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A MANUAL of ENGLISH GRAMMAR, Philosophical and Practical; with Exercises; adapted to the Analytical Mode of Tuition. For the Use of Schools, or of Private Students.

By the Rev. J. M. M'CULLOCH, A.M.,

MINISTER OF KELSO.

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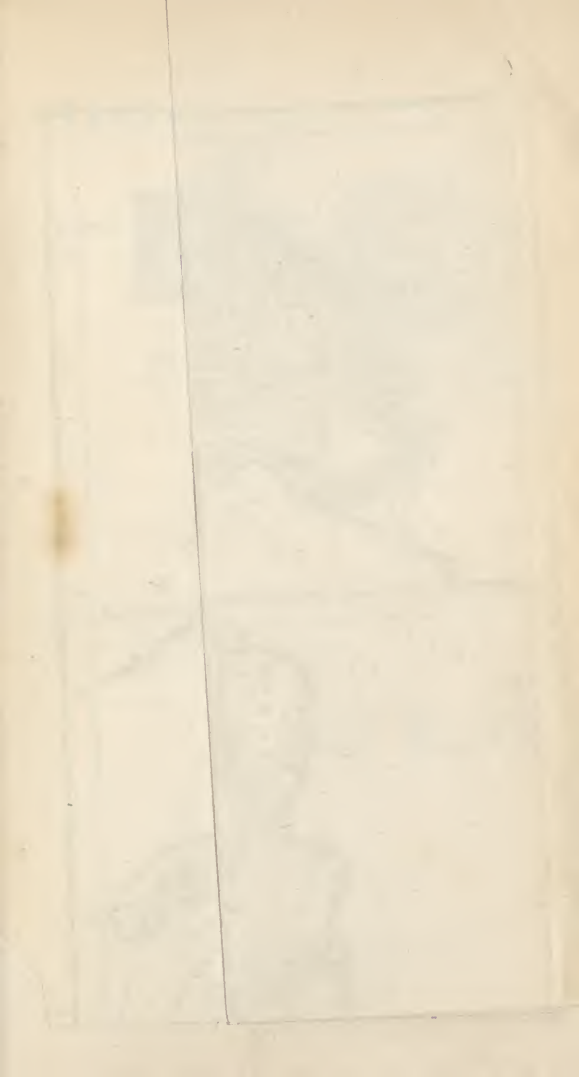
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DR GOLDSMITH'S
HISTORY OF ROME,
ABRIDGED :

WITH
QUESTIONS FOR EXAMINATION AT THE END OF EACH
SECTION ;

For the Use of Schools.

BY ROBERT SIMPSON,
AUTHOR OF THE HISTORY OF SCOTLAND, &c. &c.

TENTH EDITION,
CAREFULLY REVISED AND CORRECTED ;

TO WHICH ARE PREFIXED,
OUTLINES OF THE GEOGRAPHY OF ANCIENT ITALY,
AND
INTRODUCTORY CHAPTERS ON ROMAN ANTIQUITIES,

CONTAINING AN ACCOUNT OF THE
ORIGIN, PROGRESS, INSTITUTIONS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS,
GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND MILITARY AND NAVAL
AFFAIRS OF THE ROMANS.

WITH A MAP.

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1834.

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PREFACE TO THE SIXTH EDITION.

HISTORY has ever been regarded as one of the most useful and entertaining species of human knowledge in which youth should be instructed during the progress of their education. Happily for the literature of this country, Abridgments of the Histories of Greece, Rome, and England, have been written by the elegant pen of Dr Goldsmith, which have furnished our youthful scholars with a competent acquaintance with the principal events that have taken place among the most celebrated nations both in ancient and modern times.—Of these Abridgments, that of the Roman History has long been received as a popular school-book ; and this edition of it has been much improved, by revising the text, and correcting several inaccuracies which had been admitted into former editions. This edition is rendered still more valuable, by the subdivision of the chapters and sections into paragraphs, each containing some distinct facts, which are numerically marked, to correspond with the exercises at the end of each section. The exercises are all entirely new, and collected throughout from the facts or events contained in the work ; so that nothing is omitted, in the questions, which is found in the narrative ; and the young student may thus be taught a complete knowledge of Roman History.—For the purpose of giving the reader a competent knowledge of the origin, progress, institutions, manners, government, laws, &c. of the celebrated people whose history he is studying, introductory chapters on Roman Antiquities have been prefixed, which will be found a useful preparation for understanding the

narrative, and a valuable addition to the work itself.—That the student may derive the utmost advantage from this history, he should be directed to read every paragraph with the greatest attention, and fix in his memory the facts ~~or~~ events recorded in each; and by this means he will be easily enabled to answer the questions contained in the exercises, and acquire such an accurate acquaintance with Roman History, as shall both aid him in understanding classic authors, and be otherwise useful in future periods of his life.—As this edition of the History of Rome contains the improvements now enumerated, the Publishers flatter themselves that it will be deemed worthy of that approbation which the work, in its original state, has so long experienced from the public.

Edinburgh, January 1825.

NOTICE TO THE EIGHTH EDITION.

THE Publishers, in presenting another impression of this popular and useful school-book, beg to state, that this Edition has undergone a careful revision, many historical and chronological inaccuracies have been corrected, and the utility of the work has been increased by the addition of Outlines of the Ancient Geography of Italy, and a neatly-executed Map.

Edinburgh, January 1828.

NOTICE TO THE NINTH EDITION.

IN this edition the marginal dates have been greatly increased in number, and corrected according to the most authorized tables. A chronological view of the principal events has also been prefixed, which renders the work more useful to readers in general, and to classical students in particular.

Edinburgh, October 1830.

CHRONOLOGICAL VIEW

OF THE

LEADING EVENTS RECORDED IN THE HISTORY OF ROME.

B. C. denotes *before Christ*; Y. R. *year of Rome*; A. D. *Anno Domini*,
in the year of our Lord.

B. C.		Y. R.
1184	Arrival of Æneas in Italy.	
777	Numitor, king of Alba, supplanted by Amulius.	
754	Rome founded by Romulus on the Palatine Hill; Romulus first king; wars with the neighbouring states; the most formidable with the Sabines.	
717	Death of Romulus followed by an interregnum.	37
715	Accession of Numa Pompilius; a peaceful reign.	39
672	Tullus Hostilius third king; war with the Albans.	82
667	Combat between the Horatii and Curiatii; two years after, Alba destroyed, and the inhabitants transferred to Rome.	87
640	Ancus Martius fourth king; war with the Latins and other states; Ostia built.	114
617	Tarquinius Priscus fifth king; war with the Latins and Sabines; murdered by the sons of Ancus.	137
578	Servius Tullius sixth king; Census instituted; murdered.	176
534	Tarquinius Superbus seventh and last king; Gabii taken; capitol finished; Sibylline books purchased.	220
509	Tarquin with his family expelled, and monarchy abolished; consular form of government established.	245
507	Porsena, king of Clusium in Etruria, espouses the cause of the Tarquins.	247
498	Titus Lartius first Dictator at Rome.	256
493	Secession to Mons Sacer, and tribunes of the people created.	261
491	Trial of Coriolanus and Comitia Tributa instituted.	263
486	Spurius Cassius, aiming at supreme power, thrown down the Tarpeian Rock.	268
477	The Fabian family, having undertaken the war against Veii, cut off.	277
459	The Roman army, surrounded on Mount Algidus by the Æqui and Volsci, relieved by Cincinnatus.	295
452	Decemviri created, and laws of the Twelve Tables enacted.	302
449	The Decemviri, acting tyrannically, banished.	305
445	Law permitting intermarriages of Patricians and Plebeians.	309
440	Spurius Mælius, affecting sovereignty, put to death.	314
405	Veii besieged.	349
396	Veii captured, after a siege of ten years, by Camillus.	358
390	The Romans defeated at the Allia, and Rome burnt by the Galli Senones.	364
384	Marcus Manlius thrown from the Tarpeian Rock.	370
362	Curtius leaps into a gulf in the Forum.	392
343	War with the Samnites first begun.	411
338	The Latins finally reduced to the Roman yoke.	416
321	The Roman army surrounded by the Samnites in the Furculæ Caudinæ, and made to pass under the yoke.	433

B. C.	Y. R.
280 The Samnitic wars being successfully terminated, the Romans turn their arms against the Tarentines, who invite Pyrrhus, king of Epire, into Italy.	474
275 Pyrrhus, after having gained some hard-contested battles, at last defeated, and his camp taken.	479
266 The Romans, having reduced Italy, affect foreign conquests.	488
264 The first Punic War begun.	490
260 The Romans first successful by sea under Duillius.	494
255 Regulus, after important conquests, defeated, and taken prisoner by Xantippus, the Lacedæmonian.	499
241 The first Punic War terminated by a naval victory gained by the Romans under Lutatius Catulus.	513
228 The Illyrian pirates reduced.	526
222 Marcellus gains the <i>Spolia Opima</i> , by slaying the king of the Insubrian Gauls.	532
218 The second Punic War begun, and the Romans twice defeated by Hannibal.	536
217 Hannibal defeats the Romans a third time at the Thrasymene Lake.	537
216 Hannibal again defeats the Romans at Cannæ.	538
215 Hannibal receives his first check at Nola.	539
210 Syracuse captured by Marcellus, and Archimedes slain.	544
207 Hasdrubal, the brother of Hannibal, surprised and cut off in Umbria, at the Metaurus.	547
202 Hannibal defeated by Scipio at Zama, in Africa.	552
201 The second Punic War terminated.	553
197 Philip, king of Macedonia, defeated by Flaminius.	557
190 Antiochus, king of Syria, reduced by Scipio Asiaticus.	564
183 Hannibal kills himself by poison in Bithynia.	571
168 Perseus, king of Macedonia, defeated by Æmilius Paulus, and forced to surrender.	584
149 The third Punic War begun.	605
146 Destruction of Carthage and Corinth.	608
133 Numantia, in Spain, destroyed; Tiberius Gracchus slain.	621
121 Caius Gracchus, brother of Tiberius, slain.	633
111 War with Jugurtha, king of Numidia.	643
106 Jugurtha taken prisoner, and conveyed to Rome.	648
102-1 Marius defeats the Teutones and Cimbri.	652-3
90 Social War begun, and continued for two years.	664
88 War with Mithridates, king of Pontus.	666
87 Marius and Cinna enter Rome; (86, Marius dies.)	667
84 Sylla makes peace with Mithridates, and returns to oppose the Marian faction.	670
81 Sylla assumes the perpetual dictatorship.	673
78 Sylla, having abdicated the dictatorship, dies.	676
73 Sertorius, who had revived the Marian party in Spain, after baffling for some years the forces sent against him, assassinated by Perpenna.	681
66 Pompey terminates the war which had been renewed with Mithridates.	688
63 Catiline's conspiracy crushed by Cicero when consul.	691
60 The first Triumvirate formed.	694
58 Cæsar proceeds to the conquest of Gaul.	696
53 Crassus defeated and slain by the Parthians.	701
49 Cæsar crosses the Rubicon, and Pompey quits Rome.	705
48 Battle of Pharsalia; Pompey slain in Egypt.	706
46 Death of Cato at Utica.	708
45 Battle of Munda in Spain; Cæsar perpetual dictator.	709
44 Cæsar assassinated in the senate, March 15.	710
43 The second Triumvirate formed.	711
42 Battle of Philippi, and death of Brutus and Cassius.	712

B. C.	V. R.
40 Lucius Antonius surrenders to Augustus at Perusia.	714
39 Partition of the empire, and peace with Sextus Pompey.	715
36 War with Sextus Pompey, who is defeated by Agrippa.	718
34 Lepidus deprived of his authority, and banished.	720
32 War between Augustus and Antony.	722
31 Antony and Cleopatra defeated at Actium.	723
30 Death of Antony and Cleopatra.	724
29 Augustus sole master of the Roman empire.	725
27 Augustus, affecting to resign, is persuaded to retain his authority.	727
26 The Cantabrians in Spain reduced.	728
A. D.	
9 Quintilius Varus defeated in Germany.	762
14 Augustus dies at Nola.	767
Tiberius elevated to the imperial throne, proves an unrelenting tyrant; Germans defeated by Germanicus.	
37 Tiberius succeeded by Caligula, who proposes an expedition against the Germans and Britons.	790
41 Caligula, slain by Chærea, is succeeded by Claudius, who resumes the conquest of Britain.	794
50 The Roman armies successful in Britain.	803
54 Claudius, poisoned, is succeeded by Nero.	807
64 Rome destroyed by fire, and the Christians persecuted.	817
68 Nero kills himself, and is succeeded by Galba.	821
69 Galba slain; succeeded by Otho, who kills himself, and is succeeded by Vitellius; the capitol burnt; Vitellius slain.	822
— Vespasian succeeds; Jerusalem besieged by Titus.	—
70 Jerusalem taken and destroyed; the Jews dispersed.	823
79 Vespasian succeeded by his son Titus, who is styled the <i>Delight of Mankind</i> .	832
— First recorded eruption of Vesuvius, August 24.	—
81 Titus succeeded by Domitian, a vicious tyrant.	834
84 Agricola reduces South Britain, and discovers the Orkney Islands.	837
85 Unsuccessful wars with the Dacians.	838
96 Domitian slain, and succeeded by Nerva, first of the five good emperors; insurrection of the Prætorian guards.	849
98 Nerva succeeded by Trajan; wars with the Dacians.	851
107 Dacia reduced; severities against the Christians repressed by advice of Pliny; insurrection of the Jews.	860
117 Trajan succeeded by Adrian; irruptions of the northern hordes.	870
121 Wall built from the river Eden to the Tyne in the north of England; Jerusalem rebuilt; insurrection of the Jews, who are banished.	874
138 Adrian succeeded by Titus Antoninus, surnamed the Pious; learned men patronised.	891
161 Antoninus succeeded by Marcus Aurelius, who assumes Lucius Verus as his partner in the empire; wars in Germany, Britain, and the East.	914
165 Parthians reduced by Verus, who brings the plague into Italy; Christians persecuted.	918
169 Verus dies on his return from the expedition against the Marcomanni.	922
180 Aurelius succeeded by Commodus, a profligate prince.	933
192 Commodus assassinated, and succeeded by Pertinax.	945
193 Pertinax, murdered in a mutiny of the Prætorian guards, is succeeded by Didius, a lawyer, who is slain, and succeeded the same year by Severus.	946
199 Severus is successful in his wars against the Parthians.	952
211 Severus, dying at York, is succeeded by his son Caracalla, who murders his brother Geta.	964

A. D.	Y. R.
217 Caracalla assassinated, and succeeded by Macrinus.	970
218 Macrinus slain, and succeeded by the effeminate and extravagant Heliogabalus.	971
222 Heliogabalus, murdered by his soldiers, is succeeded by Alexander, a virtuous prince; inroads of the northern nations.	975
235 Alexander, slain in a mutiny, is succeeded by Maximin, a monster of cruelty; Germans defeated.	988
238 Maximin slain, and succeeded by Pupienus Maximus and Balbinus, who are put to death by the Prætorian troops, and Gordian elevated.	991
244 Gordian assassinated, and succeeded by Philip.	997
249 Philip slain by a sentinel, and succeeded by Decius; incursions of the Goths.	1002
251 Decius killed in an ambuscade, and succeeded by Gallus, who purchases a peace from the Goths.	1004
253 Gallus slain in battle, and succeeded by Valerian, who attempts reformation.	1006
257 Valerian taken prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia, and treated with great indignity.	1010
260 Valerian put to death, and succeeded by his son Gallienus; Thirty Tyrants.	1013
268 Gallienus slain by his own soldiers, and succeeded by Flavius Claudius, a man of merit; wars with the Goths.	1021
270 Claudius, dying, is succeeded by Aurelian; Zenobia defeated, and Palmyra destroyed.	1023
275 Aurelian cut off in a conspiracy; Tacitus, a man of great merit, succeeds, and dies after a short reign.	1028
276 Probus raised to the imperial throne; irruptions of barbarians.	1029
282 Probus slain in a mutiny, and succeeded by Carus, who dies by lightning.	1035
283 Numerian succeeds Carus, and is slain by Aper.	1036
284 Dioclesian, chosen emperor, associates Maximian; irruption of the Northern Hive.	1037
305 Dioclesian and Maximian, retiring into private life, are succeeded by Constantius Chlorus and Gallorius, the former virtuous, the latter brutal and cruel; empire divided.	1058
306 Constantius, dying in Britain, is succeeded by his son, Constantine the Great.	1059
312 Constantine professes Christianity.	1065
313 Maximin, who commanded in the East, a great enemy of the Christians, dies of madness.	1066
324 Licinius, successor of Galerius, defeated, and, after some time, put to death by order of Constantine.	1077
325 First Christian council convened at Nice, in Bithynia.	1078
330 Seat of empire transferred to Constantinople.	1083
337 Constantine dies a baptized Christian, and leaves the empire to his three sons.	1090
361 Constantius, the surviving son of Constantine, dying, is succeeded by Julian the Apostate.	1114
363 Julian cut off in war with the Persians, and succeeded by Jovian, who reigned one year.	1116
378 Valens, successor of Jovian, in the East, cut off by the Goths.	1131
379 Theodosius, by his valour, retards the downfall of the empire.	1132
410 Rome taken in the reign of Honorius by Alaric, king of the Goths, and plundered for three days.	1163
455 Rome in possession of Genseric, king of the Vandals.	1208
476 Abdication of Augustulus, and dissolution of the empire—Odoacer, leader of the Heruli, assuming the title of king of Italy.	1229

EXTENT OF THE EMPIRE

AT

DIFFERENT PERIODS,

WITH

OUTLINES OF THE GEOGRAPHY OF ANCIENT
ITALY.

The numbers in the following Geographical Outlines denote the page where the event is described, or the place alluded to.

THE vast empire, which we are about to follow through its various vicissitudes from its rise to its final extinction, comprehended at first only the city of Rome, with such a portion of the territory around it as was necessary for the maintenance of its scanty population, which amounted to little more than three thousand men able to bear arms. Even at the time of the abolition of monarchy, which existed, if we may credit the ordinary chronological accounts, upwards of two hundred and forty years, the limits of the commonwealth did not exceed a circuit of fifteen miles, although the Romans, in their successful struggles with their jealous neighbours, had tempted or compelled many of them to remove to Rome, and had extended the terror of their arms or the influence of their name over the greater part of Latium. During the next two hundred and forty years, after maintaining many arduous and doubtful conflicts with the different states of Italy, the Roman people at last acquired an uncontested ascendancy in Italy Proper, by the expulsion of Pyrrhus, and the reduction of his feeble and effeminate allies, the Tarentines. The third period of two hundred and forty years saw the dominion of Rome extend itself over the fairest portion of the known world, with Augustus its undisputed master; at whose death the empire

comprehended all the countries between the Atlantic Ocean on the west, the Euphrates on the east, the Danube and the Rhine on the north, and the cataracts of the Nile, with the deserts of Africa and Mount Atlas, on the south. Britain, as far as the Tay, was afterwards reduced by Agricola in the reign of Domitian; and Trajan ventured to enlarge the frontier on the north by subduing Dacia, and on the east by adding Mesopotamia and Armenia to the empire. But Trajan's conquests were prudently relinquished by his successor, and the Danube and the Euphrates again established as the frontier.

Of this large and powerful dominion, the most interesting portion to the reader of Roman history is Italy, which was known to the ancients by the names of *Ænotria*, *Ausonia*, *Hesperia*, and, lastly, *Italia*.

Italy is bounded on the north and north-west by the Alps, on the east and south by the Hadriatic and Ionian seas, and on the west by the Tuscan sea. The other great chain of mountains connected with Italy, besides *Alpes*, the Alps, is *Apenninus*, the Apennines, stretching from the Maritime Alps, near the frontiers of France, through the whole length of Italy to the Straits of Messina.

Italy anciently comprehended the two great divisions of *Gallia Cisalpina*, *Citerior*, or *Togata*, and *Italia Propria*; the former including all the country from the Alps to the small river Macra, which falls into the Tuscan sea at the south-east extremity of the Gulf of Genoa, and the Rubicon, which falls into the Hadriatic; the latter comprising the whole of the Peninsula south of these rivers. The southern part of *Italia Propria*, from the number of Greek settlements established along the coast, was also known by the name of *Magna Græcia*.

GALLIA CISALPINA was subdivided into the states of the *Taurini*, *Salassi*, *Insubres*, *Cenomani*, *Euganei*, *Veneti*, *Carni*, and *Istria*, north of the Po; and *Liguria*, *Boii*, and *Lingones*, south of that river. The principal river in this division is *Padus* or *Eridanus*, the Po, rising in *Mons Vesulus*, Viso, the northern point of the Maritime Alps, and flowing eastward to the Hadriatic. Among its numerous tributaries on the north is the *Ticinus*, Ticino (126), where Hannibal first encountered the Roman arms; and on the south, *Trebia*, Trebbia (126), where he engaged and defeated them a second time, and *Rhenus*, Rheno (187), where, on a small island,

Augustus, Antony, and Lepidus, formed the confederacy usually termed the Second Triumvirate.

The most noted towns on the north of the Po are *Cremona* (197, 242), and eastward, *Bedriacum* (242), where the emperor Otho was defeated by Valens and Cæcina, the generals of Vitellius; near it *Castoris Templum* (242), where an indecisive battle was fought between the same parties. On the *Mincius*, Mincio, a tributary of the Po, *Mantua* (197), which suffered along with Cremona during the civil wars in the second Triumvirate, and near it *Andes*, the village where Virgil was born. On the *Athesis*, Adige, which falls into the Hadriatic north of the Po, *Tridentum*, Trent, famous for its ecclesiastical council, and *Verona*, for the ruins of an amphitheatre. On the *Medoacus Minor*, Bacchiglione, another independent stream, *Patavium*, Padua, the birthplace of the historian Livy; and at the head of the Hadriatic, *Aquileia* (268), where Aurelius defeated the Marcommani, taken by Attila, king of the Huns, after an obstinate defence, A. D. 452.

On the south of the Po, at the confluence of the Trebia, is *Placentia*, Piacenza (242), a Roman colony; and at a little distance from the Po, *Mutina*, Modena (187), where Decimus Brutus, when besieged by Antony, was relieved by the consuls Hirtius and Pansa, supported by young Octavius; near the coast, *Ravenna* (199, 295), in the midst of marshes, the residence of the emperor Honorius, when Italy was overrun by the armies of the Gothic monarch Alaric. At Ravenna, Augustus had a fleet stationed for the security of Italy on the eastern side.

ITALIA PROPRIA was subdivided into *Etruria*, *Umbria*, *Picenum*, *Latium*, *Campania*, *Samnium*, *Apulia*, *Calabria*, *Lucania*, and *Bruttii*.

ETRURIA extended along the Tuscan sea from *Macra*, Magra, to the *Tiberis*, formerly called *Albula*, Tiber, the principal river of the Peninsula, and was anciently divided into twelve states, the rulers of which were called Lucumones. Its towns were *Pistoria*, Pistoja (154), towards the Apennines, where Catiline was defeated and slain; near the mouth of the *Arnus*, Arno, *Pisæ*, Pisa, founded by a colony from Pisa in Peloponnesus. On the *Clanis*, Chiana, a tributary of the Tiber, *Clusium*, Chiusi (78, 102), the city of Porsena; between the Clanis and the Tiber, *Cortona*, one of the principal cities in Etruria; and *Perusia*, Perugia (197), where Lucius Antonius, the brother of Mark Antony, was reduced by

12 OUTLINES OF THE GEOGRAPHY OF ITALY.

famine to surrender to Augustus; near these towns, *Lacus Thrasimenus*, lake of Perugia (126) where the Romans sustained the third overthrow from Hannibal; southward, *Falerii* (100), whose inhabitants, Falisci, surrendered to Camillus; and west of it, near the coast, *Tarquinius* (67), the native city of Tarquinius Priscus, of which he was Lucumon, or prince, before his removal to Rome; on the coast, *Cære*, Cerveteri (76), the inhabitants of which enjoyed particular privileges at Rome; thither the Tarquins retired on their expulsion. Near the *Cremera* (86), a small tributary of the Tiber, where the Fabii were cut off, *Veii* (100), a powerful city, reduced by Camillus after a siege of ten years. Off the coast is the island *Ilva* or *Æthalia*, Elba, famed in ancient times for its mines, and recently as the residence of Napoleon Buonaparte in 1814-15.

UMBRIA extended along the Hadriatic from the *Rubicon*, Fiumesino (159), to the *Æsis*, Esino. On the coast were the towns of *Ariminum*, Rimini (159), taken by Cæsar after crossing the Rubicon; and *Sena* or *Senogallia*, Sinigaglia, built by the Galli Senones. Between these towns was the *Metaurus*, Metro (130), on whose banks Asdrubal, the brother of Hannibal, was surprised and slain by the consuls Livius and Nero. Inland is the town of *Spoletium*, Spoleto, whence Hannibal was repulsed after the battle of Thrasimene, an event pompously commemorated by an inscription on one of its gates still called *Porta di Fuga*.

PICENUM, including the small but warlike tribes *Prætutii*, *Vestini*, *Peligni*, *Marsi*, *Marrucini*, and *Frentani*, extended along the Hadriatic from Umbria to the *Tifernus*, Biferno. In this district the most important place was *Ancona*, founded by the Greeks, and deriving its name from the angular or elbow-like figure of the coast on which it is situated. The capital of the Peligni was *Corfinium* or *Italica*, San-ferino (145, 161), the headquarters of the confederates in the Social War.

LATIUM was anciently inhabited by the *Æqui*, *Hernici*, *Rutuli*, *Volsci*, *Ausones*, *Osci*, and other tribes, and extended along the Tuscan sea from Etruria to the *Liris*, Garigliano; but the limits on the south are not exactly defined. The principal town was ROMA, Rome (59), on the Tiber, founded by Romulus, before Christ 754. At a considerable distance northward, on the *Anio*, Teverone (81), which joins the Tiber a little way above Rome, *Tibur*, Tivoli, in whose neighbourhood are the ruins of many splendid villas; east from Rome,

near the *Lacus Regillus*, where Posthumius the dictator defeated a powerful confederacy of the Latins, *Gabii* (72), taken by Tarquinius Superbus through the artifice of his son Sextus; and farther east, *Præneste*, Palestrina (149), where the younger Marius was besieged and slain by Sylla; south from *Gabii*, *Tusculum*, *Frescati*, near which Mount *Algidus* (87), where Cincinnatus relieved the Roman army from blockade; at the foot of the Alban mount, *Alba Longa*, built by Ascanius, the son of Æneas, and the residence of his successors till the founding of Rome; at the mouth of the Tiber, *Ostia* (67), the port of Rome; along the coast, *Laurentum*, the city of Latinus, the father-in-law of Æneas; *Lavinium* (57), built by Æneas, and named in honour of his wife; *Ardea* (102), the capital of the Rutuli, and city of Turnus, the rival of Æneas, famous as the retreat of Camillus, when banished by his ungrateful countrymen; *Antium*, a naval station of the Volsci, conquered by the Romans, who suspended the beaks of the captured ships in that part of the Forum called from them *Rostra*; northward, a little way inland, *Corioli* (83), a city of the Volsci, taken by the gallantry of Caius Marcius; farther on along the coast, *Formiæ*, famous for its wine, near which was Cicero's villa *Formianum* (187), where he was assassinated by the order of Antony. On the Liris, *Arpinum* (144), the birthplace of Marius and Cicero; and at the mouth, *Minturnæ* (147), near which, in a marsh, Marius concealed himself when he fled from Sylla; beyond the Liris, *Sinuessa*, the neighbourhood of which produced the Massic and Falernian wines.

In the Sabine country, south of the Anio, *Antemnæ* (61), and *Collatia*, the latter the residence of Tarquinius Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia; beyond the Anio, three miles from Rome, *Mons Sacer* (81), to which the plebeians retired when oppressed by the nobles; on the Tiber, *Fidenæ* (62), and north from it, *Crustumium* and *Cænina* (61), all conquered by Romulus; north from the *Allia* (103), a small stream which joins the Tiber, famous for the defeat of the Romans by the Galli Senones, *Cures* (61), the city of Tattius and Numa Pompilius, whence the Romans derived the civic name of Quirites.

CAMPANIA, including the *Picentini*, extended along the Tuscan sea from Latium to the *Silarus*, Silaro, and had for its capital the luxurious city of *Capua* (108, 129), situated in a beautiful plain a little way south of the *Vulturnus*, *Voltur-*
no; on that river, *Casilinum*, bravely defended by a small

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body of Prænestine soldiers against Hannibal, who, in admiration of their valour, gave them their lives. On the coast, *Lilernum*, where Scipio Africanus died in exile; *Cumæ*, the residence of the Sibyl (73), founded by a colony from Chalcis in Eubœa; and round the point called Misenum, the principal station of the Roman fleet in the Tuscan sea during the reign of Augustus, *Baiæ*, a noted watering-place, near which the lakes *Lucrinus* and *Avernus*, formed by Augustus into a harbour called *Julius Portus*. At the head of the *Sinus Puteolanus*, Bay of Naples, *Parthenope* or *Neapolis*, Naples; a few miles from which is the volcano *Vesuvius*; along the bay, *Herculaneum* and *Pompeii* (249), destroyed by an eruption of *Vesuvius*, A. D. 79; inland, near the source of the *Clanlus*, *Lagnio*, *Nola* (130, 219), where Hannibal sustained the first check to his victorious career in Italy, and where Augustus died. At a little distance from the coast is the island *Pandataria* (218), to which Julia, the daughter of Augustus, was banished by her father for her excesses; and off the point which forms the southern limit of the Bay of Naples, *Capræ*, *Capri* (222), the retreat of the emperor *Tiberius* in the last years of his reign.

SAMNIUM, situated on the east of *Latium* and *Campania*, was altogether an inland district, lying for the most part among the *Apennines*; connected with it on the south were the *Hirpini*. The chief town was *Beneventum*, *Benevento*, situated between the *Sabatus* and *Calor*, two small streams which unite their waters below the city, and soon after fall into the *Vulturnus*; southward, *Caudium*, where the Romans being enclosed in a defile called *Furculæ Caudinæ* (112), were compelled by the *Samnites* to pass under the yoke.

APULIA, divided into *Daunia* and *Peucetia*, extended along the *Hadriatic* from the *Tifernus* to the town of *Egnatia* or *Gnatia*, on the frontiers of *Calabria*. Its chief city was *Argos Hippium*, *Argyripe*, or *Arpi*, at some distance from the coast, built by *Diomedes*, who settled in this part of Italy after the *Trojan war*; and westward, *Luceria* (112). On the *Aufidus*, *Ofanto*, stood the village of *Cannæ* (128), where the Romans, under *Æmilius Paulus* and *Terentius Varro*, sustained their fourth and greatest defeat from *Hannibal*; a few miles farther up, *Canusium*, to which the wreck of the Roman army fled after the battle; westward, a little way to the north of the river, *Asculum*, *Ascoli* (115), where a bloody battle was fought with *Pyrrhus*; near mount *Vultur*, on the

confines of Lucania, *Venusia*, Venosa, where Horace was born.

CALABRIA, called also *Messapia* and *Japygia*, including the *Salentini Campi*, extended from Egnatia on the Hadriatic, and the *Bradanus* falling into the *Sinus Tarentinus*, Gulf of Taranto, to the south-east extremity of the Peninsula. The chief town on the Hadriatic was *Brundusium*, Brindisi (162), colonized from Crete, with an excellent harbour, whence those who sailed for Greece usually crossed. On the north-east corner of its gulf, *Tarentum*, Taranto (113), an opulent city, founded or revived by a colony of Lacedæmonians, under Phalantus, and noted in the wars with Pyrrhus and Hannibal.

LUCANIA extended from the Silarus to the *Laüs* on the Tuscan Sea, and from the *Bradanus* to the *Sybaris* on the Gulf of Taranto. The towns on the Tuscan Sea were *Pæstum* or *Posidonia*, of which some striking ruins still exist, and southward *Velia* or *Elea*, founded by a part of the same colony from Phocæa which built Marseilles. On the Gulf of Taranto, immediately south of the *Bradanus*, *Metapontum*, said to have been founded by the Pylians under Nestor, after the destruction of Troy, and the residence of Pythagoras during the last years of his life; *Heraclea*, where the deputies of the Greek states in Italy used to assemble; on the confines of the *Bruttii*, *Sybaris*, one the most ancient of the Greek settlements in Italy, whose inhabitants were proverbial for their effeminacy; it was afterwards called *Thurii*.

BRUTTII extended from the *Laüs* and *Sybaris* to the Straits of Messina. Of this district the chief city was *Consentia*, *Cosenza*; on the Straits, *Rhegium*, *Reggio*, said to have been so named from the disjunction of Sicily from the continent by an earthquake; on the Ionian Sea, *Locri*, founded by the *Locri Ozolæ* in Greece, and noted in the wars with Pyrrhus and the Carthaginians; north, *Croton*, the city of Milo, the most celebrated *athleta* of antiquity; *Petilia*, built by Philoctetes, the Thessalian, after the Trojan war, and memorable for the fidelity of its inhabitants to the Romans in the second Punic War, who were only constrained by famine to submit to Hannibal. Near this place the consul Marcellus was cut off by ambuscade.

The principal island connected with Italy is *Sicilia* or *Sicania*, Sicily, called also from its triangular shape, *Trinacria* and

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Triquetra. It lies at the south-west extremity of Italy, from which it is separated by *Fretum Siculum*, the Straits of Messina, only two miles broad. Its principal cities were *Zancle* or *Messana*, Messina (118), on the Straits, colonized from Messenia in Peloponnesus; seized during the contests between the Carthaginians and the Sicilian States by the Mamertines, whose appeal to the Romans for aid was the cause of the first Punic War. On the east coast, *Syracusæ*, Syracuse (130), the ancient capital of the island, and native city of Archimedes, taken by the Romans, under Marcellus, after a siege of three years; on the south coast, west of the river Himera, which was the boundary between the Carthaginians and the Syracusan tyrants, *Acragas* or *Agrigentum*, Girgenti (120), the second city in the island; on the west coast, *Drepanum*, Trapani, and *Eryx*, which Hamilcar, the Carthaginian general, was obliged to evacuate after the naval victory gained by the Romans near the islands *Ægates*; on the north coast, *Panormus*, Palermo, the modern capital, so called from the excellence of its harbour, and *Himera*, destroyed by the Carthaginians in the first Punic War. On the east side of the island is the celebrated burning mountain *Ætna*.

Off the west coast of Sicily, are the islands *Ægates* (122), near which Lutatius Catulus, by defeating the Carthaginians in a naval engagement, terminated the first Punic War.

INTRODUCTION

TO THE

HISTORY OF ROME.

CHAP. I.

The Foundation, Divisions, and Public Buildings of Rome.

1. As the Roman history contains so many allusions to the antiquities of the illustrious people, whose origin and progress it is intended to describe,—hence an account of their institutions and government, their religion and laws, their manners and customs, becomes necessary for understanding that history, and reading it with advantage. To supply, in some measure, this *desideratum* to the youthful reader, the following abstract of Roman antiquities has been compiled ; and it will be found to contain, in a short compass, the most important facts connected with the subject.—As the city of Rome is so frequently mentioned in the subsequent history, and as many of its edifices are particularly specified, it is proper to begin with a short description of that celebrated place, which was the largest and most populous of all antiquity, and, for a long period, the capital of the civilized world. The foundation of Rome was laid by Romulus, about 753 years before the Christian era ; and the city contained at first only about a thousand houses, the circumference of which measured nearly a mile. It was built on seven hills, viz.—the Palatine, Capitoline, Aventine, Quirinal, Cælian, Viminal, and Esquiline ; but afterwards three other hills, the Janiculum, Vatican, and Collis Hortulorum, were included within the walls of the city.—Rome, when first built, was divided into three wards, each containing ten subdivisions ; but Augustus made a new division of the city into fourteen wards, which continued until the destruction of the empire. There were at first only four principal gates in the walls of ancient Rome ; but the number was increased from time to time, till they amounted to thirty-four,—the chief of which were the Flaminian, Quirinal, Viminal, Esquiline, and Triumphal. This city became so extensive from additional buildings, that its walls, in the time of Aurelian, measured fifty miles in circumference, and its population was computed to amount to four millions.

2. The public edifices of ancient Rome were very numerous ;

but the most celebrated of those mentioned by Roman authors were the following :—The *capitol*, built by Tarquinius Superbus, on the Capitoline hill, was the most magnificent structure in this renowned city, and strongly fortified both by art and nature. It was of a square form, about 200 feet in length and breadth, and contained several temples, the chief of which were those of Jupiter, Juno, and Minerva. The *Pantheon*, founded by Marcus Agrippa, and dedicated to all the gods, still exists, and, from its circular shape, is called the Rotunda. It is about 150 feet in height and breadth ; the inside of its walls is built of marble, the roof finely decorated, and it is now converted into a Christian church. The temple of *Apollo* was a noble building, erected by Augustus for containing a public library, and stood on the Palatine hill ; though no remains of it are now to be seen. Here authors, particularly poets, used to recite their compositions in the presence of select judges, who passed sentence on their merits. The temple of *Janus*, founded by Numa, had two brazen gates, which were open in time of war, and shut in time of peace. The temple of *Saturn* contained the public treasury, records, &c. ; but of this and many others no vestiges remain.—Next in importance to the temples were the *theatres* of ancient Rome, many of which were built in a style of great magnificence, and capable of containing from 40,000 to 80,000 spectators. These edifices were semicircular, having seats rising one above another from the stage backwards ; the foremost of which were allotted for the *senators*, those behind for the *equites*, and the rest for the people. The other divisions of the theatres were the *scena*, a partition ornamented with columns, and drawings of various objects ; the *postscenium*, where the actors dressed themselves ; and the *proscenium*, or stage, where they performed their parts.—The *amphitheatres* were buildings of an oval shape, erected for the exhibition of public shows ; the largest of which was that founded by Vespasian, and capable of holding 87,000 spectators. It is now known by the name of *Coliseum*. In the middle of the amphitheatres was a space called the *arena*, where the gladiators and wild beasts fought for the diversion of the people. Round the arena, rows of seats extended to the extremity of the building ; the foremost of which, as in the theatres, were occupied by the magistrates and senators, and the rest by the equites and other classes of the citizens.—The *circi* were large buildings, constructed for the purpose of exhibiting chariot-races, and certain games for the amusement of the public. The most celebrated of these was the *Circus Maximus*, built by Tarquinius Priscus, of a circular form, and extending four furlongs and a half in length,

by one in breadth. A more minute description of it, and of the contests there exhibited, will be found in the chapter on the games and public amusements of the Romans.—The *Campus Martius*, or field of Mars, was an extensive plain on the banks of the Tiber, where the young Roman nobility exercised themselves in athletic sports, where races were run, and wrestlers performed sundry feats of dexterity.—The *Forum* was a large area in the upper part of the city, where the people assembled at their public meetings, the chief magistrates administered justice, and the principal business of the citizens was transacted.

3. Besides these edifices now mentioned, there were other buildings erected by great men; some of which were merely ornamental, while there were also public works, of great utility to the city and to the empire. The *porticoes* were splendid structures, supported by pillars, and arched on the top, under which the courts of justice were sometimes held; though they were chiefly useful as places where jewellers and other dealers exposed their wares to sale, and as convenient promenades for the inhabitants. The *columns* erected in different parts of Rome added much to its magnificent appearance; the most remarkable of which were those of Trajan and Antoninus, the former being composed of marble, 128 feet high, and 12 in diameter; the latter 176 feet in height, though greatly inferior in point of materials and execution. These columns still remain, with statues of St Peter and St Paul on their tops.—The *public baths* of ancient Rome were of large extent, and must have been constructed at vast expense. Those of Dioclesian and Caracalla, which are still to be seen, show, by their arches, pillars, and apartments, the refined state of architecture among the Romans, the wealth which they possessed, and the profusion of their great men in the erection of public buildings.—The *aqueducts* were among the most useful works of the Romans, as they were constructed for supplying the city with water. They must have cost immense sums of money, having been conveyed through rocks and mountains, and supported by arches over deep valleys, for more than sixty miles.—The *cloacæ*, or public sewers, were excavated and arched over under various parts of the city, for carrying off the dirty water thrown out by the inhabitants. There were openings from above for receiving what was poured into them; and the different sewers united into one, called the *cloaca maxima*, which conveyed the whole into the river Tiber.—The *public roads*, constructed by the Romans, vestiges of which still remain in various parts of the world, afford abundant proof of the skill and industry of that extraordinary people. These

roads extended throughout every part of the empire, even over the highest districts, and were so constructed as to command a prospect of the adjacent country. The provincial roads were generally paved with stones, though sometimes only covered with gravel, with a footpath at the sides; but those near the city were composed of three strata of stones, gravel, and flint, so firmly compacted that several portions of them still remain entire.

EXERCISES.

1. Of what peculiar use is a knowledge of Roman antiquities? When was the city of Rome founded? On how many hills was it built, and what were their names? How many divisions and gates did it contain? What was its circumference and population?

2. What were the most remarkable temples of ancient Rome? How were the theatres and amphitheatres constructed? What was the use of the *circi*, *campus martius*, and *forum*?

3. What description is given of the porticoes, columns, and public baths? What sort of structures were the *cloacæ* and aqueducts of ancient Rome? How did the Romans make their public roads?

CHAP. II.

Different Classes of Society among the Romans.

1. WHEN the inhabitants of Rome began to multiply, Romulus, its founder, divided them into several classes, according to their rank and influence in the state. Each of these he distinguished by particular names, and assigned them certain duties to perform in their different capacities. The highest order of citizens were called *Patricians*, from the paternal care they were expected to exercise over the community, and as the supreme council of state was chosen out of their body. This council was denominated the *senate*, its members were styled *senators*, and their office was to decide in the most important matters respecting the administration of public affairs. On the first institution of the senate, its members consisted only of 100, but when the Sabines received the privileges of Roman citizens, 100 more were chosen from among them; and Tarquinius Priscus also introduced 100 of *Plebeian* rank into the supreme council. At subsequent periods, the number of senators was greatly increased, till Augustus reduced them to 600, which continued, with little variation, during the succeeding ages of the empire. The senators were at first chosen by the kings, and afterwards by the *consuls* or *military tribunes*; till the *censors* were invested with the power of election, which they exercised as long as the commonwealth existed; but the emperors conferred that honour indiscriminately on any of their favourites. The quali-

fications for admission into the senate were, that the candidates should have exercised some office, or performed some signal service to the state; and though at first the fortune of senators was not great, yet, at a subsequent period, none could be elected, unless they possessed money or property to the amount of nearly £7000 sterling. For preserving the respectability of senators, the censors took an account of their conduct every fifth year, and, on finding that any of them had degraded his character, or diminished his fortune below what was requisite to support his dignity, they struck out his name from the list of those who composed that body. The senators wore a particular dress to distinguish them from the rest of the citizens, and had certain places assigned them at public entertainments and on other occasions. The senate was assembled by order of the chief magistrate in some temple consecrated for that purpose; and their meetings were generally held thrice a-month, though Augustus afterwards enacted, that they should meet only in the beginning and middle of it. Before the senate convened, the *aruspices* were ordered to be consulted, and sacrifices, with other religious rites, were offered to the god of the temple where they intended to assemble. When the house met, the presiding magistrate always proposed the business for discussion; and each senator was called on to deliver his opinion, beginning with the member whose name stood first in the censor's books, called *princeps senatus*, unless there were consuls *elect*, who were always asked first; after which they divided, and the majority of votes being thus ascertained, a decree was accordingly passed. Sometimes, however, the *tribunes* of the people refused their assent to the decree, and the business was delayed to another meeting, when it was again discussed, and either negatived or confirmed. The senate possessed very different degrees of power at various periods; for, at first, they acted merely as councillors to the kings, whereas, in the time of the commonwealth, they exercised the supreme authority in the state; but this was withdrawn by the emperors, who at last acted without the control of the legislative body.

2. Next in dignity to the senators were the *equites*, or knights, who were originally chosen to attend upon the king's person, and afterwards formed a distinct order in the state. The *equites* were so called from their serving on horseback, their horses being furnished at the public expense; and they were enrolled into a military corps, which formed an efficient force ready to be called out at all times for the public service. This order of citizens was composed of young men of considerable fortune, who, being incorporated into a distinct body, possessing certain privileges, served as an intermediate bond of

connexion betwixt their superiors, the patricians, and their inferiors, the plebeians, or common people. In process of time, they were invested with the office of judges, and farmers of the public revenue, which gave them considerable influence in the commonwealth. Their order was distinguished by wearing golden rings on their fingers, splendid cloaks, which were girt round their waists, and having certain places allotted them at public exhibitions. To preserve the integrity of the equestrian order, the censors took an account of their conduct, and, on finding them chargeable with any delinquency, degraded them from their dignity, by ordering them to sell their horses, and striking out their names from the public register.

3. The third class of the Roman citizens included all the rest of the community who were neither patricians nor knights, and usually denominated *plebeians*. They were subdivided into those who inhabited the city, and those who resided in the country. The former comprehended all who followed mechanical professions, as well as the poorer citizens, who were chiefly maintained at the public expense. The latter subsisted by agriculture, and other rural employments; and, from the simplicity of their manners, were the most peaceable class of society in the state. The lower orders in Rome, on the contrary, from the idle and disorderly habits which they acquired, became turbulent and factious, and were often excited by seditious demagogues to the most violent measures, which occasioned many changes in the form of government, and finally led to the ruin of the commonwealth.—Though the different classes of the state were thus completely distinct from each other, yet Romulus had wisely established a bond of connexion betwixt the highest and the lowest, by enacting that every plebeian should be entitled to choose some one from among the patricians, as his patron, who was obliged to assist the person that applied to him with his advice, interest, and protection. The plebeians, on the other hand, thus placed themselves in the relation of clients, and were bound to serve and assist their patrons, as occasion required; hence a mutual interchange of affectionate regard was established between the highest and the lowest classes of society, which was highly conducive to the public welfare.

4. Besides these orders of citizens already mentioned, there was a numerous class of men among the Romans, denominated slaves. They were reduced to this condition, either from being born in a state of slavery, or as a punishment for certain offences, or from being taken in battle, or purchased by rich men from those who sold them. Slaves were chiefly employed in domestic services by their masters, who had the power of inflicting

every sort of punishment, or even putting them to death, without any restraint from the civil authority. Such was the degraded condition of slaves, that they could not bear witness in courts of justice, nor dispose of their effects by will, but were entirely under the dominion of their masters. There were, however, great numbers of public slaves, whose treatment was better than that of those belonging to private individuals. As the state of slavery, however, was considered so degrading, humane masters frequently restored to their liberty those who, by their fidelity and long services, seemed to deserve it. This manumission was effected, either by the master getting the name of his slave registered in the list of citizens, or requesting one of the chief magistrates to declare them free, or granting them liberty by his last will. After slaves had changed their condition, they obtained the privileges of Roman citizens, and henceforth became the freedmen of those masters whom they had formerly served.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the highest rank of Roman citizens, and whence did they obtain their name? What was the supreme council of state, and how many members did it contain? By whom were the senators chosen, and what were the qualifications necessary for admission into their body? How was their respectability preserved, and how were they distinguished from the rest of the citizens? When and where did the senate assemble, and in what manner did they pass their decrees? What power did they possess at different periods?

2. What was the next order of citizens among the Romans? Whence did the equites derive their name, and what was the purpose of their institution? What was their rank, and what bond of social connexion did they form in the state? What offices did they afterwards hold, and how were they distinguished from other citizens? How was the integrity of their order preserved?

3. What was the third class of society among the Romans? How were the plebeians divided, and what was their character? What bond of connexion did Romulus establish betwixt the patricians and plebeians? What were the duties which patrons and clients owed to each other? What effects did their reciprocal relation produce?

4. What was the lowest order of men in the Roman commonwealth, and how were they reduced to the condition of slavery? What power did masters possess over their slaves, and wherein consisted the degradation of the latter? How did slaves sometimes obtain their liberty? What were they called after their manumission?

CHAP. III.

Public and Private Privileges of Roman Citizens.

1. IN the earliest ages of the Roman commonwealth, whoever settled in the city, or district belonging to it, received the privileges of citizens; and, in order to increase the population, the neighbouring tribes, whom the Romans vanquished, were

translated to Rome, and made denizens of the city. In process of time, the freedom of the state was conferred on the allies of the Roman people; but, as the empire extended, this privilege was only conferred on those who seemed best to deserve it by their fidelity to the commonwealth. During the decline of the empire, all the nations under the Roman dominion received the rights of citizens; though these were more or less extensive according to the situation of the countries they inhabited. Thus, the inhabitants of Rome, and of the original territory belonging to it, possessed privileges peculiar to themselves; while the people of Latium, Italy, and the provinces, enjoyed each a certain share of freedom, different in its nature, and adapted to the circumstances of their condition.

2. The private rights of Roman citizens, so called, comprehended, 1. That of personal liberty, by which they were secured from unjust treatment by the cruelty of magistrates, the severity of creditors, and the oppression of powerful individuals. 2. That of family, which entitled the brothers or sisters of a father who died without male issue, to succeed to his property; and precluded patrician or plebeian families from exchanging their condition, unless by adoption. 3. The right of marriage, which prohibited Roman citizens from marrying slaves or foreigners, unless they obtained the consent of the people. 4. The paternal right, whereby a father might punish his children in any manner, or even put them to death, without legal restraint; and might bestow his wealth, or withhold it from them, according to his pleasure. 5. The right of property, which entitled the Roman priests to retain the temples of the gods, and the sepulchres of the dead, as inalienable, and allowed private persons to transfer their estates to others; though, in certain cases, it prohibited the transference of slaves, animals, and servitudes attached to them. 6. The privilege of settling an inheritance by will, which belonged only to Roman citizens, who might thereby disinherit their own families, and bestow their property on whomsoever they pleased; but, if a person died intestate, his effects fell to his relations, according to the laws of primogeniture and succession. 7. The right of guardianship, which belonged to those appointed by the testator; but, if none were nominated to exercise that office, it devolved on the nearest of kin to the deceased. If guardians neglected or defrauded their wards, they might be sued at law, and punished for a breach of trust.

3. Besides these individual privileges, there were others of a public nature, which belonged to Roman citizens throughout the empire. The chief of these were, 1. That of the *census*,

whereby every subject of the state was obliged, at certain times, to deliver to the *censors* an account of his name, family, residence, occupation, and property, that he might be taxed according to his income. 2. The privilege of offering his services in defence of the commonwealth, which at first was confined to Roman citizens, properly so called, but was afterwards extended to all the inhabitants of the tributary provinces. 3. The annual tribute paid by every subject of the empire for maintaining the military and naval establishments; as also the customs and excise levied on goods, the tithes of grain, taxes on pasturage, and on articles of luxury. 4. The privilege of voting in the assemblies of the people; though this could be exercised by those only who were at Rome during the election of candidates for offices in the state. 5. The right of being chosen to official situations, which, though at first confined to the patricians, was afterwards extended to every Roman citizen. 6. The privilege of performing the public and private rites of religious worship; the former of which were practised by the sacerdotal order, the latter by every individual in his own family.

4. The peculiar rites enjoyed by persons who inhabited different parts of the Roman empire were the following: 1. Those claimed by the Latins, who were exempted from obedience to the prætors, and governed by their own laws; besides being entitled to adopt certain laws of the Romans, and to exercise the same religious rites. 2. Those possessed by the different states of Italy; all of which, on being conquered by the Romans, were allowed to retain their own laws and magistrates, to be taxed in their respective places of residence, and required to furnish a certain quota of troops to serve in the army. 3. The conquered provinces were each governed by a Roman *proconsul* or *proprætor*, who acted both in a military and judicial capacity, and by a *quæstor*, who received the taxes, and superintended the distribution of the public money. Some of the provinces were permitted to exercise their own laws, and elect their own magistrates; but the greater part were denied this privilege, and grievously oppressed by the tyranny and exactions of the Romans.—Besides this distribution of the subjects of the empire, the inhabitants of certain *free towns* were granted all the rights enjoyed by the citizens of Rome, except those of voting, and being elected to civil offices; while they enjoyed their own municipal laws and established customs. The *colonies* also had certain liberties conferred on them, more or less extensive, according as they consisted of Romans, Latins, or Italians; though they were all subject to the magistrates and laws of the parent

state. Foreigners, who resided at Rome, were for a long time denied all the privileges of citizens: they were not allowed to wear the Roman dress, nor dispose of their own property; but in the later ages of the empire they were admitted to the same condition as other freeborn subjects.

EXERCISES.

1. Who were the persons that first acquired the privileges of Roman citizens? What changes afterwards took place in the manner of conferring them? What were the distinguishing characteristics of these privileges?

2. What different kinds of private rights were enjoyed by Roman citizens?

3. Of what nature were the public rights possessed by citizens throughout the empire?

4. What peculiar privileges belonged to the Latins, the Italian states, and the conquered provinces? What liberties were conferred on the free towns, the colonies, and foreigners who resided in Rome?

CHAP. IV.

SECTION I.

Civil Government of the Romans.

1. IN the first ages of the commonwealth, the Romans were governed by *kings*; and Romulus, the founder of the city, was chosen to act in the regal capacity. The supreme dignity was not hereditary; but, on the demise of one king, another was elected by the senate and people, who also exercised the legislative power, and directed their kings in the administration of the government. The kings of Rome, however, were intrusted with the chief management of religious matters, and distinguished by wearing a crown, a sceptre, and a particular dress; besides being attended by twelve lictors, each of whom carried a bundle of rods, called *fascēs*, and an axe, before them, as the insignia of the punishment they were to inflict upon offenders. The kingly government ended upon the expulsion of Tarquin, after it had existed two hundred and forty-three years from the foundation of Rome. The regal authority being thus abolished, the Romans chose two supreme magistrates, whom they denominated *consuls*, whose government was limited to one year. They possessed originally the same power, and were dignified by the same badges as the kings, except the crown; but were afterwards deprived of the right of inflicting capital punishments, or executing justice upon persons who appealed to the people. Notwithstanding these restrictions, the consuls were intrusted with very ample autho-

city, as they controlled all the other magistrates, except the *tribunes* of the people; assembled the senate, and popular meetings; proposed new laws; received and answered all the communications from foreign states and provincial governors. They also acted as chief commanders of the armies, levied troops, appointed officers, and directed every measure for carrying on the operations of war. Even in time of peace they were sometimes invested with absolute authority to suppress intestine commotions, by calling the people to arms in defence of the state. While the commonwealth continued, the consuls, besides exercising the supreme power at Rome, had certain provinces assigned them by the senate, for their jurisdiction, to which they repaired for enacting laws, administering justice, or suppressing insurrections, and from which they might be recalled for mal-administration. That the consulship might be held only by men of experience, a law passed that none should be elected to that office, unless he were forty-three years of age, and had exercised other subordinate functions in the magistracy. But these regulations were discontinued in the corrupt times of the republic; and during the monarchy, the emperors appointed what persons they pleased as consuls, without any regard to their qualifications.

2. Next in dignity to the consuls were the *prætors*, whose duty was at first confined to the administration of justice in the absence of the supreme magistrates, though they afterwards supplied their places in the popular assemblies. When the prætors assumed their office, they published a schedule of regulations, called edicts, by which they intended to execute justice during the period of their administration. As badges of judicial authority, they wore a particular gown, and were attended by two lictors, with their *fascæ*, in the city, and by six without the city. For the distribution of justice they repaired to the *forum*, where, being seated on the public tribunal, they heard the legal proceedings in criminal cases, pronounced judgment, and passed sentence upon the parties accused before them. The authority of the prætors, however, both at Rome and in the provinces, was limited to the trial of private causes; while those of a public nature were discussed and decided in the assemblies of the people. Under the emperors, the office of prætor was conferred on other magistrates, and in process of time it became extinct.—When the Roman commonwealth had increased considerably in population and wealth, two magistrates were appointed, under the title of *censors*, for the purpose of taking an account of the number and fortunes of all the citizens, and proportioning the taxes that each should pay for the support of the state. This duty they

exercised once in five years, by assembling all the people in the Campus Martius, and requiring them to give a statement, upon oath, of their respective incomes. At the same time, they also ascertained the condition of the senatorian and equestrian orders, filled up vacancies, and degraded those who had behaved improperly, by expunging their names from the class to which they belonged, or depriving them of the rights of Roman citizens. The censors were also invested with the power of distributing the people into classes, letting the public revenues and lands, and receiving the money thence arising to the commonwealth. But one of the most important parts of their office consisted in taking cognizance of minor delinquencies, such as dishonourable conduct among the higher classes, want of courage among the soldiers, and depravity of morals among the lower orders. Persons guilty of such offences were cited to appear before the censors, who, after hearing their defence, awarded some slight punishment, suited to the nature of the fault committed. If, however, the censors acted unjustly, they were subject to be tried before the assemblies of the people, and sometimes stigmatized; though, in general, their office and character were held sacred.

3. In the first ages of the republic, the patricians having oppressed the plebeians for debts which they were unable to pay, the latter abandoned the city in a body, and would not return till their debts were remitted, and magistrates chosen by themselves to represent them and promote their interest in the state. These magistrates were called *tribunes*; their number at first was only two, though it afterwards amounted to ten, which continued during the succeeding ages of the commonwealth. The tribunes were originally chosen from among the plebeians; but, by a subsequent law, even patricians, if previously adopted into a plebeian family, could hold the offices of these magistrates; and hence they sometimes came to be executed by persons of the first distinction. The power of the tribunes at first consisted merely in refusing their assent to any measure proposed by the senate; but it afterwards increased so much, that they interposed in almost every act of government, and could, by their *veto*, or interdict, prevent the passing of any law, or stop the proceedings of the whole magistracy. Such a degree of power rendered the tribunes very formidable to the other branches of the constitution; and in order to check it, recourse was sometimes had to one of them to put a negative on the measures of the rest, or induce them, by threatenings, to concur with the other magistrates in their schemes of policy. The official duties of the tribunes were, the assembling of the people, and enacting laws for promoting

the interest of the lower orders; though these popular meetings were often the theatre of seditious measures against the higher classes of the state. In process of time the leading men at Rome influenced the tribunes to favour their pretensions, and thus carried every thing by the violence of the multitude; till at last Julius Cæsar deprived the tribunes of their authority, and the emperors afterwards exercised it in their own persons.—As the Romans were particularly careful of their public buildings, two officers, called *ædiles*, were appointed to take charge of them, and preserve them from decay. They likewise inspected all provisions exposed to sale in the public markets, and caused such as were unwholesome to be destroyed. They took an account of the weights and measures of the citizens, and ordered insufficient ones to be disused; they settled the interest of money, limited the exorbitant charges of labour, punished courtezans, and imposed fines for minor delinquencies. It was particularly the business of *curule* ædiles to superintend the public games, and other exhibitions, to judge of the merits of the different performers, and bestow rewards on those who deserved them. This office continued not only during the commonwealth, but even in the last ages of the monarchy.—For the collection and distribution of the public revenue, two officers were chosen under the name of *quæstors*, whose jurisdiction at first extended only to the city and adjoining territory; but as the empire was enlarged, two others were appointed to accompany the consuls in their warlike expeditions; and, when different countries were subdued by the Romans, quæstors were sent thither to levy the taxes, provide for the troops, disburse the money requisite for the government of the provinces, and remit the surplus to the public treasury. The office of quæstor was continued under the emperors; though they made several alterations in the authority and functions of those who held it.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the first species of government among the Romans? What power and badges of authority did the kings of Rome possess? How long did the kingly government continue? What magistrates were chosen to succeed the kings? What were the badges, authority, and functions of the consuls? What duties did they execute in war, in peace, and in the provinces? What were the qualifications requisite for being elected to the consulship?

2. For what purpose were the prætors appointed, and how did they publish their edicts? What were their badges of authority, and their methods of administering justice? What was the peculiar duty of the censors, and how did they exercise it? What control did they possess over all the different classes of society?

3. What occasion led to the election of the tribunes? From what classes were they chosen, and what power did they exercise in their official capacity? What duties were they called to perform, and why were they at last

deprived of their authority? What was the business of the civic and curule ædiles? What was the duty of the quæstors, both at Rome and in the provinces?

SECTION II.

1. BESIDES these ordinary magistrates now mentioned, who occupied the chief departments of government among the Romans, there were others chosen on extraordinary occasions, such as the *dictator*, *decemviri*, *military tribunes with consular power*, and *interrex*. A dictator was frequently appointed to quell seditions, and command the people to take up arms in defence of the state, when it was exposed to imminent danger. Immediately upon his appointment, which was made by the consul, he nominated a *master of horse*, whose office, besides the command of the cavalry, was also to execute the orders of his superior. As the dictator was invested with absolute power, he issued his directions without control, and demanded implicit obedience from all ranks in the commonwealth. But, lest such unlimited authority should be abused, the dictator, who was only elected on particular emergencies, was obliged to resign his office at the end of six months. There were also certain regulations, which operated as a salutary check to the dictator in the execution of his office. He was not permitted to spend the public money, nor go beyond the bounds of Italy; and he was amenable for his conduct after the period of his administration expired. This office was abolished after the death of Cæsar, and never afterwards revived; as the emperors possessed the power, though none of them assumed the title of dictator.—The other extraordinary magistrates among the Romans were the *decemviri*, or ten men chosen for compiling a code of laws for the regulation of the commonwealth, and also for acting in a judicial capacity. Upon their appointment, all the other magistrates being superseded, they administered justice for a while with great impartiality; but, wishing to retain their power after the term assigned for their continuance in office, and one of them having been guilty of a flagrant offence, the *decemviri* were obliged to abdicate; and, as the original purpose of their creation was served, the office which they held was for ever abolished.—When the plebeians insisted upon being admitted to the dignity of the consulship, after long-protracted disputes, the patricians to elude their demands consented to the election of six supreme magistrates instead of consuls, who were denominated *military tribunes with consular power*, and for upwards of seventy years, sometimes consuls, sometimes military tribunes,

were elected, as the influence of the aristocracy or of the plebeians predominated, till the latter at last prevailed that one of the consuls should be chosen from their number. After this period the military tribunician office ceased.—The interrex was first elected when there was a vacancy in the throne; and afterwards, when there was no consul or dictator, one was chosen to hold the elections, and his power was restricted to five days.

2. As the Romans soon extended their conquests over various countries, provincial magistrates were appointed to govern them, under the title of *proconsuls* and *proprætors*. The former appellation was originally given to those consuls whose command in the provinces was continued after the period of their office had expired; but when the conquered countries became numerous, proconsuls were annually sent to act as their chief magistrates. In this capacity, they exercised a military command over the troops stationed in the provinces, suppressed internal insurrections, and prevented the aggressions of foreign enemies. But the chief business of the proconsuls was the administration of justice in the provinces, which they accomplished by visiting several of the chief cities in succession, whither the people of the different districts, who had causes to determine, repaired once a-year, and received judgment. In dispensing justice, the proconsuls generally chose a number of assessors, by whose opinion they were guided in pronouncing sentence. To prevent, as far as possible, the mal-administration of the provinces, various laws were enacted; though these were ineffectual to restrain the avarice of the proconsuls and their official servants, and hence loud complaints were generally made against their oppression. When this was the case, redress might be obtained;—as the proconsuls, after the term of their government expired, were liable to be brought to trial for extortion, peculation, and breaches of trust, and were sometimes punished or otherwise disgraced. If, however, they acted in a manner which deserved approbation, the proconsuls had statues erected to commemorate their administration; and if they gained any signal victory, were honoured with a triumph on their return to Rome.—Besides proconsuls, there were other provincial magistrates, called *proprætors*, who exercised the same authority abroad as the *prætors* did at home; as also lieutenants, who published the orders of the proconsuls or *proprætors*; and military officers, who formed the retinue of these superior magistrates. Under the emperors these titles were abolished, and the persons appointed to govern the provinces were called *procurators*; though they executed nearly the same functions as their predecessors had done under the commonwealth.

3. The emperors also established several new offices, the chief of which were, 1. The præfect of the city, who took cognizance of any offences committed by masters, patrons, or guardians against their slaves, dependants, or wards,—superintended the police, and preserved tranquillity among the citizens. 2. The commander of the imperial guards, who attended to execute the emperor's orders, and pass sentence for delinquencies of military duties. 3. An officer appointed for procuring corn and other provisions in times of scarcity. 4. A military præfect, who was intrusted with the money for maintaining the army. 5. An admiral of the navy, whose business it was to give the requisite instructions for the equipment of fleets, and the management of marine affairs. 6. An officer who superintended the city-patrol, and took cognizance of depredations committed by disorderly persons.—The Roman magistrates had various servants to attend them in the execution of their office, or for other important purposes. The chief of these were, 1. The lictors who preceded the magistrates, carrying each a bundle of rods, with an axe stuck in them; and their business was, to clear the way for the approach of a consul or prætor, to see that the people paid the customary reverence, and to execute punishment on condemned criminals. 2. The clerks who attended the magistrates, to take memoranda of their proceedings, and copy out the laws they enacted, or the accounts they had to present to the senate and people. 3. The officers who summoned the popular assemblies, or persons who had legal causes to be tried in courts of justice. 4. The heralds who kept order at public meetings, called for the votes at elections, and announced the successful candidates, gave notice to the people to attend the public games, and superintended the sale of goods, &c. 5. The public executioner, whose office it was to inflict capital punishment on slaves and the lowest of the people.

4. As the Roman citizens possessed an extensive influence in the government, they often met collectively to discuss public business, elect magistrates, enact laws, and determine questions relative to peace and war. For these purposes they were summoned by a magistrate, who presided at the meetings, which were called by the general name of *Comitia*. There were three kinds of *Comitia*,—the *curiata*, *centuriata*, and *tributa*; so denominated from the distribution of the people into *curiæ*, centuries, and tribes. At the meetings of the *comitia curiata*, the Roman citizens, who were divided into thirty *curiæ*, or parishes, gave their votes respecting any matter brought before them; and a majority of the *curiæ* always decided what measure should be adopted. The right of vot-

ing in the comitia curiata was restricted to citizens who resided in Rome; and though all public business proposed to the people was originally transacted at these meetings, yet they were in a great measure superseded by the institution of the centuriata and tributa.—In the comitia centuriata, the people delivered their votes by centuries, and settled every question by a majority either for or against it. This division of the people was made by Servius Tullius, who caused an account to be taken of the number of his subjects, and required them to give a statement of their incomes, according to which they were distributed into six classes, each containing so many centuries, which amounted in all to 194. But the distribution was so made, that the first or richest class, which comprehended the greatest number of centuries, generally carried every measure, and were considered as entitled to do so, from contributing most to the public expense. The comitia centuriata were assembled for electing the chief magistrates, passing laws proposed to the people, and judging of capital offences against the state.—In the comitia tributa, the citizens assembled to give their votes according to their tribes, or the wards of the city which they inhabited. These, at first, consisted of three only, but were afterwards increased to thirty-five, and included several of the neighbouring states, who enjoyed the privileges of Roman citizens. The meetings of the tribes were held for the purpose of electing the inferior and provincial magistrates; the pontifex maximus, and other ministers of religion; enacting certain municipal regulations, and trying minor cases of delinquency. The power of the comitia tributa was first abridged by Julius Cæsar, and afterwards in a great measure superseded by the emperors.

EXERCISES.

1. What were the extraordinary magistrates among the Romans? What was the peculiar duty of the dictator, and how long did he continue in office? By what means was his power restrained? For what purpose were the decemviri appointed? How did they execute their functions for a while, and why were they at last obliged to abdicate? Who were the military tribunes? What occasioned their election, and discontinuance? Who was the interrex?
2. What were the names of the provincial magistrates? What was the business assigned to the proconsuls? In what manner did they administer justice? How was redress obtained against their oppression, and how were they rewarded for equitable conduct? What other officers were appointed in the provinces?
3. What new offices were established by the emperors? For what purpose were servants assigned to the magistrates? What were their names and particular functions?
4. How were the assemblies of the people denominated? What business was settled at the comitia curiata? What was the origin of the comitia centuriata, and what matters came before them for discussion? What was the nature of the comitia tributa, and what was the extent of their authority?

CHAP. V.

Laws and Judicial Proceedings of the Romans.

1. IN the first ages of the Roman commonwealth there were no written laws for regulating the course of public justice ; but the kings, and afterwards the chief magistrates, pronounced judgment according to their own notions of expediency or equity. As, however, the decisions thus delivered were often arbitrary and unjust, the Romans, about 300 years after the foundation of the city, sent three ambassadors to Greece, to collect the laws of Solon and other legislators, in order to form a code for themselves. These laws were embodied into twelve tables, which formed the basis of Roman jurisprudence ; though there were also several special laws introduced from time to time, according as the circumstances of the state required. The twelve tables contained not only the body of Roman laws, but also the forms of process in courts of judicature, which varied according as the cases to be tried were either civil or criminal. In all matters of private litigation, the plaintiff summoned the defendant to appear before the prætor ; but if he refused to go, an order was issued for his forcible conveyance to that magistrate. If the parties did not agree to settle their dispute, the prosecutor demanded a writ from the prætor, for commencing an action against the culprit, who also requested permission to engage an advocate to plead his cause. This being granted, the defendant was next required to give bail for appearing in court ; and, on failing to do so, was committed to prison. If the parties settled their difference before the day of trial, the prosecutor dropped the action ; or, if either of them did not appear in court, without assigning a sufficient reason for his absence, he thereby lost his cause. But if both appeared, the plaintiff preferred his suit, and requested the prætor to nominate the judges to determine the cause. If these were approved of by the defendant, the prætor next selected the witnesses, and the parties gave security that they would rest satisfied with the decision of the court. The judges then took an oath that they would interpret the law and pronounce sentence according to equity ; and the advocates proceeded to argue the case, with the assistance of witnesses and writings, till they explained every thing connected with it. When the pleadings were finished, the judges retired to deliberate on the evidence, and returned their verdict by a majority of votes ; but if an equal number of them differed in opinion, the prætor decided by the casting vote ; or, if the judges were uncertain how to determine, the

cause was either dropped or delayed to another day. After judgment was pronounced against the defendant, he was ordained to act in terms of the sentence ; but if he did not, or failed to provide securities within a certain time, the prætor delivered him up to the prosecutor, who might sell him as a slave. If, however, the defendant was acquitted, he might prosecute his adversary for an unjust action ; or if the judges had been guilty of fraudulent practices, the prætor reversed their sentence, and the defendant might institute a process against them, by appealing to a superior judicature.

2. With respect to criminal trials, they were at first managed by the kings or the consuls ; but afterwards by the people, then by certain persons called *inquisitors*, whose authority ceased when the trial was over, and finally by the prætors. In order to administer justice impartially in criminal cases, the prætors were assisted by a certain number of jurymen, chosen annually to perform that office. When any citizen accused another before the prætor, he desired that a day might be fixed to produce his charge, and summoned the person to appear in court. If both parties appeared on that day, the prosecutor stated the crime libelled, and, if the accused confessed it, sentence was passed, and the matter ended ; but if he pleaded not guilty, his name was put upon the criminal roll, and he was ordered to repair to a court of justice on a certain day, and submit to his trial. When the day arrived, if the accused did not appear, he was sentenced to banishment ; or if the accuser was not present, the defendant's name was struck out of the list of criminals. But if both came forward, a certain number of jurymen was chosen, any of whom the parties might reject, and others were substituted in their place to the full amount ; after which they were all impanelled, and then sworn to judge impartially. The trial now commenced, and the accuser, or his advocate, in a formal oration, stated his charges against the culprit, produced his evidence by witnesses or writings, and summed up his speech by an appeal to the prætor. The defendant's advocate replied to the arguments of his opponent, and employed every art to excite the compassion of the judges ; after which the jury retired to consider the evidence, and returned with their verdict, which was given by putting tablets, marked with the letters C (for I condemn), A (I acquit), and N, L, (I cannot determine), into an urn. The prætor having counted the tablets, and ascertained the majority of positive opinions thus expressed, pronounced sentence of acquittal or condemnation ; but if a majority of indecisive opinions appeared, he delayed the cause till some other day. If the accused was acquitted,

he returned home amidst the rejoicings of his friends; but if he was condemned, he suffered the punishment denounced by the law.—Such was the process of judicial trials during the Roman commonwealth; but under the emperors it was considerably altered, as the senate were appointed to try most of the criminal cases, though sometimes special judges were nominated to examine particular crimes. When the senate sentenced criminals to punishment, it was at first immediately inflicted; though a law was passed, that ten days should elapse between the sentence and execution.

3. The punishments among the Romans were of eight kinds. 1. A fine, which varied at different times, and according to the nature of the offence committed. 2. Public or private imprisonment, by which the criminal was subjected to be bound with shackles on the feet, hands, and neck. 3. Scourging with sticks, rods, or whips; though the first was generally inflicted on soldiers, the second on citizens, and the last on slaves. 4. The punishment of retaliation, by which a criminal suffered the loss of an eye for an eye, &c. as among the Jews; though this was generally evaded by purchasing impunity with a sum of money. 5. Degradation from the dignity which a criminal held, and declaring him disqualified to enjoy any public office, or exercise any of his private rights. 6. Banishment from Italy, either during life, or for a limited period. 7. Slavery, which was inflicted on those who refused to give an account of their incomes, or to serve in the army, as they thereby forfeited the privileges of freemen. 8. Death, which was inflicted only for heinous offences; though the modes of capital punishment were various according to the guilt of the criminal. In the first ages of the commonwealth, malefactors were hanged, strangled in prison, or thrown from the Tarpeian Rock; but during the monarchy they were either exposed to fight as gladiators, thrown to wild beasts, or burned alive. The mode of punishing parricides was somewhat remarkable; as they were put into a sack along with a dog, a cock, an ape, and a viper, and drowned in the sea. Slaves were first scourged, and then crucified, with an inscription affixed to their breast, denoting the crime for which they had suffered.

EXERCISES.

1. In what manner was justice at first administered among the Romans? How did they collect a body of laws, and into what form were these compiled? What was the method of judicial proceedings in civil cases? What followed after judgment was pronounced? What redress might be obtained, if the judges delivered an unjust sentence?

2. By whom were criminal trials at first conducted? What was the form of process before the prætors? How were causes managed in the courts of

justice? In what manner did juries deliver their verdicts? To whom did the emperors commit the charge of criminal trials?

3. How many kinds of punishment were adopted by the Romans? What was the particular nature of each punishment? In what manner was capital punishment inflicted on various offenders?

CHAP. VI.

Religion of the Romans.

1. THE Romans, like all other heathen nations, adopted the most absurd and superstitious notions respecting the objects of religious worship, and multiplied their deities to such a degree, that they at last amounted to upwards of thirty thousand. The origin of polytheism, which has prevailed among all the nations who have been ignorant of the true God, may be traced to those displays of an invisible agency exerted in the works of nature; for, as the human mind was led to ascribe every effect produced by second causes to the influence of some particular deity, hence the heathens have universally believed in the existence of a multitude of gods, each of whom, they conceived, had particular departments in the government of the universe. Accordingly the Romans supposed that there were celestial and terrestrial deities; and divided them into two classes, which they called *Dii Majorum Gentium*, or gods of the first rank; and *Dii Minorum Gentium*, or gods of the second rank. The most important deities of the first class were, Jupiter, the supreme divinity; and Juno, his wife; Minerva, the goddess of wisdom; Vesta, the goddess of fire; Ceres, the goddess of corn; Neptune, the god of the sea; Venus, the goddess of love; Mars, the god of war; Vulcan, the god of fire and of iron; Apollo, the god of poetry and music; Diana, the goddess of woods and hunting; Bacchus, the god of wine; Janus, the god of the year; Saturn, the god of time; Pluto, the god of the infernal regions; and Mercury, the messenger of the gods. The most celebrated deities of the second class were, Castor and Pollux, the gods of seamen; Pan, the god of shepherds; Vertumnus, the god of the seasons; Pomona, the goddess of fruits; Flora, the goddess of flowers; Pales, the goddess of flocks and herds; Hymen, the god of marriage; and the Penates, or household gods.

2. That the worship of the gods might be conducted in a manner suitable to its solemnity, the Romans appointed certain ministers of religion; some of whom performed the service prescribed to all the gods, while others were set apart to that of particular deities. Of the first class were the *pontifices*, selected from among the patricians, whose office it was to prescribe regulations for the observance of religious duties.

The most dignified of this order was the *pontifex maximus*, who acted as supreme director in sacred things, dictated the forms of devotion to be used on solemn occasions, consecrated priests to the service of religion, and dedicated temples or other places of worship. Their number was at first four, but was afterwards increased to eight, and by Sylla to fifteen.—Next in importance to the pontifices were the *augurs*, whose duty consisted in endeavouring to prognosticate what would happen, from observing the flight, feeding, or chattering of birds. As the Romans were a very superstitious people, they always consulted the augurs before undertaking any business of a public nature, and either proceeded in it or not, according as the omens were considered favourable or otherwise. Such indeed was their regard for the art of divination, that, before any magistrate entered upon office, he had recourse to an augur for information respecting the issue of his administration; and the latter generally contrived to return a favourable answer. Besides the omens already mentioned, the augurs made their observations from the aspect of the heavens, as well as from thunder and lightning, which, if heard or seen on the left, was considered as a lucky, if on the right, as an unlucky prognostic. They even carried their superstition so far as to draw conclusions from animals crossing a road, from a person letting salt fall upon a table, and from many other incidental occurrences, which must appear ridiculous as intimations of future events. In addition to these, there was also another method of divination practised by certain augurs called *aruspices*, who, from inspecting the entrails of animals slain in sacrifice, pretended to foretell the fate of those who consulted them.

3. Another set of men appointed as ministers of the system of superstition among the Romans, were the *quindecimviri* who kept the Sibylline books, and inspected them on particular emergencies. These books were supposed to contain certain prophecies respecting the fate of the Roman commonwealth; and hence recourse was frequently had to their keepers, to explain from the oracles what would be the issue of any hazardous war, or public calamity which had occurred.—As the Romans instituted feasts to their gods, to procure their favour and avert their displeasure, they intrusted the management of these sacred festivals to certain priests, who also prepared the entertainments for celebrating the games, processions, and other public solemnities.—Besides these ordinary ministers of religion, there were extraordinary ones, who held a distinguished rank among the Romans. The most illustrious of these were, the priest of Jupiter, who performed the rites appointed for the worship of that supreme divinity;

the priests of Mars, who, on a particular day, proceeded through the city, singing sacred songs to commemorate the descent from heaven of the sacred shield of the god of war; the priests of Pan, who, on the festival sacred to that god, ran through the city, almost naked, lashing every one they met with a thong made of goat's skin. The Vestal virgins were young women, whose office was to preserve the sacred fire continually burning upon the altar of Vesta, and take charge of the Palladium of the empire and tutelary gods of Rome, which were deposited in the innermost recesses of the temple.

4. As places for celebrating the worship of the gods, temples and other religious edifices were built in great numbers, and with splendid magnificence, in various parts of Rome. The mode of doing homage to the deities was either by prayers, or vows, or sacrifices. When a person repaired to a temple to offer up his devotions, he applied to a priest, who directed him what form of prayer to employ, and how to conduct the ceremonial observances that were enjoined. Another part of religious worship consisted in making vows to certain deities, as a pledge for the performance of some sacred duty, and as a bribe to obtain certain favours. Every person who made a vow was bound to observe it, especially if he succeeded in any enterprise which he had undertaken. This religious duty was performed with great sincerity by those who had escaped any imminent danger, as they often deposited in the temples of the gods some memorial of their gratitude for the preservation which they had experienced.—When any fortunate event occurred which concerned the public, thanksgivings were decreed to the gods in all the temples, and sumptuous banquets were prepared, at which the Romans conceived their deities to be present; while, in times of calamity, supplications were commanded to be offered up to them, to avert the impending danger. The mode of offering sacrifice among the Romans was very solemn, though very superstitious. The priests who offered it, being dressed in white robes, led the victim to the altar, where he sprinkled salt and meal, wine and frankincense, upon its forehead; after which it was killed, and the blood was poured out upon the altar. The animal being then dissected, its entrails, and especially the liver, were examined by the aruspices, who formed conjectures, either favourable or unfavourable, from its appearance. The entrails being then sprinkled with frankincense, meal, and wine, and consumed by fire upon the altar, the priest performed an ablution, prayed to the deity, and concluded the ceremony. But not animals only were used in sacrifice among the Romans; even human victims were enjoined to be offered on particular occasions,

In the early ages of the commonwealth, a certain number of persons were annually put to death as oblations to the gods; and it often happened, that generals devoted themselves to destruction, as a means of saving their armies, or the state itself.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the number of the deities among the Romans? What is the origin of polytheism among heathen nations? Into how many classes did the Romans divide their gods? What were the names of the most important deities whom they worshipped?

2. Who were the priests appointed for conducting the worship of the gods? What was the peculiar office of the augurs? In what cases did the Romans apply to the augurs for information respecting future events? From what omens did these soothsayers make their observations? How did the aruspices perform their office?

3. What was the particular duty of the quindecimviri? For what purposes were certain other priests appointed? What were the ceremonies performed by the priests of Jupiter, Mars, and Pan? What was the office of the Vestal virgins?

4. What places were dedicated to the service of the gods? In what manner was the worship performed by individuals? How were persons who offered up prayers or vows instructed to act? When were thanksgivings and supplications offered to the gods? What was the mode of sacrifice adopted by the Romans?

CHAP. VII.

Games and Public Amusements of the Romans.

1. IN the first ages of the Roman republic, games were instituted in honour of the gods; but they afterwards became a part of the public amusements. The most celebrated were the *Circensian* games, so called from being exhibited in the Circus Maximus, a noble building, situated between the Palatine and Aventine hills, about a mile in circumference, and capable of holding 250,000 spectators. These games consisted, 1st, Of horse and chariot races, for which every accommodation was provided within the circus. At one extremity were openings, whence the horses started; and along the middle ran a low brick wall twelve feet broad, at the ends of which were the goals round which the chariots turned. When the charioteers were ready to begin the race, the manager of the games dropt a napkin, after which the horses started; and those that outstripped their competitors for seven times, in completing the course, gained the prize. 2d, There were also exhibited in the circus, contests in running, leaping, boxing, wrestling, and throwing the discus, in which the champions engaged with great dexterity; and those who proved victorious were crowned with laurels. 3d, In a large field, called the

Campus Martius, the young noblemen performed feats of activity on horseback, and learned the use of arms and weapons in mock-fights, which afforded great amusement to the numerous spectators. *4th*, The representation of a battle betwixt two armies, of a regular encampment, and the siege of a town, was also exhibited in the Campus Martius, and frequently upon a very extensive scale. *5th*, The Naumachiæ represented naval engagements, which at first took place in the Circus Maximus, but afterwards in a theatre built for the purpose. *6th*, But the most cruel diversions of the Romans were the combats betwixt wild beasts, and often between them and captives or malefactors, in which incredible numbers of the latter perished.

2. Besides these amusements, there were others of a very sanguinary nature, which disgraced the character of the Romans as a civilized people. These were the shows of gladiators, who were originally either captives or condemned criminals, but afterwards slaves, or freemen who undertook that profession. The gladiators were maintained by the magistrates, and, being trained to the use of arms, were, at certain festivals, brought to an amphitheatre, where great numbers of them fought with swords, and continued the combat in pairs for several days. These gladiators displayed great skill in the art of attack and defence; and the most dexterous generally vanquished their adversaries by a lateral or back-stroke, which could not be so easily parried as a direct one. When a gladiator was wounded, he lowered his sword in token of submission, and humbly begged his life from the spectators, who, if they agreed to grant it, clenched their fists and held down their thumbs; but if not, turned them upwards, and the gladiator was slain. The victors were honoured with a palm-crown adorned with ribands, and discharged from farther obligations to fight unless they chose. Shows of gladiators were sometimes exhibited, on triumphal occasions, for several weeks together, during which great numbers perished; and these cruel sports were continued during the commonwealth and the monarchy, till the time of Constantine.

3. But the most interesting spectacles among the Romans were their dramatic exhibitions. These were at first satirical poems, set to music, and recited by the actors with ludicrous gestures, and dancing to a flute. About five hundred years after the foundation of Rome, the first regular play was introduced by Livius Andronicus, which was soon after improved by Ennius and other poets, from the comedy and tragedy adopted by the Greeks. Hence dramatic entertainments, in their highest state of perfection among the Romans, consisted, *1st*, Of comedy, which represented the vices and follies of com-

mon life in such a manner as to render them ridiculous, and excite the contempt or abhorrence of the spectators. The actors of comic scenes were dressed in the Roman toga, and wore a low-heeled shoe, called the *soccus*. 2d, Tragedy was a species of composition designed to represent some important events, in which illustrious men had acted a conspicuous part, and which terminated usually in some misfortune. In order to relieve the minds of the spectators from the strong feelings excited by tragic exhibitions, a band of singers, called the chorus, was introduced on the stage between the different acts of the play. Tragedians wore a high-heeled boot, called a *buskin*, which elevated them above the ordinary height, and gave them a majestic appearance suited to the characters which they represented. 3d, Pantomimes, or farces, were scenic performances, in which the actors exhibited ludicrous sentiments in dumb-show, either by dancing or other modes of gesticulation. For the additional amusement of the spectators, rope-dancers performed many feats of dexterity, and musical interludes accompanied the actors at different intervals during the whole of the entertainment. The people expressed their disapprobation of the various performers by loud hissings; or their approbation by obstreperous plaudits, which were generally followed by the honour of a crown of flowers, bestowed on those who seemed to deserve it.

4. Such were the ordinary games exhibited among the Romans; but, besides these, there were also several games celebrated at stated seasons in honour of the gods. Those in honour of Janus were held in January, when magistrates generally entered on their office, and the people congratulated each other upon the continuance of their health and happiness. The Megalensian games, sacred to Cybele, the great mother of the gods, were celebrated in April, and continued for the space of six days. Those in honour of Ceres were held the same month, and accompanied by the usual exhibitions of the Circus, and splendid processions throughout the city. The games instituted in honour of Mars were observed in March and August, when the sports of the circus were attended by the people. The festival of Pales, the deity of shepherds, was celebrated in April, on the 21st, a day memorable in the annals of Rome, as that on which the foundation of the city was laid. At the festival in honour of Apollo, the people beheld the Circensian games crowned with laurel, and the day was celebrated by a variety of rites and ceremonies. In August were celebrated games in honour of Equestrian Neptune, at which the Sabine women were carried off by the Romans. A sacred feast was also held in September, to the great divinities,

Jupiter, Juno, and Minerva, to implore their protection upon the city. The Saturnalia, or feasts of Saturn, in December, were devoted to mirth and jollity, and all orders of the state were allowed to use the greatest liberties with their superiors. But the most remarkable among the Romans was that held for three days and three nights in honour of Apollo and Diana, called the *secular games*. It was celebrated only once in a hundred or a hundred and ten years; and, during its continuance, sacrifices were offered by the people in the Campus Martius, sacred hymns were sung, and Circensian sports exhibited. The festival concluded by a chorus of boys and girls reciting a poem composed for the occasion, expressive of the wish of the Roman people that the gods would continue their protection to the empire.

EXERCISES.

1. What were the most celebrated of the Roman games, and what was the extent of the Circus Maximus? What was the mode of exhibiting horse-races in that building? What other contests were there displayed? Who performed feats of activity in the Circus Maximus? What military, naval, and other exhibitions took place in the Campus Martius?
2. What sort of persons were the gladiators? Where did they fight, and how did they gain the advantage over their antagonists? What signals did the spectators give for saving or destroying the lives of gladiators? How were the victorious combatants rewarded? How long did the shows of gladiators sometimes continue?
3. What was the most interesting amusement among the Romans? Who introduced the first regular play on the Roman stage? What was the nature of their comic exhibitions, and what dress did the actors wear? What was the subject of Roman tragedy, what were its accompaniments, and the dress of the players? How were the pantomimes represented, and what kind of performers accompanied them?
4. What other games were instituted among the Romans? What were their names, and how were they celebrated? What was the most remarkable Roman festival, and how was it conducted and concluded?

 CHAP. VIII.
Manners and Customs of the Romans.

1. UNDER this particular may be comprehended the Roman modes of dress, living, and rites observed at marriages and funerals. The principal garment worn by the Romans was the *toga*, a white woollen gown, which enclosed the whole body, —loose and open at the top, and round and close at the bottom. Being long and flowing, it was inconvenient for persons engaged in manual labour, who therefore tucked it up, and girt it round their waist with a girdle. Though the toga was the peculiar dress of all Roman citizens, yet it varied in its tex-

ture and appearance according to the rank of different persons in the state. Magistrates had their togas fringed with purple, which they called *prætexta*; and generals, in triumphal processions, were permitted to wear embroidered ones, which were denominated *toga picta*, *purpurea* or *palmata*, for the purpose of appearing to the best advantage. The Roman youth wore the *toga prætexta* till the age of seventeen, when they assumed the *toga virilis*, or gown appropriated for full-grown men. Though the togas commonly in use were white, there were others of a black colour, adapted for funeral solemnities, and as mourning habits.—Another dress worn by the Romans was the *tunica*, a white woollen robe which descended below the knees, and was tied round the waist with a girdle. This being a cheaper dress than the toga, was generally worn by the common people, and by foreigners who resided in Rome. The wealthier citizens had also great coats, which they called *lacerna* and *penula*; the former of which they wore above the toga, and the latter above the tunica, in cold weather.—As all these garments reached below the knees, hence the Romans had neither breeches nor stockings; though shoes were worn by them in winter, and sandals in summer, which covered their soles only, and were tied round the foot with leathern thongs. They had no ordinary covering for their head, except the lappet of their gowns, which they threw over it; but on public occasions, or when they went on a journey, they wore a woollen cap, somewhat resembling a Highland bonnet.—The dress of the women, in the first ages of the commonwealth, was very similar to that of the men; but afterwards a long robe, called the *stola*, was worn by females, and a mantle, with which they covered their shoulders. The Roman ladies were particularly careful about their headdress and hair, which they adorned with ribands, jewels, and various other ornaments, that art or luxury had taught them to introduce.

2. The mode of living among the ancient Romans was very simple; and their principal meal was the *cæna*, of which they partook about three o'clock in the afternoon. But they afterwards adopted the modern custom of taking a breakfast (*jentaculum*) in the morning; a dinner (*prandium*) at mid-day; a refreshment in the afternoon, which they called *merenda*; and the *cæna* was reserved to be taken in the evening. The diet used by the Romans, in the first ages of the republic, was generally bread and pulse, which, however, was soon exchanged for more luxurious dainties. At breakfast and dinner the Romans either sat or stood; but in partaking of the *cæna*, they lay in a reclining posture on couches round their tables,

supported by the left arm ; and raised themselves up on their elbows to eat or drink. The poorer classes, indeed, could not always afford these conveniences ; and a three-footed table was the only article of furniture from which they received their meals. They always washed their hands before sitting down to eat ; and the rich generally bathed themselves before partaking of supper. At Roman entertainments, an egg was the first species of food presented to the guests ; and fruit of some kind ended the repast. The dishes used at the tables of the great were often very costly, such as the pheasant or nightingale, the wild boar, the turbot or lamprey, oysters, almonds, and grapes. The wines used at feasts were also of the most delicious kinds ; and the whole apparatus of the table was prepared in a style of the most magnificent luxury. The expense of entertainments among the Romans may be estimated from a statement of Tacitus, who mentions that it cost several rich citizens above £3000 sterling every day that they invited the emperor Vitellius to their tables ; and that he usually spent about £7,000,000 a-year in his domestic luxuries !—The cœna of the wealthy Romans was often accompanied by scenic exhibitions, or recitations from choice authors, performed by persons hired for the purpose, which afforded a source of amusement to the guests. At meals, and on other festive occasions, the Romans used several modes of diversion, such as playing at dice, odds and evens, backgammon, and other games of chance.—The modes of exercise adopted by them were of various kinds, such as playing at the hand or foot ball, the tennis-ball, and the *trochus* or hoop ; besides riding or walking in the porticos, and other places set apart for recreation. The public baths were also resorted to for the preservation of health, where valetudinarians were rubbed over and anointed by those who had the charge of them.

3. The customs of the Romans respecting their marriages may be shortly described. There were three circumstances which constituted a valid marriage among that people ; viz. prescription, the celebration of the nuptial rite, and actual purchase. The first of these was, when a man and woman had, by their mutual consent, and that of their relations, lived together as husband and wife for the space of a year, without ever deserting each other. In this case, they were considered as married persons, and enjoyed all the privileges claimed by those in that condition. The second mode of forming the matrimonial connexion consisted in the application of the parties to the pontifex maximus, to join them in wedlock before proper witnesses. It was part of the marriage ceremony, that the man and woman tasted of a cake composed of flour, salt,

and water ; after partaking of which the marriage was considered as indissoluble. The third method of entering into the nuptial contract was by a man and woman delivering to each other a piece of money, and engaging, by mutual consent, that they would henceforth live together as husband and wife. Though this simple rite wanted the solemnity of the pontifical ceremony, yet it was considered as equally valid and binding on the parties.—In fixing on a time for the celebration of a marriage, great care was taken to choose a lucky day ; and when it arrived, the bride appeared in a white flowing garment tucked up in a knot, which the bridegroom unloosed. She was then attended by her friends, who consulted the augurs, and sacrificed to Juno ; after which the ceremony was performed, and the wife was conducted to her husband's house, where the keys were delivered to her, and the day was afterwards spent in conviviality. Marriage, being thus solemnized, could not be dissolved except by divorce, which, however, was a right that belonged at first only to the husband ; but it was afterwards granted also to the wife. Though the only valid reason that justified divorce was conjugal infidelity, yet the most frivolous pretexts were often alleged as grounds of separation, though in these cases the injured party was allowed to reclaim the marriage-portion.

4. The Romans were particularly careful in performing the funeral obsequies of their departed friends. As soon as a person died, the eyes and mouth were closed by the nearest relation ; the body was then washed with warm water, and perfumed with frankincense ; after which it was dressed and laid out on a couch till the day of interment. Though burial was the most common mode of depositing the remains of the dead, yet they were also frequently burned on a funeral pile ; and this last practice became almost universal, till it was abolished by Constantine and other Christian emperors. The funerals of great men were solemnized in a very splendid manner : the procession was accompanied by torch-bearers and musicians of several kinds, together with the slaves and relatives of the deceased, clad in mourning robes, and borne along in couches to the place of burning or burial. Before proceeding thither, however, the body was conveyed to the *forum*, where a funeral oration was pronounced over it by some near relation of the deceased, or by a magistrate, if the senate so decreed. When a dead body was burned, the funeral pile erected to consume it was lighted by a torch, and sprinkled with perfumes ; or if the deceased had been a warrior, his arms and habiliments were thrown into the pile and consumed. The ashes of the body were then collected and put into an urn, which was de-

posited in the family sepulchre; but if the deceased was interred, his remains were put into a coffin and laid in a tomb. The usual period of mourning among the Romans was nine days; though women prolonged it, for a husband or parent, during a whole year.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the principal garment worn by the Romans, and what was the description of it? What varieties of the toga were used by the magistrates and Roman youth? What was the usual dress of the common people, and what were the upper robes of the wealthier citizens? What other garments were worn on particular occasions? What was the dress of the Roman women?

2. What was the principal meal of the ancient Romans? What change did they afterwards make in their mode of living? What was the posture of the Romans at their entertainments? What kinds of dishes were served up at the tables of the great? What estimate may be formed of the expense attending their feasts? What sorts of amusements were furnished to their guests? What were their modes of diversion and exercise?

3. What circumstances constituted a valid marriage among the Romans? In what manner were their nuptial contracts solemnized? What was the ceremony performed at marriages? On what grounds were divorces obtained?

4. What were the solemnities observed in preparing for the burial of the dead? What were the modes of disposing of their remains? How were the funerals of great men solemnized? What rites were observed in burning the bodies of the deceased? How long did the period of mourning for the deceased continue?

 CHAP. IX.

Domestic and Rural Economy of the Romans, &c.

1. THE domestic accommodations of the Romans were at first very scanty, their houses being built of wood, and thatched with straw; but in the time of Augustus the mode of their structure was very much improved, as the walls were thenceforth reared of brick, and the roof was covered with tiles. The houses in the city were three stories high, with areas in front, in the middle of which stairs ascended from the street to the principal door, which was guarded by slaves for the admission or exclusion of persons wishing to enter their masters' dwellings. The principal apartments of the Roman houses were the *atria*, or drawing-rooms; the *cœnacula*, or supping-rooms; and the *cubicula*, or sleeping-chambers; besides various others for the use of the domestics. Though the apartments were elegantly fitted up, yet, as the houses had no chimneys, they were often filled with smoke, though means were employed to prevent it, by sprinkling oil on the wood which they used for fuel. The windows of their houses were at first only openings to admit the light; but they were after-

wards composed of paper, horn, or transparent stone; and it appears that glass was not used for windows till the fourth century.

2. The wealthy Romans were remarkable for the taste which they exhibited in rearing and ornamenting their country villas. These contained accommodations for all the refinements of luxury, and were beautifully decorated with pleasure-grounds, orchards, and gardens, which surrounded them. As the Romans were fond of agricultural pursuits, the most illustrious men among them frequently resided in the country, and superintended the cultivation of their own lands. There were also two classes of persons who practised the art of husbandry; viz. those who paid tithes for the public grounds belonging to the state, and those who rented farms from private proprietors. The Roman mode of agriculture was, in a great measure, similar to ours; and they had nearly the same kinds of implements, though these were somewhat differently constructed. The animals they used for ploughing were oxen, generally in pairs, which the ploughman drove along by the occasional application of a sharp pointed stick. The kinds of grain sown by the Romans were wheat, barley, and oats; though wheat only was generally used for human sustenance, while barley, oats, and the leguminous crops, were given as food to their cattle. Their corn was cut down by scythes or sickles, and carried to the thrashing-floor, where the ears were either stripped off by an iron saw, or trodden out by cattle, or beaten out by flails. The manner of storing grain, and preparing it for consumption, was nearly the same among the Romans as it was with us before the introduction of the recent improvements in agriculture.

3. Another part of the domestic economy of the Romans was their different kinds of weights and measures. As the former of these were first applied in establishing a standard of money, it may be necessary to give a brief account of their coins, and their methods of computing them. In the first ages of the commonwealth, the Romans had no coined money; but by degrees a standard of value was introduced, which they called *libra*, equivalent to a lb., and divisible into twelve ounces. Pieces of brass were at first stamped as the current coin of the state; but afterwards gold and silver coins were substituted as more valuable, and better adapted for the purposes of payment or purchase. The ancient brass coins, denominated *asses*, weighed each a lb., but being inconvenient for transportation, other coins of the same kind and value, weighing only one-half, one-quarter, one-twelfth, and lastly, one-twenty-fourth of a lb., or half an ounce, which continued

ever after to be the standard weight of the *as*, were gradually introduced. The silver coin was called a *denarius*, and equal in value to 10 *asses*; and the gold coin, called *aureus*, was in like manner worth 25 *denarii*. The Romans computed their money by the *sestertius*, which was worth nearly 2d. of our money: the *denarius* was in value about $7\frac{3}{4}$ d.; the *aureus* amounted to 16s. $1\frac{3}{4}$ d.; and the talent to £193, 15s. The interest of money among the Romans varied at different periods: by a law of the twelve tables it was fixed at 1 per cent., and usually paid at the beginning of a month; but towards the end of the republic, and under the first emperors, the legal interest was 12 per cent. The Roman measures were those of length and capacity; the former computed by feet, each of which comprehended 12 inches; cubits, each equal to $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot; paces, equal to five feet; stadia or furlongs, equivalent to 625 feet; and miles, each containing 5000 feet or 1000 paces. The method of measuring land was by *jugera*, or acres; each 240 feet in length, by 120 in breadth, or 28,800 square feet. The measures of capacity were the *amphora*, which held nearly 9 gallons; the *congius*, equivalent to nearly 1 gallon; and the *sextarius*, containing $1\frac{1}{2}$ pint English. There was also a larger liquid measure, called *culeus*, which held 20 amphoræ; and a dry measure, denominated *modius*, equal to rather more than an English peck.

4. As the Romans were a literary people, they soon introduced the materials for writing then adopted, and made several improvements in their application. These consisted in the use of "tablets covered with wax, paper, and parchment." The instrument employed as a pen for writing on these tablets was a sharp-pointed iron pencil, called a *stylus*, broad at one end, for the purpose of smoothing the wax, and expunging any words which they wished to write anew. But, when the Romans wrote on parchment, they used a reed, called *calamus*, split and sharpened at the point, which was dipped in ink, as in modern times. The parchment, however, was written only on one side; and, when necessity required, one piece was united to another, and the whole of them were rolled up on a round piece of wood made for the purpose. As the Romans collected vast numbers of books, they had extensive libraries; some of which were public, such as the one founded by Augustus in the temple of Apollo; and another, called the Ulpian library, established by Trajan.

5. Before concluding this subject, it may be proper to give a short account of the method adopted by the Romans in the computation of time. At first their year consisted only of

ten months, and began with March, which was so called by Romulus, in honour of Mars, his reputed father. January and February were afterwards added by Numa, which completed twelve months or periodic revolutions of the moon during the course of a year. But as the lunar year consisted only of 354 days, Numa introduced an intercalary month to correspond with the solar year, which, however, produced such confusion in the computation of time, that Julius Cæsar introduced a new method of regulating the kalendar, which has continued to the present day.—The Roman month was divided into three periods, denominated the *kalends*, *nones*, and *ides*. The *kalends* were always the first day of the month; the *nones*, the 5th; and the *ides*, the 13th; but “in March, May, July, and October, the *nones* fell on the 7th, and the *ides* on the 15th.” The month was not divided into weeks, till the times of the emperors; and the names of the days, which are still used, were derived either from the celestial luminaries, or from certain heathen deities. In computing their time, the Romans reckoned their dates by so many days prior to the beginning of a month; thus, the last day of March was the first before the *kalends* of April, &c. They distinguished their day into natural and civil; the former including the time from sunrise to sunset, and the latter comprehending the 24 hours from midnight to midnight. There were also four watches of the night, each three hours; beginning with the setting of the sun in the evening, and ending with his rising next morning; though, as the Romans had neither clocks nor watches for computing time, the hours varied in length according to the different seasons of the year.

EXERCISES.

1. Of what materials were the Roman houses built? What was their height, and what were the appendages belonging to them? What principal apartments did they contain? Why were they infested with smoke, and what means were used to prevent it? Of what articles were the windows composed?

2. How were the villas of the wealthy Romans ornamented? What classes of persons followed agricultural pursuits? What was the Roman mode of agriculture, together with the implements and animals employed in it? What kinds of grain were cultivated, and how was it cut down and prepared for use?

3. What was the standard for computing money, and selling wares among the Romans? What were the different kinds of current coins, and their respective value? What was the rate of interest charged by usurers, and fixed by law? What were the measures of length, and their respective proportions? What were the liquid measures, and their different capacities?

4. What was the Roman method of writing? What were the materials and instruments which they employed? How did the Romans write on parchment, and how did they compose their books? What public libraries were collected at Rome?

5. What was the Roman method of computing time? What changes were introduced into the Roman year? How were the Roman months divided, and on what days did the kalends, nones, and ides happen? Whence were the names of the days still in use derived? What were the divisions of the day, and the watches of the night?

CHAP. X.

Military and Naval Affairs of the Romans.

1. As this celebrated people carried the art of war perhaps to greater perfection than it has attained either in ancient or modern times, a short account of the mode in which it was conducted may serve to illustrate various parts of their interesting history. Before the Romans declared war against any nation, they despatched certain officers, called *Feciales*, to seek redress of the grievances complained of, and, if it was refused within thirty-three days, a bloody spear was at first shot into the enemy's territories; but afterwards it was discharged into a field near Rome, and a declaration of hostilities issued in due form.—For raising an army to contend with the enemies of the commonwealth, a levy of all the citizens, between seventeen and forty-six years of age, was annually made by the consuls, who cited the different tribes to appear in a square near the capitol, where a selection was made of the strongest and most active individuals to serve as soldiers. When the levy was completed, an oath was administered to the new recruits, that they should obey their general, and show themselves faithful in defending their country. Besides the troops thus raised among the Romans, there were others furnished by the allies and tributary sovereigns, which, in later times, composed the most efficient force of the empire.—The Roman army was divided into legions, which generally contained from four thousand two hundred to six thousand infantry, comprehending ten cohorts, which were divided into *maniples* and *centuries*. The complement of cavalry to a legion was three hundred. There were four sorts of infantry in each legion,—the *velites*, or light-armed troops, who generally began the battle, and fought with bows and arrows before or between the lines, as occasion required;—the *hastati*, composed of young men who fought with spears in the first rank;—the *principes*, consisting of men in the prime of life, who were placed behind the *hastati*;—the *triarii*, who were all veteran soldiers, and occupied the last line in the Roman army.—The armour of the soldiers consisted of a wooden shield, four feet and a half in length, and two feet and a half in breadth; a

brazen helmet, which covered the head and shoulders; surmounted by a crest of variegated feathers; a coat of mail, composed of leather covered with a network of iron, which encircled the breast; greaves, or coverings for the legs and feet; and a sword, with two javelins, which they wielded in their hands. The officers of the Roman army, besides the consul, or general, were the lieutenant-generals who acted under him; the military tribunes, six of whom were attached to each legion, and commanded separate divisions of it; the centurions, who had each the charge of a century, which varied in number from seventy to a hundred men; the *optiones* or lieutenants, who assisted the centurions, and the ensigns, who carried the standards.

2. When the Romans marched to any distance, they pitched their camp every night in some convenient position, and resumed their journey from day to day, till they arrived at the place of their destination. If they had occasion to remain long in one station, they erected a permanent camp, in the form of a square, surrounding it carefully with a ditch and a rampart. The Roman camp had four principal gates, and was divided into two sections; one of which was occupied by the tents of the general and superior officers, the other by the common soldiers and retainers; while an open space in the middle was allotted for transacting the business of the army. Guards were placed all around the camp, and night-watches appointed, who had a private signal by which they might discover the approach of an enemy. When orders were given for the army to decamp, the soldiers collected their baggage, dismantled their tents, and prepared to march. The Romans were so much accustomed to constant exercise, that they could march at the rate of four miles an hour; though the utensils which they carried seldom weighed less than 60 lbs. besides their arms; and the usual length of a day's journey was generally more than twenty miles.

3. When an army was about to engage in battle, it was drawn up in the following order: ten companies of the hastati, principes, and triarii occupied the three first ranks of each legion, between which were spaces for the velites, or sharpshooters. The legions formed the centre division; the auxiliaries were posted on the right and left; and the cavalry composed the wings of the army. This order of battle, however, was not always observed, for sometimes the troops were drawn up in the form of a wedge, to break the enemy's ranks; sometimes in that of a pair of shears, to enclose their assailants; and at other times in a round body, to defend themselves from an

attack on all quarters. The Roman standard was an eagle, fixed on a spear; and the ensigns of the different companies had besides some particular mark, by which they were distinguished.—Before an engagement commenced, the general ordered a red flag to be hoisted, and then harangued his troops, who received his instructions with a loud shout, expressive of their eagerness to be led against the enemy. The trumpets then sounded, and the soldiers rushed forward, accompanied by a simultaneous burst of exclamation throughout the whole army. The attack was usually made by the velites, who, if repulsed, retired between the lines, and formed in the rear. The hastati then encountered the enemy, and, when overpowered, fell back among the principes, who renewed the attack. But if they also were defeated, the triarii advanced, and with the united force of the hastati and principes, generally succeeded in gaining the battle. If, however, the combined assault of the whole failed, a retreat was sounded as the signal of defeat; but if it was followed by a victory, the soldiers hailed their general with shouts of acclamation, and a triumph was decreed him by the senate as the reward of his services.

4. When a victory was obtained, the general mustered his army, and conferred rewards on those officers and soldiers whose valour had been the most conspicuous. The most honourable was a civic crown, composed of oak-leaves, and bestowed on those soldiers who had saved the lives of any Roman citizens. The persons who received it were honoured with peculiar respect when they appeared in public, and, however obscure in rank, were entitled to take their places in the theatre or circus next to the senators. Crowns of gold were also conferred on those who first entered an enemy's camp, scaled the walls of a town, or boarded a vessel in a naval engagement. When a besieged army was relieved from blockade, the soldiers presented a crown, made of the grass in the town, to their deliverer; and if any officer or soldier displayed some extraordinary act of bravery, a golden crown was given him as the reward of his heroism. When the Roman commander had the good fortune to kill the general of the enemy with his own hand, he presented the armour and other spoils taken from the vanquished foe, called *spolia opima*, to Jupiter Feretrius. This distinction, the most flattering to the personal courage of the commander-in-chief, was obtained only three times before the suppression of the republic; first by Romulus, who slew the king of the Cæninenses; next, by Cornelius Cossus, who slew the king of the Veientes; and, lastly, by Claudius Marcellus, who slew the king of the Galli Insubres.—But the

greatest military honour among the Romans was the triumph granted to a victorious general. This consisted in a splendid procession of the general and his army through the streets of Rome to the capitol, crowned with laurel, and accompanied by the magistrates and senators, the captive leaders and their families, together with the vanquished troops, and all the spoils taken from the enemy. On arriving at the capitol, the general returned thanks to Jupiter for his victory, deposited part of the spoil at the feet of his image, and ordered certain victims to be slain on the occasion; after which he treated the magistrates, senators, and his friends, with a grand entertainment. Another kind of military triumph, called an *ovatio*, of a less splendid nature, was granted to a general for gaining a partial advantage over an enemy; and naval triumphs were also celebrated for any signal victories obtained at sea.—The military punishments inflicted by the Romans were either of a slight kind, such as degradation, removal from the camp, or deprivation of pay; or more severe, as being beaten with rods, stoned to death, or stabbed by the soldiers. The pay and provisions of the Roman army were very scanty; the former at first being only 2½d. a-day for a foot soldier; though Cæsar increased it to 5d. and Augustus to 7½d.: and the allowance for each soldier being a bushel of corn per week; though the officers' pay and provisions rose in proportion to their rank.

5. The Roman method of besieging towns discovered the most consummate skill in the art of war. Fortified places were first surrounded by troops, who, under cover of their shields, which were raised over their heads and locked in each other to secure them from missiles from above, endeavoured to take them by assault; but, if this mode of attack failed, two lines of fortifications, one to defend the army from sallies within, and another to secure it from an enemy without, were instantly raised, between which the camp was pitched, and the besiegers carried on their operations. The next process was to erect a mound of earth, on which were placed towers, containing engines for throwing stones into the town; as also moveable towers placed on wheels for approaching the walls. If the besiegers could not by these means effect an escalade, a powerful engine, called a *battering-ram*, was pushed against the wall, which loosened the stones and soon demolished it. When, however, the walls could not be approached, the besiegers wrought a mine under ground, and thus opened their way into the town, which they took by surprise, before any effectual resistance could be made.—The besieged, on the other hand, while offensive operations were going forward, endea-

voured to defend themselves by discharging stones and other missiles against their assailants, and destroying their works, or undermining their fortifications. It was seldom, however, that the Romans failed in taking any town which they besieged; and, on becoming masters of it, they gave it up to be plundered by the soldiers.

6. The Romans, during the first ages of the commonwealth, were almost ignorant of naval affairs; but their contests with the Carthaginians taught them the necessity of building large fleets, for acquiring the superiority over their rivals at sea. The Roman ships of war were of an oblong shape, and had several decks, or banks of oars, according to their height above the water. They were impelled by rowers seated on benches above one another; those on the highest seats had long oars, and those on the lowest short ones, all of which struck the water, and impelled the vessel forward in its course. The other apparatus of ships of war among the Romans was somewhat similar to that of those in modern times, though greatly inferior in neatness and adaptation to the purposes for which they were intended. Their mode of arranging their fleets for a naval engagement corresponded with that of an army on land; the ships were generally drawn up in lines, or in the form of a wedge, or a circle; a red flag was hoisted as the signal for battle; the trumpets sounded, and the combatants shouted in closing with the enemy. As the hostile fleets approached into contact with each other, the mariners endeavoured to render the ships of their antagonists useless, by striking off their oars, or grappling with them, and sometimes sunk them altogether. They also boarded each other's vessels, and committed great havoc in the contest which ensued. When a Roman fleet was victorious, the ships were adorned with laurel, rewards similar to those conferred after a victory on land were bestowed on the mariners who had distinguished themselves in the action, and the commander was granted the honour of a triumph.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the Roman method of declaring war? How did the Romans recruit their armies? What was the amount of the Roman legion, and what were the kinds of troops that composed it? What was the armour used by the Roman soldiers? What were the principal officers in each legion?

2. How did the Romans pitch their camps? What was the form of the camp, and how many divisions did it contain? How was it guarded during the night? What method was observed in decamping, and at what rate did the soldiers march?

3. How were the troops arranged before an engagement? What preparations were made for beginning the attack? What was the mode of con-

ducting a battle? How did the Romans act when defeated, and how did they express their joy for a victory?

4. What rewards were bestowed on meritorious soldiers? How was the triumph of the general celebrated? What other kind of triumph was granted for minor victories? What were the punishments inflicted in the Roman army? What were the pay and provisions of the soldiers?

5. What was the Roman method of besieging towns? What means and engines did they employ to demolish the walls? How did they obtain possession of fortified places when the walls could not be approached? What means did the besieged employ to defend themselves?

6. What were the shape and construction of Roman ships of war? How were they rowed, and how did their apparatus differ from that of modern vessels? How were fleets arranged for a naval engagement? How was a sea-fight conducted, and how did the Romans reward their victorious mariners and commanders?

THE
HISTORY OF ROME.

CHAP I.

Of the Origin of the Romans.

1. THE Romans were particularly desirous of being thought descended from the gods, as if to hide the meanness of their real ancestry. Æneas, the son of Venus and Anchises, having escaped from the destruction of Troy, after many adventures and dangers, arrived in Italy, where he was
B. C. }
1184. } kindly received by Latinus, king of the Latins, who gave him his daughter Lavinia in marriage. Turnus, king of the Rutuli, was the first who opposed Æneas, as he had long made pretensions to Lavinia himself. A war ensued, in which the Trojan hero was victorious, and Turnus was slain. In consequence of this success, Æneas built a city, which was called Lavinium in honour of his wife; and, some time after, engaging in another war against Mezentius, one of the petty kings of the country, although again victorious, he died in the battle, after a reign of four years.

2. Numitor, the fifteenth king in a direct line from Æneas, who took possession of the kingdom in consequence of his father's will, had a brother named Amulius, who succeeded to the treasures which had been brought from Troy. As riches
B. C. }
777. } but too generally prevail against right, Amulius made use of his wealth to supplant his brother, and soon found means to possess himself of the kingdom. Not content with the crime of usurpation, he added that of murder also. Numitor's son first fell a sacrifice to his suspicions; and, to remove all apprehensions of being one day disturbed in his ill-gotten power, he caused Rhea Silvia, his brother's only daughter, to become a Vestal virgin, which office obliging her to perpetual celibacy, made him less uneasy as to the claims of posterity. His precautions, however, were all frustrated in the event; for Rhea Silvia, going to fetch water from a neighbouring fountain, was met and forced by a man, whom, perhaps to palliate her offence, she averred to be Mars, the god of war. Shortly after, she was delivered of two boys, who were no sooner born,

than they were devoted by the usurper to destruction. The mother was condemned to be buried alive, the usual punishment for Vestals who had violated their chastity, and the twins were ordered to be flung into the river Tiber. It happened at the time when this rigorous sentence was put in execution, that the river had more than usually overflowed its banks, so that the place where the children were thrown being at a distance from the main current, the water was too shallow to drown them. In this situation, therefore, they continued without harm ; and that no part of their preservation might want its wonders, we are told that they were for some time suckled by a wolf, until Faustulus, the king's herdsman, finding them thus exposed, brought them home to Acca Laurentia, his wife, who brought them up as her own sons.

3. Romulus and Remus, the twins thus strangely preserved, seemed early to discover abilities and desires above the meanness of their supposed original. The shepherd's life began to displease them ; and, from tending flocks or hunting wild beasts, they soon turned their strength against the robbers who overran the country, whom they often stript of their plunder to share it among their fellow shepherds. In one of these excursions, Remus was taken prisoner by Numitor's herdsmen, who brought him before the king, and accused him of being a plunderer. Romulus, however, being informed by Faustulus of his real birth, was not remiss in assembling a number of his fellow shepherds, and, with their assistance, beset the usurper on all sides, who, during his amazement and distraction, was taken and slain ; while Numitor, who had been deposed forty-two years, recognised his grandsons, and was once more restored to the throne.

4. Numitor being thus in quiet possession of the kingdom, his grandsons resolved to build a city upon those hills where they had formerly lived as shepherds. Many of the neighbouring shepherds also, and such as were fond of change, repaired to the intended city, and prepared to raise it. In order to proceed in this undertaking with all possible solemnity, the two brothers were advised by the king to take an omen from the flight of birds ; and it was agreed that he whose omen should be most favourable, should in all respects direct the other. In compliance with this advice, they both took their stations upon different hills. To Remus appeared six vultures ; to Romulus twice that number ; so that each party thought itself victorious ; the one having the first omen, the other the most complete. This produced a contest, which ended in a battle wherein Remus was slain ; and it is even said that he was killed by his brother, who, being provoked

at his leaping contemptuously over the city-wall, struck him dead upon the spot.

5. Romulus, being now sole commander, and eighteen years of age, laid the foundations of a city that was one day to give laws to the world. It was called Rome, after the name of the founder, and built upon the Palatine hill, on which he
 B. C. }
 754. } had taken his successful omen. The city was at first almost square, containing about a thousand houses. It was nearly a mile in compass, and commanded a small territory round it of about eight miles in extent. However small it appears, it was still worse inhabited; and the first method employed to increase its numbers was the opening of a sanctuary for all malefactors, slaves, and such as were desirous of novelty. These came in great multitudes, and contributed to increase the number of our legislator's new subjects.

EXERCISES.

1. Who was the first ancestor of the Romans? What is the general history of Æneas? Who opposed his settlement in Italy, and what was the result of his struggle with Turnus? In what transactions did he afterwards engage, and what became of him?

2. Who was the fifteenth king of Latium, and on whom did he bestow his riches? How did Amulius employ his wealth to injure his brother, and all his family? By whom were his nefarious designs prevented? What befell Rhea Silvia and her two children? By whom were they preserved and educated?

3. How did Romulus and Remus spend their youth? What accident happened to the latter? How was the former avenged on Amulius, and what honour did Numitor regain?

4. With whom did Romulus and Remus found the city of Rome? How did they determine which of them should have the superintendence of its establishments? In what manner did Remus's death happen?

5. Upon what spot was Rome built, and at what period of the world was it founded? What were its original dimensions, and the extent of its territory? What means did Romulus employ to increase its population?

CHAP. II.

From the Building of Rome to the Death of Romulus.

1. SCARCELY was the city raised above its foundation, when its rude inhabitants began to think of giving some form to their constitution. Romulus, by an act of great generosity, left them at liberty to choose whom they would for their king; and they, from gratitude, concurred to elect their founder. He was accordingly acknowledged as chief of their religion, sovereign magistrate of Rome, and general of the army. Besides a guard to attend his person, it was agreed that he should be preceded wherever he went by twelve men, armed with axes tied up in a bundle of rods, who were to serve as executioners of the law, and impress his new subjects with an idea of his

authority. The senate, who were to act as counsellors to the king, was composed of a hundred men whose age, wisdom, or valour, gave them a natural authority over their fellow-subjects. The king named the first senator, and appointed him to the government of the city, whenever war required his own absence. The plebeians, who composed the third part of the legislature, assumed to themselves the power of authorizing those laws which were passed by the king and the senate. All things relative to peace or war; to the election of magistrates, and even to the choosing of a king, were confirmed by their suffrages.

2. The first care of the newly-created king was, to attend to the interests of religion; but the precise form of worship adopted by the Romans at that early period is unknown. The greater part of the religion of that age consisted in a firm reliance upon the credit of their soothsayers, who pretended, from observations on the flight of birds and the entrails of beasts, to direct the present and to unfold futurity. Romulus, by an express law, commanded that no election should be made, nor enterprise undertaken, without first consulting the soothsayers. Among other laws enacted by Romulus, there was one whereby wives were forbidden, upon any pretext whatever, to separate from their husbands: while, on the contrary, the husband was empowered to repudiate his wife, and even in some cases to put her to death. His laws between children and their parents were even still more severe; the father had entire power over both the fortune and life of his offspring; he could sell or imprison them at any time of their lives, or in any stations to which they were advanced.—After thus endeavouring to regulate his subjects, Romulus next gave orders to ascertain their numbers. The whole amounted but to three thousand foot, and about as many hundred horsemen, capable of bearing arms. These were divided equally into three tribes, and to each he assigned a different part of the city. Each of these tribes was subdivided into ten *curiæ*, or companies, consisting of an hundred men each, with a centurion to command it; a priest called *Curio*, to perform the sacrifices; and two of the principal inhabitants, called *Duumviri*, to distribute justice.

3. A government thus wisely constituted soon gained an accession to the number of its subjects; multitudes flocked into the new city from all the adjacent towns, and it only seemed to want women to ensure its duration. In this exigence, Romulus, by the advice of the senate, sent deputies to the Sabines, his neighbours, entreating their alliance, and offering to cement a confederacy with them, if they would supply him

with wives for his new subjects. The Sabines, who were then considered the most warlike people of Italy, rejected the proposal with disdain. Romulus therefore resolved to obtain by force what was denied to entreaty; and for this purpose proclaimed a feast, in honour of Neptune, throughout all the neighbouring villages; and made the most magnificent preparations for it. These feasts were generally preceded by sacrifices, and ended in shows of wrestlers, gladiators, and chariot-races. The Sabines, as he had expected, were among the foremost who came to be spectators, bringing their wives and daughters with them to share the pleasure of the sight. In the mean-time the games began; and, while the strangers were most intent upon the spectacle, a number of the Roman youths rushed in among them with drawn swords, seized the youngest and most beautiful women, and carried them off by violence. In vain the parents protested against this breach of hospitality; in vain the virgins themselves at first opposed the attempts of their ravishers; perseverance and caresses obtained those favours which timidity at first denied; so that the betrayers, from being objects of aversion, soon became the objects of their dearest affections.—A bloody war ensued in consequence of this act of violence on the part of the Romans. The cities of Cæcina, Antemnæ, and Crustumerium, were the first that resolved to revenge the common cause, which the Sabines seemed too dilatory in pursuing. But all these, by making separate inroads, became an easy conquest to Romulus, who made the most merciful use of his victory. Instead of destroying their towns, or lessening their numbers, he only placed colonies of Romans in them, to serve as a frontier to repress more distant invasions.

4. Tatius, king of Cures, a Sabine city, was the last, although the most formidable, who undertook to revenge the disgrace which his country had suffered. He entered the Roman territories at the head of twenty-five thousand men, and, not content with a superiority of forces, added stratagem also to ensure his success. Tarpeia, who was daughter to the commander of the Capitoline hill, happened to fall into his hands, as she went without the walls of the city to fetch water. Upon her he prevailed, by means of large promises, to betray one of the gates to his army. The reward she engaged for was what the soldiers wore on their arms, by which she meant their bracelets.—They, however, either mistaking her meaning, or desirous to punish her perfidy, threw their bucklers upon her as they entered, and crushed her to death. The Sabines being thus possessed of the Capitoline hill, continued the war at their leisure; and for some time only slight skirmishes passed

betwixt them and the Romans. At last a general engagement ensued, which was renewed for several days with almost equal success, so that neither could think of submitting. To decide the contest, both parties drew out all their forces; and it was in the valley between the Capitoline and Quirinal hills that the last engagement was fought between the Romans and the Sabines. The engagement was now become general, and the slaughter prodigious, when the attention of both sides was suddenly turned from this scene of horror to another still more interesting. The Sabine women, who had been carried off by the Romans, were observed, with their hair loose, and their ornaments neglected, flying in between the combatants, regardless of their own danger, and, with loud outcries, imploring their husbands and their brothers to desist. Upon this the combatants, as if by mutual impulse, let fall their weapons, and beheld the scene with silent amazement. An accommodation ensued, by which it was agreed that Romulus and Tatius should reign jointly in Rome, with equal power and prerogative; that a hundred Sabines should be admitted into the senate; that the city should retain its former name; but that the citizens should be called Quirites, after Cures, the principal town of the Sabines; and that, both nations being thus united, such of the Sabines as chose should be admitted to live in Rome and enjoy all the privileges of citizens. Tatius was killed about five years afterwards by the Lavinians, for having protected some of his servants who had plundered them and slain their ambassadors.

5. By the death of Tatius, Romulus saw himself once more sole monarch of Rome, and his power soon became so formidable as to excite the apprehensions of the people of Fidenæ and Veii, who, making ill-concerted incursions into the Roman country, offered but a feeble resistance to armies now inured to victory. Fidenæ was reduced, and Veii compelled to surrender a portion of its territory as a pledge of submission.—Successes like these produced an equal share of pride in the conqueror. Instead of being content with the limits which had been wisely assigned to his power, he began to affect absolute authority, and to set at nought those laws to which he himself had formerly professed implicit obedience. The senate was particularly displeased at this conduct, as they found themselves only used as instruments to ratify the rigour of his commands. We are not told the precise manner by which they contrived to get rid of the tyrant. Some say, that he was torn to pieces in the senate-house; others, that he disappeared while reviewing his army. Certain it is, that, from the secrecy of the fact, and the concealment of his body, they took

occasion to persuade the multitude that he was taken up to heaven; and thus they were contented to worship, as a god, him whom they could not submit to as a king. B. C. 717. }
Y. R. 37. } Romulus reigned thirty-seven years, and, after his death, had a temple built to him, under the name of Quirinus.

EXERCISES.

1. Whom did the Romans elect as their first king? What were the titles with which he was invested, and the insignia by which he was attended? Of what sort of men was the senate composed? What rank and power did the plebeians hold in the government?

2. In what did the religion of the ancient Romans chiefly consist? What laws did Romulus enact for the regulation of his subjects? To what did the number of the Romans amount at this period? What were the municipal divisions of the people, and the official persons appointed for offering sacrifice and distributing justice?

3. What efforts did Romulus make to procure wives for his subjects, and what was their result? What stratagems did he employ to bring a large concourse of the neighbouring people to Rome? In what manner did the Roman youths seize upon and carry off the Sabine women? What cities declared war against the Romans for this act of violence? What was the result of their hostilities?

4. Who was the last person that declared war, and what force did he bring against the Romans? Whom did he engage to deliver up the city, and what was her fate? What was the result of several battles between the Romans and Sabines? How was the last engagement between them suddenly interrupted? What was the accommodation into which they mutually entered? What became of Tatius, the joint sovereign with Romulus?

5. Whose apprehensions were excited by the growing power of Rome? What was the result of their expeditions? What conduct did Romulus pursue which displeased the senators? In what manner is his death supposed to have happened, and how did the senators conceal their perpetration of it? How long had Romulus reigned?

 CHAP. III.

From the Death of Romulus to the Death of Tullus Hostilius, the third King of Rome.

1. UPON the death of Romulus, the city seemed greatly divided in the choice of a successor. The Sabines were for having a king chosen from their body; but the Romans could not bear the thoughts of advancing a stranger to the throne. In this perplexity, the senators undertook to supply the place of the king, by taking the government, each of them in turn, for five days, and during that time enjoying all the honours and privileges of royalty. This new form of government continued for a year; but the plebeians, who saw that this method of transferring power was only multiplying their masters, insisted upon altering this new plan of administration. The senate, being thus driven to an election, pitched upon Numa Pompilius, a Sabine, and their choice was received with universal approbation by the people.

B. C. 715. }
Y. R. 39. } 2. Numa Pompilius, who was near forty years of age at the period of his accession, had long been eminent for his piety, justice, moderation, and exemplary life. He was skilled in all the learning and philosophy of the Sabines, and lived at Cures, contented with a private fortune, unambitious of high honours. It was not, therefore, without reluctance, that he accepted the dignity; but his merits were so well known, that his acceptance of it produced universal joy among the people, who seemed not so much to receive a king as a kingdom. No monarch could be more suitable for them than Numa, at a juncture when the government was composed of various petty states, lately subdued, and but ill united among each other. They wanted a master who could, by his laws and precepts, soften their warlike dispositions, and, by his example, inspire them with a love of religion, and every milder virtue.

3. Numa's whole time was accordingly spent in inculcating upon his subjects the advantages of piety, and a veneration for the gods. He built many new temples, he instituted sacred offices and feasts; and the sanctity of his life gave him credit enough to persuade his people that he had a particular correspondence with the goddess Egeria. He alleged that, by her advice, he built the temple of Janus, which was to be shut in time of peace, and open in time of war; he likewise ordained four Vestal virgins, who had very great privileges conferred upon them. For the encouragement of agriculture, he divided those lands which Romulus had gained in war among the poorer classes of the people; he also regulated the kalendar, and abolished the distinction between Romans and Sabines, by dividing the people according to their several trades, and by compelling them to live together. Having spent his life in this manner, till he arrived at the age of fourscore years, and having reigned forty-three in profound peace, he died, ordering his body to be buried in a stone coffin, and his books of ceremonies, which consisted of twelve in Latin, and as many in Greek, to be buried by his side in another.

B. C. 672. }
Y. R. 82. } 4. Upon the death of Numa, the government once more devolved upon the senate, and continued till the people elected Tullus Hostilius for their king, which choice had also the concurrence of the senators. This monarch, the grandson of a noble Roman, who had formerly signalized himself against the Sabines, was every way unlike his predecessor. He was entirely devoted to war, and more fond of enterprise than even the founder of the empire himself had been; so that he only sought a pretext for leading his forces into the field. The Albans were the first people who gave him an opportunity

of indulging his favourite inclinations. The forces of these states met about five miles from Rome, and prepared to decide the fate of their respective kingdoms; for almost every battle in these times was decisive. The two armies were for some time drawn out in array, awaiting the signal to begin, when an unexpected proposal from the Alban general prevented the onset. Stepping in between both armies, he offered the Romans a choice of deciding the dispute by single combat; adding, that the state whose champion was overcome should submit to the conqueror. A proposal like this suited the impetuous temper of the Roman king, and was embraced with joy by all his subjects, each of whom hoped that he himself would be chosen to fight the cause of his country.

B. C. 667. } 5. There were at that time in each army three
Y. R. 87. } twin-brothers; those of the Romans were called Horatii, and those of the Albans, Curiatii,—all six remarkable for their courage, strength, and activity:—and by them it was resolved that the dispute should be settled. The champions accordingly met in combat together, and each, regardless of his own safety, sought only the destruction of his opponent. The spectators, in horrid silence, trembled at every blow, and wished to share the danger, till fortune seemed to decide the glory of the field. Victory, which had hitherto been doubtful, appeared to declare against the Romans, who beheld two of their champions lying dead upon the plain, and the three Curiatii, although wounded, slowly endeavouring to pursue the survivor, who seemed, by his flight, to beg for mercy. Soon, however, they perceived that his escape was only a stratagem to separate his antagonists, whom he was unable to oppose united; for quickly after, stopping in his course, and turning on his enemy, who followed closely behind, he laid him dead at his feet. The second brother, who came up to his assistance, shared the same fate; so that now there remained but the last Curiatius to conquer, who, fatigued and quite disabled by his wounds, slowly came up to offer an easy victory. He was killed, almost unresisting; while the conqueror exclaimed, that he offered him as a victim to the superiority of the Romans, whom the Alban army now consented to obey.

6. But none of the virtues of that age were without alloy;—the very hand, which in the morning was exerted to save his country, was before night imbrued in the blood of a sister; for Horatius, returning triumphant from the field, was indignant at beholding her bathed in tears, and lamenting the loss of one of the Curiatii, who was her lover, to whom she was betrothed. But when, upon seeing the vest which she

had made for him among the spoils of her brother, she began to upbraid him, Horatius was provoked beyond the power of sufferance, and slew her in a rage. This action greatly displeased the senate, and drew on him the condemnation of the magistrates; but he was pardoned on making his appeal to the people.—Two years after, the Albans having secretly instigated some of the neighbouring states to take up arms, were again reduced, their capital itself was destroyed, and the

B. C. 610. } inhabitants transferred to Rome.—Hostilius died,
Y. R. 114. } after a reign of thirty-two years; some say by lightning, others, with more probability, by treason.

EXERCISES.

1. What form of government took place after the death of Romulus? How long did it continue? Who was at last chosen king?
2. What was the character of Numa Pompilius? How was he an eligible king for the Romans?
3. How did he employ himself? What offices did he institute, and what structures did he build? What other improvements did he make? How long did he reign?
4. Who was next elected king? What was his character? With whom did he engage in war? How was a battle prevented?
5. Who were the champions that undertook to decide the contest? What were the particulars of the combat, and who gained the victory?
6. Of what act of cruelty was Horatius guilty? What befell the Albans two years after? How long did Hostilius reign?

CHAP. IV.

From the Death of Tullus Hostilius to the Death of Tarquinius Priscus, the fifth King of Rome.

B. C. 640. } 1. AFTER an interregnum, as in the former case,
Y. R. 114. } Ancus Martius, the grandson of Numa, was elected king by the people; and the choice was afterwards confirmed by the senate. As this monarch was a lineal descendant from Numa, so he seemed to make him the great object of his imitation. He instituted the sacred ceremonies which were to precede a declaration of war; he took every occasion to advise his subjects to return to the arts of agriculture, and to lay aside the less useful employment of war. These institutions and precepts were considered by the neighbouring states rather as marks of cowardice than of wisdom. The Latins, therefore, began to make incursions upon his territories, and, by their outrages, forced him to engage in war, the success of which was equal to its justice.—Ancus conquered the Latins, destroyed their cities, removed their inhabitants to Rome, and increased his territories by the addition of a part of theirs. He also quelled an insurrection of the Veii, the Fidenates, and

the Volsci; and obtained a second triumph over the Sabines. But his victories over the enemy were by no means comparable to his works at home, in raising temples, fortifying the city, making a prison for malefactors, and building a seaport at the mouth of the Tiber, called Ostia, by which he secured to his subjects the trade of that river, and that of the salt-pits adjacent. Having thus enriched his subjects, and beautified the city, Ancus died after a reign of twenty-four years.

B. C. 617. } 2. Lucius Tarquinius Priscus, whose original name
Y. R. 137. } was Lucumon, and who was appointed guardian to the sons of the late king, took the surname of Tarquinius from the city of Tarquinii, whence he last came. His father was a merchant of Corinth, who had acquired considerable wealth by trade, and had settled in Italy, upon account of some troubles at home.—His son Lucumon, who inherited his fortune, married a woman of family in the city of Tarquinii; and, as his birth, profession, and country were contemptible to the nobles of the place, he, by his wife's persuasion, came to settle at Rome, where merit only created distinction. On his way thither, say historians, as he approached the city gate, an eagle, stooping from above, took off his hat, and, flying round his chariot for some time with much noise, put it on again. This extraordinary incident, his wife Tanaquil, who, it seems, was skilled in augury, interpreted as a presage that he should one day wear the crown; and perhaps it was this which first fired his ambition to attain it. Ancus being dead, and the kingdom, as usual, devolving on the senate, Tarquin used all his power and art to set aside the children of the late king, and to get himself elected in their stead. For this purpose, upon the day appointed for election, he contrived to have them sent out of the city; and in a speech to the people, in which he urged his friendship for them, the fortune he had spent among them, and his knowledge of their government, he offered himself as a candidate for the throne. As there was nothing in this harangue that could be contested, it had the desired effect, and the people, with one consent, elected him as their sovereign.

3. A kingdom thus obtained by intrigue, was, notwithstanding, governed with equity. In the beginning of his reign, in order to recompense his friends, he added one hundred members more to the senate, which made them in all three hundred. But his peaceful endeavours were soon interrupted by the inroads of his restless neighbours, particularly the Latins, over whom he triumphed, and whom he forced to beg for peace. He then turned his arms against the Sabines, who had risen once more, and passed the Tiber; but Tarquin, attack-

ing them with vigour, routed their army ; so that many who escaped the sword, were drowned in attempting to cross the river ; while their bodies and armour, floating down to Rome, brought news of the victory, even before the messengers that were sent could arrive with the tidings. These conquests were followed by several advantages obtained over the Latins, from whom Tarquin took many towns, though without gaining any decisive victory.

4. Tarquin, having thus forced his enemies into submission, resolved not to let his subjects become effeminate through indolence, but undertook and perfected several public works for the convenience and embellishment of the city. In his time also the augurs acquired a considerable degree of reputation ; as he found it his interest to promote the superstition of the people, which was in fact but to increase their obedience. Tanaquil, his wife, was a great pretender to this art ; but Accius Nævius was the most celebrated adept in augury ever known in Rome. Upon a certain occasion, Tarquin, being resolved to try the augur's skill, asked him whether what he was then pondering in his mind could be effected ? Nævius, having examined his auguries, boldly affirmed that it might :—“ Why then,” cries the king, with an insulting smile, “ I had thoughts of cutting this whetstone with a razor.” “ Cut boldly,” replied the augur ; and the king cut it through accordingly ! From that day nothing was undertaken in Rome without consulting the augurs, and obtaining their advice and approbation.

5. Tarquin was not content with a kingdom, unless he were also dignified with the ensigns of royalty. In imitation of the Lydian kings, he assumed a crown of gold, an ivory throne, a sceptre with an eagle on the top, and robes of purple. It was perhaps the splendour of these insignia of royalty that first raised the envy of the late king's sons, who had now for above thirty-seven years quietly submitted to his government. His design also of adopting Servius Tullius, his son-in-law, for his successor, might have contributed to inflame their resentment. But whatever was the cause of their tardy vengeance, they had, however, resolved to destroy him ; and at last found means to effect their purpose, by hiring two ruffians, who, demanding permission to speak with the king, under pretence that they came for justice, struck him dead in his palace with the blow of an axe. The lictors, however, who waited on the person of the king, seized the murderers, who were attempting to escape. They were put to death ; but the sons of Ancus, who were the instigators, found safety by flight.

Thus fell Lucius Tarquinius, surnamed Priscus, to distinguish him from one of his successors of the same name, B. C. 578. } aged fifty-six years, of which he had reigned thirty-eight. Y. R. 176. }

EXERCISES.

1. Who was the next king of Rome after Hostilius? What regulations did he establish? What enemies did Ancus subdue? What public works did he execute? How long did he reign?
2. Who succeeded him? What are the particulars of Tarquin's history? How did he obtain possession of the throne?
3. What addition did he make to the number of the senators? What people did he subdue in battle?
4. What domestic improvements did he make? What story is related of a celebrated augur at this time, and what honour was conferred upon his order.
5. What insignia did Tarquin now assume? Who conceived the design of putting him to death? How was it effected, and at what period of his age and reign did it happen?

 CHAP. V.

From the Death of Tarquinius Priscus to the Death of Servius Tullius, the sixth King of Rome.

B. C. 578. } 1. THE report of the murder of Tarquin filled his
Y. R. 176. } subjects with rage and indignation; while the citizens ran from every quarter to the palace to learn the truth of the account, or to take vengeance upon the assassins. In this tumult, Tanaquil, widow of the late king, considering the danger which she must incur, in case the conspirators should succeed to the crown, and desirous of having her son-in-law for his successor, with great art dissembled her own sorrows, and also concealed the king's death. She assured the people from one of the windows of the palace, that he was not killed, but only stunned by the blow; that he would shortly recover; and that, in the mean time, he had deputed his power to Servius Tullius, his son-in-law. Servius accordingly, as it had been agreed upon between him and Tanaquil, issued from the palace, adorned with the ensigns of royalty, and, preceded by his lictors, went to despatch some affairs that related to the public safety, still pretending that he took all his instructions from the king. This scene of dissimulation continued for some days, till Servius had made his party good among the nobles; and when the death of Tarquin became publicly known, Servius ascended the throne, solely by the senate's appointment, and without attempting to gain the suffrages of the people.

2. Servius was the son of a bondwoman, who had been taken at the sacking of a town belonging to the Latins, and

was born whilst his mother was a slave. While yet an infant in his cradle, a lambent flame is said to have played round his head, which Tanaquil interpreted into an omen of his future greatness.—Upon being acknowledged king, the chief object of his reign was to increase the power of the senate, by depressing that of the people. The populace, who were unable to discover his designs, conferred upon him a full power of settling the taxes as he should think proper. Accordingly, as he insisted that they should pay their taxes by centuries, he commanded that they should give their votes, in all public transactions, by centuries also. By the law hitherto established, each citizen gave his suffrage singly, and the numbers of the poor always carried every measure against the power of the rich ; but by the regulations of Servius, the highest class, which included the senate, was made to consist of a greater number of centuries than all the other classes put together, and thus entirely outweighed them in every contention.

3. To ascertain the increase or decrease of his subjects and their fortunes, Servius instituted another regulation, which he called a *census*. By this it was ordained that all the citizens were to assemble in complete armour, and in their respective classes, once in five years, in the Campus Martius, and there to give an exact account of their families and fortunes. Servius having enjoyed a long reign, which was spent in settling the domestic policy of the state, and being also not inattentive to foreign concerns, conceived reasonable hopes of concluding it with tranquillity and ease. He had even thoughts of laying down his power, and, having formed the kingdom into a republic, to retire into obscurity ; but so generous a design was frustrated ere it could be carried into execution.

4. In the beginning of his reign, to secure his throne by every precaution, he had married his two daughters to the two grandsons of Tarquin ; and as he knew that the women were of opposite dispositions, as well as their intended husbands, he resolved to cross their tempers by giving each of them to him who was of a contrary temper : her that was meek and gentle, to him that was bold and furious : her that was ungovernable and proud, to him that was remarkable for a different character. By this means, he supposed that each would correct the failings of the other, and that the mixture would be productive only of concord. The event, however, proved otherwise. Lucius, his haughty son-in-law, soon grew displeased with the meekness of his consort, and placed his whole affections upon Tullia, his brother's wife, who answered his passion with sympathetic ardour. As their wishes were ungovernable, they soon resolved to break through every re-

straint that offered to prevent their union. Both undertook to murder their consorts, which they effected, and were accordingly soon after married together. A first crime ever produces a second: from the destruction of their consorts, they proceeded to conspire that of the king himself. They began their designs by raising factions against him, alleging his illegal title to the crown; and Lucius claimed it as heir to Tarquin.

5. At length, when he found his party ripe for seconding his views, he entered the senate-house, adorned with all the ensigns of royalty, and, placing himself upon the throne, began to harangue them upon the obscurity of the king's birth, and the injustice of his title. While he was yet speaking, Servius entered, attended by a few followers, and, seeing his throne thus rudely invaded, offered to push the usurper from his seat; but Tarquin, being in the vigour of youth, threw the old man down the steps which led to the throne; and some of his adherents, being instructed for that purpose, followed the king as he was feebly attempting to get to the palace, and despatched him by the way, throwing his body, all mangled and bleeding, as a public spectacle, into the street. In the mean time Tullia, burning with impatience for the event, was informed of what her husband had done, and, resolving to be among the first who should salute him as monarch, ordered her chariot to be driven to the senate-house. But as she approached the place where the body of the old king, her father, lay exposed and bloody, the charioteer, amazed at the inhuman spectacle, and not willing to trample upon it with his horses, offered to turn another way. The man's purpose, however, only served to increase the fierceness of her anger: she threw the footstool at his head, and ordered him to drive over the dead body without hesitation. Such was the end of Servius B. C. 534. }
Y. R. 220. } Tullius, a prince of eminent justice and moderation, after a useful and prosperous reign of forty-four years.

EXERCISES.

1. How did Tanaquil, the widow of the late king act in order to secure the succession of her son-in-law? What measures did Servius take, and by whom was he elected king?

2. What was his parentage, and what circumstance occurred during his infancy? What chief objects did he propose on coming to the throne, and how was he enabled to accomplish them? What new regulations did he establish for diminishing the power of the people?

3. How did he ascertain the number and fortunes of his subjects? What were his intentions respecting the future condition of himself and the government?

4. To whom had he married his two daughters, and what was the consequence? How did Lucius, his son-in-law, behave? What horrid crime did he and Tullia perpetrate?

5. What design did they form against the king? How did Lucius attempt to gain the senators? What ensued when the king entered the senate-house? What act of horrid barbarity did Tullia perpetrate? What was the character of Servius Tullius, and how long had he reigned?

CHAP. VI.

From the Death of Servius Tullius to the Banishment of Tarquinius Superbus, the seventh and last King of Rome.

B. C. 534. } 1. LUCIUS TARQUINIUS, afterwards called Super-
Y. R. 220. } bus, or the Proud, having placed himself upon the throne, in consequence of this violent usurpation, resolved to support his dignity with the same violence by which it was acquired. Regardless of the approbation of the senate or people, he seemed to claim the crown by hereditary right, and refused burial to the body of the late king, under pretence of his being a usurper.—All the respectable classes of the people, however, looked upon his accession with detestation and horror; and this act of inefficient cruelty only served to confirm their hatred. Conscious of this, he ordered all such as he suspected to have been attached to Servius to be put to death; and, fearing the natural consequences of his tyranny, increased the guard around his person.

2. His chief policy seems to have been to keep the people always employed, either in wars or in public works, by which means he diverted their attention from thinking of the unlawful means which he had employed to obtain the crown. He first marched against the Sabines, who refused to pay him obedience, and soon reduced them to submission. He next began a war with the Volsci, which continued for some ages afterwards. The city of Gabii gave him much more trouble; for, having sustained considerable loss in besieging it, he was obliged to direct his efforts by stratagem, contrary to the usual practice of the Romans. He caused his son Sextus to counterfeit desertion, upon a pretence of barbarous usage, and to seek refuge among the inhabitants of the place. There, by artful complaints and studied lamentations, he so far prevailed on the pity of the people as to be chosen their governor, and soon after general of their army. At first, in every engagement he appeared successful; till at length, finding himself entirely possessed of the confidence of the state, he sent a trusty messenger to his father for instructions. Tarquin made no other answer, than taking the messenger into the garden, where he cut down before him the tallest poppies. Sextus, on being informed by the messenger what his father had done,

readily understood the meaning of this reply, and found means to destroy or remove the principal men of the city, taking care to confiscate their effects among the people. The charms of this donative kept the giddy populace blind to their approaching ruin; till they found themselves at last without counselors or head, and in the end fell under the power of Tarquin without even striking a blow. After this he made a league with the *Æqui*, and also renewed the one already concluded with the *Etrurians*.

3. But while Tarquin was engaged in wars abroad, he took care not to suffer the people to continue in idleness at home. He undertook to build the capitol, the foundation of which had been laid in a former reign;—and an extraordinary event contributed to hasten the execution of his purpose. A woman, in strange attire, made her appearance at Rome, and came to the king, offering to sell nine books, which she said were of her own composing. Not knowing the abilities of the seller, or that she was in fact one of the celebrated Sibyls, whose prophecies were never found to fail, Tarquin at first refused to buy them. Upon this she departed, and burning three of her books, returned again, demanding the same price for the six remaining. Being once more dismissed as an impostor, she again departed, and burning three more, she returned again with those remaining, still asking the same price as before. Tarquin, surprised at the inconsistency of the woman's behaviour, consulted the augurs, that they might advise him what to do. They blamed him much for not buying the nine, and commanded him to purchase the three remaining at whatever price they were to be had. The woman, say historians, after thus selling and delivering the three prophetic volumes, having admonished Tarquin to pay special attention to what they contained, vanished from before him, and was never seen after. From the sacred regard in which these oracles were held, the king chose proper persons to keep them, who, though but two at first, were afterwards increased to fifteen, under the name of *quindecemviri*. The sacred volumes were put into a stone chest; and a vault, in the newly-designed building, was thought the most proper place to lodge them in safety.

4. The people having now been for four years employed in building the capitol, began at last to wish for something new to engage them. Tarquin, to satisfy their wishes, proclaimed war against the *Rutuli*, upon a frivolous pretence of their having entertained some malefactors whom he had banished, and invested their chief city, *Ardea*, which lay about sixteen miles from Rome. While the army was encamped before this place, the king's son *Sextus*, with *Collatinus*, a noble Roman,

and some others, sat in a tent drinking together ; when the discourse happening to turn on the beauty and virtue of their wives, each man praised his own as the most accomplished. Collatinus offered to decide the dispute, by putting it to an immediate trial, whose wife should be deemed possessed of the greatest beauty, and found most sedulously employed at that very hour. Being heated with wine, the proposal was relished by the whole company ; who, taking horse without delay, posted to Rome, though the night was already pretty far advanced. There they found Lucretia, the wife of Collatinus, not, like the other women of her age, spending her time in ease and luxury, but spinning in the midst of her maids, and cheerfully portioning out their tasks. Her modest beauty, and the easy reception she gave her husband and his friends, so charmed them all, that they unanimously gave her the preference ; and Sextus was so much inflamed at the sight of her that nothing but enjoyment could satisfy his passion.

5. For that purpose, he went from the camp to visit her privately a few days after, and received the same kind reception which he had met with before. As his intentions were not suspected, Lucretia sat with him at supper, and ordered a chamber to be got ready for him in the house. Midnight was the time in which this ruffian thought it safest to put his designs in execution. Having found means to convey himself into her chamber, he approached her bedside with a drawn sword, and rudely laying his hand upon her bosom, threatened her with instant death, if she offered to resist his passion. Lucretia, affrighted out of her sleep, and seeing death so near, was yet inexorable to his desire, till being told, that if she would not yield, he would first kill her, and then laying his own slave also dead by her side, he would report that he had found and killed them both in the act of adultery. The terror of infamy achieved what the immediate prospect of death could not obtain : she consented to his desire, and the next morning he returned to the camp, exulting in his brutal victory.

6. In the mean time, Lucretia, detesting the light, and resolving not to pardon herself for the crime of another, sent for her husband Collatinus, and for Spurius her father, to come to her, as an indelible disgrace had befallen the family. They instantly obeyed the summons, bringing with them Valerius, a kinsman of her father's, and Junius Brutus, a reputed idiot, whose father Tarquin had murdered, and who had accidentally met the messenger by the way. Their arrival only served to increase Lucretia's poignant anguish : they found her in a state of steadfast desperation, and vainly attempted to give her

relief. "No," said she, "never shall I find any thing worth living for, after having lost my honour. You see, my Collatinus, a polluted wretch before you; one whose person has been the spoil of another, but whose affections were never estranged from you. Sextus, under the pretended veil of friendship, has this night forced from me that treasure which death only can restore; but if you have the hearts of men, remember to avenge my cause, and let posterity know, that she who has lost her virtue, hath only death for her best consolation." So saying, she drew a poniard from beneath her robe, and instantly plunging it into her bosom, expired without a groan.

7. The whole company remained for some time fixed in terror, pity, and indignation; Spurius and Collatinus at length gave vent to their tears; but Brutus, drawing the poniard reeking from Lucretia's wound, and lifting it up towards heaven,—“Be witness, ye gods,” he cried, “that from this moment I proclaim myself the avenger of the chaste Lucretia's cause; from this moment I profess myself the enemy of Tarquin and his lustful house; from henceforth this life, while life continues, shall be employed in opposition to tyranny, and for the happiness and freedom of my much-loved country.” A new amazement seized the hearers, to find him, whom they had hitherto considered as an idiot, now appearing in his real character, the friend of justice and of Rome. He told them that tears and lamentations were unmanly, when vengeance called so loudly; and delivering the poniard to the rest, he imposed the same oath upon them which he himself had taken.

8. Junius Brutus was the son of Marcus Junius, a noble Roman, who was married to the daughter of Tarquinius Priscus; and for that reason, through a motive of jealousy, was put to death by Tarquin the Proud. This Junius Brutus had received an excellent education from his father, and had, from nature, strong good sense and an inflexible attachment to virtue; but knowing that Tarquin had privately murdered his father and his eldest brother, he counterfeited himself a fool, in order to escape the same danger, and thence obtained the surname of Brutus. Tarquin, thinking his folly real, despised the man; and having possessed himself of his estate, kept him as an idiot about his house, merely with a view of making sport for his children. Brutus, however, only waited for an opportunity to avenge the cause of his family. Wherefore, ordering Lucretia's dead body to be brought out to view, and exposed in the public Forum, he there inflamed the ardour of the citizens by a detail of the horrid transaction. He then

obtained a decree of the senate, that Tarquin and his family should be for ever banished from Rome, and that it should be capital for any to plead for, or attempt his future return. Thus, this monarch, who had now reigned twenty-five years, being expelled from his kingdom, went with his family to take
 B. C. 509. } refuge at Cære, a little town of Etruria. In the
 Y. R. 245. } mean time, the Roman army made a truce with the enemy, and Brutus was declared the deliverer of the people.

EXERCISES.

1. Who took violent possession of the throne? How did Tarquin support his usurped authority?

2. What mode of policy did he adopt? Against whom did he engage in war? What stratagem did he employ to become master of the city of Gabii? With what people did he form treaties of alliance?

3. What public work did he execute at Rome? What story is related of a Sibyl, who offered Tarquin the books of the celebrated oracles? Why was he persuaded to purchase them, who had the charge of them, and where were the Sibylline oracles deposited?

4. With whom did Tarquin now engage in war? What took place while the army was encamped before the town of Ardea?

5. How did Sextus accomplish his infamous purpose? Why was Lucretia induced to comply with his desires?

6. In what manner did Lucretia afterwards behave? What fatal act did she commit to cancel her disgrace?

7. What oath did Brutus take to be revenged on Tarquin? How did he inflame the resentment of the Romans?

8. What was the character of Junius Brutus? What act did the senate pass? What became of Tarquin? What honour was conferred on Brutus?

CHAP. VII.

From the Banishment of Tarquin to the appointment of the first Dictator.

B. C. 509. } 1. THE regal power being overthrown, a form of
 Y. R. 245. } government, nominally republican, was substituted in its room. The senate, however, reserved by far the greatest share of authority to themselves, and decorated their own body with all the spoils of deposed monarchy. The centuries of the people chose from among the senators, instead of a king, two annual magistrates, whom they called Consuls, with power equal to that of the regal, together with the same privileges, and the same ensigns of authority.—Brutus, the deliverer of his country, and Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, were chosen first consuls in Rome.

2. But this new republic, which seemed so agreeable to the people, had like to have been destroyed in its very commencement. A party was formed in Rome in favour of Tarquin. Some young men of the principal families in the state, who

had been educated about the king, and shared in all the luxuries and pleasures of the court, undertook to re-establish monarchy. This party secretly increased every day; and (what was still more surprising) the sons of Brutus himself, the Vitellii their uncles, and the Aquillii the nephews of Collatinus, were among the number. Tarquin, who was informed of these intrigues in his favour, sent ambassadors from Etruria to Rome, under pretence of demanding his private property, though in reality with a design of giving spirit to his faction. But the whole conspiracy was discovered by a slave, who had accidentally hid himself in the room where the conspirators used to assemble.

3. Few situations could have been more terribly affecting than that of Brutus,—a father, placed as a judge upon the life and death of his own children, impelled by justice to condemn, and by nature to spare them. The young men accused pleaded nothing for themselves, but, with conscious guilt, awaited their sentence in silence and agony. The other judges who were present felt all the pangs of nature; and Valerius, the colleague of Brutus, who had been elected in the room of Collatinus, whose consanguinity with the exiled family had rendered him unpopular, could not repress his sentiments of pity. Brutus alone seemed to have lost all the softness of humanity, and with a stern countenance, and a tone of voice that marked his firm resolution, demanded of his sons if they could make any defence of the crimes with which they had been charged? This demand he made three several times; but, receiving no answer, he at length turned himself to the executioner,—“Now,” cried he, “it is your part to perform the rest.”—Thus saying he resumed his seat with an air of determined majesty; nor could all the sentiments of paternal pity, nor all the imploring looks of the people, nor yet the complaints of the young men who were preparing for execution, alter the tenor of his resolution. The executioners having stript them naked, and then scourged them with rods, presently after beheaded them; Brutus all the time beholding the cruel spectacle with a steady look and unaltered countenance, while the multitude gazed on with all the sensations of pity, terror, and admiration!

4. All Tarquin's hopes of an insurrection in his favour at Rome being thus overthrown, he now resolved to force himself upon his former throne by foreign assistance, and, having prevailed upon the Veians to support his cause, advanced with
 B. C. 509. } a considerable army towards the city. The consuls
 Y. R. 246. } were not remiss in their preparations to oppose him. Valerius commanded the foot; and Brutus, who was appointed to head the cavalry, went out to meet him on the Roman

borders.—Aruns, the son of Tarquin, who commanded the cavalry for his father, seeing Brutus at a distance, was resolved, by one great exploit, to decide the fate of the day before the armies engaged; and accordingly, spurring on his horse, he made towards him with ungovernable fury. Brutus, who perceived his approach, came out of the ranks to meet him, and both encountered with such rage, that, eager only to assail, and thoughtless of defending, they both fell dead upon the field together. A bloody battle ensued, with equal slaughter on both sides; but the Romans, remaining in possession of the field of battle, claimed the victory; and Valerius returned in triumph to Rome.

B. C. 507. } 5. In the mean time, Tarquin, no way intimidat-
Y. R. 247. } ed by his misfortunes, prevailed upon Porsena, one of the kings of Etruria, to espouse his cause, and he in person undertook his quarrel. This prince, equally noted for courage and conduct, marched directly to Rome with a numerous army, and laid siege to the city; while the terror of his name and of his arms filled all ranks of people with dismay. The siege was carried on with vigour; a furious attack was made upon the place; the two consuls opposed in vain, and were carried off wounded from the field; while the Romans, flying in great consternation, were pursued by the enemy to the bridge, over which both victors and vanquished were about to enter the city in confusion. All now appeared completely lost; when Horatius Cocles, who had been placed as a sentinel to defend the bridge, opposed himself to the torrent of the enemy, and, assisted only by two more, for some time sustained the whole fury of the assault, till the bridge was broken down behind him. Finding that the communication was thus cut off, he plunged into the Tiber, accoutred as he was, and swam over to his fellow-soldiers, by whom he was received with the loudest applause.

6. Still, however, Porsena was determined upon taking the city; and though five hundred of his men were slain in a sally of the Romans, he reduced it to the greatest straits; for having turned the siege into a blockade, he resolved to take it by famine. The distress of the besieged soon began to be insufferable, and all things promised a speedy surrender, when another act of bravery, still superior to that which had already saved the city, again secured its safety and freedom. Mutius, a youth of undaunted courage, was resolved to rid his country of an enemy that continued so sorely to oppress it; and for this purpose, disguised in the habit of an Etrurian peasant, he entered the camp of the enemy, resolving to die or to kill the king. With this resolution, he approached the place where

Porsena was paying his troops, with a secretary by his side ; but mistaking the latter for the king, he stabbed him to the heart, and being immediately apprehended, was brought back into the royal presence. Upon Porsena's demanding who he was, and the cause of so heinous an action, Mutius, without reserve, informed him of his country and his design ; and, at the same time, thrusting his right hand into the fire that was burning upon an altar before him, " You see," cried he, " how little I regard the severest punishment which your cruelty can inflict upon me. A Roman knows not only how to act, but to suffer ; I am not the only person you have to fear ; three hundred Roman youths like myself have conspired your destruction ; therefore prepare for their attempts." Porsena, amazed at so much intrepidity, had too noble a mind not to acknowledge merit though found in an enemy ; he therefore ordered him to be safely conducted back to Rome, and offered the besieged conditions of peace. These were readily accepted on their side, being neither hard nor disgraceful,—as only twenty hostages were demanded ; ten young men, and as many virgins, of the best families in Rome.

7. On this occasion the gentler sex seemed resolved to be sharers in the desperate valour of the times. Clœlia, one of the hostages, escaping from her guards, and pointing out the way to the rest of her female companions, swam across the Tiber on horseback, amidst showers of darts from the enemy, and presented herself to the consul. This magistrate, fearing the consequences of detaining her, had her sent back ;—upon which Porsena, not to be outdone in generosity, not only gave her liberty, but permitted her to choose such of the hostages of the opposite sex as she should think fit to attend her. She, with all the modesty of a Roman virgin, chose only such as were under manhood, alleging that their tender age was least capable of sustaining the rigours of slavery.

8. Tarquin, by means of his son-in-law Mamilius, once more stirred up the Latins to espouse his interest, and took the most convenient opportunity, when the plebeians were at variance with the senators concerning the payment of their debts. The former refused to go to war, unless their debts were remitted upon their return ; so that the consuls, finding their authority insufficient, offered to elect a temporary magistrate, who should have absolute power, not only over all ranks of the state, but even over the laws themselves. To this the plebeians readily consented, willing to give up their own power for the sake of abridging that of their superiors. In consequence of this arrangement, Titus Lartius was created the first

B. C. 498. } Dictator of Rome (for so was this high office called),
 Y. R. 256. } being nominated to it by his colleague in the consulship. Thus the people, who could not bear to hear the name of a king even mentioned, readily submitted to a magistrate possessed of much greater power ;—so much do the names of things mislead us, and so little is any form of government irksome to a people when it coincides with their own prejudices.

EXERCISES.

1. What form of government was now established ? Who were first created consuls ?

2. By whom was a conspiracy formed against the new republic ? By whom was it discovered ?

3. What occurred at the trial of the conspirators ? How did Brutus discover his inflexible regard to justice ? What was the fate of his sons, and what sentiments did it excite in the minds of the spectators ?

4. What means did Tarquin employ to regain the throne ? Who commanded the Roman army sent to oppose him ? How and by whom was Brutus slain ? Who gained the victory in a battle that ensued ?

5. To whom did Tarquin next apply for assistance ? What decisive measures did Porsena adopt, and what was their result ? How did Horatius Cocles display his valour in defending a bridge that led to Rome ?

6. To what straits were the Romans now reduced ? Who relieved them from destruction, and in what manner did Mutius accomplish his daring enterprise ? Upon what conditions did Porsena offer peace to the Romans ?

7. What heroic action did Clælia, one of the hostages, perform ? How did Porsena display his generosity to her ?

8. Whom did Tarquin once more engage to undertake his cause ? Why did the Romans refuse to march against the enemy ? What magistrate was chosen to compel them, and what was the consequence ?

CHAP. VIII.

From the Creation of the first Dictator to the Election of the Tribunes of the People.

B. C. 498. } 1. LARTIUS being now created dictator, entered
 Y. R. 256. } upon his office, surrounded by his lictors, and all the ensigns of ancient royalty ; and, seated upon a throne in the midst of the people, he ordered the levies to be made in the manner of the kings of Rome.—The populace looked with terror upon a magistrate whom they had invested with uncontrollable power, and peaceably went each to range himself under his respective standard. The enemy, alarmed at the vigorous preparations which were made to oppose them, delayed their threatened attack, and Lartius, before six months had expired, laid down the dictatorship, with the reputation of having exercised it with blameless lenity.—But, though for this time the people submitted, they were resolved at last to free themselves from the yoke of their severe masters ; and,

though they could not get their complaints redressed, they determined to fly from those whom they could not move to compassion. For this purpose, they resolved to quit a city which gave them no shelter, and to form a new establishment without its limits.—They, therefore, under the conduct of a plebeian, named Sicinius Bellutus, retired to a mountain, called Mons Sacer, on the banks of the river Anio, about three miles from Rome, where they intrenched themselves, and were joined by all those who wished well to their cause from the city and the neighbouring country.

2. Upon the news of this defection, the city was filled with consternation and tumult; the senate was not less agitated than the rest; some were for violent measures, and repelling force by force; others were of opinion that gentler arts were to be used, and that even a victory over such enemies would be worse than a defeat. At length it was resolved to send a messenger, entreating them to return home and declare their grievances, promising, at the same time, an oblivion of all that had passed. This message not succeeding, Menenius Agrippa, one of the wisest and best of the senators, was of opinion that the desires of the people ought to be complied with. It was resolved, therefore, to enter into a treaty with them, and to make them such offers as should induce them to return. Ten commissioners were accordingly deputed, at the head of whom were Lartius and Valerius, who had been dictators, and Menenius Agrippa, equally beloved by the senate and the people. The dignity and popularity of these ambassadors procured them a very favourable reception among the soldiers, and a long conference began between them. Lartius and Valerius employed all their oratory in behalf of the senators; while Sicinius and Lucius Junius, who were the spokesmen of the soldiery, aggravated their distress with all that masculine eloquence which nature dictates.

3. The conference had now continued for a long time, when Menenius Agrippa, a shrewd man, who had been originally a plebeian himself, and who consequently knew what kind of eloquence was most likely to please the people, addressed them with that celebrated fable which is so finely told us by Livy. “In times of old, when every member of the body could think for itself, and each had a separate will of its own, they all, with common consent, resolved to revolt against the belly; they knew no reason, they said, why they should toil from morning to night in its service, while the belly, in the mean time, lay at its ease in the midst of them all, and indolently grew fat upon their labours. Accordingly one and all agreed to befriend it no more. The feet vowed they would carry it

no longer; the hands vowed they would feed it no longer; and the teeth averred they would not chew a morsel of meat, though it were placed between them. Thus resolved, they all for some time showed their spirit and kept their word; but soon they found, that, instead of mortifying the belly by these means, they only undid themselves; they languished for a while, and perceived, when too late, that it was owing to the belly that they had strength to work, or courage to mutiny."

4. This fable, the application of which is so obvious, had an instantaneous effect upon the people. They unanimously requested that Agrippa should lead them back to Rome; and were making preparations to follow him, when Lucius Junius, before mentioned, withheld them; alleging that, though they ought gratefully to acknowledge the kind offers of the senate, they had no safeguard for the future against their resentment; and therefore it was necessary, for the security of the people, to have certain officers created annually from among themselves, who should have power to grant redress to such as should be injured, and plead the cause of the community. The people, who are ever of the same opinion with the last speaker, highly applauded this proposal, which, however, the commissioners had not power to comply with. They therefore sent to Rome to receive the instructions of the senate, who, torn with divisions among themselves, and harassed by complaints from without, were resolved to have peace, at whatever price it should be obtained. Accordingly, as if with one

B. C. 493. } voice, they consented to the creation of the new offi-
Y. R. 261. } cers, who were called Tribunes of the people, Ap-
pius alone protesting with vehemence against the measure.

5. The tribunes elected by the people at their first creation were only two in number, who, immediately upon their appointment, created three colleagues to themselves; afterwards, however, their body was increased by five more. They were always annually elected by the people, and almost always from their own body. They at first had their seats placed before the doors of the senate-house, and, being called in, were to examine every decree, annulling it by the word *VERO*, I forbid it; or confirming it by signing the letter *T*, which gave it its validity. This new office being thus instituted, Sicinius Bellutus, Lucius Junius, Caius Licinius, Lucius Albinus, and Icilius Ruga, were the first tribunes chosen by the suffrages of the people. The senate also passed an edict, confirming the abolition of debts; and now all things being adjusted both on the one side and on the other, the people, after having sacrificed to the gods of the mountain, returned once more in triumph to Rome.

EXERCISES.

1. In what manner did Lartius exercise his authority? How long did he continue in office? What measure did the people adopt to recover their freedom?

2. How did the senate endeavour to conciliate the people and the army? What commissioners were sent to propose a treaty? Who conducted the conference in behalf of each party?

3. By what means did Menenius Agrippa at last succeed with the people? What are the particulars of the fable he related to them?

4. What proposal did Lucius Junius make? Why was the senate induced to comply with it? What popular magistrates were now created?

5. Of what number did the Tribunes at first consist? What control did they exercise over the decrees of the senate? What Tribunes were first chosen? What act was passed in favour of the people, that induced them to return to Rome?

CHAP. IX.

From the Creation of the Tribunes to the Appointment of the Decemviri.

B. C. 493. } 1. DURING the late separation, tillage had been
Y. R. 261. } entirely neglected, and a famine was the consequence
in the ensuing season. The senate did all that lay in their
power to relieve the distress; but the people, pinched with
want, and willing to throw the blame of it on any but them-
selves, ascribed the whole of their distress to the avarice of the
patricians, who, having, as was alleged, purchased all the corn,
intended to indemnify themselves for the abolition of debts, by
selling it out to great advantage. But abundance soon after
appeased them for a time. A large fleet of ships laden with
corn from Sicily, a great part of which was a present from
Gelon, the king of that country, to the Romans, and the rest
purchased by the senate with the public money, raised the
spirits of the people once more.

2. But Caius Marcius, a young nobleman who had signal-
ized himself at the capture of Corioli, a city of the Volscians,
and had thereby acquired the surname of Coriolanus, incurred
their resentment, by insisting that it should not be distributed
till the grievances of the senate were removed. For this in-
terference, the tribunes summoned him to a trial before the
B. C. 491. } people assembled by tribes. When the appointed
Y. R. 263. } day arrived, all persons were filled with the greatest
expectations, and a vast concourse from the adjacent country
assembled, and occupied the Forum. Coriolanus presented
himself before the people with a degree of intrepidity that
merited better fortune. His graceful person, his persuasive
eloquence, and the cries of those whom he had saved from the
enemy, inclined the auditors to relent. But Coriolanus being
unable to answer what was alleged against him to the satisfac-

tion of the people, and utterly confounded with a new charge of having embezzled the plunder of Antium, the tribunes immediately took the votes, and he was condemned to perpetual exile.

3. This sentence against their bravest defender struck the whole body of the senate with sorrow, consternation, and regret. Coriolanus alone, in the midst of the tumult, seemed to be an unconcerned spectator. He returned home, followed by the lamentations of hundreds of the most respectable senators and citizens of Rome, to take a lasting farewell of his wife, his children, and his mother Veturia. Recommending his little children to their protection, and all his friends to the care of Heaven, he left the city, without followers or fortune, to take refuge with Attius Tullus, a man of great power among the Volscians, who took him under his protection, and espoused his quarrel. The first thing to be done was, to induce the Volsci to break the league which had been made with Rome; and for this purpose Tullus sent many of his countrymen thither, in order to see some games at that time celebrating; but in the mean time he gave the senate private information that the strangers had dangerous intentions of burning the city. This stratagem had the desired effect; the senate issued an order that all strangers, whoever they were, should depart from Rome before sunset. This order Tullus represented to his countrymen as an infraction of the treaty, and procured an embassy to be sent to Rome complaining of the breach, and re-demanding all the territories belonging to the Volscians of which they had been violently dispossessed, declaring that war would be the consequence of a refusal.

4. As this message was treated with contempt by the senate, war was instantly declared on both sides; Coriolanus and Tullus were made generals of the Volscians, and accordingly invaded the Roman territories, ravaging and laying waste all such lands as belonged to the plebeians, and suffering those of the senators to remain untouched. In the mean time, the levies went on but slowly at Rome. The two consuls, who were re-elected by the people, seemed but little skilled in war, and even feared to encounter a general whom they knew to be their superior in the field. The allies also displayed their fears, and brought in their succours but slowly; so that Coriolanus continued taking their towns one after another. Fortune followed him in every expedition; and he was now so celebrated for his victories, that the Volsci left their towns defenceless to follow him into the field. The very soldiers of his colleague's army came over to him, and would acknowledge no other general. Thus finding himself unopposed in

the field, and at the head of a numerous army, he at length invested the city of Rome itself, being fully resolved to besiege it. It was then that the senate and people unanimously agreed to send deputies to him with proposals of restoration, if he would instantly withdraw his army. Coriolanus received their proposals at the head of his principal officers, and, with the sternness of a general that was to give the law, refused their offers.

5. Another embassy was now sent forth, conjuring him not to exact from his native city any thing but what it became Romans to grant. Coriolanus, however, naturally inflexible and severe, still persisted in his former demands, and granted them but three days, in which they were to finish their deliberations. In this exigence, the only resource left was another deputation still more solemn than the former, composed of the pontiffs, the priests, and the augurs. These, clothed in their habits of ceremony, and with a grave and mournful deportment, issued from the city, and entered the camp of the conqueror. But it was all in vain ; they found him severe and inflexible as before. When the people saw them return without having accomplished the purpose of their mission, they began to give up the commonwealth as lost. Their temples were filled with old men, with women, and children, who, prostrate at their altars, put up their ardent prayers for the safety of their country. Nothing was heard but the cries of anguish and lamentation ; nothing seen but images of terror and distress. At length it was suggested, that what could not be effected by the intercession of the senate, or the adjuration of the priests, might be brought about by the tears of Coriolanus's wife, or the commands of his mother. This scheme seemed to be relished by all ; and even the senate itself gave it the sanction of their authority. Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus, at first made some hesitation to undertake the office of an intercessor, knowing the inflexible temper of her son, and fearing that he would only show his disobedience in a new point of light, by rejecting the commands of a parent. She at last, however, undertook the embassy, and set out from the city, accompanied by many of the principal matrons of Rome, with Volumnia, her daughter-in-law, and her two children. Coriolanus, who at a distance beheld this mournful train of females, was resolved to give them a denial, and called his officers round him to be witnesses of his resolution ; but, when told that his mother and his wife were among the number, he instantly came down from his tribunal to meet and embrace them.

6. At first the tears and embraces of the women deprived

them of the power of speech ; and the rough soldier himself, inflexible as he was, could not refrain from sharing in their distress. Coriolanus now seemed much agitated by contending passions ; while his mother, who saw him moved, seconded her words by the most persuasive eloquence, her—tears ; his wife and children hung round about him, entreating his protection and pity ; while the fair train, her companions, added their lamentations, and deplored their own and their country's distress. Coriolanus for a moment was silent, feeling the strong conflict between honour and inclination ; till at length, as if roused from his dream, he flew to take up his mother, who had fallen at his feet, crying out, “ O my mother, thou hast saved Rome, but lost thy son ! ” He accordingly gave orders to draw off the army, pretending to the officers that the city was too strong to be taken. Tullus, who had long envied the glory of Coriolanus, was not remiss in aggravating the lenity of his conduct to his countrymen. Upon their return, Coriolanus was slain in an insurrection of the people, and afterwards honourably buried, with too late and ineffectual repentance. Soon after the removal of this external danger, the parties within resumed their disputes ; but the tribunes, who were preparing to urge the adoption of the Agrarian law, as the only means of satisfying the people, were anticipated by the intrigues of Spurius Cassius, the consul, who, affecting great zeal for the popular interests, and wishing to make him-

B. C. 486. } self despotic, was found guilty of a number of un-
Y. R. 268. } justifiable schemes which tended to alter the consti-

tution, and was thrown headlong from the Tarpeian Rock by those very people whose interests he had endeavoured to extend.

B. C. 477. } 7. The state being at this period distracted by
Y. R. 277. } internal commotions, and harassed by petty attacks of the neighbouring tribes, the Fabian family, one of the most powerful at Rome, undertook the war against the people of Veii at their own expense. Their efforts at first were attended with success ; but, elated with prosperity, and proceeding without caution, they were enticed into an ambuscade near the little river Cremera, and cut off to the number of 306.

After some years, chiefly remarkable for the struggles between the two parties about their respective rights, the tribunes from year to year exerting all their endeavours to procure the enactment of the Agrarian law for dividing the lands of the commonwealth equally among the people, a concession which the

B. C. 459. } aristocratic party could not think of making, and
Y. R. 295. } the senate always contriving to evade their demands,

the farther prosecution of the affair was dropt in the mean time by the unexpected appearance of danger from without. The

Æqui and Volsci, ever ready to take advantage of commotion in Rome, though repeatedly worsted, availed themselves of this opportunity, when discontent ran high on account of the Agrarian law, to renew the war, and make new inroads into the Roman territories. Minutius, one of the consuls, was sent to oppose them; but being naturally timid, and rather more afraid of being conquered than desirous of victory, his army was drawn into a defile between two mountains, from which there was no egress except through the enemy's camp. This, however, the Æqui had the precaution to fortify, by which the Roman army was so hemmed in on every side, that nothing remained but submission, famine, or immediate death.—Some knights, who found means of getting away privately through the camp, were the first that brought the account of this disaster to Rome. Nothing could exceed the consternation of all ranks of people, when informed of it; the senate at first thought of raising the other consul to the dictatorship; but not having sufficient experience of his abilities, they unanimously turned their eyes upon Quinctius Cincinnatus, and resolved to make him dictator.

8. Cincinnatus, the only person on whom Rome could now place her sole dependence, recommended himself by the prudence and firmness with which on a former occasion, when consul, he checked the violent proceedings of the rival factions which about this time continued to harass and distract his country. This man had for some time given up all views of ambition, and retired to his little farm, where the deputies of the senate found him holding the plough, and dressed in the mean attire of a labouring husbandman. He appeared but little elevated with the addresses of ceremony, and the pompous habiliments which they brought him; and, when informed of the senate's pleasure, he testified rather a concern that his aid should be wanted. He naturally preferred the charms of a country retirement to the fatiguing splendours of high office, and only said to his wife, as they were leading him away, "I fear, my Racilia, that, for this year, our little fields must remain unsown." Thus, taking a tender leave of his friends, he departed for the city, where being now possessed of absolute power, and called upon to nominate his master of the horse, he chose a poor man named Tarquinius, one who, like himself, despised riches when they led to dishonour. Thus, the preservation of a great nation was devolved upon a husbandman taken from the plough, and an obscure sentinel found among the dregs of the army.

9. Upon entering the city, the dictator put on a serene look, and entreated all those who were able to bear arms, to

repair before sunset to the Campus Martius (the place where the levies were made), with necessary arms and provisions for five days. He put himself at the head of these, and marching all night with great expedition, arrived before day in sight of the enemy. Upon his approach, he ordered his soldiers to raise a loud shout, to apprize the consul's army of the relief that was at hand. The Æqui were not a little amazed when they saw themselves between two enemies; but still more, when they perceived Cincinnatus making the strongest intrenchments beyond them to prevent their escape, and enclosing them as they had enclosed the consul. To prevent this attempt, a furious combat ensued; but the Æqui, being attacked on both sides, and unable to resist or flee, begged a cessation of arms. They offered to receive from the dictator his own terms; upon which he granted them their lives; but obliged them, in token of servitude, to pass under the yoke, which was two spears set upright, and another across, in the form of a gallows, beneath which the vanquished were ordered to march. Their captains and generals he made prisoners of war, reserving them to adorn his triumph. As for the plunder of the enemy's camp, he gave it entirely up to his own soldiers, without reserving any part for himself, or permitting the consul's army to have any share. Thus, having rescued a Roman army from destruction, defeated and humbled a powerful enemy, taken their camp and city, and still more, refused any part of the spoil, he resigned his dictatorship, after having enjoyed it but fourteen days. The senate would have enriched him; but he declined their offers, choosing to retire to his farm and his cottage, content with the enjoyment of competency and fame.

10. But this repose from foreign invasion did not lessen the tumults of the city within. The clamours for the Agrarian law still continued, and the contentions respecting it became fiercer than ever, when Siccius Dentatus, a plebeian, advanced in years, but of an admirable person and a military deportment, came forward to enumerate his hardships and his merits. This old soldier made no scruple of extolling the various achievements of his youth; but indeed his merits might apologize for his ostentation. He had served his country in the wars for forty years; he had been an officer thirty, first a centurion, and then a tribune; he had fought one hundred and twenty battles, in which, by the force of his single arm, he saved a multitude of lives; he had gained fourteen civic, three mural, and eight golden crowns, besides eighty-three chains, sixty bracelets, eighteen gilt spears, and twenty-three horse-trappings, whereof nine were for killing the enemy in single combat; he had, moreover, received forty-five wounds, all be-

fore, and none behind. These were his honours ; yet, notwithstanding all this, he had never received any share of those lands which were won from the enemy, but continued to drag out a life of poverty and contempt, while others were possessed of those very territories which his valour had won, without any merit to deserve them, or ever having contributed to the conquest. A case of so much hardship had a strong effect upon the multitude, who unanimously demanded that the law might be passed, and that such merit should not go unrewarded. It was in vain that some of the chief senators rose to speak against it ; their voices were drowned by the cries of the people. When reason, therefore, could no longer be heard, passion, as usual succeeded ; and the young patricians, running furiously into the throng, broke the balloting urns, and dispersed the multitude that offered to oppose them. For this they were some time after fined by the tribunes ; but their resolution, nevertheless, for the present put off the Agrarian law.

EXERCISES.

1. What calamity took place the ensuing season ? To whom did the people ascribe the scarcity of provisions ? How was corn at last procured for them ?
2. How did Coriolanus incur the resentment of the tribunes ? What charges were alleged against him, and what was his sentence ?
3. How did Coriolanus behave before going into exile ? With whom did he take refuge, and what was the consequence ? What means did Tullus employ to break his league with the Romans ?
4. How did Tullus and Coriolanus carry on the war ? What successes attended the latter ? What took place when he invested Rome ? How did he receive an embassy sent to him ?
5. What other deputations were commissioned by the senate, and what was the result of their negotiations ? How did the Romans display their consternation, and what plan was suggested to conciliate Coriolanus ? Who undertook to appease him, and how did he receive her ?
6. What ensued at the interview betwixt him and his mother ? In what language did he address her, and what was the consequence of this interview ? What became of Coriolanus ? Who was thrown from the Tarpeian Rock ?
7. What family undertook the war against Veii ? What was their fate ? What was the state of parties in Rome at this time ? What object did the tribunes prosecute with unceasing exertions ? What disaster befell the Roman army ? To whom did the senate apply in this emergency ?
8. How did Cincinnatus recommend himself to the notice of the senate ? How did the deputies find him employed ? Whom did he choose as master of the horse ?
9. How did Cincinnatus surprise the enemy, and relieve the Romans ? What token of servitude did he impose on the Æqui, and what self-denial did he afterwards display ?
10. How did Siccius Dentatus plead in behalf of the Agrarian law ? What effect had his representations upon the people ? How was the passing of the law prevented ?

CHAP. X.

From the Creation of the Decemviri to the extinction of that Office.

SECTION I.

B. C. 452. } 1. THE commonwealth of Rome had now for nearly
Y. R. 302. } sixty years been fluctuating between the contending orders that composed it, till at length each side, as if weary of the contest, was willing to respire a while from the pursuit of their respective claims. The citizens of every rank now began to complain of the arbitrary decisions of their magistrates, and wished to be guided by a written body of laws, which, being known, might prevent wrongs as well as punish them. In this desire, both the senate and the people concurred, hoping that such laws would put an end to the commotions which had so long and so grievously harassed the state. It was thereupon agreed, that ambassadors should be sent to the Greek cities in Italy, and to Athens, to bring home such laws from these places as by experience had been found most equitable and useful in their respective governments. For this purpose three senators, Posthumius, Sulpicius, and Manlius, were fixed upon, and galleys assigned to convey them suitably to the majesty of the Roman people. While these senators were engaged in this commission abroad, a dreadful plague depopulated the city at home, and supplied the interval of their absence with other subjects of anxiety than that of wishes for their return. In about a year the plague ceased, and the ambassadors returned, bringing home a body of laws, collected from the most civilized states of Greece and Italy, which, being afterwards formed into twelve tables, composed that celebrated code, called the laws of the Twelve Tables, many fragments of which remain to this day.

2. The ambassadors were no sooner returned, than the tribunes required that a body of men should be chosen to digest their new laws into proper form, and to give weight to their execution. After long debates, whether this choice should not be partly made from the people as well as from the patricians, it was at last agreed that ten of the principal senators should be elected, whose power, continuing for a year, should be equal to that of kings and consuls, and also absolute without any appeal. The persons chosen were Appius and Genutius, who had been elected consuls for the ensuing year; Posthumius, Sulpicius, and Manlius, the three ambassadors; Sextus and Romu-

lus, two former consuls ; with Julius, Veturius, and Horatius, senators of the first consideration. Thus the whole constitution of the state at once took a new form, and a serious experiment was about to be tried, of governing one nation by laws formed from the manners and customs of another. The decemviri being now invested with absolute power, agreed to take the reins of government by turns, and that each should dispense justice for a day. These magistrates, for the first year, exercised their functions with great assiduity ; and their work being finished, it was expected that they would be contented to give up their offices. But, having known the charms of power, they were now unwilling to resign it, and under the pretence that some laws were yet wanting to complete their design, entreated the senate for a continuance of their offices, to which that body assented. But the decemviri soon threw off the mask of moderation, and, regardless either of the approbation of the senate or the people, resolved to continue in office, contrary to the established regulations of the state. A conduct so notorious soon produced discontents, and these were as sure to produce fresh acts of tyranny. The city was become almost a desert, as those who had any thing to lose had forsaken it ; and the rapacity of the decemviri was only discontinued when they wanted fresh objects on which to exercise it. In this state of slavery, proscription, and mutual distrust, not one citizen was found to stand up for his country's freedom ; so that these tyrants continued to reign without control, being constantly guarded, not by their lictors alone, but also by a numerous crowd of dependants, clients, and even patricians, whom their vices had confederated round them.

3. In this gloomy situation of affairs, the *Æqui* and *Volsci*, those constant enemies of the Romans, renewed their incursions, resolving to profit by the intestine divisions of the people, and advanced to within about ten miles of Rome. But the decemviri, being put in possession of all the military as well as of all the civil power, divided their army into three parts ; whereof one continued with Appius in the city to keep it in awe, while the other two were commanded by his colleagues, and led against the enemy.—The Roman soldiers had now adopted a method of punishing the generals whom they disliked, by suffering themselves to be vanquished in the field. They put it in practice upon this occasion, and shamefully abandoned their camp upon the approach of the enemy. Never was the news of a victory more joyfully received at Rome, than the tidings of this defeat. The generals, as is often the case, were blamed instead of the treachery of their men ;—some demanded that they should be deposed, others cried out

for a dictator to lead the troops to conquest ; and among the rest, old Siccius Dentatus, the tribune, spoke his sentiments with his usual openness, and, treating the generals with contempt, showed all the faults of their discipline in the camp, and of their conduct in the field.

4. Appius, in the mean time, was not remiss in observing the dispositions of the people. Dentatus, in particular, was marked out for vengeance, and, under pretence of doing him particular honour, he was appointed legate, and put at the head of the supplies, which were sent from Rome to re-enforce the army. The office of legate was held sacred among the Romans, as in it were united the authority of a general with the reverence due to the priesthood. Dentatus, no way suspecting his design, went to the camp with alacrity, where he was received with all the external marks of respect. But the general soon found means of indulging Appius's desire of revenge. Dentatus was appointed, at the head of one hundred men, to go and examine a more commodious place for encampment, as he had very candidly assured the commanders that their present situation was ill chosen. The soldiers that accompanied him on this occasion were assassins, who had long been ministers of the vengeance of the decemviri, and who now engaged to murder him ; though with all those apprehensions which his reputation, as the Roman Achilles, might be supposed to inspire. With this design, they led him from the way into the hollow bosom of a retired mountain, where they began to set upon him from behind. Dentatus now, too late, perceived the treachery of the decemviri, and resolved to sell his life as dearly as he could ;—he therefore put his back to a rock, and defended himself against those who pressed most closely.—Though now grown old, he had still the remains of his former valour, and killed no less than fifteen of the assailants, and wounded thirty, with his own hand. The assassins now, therefore, terrified at his amazing bravery, showered in their javelins upon him at a distance, all which he received in his shield with undaunted resolution. The combat, though unequal in numbers, was managed for some time with doubtful success, till at last his assailants bethought themselves of ascending the rock against which he stood, and thus poured down stones upon him from above. This plan succeeded : the old soldier fell beneath their united efforts, after having shown by his death, that he owed it to his fortitude, and not his fortune, that he had come off so many times victorious. The decemviri pretended to join in the general sorrow for so brave a man, and decreed him a funeral with the first military honours ; but the greatness of their apparent re-

gret, compared with their known hatred to Dentatus, only rendered them still more detestable to the people. —

5. But a transaction still more atrocious than the murder of Dentatus served to inspire the citizens with a resolution to break all measures of obedience, and at last to restore freedom. Appius, who still remained at Rome, sitting one day on his tribunal, to dispense justice, saw a maiden of exquisite beauty, about fifteen years of age, passing to one of the public schools, attended by a matron, her nurse. The charms of the damsel, heightened by all the innocence of virgin modesty, caught his attention, and fired his heart. The day following, as she passed, he found her still more beautiful than before, and his breast became still more inflamed. He now, therefore, resolved to obtain the object of his passion, whatever should be the consequence; and found means to inform himself of the virgin's name and family. Her name was Virginia. She was the daughter of Virginius, a centurion, then with the army in the field, and had been contracted to Icilius, formerly a tribune of the people, who had agreed to marry her at the end of the present campaign. Appius at first resolved to break this match, and to espouse her himself; but the laws of the Twelve Tables had forbidden the patricians to intermarry with the plebeians; and he could not infringe these, as he was one of the enactors of them. Nothing, therefore, remained, but a criminal enjoyment of her, which, as he had been long used to the indulgence of his passions, he resolved to obtain. After having vainly tried to corrupt the fidelity of Virginia's nurse he had recourse to another expedient still more guilty. He engaged one Claudius, who had long been the minister of his pleasures, to assert that the beautiful maid was his slave, and refer the cause to his tribunal for decision. Claudius behaved exactly according to his instructions; for, entering the school where Virginia was playing among her female companions, he seized upon her as his property, and was going to drag her away by force, but was prevented by the people, who were drawn together by her cries. At length, after the first heat of opposition was over, he led the weeping virgin to the tribunal of Appius, and there plausibly declared his pretensions. He asserted that she was born in his house of a female slave, who sold her to the wife of Virginius, who had been barren; that he had several creditable witnesses to prove the truth of what he said; but that, until they should come together, it was but reasonable that the slave should be delivered into his custody, as he was her proper master. Appius seemed to be struck with the justice of his claims, and observed, that if the reputed father himself were present, he might indeed be will-

ing to delay the delivery of the maiden for some time, but that it was not lawful for him in the present case to detain her from her lawful master. He therefore adjudged her to Claudius, as his slave, to be kept by him till Virginus should be able to prove his paternity.

6. The sentence was received with loud clamours and reproaches by the multitude; the women in particular came round the innocent Virginia, as if willing to protect her from the judge's fury; while Icilius, her lover, boldly opposed the decree, and obliged Claudius to take refuge under the tribunal of the decemviri. All things now threatened an open insurrection; when Appius, fearing the event, thought proper to suspend his judgment till the arrival of Virginus, who was then about eleven miles from Rome with the army. The day following was fixed for the trial; and in the mean time Appius sent letters to the generals to detain Virginus, as his arrival in town might only serve to kindle sedition among the people. These letters, however, were intercepted by the centurion's friends, who sent him down a full relation of the design formed against the liberty and honour of his only daughter. Virginus, upon receiving this intelligence, pretending that a near relation of his had lately died, got permission to leave the camp, and flew to Rome, inspired with indignation and revenge. Accordingly, the next day he appeared before the tribunal, to the astonishment of Appius, leading his weeping daughter by the hand, both clad in the deepest mourning. Claudius was also there, and began by making his demand. Virginus next spoke in turn; and represented that his wife had many children; that she had been seen pregnant by numbers; that if he had intentions of adopting a supposititious child, he would have fixed upon a boy rather than a girl; that it was notorious to all that his wife had herself suckled her own child; and that it was surprising such a claim should be now revived after a fifteen years' discontinuance. While the father thus spoke with a stern air, Virginia stood by trembling, and, with looks of persuasive innocence, added weight to all his remonstrances. The people seemed entirely satisfied of the hardships of his case, till Appius, fearing that what he said might have dangerous effects upon the multitude, interrupted him, under a pretence of being sufficiently instructed in the merits of the cause. "Yes," says he, "my conscience obliges me to declare that I myself am a witness to the truth of the deposition of Claudius. Most of this assembly know that I was left guardian to this youth, and I was early apprized that he had a right to this young woman; but the affairs of the public and the dissensions of the people then prevented me from

doing him justice. However, it is not now too late ; and by the power vested in me for the public good, I adjudge Virginia to be the property of Claudius, the plaintiff. Go therefore, lictors, disperse the multitude, and make room for a master to repossess himself of his slave."

7. The lictors, in obedience to his command, soon drove off the throng that pressed round the tribunal ; and now they seized upon Virginia, and were delivering her into the hands of Claudius, when Virginius, who found that all was over, seemed to acquiesce in the sentence. He, therefore, mildly entreated Appius to be permitted to take a last farewell of one whom he had long considered as his child, and he would return to his duty with fresh alacrity.—With this the decemvir complied, but upon condition that their endearments should pass in his presence. Virginius, with the most poignant anguish, took his almost expiring daughter in his arms, and for a while supported her head upon his breast : then wiping away the tears which rolled down her lovely visage, and happening to be near the shops which surrounded the Forum, he snatched up a knife that lay on the shambles, and addressed his daughter, " My dearest lost child," cried he, " this, this alone can preserve your honour and your freedom." So saying, he buried the weapon in her breast, and then holding it up reeking with the blood of his daughter,—“ Appius,” he cried, “ by this blood of innocence I devote thy head to the infernal gods.” Having thus spoken, with the bloody knife in his hand, and threatening destruction to all who should dare to oppose him, he ran through the city, wildly calling upon the people to strike for freedom, and thence went to the camp, in order to spread the flame which had been kindled.

8. He no sooner arrived at the camp, followed by a number of his friends, than he informed the army of all that was done, still holding the bloody knife in his hand. He asked their pardon, and the pardon of the gods, for having committed so rash an action, but ascribed it entirely to the dreadful necessity of the times. The army, already predisposed, immediately with shouts echoed their approbation, and decamping, left their generals behind, to take their station upon mount Aventine, as they had done about forty years before on mount Sacer. The other army, which had been sent to oppose the Sabines, seemed to feel a like resentment, and came over in large parties to join their comrades.—Appius, in the mean time, did all he could to quell the disturbances in the city ; but finding the tumult incapable of control, and perceiving that his mortal enemies, Valerius and Horatius, were the most active in opposition to him, at first attempted to find safety by

flight ; nevertheless, being encouraged by Oppius, who was one of his colleagues, he ventured to assemble the senate, and urged the punishment of all deserters. The senate, however, were far from giving him the relief he sought for ; they foresaw the dangers and miseries that threatened the state, if they should oppose the incensed army ; and therefore despatched messengers to them, offering to restore their former mode of government. To this proposal all the people joyfully assented, and the army gladly obeyed, returning to the city, if not with the ensigns, at least with the pleasure of a triumphant entry. Appius, and Oppius, one of his colleagues, both died by their own hands in prison. The other eight decemvirs went into voluntary exile ; and Claudius, the pretended master of Virginia, was driven out after them.

EXERCISES.

1. Why did the Romans wish to have a written body of laws established ? Who were sent to collect them in the cities of Italy and Greece ? Into how many tables were the laws formed ?

2. Who were chosen to digest and administer them ? How did the decemviri exercise their functions for the first year ? How did they afterwards assume an undue authority, and what was the consequence ?

3. How did the Æqui and Volsci take advantage of the divisions at Rome ? Who commanded the Roman army sent against them, and how were the soldiers revenged on their oppressors ? How did Dentatus represent the Roman generals ?

4. What office was assigned to Dentatus for accomplishing his destruction ? What means were employed for this purpose ? What became of this brave soldier ?

5. What atrocious act of villany did Appius perpetrate ? What steps did he take to obtain possession of Virginia ?

6. How did he endeavour to prevent the arrival of her father ? How did Virginius learn the situation of his daughter, and what course did he pursue ? What representation did he make to Appius, and what sentence did Appius pass ?

7. How did Virginius act in this dreadful emergency ? In what manner did he address Appius and the people ?

8. What effect did these transactions produce in the city and on the army ? What measures did the senate now adopt ? What became of the base Appius and his colleagues ?

SECTION II.

B. C. 449. } 1. IN the mean time, these intestine tumults pro-
Y. R. 305. } duced weakness within the state at home, and confidence in the enemy abroad. The war with the Æqui and Volsci still continued, and, as each year some trifling advantages were obtained over the Romans, they at last advanced so far as to make their incursions to the very walls of Rome. But the courage of the Romans was not the only thing that seemed to be diminished by their conquests ; their other virtues also, par-

ticularly their justice, appeared to have forsaken them. About this time, the inhabitants of two neighbouring cities, Ardea and Aricia, had a contest about some lands that had been claimed by both. Being unable to agree about their claim, they at length referred it to the senate and the people of Rome. The senate had yet some of the principles of primitive justice remaining, and refused to determine the dispute. But the people readily undertook the decision; and one Scaptius, an old man, declaring that these very lands of right belonged to Rome, they immediately voted themselves to be the legal possessors, and sent home the former litigants thoroughly convinced of their own folly, and of Roman injustice.

2. The tribunes now became more turbulent: they proposed two laws, one to permit the plebeians to intermarry with patricians, and the other to permit them to be admitted to the consulship also. The senators received these proposals with indignation, and seemed resolved to submit to the utmost extremities, rather than enact them. Finding, however, that their resistance only increased the commotions of the state, they at last consented to pass the law concerning marriages, hoping that this concession would satisfy the people. But they would be appeased only for a very short time: for, returning to their old custom of refusing to enlist upon the approach of an enemy, the consuls were forced to hold a private conference with the chief of the senate, where, after many debates, Claudius proposed an expedient, as the most probable means of satisfying the people in the present conjuncture. This was to create six or eight magistrates in the room of the consuls, whereof one-half at least should be patricians. This project, which was in fact granting what the people demanded, pleased the whole meeting; and it was agreed, that, at the next public meeting of the senate, the consuls should, contrary to their usual custom, begin by asking the opinion of the youngest senator. Upon assembling the senate, one of the tribunes accused them of holding secret meetings, and concerting dangerous designs against the people.—The consuls, on the other hand, averred their innocence, and, to demonstrate their sincerity, gave any of the younger members of the house leave to propound their opinions. These remaining silent, such of the older senators as were known to be popular, began by observing, that the people ought to be indulged in their request; that none so well deserved power as those who were most instrumental in gaining it; and that the city could not be free till all were reduced to perfect equality. Claudius spoke next, and broke out into bitter invectives against the people, giving it as his opinion that the law should not pass. This produced

some disturbance among the plebeians; till at length Genu-tius proposed, as had been concerted, that six magistrates should be annually chosen, with consular authority, three from the senate and three from the people. He moreover observed, that, when the time of their magistracy was expired, it would then be seen whether they should have the same office continued, or whether the consulship should be established upon its former footing. This project was eagerly embraced by the people; yet so fickle were the multitude, that, though many of the plebeians stood for the offices in question, the choice fell entirely upon the patricians who offered themselves as candidates.

3. These new magistrates were called military tribunes: they were at first six in number; sometimes however only three, sometimes four, and sometimes even eight were elected. They had the power and the ensigns of consuls; yet, as that power was divided among a number, each of them singly had but little authority. The first that were chosen continued in office only about three months, the augurs having found something amiss in the ceremonies of their election.—The military tribunes being deposed, the consuls once more came into office; and in order to lighten the weight of business which they were obliged to sustain, a new office was created, namely, that of censors, who were to be chosen every fifth year, though the period of their continuance in office was afterwards abridged to eighteen months. Their business was to take an estimate of the number and estates of the people, and to distribute them into their proper classes; to inspect the lives and manners of their fellow-citizens; to degrade senators for misconduct; to dismount knights; and to degrade plebeians from their own tribes into an inferior one, in case of misdemeanour. The two first censors were Papirius and Sempronius, both patricians; and from this order they continued to be elected for nearly a hundred years. This new creation served to restore peace for some time among the orders of the commonwealth:—and a triumph gained over the Volscians, by Geganius the consul, added to the universal satisfaction that reigned among the people. This calm, however, was but of short continuance; for, some time after, a famine pressing hard upon the poor, the usual complaints against the rich were renewed, which, as before, proving ineffectual, produced new seditions.

4. The consuls were accused of neglect in not having laid in a sufficient supply of corn: they, however, disregarded the
 B. C. 440. } murmurs of the populace, content with exerting all
 Y. R. 314. } their care in attempts to supply the pressing necessities. But though they did all that could be expected from

active magistrates in providing and distributing provisions to the poor, yet Spurius Mælius, a rich knight, who had purchased all the corn of Tuscany, far outshone them in liberality. This demagogue, inflamed with a secret desire of becoming powerful by the contentions in the state, distributed corn in great quantities among the poorer sort every day; till his house became the asylum of all such as wished to exchange a life of usefulness for one of lazy dependence. Having thus gained a sufficient number of partisans, he procured large quantities of arms, which were brought into his house by night, and formed a conspiracy, of which he was to have the command; while some of the tribunes, whom he had found means to corrupt, were to act under him in seizing upon the liberties of his country. Lucius Minucius, who had been appointed by the senate in this exigence to superintend the importation of corn, soon discovered the plot; and the senate immediately formed a resolution of creating a dictator, who should have the power of quelling the conspiracy, without appealing to the people.—Cincinnatus, who was now eighty years old, was chosen once more to rescue his country from impending danger. He began by summoning Mælius to appear, who refused to obey. He next sent Ahala, the master of his horse, to oblige Mælius to comply with the summons; but, on the refusal of the latter, the former seized and killed him upon the spot. The dictator applauded the resolution of his officer, and commanded the conspirator's goods to be sold, and his house to be demolished, distributing his stores among the people. The tribunes of the people were much enraged at the death of Mælius; and, in order to punish the senate at the next election, instead of consuls, insisted upon restoring their military tribunes. With this change of government the senate were obliged to comply. The next year, however, the government returned to its ancient form, and consuls were accordingly again chosen.

B. C. 405. }
 Y. R. 349. } 5. The Veians had long been the rivals of the Romans, and had ever taken the opportunity of their internal dissensions to ravage their territories, and had even threatened their ambassadors, sent to complain of these injuries, with flagrant outrage. It seemed now therefore determined, that the city of Veii should be destroyed; and the Romans accordingly besieged it, prepared for a long and painful resistance. The strength of the place may be inferred from the continuance of the siege, which lasted ten years; during which time the army continued encamped around it, lying in winter under tents made of the skins of beasts, and in summer driving on the operations of the attack. Various was the

success, and many were the commanders that directed the siege;—sometimes all the besiegers' works were destroyed, and many of their men cut off by sallies from the town: sometimes they were annoyed by an army of Veians, who attempted to bring assistance from without. A siege so bloody and so long continued seemed to threaten depopulation to Rome itself, by draining its forces continually away; so that a law was enacted, obliging all the bachelors to marry the widows of the soldiers who were slain. In order to carry on the siege with greater vigour, Furius Camillus was created dictator, and to him was intrusted the sole power of managing this long-protracted war.

6. Camillus, without intrigue or solicitation, having raised himself to the first eminence in the state, had been made one of the censors some time before, and, being considered as the head of that office, was afterwards made a military tribune, and had in this post gained several advantages over the enemy. It was his great courage and abilities in these offices that made him be deemed most worthy to serve his country on this pressing occasion. Upon his appointment, numbers of the people flocked to his standard, confident of success under so experienced a commander. Conscious, however, that he was unable to take the city by storm, he secretly and with great labour wrought a mine under it, which opened into the midst of the citadel. Being thus certain of success, and finding the city incapable of relief, he sent to the senate, desiring that all who chose to share in the plunder of Veii should immediately repair to the army. Then, giving his men directions how to enter the breach, the city was instantly filled with his legions, to the amazement and consternation of the besieged, who, but a moment before, had rested in perfect security. Thus, like a second Troy, was the city of Veii taken after a ten years' siege, and the conquerors enriched with its spoils; while Camillus himself, transported with the thought of having subdued the rival of his native city, triumphed after the manner of the kings of Rome, having his chariot drawn by four white horses,—a distinction which did not fail to disgust the majority of the spectators, as they considered those animals as sacred, and more proper for doing homage to their gods than to their generals.

7. His usual good fortune attended Camillus in another expedition against the Falisci; as he routed their army, and besieged their capital city Falerii, which threatened a long and vigorous resistance. The reduction of this little place would have scarcely been worth mentioning, were it not for an action of the Roman general, that has done him more credit with

posterity, than all his other triumphs united. A schoolmaster, who had the care of the children belonging to the principal men of the city, having found means to decoy them into the Roman camp, offered to put them into the hands of Camillus, as the surest means of inducing the citizens to a speedy surrender. The general was struck with the treachery of a wretch, whose duty it was to protect innocence, and not to betray it. He for some time regarded the traitor with a stern air; but at last finding words, "Execrable villain," cried the noble Roman, "offer thy abominable proposals to creatures like thyself, and not to me; what though we be the enemies of your city, yet there are natural ties that bind all mankind, which should never be broken: there are duties required from us in war as well as in peace: we fight not against an age of innocence, but against men; men who have used us ill indeed, but yet whose crimes are virtues when compared with thine: against such base arts let it be my duty to use only Roman arts, the art of valour and of arms!" So saying he immediately ordered him to be stript, his hands tied behind him, and in that ignominious manner to be whipped into the town by his own scholars. This generous behaviour of Camillus effected more than his arms could do: the magistrates of the town immediately submitted to the senate, leaving to Camillus the conditions of their surrender, who only fined them in a sum of money to satisfy his army, and received them under the protection and into the alliance of Rome.

EXERCISES.

1. What progress did the Æqui and Volsci make against the Romans? What act of injustice did the senate perpetrate towards the cities of Ardea and Aricia?

2. What proposal did the tribunes make, and what was the consequence? What expedient did Claudius suggest to satisfy the people? What contests ensued in consequence of this proposal?

3. What magistrates were now elected? What was their power, and how long did they continue to act? What new office was established, and what were the duties assigned to it? What occasioned new dissensions in the state?

4. How did Spurius Mælius acquire popularity? What scheme did he form, and by whom was it discovered? Who was chosen dictator in this emergency? What steps did Cincinnatus pursue, and what became of Mælius? How did the tribunes display their anger at his death?

5. What were the particulars of the siege of Veii? Whom did the Romans create dictator for putting an end to it?

6. What was the rank and character of Camillus? By what means did he obtain possession of Veii?

7. What city did he next besiege? In what manner did he punish the treachery of a schoolmaster? What effect did this act of justice and generosity produce?



SECTION III.

1. NOTWITHSTANDING the veneration which the virtues of Camillus had excited abroad, they seemed but little calculated to gain the respect of the turbulent tribunes at home, as they raised every day some fresh accusation against him. To the charge of being an opposer of their intended migration from Rome to Veii, they added that of his having concealed a part of the plunder of that city, particularly two brazen gates, for his own use, and appointed him a day on which to appear and answer this accusation before the people. Camillus finding the multitude exasperated against him, and detesting their ingratitude upon many accounts, resolved not to wait the ignominy of a trial, but, embracing his wife and children, prepared to depart from Rome. He had already gone on his way as far as one of the gates, unattended and unlamented. There he could suppress his indignation no longer ; but turning his face to the capitol, and lifting up his eyes to heaven, he entreated all the gods, that his country might one day be sensible of their injustice and ingratitude. So saying, he passed forward to take refuge in Ardea, a town at a little distance from Rome, where he afterwards learned that he had been fined by the tribunes to the amount of fifteen thousand *asses*.

2. The tribunes were not a little pleased with their triumph over this great man ; but they soon had reason to repent of their injustice, and to wish for the assistance of one, who alone was able to protect their country from ruin. For now a more terrible and redoubtable enemy than the Romans had ever yet encountered began to make their appearance. The

B. C. 390. }
Y. R. 364. } Gauls, a barbarous but warlike nation, had about two centuries before made an irruption from beyond the Alps, and settled in the northern parts of Italy.—They had been invited over by the deliciousness of the wines and the softness of the climate. Wherever they came they dispossessed the original inhabitants, as they were men of superior courage, extraordinary stature, fierce in their aspect, barbarous in their manners, and prone to emigration. A body of these terrible barbarians were now besieging Clusium, a city of Etruria, under the conduct of Brennus their king. The inhabitants of Clusium, frightened at their numbers, and still more at their savage appearance, entreated the assistance, or at least the mediation of the Romans. The senate, who had long made it a maxim never to refuse succour to the distressed, were willing previously to send ambassadors to the Gauls, to dissuade them from their enterprise, and to show the injustice of their irruption. Accordingly, three young senators were chosen out of

the family of the Fabii, to manage the commission, who seemed more fitted for the field than the cabinet. Brennus received them with a degree of complaisance that argued but little of the barbarian ; and, desiring to know the business of their embassy, was answered, according to their instructions, that it was not customary in Italy to make war, except on just grounds of provocation, and that they desired to know what offence the citizens of Clusium had given to the king of the Gauls ? To this Brennus sternly replied, that the rights of valiant men lay in their swords ; that the Romans themselves had no right to the many cities which they had conquered ; and that he had particular reasons for resentment against the people of Clusium, as they had refused to part with those lands which they had neither hands to till, nor inhabitants to occupy. The Roman ambassadors, who were but little used to hear the language of a conqueror, for a while dissembled their resentment at this haughty reply ; but, upon entering the besieged city, instead of acting as ambassadors, they headed the citizens in a sally against the besiegers. In this combat Fabius Ambustus killed a Gaul with his own hand ; but was discovered while he was spoiling him of his armour. A conduct so unjust and so unbecoming excited the resentment of Brennus, who, having made his complaint by a herald to the senate, and finding no redress, immediately broke up the siege, and marched away with his conquering army directly to Rome.

3. The countries through which the Gauls passed in their rapid progress gave up all hopes of safety upon their approach ; being terrified at their vast numbers, the fierceness of their aspect, and their formidable preparations for war. But the rage and impetuosity of this wild people were only directed against Rome. They went on without doing the least injury in their march, still breathing vengeance only against the Romans ; and a terrible engagement soon after ensued, in which the Romans were defeated near the river Allia, with the loss of nearly forty thousand men. The Romans, thus deprived of all succour, prepared for every extremity that might befall them. The inhabitants endeavoured to hide themselves in some of the neighbouring towns, or resolved to await the conqueror's fury, and end their lives with the ruin of their native city. But more particularly, the ancient senators and priests, struck with religious enthusiasm on this occasion, resolved to devote their lives to atone for the crimes of the people, and, habited in their robes of ceremony, placed themselves in the Forum on their ivory chairs. The Gauls, in the mean time, were giving a loose to their triumph, in sharing and enjoying the plunder of the enemy's camp. Had they immediately marched to Rome upon gaining the victory, the capitol itself

might easily have been taken ; but they continued two days feasting upon the field of battle, and, with barbarous pleasure, exulting amidst their slaughtered enemies.

4. On the third day after the victory, the easiness of which amazed the Gauls, Brennus appeared with all his forces before the city. He was at first much surprised to find the gates wide open to receive him, and the walls defenceless ; so that he began to impute the unguarded situation of the place to a stratagem of the Romans. After proper precautions, he entered the city, and marching into the Forum, there beheld the ancient senators, sitting in their order, observing a profound silence, unmoved and undaunted. The splendid habits, the majestic gravity, and the venerable looks of these old men, who had all, in their time, borne the highest offices of the state, awed the barbarous enemy into reverence. The Gauls believed them to be the tutelary deities of the place, and began to offer blind adoration ; till one, more forward than the rest, put forth his hand to stroke the beard of Papirius, an insult which the noble Roman could not endure, but, lifting up his ivory sceptre, instantly struck the savage to the ground. This unfortunate incident became a signal for general slaughter. Papirius fell first, and all the rest shared his fate, without mercy or distinction. Thus the fierce invaders pursued their slaughter for three days successively, sparing neither sex nor age ; and then setting fire to the city, burnt every house to the ground.

5. All the hopes of Rome were now placed in the capitol ; every thing without that fortress was but an extensive scene of misery, desolation, and despair. Brennus first summoned it, with threats, to surrender, but in vain ; he then resolved to besiege it in form, and hemmed it round with his army. Nevertheless the Romans repelled his attempts with great bravery ; as despair had supplied them with that perseverance and vigour which they seemed to want when in their prosperity. In the mean while, Brennus carried on the siege with extreme ardour. He hoped, in time, to starve the garrison into a capitulation ; but they, sensible of his intention, though in actual want of the means of subsistence, caused several loaves to be thrown into his camp, to convince him of the futility of his expectations. His hopes of taking the capitol, which now began to fail, were soon revived, when some of the soldiers came to inform him, that they had discovered some footsteps which led up the rock, and by which the capitol might be surprised. Accordingly, a chosen body of his men were ordered by night upon this dangerous service, which they with great labour and difficulty almost effected. They had now got upon the very wall ; the Roman sentinel was fast

asleep; their dogs within gave no signal, and all promised an instant victory, when the garrison were awakened by the gabbling of some sacred geese, that were kept in the temple of Juno. The besieged soon perceived the imminence of their danger; and each snatching the weapon he could instantly find, ran furiously to oppose the assailants. Marcus Manlius, a patrician of acknowledged bravery, was the first who exerted all his strength, and inspired courage by his example. He boldly mounted the rampart, and at one effort threw two Gauls headlong down the precipice; others soon came to his assistance, and the walls were cleared of the enemy in a space of time shorter than that employed in the recital.

6. From this time forward the hopes of the barbarians began to decline, and Brennus wished for an opportunity of raising the siege with credit. His soldiers had often conferences with the besieged while they were upon duty; and proposals for accommodation were wished for by the common men long before the chiefs thought of a compromise. At length the commanders on both sides came to an agreement, that the Gauls should immediately quit the city and territories of Rome, upon being paid a thousand pounds weight of gold. This agreement being confirmed by an oath from both parties, the gold was brought forth; but, upon weighing it, the Gauls attempted fraudulently to kick the beam, of which the Romans complaining, Brennus insultingly cast his sword and belt into the scale, crying out, that the only portion of the vanquished was to suffer. By this reply, the Romans saw that they were at the victor's mercy, and knew it was in vain to expostulate against any conditions he should be pleased to impose. But in this very juncture it was told them, that Camillus, their old general, was, at the head of a large army, hastening to their relief, and entering the gates of Rome. Camillus actually appeared soon after, and, entering the place of controversy with the air of one that was determined not to suffer imposition, demanded to know the cause of the contest. Being informed of it, he ordered the gold to be taken back to the capitol:—"For it ever has been," cried he, "the manner with us Romans to ransom our country, not with gold, but with iron; it is I only who have a right to make peace, as being the dictator of Rome, and my sword alone shall purchase it." Upon this a battle ensued, in which the Gauls were entirely routed; and such a slaughter followed, that the Roman territories, by the bravery of Camillus, were soon cleared of their formidable invaders.

7. The city being one continued heap of ruins, except the capitol, and the greatest number of its former inhabitants having gone to take refuge in Veii, the tribunes of the people

were urgent for the removal of the poor remains of Rome to Veii, where they might have houses to shelter and walls to defend them. On this occasion, Camillus attempted to appease them with all the arts of persuasion, observing, that it was unworthy of them, both as Romans and as men, to desert the venerable seats of their ancestors, where they had been encouraged by repeated marks of divine approbation, to remove to and inhabit a city which they had conquered, and which had not been able to defend itself. By these, and such like remonstrances, he prevailed upon the people to go contentedly to work ; and Rome soon began to rise from its ashes.

8. We have already seen the bravery of Marcus Manlius in defending the capitol, and saving the last remains of Rome. For this the people were by no means ungrateful, as they built him a house near the place where his valour was so conspicuous, and appointed him a public fund for his support. But he aspired at being not only equal to Camillus, but even sovereign of Rome. With this view, he laboured to ingratiate himself with the populace, paid their debts, and railed at the patricians, whom he called their oppressors. The senate was not ignorant of his discourses or his designs, and created Cornelius Cossus dictator, with a view to curb the ambition of Manlius. The dictator soon finished an expedition against the Volscians by a victory ; and upon his return called Manlius to an account for his conduct. Manlius, however, was too much the darling of the populace to be affected by the power of Cossus, who was soon after obliged to lay down his office ; and Manlius was carried from confinement in triumph through the city. This success only served to inflame his ambition. He now began to talk of a division of the lands among the people, insinuating that there should be no distinctions in the state ; and, to give weight to his discourses, always appeared at the head of a large body of the lowest of the people, whom his largesses had made his followers.

9. The city being thus filled with sedition and clamour, the senate had recourse to another expedient, which was to oppose the power of Camillus to that of the demagogue. Camillus, accordingly, being made one of the military tribunes, appointed a day for Manlius to appear and answer for his life. The place in which he was tried was near the capitol, whither, on being accused of sedition, and of aspiring to sovereignty, he only turned his eyes, and pointing thither, put them in mind of what he had there done for his country. The multitude, whose compassion or justice seldom springs from rational motives, refused to condemn him, while he pleaded in sight of the capitol ; but when he was brought thence to the Peteline

grove, and when the capitol was no longer to be seen, they condemned him to be thrown headlong from the Tarpeian Rock. Thus the place which had been the theatre of his glory, became that of his punishment and infamy. His house, in which his conspiracies had been secretly carried on, was ordered to be rased to the ground, and his family were forbidden ever after to assume the name of Marcus.

10. In this manner, the Romans went gradually forward, with a mixture of turbulence and superstition within their walls, and successful enterprises without them. With what implicit obedience they submitted to their pontiffs we have already seen in many instances; and how far they might be impelled, even to encounter death itself at their command, will evidently appear from the behaviour of Curtius about this time, who, upon the opening of a gulf in the Forum, which the augurs affirmed would never close up till the most precious things in Rome were thrown into it, leaped with his horse and armour into the midst of it, saying, That nothing was more truly valuable than patriotism and military virtue. The gulf, say historians, closed immediately, and Curtius was never seen after.

EXERCISES.

1. What charges did the tribunes bring against Camillus? How did he act in this emergency? To what place of refuge did he retire?

2. What formidable people invaded Italy at this time? Who applied to the Romans for assistance against them? What measures did the Romans adopt? What reply did Brennus, the leader of the Gauls, make to the Roman ambassadors? What occasioned a quarrel betwixt him and the Romans?

3. What measures did Brennus now pursue? What loss did the Romans sustain in a battle with the Gauls? To what condition were the people reduced, and what resolution did the senators form?

4. When did Brennus enter Rome, and what objects did he there behold? What took place in the Forum, and what devastation instantly ensued?

5. What attempts did Brennus make to obtain possession of the capitol? By what means was the garrison alarmed, and how were the Gauls repulsed?

6. Upon what terms did Brennus agree to abandon the siege? How did Brennus act in settling the treaty? Who brought relief to the Romans in this extremity, and how did he address Brennus? What was the result of a battle fought betwixt Brennus and Camillus?

7. What proposal did the tribunes make to the Romans? How did Camillus prevail on the citizens to rebuild Rome?

8. What honours were bestowed on Manlius for saving the capitol? How did he afterwards aspire to undue authority?

9. How did the senate oppose his pretensions? What sentence was passed upon him?

10. How were the Romans distinguished at this period? What story is related concerning Curtius?

CHAP. XI.

*From the Wars of the Samnites, and the Wars with Pyrrhus,
to the Beginning of the first Punic War.*

SECTION I.

B. C. 343. } 1. THE Romans having now triumphed over the
Y. R. 411. } Sabines, the Etrurians, the Latins, the Hernici, the
Æqui, and the Volsci, began to extend their views to greater
conquests. They accordingly turned their arms against the
Samnites, a people about a hundred miles south-east from the
city, descended from the Sabines, and inhabiting a large tract
of southern Italy, which at this day forms a considerable part
of the kingdom of Naples. Valerius Corvus and Cornelius
Cossus were the two consuls, to whose care it first fell to man-
age this dreadful contest between the rival states. Valerius
was one of the greatest commanders of his time: he was sur-
named Corvus, from the strange circumstance of being assist-
ed by a crow, in a single combat, in which he fought and
killed a Gaul of gigantic stature. To his colleague's care it
was consigned to lead an army into Samnium, the enemy's
country, while Corvus was sent to relieve Capua, the capital
of the Campanians. Never was a captain more fitted to com-
mand than Corvus. To a robust and athletic body he happily
joined the gentlest manners; he was the fiercest, and yet the
most good-natured man in the army; and, while the meanest
sentinel was his companion, no man kept his troops more
strictly to their duty; but what completes his character, he
constantly endeavoured to preserve his dignities by the same
arts by which he gained them. Such soldiers as the Romans
then were, hardened by their late adversity, and led on by
such a general, were unconquerable.

2. The Samnites were the bravest men they had ever yet
encountered; and the contention between the two nations was
managed on both sides with the most determined resolution.
But the fortune of Rome at last prevailed: the Samnites fled,
averring that they were not able to withstand the fierce and
resolute looks of their enemies. The other consul, however,
was not at first so fortunate; for, having unwarily led his
army into a defile, he was in danger of being cut off, had not
Decius, a tribune of the army, possessed himself of a hill
which commanded the enemy. The Samnites being now at-
tacked on both sides, were defeated with great slaughter, no
less than thirty thousand of them being left dead upon the

field of battle.—Some time after this victory, the soldiers stationed at Capua engaged in a mutiny against their general, and forced Quinctius, an old and eminent soldier, to be their leader ; and, guided by their rage rather than by their general, came within eight miles of the city. So terrible an enemy almost at the gates alarmed the senate, who immediately created Valerius Corvus dictator, and sent him forth with another army to oppose them. The two armies were now drawn up against each other ; while fathers and sons beheld themselves prepared to engage in opposite causes. Any other general but Corvus would perhaps have brought this civil war to a dreadful extremity ; but he, knowing his influence among the soldiery, instead of going forward to meet the mutineers in a hostile manner, went with the most cordial friendship to embrace and expostulate with his old acquaintances. His conduct had the desired effect. Quinctius, as their speaker, only desired to have their defection from their duty forgiven ; and as he himself was innocent of their conspiracy, he had no reason to solicit pardon for his own offences. Thus, this defection, which at first threatened such dangers to Rome, was repaired by the prudence and moderation of a general, whose ambition it was to be gentle to his friends and formidable to his enemies.

3. A war between the Romans and the Latins followed soon after ; but, as their habits, arms, and language were the same, the most exact discipline was necessary to prevent confusion in the engagement. Orders were therefore issued by Manlius the consul, that no soldier should leave his ranks upon whatever provocation ; and that he who would offer to do otherwise would be immediately put to death. With these injunctions, both armies were drawn out in array, and ready to begin, when Metius, the general of the enemy's cavalry, pushed forward from the lines, and challenged any knight in the Roman army to single combat. For some time there was a general pause, no soldier offering to disobey his orders, till Titus Manlius, the consul's own son, burning with shame to see the whole body of the Romans intimidated, boldly stepped out against his adversary. The soldiers on both sides for a while suspended the general engagement, to be spectators of this fierce encounter. The two champions drove their horses against each other with great violence ; Metius wounded his adversary's horse in the neck ; but Manlius, with better fortune, killed that of Metius. The Latin having thus fallen to the ground, for a while attempted to support himself upon his shield ; but the Roman followed his blows with so much force, that he laid him dead as he was endeavouring to rise ; and

then despoiling him of his armour, returned in triumph to the tent of his father, who was preparing and giving orders relative to the engagement.

4. However he might have been applauded by his fellow-soldiers, being as yet doubtful of the reception he should meet with from his father, he came with hesitation to lay the enemy's spoils at his feet, and, with a modest air, insinuated that what he had done was entirely from a spirit of hereditary virtue. But he was soon made dreadfully sensible of his error, when his father, turning away, ordered him to be led publicly forth before the whole army. There, being brought forward, the consul with a stern countenance, yet with tears in his eyes, spoke as follows:—"Titus Manlius, as thou hast regarded neither the dignity of the consulship, nor the commands of thy father,—as thou hast destroyed military discipline, and set a pattern of disobedience by thy example,—thou hast reduced me to the deplorable extremity of sacrificing my son or my country. But let us not hesitate in this dreadful alternative; a thousand lives were well lost in such a cause; nor do I think that thou thyself wilt refuse to die, when thy country is to reap the advantage of thy sufferings. Go, lictor, bind him, and let his death be our future example." The whole army was struck with horror at this unnatural mandate; fear for a while kept them in suspense; but when they saw their young champion's head struck off, and his blood streaming upon the ground, they could no longer contain their execrations and their groans. His dead body was carried forth without the camp, and being adorned with the spoils of the vanquished enemy, was buried with all the pomp of military lamentation.

5. In the mean time, the battle commenced with great fury; and as the two armies had often fought under the same leaders, they combated with all the animosity of civil war. The Latins chiefly depended upon their bodily strength; the Romans on their invincible courage and conduct. Forces so nearly matched seemed only to require the protection of their deities to turn the scale of victory; and in fact the augurs had foretold, that whatever division of the Roman army should be reduced to extremity, the commander of that division should devote himself for his country, and die as a sacrifice to the immortal gods.—Manlius commanded the right wing, and Decius led on the left. Both sides fought for some time with doubtful success, as their courage was equal; but soon afterwards the left wing of the Roman army began to give ground. It was then that Decius, who commanded it, resolved to devote himself for his country, and to offer his own life as a

B. C. 338.
Y. R. 416.

1. Against whom did the Romans now declare war, and who were the consuls appointed to conduct it? Whence was Valerius, one of the consuls, surnamed Corvus? What was his character?

2. What was the issue of the contest with the Samnites? How did the army at Capua behave? How did Corvus display his prudence and moderation? What effect did his conduct produce on this occasion?

3. With whom did the Romans next engage in war? What orders were issued by Manlius the consul? By whom was a challenge given and accepted to decide the contest by single combat? Which of the champions proved victorious?

4. How did young Manlius appear before his father? In what manner did the consul address his son? What punishment was inflicted on him? What impression did his execution make upon the army?

5. What directions did the augurs give respecting the ensuing battle? Which wing of the Roman army gave way? How did Decius devote himself for his country? What were the consequences of his heroic deed? When was peace concluded betwixt the Romans and Latins?

SECTION II.

B. C. 321. } 1. A SIGNAL disgrace which the Romans sustained
Y. R. 433. } about this time in their contests with the Samnites,
made a pause in their usual good fortune, and turned the scale
of victory in the enemy's favour.—The senate having denied
the Samnites peace, Pontius, their general, was resolved to gain
by stratagem what he had frequently been unable to accom-

plish by force. Accordingly, leading his army to a defile called *Furculæ Caudinæ*, near the town of *Caudium*, and taking possession of all its outlets, he sent ten of his soldiers, habited like shepherds, with directions to throw themselves in the way that the Romans were to march. In accordance with his wishes, the Roman consul met them, and, believing them to be what they appeared, demanded the route which the Samnite army had taken. They, with seeming indifference, replied, that they were gone to *Luceria*, a town in *Apulia*, and were then actually besieging it. The Roman general, not suspecting the stratagem that was prepared for him, marched by the shortest road, which lay through the defiles, to relieve the city; and was not undeceived till he saw his army surrounded, and blocked up on every side. *Pontius*, thus having the Romans entirely in his power, first obliged the army to pass under the yoke, after they had been previously stripped of all but their garments. He then stipulated that they should wholly quit the territories of the Samnites, and adhere to the terms of their former confederacy. The Romans were constrained to submit to this ignominious treaty, and marched into *Capua* disarmed, half-naked, and burning with a desire of retrieving their lost honour. When the army arrived at *Rome*, the whole city was most grievously afflicted at their shameful return; nothing but consternation and resentment was to be seen, and the whole city was plunged into mourning.

2. The recent disgrace of the Romans, however, was but a transitory calamity:—the state had suffered a diminution of its glory, but not of its power. The war was carried on for many years with the same vigour as before, the power of the Samnites declining every day, while that of the Romans gathered fresh strength from every victory. Under the conduct of *Papirius Cursor*, who was at different times consul and dictator, repeated triumphs were gained over the Samnites. *Fabius Maximus* also had his share in the glory of conquering them; and *Decius*, the son of that *Decius* who devoted himself to his country forty years before, followed the example of his father, and, rushing into the midst of the enemy, saved the lives of his countrymen by the sacrifice of his own. The Samnites, after a series of defeats, being constrained to sue for peace, the Romans turned their arms against the people of *Tarentum*, who had plundered some Roman ships which had approached their coasts, and had insulted the ambassadors sent to demand redress. The Tarentines being unable to defend themselves, were obliged to call in the assistance of a foreign power, and had recourse to *Pyrrhus*, king

of Epirus, to save them from impending ruin. Pyrrhus, a king of great courage, power, and ambition, from having always kept the example of Alexander, his great predecessor, before his eyes, promised to come to their assistance; and, in the mean time, despatched a body of three thousand men, under the command of Cineas, an experienced soldier, and a scholar of the great orator Demosthenes.—Nor did he himself remain long behind, but soon after put to sea with three thousand horse, twenty thousand foot, and twenty elephants, in which the commanders of that time began to place very great confidence.

3. Only a small part, however, of these great preparations arrived in Italy with him, for many of his ships were dispersed, and some were totally lost in a tempest. Upon the arrival of Pyrrhus at Tarentum, his first care was to reform the people whom he came to succour; and, for this purpose, on observing a total dissolution of manners in this luxurious city, and that the inhabitants were rather occupied with the pleasures of bathing, feasting, and dancing, than the care of preparing for war, he gave orders to have all their places of public amusement shut up, and the soldiers restrained from all such amusements as rendered them unfit for battle. In the mean time, the Romans did all that prudence could suggest to oppose so formidable an enemy; and the consul Lævinus was sent with a numerous army to interrupt his progress. Pyrrhus, though his whole forces had not yet arrived, drew out his army to meet him; but previously sent an ambassador, desiring permission to mediate between the Romans and the people of Tarentum. To this Lævinus returned for answer, that he neither regarded him as a mediator, nor feared him as an enemy; and then leading the ambassador through the Roman camp, desired him to observe diligently what he saw, and to report the result to his master. In consequence of this, both armies approached, and pitched their tents in sight of each other, upon the opposite banks of the river Liris. Pyrrhus was always extremely careful in choosing the situation of his own camp, and in observing that of the enemy. It was there that, walking along the banks of the river, and surveying the Roman method of encamping, he was heard to observe, “that these barbarians seemed to be no way barbarous, and he should too soon find their actions equal to their resolution.”

4. In the mean time, ordering a body of men along the banks of the river, he placed them in readiness to oppose the Romans, in case they should attempt to ford it before his whole army was brought together. The event turned out according to his expectations; as the consul, with an impetu-

osity that marked his inexperience, gave orders for passing the river where it was fordable, so that the advanced guard having attempted to oppose him in vain, was obliged to retire to the main body of the army. Pyrrhus being apprized of the enemy's attempt, at first hoped to cut off their cavalry, before they could be re-enforced by the foot that had not yet passed over, and led on in person a chosen body of horse against them. The Roman legions having, with much difficulty, advanced across the river, the engagement became general: the Greeks fought with a consciousness of their former fame, and the Romans with a desire of gaining fresh glory.—Mankind had never before seen two such differently disciplined armies opposed to each other; nor is it to this day determined whether the Grecian phalanx or the Roman legions were preferable as military bodies. The combat was long in suspense: the Romans had seven times repulsed the enemy, and were as often driven back themselves; but at length, while the issue seemed doubtful, Pyrrhus sent his elephants into the midst of the battle, and these turned the scale of victory in his favour. The Romans, who had never before seen creatures of such magnitude, were not only terrified by the resistless impetuosity of their attack, but also by the castles that were built upon their backs, filled with armed men. It was then that Pyrrhus saw the day was his own; and, sending in his Thessalian cavalry to charge the enemy in disorder, the rout soon after became general. A dreadful slaughter of the Romans ensued, fifteen thousand men being killed upon the spot, and fifteen hundred taken prisoners. Nor were the conquerors in a much better state than the vanquished, Pyrrhus himself being wounded, and thirteen thousand of his forces slain.—Night coming on, put an end to the slaughter on both sides; and Pyrrhus was heard to cry out, that one such victory more would oblige him to return to Epire. The next day, as he was walking to view the field of battle, he could not help regarding with admiration the bodies of the Romans who were slain; so that, on seeing them all with their wounds before; their countenances, even in death, marked with noble resolution, and a sternness that awed him into respect, he was heard to cry out, in the true spirit of a military adventurer, "O with what ease could I conquer the world, had I the Romans for soldiers, or had they me for their king!"

5. Pyrrhus, after this victory, was still unwilling to drive the Romans to extremity, and, considering that it was best to treat with a humbled enemy, resolved to send his friend Cincas the orator, of whom he often asserted, that he had won more towns by his eloquence than by his own arms, to nego-

tiate a peace. Cineas, however, with all his art, found the Romans incapable of being seduced, either by private bribery or public persuasion. Being frustrated, therefore, in his expectations, he returned to his master, extolling both the virtues and the grandeur of the Romans. The senate, he said, appeared a reverend assembly of demigods, and the city a temple for their reception. Of this Pyrrhus soon after became sensible by an embassy from Rome, about the ransom and exchange of the prisoners. At the head of this venerable deputation was Fabricius, an ancient senator, who had long been a pattern to his countrymen of the most extreme poverty joined to the most cheerful contentment. Pyrrhus received this celebrated old man with great kindness, and, wishing to try how far fame had been just in his favour, offered him rich presents, which, however, the Roman refused. The day after he was desirous of examining the equality of his temper, and ordered to be placed behind the tapestry one of his elephants, which, upon a signal given, raised its trunk above the ambassador's head, at the same time using other tricks to intimidate him; but Fabricius, with an unaltered countenance, smiled upon the king, observing, that he looked with an equal eye on the terrors of this day as he had upon the allurements of the preceding. Pyrrhus, pleased to find so much virtue in one whom he had considered a barbarian, was willing to grant him the only favour which he knew could make him happy. He released the Roman prisoners, intrusting them to Fabricius alone, upon his promise that, in case the senate were determined to continue the war, he might reclaim them whenever he thought proper.

6. By this time the Roman army had recovered from its late defeat, and Sulpicius and Decius, the consuls for the following year, were placed at its head. The panic which had formerly seized the soldiers at the sight of the elephants, now began to wear off; and the hostile armies met again near the city of Asculum, both pretty nearly equal in numbers, being forty thousand strong; and here again, after a long and obstinate fight, the Grecian discipline prevailed. The Romans being pressed on every side, particularly by the elephants, were obliged to retire to their camp, leaving six thousand men dead upon the field of battle. But the enemy had no great reason to boast of their triumph, as they had four thousand slain; so that Pyrrhus replied to one of his soldiers, who was congratulating him upon his victory, "One such triumph more, and I shall be undone!" The result of the battle, however, and the loss on each side, have been variously represented.

7. This battle finished the campaign; but the next season

began with equal vigour on both sides, Pyrrhus having received new succours from home. While the two armies were approaching, and but at a small distance from each other, a letter was brought to old Fabricius, the Roman general, from the king's physician, importing that, for a proper reward, he would take him off by poison, and thus rid the Romans of a powerful enemy and a dangerous war. Fabricius, at this base proposal, felt all the honest indignation that was consistent with his former character; he communicated it to his colleague, and gave it as his opinion that Pyrrhus should be informed of the treachery contrived against him. Accordingly, letters were despatched for that purpose, informing Pyrrhus of the whole affair; and alleging the unfortunate choice of his friends and enemies, as he had trusted and promoted murderers, while he carried his resentment against the generous and the brave. Pyrrhus now began by degrees to find that these bold barbarians were schooled into refinement, and would not suffer him to be their superior even in generosity. He received the message with as much amazement at their candour as indignation at his physician's treachery: "Admirable Fabricius!" cried he, "it would be as easy to turn the sun from his course as thee from the paths of honour." Then, making the proper inquiry among his servants, and having discovered the treason, he ordered his physician to be executed. However, not to be outdone in magnanimity, he immediately sent to Rome all his prisoners without ransom, and again desired to negotiate a peace. The Romans, on the other hand, refused him peace, unless upon the same conditions they had offered before.

8. After an interval of two years, Pyrrhus, having increased his army by new levies, sent one part of it to oppose the march of Cornelius Lentulus, the Roman consul; while he himself went to attack Curius Dentatus, the other in command, before his colleague could come to his assistance. His principal aim was to surprise the enemy by night; but unfortunately passing through woods, and his lights failing him, his men lost their way, so that at the approach of morning he saw himself within sight of the Roman camp, with the enemy ready to receive him. The vanguard of both armies soon met, in which the Romans had the advantage. Soon after, a general

B. C. 275. } engagement ensuing, Pyrrhus, finding the balance
 Y. R. 479. } of the victory turning still against him, had once more recourse to his elephants. These, however, the Romans were now too well acquainted with to feel any vain terrors from their appearance; and having found that fire was the most effectual means to repel them, they caused a number of

balls to be made, composed of flax and rosin, which were thrown against them as they approached the ranks. The elephants, thus rendered furious by the flame, and as boldly opposed by the soldiers, could no longer be brought on, but ran back upon their own army, bearing down the ranks, and filling all places with terror and confusion.—Thus victory at length declared in favour of the Romans; and Pyrrhus in vain attempted to stop the flight and slaughter of his troops; so that he not only lost twenty-six, or, according to other accounts, thirty-six thousand of his best soldiers, but his camp was also taken. The mode of its construction served as a model to the Romans, who were ever anxious to make improvements in the art of war. They had formerly pitched their tents without order; but by this new capture they were taught to measure out their ground, and fortify the whole with a trench; so that many of their succeeding victories are to be ascribed to their improved method of encamping.

9. Pyrrhus, thus finding all his hopes of conquering the Romans fruitless, resolved to leave Italy, where he found only desperate enemies and faithless allies. Accordingly, calling together the Tarentines, he informed them, that he had received assurances from Greece of speedy assistance, and, desiring them to wait the event with tranquillity, the night following he embarked his troops, and returned undisturbed to his native kingdom, with the remains of his shattered forces. Before departing, however, he left a garrison at Tarentum, merely to save appearances; and in this manner ended the war with Pyrrhus, after six years' continuance.—The poor luxurious Tarentines, who were the original promoters of this war, soon began to find a worse enemy in the garrison that was left for their defence, than in the Romans who attacked them from without. The hatred between them and Milo, who commanded the citadel for Pyrrhus, had become so great, that nothing but the fear of their old inveterate enemies, the Romans, could equal it. In this distress they applied to the Carthaginians, who, with a large fleet, came and blocked up the port of Tarentum; so that this unfortunate people, once famous throughout Italy for their refinements and pleasures, now saw themselves pressed by three different armies, without the choice of a conqueror. At length, however, the Romans found means to bring over the garrison to their interest; after which they easily became masters of the city, and demolished its walls, granting the inhabitants liberty and protection.

EXERCISES.

1. What disgrace did the Romans sustain about this time, and how did it happen? What terms did Pontius, the general of the Samnites, impose upon them?

2. By whom were the affairs of the Romans again retrieved? Against whom did they now turn their arms? To whom did the Tarentines apply for assistance? What force did Pyrrhus bring to their relief?

3. What regulations did Pyrrhus establish among the Tarentines? What Roman general was sent to oppose him, and how did Lævinus treat Pyrrhus's ambassador? What remark did Pyrrhus make on observing the Roman method of encampment?

4. What plan did Pyrrhus adopt to oppose the Romans? What were the particulars of a battle that ensued? How did Pyrrhus gain the victory? What loss did the Romans sustain? What exclamation did Pyrrhus utter after this battle?

5. Whom did Pyrrhus send to Rome to negotiate a peace, and what account did Cineas give of what he had seen? Who was sent to Pyrrhus to obtain an exchange of prisoners? What method did Pyrrhus take to intimidate him? What favour did he confer on Fabricius?

6. What consuls were next sent against Pyrrhus? Where was a battle fought, and who gained the victory? What loss was sustained on each side, and what remark did Pyrrhus make on his victory?

7. What letter did Fabricius receive from Pyrrhus's physician? How did the former act on this occasion? What eulogium did Pyrrhus pass upon Fabricius, and what act of generosity did he display?

8. What were the particulars of an engagement he had with the consul Dentatus? What loss did he suffer, and how did the Romans improve their victory?

9. In what condition did Pyrrhus leave Italy? Whom did the Tarentines call to their aid against the garrison? Who became masters of their city?

CHAP. XII.

From the Beginning of the first Punic War to the Beginning of the second, when the Romans began to grow powerful by Sea.

B. C. 266. } 1. THE Romans having destroyed all rival pretensions at home, began to pant after foreign conquests. Y. R. 458. } The Carthaginians were at that time in possession of the greatest part of Sicily, and, like the Romans, only wanted an opportunity of embroiling the natives, in order to become masters of the whole island. This opportunity at length offered. Hiero, king of Syracuse, one of the states of that island which were yet unconquered, entreated their aid against the Mamertines, an inconsiderable people of the same country, and the Carthaginians sent him supplies by sea and land. The Mamertines, on the other hand, to shield off impending ruin, put themselves under the protection of Rome. The Romans, not thinking the Mamertines worthy of the name of allies, instead of professing to assist them, boldly declared war against Carthage; alleging as a reason, that the Carthaginians had lately sent assistance to the southern states of Italy against the Romans. In this manner a war was declared between these two powerful nations, both grown too great to continue patient spectators of each other's increase.

B. C. 264. }
Y. R. 490. }

2. Carthage was originally inhabited by a colony of Phœnicians, and built on the coast of Africa, near the place where Tunis now stands, about one hundred and thirty-seven years before the foundation of Rome. As it had been long growing into power, so it had extended its dominions all along the coasts, and hence its chief strength lay in its fleets and commerce. It was in such circumstances that these two great powers, the Romans and Carthaginians, began what is called the first Punic war. The Carthaginians were possessed of gold and silver, which might be exhausted; the Romans were remarkable for perseverance and patriotism, which seemed to gather strength by every defeat.—But there seemed to be an insurmountable obstacle to the ambitious views of the Romans, as they had no fleet, or at least nothing which deserved that name; while the Carthaginians had the entire command at sea, and kept all the maritime towns under obedience. In such a situation, any people but the Romans would have rested contented under disadvantages which nature seemed to have imposed; but nothing could conquer or intimidate them. They began to apply themselves to maritime affairs; and, though without shipwrights to build, or seamen to navigate a fleet, resolved to surmount every obstacle with inflexible perseverance. A Carthaginian vessel happened to be driven ashore in a storm, and this was sufficient to serve as a model for the construction of a navy. The consul Duillius was the

B. C. 260. } first who ventured to sea with this new-constructed
Y. R. 494. } armament; and, though far inferior to the enemy in the management of his fleet, gained a naval victory over the Carthaginians, who lost fifty of their ships, and the undisturbed sovereignty of the sea, which they valued still more.

3. But the conquest of Sicily was only to be obtained by humbling the power of Carthage at home. For this reason, the senate resolved to carry the war into Africa itself, and accordingly sent Regulus and Manlius with a fleet of three hundred sail to make the invasion. Regulus was reckoned the most consummate warrior that Rome could then produce, and a professed example of frugal severity. His patriotism was still greater than his temperance; all the private passions seemed extinguished in him, or they were all swallowed up in one ruling affection, the love of his country. The two generals set sail with their fleet, which was the greatest that had ever yet left an Italian port, carrying one hundred and forty thousand men. They were met by the Carthaginians with a fleet as powerful, and furnished with men better used to the sea. While the action continued at a distance, rather between the ships than the men, the Carthaginians seemed successful; but

when the Romans came to grapple with them, the difference between a mercenary army and one that fought for fame was soon apparent. The resolution of the Romans was crowned with success ; the enemy's fleet was dispersed, and fifty-four of their vessels were taken. The consequence of this victory was an immediate descent upon the coast of Africa, and the capture of the city Clupea, together with twenty thousand men, who were made prisoners of war.

4. The senate being informed of these great successes, and applied to for fresh instructions, commanded Manlius back to Italy, in order to superintend the Sicilian war ; and instructed Regulus to continue in Africa to prosecute his victories. A battle ensued, in which the Carthaginians were once more defeated, and some of their best troops cut off. This fresh victory contributed to throw them into the utmost despair ; so that more than eighty of their towns submitted to the Romans. In this distress, the Carthaginians, destitute of generals at home, were obliged to send to Lacedæmon, offering the command of their armies to Xantippus, a general of great experience, who undertook to conduct them. This general began by giving the magistrates proper instructions for levying their men. He told them that their armies were hitherto overthrown, not by the strength of the enemy, but by the ignorance of their own generals ; and therefore only required a ready obedience to his orders, in order to ensure them an easy victory. The whole city seemed once more revived from despondence by the exhortations of a single stranger ; and soon, from hope, grew into confidence. This was the spirit which the Grecian general wished to excite in the Carthaginians ; so that, when he saw them thus ripe for an engagement, he joyfully took the field. The Lacedæmonian made the most skillful disposition of his forces ; he placed his cavalry in the wings ; he disposed his elephants at proper intervals behind the line of the heavy-armed infantry ; and, bringing up the light-armed troops before, he ordered them to retire through the line of infantry, after they had discharged their weapons.

B. C. 255. } At length both armies engaging, after a long and
Y. R. 499. } obstinate resistance, the Romans were overthrown with dreadful slaughter, the greater part of their army being destroyed, and Regulus himself taken prisoner. Several other misfortunes befell the Romans soon after this defeat. They lost their whole fleet in a storm ; and Agrigentum, their principal town in Sicily, was taken by Karthalo, the Carthaginian general. They undertook to build a new fleet, which also shared the fate of the former, as the mariners, as yet unac-

quainted with the Mediterranean shores, drove it upon quicksands, and soon after the greatest part perished in the storm.

5. Mean time the Carthaginians, being thus successful, were desirous of a new treaty for peace, hoping to have better terms than those insisted upon by Regulus. For this purpose they supposed that he, whom they had now kept for four years chained in a dungeon, would be a proper solicitor in their behalf. It was expected that, being wearied with imprisonment and bondage, he would gladly endeavour to persuade his countrymen to discontinue a war, which only prolonged his own captivity. He was accordingly sent with the ambassadors to Rome; but with a promise, previously exacted from him, to return in case of being unsuccessful. He was even given to understand, that his life depended upon the success of his negotiation. When this old general, together with the ambassadors of Carthage, approached Rome, numbers of his friends came out to meet him and congratulate his return. Their acclamations resounded throughout the city; but Regulus refused, with settled melancholy, to enter the gates. It was in vain that he was entreated on every side to visit his little dwelling, and share in that joy which his return had inspired. He persisted in saying, that he was now but a slave belonging to the Carthaginians, and unfit to partake in the liberal honours of his own country. The senate assembling without the walls, as usual, to give audience to the ambassadors, Regulus opened his commission as he had been directed by the Carthaginian council, and their ambassadors seconded his proposals. The senate were, by this time, themselves weary of a war, which had been protracted above eight years, and were no way averse to a peace. It only remained for Regulus himself to give his opinion, who, when it came to his turn to speak, to the surprise of all present, gave his voice for continuing the war. So unexpected an advice not a little perplexed the senate; who pitied as well as admired a man that had used such eloquence against his private interest, and could not concede to a measure which was to terminate in his ruin. But he soon relieved their embarrassment by breaking off the treaty, and rose in order to return to his bonds and confinement. It was in vain that the senate and all his dearest friends entreated his stay, as he still repressed their solicitations. Marcia, his wife, with her little children, filled the city with her lamentations, and vainly entreated permission to see him. He still obstinately persisted in keeping his promise; and though sufficiently apprized of the tortures that awaited his return, without embracing his family, or taking leave of his friends, he again departed with the ambassadors for Carthage.

6. Nothing could equal the fury and disappointment of the Carthaginians, when they were informed by their ambassadors that Regulus, instead of hastening a peace, had given his opinion for continuing the war. They accordingly prepared to punish his conduct with the most cruel tortures. First his eyelids were cut off, and then he was remanded to prison. He was, after some days, again brought out and exposed with his face opposite the burning sun. At last, when malice was fatigued with studying all the arts of torture, he was put into a barrel stuck full of nails that pointed inwards, and in this painful position he continued till he died ! Both sides now took up arms with more than former animosity. At length the Roman perseverance was crowned with success ; one victory followed another with great rapidity. Fabius Buteo, the consul, once more showed them the way to naval victory, by defeating a large squadron of the enemy's ships ; but Lutatius Catulus gained a victory still more complete, in which the power of Carthage seemed totally destroyed at sea, by the loss of one hundred and twenty ships, according to the most moderate computation. This loss brought the Carthaginians to sue for peace, which the Romans thought proper to grant ; though they were still inflexible in their demands, exacting the same conditions which Regulus had formerly offered at the gates of Carthage. These were, that they should lay down a thousand talents of silver to defray the charge of the war, and pay two thousand two hundred more in ten years' time ; that they should quit Sicily, with all the islands which they possessed near it ; that they should never make war against the allies of Rome, or come with any vessels of war within the Roman dominions ; and, lastly, that all their prisoners and deserters should be delivered without ransom. To these hard

B. C. 241. } conditions the Carthaginians, now exhausted, readily
 Y. R. 513. } subscribed ; and thus ended the first Punic war, which had lasted twenty-four years, and in some measure drained both nations of every resource to begin another.

EXERCISES.

1. Who possessed the greatest part of Sicily at this time ? What occasioned a quarrel between the Carthaginians and the Romans ?
2. What were the origin, progress, and power of the Carthaginians ? How were the Romans inferior to them at this time, and how were they enabled to build a fleet ? What was the success of Duillius in a naval engagement with the enemy ?
3. What armament did the Romans send into Africa, and who commanded the expedition ? Who gained the victory in a battle that ensued ? How did the Romans prosecute their success on landing in Africa ?
4. What new advantages did Regulus gain over the Carthaginians ? To whom did they apply for assistance in this extremity ? What regulations did Xantippus establish, and what discipline did he introduce into the

Carthaginian army? What was the issue of a battle betwixt him and the Romans? What other losses did the Romans sustain?

5. Whom did the Carthaginians send to obtain peace? How did Regulus conduct himself on arriving at Rome? What representation did he make to the senate, and how did he put an end to the conference? What resolution did he show on this occasion?

6. What punishment did the Carthaginians inflict upon him? What success attended the Roman arms? On what conditions was peace concluded?

CHAP. XIII.

From the End of the first Punic War to the End of the Second.

SECTION I.

B. C. 241. } 1. THE war being ended between the Carthagi-
Y. R. 513. } nians and the Romans, a profound peace ensued; and in about six years after the temple of Janus was shut, for the second time since the foundation of the city. The Romans being thus in friendship with all nations, had an opportunity of cultivating the arts of peace; and now began to have a relish for poetry, the first liberal art that flourishes in every civilized nation, and the first also that decays. Hitherto they had been entertained only with the rude drolleries of their lowest buffoons; and had exhibitions in a rude kind of verses called *Fescennine*, in which a few debauched characters acted their own parts, by substituting raillery instead of humour. To these a composition of a higher kind succeeded, which they called satire,—a kind of dramatic poem, in which the characters of the great were exhibited, and made an object of ridicule to the vulgar. After these came tragedy and comedy, which were borrowed from the Greeks; and, indeed, the first dramatic poet in Rome, whose name was Livius Andronicus, was by birth a Grecian. The instant these finer compositions appeared, this great people rejected the buffooneries of their former poets with disdain.—From henceforward they laboured upon the Grecian model; and, though they were never able to rival their masters in dramatic composition, soon surpassed them in many of the more soothing kinds of poetry.—Elegiac, pastoral, and didactic compositions began to assume new beauties in the Roman language; and satire, not that rude kind of dialogue already mentioned, but a nobler species, invented by Lucilius, was all their own.

2. While the Romans thus cultivated the arts of peace, they were not unmindful of making fresh preparations for war;—all intervals of ease seemed rather to give fresh vigour for new designs, than relax their former intrepidity. The Illyrians were the first people upon whom they tried their strength after some continuation of peace. That na-

B. C. 228. }
Y. R. 526. }

tion, which had long plundered the merchants of the Hadriatic with impunity, happened to make serious depredations upon some of the trading subjects of Rome ; and when a complaint was made by the Romans to Teuta, the queen of that country, she, instead of granting redress, ordered the ambassador that was sent to demand restitution to be murdered. A war ensued, in which the Romans were victorious ; most of the Illyric towns were surrendered to the consuls, and a peace was at last concluded, by which the greatest part of the country was ceded to Rome. A yearly tribute was exacted for the rest ; and a prohibition added, that the Illyrians should not sail beyond Lissus with more than two barks, and these unarmed.

3. The Gauls were the next people that incurred the displeasure of the Romans. Conceiving a time of peace, when the armies were disbanded, a proper season for making new irruptions, this barbarous people invited fresh forces from beyond the Alps, and, entering Etruria, wasted the country with fire and sword, till they came within about three days' journey of Rome. To oppose these invaders, who still retained their primeval barbarity, an army was despatched under the command of a prætor and a consul, who, being well acquainted with the improved arts of war, easily succeeded in surrounding the Gauls. It was in vain that these hardy troops, who had nothing but their courage to protect them, formed two fronts to oppose their adversaries : their naked bodies, and undisciplined forces, were unable to withstand the shock of an enemy completely armed, and skilled in military evolutions. A sanguinary battle ensued, in which forty thousand of the Gauls were killed, and ten thousand taken prisoners. This victory was followed by another gained over them by Marcellus, in which he killed Viridomarus, their king, with his own hand, and gained the third *spolia opima*, or royal spoils, that were obtained at Rome. These conquests forced the Gauls to beg
 B. C. 222. } for peace, the conditions of which served greatly to
 Y. R. 532. } enrich the empire. Thus the Romans proceeded with unparalleled success, till they had totally recovered their former losses, and only wanted an enemy worthy of their arms, to contend with in the field of glory.

4. The Carthaginians had only made a peace because they were no longer able to continue the war. They therefore took the earliest opportunity of breaking the treaty, and for this purpose besieged Saguntum, a city of Spain, which had been in alliance with Rome ; and though they were desired to desist, prosecuted their operations with unabated vigour. Ambassadors were sent, in consequence, from Rome to Carthage, complaining of the infraction of the treaty, and requiring that

Hannibal, the Carthaginian general, who had advised this measure, should be delivered up; but as this demand was refused, both sides prepared for a second Punic war. B. C. 218. }
Y. R. 536. } —The Carthaginians trusted the management of it on their side to Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar. This extraordinary man had been made the sworn foe of Rome almost from his infancy; for, while yet very young, his father brought him before the altar, and obliged him to take an oath that he never would be in friendship with the Romans, nor desist from opposing their power, until he or they should be no more. On his first appearance in the field, he united in his own person the most just method of commanding, with the most perfect obedience to his superiors. Thus, he was equally beloved by his generals and by the troops he was appointed to lead. He possessed the greatest courage in undertaking hazardous adventures, and the greatest presence of mind in executing them. No fatigue was able to subdue his body, nor any misfortune to break his spirit; equally patient of heat and cold, he took only sustenance to support nature, and not to delight his appetite. He was the best horseman and the swiftest runner of his time. This great general, who is considered the most skilful warrior of all antiquity, having overrun Spain, and levied a large army of various languages and nations, resolved to carry the war into Italy itself, as the Romans had before carried it into the dominions of Carthage.

5. For this purpose, leaving Hanno with a sufficient force to guard his conquests in Spain, Hannibal crossed the Pyrenean mountains into Gaul, with an army of fifty thousand foot and nine thousand horse. He quickly traversed that country, which was then wild and extensive, and filled with nations that were his declared enemies. In vain its rivers and its forests impeded his progress; in vain the Rhone, with its rapid current, and its banks covered with enemies, or the Durance, branched out into numberless channels, opposed his march; he passed them all with intrepid perseverance, and in ten days arrived at the foot of the Alps, over which he was to explore a new passage into Italy. It was in the midst of winter when this astonishing project was undertaken. The season added new horrors to a scene which nature had already crowded with objects of dismay. The prodigious height and tremendous steepness of the mountains, capped with snow; the people barbarous and fierce, dressed in skins, with long and shaggy hair, presented a picture that impressed the beholders with astonishment and terror. But nothing was capable of subduing the courage of the Carthaginian general; for, at the end of fifteen days, spent in crossing the Alps, he found him-

self in the plains of Italy with about half his army remaining, the rest having died of the cold, or been cut off by the natives.

6. As soon as it was known at Rome that Hannibal, at the
 B. C. 218. } head of an immense army, was crossing the Alps to
 Y. R. 536. } invade their dominions, the senate sent Scipio to oppose him, who met him near the Ticinus, a northern branch of the Po, but was obliged to retreat with considerable loss. In the mean time, Hannibal, being thus victorious, took the most prudent precautions to increase his army, giving orders always to spare the possessions of the Gauls, while depredations were permitted upon those of the Romans. This friendly treatment so pleased that simple people, that they declared for him in great numbers, and flocked to his standard with the utmost alacrity. The second battle was fought on the banks of the river Trebia. The Carthaginian general, being apprized of the Roman impetuosity, of which he always availed himself in almost every engagement, had sent off a body of a thousand horse, each with a foot soldier behind, across the river, to ravage the enemy's country, and provoke them to engage. The Romans quickly routed this force, who, feigning to be defeated, took the river, and were as eagerly pursued by Sempronius the general. It was not, however, till his army had reached the opposite bank, that he perceived himself half conquered already, his men being fatigued with wading up to the armpits, and quite benumbed with the intense coldness of the water. A total rout ensued; twenty-six thousand of the Romans were either killed by the enemy, or drowned in attempting to repass the river. A body of ten thousand men was all that survived, who, finding themselves enclosed on every side, broke desperately through the enemy's ranks, and fought retreating, till they found shelter in the city of Placentia. The
 B. C. 217. } third defeat which the Romans sustained was at the
 Y. R. 537. } lake of Thrasymene; near to which was a chain of mountains, and between these and the lake a narrow passage, leading to a valley that was embosomed in hills. It was on these hills that Hannibal disposed his best troops, and it was into this valley that Flaminius, the Roman general, unguardedly led his men. A disposition every way so favourable for the Carthaginians was also assisted by accident; for a mist rising upon the lake prevented the Romans from seeing their enemies, while the army upon the mountains, being above its influence, saw the whole dispositions of their opponents. The fortune of the day was such as might have been expected from the conduct of the two generals;—the Roman army was broken and slaughtered, almost before they could perceive the

enemy that destroyed them. Above fifteen thousand Romans, together with Flaminius himself, fell in the valley, and six thousand more were obliged to yield themselves prisoners of war.

EXERCISES.

1. How did the Romans improve this period of peace? What was their first species of dramatic poetry? What other kinds of poetry did they now cultivate?

2. With what nation did they again engage in war, and what was the cause of it? What was the result of the contest, and what were the conditions of peace?

3. How did the Gauls at this time excite the displeasure of the Romans? What numbers of the former were slain in a battle that ensued? What effects did these victories produce?

4. How did the Carthaginians break their treaty with the Romans? What remonstrance did the Romans make, and whom did they demand to be delivered up to them? What is the history and character of Hannibal?

5. What extraordinary expedition did he undertake and accomplish? What time did he take in crossing the Alps, and with what forces did he arrive in Italy?

6. Whom did the Romans send to oppose him? Who was successful, and how did Hannibal increase his army? Where was a second battle fought? How did Hannibal gain the victory, and what numbers of the Romans fell? Where did the Romans sustain a third defeat? Who commanded their army, and what was their loss?

SECTION II.

1. UPON the news of this defeat at Rome, after the general consternation was allayed, the senate, upon mature deliberation, resolved to elect a commander with absolute authority, in whom they might repose their last and greatest expectations. Their choice fell upon Fabius Maximus, a man of great courage, but with a happy mixture of caution. He was apprized that the only way to humble the Carthaginians, at such a distance from home, was rather by harassing than by fighting them.—For this purpose, he always encamped upon the highest grounds, inaccessible to the enemy's cavalry. Whenever they moved he moved, watched their motions, straitened their quarters, and cut off their provisions. By these means, Fabius had actually at one time enclosed Hannibal among mountains, where it was impossible to winter, and from which it was almost impracticable to extricate his army without imminent danger. In this exigence, nothing but one of those stratagems of war, which fall to the lot of great abilities only to invent, could have saved him. In order to deceive Fabius, he ordered a number of small fagots and lighted torches to be tied to the horns of two thousand oxen which he had in his camp, and then directed that they should be driven towards the enemy. The oxen, tossing their heads, and running up the sides of the mountains, seemed to fill the whole

neighbouring forest with fire ; while the sentinels that were placed to guard the approaches of the mountain, seeing such a number of flames advancing towards their posts, fled in consternation, supposing that the whole body of the enemy was in arms to overwhelm them. By this stratagem, Hannibal was enabled to draw off his army, and escaped through the defiles that led beneath the hills, though with considerable damage to his rear. Soon after, Fabius was obliged to lay down his office, his time being expired, and Terentius Varro was chosen by the majority to succeed to the command. This Terentius Varro was a man sprung from the dregs of the people, having nothing but his confidence and riches to recommend him. With him was joined Paulus Æmilius, of a disposition entirely opposite ; being experienced in the field, cautious in action, and impressed with a thorough contempt for the abilities of his plebeian colleague.

B. C. 216. } 2. The Romans, finding themselves once more
 Y. R. 538. } enabled to bring an effective force of nearly ninety thousand men into the field, again resolved to meet Hannibal, who was at this time encamped near the village of Cannæ. His position was so chosen, that he had a wind in his rear, which, for a certain season, blows only one way, and which, raising great clouds of dust from the parched plains behind, he knew must greatly distress an approaching enemy. In this situation, he waited the arrival of the Romans, with an army of forty thousand foot, and ten thousand cavalry. The two consuls soon appeared, who, in some measure to reconcile their differences, had agreed to take the command every day by turns. On the first day after their arrival, it falling to the lot of Æmilius to command, he was entirely averse to engage with Hannibal. The next day, however, it was Varro's turn to command, and he, without asking his colleague's concurrence, gave the signal for battle ; after which, passing the river Aufidus that lay between both armies, he put his forces in array. The battle began with the light-armed infantry ; the horse engaged soon after ; and, as the Roman cavalry were unable to withstand those of Numidia, the legions came up to re-enforce them. It was then that the conflict became general ; the Roman soldiers for a long time endeavoured, but in vain, to penetrate the centre, where the Gauls and Spaniards fought ; but no sooner did Hannibal perceive this attempt, than he ordered part of those troops to give way, and permit the Romans to embosom themselves within a chosen body of his Africans, whom he had placed on the flanks, so as to surround them. Upon this a terrible slaughter of the Romans, fatigued with repeated attacks from the Africans, immediately

ensued ; and at last the rout became general in every part of the Roman army ; the boastings of Varro were no longer heard, while Æmilius, who had been terribly wounded in the very beginning of the battle, still feebly led on his body of horse, and did all that could be done to make head against the enemy ; but, being unable to sit on horseback, he was forced to dismount. It was in this deplorable condition of things, that one Lentulus, a tribune of the army, as he was flying on horseback from the enemy, who at some distance pursued him, met Æmilius sitting upon a stone, covered over with blood and wounds, and waiting for the coming up of his pursuers. “ Æmilius,” cried the generous tribune, “ you at least are guiltless of this day’s slaughter ; take my horse and fly.” “ I thank thee, Lentulus,” cried the dying consul, “ all is over ; my part is chosen ; go, I command thee, and tell the senate to fortify Rome against the approach of the conqueror. Tell Fabius also, that Æmilius, while living, ever remembered his advice, and now dying, approves it.”—While he was yet speaking, the enemy approached, and Lentulus, before he was out of view, saw the consul expire, feebly fighting in the midst of hundreds. In this battle the Romans lost fifty thousand men, and so many knights, that it is said Hannibal sent three bushels of gold rings to Carthage, which those of this order wore on their fingers !

3. When the first consternation at Rome was abated after this dreadful blow, the senate came to a general resolution to create a dictator, in order to give strength and vigour to their government. A short time after Varro arrived, having left behind him the wretched remains of his army ; and, as he had been the principal cause of the late calamity, it was natural to suppose that the senate would severely reprimand the rashness of his conduct. But far otherwise ; the Romans went out in multitudes to meet him ; and the senate returned him thanks that he had not despaired of the safety of Rome. Fabius, who was considered as the shield of Rome, and Marcellus as the sword, were appointed to lead the armies ; and, notwithstanding the defection of their allies, who in great numbers sided with the conqueror, not the slightest mention of peace was ever made at Rome. In the mean time, Hannibal, either finding the impossibility of marching directly to Rome, or willing to give his forces rest after such a mighty victory, led them to Capua, where he resolved to winter. This city had long been considered as the nurse of luxury, and the corrupter of all military virtue. Here, therefore, a new scene of pleasure opened to his barbarian troops ; and they at once gave themselves up

to intoxication, till, from being hardy veterans, they became infirm rioters.

4. Hitherto we have found Hannibal successful ; but now we are to reverse the picture, and survey this great man struggling with accumulated misfortunes, and at last sinking under them. His first loss was at the siege of Nola, B. C. 215. }
Y. R. 539. } where Marcellus the prætor made a successful sally. He some time after attempted to raise the siege of Capua, and attacked the Romans in their trenches, but he was repulsed with considerable loss. He then made a feint of going to besiege Rome ; but, finding a superior army ready to receive U. C. }
544. } him, he was obliged to retire. For some years after he fought with various success ; Marcellus, his opponent, sometimes gaining and sometimes losing the advantage, but coming to no decisive engagement.—The senate of Carthage at length came to a resolution of sending his brother Asdrubal to his assistance with a body of forces drawn out of Spain. Asdrubal's march having been made known to the Romans, the consuls Livius and Nero went against him with great expedition, and, surrounding him in a place into which he was B. C. 207. }
Y. R. 547. } led by the treachery of his guides, cut his whole army to pieces, near the small river Metaurus in Umbria. Hannibal had long expected these succours with impatience ; and the very night on which he had been assured of his brother's arrival, Nero ordered Asdrubal's head to be cut off, and thrown into his brother's camp. The Carthaginian general now therefore began to perceive the approach of the downfall of Carthage, and could not help observing, with a sigh, to those about him, that Fortune seemed fatigued with granting her favours.

B. C. 210. }
Y. R. 544. } 5. In the mean time, fortune seemed to befriend the Roman arms in other quarters, as Marcellus took the city of Syracuse in Sicily, which was defended by the machines and the fires of Archimedes the mathematician. The inhabitants were put to the sword, among the rest Archimedes himself, who, being found meditating in his study, was there killed by a Roman soldier. Marcellus, the general, was not a little grieved at his unfortunate death. A passion for letters at that time began to prevail among the higher ranks of people in Rome. Marcellus therefore ordered the body of Archimedes to be honourably buried, and a tomb to be erected to his memory, which his own works have long survived.—As to the fortune of the Romans in Spain, though for a while it appeared doubtful, as two of the Scipios were slain, and Claudius Nero, the governor of the province, appeared quite an under-

match for the cunning of the Carthaginian general ; yet they soon recovered their affairs under the conduct of Scipio, afterwards called Africanus, who sued for the office of proconsul of that country, at a time when every one else wished to decline it. Scipio, who was now but twenty-four years old, had all the qualifications requisite for forming a great general and a good man : he united the greatest courage with the greatest tenderness, being superior to Hannibal in the arts of peace, and almost his equal in those of war. His father had been killed in Spain, so that he seemed to have an hereditary claim to conduct the Roman arms in that country.

6. He no sooner commenced hostilities than he appeared irresistible, obtaining many great victories over the Carthaginians ; yet subduing more enemies by his generosity, mildness, and benevolent disposition, than by the force of his arms. Shortly after his return with the army from the conquest of Spain, he was made consul at the age of twenty-nine. It was at first supposed that he intended meeting Hannibal in Italy, and that he would attempt driving him from thence ; but he had already formed a wiser plan, which was to carry the war into Africa ; and while the Carthaginians kept an army near Rome, to make them tremble for their own capital. Scipio was not long in Africa without encountering the enemy ; for in a short time Hanno opposed him, but he was defeated and slain. Syphax, the sovereign of part of Numidia, also led on a large army against him. The Roman general for a while declined fighting, till, finding an opportunity, he set fire to the enemy's tents, and, attacking them in the midst of the confusion, killed forty thousand men, and took six thousand prisoners.

7. The Carthaginians, now beginning to be terrified at their repeated defeats, and at the fame of Scipio's successes, determined to recall Hannibal, their great champion, out of Italy, in order to oppose the Romans at home. Deputies were accordingly despatched, with a positive command for him to return and oppose the Roman general, who at that time threatened Carthage with a siege. Nothing could exceed the regret and disappointment of Hannibal upon receiving this order. However, he obeyed the orders of his infatuated country with the same submission that the meanest soldier would have done ; and took leave of Italy with tears in his eyes, after having kept possession of the most beautiful parts of it for above fifteen years.—Upon his arrival at Leptis in Africa, he marched to Adrumetum, and at last approached Zama, a city within five days' journey of Carthage. Scipio, in the mean time, led his army to meet him, joined by Massinissa, the rival king of Numidia, with six thousand horse ; and, to show his oppo-

nent in the field how little he feared his approach, sent back the spies who had come to explore his camp, after having shown them the whole, with directions to inform Hannibal of what they had seen. The Carthaginian general, conscious of his inferiority, endeavoured to finish the war by negotiation, and desired a meeting with Scipio, to confer on terms of peace, to which the Roman general assented. But, after a long conference, both of them parted with mutual dissatisfaction, and they returned to their camps to prepare for deciding the controversy by the sword.

B. C. 202. }
Y. R. 552. } 8. Never was a more memorable battle fought than that of Zama, whether we regard the generals, the armies, the power of the contending states, or the extent and importance of the empire whose fate was to be determined by the issue. The disposition which Hannibal made of his men is said, by the most skilful in the art of war, to have been superior to any even of his former arrangements. The battle began with the elephants on the side of the Carthaginians, which, being terrified at the cries of the Romans, and wounded by the slingers and archers, turned upon their drivers, and caused much confusion in both wings of their army, in which the cavalry was placed. Being thus deprived of the assistance of the horse, in which their greatest strength consisted, the heavy infantry joined on both sides; but the Romans being stronger of body, the Carthaginians were obliged to give ground. In the mean time, Massinissa, who had been in pursuit of their cavalry, returned, and, attacking them in the rear, completed their defeat. A total rout ensued; twenty thousand men were killed in the battle, or in the pursuit, and as many were taken prisoners. Hannibal, who had done all that a great general and an undaunted soldier could perform, fled with a small body of horse to Adrumetum, severely mortified to think that fortune seemed to delight in confounding his ability, his valour, and experience.—This victory brought on a peace. The Carthaginians, by Hannibal's advice, offered conditions to the Romans, which they dictated not as rivals, but as sovereigns. By this treaty, the Carthaginians were obliged to quit Spain and all the islands in the Mediterranean Sea. They were bound to pay ten thousand talents in fifty years; to give hostages for the delivery of their ships and their elephants; to restore to Massinissa all the territories they had taken from him, and not to make war in Africa, but by the permission of the Romans. Thus ended the second Punic war, seventeen years after it had begun.

EXERCISES.

1. Whom did the Romans elect as their chief commander? What cautious measures did Fabius adopt? How did he enclose Hannibal, and by

what stratagem did the latter extricate himself? Who succeeded Fabius in the command of the army?

2. What was the amount of the Roman and Carthaginian forces at the battle of Cannæ? Who began the battle, how was it conducted, and what was the result? What became of Æmilius, the other consul? What severe loss did the Romans sustain in this battle?

3. Whom did the senate now appoint to lead their armies? Where did Hannibal take up his winter-quarters? How was his army enervated at Capua?

4. Where did Hannibal first sustain a repulse? What were the future vicissitudes of his fortune in Italy? What became of his brother Asdrubal who was sent to assist him?

5. What conquest did Marcellus make in Sicily? What was the fate of the famous Archimedes? What was the fortune of the Romans in Spain? By whom were their affairs retrieved in that country? What was the character of Scipio Africanus?

6. What plan did he form for the prosecution of the war? What victory did he gain over Syphax in Africa?

7. What resolution did the Carthaginians adopt in their state of alarm? What took place on Hannibal's arrival in Africa?

8. What disposition did Hannibal make of his army for the battle of Zama? What were the particulars of that celebrated battle, and what loss did the Carthaginians sustain? On what conditions was peace concluded?

CHAP. XIV.

From the End of the Second Punic War to the End of the Third, which terminated in the Destruction of Carthage.

1. WHILE the Romans were engaged with Hannibal, they carried on also a vigorous war against Philip, king of Macedonia, not a little incited thereto by the entreaties of the Athenians, who, from once controlling the power of Persia, were now unable to defend themselves. The Rhodians, and Attalus, king of Pergamus, also entered into the confederacy against Philip. He was more than once defeated by Galba, the consul, who was sent against him. He attempted to besiege Athens; but the Romans obliged him to raise the siege. He attempted to take possession of the straits of Thermopylæ, but was driven from them by Quinctius Flaminius, with great slaughter. He attempted to take refuge in Thessaly, where he was again defeated with considerable loss, and obliged to

B. C. 147. } beg a peace, which was granted upon condition of
 Y. R. 557. } paying a thousand talents, the one half immediately, and the other half in the space of ten years. The peace with Philip gave the Romans an opportunity of showing their generosity, by restoring liberty once more to Greece.

2. Antiochus, king of Syria, was the next monarch with whom the Romans took occasion to quarrel; and, after some embassies on the one side and the other, a war was declared against him, five years after the conclusion of the Macedonian

war. After various mistakes and great misconduct, he attempted to obtain a peace, by offering to quit all his possessions in Europe, and such of his subjects in Asia as professed alliance to Rome. But it was now too late ; and Scipio, perceiving his own superiority, was resolved to avail himself of it. Antiochus, thus driven to resistance, for some time retreated before the enemy, till, being pressed hard near the city of Magnesia, he was forced to draw out his men, to the number of seventy thousand foot and twelve thousand horse. Scipio opposed him with forces as much inferior in number as they were superior in courage and discipline. Antiochus, therefore, was in a short time entirely defeated ; even his own chariots, armed with scythes, being driven back upon his men, contributed much to his overthrow. Being thus reduced to the last extremity, he was glad to procure peace from the Romans upon their own terms. These were that he should pay fifteen thousand talents towards the expenses of the war, quit all his possessions in Europe, and likewise all of them in Asia on the hither side of mount Taurus, give twenty hostages as pledges of his fidelity, and deliver up Hannibal, the inveterate enemy of Rome.

3. In the mean time, Hannibal, whose destruction was one of the articles of this extorted treaty, endeavoured to avoid the threatened ruin. This consummate general had been long a wanderer, and an exile from his ungrateful country. He had taken refuge at the court of Antiochus, who at first gave him a sincere welcome, and made him admiral of his fleet, in which situation he showed his usual skill in stratagem ; but he soon sunk in the Syrian's esteem, for having advised schemes which that monarch had neither genius to understand nor talents to execute. Conscious, therefore, that he could no longer remain in the territories of Antiochus, he departed by stealth ; and, after wandering for a long time among petty states, who had neither power nor generosity to protect him, he took refuge at the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia. In the mean time the Romans, with a vindictive spirit utterly unworthy of them, sent Æmilius, one of their most celebrated generals, to demand him from Prusias, who, fearing the resentment of the Romans, and willing to conciliate their friendship by this breach of hospitality, ordered a guard to be placed upon Hannibal, with an intent to deliver him up. The poor old general, thus implacably persecuted from one country to another, and finding all methods of safety cut off, determined to die ;—he therefore desired one of his followers to bring him poison, which he had ready for this exigence, and drinking it, he expired, as he had lived, with intrepid bravery.

B. C. 190.
Y. R. 564.

B. C. 183.
Y. R. 571.

4. A second Macedonian war was soon after proclaimed against Perseus, the son of Philip, whom we have already seen obliged to beg peace from the Romans. Perseus, in order to secure the crown, had contrived to murder his brother Demetrius; and upon the death of his father, pleased with the hopes of imaginary triumphs, boldly declared war against Rome. During the course of the war, which continued about three years, many opportunities were offered him of cutting off the Roman army; but being ignorant how to take advantage of their rashness, he spent the time in empty overtures for a peace. At length Æmilius gave him a decisive overthrow near the river Enipeus. He attempted to procure

B. C. 169. } safety by flying into Crete; but, being abandoned
 Y. R. 584. } by all, he was obliged to surrender himself, to grace the splendid triumph of the Roman general.

5. About this time, Massinissa, the Numidian, having made some incursions into a territory claimed by the Carthaginians, that people attempted to repel the invasion.—This brought on a war between them and that monarch; while the Romans, who pretended to consider this conduct of theirs as an infraction of the treaty, sent to make a complaint to the senate of Carthage. The ambassadors who were employed upon this occasion, finding the city very rich and flourishing, from the long interval of peace which it had enjoyed for nearly fifty years, either from motives of avarice to possess its plunder, or from fear of its growing greatness, insisted much on the neces-

B. C. 149. } sity of a war, which was soon after proclaimed; and
 Y. R. 605. } the consuls set out with a full resolution to demolish Carthage. The wretched Carthaginians, finding that the conquerors would not desist from making demands while they had any thing left to supply them, attempted to soften them by submission: but they received orders to leave their city, which the consuls declared was to be levelled with the ground.—This severe command they received with all the concern and distress of a despairing people: they implored a respite from such a hard sentence; they used tears and lamentations; but, finding the consuls inexorable, they departed with a gloomy resolution, prepared to suffer the utmost extremities, and fight to the last for their seat of empire.

6. The Carthaginians now employed every means to raise money for the prosecution of the war. Those vessels, therefore, of gold and silver, in which their luxury had taken such pride, were converted into arms. The women also parted with their ornaments, and even cut off their hair, to be converted into strings for the bowmen. Asdrubal, who had been lately condemned for opposing the Romans, was now taken

from prison to head their army ; and such preparations were made, that when the consuls came before the city, which they expected to find an easy conquest, they met with such resistance as quite dispirited their forces, and shook their resolution. Several engagements were fought before the walls, with such disadvantage to the assailants, that the siege would have been discontinued, had not Scipio Æmilianus, the adoptive grandson of Africanus, who was now appointed to command it, employed as much skill to save his troops after defeat, as to inspire them with fresh hopes of victory. But all his arts would have failed, had he not found means to seduce Phameas, the master of the Carthaginian horse, who came over to his side.

7. The unhappy townsmen soon saw the enemy make nearer approaches ; the wall which led to the haven was quickly demolished ; soon after, the Forum itself was taken, which presented to the conquerors a deplorable spectacle of houses nodding to their fall, heaps of men lying dead in all quarters, hundreds of the wounded struggling to emerge from the carnage around them, and deploring their own and their country's ruin. The citadel soon after surrendered at discretion. All now but the temple was subdued, and that was defended by deserters from the Roman army, and those who had been most forward to undertake the war. These, however, expecting no mercy, and finding their condition desperate, set fire to the building, and voluntarily perished in the flames. Such was the end of one of the most renowned cities of the world,

B. C. 146. } both for arts, opulence, and extent of dominions,
Y. R. 608. } which had rivalled Rome for above a hundred years, and at one time was thought to have the superiority.—
This conquest of Carthage was soon followed by that of many other states. Corinth, one of the noblest cities in Greece, suffered the same fate, being entered by Mummius the consul, and levelled to the ground. Scipio also having laid siege to Numantia, the strongest city in Spain, the wretched inhabitants, to avoid falling into the hands of the enemy, fired the
B. C. 133. } city over their own heads, and all to a man expired
Y. R. 621. } in the flames. Thus Spain became a Roman province, and was governed thenceforth by two annual prætors.

EXERCISES.

1. Against whom did the Romans now engage in war ? What victories did they obtain over Philip ? On what conditions did they grant him peace ?

2. What other king fell under the displeasure of the Romans ? What victory did Scipio gain over Antiochus ? What were the terms of the peace he obtained ?

3. What became of Hannibal after the subjection of Antiochus ? How was he treated by Prusias, king of Bithynia ? What was the fate of that celebrated general ?

4. Wherefore was war declared against Perseus? What advantages might he have obtained against the Romans? Who defeated him, and what disgrace did he suffer?

5. For what reason was war again declared against the Carthaginians? What efforts did they employ to prevent it, and what resolution did they form?

6. What preparations did they make for carrying on the war? Whom did they appoint their general, and what advantages did they obtain? By whom were the Carthaginians betrayed to Scipio Æmilianus?

7. What was the progress of the siege of Carthage? What ensued upon its capture, and how long had it rivalled Rome? Who besieged and destroyed Corinth? By whom was Spain reduced, and afterwards governed?

CHAP. XV.

From the Destruction of Carthage to the End of the Sedition of the Gracchi.

B. C. 133. } 1. THE Romans now being left without a rival, and
Y. R. 621. } having also vanquished the most powerful of the oriental monarchs, soon found that the triumphs and the spoils of Asia introduced a taste for splendid expense, avarice, and boundless ambition. The two Gracchi were the first who saw this strange corruption among the great, and resolved to suppress it by renewing the Licinian law, which had enacted that no person in the state should possess above five hundred acres of land.—Tiberius Gracchus, the elder of the two, was a man whose personal appearance and eminent endowments qualified him to act a conspicuous part in the commonwealth. Very different from Scipio, whose grandson he was, he seemed more ambitious of power than desirous of glory; his compassion for the oppressed was equal to his animosity against the oppressors; but unhappily his passions, rather than his reason, operated even in his pursuit of virtue, and always drove him beyond the line of duty. Such was the disposition of the elder Gracchus, who found the lower classes of the people ready to second all his proposals. The Licinian law, though at first revived with due moderation, greatly disgusted the rich, who endeavoured to persuade the people, that the proposer only aimed at disturbing the government, and putting all things into confusion. But Gracchus, who was a man of the greatest eloquence in his time, easily removed these impressions from the minds of the people, which were already irritated by their wrongs; and at length the law was passed.

2. The death of Attalus, king of Pergamus, furnished Tiberius Gracchus with a new opportunity of gratifying the lower orders of the people at the expense of the great. This king had by his last will left the Romans his sole heirs; and it was now proposed that the money so left should be divided

among the poor, in order to furnish them with proper utensils for cultivating the land, which became theirs by the late law of partition. This caused still greater disturbances than had ever happened before. The senate assembled upon this occasion in order to consider the most proper method of securing these riches to themselves, which they now valued above the safety of the commonwealth. They had numerous dependants, who were willing to give up liberty for plenty and ease: these therefore were commanded to be in readiness to intimidate the people, who expected no such opposition, and who were now listening to the harangues of Tiberius Gracchus in the capitol. Here, as a clamour was raised by the clients of the great on the one side, and by the abettors of the law on the other, Tiberius found his speech interrupted, and begged in vain to be attended to; till at last, raising his hand to his head to intimate that his life was in danger, the partisans of the senate gave out that he wanted a diadem. In consequence of this suggestion, a universal uproar ensued among all ranks of the people; so that the corrupt part of the senate were of opinion that the consul should defend the commonwealth by force of arms.

3. This prudent magistrate, however, declining such violence, Scipio Nasica, kinsman to Gracchus, immediately rose up, and, preparing himself for the contest, desired that all who would defend the dignity and authority of the laws should follow him. Upon this, attended by a large body of senators and clients, armed with clubs, he went directly to the capitol, striking down all who ventured to resist. Tiberius, perceiving by the tumult that his life was in danger, endeavoured to fly; and, throwing aside his robe to expedite his escape, attempted to get through the throng; but happening to fall over a person on the ground, Satureius, one of his colleagues in the tribuneship, who was of the opposite faction, struck him dead with a piece of a seat; and not less than three hundred of his followers were killed in the tumult. Nor did the vengeance of the senate rest here; but it extended also to numbers of those who espoused his cause; many of whom were put to death, others banished, and nothing was omitted to inspire the people with an abhorrence of his pretended crimes.

4. Caius Gracchus, the brother of him who was slain, was but twenty-one years of age at the death of Tiberius; and as he was too young to be dreaded by the great, so he was at first unwilling to incur their resentment by forming schemes beyond his reach; and therefore lived in retirement, unseen and almost forgotten. But while he thus seemed desirous of avoiding popularity, he was employing his solitude in the

study of eloquence, which was the readiest means to obtain it. At length, when he thought himself qualified to serve his country, he became a candidate for the quaestorship to the army in Sardinia, which he readily obtained. His valour, affability, and prudence in the office which he held, were remarked by all. The king of Numidia having sent a present of corn to the Romans, ordered his ambassadors to say, that it was entirely as a tribute to the virtues of Caius Gracchus. This the senate treated with the utmost scorn, and ordered the ambassadors to be dismissed with contempt, as ignorant barbarians. Such unworthy conduct inflamed the resentment of young Gracchus to such a degree, that he immediately came from the army to complain of the indignity thrown upon his reputation, and to offer himself as one of the tribunes of the people. It was then that the great found in this youth, who had been hitherto neglected on account of his age, a more formidable antagonist than even his brother had been. Notwithstanding the warmest opposition from the senate, he was declared tribune by a very large majority of the people, and was now prepared to run the same career which Tiberius had done before him.

5. His first effort was to have Popilius, one of the most inveterate of his brother's enemies, cited before the people, who, rather than stand the event of a trial, chose to go into voluntary banishment. He next procured an edict, granting the freedom of the city to the inhabitants of Latium, and soon after to all the people on that side of the Alps. He afterwards fixed the price of corn at a moderate standard, and procured a monthly distribution of it among the people. He then proceeded to make an inspection into the corruptions of the senate, in consequence of which the whole body was convicted of bribery, extortion, and the sale of offices; and a new law passed, transferring the power of judging from the senate to the knights, which made a great change in the constitution. Gracchus, by these means, having grown not only very popular, but very powerful in the state, was become an object at whom the senate aimed all their resentment. But he soon found the populace a faithless and unsteady support: they began to withdraw all their confidence from him, and to place it upon Drusus, a man insidiously set up against him by the senate. It was in vain that he revived the Licinian law in their favour, and summoned the inhabitants of the different towns of Italy to his support; the senate ordered them all to depart from Rome, and even sent one stranger to prison, whom Gracchus had invited to live with him, and honoured with his table and friendship. To this indignity was shortly

after added a disgrace of a more fatal tendency ; for, on canvassing for the tribuneship a third time, he was rejected, though it was supposed that the officers, whose duty it was to make the return, were bribed to reject him, even after he had been fairly chosen.

6. It was now seen that the fate of Gracchus was resolved on. Opimius, the consul, was not contented with the protection of the senate and the knights, with a numerous retinue of slaves and clients, but ordered a body of Caudians, who were mercenaries in the Roman service, to follow and attend him on all occasions. Thus guarded, and conscious of the superiority of his forces, he insulted Gracchus wherever he met him, doing all in his power to produce a quarrel, in which he might have a pretence for despatching his enemy in the fray. Gracchus avoided all recrimination, and, as if apprized of the consul's designs, would not even wear any kind of arms for his defence. His friend Flaccus, however, a zealous tribune, was not so remiss, but resolved to oppose party against party, and for this purpose brought up several countrymen to Rome, who came under pretence of desiring employment. When the day for determining the controversy had arrived, the two parties, early in the morning, attended at the capitol, where, while the consul was sacrificing according to custom, one of the lictors taking up the entrails of a beast that was slain in order to remove them, could not forbear crying out to Flaccus and his party,—“ You, ye factious citizens, make way for honest men.” This insult so provoked the party to whom it was addressed, that they instantly fell upon him, and pierced him to death with the instruments used in writing, which they then happened to have in their hands.

7. This murder caused a great disturbance in the whole assembly ; on which Gracchus, who saw the consequences that were likely to ensue, reprimanded his party for giving his enemies such advantages over him, and prepared to lead his followers to mount Aventine. It was there he learned that proclamation had been made by the consuls, that whoever should bring either his head or that of Flaccus should receive its weight in gold as a reward. It was to no purpose that he sent the youngest son of Flaccus, who was yet a child, with proposals for an accommodation.—The senate and the consuls, who were sensible of their superiority, rejected all his offers, and resolved to punish his offence with nothing less than death. For effecting their purpose, they offered pardon also to all who should leave him immediately, which soon produced the desired effect, as the people fell from him by degrees, and left him with very inferior numbers. In the mean time, Opimius,

the consul, who thirsted for slaughter, leading his forces up to mount Aventine, fell in among Gracchus's followers with ungovernable fury; a terrible slaughter of the scarcely resisting multitude ensued, and not less than three thousand citizens were slain upon the spot. Flaccus attempted to find shelter in a ruinous cottage; but, being discovered, was there slain with his eldest son. Gracchus at first retired to the temple of Diana, where he was resolved to die by his own hand, but was prevented by two of his faithful friends, Pomponius and Licinius, who forced him to seek safety by flight. Thence he made the most of his way to cross a bridge that led from the city, still attended by his two generous friends, and a Grecian slave, whose name was Philocrates. But his pursuers still pressed upon him from behind; and when he arrived at the foot of the bridge, he was obliged to turn and face the enemy. His two friends were soon slain defending him against the crowd; and he was forced to take refuge with his slave in a grove beyond the Tiber, which had long been dedicated to the Furies. Here, finding himself surrounded on every side, and no way left for escaping, he prevailed upon his slave to kill him, who immediately after killed himself, and fell upon the body of his beloved master. The pursuers soon coming up, cut off the head of Gracchus, and placed it for a while as a trophy upon the point of a spear. Soon after one Septimuleius carried it home, and having first secretly taken out the brain, which he replaced with lead in order to make it weigh the heavier, received from the consul seventeen pounds of gold as his recompense.

B. C. 121. } 8. Thus died Caius Gracchus, about ten years after
Y. R. 633. } his brother Tiberius, and six after he began to be active in the commonwealth. He is usually blamed by historians as guilty of sedition; but, from what we see of his character, the disturbance of public tranquillity was rather owing to his opposers than to him; so that, instead of calling the tumults of that time the sedition of the Gracchi, we should rather call them the sedition of the senate against the Gracchi, since the efforts of the latter were made in vindication of a law to which the senate had assented, and the designs of the former were supported by an armed power from the country, which had never before meddled in the business of legislation, and whose introduction gave an irrecoverable blow to the constitution. Whether the Gracchi were actuated by motives of ambition or of patriotism in the promulgation of these laws, it is impossible to determine; but certain it is, from what appears, that all justice was on their side, and all injury on that of the senate. In fact, this body was quite changed from that

venerable assembly, which we have seen overthrowing Pyrrhus and Hannibal, as much by their virtues as by their arms. They were now only to be distinguished from the rest of the people by their superior luxuries; and ruled the commonwealth by the weight of that authority which is gained from riches and a number of mercenary dependencies. All the venal and the base were attached to them from motives of self-interest; and they who still ventured to be independent were borne down, and entirely lost in the infamous majority. In short, the empire, at this period, came under the government of a hateful aristocracy; the tribunes, who were formerly accounted protectors of the people, becoming rich themselves, and having no longer opposite interests from those of the senate, concurred in their oppressions; since, as has been said, it was not now a struggle between the patricians and plebeians, who only nominally differed, but between the rich and the poor. The lower orders of the state being by these means reduced to a degree of hopeless subjection, instead of wishing for liberty, only sought for a leader; while the rich, with all the suspicion of tyrants, terrified at the slightest appearance of opposition, intrusted men with uncontrollable power, from whom they had no strength to withdraw it when the danger was over. Thus both orders of the state concurred in giving up their freedom; the fears of the senate first made the dictator, and the hatred of the people kept him in his office. Nothing can be more dreadful to a thinking mind, than the government of Rome from this period, till it found refuge under the protection of Augustus.

EXERCISES.

1. What attempts did the Gracchi make to repress the luxury and avarice of the great? What was the character of Tiberius Gracchus? How did the rich represent him to the people, and how did he succeed against them?
2. How did he act on the death of Attalus, who had left the Romans his heirs? What measures did the senate adopt, and what disturbances took place in consequence?
3. Of what imprudent step was Scipio Nasica guilty? What became of Tiberius Gracchus?
4. How did Caius Gracchus qualify himself for public employment, and what office did he obtain? What excited his resentment against the senate? What dignity was conferred upon him by the people?
5. What measures did Gracchus pursue when chosen tribune? Who appeared as his rival? How was he deserted by the people, and what disgrace did he now suffer?
6. What means did the consul employ to produce a quarrel? What resolution did Flaccus adopt, and what was the consequence?
7. To what place did Gracchus lead his followers, and why did their numbers decrease? What step did the consul take? What became of Caius Gracchus?
8. What opinions are formed of the conduct of the Gracchi? What was the character of the senate, tribunes, and people, at this period?

CHAP. XVI.

From the Sedition of the Gracchi to the perpetual Dictatorship of Sylla, which was the first Step towards the Ruin of the Commonwealth of Rome.

SECTION I.

B. C. 111. } 1. WHILE the Romans were in this state of deplorable
Y. R. 643. } corruption at home, they were, nevertheless, successful in their transactions with regard to foreign powers. Jugurtha, king of Numidia, was grandson to the famous Massinissa, who had joined the Romans against Hannibal. He had been educated with the two young princes who were left to inherit the kingdom, and being superior in abilities to both, and greatly in favour with the people, he murdered Hiempsal, the younger son, and attempted also to despatch Adherbal, the elder, who made his escape, and fled to the Romans for succour. Whereupon Jugurtha, being sensible how much avarice and injustice had crept into the senate, sent his ambassadors with large presents to Rome, who so successfully prevailed, that the senate decreed him half the kingdom, which he had thus acquired by murder and usurpation, and sent ten commissioners to divide it between him and Adherbal. The commissioners, of whom Opimius, the murderer of Gracchus, was one, willing to follow the example which the senate had set them, were also bribed to bestow the most rich and populous part of the kingdom upon the usurper, who, notwithstanding such a favourable settlement, resolved to possess himself of the whole. But, willing to give a colour to his ambition, he at first began to make small incursions into his kinsman's territories, in order to provoke reprisals, which he knew how to convert into seeming aggression, in case the matter came before the senate. As this scheme, however, was unsuccessful, he resolved to throw off the mask; and besieging Adherbal in Cirta, his capital, he at length got him into his power, and murdered him.

2. The people of Rome, who had still some generosity remaining, unanimously complained of this treachery, and procured a decree, that Jugurtha should be summoned in person before them, to give an account of all such as had accepted bribes. Jugurtha had no great difficulty in throwing himself upon the Roman clemency; but giving the people no satisfaction, he had orders to depart from the city. In the mean time, Albinus, the consul, was sent with an army to follow him; but as he gave up the direction of the army to Aulus, his brother, a person every way unqualified for the command,

the Romans were compelled to hazard a battle upon disadvantageous terms, and the whole army, to avoid being cut to pieces, was obliged to pass under the yoke. In this condition, Metellus, the succeeding consul, found affairs upon his arrival in Numidia; officers without confidence, an army without discipline, and an enemy ever watchful and intriguing. However, by his great attention to business, and an integrity that shuddered at corruption, he soon began to retrieve the affairs of Rome, and the credit of the army. In the space of two years, Jugurtha was overthrown in several battles, forced out of his own dominions, and constrained to beg a peace. Thus all things promised Metellus an easy and certain victory; but he was frustrated in his expectations by the intrigues of Caius Marius, his lieutenant, who came to reap that harvest of glory which the industry of Metellus had sown.

3. Caius Marius was born at Arpinum, of poor parents, who gained their living by their labour. As he had been bred up in a participation of their toils, his manners were as rude as his countenance was frightful. He was a man of extraordinary stature, incomparable strength, and undaunted bravery. When Metellus, as has been said, was obliged to solicit at Rome for a continuance of his command, Marius, whose ambition knew no bounds, was resolved to obtain it for himself, and thus gain all the glory of putting an end to the war. For this purpose, he privately inveighed against Metellus by his emissaries at Rome; and, having excited a spirit of discontent against him, got leave to go to Rome to stand for the consulship himself, which he obtained contrary to the expectation and interest of the nobles. Marius being thus invested with the supreme power of managing the war, showed himself every way fit for the commission. His vigilance was equal to his valour, and he quickly made himself master of the cities which Jugurtha had yet remaining in Numidia. This unfortunate prince, finding himself unable to make opposition singly, was obliged to have recourse for assistance to Bocchus, king of Mauritania, to whose daughter he was married. A battle soon after ensued, in which the Numidians imagined themselves to have gained the advantage. Their success, however, was but of short continuance; for Marius immediately after overcame them in a signal engagement, in which not less than ninety thousand of the African army were slain.

4. Bocchus now finding the Romans too powerful to be resisted, did not think it expedient to hazard his own crown to protect that of his ally; he therefore determined to make peace upon whatever conditions he might obtain it, and accordingly sent to Rome imploring protection. The senate re-

ceived the ambassadors with their request, and granted the suppliant, not their friendship, but their pardon. After some time, however, he was given to understand, that the delivering up of Jugurtha to the Romans would, in some measure, conciliate their favour and soften their resentment. At first, the pride of Bocchus struggled against such a proposal; but a few interviews with Sylla, who was quæstor to Marius, reconciled him to this treacherous measure. At length, therefore, Jugurtha, being drawn into an ambuscade by the specious pretences of his ally, who deluded him, and being made a prisoner, was carried by Marius to Rome, loaded with chains, B. C. 106. }
Y. R. 648. } a deplorable instance of blasted ambition. He did not long survive his overthrow, being condemned by the senate to be starved to death in prison, a short time after he had adorned the triumph of the conqueror.

B. C. 102-1. }
Y. R. 652-3. } 5. Marius, by this and two succeeding victories over the Teutones and Cimbri, northern tribes who had in powerful numbers invaded the empire, having rendered himself very formidable to distant nations in war, became soon after much more dangerous to his fellow-citizens in peace.

The strength which he had given to the popular party grew every day more and more conspicuous; and the Italians, being frustrated in their aims of gaining the freedom of Rome by the intrigues of the senate, resolved upon obtaining by force what was refused them as a favour. This gave rise to the Social

B. C. 90. }
Y. R. 664. } War, in which most of the states of Italy entered into a confederacy against Rome, in order to obtain a redress of this and all the rest of their grievances.—After a lapse of two years, this war having continued to rage with doubtful success, the senate began to reflect that, whether conquered or conquerors, the power of the Romans was in danger of being totally destroyed. In order, therefore, to soften their compliance by degrees, they began by giving the freedom of the city to such of the Italian states as had not revolted; and afterwards offered it to such as would soonest lay down their arms.—This unexpected bounty had the desired effect; the allies, from mutual distrust, offered each a separate treaty; the senate took them one by one into favour; but gave the freedom of the city in such a manner that, not being empowered to vote until all the other tribes had given their suffrages, they had very little weight in the constitution. In this manner the Italian states were all made free, except the Samnites and Lucanians, who seemed excluded from the general compromise, as if to leave Sylla, who commanded against them, the glory of putting an end to the war. This he performed with great bravery, storming their camps, overthrow-

ing them in several battles, and obliging them to submit to such terms as the senate were pleased to impose.

EXERCISES.

1. What are the particulars of Jugurtha's history? What person did he murder, and thereby incur the displeasure of the Romans?

2. What steps did the Romans take to punish him? What became of a Roman army that was sent against him? How did Metellus retrieve the Roman affairs in Africa? Who succeeded him as commander in that country?

3. What is the general history of Caius Marius? By what means did he procure the consulship? What advantages did he obtain over Jugurtha? To whom did that prince apply for assistance? What vicissitudes of fortune occurred in the prosecution of the war?

4. What conditions of peace were granted to Bocchus? What was the ultimate fate of Jugurtha?

5. Whom did Marius next subdue? What gave rise to the Social War? In what manner did the senate put an end to it?

SECTION II.

B. C. 88. }
Y. R. 666. } 1. THIS destructive war being concluded, which, as Paternulus says, consumed above three hundred thousand of the flower of Italy, the senate now began to think of turning their arms against Mithridates, the most powerful monarch of the East. For this expedition, Marius had long been preparing; but Sylla, who now began to make a figure in the commonwealth, had interest enough to get Marius set aside, and himself appointed to the expedition. Marius, however, tried all his arts with the people to get this appointment reversed, and at length procured a law to be enacted, by which the command of the army appointed to oppose Mithridates was to be transferred from Sylla to himself. In consequence of this, Marius immediately sent officers from Rome to take the command in his name. But the troops, instead of obeying their orders, fell upon and slew the officers; and then entreated Sylla that he would lead them directly to take signal vengeance upon all his enemies at Rome. Accordingly, his soldiers entered the city sword in hand, as into a place taken by storm. Marius and Sulpicius, at the head of a tumultuary body of their partisans, attempted to oppose their entrance; and the citizens themselves, who feared the sacking of the place, threw down stones and tiles from the tops of the houses upon the intruders. So unequal a conflict lasted longer than could have been expected; till at length Marius and his party were obliged to seek safety by flight, after having in vain offered liberty to all the slaves who would assist them in this emergency.

2. Sylla, now finding himself master of the city, began by

modelling the laws so as to favour his outrages.—Marius, in the mean time, driven out of Rome, and declared a public enemy, at the age of seventy, was obliged to save himself, unattended and on foot, from the numerous pursuits of those who sought his life. After having wandered for some time in this deplorable condition, he found his dangers increase daily, and his pursuers making nearer advances upon him. In this distress, he was obliged to conceal himself in the marshes of Minturnæ, where he spent the night up to the chin in a quagmire. At break of day he left this dismal place, and made towards the seaside, in hopes of finding a ship to facilitate his escape; but being discovered and recognised by some of the inhabitants, he was conducted to a neighbouring town with a halter round his neck, without clothes, and covered over with mud, and, in this pitiful condition, was conveyed to prison. The governor of the place, willing to conform to the orders of the senate, soon after sent a Cimbrian slave to despatch him; but the barbarian no sooner entered the dungeon for this purpose, than he stopt short, intimidated by the dreadful visage and awful voice of the fallen general, who sternly demanded if he had the presumption to kill Caius Marius? The slave, unable to reply, threw down his sword, and, rushing back from the prison, cried out, that he found it impossible to kill him! The governor, considering the fear of the slave as an omen in the unhappy exile's favour, gave him once more his freedom; and, commending him to his fortune, provided him with a ship to convey him from Italy. He thence made the best of his way to the island of Ænaria, and, sailing onward, was driven by a tempest on the coast of Sicily. There a Roman quæstor, who happened to be at the same place, resolved to seize him, by which he lost sixteen of his crew, who were killed in their endeavours to cover his retreat to the ship. Marius afterwards landed in Africa, near Carthage, and went in a melancholy manner to place himself amongst the ruins of that desolated place. He soon, however, received orders from the prætor who governed there, to retire to some other quarter. The old general, who remembered his having once served this very man when in necessity, could not suppress his sorrow at finding ingratitude in every part of the world, and, preparing to obey, desired the messenger to tell his master, that he had seen Marius sitting among the ruins of Carthage,—intimating the greatness of his own fall by the desolation that surrounded him. He then embarked once more, and not knowing where to land without encountering an enemy, spent the winter at sea, expecting every hour the return of a messenger from his son, whom he had sent to solicit protection from an African

prince, whose name was Mandrestal. After long expectation, instead of the messenger, his son himself arrived, having escaped from the inhospitable court of that monarch, where he had been kept, not as a friend, but a prisoner, and had returned just in time to prevent his father from sharing the same fate. It was in this situation they were informed that Cinna, one of their party, who had remained at Rome, had restored their affairs, and headed a large army of the Italian states in their cause.

B. C. 87. } 3. Nor was it long before they joined their forces,
Y. R. 667. } and presented themselves at the gates of Rome. Sylla was at that time absent on his command against Mithridates, while Cinna marched into the city, accompanied by his guards; but Marius stopped, and refused to enter, alleging, that having been banished by a public decree, it was necessary to have another to authorize his return. It was thus that he desired to give his meditated cruelties the appearance of justice; and, while he was about to destroy thousands, to pretend an implicit veneration for the law. In pursuance of his desire, an assembly of the people was called, who began to reverse his banishment; but they had scarcely gone through three of the tribes, when, incapable of containing his desire of revenge, Marius entered the city at the head of his guards, and massacred all that had ever been obnoxious to him, without remorse or pity. Several who sought to propitiate the tyrant's rage were murdered by his command in his presence; many, even of those who had never offended him, were put to death; and at last even his own officers never approached him but with terror. Having in this manner punished his enemies, he next abrogated all the laws enacted by his rival, and then made himself consul with Cinna. Thus gratified in his two favourite passions, vengeance and ambition; having once saved his country, and now deluged it with blood; at last, as if willing to crown the pile of slaughter he had made with his own body, he died the month after, aged seventy, not without suspicion of having hastened his end.

B. C. 84. } 4. In the mean time these accounts were brought
Y. R. 670. } to Sylla, who had been sent against Mithridates, and now performing many signal services against him; but concluding a peace with that monarch, he resolved to return home to take revenge upon his enemies at Rome. Nothing, however, could intimidate Cinna from making preparations to repel his opponent. Being joined by Carbo, who was now elected in the room of Valerius, who had been slain, together with young Marius, who inherited all the abilities and ambition of his father, he determined to send over part of the forces he had

raised into Dalmatia, to oppose Sylla before he entered Italy. Some troops were accordingly embarked ; but these being dispersed by a storm, the rest, that had not yet put to sea, absolutely refused to go. Upon this, Cinna, quite furious at their disobedience, rushed forward to persuade them to their duty. In the mean time, one of the most mutinous of the soldiers being struck by an officer, returned the blow, and was apprehended for his crime. This ill-timed severity produced a tumult and mutiny through the whole army ; and while Cinna did all he could to prevent or appease it, he was run through the body by one of the crowd.

5. Scipio, the consul, who commanded against Sylla, was soon after allured by proposals to come to a treaty ; and a suspension of arms being accordingly agreed upon, Sylla's soldiers went into the opposite camp, displaying those riches which they had acquired in their expedition, and offering to participate them with their fellow-citizens, if they would change their party. Accordingly, the whole army declared unanimously for Sylla ; and Scipio scarcely knew that he was forsaken and deposed, till he was informed of it by a party of the enemy, who, entering his tent, made him and his son their prisoners. In this manner, both factions, exasperated to the highest degree, and expecting no mercy on either part, gave vent to their fury in several engagements. The forces on the side of young Marius, who now succeeded his father in command, were the most numerous ; but those of Sylla were better united and under stricter subordination. Carbo, who commanded for Marius in the field, sent eight legions to Præneste to relieve his colleague ; but they were met in a defile by Pompey, afterwards surnamed the Great, who slew many of them, and dispersed the rest. Carbo, joined by Norbanus, soon after engaged Metellus, but was overcome with the loss of ten thousand slain, and six thousand taken prisoners. In consequence of this defeat, Norbanus killed himself, and Carbo fled to Africa, where, after wandering a long time, he was at last delivered up to Pompey, who, to please Sylla, ordered him to be beheaded. Sylla, now become undisputed master of his country, entered Rome at the head of his army. Happy ! had he supported in peace the glory which he had acquired in war, or had he ceased to live when he ceased to conquer.

6. Eight thousand men, who had escaped the general carnage, offered themselves to the conqueror ; these he ordered to be put into the Villa Publica, a large house in the Campus Martius, and at the same time convoked the senate. There he spoke with great fluency, and in a manner no way discom-

posed, of his own exploits ; and in the mean time gave private directions that all those wretches whom he had confined should be slain. The senate, amazed at the horrid outcries of the sufferers, at first thought that the city was given up to plunder ; but Sylla, with an unembarrassed air, informed them that it was only some criminals who were punished by his order, and that they needed not to make themselves uneasy about their fate. The day after he proscribed forty senators and sixteen hundred knights ; and, after an intermission of two days, forty senators more, with an infinite number of the rich-
 B. C. 81. }
 Y. R. 673. } est citizens of Rome. He next resolved to invest himself with the perpetual dictatorship ; for, by thus uniting all civil as well as military power in his own person, he was conscious that he might thence give an air of justice to every oppression. In this manner he continued to govern with capricious tyranny, none daring to resist his power ; until, contrary to the expectations of mankind, he laid down the dictatorship, having held it not quite three years. After this he retired to the country, in order to enjoy the pleasures of tranquillity and social happiness ; but he did not long survive
 B. C. 78. }
 Y. R. 676. } his abdication, as he died of that disease which is called *morbus pedicularis*, a loathsome and mortifying object, and affording a striking example of the futility of human ambition.

7. While Sylla was successfully employed in crushing the supporters of the Marian party in Italy, Quintus Sertorius, who had been proscribed on account of his attachment to the democratic faction, and had fled for safety into Spain, where he had formerly been proprætor, having erected the standard of resistance in that country, soon found himself at the head of a formidable force, composed partly of natives and partly of Roman refugees. Having commenced his military career in the time of the Cimbric war, Sertorius had early distinguished himself as a soldier under the auspices of Marius ; and at the commencement of the civil war he took an active part with him and Cinna, though he condemned and endeavoured to mitigate the atrocities which marked their sanguinary progress. Shortly after his flight into Spain, he was invited by the Lusitanians to become their leader ; and having received a considerable accession of strength, by the junction of the remains of the Marian forces under Perpenna, he was enabled to take the field, and successively defeated or checked the armies which were sent to reduce him, under the command of Metellus, and afterwards of Pompey. The war having continued for some years with various success, was at last ter-

minated by the death of Sertorius, who was assassinated at an entertainment at the instigation of Perpenna. This event, which was followed shortly after by the surrender and punishment of the traitorous Perpenna, completely extinguished the hopes and attempts of the Marian party in every part of the Roman world.

EXERCISES.

1. Against whom did the Romans next turn their arms? What commotions were excited by Marius and Sylla about their appointment as general against Mithridates? Which of the candidates obtained the appointment?

2. What hardships did Marius now experience? What occurred when a slave was sent to despatch him? How did he escape from Italy, and to what danger was he exposed in Sicily? What were his subsequent adventures in Africa? What change now took place in his affairs?

3. Who accompanied him on his return to Rome? What cruelties did he perpetrate against his enemies? What became of Marius?

4. When did Sylla determine to return to Rome? What preparations did Cinna and young Marius make to oppose him? What occasioned the death of Cinna?

5. How did Sylla gain over Scipio's army to his interest? What engagements now ensued between the opposite parties? Which of them was ultimately successful?

6. What cruelties did Sylla exercise on entering Rome? What office did he assume, and when did he resign it? What was the fate of Sylla?

7. Who revived the party of Marius in Spain? What generals were successively defeated by Sertorius? At whose instigation was he assassinated?

 CHAP. XVII.

From the perpetual Dictatorship of Sylla to the Triumvirate of Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus.

B. C. 78. } 1. UPON the death of Sylla, the jealousies of Pompey and Crassus, the two most powerful men in the empire, began to excite fresh dissensions. Pompey was the most popular general, while Crassus was the richest man in Rome. The first opportunity that occurred for discovering their mutual jealousy, was upon the disbanding of their troops, with which they had conquered the enemies of their country. Neither chose to begin first; so that the most fatal results were threatened from their dissension; but at length Crassus, stifling his resentment, laid down his command; and the other followed his example immediately after. The next trial between them was, who would be foremost in obtaining the favour of the people. Crassus entertained the people at a thousand different tables, distributing corn to the families of the poor, and fed the greatest part of the citizens for nearly three months. Pompey, on the other hand, laboured to abrogate

the laws made against the people's authority by Sylla; he restored the power of judging to the knights, which had been formerly granted them by Gracchus, and gave back to the tribunes of the people all their former privileges. It was thus that each promoted his private aims by an appearance of serving the public good; so that what was in reality ambition in both, assumed in one the name of liberality, and in the other that of freedom.

2. An expedition, in which Pompey cleared the Mediterranean of pirates who infested it, having added greatly to his reputation, the tribunes of the people hoped it would be easy to advance their favourite to still higher honours. For this purpose Manilius, one of their number, preferred a law, that all the armies of the empire, and the government of Asia, together with the management of the war against Mithridates, should be committed to him alone. The law passed with little opposition, and the decree was confirmed by all the tribes of the people. Being thus appointed to the command of that important war, Pompey immediately departed for Asia, having made the proper preparations towards forwarding the campaign. Mithridates had been obliged by Lucullus to take refuge in Lesser Armenia, and thither that general was preparing to follow him, when his whole army abandoned him; } so that it remained for Pompey to terminate the war, } which he effected with great ease and expedition, adding a large extent of dominion to the Roman empire, and returning to Rome in triumph, at the head of his victorious army. But all the conquests of Pompey rather served to heighten the glory, than to increase the power of Rome; as they only made it a more glaring object of ambition, and exposed its liberties to greater danger. Those liberties indeed seemed devoted to ruin on every side; for even while their favourite general was pursuing his conquests abroad, Rome was on the verge of ruin from a conspiracy at home.

} } 3. This conspiracy was projected and carried on by Sergius Catiline, a patrician by birth, who resolved to establish his own power on the downfall of his country. He was singularly formed, both by art and nature, to conduct a conspiracy; he was possessed of courage equal to the most desperate attempts, and of eloquence to give a colour to his ambition; ruined in his fortunes, profligate in his manners, and vigilant in pursuing his aims, he was insatiable of wealth, only with a view to lavish it on his guilty pleasures. Catiline having contracted many debts by the looseness of such an ill-spent life, was resolved to extricate himself from his embarrassments by any means, however unlawful. Accordingly

he assembled about thirty of his debauched associates, and informed them of his aims, his hopes, and his settled plan of operations. It was resolved among them that a general insurrection should be raised throughout Italy, the different parts of which were assigned to the different leaders. Rome was to be set on fire in several places at once; and Catiline, at the head of an army raised in Etruria, was, in the general confusion, to possess himself of the city, and massacre all the senators. Lentulus, one of his profligate assistants, who had been prætor, or judge in the city, was to preside in their general councils; Cethegus, a man who sacrificed the possession of present power to the hopes of gratifying his revenge against Cicero, was to direct the massacre throughout the city; and Cassius was to conduct those who should set fire to it.

4. But the vigilance of Cicero being the chief obstacle to their designs, Catiline was very desirous to see him taken off before he left Rome; upon which two knights of the company undertook to kill him next morning in his bed, by making an early visit to him on pretence of business. But the meeting was no sooner over than Cicero had information of all that passed in it; for, by the intrigues of a woman named Fulvia, he had gained over Curius, her lover, and one of the conspirators, who sent him a particular account of their deliberations.— Having taken proper precautions to guard himself against the designs of his morning visitors, who were punctual to the appointment, he next took care to provide for the defence of the city; and, assembling the senate, consulted what was best to be done in this time of danger. The first step taken was to offer considerable rewards for further discoveries, and then to prepare for the defence of the state. Catiline, to show how well he could dissemble or justify any crime, went boldly to the senate, declaring his innocence; but, when confronted by the eloquence of Cicero, he hastily withdrew, declaring aloud, that since he was denied a vindication of himself, and driven headlong by his enemies, he would extinguish the flames which were raised about him in universal ruin. Accordingly, after a short conference with Lentulus and Cethegus, he left Rome by night with a small retinue, to make the best of his way towards Etruria, where Manlius, one of the conspirators, was raising an army to support him. In the mean time, Cicero took proper precautions to secure all those of the conspiracy who remained in Rome. Lentulus, Cethegus, Cassius, and several others, were put in confinement; and soon after, by the command of the senate, being delivered over to the executioners, were strangled in prison.

5. While his associates were thus put to death in the city,

Catiline had raised an army of twelve thousand men ; of which a fourth part only was completely armed, the rest being furnished only with what chance afforded, such as darts, lances, and clubs. He refused at first to enlist slaves, who had flocked to him in great numbers, trusting to the proper strength of the conspiracy ; but, upon the approach of the consul, who was sent against him, and upon the arrival of the news that his confederates were put to death in Rome, the face of his affairs was entirely altered. His first attempt therefore was, by long marches, to make his escape over the Apennines into Gaul ; but in this his hopes were disappointed, all the passes being strictly guarded by an army under Metellus, superior to his own. Being thus hemmed in on every side, and seeing all things desperate, with nothing left him but either to die or conquer, he resolved to make one vigorous effort against that army which pursued him. Antonius, the consul, being himself sick, the command devolved upon his lieutenant Petreius, who, after a fierce and bloody action, in which he lost a considerable part of his best troops, put Catiline's forces to the rout near Pistoria in Etruria, and destroyed his whole army, which fought desperately to the last man.

6. The extinction of this conspiracy seemed only to leave an open theatre, on which the ambition of the great men of the state might display itself. Pompey had returned in triumph from conquering the East ; as he had before been victorious in Europe and Africa. Crassus, as we have already observed, was the richest man in Rome ; and, next to him, possessed of the greatest authority ; his party in the senate was even stronger than that of Pompey his rival, and the envy raised against him was less. He and Pompey had long been disunited by an opposition of interests and of characters ; however, it was from a continuance of their mutual jealousies that the state was, in some measure, to expect its future safety. It was in this situation of things that Julius Cæsar, who had lately gone as prætor into Spain, and had returned with great riches and glory, resolved to convert their mutual jealousies to his own advantage. This celebrated man was related to Marius by the female line, and descended from one of the most illustrious families in Rome. He had already gone through the regular gradations of office, having been quæstor, ædile, grand pontiff, and prætor in Spain. Being descended from popular ancestors, he warmly espoused the side of the people ; and, shortly after the death of Sylla, had procured permission for those whom he had banished to be recalled. He had all along declared for the populace against the senate, and by this became their most favourite magistrate.

This consummate statesman began by offering his services to Pompey, promising him his aid in having all his acts passed, notwithstanding the senate's opposition; so that Pompey, being pleased at the acquisition of a person of so much merit, readily granted him his confidence and protection. He next applied to Crassus, who, from former connexions, was even more disposed to become his friend; till at length, finding neither averse to a union of interests, he took an opportunity of bringing them together; and, remonstrating with them upon the advantage as well as the necessity of reconciliation, he had art enough to persuade them to forget their animosities. A combination was thus formed, by which these three agreed that nothing should be done in the commonwealth but what received their mutual concurrence and approbation. This was called the first triumvirate, whereby the constitution was weakened by a new interest, that had not hitherto taken place in the government, very different from that of either the senate or the people, and yet dependent upon both.

B. C. 60. }
Y. R. 694. }

EXERCISES.

1. Who were the most powerful men in Rome at this period? What exertions did Crassus and Pompey employ to gain the public favour?
2. How did Pompey increase his reputation? What law did Manilius propose in Pompey's behalf? In what condition was Mithridates when Pompey was sent against him? What success attended the latter in Asia?
3. Who projected a conspiracy at this time against the liberties of his country? What was the character of Catiline, and what motive urged him to engage in the conspiracy? What number of associates joined him, and what schemes did they carry into effect?
4. How did Cicero obtain notice of the conspiracy, and what defensive measures did he adopt? What threatenings did Catiline utter in the senate, and whither did he go? What became of the conspirators who remained at Rome?
5. What force did Catiline raise, and what were his intentions on learning the fate of his associates? What was the result of a battle betwixt him and Petreius?
6. Who were the principal rivals for power in the commonwealth at this time? What was the political influence of Crassus and Pompey? What is the general history of Julius Cæsar? How did he reconcile Crassus and Pompey, and what junction of offices did they form in the government?

 CHAP. XVIII.

From the Beginning of the first Triumvirate to the Death of Pompey.

SECTION I.

- B. C. 60. }
Y. R. 694. } 1. THE first thing which Cæsar did upon being taken into the triumvirate, was to avail himself of the interest of his confederates to obtain the consulship. The

senate had still some small influence left ; and though they were obliged to concur in choosing him, yet they gave him for a colleague one Bibulus, who, they supposed, would be a check upon his power ; but the opposition was too strong for even superior abilities to resist it, so that Bibulus, after a slight attempt in favour of the senate, remained inactive. Cæsar began his schemes for empire, by ingratiating himself with the people ; and for this purpose he procured a law for dividing certain lands in Campania among such of the poor citizens as had at least three children. The proposal was just enough in itself, and only criminal from the views of the proposer. Having thus strengthened himself at home, he next deliberated with his confederates about sharing the foreign provinces of the empire between them. The partition was soon made ; Pompey chose Spain as his province ; for, being fatigued with conquest, and satiated with military fame, he was willing to enjoy his pleasures at Rome. Crassus chose Syria for his part of the empire ; which province, as it had hitherto enriched the generals who had subdued it, would, he hoped, gratify him in his most favourite pursuit. To Cæsar was left the province of Gaul, composed of many fierce and powerful nations, most of them unsubdued, and the rest only professing a nominal subjection. Wherefore, as it was rather appointing him to conquer than command, this government was granted him for five years, as if, by its long continuance, to compensate for the danger with which it was attended.

2. It would be impossible, in the narrow compass of this history, to enumerate all the battles which Cæsar fought, and the states he subdued in his expeditions to Gaul and Britain, which were incessantly pursued for the period of eight years. The Helvetians were the first that were brought into subjection, with the loss of nearly two hundred thousand men ; while those who remained after the carnage were sent by Cæsar in safety to the forests whence they had issued. The Germans, with Ariovistus at their head, were next cut off, to the number of eighty thousand : their monarch himself narrowly escaping in a little boat across the Rhine. The Belgæ were cut off with so great slaughter, that marshes and deep rivers were rendered passable from the heaps of slain ! The Nervians, who were the most warlike of these barbarous nations, made head for a short time, and fell upon the Romans with such fury, that their army was in danger of being totally routed ; but Cæsar himself hastily catching up a buckler, rushed through his army into the midst of the enemy, by which means he so turned the fate of the day, that the barbarians were almost cut off to a man. The Celtic Gauls, who

were powerful by sea, were next brought under subjection ; and after them the Suevi, the Menapii, and all the nations from the Mediterranean to the British sea. Cæsar, stimulated by the desire of conquest, next crossed over into Britain, upon pretence that the natives had furnished his enemies with continual supplies. Upon approaching the shores, he found them covered with men to oppose his landing ; and his forces were in danger of being driven back, till the standard-bearer of the tenth legion boldly leaping ashore, and being well assisted by Cæsar, the natives were put to flight. The Britons, being terrified at Cæsar's power, sent to desire a peace, which was granted them, and some hostages were delivered. A storm, however, soon after destroying a great part of his fleet, the Britons resolved to take advantage of this disaster, and marched against him with a powerful army. But what could a naked undisciplined army do against forces that had been exercised under the greatest generals, and hardened by the conquest of the greatest part of the world ? Being overthrown, they were obliged once more to sue for peace, which Cæsar granted them, and then returned to the continent. Thus, in less than nine years, that great general conquered not only Britain, but also all that country which extends from the Mediterranean sea to the German ocean.

3. While Cæsar was thus increasing his reputation and riches abroad, Pompey, who remained all the time in Rome, steadily co-operated with his ambition, and advanced his interests, while he vainly supposed that he was forwarding his own. By his means, Cæsar was continued five years longer in Gaul ; nor was Pompey roused from his lethargy, till the fame of that great commander's valour, riches, and humanity, began secretly to give him pain, and to make him suppose that they began to eclipse his own ; for, as being more recent, they were more talked of. He now, therefore, began to do all in his power to diminish Cæsar's reputation, obliging the magistrates not to publish any letters they received from him, till he had diminished the credit of them, by spreading disadvantageous reports of his rival. One or two accidents also helped to widen the separation ; namely, the death of Julia, Pompey's wife, who had not a little contributed to improve the harmony that subsisted between them ; and the destruction of Crassus, who had conducted the war against the Parthians with so little prudence, that he suffered the enemy to gain the advantage over him in almost every engagement, till,

B. C. 53.
Y. R. 701.

} incapable of extricating himself from the difficulties
} in which he was involved; he fell a sacrifice to his
own rashness, being killed in battle, bravely defending himself

to the last.—Cæsar, who now began to be sensible of Pompey's jealousy, took occasion to solicit for the consulship, together with the prolongation of his government in Gaul, desirous of trying whether Pompey would thwart or promote his pretensions. In this affair Pompey seemed to be quite inactive ; but at the same time he privately employed two of his creatures, who alleged that the laws did not permit a person that was absent to offer himself for that high office. Pompey's view in this was to allure Cæsar from his government, in order to stand for the consulship in person. Cæsar, however, perceiving his artifice, chose to remain in his province, convinced that while he headed such an army as that which was now devoted to his interest, he could at any time give laws as well as magistrates to the state.

4. The senate, which was now devoted to Pompey, because he had for some time attempted to defend them from the encroachments of the people, ordered two legions belonging to Pompey, that were in Cæsar's army, to return home, under pretence of sending them to oppose the Parthians, but, in reality, to diminish Cæsar's power. Cæsar easily perceived their motive ; but as his plans were not ready for execution, he sent them home in pursuance of the orders of the senate, having previously attached the officers to him with benefits, and the soldiers with a bounty. The next step which the senate took, was to recall Cæsar from his government, as his time was now very near expiring. But Curio, his friend in the senate, proposed that Cæsar should not leave his army till Pompey had set him the example. This for a while perplexed Pompey ; and during a subsequent debate on this subject, one of the senators declared that Cæsar was passing the Alps, and marching with his whole army directly towards Rome, on which the consul immediately quitted the senate, and went with his colleague from the city to a house where Pompey at that time resided. He there presented him with a sword, commanding him to march against Cæsar, and fight bravely in defence of the commonwealth. Pompey declared that he was ready to obey ; but, with an air of pretended moderation, added, that it was only in case more gentle expedients could not be employed.

5. Cæsar, who was informed by his partisans at Rome of all that passed there, still continued in Gaul, and, being willing to give his designs all the appearance of justice, agreed to lay down his employment when Pompey should do the same. But the senate rejected all his proposals, blindly confident of their own power, and relying also on the assurances of Pompey. Cæsar, still unwilling to come to an open rupture with

the state, at last was content to ask the government of Illyria with two legions ; but this also was refused him. Finding now that all hopes of an accommodation were fruitless, and conscious, if not of the goodness of his cause, at least of the goodness of his troops, he began to draw them down towards the confines of Italy ; and passing the Alps with his third legion, he halted at Ravenna, a city of Cisalpine Gaul, whence he once more wrote a letter to the consuls, declaring that he was ready to resign his command in case Pompey did the same. On the other hand, the senate decreed that Cæsar should lay down his government, and disband his forces within a limited time ; and if he refused obedience, that he should be declared an enemy to the commonwealth. Cæsar, however, seemed no way alarmed by these violent proceedings ; and the night before his intended expedition into Italy, he sat down to table conversing cheerfully with his friends on subjects of literature and philosophy, and apparently disengaged from every ambitious concern. After some time, rising up, he desired the company to enjoy themselves during his absence, and said that he would be with them in a moment. In the mean time, having ordered his chariot to be prepared, he immediately set out, attended by a few friends, for Ariminum, a city upon the confines of Italy, whither he had despatched a part of his army the morning before. The journey by night, which was very fatiguing, he performed with great expedition, sometimes walking, and sometimes on horseback, till at the break of day he came up with his army, which consisted of about five thousand men, near the Rubicon, a little river which separates Italy from Gaul, and which terminated the limits of his command. The Romans had ever been taught to consider this river as the sacred boundary of their domestic empire : Cæsar, therefore, when he advanced at the head of his army to the side of the river, stopt short upon the bank, as if impressed with terror at the greatness of his enterprise. He pondered for some time in fixed melancholy, looking upon the river, and debating with himself whether he should venture in. “ If I pass this river,” said he to one of his generals who stood by him, “ what miseries shall I bring upon my country ! and if I now stop short, I am undone.”—Thus saying, and resuming all his former alacrity, he plunged in, crying out, “ That

B. C. 49. } the die was cast, and that all was now over.” His
Y. R. 705. } soldiers followed him with equal promptitude, and quickly arriving at Ariminum, made themselves masters of the place without resistance.

6. This unexpected enterprise excited the utmost terrors in Rome, every one imagining that Cæsar was leading his army

to lay the city in ruins. At one time were to be seen the citizens flying into the country for safety, and the inhabitants of the country coming up to seek for shelter in Rome. In this universal confusion, Pompey felt all that repentance and self-condemnation which arose from the consciousness of having advanced his rival to his present pitch of power. Wherever he appeared, many of his former friends were ready to blame him for his supineness, and sarcastically to reproach his ill-grounded presumption. "Where is now," tauntingly cried Favonius, a ridiculous senator of his party, "the army that is to rise at your command? Let us see if it will appear by stamping." Cato reminded him of the many warnings he had given him; which, however, as he was continually boding nothing but calamities, Pompey might very justly be excused from attending to.—But being at length wearied with these reproaches, which were offered under colour of advice, he did all that lay in his power to encourage and confirm his followers: he told them that they should not want an army, as he would be their leader; he confessed, indeed, that he had all along mistaken Cæsar's aims, judging of them only from what they should have been; but alleged that, if his friends were still inspired with the love of freedom, they might yet enjoy it in whatever place their necessities should happen to conduct them. He let them know that their affairs were in a promising condition; as his two lieutenants were at the head of a very considerable army in Spain, composed of veteran troops who had made the conquest of the East; and that, besides these, there were infinite resources both in Asia and Africa, together with the succours they might reasonably expect from all the countries in alliance with Rome. This speech served in some measure to revive the hopes of the confederacy. The greatest part of the senate, his own private friends and dependants, together with all those who expected to make their fortunes in his cause, agreed to follow Pompey. Being in no condition, however, to resist Cæsar at Rome, he resolved to lead his forces to Capua, where were stationed his two legions that had served under Cæsar's command in Gaul.

EXERCISES.

1. What new office did Cæsar obtain, and who was his colleague? How did he strengthen his influence with the people? What partition was made of the foreign provinces?
2. What nations did Cæsar subdue during his command in Gaul? What opposition did the Britons make when he landed on their coasts? What subsequent resistance did he experience from them, and what was the result of his expedition?
3. How was Pompey employed during this period? How did he attempt to diminish Cæsar's reputation? What became of Crassus about this time?

What objects did Cæsar wish to gain, and how did Pompey endeavour to thwart him ?

4. How did the senate attempt to lessen Cæsar's power ? In what manner did Cæsar act when recalled by the senate ? What advice did the consul give to Pompey ?

5. What overtures did he make to prevent a rupture with the senate ? What course did he take, on finding his hopes of an accommodation fruitless ? What decree did the senate pass ? What final step did Cæsar resolve on, and what occurred in the progress of his journey towards Italy ?

6. How was the news of his approach received at Rome ? What reproaches were now cast upon Pompey by his friends ? How did he revive the hopes of his followers ? Whither did he now retire with his forces ?

SECTION II.

1. CÆSAR, in the mean time, after having vainly attempted to bring Pompey to an accommodation, resolved to pursue him into Capua before he could collect his forces. Accordingly, he marched on to take possession of the cities that lay between him and his rival, not regarding Rome, which he knew would fall of course to the conqueror. Corfinium was the first city that attempted to stop the rapidity of his march. It was defended by Domitius, who had been appointed by the senate to succeed him in Gaul, and was garrisoned by twenty cohorts, which were levied in the adjacent countries. Cæsar, however, quickly invested it ; and, though Domitius sent frequently to Pompey, exhorting him to come and raise the siege, he was at last obliged to endeavour to escape privately.—His intentions happening to be divulged, the garrison were resolved to consult their own safety, by delivering him up to the besiegers. Cæsar readily accepted their offer, but kept his men from immediately entering the town. After some time, Lentulus, the consul, who was one of the besieged, came out to implore forgiveness for himself and the rest of the confederates, putting Cæsar in mind of their ancient friendship, and acknowledging the many favours he had received at his hands. To this Cæsar, who would not wait the conclusion of his speech, generously replied, that he came into Italy not to injure the liberties of Rome and its citizens, but to restore them. This humane reply being quickly carried into the city, the senators, and knights, with their children, and some officers of the garrison, came out to claim the protection of the conqueror, who, just glancing at their ingratitude, gave them their liberty, with permission to go wheresoever they should think proper. But while he dismissed the leaders, he, upon this, as upon all other occasions, took care to attach the common soldiers to his own interest ; sensible that he might stand in need of an army, but that, while he lived, his army could never stand in need of a commander.

2. Pompey, who was unable to continue in Rome, having intelligence of what passed upon this occasion, immediately retreated to Brundisium, where he resolved to stand a siege, and retard the enemy until the forces of the empire should be united to oppose him. His aim in this project succeeded to his wish; for, after having employed Cæsar some time in a fruitless siege, he privately passed with his forces over to Dyrrachium, where the consul had levied a body of forces for his assistance. However, though he made good his escape, he was compelled to leave the whole of Italy at the mercy of his rival, without either a town or an army that had strength to oppose his progress.—Cæsar, finding that he could not follow Pompey for want of shipping, went back to Rome to take possession of the public treasures, which his opponent, by a most unaccountable oversight, had neglected to take with him. Upon his coming up to the door of the treasury, Metellus, the tribune who guarded it, refused to let him pass; but Cæsar, with more than usual emotion, laying his hand upon his sword, threatened to strike him dead:—"And know, young man," cried he, "that it is easier to do this than to say it." This menace had its effect; Metellus retired, and Cæsar took out of the treasury money to the amount of three thousand pounds weight of gold, besides an immense quantity of silver.

3. Having thus provided himself with funds for prosecuting the war, he departed from Rome, resolving to subdue Pompey's lieutenants, Afranius and Petreius, who had been long in Spain at the head of a veteran army, composed of the choicest legions of the empire, that had been ever victorious under all their commanders. Cæsar, however, who knew the abilities of its two present generals, jocosely said, as he was preparing to go thither, that he went to fight an army without a general, and, upon conquering it, would return to fight a general without an army. The first conflict which he had with Afranius and Petreius was rather unfavourable. It was fought near the city of Ilerda; and both sides claimed the victory. But, by various stratagems, he reduced them at last to such extremities of hunger and drought, that they were obliged to yield at discretion. Clemency was Cæsar's favourite virtue: he dismissed them all with the kindest professions, and sent them home to Rome, laden with shame and obligations, to publish his virtues, and confirm the affections of his adherents. Thus, in the space of about forty days, he became master of all Spain, and again returned victorious to Rome. The citizens upon this occasion received him with fresh demonstrations of joy, and created him dictator and consul; but the first of these offices he laid down, after he had held it only eleven days.

5. While Cæsar was thus employed, Pompey was equally

active in making preparations in Epirus and Greece to oppose him. All the monarchs of the East had declared in his favour, and sent him very liberal supplies. He was master of nine effective Italian legions, and had a fleet of five hundred large ships, under the conduct of Bibulus, an active and experienced commander. In addition to these, he was supplied with large sums of money, and all the necessaries for an army, from the tributary provinces around him. He had attacked Antony and Dolabella, who commanded for Cæsar in that part of the empire, with such success, that the former was obliged to flee, and the latter was taken prisoner. Crowds of the most distinguished nobles and citizens of Rome came every day to join him. He had at one time above two hundred senators in his camp, among whom were Cicero and Cato, whose approbation of his cause was equivalent to an army.—Notwithstanding these preparations, Cæsar shipped off five of his twelve legions at Brundisium, and, weighing anchor, fortunately steered through the midst of his enemies, and accomplished his passage to the opposite coast in one day. Still, being well convinced that the proper time for making proposals of peace was after gaining an advantage, he sent one Rufus, whom he had taken prisoner, to propose an accommodation with Pompey, offering to refer their differences to the senate and people of Rome; but Pompey once more rejected the overture, conceiving that the people of Rome were too much in Cæsar's interest to be relied on.

5. Pompey had been raising supplies in Macedonia when first informed of Cæsar's landing upon the coast of Epirus; he now, therefore, resolved to march immediately to Dyrrachium, in order to cover that place from Cæsar's attempts, as his military stores and provisions were there deposited. The first place where both armies came in sight of each other was on the opposite banks of the river Apsus:—and, as both were commanded by the two greatest generals then in the world, the one renowned for his conquest of the East, the other celebrated for his victories over the Western parts of the empire, a battle was eagerly desired by the soldiers on both sides. But neither general was willing to hazard it upon this occasion, as Pompey would not rely upon his new levies, and Cæsar would not venture an engagement till he was joined by the rest of his forces. Cæsar had now waited some time with extreme impatience for the coming up of the remainder of his army, and even ventured out alone in an open fishing-boat to hasten its arrival; but he was driven back by a storm. However, his disappointment was soon relieved, by information of the landing of the troops he had long expected at Apollonia, whence they were approaching under the conduct of Antony and Calenus, to join him. Cæsar therefore decamped in order to meet

them, and prevent Pompey, with his army, from engaging them on their march, as he lay on the side of the river where the succours had been obliged to come on shore.

6. Pompey being compelled to retreat, led his forces to Asparagium, near Dyrrachium, where he was sure of being supplied with every thing necessary for his army, by the numerous fleets which he employed along the coasts of Æpirus. There he pitched his camp upon a tongue of land, as mariners express it, that jutted into the sea, and formed also a small shelter for ships, where few winds could annoy them. In this place, being most advantageously situated, he immediately began to entrench his camp; upon which Cæsar, perceiving that he was not likely soon to quit so advantageous a post, began to entrench another behind him. As all beyond Pompey's camp, towards the land side, was steep and hilly, he built redoubts upon the hills, stretching round from shore to shore, and then caused lines of communication to be drawn from hill to hill, by which he blocked up the camp of the enemy. He hoped, by this blockade, to force his opponent to a battle, which he ardently desired. Thus, both sides continued for some time employed in designs and stratagems, the one to annoy, the other to defend. Cæsar's men daily carried on their operations to straiten the enemy; while those of Pompey did the same to enlarge their boundaries; and having the advantage of numbers, severely galled the enemy with their slingers and archers. Cæsar, however, was indefatigable; he caused blinds or mantelets to be made of skins of beasts, to cover his men while they were at work; he cut off all the water that supplied the enemy's camp, and seized upon all the forage for their horses, so that there remained no more subsistence for them. But Pompey at last resolved to break through his lines, and gain some other part of the country more convenient for encampment. Accordingly, having informed himself of the condition of Cæsar's fortifications, from some deserters who came over to him, he ordered his light infantry and archers on board his ships, to attack Cæsar's intrenchments by sea, where they were least defended. This was done with such effect, that though Cæsar and his officers used their utmost endeavours to frustrate the designs of Pompey, yet, by means of reiterated attempts, he at last effected his purpose of extricating his army, and encamping in another place by the sea, where he had the conveniency of forage and shipping also.

7. Cæsar being thus disappointed in his views of blocking up the enemy, and perceiving the loss he had sustained, resolved to force Pompey to a battle, though upon disadvantageous terms. The engagement began by attempting to cut off a legion which was posted in a wood, and this brought on a ge-

neral battle. The conflict was for some time carried on with great ardour, and with equal fortune ; but Cæsar's army being entangled in the entrenchments of the old camp lately abandoned, began to fall into disorder ; upon which Pompey, pressing his advantage, obliged them to fly with great precipitation. Great numbers perished in the trenches and on the banks of the river, or were pressed to death by their fellow-soldiers. Pompey pursued his success to the very camp of Cæsar ; but, being either surprised with the suddenness of his victory, or fearful of an ambuscade, he withdrew his troops into his own camp, and thus lost the opportunity of securing his victory.

EXERCISES.

1. What resolution did Cæsar adopt on learning Pompey's departure ? What city first attempted to stop his march, and what did the commander of the garrison attempt ? What proposal did the garrison make to Cæsar ? What reply did he make to the speech of Lentulus ? In what manner did he show his generosity ?

2. To what place did Pompey retreat ? Whither did he now pass with his forces ? For what purpose did Cæsar repair to Rome ? How did he address Metellus, and what money did he take out of the treasury ?

3. Against whom did he go to prosecute the war in Spain ? What was the result of this expedition ? What honours were conferred upon him after his return ?

4. How was Pompey employed in Greece, and what supplies did he receive ? What victory did he obtain over Cæsar's lieutenants, and what distinguished persons joined him ? What terms of accommodation were offered by Cæsar, and why were they rejected ?

5. How did Pompey act on learning that Cæsar had landed in Greece ? What prevented a battle at the river Apsus ? Where did the rest of Cæsar's forces land ?

6. Whither did Pompey now conduct his troops ? How did Cæsar block up Pompey's camp, and cut off his means of subsistence ? By what means did Pompey extricate his army ?

7. How were Cæsar's troops defeated in a battle that ensued ? Why did Pompey not prosecute his advantage ?

SECTION III.

1. AFTER this defeat, which was by no means decisive, Cæsar marched with all his forces directly to Gomphi, a town in the province of Thessaly. But the news of the defeat at Dyrrachium had reached this place before him ; so that the inhabitants, who had before promised him obedience, now changed their minds, and, with a degree of baseness equal to their imprudence, shut their gates against him. Cæsar was not to be injured with impunity ; wherefore, having represented to his soldiers the great advantage of forcing a place so very rich, he ordered the scaling-ladders to be got ready ; and, causing an assault to be made, proceeded with such vigour, that, notwithstanding the great height of the walls, the town was taken in

a few hours. He then gave it up to be plundered by his troops, and, without delaying his march, went forward to Metropolis, another town of the same province, which yielded at his approach. By this means he soon became possessed of all Thessaly, except Larissa, which was garrisoned by the legion of Scipio, who commanded for Pompey. During this interval, Pompey's officers were continually soliciting him to come to a battle; till at length he resolved to yield up his own judgment in compliance with those about him, and renounced all schemes of prudence for those dictated by avarice and passion. Wherefore advancing into Thessaly, within a few days after the taking of Gomphi, he encamped upon the plains of Pharsalia, where he was joined by Scipio, his lieutenant, with the troops under his command. There he waited the arrival of Cæsar, resolved upon engaging, and deciding the fate of the empire by a single battle.

B. C. 48. } 2. Cæsar had employed all his art for some time
 Y. R. 706. } in sounding the inclinations of his men, and, finding his army once more resolute and vigorous, he caused them to advance towards the plains of Pharsalia, where Pompey was encamped, and prepared to oppose him. The approach of these two great armies, composed of the best and bravest troops in the world, together with the greatness of the prize for which they contended, filled all minds with anxiety, though with different expectations. Pompey's forces being most numerous, turned all their thoughts to the enjoyment of the victory; Cæsar's, with better aims, considered only the means of obtaining it. Pompey's army depended upon their physical force and their numerous generals; Cæsar's upon their own discipline, and the conduct of their single commander. Pompey's partisans hoped much from the justice of their cause; Cæsar's remembered the frequent proposals which they had made without effect. Thus the views, hopes, and motives, of both seemed different, but their hatred and ambition were the same. Cæsar, who was foremost in offering battle, led out his army to meet the enemy; but Pompey, either suspecting his troops, or dreading the event, kept his advantageous situation for some time. He indeed sometimes drew out his forces from the camp; but always kept himself under his trenches, at the foot of the hill near which he was posted. Cæsar, being unwilling to attack him at a disadvantage, resolved to decamp next day, hoping to harass out his antagonist, who was not a match for him in sustaining the fatigues of duty. Accordingly, the order for marching was given, and the tents were struck, when word was brought him that Pompey's army had quitted their entrenchments, and had advanced farther into the plain than usual, so that he might engage them at less disadvantage.

3. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cæsar caused his troops that were upon their march to halt, and, with a countenance of joy informed them, that the happy time was at length come, which they had so long wished for, and which was to crown their glory and end their fatigues. He then drew up his troops in order, and advanced towards the field of battle.—His forces did not amount to half those of Pompey; the army of the one amounting to above forty-five thousand foot, and seven thousand horse; that of the other not exceeding twenty-two thousand foot, and about a thousand horse. This disproportion, particularly in the cavalry, had filled Cæsar with apprehensions for the result of a conflict; and he had, therefore, some days before, picked out the strongest and nimblest of his foot soldiers, and accustomed them to fight between the ranks of his cavalry. By their assistance, his thousand horse were a match for Pompey's seven thousand, and had actually been superior in a skirmish that happened between them some days before. Pompey, on the other hand, had great expectations of success, and boasted that he could put Cæsar's legions to flight without striking a single blow; presuming that, as soon as the armies formed, his cavalry, on which he placed his chief expectations, would outflank and surround the enemy. Labienus was of the same opinion as Pompey, alleging also that the present troops, of which Cæsar's army was composed, were but the shadow of those old legions which had fought in Gaul and Britain; that all the veterans were worn out, and had been replaced by new levies collected hastily in Cisalpine Gaul. To increase the confidence of the army still more, Pompey took an oath, in which the rest followed him, never to return to the camp but with victory; and, under these advantageous circumstances, he led his troops to battle.

4. Pompey's order of battle was good and well chosen. In the centre, and on the two flanks, he placed all his veterans, and distributed his new-raised troops between the wings and the main body. The Syrian legions were placed in the centre, under the command of Scipio; the Spaniards, on whom he greatly relied, were posted on the right under Domitius Ænobarbus; and on the left were stationed the two legions, which Cæsar had restored in the beginning of the war, led on by Pompey himself, because with them he intended to make the attack which was to gain the day; and for the same reason he had there assembled all his horse, slingers, and archers, of which his right wing had no need, being covered by the river Enipeus. Cæsar likewise divided his army into three bodies, under three commanders; Domitius Calvinus being placed in the centre, and Mark Antony on the left, while he

himself led on the right wing, which was to oppose the left, commanded by Pompey. It is remarkable enough, that Pompey chose to put himself at the head of those troops which were disciplined and instructed by Cæsar,—an incontestable proof how much he valued them above any of the rest of his army. Cæsar, on the contrary, placed himself at the head of his tenth legion, that owed all its merit and fame to his own training. As he observed the enemy's numerous cavalry all drawn towards one spot, he guessed at Pompey's intention; and in order to anticipate it, he made a draught of six cohorts from his rear line, which he formed into a separate body, concealing them behind his right wing, with instructions not to throw their javelins on the approach of Pompey's horse, but to keep them in their hands, and push them directly in the faces and eyes of the horsemen, who, being composed of the younger part of the Roman nobility, valued themselves much upon their beauty, and dreaded a scar in the face more than a wound in the body. Lastly, he placed the few cavalry he had so as to cover the right of the tenth legion, ordering his third line not to march till they had received the signal from him.

5. As the armies approached, the two generals went from rank to rank, encouraging their men, exciting their hopes, and allaying their fears. Pompey represented to his men that the glorious occasion which they had long besought him to grant, was now before them; "and indeed," cried he, "what advantages could you wish over an enemy that you are not now possessed of? Your numbers, your vigour, a late victory, all assure a speedy and an easy conquest of those harassed and broken troops, composed of men worn out with age, and impressed with the terrors of a recent defeat;—but there is a still stronger bulwark for our protection than the superiority of our strength, the justice of our cause. You are engaged in the defence of liberty and of your country; you are supported by its laws, and followed by its magistrates; you have the world spectators of your conduct, and wishing you success; on the contrary, he whom you oppose is a robber and an oppressor of his country, and almost already sunk with the consciousness of his crimes, as well as the bad success of his arms.—Show then, on this occasion, all that ardour and detestation of tyranny which should animate Romans, and do justice to mankind." Cæsar, on his side, went through among his men with that steady serenity for which he was so much admired in the midst of danger. He insisted on nothing so strongly to his soldiers as his frequent and unsuccessful endeavours for peace. He talked with terror of the blood he was going to shed, and pleaded only the necessity that urged him to it. He deplored

the many brave men that were to fall on both sides, and the wounds of his country, whoever should be victorious. His soldiers answered his speech with looks of ardour and impatience ; on observing which, he gave the signal to begin. The word on Pompey's side was Hercules the invincible ; that on Cæsar's, Venus the victorious.

6. There was only so much space between both armies as to give room for fighting ; wherefore Pompey ordered his men to receive the first shock without moving out of their places, expecting the enemy's ranks to be put into disorder by their motion.—Cæsar's soldiers were now rushing on with their usual impetuosity, when, perceiving the enemy motionless, they all stopt short as if by general consent, and halted in the midst of their career. A terrible pause ensued, in which both armies continued to gaze upon each other with mutual terror and dreadful emotions ; till at length Cæsar's men having taken breath, ran furiously upon the enemy, first discharging their javelins, and then drawing their swords. The same method was observed by Pompey's troops, who as vigorously sustained the attack. His cavalry also were ordered to charge at the very onset, and they, together with the multitude of archers and slingers, soon obliged Cæsar's men to give ground ; whereupon Cæsar immediately ordered the six cohorts, that were placed behind as a body of reserve, to advance, and, as they had been instructed, to strike at the enemy's faces. This had its desired effect ; as the cavalry, that were but just now almost sure of victory, received an immediate check. The unusual method of fighting pursued by the cohorts, their aiming entirely at the faces of the enemy, and the horrible disfiguring wounds which they made, all contributed to intimidate them so much, that, instead of defending their persons, their only endeavour was to save their faces. A total rout of their whole body ensued, and they fled in great disorder to the neighbouring mountains ; while the archers and slingers, being thus abandoned, were cut to pieces.

7. Cæsar now commanded the cohorts to pursue their success ; and advancing, charged Pompey's troops upon the flank. This charge the enemy withstood for some time with great bravery, till Cæsar brought up his third line, which had not yet engaged.—Pompey's infantry being thus doubly attacked, in front by fresh troops, and in rear by the victorious cohorts, could no longer resist, but fled to their camp. The flight began among the auxiliaries, though Pompey's right wing still valiantly maintained their ground. Cæsar, however, being convinced that the victory was certain, with his usual clemency called out to his men to pursue the strangers, but to spare

the Romans ; upon which the latter laid down their arms and received quarter. The greatest slaughter was among the auxiliaries, who fled in all directions, but most of them retreated to the camp for safety. The battle had now lasted from the break of day till noon, although the weather was extremely hot ; nevertheless the conquerors did not remit their ardour, being encouraged by the example of their general, who did not think his victory complete till he was master of the enemy's camp. Accordingly, marching on foot at their head, he called upon them to follow and strike the decisive blow. The cohorts, which were left to defend the camp, for some time made a formidable resistance, particularly a body of Thracians, and other barbarians there stationed ; but nothing could resist the ardour of Cæsar's victorious army, and they were at last driven from their trenches, and fled to the mountains not far off. Cæsar seeing the field and camp strewed with his fallen countrymen, was strongly affected at the melancholy spectacle, and could not help crying out to one that stood near him, " They would have it so." Upon entering the enemy's camp, every object presented fresh instances of the blind presumption and madness of his adversaries : on all sides were to be seen tents adorned with ivy and branches of myrtle ; couches covered with purple, and sideboards loaded with plate. Every thing afforded proof of the highest luxury, and seemed rather the preparatives for a banquet, or the rejoicings for a victory, than the dispositions for a battle.

8. A camp so richly furnished might have been able to engage the attention of any troops but Cæsar's ; yet, as there was still something to be done, he would not permit them to pursue any other object than their enemies, till they were entirely subdued. A considerable body of these having fled to the mountains, he prevailed on his soldiers to join in the pursuit, in order to oblige them to surrender. He began by enclosing them with a line drawn across the foot of the mountain ; but they quickly abandoned a post which was not tenable for want of water, and endeavoured to reach the city of Larissa. Cæsar led a part of his army by a shorter way, and intercepted their retreat, drawing up in order of battle between them and the city. However, these unhappy fugitives once more found protection from a mountain, at the foot of which a rivulet ran that supplied them with water. Night now approaching, Cæsar's men were almost spent, and ready to faint with their incessant toil since morning ; yet he prevailed upon them once more to renew their labours, and to cut off the rivulet that supplied the defendants. The fugitives, thus deprived of all hopes of succour or subsistence, sent deputies to the conqueror, offering to

surrender at discretion. During this interval of negotiation, a few senators who were among them took the advantage of the night to escape ; while the rest next morning gave up their arms, and experienced the conqueror's clemency. In fact he addressed them with great gentleness, and forbade his soldiers to offer them any violence, or deprive them of any thing which they had in their possession. Thus Cæsar, by his good conduct, gained the most complete victory that had ever been obtained ; and by his great clemency after the battle he seemed to have deserved it. His loss amounted only to two hundred men, while that of Pompey was fifteen thousand, as well Romans as auxiliaries ; besides twenty-four thousand, who surrendered themselves prisoners of war, the greatest part of whom entered into Cæsar's army, and were incorporated with the rest of his forces. As to the senators and Roman knights, who fell into his hands, he generously gave them liberty to retire whither they thought proper ; and as for the letters which Pompey had received from several persons who wished to be thought neutral, he burnt them all without reading them, as Pompey had done on a former occasion. Thus, having performed all the duties of a general and a statesman, he sent for the legions that had passed the night in the camp, to relieve those which had accompanied him in the pursuit, and arrived the same day at Larissa.

9. As for Pompey, who had formerly shown such instances of courage and conduct, when he saw his cavalry routed, on which he placed his sole dependence, he absolutely lost his reason. Instead of thinking how to remedy this disorder, by rallying such troops as fled, or opposing fresh troops to stop the progress of the conquerors, he was totally amazed by this first blow, and returned to the camp, where he waited the issue of a contest which it was his duty to direct, not to follow. There he remained for some moments without speaking ; till, being told that the camp was attacked, "What," says he, "are we pursued to our very intrenchments?" and, immediately quitting his armour for a habit more suitable to his circumstances, he fled away on horseback to Larissa ; but perceiving that he was not pursued, he slackened his pace, giving way to all the agonizing reflections which his deplorable situation must have suggested. In this melancholy manner he passed along the vale of Tempe, and, pursuing the course of the river Peneus, at last arrived at a fisherman's hut, in which he passed the night. Thence he went on board a little bark, and, keeping along the seashore, descried a ship of some burden, which seemed preparing to sail, in which he embarked, the master of the vessel still paying him the homage which

was due to his former station. From the mouth of the river Peneus, he sailed to Amphipolis, whence, finding his affairs desperate, he steered to Lesbos to take in his wife Cornelia, whom he had left there at a distance from the dangers and hurry of the war. She, who had long flattered herself with the hopes of victory, felt the reverse of her fortune in an agony of distress; and being desired by a messenger, whose tears rather than his words proclaimed the greatness of her misfortunes, to hasten if she expected to see Pompey, with but one ship, and that not his own,—her grief, which before was violent, became then insupportable; she fainted away, and lay a considerable time without signs of life. At length, recovering herself, and reflecting that it was now no time for vain lamentations, she ran in deep distraction to the seaside. Pompey embraced her without speaking a word, and for some time supported her in his arms in silent despair.

10. Having taken in Cornelia, he now continued his course, steering to the south-east, and stopping no longer than was necessary to take in provisions at the ports in his passage. He was at last prevailed upon to apply to Ptolemy, king of Egypt, to whose father Pompey had been a considerable benefactor. Ptolemy, who was yet a minor, had not the government in his own hands; but he and his kingdom were under the direction of Photinus, a eunuch, and Theodotus, a master of the art of speaking. These ungrateful miscreants advised that Pompey should be invited on shore, and there slain; and accordingly Achilles, the commander of the forces, and Septimius, by birth a Roman, and who had formerly been a centurion in Pompey's army, were appointed to carry their orders into execution. Being attended by three or four more, they went into a little bark, and rowed off from the land towards Pompey's ship, that lay about a mile from the shore. Pompey, after having taken leave of Cornelia, who wept at his departure, and having repeated two verses of Sophocles, signifying that he who trusts his freedom to a tyrant from that moment becomes a slave, gave his hand to Achilles, and stepped into the bark with only two attendants of his own. They had now rowed from the ship a good way, and as during that time they all kept a profound silence, Pompey, willing to begin the discourse, accosted Septimius, whose face he recollected. "Methinks, friend," cried he, "you and I were once fellow-soldiers together?" Septimius gave only a nod with his head, without uttering a word, or displaying the least instance of civility. Pompey, therefore, took out a paper, on which he had written a speech he intended to make to the king, and began reading it. In this manner they approached the shore; and Cornelia, whose

concern had never suffered her to lose sight of her husband, began to conceive hopes that he would be kindly treated, when she perceived the people on the strand crowding along the coast, as if willing to receive him.

11. But her hopes were soon miserably disappointed ; for that instant, as Pompey rose, supporting himself upon his freedman's arm, Septimius stabbed him in the back, and was instantly seconded by Achillas. Pompey perceiving his death inevitable, only disposed himself to meet it with decency ; and covering his face with his robe, without speaking a word, with a sigh he resigned himself to his fate. At this horrid sight, Cornelia shrieked so loud as to be heard on the shore ; but the danger in which she herself was did not allow the mariners time to look on ; they therefore immediately set sail, and the wind proving favourable, fortunately escaped the pursuit of the Egyptian galleys. In the mean time, Pompey's murderers having cut off his head, caused it to be embalmed, the better to preserve its features, as they designed it for a present to Cæsar. The body was thrown naked on the strand, and exposed to view of all those whose curiosity led them that way. However, his faithful freedman Philip still kept near it ; and when the crowd was dispersed, he washed it in the sea, and, looking round for materials to burn it, he perceived the wreck of a fishing-boat, of which he composed a pile. While he was thus piously employed, he was accosted by an old Roman soldier who had served under Pompey in his youth. " Who art thou," said he, " that art making these humble preparations for Pompey's funeral ?" Philip having answered that he was one of his freedmen : " Alas !" replied the soldier, " permit me to share in this honour also : among all the miseries of my exile it will be my last sad comfort, that I have been able to assist at the funeral of my old commander, and touch the body of the bravest general that ever Rome produced !" After this, they both joined in performing the funeral rites of the departed hero, and, collecting his ashes, buried them under a little rising earth, scraped together with their hands, over which was afterwards placed the following inscription :—" He, whose merits deserve a Temple, can now scarcely find a Tomb !"

EXERCISES.

1. What place did Cæsar now besiege, and how did he treat the inhabitants ? What other place and province did he subdue ? What solicitations did Pompey's officers make, and where did he encamp ?
2. Whither did Cæsar now lead his forces ? What were the prospects of each army, and on what did they depend for success ? Who first offered battle, and what was the signal given by Pompey for engaging ?
3. What was the amount of Cæsar's and Pompey's forces ? What expe-

dient did Cæsar adopt to strengthen his cavalry? What grounds of confidence did Pompey entertain of gaining the victory?

4. What was the order of battle in which Pompey drew up his troops? How was Cæsar's army divided, and who were the commanders? At the head of what legion did Cæsar place himself? What body of reserve did he form, and what directions did he give to his soldiers?

5. How did Pompey animate his troops for the conflict? What was the purport of Cæsar's address to his men? What were the words employed by each general for the onset?

6. What ensued before the armies engaged? What were the particulars of the battle of Pharsalia? By what means were Pompey's cavalry routed?

7. How did his infantry sustain the charge, and how were they at last obliged to flee? How did Cæsar treat those who had laid down their arms, and whence did he drive those who resisted? What appearance did Pompey's camp present?

8. What became of the troops who fled to the mountains? What loss was sustained by both sides in this battle? What acts of generosity did Cæsar perform?

9. How did Pompey behave on seeing his cavalry routed? Whither did he flee, and what course did he now pursue? What distressing interview took place betwixt him and his wife?

10. To whom did he apply for protection in this extremity? What was Ptolemy advised to do with Pompey, and who undertook to put him to death? What occurred in the boat before Pompey landed?

11. How and by whom was he assassinated? What became of his body, and who undertook to bury it? What interesting particulars are related of its interment?



CHAP. XIX.

From the Destruction of the Commonwealth to the Establishment of the Emperor Augustus.

B. C. 48. }
Y. R. 706. } 1. CÆSAR has been much celebrated for his good fortune, and yet his abilities seem equal to his highest success. He possessed many shining qualities, without the intermixture of any defect but that of ambition. His talents were such as would have rendered him victorious at the head of any army which he commanded; and he would have governed in any republic that had given him birth. Having now gained a most complete victory, his success only seemed to increase his activity, and inspire him with fresh resolution to oppose new dangers.—He resolved therefore to pursue his last advantage, and follow Pompey to whatever country he should retire; convinced that during his life he might gain new triumphs, but could never enjoy absolute security. Accordingly, losing no time, he set sail for Egypt, and arrived at Alexandria, with about forty thousand men,—a very considerable force to keep such a powerful kingdom under subjection. Upon his landing, the first accounts he received were of Pompey's miserable end; and soon after, the murderers came

with his head and ring, as a most grateful present to the conqueror. But Cæsar had too much humanity to be pleased with such a horrid spectacle: he turned away from it with disgust, and, after a short pause, gave vent to his pity in a flood of tears. He shortly after ordered a magnificent tomb to be erected to his memory, on the spot where he was murdered, and a temple near the place to Nemesis, who was the goddess that punished those that were cruel to men in adversity.

2. It would seem that the Egyptians, at this time, had some hopes of breaking off alliance with the Romans, which they considered, as in fact it was, but a specious subjection. They first began to take offence at Cæsar's carrying the ensigns of Roman power before him, as he entered the city. Photinus, the eunuch, also treated him with great disrespect, and even attempted to take away his life. Cæsar, however, concealed his resentment, till he had a force sufficient to punish his treachery; and sending privately for the legions which had been formerly enrolled for Pompey's service, as being the nearest to Egypt, he in the mean time pretended to repose entire confidence in the king's minister, making great entertainments, and assisting at the conferences of the philosophers, who were then in great numbers at Alexandria. However, he soon changed his manner, when he found himself in no danger from the minister's attempts, and declared that, as being a Roman consul, it was his duty to settle the succession to the Egyptian crown. There were at that time two pretenders to the crown of Egypt; Ptolemy, the acknowledged king, and the celebrated Cleopatra, his sister, to whom, by the custom of the country, he was also married; and who, by his father's will, shared jointly in the succession. Not being contented with a bare participation of power, Cleopatra aimed at governing alone; but, being opposed in her views by the Roman senate, who confirmed her brother's title to the crown, she was banished into Syria, with Arsinoë, her youngest sister. Cæsar gave her new hopes of aspiring to the kingdom, and sent both to her and her brother to plead their cause before him. Photinus, the young king's guardian, disdained to accept of this proposal, and supported his refusal by sending an army of twenty thousand men to besiege him in Alexandria. Cæsar bravely repulsed the enemy for some time; but, finding the city of too great extent to be defended by so small an army as he then commanded, retired to the palace, which commanded the harbour, where he proposed to make his stand. Achillas, who commanded the Egyptians, attacked him there with great vigour, and still aimed at making himself master

of the fleet that was before the city. Cæsar, however, knew too well the importance of those ships in the hands of an enemy, and therefore burnt them all, in spite of every effort to prevent him. He next possessed himself of the isle of Pharos, which was the key to the port of Alexandria, by which he was enabled to receive the supplies sent him from all sides; and in this situation he determined to withstand the united force of all the Egyptians.

3. In the mean time, Cleopatra, having heard of the present turn in her favour, resolved to depend rather on Cæsar's favour than her own forces, for obtaining the government. But no arts, as she justly conceived, were so likely to influence Cæsar, as the charms of her person, which, though not faultless, were yet extremely seductive. She was now in the bloom of youth; and every feature borrowed a new grace from the lively turn of her temper. To the most enchanting address, she joined also the most harmonious voice. With all these accomplishments, she possessed a great share of the learning of the times; and could give audience to the ambassadors of seven different nations without an interpreter. The difficulty was how to get at Cæsar, as her enemies were in possession of all the avenues that led to the palace. For this purpose she went on board a small vessel, and in the evening landed near the palace, whence, being wrapt up in a coverlet, she was carried by one Apollodorus into Cæsar's very chamber. Her address at first pleased him; her wit and understanding fanned the flame; but her caresses, which were carried beyond the bounds of innocence, entirely brought him over to second her claims.

4. While Cleopatra was thus employed in forwarding her own views, her sister, Arsinoë, was also strenuously engaged in the camp in pursuing a separate interest. She had found means, by the assistance of one Ganymede, her confidant, to gain a large division of the Egyptian army in her favour; and soon after, by one of those sudden revolutions which are common among barbarians to this day, she caused Achilles to be murdered, and Ganymede to take the command in his stead, who carried on the siege with greater vigour than before. Ganymede's principal effort consisted in letting in the sea upon those canals which supplied the palace with fresh water; but this inconvenience Cæsar remedied, by digging a great number of wells. His next endeavour was to prevent the junction of Cæsar's twenty-fourth legion, which he twice attempted, but in vain. He soon after made himself master of a bridge, which joined the isle of Pharos to the continent, from which post Cæsar was resolved to dislodge him. In the

heat of the action some mariners, excited either by curiosity or by ambition, came in and joined the combatants; but, being seized with a panic, they instantly fled, and spread a general terror through the army. All Cæsar's endeavours to rally his forces were in vain; the confusion was past remedy, and numbers were drowned or put to the sword in attempting to escape. Seeing the irremediable disorder of his troops, he retired to a ship, in order to get to the palace that was opposite; but he was no sooner on board, than great crowds entered at the same time with him. In this emergency, and apprehensive lest the ship should sink, he jumped into the sea, and swam two hundred paces to the fleet that lay before the palace, holding his own Commentaries all the time in his left hand above water, and his coat of mail in his teeth.

5. The Alexandrians, finding their efforts to take the palace ineffectual, endeavoured at least to get their king out of Cæsar's power, as he had seized upon his person in the beginning of their disputes. For this purpose they made use of their customary arts of dissimulation, professing the utmost desire of peace, and only wanting the presence of their lawful prince to give a sanction to the treaty. Cæsar, who was sensible of their perfidy, nevertheless concealed his suspicions, and gave them their king, as he was under no apprehensions from the abilities of a boy. Ptolemy, however, the instant he was set at liberty, instead of promoting the peace, made every effort to give vigour to hostilities. In this manner, Cæsar was hemmed in for some time by this artful and insidious enemy, with all manner of difficulties against him; but he was at last relieved from this mortifying situation by Mithridates Pergamenus, one of his most faithful partisans, who came with an army to his assistance. This general, collecting a numerous army in Syria, marched into Egypt, took the city of Pelusium, repulsed the Egyptian army with loss, and at last joining Cæsar, attacked their camp, and committed great slaughter. Ptolemy himself, attempting to escape on board a vessel that was sailing down the river, was drowned by the ship's sinking, and Cæsar thus became master of all Egypt without farther opposition. He therefore appointed Cleopatra, with her younger brother, who was then but an infant, as joint governors, according to the destination of their father's will, and drove Arsinoe and Ganymede into banishment.

EXERCISES.

1. What character is given by historians of Julius Cæsar? Whither did he conduct his army after the battle of Pharsalia? What honour did he pay to Pompey's memory?
2. In what manner did Photinus treat Cæsar, and how did Cæsar conceal his resentment? Who were the pretenders to the crown of Egypt?

Whom did Cæsar encourage with hopes of the kingdom, and who besieged him in Alexandria? Whither did he retire, what became of his fleet, and of what place did he take possession?

3. What arts did Cleopatra employ to gain Cæsar's favour? What accomplishments did she possess? How did she succeed with him in urging her claims?

4. What exertions did Cleopatra's sister make to obtain the crown? To what extremities was Cæsar reduced by the commander of her forces? What extraordinary exploit did he perform to secure his safety?

5. What art did the Egyptians employ to recover their young king? How did he conduct himself, and what was Cæsar's condition? Who relieved him from his dangerous situation? What became of Ptolemy? Whom did Cæsar appoint to govern Egypt?

SECTION II.

1. CÆSAR having thus triumphed over the Egyptians, seemed for a while to relax from the usual activity of his conduct, being captivated with the charms of Cleopatra. Instead of quitting Egypt to go and quell the remains of Pompey's party, he there abandoned himself to his pleasures, passing whole nights in feasting, and all the excesses of luxury, with the young queen. He even resolved to attend her up the Nile into Ethiopia; but the brave veterans, who had long followed his fortune, boldly reprehended his conduct, and refused to be partners in so infamous an expedition. Thus, at length, roused from his lethargy, he resolved to prefer the call of ambition to that of love, and to leave Cleopatra, by whom he had a son, who was afterwards named Cæsario, in order to oppose Pharnaces, the king of Bosphorus, who had made some inroads upon the Roman dominions. This prince, who was the son of the great Mithridates, being ambitious of recovering his father's territories, seized upon Armenia and Colchis, and overcame Domitius, who had been sent against him. Upon Cæsar's march to oppose him, Pharnaces, who was as much terrified at the name of the general as at the strength of his army, laboured, by all the arts of negotiation, to avert the impending danger. Cæsar, exasperated at his crimes and ingratitude, at first dissembled with the ambassadors, and, using all expedition, fell upon the enemy unexpectedly, and in a few hours obtained a complete victory. Pharnaces, attempting to take refuge in his capital, was slain by one of his own commanders,—a just punishment for his former parricide. But Cæsar conquered him with so much ease, that in writing to a friend at Rome, he expressed the rapidity of his victory in three words, "*Veni, vidi, vici.*"* A man so accustomed to conquest as Cæsar was, thought a slight battle scarcely worth a longer letter.

* I came, I saw, I conquered.

2. Cæsar having settled affairs in this part of the empire as well as time would permit, embarked for Italy, where he arrived sooner than his enemies could expect ; but not before his affairs there absolutely required his presence. He had been, during his absence, created consul for five years, dictator for one year, and tribune of the people for life. But Antony, who in the mean time governed in Rome for him, had filled the city with riot and debauchery ; and many commotions ensued, which nothing but the arrival of Cæsar so opportunely could appease. However, by his moderation and humanity, he soon restored tranquillity to the city, scarcely making any distinction between those of his own and the opposite party. Having, by gentle means, restored his authority at home, he prepared to march into Africa, where Pompey's party had found time to rally under Scipio and Cato, assisted by Juba, king of Mauritania ; and with his usual expedition landed with a small body in Africa, while the rest of his army followed him. Scipio having soon after hazarded a battle, received a complete and final overthrow, with little or no loss on the side of the victor. Juba, and Petreius his general, killed each other in despair ; while Scipio, attempting to escape by sea into Spain, fell in among the enemy and was slain ; so that of all the generals of Pompey's party, Cato was now the only one that remained.

3. This extraordinary man, whom no prosperity could elate, nor misfortunes depress, having retired into Africa after the battle of Pharsalia, had led the wretched remains of the army that was there defeated through burning deserts, and tracts infested with serpents of various malignity, and was now in the city of Utica, which he had been left to defend. Still, however, in love even with the show of Roman government, he had formed the principal citizens into a senate, and conceived a resolution of holding out the town. But the enthusiasm for liberty subsiding among his followers, he was resolved no longer to force men to be free who seemed naturally prone to slavery. He now, therefore, desired some of his friends to save themselves by sea, and induced others to rely on Cæsar's clemency ; observing that, as to himself, he was at last victorious. After having thus expressed himself, he supped cheerfully among his friends, and retired to his apartment, where he behaved with unusual tenderness to his son and to all his domestics. On retiring to his bedchamber, he laid himself down, and took up Plato's Dialogues on the Immortality of the Soul ; and, having read for some time, happening to cast his eyes to the head of his bed, he was much surprised not to find his sword, which had been taken away by his son's order

while they were at supper. Upon this, calling one of his domestics, to know what was become of his sword, and receiving no answer, he resumed his studies; but some time after called for his sword again. When he had done reading, and perceiving that nobody had yet brought his sword, he called his domestics one after another, and, with a peremptory air, demanded his sword once more. His son came in soon after, and with tears besought him in the most humble manner to change his resolution; but receiving a stern reprimand, he desisted from his persuasions. His sword being at length brought him, he seemed satisfied, and cried out, "Now again I am master of myself!" He then took up the book again, which he read twice over, and fell into a sound sleep. Upon awaking, he called one of his freedmen to know if his friends were embarked, or if any thing yet remained that could be done to serve them. The freedman, assuring him that all was quiet, he was then ordered to leave the room; and Cato was no sooner alone, than he stabbed himself with his sword below the chest; but not with that force which he intended; for, the wound proving ineffectual, he fell upon his bed, and at the same time overturned a table, on which he had been drawing some geometrical figures. At the noise he made in his fall his servants gave a shriek, and his son and friends immediately entered the room. They found him weltering in his blood, and his bowels pushed out through the wound. The physician who attended his family, perceiving that his intestines were yet untouched, was for replacing them; but when Cato had recovered his senses, and under-

B. C. 46. }
Y. R. 708. } stood their intention to preserve his life, he pushed the physician from him, and with a fierce resolution tore out his bowels and expired.

4. Upon the death of Cato, the war in Africa being completed, Cæsar returned in triumph to Rome; and as if he had moderated all his former triumphs only to increase the splendour of this, the citizens were astonished at the magnificence of the procession, and the number of the countries which he had subdued. The triumph lasted four days; the first was for Gaul, the second for Egypt, the third for his victories in Asia, and the fourth for that over Juba in Africa. His veteran soldiers, all scarred with wounds, and now disabled for life, followed their triumphant general, crowned with laurels, and conducted him to the capitol. To every one of these he gave a sum equivalent to about a hundred and fifty pounds of our money, double that sum to the centurions, and four times as much to the superior officers. The citizens also shared his bounty; to every one of whom he distributed ten bushels

of corn, ten pounds of oil, and a sum of money equal to about two pounds sterling of ours. After this display of generosity, he entertained the people at about twenty thousand tables, treated them with the combats of gladiators, and filled Rome with a concourse of spectators from every part of Italy. The people, intoxicated with the allurements of pleasure, thought their freedom too small a return for such benefits ; and seemed eager only to find out new modes of homage, and unusual epithets of adulation for their great enslaver. He was created, by a new title, *Magister Morum*, or Master of the Morals of the People ; he received the title of emperor, and father of his country ; his person was declared sacred ; and, in short, upon him alone were devolved for life all the great dignities of the state. It must be owned, however, that so much power could not have been intrusted to better keeping. Cæsar commenced the administration of his power by repressing vice and encouraging virtue. He committed the courts of judicature to the senators and the knights alone, and by many sumptuary laws restrained the scandalous luxuries of the rich. He proposed rewards to all such as had many children, and took the most prudent methods of repopling the city, which had been exhausted in the late commotions.

B. C. 45. } 5. Having thus restored prosperity once more to
Y. R. 709. } Rome, he again found himself under the necessity of going into Spain to oppose an army which had been raised there under the two sons of Pompey, and Labienus, his former general. He proceeded in this expedition with his usual celerity, and arrived in Spain before the enemy thought him yet departed from Rome. Cneius and Sextus, Pompey's sons, profiting by their unhappy father's example, resolved as much as possible to protract the war ; so that the first operations of the two armies were spent in sieges and fruitless attempts to surprise each other. At length Cæsar, after taking many cities from the enemy, and pursuing the Pompeys with unwearied perseverance, at last compelled them to come to a battle upon the plains of Munda. The two brothers drew up their men by break of day, upon the declivity of a hill, with great exactness and order. Cæsar arranged his army likewise in the plain below ; and, after advancing a little way from his trenches, ordered his men to make a halt, expecting the enemy to descend from the hill. This delay made Cæsar's soldiers begin to murmur, while their enemies, with full vigour, poured down upon them, and a dreadful conflict ensued. The first shock was so dreadful, that Cæsar's men, who had hitherto been used to conquer, now began to waver. Cæsar was never in so much danger as at this moment : he threw him-

self several times into the very throng of the battle: "What!" cried he, "are you going to give up your general, who is grown gray in fighting at your head, to a parcel of boys?" Upon this the tenth legion exerted themselves with more than their former bravery; and a party of horse being detached by Labienus from the camp in pursuit of a body of Numidian cavalry, Cæsar cried aloud that they were flying. This cry instantly spreading itself through both armies, animated the one as much as it depressed the other. The tenth legion now pressed forward, and a total rout soon ensued. Thirty thousand men were killed on the side of the Pompeys, among whom was Labienus, whom Cæsar ordered to be buried with the funeral honours of a general officer. Cneius Pompey escaped with a few horsemen to the seaside; but, finding his passage intercepted by Cæsar's lieutenant, he was obliged to seek for a retreat in an obscure cavern. He was soon discovered by some of Cæsar's troops, who immediately cut off his head, and brought it to the conqueror. His brother Sextus, however, concealed himself so well that he escaped all pursuit, and afterwards became very formidable to his countrymen by his piracies.

6. Cæsar, by this last blow, subdued all his avowed enemies; and the rest of his life was employed for the advantage of the state. He adorned the city with magnificent buildings; he rebuilt Carthage and Corinth, sending colonies to both cities; he undertook to level several mountains in Italy; to drain the Pontine marshes near Rome, and designed to cut through the isthmus of Peloponnesus. Thus, with a mind that could never remain inactive, he pondered mighty objects and designs beyond the limits of the longest life; but the greatest of all was his intended expedition against the Parthians, by which he designed to revenge the death of Crassus, who, having penetrated too far into their country, was overthrown, himself taken prisoner, and put to a cruel death, by having molten gold poured down his throat, as a punishment for his former avarice. Thence Cæsar intended to pass through Hyrcania, and enter Scythia, along the banks of the Caspian sea; then to open himself a way through the immeasurable forests of Germany into Gaul, and so to return to Rome. These were the aims of Cæsar's ambition; but the jealousy of a few individuals put an end to them all.

EXERCISES.

1. In what manner did Cæsar now behave? Who at length roused him from his lethargy? Whom did he march to oppose, and what was the success of his expedition? What became of Pharnaces? How did Cæsar express the rapidity of his victory over that prince.

2. What honours had been conferred on Cæsar, and what commotions had happened in Rome during his absence? How did Cæsar restore tranquillity? Whither did he now march? Who appeared in arms against him, and what was the result of the contest?

3. What efforts did Cato make to support the commonwealth after the battle of Pharsalia? What advice did he give to his followers, and how did he behave to his friends on the night before his death? What were the circumstances of the suicide he committed?

4. What were the particulars of Cæsar's triumphal procession at Rome? How did he reward his soldiers and treat the people? What titles of dignity were conferred upon him? What wise regulations did he establish?

5. What occasioned his march to Spain? What were the first operations of the war in that country? What took place at the battle of Munda? What number was slain on the side of the Pompeys? What became of the two Pompeys?

6. What important works did Cæsar accomplish, and what expeditions did he meditate? What prevented the execution of these great designs?

SECTION III.

B. C. 45. } 1. CÆSAR having been made perpetual dictator, and
Y. R. 709. } received from the senate accumulated honours, it began to be rumoured that he intended to make himself king; and, though in fact he was possessed of the power, the people, who had an utter aversion to the name, could not bear his assuming the title. Whether he really designed to usurp that empty honour must now for ever remain secret; but certain it is, that the unsuspecting openness of his conduct displayed something like a confidence in the innocence of his intentions. When informed by those about him of the jealousies of many persons who envied his power, he was heard to say, that he had rather die once by treason, than live continually in apprehension of it. When advised by some to beware of Brutus, in whom he had for some time reposed the greatest confidence, he opened his breast all scarred with wounds, saying, "Can you think that Brutus cares for such poor pillage as this?"—And being one night at supper, as his friends disputed among themselves what death was easiest, he replied, that which was most sudden and least foreseen. To convince the world how little he had to apprehend from his enemies, he disbanded his company of Spanish guards, which facilitated the enterprise against his life. A deep conspiracy was therefore laid against him, composed of no less than sixty senators. They were still more formidable, as the generality of them were of his own party, and, having been raised above other citizens, felt more strongly the weight of a single superior. At the head of this conspiracy was Brutus, whose life Cæsar had spared after the battle of Pharsalia, and Cassius, who was pardoned soon after; both prætors for the present year. Brutus made it his chief glory to be descended from that Brutus who first gave liberty

to Rome. The passion for freedom seemed to have been transmitted, with the blood of his ancestors, down to himself. But though he detested tyranny, yet he could not forbear loving the tyrant, from whom he had received the most signal benefits.

2. The conspirators, to give a colour of justice to their proceedings, postponed the execution of their design to the ides of March, the day on which Cæsar was to be offered the crown. The augurs had foretold that this day would be fatal to him ; and the night preceding he heard his wife Calpurnia lamenting in her sleep, who, on being awakened, confessed to him, that she dreamed of his being assassinated in her arms. These omens began, in some measure, to change his intention of going to the senate, as he had resolved, that day ; but one of the conspirators prevailed upon him to keep his resolution, representing to him the reproach that would attend his staying at home till his wife had lucky dreams, and the preparations that were made for his reception. As he proceeded to the senate, a slave, who hastened to him with information of the conspiracy, attempted to come near him, but could not for the crowd. Artemidorus, a Greek philosopher, who had discovered the whole plot, delivered to him a memorial containing the particulars of it ; but Cæsar gave it, with other papers, to one of his secretaries without reading, as was usual in things of this nature. Having at length entered the senate-house, where the conspirators were prepared to receive him, he met one Spurina, an augur, who had foretold his danger, to whom he said smiling, " Well, Spurina, the ides of March are come." " Yes," replied the augur, " but they are not yet over." As soon as he had taken his place, the conspirators came near, under pretence of saluting him ; and Cimber, who was one of them, approached in a suppliant posture, pretending to sue for the pardon of his brother, who had been banished by his order. All the conspirators seconded him with great eagerness ; and Cimber, seeming to plead with greater submission, took hold of the bottom of his robe, holding him so as to prevent his rising. This was the signal agreed on by the conspirators. Casca, who was behind, stabbed him, though slightly, in the shoulder. Cæsar instantly turned round, and, with his *stylus*, the instrument used in writing, wounded him in the arm. However, all the conspirators were now alarmed, and enclosing him round, he received another stab from an unknown hand in the breast, while Cassius wounded him in the face. He still defended himself with great vigour, rushing through among them, and throwing down such as opposed him, till he saw among the conspirators Brutus also, who, on

coming up, struck his dagger into his thigh. From that moment Cæsar thought no more of defending himself; but, looking upon this conspirator, cried out, "And you, my son." Then covering his head, and spreading his robe before him, in order to fall with greater decency, he sunk down at the base of Pompey's statue, after receiving three and twenty wounds, from hands which he vainly supposed he had disarmed by his benefits.

3. Cæsar was killed in the fifty-sixth year of his age, and about fourteen years after he began the conquest of the world. If we examine his history, we shall be equally at a loss whether to admire most his great abilities or his wonderful fortune. To pretend to say that, from the beginning, he planned the subjugation of his native country, is doing no great credit to his penetration, as a thousand obstacles lay in his way, which fortune, rather than good conduct, was able to surmount. No man, therefore, of his sagacity, would have begun a scheme in which the chances of succeeding were so many against him; and it is most probable, that, like all very successful men, he only made the best of every occurrence; and that, as his ambition rose with his fortune, from being at first contented with humbler aims, he at length began to think of governing the world, when he found scarcely any obstacle to oppose his designs. Such is the disposition of man, whose longings after power are always most insatiable when he enjoys the greatest share of it. As soon as the conspirators had despatched Cæsar, they all retired to the capitol, and guarded its accesses by a body of gladiators whom Brutus had in pay.

4. The friends of the late dictator now began to find that this was the time for acquiring greater power than they had enjoyed before, and gratifying their ambition under the veil of promoting justice. Of this number was Antony, whom we have already seen acting as lieutenant to Cæsar, and governing Rome during his absence. He was a man of moderate abilities and excessive vices; ambitious of power, only because it gave his pleasures a wider range to riot in; but skilled in war, to which he had been trained from his youth. He was consul for this year, and resolved, with Lepidus, who, like himself, was fond of commotions, to seize the opportunity of gaining that power which Cæsar had suffered death for usurping. Lepidus, therefore, took possession of the forum, with a band of soldiers at his devotion; and Antony, being consul, was permitted to command them. The first step was to possess themselves of all Cæsar's papers and money, and the next, to convene the senate. Never had this august assembly been convened on so delicate an occasion;—as it was to determine

whether Cæsar had been a legal magistrate or a tyrannical usurper; and whether those who killed him merited rewards or punishments. Many of these had received all their promotions from Cæsar, and had acquired large fortunes in consequence of his appointment: To declare him a usurper, therefore, would be to endanger their property; and yet to vote him innocent might endanger the state. In this dilemma, they seemed willing to reconcile extremes; wherefore they approved of all the acts of Cæsar, and yet granted a general pardon to all the conspirators.

5. This decree was very far from giving Antony satisfaction, as it granted security to a number of men who were the avowed enemies of tyranny, and who would be foremost in opposing his schemes of restoring absolute power. As, therefore, the senate had ratified all the acts of Cæsar without distinction, Antony formed a scheme of making him rule when dead as imperiously as he had done when living. Being, as was said, possessed of Cæsar's books of accounts, he so far gained upon his secretary as to make him insert whatever he thought proper. By these means, great sums of money, which Cæsar would never have bestowed, were then said to be put down in order to be distributed among the people; and every man who had any seditious designs against the government, was there sure of finding a gratuity. Things being in this situation, Antony demanded of the senate that Cæsar's funeral obsequies should be performed, which they could not decently forbid, as they had never declared him a tyrant. Accordingly, the body was brought forth into the forum with the utmost solemnity; and Antony, who charged himself with the last duties of friendship, began to inflame the passions of the people by the prevailing motives of private interest. He first read to them Cæsar's will, in which he had left Octavius, his sister's grandson, his heir, permitting him to take the name of Cæsar, and three parts of his private fortune; while Brutus was to inherit it in case of his death. The Roman people were left the gardens which Cæsar had on the other side of the Tiber; and every Roman citizen in particular was to receive three hundred sesterces. Antony having read thus far, unfolded Cæsar's bloody robe in sight of the multitude, taking care that they should observe the number of stabs in it; and then displayed an image, which to them appeared the body of Cæsar, all covered with wounds. They could no longer contain their indignation, but unanimously cried out for revenge, and ran with flaming brands from the pile to set fire to the houses of the conspirators. In this fury of resentment, meeting with one Cinna, whom they mistook for another of the same name

who was in the conspiracy, they tore him in pieces. The conspirators themselves, however, being well guarded, repulsed the multitude with no great trouble ; but, perceiving the rage of the people, they thought it safest to retire from the city.

6. In the mean time Antony, who had excited this flame, resolved to make the best of the occasion. But an obstacle to his ambition seemed to arise from a quarter where he least expected it, namely, from Octavius Cæsar, afterwards called Augustus, who was the grand-nephew and adopted son of Cæsar. A third competitor also for power appeared in Lepidus, a man of some authority and great riches in Rome. At first, the ambition of these three seemed to threaten fatal consequences to each other ; but, uniting soon after in the common cause, they resolved to revenge the death of Cæsar, and dividing all power among themselves, formed what was called the Second Triumvirate. The meeting of these three usurpers of their country's freedom was near Mutina, upon a little island of the river Rhenus. Their mutual suspicions were the cause of their meeting in a place where they had no reason to fear any treachery ; for even in their union they could not divest themselves of mutual diffidence. Lepidus first entered, and, finding all things safe, made the signal for the other two to approach. They embraced each other upon their first meeting ; and Augustus began the conference by thanking Antony for his zeal in putting Decimus Brutus to death, who, being abandoned by his army, was taken in making his escape to Macedonia, and beheaded by Antony's command. They then entered upon the business that lay before them, without any retrospect of the past. Their conference lasted for three days ; and in this period they fixed the divisions of the empire, and determined upon the fate of thousands of their countrymen. The result of their conference was, that the supreme authority should be lodged in their hands, under the title of the Triumvirate, for the space of five years ; that Antony should have Gaul, Lepidus Spain, and Augustus Africa and the Mediterranean islands. As for Italy and the eastern provinces, they were to remain in common, until their opponents at Rome were entirely subdued. Among other articles of union, it was also agreed, that all their enemies should be destroyed, of whom each presented a list. In these were comprised not only the enemies, but the friends of the Triumvirate, since the partisans of the one were often found among the opposers of the other. Thus, Lepidus gave up his brother Paulus to the vengeance of his colleague ; Antony permitted the proscription of his uncle Lucius ; and Augustus delivered up the great Cicero, who was assassinated shortly after by Antony's command.

EXERCISES.

1. What rumours arose at this time respecting Cæsar's intentions? What replies did he make when warned to beware of traitors? What facilitated the designs formed against his life? What was the number of the conspirators against him, and who was their leader?

2. What day was fixed for the execution of their purpose? Why was Cæsar prevailed upon to go to the senate? Who attempted to discover the plot to him on his way thither? Who laid hold of his robe when he had taken his seat, and who stabbed him in the back and face? What defence did he make, and what did he say and do on being wounded by Brutus? How many wounds did he receive?

3. At what period of his life was Cæsar killed? What were the probable motives of Cæsar's conduct? Whither did the conspirators retire after his assassination?

4. What advantage did Antony and Lepidus resolve to make of this event? What was the character of Antony? For what purpose was the senate convened, and what decree did they pass?

5. What scheme did Antony form upon this decree? How did he gratify the people, and instigate them against the conspirators? What was the consequence of reading Cæsar's will, and exhibiting his dead body to them?

6. Who appeared as the competitors of Antony for the sovereign power? What combination did they form, and what division of the empire did they make?

SECTION IV.

1. IN the mean time, Brutus and Cassius, the principal conspirators against Cæsar, being compelled to quit Rome, went into Greece, where they persuaded the Roman students at Athens to declare in the cause of freedom. Departing thence, the former raised a powerful army in Macedonia and the adjacent countries; while the latter went into Syria, where he soon became master of twelve legions, and reduced his opponent Dollabella to such straits that he killed himself. Both armies soon after joining at Smyrna, the sight of such a formidable force began to revive the declining spirits of the party, and to reunite the two generals more closely, between whom there had been, some time before, a slight misunderstanding. In short, having quitted Italy like distressed exiles, without having one single soldier, or one town that owed their command, they now found themselves at the head of a flourishing army, furnished with all the necessaries for carrying on a war, and in a condition to support a contest, on the issue of which the empire of the world depended. This success in raising levies was entirely owing to the justice, moderation, and humanity of Brutus, who, in every instance, seemed studious to forego his own interest for the happiness of his country.

2. It was in this flourishing state of their affairs that the conspirators had formed a resolution of marching against Cleopatra, who had made great preparations to assist their opponents. However, they were diverted from this purpose, by

information that Augustus and Antony were now upon their march with forty legions to oppose them. Brutus, therefore, proposed that their army should pass over into Greece and Macedonia, and there meet the enemy; but Cassius so far prevailed as to have the Rhodians and Lycians first reduced, because they had refused to furnish the usual supplies. This expedition was immediately undertaken, and extraordinary contributions were raised by that means, the Rhodians having scarcely any thing left them but their lives. The Lycians suffered still more severely; for, having shut themselves up in the city of Xanthus, they defended the place against Brutus with such perseverance, that neither his arts nor his entreaties could induce them to surrender. At length, the town being set on fire in attempting to burn the works of the Romans, Brutus, instead of laying hold of this opportunity to storm the place, made every effort to preserve it, and entreated his soldiers to try all means of extinguishing the fire; but the desperate phrensy of the citizens was not to be mollified. Far from thinking themselves obliged to their generous enemy for the efforts which were made to save them, they resolved to perish in the flames. Wherefore, instead of extinguishing the fire, they did all in their power to augment it, by throwing in wood, dry reeds, and all kinds of fuel. Nothing could exceed the distress of Brutus upon seeing the townsmen thus resolutely bent on destroying themselves:—he rode about the fortifications, stretching out his hands to the Xanthians, and conjuring them to have pity on themselves and their city; but, insensible to his expostulations, they rushed into the flames with desperate obstinacy, and the whole soon became a heap of irretrievable ruin. At this horrible spectacle, Brutus melted into tears, offering a reward to every soldier who would bring him a Lycian alive. The number of those whom it was possible to save from their own fury amounted to no more than one hundred and fifty!

3. Brutus and Cassius met once more at Sardis, where, after the usual ceremonies were passed between them, they resolved to have a private conference together. They shut themselves up, therefore, in the first convenient house, with express orders to their servants to give no admission. Brutus began by reprimanding Cassius for having disposed of offices which should ever be the reward of merit, and for having overtaxed the tributary states. Cassius retorted the imputation of avarice with the more bitterness, as he knew the charge to be utterly groundless. The debate grew warm, till, from loud speaking, they burst into tears. Their friends, who were standing at the door, overheard the increasing vehemence of their

voices, and began to dread the consequences, till Favonius, who valued himself upon a cynical boldness, that knew no restraint, entering the room, with a jest calmed their mutual animosity. Cassius was ready enough to forego his anger, being a man of great abilities, though of a rash and violent disposition, not averse to pleasure in private company, and in his public professions not uniformly sincere. But the conduct of Brutus was always perfectly steady. An even gentleness of temper, a noble elevation of sentiment, a strength of mind over which neither vice nor pleasure could have any influence, and an inflexible firmness in the defence of justice, composed the character of that great man. After their conference, night coming on, Cassius invited Brutus and his friends to an entertainment, where freedom and cheerfulness for a while took place of political anxiety, and softened even the severity of wisdom.

4. Upon retiring home, Brutus, as Plutarch tells the story, saw a spectre in his tent; though the appearance may perhaps be accounted for on natural principles. He naturally slept but little, and had increased this state of watchfulness by habit and great sobriety. He never allowed himself to sleep in the daytime, as was then customary among the Romans, and only spent so much of the night in repose as was necessary to renew the animal functions. But especially now, when oppressed with such various cares, he only gave a short time after his nightly repast to rest; and waking about midnight, generally read or studied till morning. It was in the dead of night, when the whole camp was perfectly quiet, that Brutus was thus employed in reading by a lamp that was just expiring. On a sudden he thought he heard a noise as if somebody entered, and looking towards the door, he perceived it open. A gigantic figure, with a frightful aspect, stood before him, and continued to gaze upon him with silent severity. At last Brutus had courage to speak to it:—"Art thou a demon or a mortal man? and why comest thou to me?"—"Brutus," replied the phantom, "I am thy evil genius; thou shalt see me again at Philippi."—"Well then," answered Brutus, without being discomposed, "we shall meet again." Upon which the phantom vanished, and Brutus, calling his servants, asked if they had seen any thing; but, as they replied in the negative, he again resumed his studies. Being much alarmed at so strange an occurrence, he mentioned it next day to Cassius, who, being an Epicurean, ascribed it to the effects of an imagination too much excited by vigilance and anxiety. Brutus appeared satisfied with this solution of his late terrors; and, as Antony and Augustus were now advanced into Macedonia, he and his colleague passed over into Thrace, and drew

near to the city of Philippi, where the forces of the Triumviri were posted to receive them.

5. Mankind now began to regard the approaching armies with terror and suspense. The empire of the world depended upon the fate of a battle; as, from victory on one side, they had to expect freedom, but from the triumph of the other, a sovereign with absolute command. Brutus was the only man who looked upon these great events before him with calmness and tranquillity. Indifferent as to the success of the struggle, and satisfied with having endeavoured to do his duty, he said to one of his friends, "If I gain the victory, I shall restore liberty to my country; if I lose it by dying, I shall be delivered from slavery myself; my condition is fixed, and I run no hazard." The republican army consisted of fourscore thousand foot, and twenty thousand horse. The army of the Triumviri amounted to a hundred thousand foot, and thirteen thousand horse. Thus complete on both sides, they met and encamped near each other upon the plains of Philippi, a city upon the confines of Thrace. This city was situated upon a mountain, towards the west of which a plain stretched itself, by a gentle declivity, for almost fifteen leagues to the banks of the river Strymon. In this plain, about two miles from the town, were two little hills, at about a mile distant from each other, defended on one side by mountains, and on the other by a marsh, which communicated with the sea. It was upon these two hills that Brutus and Cassius fixed their camps; Brutus on the hill towards the north, Cassius on that towards the south; and in the intermediate space which separated them, they cast up lines and a parapet from the one hill to the other. Thus they kept an open communication between the two camps, which mutually defended each other.

6. In this commodious situation they could act as they thought proper, and give battle only when it should be deemed advantageous to engage. Behind them was the sea, which furnished them with all kinds of provisions; and at twelve miles' distance the isle of Thasos, which served them for a general magazine. The Triumviri, on the other hand, were encamped on the plain below, and obliged to bring their provisions from fifteen leagues' distance; so that their interest was to bring on a battle as soon as possible. This they offered several times, drawing out their men from their camp, and provoking the enemy to come to an engagement. On the contrary, Brutus and Cassius contented themselves with drawing up their troops at the head of their camps, but without descending into the plain. It was evidently the interest of the republican leaders not to compromise their present favourable

position by hazarding a general engagement; and Cassius, who was aware of the advantage of it, resolved to harass the enemy rather than engage them. But Brutus began to suspect the fidelity of some of his officers, so that he used all his influence to persuade Cassius to change his resolution; "I am impatient," said he, "to put an end to the miseries of mankind, and in that I have hopes of succeeding, whether I fall or conquer." His wishes were soon gratified; for Antony's soldiers having, with great labour, made a road through the marsh which lay to the left of Cassius's camp, by that means opened up a communication with the island of Thasos, which lay behind him. Both armies, in attempting to possess themselves of this road, resolved at last to come to a general engagement. This, however, was contrary to the advice of Cassius, who declared that he was forced, as Pompey had been, to expose the liberty of Rome to the hazard of a battle.

B. C. 42. } 7. The ensuing morning the two generals gave the
Y. R. 712. } signal for engaging, and conferred together a little while before the battle began. Cassius desired to know how Brutus intended to act if they were unsuccessful; to which the other replied, "That he had formerly, in his writings, condemned the death of Cato, and maintained, that to avoid calamities by suicide, was an insolent attempt against Heaven that sent them; but he had now altered his opinion, and, having given up his life to his country, he thought he had a right to his own way of ending it;—wherefore he was resolved to exchange a miserable being here for a better hereafter, if fortune turned against him."—"Well said, my friend!" cried Cassius, embracing him, "now we may venture to face the enemy; for either we shall be conquerors ourselves, or we shall have no cause to fear those that are so."—Augustus being sick, the forces of the Triumviri were commanded by Antony, who began the battle by a vigorous attack upon the lines of Cassius. Brutus, on the other side, made a dreadful onset upon the army of Augustus, and drove forward with so much intrepidity, that he broke them upon the very first charge. Upon this he penetrated as far as the camp; and cutting in pieces those who were left for its defence, his troops immediately began to plunder; but in the mean time the lines of Cassius were forced, and his cavalry put to flight. There was no effort that this unfortunate general did not use to make his infantry stand, as he stopped those that fled, and seized himself the colours to rally them. But his own valour alone was not sufficient to inspire his timorous army;—wherefore, despairing of success, he caused himself to be slain by one of his own freedmen. Brutus was soon informed of the defeat of Cassius, and also of his

death, as he drew near the camp. He seemed scarcely able to restrain the excess of his grief for a man whom he called the last of the Romans.

8. But his first care, when he became the sole general, was to assemble the dispersed troops of Cassius, and animate them with fresh hopes of victory. As they had lost all they possessed by the plundering of their camp, he promised two thousand denarii to each man to make up their losses. This once more inspired them with new ardour; they admired the liberality of their general, and, with loud shouts, proclaimed his former intrepidity. Still, however, he had not confidence sufficient to face the enemy, who offered him battle the ensuing day. His aim was to starve his enemies, who were in extreme want of provisions, their fleet having been lately defeated. But his single opinion was overruled by the rest of his army, who grew every day more confident of their strength, and more arrogant to their new general. He was therefore at last, after a respite of twenty days, obliged to comply with their solicitations to try the fate of another battle. Both armies being drawn out, remained a long time opposite to each other, without offering to engage. But it is said that Brutus himself had lost much of his natural ardour by the reappearance on the night preceding of the spectre which he had seen in Asia: however, he encouraged his men as much as possible, and gave the signal for beginning the engagement. He had, as usual, the advantage where he commanded in person, bearing down the enemy at the head of his infantry, and, supported by his cavalry, making a very great slaughter. But the troops which belonged to Cassius communicated their terror to the rest of the forces; so that at last the whole army gave way. Brutus, surrounded by the most valiant of his officers, fought for a long time with amazing valour. The son of Cato fell fighting by his side, as also the brother of Cassius; so that he was obliged to yield to necessity, and fled from the field. In the mean time, the Triumviri, now assured of victory, gave express orders not to suffer the general to escape, lest he should renew the war. Thus the whole body of the enemy seemed chiefly intent on Brutus alone, and his capture now appeared inevitable.

9. In this deplorable exigence, Lucilius, his friend, was resolved, by his own death, to effect his general's deliverance. Upon perceiving a body of Thracian horse closely pursuing Brutus, and just upon the point of taking him, he boldly threw himself in their way, telling them that he was Brutus. The Thracians, overjoyed with so great a prize, immediately despatched some of their companions with the news of their

success to the army. The ardour of the pursuit now abating, Antony marched out to meet his prisoner, and hasten his death or insult his misfortunes. He was followed by a great number of officers and soldiers; some silently deploring the fate of so virtuous a man, others reproaching that mean desire of life for which he consented to undergo captivity. Antony now seeing the Thracians approach, began to prepare himself for the interview; but the faithful Lucilius, advancing with a cheerful air, "It is not Brutus," said he, "that is taken; fortune has not yet had the power of committing so great an outrage upon virtue. As for my life, it is well sacrificed in preserving his honour; take it, for I have deceived you." Antony, struck with so much fidelity, pardoned him upon the spot; and from that time forward loaded him with benefits, and honoured him with his friendship.

10. In the mean time, Brutus, with a small number of friends, passed over a rivulet, and, when night came on, sat down under a rock, which concealed him from the pursuit of the enemy. After taking breath for a little time, and casting his eyes up to heaven, he repeated a line from Euripides, containing a wish to the gods, "That guilt should not pass in this life without punishment."—To this he added another from the same poet, "O virtue! thou empty name, I have worshipped thee as a real good, but thou art only the slave of fortune." He then called to mind, with great tenderness, those whom he had seen perish in the battle, and sent out one Statilius to give him some information of those that remained; but he never returned, being killed by a party of the enemy's horse. Brutus, judging rightly of his fate, now resolved to die likewise, and spoke to those who stood round him to lend him their last sad assistance. None of them, however, would render him so melancholy a service. He therefore called to one of his slaves to perform what he so ardently desired; but Strato, his tutor, offered himself, crying out, "that it should never be said that Brutus, in his last extremity, stood in need of a slave for want of a friend." Thus saying, and averting his head, he presented the sword's point to Brutus, who threw himself upon it, and immediately expired.

EXERCISES.

1. To what place did Brutus and Cassius, the chief conspirators, retire? What armies did they raise, and how was their success chiefly promoted?
2. Whom did they intend to attack, and who marched against them? Whither did they lead their forces, and whom did they reduce? Of what desperate obstinacy were the Lycians guilty?
3. What recriminations passed betwixt Brutus and Cassius when they met at Sardis? How was their mutual animosity appeased? What were the characters of Cassius and Brutus?

4. What story is related of a spectre having been seen by Brutus? How was the appearance accounted for by Cassius? Whither did these two generals lead their army?

5. In what manner did Brutus address his friends on the eve of a battle? What was the number of the respective armies, and where did they encamp?

6. Whence did each of the armies receive provisions? Why did Cassius postpone an engagement, and why did Brutus urge him to change his purpose? What circumstances led to a battle?

7. What conversation took place betwixt Brutus and Cassius before engaging? Who began the battle, and what success at first attended Brutus? What defeat did Cassius sustain? How did he behave, and what became of him?

8. How did Brutus inspire his troops with renewed ardour? What took place in a second engagement? Why was Brutus obliged to flee?

9. What generous act did Lucilius perform to save Brutus? How was he treated by Antony?

10. What sentiments did Brutus express in his desperate condition? What was the melancholy fate of Brutus?

SECTION V.

B. C. 42. }
 Y. R. 712. } 1. FROM the moment of Brutus's death the Triumviri began to act as sovereigns, and to divide the Roman dominions amongst them, as their own by right of conquest. However, though there were apparently three who participated in all the power, yet in fact only two were actually possessed of it; since Lepidus was at first admitted merely to curb the mutual jealousy of Antony and Augustus, although he neither had any interest in the army, nor authority among the people. Their first care was to punish those whom they had formerly marked for vengeance. Hortensius, Drusus, and Quinctilius Varus, all men of the first rank in the commonwealth, either killed themselves or were slain. A senator and his son were ordered to cast lots for their lives, but both refused it; the father voluntarily gave himself up to the executioner, and the son stabbed himself before his face. Another begged to have the rites of burial after his death, to which Augustus replied, "That he should find a grave in the vultures that devoured him." But the people chiefly lamented to see the head of Brutus sent to Rome, to be thrown at the foot of Cæsar's statue. His ashes were sent to his wife Portia, Cato's daughter, who, following the example of her husband and father, killed herself by swallowing burning coals. It is observed by historians, that, of all those who had a hand in the assassination of Cæsar, not one died a natural death.

2. The power of the Triumviri being thus established upon the ruin of the commonwealth, they now began to think of enjoying that homage to which they had aspired. Antony

went into Greece to receive the flattery of that refined people, and spent some time at Athens, conversing among the philosophers, and assisting at their disputes in person. Thence he passed over into Asia, where all the monarchs of the East, who acknowledged the Roman power, came to offer him their submission; while the fairest princesses strove to gain his favour, by the greatness of their presents or the allurements of their beauty. In this manner he proceeded from kingdom to kingdom, attended by a crowd of sovereigns, distributing favours, and giving away crowns with capricious prodigality. He presented the kingdom of Cappadocia to Sisenes, in prejudice of Ariarathes, only because he found pleasure in the beauty of Glaphyra, the mother of the former. He settled Herod in the kingdom of Judea, and supported him in it against every opposer. But among all the sovereigns of the East who received his favours, none had so large a share as Cleopatra, the celebrated queen of Egypt. It happened that Serapion, her governor in the island of Cyprus, had formerly furnished some succours to the conspirators; and it was thought proper that she should answer for his conduct on that occasion. Accordingly, having received orders from Antony to come and clear herself of this imputation of infidelity, she readily complied, equally conscious of the goodness of her cause and the power of her beauty. She was now in her twenty-seventh year, and consequently had improved those allurements by art, which, at an earlier age, is seldom attended to. Her address and wit were still farther heightened than before; and though there were some women in Rome that were her equals in beauty, yet none could rival her in the charms of seducing conversation.

3. Antony was now at Tarsus, a city of Cilicia, where Cleopatra resolved to attend his court in person. She sailed to meet him down the river Cydnus, on which the city stood, with the most sumptuous pageantry. Her galley was covered with gold; the sails were of purple, large, and floating in the wind. The oars, which were made of silver, kept time to the sound of flutes and cymbals. She herself lay reclined on a couch, spangled with stars of gold, and with such ornaments as poets and painters had usually ascribed to Venus. On each side were boys like Cupids, who fanned her by turns; while the most beautiful nymphs, dressed like Nereids and Graces, were placed at proper distances around her. Upon the banks of the river were kept burning the most exquisite perfumes; while an infinite number of people gazed upon the sight with a mixture of delight and admiration. Antony was captivated with her beauty, and, leaving all his business to

gratify his passion, shortly after followed her to Egypt. There he continued, in all that ease and softness to which his vicious heart was prone, and which the luxurious people of that country were able to supply.

4. While he remained thus idle in Egypt, Augustus, who undertook to lead back the veteran troops, and settle them in Italy, was assiduously employed in providing for their subsistence. He had promised them lands at home, as a recompense for their past services; but they could not receive their new grants without turning out the former inhabitants. In consequence of this, multitudes of women, with children in their arms, whose years and innocence excited universal compassion, daily filled the temples and the streets with their distresses.—Numbers of husbandmen and shepherds came to deprecate the conqueror's intention, or to obtain a habitation in some other part of the world. Among this number was Virgil, the poet, to whom mankind owe more obligations than to a thousand conquerors, who, in a humble manner, begged permission to retain his patrimonial farm. Virgil obtained his request; but the rest of his countrymen of Mantua and Cremona were turned out without mercy. Italy and Rome now felt the most extreme miseries; as the insolent soldiers plundered at will, while Sextus Pompey, being master of the sea, cut off all foreign communication, and prevented the people from receiving their usual supplies of corn.

5. To these mischiefs was added the commencement of another civil war. Fulvia, the wife of Antony, who had been left behind him at Rome, had felt for some time all the rage of jealousy, and resolved to try every method of bringing back her husband from the arms of Cleopatra. She considered a breach with Augustus as the only probable means of rousing him from his lethargy; and accordingly, with the assistance of Lucius, her brother-in-law, who was then consul, and entirely devoted to her interest, she began to sow the seeds of dissension. The pretext was, that Antony should have a share in the distribution of lands as well as Augustus. This produced negotiations between them, and Augustus offered to make the veterans themselves umpires in the dispute. Lucius refused to acquiesce; and being at the head of more than six legions, mostly composed of such as were dispossessed, he resolved to compel Augustus to accept of whatever terms he should offer. Thus a new war was excited between Augustus

B. C. 40. }
 Y. R. 714. } and Antony; or at least the generals of the latter assumed the sanction of his name. Augustus, however, was victorious; Lucius was hemmed in between two armies, and constrained to retreat to Perusia, a city of Etruria,

where he was closely besieged by the opposite party. He made many desperate sallies, and Fulvia did all in her power to relieve him, but without success. He was at last, therefore, reduced to such extremity by famine, that he came out in person, and delivered himself up to the mercy of the conqueror. Augustus received him very honourably, and generously pardoned him and all his followers.

6. Antony having heard of his brother's overthrow, and the necessity under which his wife was of leaving Italy, resolved to oppose Augustus without delay. He accordingly sailed, at the head of a considerable fleet, from Alexandria to Tyre, and thence to Cyprus and Rhodes, and had an interview with Fulvia, his wife, at Athens. He blamed her much for occasioning the late disorders, testified the utmost contempt for her person, and leaving her upon her deathbed at Sicyon, hastened into Italy to fight Augustus. They both met at Brundisium; and it was now thought that the flames of civil war were going to blaze out once more. The forces of Antony were numerous, but most of them newly raised; although he was assisted by Sextus Pompey, who, in the oppositions of interest, was daily coming into power. Augustus was at the head of those veterans who had been always irresistible, but who seemed no way disposed to fight against Antony, their former general. A negotiation was therefore proposed, and, by the activity of Cocceius, a friend to both, a reconciliation was effected, all offences and affronts were mutually forgiven; and, to cement the union, a marriage was concluded between Antony and Octavia, the sister of Augustus. A new division of the Roman empire was made between them; Augustus was to have the command of the West, Antony of the East, while Lepidus was obliged to content himself with the provinces in Africa. As for Sextus Pompey, he was permitted to retain all the islands he had already possessed, together with Peloponnesus; he was also granted the privilege of demanding the consulship in his absence, and of discharging that office by any of his friends. It was likewise stipulated to leave the sea open,
B. C. 39. } and pay the people what corn was due to them out
 Y. R. 715. } of Sicily. Thus a general peace was concluded, to the great satisfaction of the people, who now expected a cessation from all their calamities.

7. This calm seemed to continue for some time; Antony led his forces against the Parthians, over whom his lieutenant Ventidius had gained some advantages. Augustus drew the greatest part of his army into Gaul, where there were some disturbances; and Pompey went to secure his newly-ceded province to his interest. It was in this quarter that fresh mo-

tives arose for renewing the war. Antony, who was obliged by treaty to quit Peloponnesus, refused to evacuate it till Pompey had satisfied him for such debts as were due to him from the inhabitants. This demand, however, Pompey would by no means comply with, but immediately fitted out a new fleet, and renewed his former enterprises, by cutting off such corn and provisions as were consigned to Italy. Thus the grievances of the poor were again renewed, and the people began to complain that, instead of three tyrants, they were now oppressed by four.

8. In this exigence, Augustus, who had long meditated the best means of diminishing the number of his associates in the empire, resolved to begin by getting rid of Pompey, who kept the state in continual alarms. He was master of two fleets; one of which he caused to be built at Ravenna, and another which Menodorus, who revolted from Pompey, brought to his aid. His first attempt was to invade Sicily; but, being overpowered in his passage by Pompey, and his fleet afterwards shattered in a storm, he was obliged to defer his design to the ensuing year. During this interval, he was re-enforced by a fleet of one hundred and twenty ships, given him by Antony, with which he resolved once more to invade Sicily on three several quarters. But fortune seemed still determined to oppose him. His fleet was a second time disabled and shattered by a storm, which so raised the vanity of Pompey, that he began to style himself the son of Neptune. However, Augustus was not to be intimidated by any disgrace; for having shortly after refitted his navy, and recruited his forces, he gave the command of both to Agrippa, his faithful friend and associate B. C. 36. }
Y. R. 718. } in war. Agrippa proved himself worthy of the trust reposed in him; he began his operations by a victory over Pompey; and, though he was shortly after worsted himself, soon after gave his adversary a complete and final overthrow. Pompey, being thus undone, resolved to flee to Antony, from whom he expected refuge, as he had formerly obliged that triumvir, by giving protection to his mother. However, a gleam of hope appearing, he tried once more, at the head of a small body of men, to make himself independent; and even surprised Antony's lieutenants, who had been sent to accept of his submission. But he was at last abandoned by his soldiers, and delivered up to Titus, Antony's lieutenant, who shortly after caused him to be slain.

EXERCISES.

1. How did the Triumviri act after the death of Brutus? Who fell victims to their vengeance? How did the wife of Brutus kill herself?
2. Whither did Antony go, and what homage did he receive? On whom

did he bestow several oriental kingdoms? Why was Cleopatra enjoined to wait upon him, and why was she confident of success?

3. What splendid equipage did she exhibit in sailing down the river Cydnus? What effect did her beauty produce on Antony, and whither did he retire with her?

4. How was Augustus employed at this time? What miseries did the inhabitants of Italy and Rome now endure? By whom were they plundered, and prevented from receiving supplies of grain?

5. From what motive and under what pretext did Antony's wife create dissension betwixt her husband and Augustus? What means did Lucius, Antony's brother, employ for this purpose? To what extremity was Lucius reduced, and how did Augustus treat him?

6. How did Antony act on learning these commotions? By what means was a reconciliation effected betwixt him and Augustus? What new division of the empire was now made?

7. Whither did each of the generals retire with their forces? What quarrel ensued betwixt Antony and Pompey, and how did the latter distress the Roman people?

8. What means did Augustus employ to subdue Pompey, and what disasters did the former experience? Who defeated and ruined Pompey? What new exertions did he make to recover his power, and what became of him?

SECTION VI.

1. THE death of Pompey removed one very great obstacle to the ambition of Augustus; and he resolved to take the earliest opportunity to get rid of the rest of his associates. An offence soon after this was furnished by Lepidus, which served as a sufficient pretext to Augustus for depriving him of his share in the triumvirate. Being at the head of twenty-two legions, with a strong body of cavalry, he idly supposed that his present power was more than an equivalent to the popularity of Augustus. He therefore resolved upon adding Sicily, where he then was, to his province, pretending a right to that island, as having first invaded it. Augustus sent to expostulate with him upon these proceedings; but Lepidus firmly replied, "That he was determined to have his share in the administration, and would no longer submit to let one alone possess all the authority." Augustus was previously informed of the disposition of Lepidus's soldiers; for he had, by his secret intrigues and largesses, entirely attached them to himself.—Wherefore, without farther delay, he boldly went alone to the camp of Lepidus, and, with no other assistance than his private bounties, and the authority he had gained by his former victories, deposed his rival. Lepidus was deprived of all his
 B. C. 34. } former authority, and banished to Circeii, where
 Y. R. 720. } he continued during the rest of his life, despised by his friends, and to all a melancholy object of blasted ambition.

2. There remained now but one obstacle to the ambition of

Augustus, and that was Antony, whom he resolved to remove; for which purpose, he began to render his character as contemptible as he possibly could at Rome. In fact, Antony's conduct did not a little contribute to promote the designs of his ambitious partner. He had marched against the Parthians with a prodigious army; but was forced to return with the loss of a great part of his forces, and all his baggage. Antony, however, seemed quite regardless of contempt; alive only to pleasure, and totally negligent of the business of the state, he spent whole days and nights in the company of Cleopatra, who studied every art to increase his passion and vary his entertainments. Few women have been so much celebrated for the art of giving novelty to pleasure, and making trifles important: always ingenious in filling up the languid pauses of sensual delight with some new strokes of refinement, she was at one time a queen, at another a bacchanal, and sometimes a huntress. She established a society called the Inimitable; in which those of the court who made the most sumptuous entertainments carried off the prize. Not contented with sharing in her company all the delights which Egypt could afford, Antony was resolved to enlarge his sphere of luxury, by granting her many of those kingdoms which belonged to the Roman empire. He gave her all Phœnicia, Cœlo-Syria, Arabia, and Judea, gifts which he had no right to bestow, and which he pretended to grant in imitation of Hercules. This complication of vice and folly at last totally exasperated the Romans; so that Augustus, willing to take advantage of their resentment, was careful to exaggerate all Antony's defects. At length when he found the people sufficiently irritated against him, he resolved to send Octavia, who was then at Rome, to Egypt, as if with a view of reclaiming her husband; but in fact to furnish a sufficient pretext for declaring war against him, as he knew she would be dismissed with contempt.

3. Antony was now at the city of Leucopolis, revelling with his insidious paramour, when he heard that Octavia was at Athens, upon her journey to visit him. This was very unwelcome news as well to him as to Cleopatra, who, fearing the charms of her rival, endeavoured to convince Antony of the strength of her passion, by bitter sighs, languishing looks, and well-feigned melancholy. He frequently caught her in tears, which she seemed as if willing to hide, and often entreated her to tell him the cause, which she seemed desirous to suppress. These artifices, together with the ceaseless flattery and importunity of her creatures, prevailed so much upon Antony's weakness, that he commanded Octavia to return home without seeing her; and still more to exasperate the people of

Rome, he resolved to repudiate her, and take Cleopatra as his wife. He accordingly assembled the people of Alexandria in the public theatre, where there was raised an alcove of silver, under which were placed two thrones of gold, one for himself, and the other for Cleopatra. There he seated himself, dressed like Bacchus, while Cleopatra sat beside him, clothed in the ornaments and attributes of Isis, the principal deity of the Egyptians. On that occasion, he declared her queen of all the countries which he had already bestowed upon her ; while he associated Cæsario, her son by Cæsar, as her partner in the government. To the two children whom he had by her himself he gave the title of kings, with very extensive dominions ; and, to crown his absurdities, he next sent a minute account of his proceedings to the two consuls at Rome.

4. In the mean time, Augustus had now a sufficient pretext for declaring war, and informed the senate of his intentions. However, he deferred the execution of his designs for a while, being then employed in quelling an insurrection among the Illyrians. The following year was chiefly taken up in preparations against Antony, who, perceiving the design of Augustus, represented to the senate, that he had many causes of complaint against his colleague. He alleged that Augustus had seized upon Sicily without giving him a share ; that he had also dispossessed Lepidus, and kept to himself the province which he had commanded ; and that he had divided all Italy among his own soldiers, leaving nothing to recompense those in Asia. To these complaints Augustus was content to make a sarcastic answer, implying that it was absurd to complain of his distribution of a few trifling districts in Italy, when Antony, having conquered all Parthia, might now reward his soldiers with cities and provinces ! This sarcasm provoked him to send his army without delay to meet Augustus ; while he and Cleopatra followed to Samos, in order to prepare for carrying on the war with vigour.—When arrived there, it was ridiculous enough to behold the odd mixture of preparations for pleasure and for war. On one side, all the kings and princes, from Egypt to the Euxine Sea, had orders to send him supplies both of men, provisions, and arms ; while, on the other side, all the comedians, dancers, buffoons, and musicians of Greece, were ordered to attend him. This delay at Samos, and afterwards at Athens, whither he carried Cleopatra to receive new honours, was extremely favourable to the arms of Augustus, who was at first scarcely in a condition to oppose him, had he

B. C. 32. } gone into Italy ; but he soon found time to put him-
Y. R. 722. } self in a condition for carrying on the war, and shortly after declared against him in due form.

5. At length both sides found themselves ready to begin the

war, and their armies corresponded to the magnitude of the empire for which they contended. The one was followed by all the forces of the East; the other drew all the forces of the West to support his pretensions. Antony's force consisted of a hundred thousand foot, and twelve thousand horse; while his fleet amounted to five hundred ships of war. The army of Augustus mustered but eighty thousand foot, but equalled his adversary in the number of cavalry; his fleet was but half as numerous as Antony's; although his ships were better built, and manned with better soldiers. The great decisive engagement, which was a naval one, was fought near Actium, a city of Epirus, at the entrance of the gulf of Ambracia. Antony ranged his ships before the mouth of the gulf, and Augustus drew up his fleet in opposition to them. Neither general assumed any fixed station to command in, but went about from ship to ship, wherever his presence was necessary. In the mean time, the two land armies, on opposite sides of the gulf, were drawn up only as spectators of the engagement, and encouraged the fleets, by their shouts, to begin the action. The battle began on both sides with great ardour, and after a manner not practised on former occasions. The prows of their vessels were armed with brazen points, which they drove furiously against each other. They fought for some time with great fury; nor was there any advantage on either side, except a small appearance of disorder in the centre of Antony's fleet. But all of a sudden, Cleopatra determined the fortune of the day. She was seen flying from the engagement, attended by sixty sail, struck perhaps with the terrors natural to her sex: but what increased the general amazement, was to behold Antony himself following soon after, leaving his fleet at the mercy of the conquerors; and the army at land soon after followed their example.

6. When Cleopatra fled, Antony pursued her in a five-oared galley, and, coming alongside of her ship, entered it without seeing her, or being seen by her. She was in the stern, and he went to the prow, where he remained for some time silent, holding his head between his hands. In this manner he continued for three whole days, during which, either through indignation or shame, he neither saw nor spoke to Cleopatra. At last, when they had arrived at the promontory of Tænarus, the queen's female attendants reconciled them, and every thing went on as before. Still, however, Antony had the consolation to suppose that his army continued faithful to him; and accordingly despatched orders to his lieutenant Canidius to conduct it into Asia. However,

he was soon undeceived when he arrived in Africa, where he was informed of their submission to his rival. This account so transported him with rage, that he was hardly prevented from killing himself; but at length, at the entreaty of his friends, he returned to Alexandria. Cleopatra, however, seemed to retain that fortitude which had utterly abandoned her admirer. Having amassed considerable riches, by means of confiscations and other acts of violence, she formed a very singular and unheard-of project; which was to convey her whole fleet over the isthmus of Suez into the Red Sea, and thereby save herself and her treasures in another region, beyond the reach of the Romans. Some of her vessels were actually transported thither; but the Arabs having burnt them, and Antony dissuading her from the design, she abandoned it, for the more improbable scheme of defending Egypt against the conqueror.

7. She omitted nothing in her power to put this plan into execution, and made all kinds of preparations for war, hoping thereby to obtain at least better terms from Augustus. In fact, she had always loved Antony's good fortune better than his person; and if she could have fallen upon any method of saving herself, though even at his expense, there is no doubt that she would have embraced it with gladness. She even still had some hopes from the power of her charms, though she had reached almost the age of forty; and was desirous of trying upon Augustus those arts which had been so successful with the greatest men of Rome. Thus, in three embassies, which were sent one after another from Antony to Augustus, the queen had always her secret agents charged with particular proposals in her name. Antony desired no more than that his life might be spared, and that he might have the liberty of passing the remainder of his days in obscurity. To these proposals Augustus made no reply. Cleopatra sent him also public proposals in favour of her children; but at the same time privately resigned to him her crown, with all the ensigns of royalty. To the queen's public proposal no answer was given; to her private offer he replied, by giving her assurances of his favour, in case she sent away Antony, or put him to death.

8. These negotiations were not so private but they came to the knowledge of Antony, whose jealousy and rage every occurrence now contributed to heighten. He built a small solitary house upon a mole in the sea, and there shut himself up, a prey to all those passions which are the tormentors of unsuccessful tyranny. There he passed his time, shunning all commerce with mankind, and professing to imitate Timon the

manhater. However, his furious jealousy drove him even from his retreat into society; for, hearing that Cleopatra had many secret conferences with one Thyrsus, an emissary from Augustus, he seized upon him, and, having ordered him to be cruelly scourged, sent him back to his patron. At the same time he sent letters to Augustus, importing that he had chastised Thyrsus for insulting a man in misfortune; but withal gave him permission to avenge himself, by scourging Hipparchus, Antony's freedman, in the same manner. The revenge in his case would have been highly pleasing to Antony, as Hipparchus had left him to join the fortune of his more successful rival.

EXERCISES.

1. What resolution did Augustus now adopt? What cause of offence did Lepidus afford him? What became of Lepidus?

2. How did Augustus represent Antony to the Romans? How did the latter render his character contemptible? What arts did Cleopatra employ to increase Antony's passion for her? What kingdoms did he bestow upon her? What advantage did Augustus take of these circumstances?

3. How did Cleopatra behave on hearing that Antony's wife was on her way to visit him? In what manner did Antony disgrace Octavia? What ridiculous conduct did he display at Alexandria?

4. What preparations did Augustus make for declaring war against Antony? What causes of complaint did Antony allege against his colleague, and what reply did Augustus make to them? Who furnished Antony with supplies and sources of amusement?

5. What was the strength of the respective armies? Where was a decisive battle fought betwixt Antony and Augustus, and how did each behave? How was the action conducted, and what determined the fortune of the day?

6. How did Antony act when he followed Cleopatra? How did he receive the tidings of the submission of his army? What project did Cleopatra form, and why did she abandon it?

7. What resources did she employ, and what hopes did she entertain of favourable terms from Augustus? What proposals did Antony and Cleopatra make, and how were they received?

8. Whither did Antony now betake himself? How did he treat one of Augustus's emissaries?

SECTION VII.

1. MEANWHILE the operations of the war were carried vigorously forward, and Egypt soon after became again the theatre of the contending armies of Rome. Gallus, the lieutenant of Augustus, took Parætonium, which opened the whole country to his incursions. On the other side Antony, who had still considerable forces by sea and land, wanted to take that important place from the enemy. He therefore marched towards it, and flattered himself that, as soon as he should show himself to the legions which he had once commanded, their affection for their former general would revive. He therefore

approached, and exhorted them to remember their vows of fidelity which they had taken to himself. Gallus, however, ordered all the trumpets to sound, in order to hinder Antony from being heard, so that he was obliged to retire.—Augustus himself was in the mean time advancing with another army before Pelusium, which, by its strong situation, might have retarded his progress for some time. But the governor of the city, either wanting courage to defend it, or previously instructed by Cleopatra to give it up, permitted him to take possession of the place.

2. Augustus had now no obstacle in his way to Alexandria, and accordingly he marched thither with all expedition. Antony, upon his arrival, sallied out to oppose him, fighting with great desperation, and putting the enemy's cavalry to flight. This slight advantage once more revived his declining hopes; and, being naturally vain, he re-entered Alexandria in triumph. Then going, armed as he was, to the palace, he embraced Cleopatra, and presented her a soldier who distinguished himself in the late engagement. The queen rewarded him very magnificently, presenting him with a headpiece and breastplate of gold. With these, however, the soldier went off the next night to the other army, prudently resolving to secure his riches by keeping on the strongest side. Antony could not hear of this defection without fresh indignation; he resolved, therefore, to make a bold effort by sea and land, but previously offered to fight his adversary in single combat. Augustus knew too well the inequality of their situations to comply with this forlorn offer: he only, therefore, coolly replied, that Antony had ways enough to die besides by single combat. The day after Antony posted the few troops he had remaining upon a rising ground near the city, whence he sent orders to his galleys to engage the enemy. There he waited to be a spectator of the combat, and at first he had the satisfaction to see them advance in good order; but his approbation was soon turned into rage, when he saw his ships only saluting those of Augustus, and both fleets uniting together, and sailing back into the harbour. At the very same time his cavalry also deserted him. He tried, however, to lead on his infantry, which were easily vanquished, and he himself was compelled to return to the town. His anger now became ungovernable. He could not help crying out aloud as he passed, that he was betrayed by Cleopatra, and delivered by her to those who, for her sake alone, were his implacable enemies. In these suspicions he was not deceived; for it was by secret orders from the queen that the fleet had passed over to the enemy.

3. Cleopatra had for a long while dreaded the effects of An-

tony's jealousy, and had some time before prepared a method for obviating any sudden sallies which it might produce. Near the temple of Isis she had erected a building, which was seemingly designed for a sepulchre. Hither she removed all her treasure and most valuable effects, covering them over with torches, faggots, and other combustible matter. This sepulchre she designed to answer the double purpose, both of screening herself from the sudden resentment of Antony, and of making Augustus believe that she would burn all her treasures in case he refused her proper terms of capitulation. Hither, therefore, she retired from Antony's present fury, shutting the gates, which were fortified with bolts and bars of iron; but, in the mean time, she gave orders that a report of her death should be spread, which soon reached Antony, and recalled all his former love and tenderness. This poor wretch was subject to the gust of every passion, each of which he experienced in the extreme. He now lamented her death with the same violence as he had, but a few minutes before, seemed to desire it. "Wretched man!" cried he to himself, "what is there worth living for, since all that could sooth or soften my care is departed? O Cleopatra," continued he, on entering his chamber, "our separation does not so much afflict me, as the disgrace I suffer in permitting a woman to instruct me in the way of dying!" He called one of his freedmen, named Eros, whom he had engaged by oath to kill him, whenever fortune should drive him to this last resource. Eros being commanded to perform his promise, this faithful follower drew the sword, as if going to execute his orders; but, turning his face, plunged it into his own bosom, and died at his master's feet.

4. Antony for a while hung over his faithful servant, and, commending his fidelity, took up the sword, with which he stabbed himself in the belly, and fell backward upon a little couch. Though the wound was mortal, yet, on the blood stopping, he recovered his spirits, and earnestly conjured those who came into the room to put an end to his life; but they all fled, being seized with fright and horror. He therefore continued in this manner for some time, still crying out and writhing with pain, till he was informed by one of the queen's secretaries that his mistress was still alive. He then earnestly desired to be carried to the place where she was. They accordingly brought him to the gate of the sepulchre; but Cleopatra, who would not permit it to be opened, appeared at the window, and threw down cords, with which, after some difficulty, they pulled him up. They laid him gently on a couch, where she gave way to her sorrow, tearing her clothes, beating her breast, and kissing the wound of which he was dying.

Antony entreated her to moderate the transports of her grief, asked for wine, and exhorted her not to lament his misfortunes, but to congratulate him upon his former felicity, to consider him as one who had lived the most powerful of men, and at last died by the hands of a Roman. Just as he had done speaking, he expired ; and Proculeius made his appearance by command of Augustus, who had been informed of Antony's desperate conduct. He was sent, on this occasion, to try all means of getting Cleopatra into his power. Augustus had a double motive for his solicitude on this occasion ; one, to prevent her from destroying the treasures she had taken with her into the tomb ; the other, to preserve her person, as an ornament to grace his triumph. Cleopatra, however, was upon her guard, and would not confer with Proculeius, except through the gate, which was very well secured. In the mean time, Gallus, one of Augustus's officers, having artfully engaged her in earnest conversation, Proculeius entered with two more, by the window at which Antony had been drawn up ; upon which Cleopatra, perceiving what had happened, drew a poniard, and attempted to stab herself, but was prevented.

5. Augustus was extremely pleased at finding the Egyptian queen in his power ; he therefore sent Epaphroditus to bring her to his palace, and to watch her with the utmost circumspection. He was likewise ordered to use her in every respect with that deference and submission which were due to her rank, and to do every thing in his power to render her captivity agreeable. She was permitted to have the honour of granting Antony the rites of burial, and to be furnished with every thing which she desired, that was becoming her dignity to receive, or her love to offer. Yet still she languished under her new confinement ; her excessive sorrow, her losses, and the blows she had given her bosom, produced a fever which she seemed willing to increase. She resolved to abstain from taking any nourishment, under the pretence of a regimen that was necessary for her disorder ; but Augustus being made acquainted with the real motive by her physician, began to threaten her with regard to her children, if she persisted in such conduct.

6. In the mean time, Augustus made his entry into Alexandria, taking care to mitigate the fears of the inhabitants, by conversing familiarly as he went along with Areus, a philosopher, a native of the place. The citizens, however, trembled at his approach ; and when he placed himself upon the tribunal, they prostrated themselves with their faces to the ground before him, like criminals who waited the sentence of their execution. Augustus presently ordered them to rise, telling

them, that three motives induced him to pardon them ; his respect for Alexander, who was the founder of their city ; his admiration of its beauty ; and his friendship for Areus, their fellow-citizen. Two persons only of particular note were put to death on this occasion ; Antony's eldest son by Fulvia, Antyllus ; and Cæsario, the son of Julius Cæsar ; both betrayed into his hands by their respective tutors, who themselves suffered for their perfidy shortly after. As to the rest of Cleopatra's children, he treated them with great gentleness, leaving them to the care of those who were intrusted with their education, who had orders to provide them with every thing suitable to their birth. As for Cleopatra, when she had recovered from her late indisposition, Augustus came to visit her in person : she received him lying on a couch in a careless manner, and, upon his entering the apartment, rose up to prostrate herself before him. Her misfortunes had given an air of severity to her features, her hair was dishevelled, her voice tremulous, her complexion pale, and her eyes were red with weeping ; yet still her natural beauty seemed to gleam through the distress that surrounded her ; and the graces of her motion, and the alluring softness of her looks, still bore testimony to the power of her charms. Augustus raised her with his usual complaisance, and, desiring her to sit down, placed himself beside her.

7. Cleopatra had been prepared for this interview, and made use of every method she could think of to propitiate the conqueror. She tried apologies, entreaties, and allurements, to obtain his favour and soften his resentment. She began by attempting to justify her conduct ; but when her art and skill failed against manifest proofs, she turned her defence into supplications. She talked of Cæsar's humanity to those in distress ; she read some of his letters to her, which were full of tenderness, and enlarged upon the long intimacy that had passed between them. " But of what service," cried she, " are now all his benefits to me ! Why could I not die with him ! Yet he still lives ; methinks I see him still before me ; he revives in you." Augustus was no stranger to this method of address ; but he remained firm against all attacks, answering always with a cold indifference, which obliged her to give her attempts a different turn. She now addressed his avarice ; presenting him with an inventory of her treasure and her jewels. This gave occasion to a singular scene, which shows that the little decorums of good breeding were then by no means so carefully attended to as they are at present. One of her stewards having alleged that the inventory was defective, and that she had secreted a part of her effects, she fell into a vio-

lent passion, started from her couch, and, catching him by the hair, gave him several blows in the face!—Augustus smiled at her indignation, and, leading her to the couch, desired her to be pacified. To this she replied, that she could not bear to be insulted in the presence of one whom she so highly esteemed! “And supposing,” cried she, “that I have secreted a few trifles, am I to blame, when they are reserved not for myself, but for Livia and Octavia, whom I hope to make my intercessors with you?” This excuse, which intimated a desire of living, was not disagreeable to Augustus, who politely assured her that she was at liberty to keep whatever she had reserved, and that in every thing she should be indulged to the height of her expectations. He then took leave and departed, imagining that he had reconciled her to life, and to the indignity of being shown in the intended triumph which he was preparing on his return to Rome; but in this expectation he was disappointed.

8. Cleopatra, all this time, had kept up a correspondence with Dolabella, a young Roman of high birth, in the camp of Augustus, who, perhaps from compassion or stronger motives, was interested in her misfortunes. By him she was secretly informed, that Augustus determined to send her off in three days, together with her children, to Rome, to grace his triumphant entry. She now, therefore, determined upon dying; B. C. 30. }
Y. R. 724. } she threw herself upon Antony's coffin, bewailing her captivity, and renewed her protestations not to survive him. Having bathed, and ordered a sumptuous banquet, she attired herself in the most splendid manner. She then feasted as usual, and soon after ordered all but her two attendants, Charmion and Iras, to leave the room. Then, having previously ordered an asp to be secretly conveyed in a basket of fruit, she sent a letter to Augustus, informing him of her fatal purpose, and desiring to be buried in the same tomb with Antony. Augustus, upon receiving the letter, instantly despatched messengers to stop her intentions; but they arrived too late. Upon entering the chamber, they beheld Cleopatra lying dead upon a gilded couch, arrayed in her royal robes. Near her Iras, one of her faithful attendants, was stretched lifeless at the foot of her mistress; and Charmion herself, almost expiring, was settling the diadem upon Cleopatra's head. “Alas!” cried one of the messengers, “was this well done, Charmion?”—“Yes,” replied she, “it is well done; such a death becomes a glorious queen, descended from a race of noble ancestors.” On pronouncing these words, she fell down, and died with her much-loved mistress.

EXERCISES.

1. What military operations were carried on in Egypt? How did Gallus, the lieutenant of Augustus, act on Antony's approach to Parætonium? Of what place did Augustus obtain possession?

2. What slight advantage did Antony obtain at Alexandria? How did he celebrate his triumph, and how did a soldier act who was presented by him to Cleopatra? What challenge did he send to Augustus, and what answer did he receive? How did his fleet and cavalry behave when sent against the enemy?

3. Whither did Cleopatra retire with all her treasures? How did Antony express his grief on hearing a report of her death? How did his freedman act when requested to kill him?

4. How did Antony attempt to put an end to his life? How was he conveyed to Cleopatra's retreat? What expressions of grief and condolence passed between them? How did Antony die, and who appeared immediately afterwards? By whom was Cleopatra secured, and what did she attempt?

5. What respect was paid and indulgences granted her by Augustus? What disorder seized her, and how did she behave under it?

6. In what manner did Augustus make his public entry into Alexandria? What motives induced him to pardon the inhabitants? Who suffered death, and how did he treat Cleopatra's children? What appearance had Cleopatra when Augustus visited her?

7. What means did she employ to soften his resentment? How did she discover her indignation at her steward? What ignominy did Augustus intend to impose upon her?

8. What resolution did she adopt, on learning that she was to be carried to Rome? What preparations did she make for despatching herself? What scene appeared when messengers arrived in Cleopatra's chamber?

 CHAP. XX.

From the Beginning of the Reign of Augustus to the Death of Domitian, the last of the Twelve Cæsars.

SECTION I.

B. C. 29. }
 Y. R. 725. } 1. BY the death of Antony, Augustus was now become master of the Roman empire. He soon after returned to Rome in triumph, where, by sumptuous feasts and magnificent shows, he began to obliterate the impressions of his former cruelty; and from thenceforward resolved, by his clemency, to secure a throne, the foundations of which were laid in blood. He was now at the head of the most extensive empire that mankind had ever concurred in establishing. But the former spirit of the Romans, and the characteristic marks that distinguished them from other nations, were totally lost. The city was now inhabited by a concourse of people from all the countries of the world; and being consequently divested of all just patriotic principles, perhaps monarchy was the best form of government that could be found to unite its members. However, it was very remarkable that, during the long contentions among themselves, and the horrid devastations by civil war, the state was daily growing more powerful, and complet-

ed the destruction of all the powers that presumed to oppose it. The first care of Augustus was to secure to himself the friends of Antony; and for this purpose he publicly reported that he had burned all Antony's letters and papers without reading, convinced, that while any thought themselves suspected, they would be fearful of even offering him their friendship.

2. As he had gained the empire by his army, so also he resolved to govern it by the senate. This body, though greatly fallen from their ancient splendour, he knew to be the best regulated, and the most capable of wisdom and justice, of any other in the state. To the senators, therefore, he gave the chief power in the administration of his government; while he kept the people and the army steadfast to him by donations and acts of favour. By these means all the odium of justice fell upon the senate, and all the popularity of pardon was solely his own. Thus restoring to the senate their ancient splendour, and discountenancing all corruptions and abuses of office, he pretended to reserve to himself a very moderate share of authority, which none could refuse him; namely, an absolute power to compel all ranks of the state to do their duty. This, in fact, was reserving absolute dominion in his own hands; but the misguided people began to look upon his moderation with astonishment, and considered themselves as restored to their former freedom, except in the capacity of promoting sedition; while the senate supposed their power re-established in all things, except in its tendency to do acts of injustice. It was even said, that the Romans, by such a government, lost nothing of the happiness that liberty could produce, and were exempt from all the misfortunes it could occasion. This observation might have some truth under such a monarch as Augustus now seemed to be; but the Romans were taught to change their sentiments under his successors, when they found themselves enduring all the punishments which tyranny could inflict, or sedition render necessary. After having established this admirable order, Augustus found himself agitated by different inclinations, and considered a long time whether he should keep the empire, or restore the people to their ancient liberty. But he adopted the advice of Mæcenas, who desired him to continue in power, and was afterwards swayed by him, not only in this instance, but on every other occasion.—By the instructions of that minister, he became gentle, affable, and humane. By his advice it was that he encouraged men of learning, and gave them much of his time and his friendship. They, in their turn, relieved his most anxious hours, and circulated his praises throughout the empire.

3. Thus having given peace and happiness to the empire,

and being convinced of the attachment of all the orders of the state to his person, he resolved upon impressing the people with an idea of his magnanimity also. This was nothing less than making a show of resigning his authority; wherefore, having previously instructed his creatures in the senate how to act, he addressed them in a studied speech, importing the difficulty of governing so extensive an empire—a task to which, he said, none but the gods were equal. He modestly urged his own inability, though impelled by every motive to continue his authority; and then, with a degree of seeming generosity, freely gave up all that power, which, as he observed, his arms had gained and the senate had confirmed. This power he repeatedly offered to restore, giving them to understand, that the true spirit of the Romans was not lost in him. This speech operated upon the senate variously, as they were more or less in the secret; many believed the sincerity of his professions, and therefore regarded his conduct as an act of heroism, unequalled by any thing that had hitherto appeared in Rome; while others, who were ignorant of his motives, distrusted his designs. Some there were who, having suffered greatly during the late popular commotions, were fearful of seeing them again renewed; but the majority, who were entirely devoted to his interest, and instructed by his ministers, frequently attempted to interrupt him while speaking, and received his proposal with pretended indignation. These unanimously besought him not to resign the administration; but on his continuing to decline their request, they in a manner compelled him to comply. However, that his person might be in greater security, they immediately decreed that the number of his guard should be doubled. On the other hand, that he might seem to make some concessions on his side, he permitted the senate to govern the weak internal provinces; while those that required the greatest armies for their defence were taken entirely under his own command. Over these he assumed the government but for ten years, leaving the people still in hopes of regaining their ancient freedom; but at the same time concerting his measures so well, that his government was renewed every ten years till his death.

B. C. 27. } 4. This show of resignation only served to confirm
 Y. R. 727. } him in the empire and in the hearts of the people.
 Accordingly new honours were heaped upon him. It was now that he was first called Augustus, a name hitherto used by us as that by which he is best known in history. A laurel was ordered to be planted at his gates. His house was called the palace, to distinguish it from that of ordinary citizens. He was confirmed in the title of father to his country, and his person

was declared sacred and inviolable. In short, flattery seemed on the rack to find out new modes of pleasing him ; but though he despised the arts of the senate, he permitted their homage, well knowing that, among mankind, titles produce a respect which enforces authority. Upon entering into his tenth consulship, the senate by oath approved of all his acts, and set him wholly above the power of the laws. They some time after offered to swear not only to all the laws he had made, but to such as he should make for the future.—It was then customary for fathers, upon their deathbeds, to command their children to carry oblations to the capitol, with this inscription, “ That at the day of their death they left Augustus in good health.” It was determined that no man should be put to death on such days as the emperor entered the city. Upon a dearth of provisions, the people in a body entreated him to accept of the title of dictator ; but, though he undertook to be procurator of provisions, he would by no means accept of the title of dictator, which had been abolished by a law made when Antony was consul.

5. This accumulation of titles and employments did not in the least diminish his assiduity in fulfilling the duties of his government. Several very wholesome edicts were passed by his command, tending to suppress corruption in the senate and licentiousness in the people. He ordained that none should exhibit a show of gladiators without orders from the senate, and not oftener than twice a-year, nor with more than a hundred and twenty at a time. This law was extremely necessary at so corrupt a period of the empire ; when whole armies of these unfortunate men were brought at once upon the stage, and compelled to fight, often till nearly the half of them were slain. It having been usual also with the knights, and some women of the first distinction, to exhibit themselves as dancers upon the theatre, he ordered that not only they, but their children and grandchildren, should be restrained from such exercises for the future. He fined many who refused to marry at a certain age, and rewarded such as had many children. He ordained that virgins should not be married till twelve years of age, and permitted any person to kill an adulterer taken in the act. He enacted that the senators should be always held in great reverence, adding to their authority what he had taken from their power. He made a law that no man should have the freedom of the city, without a previous examination into his merit and character. He appointed new rules and limits to the manumission of slaves, and was himself very strict in the observance of them. With regard to players, of whom he was very fond, he severely examined their morals,

not allowing the least licentiousness in their lives or indecency in their actions. Though he encouraged the athletic exercises, yet he would not permit women to be present at them, holding it unbecoming the modesty of the sex to be spectators of these sports, which were performed by naked men. In order to prevent bribery in suing for offices, he took considerable sums of money from the candidates by way of pledge; and if any indirect practices were proved against them, they were obliged to forfeit all. Slaves had been hitherto prohibited from confessing any thing against their own masters; but he abolished the practice, and first sold the slaves to another, by which transference they became free to deliver their evidence. These and many other laws, all tending to reform vice, or deter from crimes, gave the manners of the people another complexion; so that the rough character of the Roman was now softened into that of the refined citizen.

6. Indeed, the example of Augustus himself tended greatly to humanize his fellow-citizens; for, being placed above all equality, he had nothing to fear from his condescension, and was therefore familiar with all, and even suffered himself to be reprimanded with the most patient humility. Though he was, by the single authority of his station, capable of condemning or acquitting whomsoever he thought proper, yet he gave the laws their proper course, and even sometimes pleaded for those whom he wished to protect. Thus Primus, the governor of Macedonia, having a day assigned him for his trial on account of making war upon the Odrysæ, a neighbouring state, alleged that he had done so by the command of Augustus. The emperor, who was present, denied the charge; on which the advocate for Primus desired to know, with an insolent air, what brought Augustus into court, or who had sent for him? To this the emperor submissively replied,—“The commonwealth,”—an answer which greatly pleased the people. Upon another occasion, one of his veteran soldiers entreated his protection in a certain cause; but Augustus, taking little notice of his request, desired him to apply to an advocate. “Ah!” replied the soldier, “it was not by proxy that I served you at the battle of Actium.” This reply pleased Augustus so much, that he pleaded his cause in person, and gained it for him. He was extremely affable, and returned the salutations of the meanest persons. One day a person presented him a petition, but with so much awe, that Augustus was displeased with his meanness. “What, friend,” cried he, “you seem as if you were offering something to an elephant, and not to a man; be bolder.” One day, as he was sitting on the tribunal of judgment, Mæcenæ, perceiving by his temper that he was inclined

to be severe, attempted to speak to him ; but not being able to get up to the tribunal for the crowd, he threw a paper into his lap, on which was written, " Arise, executioner." Augustus read it without any displeasure, and, immediately rising, pardoned those whom he was disposed to condemn. But what most of all showed a total alteration in his disposition, was his treatment of Cornelius Cinna, Pompey's grandson. That nobleman had entered into a very dangerous conspiracy against him ; but the plot was discovered before it was ripe for execution. Augustus for some time debated with himself how to act ; but at last his clemency prevailed, so that he sent for those who were guilty, and, after reprimanding them, dismissed them all. But he was resolved to mortify Cinna by the greatness of his generosity ; for, addressing him in particular, " I have twice," says he, " given you your life, first as an enemy, next as a conspirator, and I now give you the consulship : let us only contend in showing whether my confidence or your fidelity shall be victorious." This generosity, which the emperor very happily timed, had so good an effect, that from that instant all conspiracies ceased against him.

EXERCISES.

1. In what situation was Augustus placed by the death of Antony, and how did he celebrate his triumph ? What was the condition of the people and city of Rome at this period ? How did the Roman power manifest itself during all the struggles of the commonwealth ? How did Augustus endeavour to secure his popularity ?

2. On whom did he bestow the chief power in the state ? How did the people estimate his moderation ? What advice did Mæcenas give him, and how did he improve it ?

3. What proposal did he make to the senate, and how was it received ? What additional guard was granted to him, and what concessions did he make in return ? How did he secure the government of the provinces ?

4. What new honours were conferred upon him ? How did the senate express their approbation of his measures and their esteem for his character ?

5. What wholesome edicts were passed by his command ? What influence had these regulations on the manners of the people ?

6. How did he humanize the citizens by his own example ? What instances of his condescension are recorded in history ? How did he act on an ironical hint given him by Mæcenas ? How did he treat Cinna, Pompey's grandson ?

SECTION II.

1. IN the practice of such virtues as these, Augustus passed a long reign of above forty years, in which the happiness of the people seemed to conspire with his own ; not but that there were wars in the distant provinces of the empire during almost his whole reign ; but they were rather the quelling of insur-

rections, than exertions to extend the Roman territories ; as he had made it a rule to carry on no operations in which ambition, and not the safety of the state, was concerned. In fact, he seemed the first Roman who aimed at gaining a character by the arts of peace alone, and who obtained the affections of his soldiers without any military talents of his own. Nevertheless the Roman arms, under his lieutenants, were crowned
 B. C. 26. } with success. The Cantabrians in Spain, who had
 Y. R. 728. } revolted, were more than once quelled by Tiberius, his stepson : Agrippa, his son-in-law, and Ælius Lamia, who followed them to their inaccessible mountains, blocked them up, and compelled them, by famine, to surrender at discretion. The Germans also gave some uneasiness, by their repeated incursions into the territories of Gaul ; but they were finally repressed by Lollius. The Rhetians were conquered by Drusus, the brother of Tiberius.—The Bessi and Selletæ, barbarous nations, having made an irruption into Thrace, were overthrown by Piso, governor of Pamphylia, who gained triumphal honours.—The Dacians were repressed with more than one defeat ; and the Armenians also were brought into subjection by Caius, his grandson. The Getulians in Africa took up arms, but were subdued by the consul, Caius Cossus, who thence received the surname of Getulicus. A dangerous war also was carried on against the Dalmatians and Pannonians, who, having acquired great strength by the continuance of a long peace, gathered an army of two hundred thousand foot, and nine thousand horse, threatening Rome itself with destruction.

2. Levies were therefore made in Italy with the utmost expedition ; the veteran troops were recalled from all parts, and Augustus went to Ariminum for the greater convenience of giving his directions. And indeed, though personal valour was by no means his most shining ornament, yet no man could give wiser orders upon every emergency, or proceed with more despatch through all parts of his dominions than himself. This war continued nearly three years, being principally managed by Tiberius and Germanicus ; the latter of whom gained great reputation against these fierce and barbarous nations. Upon their reduction, Bato their leader, being summoned before the tribunal of Tiberius, and being asked how he could dare to revolt against the power of Rome, the bold barbarian replied, “ That the Romans, and not he, were the aggressors, since they had sent, instead of dogs and shepherds to secure their flocks, only wolves and bears to devour them.” But the war which was most fatal to the Roman interest during this reign,
 A. D. 9. } was that which was managed by Quinctilius Varus.
 Y. R. 702. } —This general, having invaded the territories of

the Germans, was induced to follow them with his army, in separate divisions, among their forests and marshes, where he was attacked by night, and entirely cut off with all his forces. These were the best and choicest legions of the whole empire, either for valour, discipline, or experience. The affliction produced by this defeat seemed to sink very deep in the mind of Augustus. He was often heard to cry out in a tone of anguish,—“Quintilius Varus, restore me my legions;” and some historians pretend to say, that he never after recovered the former serenity of his temper.

3. But he had some uneasiness of a domestic nature in his own family, that contributed to distress him still more severely. He had married Livia, the wife of Tiberius Nero, with the consent of her husband. Livia was an imperious woman; and, conscious of being beloved, she controlled Augustus ever after at her pleasure. She had two sons by her former husband, Tiberius, the elder, whom she greatly loved; and Drusus, who was born three months after she had been married to Augustus, and who was thought to be his own son. The eldest of these, Tiberius, whom he afterwards adopted, and who succeeded him in the empire, was a good general, but of a suspicious and obstinate temper; so that, though he was serviceable to Augustus in his foreign wars, he suffered him to enjoy but little quiet at home. He was at last obliged to go into exile for five years to the island of Rhodes, where he chiefly spent his time in a retired manner, conversing with the Greeks, and addicting himself to the study of literature; of which, however, he made afterwards but a bad use. Drusus, the son of Livia, died on his return from an expedition against the Germans, leaving Augustus inconsolable for his loss.—But his greatest affliction was the conduct of his daughter Julia, whom he had by Scribonia, his former wife. This woman, whom he married to his general Agrippa, and after his death to Tiberius, set no bounds to her notorious lewdness. Not contented with enjoying her pleasures, she seemed also earnest in publishing the infamy of her prostitutions. Augustus, for a long time, would not believe the accounts he daily heard of her conduct; but at last he could not help observing them. He found that she had arrived at such excess of wantonness and prodigality, that she had her nocturnal appointments in the most public parts of the city; nay, that the very court, where her father presided, was not exempt from her debaucheries. He at first had thoughts of putting her to death; but, after some consideration, he banished her to Pandataria, forbidding her the use of wine, and all such delicacies as would inflame her vicious inclinations; he even gave orders that no persons

should come near her without his own permission, and sent her mother Scribonia with her to bear her company. Afterwards, whenever any attempted to intercede for Julia, his answer was, "That fire and water should sooner unite, than he would be reconciled to her." When some persons, one day, were more than usually urgent with him in her favour, he was driven to such an extremity of passion as to wish that they might have such a daughter. However, she had two sons by Agrippa, named Caius and Lucius, from whom great expectations were formed ; but they died when scarcely arrived at man's estate,—Lucius about five years after his father, at Marseilles, and Caius two years afterwards.

4. Augustus having now, in a great measure, survived all his contemporaries, at length, in the seventy-fourth year of his age, began to think of retiring from the fatigues of state, and in some measure of constituting Tiberius, his son-in-law by Livia, his successor to the throne. He desired the senate to salute himself no longer at the palace according to custom ; nor to take it amiss, if, for the future, he should not converse with them as formerly. From that time Tiberius was joined with him in the government of the provinces, and invested A. D. 13. }
Y. R. 766. } with almost the same authority. Augustus, however, could not entirely forsake the administration of the state, which habit had combined with his other satisfactions ; he, therefore, still continued a watchful guardian of its interests, and showed himself a lover of his people. But, finding it now very inconvenient to come to the senate by reason of his age, he desired to have twenty privy-councillors assigned him for a year : and it was decreed that whatever measures were resolved upon by them, together with the consuls, should have entirely the force of a law. He seemed in some measure apprehensive of his approaching end ; for he made his will, and delivered it to the vestal virgins. He then solemnized the census, or numbering of the people, whom he found to amount to four millions one hundred and thirty-seven thousand ; from which it appears that the population of Rome must have been equal to that of any four of the greatest cities of modern times. While these ceremonies were performing amidst a mighty concourse of people in the Campus Martius, it is said that an eagle flew round the emperor several times, and, directing his flight to a neighbouring temple, perched over the name of Agrippa, which was by the augurs conceived to portend the death of the emperor. Shortly after, having accompanied Tiberius in his march into Illyria, as far as Beneventum, he was there taken ill of a diarrhoea. Returning thence, he came to Nola, near Capua, and there finding himself danger-

ously ill, he sent for Tiberius, with the rest of his most intimate friends and acquaintances. A few hours before his death, he ordered a looking-glass to be brought, and his hair to be adjusted with more than usual care. He then addressed his friends, whom he beheld surrounding his bed, and desired to know whether he had properly played his part in life? On being answered in the affirmative, he cried out with his last
 A. D. 14. } breath, "Then give me your applause:"—and thus,
 Y. R. 767. } in the seventy-sixth year of his age, after reigning forty-two, he expired in the arms of Livia, bidding her remember their marriage and farewell.

5. The death of the emperor, as soon as it was known, caused inexpressible grief throughout the whole Roman empire; nay, it was even supposed that his wife Livia had some hand in hastening it, in order to procure the succession more speedily for her son. However this be, she took care for some time to keep it concealed, having guarded all the passages to the palace; sometimes giving out that he was recovered, and again pretending that he had a relapse. At length, having settled the succession to her mind, she published the emperor's death, and at the same time the adoption of Tiberius to the empire. The emperor's funeral was performed with great magnificence. The senators being in their places, Tiberius, on whom the charge of the obsequies was devolved, began a consolatory oration to them; but he suddenly stopped in the beginning of his speech, as unable to restrain the violence of his sorrow, and instead of continuing, gave his notes to Drusus, his son, who read them to the senate. After this, one of the late emperor's freedmen publicly read his will in the senate-house, wherein he had made Tiberius and Livia his heirs; and by it also Livia was adopted into the Julian family, and honoured with the name of Augusta. Besides his will, four other writings of his were produced: one, in which he had left instructions concerning his funeral; another contained an enumeration of his various exploits; a third comprised an account of the provinces, forces, and revenues of the empire; and the fourth a schedule of directions to Tiberius for governing the empire. Among these it was found to be his opinion, that no man, how great a favourite soever he might be, should be intrusted with too much authority, lest it should induce him to become a tyrant. Another maxim was, that none should desire to enlarge the empire, which was even then preserved with considerable difficulty. Thus, he seemed to have been studious of serving his country to the very last; and the sorrow of the people seemed equal to his assiduity. It was decreed that all the women should wear mourning for him during a whole

year. Temples were erected to him ; divine honours were allowed him, and one Numerius Atticus, a senator, willing to convert the adulation of the times to his own benefit, received a large sum of money for swearing that he saw him ascending into heaven ; so that no doubt remained among the people concerning his divinity !

6. Such were the honours paid to Augustus, whose power began in the slaughter, and terminated in the happiness of his subjects ; so that it was said of him, " That it had been good for mankind if he never had been born, or if he never had died." It is very probable that the cruelties exercised in his triumvirate were suggested by his colleagues ; or, perhaps, he thought, in the case of Cæsar's death, that revenge was virtue. Certain it is, that these severities were in some measure necessary to restore public tranquillity ; for, until the spirit of the age was entirely eradicated, no monarchy could be secure. He gave the government a turn suited to the disposition of the times : he indulged his subjects in the pride of beholding the appearance of a republic, while he made them really happy in the effects of a most absolute monarchy, guided by the most consummate prudence. In this last virtue he seems to have excelled most monarchs ; and indeed, could we separate Octavius from Augustus, he would be one of the most faultless princes mentioned in history.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the condition of the Roman empire during the reign of Augustus ? On what principles did he act, and how did he gain the affections of his soldiers ? What nations were reduced to subjection by the Roman arms ?

2. What preparations were made to subdue the Dalmatians and Pannonians ? Who were the generals that conducted the war ? What reply did their leader make when brought before Tiberius ? How were the legions under Quinctilius Varus cut off, and how was Augustus affected by their loss ?

3. What domestic trials contributed to distress him ? What sons had his wife by her first marriage, and how did Tiberius render Augustus uneasy ? What was the conduct of his daughter Julia, which increased his vexations ? How many sons had she, and what became of them ?

4. Whom did Augustus appoint as his coadjutor in the government ? What other measures did he adopt for carrying on the administration ? What was the number of the inhabitants of Rome at this period ? What preparations did Augustus make for his death, and when did it happen ?

5. What artifice did Livia employ to secure the succession to Tiberius ? What took place at the funeral of Augustus ? What were the contents of his will and his other papers ? What honours were paid to his memory ?

6. What was the opinion formed on a retrospect of his reign ? How had he endeavoured to promote the happiness of his subjects ?

SECTION III.

A. D. 14. }
Y. R. 767. } 1. **TIBERIUS** was fifty-six years old when he took upon him the government of the Roman empire. He had long lived in a profound state of dissimulation under Augustus, and was not yet hardy enough to show himself in his real character. In the beginning of his reign nothing appeared but prudence, generosity, and clemency. But the successes of Germanicus, his nephew, over the Germans, first brought his natural dispositions to light, and discovered the malignity of his mind without disguise. He soon, therefore, began to consider and adopt the most specious means of humbling the popularity of Germanicus, and removing this object of his suspicions. For this purpose he despatched Piso, a person of a furious and headstrong temper, and in every respect fit to execute those fatal purposes for which he was designed. His instructions were, to oppose Germanicus upon every occasion, and to excite all the hatred against him which he could without suspicion, and even effect his death, if any opportunity should offer. This agent succeeded; as Germanicus died soon after, and it was universally believed by poison. Having now no object of jealousy to keep him in awe, Tiberius began to pull off the mask entirely, and appear more in his natural character than he had done before. In the beginning of his cruelties, he took into his confidence, Sejanus, a Roman knight, who found out the method of gaining his entire confidence by the most refined dissimulation, being an overmatch for his master in his own arts. It is not well known whether he was the adviser of all the cruelties that ensued soon afterwards; but certain it is that, from the beginning of his ministry, Tiberius seemed to become more fatally suspicious.

2. Sejanus began by using all his arts to persuade Tiberius to retire to some agreeable retreat, remote from Rome. From this scheme he expected many advantages, since there could be no access to the emperor but through himself. The emperor, either prevailed upon by his persuasions, or pursuing the natural turn of his temper, which led him to indolence and debauchery, in the twelfth year of his reign left Rome, and went into Campania, under pretence of dedicating temples to Jupiter and Augustus. Growing weary of places where mankind might follow him with their complaints and distresses, he withdrew into that most delightful island of Capræ, three miles from the continent, and opposite Naples. Buried in this retreat, he resigned himself up to his infamous pleasures,

quite regardless of the miseries of his subjects. It would have been happy for mankind had he given up his suspicions when he declined the fatigues of reigning, and resigned the will to do harm when he divested himself of the power of doing good. But, from the time of his retreat, he became more cruel, and Sejanus always endeavoured to increase his distrusts. Secret spies and informers were placed in all parts of the city, who converted the most harmless actions into subjects of offence. In consequence of this detestable policy, Nero and Drusus, the children of Germanicus, were declared enemies to the state, and afterwards starved in prison, while Agrippina their mother was sent into banishment. Sabinus, Asinius Gallus, and Syriacus, were, upon slight pretences, condemned and executed.

3. In this manner Sejanus proceeded, removing all who stood between him and the empire, and every day increasing in confidence with Tiberius, and in power with the senate. The number of his statues exceeded even those of the emperor: people swore by his fortune, in the same manner as they would have done had he been actually on the throne; and he was more dreaded than even the tyrant who enjoyed the empire. But the rapidity of his rise seemed only preparatory to the greatness of his downfall. All that we know of his first disgrace with the emperor is, that Satrius Secundus was the man who had the boldness to accuse him of treason; and Antonia, the mother of Germanicus, seconded the accusation. The senate, who had long been jealous of his power, and dreaded his cruelty, immediately took this opportunity of going beyond the orders of Tiberius, and, instead of sentencing him to imprisonment, gave orders for his execution. As he was conducting to his fate, the people loaded him with insult and execration. He was pursued with sarcastic reproaches; his statues were instantly thrown down, and he himself was shortly after strangled by the executioner.

4. His death only lighted up the emperor's rage for farther severities. Plancina, the wife of Piso, Sextus Vestilius, Vesularius Atticus, and Julius Marinus, were executed by his command, for being attached to Sejanus. He began to grow weary of particular executions, and gave orders that all the accused should be put to death together, without farther examination. In consequence of this mandate, the whole city was filled with slaughter and mourning.—When one Carnilius had killed himself to avoid the torture, “Ah,” cried Tiberius, “how has that man been able to escape me?” When a prisoner earnestly entreated that he would not defer his death, “No,” cried the tyrant, “I am not sufficiently your

friend to shorten your torments." In this manner he lived, odious to all the world, and troublesome to himself; an enemy to the lives of others, and a tormentor of his own. At length, in the twenty-second year of his reign, he began to feel the approaches of his dissolution, and all his appetites totally forsook him. He now therefore found it was time to think of a successor, and at length fixed upon Caligula; desirous, perhaps, by the enormity of Caligula's conduct, with which he was well acquainted, to cover the memory of his own.

5. Still, however, he seemed willing to avoid his end, and strove, by change of place, to put off the inquietude of his own reflections. He left his favourite island, and, repairing to the continent, at last fixed at the promontory of Misenum, in a house that had formerly belonged to Lucullus. It was there that he fell into such faintings as all around him believed were fatal. Caligula, supposing him actually dead, caused himself to be acknowledged by the prætorian soldiers, and went forth from the emperor's apartment amidst the applauses of the multitude; when, all of a sudden, he was informed that the emperor had recovered, that he had begun to speak, and desired to eat. This unexpected account filled the whole court with terror and alarm; every one who had before been earnest in testifying their joy, now reassumed their pretended sorrow, and left the new emperor, through a feigned solicitude for the fate of the old one. Caligula seemed thunderstruck; he preserved a gloomy silence, expecting nothing but death, instead of the empire to which he had aspired. Macro, however, a minion of the emperor, who was hardened in crimes, ordered that his master should be despatched, by A. D. 37. }
Y. R. 790. } smothering him with pillows, or, as others say, by poison. In this manner Tiberius died, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, after reigning twenty-three years.

6. It was in the eighteenth year of this monarch's reign that Christ was crucified; as if the universal depravity of mankind wanted no less a sacrifice than that of the Son of God himself to reclaim them. Shortly after his death, Pilate wrote to Tiberius an account of his passion, resurrection, and miracles; upon which the emperor made a report of the whole to the senate, desiring that Christ might be accounted a God by the Romans. But the senate, being displeased that the proposal had not come at first from themselves, refused to allow his apotheosis, alleging an ancient law, which gave them the superintendence in all matters of religion. They even went so far as to publish an edict, commanding that all Christians should leave the city: but Tiberius, by another edict, threat-

ened death to all such as should accuse them ; by which means they continued unmolested during the rest of his reign.

7. All the enormities of Caligula were concealed in the beginning of his administration ; and it would have been happy for him and the empire had such a beginning been as strenuously maintained. But, in less than eight months, all appearance of moderation and clemency vanished ; while furious passions, unexampled avarice, and capricious cruelty, began to take their turn in his mind. Pride, impiety, lust, avarice, and all in the extreme, were every moment afterwards exhibited in his conduct. His pride first began by assuming to himself the title of ruler, which was usually granted only to kings. He would also have taken the crown and diadem, had he not been advised that he was already superior to all the monarchs of the world. Not long after he assumed divine honours, and gave himself the names of such divinities as he thought most agreeable to his nature. For this purpose he caused the heads of the statues of Jupiter, and some other gods, to be struck off, and his own to be put in their places. He frequently seated himself between Castor and Pollux, and ordained that all who came to their temple to worship should pay their adorations to him only. Such indeed was the extravagant inconstancy of this unaccountable idiot, that he changed his divinity as often as he changed his clothes ; being at one time a male deity, at another time a female ; sometimes Jupiter or Mars, and not unfrequently Venus or Diana. He even built and dedicated a temple to his own divinity, in which his statue of gold was every day dressed in robes similar to those which he himself wore, and was worshipped by crowds of adorers. His priests were numerous ; the sacrifices made to him were of the most exquisite delicacies that could be procured, and the dignity of the priesthood was sought by the most opulent men of the city. He soon, however, brought that office into contempt, by admitting his wife and his horse to that honour ; and, to give a finishing stroke to his absurdities, he became a priest to himself. His method of assuming the manners of a deity was not less ridiculous : he often went out in the full moon, and courted that luminary in the style of a lover. He employed many inventions to imitate thunder ; and would frequently defy Jupiter, crying out with a speech of Homer, “ Do you conquer me, or I will conquer you.” He frequently pretended to converse in whispers with the statue of Jupiter, and usually seemed angry at its replies, threatening to send it packing into Greece. Sometimes, however, he would assume a better temper, and seemed contented that they two should dwell together in amity.

8. Of all his vices, his prodigality was the most remarkable, and that which in some measure gave rise to the rest. The luxuries of former emperors were simplicity itself, when compared to those in which he indulged. He contrived new ways of bathing, and caused places to be erected for that purpose, where the richest oils and most precious perfumes were exhausted with the utmost profusion. He feasted daily on the most costly dishes, and had even jewels, as we are told, dissolved among his sauces. He sometimes had services of pure gold presented before his guests instead of meat; observing, that man should be an economist or an emperor. The expensive manner in which he maintained his horse will give some idea of his domestic economy. He built for it a stable of marble and a manger of ivory.—Whenever this animal, which he called Incitatus, was to run, he placed sentinels near its stable the night preceding, to prevent its slumbers from being broken. He appointed it a house, furniture, and a kitchen, in order to treat all its visitors with proper respect. The emperor sometimes invited Incitatus to his own table, presenting it with gilt oats, and wine in a golden cup. He often swore by the safety of his horse; and, it is said, he would have appointed it to the consulship, had not his death prevented his intention. His impiety was but subordinate to his cruelties. He slew many of the senate, and afterwards cited them to appear, as if they had killed themselves. He cast great numbers of old and infirm men, and poor decrepit housekeepers, to wild beasts, to free the state from such unserviceable citizens. He usually fed his wild beasts with the bodies of those wretches whom he condemned, and every tenth day sent off numbers of them to be thus devoured, which he jocosely called clearing his accounts. One of those who was thus exposed, crying out that he was innocent, Caligula ordered his tongue to be cut out, and then thrown into the amphitheatre. He took delight in killing men with slow tortures, that, as he expressed it, they might feel themselves dying; and was always present at such executions, directing the duration of the punishment, and mitigating the tortures merely to prolong them. In fact, he valued himself for no quality more than this unrelenting temper and inflexible severity, which he preserved while present at an execution. At one time being incensed at the citizens of Rome, he wished that all the Roman people had but one neck, that he might despatch them at a single blow.

9. Such insupportable and capricious cruelties produced many secret conspiracies against him; but these were for a while deferred, on account of his intended expedition against the Germans and Britons, which he undertook in the third

year of his reign. For this purpose he caused numerous levies to be made in all parts of the empire, and talked with so much vanity and confidence, that it was universally believed he would conquer all before him. His march indicated the inequality of his temper: sometimes it was so rapid that the cohorts were obliged to leave their standards behind them; at other times it was so slow, that it rather resembled a pompous procession than a military force. During this expedition, he would cause himself to be carried on eight men's shoulders, and ordered all the neighbouring cities to have their streets well swept and watered, to prevent the dust from annoying him. But all these mighty preparations ended in nothing. Instead of conquering Britain, he only gave refuge to one of its banished princes; and this he described in his letter to the senate, as taking possession of the whole island. Instead of conquering Germany, he only led his army to the seashore in Batavia. There, disposing his engines and warlike machines with great solemnity, and drawing up his men in order of battle, he went on board his galley, with which coasting along, he commanded his trumpets to sound, and the signal to be given, as if for an engagement; upon which his men, having had previous orders, immediately fell to gathering the shells that lay upon the shore into their helmets, terming them the spoils of the conquered ocean, worthy of the palace and the capitol! After this doughty expedition, calling his army together, as a general after a victory, he harangued them in a pompous manner, and highly extolled their achievements; and then distributing money among them, dismissed them with orders to be joyful, and congratulated them upon their riches. But that such exploits should not pass without a memorial, he caused a lofty tower to be erected by the seaside, and ordered the galleys in which he had put to sea to be conveyed to Rome in a great measure by land.

10. Cassius Chærea, tribune of the prætorian bands, was the person who at last freed the world of this tyranny. Besides the motives which he had in common with other men, he had received repeated insults from Caligula, who took all occasions of turning him to ridicule, impeaching him of cowardice, merely because he happened to have an effeminate voice. Whenever Chærea came to demand the watchword from the emperor, according to custom, he always gave him either *Venus*, *Adonis*, or some such title, implying effeminacy and softness. He therefore conceived the purpose of killing the tyrant, and secretly imparted his design to several senators and knights, whom he knew to have received personal injuries from Caligula. Among them was Valerius Asiaticus, whose wife the

emperor had debauched ; and who was therefore desirous of engaging in the first design that offered against the tyrant's life. Besides these, were Clemens the præfect, and Callistus, whose riches made him obnoxious to the tyrant's resentment. While these were deliberating upon the most certain and speedy method of destroying Caligula, an unexpected incident gave new strength to the conspiracy. Pompedius, a senator of distinction, having been accused before the emperor of having spoken of him with disrespect, the informer cited one Quinctilia, an actress, to confirm his accusation. Quinctilia, however, was possessed of a degree of fortitude not easily found even in the other sex. She denied the fact with obstinacy ; and, being put to the torture at the informer's request, she bore the severest torments of the rack with the most unshaken constancy. But what is most remarkable in her conduct is, that though she was acquainted with all the particulars of the conspiracy, and although Chærea was the person appointed to preside at her torture, she revealed nothing ; but, on the contrary, when led to the rack, she trode upon the toe of one of the conspirators, intimating at once her knowledge of the confederacy, and her own resolution not to divulge it. In this manner she suffered till all her limbs were dislocated ; and in that deplorable state was presented to the emperor, who ordered her a gratuity for what she had suffered.

11. Chærea could no longer contain his indignation at being thus made the instrument of a tyrant's cruelty. After several deliberations with the conspirators, it was at last resolved to attack him during the performance of the Palatine games, which lasted four days, and to strike the blow when his guards should have the least opportunity to defend him. But as the three first days of the games passed without affording any opportunity, Chærea began to apprehend, that deferring the time of the conspiracy might be the means of divulging it, and even felt uneasy, lest the honour of killing the tyrant might fall to the lot of some other person more bold than himself. Wherefore, he at last resolved to defer the execution of his plot only to the day following, when Caligula should pass through a private gallery to some baths, not far distant from the palace. The last day of the games was more splendid than the rest, and Caligula seemed more sprightly and condescending than usual. He took great amusement in seeing the people scramble for the fruits and other rarities, thrown by his order among them, and seemed no way apprehensive of the plot formed for his destruction. In the mean time, the conspiracy began to transpire ; and had he had any friends left, it could not have failed of being discovered. A senator, who

was present, asking one of his acquaintances if he had heard any thing new? the other replying in the negative, "Then you must know," said he, "that this day will be represented the death of a tyrant." The other immediately understood him, but desired him to be more cautious how he divulged a secret of so much importance.

12. The conspirators waited a great part of the day with the most extreme anxiety; and at one time Caligula seemed resolved to spend the whole day without any refreshment. This unexpected delay entirely disconcerted Chærea; and, had he not been restrained, he would have gone and perpetrated his design in the midst of all the people. But just at that instant, while he was yet hesitating what to do, Asprenas, one of the conspirators, persuaded Caligula to go to the bath, and take some slight refreshment, in order to enjoy the rest of the entertainment with greater relish. The emperor therefore rising up, the conspirators used every precaution to keep off the throng, and to surround him, under pretence of greater assiduity. Upon his entering into a little vaulted gallery that led from the theatre to the bath, the conspirators stood ready, resolved to despatch him. Chærea first struck him to the ground with his dagger, crying out, "Tyrant, think upon this." Immediately after the other conspirators rushed in; and, while the emperor continued to resist, crying out that he was not yet dead, they despatched him with thirty wounds. Such was the merited death of Caius Caligula, in the twenty-ninth year of his age, after a short reign of three years, ten months, and eight days. It will be unnecessary to add any thing more to his character than what Seneca says of him, namely, that nature seemed to have brought him forth, to show what was possible to be produced from the greatest vice, supported by the greatest authority.

EXERCISES.

1. How old was Tiberius when he assumed the government? How did he act in the beginning of his reign? What first brought his natural disposition to light? Whom did he despatch to oppose Germanicus? What became of him? Whom did Tiberius take into confidence?
2. To what places did he now retire? How did he act after his retreat? Who fell victims to his jealousy?
3. What power did Sejanus obtain? Who accused him before the senate? What became of him?
4. Who fell victims to the emperor's rage? What cruel orders did he now issue? What proofs did he give of his cruel disposition? When did he begin to feel the approaches of his dissolution? Whom did he appoint his successor in the government?
5. Where did he now fix his residence, and what disorder seized him? How did Caligula act during his illness? What became of Tiberius? How long did he reign?

6. At what period of this reign was our Saviour crucified? What application did Tiberius make to the senate? What protection did he afford to the Christians?

7. What was the character of Caligula? What divine honour did he assume? What ridiculous absurdities of conduct did he display?

8. How did he discover his prodigality? How did he lodge and maintain his horse? Of what horrid cruelties was he guilty? How did he express himself when incensed at the citizens?

9. What expedition did Caligula undertake? How did he act upon his march to Britain? What ridiculous conduct did he display in Batavia?

10. Who conceived the design of killing the tyrant? What insults had Chærea received from Caligula? Who joined him in his conspiracy? What incident gave new strength to it? What fortitude did Quinctilia display?

11. When and where did the conspirators intend to execute their purpose? How was it concealed after being discovered?

12. Who persuaded Caligula to go to the bath? How was he despatched? At what period of his age and reign was he assassinated?

SECTION IV.

A. D. 41. }
Y. R. 794. } 1. As soon as the death of Caligula was made public, it produced the greatest confusion in all parts of the city. The conspirators, who only aimed at destroying a tyrant, without attending to a successor, had all sought their safety by retiring to private places. The senate now assembled to deliberate about a successor; but, as they could not agree who should be the person, chance seemed at last to decide the fate of the empire. Some soldiers, who were running about the palace, discovered Claudius, Caligula's uncle, lurking in a secret place, where he had hid himself through fear. Of this personage, who had hitherto been despised on account of his imbecility, they resolved to make an emperor; and accordingly carried him upon their shoulders to the camp, where they proclaimed him, at a time when he expected nothing but death; and the senate confirmed their choice. Claudius was fifty years old when he began to reign. The complicated diseases of his infancy had, in some measure, affected both the members of his body and the faculties of his mind. He was continued in a state of pupilage much longer than was usual at that time, and seemed in every part of life incapable of conducting himself.

2. The commencement of his reign, as it was with all the other bad emperors, gave the most promising hopes of a happy continuance. He began by passing an act of oblivion for all words and actions that had given offence during the late reign, and disannulled all the cruel edicts of Caligula. He showed himself more moderate than his predecessors with regard to titles and honours. He forbade all persons, upon severe penalties, to sacrifice to him as they had done to Caligula. He

was assiduous in hearing and examining complaints ; and frequently administered justice in person, tempering, by his mildness, the severity of justice. To his solicitude for the internal advantages of the state, he added that of a watchful guardianship over the provinces. He restored Judea to Herod Agrippa, which Caligula had taken from Herod Antipas, his uncle, the man who had put John the Baptist to death, and who was banished by order of the present emperor. Claudius also restored such princes to their kingdoms as had been unjustly dispossessed by his predecessors ; but he deprived the Lycians and Rhodians of their liberty, for having promoted insurrections, and crucified some citizens of Rome.

3. He even undertook to gratify the people by foreign conquest. The Britons, who had, for nearly a hundred years, been left in the undisputed possession of their island, began to seek the mediation of Rome to quell their own intestine commotions. The principal man who desired to subject his native country to the Roman dominion, was one Bericus, who, by many arguments, persuaded the emperor to make a descent upon the island, magnifying the advantages that would attend the conquest of it. In pursuance of his advice, therefore, Plautius, the prætor, was ordered to pass into Gaul, and make preparations for this great expedition. At first, indeed, his soldiers seemed backward to embark, declaring that they were unwilling to make war beyond the limits of the world, for so they judged Britain to be. However, they were at last persuaded to go ; and the Britons, under the conduct of their king, Cynobelinus, were several times overthrown. These successes soon after induced Claudius to go to Britain in person, upon pretence that the natives were still seditious, and had not delivered up some Roman fugitives, who had taken shelter among them. His expedition, however, seemed rather calculated for show than service : the time he continued in Britain, which was in all but sixteen days, was more taken up in receiving homage than extending his conquests. Great rejoicings were made upon his return to Rome ; the senate decreed him a splendid triumph ; magnificent arches were erected to his honour ; and annual games instituted to commemorate his victories.

4. In the mean time the war was vigorously prosecuted by Plautius, and his lieutenant Vespasian, who, according to Suetonius, fought thirty battles with the enemy, and by that means reduced a part of the island into the form of a Roman province. However, this war broke out afresh under the government of Ostorius, who succeeded Plautius. The Britons, either despising him for want of experience, or

hoping to gain advantages over a person newly come to command, rose up in arms, and disclaimed the Roman power. The Iceni, the Cangi, and the Brigantes, made a powerful resistance, though they were at length overcome; but the Silures, or inhabitants of South Wales, under their king Caractacus, were the most formidable opponents that the Roman generals had ever yet encountered. This brave barbarian not only made a gallant defence, but often seemed to claim a doubtful victory. He, with great conduct, removed the seat of war into the most inaccessible parts of the country, and for nine years kept the Romans in continual alarm. This general, however, upon the approach of Ostorius, finding himself obliged to come to a decisive engagement, addressed his countrymen with calm resolution, telling them that this battle would either establish their liberty, or confirm their servitude; that they ought to remember the bravery of their ancestors, by whose valour they were delivered from taxes and tributes, and that now was the time to show themselves equal to their progenitors. Nothing, however, that undisciplined valour could perform could avail against the valour of the Roman legions. After an obstinate battle, the Britons were entirely routed; the wife and daughter of Caractacus were taken prisoners; and he himself, taking refuge with Cartismandua, queen of the Brigantes, was treacherously delivered up to the conquerors.

5. When he was brought to Rome, nothing could exceed the curiosity of the people to behold a man who had for so many years braved the power of the empire. On his part, he testified no marks of base dejection; but, as he was led through the streets, happening to observe the splendour of every thing around him, "Alas!" cried he, "how is it possible that a nation, possessed of such magnificence at home, could think of envying Caractacus an humble cottage in Britain!" When he was brought before the emperor, while the other captives sued for pity with the most abject lamentations, Caractacus stood before the tribunal with an intrepid air, and seemed rather willing to accept of pardon, than meanly solicitous of suing for it. "If," cried he, towards the end of his speech, "I had yielded immediately, and without opposition, neither my fortune would have been remarkable, nor your glory memorable; you would have ceased to be victorious, and I had been forgotten. If now, therefore, you spare my life, I shall continue a perpetual example of your clemency." Claudius had the generosity to pardon him; and Ostorius was decreed a triumph, which, however, he did not live to enjoy.

6. Claudius, in the beginning of his reign, gave the highest hopes of a happy continuance of it; but he soon began to les-

sen his care for the public, and to commit to his favourites all the concerns of the empire. This weak prince had, from his infancy, been in a state of pupillage; and now, when called to govern, he was unable to act but under the direction of others. The chief of his instructors was his wife Messalina, whose name is almost become a common appellation for women of abandoned characters. By her was Claudius urged on to commit cruelties, which he considered only as wholesome severities; while her debaucheries became every day more notorious; and her profligacy exceeded what had ever been seen in Rome. Her crimes and enormities, however, being at length discovered, she, together with her paramour, Caius Silius, suffered that death they so justly deserved.

7. Claudius took for his second wife Agrippina, the daughter of his brother Germanicus, a woman of a cruel and ambitious spirit. Her whole aim being to procure the succession for Nero, her son by a former marriage, she treated Claudius with such haughtiness that he was heard to declare, when heated with wine, that it was his fate to suffer the disorders of his wives, and to be their executioner. This expression sunk deep on her mind, and engaged all her faculties to prevent the blow. She therefore resolved not to defer a crime which she had long meditated, which was to poison him. For some time, however, she debated with herself in what manner she should administer the poison, as she feared that too strong a dose would discover her treachery, and that one too weak might fail of its effect. At length she determined upon a poison of a singular efficacy, to destroy his intellects, and yet not suddenly to terminate his life. As she had been long conversant in this horrid practice, she applied to a woman called Locusta, notorious for assisting on such occasions. The poison was given to the emperor among mushrooms, a dish he was particularly fond of. Shortly after having eaten, he dropt down insensible, and was carried off from the table to his bed; but this was no immediate occasion of alarm, as it was usual with him to sit eating till he had stupified all his faculties. However, his constitution seemed to have overcome the effects of the poison; when Agrippina resolved to make sure of his death, by directing a wretched physician, who was
 A. D. 54. }
 Y. R. 807. } her creature, to thrust a poisoned feather down his throat, under pretence of making him vomit, and thus despatched him.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded Caligula in the government? At what age did Claudius commence his reign? What were the constitutional infirmities of his mind and body?

2. What prudence did he discover in the beginning of his administration? To whom did he restore Judea and other kingdoms of the empire? Whom did he deprive of their liberty for having abused it?

3. What foreign expedition did he undertake? Who was sent to conduct it, and what success attended his arms? How long did Claudius remain in Britain, and what honours were paid him on returning to Rome?

4. How did Plautius and Vespasian carry on the war in Britain? Who rose in arms against Ostorius the governor? What bravery did Caractacus display? How did he address his army before an engagement? What was the result of it?

5. What remark did Caractacus make when led as a captive through the streets of Rome? In what manner did he address the emperor? What effect did his intrepidity produce upon Claudius?

6. To whom did Claudius commit the affairs of the empire? Who urged him to the commission of cruelties? What was the ultimate fate of Messalina?

7. Whom did Claudius afterwards marry? What was the chief aim of his wife Agrippina? What crime did she now meditate? Whom did she call to her assistance? How did she at length accomplish her design?

SECTION V.

A. D. 54. } 1. AGRIPPINA took every precaution to conceal
 Y. R. 807. } Claudius's death from the public, till she had settled her measures for securing the succession. When all things were adjusted, the late emperor's death was announced, and Nero, accompanied by Burrhus, prefect of the Prætorian guards, issued out of the palace to receive the congratulations of the people and the army. Nero, though but seventeen years of age, began his reign with the general approbation of mankind. He appeared just, liberal, and humane; for, when a warrant for the execution of a criminal was brought him to be signed, he was heard to cry out, with seeming concern, "Would to Heaven that I had never learnt to write!" But, as he increased in years, his crimes seemed to increase in equal proportion. The execution of his own mother Agrippina was the first alarming instance he gave of his cruelty. Having attempted to get her drowned at sea, and failed in his purpose, he ordered her to be put to death in her palace; and, coming in person to gaze upon the dead body, was heard to say, that he never thought his mother had been so handsome! All the bounds of virtue being thus broken down, Nero now gave full scope to his appetites, which were not only sordid but inhuman. There seemed an odd contrast in his disposition; for, while he practised cruelties which were sufficient to make the mind shudder with horror, he was fond of those amusing arts that soften and refine the heart. He was, even from childhood, particularly fond of music, and not totally ignorant of poetry; but chariot-driving was his favourite pursuit; and all these he was frequently seen to exhibit in public.

2. But it would have been happy for mankind had he confined himself to these, and, contented with being contemptible, not sought to become formidable also. His cruelties even outdid all his other extravagancies. He seemed even studious of finding out pleasures, as well as crimes, against nature. Being attired in the habit of a woman, and covered with a yellow veil like a bride, he was wedded to one of his abominable companions, called Pythagoras, and again to his freedman Doryphorus. A great part of the city of Rome was consumed by fire in his time; and most historians ascribe the conflagration to himself. It is said that he stood upon a high tower during the continuance of the flames, enjoying the sight, and repeating in a player's habit, and in a theatrical manner, some verses upon the destruction of Troy.—As a proof of his guilt upon this occasion, none were permitted to lend any assistance towards extinguishing the flames; and several persons were seen setting fire to the houses, alleging that they had orders for so doing. However this be, the emperor used every art to throw the odium of so detestable an action from himself, and to fix it upon the Christians, who were at that time gaining ground in Rome. Nothing could be more dreadful than the persecution raised against them upon this false accusation. Some were covered with the skins of wild beasts, and, in that attire, devoured by dogs. Some were crucified and others burnt alive. “When the day was not sufficient for their tortures, the flames in which they perished,” says Tacitus, “served to illuminate the night;” while Nero, dressed in the habit of a charioteer, amused himself with their tortures from his gardens, and, at one time, entertained the people with their sufferings, at another, with the games of the Circus!—In this persecution St Paul was beheaded, and St Peter was crucified with his head downwards,—a mode of death which he chose, as being more dishonourable than that of his Divine Master.

3. A conspiracy formed against Nero by Piso, a man of great power and integrity, which was prematurely discovered, opened a new train of suspicion to the tyrant, which occasioned the destruction of many of the principal families in Rome. The two most remarkable personages that fell on this occasion, were Seneca the philosopher, and Lucan the poet, who was his nephew. Nero, either having real evidence against Seneca, or else hating him for his virtues, sent a tribune to inform him that he was suspected as an accomplice in Piso's conspiracy. The tribune found the philosopher at table with Paulina his wife, and, on informing him of his business, Seneca replied, that his welfare depended upon no man; that he had

never been accustomed to indulge the vices of the emperor, and would not do it now. When this answer was brought to Nero, he demanded whether Seneca seemed afraid to die? and the tribune replying, that he did not appear in the least terrified: "Then go to him again," cried the emperor, "and give him my orders to die." Accordingly he sent a centurion to Seneca, signifying that it was the emperor's pleasure that he should die immediately. Seneca seemed no way discomposed, and was not unmindful of his former constancy. He endeavoured to console his wife for his loss, and exhorted her to a life of persevering virtue. But she seemed resolved on not surviving him, and pressed her request to die with him so earnestly, that Seneca, who had long looked upon death as a benefit, at last gave his consent, and the veins of both their arms were opened at the same time. As Seneca was old, and much enfeebled by the austerities of his life, the blood flowed but slowly, so that he caused the veins of his legs and thighs to be opened also. His pains were long and violent, but they were not capable of repressing his fortitude or his eloquence. He dictated a discourse to two secretaries, which, after his death, was read with great eagerness by the people, but which has since perished in the wreck of time. His agonies being now drawn out to a great length, he at last demanded poison from his physician; but this also failed of its effect, his body being already exhausted, and incapable of exciting its operation. He was then carried into a warm bath, which only served to prolong his life; at length, therefore, he was put into a dry stove, the vapour of which quickly despatched him. In the mean time his wife Paulina, having fallen into a swoon with the loss of blood, had her arms bound up by her domestics, and by this means survived her husband for some years; but, by her conduct during the rest of her life, she seemed always mindful of her own love and of his example.

4. The death of Lucan was not less remarkable. The veins of his arms being opened, after he had lost a great quantity of blood, perceiving his hands and legs already dead, while the vital parts still continued warm and vigorous, he called to mind a description in his own poem of the Pharsalia, of a person dying in similar circumstances, and expired while he was repeating that beautiful passage:

No single wound the gaping rupture seems,
When trickling crimson wells in slender streams;
But from an opening horrible and wide
A thousand vessels form the bursting tide;
Soon from the lower parts the spirit fled,
And motionless the exhausted limbs lay dead;
Not so the nobler regions, where the heart
And heaving lungs their vital powers exert

There, lingering, late, and long conflicting, life
 Rose against fate, and still maintain'd the strife:
 Drawn out at length, unwillingly and slow,
 She left her mortal house, and sought the shades below.*

ROWE.

The death of Petronius, about this time, is too remarkable to be passed over in silence. This person, whom many modern historians suppose to be the author of a work of no great merit, entitled *Satyricon*, which is still remaining, was an Epicurean both in principle and practice. In so luxurious a court as that of Nero, he was particularly noted for his refinements in luxury. He was accused of being accessory to Piso's conspiracy, and committed to prison. Petronius could not endure the anxiety of suspense, and therefore resolved upon putting himself to death, which he did in a manner entirely similar to that in which he had lived. That he might suffer the least possible pain, he opened and closed his veins at intervals, and while the tide of life was gradually ebbing, conversed with his friends with the utmost cheerfulness and tranquillity, not upon maxims of philosophy or grave subjects, but upon such topics as had amused his gayest revels. He listened while they recited the lightest poems, and by no action, word, or circumstance, showed the perplexity of a dying person.—Shortly after him, Numicius Thermus was put to death, as likewise Barea Soranus, and Pætus Thræsea. The destruction of the two last, Tacitus calls an attack upon virtue itself. Thræsea died in the midst of his friends, and surrounded by philosophers, conversing and reasoning on the nature of the soul. His wife, who was the daughter of the celebrated Arria, was desirous of following her mother's example, but he dissuaded her from it. The death of the valiant Corbulo, who had gained Nero so many victories over the Parthians, followed next. Nor did the empress Poppæa herself escape, whom, in a fit of anger, Nero kicked when she was pregnant, and thus occasioned her miscarriage and death.—At length, nature grew weary of bearing her persecutor, and all mankind seemed to be roused, as if by common consent, to rid themselves of a monster.

5. *Sergius Galba*, who was at that time governor of Spain, was remarkable for his wisdom in peace and his courage in

* “ *Nec, sicut vulnere sanguis
 Emicuit lentus : ruptis cadit undique venis.*

*Pars ultima trunci
 Tradidit in letum vacuos vitalibus artus ;
 At tumidus qua pulmo jacet, qua viscera fervent,
 Hæserunt ibi fata diu ; luctataque multum
 Ilac cum parte, viri vix omnia membra tulerunt.*

war ; but, as all talents under corrupt princes are dangerous, he for some years had seemed willing to court obscurity, giving himself up to an inactive life, and avoiding all opportunity of signalizing his valour. But, willing to free his country of a tyrant, he accepted the invitation of Vindex, who had the command in Gaul, to march with an army towards Rome. The reputation of that general was such, that, from the moment he declared against Nero, the tyrant considered himself undone. He received the account as he was at supper ; and, instantly struck with terror, overturned the table with his foot, breaking two crystal vases of immense value. He then fell into a swoon, from which, when he recovered, he tore his clothes, and struck his head, crying out, “ that he was utterly undone.” He now, therefore, called for Locusta to furnish him with poison ; and thus, being prepared for the worst, he retired to the Servilian gardens, with a resolution of flying into Egypt. Being prevented from executing his purpose, and the revolt having now become general, he went in person from house to house ; but every door was shut against him, and none were found to answer his inquiries. Being now reduced to a state of desperation, he desired that one of his favourite gladiators might come and despatch him ; but even in this request there was none found to obey.—“ Alas !” cried he, “ have I neither friend nor enemy ?” And then running desperately forth, he seemed resolved to plunge headlong into the Tiber. But his courage beginning to fail him, he made a sudden stop, as if willing to recollect himself, and asked for some secret place, where he might reassume his courage, and meet death with becoming fortitude.

6. In this distress Phaon, one of his freedmen, offered him his country-house, about four miles distant, where he might for some time remain concealed. Nero accepted his offer, and, half-dressed as he was, with his head covered, and hiding his face with his handkerchief, he mounted on horseback, attended by four of his domestics. His journey, though short, was crowded with adventures. An earthquake gave him the first alarm. The lightning from heaven next flashed in his face. Round him he heard nothing but confused noises from the camp, and the cries of the soldiers, imprecating a thousand evils on his head. A passenger meeting him on the way, cried, “ There go men in pursuit of Nero.” Another asked him if there was any news of Nero in the city ? His horse taking fright at a dead body that lay on the road, he dropped his handkerchief, and a soldier, who was near, addressed him by name. He now therefore quitted his horse ; and, forsaking the highway, entered a thicket that led towards the back

part of Phaon's house, through which he crept, making the best of his way among the reeds and brambles, with which the place was overgrown. During this interval, the senate, finding that the Prætorian guards had taken part with Galba, declared him emperor, and condemned Nero to die, *more majorem*, that is, according to the rigour of the ancient laws. When he was told of the resolution of the senate against him, he asked the messenger what was meant by being punished in that manner? To this he was answered, That the criminal was to be stripped naked, his head was to be fixed on a pillory, and in that posture he was to be scourged to death.

7. Nero was so terrified at this prospect, that he seized two poniards which he had brought with him, and, examining their points, returned them to their sheaths, pretending that the fatal moment was not yet arrived.—He then desired one of his attendants to begin the lamentations which were used at funerals; he next entreated that some of them would die, to give him courage by their example; and afterwards began to reproach his own cowardice, crying out, “Does this become Nero? is this trifling well-timed? No, no, let me be courageous.” In fact he had no time to spare, for the soldiers who had been sent in pursuit of him were just then approaching the house; wherefore, hearing the sound of the horses' feet, he set a dagger to his throat, with which, by the assistance of Epaphroditus, his freedman and secretary, he gave himself a mortal wound. However, he was not quite dead, when one of the centurions entering the room, and pretending he came to his relief, attempted to stop the blood with his cloak. But Nero, regarding him with a stern countenance, said, “It is now too late. Is this your fidelity?” Upon which, with his eyes fixed, and frightfully staring, he expired; exhibiting, even in death, a ghastly spectacle of noxious tyranny. He had reigned thirteen years, seven months, and twenty-eight days, and died in the thirty-second year of his age.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded Claudius? In what manner did Nero commence his reign? How did he afterwards change his conduct, and what was the first instance of his cruelty? What strange mixture appeared in his disposition?

2. What abominable conduct did he now display? How did he act when Rome was in a state of conflagration? Whom did he unjustly charge with setting the city on fire? What dreadful persecution did the Christians endure? Which of the apostles suffered at this time?

3. Who formed a conspiracy against Nero? What celebrated men fell victims to his cruelty? How did Seneca employ his last moments? What became of Paulina, his wife?

4. What was remarkable in the death of Lucan? Of what was Petro-

nus accused, and how did he behave before his death? What other persons suffered after Petronius? How did Nero treat his wife Poppæa?

5. Who marched with an army to depose Nero? How did he act on learning that Galba had declared against him? To what extremity was he now reduced?

6. Whither did he now retire, and what adventures did he meet with? What measures did the senate adopt? What punishment did he learn was denounced against him?

7. How did he act on receiving this intelligence? How did he at length put a period to his existence? How long had he reigned?

SECTION VI.

A. D. 68. } 1. GALBA was seventy-two years old when he was
Y. R. 821. } declared emperor, and was then in Spain with his legions. However, he soon found that his being raised to the throne was but an inlet to new inquietudes. The first of these arose from a revolt in the army, which, however, was soon suppressed. On coming to the throne, he seemed to have three objects in view at the beginning of his administration;—to curb the insolence of the soldiers; to punish those vices which had arrived at an enormous height in the last reign; and to replenish the exchequer, which had been quite drained by the prodigality of his predecessors. But, by permitting himself to be governed by favourites, he at one time showed himself severe and frugal, at another remiss and prodigal; condemning some illustrious persons without a hearing, and pardoning others though really guilty. In consequence of this conduct, many seditions were kindled, and several factions were promoted in different parts of the empire, but particularly in Germany. Galba being informed of these commotions, was sensible that, besides his age, he was less respected for want of an heir; and therefore resolved to put what he had formerly designed in execution, namely, to adopt some person whose virtues might deserve such advancement, and protect his declining age from danger. His favourites having learned his determination, instantly resolved on giving him an heir of their own choosing, so that there arose a great contention among them upon this occasion.

2. Otho made warm application for himself; alleging the great services he had done the emperor, as being the first man of rank who came to his assistance when he had declared against Nero. Galba, however, being resolved to consult the public good alone, rejected his suit, and on a day appointed ordered Piso Licinianus to attend him. The character of Piso, as given by historians, was every way worthy of the honour designed for him. He was not related to Galba, and had no other interest than merit to recommend him to his favour.

Taking the youth, therefore, by the hand, in the presence of his friends, he adopted him as his successor in the empire, giving him the most wholesome lessons for guiding his future conduct. Piso's conduct showed that he was highly deserving of this distinction. In all his deportment there appeared such modesty, firmness, and equality of mind, as bespoke him rather capable of discharging, than ambitious of obtaining his present dignity.—But the army and the senate did not seem equally disinterested upon this occasion: for, as they had been so long used to bribery and corruption, they could not bear an emperor who was not in a capacity to satisfy their avarice. The adoption of Piso, therefore, was but coldly received; for his virtues were no recommendation to a people overrun with universal depravity.—Otho, who had long been a favourite of Galba, and hoped to be adopted his successor in the empire, finding his expectations thus disappointed, and still further stimulated by the immense load of debt which he had contracted by his riotous way of living, resolved upon obtaining the empire by force, since he could not secure it by peaceable succession. Having, therefore, corrupted the fidelity of the army, he stole secretly from the emperor while he was sacrificing; and, assembling the soldiers, represented strongly the cruelties and avarice of Galba. Finding his invectives received with universal shouts by the whole army, he entirely threw off the mask, and avowed his intentions of dethroning him. The soldiers, being ripe for sedition, immediately seconded his views; and, taking Otho upon their shoulders, instantly declared him emperor; nay, in order to strike the citizens with terror, they carried him, with their swords drawn, into the camp.

3. Soon after, on finding Galba deserted, in a great measure, by his adherents, the soldiers rushed in upon him, trampling the crowds of people, who then filled the forum, under foot. Galba seeing them approach, seemed to collect all his fortitude; and, bending his head forward, bid the assassin strike it off, if it were for the good of the people. This was quickly performed; and his head being set upon the point of a lance, was presented to Otho, who ordered it to be contemptuously carried round the camp, his body remaining unburied in the streets, till it was interred by one of his slaves. He died in the seventy-third year of his age, after a short reign of seven months, which, though dignified in some respects by his own virtues, was contaminated by the vices of his favourites, who shared in his downfall.

4. Otho, who was now elected emperor, began his reign by a signal instance of clemency in pardoning Marius Celsus

who had been highly favoured by Galba ; and, not contented with barely forgiving, he advanced him also to the highest honours, asserting that, “ Fidelity deserved every reward.”—In the mean time, the legions in Lower Germany, having been purchased by the large gifts and specious promises of Vitellius, their general, were at length induced to proclaim him emperor ; and, regardless of the senate, they declared that they had as good a right to appoint to that high station as the cohorts at Rome. Otho departed from Rome with all haste, to give Vitellius battle. The army of Vitellius, which consisted of seventy thousand men, was commanded by his generals Valens and Cæcina, he himself remaining in Gaul, in order to bring up the rest of his forces. Both sides hastened to meet each other with so much animosity and precipitation, that three considerable battles were fought in the space of three days ;—one near Placentia, another near Cremona, and a third at a place called the Temple of Castor ; in all which Otho and his party had the advantage. But these successes were of short-lived continuance ; for Valens and Cæcina, who had hitherto acted separately, joining their forces, and re-enforcing their armies with fresh supplies, resolved to come to a general engagement at Bedriacum. In this, Otho’s forces

April. }
 A. D. 69. }
 Y. R. 822. }

were totally overthrown, and he killed himself shortly after, having reigned only three months and five days.

5. Vitellius was immediately after declared emperor by the senate, and received those marks of distinction which were accustomed to follow the strongest side. Upon his arrival at Rome, he entered the city, not as a place he came to govern with justice, but as a town that was become his own by the laws of conquest. Vitellius soon gave himself up to all kinds of luxury and profuseness ; but gluttony was his favourite vice, so that he brought himself to a habit of vomiting in order to be able to renew his meals at pleasure. His entertainments, though seldom at his own cost, were prodigiously expensive ; and such was his meanness, that he frequently invited himself to the tables of his subjects, breakfasting with one, dining with another, and supping with a third, all in the same day. By the continuance of such vices, added to enormous cruelties, he became not only a burden to himself, but also odious to all mankind. Having thus become insupportable to the inhabitants of Rome, the legions of the east, who had at first acquiesced in his dominion, began to revolt, and shortly after unanimously resolved to make Vespasian emperor.

6. During the preparations against him, Vitellius, though buried in sloth and luxury, was resolved to make an effort to defend the empire ; and for this purpose his chief commanders,

Valens and Cæcina, were ordered to make all possible preparations to resist the invaders. The first army that entered Italy with a hostile intention, was under the command of Antonius Primus, who was met by Cæcina near Cremona. A battle was expected to ensue; but a negotiation taking place, Cæcina was prevailed upon to change sides, and declare for Vespasian. His army, however, quickly repented of what they had done, and, imprisoning their general, attacked Antonius, though without a leader. The engagement continued during the whole night; and in the morning, after a short repast, both armies engaged a second time, when the soldiers of Antonius saluting the rising sun, according to custom, the Vitellians, supposing that they had received new reinforcements, betook themselves to flight, with the loss of thirty thousand men. In the mean time, Vitellius, who was wallowing in all kinds of luxury and excess, made offers to Vespasian of resigning the empire, provided his life were spared, and a sufficient revenue allotted for his support. In order to enforce this request, he issued from his palace in deep mourning, with all his domestics weeping around him. He then went to offer the sword of justice to Cæcilius the consul, which, however, he refused, and the abject emperor prepared to lay down the ensigns of empire in the temple of Concord; but, being interrupted by some who cried out that he himself was Concord, he resolved, upon so weak an encouragement, still to maintain his power, and immediately prepared for his defence.

7. During this fluctuation of counsels, one Sabinus, who had advised Vitellius to resign, perceiving his desperate situation, resolved by a bold step to secure the crown for Vespasian, and accordingly seized on the capitol. But he was premature in his attempt; for the soldiers of Vitellius attacking him with great fury, and prevailing by their numbers, soon laid that beautiful building in ashes. During this conflagration, Vitellius was feasting in the palace of Tiberius, and beholding all the horrors of the assault with great satisfaction. Sabinus was taken prisoner, and shortly after executed by the emperor's command.—Young Domitian, his nephew, who was afterwards emperor, escaped by flight in the habit of a priest; and all the rest who survived the fire were put to the sword. But Antonius, Vespasian's commander, having now arrived before the walls of the city, the forces of Vitellius resolved upon defending it to the utmost extremity. It was attacked on three sides with the utmost fury; while the army within, sallying out upon the besiegers, repulsed them with equal obstinacy. The battle lasted a whole day; till at last the besieged were driven into the city, and a dreadful slaughter en-

sued in all the streets, which they vainly attempted to defend. —Vitellius was soon found lurking in an obscure corner, whence he was taken by a party of the conquering soldiers. Still, however, willing to add a few hours more to his miserable life, he begged to be kept in prison till the arrival of Vespasian at Rome, pretending that he had secrets of importance to discover. But his entreaties were vain; for the soldiers binding his hands behind him, and throwing a halter round his neck, led him along half-naked into the public forum, upbraiding him, as they proceeded, with all those bitter reproaches which their malice could suggest, or his cruelty deserved. At December. } length, on coming to the place of execution, they
A. D. 69. }
Y. R. 822. } killed him with many blows; and then dragging his dead body through the streets with a hook, they threw it with all possible ignominy into the Tiber.

EXERCISES.

1. What was Galba's age when he was declared emperor? What were the objects he kept in view during his administration? Of what imprudence and injustice was he guilty, and what was the consequence? What resolution did he now form?

2. Whom did Galba appoint his successor? What was the character of Piso? How was his nomination received by the army? Why did Otho resolve to obtain the empire by force? How did he at last effect his purpose?

3. How did the soldiers assassinate Galba? How long had he reigned? How did Otho display his clemency after his accession?

4. Who was proclaimed emperor by the legions in Germany? Of what number did the forces of Vitellius consist? What battles were fought between the two armies? By whom were Otho's troops overthrown, and what became of him?

5. Who was now declared emperor by the senate? How did Vitellius behave on coming to the throne? What legions now declared against him?

6. What preparations did Vitellius make to oppose him? What engagements now ensued, and what was the consequence? What proposal did Vitellius make, and why did he retract it?

7. Who seized the capitol, and what became of it? How did the soldiers of Vitellius defend Rome? What became of Vitellius?

SECTION VII.

A. D. 69. } 1. VESPASIAN was now declared emperor, with the
Y. R. 822. } unanimous consent both of the senate and the army, and dignified with all those titles which now followed rather the power than the merit of those who were appointed to govern. Having continued some months at Alexandria in Egypt, he gave his son Titus the command of the army that was to lay siege to Jerusalem; while he himself proceeded to Italy, and was met many miles from Rome by all the senate, and nearly half the inhabitants, who gave the sincerest testimonies

of their joy in having an emperor of such great and experienced virtues. Nor did he in the least disappoint their expectations, being equally assiduous in rewarding merit, in pardoning his adversaries, in reforming the manners of the citizens, and setting them the best example in his own conduct.

2. In the mean time Titus carried on the war against the Jews with vigour. This obstinate and infatuated people had long resolved to resist the Roman power, vainly hoping to find protection from Heaven, which their impieties had utterly offended. Their own historian represents them as arrived at the highest pitch of wickedness ; while famines, earthquakes, and prodigies, all conspired to presage their approaching ruin. Nor was it sufficient that heaven and earth seemed combined against them ; they had the most bitter dissensions among themselves, and were divided into two parties, that robbed and destroyed each other with impunity, while they boasted of their zeal for the religion of their ancestors. At the head of one of these parties was an incendiary, whose name was John. This fanatic affected sovereign power, and filled the whole city of Jerusalem, and all the towns around, with tumult and pillage. In a short time a new faction arose, headed by one Simon ; who, gathering together multitudes of robbers and murderers that had fled to the mountains, attacked many cities and towns, and reduced all Idumea under his power. Jerusalem, at length, became the theatre in which these two demagogues began to exercise their mutual animosity ; John was possessed of the temple, while Simon possessed himself of the city, both being equally enraged against each other, while slaughter and devastation attended their contests. Thus did a city, formerly celebrated for peace and tranquillity, become the seat of tumult and confusion.

3. It was in this miserable situation that Titus began his operations within six furlongs of the city of Jerusalem, during the feast of the Passover, when the place was filled with an infinite number of people, who had come from all parts to celebrate the great solemnity. The approach of the Romans produced a temporary reconciliation between the contending factions within the city ; so that they unanimously resolved to oppose the common enemy first, and then decide their domestic quarrels at a more convenient season. The first sally, which was made with much fury and resolution, put the besiegers into great disorder, and obliged them to abandon their camp, and flee to the mountains. But the Romans soon rallying, recommenced their attack, and the Jews were forced back into the city, while Titus in person showed surprising instances of valour and conduct. The slight advantage which

the Jews had gained over the enemy only renewed their desires of private revenge. A tumult ensued in the temple, in which several of both parties were slain ; and, in this manner, upon every cessation of hostilities from without, the factions of John and Simon violently raged against each other within, agreeing only in their resolution to defend the city against the Romans.

4. The city was strongly fortified by three walls on every side, except where it was fenced by deep valleys. Titus began by battering down the outward wall, which, after much fatigue and danger, he at last effected, showing all the time the greatest clemency to the Jews, and offering them repeated assurances of pardon. Five days after the commencement of the siege, Titus broke through the second wall ; and though driven back by the besieged, he recovered his ground, and made preparations for battering the third wall, which was their last defence.—But before commencing his operations, he sent Josephus, their countryman, into the city, to exhort them to yield ; who, though he used all his eloquence to persuade them, was only reviled with scoffs and reproaches. The siege was now, therefore, carried on with greater vigour than before ; several descriptions of engines were raised, which were no sooner built than destroyed by the enemy. At length it was resolved in council to surround the whole city with a trench, and thus prevent all relief and succours from abroad. This mode of circumvallation, which was quickly executed, seemed no way to intimidate the Jews. Though famine and pestilence now began to make the most horrid ravages among them, yet this desperate people still resolved to hold out to the last. Titus, perceiving their determination, now cut down all the woods within a considerable distance of the city ; and, causing more battering engines to be raised, at length beat down the wall, and in five days entered the citadel by force.

5. The Jews, however, continued to deceive themselves with absurd and false expectations ; while many false prophets deluded the multitude, declaring that they should soon have assistance from God. The heat of the battle was now gathered round the inner wall of the temple, while the defendants desperately combated from the top. Titus was very anxious to save this beautiful structure ; but a soldier having cast a brand into some adjacent buildings, the fire communicated to the temple, and, notwithstanding the utmost endeavours on both sides to preserve it, the whole edifice was quickly consumed. The sight of the temple in ruins effectually served to damp the ardour of the Jews. They now began to perceive that Heaven had forsaken them ; while their cries and lamentations

echoed from the adjacent mountains. Even those who were almost expiring lifted up their dying eyes to bewail the loss of their temple, which they valued more than life itself. The most resolute, however, still endeavoured to defend the upper and strongest part of the city, named Zion ; but Titus, with his battering engines, soon made himself master of the place. John and Simon were taken from the vaults where they had concealed themselves ; the former was condemned to perpetual imprisonment, and the latter reserved to grace the conqueror's triumph. The greatest part of the populace were
 'A. D. 70. }
 'Y. R. 823. } put to the sword, and the city was, after six months' siege, entirely rased with the plough ; so that, according to our Saviour's prophecy, not one stone remained upon another. The numbers who perished in this siege, according to Josephus, amounted to above a million of souls, and the captives to almost a hundred thousand.

6. Upon the taking of Jerusalem, the soldiers of Titus would have crowned him as a conqueror ; but he modestly refused the honour, alleging that he was only an instrument in the hand of God, who manifestly declared his wrath against the Jews. At Rome, however, all men's mouths were filled with the praises of the conqueror, who had not only shown himself an excellent general, but a courageous combatant : his return in triumph, with his father, was marked with all the magnificence and joy that were in the power of men to express. All things esteemed the most valuable or beautiful were brought forward to adorn the splendour of this occasion.— Among the rich spoils taken from the Jews, were exposed vast quantities of gold found in the temple ; but the Book of the Holy Law was the most remarkable trophy among the magnificent profusion of costly rarities. This was the first time that ever Rome saw the father and the son triumph together. A triumphal arch was erected on this occasion, upon which werè inscribed all the victories of Titus over the Jews, and which remains almost entire to this day. Vespasian likewise built a temple to Peace, wherein were deposited most of the Jewish spoils ; and, having now calmed all commotions in every part of the empire, he shut the temple of Janus, which had been open for about five or six years.

7. Few emperors have received a better character from historians than Vespasian ; yet all his numerous acts of generosity and magnificence could not preserve him from the imputation of rapacity and avarice. He degraded himself by some very unusual and dishonourable imposts, even to the laying of a tax upon urine. When his son Titus remonstrated against the meanness of such a tax, Vespasian, taking a piece

of money, demanded if the smell offended him, adding, that this very money was produced by the impost. After having reigned ten years, beloved by his subjects, and deserving their affection, he was seized by a sudden indisposition in Campania, } which, from the beginning, he declared would be } fatal. Perceiving his end approaching, as he was just going to expire, he cried out, that an emperor ought to die standing; wherefore, raising himself upon his feet, he expired in the hands of those that sustained him.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded as the Roman emperor? How was he received on his approach to Rome? How did he behave in the administration?

2. How was his son Titus employed at this time? What occasioned the ruin of the Jews? What factions were excited in Jerusalem?

3. When did Titus commence his operations against that city? What temporary success attended a sally made by the Jews? What ensued afterwards within the city?

4. How did Titus carry on the siege, and in what manner did he show his clemency? What subsequent operations did he execute, and what was their result?

5. How was the temple of Jerusalem destroyed? What position did the Jews endeavour to defend, and how were they driven from it? What became of their leaders, the populace, and the city? How was our Saviour's prophecy respecting it fulfilled? What was the number of Jews that perished in this siege?

6. How was Titus extolled by his army and the people of Rome? What displays of magnificence marked his triumph? What buildings were erected on this joyful occasion?

7. How did Vespasian degrade his character? When did he fall sick, and what was the manner of his death? How long did he reign?

SECTION VIII.

} **1. TITUS** being joyfully received as emperor, began } his reign with the practice of every virtue that became a sovereign and a man. During the life of his father there had been many imputations against him for cruelty, lust, and prodigality; but, upon his exaltation to the throne, he seemed to take leave entirely of his former vices, and became an example of the greatest moderation and humanity. His first step towards gaining the affections of his subjects was moderating his passions, and restraining his vicious inclinations. He had long loved Berenice, sister to Agrippa, king of Judea, a woman of the greatest beauty and refined allurements. But, knowing that the connexion with her was entirely disagreeable to the people of Rome, he gained a victory over his affections, and sent her away, notwithstanding their mutual passion, and the many arts she employed to induce

him to change his resolution. He next discarded all those who had been the former ministers of his pleasures, and forbore to countenance the companions of his looser recreations, though he had taken great pains in the selection. This moderation, added to his justice and generosity, procured him the love of all good men, and the appellation of the Delight of Mankind, which all his actions seemed calculated to ensure.

2. Titus took particular care to punish all informers, false witnesses, and promoters of dissension. Those wretches, who had their rise in the licentiousness and impunity of former reigns, were now become so numerous that their crimes called loudly for punishment. Of these, therefore, he daily made public examples; condemning them to be scourged in the most public streets, next to be dragged through the theatre, and then banished into the uninhabited parts of the empire, or sold as slaves. His courtesy and readiness to do good have been celebrated even by Christian writers, his principal rule being never to send any petitioner away dissatisfied. One night, recollecting that he had done nothing beneficial to mankind the day preceding, he exclaimed among his friends, "I have lost a day!"—a sentence too remarkable not to be universally known. He was so regardful of the lives of his subjects, that he was often heard to affirm, he would rather die himself than put another to death. Learning that two noblemen had conspired against him, he readily forgave them; and the next day, placing them next himself in the theatre, he put the swords with which the gladiators fought into their hands, demanding their judgment and approbation, whether they were of sufficient shortness?

August 24, } 3. In this reign, an eruption of Mount Vesuvius
A. D. 79. } did considerable damage, overwhelming many towns, and throwing its ashes into countries more than a hundred miles distant. Upon this memorable occasion, Pliny, the naturalist, lost his life; for, being impelled by too eager a curiosity to observe the eruption, he was suffocated in the flames. There happened also about this time a fire at Rome, which continued three days and nights successively, and was followed by a plague, in which ten thousand men were buried in a day. The emperor, however, did all that lay in his power to repair the damages sustained by the public; and, with respect to the city, declared that he would take the whole loss of the buildings upon himself.

4. These disasters were in some measure counterbalanced by the success of the Romans in Britain, under Agricola. This excellent general, having been sent into that country towards the latter end of Vespasian's reign, showed himself

equally expert in quelling the refractory, and civilizing those who had formerly submitted to the Roman power. The Ordovices, or inhabitants of North Wales, were the first that were subdued. He then made a descent upon Mona, or the island of Anglesey, which surrendered at discretion. Having thus rendered himself master of the greatest part of the country, he took every method to restore discipline in his own army, and introduce some share of politeness among those whom he had conquered. He exhorted them, both by advice and example, to build temples, theatres, and stately houses. He caused the sons of their nobility to be initiated in the liberal arts; he had them instructed in the Latin language, and induced them to imitate the Roman modes of dress and living. Thus, by degrees, this barbarous people began to assume the luxurious manners of their conquerors, and, in a short time, even to outdo them in all the refinements of sensual pleasure. Upon account of these successes in Britain, Titus was saluted Imperator the fifteenth time; but he did not long survive this honour, being surprised by a violent fever at a little distance from Rome. He expired shortly after, not without suspicion of treachery from his brother Domitian, who had long wished

A. D. 81. } to govern the empire. He died in the forty-first year
 Y. R. 834. } of his age, having reigned two years, two months, and twenty days.

5. The beginning of Domitian's reign was universally acceptable to the people; as he appeared equally remarkable for his clemency, liberality, and justice. But he soon began to show the natural depravity of his mind. Instead of cultivating literature, as his father and his brother had done, he neglected all kinds of study, addicting himself wholly to meaner pursuits, particularly archery and gaming. He was so very expert an archer, that he would frequently cause one of his slaves to stand at a great distance, with his hands spread as a mark, and would shoot his arrows with such exactness as to stick them all between his fingers. He instituted three sorts of contests,—in music, horsemanship, and wrestling,—to be observed every five years; but at the same time he banished all philosophers and mathematicians from Rome. No emperor before him entertained the people with such various and expensive shows. During these diversions he distributed great rewards, sitting as president himself, adorned with a purple robe and crown, with the priests of Jupiter and the college of Flavian priests about him. The meanness of his occupation in solitude was a just contrast to his public exhibitions of ostentation. He usually spent his hours of retirement in catching flies, and sticking them through with a bodkin; so that

one of his servants, being asked if the emperor were alone? answered, that he had not so much as a fly to bear him company!

6. His vices seemed every day to increase with the duration of his reign. His ungrateful treatment of Agricola seemed the first symptom of his natural malevolence. Domitian was always particularly fond of obtaining military reputation, and therefore exceedingly jealous of it in others. He had marched, some time before, into Gaul upon a pretended expedition against the Catti, a people of Germany, and, without ever seeing the enemy, resolved to have the honour of a triumph upon his return to Rome. For that purpose he purchased a number of slaves, whom he dressed in German habits, and, at the head of this miserable procession, entered the city amidst the apparent acclamations and concealed contempt of all his subjects. Hence the successes of Agricola in Britain affected him with an extreme degree of envy. This admirable general pursued the advantages which he had already obtained. He subdued the Caledonians, and overcame Galgacus, the British chief, at the head of thirty thousand men; and afterwards sending out a fleet to scour the coast, first discovered Great

A. D. 84. }
Y. R. 837. } Britain to be an island. He likewise discovered and subdued the Orkneys, and reduced nearly the whole of Britain into a civilized province of the Roman empire. When the account of these successes was brought to Domitian, he received it with a seeming pleasure, but with real uneasiness. He thought Agricola's rising reputation a tacit reproach upon his own inactivity; and, instead of attempting to emulate, he resolved to suppress the merit of his services. He therefore ordered him to receive the marks of external approbation, and took care that triumphal ornaments, statues, and other honours, should be decreed him; but at the same time he removed him from his command, under pretence of appointing him to the government of Syria. Agricola accordingly surrendered his government of Britain to Sallustius Lucullus, but soon found that Syria was otherwise disposed of than to himself. Upon his return to Rome, which was privately and by night, he was coolly received by the emperor; and, dying some time after in retirement, it was supposed by some that his end was hastened by Domitian's direction.

7. Domitian soon after found the want of so experienced a commander, in the many irruptions of the barbarous nations that surrounded the empire. The Sarmatians in Europe, in union with those of Asia, made a formidable invasion of the northern provinces, destroying at once a whole legion and a general of the Romans. The Dacians, under the conduct of Decebalus their king, made an irruption,

A. D. 85. }
Y. R. 838. }

and overthrew the Romans in several engagements. At last, however, the barbarians were repelled, partly by force, and partly by the assistance of money, which only served to enable them to make future invasions with greater advantage. But in whatever way the enemy might have been repelled, Domitian was resolved not to lose the honour of a triumph. He returned in great splendour to Rome; and, not contented with thus triumphing twice without a victory, he resolved to take the surname of Germanicus, for his conquests over a people with whom he had never contended. In proportion as the ridicule of his subjects increased against him, his pride every day seemed to demand greater homage. He would permit his statues to be made only of gold and silver; he assumed to himself divine honours, and ordered that all men should treat him with the same appellations as the Divinity. His cruelty was not behind his arrogance; as he caused numbers of the most illustrious senators and others to be put to death upon the most trifling pretences. *Ælius Lamia* was condemned and executed only for jesting, though there was neither novelty nor poignancy in his humour. *Cocceianus* was murdered only for celebrating the nativity of *Otho*. *Pomposianus* shared the same fate, because it was foretold by an astrologer that he should be emperor. *Sallustius Lucullus*, his lieutenant in Britain, was put to death merely for having given his name to a new sort of lances of his own invention. *Junius Rusticus* was condemned for publishing a book, in which he commended *Thræsea* and *Priscus*, two philosophers, who opposed *Vespasian's* coming to the throne.

8. *Lucius Antonius*, governor of Upper Germany, knowing how much the emperor was detested at home, resolved upon making an effort for the throne, and accordingly assumed the ensigns of imperial dignity. As he was at the head of a formidable army, his success remained for a long time doubtful; but a sudden overflowing of the Rhine having divided his army, he was attacked at that juncture by *Normandus*, the emperor's general, and totally routed. The news of this victory, we are told, was brought to Rome by supernatural means on the same day that the battle was fought. Domitian's severity was greatly increased by this shortlived success. In order to discover those who were accomplices of the adverse party, he invented new tortures, sometimes cutting off the hands, at other times applying fire to the members of those whom he suspected of being his enemies. During these severities he aggravated his guilt by detestable hypocrisy, never pronouncing sentence without a preamble full of gentleness and mercy. The night before he crucified the comptroller of his household, he treated him with the greatest seeming friendship, and or-

dered him a dish of meat from his own table. He carried Aretinus Clemens with him in his own litter on the day he had determined upon his death. He was particularly terrible to the senate and nobility; the whole body of whom he frequently threatened to extirpate entirely. At one time he surrounded the senate-house with his troops, to the great consternation of all the senators. At another he resolved to amuse himself with their terrors in a different manner. He invited them into a spacious hall hung round with black, and illuminated by a few melancholy lamps, that diffused light only sufficient to show the horrors of the place. All around the hall were to be seen nothing but coffins, with the names of each of the senators written upon them, together with other objects of terror and instruments of execution. While the company beheld all these preparations with silent agony, several men, having their bodies blackened, each with a drawn sword in one hand, and a flaming torch in the other, entered the hall, and danced around them. When the guests expected nothing less than instant death from Domitian's well-known and capricious cruelty,—after some time the doors were set open, and one of the servants came to inform them, that the emperor gave all the company leave to withdraw.

9. These cruelties were rendered still more odious by his lust and avarice. Frequently, after presiding at an execution, he would retire with the lewdest prostitutes, and use the same bath along with them. The last part of the tyrant's reign was more insupportable than any of the preceding. Nero exercised his cruelties without being a spectator; but a principal share of the Roman miseries during Domitian's reign was to see and be seen; to behold the stern air and fiery visage of the tyrant, which he had armed against blushing by continued intemperance, directing the tortures of his unhappy victims, and maliciously pleased with adding poignance to every agony. But a period was soon to be put to this monster's cruelties. Among the number of those whom he at once caressed and suspected, was his wife Domitia, whom he had taken from Ælius Lamia, her former husband. It was the tyrant's method to put down the names of all such as he intended to destroy in his tablets, which he kept about him with great circumspection. Domitia, fortunately happening to get a sight of them, was struck at finding her own name in the catalogue of those doomed to destruction. She showed the fatal list to Norbanus and Petronius, præfects of the Prætorian bands, who found themselves set down, as likewise Stephanus, the comptroller of the household. All these immediately entered into a conspiracy against the tyrant, and fixed upon the

eighteenth day of September for the completion of their great attempt. Upon preparing to go to the bath, on the morning of that day, Parthenius his chamberlain came to inform him, that Stephanus, the comptroller of the household, desired to speak to him upon an affair of the utmost importance. The emperor having given orders that his attendants should retire, Stephanus entered with his hand in a scarf, which he had worn for some days, the better to conceal a dagger, as none were permitted to approach the emperor with arms. He began by giving information of a pretended conspiracy, and exhibited a paper in which the particulars were specified.—While Domitian was reading the contents with an eager curiosity, Stephanus drew the dagger, and struck him in the groin. The wound not being mortal, Domitian caught hold of the assassin, and threw him on the ground, calling for assistance. But Parthenius, with his freedman, a gladiator, and

A. D. 96. }
 Y. R. 849. } two subaltern officers, now coming in, ran all furiously upon the emperor, and despatched him with seven wounds.

EXERCISES.

1. How did Titus act on his elevation to the throne? On whom had he placed his affections, and why did he not marry her? How did he treat his former companions? What title did his justice and generosity procure him?

2. How did he punish informers and promoters of dissension? What rule did he follow in doing good, and how did he express himself on one occasion? How did he treat two noblemen who had conspired against him?

3. What damage did an eruption of Vesuvius occasion in this reign, and who lost his life by it? What deplorable event occurred at Rome, and how did Titus endeavour to repair the damage?

4. What success attended Agricola in Britain? How did he attempt to civilize the natives? When did Titus's death happen, and who was supposed to have hastened it? What was his age, and how long had he reigned?

5. How did Domitian act on assuming the government? How did he exhibit his natural depravity? For what frivolous accomplishments was he remarkable? How did he spend his hours of retirement?

6. How did he incur the contempt of his subjects on returning from Gaul? What victory did Agricola obtain over the Caledonians, and what other exploits did he perform in Britain? How did Domitian treat this brave general? What became of him?

7. What nations now invaded the Roman empire? How were they induced to retreat, and what honours did Domitian unjustly claim? How did he display his arrogance and cruelty? Who fell victims to his capricious tyranny?

8. Who resolved to seize the throne, and how was his design prevented? What new severities did Domitian exercise, and how did he display his hypocrisy? By what acts of folly did he terrify the senate?

9. How did he display his lust and cruelty towards the conclusion of his reign? Why did his wife conceive the design of putting him to death? To whom did she communicate her intentions? By what means did they accomplish their purpose?

CHAP. XXI.

The Five Good Emperors of Rome.

SECTION I.

A. D. 96. } 1. WHEN it was publicly known that Domitian was
Y. R. 849. } slain, the senate began to load his memory with every
reproach. His statues were commanded to be taken down, and
a decree was made, that all his inscriptions should be erased,
his name struck off the registers of Fame, and his funeral
omitted. The people, who now took little part in the affairs
of government, heard of his death with the utmost indiffer-
ence; the soldiers alone, whom he loaded with favours and
enriched by largesses, sincerely regretted their benefactor.
The senate therefore resolved to provide a successor, before the
army could have an opportunity of taking the appointment
upon themselves; and Cocceius Nerva was chosen to the em-
pire the very day on which the tyrant was slain. He was of
an illustrious family, as most say; by descent a Cretan, and
above sixty-five years old when he was called to the throne.
He was at that time the most remarkable man in Rome for
his virtues, moderation, and respect to the laws; and he owed
his exaltation to the blameless conduct of his former life.
The people being long accustomed to tyranny, regarded Ner-
va's gentle reign with rapture, and even gave his imbecility
(for his humanity was carried too far to deserve the appellation)
the name of justice. Upon ascending the throne, he solemnly
swore that no senator of Rome should be put to death, by his
command, during his reign, though ever so just a cause for it
should be afforded. This oath he so religiously observed, that,
when two senators had conspired his death, he used no kind of
severity against them; but, sending for them, to let them see
that he was not ignorant of their design, he carried them with
him to the public theatre, and there, presenting each with a
dagger, he desired them to strike, as he was determined not
to ward off the blow.

2. During his short reign he enacted several useful laws.—
He particularly prohibited the mutilation of male children;
which had been likewise condemned by his predecessor, but
not wholly removed. He put all those slaves to death who
had, during the last reign, informed against their masters.
He permitted no statues to be erected to his honour, and
converted such of Domitian's, as had been spared by the se-
nate, into money. He sold many rich robes, as well as much

of the splendid furniture of the palace, and retrenched several unreasonable expenses at court. At the same time he had so little regard for money, that when one of his subjects found a large treasure, and wrote to the emperor how to dispose of it, he received for answer that he might use it; but the finder still informing the emperor that it was a fortune too large for a private person, Nerva, admiring his honesty, then wrote him word that he might abuse it. A life of such generosity and mildness was not, however, without its enemies, though these were treated with the most signal humanity. Vigilius Rufus, who had opposed him, was not only pardoned, but also created his colleague in the consulship. Calpurnius Crassus also, with some others, formed a conspiracy to destroy him; but he was satisfied with banishing those who were culpable, though the senate were for inflicting more rigorous punishments.

3. But the most dangerous insurrection against his interests was from the Prætorian bands, who, headed by Casparius Orianus, insisted upon revenging the late emperor's death, whose memory was still dear to them, from his frequent liberalities. Nerva, whose kindness to good men rendered him more obnoxious to the vicious, did all in his power to stop the progress of this insurrection; he presented himself to the mutinous soldiers, and, opening his bosom, desired them to strike there, rather than be guilty of so much injustice. The soldiers, however, paid no regard to his remonstrances; but seizing upon Petronius and Parthenius, slew them in the most ignominious manner. Not content with this, they even compelled the emperor to approve of their sedition, and to make a speech to the people, in which he thanked the cohorts for their fidelity. So disagreeable a constraint upon the emperor's inclinations was in the end attended with the most happy effects, as it caused the adoption of Trajan as his successor. Perceiving that, in the present turbulent disposition of the times, he stood in need of an assistant in the empire, and, setting aside all his own relations, he fixed upon Ulpius Trajan, an utter stranger to his family, who was then governor in Upper Germany, as future emperor. About three months after, having put himself into a violent passion with A. D. 98. }
Y. R. 851. } one Regulus, a senator, he was seized with a fever of which he died, after a short reign of one year, four months, and nine days. He was the first foreign emperor who reigned in Rome, and justly reputed a prince of great generosity and moderation. He is also celebrated for his wisdom, though with less reason; the greatest instance he gave of it, during his reign, being the choice of his successor in the empire.

4. Trajan's family was originally from Italy, but he himself was born at Seville in Spain. Upon being informed of the death of Nerva, he prepared to return from Germany, where he was governor, and repair to Rome. Upon his arrival he received the most sage counsels, how to conduct himself, from Plutarch the philosopher, who had the honour of being his master, and who is said to have written him a letter to the following purpose:—"Since your merits, and not your importunities, have advanced you to the empire, permit me to congratulate you upon your virtues, and myself upon my own good fortune. If your future government proves answerable to your former worth I shall be happy; but if you become worse by power, yours will be the danger, and mine the ignominy of your conduct. The errors of the pupil will be charged upon the instructor. Seneca is reproached for the enormities of Nero; and Socrates and Quintilian have not escaped censure for the misconduct of their respective scholars. But you have it in your power to make me the most honoured of men, by continuing to be what you are. Persevere in the command of your passions, and make virtue the scope of all your actions. If you follow these instructions, then will I glory in having presumed to give them;—if you neglect what I offer, then will this letter be my testimony that you have not erred through the counsel and authority of Plutarch." I have inserted this letter, whether genuine or not, because it seems to me well written, and as exhibiting a striking picture of this great philosopher's manner of addressing the best of princes.

5. This good monarch's application to business, his moderation to his enemies, his modesty in exaltation, his liberality to the deserving, and his frugality in his own expenses, have been the subject of panegyric among his contemporaries; and they continue to be the admiration of posterity. Upon giving the præfect of the Prætorian bands the sword, according to custom, he made use of this remarkable expression:—"Take this sword and use it; if I have merit, for me; if otherwise, against me." After which he added, that "he who gave laws was the first who was bound to observe them." The first war he was engaged in after coming to the throne was with the Dacians, who, during the reign of Domitian, had committed numberless ravages upon the provinces of the empire. He therefore raised a powerful army, and, with great expedition, marched into those barbarous countries, where he was vigorously opposed by Decebalus, the Dacian king, who for a long time withstood his boldest efforts. At length, however, that monarch being constrained to come to a general battle, and no longer able to protract the war, was routed with

great slaughter, though not without great loss to the conquerors. Such was Trajan's humanity on this occasion, that, when the Roman soldiers wanted linen to bind up their wounds, the emperor tore his own robes to supply them. This victory compelled the enemy to sue for peace, which they obtained upon very disadvantageous terms; their king coming into the Roman camp, and acknowledging himself a vassal of the emperor.

6. Upon Trajan's return, after the usual triumphs and rejoicings upon such an occasion were over, he was surprised to receive intelligence that the Dacians had renewed hostilities. Decebalus, their king, was now therefore a second time adjudged an enemy to the Roman state; and Trajan invaded his dominions with an army equal to that with which he had before subdued him. But Decebalus, now grown more cautious by his former defeat, used every art to avoid an engagement. He also put various stratagems in practice to distress the enemy; and at one time Trajan himself was in danger of being slain or taken. He also took Longinus, one of the Roman generals, prisoner, and threatened to kill him, in case Trajan refused him terms of peace. But the emperor replied, that peace and war had not their dependence upon the safety of one subject only; wherefore Longinus some time after destroyed himself by a voluntary death. The fate of this general seemed to give new vigour to Trajan's operations. In order to be the better enabled to invade the enemy's territories at pleasure, he undertook a most stupendous work, which was no less than building a bridge across the Danube. This amazing structure, which was built over a deep, broad, and rapid river, consisted of more than twenty-two arches, a hundred and fifty feet in height, and a hundred and seventy in breadth. The ruins of the structure, which remain to this day, show how much our modern architects are surpassed by the ancients, both in the greatness and the boldness of their designs. Upon finishing this work, Trajan continued the war with great vigour, sharing with the meanest of his soldiers the fatigues of the campaign, and continually encouraging them to their duty by his own example. By these means, notwithstanding the country was spacious and uncultivated, and the inhabitants brave and hardy, he subdued the whole, and added the kingdom of Dacia as a province to the Roman empire. Decebalus made some attempt

A. D. 107. } to escape; but, being surrounded on every side, he
 Y. R. 860. } at last slew himself; and his head was sent to Rome to certify his fate. These successes seemed to advance the empire to a greater degree of splendour than it had hitherto ac-

quired. Ambassadors were seen to come from the interior parts of India, to congratulate Trajan's successes, and bespeak his friendship. At his return to Rome he entered the city in triumph; and the rejoicing for his victories lasted for the space of one hundred and twenty days.

7. Having given peace and prosperity to the empire, he continued his reign, beloved, honoured, and almost adored by his subjects. He embellished the city with public buildings; he freed it from such men as lived by their vices; he entertained persons of merit with the utmost familiarity; and so little did he fear his enemies, that he could scarcely be induced to suppose he had any. It would have been happy for this great prince's memory, if he had shown equal clemency to all his subjects; but, about the ninth year of his reign, he was persuaded to look upon the Christians with a suspicious eye, and great numbers of them were put to death, as well by popular tumults as by edicts and judicial proceedings. The persecution, however, ceased after some time; for the emperor, having advice from Pliny, the proconsul in Bithynia, of the innocence and simplicity of the Christians, and of their inoffensive and moral way of living, at last gave orders to suspend their punishments.

8. During this emperor's reign there was a dreadful insurrection of the Jews in all parts of the empire. That wretched people, still infatuated, and ever expecting some signal deliverance, took the advantage of Trajan's absence in the East, in an expedition he had undertaken against the Armenians and Parthians, to massacre all the Greeks and Romans whom they got into their power without reluctance or mercy. This rebellion first began in Cyrene, a Roman province in Africa: thence the flame extended to Egypt, and next to the island of Cyprus. These places they in a manner dispeopled with ungovernable fury. Their barbarities were such, that they ate the flesh of their enemies, wore their skins, sawed them asunder, cast them to wild beasts, made them kill each other, and studied new torments by which to destroy them. However, these cruelties were of no long duration; the governors of the respective provinces, making head against their tumultuous fury, soon treated the Jews with a retaliation of cruelty, and put them to death, not as human beings, but as outrageous pests to society. As the Jews had practised these cruelties in Cyprus particularly, a law was publicly enacted, by which it was made capital for any Jew to set foot on the island. During these bloody transactions, Trajan was prosecuting his successes in the East, where he carried the Roman arms farther than they had ever reached before; but,

resolving to return once more to Rome, in consequence of the approaching infirmities of age, he found himself too weak to proceed in his usual manner. He therefore ordered himself to be carried on shipboard to the city of Seleucia, where
 A. D. 117. } he died of an apoplexy, in the sixty-third year of
 Y. R. 870. } his age, after a reign of nineteen years, six months, and fifteen days.

EXERCISES.

1. How did the senate load the memory of Domitian with reproach? Whom did the senate choose as his successor? What was the character of Nerva? What oath did he swear on coming to the throne?

2. What salutary laws did he enact? How did he display his regard for money? Who formed a conspiracy against him, and how were they treated?

3. Of what violence were the Prætorian bands guilty? Whom did Nerva appoint as his successor? What occasioned his death? What was Nerva's character?

4. How did Trajan act after Nerva's death? How did Plutarch address him on ascending the throne?

5. What was the character of Trajan? What speech did he make to the Prætorian guards? With whom did he first engage in war? What was the progress and result of it?

6. When did the Dacians renew hostilities, and what advantage did Decebalus obtain? What became of Longinus, Trajan's general? What stupendous work did Trajan erect? How did he continue to prosecute the war? What became of Decebalus, the Dacian king? How long did the rejoicings for Trajan's victories continue?

7. How did Trajan now employ himself? What persecution ensued at this time? By whose means was a stop put to it?

8. What insurrection happened among the Jews, and what cruelties were they guilty of? What retaliation was made by the Romans? Where did Trajan's death happen, and how long had he reigned?

SECTION II.

A. D. 117. } 1. **ADRIAN**, the nephew of Trajan, who had been
 Y. R. 870. } adopted to succeed him in the empire, though absent from Rome, being then at Antioch at the head of the forces in the East, was acknowledged by all orders of the state. Upon his election, he began to pursue a course quite opposite to that of his predecessor, taking every method of declining war, and promoting the arts of peace. He was quite satisfied with preserving the ancient limits of the empire, and seemed no way ambitious of extensive conquest. Adrian was one of the most remarkable of the Roman emperors for the variety of his endowments: he was highly skilled in all the accomplishments both of body and of mind; he composed with great beauty both in prose and verse; he pleaded at the bar, and was one of the best orators of his time; nor were his moral virtues inferior to his accomplishments. His moderation and clemency ap-

peared by pardoning the injuries which he had received when he was yet but a private man. One day, meeting a person who had formerly been his most inveterate enemy, "My good friend," cried he, "you have escaped, for I am made emperor." He was affable to his friends, and gentle to persons of meaner stations; he relieved their wants, and visited them in sickness,—it being his constant maxim, that he was an emperor not merely for his own good, but for the benefit of mankind. These were his virtues; but they were contrasted by a strange mixture of vices; or, to say the truth, he wanted strength of mind to preserve his general rectitude of character without deviation.

2. He was scarcely settled on the throne, when several of the Northern hordes of barbarians, the Alans, the Sarmatians, and the Dacians, began to make devastations on the empire. These hardy nations, who had learned to conquer by issuing from their forests, and then retiring upon the approach of a superior force, now began to be truly formidable to Rome. Adrian had thoughts of contracting the limits of the empire, by giving up some of the most remote and least defensible provinces; but in this design he was overruled by his friends, who foolishly imagined that an extensive frontier would intimidate an invading enemy. But, though he complied with their remonstrances, he broke down the bridge over the Danube, which his predecessor had built; sensible that the same passage which was open to him was equally convenient to aid the incursions of these barbarians.

3. Having remained a short time at Rome to see that all things were established for the safety of the public, he prepared to visit and take a survey of the whole empire. It was one of his maxims, that an emperor ought to imitate the sun, which diffuses warmth and vigour through all parts of the earth. He therefore took with him a splendid court, and a considerable force, with which he entered the province of Gaul, where he numbered all the inhabitants. From Gaul he went into Germany, thence to Holland, and then passed over into Britain, where he reformed many abuses, and reconciled the natives to the Romans. For the better security of the southern parts of

A. D. 121. } that province of the empire, he built a wall of wood
 Y. R. 874. } and earth, extending from the river Eden in Cum-
 berland to the Tyne in Northumberland, to prevent the in-
 cursions of the Picts and other barbarous nations in the north.
 From Britain he returned through Gaul, and directed his
 journey to Spain, where he was received with great joy, as
 being a native of that country. There wintering in Tarra-
 gona, he called a meeting of all the deputies from the provin-

ces, and enacted many regulations for the benefit of the nation. From Spain he returned to Rome, and continued there for some time, in order to prepare for his journey to the East, which was hastened by a new invasion of the Parthians. His approach compelling the enemy to make peace, he pursued his travels without molestation. Arriving in Asia Minor, he turned out of his way to visit the famous city of Athens.—There making a considerable stay, he was initiated into the Eleusinian mysteries, which were accounted the most sacred in the Pagan mythology, and took upon him the office of Archon, or chief magistrate of the place.

4. In this place also he relaxed the severity of the Christian persecution, at the representation of Granianus, the proconsul of Asia, who informed him that the people of that persuasion were no way culpable. He was even so far reconciled to them as to think of receiving Christ into the number of the gods. After a winter's residence at Athens, he went over into Sicily, and visited *Ætna* and the other curiosities of that island. Returning thence once more to Rome, after a short stay, he ordered ships to be prepared, and crossed over into Africa. There he spent much time in regulating abuses, and reforming the government; in deciding controversies and erecting magnificent buildings. Among other improvements, he ordered Carthage to be rebuilt, calling it after his own name, *Adrianople*. Again returning to Rome, where he staid but a short time, he travelled a second time into Greece, and passed over into Asia Minor; thence he went into Syria, and gave laws and instructions to all the neighbouring kings, whom he invited to come and consult with him. He then entered Palestine, Arabia, and Egypt, where he caused Pompey's tomb, that had been long neglected, and almost covered with sand, to be renewed and beautified.

5. He also gave orders for the rebuilding of Jerusalem, which was performed with great expedition by the assistance of the Jews, who now began to conceive hopes of being restored to their long-lost kingdom. But these expectations only served to aggravate their calamities; for, being incensed at the privileges which were granted to the pagan worshippers in their new city, they fell upon the Romans and Christians that were dispersed throughout Judea, and unmercifully put great numbers of them to the sword. Adrian was at Athens when this dangerous insurrection began: wherefore, sending a powerful body of men under the command of Julius Severus against them, this general obtained many signal though bloody victories over the insurgents. The war was concluded in two years, by the demolition of above a thousand of their

best towns, and the destruction of nearly six hundred thousand men in battle. He then banished all the Jews who remained out of Judea; and, by a public decree, forbade any to come within view of their native soil. This insurrection was, soon after, followed by a dangerous irruption of the barbarous nations to the northward of the empire, who, entering Media with great fury, and passing through Armenia, carried their devastations as far as Cappadocia. Adrian, preferring peace upon any terms to an unprofitable war, bought them off by large sums of money; so that they returned peaceably into their native wilds to enjoy their plunder, and meditate fresh invasions.

6. Having spent thirteen years in travelling through his dominions, and reforming the various abuses in the empire, he at last resolved to return and end all his fatigues at Rome. Nothing could be more grateful to the people than his resolution of coming to reside for the rest of his days among them: they received him with the loudest demonstrations of joy; and though he began to grow old and unwieldy, he remitted not the least of his former assiduity and application to the public welfare. His chief amusement consisted in conversing with the most celebrated men in every art and science; frequently boasting that he thought no kind of knowledge inconsiderable, or to be neglected either in his private or public capacity.—Adrian was so fond of literary fame, that, we are told, he wrote his own life, and afterwards gave it to his servants to publish under their names. But whatever might have been his weakness in aiming at universal reputation, he was in no part of his reign remiss in attending to the duties of his exalted station. He ordered the knights and senators never to appear in public but in the proper habits of their orders. He forbade masters to kill their slaves, as had been before allowed; but ordained that they should be tried by the laws enacted against capital offences. A law so just, had he done nothing more, deserved to have insured his reputation with posterity, and to have endeared his memory among mankind. He still further extended the lenity of the laws to those unhappy men who had been long thought too mean for justice. If a master was found killed in his house, he would not allow all his slaves to be put to the torture as formerly, but only such as might have perceived or prevented the murder. In such employments he spent the greatest part of his time; but at last, finding the duties of his station daily increasing, and his own strength proportionally upon the decline, he resolved upon adopting a successor. Therefore, having been deprived by death of his former adopted son Commodus, Titus Antoninus, afterwards sur-

named the Pious, was the person he now pitched upon, having previously obliged him to adopt two others, viz. Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus, all of whom afterwards succeeded to the empire.

7. While he was thus careful in appointing a successor, his bodily infirmities became so insupportable that he vehemently desired some of his attendants to despatch him. Antoninus, however, would by no means permit any of his domestics to be guilty of so great a crime, but used all the arts in his power to reconcile the emperor to sustain the frailties of life. His pains increasing every day, he was frequently heard to cry out, "How miserable a thing is it to seek death, and not to find it!"—In this deplorable condition, he resolved on going to Baïæ, where the tortures of his disease increased so much, that they at last affected his understanding. Continuing for some time in these excruciating torments, without relief from medicine, he resolved to adopt no regimen, often saying that kings died merely from the multitude of their physicians. This conduct served to hasten that death he so ardently desired; and it was probably joy on its approach which dictated

A. D. 138. } the celebrated stanzas so well known, and in re-
Y. R. 891. } peating which he expired, in the sixty-second year of his age, after a prosperous reign of twenty-one years and eleven months.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded Trajan in the government? How did Adrian act after his accession? What was his character?

2. What nations now began to attack the empire? How did Adrian endeavour to prevent their incursions?

3. What project did Adrian form, and whither did he go? How did he attempt to secure the southern provinces of Britain? How did he act in Spain? What success had he over the Parthians, and what honours were conferred on him at Athens?

4. What treatment did the Christians receive from him? What countries did he now visit, and what orders did he give respecting Carthage? What took place on his arrival in Syria? What respect did he show to the memory of Pompey?

5. What cruelties did the Jews exercise after Jerusalem was rebuilt? How did Adrian retaliate upon them? What parts of the empire did the barbarians ravage, and how did Adrian procure peace with them?

6. How was he received after returning to Rome? What humane laws did he now enact? Whom did he appoint as his successors in the empire?

7. To what uneasiness was Adrian now reduced? When did he die?

SECTION III.

A. D. 138. } 1. **TITUS ANTONINUS**, his successor, was born in
Y. R. 891. } the city of Nismes in Gaul. His father was a nobleman of an ancient family, that had enjoyed the highest

honours of the state. At the time of his succeeding to the throne, he was about fifty years old, and had executed many of the most important offices of the state with great integrity and application.—His virtues in private life were no way impaired by exaltation; as he showed himself one of the most excellent princes for justice, clemency, and moderation. His morals were so pure, that he was usually compared to Numa, and was surnamed the Pious, both for his tenderness to his predecessor Adrian when dying, and his particular attachment to the religion of his country. He was an eminent rewarder of learned men, on whom he bestowed large pensions and great honours, inviting them from all parts of the world to settle at Rome. Among the rest he sent for Apollonius, the famous Stoic philosopher, to instruct his adopted son Marcus Aurelius, whom he had previously married to his daughter. Apollonius having arrived at Rome, the emperor desired his attendance; but the other arrogantly answered, that it was the scholar's duty to wait upon the master, and not the master's upon the scholar. To this reply Antoninus only returned with a smile, "That it was surprising how Apollonius, who made no difficulty of coming from Greece to Rome, should think it so hard to walk from one part of Rome to another," and immediately sent Marcus Aurelius to him. By his own good sense, aided by the counsels of wise men, Antoninus conducted the public affairs with great ability and uniform success. While the good emperor was thus employed in making mankind happy, in directing their conduct by his own example, or reproving their follies with the keenness of rebuke, he was seized with a violent fever at Lorium, a pleasure-house at some distance from Rome, whence, finding himself sensibly decaying, he ordered his friends and principal officers to attend him. In their presence he confirmed the adoption of Marcus Aurelius, without once naming Lucius Verus, who had been joined by Adrian with him in the succession. Then commanding the golden statue of Fortune, which was always

A. D. 161. }
 Y. R. 914. } in the chambers of the emperors, to be removed to that of his successor, he expired in the seventy-fifth year of his age, after a prosperous reign of twenty-two years and almost eight months.

2. Marcus Aurelius, though left sole successor to the throne, took Lucius Verus as his associate and equal in governing the state. Aurelius was the son of Annius Verus, of an ancient and illustrious family, which claimed its origin from Numa Pompilius. Lucius Verus was the son of Commodus, who had been adopted by Adrian, but died before he succeeded to the throne. Aurelius was as remarkable for his virtues and

accomplishments, as his partner in the empire was for his ungovernable passions and debauched morals. The one was an example of the greatest goodness and wisdom; the other of ignorance, sloth, and extravagance. The two emperors had been scarcely settled on the throne, when the empire seemed attacked on every side by the barbarous nations by which it was surrounded. The Catti invaded Germany and Rhætia, ravaging these countries with fire and sword, but were, after some time, repelled by Victorinus. The Britons likewise revolted, though they were again reduced by Calpurnius Agricola. But the Parthians, under their king Vologesus, made an irruption still more dreadful than either of the former, destroying the Roman legions in Armenia; then entering Syria, they drove out the Roman governor, and filled the whole country with terror and confusion. In order to stop the progress of this barbarous irruption, Verus himself went in person, being accompanied by Aurelius part of the way.

3. Verus, upon entering Antioch, gave an indulgence to every appetite, without attending to the fatigues of war; rioting in excesses unknown even to the voluptuous Greeks, and leaving all the glory of the field to his lieutenants, who were sent to repress the enemy. These, however, fought with great success; Statius Priscus took Artaxata; Marius put Vologesus to flight, took Seleucia, plundered and burnt Babylon and Ctesiphon, and demolished the magnificent palace of the king of Parthia.—In the course of four years, during which the war continued, the Romans penetrated far into the Parthian country, and entirely subdued it; but, on their return, their army was wasted to less than half its former number by pestilence and famine. However, this was no impediment to the vanity of Verus, who resolved to enjoy the honours of a triumph that was so hardly earned by others. Wherefore, having appointed a king over the Armenians, and finding the Parthians entirely subdued, he assumed the titles of Armeni-
}
A. D. 165. }
Y. R. 918. }
cus and Parthicus, and then returned to Rome to partake of a triumph with Aurelius, which was accordingly solemnized with great pomp and splendour.

4. During the course of this expedition, which continued for some years, Aurelius was sedulously intent upon distributing justice and happiness to his subjects at home. He first applied himself to the regulation of public affairs, and to the correction of such faults as he found in the laws and policy of the state. In this endeavour he showed a singular respect for the senate, often permitting them to determine without appeal; so that the commonwealth seemed once more revived under his equitable administration. Besides, such was his

application to business, that he often employed ten days together upon the same subject, maturely considering it on all sides, and seldom departing from the senate-house till night came on, and the assembly was dismissed by the consul. But while thus gloriously occupied, he was daily mortified with accounts of the enormities of his colleague, being repeatedly assured of his vanity, lewdness, and extravagance. However, feigning himself ignorant of these excesses, he judged marriage to be the best method of reclaiming him, and therefore sent him his daughter Lucilla, a woman of great beauty, whom Verus married at Antioch. But even this expedient was found ineffectual: Lucilla proved of a disposition very unlike her father, and, instead of correcting her husband's extravagances, only contributed to inflame them. Yet Aurelius still hoped that, upon the return of Verus to Rome, his presence would keep him in awe, and that happiness would at length be restored to the state. But in this expectation also he was disappointed. His return only seemed fatal to the empire; for his army carried back the plague from Parthia, and disseminated the infection into all the provinces through which it passed.

5. Nothing could exceed the miserable state of the empire shortly after the return of Verus. In this horrid picture was represented an emperor, unawed by example, or the calamities surrounding him, giving way to unheard-of debaucheries. A raging pestilence, spreading terror and desolation through all parts of the western world; earthquakes, famines, and inundations, such as had never before happened; the products of the earth throughout all Italy devoured by locusts: all the barbarous nations surrounding the empire, such as the Germans, the Sarmatians, the Quadi, and Marcomanni, taking advantage of its various calamities, and making their irruptions even into Italy itself; the priests doing all they could to put a stop to the miseries of the state by attempting to appease the gods; vowing and offering numberless sacrifices; celebrating all the sacred rites that had ever been known in Rome, and exhibiting the solemnity called *Lectisternium* seven days together. To crown the whole, these enthusiastic devotees, not satisfied with the impending calamities, increased them tenfold, by ascribing the distresses of the state to the impieties of the Christians alone; so that a violent persecution of them was seen raging in all parts of the empire, in which Justin Martyr, Polycarp, bishop of Smyrna, and an immense number of others, suffered martyrdom.

6. In this scene of universal tumult, desolation, and distress, there was nothing left but the virtues and the wisdom of

one man alone to restore tranquillity, and bring back happiness to the empire. Aurelius began his endeavours by marching against the Marcomanni and Quadi, taking Verus along with him, who reluctantly left the sensual delights of Rome for the fatigues of a camp. They came up with the Marcomanni near the city of Aquileia, and, after a furious engagement, routed their whole army; then pursuing them across the Alps, overcame them in several contests, and at last entirely defeating them, returned to Italy without any considerable loss. As the winter was far advanced, Verus was determined upon going from Aquileia to Rome, in which journey he was seized

A. D. 169. } with an apoplexy, which put an end to his life in the
 Y. R. 922. } thirty-ninth year of his age, after having reigned in conjunction with Aurelius nine years. Aurelius, who had hitherto sustained the fatigues of governing, not only an empire, but his colleague, being now left to himself, began to act with greater diligence and more vigour than ever. After having subdued the Marcomanni, whose inroads were uninterrupted even by defeat, he returned to Rome, where he began his usual endeavours to benefit mankind by a farther reformation of the internal policy of the state.

7. But his good endeavours were soon interrupted by a renewal of the former wars; and in one engagement he is said to have been miraculously relieved, when his army was perishing with thirst, by the prayers of a Christian legion which had been levied for his service. For, at that dreadful juncture, and just as the barbarians were ready to fall upon them, we are assured by historians, that there fell such a shower of rain as instantly refreshed the fainting army. The soldiers were seen holding their mouths and their helmets up to heaven, and receiving the water which came so wonderfully to their relief. The same clouds also, which served to quench the thirst of the Romans, at the same time discharged such a terrible storm of hail, accompanied with thunder, against the enemy, as astonished and confounded them. By this unlooked-for aid, the Romans recovering strength and courage, once more turned upon their pursuers, and cut them to pieces. Such are the circumstances of an engagement, acknowledged by Pagan as well as Christian writers; only with this difference, that the latter ascribe the victory to the prayers of their legion, the former to those of their emperor. However this be, Aurelius seemed so sensible of miraculous assistance, that he immediately relaxed the persecution against the Christians, and wrote to the senate in favour of their religion.

8. This good emperor, however, was not exempt from the inconveniences which usually accompany the possession of su-

preme power. Avidius Cassius, one of his generals in the East, formed a conspiracy against him ; but, losing his credit with his troops, on account of the severity of his discipline, he was cut off about three months after his revolt. His head being brought to Aurelius, he expressed deep regret that he had been deprived of an opportunity of showing his clemency, and, as a proof of his sincerity, generously extended his protection to the family and friends of Cassius. When some who were near his person took the liberty to blame this conduct, telling him that Cassius would not have been so generous had he been conqueror, the emperor replied in this sublime manner : “ I never served the gods so ill, or reigned so irregularly, as to fear that Cassius could ever be conqueror.” He usually called philosophy his mother, in opposition to the court, which he considered as his stepmother.—He was also frequently heard to say, “ that the people were happy whose philosophers were kings, or whose kings were philosophers. He was indeed one of the most illustrious men then in existence ; and though he had been born in the meanest station, his merits as a writer, as his works which remain to this day testify, would have ensured immortality. Having thus restored prosperity to his subjects, and peace to mankind, news was brought him that the Scythians, and barbarous nations of the north, were up in arms and invading the empire. He once more, therefore, resolved to expose his aged person in defence of his country, and made speedy preparations to oppose the enemy. He went to the senate ; and, for the first time, desired to have money out of the public treasury. He then spent three whole days in giving the people lectures, by which they might regulate their lives ; and having finished his discourses, departed upon his expedition, amidst the prayers and lamentations of all his subjects. It was when going upon his third campaign that he was seized with the plague at Vienna in Austria, which stopped the progress of his arms. Nothing, however, could abate his desire of being beneficial to mankind ; while his fears for the inexperienced youth and unpromising disposition of Commodus, his son and successor, seemed to give him great uneasiness. Whereupon he addressed his friends and the principal officers that were gathered round his bed, telling them, that his son was now going to lose a father, but he hoped that he should find many fathers in them. As he was thus speaking, he was seized with a weakness which stopped his utterance, and which brought him to his end the following day. He died in the fifty-ninth year of his age, having reigned nineteen years and

A. D. 180. } some days ; and it seemed as if the whole glory and
 X. R. 933. } prosperity of the Roman empire died with this
 greatest of the Roman emperors.

EXERCISES.

1. What were the parentage and character of Antoninus? What encouragement did he give to learned men, and what particulars are related of his intercourse with Apollonius? Whom did he adopt as his successor? How long did he reign?

2. Whom did Aurelius associate with him in the government? What were the characters of the two emperors? What barbarous nations attacked the empire, and by whom were some of them repulsed? What irruption did the Parthians make, and who was sent against them?

3. How did Verus behave at Antioch? What success attended his lieutenants? What disaster befell the Romans? How did Verus display his vanity?

4. How was Aurelius employed at Rome? How did he endeavour to reform Verus? What disorder was disseminated by his army?

5. What were the miseries that now afflicted the state? How did the priests endeavour to diminish them? To whom were they ascribed, and what was the consequence?

6. How did Aurelius act in this extremity? What victory did he gain over the Marcomanni? What became of Verus? How was Aurelius employed on his return to Rome?

7. By what means was his army miraculously saved? What favour did he show to the Christians?

8. How did he express himself with regard to Cassius, who had conspired against him? How did he distinguish himself by his love of philosophy? How did he act when the Scythians invaded the empire? Where was he seized with the plague, and how did he behave on his deathbed? How long did he reign, and what was his character?

 CHAP. XXII.

From Commodus to the Transferring of the Seat of Empire, under Constanline, from Rome to Byzantium.

SECTION I.

A. D. 180. } 1. THE merits of Aurelius procured Commodus an
Y. R. 933. } easy accession to the throne. He was acknowledged emperor first by the army, then by the senate and people, and shortly after by all the provinces. His whole reign is but a tissue of wantonness and folly, cruelty and injustice, rapacity and corruption. There is so strong a similitude between his conduct and that of Domitian, that a reader might be apt to imagine he was going over the same reign. He went with his associates to taverns and brothels; spent the day in feasting, and the night in the most abominable excesses, having no less than three hundred females, and as many males, for detestable purposes. He committed incest, as Caligula did, with all his sisters.—He sometimes went about the markets in a frolic, with small wares as a petty chapman; sometimes he imitated a horse-courser, and at other times drove his own chariot in a slave's habit;—while those whom he chiefly promoted resembled himself, being the companions of his pleasures, or the

ministers of his cruelty. If any person desired to be revenged on an enemy, by bargaining with Commodus for a sum of money, he was permitted to destroy him in such a manner as he thought proper. He commanded a person to be cast to the wild beasts for reading the life of Caligula in Suetonius. He ordered another to be thrown into a burning furnace for accidentally overheating his bath. He would sometimes, when he was in good humour, cut off men's noses under pretence of shaving their beards; and yet he was himself so jealous of all mankind, that he was obliged to be his own barber.

2. At length, upon the feast of Janus, resolving to fence naked before the people as a common gladiator, three of his friends remonstrated with him upon the indecency of such behaviour. These were Lætus his general, Electus his chamberlain, and Marcia, a concubine, of whom he always appeared remarkably fond. Their advice was attended with no other effect than that of incensing him against them, and inciting him to resolve upon their destruction. It was his method, like that of Domitian, to set down the names of all such as he intended to put to death, in a roll, which he carefully kept by him. Happening, however, to lay the roll on his bed while he was bathing in another room, it was taken up by a little boy whom he passionately loved. The child, after playing with it for some time, brought it to Marcia, who was instantly alarmed at its contents.—She immediately discovered her terrors to Lætus and Electus, who, perceiving their dangerous situation, instantly resolved upon the tyrant's death. After some deliberation, it was agreed to despatch him by poison; but this not succeeding, Marcia hastily introduced a young man called Narcissus, and prevailed upon him to assist in strangling the tyrant. Commodus died in the thirty-first year of his age, after an inglorious reign of twelve years and nine months.

A. D. 192. } The secrecy and expedition with which Com-
Y. R. 945. } modus was assassinated were such that few were at that time acquainted with the real circumstances of his death. His body was wrapped up as a bale of useless furniture, and carried through the guards, most of whom were either drunk or asleep.

3. Previous to his assassination, the conspirators had fixed upon a successor. Helvius Pertinax, whose virtues and courage rendered him worthy of the most exalted station, and who had passed through many changes of fortune, was the person whom they wished to succeed him; but when the conspirators repaired to his house to salute him emperor, he considered their arrival as a command from the emperor Commodus to prepare for death. Upon Lætus entering his apartment, Per-

tinax, without any show of fear, exclaimed, that for many days he had expected to end his life in that manner, wondering that the emperor had deferred it so long. He was not a little surprised, therefore, when informed of the real cause of their visit: and being strongly urged to accept of the empire, he at last complied with their offer. Being carried to the camp, Pertinax was proclaimed emperor by the soldiers, and soon after the citizens and senate consented to his appointment,—the joy at the election of their new sovereign being scarcely equal to that for the death of their tyrant. They then pronounced Commodus a parricide, an enemy to the gods, to his country, and to all mankind, and commanded that his corpse should rot upon a dunghill. In the mean time they saluted Pertinax as emperor and Cæsar, with numerous acclamations, and cheerfully took the oaths of obedience. The provinces soon after followed the example of Rome; so that he began his reign with universal satisfaction to the whole empire, in the sixty-eighth year of his age.

4. Nothing could exceed the justice and wisdom of this monarch's reign, during the short time it continued. But the Prætorian soldiers, whose manners he had attempted to reform, having been long corrupted by the indulgence and profusion of the former monarch, began to hate him for his parsimony and the discipline he had introduced among them. They therefore resolved to dethrone him; and, accordingly, in a tumultuous manner, marched through the streets of Rome, and entered his palace without opposition, where a Tungrian soldier struck him dead with a blow of his lance. From the number and variety of his adventures, he was called the tennis-ball of fortune; and certainly no man ever experienced

A. D. 193. } such a variety of situations with so blameless a cha-
 X. R. 946. } racter. He had reigned only three months.

5. The soldiers having committed this outrage, issued a proclamation, that they would sell the empire to whoever would purchase it at the highest price. In consequence of this proclamation, two bidders were found, namely, Sulpician and Didius. The former was a consular person, præfect of the city, and son-in-law to the late emperor. The latter was a consular person likewise, a great lawyer, and the wealthiest man in the city. Sulpician had rather promises than treasures to bestow. The offers of Didius, who produced immense sums of ready money, were readily accepted by the avaricious soldiers. He was received into the camp, and the army instantly swore to obey him as emperor. Upon being conducted to the senate-house, he addressed the few senators who were present in a very laconic speech:—"Fathers, you want an

emperor, and I am the fittest person you can choose." The choice of the soldiers was confirmed by the senate, and Didius was acknowledged emperor in the fifty-seventh year of his age.

6. It would seem, by the conduct of this weak monarch, when seated on the throne, that he thought the government of an empire rather a pleasure than a toil. Instead of attempting to gain the hearts of his subjects, he gave himself up to ease and inactivity, utterly regardless of the duties of his station. He was mild and gentle, indeed, neither injuring any, nor expecting to be injured. But that avarice, by which he became opulent, still followed him in his exaltation; so that the very soldiers who elected him soon began to detest him for these qualities, so very opposite to a military character. The people also, against whose consent he was chosen, were not less his enemies. Whenever he issued from his palace, they openly poured forth their imprecations against him, crying out that he was a thief, and had stolen the empire. Didius, however, in the true spirit of a trader, patiently bore all their reproach, sometimes beckoning to them with smiles to approach him, and testifying his regard by every kind of submission.

7. Soon after Severus, an African by birth, being proclaimed by his army, began his reign by promising to revenge the death of Pertinax. Didius, on being informed of his approach towards Rome, obtained the consent of the senate to send him ambassadors, offering to make him a partner in the empire. But Severus rejected this offer, conscious of his own strength, and of the emperor's weakness. The senate soon appeared of the same sentiments, and, perceiving the imbecility of their present master, totally abandoned him. Being called together by the consuls, as was formerly the practice in the times of the commonwealth, they unanimously decreed that Didius should be deprived of the empire, and that Severus should be proclaimed in his stead. They commanded Didius to be slain, and sent messengers for this purpose to the palace, where they found him disarmed, among a few friends that still adhered to his interest. The executioners led him into the secret baths

July.
A. D. 193. } of the palace, where they struck off his head, and
V. R. 946. } then placed it up in the courts of justice, where he
had formerly pleaded as a lawyer.

8. The senate having thus despatched Didius, sent ambassadors to offer the empire to Severus, who, having overcome Pescennius Niger and Albinus, who had been proclaimed by their respective armies, next undertook the reins of government, uniting great vigour with the most refined policy; yet his African cunning was considered as a particular defect in his character. He is celebrated for his wit, learning, and pru-

dence; but as much blamed for his perfidy and cruelty. In short, he seemed equally capable of the greatest acts of virtue and the most bloody severities. Upon his return to Rome, he loaded his soldiers with rewards and honours, giving them such privileges as strengthened his own power, while they destroyed that of the state. For the soldiers, who had hitherto showed the strongest inclinations to an abuse of power, were now made arbiters of the fate of emperors. Being thus secure of his army, he resolved to give way to his natural turn for conquest, A. D. 199. }
Y. R. 952. } and declared war against the Parthians, who were then invading the frontiers of the empire. Having therefore previously given the domestic policy of the state in charge to one Plautian, a particular favourite, to whose daughter he married his son Caracalla, he set out for the East, and prosecuted the war with his usual expedition and success. He forced submission from the king of Armenia, destroyed several cities in Arabia Felix, advanced into the Parthian territories, took and plundered the famous city Ctesiphon, marched back through Palestine and Egypt, and at length returned to Rome in triumph.

9. During this interval, Plautian, who was left to direct the affairs of Rome, began to think of aspiring to the empire himself. Upon the emperor's return, he employed a tribune of the Prætorian cohorts, of which he was the commander, to assassinate Severus, and likewise his son Caracalla. The tribune informed Severus of his favourite's treachery. He at first received it as an improbable story, and as the artifice of one who envied Plautian's fortune. However, he was at last persuaded to permit the tribune to conduct Plautian to the imperial apartments, to bear witness against himself. With this intent, the tribune went and amused him with a pretended account, that he himself had killed the emperor and his son; desiring him, if he thought fit to see him dead, to go with him to the palace. As Plautian ardently desired their deaths, he readily gave credit to this relation, and, following the tribune, was conducted at midnight into the innermost apartment. But what must have been his disappointment, when, instead of finding the emperor lying dead, as he expected, he beheld the room lighted up with torches, and Severus, surrounded by his friends, prepared in array to receive him. Being asked by the emperor, with a stern countenance, what had brought him there at that unseasonable time, he was at first utterly confounded, and, not knowing what excuse to make, ingenuously confessed the whole, entreating forgiveness for what he had intended. The emperor seemed inclined to pardon him; but Caracalla, his son, who, from the earliest age,

showed a disposition to cruelty, with his sword ran him through the body.

10. After the defeat of this conspiracy, Severus spent a considerable time in visiting some cities in Italy; permitting none of his officers to sell places of trust or dignity, and distributing justice with the strictest impartiality. He then undertook an expedition into Britain, where the Romans were in danger of being destroyed, or compelled to abandon the province. Wherefore, after appointing his two sons, Caracalla and Geta, joint successors in the empire, and taking them with him, he landed in Britain, to the great terror of such as had drawn down his resentment. Upon his progress into the interior, he left Geta in the southern part of the province, which had continued in obedience, and marched with Caracalla against the Caledonians. In this expedition, his army suffered prodigious hardships in pursuing the enemy; as they were obliged to hew their way through intricate forests, to drain extensive marshes, and form bridges over rapid rivers; so that he lost fifty thousand men by fatigue and sickness. However, he supported all these inconveniences with persevering bravery, and prosecuted his successes with such vigour, that he compelled the enemy to beg for peace; which they obtained, after surrendering a considerable part of their country. It was in this expedition into Britain, that, for its better security, he built the famous wall, which still goes by his name, extending from Solway frith on the west to the German Ocean on the east. He did not, however, long survive his successes; but died at York, in the sixty-sixth year of his age, after an active, though cruel reign, of about eighteen years.

11. Caracalla and Geta, his sons, being acknowledged emperors by the army, began to show a mutual hatred to each other, even before their arrival at Rome. But this opposition was of no long continuance; for Caracalla, being resolved to govern alone, furiously entered Geta's apartment, and, supported by ruffians, slew him in his mother's arms. Being thus sole emperor, he went on to mark his course with blood. Whatever was done by Domitian or Nero fell far short of this monster's barbarities. His tyrannies at length excited the resentment of Macrinus, the commander of the forces in Mesopotamia, who employed one Martial, a man of great strength, and a centurion of the guards, to despatch him. Accordingly, as the emperor was riding out one day, near a little city called Carræ, he happened to withdraw himself privately upon a natural occasion, with only one page to hold his horse. This was an opportunity which Martial had long and ar-

A. D. 217. }
Y. R. 970. } dently desired ; wherefore, running to him hastily, as if he had been called, he stabbed the emperor in the back, so that he died immediately. Having performed this hardy attempt, he then unconcernedly returned to his troop ; but, retiring by insensible degrees, he endeavoured to secure his safety by flight. But his companions soon missing him, and the page giving information of what had been done, he was pursued by the German horse, and cut to pieces.— During the reign of this execrable tyrant, Caracalla, which continued six years, the empire was every day declining ; the soldiers were entirely masters of every election ; and as there were various armies in different parts, so there were as many interests, all opposite to each other.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded Aurelius as emperor ? For what was the reign of Commodus remarkable ? Of what detestable and ridiculous practices was he guilty ? What acts of barbarity did he commit ?

2. Who remonstrated with him for his follies, and what was the consequence ? Who resolved to put Commodus to death, and how did they effect their purpose ? How long had he reigned ?

3. Whom did the conspirators elect as emperor ? How did Pertinax receive the intimation of his dignity ? By whom was his nomination confirmed, and at what age did he ascend the throne ?

4. Why did the Prætorian soldiers resolve to dethrone him ? How did they put him to death ? How long had he reigned ?

5. How was the throne now disposed of ? In what manner did the new emperor address the senate ?

6. How did he conduct the administration ? How did the soldiers regard him, and how was he treated by the populace ? How did he bear all these indignities ?

7. What competitor for the empire appeared, and what offer was made him by Didius ? What decree did the senate pass, and how was Didius slain ?

8. Who next assumed the reins of government ? What was the character of Severus ? How did he act on his return to Rome ? What advantages did he gain over the Parthians ?

9. Who conspired the death of Severus, and who communicated this design ? What method did Severus employ to make Plautian confess his guilt ? What became of Plautian ?

10. Whom did Severus appoint his successors before his expedition into Britain ? Against whom did he march, and what hardships did his army suffer ? What was the result of his expedition to Britain, and what wall did he build in that country ? When and where did his death happen ?

11. Who succeeded him in the empire ? Of what cruelty was Caracalla guilty ? Whom did Macrinus employ to despatch him ? What was the condition of the empire at this period ?

SECTION II.

A. D. 217. }
Y. R. 970. } 1. THE soldiers being now without an emperor, after a suspense of two days, fixed upon Macrinus, who took all possible methods to conceal his being privy to Caracalla's murder. The senate confirmed their choice shortly

after; and likewise that of his son Diadumenianus, whom he took as a partner in the empire. Macrinus was fifty-three years old when he entered upon the government of the empire. He was of obscure parentage, some say by birth a Moor; being, by the mere rotation of offices, first made præfect of the Prætorian bands, and now, by treason and accident, called to fill the throne. He was opposed by the intrigues of Mœsa, and her grandson Heliogabalus; and being conquered by some seditious legions of his own army, he fled to Chalcedon, where
 A. D. 218. } those who were sent in pursuit overtook and put
 Y. R. 971. } him to death, together with his son Diadumenianus,
 after a short reign of one year and two months.

2. The senate and citizens of Rome being obliged, as usual, to submit to the appointment of the army, Heliogabalus ascended the throne at the age of fourteen. His short life was but a tissue of effeminacy, lust, and extravagance. He married, in the short space of four years, six wives, and divorced them all. He was so fond of the female sex, that he carried his mother with him to the senate-house, and demanded that she should always be present when matters of importance were debated. He even went so far as to build a senate-house for women, with suitable orders, habits, and distinctions, of which his mother was made president.—They met several times; all their debates turning upon the fashions of the day, and the different formalities to be used at giving and receiving visits. To these follies he added great cruelty and boundless prodigality; so that he was heard to say, that such dishes as were cheaply obtained were scarcely worth eating. It is even said, that he strove to foretell what was to happen, by inspecting the entrails of young men sacrificed, and that he chose the most beautiful youths throughout Italy to be slain for that horrid purpose! However, his soldiers mutinying, as was now usual with them, they followed him to his palace, pursuing him from apartment to apartment, till at last they found him concealed in a sewer. Having dragged him thence through the streets, with the most bitter invectives, and having despatched him, they attempted once more to squeeze his pampered body into a sewer; but, not easily effecting this, they threw it into the Tiber loaded with heavy weights, that none
 A. D. 222. } might afterwards find it or give it burial. Such
 Y. R. 975. } was the ignominious death of Heliogabalus, in the eighteenth year of his age, after a detestable reign of four years.

3. To him succeeded Alexander, his cousin-german, who was declared emperor without opposition; and the senate, with their usual adulation, were for conferring new titles upon him; but he modestly declined them all. To the most

rigid justice he added the greatest humanity. He loved the good, and was a severe reprovcr of the lewd and infamous. His accomplishments were equal to his virtues. He was an excellent mathematician, geometrician, and musician ; he was equally skilful in painting and sculpture ; and in poetry few of his time could equal him. In short, such were his talents, and such was the solidity of his judgment, that, though but sixteen years of age, he was considered as a prodigy of wisdom. About the thirteenth year of his reign, the Upper Germans and other northern nations began to pour down immense swarms of people upon the more southern parts of the empire. They passed the Rhine and the Danube with such fury, that all Italy was thrown into the utmost consternation. The emperor, ever ready to expose his person for the safety of his people, made what levies he could, and went in person to stem the torrent, which he speedily effected. In was in the course of his successes against the enemy that he was cut off by

A. D. 235. }
 Y. R. 988. } a mutiny among his own soldiers. He died in the
 twenty-ninth year of his age, after a prosperous reign
 of thirteen years and nine days.

4. The tumults occasioned by the death of Alexander being appeased, Maximin, who had been the chief promoter of the sedition against him, was chosen emperor. This extraordinary man, whose character deserves particular attention, was born of very obscure parentage, being the son of a poor herdsman of Thrace. In the beginning of his life he followed his father's humble profession, and only exercised his personal courage against the robbers who infested that part of the country in which he lived. Soon after, his ambition increasing, he left this poor employment, and enlisted in the Roman army, where he soon became remarkable for his great strength, discipline, and courage. This gigantic man was no less than eight feet and a half high ; he had a body and strength corresponding to his size, being not more remarkable for the magnitude than the symmetry of his person. His wife's bracelet usually served him for a thumb-ring ; and his strength was so great that he was able to draw a carriage which two oxen could not move. He could strike out a horse's teeth with a blow of his fist, and break its thigh with a kick of his foot. His diet was as extraordinary as the rest of his endowments : he generally ate forty pounds weight of flesh every day, and drank six gallons of wine, without committing any debauch in either. With a frame so athletic, he was possessed of a mind undaunted in danger, and neither feared nor regarded any man. He was first made known to the emperor Severus, when he was celebrating games on the

birthday of his son Geta. He overcame sixteen in running, one after the other; he kept up with the emperor on horseback; and, having fatigued him in the course, was opposed to seven of the most active soldiers, whom he overcame with the greatest ease. From that time he was particularly noticed, and taken into the emperor's body-guard; and, by the usual gradations of preferment, came to be chief commander, in which office he was equally remarkable for his simplicity, discipline, and virtue. On being chosen emperor, however, he was found to be one of the greatest monsters of cruelty that ever disgraced the authority of a sovereign; and, fearful of nothing himself, he seemed to sport with the terrors of mankind.

5. However, his cruelties did not retard his military operations, which were carried on with a spirit becoming a better monarch. He overthrew the Germans in several battles, wasted all the country with fire and sword for four hundred miles together, and formed a resolution of subduing all the northern nations as far as the ocean. In these expeditions, in order to attach the soldiers more firmly to him, he increased their pay; and in every duty of the camp he himself took as much pains as the meanest sentinel in the army, showing incredible courage and assiduity. In every engagement, wherever the conflict was hottest, Maximin was always seen fighting there in person, and destroying all before him; for, being bred a barbarian, he considered it as his duty to combat as a common soldier, while he commanded as a general. In the mean time, his cruelties had so alienated the minds of his subjects, that several conspiracies were secretly formed against him. None of them, however, succeeded; till at last his own soldiers, being long harassed by famine and fatigue, and hearing of revolts on every side, resolved to end their calamities by the tyrant's death. His great strength, and his being always armed, were at first the principal motives to deter any from assassinating him; but at length, having made his guards accomplices in their design, they set upon him while he slept

A. D. 238. } at noon in his tent, and slew both him and his son,
 Y. R. 991. } whom he had made his partner in the empire, without any opposition. Thus died this most remarkable man, after a usurpation of about three years, and in the sixty-fifth year of his age. His assiduity when in humble station, and his cruelty when in power, may serve to prove, that there are some men whose virtues are fitted for obscurity, as there are others who only show themselves great when placed in an exalted station.

6. The tyrant being dead, and his body thrown to dogs and

birds of prey, Pupienus Maximus and Balbinus, who had been elected to the imperial throne, continued for some time emperors without opposition; but, differing between themselves, the Prætorian soldiers, who were the enemies of them both, set upon them in their palace, at a time when their guards were amusing themselves with seeing the Capitoline games, and, dragging them from the palace towards the camp, slew them both, leaving their dead bodies in the streets, as dreadful examples of their revolutionary spirit. As the mutineers were proceeding along, they by accident met Gordian, whose father and grandfather had perished in Africa, in attempting to check the atrocities of the late reign, and they declared him emperor upon the spot. This prince was but sixteen years old when he began his reign; but his virtues seemed to compensate for his want of experience. His principal aims were to unite the opposing members of the government, and to reconcile the soldiers and citizens to each other. The army, however, began to murmur as usual; and their complaints were artfully fomented by Philip, an Arabian, who was præfect of the Prætorian guards. Things thus proceeded from bad to worse; Philip was at first made equal in the command of the empire; shortly after he was invested with the sole power; and at length, finding himself capable of per-

A. D. 244. } petrating his long-meditated cruelty, Gordian was,
Y. R. 997. } by his order, slain in the twenty-second year of his age, after a successful reign of nearly five years.

7. Philip having thus murdered his benefactor, was so fortunate as to be immediately acknowledged emperor by the army. Upon his exaltation, he associated his son, a boy of six years of age, as his partner in the empire; and, in order to secure his power at home, made peace with the Persians, and marched his army towards Rome. The army, however, revolted in favour of Decius, his general; and one of his sentinels attacking him, at one blow cut off his head, or rather cleft it asunder, separating the under from the upper jaw. He

A. D. 249. } died in the forty-fifth year of his age, after a reign
Y. R. 1002. } of about five years, Decius being universally chosen as his successor.

8. The activity and wisdom of Decius seemed, in some measure, to retard the decline of the Roman empire. The senate appeared to think so highly of his merits, that they considered him not inferior even to Trajan; and indeed he seemed, in every instance, to consult the dignity of the senators in particular, as well as the welfare of the inferior ranks. But no virtues could now prevent the approaching downfall of the state; the obstinate dispute between the Pagans and the

Christians within the empire, and the unceasing irruptions of barbarous nations without, enfeebled it beyond the power of remedy. At this period, the Goths made a dreadful incursion into the provinces of Thrace and Mœsia, and Decius went in person to oppose them; but though he was so successful at first as to destroy thirty thousand of them in one battle, yet

A. D. 251. } he was, by the treachery of Gallus, his own general,
 Y. R. 1004. } led into an ambuscade of the enemy, and killed in the fiftieth year of his age, after a short reign of two years and six months.

EXERCISES.

1. Whom did the soldiers elect as emperor on Caracalla's death? By whom was Macrinus opposed, and what became of him?
2. Who next succeeded to the throne? How did Heliogabalus display his partiality for the female sex? Of what prodigality and cruelty was he guilty? What became of him?
3. Who succeeded Heliogabalus? What was the character of Alexander? What irruptions did the Germans and other northern nations make in his reign? What became of Alexander, and how long did he reign?
4. Who was chosen emperor after Alexander? What was the origin and progress of Maximin? For what bodily endowments was he remarkable? What was his character after ascending the throne?
5. What success attended his German expedition? What conduct and courage did he display? Why did his soldiers conspire against him? What became of him, and how long had he reigned?
6. Who succeeded Maximin? How were Pupienus and Balbinus treated by the Prætorian soldiers? Whom did the mutineers declare emperor? What were Gordian's aims on ascending the throne? What was his fate?
7. Whom did the army now acknowledge emperor? Whom did Philip associate in the government, and how did he endeavour to secure his power? What became of him?
8. Who was declared his successor? What activity and wisdom did Decius discover? What enfeebled the empire at this time? By what means was Decius slain?

SECTION III.

A. D. 251. } 1. GALLUS, who had betrayed the Roman army,
 Y. R. 1004. } had address enough to get himself declared emperor by that part of it which survived the defeat. He was forty-five years old when he began to reign, and was descended from an honourable family in Rome. He was the first who bought a dishonourable peace from the enemies of the state, agreeing to pay a considerable annual tribute to the Goths, whom it was his duty to repress. He was quite regardless of every national calamity, and totally abandoned to debauchery and sensuality. The Pagans, at this time, were allowed a power of persecuting the Christians through all parts of the empire. These calamities were succeeded by a pestilence from heaven, that seemed to have spread over every part of the earth, and

continued raging for several years in an unheard-of manner. These misfortunes were followed by a civil war, which broke out soon after between Gallus and his general Æmilianus, who, having gained a victory over the Goths, was proclaimed emperor by his conquering army. Gallus, hearing of this revolt, roused himself from the intoxication of pleasure, and prepared to oppose his dangerous rival; but both he and his son were slain by Æmilianus, in a battle fought in Mœsia. His death was the just punishment of his conduct, and his vices were such as to deserve the detestation of posterity. He died in the

A. D. 253. } forty-seventh year of his age, after an unhappy
Y. R. 1006. } reign of two years and four months, during which
the empire suffered inexpressible calamities.

2. The senate refused to acknowledge the claims of Æmilianus; and an army that was stationed near the Alps chose Valerian, their own commander, to succeed to the throne. Being acknowledged emperor also by the senate and people, he set about reforming the state with a spirit that seemed to mark a noble mind and unabated vigour. But reformation was then become almost impracticable. The Persians, under

A. D. 257. } their king Sapor, invaded Syria, and coming into
Y. R. 1010. } Mesopotamia, took the unfortunate Valerian prisoner, as he was making preparations to oppose them. Nothing can exceed the indignities, as well as the cruelties, which were practised upon this unhappy monarch, when he had thus fallen into the hands of his enemies. Sapor, we are told, always used him as a footstool for mounting his horse; he added the bitterness of ridicule also to his insults, and usually observed that an attitude like that to which Valerian was reduced, was the best statue that could be erected in honour of his victory. This horrid life of insult and sufferance continued for several

A. D. 260. } years, and was at length terminated by the cruel
Y. R. 1013. } Persian commanding his prisoner's eyes to be plucked out, and afterwards causing him to be flayed alive!

3. Valerian being taken prisoner, as has been just mentioned, Gallienus his son, promising to revenge the insult, was chosen emperor, being then about forty-one years old. However, he soon discovered that he sought rather the splendours than the toils of empire; for, after having overthrown Ingenuus, a commander in Pannonia, who had assumed the title of emperor, he ceased from all exertion, as if fatigued with conquest, and gave himself up to ease and luxury. It was at this time that no less than thirty pretenders were seen contending with each other for the dominion of the state, and adding the calamities of civil war to the rest of the misfortunes of this devoted empire. They are generally known in history

by the name of the thirty tyrants. In this general calamity, Gallienus, though at first seemingly insensible, was at length obliged for his own private security to take the field, and led an army to besiege the city of Milan, which had been taken

A. D. 268. } by one of the thirty usurping tyrants. It was there
 Y. R. 1021. } that he was slain by his own soldiers; Marcian, one of his generals, having conspired against him.

4. Flavius Claudius being nominated to succeed, was joyfully received by all orders of the state, and his title was confirmed by the senate and people. We are not sufficiently assured of this emperor's lineage and country. Some affirm that he was born in Dalmatia, and descended from an ancient family there; others assert that he was a Trojan; and others, that he was son to the emperor Gordian. But whatever might have been his descent, his merits were by no means doubtful. He was a man of great valour and conduct, having performed the most signal services against the Goths, who had long continued their irruptions into the empire; but, on his march against that barbarous people, as he approached near the city

A. D. 270. } Sirmium, in Pannonia, he was seized with a pesti-
 Y. R. 1023. } lential fever, of which he died in a few days, to the great regret of his subjects, and the irreparable loss of the Roman empire.

5. Upon the death of Claudius, Aurelian was universally acknowledged by all the states of the empire, and assumed the command with a greater share of power than his predecessors had enjoyed for some time before. This active monarch was born in Dacia, of mean and obscure parentage, and was about fifty-five years old at the time of his coming to the throne. He had spent the early part of his life in the army, and had risen through all the gradations of military service. He was of unshaken courage and amazing strength; as, in one single engagement, he killed forty of the enemy with his own hand, and above nine hundred at several different times. In short, his valour and exploits were such, that he was compared to Julius Cæsar, and in fact only wanted mildness and clemency to have been every way his equal. Among the number of those who were compelled to submit to his power, we may reckon the famous Zenobia, queen of Palmyra. He subdued her country, destroyed her city, and took herself prisoner. Longinus, the celebrated critic, and secretary to the queen, was by Aurelian's order put to death. Zenobia was reserved to grace his triumph, and was afterwards allotted such lands, and such an income, as served to maintain her in almost her former splendour. Aurelian having thus restored peace to the empire, endeavoured, by the rigours of justice, to restore vir-

que also. But his severities at last were the cause of his destruction. Mnestheus, his principal secretary, having been threatened by him for some fault which he had committed, formed a conspiracy against him; and as the emperor passed with a small guard from Heraclea, in Thrace, towards Byzantium, the conspirators fell upon him suddenly, and killed him A. D. 275. }
Y. R. 1028. } with very small resistance. He was slain in the sixtieth, or, as some say, the sixty-third year of his age, after a very active reign of almost five years.

6. After a peaceful interregnum of eight months, the senate made choice of Tacitus, a man of great merit, and no way ambitious of the honours that were offered him, being at that time seventy-five years old. During the short period of his A. D. 276. }
Y. R. 1029. } reign, the senate seemed to have a large share of authority; and the historians of the times are all liberal of their praises to such emperors as were thus willing to divide their power.

7. Upon the death of Tacitus, his brother Florianus assumed the imperial title, without expecting the sanction of the senate; but being put to death after a shortlived usurpation of three months, the whole army, as if by common consent, insisted that Probus, general of the forces in Egypt and Syria, should be emperor. He was forty-four years old when he ascended the throne; born of noble parentage at Sirmium in Pannonia, and bred up a soldier from his youth. He began early to distinguish himself by his discipline and valour, being frequently the first man, in besieging towns, who scaled the walls, or burst into the enemy's camp.—He was equally remarkable for his valour in single combats, and in saving the lives of many eminent citizens; nor were his activity and courage, when elected to the empire, less apparent than in his private station. But every year now produced only new calamities to the empire, while fresh irruptions on every side threatened universal desolation; and perhaps at this time no abilities, except those of Probus, were capable of opposing A. D. 282. }
Y. R. 1035. } such united invasions. However, his own mutinous soldiers, taking the opportunity as he was marching into Greece, attacked and slew him, after he had reigned six years and four months with general approbation.

8. Carus, who was Prætorian prefect to the deceased emperor, was chosen by the army to succeed him. In order the better to strengthen his authority, he united his two sons, Carinus and Numerian, with him in command; the former of whom was as much degraded by his vices as the latter was remarkable for his virtues, modesty, and courage. Carus, shortly after his exaltation, engaged in an expedition against

the Persian monarch, over whom he gained a complete victory; but soon after he was struck dead by lightning in his tent, with many others that were round him. Numerian, the youngest son, who accompanied his father in this expedition, was inconsolable for his death, and brought such a disorder upon his eyes by weeping, that he was obliged to be carried along with the army, shut up in a close litter. The peculiarity of his situation excited the ambition of Aper, his father-in-law, who supposed that he could now, without any great danger, aim at the empire himself. He therefore hired a mercenary villain to murder the emperor in his litter; and the better to conceal the fact, gave out that he was still alive, but unable to endure the light. But the offensive smell of his dead body at length discovered the treachery, and excited a universal uproar throughout the whole army. In the midst of this tumult, Dioclesian, one of the most noted commanders of his time, was chosen emperor, and with his own hand slew Aper;—having thus, as it was said, fulfilled a prophecy, which had said that Dioclesian should be emperor, after he had slain a boar. Carinus, the remaining son, did not long survive his father and brother.

9. Dioclesian was a person of mean birth; being supposed, according to some, to be the son of a scrivener; and of a slave, according to others. He received his name from Dioclea, the town in which he was born; and was about forty years old when elected to the empire. He owed his exaltation entirely to his merit, having passed through all the gradations of military office with sagacity, courage, and success.

In his time *the northern hive*, as it was called, poured down their swarms of barbarians upon the Roman empire. Ever at war with the Romans, they issued forth when the armies sent to repress their invasions were called away; and, upon their return, as suddenly withdrew into their cold, barren, and inaccessible retreats, which only they themselves could endure. In this manner the Scythians, Goths, Sarmatians, Alani, Carpi, and Quadi, came down in incredible numbers, while every defeat seemed but to increase their strength and perseverance. After gaining many victories over these barbarians, and in the midst of their splendid triumphs, Dioclesian and Maximian, his partner in the empire, surprised the world by resigning their dignities on the same day, and by retiring into private stations. In this contented manner, Dioclesian lived for some time, and at last died either by poison or by madness, though the manner of his death has not been ascertained. His reign, which continued twenty years, was active and useful; and his authority, which was tinged

with severity, was well adapted to the depraved state of morals at that period.

EXERCISES.

1. Who succeeded Decius on the throne? What dishonourable peace did Gallus make with the Goths? What calamities took place in his reign? What became of Gallus?

2. Whom did the army choose as his successor? By whom was Valerian taken prisoner? How did the Persian king treat him, and put him to death?

3. Who was chosen to succeed Valerian? How did Gallienus act after overthrowing Ingenuus? What number of competitors for the empire appeared at this time? Whither did Gallienus march to oppose one of them, and by whom was he slain?

4. Who was nominated to succeed him? In what manner did Claudius conduct himself? What disease put a period to his life?

5. Who was now acknowledged emperor? What proofs did he give of his courage and strength? Whom did he compel to submit to his power, and what became of Longinus and Zenobia? Who conspired against him, and when was he slain?

6. Whom did the senate choose as his successor? In what manner did Tacitus reign? What became of him?

7. Whom did the army appoint to fill the throne? For what qualities was Probus remarkable? By whom was he slain, and how long had he reigned?

8. Who was chosen to succeed Probus? How did Carus endeavour to strengthen his authority? What accident put an end to his life? How did Numerian display his filial affection? What crime did Aper's ambition tempt him to commit? Who was chosen emperor after Numerian?

9. What was Dioclesian's birth and character? What barbarous nations invaded the empire during his reign? What success had Dioclesian against them, and how did he and his colleague surprise the world? How did the death of the former happen, and how long had he reigned?

SECTION IV.

A. D. 305. }
Y. R. 1058. } 1. UPON the resignation of the two emperors, the two Cæsars, whom they had before chosen, were universally acknowledged as their successors,—namely, Constantius Chlorus, who was so called from the paleness of his complexion, being virtuous, valiant, and merciful; and Galerius, who was brave, but brutal, incontinent, and cruel. As there was such a disparity in their tempers, they readily agreed, upon gaining full power, to divide the empire,—Constantius being appointed to govern the western parts, including Italy, Sicily, Africa, Spain, Gaul, Britain, and Germany; while Galerius had the eastern provinces of Illyricum, Pannonia, Thrace, Macedonia, Greece, the Lesser Asia, Egypt, Syria, Judea, and all the other states subject to the Romans in that part of the world. We are informed of very few particulars respecting the reign of Constantius, except a detail of his character, which was amiable and virtuous. Constantius died in Britain, appointing Constantine, his son, as his successor. Ga-

lerius, after an inglorious reign of some years, appointed Licinius his successor, and was soon after seized with a very extraordinary disorder, which baffled all the skill of the physicians, and carried him off, after he had languished in torments for nearly the space of a year.

A. D. 306. } 2. Constantine, afterwards surnamed the Great,
Y. R. 1059. } had at first some competitors for the throne. Among the rest was Maxentius, who was at that time in possession of Rome, and the steadfast supporter of Paganism. It was in Constantine's march against that usurper, that we are assured he was converted to Christianity by a very extraordinary appearance. One evening, as we are told, the army being upon its march towards Rome, Constantine was occupied with various considerations upon the fate of sublunary things, and the dangers of his approaching expedition. Sensible of his own incapacity to succeed without divine assistance, he employed his meditations upon the opinions that were chiefly agitated among mankind, and sent up his ejaculations to Heaven to inspire him with wisdom to choose the path which he ought to pursue. It was then, as the sun was declining, that there suddenly appeared a pillar of light in the heavens, in the figure of a cross, with this inscription, ΤΟΥΤΩ ΝΙΚΑ, *By this overcome.* So extraordinary an appearance did not fail to create astonishment both in the emperor and his whole army, who considered it as their various dispositions led them to believe. Those who were attached to Paganism, prompted by their auspices, pronounced it to be a most inauspicious omen, portending unfortunate events; but it made a different impression on the mind of the emperor, who, as the account relates, was farther encouraged by visions the same night. He therefore, the day following, caused a royal standard to be made, like that which he had seen in the heavens, and commanded it to be carried before him in his wars, as an ensign of victory and celestial protection. After this, he consulted A. D. 312. }
Y. R. 1065. } with several of the principal teachers of Christianity, and made a public avowal of that religion.

3. Constantine, having thus attached to his interest all his soldiers who were of the Christian persuasion, lost no time in entering Italy with ninety thousand foot and eight thousand horse, and soon advanced almost to the very gates of Rome. Maxentius advanced from the city with an army of a hundred and seventy thousand foot and eighteen thousand horse. The engagement was for some time fierce and bloody, till Maxentius's cavalry being routed, victory declared upon the side of his opponent, and he himself was drowned in his flight, by the breaking down of a bridge, as he attempted to cross the Tiber.

Constantine, in consequence of this victory, entered the city, disclaiming all the praises which the senate and people were ready to offer, and ascribing his success to a superior power. He even caused the cross, which he was said to have seen in the heavens, to be placed at the right of all his statues, with this inscription: "That under the influence of that victorious cross, Constantine had delivered the city from the yoke of tyrannical power, and restored the senate and people of Rome to their ancient authority." He afterwards ordained that no criminal should for the future suffer death by the cross, which had formerly been the most usual way of punishing slaves convicted of capital offences. Edicts were soon after issued, declaring that the Christians should be released from all their grievances, and received into places of trust and authority.

4. Things continued in this state for some time, Constantine contributing all in his power to the interest of religion, and the revival of learning, which had long been upon the decline, and was almost wholly extinct in the empire. But in the midst of these assiduities, the peace of the empire was again disturbed by the preparations of Maximin, who governed in the east, and who, desirous of a full participation of power, marched against Licinius with a numerous army. In consequence of this step, after many conflicts, a general engagement ensued, in which Maximin suffered a total defeat; many of his troops were cut in pieces, and those that survived submitted to the conqueror. Having, however, escaped the general carnage, he once more put himself at the head of another army, resolving to try the fortune of the field; but his death prevented the

A. D. 313. } design. As he died by a very extraordinary kind
Y. R. 1066. } of madness, the Christians, of whom he was the declared enemy, did not fail to ascribe his end to a judgment from Heaven; but this was the age in which false judgments and false miracles made up the bulk of un instructive history.

5. Constantine and Licinius thus remaining undisputed possessors and partners in the empire, all things promised a peaceable continuance of friendship and power. However, it was soon found, that the same ambition which aimed at a part, would be content with nothing less than the whole. Pagan writers ascribe the rupture between these two potentates to Constantine, while the Christians, on the other hand, imputed it wholly to Licinius. Both sides exerted all their power to oppose each other; and, at the head of very formidable armies, came to an engagement near Cibalæ, in Pannonia. Constantine, previous to the battle, in the midst of his Christian bishops, begged the assistance of Heaven; while Licinius, with equal zeal, called upon the Pagan priests to intercede with

the gods in his favour. The success was on the side of truth. Constantine, after an obstinate resistance, came off victorious, took the enemy's camp, and, after some time, compelled Licinius to sue for a truce, which was agreed upon. But this was of no long continuance; for soon after, the war breaking out afresh, and the rivals coming once more to a general engagement, it proved decisive. Licinius was entirely defeated, and pursued by Constantine into Nicomedia, where he surrendered himself up to the victor, having first obtained an oath that his life should be spared, and that he should be permitted to pass the remainder of his days in retirement. This oath, however, Constantine shortly after broke; for, either fearing his

A. D. 324. } designs, or finding him actually engaged in fresh
Y. R. 1077. } conspiracies, he commanded him to be put to death, together with Marcian, his general, who, some time before, had been created Cæsar.

6. Constantine being thus sole monarch of the empire, resolved to establish Christianity on so sure a basis that no new revolutions should shake it. He commanded, that in all the provinces of the empire the orders of the bishops should be exactly obeyed. He called also a general council of the dignified clergy at Nice, in order to repress the heresies

A. D. 325. }
Y. R. 1078. } that had already crept into the church, particularly that of Arius. To this place repaired three hundred and eighteen bishops, besides a multitude of presbyters and deacons, together with the emperor himself, all of whom, except about seventeen, concurred in condemning the tenets of Arius; and this heresiarch, with his associates, was banished into a remote part of the empire. But, though Constantine thus restored universal tranquillity to the empire, he was not able to ward off the calamities of a domestic nature. As the wretched historians of this period are entirely at variance with each other, it is not easy to tell the motives which induced him to put his wife Fausta and his son Crispus to death. The most plausible account is this:—"Fausta, the empress, who was a woman of great beauty, but of inordinate passions, had long, though secretly, loved Crispus, Constantine's son by a former wife. She had tried every art to inspire this youth with a mutual passion; and, finding her more distant efforts ineffectual, had even the confidence to make him an open confession of her desires. This produced an explanation which was fatal to both. Crispus received her addresses with detestation, and she, to be revenged, accused him to the emperor. Constantine, fired at once with jealousy and rage, ordered him to die without a hearing; nor did his innocence appear till it was too late for redress. The only reparation, therefore, that remained was,

the putting of Fausta, the wicked instrument of his former cruelty, to death; which was accordingly executed upon her and some others, who had been accomplices in her falsehood and treachery."

7. But it is supposed that all the good he did was not equal to compensate for the evil which the empire sustained by his transferring the seat of it from Rome to Byzantium, or Constantinople, as it was afterwards called. Whatever might have been the reasons which induced him to take this step,—whether it was because he was offended at some affronts he had received at Rome, or that he supposed Constantinople more in the centre of the empire, or that the eastern parts more required his presence, experience has shown that they were all weak and groundless. The empire had long before been in a most declining state; but this in a great measure precipitated its downfall. After this transference of the seat of power, it never resumed its former splendour; but like a flower transplanted into a foreign clime, languished by degrees, and at length sunk into nothing. The first design of Constantine was to build a city, which he might make the capital of the world; and for this purpose he made choice of a situation at Chalcedon, in Asia Minor; but we are told that, in laying out the ground-plan, an eagle caught up the line, and flew with it over to Byzantium, a city which lay on the opposite side of the Bosphorus. Here, therefore, it was thought expedient to fix the seat of empire; and indeed nature seemed to have formed this city with all the conveniences and all the beauties which might induce the sovereign of the civilized world to make it the place of his residence. It was situated on a plain that rose gently from the water; it commanded that strait which unites the sea of Marmora with the Euxine sea, and was furnished with all the advantages which the most favourable climate could bestow. This city, therefore, he beautified with the most magnificent edifices; he divided it into fourteen districts; built a capitol and amphitheatre, many churches, and other public works; and having thus rendered it equal to the magnificence of his plan, he dedicated it in a very solemn manner to the God of martyrs; and in about two years after repaired thither with his whole court.

8. This removal produced no immediate alteration in the government of the empire; the inhabitants of Rome, though with reluctance, submitted to the change; nor was there for two or three years any disturbance in the state, until at length the Goths, finding that the Romans had withdrawn all their garrisons along the Danube, renewed their inroads,

and ravaged the country with unheard-of cruelty. Constantine, however, soon repressed their incursions, and so straitened them, that nearly a hundred thousand of their number perished by cold and hunger. Another great error ascribed to Constantine is the division of the empire among his sons. By this arrangement, Constantine, the emperor's eldest son, commanded in Gaul and the western provinces; Constantius governed Africa and Illyricum; and Constans, the youngest, ruled in Italy. This division of the empire contributed still farther to its downfall; for the united strength of the state being no longer brought to repress invasion, the barbarians fought with superior numbers, and, though often defeated, were finally successful. Constantine was about sixty years old, and had reigned about thirty, when he found his health beginning to decline. His disorder, which was an ague, increasing rapidly, he went to Nicomedia, where, finding himself without hopes of a recovery, he caused himself to be baptized; and having soon after received the sacrament, he expired, after a memorable and active reign of thirty-two years.

EXERCISES.

1. Who were chosen to succeed the two late emperors? What division of the empire did they make? What became of Constantius and Galerius?
2. Who next ascended the throne? Who opposed Constantine in the possession of the empire? What extraordinary appearance was said to have been observed by Constantine? What measures did he adopt in consequence of it?
3. Whither did he march with his army, and what was its amount? What success attended Constantine? How did he act after entering Rome?
4. By whom was the peace of the empire again disturbed? Who was sent against Maximin, and what was the issue of a general battle? What became of Maximin?
5. Who now remained partners in the empire? What was the consequence of a rupture between them? How did the two rivals behave on the eve of a battle, and who proved victorious? What became of Licinius after a second engagement?
6. What means did Constantine employ to establish Christianity? Where did he call a general council, and what was the result of its deliberations? What induced him to put his wife and son to death?
7. To what place did Constantine transfer the seat of empire? What were the causes and consequences of this event? What is the advantageous situation of Constantinople? How did he embellish his new capital?
8. Why did the Goths renew their incursions, and what advantage did Constantine gain over them? How did he divide the empire among his sons? What were the consequences of this division? What religious sacraments did Constantine receive before his death, and how long did he reign?

CHAP. XXIII.

Of the Destruction of the Roman Empire, after the Death of Constantine, and the Events which hastened this Catastrophe.

A. D. 337. } 1. FROM this dreary period, the recovery of the
Y. R. 1090. } empire had become desperate; no wisdom could obviate its rapid decline, nor any courage oppose the evils that surrounded it on every side. Were we to enter into a detail concerning the character of the princes of those times, it should be rather that of the conquerors than of the conquered;—of those Gothic chiefs, who led a more virtuous and more courageous people to the conquest of nations corrupted by vice and enervated by luxury. These barbarians were at first unknown to the Romans; and, for some time after the establishment of the empire, had been only vexatious and troublesome neighbours. But they were now become formidable, and arose in such numbers, that the earth seemed to produce a new race of mankind to complete the destruction of the empire. They had been increasing in their hideous deserts, amidst regions frightful with eternal snow, and had long only waited the opportunity of coming down into a more favourable climate. Against such an enemy no courage could avail nor abilities be successful; a victory only cut off numbers without a habitation and a name, soon to be succeeded by others equally desperate and obscure.

2. The emperors who had to contend with this people had, for the most part, neither courage nor conduct to oppose them. Their residence in Asia seemed to enervate their manners, and produced a desire to be adored like the monarchs of the East. Sunk in effeminacy, they showed themselves less frequently to the soldiers; they became more indolent, fonder of domestic pleasures, and more abstracted from the empire than their predecessors had been. Constantius, who reigned twenty-four years, was weak, timid, and unsuccessful; governed by his eunuchs and his wives, and unfit to support the falling em-

A. D. 361. }
Y. R. 1114. } pire. Julian, his successor, surnamed the Apostate, on account of his relapsing into Paganism, was notwithstanding a very good and a very valiant prince. He, by his wisdom, conduct, and economy, drove the barbarians, who had taken fifty towns upon the Rhine, from their new settlements; and his name was a terror to them during his reign, which, however, lasted but two years. Jovian and
A. D. 363. }
Y. R. 1116. } Valentinian had, indeed, virtue and strength sufficient to preserve the empire from immediately falling under its enemies. No prince saw the necessity of restoring the an-

cient plan of government more than Valentinian. The former emperors had drained away all the frontier garrisons merely to strengthen their own power at home ; but his whole life was employed in fortifying the banks of the Rhine, raising levies, building castles, placing troops in proper stations, and furnishing them with subsistence for their support ; but an event that no human prudence could foresee brought forward a new enemy to assist in the universal destruction.

3. That tract of land which lies between the Palus Mæotis, the mountains of Caucasus, and the Caspian sea, was inhabited by a numerous race of savage people that went by the name of Huns and Alans. Their soil was fertile, and the inhabitants were fond of robbery and plunder. As they imagined it impracticable to cross the Palus Mæotis, they were altogether unacquainted with the Romans ; so that they remained within the limits which their ignorance had assigned them, while other nations plundered with security. It has been the opinion of some, that the slime which was rolled down by the current of the Tanais had by degrees formed a kind of incrustation on the surface of the Cimmerian Bosphorus, over which those people are supposed to have passed. Others relate, that two young Scythians being in pursuit of a heifer, the terrified creature swam over an arm of the sea, and the youths immediately following her, found themselves in a new world on the opposite shore. Upon their return, they did not fail to relate the wonders of the strange lands and countries which they had discovered. Upon their information, an innumerable body of Huns passed these straits, and, meeting first with the Goths, made that people flee before them. The Goths, in consternation, presented themselves on the banks of the Danube, and, with a suppliant air, entreated the Romans to allow them a place of refuge. This they easily obtained from Valens, who assigned them portions of land in Thrace, but left them destitute of all needful supplies. Stimulated therefore by hunger and resentment, they soon after rose

A. D. 378. } against their protectors, and in a dreadful engage-
Y. R. 1131. } ment, which was fought near Adrianople, they destroyed Valens himself, and the greatest part of his army.

4. It was in this manner that the Roman armies became weaker ; so that the emperors, finding it difficult at last to raise levies in the provinces, were obliged to hire one body of barbarians to oppose another. This expedient succeeded in circumstances of immediate danger ; but when that was over, the Romans found it as difficult to rid themselves of their new allies as of their former enemies. Thus the empire was not ruined by any particular invasion, but sunk gradually under

the weight of several attacks made upon it on every side. When the barbarians had wasted one province, those who succeeded the first spoilers proceeded to another. Their devastations were first limited to Thrace, Moesia, and Pannonia; but when these countries were ruined, they destroyed Macedonia, Thessaly, and Greece; and penetrated as far as Noricum. The empire was in this manner continually shrinking in its extent; and Italy at last became the frontier of its own dominion.

A. D. 379. }
Y. R. 1132. } 5. The valour and conduct of Theodosius retarded, in some measure, the destruction that had begun in the time of Valens; but upon his death the enemy became irresistible. A large body of Goths had been called in to assist the regular forces of the empire, under the command of Alaric their king; but the means thus employed for the security of the empire proved the most mortal cause of its destruction. This Gothic prince, who is represented as brave, impetuous, and enterprising, perceiving the weakness of the state, and how little Arcadius and Honorius, the successors of Theodosius, were able to secure it, being instigated by the artifices of one Rosinus, who had designs upon the throne, put himself at the head of his barbarous forces, declared war against his employers, and fought the armies of the empire for some years with various success. In proportion as his troops were cut off, he received new supplies from his native forests; and at length, putting his mighty designs in execution, passed the Alps, and poured down like a torrent into the fruitful valleys of Italy. This charming region had long been the seat of indolence and sensual delight; and its fields, from having once been a nursery of military strength, that furnished soldiers for the conquest of mankind, were now turned into gardens of pleasure, which only served to enervate the possessors. The timid inhabitants, therefore, beheld with terror a dreadful enemy ravaging in the midst of their country; while their wretched emperor Honorius, who was then at Ravenna, seemed only resolved to keep up his dignity, and to refuse any accommodation with the enemy. But the inhabitants of Rome felt the calamities of the times with double aggravation. This great city, which had long sat as mistress of the world, now saw herself besieged by an army of fierce and terrible barbarians; and being crowded with inhabitants, it was reduced, by the extremities of pestilence and famine, to a most deplorable condition.

6. In this extremity, the senate despatched their ambassadors to Alaric, desiring him either to grant them peace upon reasonable terms, or to give them leave to fight with him in

the open field. To this message, however, the Gothic monarch only replied, with a burst of laughter, "that thick grass was easier cut than thin," implying that their troops, when cooped up within the narrow compass of the city, would be more easily overcome than when drawn out in order of battle. When they came to debate about a peace, he demanded all their riches and all their slaves. When he was asked, "what he would then leave them?" he sternly replied, "their lives." These were hard conditions for such a celebrated city to accept; but, compelled by the necessity of the times, the inhabitants raised an immense treasure, both by taxation and stripping the heathen temples, and at length bought off their fierce invader. But this was only a temporary removal of the calamity; for Alaric, now finding that he might become master of Rome whenever he thought proper, returned with his army a short time after, pressed it more closely than he had done before, and at last took it; but whether by force or by stratagem is not agreed among historians. Thus, that

A. D. 410. } city, which had for ages plundered the rest of the
Y. R. 1163. } world, and enriched herself with the spoils of mankind, now felt in her turn the sad reverse of fortune, and suffered all that barbarity could inflict, or patience could endure. The soldiers of Alaric had free liberty to pillage all places except the Christian churches; and, in the midst of this horrible desolation, so great was the reverence of these barbarians for our holy religion, that the Pagan Romans found safety in applying to those of the Christian persuasion for protection. This dreadful devastation continued for three days; and unspeakable were the precious monuments, both of art and learning, that sunk under the fury of the conquerors. However, there were still numerous traces of the city's former greatness; so that this capture seemed rather a correction than a total overthrow.

7. But the Gothic conquerors of the West, though they had suffered Rome to survive its first capture, now found how easy it was to become masters of it upon any other occasion. The extent of its walls had in fact made it almost impracticable for the inhabitants to defend them; and as it was situated in a plain, it might be stormed without much difficulty. Besides this circumstance, no succours were to be expected from without; for the number of the people was so extremely diminished that the emperors were obliged to retire to Ravenna, a place so well fortified by nature that they could be safe without the assistance of an army. What Alaric there-

A. D. 455. } fore spared, Genseric, king of the Vandals, not long
Y. R. 1208. } after contributed to destroy; his merciless soldiers,

for fourteen days together, ravaged with implacable fury in the midst of that venerable city. Neither private dwellings nor public buildings, neither sex nor religion, were the least protection against their lust or avarice.

8. The capital of the empire being thus ransacked several times, and Italy overrun by barbarous invaders, under various denominations, from the remotest skirts of Europe, the Western emperors for some time continued to hold the title without the power of royalty. Honorius lived till he saw himself stripped of the greatest part of his dominions; his capital taken by the Goths; Pannonia seized by the Huns; the Alans, Suevi, and Vandals established in Spain, and the Burgundians settled in Gaul, where the Goths also fixed themselves at last. After some time, the inhabitants of Rome also, being abandoned by their princes, feebly attempted to take the supreme power into their own hands. The inhabitants of Armorica and Britain, seeing themselves undisturbed by the Romans, began to regulate themselves by their own laws. Thus the power of the state was entirely broken, and those who assumed the title of emperors only encountered certain destruction. At
 A. D. 476. } length, even the very name of emperor of the West
 Y. R. 1229. } expired upon the abdication of Augustulus; and Odoacer, general of the Heruli, assumed the title of king of all Italy.—Such was the end of this great empire, that had conquered mankind by its arms, and instructed the world by its wisdom; that had risen by temperance, and that fell by luxury; that had been established by a spirit of patriotism, and that sunk into ruin when the empire was become so extensive that a Roman citizen was but an empty name. Its final dissolution happened about five hundred and twenty-three years after the battle of Pharsalia; a hundred and forty-six after the removal of the imperial seat to Constantinople; and four hundred and seventy-six after the nativity of our Saviour.

EXERCISES.

1. What was the condition of the Roman empire at this period? What was the character of the Gothic chiefs? What is the general history of the Goths?

2. What were the habits of the Roman emperors? How long did Constantius reign? Who succeeded him, and what surname did Julian receive? What advantages did he obtain over the barbarians, and how long did he reign? In what manner did Jovian and Valentinian act?

3. What part of Asia did the Huns and Alans inhabit? How did they first become acquainted with the Roman territories? Whom did they attack, and what was the consequence? From whom did the Goths receive protection? What became of Valens and his army?

4. Whom did the Roman emperors employ to defend the empire? How did the barbarians now treat the Romans? What provinces were first exposed to their depredations.

5. What people were hired to assist the Romans against the barbarians ? What advantage did Alaric, the Gothic chief, take of the weakness of the empire ? Whither did he lead his forces, and how did Honorius act in this emergency ? To what condition were the inhabitants of Italy and Rome now reduced ?

6. What proposal did the senate make to Alaric, and what answer did he return ? How did the Romans procure an accommodation with their invader ? When did Alaric return with his army, and what city did he take ? What calamities did the inhabitants of Rome suffer ? What respect did the barbarians show to the Christians ?

7. What was the condition of Rome at this period ? Whither had the emperors now retired ? Who at last destroyed the magnificence of Rome, and what devastations were committed in that imperial city ?

8. What parts of the empire were now reduced under the power of the barbarians ? What other provinces threw off the Roman yoke ? Who was the last emperor, and who assumed the title of king of Italy ? What were the causes of the rise and fall of the Roman empire ? At what period did the final dissolution of the empire happen ?

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF NAMES, WITH THE QUANTITY OF
THE PENULT SYLLABLES MARKED.

N. B.—The quantity is not marked on those penult syllables in which the vowel precedes another, as in these it is generally short ; when otherwise, the quantity is given.

A		
Acrāgas	Asiaticus	Centuriāta
Adōnis	Asprēnas	Cethēgus
Adrumētum	Athēsis	Chalcēdon
Ægātes	Athlēta	Cibālæ
Æmiliānus	Attālus	Cicēro
Ænēas	Atticus	Cincinnātus
Afrīca	Attila	Cisalpīna
Africānus	Aufīdus	Cleopātra
Agricōla	Augustūlus	Cloācæ
Agrippīna	Ausōnes	Cocceiānus
Ahāla		Collatinus
Alāni	B	Commōdus
Albīnus	Babylon	Corbūlo
Albūla	Balbīnus	Coriolānus
Amphipōlis	Bebriācum	Coriōli
Anchīses	Bellūtus	Cortōna
Ancōna	Berenīce	Cremēra
Andronicus	Berīcus	Cremōna
Antiōchus	Bibūlus	Ctesiphon
Antīpas	Bosphōrus	Curiāta
Antonīnus	Bradānus	Cybēle
Apennīnus		Cynobelīnus
Apollodōrus	C	Cyrēne
Archimēdes	Cæcīna	
Aretīnus	Cænīna	D
Argyrīpe	Calēnus	Decebālus
Ariarāthes	Caligūla	Decemvīri
Arimīnum	Calvinus	Decīmus
Armenīcus	Caractācus	Demosthēnes
Armorīca	Carīnus	Dentātus
Arpīnum	Casilīnum	Diadumeniānus
Artaxāta	Castōris	Diana
Artemidōrus	Catūlus	Dictātor
Ascūlum	Caucāsus	Dioclēa
Asdrūbal	Caudīnæ	Doryphōrus
	Cenomāni	Drepānum

Duumvīri

E

Enipeus
Epaphrodītus
Epīrus
Equītes
Eridānus
Euphrātes
Euripīdes

F

Faustūlus
Fescennīni
Fidēnæ
Fidenātes
Floriānus
Formiānum
Frentāni

G

Galgācus
Galliēnus
Germanīcus
Getulīcus
Glaphŷra
Graniānus

H

Hannībal
Heliogabālus
Heraclēa
Hercūles
Hernīci
Herūli
Hiēro
Himēra
Hirpīni

J

Janicūlum
Icēni
Idumēa
Illyricum
Insūbres
Josēphus
Italīca
Judēa

K

Karthālo

L

Labiēnus
Latīnus
Lāūs
Lentūlus
Lepīdus
Leucopōlis
Liciniānus
Lingōnes
Longīnus
Lucrīnus
Lucūmon
Lucumōnes

M

Macrīnus
Mæcēnas
Mæōtis
Marīnus
Marrucīni
Maxīmus
Medoācus
Menodōrus
Messalīna
Messāna
Metropōlis
Misēnum
Mithridātes
Mutīna

N

Nasīca
Neapōlis
Nemēsis
Norbānus
Norīcum
Numerīcus
Numītor

O

Odoācer
Odrŷsæ
Oliānus
Ordovīces
Ozōla

P

Palmŷra
Parthenōpe
Parthīcus
Patercūlus
Paulīna

Peloponnēsus

Penātes
Penēus
Pergamēnus
Pergāmus
Pertīnax
Pharnāces
Philocrātes
Philoctētes
Photīnus
Picentīni
Picēnum
Plaucīna
Pomōna
Pomposiānus
Pontīfex
Pontīfices
Porsēna
Pupiēnus
Puteolānus
Pythagōras

Q

Quindecemvīri
Quirīnus
Quirītes

R

Regūlus
Romūlus
Rosīnus
Rubīcon
Rustīcus
Rutūli

S

Sabātus
Sabīni
Salentīni
Satyrīcon
Sejānus
Seleucīa
Sellētæ
Senātus
Senēca
Senōnes
Sevērus
Sicūlum
Silārus
Silūres
Sisēnes
Socrātes

Sophōcles
 Sorānus
 Spurīna
 Stephānus
 Sybāris
 Syracūsæ
 Syriācus

T

Tacītus
 Tænārus
 Tanāquil

Tarentīnus
 Taurīni
 Theodōtus
 Tibēris
 Ticīnus
 Thermopŷlæ
 Thrasimēnus
 Togāta
 Tribūta
 Trīquētra
 Triumvīri
 Tuscūlum

U

Urbānus
 Utīca

V

Venēti
 Verōna
 Vestīni
 Vesūlus
 Victorīnus
 Viridomārus
 Vologēsus

THE END.



1267



