; farce between Tiberius and, 213 ; abject servility of, under tyranny, 218, 231.
- Seneca murdered by Nero, 249.
- Sentinum, battle of, 41, 42.
- Sertorius, insurrection of, in Spain 125, *seq.*
- Servile wars, 104.
- Servius, Tullus, 12.
- Severus, Septimus, emperor, 278.
- Severus, Alexander, emperor, 279.
- Slavery, increase of, 96 ; slave trade 103.
- Spain, Hamilcar in, 59 ; Scipio in, 77 ; insurrection of Sertorius in, 125, *seq.* ; Cæsar in, 158.
- Spartacus, insurrection of, 127, 128.
- Stilicho, Roman general, defends Italy from Alaric, 286 ; assassinated, *ib.*
- Strato, follower of Brutus, 185.
- Sulla takes Jugurtha prisoner, 106 ; commands in the Italian war, 112 ; marches on Rome, 113 ; victories in the East, 118, 119 ; returns to Italy and defeats his enemies, 119, 120 ; victory at the Colline Gate, 120 ; becomes supreme, 121 ; proscriptions, *ib.* ; abdicates and retires into private life, 122 ; death and funeral, *ib.*
- Syphax, prince of Numidia, 80, 81.
- Syracuse, siege of, 75.

- FABLES, laws of the twelve, 29.**
Tarentines, character of, 42 ; outrage on Roman fleet, 43 ; call King Pyrrhus to their aid, 44.
Tarquinius, Priscus, 11.
Tarquinius, Superbus, 13.
Teutones, migrations of, 109 ; defeated and destroyed by Marius, *ib.*
Thapsus, battle of, 165.
Theodosius, emperor, 286.
Thrasea, murder of, 249.
Thrasymene, battle of, 67.
Tiberius, emperor, stepson of Augustus, 203 ; his character, 205 ; married to Julia, 206 ; retirement to Rhodes, 208 ; returns to Rome and is unwillingly adopted by Augustus, 209 ; succeeds Augustus, 213 ; scene between the Senate and Tiberius, *ib.* ; jealousy towards Germanicus, 215 ; trusts Sejanus, 217 ; revives and extends the law of treason, 218, 219 ; leaves Rome and retires to Capræ, 221 ; cruel treatment of Agrippina and her children, 222, 224 ; discovers the conspiracy of Sejanus and countermines him, 222, 223 ; gloom of his closing years, 225 ; sickness and death, 225, 226.
Tiberius, Gemellus, grandson of Tiberius, 224 ; put to death by Caligula, 230.
Ticinus, engagement on the, 65.
Tigranes, king of Armenia, submits to Pompey, 131.
Titus, emperor, besieges, takes, and destroys Jerusalem, 259, *seq.* ; associated with his father, 262 ; succeeds him, *ib.* ; his short reign and immense popularity, 262, 263.
Trebia, battle on the, 65.
Trajan, emperor, his popular government and warlike expeditions, 266, 267.
Treason, law of, 218, 219.
Tribunes of the people appointed, 23, 24.
Triumvirate, the first, 138 ; the second, 182, 183.
Tullus, Hostilius, 9.
UTICA, Cato at, 166.
VALERIUS, the dictator, 23.
Valerian, emperor, taken prisoner by Sapor, 281.
Valentinian, emperor, 291.
Varus defeated in Germany, 210, 211.
Varro chosen by the people to command against Hannibal, 70 ; insists on fighting at Cannæ, *ib.* ; escapes from the field of slaughter, 72 ; how received at Rome, 73.
Veli, siege of, 34, 35.
Vercellæ, battle of, 109.
Vercingetorix heads the Gauls against Cæsar, 152 ; his surrender and death 153.
Vespasian, emperor, his homely character and prudent government, 257.
Vesuvius, eruption of, 263.
Vipsania, wife of Tiberius, he is compelled to divorce her, 206.
Virginia, story of, 30, 31.
Vitellius, emperor, 255.
Volsei, wars with the, 24, *seq.*
ZAMA, battle of, 81, 82.
Zealots, Jewish sect of the, 258, 259.

THE END.



ARITHMETIC.

Currie's First Steps in Arithmetic	6d.
Currie's Shilling Arithmetic	1/0
Currie's Practical Arithmetic. Complete	1/6
Currie's Answers to Practical Arithmetic	1/0
Wilson's First Steps in Arithmetic	3d.
Laurie's Graduated Arithmetic. 6 Parts..... Each	1d.
Wilson's Arithmetical Primer	6d.
Wilson's Text-Book of Arithmetic	1/3
Wilson's Complete Mental Arithmetic	1/6
Text-Book of the Metric System	2d.
Chart of the Metric System	5/0

ALGEBRA.

Riches' Standard Algebra. 3 Parts, or 1 Vol.	10d.
Riches' School Algebra.....	1/6; Answers 1/0

FRENCH.

Michel's Easy French Grammar	1/0
Michel's Modern French Grammar	3/0
Revel's French Dialogues.....	1/0
French Dictionary. Leather	3/0

GERMAN.

Werner's First German Course	1/6
German Dictionary. Leather	3/0

LATIN.

Laurie's Easy Latin Grammar. In 3 Parts, or 1 Vol.	1/0
Paton's Junior Latin Reader	1/6

Laurie's Kensington Series.

WRITING.

Donaldson's MS. Wall Sheets, 19 by 26 inches ... each	6d.
Richson's Gallery Writing Models. 3 parts	each 2/0
Laurie's Set of Copy Books. 18 nos.	each 2d.

DRAWING.

Richson's Freehand for 1st Grade, 12 Nos.....	each 2d.
Richson's Diagrams and Instructions	2/0

REGISTERS.

Laurie's Pupil's Register of Progress	2d.
Daily Register of Attendance, Fees, School Work, and Merit	6d.
Daily Register and Summary for Infant Schools	2/0
Register of Admission	7/0
Laurie's Daily Class Register	6d.
Laurie's Sunday School Register	2d.
Laurie's Time Table on a New Plan	6d.

MAPS AND GLOBES.

Laurie's Large Wall Maps, 57 by 42 in., on rollers and varnished	each 10/6
Laurie's Set of Five Large Wall Maps, mounted	45/0
Laurie's Set of Ten Large Wall Maps.....	80/0
Laurie's Small Wall Maps, 33 by 26 in., mounted	5/0
Laurie's Set of Five Small Wall Maps.....	21/0
Laurie's Set of Ten Small Wall Maps.....	40/0
Laurie's Physical and Relief Maps	7/6
Laurie's Astronomical, Physical, and Political Atlas	8d.
Laurie's Terrestrial and Celestial Globes. 6 inch, 10/6; 12 inch, 51/6 ; 18 inches, 90/0.	
Laurie's Physical Relief Globe	40/0

OBJECT LESSONS.

Laurie's Infant School Diagrams, Pictures, Object Lessons, Clock Face with movable Hands, Scripture Prints, Form and Colour.	{See Lists.
--	-------------

PLEASE DO NOT REMOVE
CARDS OR SLIPS FROM THIS POCKET

UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO LIBRARY

DG
210
B4
1869

Berkley, E.
History of Rome

