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First Principles of Roman History.

“The marrow of History disencumbered of that load of superfluous matter, which makes the reading of History, as it is generally written, extremely tiresome.”

PRIESTLEY'S "LECTURES ON HISTORY."

FIRST PRINCIPLES,
OF
ROMAN HISTORY.

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OF
ROMAN HISTORY.

—
INTRODUCTION.

IN selecting the History of Rome as the *third* of this series of Elementary Histories, I have been guided by the following considerations. It is beyond all doubt that the history of its native land is the first history which should be placed in the hands of a child ; so the series began with the History of *England* ; then the histories of France and England are so mixed up together, and the relations between the two countries are now so intimate, that it seems necessary to proceed to the History of France, even though, in logical sequence, the History of Rome ought to precede it : so the second place in the series has been accorded to *France*.

But, these two Histories being disposed of, Rome is decidedly the next that should engage the attention ; because, as Dr. Freeman so aptly puts it, "Rome alone founded an universal empire, in which all earlier history loses itself, and out of which all later history grew." So that a knowledge of Roman

history forms a central point, from which the student can conveniently pursue his investigation, either backwards into ancient, or forwards into modern history.

And again, a knowledge of Roman history forms the foundation for the study of that of European nations, because, in them, "we have to deal with kingdoms and nations, many of which actually formed part of the Roman dominion, and all of which have been brought, more or less fully, under Roman influences." In truth, the influence of Rome continued to be felt in, and to act upon and determine the history of, these various European nations long after Rome, as an empire, had ceased to exist.

In this work I have followed precisely the same plan as in the two former; that is to say, I have selected what, in my judgment, are the salient points in the history, and endeavoured to give the young student a clear understanding of those points, instead of leaving him to pick them out for himself from the immense mass of facts in which they are usually hidden; so that he may have in his mind a sort of framework, into which facts subsequently acquired may be properly fitted.

I have endeavoured to give him clear ideas on such important points as the origin of the Plebeians, the Agrarian laws, the struggle between the Patricians and Plebeians, the causes of Rome's growth, and the causes of her decline; and I have endeavoured to give some insight into Roman life and manners, to

show that these Romans were real men and women, progressing from a state of rustic simplicity and virtue to one of luxury, extravagance, and vice.

At the same time, I have tried to separate in the mind of the student what is real from what is fictitious in Roman history. In my opinion, nothing is more injudicious than to teach, or allow to be learnt, as *facts*, those poetic fables with which early Roman history is so largely embellished. At the same time we cannot afford to lose these fictions, because while they are interesting and valuable from a poetical point of view, they are invaluable for the insight they give us into much that would otherwise be hidden from us.

Several, therefore, of these old legends have been given; notably, the story of Virginia, of Marcus Curtius, of Horatius Cocles; but in each case the scholar is distinctly told this is not an historical fact, but a poetical legend, founded it may be on reality, but not now to be believed, and yet it teaches this, that, or the other, as the case may be.

As this book is intended to precede, not to supersede, ordinary school-books, I have gone to those books in the first instance for my facts; taking care to verify them by a reference to the authorities; but I desire to express my obligations to Dr. Schmitz's *History of Rome*; to the introductory chapters of *Goldsmith's History of Rome*, written by Dr. W. C. Taylor; to Dr. Freeman's *General Sketch of European*

History; and, though last not least, to Miss Corner's admirable *History*, for the descriptions of Roman manners and customs which are such a capital feature of her book.

In conclusion, I desire to add that these little works are compiled in the intervals of a busy scholastic life, which does not leave much time for correction and verification; I shall, therefore, esteem it a great favour if those who discover errors in any of my works, will kindly communicate either with my publishers or myself, with a view to their correction.

T. S. TAYLOR.

THE FIRST LIST

Of twenty leading names and events to be carefully committed to memory. The numbers correspond to the descriptive paragraphs which follow the list.

1. Foundation of Rome	B.C.	753
2. Servius Tullius King	"	578
3. The Republic Established	"	510
4. Plebeian Tribunes Appointed	"	493
5. First Decemvirate	"	451
6. Rome Burnt by the Gauls	"	390
7. The Licinian Laws	"	367
8. Rome mistress of Italy	"	265
9. First Punic War	"	264
10. Second Punic War	"	218
11. Destruction of Carthage	"	146
12. Caius Gracchus Murdered	"	120
13. War between Marius and Sulla	"	88
14. Julius Cæsar Consul	"	59
15. Death of Cæsar	"	44
16. Beginning of the Roman Empire	"	27
17. Death of Augustus	A.D.	14
18. Accession of Nero	"	54
19. Death of Titus	"	81
20. Death of Marcus Aurelius	"	180

1. **Foundation of Rome.**—If you look at the map of Europe, you will see that the southern, or lower part, of the map is occupied by an immense

sea, called the Mediterranean Sea; and that the Continent of Europe stretches out into this sea in three great peninsulas,—that to the east being Greece and part of Turkey, that to the west consisting of Spain and Portugal, the middle one being Italy. In the middle of Italy, running to the west, is the River Tiber; on that river stands the city of ROME; and it is the wonderful history of that wonderful city which you are now going to learn.

We may well call it a *wonderful city*, since its inhabitants, step by step, conquered and ruled the greater part of the world as far as it was then known; that is to say, all the countries lying round the Mediterranean Sea.

It is very difficult to tell you much about the foundation of Rome, because it took place at a time so far back that all *trustworthy accounts* have long been lost; and although we find in old books many wonderful and interesting stories about it, yet in these stories *truth* is so mixed up with *fable*, that it is difficult, if not impossible, to know one from the other.

It seems, however, to be nearly certain that the city began to be built about the year B.C. 753. The old story is, that two little boys, named *Romulus* and *Remus*, had been placed in a wooden cradle, in the water of the River Tiber (which at that time overflowed its banks), by their mother's uncle, named *Amulius*; that when the Tiber ceased to be flooded, the boys, left on dry land, were found by a she-wolf,

who carried them to her den, and suckled them as if they had been her own cubs ; that the boys were afterwards found by a shepherd ; taken to his house ; grew up to be strong, hardy, and active young men ; and then determined to build a town for themselves and their followers, on the spot where they had been brought up.

Quarrelling as to who should rule the new city, Romulus is said to have killed his brother, and then to have become the king of the place. Six other kings are said to have reigned after him ; and there seems to be no reason to doubt that, whoever might be the actual founder of Rome, the city was governed at first by kings ; and probably the names of the last two or three may be real ones. The names of the seven Roman kings, as given in the old stories are :—

1. Romulus.
2. Numa Pompilius.
3. Tullus Hostilius.
4. Ancus Marcius.
5. Tarquinius Priscus.
6. Servius Tullius.
7. Tarquinius Superbus.

Most likely these old stories were made up (perhaps at first in the form of songs) out of some events that really had happened, but what those events were we cannot now tell.

2. **Servius Tullius king.**—Many curious stories are told about the seven Roman kings, and the city during the time they reigned over it; but, especially in the case of the earlier kings, it is impossible to believe them.

I will try to tell you what has been dug out, as it were, from the *legends* (as the old stories are called), and on which you may rely as being something like what happened.

In the first place, the king was not absolute, but, like the kings of all the early *Aryan nations*,¹ was helped to govern by a *Senate* and an Assembly of the People: then the kingly office did not descend from father to son, but the king was elected by the Senate and the Assembly of the People. The people of Rome early made an alliance with some neighbours called Sabines, who joined their city to Rome, making *one city*, inhabited by two tribes, the *Romans* being known as *Ramnes*, and the *Sabines* as *Titienses*. "This was the beginning of the way in which Rome became the greatest of all cities, namely, by constantly granting its citizenship both to its allies and to its conquered enemies."²

Another neighbouring town, called Alba, was cap-

¹ That division of the human race which now dwells in Europe, and to which the Romans belonged equally with ourselves and the other modern European nations, has been called the *Aryan* family.

² Freeman's *General Sketch of European History*.

tured and destroyed (though by whom is not certain), and some of its inhabitants fled to Rome and settled there. The same thing happened with other towns, and thus the power of the new city grew as its population increased.

You have already been told that even the names of the earlier kings cannot be depended on ; but there is reason to believe that the three last were real persons, probably *Etruscans*, who came from a district to the north of Rome, and some of the natives of which formed a third tribe in the city called *Luceres*.

Of all the kings, Servius Tullius was the most important, for he was the founder of all the civil rights and institutions of the Romans. He it was who organised the dwellers from other towns who had made their home in Rome ; and treating the whole population as an army, he divided them into classes, according to the amount of their property. There seems to have been one hundred and ninety-three classes, called *Centuries* ; eighteen of these were called *Equites*, that is, *horse-soldiers* ; and the rest were called *Pedites*, that is, *foot-soldiers*.

3. **The Republic established.**—The last of the kings of Rome was Tarquinius Superbus (*Tarquin the Proud*), and he seems to have been also the worst. He did away with all the rights conferred on the people by Servius Tullius ; he compelled the people to work so hard that many killed themselves

to escape from their misery ; he and his family outraged all their feelings of honour and decency ; and no one dared to call either his life or his property his own.

The end of all this was, that the people rose up in arms, and drove the Tarquin family out of the city ; and the misery they had suffered produced in their minds such a dislike for the name and office of king, that they determined never more to allow a king to reign over them. Even hundreds of years afterwards the bare idea that any one was trying to make himself a king was enough to rouse the people to fury ; and many men lost their lives because they were supposed to be aiming at kingly power.

In place of the king two magistrates were appointed, at first called *prætores*, but after the year B.C. 449 *consuls*. These officers were elected by the Centuries (par. 2) just as the king had been, but only for one year. During their year of office they had the same power and dignity as had belonged to the king ; but at the end of the year they retired into private life and might then be called to account for any misconduct they might have been guilty of as consuls.

These are the principal *facts* connected with the revolution which made the government of Rome a *Republic* ; but connected with them we still find a great number of stories, all very interesting, many very beautiful, but how much, or how little, truth they contain we cannot now decide.

One thing, however, you may learn from these stories when you read them, that is, that the Romans were a brave, warlike people, leading very simple and frugal lives at home, loving their country almost before everything else, and regarding courage, truth, and honour as above all price; and these qualities, joined to steady perseverance, and a determination not to know when they were beaten, made them at length the conquerors of the world.

4. **Plebeian Tribunes.**—You remember that during the early years of Rome, the population consisted of *three tribes* (par. 2):

- (1.) The Ramnes, who were the original Romans.
- (2.) The Titienses, who were the Sabine allies of the Romans.
- (3.) The Luceres, who were Etruscans that had also settled in Rome.

From these three tribes the members of the senate were chosen, one hundred to represent each tribe; these tribes themselves met in public assembly, to elect the king and transact other public business; and these tribes formed the whole body of Roman citizens.

From time to time, other people from other towns came to live in Rome, but they were not included in either of the tribes; they did not possess the right of taking part in the public assembly of the tribes; and

they formed a totally distinct part of the inhabitants of Rome.

Thus we see the dwellers in Rome at length divided into two distinct classes, those who belonged to the original tribes and those who did not; and these latter were looked down upon by the former as altogether of inferior rank, living among them, but not of them, and having no right to any voice in the conduct of public business.

You must try to understand distinctly, and remember carefully, this matter; because throughout the greater part of Roman History there is a continual struggle going on between these two classes, whom you will find hereafter spoken of as PATRICIANS and PLEBEIANS; the *Patricians* being the members of the three tribes, and the *Plebeians* being the other settlers in Rome, and their descendants.

The Patricians kept themselves distinct from the Plebeians by forbidding marriages between members of the two classes, so that a Patrician could only marry a Patrician, and a Plebeian could only marry a Plebeian. But as fresh settlers constantly came to live in Rome, it came to pass in course of time that the Plebeians far outnumbered the Patricians.

Now during the early years of the Roman Republic, Rome was constantly at war; and as the Roman armies were composed almost entirely of Plebeians, and as the Plebeians lived almost entirely by agriculture, these men had to neglect their farms, shed their

blood for the Republic, and at the same time pay heavy taxes imposed on them by the Patricians.

By these means the Plebeians were reduced to a state of wretchedness, which at last became unbearable: and being able to get no redress from the Patricians they were driven to take desperate means for their self-defence.

You will find an account of their insurrection in the Second List. It is sufficient now to relate that, an enemy approaching the walls of Rome, the Plebeians refused to fight until something was done to relieve their distress. Among other measures taken by the Senate to appease the Plebeians, the most important was the appointment of certain officers called *Plebeian Tribunes*, whose special business it was to watch over and protect the Plebeians. For this purpose large powers were given them, the most important being the power to forbid the execution of the order of any magistrate, or any decree of the Senate.

From this event dates the struggle between the Patricians and the Plebeians; the former determined to shut out the Plebeians from any share in their rights, and the latter equally determined to obtain equal rights with the Patricians in the State.

5. **First Decemvirate.**—After the appointment of the Plebeian Tribunes (par. 4), the struggle between the Patricians and Plebeians was as vigorously carried on as before, and the Patrician magistrates still found

themselves able to oppress and tyrannize over the Plebeians.

This was in a great measure because the Consuls had no written laws to regulate their conduct towards the Plebeians; but they exercised their power partly according to their own ideas of right and wrong, and partly according to the decisions of those who had been Consuls before them.

To remedy this, *Terentillus Arsa*, one of the Tribunes (in B.C. 462), proposed that five men should be appointed to draw up a code of laws that should apply to *all classes* of Romans. This was opposed by the Senate, because it made the Plebeians equal to the Patricians in the eye of the law.

For eight years the Senate refused to make the required arrangement, but the Tribunes were firm in demanding that their proposal should become law; and the number of Tribunes having been increased to ten, and their power being also on the increase, the Senate at last gave way, on condition that the Patricians should be allowed to draw up the new laws.

Before drawing up the new laws, three men were sent to Athens, the capital of Greece, to study the laws of that nation. This was because Greece had been a civilised nation before Rome was built, and the Grecians "were the first people from whom we can learn any lessons in the art of ruling and persuading men according to law."

On the return of these three men from Athens, ten

men were appointed to draw up the new laws; they were called DECEMVIRI, that is, *ten men*; and in order that they might pursue their work without fear of interruption, all the other offices of state were suspended, and absolute power placed in their hands for one year.

At the end of the year they laid before the Romans the result of their labours, in the form of ten tables of brass, on which the new laws had been engraved, and which were hung up in a public place where all might read them. On these laws all succeeding laws were based as long as Rome remained a Republic.

Some people, however, thought that some necessary laws had been left out by the Decemviri; and in order that they might make their work complete, their power was extended for another year. Two more tables of laws were added to the ten; and then, when the second year came to a close, the Decemviri showed plainly by their actions that they intended to keep all power in their own hands as long as they were able. But their tyranny, and the outrageous conduct of some of their number, caused the Plebeians to resolve to quit Rome and find a home elsewhere, unless the Decemviri were driven from power.

Accordingly the Senate ordered the Decemviri to retire from office; the command was obeyed, and the Plebeians again elected Tribunes.

By the laws of the *Twelve Tables* the whole body of Romans became members of the Plebeian Tribes;

so that the three ancient tribes (par. 4) became useless. The advantage to the Plebeians was, however, small, because they had no share in electing the consuls and other high magistrates.

These matters being settled, the Tribunes called the late Decemviri before the Assembly of the Tribes to answer for their misconduct; two of them put an end to their own lives, the remaining eight were sent into exile.

6. Rome burnt by the Gauls.—Almost all the races of mankind now living in Europe have sprung from one common stock, whom we now call Aryans; these Aryans dwelt together for a long time in Central Asia, and then began to send out large bodies of emigrants (like swarms from a bee-hive) in various directions. Wave after wave of emigrants seem to have spread away into Europe; one wave, as it were, treading on the heels of the other, and driving them further to the south and west. One of the first waves spread as far as Britain, France, Spain, and the north of Italy, and these people have been called *Kelts* or *Gauls*.¹

The Gauls in Italy, being driven further south by others crowding behind them, at length reached the walls of Rome, about the year 390 B.C., having previously defeated a Roman army sent out to meet them. Very pretty stories are told about the siege of

¹ See *First Principles of French History*, page 12.

Rome by the Gauls, but they all belong to the same class as the former stories ; that is to say, we cannot tell how much or how little of them is true.

One thing, however, is certain, Rome was taken by the Gauls, and the city was burnt to the ground. The Gauls then left, and went back to their own homes ; but why they left, whether they were driven away by the Romans, or whether they went away by themselves, having taken possession of everything valuable there, we have now no means of knowing.

When the Gauls appeared before Rome, great numbers of the inhabitants fled to towns near at hand ; when the Gauls left, these people returned to find the city a heap of rubbish, and the country around a wilderness. For some time they hesitated whether they should try to rebuild the city, or whether they should all go and live in the neighbouring city of Veii. At last it was decided to remain ; and in one short year the city was rebuilt, and its inhabitants began once more to make their influence felt in Italy.

Still for many years afterwards Rome had to struggle against the Gauls ; and it was not till the year B.C. 191 that the Gauls living in Italy acknowledged the Roman rule.

When Rome was burnt by the Gauls, all the public documents were destroyed ; and that is one great reason why we cannot trust the history of Rome (as told by the Roman historians) before this event. After the rebuilding, the history becomes more trust-

worthy; but still we cannot accept as *history* all we are told about the city for many years afterwards.

7. **The Licinian Laws.**—In order to understand this paragraph it is necessary for you to know something about the mode of life of the Roman people at this period. You have already been told (par. 3) that they were a brave and warlike people, of simple habits, and very fond of their home and their country. The mode of life most in favour among them was that of a farmer. Every Roman longed to have a piece of ground which he could cultivate and call his own; and their greatest generals and leaders, in the intervals of war, were often found themselves following the plough, or pursuing other branches of agriculture.

From the period of the first Decemvirate (par. 5) up to the destruction of Rome by the Gauls (par. 6), the Roman people enjoyed a period of great prosperity, but in that destruction most of them lost their all. Then they had to rebuild their houses, procure fresh seeds and tools, and pay the heavy taxes necessary to restore the city.

This at least was the case with the Plebeians; the Patricians seem even then to have had money enough and to spare. The consequence was that the Plebeians were compelled to borrow money of the Patricians, and so debt was added to the load of their misery.

Now the Roman laws relating to debt were very

severe : debtors were divided into two classes ; in one class the debtor was called an *addictus*, by which was meant that he could not pay his debt, and that his creditor might either use him as a slave or put him in prison at his (the creditor's) pleasure.

In the other class, the debtor was called a *nexus*, which meant that the debtor gave his body as security for the debt, and everything he might gain by his labour went to his creditor till the debt was paid off.

Now, in consequence of the poorer Plebeians being almost all in debt to the Patricians, the former suffered great injustice and cruelty at the hands of the latter, and hundreds were shut up in the dungeons of the Patricians because they were unable to pay their debts.

This being the state of things at Rome, *Caius Licinius* and *Lucius Sextus* were elected Tribunes (par. 4), and at once determined to do something to relieve the distress among the Plebeians.

For this purpose they proposed three laws, of the very greatest importance in Roman history,—these were :

(1.) That the *interest which had been paid* by debtors should be taken from the debt, and the remainder paid off by three yearly instalments.

(2.) That no one should be allowed to have more than 500 acres of the public land,

and that those who had *more* should give it up to be divided among the poor Plebeians.

- (3.) That one of the *Consuls* should henceforth be a *Plebeian*.

These laws were, of course, fiercely opposed by the Patricians, and for nine years the struggle went on. The Patricians exhausted every means at their disposal to defeat the proposed laws, but in the end they were obliged to yield; the bills were passed in due form, and *Lucius Sextus* was himself elected the *first Plebeian Consul*.

This was one of the most important steps in the history of the Roman people, for by means of these laws the load of debt which was crushing the Plebeians was partly raised, and the Patrician monopoly of power and rule was broken through. And although the Patricians frequently contrived to have both Consuls elected from among themselves, still the Plebeians gradually obtained the right of election to the various offices and dignities of the state; until at last the old distinction between Patrician and Plebeian was lost sight of. From that time Rome grew year by year in power and glory, until she became the mistress of the world and the centre of universal history.

8. Rome Mistress of Italy.—Some few years

after the Licinian laws (par. 7) were passed, Rome began a series of wars against the other inhabitants of Italy, of greater importance than any previous ones.

One after another the different states and peoples of Italy were conquered and made subjects of Rome; first the *Hernicians*, who lived about forty miles east of Rome; then the *Etruscans*, a powerful nation to the north of Rome; then came three successive wars with the *Samnites*, a brave and warlike nation in the south of Italy; then a war with the *Tarentines*, living on the shore of the Gulf of Tarentum, and led by *Pyrrhus*, King of *Epirus* in Greece.

Until at length (in 265 B.C.) all the nations of Italy, from the Straits in the south to the river *Macra* in the north, obeyed the commands of Rome.

Now, we must try to understand how the Romans kept what they had conquered. When a nation was subdued, their lands and liberties were taken from them; a number of Romans—generally about 300—were sent to live among them; the land was divided among these Roman settlers, and the place now became a *Roman colony*.

At this time the people of Italy may be divided into three classes:

- (1.) Those who had been made *Roman citizens*, that is to say, those who had obtained the right of going to Rome and voting in the *Assembly of the Tribes* (par. 2).

- (2.) Those who were called *Latini*, who possessed certain rights, granted to them by the Romans, but *not the right of voting at Rome.*
- (3.) Those who were called *Allies*, who continued themselves to manage their own affairs, but in matters of peace or war obeyed the orders of Rome.

From all this it will be seen that, under the Roman government, Italy never became *a nation* as we understand the word; that is to say, there never was a united people enjoying equal rights and privileges, subject to the same laws, and animated by the love of a common country. Rome was a city at the beginning, and a city it remained; and "the Roman dominion in Italy was a dominion of a city over cities."

9. First Punic War.—Find the Mediterranean Sea on your map of the world. At the eastern end you will see a district called *Syria*, in which is *Palestine*; and to the north of Palestine is *Phœnicia*.

Now Phœnicia was not an empire, but consisted of several cities with their districts, united together in some way, and having the city of *Tyre* at their head.

At the time when David reigned over the Jews, the Phœnicians were one of the most remarkable

nations of Asia. They differed from the Romans in being less a race of farmers (par. 4) than of merchants, manufacturers, and sailors: and like all sea-faring people, they founded a great number of colonies around the Mediterranean, the principal being in the south of Spain, the north of Africa, and the north-west of Sicily.

Of these colonies, one in North Africa, named CARTHAGE, was the most important, having obtained some sort of dominion over the other Phœnician cities in Africa and Sicily.

Now a body of Italians, called Mamertines, had taken possession of *Messana*, in the north-east corner of Sicily; and Rome, under pretence of assisting them, declared war against the Carthaginians. And this was the actual beginning of a long struggle between the Romans and Carthaginians, which produced three wars, called *Punic Wars*, because the Latin word for *Phœnician* was *Punicus*.

As this First Punic War was the beginning of Rome's career of conquest *outside* Italy, it will be worth while to look at the condition of the two cities, *Rome* and *Carthage*, about to contend for the upper hand in the Mediterranean. Rome had no fleet, few soldiers, and little money; Carthage had many ships, experienced sailors, plenty of money, and large armies; and yet in the end Rome beat Carthage. Why?

Because the Roman soldiers were *Roman citizens and their allies*, loving their country and her honour

better than life ; while the Carthaginian soldiers were not Carthaginians, but men from Gaul, Spain, and Africa, hired to fight for money ; and men who fight for pay never fight so well as those who fight for fatherland and home.

The First Punic War began in B.C. 264, and lasted twenty-four years, was carried on chiefly in Sicily, and was most remarkable for the skill and energy shown by the Romans in creating a fleet, and defeating the Carthaginians on their own element.

Twice the Roman fleet was destroyed ; but the Romans, nothing daunted, built a third, and this time gained an easy but complete victory ; capturing sixty-three Carthaginian ships, sinking one hundred and twenty, and scattering the remainder.

The Carthaginians then sued for peace, which was concluded on these terms :

- (1.) The Carthaginians were to leave Sicily, and restore all Roman prisoners.
- (2.) To pay Rome 3,200 talents (a talent being then worth about £194).

The result of this war was that Sicily became the **FIRST ROMAN PROVINCE** ; a *province* being a conquered country *out of Italy*, ruled by a Roman governor called a *Prætor* or *Pro-consul*, and paying a tribute or tax to Rome.

10. Second Punic War.—Twenty-three years passed between the First Punic War and the Second.

This time the dispute began in Spain, because the Carthaginians captured the town of Saguntum, one of the Roman allied cities.

This war is chiefly remarkable for the doings of the Carthaginian general, HANNIBAL, one of the greatest generals the world has known. He had, when a boy, been made by his father to swear eternal enmity against Rome; and as soon as war was declared, he led an army from Spain, through Gaul, across the Alps, into Italy.

The war lasted seventeen years; during the first seven Hannibal's successes were uninterrupted; he defeated the Romans in four pitched battles (the most important being that of Cannæ, fought in B.C. 216, in which 47,000 Romans and about 40,000 allies were slain), and Capua, the second city of Italy, fell into his hands.

After the taking of Capua, however, Hannibal was less successful, and the fruits of his victories were gradually taken from him. Meanwhile, the war had been going on in Spain as well as in Italy, and there fortune had favoured the Romans, who, under Publius Cornelius Scipio, had taken all the Carthaginian possessions there.

In B.C. 204, Scipio carried the war into Africa, and was so successful that Hannibal was recalled from Italy to oppose him. In the battle of Zama, B.C. 202, Hannibal was completely defeated by Scipio, and his army cut to pieces.

Once more Carthage sued for peace, which was concluded on these terms :

- (1.) Carthage to give up all possessions out of Africa.
- (2.) To give up its fleet, with the exception of ten ships.
- (3.) Not to carry on any war without permission from Rome.
- (4.) To pay 10,000 talents.

In consequence of this war great distress existed among the Roman people ; but the Roman dominion was extended over Sardinia, Corsica, and a great part of Spain, and the Romans were the masters in the Mediterranean Sea.

II. **Destruction of Carthage.**— Fifty years after the end of the Second Punic War, a third began, this time in Africa. Numidia was a kingdom in Africa, west of Carthage ; its king, Massinissa, a friend of the Romans, continually harassed the Carthaginians, until they were driven to fight in defence of their rights. Upon this Rome declared war against them, although the Carthaginians had done everything in their power to appease the anger of Rome, even giving up all their arms and warlike engines.

Rome then demanded that “Carthage should be destroyed, and that the inhabitants should build themselves another city several miles from the sea.” The

people of Carthage, now driven to despair, obtained what arms they could to supply the place of those taken from them, and resolved to fight to the last in defence of their city. But, in spite of their desperate exertions, the Roman army, under Cornelius Scipio, succeeded in climbing the walls of Carthage, and after a furious struggle in the streets, which lasted six days, obtained complete possession of the city.

The Roman Senate ordered every building in Carthage to be destroyed; part of its land was given to Massinissa, and the rest became the Roman *Province of Africa*.

In the same way the Romans made themselves masters of Greece and Macedonia, a country to the north of Greece. And as Macedonia had large possessions in Asia, these led the Romans to meddle with Asiatic affairs, until (in B.C. 133) the King of *Pergamos*, the greatest state in Western Asia, died, and left his dominions to Rome; and a great part of them were formed into a Roman province, called the *Province of Asia*.

We have now traced the progress of Rome from a small city in Italy, first to her conquest of Italy, and then through those wars which made her, virtually, mistress of the world; for although other conquests had yet to be made, Rome had shown her power and superiority in Europe, Asia, and Africa.

But while these conquests had been going on, matters in Rome had very much changed. The

Romans had lost much of their simple habits and mode of life : wealth had increased, and was more sought after, and laws had frequently to be made to check the growing tendency to an extravagant and luxurious mode of life ; but, still more important, the distinction between Plebeian and Patrician had ceased to be of any importance ; the number of Patrician families was decreasing, and the number of wealthy and famous Plebeians was constantly increasing. Although Rome was outwardly growing more powerful every day, the growing love of wealth and extravagance was gradually working her ruin, by destroying those very qualities which had raised her to the position she then occupied.

12. **Murder of Caius Gracchus.**—In the year B.C. 133, a distinguished Roman, named *Tiberius Gracchus*, was elected Tribune (par. 4), for the express purpose of removing those dangers to which Rome was at that time exposed.

These dangers arose from the fact that Rome now contained a large number of people who had neither land nor a trade, and who were ready to sell themselves for any evil purpose, in order to get food or money.

Many families in Rome had become very wealthy, and employed that wealth in providing amusements and in public distributions of food for the populace, in order to keep in their hands the elections to the various public offices. •

Thus the Roman people were losing that love for their common country for which they had been so remarkable, and were getting into the habit of taking the side of those who provided them with food and fun; hence arose continual squabbles, disputes, riots, and civil wars.

The remedy which Gracchus and his brother Caius proposed for these evils was to enforce the Licinian law (par. 7), which had fallen into disuse. This law provided that no Roman should possess more than five hundred acres of the public land; and that whoever had more, the excess should be taken from him and given to those who had none.

This law had not been enforced for many years. Many, of the small farmers, rendered poor by the various wars, had sold their land, which had been bought by the wealthy families, who now possessed immense estates, on which they had spent large sums of money for building and other purposes.

The proposal to revive the law which would take from them these lands, bought and paid for and improved as they had been, raised enormous opposition from those who possessed them; but in spite of all, the law was confirmed. Soon after this a large amount of land and treasure was left to the Romans by the king of Pergamos (par. 11), and Gracchus proposed that this money should be divided among the poorer landholders, to enable them to purchase cattle and tools.

Upon this the Senate resolved on his death; and during the next election for Tribune, at which Gracchus would again have been elected, the senators, armed with clubs, rushed upon the assembled people, and in the uproar Gracchus was killed.

Caius Gracchus then took the place of his brother in carrying on the work of reform; and during his tribuneship many good laws were made, all tending to improve the condition of the lower order of Romans, to make them independent of the wealthy families, and to raise their character and tone of mind.

All this of course was hateful to the Senate, who wished to see the lower class kept in dependence on their bounty, and they succeeded in drawing away the people from Caius by proposing even more popular measures than he did; so that when he offered himself a third time as Tribune he was rejected, and, like his brother, he was murdered in a riot caused by the Senate.

And so matters went on in Rome just as they had done—the wealthy became more wealthy, the poor became poorer, and the Roman populace more dependent and more corrupt, until at length no crime was thought disgraceful if it yielded profit, and anything could be done by money.

Had the Gracchi succeeded in carrying into effect those reforms which they proposed, the downward course of Rome would have been arrested, and the Romans might have become worthy and fit to govern

properly that vast empire which their valour had obtained. As it was, the government of Rome sank into a state which it is dreadful to think of; shame was unknown to the ruling families, the offices of state were openly bought and sold, and justice could only be obtained by paying the judges more than he who had done the injustice could do.

13. **War between Marius and Sulla.**—We have seen, in the last paragraph, that the old struggle between Patrician and Plebeian had become a struggle between the rich and the poor. Now, although the Senate—representing the rich in this struggle—had caused the murder of the *Gracchi*—the leaders of the poor—the struggle still went on, and another man came forward as the leader of the people.

This was *Caius Marius*, a brave soldier, who had greatly distinguished himself in wars waged after the death of Caius Gracchus (par. 12), and who sympathized with the people rather than with their wealthy rulers, for a reason which you shall now learn.

We have already learnt (par. 8), that while some of the inhabitants of Italy were made Romans, that is, were given the rights and privileges of those born in Rome itself, others were called simply *Allies*, and had none of the Roman rights, although taking their share in the wars of Rome. These Allies were now asking to be made Roman citizens, and their demand was refused by the Roman Senate.

Now Marius was not a Roman by birth, but was born at *Arpinum*, a town whose inhabitants had only been made Roman citizens about eighty years before, and therefore he felt himself to be one of these Allies, as it were, and took up their cause.

The demands of the Allies continued to be pressed more and more earnestly, and as earnestly resisted by the Senate, until in B.C. 90 a war broke out called the *Social War*, which ended in most of the Allies being made Roman citizens.

In one of his wars Marius had an officer named *Lucius Cornelius Sulla*. This Sulla, in the Social war, had been the rival of Marius; they had for some time regarded one another with feelings of hatred, and at last a war broke out between them—a civil war, the first at Rome, for some of the Romans took sides with Marius, and some with Sulla.

Marius was helped by the *Samnites*, they being Allies who had not been made Roman citizens at the end of the Social War; but Sulla marched to Rome, and drove out Marius and his party. He then led an army into Greece; but during his absence Marius returned, raised an army, entered Rome in triumph, and was made consul for the seventh time, having previously put to death all the friends of Sulla he could discover; however, he himself died a few days afterwards.

Sulla, having finished the war in Greece, returned to Rome; and though the friends of Marius fought

desperately, he soon made himself master of the city. He utterly crushed and destroyed the Samnites; and then set to work to put to death all who had befriended Marius.

He then took the title of Perpetual Dictator, and made a series of laws to strengthen the power of the wealthy nobles; having done which he retired into private life, until his death, which happened soon afterwards.

14. **Julius Cæsar Consul.**—From the time of Marius and Sulla, the history of Rome is a history of individual men, and a record of the struggles of the various leaders and the parties they gathered around them.

Among the most remarkable of these leaders were Pompey, Crassus, Cicero, Catiline, and Cato, about whom we shall learn something in the Second List of events; but we are now going to follow the fortunes of one of the greatest men the world ever saw, *Caius Julius Cæsar*.

Cæsar was born B.C. 100. At the age of sixteen he lost his father; and shortly after married *Cornelia*, the daughter of *Cinna*, an intimate friend of Marius (par. 13). He was soon chosen to fill one of the offices of state, and gave proof of great ability both as an orator and statesman.

From the beginning of his public life he seems to have had one great object in view, and that was to

raise himself to absolute power ; for this purpose he took up the cause of the people, and strove to win their favour by liberal gifts of money, and all the other means then so largely employed.

In the year B.C. 59 he became Consul, and for a time allied himself with *Pompey* and *Crassus* (par. 19, second list), until he felt strong enough to set them at defiance. During his alliance with them he obtained the government of the province of Gaul, into which he led an army, and spent seven years in bringing the whole country under the Roman dominion. The conquest of Gaul by Cæsar is of great importance, because it is the link which connects Rome with the Gauls and Germans, and may be looked upon as the beginning of Modern History.

We get our knowledge of the wars of Cæsar in Gaul, from the account of them which he himself wrote, and by which he proved himself to be as gifted as an author as he was as a general. Three hundred tribes are said to have been conquered by him ; and as Gaul was then a very wealthy country, he obtained great riches. His soldiers almost worshipped him ; and in Rome at that time no one could speak too highly of his talents, courage, and success.

15. **Death of Cæsar.**—We must remember that all that had been done by Cæsar hitherto had for its object the making himself master of Rome, and all the time of his absence in Gaul he continued to

influence, through his friends, the affairs of Rome. He now felt himself in a position to stand alone; and as Crassus was killed, in B.C. 53, Pompey alone stood in his way. Pompey had long been jealous of Cæsar; and at last another civil war began between the two rivals. Cæsar marched to Rome; and Pompey fled to Greece, where he had many friends, and raised an army there.

Cæsar shortly followed him; and in the battle of *Pharsalus*, B.C. 48, completely defeated him, and decided the fate of the Republic. Pompey fled to Egypt, where he was murdered; and Cæsar at length returned to Rome, *the master of the world.*

At Rome he conducted himself with the greatest moderation, made no difference between his own friends and those of Pompey; and as the Roman people now cared for nothing but to be well fed and amused, and he distributed quantities of corn and money amongst them, they allowed him to do just exactly as he pleased.

He was called *Imperator*, a title which gave him special powers, and he no doubt intended to make himself King; but there were a few men still left in Rome who clung to the idea of a Republic as the only form of Government able to save Rome, and who loathed the idea of a king. Foremost amongst these were *Brutus* and *Cassius*; and they at last determined that the only hope of saving the Republic was the death of Cæsar.

They, therefore, conspired, and slew him in the Senate-house, on the 15th March, B.C. 44; and thus perished the only man then living who had sufficient good-will, energy, and power to save Rome from the dangers hanging over her.

Let us try here to get a clear idea of what these dangers were. You remember (par. 7) that the Romans had been a purely agricultural people, caring little for either trade or manufacture; that the great body of the Roman people had been obliged by poverty to sell their lands to the rich (par. 12), and thus the Romans were divided into two classes: the rich, who cared only for wealth and power; and the poor, dependent almost entirely on the alms of the rich (par. 12).

From these circumstances both classes had become corrupt, cruel, selfish. All love of country was at an end; scenes of violence and bloodshed were constantly taking place in the streets of Rome; and, as no kingdom divided against itself can stand, the power of Rome seemed tottering to its fall. "The murder of Cæsar was the most senseless act the Romans ever committed."

16. The beginning of the Roman Empire.— Those who murdered Cæsar had made a great mistake, because they did not know that the Republican form of government was utterly ruined, and that no earthly power could restore it; while Cæsar lived, his power

was so firmly established that no other man could hope to dispossess him ; but Cæsar dead, the struggles for power began again, and for thirteen years there was great confusion and civil war.

The death of Cæsar was not approved by public opinion in Rome, but money was liberally distributed by the murderers, and for a time they were allowed to remain quietly in the city ; but a friend of Cæsar—one *Mark Antony*—delivered a powerful speech at the funeral, and so stirred up the people that the conspirators were obliged to escape from Rome.

Cæsar had a great-nephew, named *Caius Octavius*, whom he had adopted as his son, and to whom he left the greater part of his property, so his name now became *Caius Julius Cæsar Octavianus*. This man fought against Brutus and Cassius, and defeated them in the great battle of *Philippi*, in Macedonia. They put an end to their lives ; and Antony, with whom Octavianus had quarrelled, was also defeated, and slew himself.

Octavianus had now become the greatest man in Rome, and seems to have inherited his uncle's popularity as well as his name. One after another, offices and dignities were given to him by the people, until he became as much master of the State as his uncle had been. He was not called *king*, but *Augustus* ; and as he obtained all the powers which had belonged to the various Roman magistrates, unlimited power was in his hands.

This is the beginning of the ROMAN EMPIRE as distinguished from the ROMAN REPUBLIC, for he received the title of *Imperator*, in addition to that of *Augustus*; and from that word, *Imperator*, we get the modern word, *Emperor*.

17. **Death of Augustus.**—We have seen that the Roman dominion was peculiar, inasmuch as it was the government of Cities by a City. But during the reign of Augustus this gradually ceased to be the case; all the subjects of Rome, wherever they lived, became Roman citizens, fellow-subjects of the Roman emperor; and Rome became merely the capital of that empire.

Augustus contrived to retain his power during the rest of his life, because while all power was in his hands he did not parade that power before the people, but lived quietly as the first magistrate of a Republic.

The reign of Augustus is chiefly remarkable for the restoration of peace and order to the city of Rome, which had before been almost like a den of robbers, but now became a safe place; and for the great number of celebrated men then living, men celebrated as authors and poets. Among the prose writers was *Livy*, the historian; among the poets were *Virgil*, *Horace*, and *Ovid*.

An alteration was made in the government of the provinces; half of them were governed by persons appointed by Augustus himself, and in the other half the governors were appointed by the Senate.

In the reign of Augustus also happened the most remarkable event in the history of the world, the birth of *Jesus Christ* at *Bethlehem* in *Judea*, then part of the Roman province of Syria. And this event has been chosen as the starting-point from which to reckon dates. The years *before* the birth of Christ are reckoned *backwards* from that event; the years *after* the birth of Christ are reckoned *forwards* from that event. The years *before* Christ are distinguished from the years *after* Christ by having different letters placed before them: B.C. 10 means ten years *before* Christ; but A.D. 10 means ten years *after* Christ.

In A.D. 14, that is, fourteen years after Christ, Augustus died at *Nola*, near Naples, having reigned forty-one years.

He had established order in the Roman empire, and left that empire peacefully to his adopted son, *Tiberius*; but during his reign a change had taken place in the Roman army which paved the way for many evils in the future. The army, instead of being dissolved at the end of a war, and each man going to his own home, became permanent, and was paid out of the Emperor's private purse.

Thus the army became the tool of the Emperor; and by degrees the government of Rome became a *military government*; that is to say, the power of the Emperors rested more and more on the army, and less and less on the people. So that in a very short time the Emperors were appointed entirely by the

army; and as that army consisted of men who had learnt to care for nothing but money, they naturally chose the man who would give them the most money, and when there was no more money to get from him, slew him, to get money for appointing some one else.

18. **Accession of Nero.**—The four Emperors who reigned after Augustus are known as the Claudian Emperors,—their names were *Tiberius*, *Caius*, *Claudius*, and *Nero*. The prosperity of Augustus' reign continued through that of Tiberius; but Caius, who only reigned four years, became mad soon after his accession; and, after doing all kinds of cruel and wicked things, was murdered by some of the officers of his army. Claudius was elected by the army, the first instance of that which afterwards became the rule; and though himself a man who wished to govern well, he allowed himself to be led into doing many foolish things. Nero, the last, was pre-eminent for all kinds of vice and cruelty. He began his reign well, but his true character soon shewed itself. He caused his mother to be murdered; he is believed to have caused a large fire, which lasted for six days, and destroyed the greater part of Rome; and he set on foot a cruel persecution against the Christians, of whom, at that time, there were very few in Rome.

At last the soldiers began to rebel, and Nero put an end to his life (A.D. 68). On his accession he gave large sums of money to the soldiers by whom he was

proclaimed Emperor ; and after his death the soldiers took to themselves the right of electing the emperor. And this was the death-blow to any hope of Rome retaining permanently the position which she had obtained as mistress of the world.

19. **Death of Titus.**—After the death of Nero, things were in great confusion ; three men, one after the other, were elected Emperor, and all died violent deaths. *Vespasian*, one of the Roman generals, then became Emperor,—the first of a line called the Flavian Emperors. He succeeded in restoring order again ; and held the throne till his death, a period of nine years. He was the first Emperor who was succeeded by his own son, *Titus*, who had already distinguished himself by his conquest of the Jews, who had rebelled against the Romans, and by the destruction of Jerusalem (A.D. 70). By this event the Jews lost their independence for ever, and were scattered over the whole Roman empire.

Titus only reigned two years ; and though before his accession he had given signs of a cruel disposition, yet after he governed with such kindness that he has been called the “love and delight of mankind.”

It was during his reign that the eruption of *Mount Vesuvius* occurred, which buried the towns of *Herculaneum* and *Pompeii* under masses of ashes thrown out from the volcano. This occurred in A.D. 79 ; and in A.D. 1711 these buried cities were accidentally dis-

covered; and as their destruction had been very sudden, things were found in them just as they had been at the time of the eruption. We have learnt a great deal from them of the manners and customs of the Romans of that period, their domestic life, and the method of constructing their town and houses.

Titus was succeeded by his brother Domitian, who was as cruel as he had been kind, and who was murdered by some of his officers in A.D. 96.

20. **Death of Marcus Aurelius.**—Domitian was succeeded by five Emperors, who are often distinguished by the title of *Good*, as their reigns formed the happiest part of the history of the Roman empire, as distinguished from the Republic. Their names were *Nerva*, *Trajan*, *Hadrian*, *Antoninus Pius*, and *Marcus Aurelius*.

Nerva only reigned about fifteen months, and during this time he was hindered in many good deeds by the fear of offending the soldiers, and being murdered by them. Trajan was the first Roman Emperor who was not a Roman by birth. In his reign, *Dacia*, the district north of the Lower Danube, was made a Roman province, and the Roman empire reached its greatest extent. After him no more territory was added to Rome. For some time Rome had great difficulty in defending her possessions; and then, little by little, the Empire began to decay.

In Hadrian's reign great attention was given to the

state of the Roman laws. The Romans have always been famous for the excellence of their laws, which have served as a model for most succeeding law-makers.

Antoninus Pius was the most virtuous of all the Emperors, and all his thoughts and energies were devoted to secure the happiness of his people. Marcus Aurelius was the best-beloved of all the Emperors; all his subjects were devoted to him; and it was thought wicked for any man not to have some picture or statue of the Emperor in his house.

Marcus Aurelius was succeeded by his son *Commodus*, a monster of wickedness; and from this time forwards the Roman empire steadily declined, until it gradually broke up into the various kingdoms which now occupy its place.

After the death of Aurelius, all actual power passed into the hands of those Roman soldiers who were called the *Prætorian Guards*. They set up and put down emperors at their pleasure, until in A.D. 193, they actually sold the empire to one *Julian*, for the payment of thirty *sesterces*¹ to each one of them. It frequently happened that one part of the army would choose one man, and another part another man; so that two, three, or even four Emperors were elected at once, and had to fight till only one was left.

“From the reign of *Commodus* there is nothing but an irregular succession of Emperors; who,

¹ Thirty *sesterces* would be worth a little more than five shillings.

with few exceptions, are distinguished only for tyranny and baseness, or impotence and weakness; nothing but a perpetual succession of civil wars and murders, which are wearying and disgusting to the mind. Civil order, military discipline, patriotism, national spirit, and all great and noble feelings disappear from the Roman world; Emperors are proclaimed and murdered, both at Rome and in the provinces, at the mere caprice of the soldiers."

THE SECOND LIST,

Consisting of forty important Names and Events, to be carefully committed to memory when the First List has been thoroughly mastered. The numbers correspond to the descriptive paragraphs which follow this list.

1. Religious Rites Instituted	B.C. 710
2. Death of Lucretia	" 510
3. Story of Horatius Cocles	" 508
4. Plebeian Insurrection	" 495
5. First Agrarian Law	" 486
6. Story of Virginia	" 448
7. First Censors appointed	" 443
8. Capture of Veii	" 396
9. Story of Marcus Curtius	" 362
10. The Disaster at the Caudine Forks	" 321
11. The Via Appia made	" 312
12. War with Pyrrhus	" 281
13. First Combat of Gladiators	" 264
14. First Roman Fleet'	" 262
15. Hannibal crossed the Alps	" 218
16. Destruction of Corinth	" 146
17. War with Jugurtha	" 111
18. Sertorius in Spain	" 82
19. Pompey and Crassus Consuls	" 70
20. Catiline's Conspiracy	" 63
21. Clodius elected Tribune	" 58

22. Reform of the Calendar	B.C.	46
23. Cæsar's Triumph	"	46
24. Death of Cicero	"	43
25. Death of Marc Antony	"	30
26. Præfectus Urbi appointed	"	27
27. Death of Virgil	"	19
28. Claudius in Britain	A.D.	43
29. Destruction of Jerusalem	"	70
30. Eruption of Vesuvius	"	79
31. Dacia Conquered	"	105
32. Alexander Severus Murdered	"	235
33. Invasion of Goths	"	250
34. Accession of Valerian	"	253
35. Aurelian Emperor	"	270
36. Diocletian Emperor	"	285
37. Constantine the Great	"	323
38. Theodosius Excommunicated	"	390
39. Battle of Chalons	"	451
40. Charlemagne Emperor of the West	"	800

NOTE.—The dates affixed to the first events in this list, and to the first events in the first list, must not be depended on as being correct. They are the dates which have been handed down by tradition; but there are many reasons for supposing that they are not the true dates, even if the events themselves really happened, which is by no means certain. Still it is necessary to know something about these stories, as they are constantly referred to by poets and other authors. They give us an insight into the state of things a

Rome at that early period, and they show the value the Romans, *at one time*, placed upon the qualities of courage, self-reliance, energy, and patriotism. Moreover, they are full of beauty and poetry, and contain valuable lessons for all future time.

1. **Religious Rites Instituted.**—As Roman tradition points to *Servius Tullius* as the founder of the *civil rights and institutions* of the Romans, so also it declares *Numa Pompilius*, the second king, to have been the originator of their *religious rites and ceremonies*; but it is more than doubtful if Numa were a real person or no. However that may be, it is very necessary to know something of the Roman religion, as it was mixed up with, and influenced, the lives and history of that people in a very remarkable manner.

The Romans were *Pagans*, that is to say, they worshipped *false gods*; and they seem to have done what most early nations did, that is, they worshipped as gods, *after their death*, those great men whom they had honoured as heroes *during their life*; thinking that such men must play as important a part in the next world as they had done in this.

The chief officers of religion among the Romans were the *Flamines*, the *Pontiffs*, the *Salii*, the *Vestal Virgins*, and the *Augurs*.

The *Pontiffs* had the superintendence of all the religious affairs of the nation, and they presided over

all religious ceremonies. The Flamines were priests devoted to the service of the three principal gods, *Jupiter, Mars, and Quirinus*. The Salii, twelve in number, were devoted to the service of Mars, and worshipped the god with songs and dances. The Vestal Virgins were young women set apart for the service of the goddess *Vesta*. They were forbidden to marry, and it was part of their duty to keep always burning a sacred fire in the temple of that goddess, to which very great importance was attached: they enjoyed great honours and privileges; the best places everywhere were given up to them; and they had the power of pardoning any criminal whom they chanced to meet on the way to execution. The Augurs played a very important part in all Roman affairs, as they were supposed to be able to find out the will of the gods. This they professed to do either by watching appearances in the sky, such as lightning, comets, the flight of birds, or from any unexpected accident or event; consequently, they were consulted on all important occasions, and nothing was done unless they declared it to be in accordance with the will of the gods.

The Romans always adopted the gods of the nations they conquered, the result being that the number of gods, and variety of forms of worship, became perfectly ridiculous even to the Romans themselves; and as they had nothing better to put in its place, their godless condition in later times became one of the elements in their downfall.

2. **Death of Lucretia.**—The story of Lucretia, as told by Roman tradition, gives us some insight into the manners and customs of the Romans during the last years of the government by Kings.

The story is that the two sons of *Tarquinius* (par. 3, first list) were supping with their cousin *Collatinus*, during the siege of a town called *Ardea*. They talked about their wives, and each declared that his own wife was superior to all others. In the end they decided to settle the matter by riding into Rome unexpectedly, and seeing what their wives were doing in their absence. The two *Tarquinius* found their wives enjoying themselves with a party of friends; but going to the house of *Collatinus*, they found his wife spinning amongst her maidens, and so they were obliged to give the palm to her. But a few days after, one of the brothers went secretly to the house of *Collatinus*, and there behaved so wickedly to the wife of that gentleman, that the poor lady killed herself soon afterwards.

Now this story, though it may not be strictly true, is no doubt founded on something of the sort that occurred; and it shows us not only the wickedness of the *Tarquin* family, but also that ladies of high rank occupied their leisure hours in spinning, and points to a much simpler mode of life than came into fashion afterwards. In fact, the manner of living in those days was very simple. The houses were only small cottages of wood, thatched with straw, and without

chimneys or windows, glass was unknown. The furniture was simple, the domestic servants were slaves, and all the affairs of the house were managed by the mistress. The chief food was bread and pottage, with herbs and fruit, and the chief drink goat's milk. The rich fared no better than the poor, and master and servant sat down together at the same table. In those times all the Romans were brave, hardy soldiers; but in after times as luxuries crept into their houses, their good qualities left them one by one, till they sank into cruel, unprincipled ruffians.

2. **Story of Horatius Cocles.**—This is another of those poetic stories which have come down to us from the early times, and gives us, perhaps far better than pages of mere description could have done, the qualities that were sought for and found in the Roman soldier of that period.

We have seen that *Tarquinius Superbus* (par. 3, first list) was driven from Rome in consequence of his cruel and tyrannical conduct, and tradition says, that he fled to *Clusium*, a city to the north of Rome, and asked *Porsenna*, the king of that place, to help him to get back his power over Rome. Porsenna marched against Rome with a large army. As he drew near, confusion reigned in the city; and the only means of preserving the town from capture lay in cutting down the bridge over the Tiber before Porsenna could reach it. Three warriors, of whom *Horatius* was

the chief, volunteered to defend the bridge while their comrades were cutting it down. Posting themselves at the bridge-end remote from the city, they withstood onset after onset of the enemy, until the bridge hung tottering above the boiling river. Two of the three then darted back over the cracking timber; but Horatius, scorning to leave his task unfinished, stood to his post till the bridge was gone; then turning his back on the enemy he plunged, all wounded and loaded with armour, into the foaming river, and swam safely to shore amidst a shower of darts. The story goes that the Roman people, as a reward for his heroism, gave him as much of the public land as three oxen could plough round between morning and night.

Beautiful and stirring as the story is, I am afraid it is not true, for it seems certain that Rome was conquered by the Etruscans (to which nation the people of Clusium belonged), and paid as tribute a tenth of the produce of the land, until they were able to recover their independence. But one thing is certain, that people who could delight in, and feel their hearts stirred within them by such a tale, were the people by whom great deeds would be done. This story, along with some similar stories of Roman history, has been put into verse by Lord Macaulay; and I would advise you to get it and read it, for it will give you a capital picture of Rome at that time.

4. **Plebeian Insurrection.**—You remember that

after the establishment of the Republic (par. 4, first list), the Plebeians were in great distress in consequence of the frequent wars and the debts they had been obliged to contract, and that they were driven into insurrection.

So heavily did these debts press upon the poor Plebeians, that it was a common thing to see numbers of unhappy debtors led away in chains to the houses of the Patricians (which all had prisons attached to them), where they were subjected to the most inhuman treatment, without any means of protection. For it was the practice for a borrower to engage to pay the debt by a certain day; and that if he did not, he would give himself up to the lender, and pay the debt by his labour; and all his property, with his children, passed into the lender's hands.

In connection with this state of things the following story is told. It may be true or it may be false, but it certainly illustrates the misery of the Plebeians at that period.

One day an old man ran into the Forum (par. 9, second list) calling on the people to protect him. Of course a crowd gathered, and he told them that he had been a soldier, and served his country in many battles. In the last war his farm had been burnt, and his cattle driven away. To pay his taxes he had been obliged to borrow money; and being unable to pay, he and his land had passed into the hands of his creditor, who had imprisoned and flogged him cruelly.

At the same time he showed the people his lean and hungry body, and the stripes on his back, from which blood was flowing. Many people in Rome were certainly in similar case; but the people were so much excited by this spectacle, that a riot occurred, and the army refused to fight against the *Volscians*, who were then at war with the Romans.

It was then ordered by the Consuls that all who were in prison for debt, might leave their prison to join the army, and by this means a victory was gained; but on the return of the army to Rome all the debtors *were ordered back to prison*. Then the Plebeians withdrew in a body to a hill near Rome, and resolved never to return unless something were done to put an end to their sufferings. The result of this was the appointment of *Tribunes*.

5. **First Agrarian Law.**—We have seen (par. 4. first list) that the Romans were an agricultural people, despising trade, and longing for the possession of land. We have now to see how the Plebeians from time to time came into possession of the land for which they so much longed.

Recall to mind how the *Plebeian order* (par. 4, first list) arose in Rome, and you will see that they could have no Roman land of their own to begin with. Land was first given to them by Servius Tullius, out of the lands conquered in war. It seems to have been an universal custom in old times to take posses-

sion of all the land in a conquered country. Thus when the Normans conquered England all the land possessed by the Saxons passed into the hands of the Normans; so when the Romans conquered any part of Italy, they took away all the land from the inhabitants, as by right. Part they gave back to the former owners as a gift, and the rest was divided among the Patricians, *for their use*. It did not become their property, but they paid *as rent* a share of the produce.

Servius Tullius, as stated above, was the first to share land among the Plebeians; but as the number of Plebeians was constantly increasing, so there were constantly Plebeians without land; and as they had no other means of support, laws, called *Agrarian laws*, were passed from time to time to supply the Plebeians with land.

The first of these laws was carried by *Spurius Cassius*, by which it was ordered that land should be taken from those Patricians who had a large quantity, and given to those Plebeians who had none. One of the *Licinian laws* (par. 7, first list), was an Agrarian law. In B.C. 236, another Agrarian law was proposed by *Caius Flaminius*, distributing the lands taken from the Gauls on the Italian side of the Alps. In B.C. 133, *Tiberius Gracchus* proposed a law enforcing, and slightly altering, the Licinian Agrarian law. In B.C. 101, *Saturnius* carried an Agrarian law assigning land conquered in Gaul. And *Cæsar*, in B.C. 59, carried a

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Claudius, demanding that she should be given up to him.

Then Virginius, who had been sent for by his friends, came before the magistrate; but all he could say was useless, and Appius ordered the girl to be given up. Then Virginius, pretending to submit to the orders of the magistrate, asked permission to take leave of the girl. This was granted; he led her aside to the spot where the butchers' stalls stood, and snatching up a knife, plunged it into her breast before any one could stop him, preferring to slay his daughter with his own hand rather than see her given up to a life of sin.

This was the signal for a general rising of the Plebeians, who established themselves on one of the hills of Rome, and refused to submit until the power of the Decemviri was taken from them.

7. First Censors appointed.—You have seen that, in spite of the struggles of the Patricians to keep all power in their own hands, the Plebeians gradually raised themselves to an equality with the Patricians in respect to the right of holding office. Now, when the Patricians saw that they would be unable long to shut out the Plebeians from the Consulship, they took from the Consuls a part of their power, which they intended to keep entirely for themselves.

Among the institutions of *Servius Tullius* (par. 2, first list) was one called the *Census*; which was a

numbering of the people for the purpose of ascertaining the amount of each person's property; *on which depended the class in which he was placed* (end of par. 2, first list). The census was held every five years; and until the year B.C. 443, it had been held by the Consuls; but in that year two new officers were appointed, called *Censors*, who were to be chosen *only from among the Patricians*, and who had the power *to fix the value of a citizen's property at their own discretion*; in the end this office became almost despotic.

But even this failed to keep power in the hands of the Patricians; for in B.C. 339, one of the laws, known as the *Publilian laws*, ordered that one of the Censors should always be a Plebeian.

To show how great the power of the Censors at length became, it will be enough to state that they ordered the streets of Rome to be paved, and the roads outside the city to be covered with gravel; they built theatres; and appointed the persons to collect the tribute from the provinces. No one cared to disobey their orders, because they had the power of degrading a citizen by moving him from his own tribe into a less honourable one; and instances were known of Patricians being expelled from the Senate by them for living in too expensive a manner.

8. Capture of Veii.—About twelve miles to the north of Rome stood an *Etruscan city* named *Veii*,

which, even in the early days of the Republic became jealous of its growing power, and went to war with it. In B.C. 483, war was declared against Veii. This war lasted for seven years, during which the Romans were frequently defeated; and at length the hill *Janiculum*, on the right bank of the Tiber, was captured by the troops from Veii.

At the end of the war, Janiculum was recaptured by the Romans, and the *Veientes* defeated; and then a truce was concluded for forty years. Another war with Veii broke out in B.C. 438, because the people of that city had formed an alliance with those of a city called *Fidenae*, who had revolted against Rome. This war seems to have gone on more or less vigorously (but the accounts we have of the wars of this period are very confused), till the year B.C. 405, when an army was sent to besiege Veii. This army was the first in which the soldiers received pay from the public treasury,—the daily pay of a soldier being about threepence.

The siege of Veii lasted for more than nine years. At first the besiegers went home during the winter; but afterwards they built huts, and remained, summer and winter, around the city till its capture by *Camillus*, the greatest general of that time. Several interesting stories are told respecting the capture of Veii, but they are *not history*; one of them relates that the Roman soldiers dug an underground passage into the city, and so got inside the walls. The whole of the wealth

found inside the city was given up to the army, and Camillus returned to Rome in triumph.

9. **Story of Marcus Curtius.**—This story is another of those fictions which tell us so much of the Roman character.

The city of Rome was built upon seven hills. Between two of these, the *Capitoline* and *Palatine*, was a large open space called the *Forum*, where most of the public business of Rome was transacted. Here the magistrates sat to try cases; here the public meetings were held, and pulpits, called *rostra*, were put up for the use of those who wished to make speeches; here, too, was the market-place, with its shops and stalls.

Now, according to the story, an earthquake took place, in the year B.C. 362, which produced a wide and deep *chasm*, or gulf, in the middle of the forum. To a superstitious people like the Romans, who thought that every unusual event was a warning sent by the gods, this was a very serious matter; so they went to consult the *augurs* (par. 1, second list). These augurs declared that the chasm would never be filled up till *the most precious thing in Rome* was thrown into it. While the Romans were wondering what should be thought *the most precious thing*, a young soldier, named Marcus Curtius, in full armour, mounted his war-horse, and praying to the gods, leaped headlong into the opening. The story says that the chasm immediately closed over him!

We cannot, now-a-days, believe such a story; but it speaks to us very plainly, and says, the people who believed and loved such a story must have been a people who believed that nothing was *more precious* than *warlike virtue* and *devotion to country*; and these were the qualities that helped to make the Romans the conquerors of the world.

10. **The Surrender at the Caudine Forks.**— You have already learnt (par. 8, first list) that Rome fought the *Samnites* in three successive wars. In the second of these wars the Roman troops met with a very great disaster, which is known by the name at the head of this paragraph.

About twenty miles to the north-east of Vesuvius, is a narrow pass through the Apennines called the *Caudine Forks* (*Furcae Caudinae*), through which the road from *Naples* to *Benevento* (*find these places on the map*) now runs.

A Roman army, led by the Consuls, was marching through this pass, on their way into the Samnite country, when they came to a very narrow place, which the Samnites had blocked up with trunks of trees and pieces of rock. Samnite soldiers were hidden amongst the hills *on all sides*; and when the Romans turned to go back, these soldiers appeared. A desperate battle took place, and the Romans would all have been killed, had it not been that *Pontius*, the Samnite general, was a very noble-

hearted man. He allowed them to go free on the following terms: that the old alliance between Rome and Samnium should be renewed; that the Romans should give up all places they had taken from the Samnites; that they should give up their arms and baggage; and that six hundred horsemen should remain with the Samnites until all these things had been done. As the Romans left the valley, they were obliged to submit to that which they felt to be a very great disgrace: two poles were set upright in the ground, and a third laid across the top, and under this they all had to pass. This was called *passing under the yoke*, and was a sign by which those passing under acknowledged themselves completely defeated.

So severely was this disgrace felt, that all business at Rome was suspended, the whole population put on mourning, and the army, ashamed to enter the gates publicly, was disbanded outside, each returning to his home secretly under cover of the night. The Senate refused to accept the terms on which the army had been allowed to depart, and sent the two Consuls and all the officers of the army back to Pontius bound with cords. But Pontius, thinking that the Senate had acted unworthily, refused to receive them, and allowed the hostages to be ransomed.

11. **The Via Appia made.**—One of the means adopted by the Romans to keep possession of the countries they conquered was the construction of

good wide roads, by which they were enabled to move their troops from one spot to another with great rapidity ; and by constant practice they became the best road-makers the world has ever seen. Several of the roads they made in this country remain to the present day ; but their best roads were in Italy, and of all the roads that running from *Rome* to *Brundisium* is the best and most remarkable.

It was made by order of *Appius Claudius*, called *the Blind*, to distinguish him from Appius Claudius the Decemvir (par. 6, second list), and has been named after him the *Via Appia* (*Appian Road*). At first it only went as far as *Capua*, a distance of one hundred and twenty miles ; afterwards it was continued to Brundisium, a total length of three hundred and fifty miles.

It was cut through steep hills in some places ; while in others it was carried through valleys, being built up to the level with solid stonework. It was paved throughout with large blocks cut out of *lava*, a hard substance thrown out in a liquid state by the volcano Vesuvius ; these blocks were cut so accurately, that, though put together without cement, the spaces between the stones could scarcely be seen ; and although it is nineteen centuries since it was made, many parts are still as perfect as when laid down.

12. **War with Pyrrhus.**—One of the greatest generals of ancient times was *Pyrrhus*, king of *Epirus*.

Born B.C. 318, he ascended the throne when he was twelve years old. Five years afterwards he was driven from it; but he soon regained it, and increased his power by the conquest of Macedonia.

In the extreme south of Italy was a city called *Tarentum*, whose inhabitants went to war with Rome, and invited Pyrrhus to come and help them. He arrived in Italy with an army, and fought the first battle on the banks of the river Siris. Though the Romans fought like lions, he gained a complete victory, and advanced to within sight of Rome itself; but there he was stopped by the Roman troops, and obliged to retreat to Tarentum.

In the next year Pyrrhus gained a useless victory, and was obliged to return to Tarentum, having lost 3,500 men. In the beginning of B.C. 278, a traitor offered to poison Pyrrhus; but the Romans made the offer known to the king, who, not to be outdone in generosity, sent back all the prisoners then in his hands.

Pyrrhus then went to Sicily to try and establish himself in the island; but after staying there three years he returned to Italy. In B.C. 275 he was completely defeated by the Romans under *Curius Dentatus*, and only reached Tarentum with a few horsemen. He was then convinced that the conquest of Italy was impossible, so he returned to Epirus, and was killed in battle in B.C. 273.

From Pyrrhus the Romans learnt most of their art in war. Before his coming they fought in a *phalanx*,

which consisted of a number of lines of soldiers, one behind the other, those clad in armour being placed in the front line; the second line had helmets and breastplates; while the other lines were without armour. Afterwards they fought in *legions*. Each legion consisted of *three lines*, and *two other bodies* of troops, one called *Rorarii*, who were light troops, armed with javelins; and the other called *Accensi*, who were ready to fill the places of those who were killed.

13. **First Combat of Gladiators.**—You know now that the Romans were a very warlike people, fond of fighting, and valuing bravery in war as one of the highest virtues. And I think you will easily understand that such people *could* become very cruel.

Now it has been said of boys that their true character shows itself in their games. This is equally true of men; and when we inquire what was the favourite amusement of the Romans, we find that it consisted in what are called *combats of gladiators*.

Gladiators were men who were trained to fight with various kinds of weapons, not against the enemies of their country, but against each other, for the amusement of the spectators; and they fought until one was disabled or killed.

These combats seem to have been at first intended as a sacrifice in honour of the dead, the combatants being prisoners already condemned to death. The first show of gladiators was given by *Junius Brutus*,

at the burial of his father, a distinguished general ; but they soon became more general, and were witnessed by thousands of people in a large building called the *Circus*, erected for the purpose.

The large tents in which travelling companies give their exhibitions of horsemanship in this country will give you a very good notion of this circus ; only it was built of stone, was very much larger, was without any roof, and would hold two hundred thousand spectators. In the centre was the place where the combats took place, and the seats rose up, tier above tier, to the top of the walls.

Sometimes the contest was between two only, sometimes several such contests were going on at once. At other times one body of men fought against another. Sometimes men fought with wild beasts ; and the arena was strewed with sand to soak up the blood that was shed. When one of the combatants was vanquished, and could fight no longer, it depended on the spectators whether his life were spared or no. If they thought he had fought bravely they allowed him to be saved ; but if they thought he had given up too soon, or if their cruel feelings were excited, they gave the signal for his death.

During the latter years of the Republic, and all the time of the Empire, such exhibitions were constantly given by those who wished to gain the favour of the people. These frequent exhibitions of bloodshed did much to increase the brutality of the Roman people,

until at last they seem to have lost every feeling of humanity. "The sight of murder, and of men in the agonies of death, was to them a source of pleasure and delight; and their cries for bread were often mixed with shouts demanding murderous games."

14. **First Roman Fleet.**—The Romans were never a sea-going people like their neighbours the Greeks; nearly all their victories being gained on land. Still they found it necessary to have a fleet, and in its construction their energy and ingenuity are clearly seen.

It seems to be certain that the Romans had a fleet soon after the expulsion of the Tarquins, for they concluded a treaty with the Carthaginians, in which they (the Romans) consented not to send their vessels beyond *Cape Bon*, in Africa. But during the early years of the Republic, the Roman power declined for a time; she lost her supremacy over the Latin cities, and her navy was ruined.

It was not till the first Punic War (par. 9, first list) that the Romans began to build another fleet; and they took as their model a Carthaginian vessel which had been driven ashore. But do not imagine that the Roman ships resembled the ships of the present day; they were more like our coal barges, very unwieldy, and moved by rowers who sat on benches rising one above the other like stairs.

As soon as the Romans had determined to have a

fleet, they went to work with their accustomed energy; and sixty days after the trees had been cut down they had one hundred and thirty ships. Under the command of *Caius Dullius*, this fleet obtained a complete victory over the Carthaginians, capturing fourteen ships without the loss of one.

Several times during the war, the Roman fleet was destroyed by the Carthaginians; but each time they set to work with renewed energy and repaired the loss. From first to last, during the first Punic War, the Romans lost seven hundred ships.

15. **Hannibal Crosses the Alps.**—You have already learnt about Hannibal and the Second Punic War (par. 10, first list); and you know that he led his army across the Alps when he invaded Italy. Now, if you look at a good map of Northern Italy, you will see that the Alps join the Apennines above the *Gulf of Genoa*, and entirely surround that part of the country on the north and west; so that any one entering from those parts, as Hannibal did, must cross the mountains.

You will see also in your geography that the Alps are the highest European mountains, and that the paths across them at that time were narrow and steep, and blocked up with snow and ice; so that to march a large army across them seemed an impossible task, for the men had not only to climb themselves, but to lead their horses and elephants, and to clear the paths

from snow and earth, suffering all the time from the cold, to which they were quite unaccustomed.

But Hannibal triumphed over all difficulties, and in fifteen days encamped his army on the Italian side of the mountains. We are not told *where* the passage was made, but it is now generally believed that it was across Mount St. Bernard, the road that was afterwards taken by Bonaparte when he invaded Italy.¹

16. Destruction of Corinth.—Before the destruction of Carthage (par. 11, first list), the Romans began to turn their attention to Greece. The most powerful Greek state at that time was *Macedonia*, in the north of Greece, whose king was named *Philip*. The greater part of the other Greek states had formed themselves into two *leagues*, called *Achaia* and *Aetolia*; the *Achaians* being allies of Philip against the *Aetolians*.

In B.C. 215, Philip, king of Macedonia, became the ally of Hannibal (par. 10, first list), and a war between Rome and Macedonia began; Philip being helped by Achaia, and Rome by Aetolia.

Four wars took place between Rome and Macedonia. The first began in B.C. 213, and ended in B.C. 205; in the second, the Achaians joined the Romans, as well as the Aetolians, and Philip was defeated; the Aetolians then turned against Rome, were defeated, and became a Roman dependency; in

¹ See *First Principles of French History*, page 43.

the third war, against *Perseus*, the son of Philip, most of the Greek states took the side of Macedonia, though the Achaians remained faithful to Rome; in the fourth war Macedonia became a Roman province. Then the Achaians quarrelled with Rome, were defeated, and Corinth their chief city was destroyed, in the same year with Carthage. Thus both Greece and Macedonia passed into the hands of Rome; though *Athens* and a few other cities remained nominally independent.

“The fall of Corinth was a means of introducing a taste for the fine arts among the Romans, as many of the best works of the Grecian painters and sculptors were carried away to Rome. An anecdote was related of one of the Consuls, who, superintending the shipping of some of the finest statues, told the master of the vessel that, if any of them were broken, *he must have others made at his own cost!*”

17. War with Jugurtha.—This war is important because it shows how corrupt and degraded the Roman people and Roman army had become. In the north of Africa, to the west of Carthage, lay the kingdom of *Numidia*, whose king, *Massinissa*, had been very useful to Rome in the wars with Carthage.

Micipsa, the son of *Massinissa*, left the kingdom to his own two sons, and his adopted son *Jugurtha*; all three were to rule together. Of course they soon quarrelled, and *Jugurtha* caused one of the brothers

to be murdered. The other fled to Rome, and asked for the protection of the Senate. Ten Commissioners were sent by the Senate to inquire into the affair and settle the matter ; but they took bribes from Jugurtha to give him the best and most fertile part of the kingdom ; leaving the remainder to the son of Micipsa. Jugurtha then attacked and slew his foster-brother, and took possession of the whole kingdom.

The Roman ambassadors called him to account, but again he bribed them to be silent.

These matters coming to the knowledge of the Senate they declared war against Jugurtha, who pretended to submit to the army sent against him, but who bribed the commander to let him do as he pleased. When this became known, Jugurtha was called to Rome to give an account of his conduct. He came, and pursuing the same system of bribery, would have escaped all punishment, had he not dared to murder a grandson of Massinissa even in Rome itself. He then quitted Rome, exclaiming, " Oh ! the venal city ! it will perish as soon as it can find a purchaser."

The Senate again declared war against Jugurtha ; but the commander appointed was surrounded, and compelled to submit to peace, which, however, the Senate refused to ratify.

The famous *Caius Marius* (par. 13, first list) was now appointed to command against Jugurtha. He twice defeated him, and led him in triumph to Rome,

where he ended his life in a dungeon ; a result which would have been obtained long before had not Romans preferred money to duty and honour.

18. **Sertorius in Spain.**—You remember that when Sulla returned to Rome after the death of Marius (par. 13, first list), he tried to put to death all the friends of the latter. Many of these fled to Spain, where a Roman general named *Sertorius* was in command.

He was a man of humble birth, but noble character, and seems to have had the good of his countrymen really at heart. At all events, he managed to gain their love and respect, and that of the Spaniards as well. His great object was to make the Romans and Spaniards one people.

He formed a Senate in Spain of three hundred members, partly Romans and partly Spaniards ; and at *Asca* (now *Huesca*) he established a great school, where the sons of distinguished Spaniards were educated. He seems to have been regarded with feelings almost amounting to religious veneration.

But Sertorius belonged to the party of Marius ; and as the friends of Sulla were ruling in Rome, they sent an army against him under Pompey. When the Spaniards found that fortune was turning against him, they began to desert him, and then he sold as slaves all the pupils in the school at *Osca*.

Soon afterwards he was treacherously assassinated

at a banquet to which one of his lieutenants had invited him.

19. **Pompey and Crassus Consuls.**—Two of the remarkable men living at the same time as Julius Cæsar (par. 14, first list) were *Pompey* and *Crassus*: the former distinguished by his talent and energy, the latter by his enormous wealth.

Pompey first distinguished himself as a general, fighting for Sulla, in Sicily and Africa (par. 18, first list). He put an end to the party of Marius in Spain after the death of Sertorius (par. 18, second list); and in the year B.C. 70, he and Crassus were chosen Consuls. From the first they had been rivals, and even while Consuls the Romans daily expected that they would take arms against each other; but towards the end of the year they became friends, each, however, still striving to gain the favour of the people.

For this purpose they adopted the means then in fashion: Pompey amused the people with sports, which lasted from the 15th to the 29th August; while Crassus distributed large quantities of corn among the people, and feasted them publicly at ten thousand tables.

About this time swarms of *pirates* were to be found in all parts of the Mediterranean, so that no part was safe from them. In order to put them down, Pompey, was given the supreme command in the Mediterranean for three years. He began operations at the begin-

ning of spring; and by the end of summer the sea was cleared, the strongholds of the pirates demolished, and the pirates themselves sent as colonists into Greece and Asia Minor. After this Pompey commanded in a war against *Mithridates*, king of *Pontus*, in Syria, who had encouraged and assisted the pirates. He defeated and overthrew him in one battle; he then passed into Judea, and captured Jerusalem.

He returned to Rome with immense treasure, and presented every soldier who had served in his legions with £45. Then he, Crassus, and Cæsar, joined together to support one another's interests. They began by dividing the provinces among themselves—Pompey taking Spain, Crassus Syria, and Cæsar Gaul.

Cæsar and Crassus went to their provinces, but Pompey remained at Rome. Crassus was killed in a war with the *Parthians*, a people living to the south of the Caspian Sea; and then a war began between Pompey and Cæsar. Pompey fled to Greece, and was defeated by Cæsar in the battle of Pharsalia (B.C. 48). He then fled to Egypt, where he was murdered, and his head given up to Cæsar, who thus became master of the whole Roman world.

20. **Catiline's Conspiracy.**—You were told that when Sulla (par. 13, first list) returned to Rome after his victory over the friends of Marius, he put to death an immense number of people. Amongst those who

distinguished themselves at that time by their love for murder and bloodshed was one *Catiline*, a Roman of noble family and great talents, but a monster of wickedness. He possessed immense strength both of body and mind, and his courage was without equal; but during a wicked and extravagant life he had wasted all his property, and in B.C. 65 formed a conspiracy to overturn the government of Rome, in the hope that he might be able to establish himself in power on the ruins he made.

He was joined by all the wicked and desperate men of Rome; and determined to set the city on fire, and in the confusion to murder all the leading men of the city. Fortunately for Rome, one of the Consuls at the time was the famous *Cicero* (par. 24, second list); the plot was made known to him, and he delivered four remarkable speeches on the subject in the Senate.

After the first speech *Catiline* left Rome; after the second, the Senate declared *Catiline* a public enemy, and ordered *Cicero* to provide for the safety of the Republic; in his third speech *Cicero* made known to the Senate that *Catiline* was trying to obtain the help of the *Allobroges*, a tribe of Gauls, and several of the conspirators were then arrested; and in the fourth speech he induced the Senate to order the conspirators who had been arrested to be put to death.

Meanwhile *Catiline* joined an army assembled in *Etruria*; but he was defeated in a battle near *Pistoria*, in the north of *Etruria*, though he and his men fought

like lions. Catiline and three thousand men were killed in the battle, and thus the conspiracy came to an end.

Though it was without any important result, it illustrates very clearly the state of Rome at that time—people of all classes being ready to engage in any enterprise, however wicked, if it promised them any hope of gain.

21. **Clodius elected Tribune.**—This event, like the last one, shows us how the Romans had *degenerated*; that is to say, how they had lost those virtues and good qualities for which they were so celebrated in early times, how their bravery and carelessness of death and danger had sunk into cruelty, and distaste for everything but the love of power and gain.

Clodius was second only to Catiline in all kinds of wickedness and vice; for one of his misdeeds he was brought to trial, but he managed to escape by means of bribery. As a Patrician he could not be elected to the office of Tribune; but he managed to be adopted into a Plebeian family, and in B.C. 58 he was elected Tribune. He secured the favour of the multitude by giving away large quantities of corn.

During his Tribuneship, he caused Cicero to be driven from Rome, and passed several laws, all of which helped to bring ruin on the Republic.

But perhaps the most instructive part of this man's history is the account of his quarrel with *Milo*, because

what took place between them was constantly taking place between many others in Rome. They were bitter enemies, and, each fearing the other, they were accompanied by bands of armed men whenever they went out, so that fights between their followers were daily taking place. Towards the end of the year B.C. 53, the two parties met on the Via Appia, a fight took place, and Clodius was killed. "The mob carried his body into the Senate-house, and tore up the seats to make a funeral pile,¹ which they set on fire, and the building was burnt down. The riots continued for several days, during which many houses were plundered and destroyed, and many lives lost. Such was the state of Rome when Pompey was again made Consul."

22. **Reform of the Calendar.**—The Roman year, before the time of Julius Cæsar, though it consisted of twelve months, yet contained only three hundred and fifty-five days; while it began in March and ended in February; hence the origin of the names of the last four months of the year, which were the *seventh, eighth, ninth, and tenth* of the Roman year.

Now, the length of a year depends on the time taken by the *earth* to move once round the *sun*, which

¹ Amongst the Romans it was the custom sometimes to burn the bodies of their dead, and preserve the ashes, instead of burying them as we do.

is exactly three hundred and sixty-five days, five hours, forty-eight minutes, forty-seven seconds, so that the Roman year was about ten and a quarter days too short; and in Cæsar's time there was about three months difference between the *true year* and the *Roman year*.

Cæsar determined to set this right with the assistance of a Greek astronomer. He added ninety days to the year B.C. 46; he directed that the year should begin with the month of January, and contain three hundred and sixty-five days, six hours. This was better, but the year was now about eleven minutes *too long*; so that by the sixteenth century, the year was all wrong again.

This time it was set right by Pope Gregory, who found that the year was ten days before the true time; so in the year 1582 he ordered all people to *leave out* ten days from the month of October. We in England, however, did not make the change till 1752, by which time we were *eleven days* before; so in the month of September in that year we left out eleven days, and the 14th September came after the 2nd. The only country that has not yet made this alteration is Russia.

23. **Cæsar's Triumph.**—We often hear in Roman history of a victorious general being rewarded by a *triumph*. It is necessary you should know what was the nature of this triumph, and how people who had served the Republic were rewarded.

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23. *Cæsar's Triumph.*—We often hear in Roman history of a victorious general being rewarded by a *triumph*. It is necessary you should know what was the nature of this triumph, and how people who had served the Republic were rewarded.

There were several kinds of rewards ; among others, a crown of oak-leaves was given to any one who saved the life of a citizen ; a golden crown was given to the soldier who first climbed over the wall of a besieged town ; a gilt spear was given to him who had severely wounded an enemy ; and a goblet to him who had slain his foe.

Triumphs were of two kinds, one called an *ovation* ; the other, which was the greater honour, called *the triumph*. Each consisted of a procession through the streets of Rome, in which the general, his soldiers, the prisoners he had taken, and the spoils he had brought home, all had a part. In the *ovation* the general was on foot, wearing a myrtle crown ; in the *triumph*, the general rode in a chariot, wearing a laurel crown.

When Cæsar returned to Rome after his victory over Pompey, the Senate decreed a public thanksgiving of forty days, and accorded to Cæsar four separate triumphs, on four successive days.

On the first day he celebrated his victories in Gaul ; and standards were carried before his chariot containing the names of three hundred nations and eight hundred cities which he had conquered by the slaughter of a million of men.

On the second day, he celebrated his victories in Egypt ; and pictures were carried representing the great men and important cities he had conquered ; and the sister of *Cleopatra*, queen of Egypt, and many

other famous persons, walked as prisoners before his chariot.

On the third day, he celebrated his victories in Asia; and in the procession were standards with the words, "*Veni, vidi, vici!*" ("I came, I saw, I conquered!")

On the fourth day, he celebrated his victories in Africa; and among the statues of those he had subdued were those of three noble Romans, so that this was not so pleasing to the Romans as the three former ones. On all four days his old soldiers, covered with scars and crowned with laurel, followed the chariot of their triumphant general.

24. Cicero.—Oratory, or the art of public speaking, was an art highly esteemed among the Romans; and of all the Roman orators, *Cicero* was the first. He served as a soldier in one campaign, and then devoted himself to the study of the law; and at the age of twenty-six he began to practise as a *pleader* or *barrister*, before the magistrates. His first important case was the defence of one *Amerinus*, who was accused by a follower of Sulla of murdering his father. He saved Amerinus, but made Sulla so angry with him, that he was obliged to leave Rome and go to Athens, where he stayed as long as Sulla lived.

When he returned to Rome, he was made *quæstor*, an officer who had to keep the accounts of the public

treasury, and afterwards Consul. During his consulship he saved Rome from Catiline (par. 20, second list).

His conduct in the Catiline conspiracy made enemies of all those who had hoped to reap some advantage from Catiline's plans. And he made an enemy of Clodius (par. 21, second list) by refusing to defend him in the trial spoken of before.

Clodius raised such a storm against him, that he was obliged again to go into exile, until public opinion turned in his favour, and he was recalled to Rome.

In the struggle between Cæsar and Pompey, Cicero took the part of the latter; but after the battle of Pharsalia, he became Cæsar's friend. After the death of Cæsar he became the friend of *Octavianus* (par. 16, first list), and made a series of powerful speeches against *Marc Antony*.

When Antony and Octavianus became friends, the former demanded that Cicero should be put to death, and Octavianus consented. Cicero endeavouring to escape was overtaken by a party of soldiers and slain; and thus died one of the most remarkable men of Rome.

He was as celebrated a writer as an orator. He wrote a great number of books, some of which have been lost; the chief of those we now possess are: *On Oratory, On the Republic, On Laws, On Old Age, and On Friendship*. We have also eight hundred of his letters; he was an adept in the art of letter-writing—by

no means a common one ; and his prose works are written in the purest and most vigorous Latin.

25. **Marc Antony.**—Another of the men who played a leading part in the stirring events which went before the establishment of the *Empire* (par. 16, first list) was Marc Antony. He was brought up in the house of *Lentulus*, one of the Catiline conspirators, and was distinguished for his extravagance. He became a friend of Cæsar, under whom he served, and whose interests he strove to advance. He was Consul at the same time with Cæsar ; and after the death of the latter, he seemed likely to get all power into his hands. For some months he acted as if he had been the sovereign of the Roman world ; but the appearance of Octavianus at Rome caused him to alter his plans. A contest took place between Antony and Octavianus ; but they soon became friends through the efforts of *Lepidus*, who had been Consul in B.C. 46 ; and these three now shared the government between them.

One of the first acts of these new rulers was to draw up a list of those who were to be put to death,—this list contained the names of one hundred and thirty senators, amongst which was that of Cicero (par. 24, second list). They then turned their attention to *Brutus and Cassius*, two of Cæsar's murderers, who were in arms against them ; and their defeat at Philippi (par. 16, first list) was chiefly owing to the military skill of Antony.

After the battle of Philippi, Antony went to Egypt, where he met Cleopatra, the beautiful queen of that country; and she made herself so agreeable to him, that he left his army and remained with her for a long time, spending all his money in feasting and pleasure.

Now Antony had married the sister of Octavianus, but he put her away from him, for the purpose of marrying Cleopatra. Upon this Octavianus declared war against him, defeated him in a sea-fight near *Actium*, on the coast of *Epirus*, followed him to *Alexandria*, in Egypt, where he stabbed himself; and Cleopatra put an end to her life by means of a poisonous serpent called an asp.

26. Præfectus Urbi appointed.—You will easily understand that Rome, during the latter years of the Republic, was by no means a pleasant or a safe place to live in (par. 21, second list). When Augustus had established himself in power, things were in a fearful state; desperate men roamed about the city armed with daggers, attacking people in broad daylight, and no one dared to interfere with them. So the first thing to which he turned his attention was the restoration of order and public safety.

For this purpose, he appointed a new magistrate, called *Præfectus Urbi*, who was responsible for the peace and order of the city. Under him were fourteen officers, called *Vici Magistri*, each of whom had charge of one portion of Rome; and under these again were the

Vigiles, who formed the *police* of Rome. In this way the city, which had been like a den of thieves, became a safe place, orderly people were protected, and their property made secure.

It will be well for you now to get some idea of life in Rome at this period, in order that you may compare it with Roman manners in earlier times (par. 2 second list).

The food of the Romans was no more so simple and inexpensive ; but *luxuries* as well as *necessaries* were sent to Rome from all parts of the Empire ; while their tables were loaded with the most delicate eatables and the choicest wines. The dishes were of silver and of enormous size, so that boars and other animals were frequently brought to table whole. The principal Roman meal was supper, which began about four o'clock in the afternoon ; and the guests did not *sit* at table, but *lay* on couches. It was customary to bathe before supper, and the baths were of the most splendid description.

The houses had now become splendid buildings, standing generally in beautiful gardens, adorned with statues, fountains, and vases, with long shady walks between rows of trees.

The Roman ladies were now very extravagant in their dress, especially in regard to silk, which was sold at an enormous price, and much liked by them, although they did not know where it came from or how it was produced.

Along with this extravagance of the Romans, their wickedness and immorality had reached a fearful height. The women were even worse than the men; children were neglected or left to the care of Greek slaves, who taught them the Greek language and manners instead of the Roman. Their whole education went in a wrong direction, so that each succeeding generation seemed worse than the one before it, and set a worse example to the children who were to succeed it.

27. *Virgil*.—You have been told that the reign of Augustus was remarkable for the number of celebrated authors then living. Of the poets then living, and indeed of all Roman poets, the most celebrated was *Virgil*.

Virgil was born at *Andes*, a small village near Mantua, and received a learned education, being instructed by Greek philosophers and grammarians. His native place having been given to the soldiers after the battle of Philippi, he went to live at Rome, and there became the intimate friend of Augustus, as well as of all the great men of the day.

His principal works were a collection of ten poems on pastoral life, called *Eclogues*; four poems on agriculture, called the *Georgics*; and an *Epic* poem in twelve books called the *Aeneid*, which occupied him for eleven years. This famous poem, gives an account of the wanderings of *Aeneas* after the battle of Troy;

his settlement in Italy, and the legendary history of the foundation of Rome. To him has been given the second place among the world's great poets; the first place being occupied by *Homer*, the great Greek poet.

In the year a.c. 19, Virgil set out on a journey into Asia. He met Augustus at Athens, but was there taken ill, and returned with the Emperor towards Rome. He died at Brundisium, at the age of fifty-one.

28. **Claudius in Britain.**—Claudius was the first Emperor who gave presents of money to the Roman soldiers at his accession (par. 18, first list); and so originated the practice with which all succeeding emperors were obliged to comply.

The most remarkable event of his reign was the formation of a Roman province in the south-east of England. Until this reign no Roman army had entered Britain since the time of Julius Cæsar. Claudius sent an army, and soon followed it himself. The war continued for nine years, during which *Vespasian*, accompanied by his son *Titus* (par. 19, first list), commanded one legion, fought thirty battles, took possession of the Isle of Wight, and occupied twenty towns.

He was opposed by Caractacus, a British chief, who fought bravely in defence of his country, but was made prisoner and carried to Rome. Claudius, however,

was so struck by his noble bearing and courage that he ordered his life to be spared.

This was the beginning of the Roman power in Britain, though the country was not conquered until Vespasian became Emperor, when Agricola was made the Roman governor of Britain.¹

29. **Destruction of Jerusalem.** — When the Romans began to interfere in the affairs of Judea, *Hyrchanus* was High-priest at Jerusalem and King of the Jews. His brother *Aristobulus* rebelled against him, and drove him from the throne. Then *Pompey* appeared at Damascus, and the brothers appealed to him to decide between them.

Pompey declared in favour of *Hyrchanus*. *Aristobulus* fled to Jerusalem, and was besieged by Pompey. The city was taken B.C. 63, and the priests killed in the Temple. Nine years afterwards *Crassus* visited Jerusalem, and robbed the Temple of all its treasures, amounting to two million pounds in money, besides vessels of gold and silver.

The chief minister of *Hyrchanus* was named *Antipater*; *Cæsar* in his war with Pompey had been assisted by this man, and in gratitude made him governor of Judea.

When *Octavianus* was powerful in Rome, he made *Herod*, the tetrarch of Galilee, King of Judea; and

¹ *First Principles of English History*, page 10.

supported by Roman legions, Herod captured Jerusalem and rebuilt the Temple.

Herod was succeeded by his son *Archelaus*, who was deposed by Augustus, and Jerusalem given into the hands of Roman governors,—one of whom, *Pontius Pilate*, sanctioned the execution of Jesus Christ.

One of these governors, named *Florus*, was very cruel and insulting to the Jews, so a tumult occurred, and the Jews rose in rebellion. At this time Nero was Emperor; and he sent *Vespasian* and his son *Titus*, to punish the revolt. The rebellion lasted for some time, and in the meantime *Vespasian* became Emperor.

In the first year of his reign *Titus* laid siege to Jerusalem, and during that siege the people endured most awful sufferings. Not only were the enemies without the wall, but within rival parties were fighting for the mastery; blood flowed everywhere; the people were starving. So dreadful was the famine, that one woman is said to have roasted and eaten her own babe. So many dead bodies were thrown over the walls that the valleys were choked with them. A soldier threw a torch, set fire to the Temple, and it was burnt to the ground, six thousand people perishing in the flames. When at last the Roman soldiers broke into the city, they found the houses full of women and children dead of hunger. One million died during the siege; ninety-seven thousand were taken captive; the whole city was levelled with the ground, and the foundations sown with salt.

30. **Eruption of Vesuvius.** — When men dig into the earth to any depth, they find that the deeper they go the warmer it becomes ; and so they come to the conclusion that could they go deep enough they would find a heat sufficient to melt all known substances. It is now generally supposed that the interior of the earth consists of molten matter.

Some of this molten matter is often thrown out on to the surface of the earth, forming in course of time what are known as *volcanoes*, or burning mountains, because fire, smoke, ashes, and molten matter are thrown out from them.

One of the best known of these volcanoes is *Vesuvius*, near Naples, in Italy ; but from the time Southern Italy was first colonized by the Greeks, down to the year A.D. 79, the mountain was perfectly quiet, and no eruption had taken place.

So convinced were the Romans of its harmlessness, that three cities, *Herculaneum*, *Pompeii*, and *Stabiae*, had been built at the very foot of the mountain. During the reign of Nero these cities were partly destroyed by an earthquake, in the year 63, but they were rebuilt. Sixteen years afterwards a terrible eruption occurred ; immense quantities of ashes and stones were thrown out into the air, and fell all around burying the cities to a depth of about one hundred feet.

This eruption came so unexpectedly that many people were unable to escape, and nearly everything was left in the cities just in its usual state.

From that time, down to the early part of last century, people knew that there had been such cities only by report ; but in sinking a well for a house that had been built on the new surface, the workmen came to the door of a theatre. By degrees the rubbish was cleared away from the greater part of both Herculaneum and Pompeii ; and so people were able to see with their own eyes what sort of cities, and houses, and furniture, and utensils the Romans possessed in the time of Titus.

The houses were only one or two stories high, consisting of a number of small rooms built round a courtyard ; the shops were open to the street. Wine was found in earthen vessels, drinking cups were standing on marble slabs, olives were found in a jar, chestnuts, walnuts, and almonds in a fruiterer's shop, and a box of pills on the counter of an apothecary. Needles, scissors, compasses, surgical instruments, silver spoons, kitchen utensils, tools, and stamps for marking goods, all very similar to our own, were found in these cities.

31. *Dacia conquered.*—During the time of the Emperors, the usual boundaries of the Roman empire in the North were the Rhine and the Danube. North of the Danube, where the provinces of *Transylvania*, *Moldavia*, and *Wallachia* are now to be found, was, at that time, the province of *Dacia*, inhabited by a brave and warlike people, who frequently crossed the

river, and annoyed the neighbouring Romans. *Crassus* was sent by *Augustus* to chastise them, but their inroads still continued; and in 86, under their king *Decebalus*, they crossed over and defeated the Roman legate; and the Emperor *Domitian* was obliged to make peace with them, and pay them a tribute.

When *Trajan* became emperor, he led an army of sixty thousand men into their country, defeated *Decebalus*, and compelled him to give up part of his territory. This was in the year 100; but in 104 the Dacians rebelled. *Trajan*, having built a stone bridge across the Danube, marched into their country, and so hard pressed *Decebalus* that he put an end to his life, and Dacia then became a Roman Province. *Trajan* caused a column one hundred and fifty feet high to be built in the Roman forum, on which were carved his doings in Dacia: this is now known as *Trajan's Column*. When he died his remains were buried under this column.

But Dacia did not long remain in the hands of the Romans. It became a Roman province in 105; and before 180 it was given up by *Aurelius*, and became a Gothic kingdom about the middle of the fourth century.

32. Alexander Severus Murdered.—You were told at the end of the first list, that after the Emperor *Commodus* there was an irregular succession of emperors, distinguished, with some few exceptions, by

tyranny and baseness, or impotence and weakness. One of these exceptions was *Alexander Severus*, one of the best of the emperors. He was too young himself to exercise much authority, and the government was carried on chiefly by the *State Council*, instituted by the Emperor *Hadrian*.

The president of this council was named *Ulpian*, a wise man, who tried to introduce some much-needed reforms; but all efforts of this kind were rendered vain by the soldiers, who rose in rebellion, and murdered Ulpian at the feet of his master.

In his reign, the *Persians* and the *Germans* were troubling the Romans. The King of Persia, *Artaxerxes*, claimed some of the Roman possessions; and in a war which followed, compelled the Emperor to give up some of his Eastern dominions.

Then Severus made war upon the Germans, who were encamped on the banks of the Rhine; but the soldiers were made discontented by one of their generals named *Maximinus*, who owed his promotion to his great size and strength.

In the end Severus was murdered by his soldiers, and Maximinus made Emperor in his stead. By this event, military despotism in Rome reached its highest point.

33. **Invasion of the Goths.**—You have been told (par. 6, first list) that the common ancestors of most European nations lived in Central Asia, and

that wave after wave sent out from those people spread over Europe ; the Romans themselves being descended from one of those waves.

A later wave which pressed into Europe, formed what are called the *Teutonic* nations ; and one division of these Teutons was named the *Goths*. When we first hear of the Goths they were living in the countries east of the Baltic, which now form part of Russia ; thence they spread southward to the shore of the Black Sea, and westward into *Dacia* (par. 31, second list).

The Emperor Aurelian gave up the province of Dacia to the Goths, who formed a powerful kingdom there, and who were beginning to become Christians, when they were in turn overrun by a race of men called *Huns*, who had come from China. Some of the Goths submitted to the Huns, and some crossed the Danube and settled within the Roman empire.

There they learnt to respect the great name of Rome, and to imitate its form of government ; while many of their chiefs took Roman titles and entered the Roman army. Then the Goths separated into *East Goths* and *West Goths* ; the East Goths settled in Italy, the West Goths in France and Spain.

Then the West Goths revolted under *Alaric*, the most remarkable of their leaders. They invaded Italy ; and at last, in 410, captured and plundered Rome itself, the first time since its capture by the Gauls that such a thing had befallen it.

Alaric died soon after, and his successor made peace with Rome, and retired into Gaul, and thence went to Spain as a Roman officer to restore the province of Spain to the Empire.

In 451, the Goths did good service by uniting with the Romans against *Attila*, King of the Huns, whom, under *Aëtius* the Roman, and *Theodoric* the Goth, they defeated at the great battle of Châlons (par. 39, second list).

These Goths were only the *first* of the Teutonic nations who settled in different parts of the Roman Empire, and, by their settlement, helped to form the chief nations of modern Europe.

34. Accession of Valerian.—In the year 253, an old Roman general, named *Valerian*, upwards of seventy years of age, and who had commanded the legions in Gaul, was made Emperor by the soldiers.

His predecessor was murdered to make room for him, and the Emperor before him had been killed in a revolt; so that matters *in Rome* were in a very bad way; while from outside, the Empire was beset with enemies,—*Franks*, *Persians*, and *Goths*,—who came swarming into the Empire on all sides; and to make matters worse, the people in some parts of the Roman dominions were dying of the plague, that mysterious disease which sometimes carried off the greater part of the population.

Valerian reigned seven years. He engaged in a

war with *Sapor*, King of the Persians, was defeated, taken prisoner, treated very cruelly, and died in captivity.

He was succeeded by his son, *Gallienus*, an indolent young man, in whose reign the governors in various provinces, to the number of nineteen, declared themselves independent.

35. **Aurelian Emperor.**—Aurelian was the son of a Dacian peasant (par. 31, second list). At the time of his coming to the throne he was a general in the Roman army, having risen through the various military ranks by his unshaken courage and great strength.

He it was who gave up Dacia to the Goths, deeming it better to be rid of a province which was a source of weakness rather than strength. He restored some degree of discipline in the army, checking the lawless exactions of the soldiers, and forbidding them from taking provisions without paying for them.

He did much towards arresting, though it was beyond his power to do more than arrest, the dissolution of the Roman Empire. He won back Syria, Egypt, Asia Minor, Gaul, Britain, and Spain, and defeated some German tribes who had crossed the Alps into Italy.

But while thus victorious abroad, his bravery sank into cruelty at home, and led to his murder, just as he was getting ready to go to war with the Persians.

36. Diocletian.—The reign of the Emperor *Diocletian* is important, because we find a *new system* of government established by him. There were to be two Emperors, instead of one; and under these Emperors, two rulers with the title of *Cæsar*: so that the Empire was now broken up into four parts. Diocletian lived at *Nikomedeia*, in Asia; while his co-emperor, *Maximian*, lived at *Milan*, in Italy. One of the Cæsars ruled over Britain, Gaul, and Spain; and the other over the countries near the Danube.

Thus you see the city of Rome had ceased to be the residence of the Emperor, and the Roman rule was no longer that of a *city* over cities (par. 8, first list).

The most important part of this new arrangement was, that when one of the Emperors died, one of the Cæsars should succeed him; so that this was an effort to wrest from the army the power of electing the Emperor, with its consequent confusion and crime.

Unfortunately Diocletian's arrangement did not succeed. In order, possibly, to see how it would work, he and his colleague Maximian laid down their power; the two Cæsars, *Constantius* and *Galerius*, succeeded to the vacant thrones, but instead of *each* appointing *one* of the new Cæsars, Galerius appointed both. Soon after Constantius died, and then the army elected a successor; Galerius appointed a second; and the Senate elected a third. Other claimants sprang up, till, at length, *six* persons were holding the title of Emperor.

The reign of Diocletian witnessed one of those cruel persecutions to which the early Christian Church was so often subjected at the hands of the heathen. This one was perhaps the heaviest of them all; but the Church seemed to gain renewed vigour from each assault, and soon after this persecution it experienced one of its greatest successes, an account of which you will find in the next paragraph.

37. Constantine the Great.—The man chosen by the army to succeed Constantius (see last paragraph) was *Constantine*, his son. He began his reign at *York*, in Britain; then he removed to *Trier*, in Gaul. After a series of battles, he reduced the number of his competitors to one, *Licinius*. These two divided the whole Empire between them; Constantine reigning at *Rome*, and Licinius at *Nicomedeia*.

But the two Emperors did not long remain at peace. They quarrelled and went to war; and in the end Licinius was defeated and put to death: thus the Empire was again united in the hands of one man.

Constantine was the first Emperor who acknowledged himself a Christian. He had always protected the Christians, but did not profess their religion till he became sole Emperor in 323.

He then removed the seat of government from Rome to *Byzantium*, which he greatly enlarged, and

which was afterwards called by his name, *Constantinople*—that is, the *city of Constantine*.

He reigned longer than any Emperor from the time of Augustus, and was able to secure the succession of his family to the throne, as long as any of his family were left. And thus the power of the army came to an end.

38. **Theodosius Excommunicated.**—When Constantine became a Christian, he ordered that the *bishops* in each city should be obeyed, and thus laid the foundation for the future great power of the bishop or Pope of Rome. For as the seat of government was no longer at Rome, the Roman bishop obtained much of the power which had belonged to the Emperor, especially as up to this time the emperor had always been chief pontiff (par. 1, second list). That power exercised by the Emperor *as chief pontiff* now passed to the bishop; and a great deal of *temporal* power clung to the *spiritual* power in its passage.

So, little by little, the Bishop of Rome came to exercise almost as much authority over the Roman dominions as the Emperor had done; and as the *Empire* fell to pieces, so the authority of the Bishop increased.

We see a good example of the power exercised by the Bishop in the person of St. Ambrose, Bishop of Milan. At that time *Theodosius* was Emperor, and all the heathen temples had been destroyed or converted into Christian churches.

During some chariot races at *Thessalonica*, the people had stoned the governor because he had imprisoned one of the drivers for misbehaving himself. Theodosius ordered that those people should all be put to death; and his order was executed,—the people, innocent and guilty alike, were all slain, and the city burnt.

In consequence of this crime, St. Ambrose shut Theodosius out of the Church; and though he came humbly to the church door and begged for admission, St. Ambrose himself turned him back, and not until the following Easter, when Theodosius had given proof of his sorrow and repentance, was he re-admitted to the services of the Church.

39. **Battle of Chalons.**—You have been told (par. 33, second list) how the *Goths* united with the *Romans* against *Attila*, King of the Huns, and defeated him in the battle of *Chalons*. As this battle is one of the most important battles of the world, you ought to know a little more about it.

Attila, King of the Huns, was an extraordinary man. He led his savage warriors from the *Oura* mountains, right across Europe like a whirlwind. Nothing seemed able to withstand them, and it looked very much as if civilization was about to be swept out of Europe.

He had reached Gaul before he was brought to a stand; but somewhere near the *Marne* or the *Seine*

he was met by an army under *Aetius*, a Roman general, and *Theodoric*, King of the Visigoths.

A fearful battle ensued, in which 300,000 men are said to have been slain; but Attila was defeated, and retired into Germany. After his death, the Huns broke up into a number of petty states, retaining their independence till they were conquered by Charlemagne. And thus Rome, great even in her death-struggles, helped to defend civilization, and to save Western Europe from ruin and desolation.

40. Charlemagne Emperor. — We have now reached what we may call the death-struggle of the Roman Empire. It had in reality ceased to exist in Western Europe, in the year 476; although it still went on in the East until Constantinople was captured by the *Crusaders* in 1204.

We say that the Roman Empire really ceased to exist in Western Europe in 476, because in that year *Odoacer*, the chief of the German troops in the service of Rome was appointed ruler of Italy, with the title of *Patrician*,—thus the power passed away from the Romans into the hands of the *Teutons*.

Still, however, the Roman laws went on, and several men tried to revive the old power of the Roman Empire. The most remarkable of these men was *Charlemagne*, or more properly, *Karl the Great*, who was proclaimed Emperor of Rome in the year 800; and who did succeed in ruling over a wide extent of Europe.

He became master of all Germany and Gaul. He held the greatest part of Italy, and Spain as far as the Ebro, and most of the border tribes were brought to submit to him. Still he was a *Roman* Emperor only in *name*. He was really a *German* Emperor, receiving from the hands of a Christian Bishop a title which had ceased to exist. How different this was from the first Emperor, *Augustus*, I need not point out to those who have carefully followed this history to the end.



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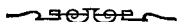
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