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Universal history in perspective

Emma Willard
UNIVERSAL HISTORY,

PERSPECTIVE.

BY EMMA WILLARD.

TWELFTH EDITION.

NEW YORK:
PUBLISHED BY A. S. BARNES & CO.
CINCINNATI: H. W. DERBY & CO.
1854.
INDEX TO THE MAPS.

Perspective Sketch of the Course of Empire .................. Page 33
The First Settled Parts of the Earth ......................... 43
Palestine, or the Holy Land .................................. 52
Ancient Greece ................................................. 58
Ancient Italy .................................................. 98
The Roman Empire ............................................ 138
Asia Minor .................................................... 172
The Caliphate, or Empire of the Saracens .................... 190
Middle Europe, exhibiting the Empire of Charlemagne ...... 203
The Western Continent ......................................... 291
The British Islands ............................................ 329
Spain and Portugal ............................................ 367
Countries around the Baltic .................................. 402
Holland and the contiguous Countries ......................... 413
United States .................................................. 430
Central Europe, exhibiting the principal Campaigns of Napoleon .... 450
India and China ............................................... 481

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(9)
PREFACE.

Universal history, as a science, is great in itself, great in its consequences on human conduct and happiness; and, at this moment, particularly important to the citizens of our republic.

The belief, that much experience in imparting knowledge would enable the author so to arrange and illustrate this vast subject, as to make it less difficult to acquire and retain, was the moving spring which at first produced this work, and which now presents it to the public in an improved form. This volume offers, in the combinations of the subject-matter, and the arrangement by which it is presented, some original features; and in its illustrations, we believe it will be found to solve the problem, what is the best form of presenting the grand outline of chronology. We refer, for this solution, to the plan, of which a sketch is presented in the frontispiece; and which we call the Temple of Time; and to the enlarged view of the floor-work of this Temple, contained in the Chart of "the Course of Time, or Picture of Nations." Here is addressed to the eye, on a small scale, a plan strictly scientific, (perspective being an exact science,) which is to the whole of history, as it exists in time, what a small map of the world, with its few lines of latitude and longitude, is to the same science as it exists in place. If but few cities are set down on such a map, whoever understands geography, having any other city given with its latitude and longitude, can refer it to its true situation on the map, and thus know its position relative to other places. Such will our Temple of Time be, in respect to the dates of events to those who understand it; and persons already acquainted with history comprehend it at a glance. Such a help, the most profound and cultivated mind need not despise; for how often does it occur, that the contemplation of characters and events as they exist with others before or after them, leads to profound conclusions, concerning the causes and consequences of man's conduct and destiny. But to learn such a method in youth, to become accustomed thus to refer all events to a visible representation of time, where the whole subject of chronology is wrought into strict unity, and made sensible to the mind at a single glance, must be a lasting advantage.

Of the maps contained in this work, we need say nothing, because the public are already perfectly aware of the importance of such illustrations.
The repeated requests, that they might be inserted, from teachers who use our work in their schools, have led to their preparation. They contain, especially those which relate to the middle ages, names of places historically interesting, not easily found on other maps.

In the written work, an attempt has been made to exhibit history in its proper relative proportions. The painter allows to objects in space less and less room upon his canvass, as those objects recede into the distance. Such is equally the order of nature in regard to objects as they exist in time. Yet the mountain which is distant must have more room in the picture than the dark valley that lies near. Thus tower Greece and Rome, amid the dimness of antiquity, and thus sink the dark ages, though nearer to the foreground.

There are two methods between which, in a book for reading, not for reference merely, the writer must choose; the ethnographical, by which nations are separately described, and the chronographical, by which the order of time is strictly preserved. When writers of universal history follow the ethnographical method, the reader is naturally led to consider contemporary events as consecutive, and to seek for some plan by which they may be placed together. This is to produce the chronographical arrangement which he is apt to think should have been followed by the writer. On the other hand, where the chronographical method prevails, the reader complains of a confusion arising from mingling together the histories of different nations,—selects the scattered parts belonging to each, and having put them together, produces the ethnographical plan. He now thinks that, because he has come to a good understanding of the subject, his method alone is good; not reflecting that he has had the advantages of both. The truth appears to be, that history cannot be well understood, unless the reader can, with the one method, trace every great nation by itself through all its most important changes, and with the other, conceive himself placed in any of the most noted periods of time, and glance through the whole range of contemporary events.

For such a comprehension of the subject, we refer to the illustrations already noticed; where we have at the same glance both methods presented to the eye. In the text, we have pursued either, or combined both, as the occasion seemed to require. When a nation has had little connection with other nations, its history has been treated separately. When several nations have been blended, by reason of their relations with each other, as in case of war, their history, for the time, has also been thrown together.

To make this book easy to teachers, questions are placed at the foot of each page. By the manner in which these are put, passages of history which, from the imperfection of language, cannot be clearly expressed with the brevity to which our limits confine us, are made perspicuous.
Important events are brought into bolder relief; and sometimes the learner is called on to consider what moral reflections the subject may suggest. The division of the work into numbered paragraphs confines the subject of each question, and thus aids both teacher and pupil; while it will be an important advantage to such as shall not only use the book in classes for recitation, but also for daily reading;—following the maxim, that "in a school, what pupils study they should read, and what they read they should study."

To make this book convenient for reference, and a good family Universal History, an extended chronological table is prefixed, and many dates are set down in a bold character on the margin. No good teacher would oblige his pupils to learn all of these; but they will by mere inspection know where to find them when occasion shall require. To make this book more attractive to learners, and to give to teachers a sample of the kind of facts, which they will do well to acquire and relate to their classes, the room on the margin has been occupied by side notes enclosed in brackets. These, which the pupil is not generally required to learn or to remember, will, we hope, make the time of study pass pleasantly, and cause the book to be regarded as an agreeable companion.

Universal history, as a science, is great in its consequences, as it forms the first study of the politician. No wise man presumes to form conclusions concerning the future destiny of nations, without first acquiring a knowledge of the past. It is at this time peculiarly important to Americans; because to them the world are now looking for a response to the grand question, "Can the people govern themselves?" And, perhaps, the next twenty years will decide it for coming generations. Shall monarchy in its palaces, and aristocracy in its lordly halls, then exult, as it is told that America is passing through anarchy to despotism,—while mankind at large mourn, and reproach us that we have sealed their doom as well as our own, and that of our posterity? Or shall we continue to be that people, which of all others heretofore, or now existing, possess the most equitable government; and to whom national calamity is but as a phrase ill understood? A history of the past, no more extensive than that which is here presented, might make us understand that phrase, with a salutary fear; and it might teach our posterity what we as good citizens must desire them to know—the virtues which exalt nations, and the vices which destroy them;—that so they may practise the one, and avoid the other.
# CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

## INDEX

## PART I.

### PERIOD I.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B.C.</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4004</td>
<td>The Creation</td>
<td>34.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2348</td>
<td>The Deluge</td>
<td>35.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Division of Countries among Noah's Sons</td>
<td>36.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2300</td>
<td>The Tower of Babel, and the Confusion of Languages</td>
<td>36.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2267</td>
<td>Tyre founded</td>
<td>46.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2204</td>
<td>Babylon founded by Nimrod</td>
<td>36.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2188</td>
<td>Egyptian Monarchy founded by Menes or Minnau,</td>
<td>37.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2159</td>
<td>Nineveh built, and the Assyrian Empire founded</td>
<td>37.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2095</td>
<td>Shepherd Kings</td>
<td>38.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PERIOD II.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B.C.</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>Calling of Abraham, (from Haran,)</td>
<td>39.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1897</td>
<td>Sodom and the cities of the plain destroyed</td>
<td>40.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1739</td>
<td>Joseph sold—1706 Jacob goes down to Egypt</td>
<td>40.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1571</td>
<td>Moses born. (He is the first of historians and lawgivers.)</td>
<td>40.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1491</td>
<td>Red Sea passed</td>
<td>41.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1556</td>
<td>Argos and Sicyon founded</td>
<td>41.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1493</td>
<td>Athens founded. 1529 Amphictyon Council</td>
<td>42.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1493</td>
<td>Letters brought into Greece</td>
<td>42.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PERIOD III.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B.C.</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1491</td>
<td>Institution of the Passover</td>
<td>41.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1452</td>
<td>Moses dies.—(1453 Olympic Games begin,)</td>
<td>43.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1451</td>
<td>Land of Canaan conquered and divided under Joshua</td>
<td>44.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1443</td>
<td>Joshua dies—Reign of the Judges begins</td>
<td>44.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1400</td>
<td>Laws of Minos.—(1406 Deborah and Barak reign 40 years,)</td>
<td>48.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1400</td>
<td>Teucer first king of Troy.—1359 (Gideon reigns 40 years,)</td>
<td>49.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1326</td>
<td>Theseus,</td>
<td>48.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1263</td>
<td>Argonautic Expedition, led by Jason, who succeeds by the aid of Medea</td>
<td>49.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1250</td>
<td>Sesosriis reigns in Egypt. He conquers the south-west part of Asia</td>
<td>49.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1173</td>
<td>Siege of Troy begins.—(1149 Death of Eli—Samuel,)</td>
<td>49.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1095</td>
<td>Saul made King</td>
<td>45.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1083</td>
<td>War of the Heracleides</td>
<td>50.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1062</td>
<td>Cheops builds the first Pyramid</td>
<td>46.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**(vii)**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period IV.</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1055</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1045</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1004</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>980</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>975</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>914</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>870</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>884</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>886</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(776)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PART I.</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>752</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>747</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>743</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>721</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>717</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>716</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>710</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>685</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>677</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>672</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>658</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>621</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>624</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>612</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>609</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>587</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>585</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>560</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>560</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>559</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>548</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>538</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>529</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>522-515</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>521</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>510</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>509</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>496</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>491</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>490</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PART II.</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Founding of Rome by Romulus. (The Sabine Women seized.)</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destruction of the first Assyrian Empire</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tiglath Pileser king of Nineveh</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Messenian war</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shalmaneser carries captive the Ten Tribes</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sennacherib's host destroyed</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numa Pompilius</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deioces founds the Median Empire</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Messenian War</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Esarhaddon takes Jerusalem</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combat of the Horatii and Curatii</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phraortes conquers Persia</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laws of Draco</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laws of Solon</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nineveh destroyed</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Megiddo, Egyptians defeat the Jews</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nebuchadnezzar takes Jerusalem and destroys the first Temple</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He takes Tyre</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pisistratus makes himself Tyrant of Athens, collects the first Public Library of Greece</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The rich Croesus is king of Lydia</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pythagoras' School at Crotona</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyrus unites Media and Persia</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thymbra—Cyrus is victorious and gains the wealth and kingdom of Croesus</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyrus takes Babylon—takes Jerusalem</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>^ is killed in Scythia</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The second Temple built by Ezra and Nehemiah</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hippias and Hipparchus</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Council of Five Hundred take the place of the Senate established by Solon</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expulsion of Tarquin from Rome</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Darius invades Scythia, and Megabysus, his general, conquers Thrace and Macedon</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Tribunes of the People at Rome</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greeks take Sardis from the Persians and burn it</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coriolanus joins the Volsci</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MARATHON, Athenians under Miltiades, conquer the Persians under Mardonius</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B.C.</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>484 Aristides banished, but recalled,</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>490 Xerxes' Great Expedition,</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; THERMOPYLAE, Leonidas sacrifices himself with 300 Spartans,</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; SALAMIS, The Grecian fleets defeat the Persian,</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Flight of Xerxes,</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>479 Mardonius burns Athens,</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; PLATAEA—MYCALE, Greeks defeat the Persians, and drive them from Europe,</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>470 River EURYMEDON, Cimon defeats the Persians,</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>451 Decemvirs created to compile laws for Rome,</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>450 Cincinnatus Dictator,</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>449 Death of Virginia by the hand of her father,</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>448 First Sacred War in Greece,</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>445 Nehemiah rebuilds the walls of Jerusalem,</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>444 Brilliant age of Greece. Pericles supreme at Athens—Phidias—Apolles—Herodotus,</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>440 Socrates teaches at Athens,</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401 Xenophon's Retreat,</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>436 The Corinthian War,</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>431 The Peloponnesian War,</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>414 Alcibiades.—Athenian disasters at Syracuse,</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>408 Sanballat builds a temple on Mount Gerizim at Samaria,</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>405 ΕΓΟΣ-ΠΟΤΑΜΟΣ, Spartans gain the ascendency over the Athenians,</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>404 Thirty Tyrants at Athens,</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>395 Veii taken.—Camillus,</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>390 First descent of the Gauls under Brennus, take Rome, &quot; Plato teaches at Athens,</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Pelopidas delivers Thebes from the Spartans,</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>371 LEUCTRA, Epaminondas, the Theban, defeats the Spartans,</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>367 Dionysius the Elder,</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>362 MANTinea, Epaminondas is killed, and Thebes loses supremacy,</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>350 Aristotle teaches at Athens,</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>338 CHÆONEA, Philip of Macedon makes himself master of Greece,</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>334 GRANICUS, ALEXANDER THE GREAT defeats the Persians,</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>333 ISSUS, Alexander again defeats the Persians—takes Damascus and Tyre—conquers Egypt,</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>332 Alexander visits Jerusalem,</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>332 ARBELA, Alexander defeats Darius, and becomes master of the whole Persian empire,</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>323 DEATH OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT,</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>322 Death of Demosthenes,</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>301 IPSUS, Antigonus and his son defeated by four of Alexander's generals, who now divide his empire among themselves, &quot; Ptolemy assumes the government of Egypt,</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Seleucus begins to reign in Syria,</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>291 FORKS OF THE CAUDINE, the Samnites oblige the Romans to pass under the yoke,</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>290 Samnites subdued by the Romans,</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anno B.C.</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>283</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>280</td>
<td>104</td>
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<tr>
<td>279</td>
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<td>168</td>
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<td>147</td>
<td>113</td>
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<td>146</td>
<td>115</td>
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<tr>
<td>133-121</td>
<td>116</td>
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<td>121</td>
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<td>86</td>
<td>124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PART I.

PERIOD II.

CHÆRONEA and ORCHOMENUS, Sylla defeats Mithridates in the First Mithridatic War.

Marius tyrannizes at Rome.

Cato's conspiracy defeated by Cicero.

Julius Caesar, Pompey, and Crassus, form the First Triumvirate.
### CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

**PART I.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>55 B.C.</td>
<td>Caesar commands in Gaul—invades Britain, finally his life,</td>
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<tr>
<td>54 B.C.</td>
<td>Crassus invades Parthia—falls into a snare—loses his army,</td>
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<td>49 B.C.</td>
<td>Caesar passes the Rubicon,</td>
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<td>July 20, 48 B.C.</td>
<td>Pharsalia, Caesar defeats the party of the Senate, commanded by Pompey,</td>
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<td>47 B.C.</td>
<td>Zela, Caesar subdues Pharnaces of Pontus, (&quot;veni, vidi, vici&quot;).</td>
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<td>46 B.C.</td>
<td>Is made Perpetual Dictator,</td>
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<td>45 B.C.</td>
<td>Causes Carthage and Corinth to be rebuilt,</td>
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<td>March 15, 44 B.C.</td>
<td>Caesar Assassinated,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Second Triumvirate—Octavius, Mark Antony, and Lepidus,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Arsaces XIV. of Parthia, sides Brutus and Cassius,</td>
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<tr>
<td>43 B.C.</td>
<td>Philippi, Octavius and Antony defeat them,</td>
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<tr>
<td>42 B.C.</td>
<td>Cleopatra in her galley sails up the Cydnus to Tarsus,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Actium, Octavius defeats the fleet of Antony and Cleopatra, and subjugates Egypt,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Octavius, with the title of Augustus, master of the civilized world,</td>
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<td>Universal Peace,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Birth of Jesus Christ,</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**PART II.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9 B.C.</td>
<td>Hermon, a barbarian, defeats Varus the Roman general,</td>
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<tr>
<td>14 B.C.</td>
<td>Tiberius succeeds Augustus,</td>
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<tr>
<td>31 B.C.</td>
<td>Crucifixion of our Saviour—His Resurrection,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Descent of the Holy Ghost on the day of Pentecost,</td>
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<tr>
<td>34 A.D.</td>
<td>Martyrdom of Stephen,</td>
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<td>35 A.D.</td>
<td>Conversion of Paul,</td>
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<tr>
<td>37 A.D.</td>
<td>Caligula succeeds Tiberius—41 Claudius,</td>
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<tr>
<td>54 A.D.</td>
<td>Nero—64 First Persecution of the Christians,</td>
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<tr>
<td>59 A.D.</td>
<td>Sertorius Paulinus destroys the Druids in Britain.—Defeats queen Boudicca,</td>
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<tr>
<td>64 A.D.</td>
<td>Jews under Gesius Glorus rebel,</td>
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<tr>
<td>65 A.D.</td>
<td>Martyrdom of St. Peter and St. Paul at Rome,</td>
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<tr>
<td>69 A.D.</td>
<td>The Praetorian Guards kill Galba and make Otho emperor—Vitellius succeeds,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Vestian, governor of Judea, made emperor,</td>
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<td>70 A.D.</td>
<td>Titus takes Jerusalem—1,100,000 perish,</td>
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<td>78 A.D.</td>
<td>Julius Agricola defeats Galgacus in Scotland,</td>
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<td>80 A.D.</td>
<td>Herculesœnum and Pompeii destroyed by an eruption of Vesuvius. (Elder Pliny is suffocated by the noxious vapour.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>98 A.D.</td>
<td>Domitian.—(95 Second Persecution of the Christians,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>to 117 Trajan carries the Roman empire to its greatest limit,</td>
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<tr>
<td>107 A.D.</td>
<td>Third Persecution of the Christians,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Martyrdom of Ignatius, (bishop of Antioch,)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Page</td>
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<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>117 Hadrian relinquishes the conquests of Trajan beyond the Danube</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>118 Fourth Persecution of the Christians</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>135 Final Destruction of the Jews, who revolt under Barochab—&quot;the</td>
<td>147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>son of a star;&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>138 Titus Antoninus Pius—a good and peaceful man,</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>161 Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. His reign disturbed, and his life</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lost by means of barbarian invades</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>180 Commodus gives money to the barbarians to buy peace</td>
<td>151</td>
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<tr>
<td>193 Diocletian buys the empire of the Pretorians</td>
<td>151</td>
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<tr>
<td>&quot;Septimus Severus restores military discipline; builds a wall from</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Solway to Tyne, in Scotland</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>211-223 Four emperors—Caracalla and Geta, Macrinus, and the</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infamous Helogabulus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>213 Fifth Persecution of the Christians, under Caracalla</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>222 Alexander Severus, (Julia Mammea his mother.) His virtues</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vainly strive against a downward age</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>226 Parthian empire, with the Arsacides, extinct. The Persian</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>revives under the Sassanideq, of whom Artaxeres is the first</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>235 Maximinus, the Gothic giant, (causes the Sixth Persecution of the</td>
<td>153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christians,)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>236-49 Roman emperors—the two Gordians, father and son, Maximus and</td>
<td>154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balbinus and Philip the Arabian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>249 Decius. The Goths for the first time swarm upon the frontiers</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the empire,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250 Seventh Persecution of the Christians.—Decius,</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>253 Emilianus—254 Valerian,</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>257 Eighth Persecution of the Christians,</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>268 Valerian invades Persia and is made prisoner by Sapor</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>270 Nineteen usurpers—war, pestilence and famine swept away one half</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of the inhabitants of the Roman empire. Claudia, a virtuous</td>
<td>156</td>
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<tr>
<td>sovereign, succeeds.</td>
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<tr>
<td>&quot; Aurelian contracts the empire on the north; conquers the barbarians</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; CHALONS, defeats Tetricus, and establishes his authority over the</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>west</td>
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<tr>
<td>272 Palmyra, defeats Zenobia and establishes his authority in the</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>east</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>274 The Ninth Persecution of the Christians,</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>275 Tacitus, an aged and worthy senator, made emperor,</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>277 Florianus—Probus checks the barbarians</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>283 Carus, Carinus, Numerian</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>284 Diocletian makes Nicomedia his seat—takes Maximianus as a</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colleague, who holds his court at Milan</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>296 Diocletian humbles the Persians—makes Tiridates king of Armenia</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>303 The Tenth and most severe Persecution of the Christians, when</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diocletian burns 600 in a church in Nicomedia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>304 Diocletian and his colleague abdicate.</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&quot; Constantius and Galerius succeed—several other emperors—great</td>
<td>162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>destruction of life by civil war</td>
<td>162-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Event</td>
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<tr>
<td>323</td>
<td>Constantine sole emperor, makes Christianity the religion of the Roman empire. Makes Byzantium (Constantinople) the seat of the empire.</td>
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<tr>
<td>325</td>
<td>First Ecclesiastical Council at Nice, condemn the opinions of Arius.</td>
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<tr>
<td>321</td>
<td>The heathen temples destroyed.</td>
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<td>337</td>
<td>Constantine, Constantius, Constans—sons of Constantine, but very inferior.</td>
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<td>360</td>
<td>Julian the Apostate. An able man. (Some reckon his continued ill usage of the Christians as the eleventh and twelfth persecutions.) He restores paganism and vainly endeavors to rebuild the temple.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>363</td>
<td>Jovian. 364 Valentinian and Valens. Christianity restored.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>375</td>
<td>Gratian.</td>
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<tr>
<td>376</td>
<td>Valens allows the Visigoths, (1,000,000 in number—200,000 warriors,) who are driven by the Huns under Attila, to cross the Danube and settle in the empire.</td>
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<td>378</td>
<td>Adrianople, the Visigoths under Fritigern, aided by the Ostrogoths, defeat Valens with the loss of two-thirds of his army.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>388</td>
<td>Theodosius, the last sole master of the Roman world. Domination of the church.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>395</td>
<td>Theodosius divides the Roman Empire into the Eastern and Western.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>402-3</td>
<td>Pollentia and Verona. Stilicho the general of Honorius, (Western emperor,) defeats Alaric, leader of the Visigoths.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>402-3</td>
<td>Honorius removes his capital from Milan to Ravenna.</td>
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<tr>
<td>406</td>
<td>Invasion of the German nations under Radagaisus. Repelled from Italy, but make themselves masters of Gaul, which is lost to the Roman empire.</td>
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<tr>
<td>410</td>
<td>Alaric takes and sacks Rome. Dies and is buried in the bed of a stream.</td>
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<td>412</td>
<td>Adolphus marries Placidia, and begins the kingdom of the Visigoths on each side of the Pyrenees.</td>
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<td>437</td>
<td>Genseric, leader of the Vandals, establishes a kingdom in Africa.</td>
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<td>438</td>
<td>Britain is abandoned by the Romans.</td>
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<td>449</td>
<td>Hengist and Horsa, with the Saxons, arrive in Britain.</td>
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<td>453</td>
<td>Chalons. Attila defeats Attila and the Huns, by the aid of Theodoric, king of the Visigoths.</td>
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<td>453</td>
<td>Venice founded.</td>
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<td>453</td>
<td>The death of Attila, which ends the great empire of the Huns.</td>
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<td>455</td>
<td>Genserio takes and pillages Rome. Treasures and vessels of the temple of Jerusalem brought to Rome by Titus, shipped for Carthage and lost at sea.</td>
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<td>461-76</td>
<td>Count Remer, the real sovereign, puts up several Roman emperors, of whom Augustulus Romulus is the last.</td>
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<td>476</td>
<td>Odoacer, the chief of the Heruli, becomes king of Rome.</td>
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<td>496</td>
<td>Clovis converted to Christianity—founds the kingdom of the Franks. (Introduces the Feudal System.)</td>
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<tr>
<td>A.D.</td>
<td>Page</td>
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<td>433</td>
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<td>877</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.**

**PERIOD I.**

- Theodoric the Great overcomes Odoacer, and founds "the kingdom of the Ostrogoths" in Italy, 188
- Justinian, emperor of the east, 180
- The first Monastery of the west at Monte Cassino, near Naples, 189
- Justinian's Code of Laws, 181
- "Belisarius, his general, conquers Gelimer, and puts an end to the kingdom of the Vandals in Africa, 180
- Narses, another of his generals, defeats Totila, and puts an end to the kingdom of the Ostrogoths in Italy, 181-89
- "Kingdom of the Lombards founded by Alboin, 189
- Ina, king of the West Saxons, assembles the Wittegenet, the germ of the British parliament, 186
- Mahomet begins his alleged mission, 182
- Heraclius, emperor of the east, invades Chosroes of Persia, who besieges Constantinople, 183
- "The Flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina, 193
- The Caliphate embraces nearly all which the Romans had possessed in the east, 194
- The caliph Omar conquers Egypt and destroys the Alexandrian library, 195
- Yezdegird, the last of the Sassanides, defeated by the caliph Othman, and Persia becomes a part of the caliphate, 195
- Caliph Moawiyah invades Constantinople, 197
- The invention of the Greek fire saves the city from the Mahometans, 197
- The Saracens conquer the Moors of Africa, 196
- XERES. Tarik, at the head of the Saracens from Africa, defeats Rodrick, the last of the Gothic kings, and makes Spain a part of the caliphate, 196
- TOURS. Charles Martel gains a great battle, and stops the progress of the Saracens, 196
- The Greek church from opposition to image worship, separates from the Roman or Latin church. (Final separation, 800,) 198
- Pepin takes the exarchate of Ravenna and gives it to the pope, which is the beginning of the popedom, 202
- Abdalrahman holds his splendid court at Cordova, 197
- Charlesdefeats Desiderius and puts an end to the kingdom of the Lombards, 201
- The infamous Irene restores image-worship in the Greek church, 198
- Charles subdues the Saxons. He conquers the Saracens in Spain as far as to the Ebro, 202

**PERIOD II.**

- The Coronation of Charles, 203
- Haroun al Raschid, sixth of the Abassides, caliph—his capital Bagdad. The Arabians in the east and in Spain, the most learned people in the world, 223
- Saxon Heptarchy united under Egbert, 208
- Downfall of the Empire of Charlemagne, 204
- Kenneth MacAlpine unites the sovereignty of the Picts and Scots, 214
- The Danish sea-kings begin to infest England, 208
- Alfred, totally defeated by the Danes, disguises himself, 209

**PERIOD III.**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.D.</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>878</td>
<td>ETHANDUNE. Alfred entirely defeats the Danes,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900</td>
<td>Alfred dies, having been the founder of British jurisprudence, literature, and its naval power,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>905</td>
<td>The Normans, under Rollo, take Neustria, afterwards called Normandy,</td>
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<tr>
<td>912</td>
<td>Five German nations confederate and elect an emperor, i.e. Conrad of Franconia,</td>
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<tr>
<td>936</td>
<td>OTHO THE GREAT extends the German power over Hungary, Bohemia, and Italy,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>950</td>
<td>St. Dunstan establishes monachism in England,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>961</td>
<td>Ghazni becomes the seat of an empire of which Mahmoud is the most powerful sultan,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>987</td>
<td>Hugh Capet the founder of a new dynasty in France,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1003</td>
<td>Massacre of the Danes by Ethelred, which</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1013</td>
<td>Sweyn avenges and becomes the first Danish king of England,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1017</td>
<td>ASSINGTON. Cnut defeats Edmund Ironside, and becomes king of England—he marries Emma of Normandy, widow of Ethelred—conquers Norway and Sweden,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1035</td>
<td>Sancho the Great unites the small Christian kingdoms in the north of Spain,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1056</td>
<td>Henry IV. of Germany, and the popes engaged in the War of the Investitures,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1060</td>
<td>Kingdom of Naples begun by Robert (Guiscard) of Normandy,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1066</td>
<td>HASTINGS. William of Normandy conquers Harold, and becomes the first of the Norman kings of England. About this time chivalry (knighthood) began in Normandy,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1074</td>
<td>The Turkish family of Seljouk take the principal eastern provinces of the caliphate. The caliphs lose their power,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1076</td>
<td>HILDEBRAND, (Gregory IV.) the most haughty of all, the popes, humbles Henry IV. of Germany,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1082</td>
<td>DURAZZO. Robert Guiscard defeats Alexius Comnenus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1090</td>
<td>&quot;The Old Man of the Mountains&quot; establishes the &quot;Assassins,&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1095</td>
<td>Peter the Hermit preaches a crusade against the Turks—pope Urban—Council of Clermont,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1096</td>
<td>First army of crusaders, under Walter the Penniless, are destroyed,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1099</td>
<td>Jerusalem taken by the crusaders,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1100</td>
<td>THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE CRUSADES,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1100</td>
<td>&quot;The kingdom of Jerusalem founded, and Godfrey of Bouillon, the principal leader, made king,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1130</td>
<td>Scholastic Philosophy attains its highest point by the teaching of Peter Abelard,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1141</td>
<td>Popes and emperors of Germany carry on their wars for supremacy, under the party watch-words of Guelphs and Ghibelines,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*In strictness, the era of the Crusades, like the Christian era, commenced four years before the time ordinarily reckoned. But it is much more convenient to the memory, and sufficiently correct, to state it at the beginning of the century.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1145</td>
<td>Noureddin makes himself master of Aleppo, Damascus, &amp;c.</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1147</td>
<td>The Second Crusade (to little effect) by Louis VII. of France</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1154</td>
<td>Henry II., son of Maud (d. of Henry I.) and Geoffrey Pantage net, head of the house of Plantagenet</td>
<td>236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1162</td>
<td>Milan destroyed by Frederic Barbarossa</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1164</td>
<td>Jenghiz Khan, the greatest of conquerors and murderers</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1170</td>
<td>Henry II. causes the death of Thomas-a-Becket</td>
<td>237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1172</td>
<td>Henry II. conquers Ireland</td>
<td>236</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1187</td>
<td>TIBERIAS. Saladin defeats the Christians and takes Jerusalem, which leads to the</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1188</td>
<td>Third Crusade, undertaken by Richard I., Philip Augustus, and Frederic Barbarossa</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1189</td>
<td>Siege of Acre, begun by Philip Augustus</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Richard I. takes Cyprus</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1192</td>
<td>Azotus. Richard, the lion-hearted, defeats Saladin</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1202</td>
<td>Fourth Crusade. Alexius Angelus asks the crusaders to reinstate his father at Constantinople. Dandolo, doge of Venice, and Baldwin of Flanders, take Constantinople, and Baldwin becomes the first Latin emperor.</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1215</td>
<td>Council at the Lateran, which directs secular princes to extirpate heretics</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1217</td>
<td>Fifth Crusade, by Andrew II. of Hungary, (fruitless,)</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1215</td>
<td>Magna Charta, signed by king John, at Runnymede</td>
<td>257</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1228</td>
<td>Sixth Crusade, by Frederic II. of Germany, who makes himself king of Jerusalem</td>
<td>445</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1209-23</td>
<td>Crusade against the Albigenesis, Waldenses, and Vallenses, headed by Simon de Montfort - 1,000,000 killed</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1236</td>
<td>Paper money introduced from China into Italy</td>
<td>299</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1240</td>
<td>Cimabue founds the Italian school in painting</td>
<td>296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1241</td>
<td>Hanseatic League</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1248</td>
<td>Seventh Crusade, by Louis IX. (Saint,)-fruitless</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1253</td>
<td>The Sicilians massacre the French-&quot;(&quot; the Sicilian Vespe,&quot;&quot;)</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1265</td>
<td>The first regular English parliament</td>
<td>259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1270</td>
<td>Eighth and last Crusade, by St. Louis and Edward I.</td>
<td>249-59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1273</td>
<td>Rudolph of Hapsburg (Guslph,) becomes emperor of Germany</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The founder of the house of Austria</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1235</td>
<td>Alfonso VI. of Spain and the Cid take Toledo</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1282</td>
<td>Edward I. conquers Wales</td>
<td>259</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1283</td>
<td>He adjudges the Scottish crown to Baliol</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1296</td>
<td>Edward I. wages war against Scotland, and is opposed by Wallace, who is taken and executed</td>
<td>260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1308</td>
<td>William Tell shoots Geier, and the Swiss rise against the Austrians</td>
<td>245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1314</td>
<td>Bannock-Burn. Bruce defeats Edward II., and frees Scotland</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1315</td>
<td>Morgarten. The Swiss defeat the Austrians and establish their independence</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1346</td>
<td>Rienzi attempts to restore the ancient republic in Rome</td>
<td>246</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1348</td>
<td>Great splendor of the Moorish kingdom of Granada. The Alhambra completed</td>
<td>273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1355</td>
<td>Constitution of Germany, called the &quot;Golden Bull,&quot; fixes the number of electors, and makes the electorates hereditary</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1333</td>
<td>Halidon-Hill. Baliol restored to the throne of Scotland, by Edward III. and Scottish nobles.</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1346</td>
<td>Cressy. Edward III. of England defeats the French. (He claims, through his mother Isabella, the French crown, and his invasion begins a struggle of 140 years.)</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Artillery first used at the battle of Cressy, (on the side of the English.)&quot;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1347</td>
<td>Edward III. takes Calais. (The six self-devoted burgheurs released by the intercession of the queen Philippa.)</td>
<td>251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1356</td>
<td>Poictiers. Edward the Black Prince (son of Edward III.), defeats and makes prisoner John, king of France.</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1359</td>
<td>Henry of Trastamara conquers Peter the Cruel. (His posterity, in two separate branches, govern Christian Spain till the two are reunited in Ferdinand and Isabella.)</td>
<td>274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1384</td>
<td>John Wickliffe, the great Reformer of England. (His followers called Lollards, are persecuted.)</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1402</td>
<td>Angora. Tamerlane, who had overrun Asia, defeats Bajazet the Ottoman Turk.</td>
<td>287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1414</td>
<td>John Huss, of Bohemia, proclaims the corruptions of the Romish church—is condemned (by the council of Constance) and burnt. (Huss goes to the council under the pledge of a safe conduct, which is shamefully violated.)</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1414</td>
<td>Agincourt. Henry V. conquers the French.</td>
<td>253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1416</td>
<td>Jerome of Prague is burnt for teaching the doctrines of the Reformation,</td>
<td>248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1417</td>
<td>James I., the royal bard of Scotland, released from prison.</td>
<td>296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1419</td>
<td>John of Burgundy murdered in the king's presence, at the bridge of Montereau.</td>
<td>253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1420</td>
<td>Treaty of Troyes, by which Henry of England is to marry Catherine of France and inherit that kingdom.</td>
<td>254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1424</td>
<td>The &quot;Maid of Orleans&quot; delivers Charles VII. from the English power.</td>
<td>254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1438 Discovery of the Art of Printing, when Lawrence Koster of Harlaem, and in 1442 John Fauast, performed imperfect specimens. John Gutenenberg invented cut metal types, and in 1444, Peter Schaffer cast the first metal types in matrices, and was therefore the inventor of complete printing.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1444</td>
<td>The Turks under Amurath gain a great battle over Ladialsa, John Hunnades and Scanderbeg, and establish themselves in Europe.</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1453</td>
<td>Constantinople taken by Mahomet II., which is the final downfall of the Greek empire.</td>
<td>289</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1459</td>
<td>ST. ALBANS. The second battle in the &quot;Wars of the Roses.&quot; The York, or white rose party, defeat the Lancaster, or red rose party, at the head of which is Margaret, queen of Henry VI.</td>
<td>269</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1460</td>
<td>The republic of Florence subjugated by the Medici.</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1461</td>
<td>Louis XI. humbles the French nobles.</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1467</td>
<td>Charles the Bold, of Burgundy, the richest sovereign of Europe,</td>
<td>256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1471</td>
<td>Tewkesbury. The Yorkists, after many battles of the white and red rose parties with alternate success, finally defeat Margaret and slay her son.—(1483 Edward V., 14 years old, king. His uncle, Richard, protector,)</td>
<td>271</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

1476 GRANSON—MORAT. Charles the Bold invades, and is defeated by the brave Swiss, - 256
1478 The Swiss erect a singular monument on the field of Morat, - 300
1479 Marriage of Isabella of Castile and Leon, to Ferdinand of Arragon, by which these kingdoms are united, - 276
1480 The Inquisition established at Seville in Spain, - 276
1481-92 War with the Moors of Grenada, which ends in the conquest of their kingdom by Ferdinand and Isabella, - 280
1485 BOSWORTH-FIELD. Richard III. defeated and slain. Henry VII. crowned on the field. (He being a Lancastrian, marries Elizabeth the heiress of York, and thus ends the war of the roses.) - 272
1486 Bartholomew Dias discovers the Cape of Good Hope, - 304
1492 The Jews (about 160,000) banished from Spain, - 279

PART III.

A. D.
1492 DISCOVERY OF AMERICA, - - 302
1493 Columbus' Second Voyage, contest with the natives, and bad conduct of the colonists, - - 303
1494 Charles VIII. of France invades and takes possession of Naples, 309.
1495 League of Venice against Charles VIII, - 309
" PAEMA. Charles VIII. defeats the allies and returns to France, 309
1497 The Cabota, in the service of the English, the first discoverers of the continent at Labrador, - - 304
" Alonso de Ojeda, carries over Amerigo Vespuccio, - - 304
1498 Vasco de Gama, in the service of the Portuguese, discovers the passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope, - 304
" Columbus' Third Voyage. He discovers the continent, - 304
1499 Louis XII. of France, marries Anne of Brittany. Conquers Milan, - - 309
" Cabral discovers for the Portuguese, Brazil, - - 304
1500 Bovadilla sent out to supersede Columbus, who is sent home in chains, - - 305
" League of Partition, between France and Spain, for dividing Naples, - - 310
1502-4 Columbus' Fourth and Last Voyage, - 305
1503 Pope Alexander II. dies a horrid death by drinking poison he had caused to be mingled for another, - 319
" Julius II., the warlike pope, succeeds him, - 317
1506 League of Cambrai. Instigated by pope Julius II., by which Venice is basely crushed, - 310
1509 Henry VIII. of England marries Catharine, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, and widow of his brother Arthur, - 323
1510 Holy League. The pope, the Venetians, Spanish and Swiss, league against France, - - 310
" RAVENNA. The forces of Louis XII., under his nephew Gaston de Foix, defeat the allies, - - 310
1512 Ferdinand, the Catholic, conquers Navarre from John D'Albret, 311
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1513</td>
<td>FLODDEN-FIELD. James IV. of Scotland defeated by the English under Surrey</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1515</td>
<td>MARIGNAN. Francis I. of France, defeats the Swiss in the service of Milan and recovers that city</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1516</td>
<td>Charles V., grandson of Ferdinand and Isabella, the Catholic, succeeds to the united crowns of Spain and Navarre, and in the right of his father to Austria, Burgundy, and the Low Countries</td>
<td>311</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1519</td>
<td>REFORMATION BEGUN by Luther in Germany, and Zwinglius in Switzerland</td>
<td>317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1520</td>
<td>Conquest of Mexico by Hernando Cortez</td>
<td>307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1521</td>
<td>Luther appears before the Diet at Worms</td>
<td>318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1522</td>
<td>Pope Adrian VI. (tutor of the emperor Charles V.) undertakes to reform the church</td>
<td>319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1523</td>
<td>Christian the Wicked, expelled from Sweden by Gustavus Vasa</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1525</td>
<td>PAVIA. Francis I. defeated by the troops of Charles V., now made emperor of Germany. Francis carried a prisoner to Spain</td>
<td>312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1526</td>
<td>Treaty of Madrid, by which Francis regained his freedom—violated—caused another war</td>
<td>312</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1526</td>
<td>Second Holy League, against the emperor Charles V.</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1529</td>
<td>Reformers protest against the decree of the Diets of Worms and Spires, and are called Protestants</td>
<td>319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1531</td>
<td>League of Smalkald. In which the protestant states of Germany form a political alliance</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1525–39</td>
<td>Henry VIII. seeks of the pope a divorce from his virtuous wife, Catharine of Arragon, that he may marry Anne Boleyn, which causes the English reformation</td>
<td>324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1534–5</td>
<td>Shameful excesses of the Anabaptists, under Munzer, at Muhlhausen—50,000 lives lost—Munzer slain in battle</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1535</td>
<td>Charles V. defeats the pirates of the Barbary Coast; releases 20,000 Christian captives; takes Tunis</td>
<td>314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Sir Thomas More executed for declining to give his opinion touching the divorce, and the supremacy over the church claimed by the king. Bishop Fisher also executed</td>
<td>320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1540</td>
<td>Ignatius Loyola obtains the sanction of the pope and founds the order of Jesuits</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1542</td>
<td>HADDONRIG. James V. of Scotland defeats the English, but at Solway Moss his troops flee shamefully, and he dies of chagrin a few days after the birth of his daughter, afterwards Mary queen of Scots</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1549</td>
<td>(1549 Died NICHOLAS COPERNICUS, a native of Thorn, in Poland, teacher of the true solar system.)</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1543</td>
<td>Francis I. of France dies, leaving his crown to his son Henry II.</td>
<td>321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1544</td>
<td>Peace of Crespi. The French give up Italy and close the wars between Charles and Francis</td>
<td>315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1545</td>
<td>The Council of Trent</td>
<td>321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1546</td>
<td>Ivan the Terrible, of the house of Ruric, czar of Russia</td>
<td>393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1547</td>
<td>Edward VI. succeeds his father, Henry VIII.—1549 Liturgy completed</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1552</td>
<td>Peace of Passau, establishes protestantism</td>
<td>322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1553</td>
<td>The bloody Mary, queen of England</td>
<td>326</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

1555 John Rogers burnt at Smithfield as a heretic; also the bishops Latimer, Ridley, Hooper and Cranmer, and nearly 300 others, 397

1556 Charles V. abdicates in favor of his son Philip, 322

1558 Ferdinand I. succeeds his brother Charles V. as emperor of Germany, 345

1558 Elizabeth of England succeeds Mary, 327

1559 Peace of Chateau Cambresis, 337

1559 Francis II., husband of Mary queen of Scots, succeeds Henry II. in France, 337

1560 Charles IX. succeeds in France,—his mother, Catharine de Medici, regent, 338

1561 Mary queen of Scots returns to Scotland, 330

" John Knox heads the protestant reformers of Scotland, 331

1563 DREUX. The catholics of France, under the dukes of Guise and Montmorenci, defeat the protestants under Condé and Coligny, 339

1565 Mary queen of Scots marries Darnley, 331

1566 The Holy League, formed in France, for the extirpation of heresy, 339

" Murder of Rizzio, 331

1567 Murder of Darnley by Bothwell, whom Mary marries, 331

" The Netherlands revolt against Philip of Spain, 334

1568 ST. DENNIS.—1569 JARMAC.—MONCONTOUR. Protestants, in France, defeated by the catholics, 339-40

1568 Mary queen of Scots takes refuge in England after the defeat of her forces at Glasgow, 333

1571 The Turks conquer Cyprus, 346

1572 August 17. Marriage of Henry of Navarre with Margaret, daughter of Catharine de Medici, 341

" August 24. The Massacre of St. Bartholomew, 341

1572 In Poland, the accession of Sigismund II., the last of the dynasty of the Jagellons, 328

1572 Sir Francis Drake circumnavigates the globe, 333

1574 Remorse and death of Charles IX. Succeeded by his brother the duke of Anjou, Henry III. 341

1576 KEPLER and TYCHO BRAHE, encouraged by Rodolph II., emperor of Germany, 345

" The League. (Wars occurring between the protestants, commanded by Henry of Navarre, and catholics, by the Guises, called wars of the League,) 341

1578 Queen Elizabeth grants to Sir H. Gilbert, the first patent granted by an English sovereign to lands in America, 334

1579 Commencement of the republic of Holland in the union of seven provinces, 335

1580 Portugal united to Spain, 337

1587 Sir Francis Walsingham, by causing the Spanish bills to be protested at Genoa, hinders the Spanish armada a year, 333

1587 Mary queen of Scots executed, 338

1588 Destruction of the Spanish armada, 333

1589 Henry III. assassinated, names as successor, Henry of Navarre, 349

" ARQUES.—1590 IVRY. Henry IV. defeats the leaguers, 349-42
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A.D.</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1590</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1594</td>
<td>343</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1598</td>
<td>344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1600</td>
<td>344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1605</td>
<td>356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1606</td>
<td>357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1607</td>
<td>357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1609</td>
<td>356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1610</td>
<td>345</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1611</td>
<td>354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1612</td>
<td>349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1613</td>
<td>393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1614</td>
<td>354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1616</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1617</td>
<td>355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1619</td>
<td>349</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1620</td>
<td>366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1621</td>
<td>365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1625</td>
<td>359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1627</td>
<td>366</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1628</td>
<td>365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1629</td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1631</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1632</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1633</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1634</td>
<td>366</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERIOD II.</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1590 Henry IV. besieges Paris, which is relieved by the duke of Parma at the head of the Spanish army of the Netherlands, - 343</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1594 Henry IV. is reconciled to the church of Rome, and the catholics acknowledge his sovereignty, - - - 343</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1598 Edict of Nantes, by which Henry satisfies the French protestants, - - - - 344</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace of Vervins, between France and Spain, - - 344</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disinterested character and wise policy of Henry's prime minister, the duke of Sully, - - - 344</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1600 Union of the Scottish and English crowns in James I. of England, (VI. of Scotland,) who succeeds Elizabeth, - - 356</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1605 The Gunpowder Plot. Lord Montague. Guy Fawkes, - - 357</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1606 The independence of Holland established, - - 357</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1607 Jamestown in Virginia settled by Capt. Smith and others, - - 365</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1609 Hudson river discovered by Henry Hudson, - - 366</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PART III.</th>
<th>PAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1610 Henry IV. assassinated by Ravillac, at the instigation of the Jesuits, - - - - 345</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louis XIII. (son)—his mother, the weak Mary de Medic, regent, - - - 354</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1611 Nearly a million of Moors or Moriscoes expelled from Spain, - 353</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1612 The princes of Germany form the Evangelical Union, and make war upon Matthias, emperor of Germany, which proves the beginning of the Thirty Years' War, - 349</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1613 Michael Romanoff called to the throne of Russia, is the founder of a new dynasty, - - - - 393</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1614 New York settled by the Dutch. — 1615 Albany, - - 366</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Last meeting of the States General in France, previous to the revolution, - - - - 354</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1616 The parliament of England assume an independent tone, - 358</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1617 Concini, marshal d'Ancre, assassinated by consent of Louis XIII. 355</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1619 Frederic V., elector palatine, (son-in-law of James I.) vainly attempts to withstand the united power of the house of Austria, 349</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1620 The Pilgrims (persecuted English dissenters) settle Plymouth, in America. They sign the first written constitution of America before leaving their vessel, - - 365</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prague. The elector palatine defeated by the imperialists under Tilly, - - - 349</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France, under the influence of cardinal Richelieu, unites with the hero of Sweden, Gustavus Adolphus, - - 350</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1621 Richelieu, in France, stirs up a war against the Huguenots, - 355</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1625 Charles I. succeeds his father, James I., - - 359</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1627 Swedes and Finlanders settle Delaware, - - 366</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1628 Salem in Massachusetts settled. — 1630 Boston, - - 365</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assassination of the duke of Buckingham, the unworthy court favorite, - - - - 360</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1629 Charles contends with parliament, being determined to reign absolute, - - - - 36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1631 Leipzig. Gustavus Adolphus defeats the imperialists, - - - 350</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1632 LUTZEN, Nov. 6. Gustavus Adolphus defeats the imperialists, but is slain, - - - 350</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland settled by a colony of catholics under lord Baltimore, 366</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1633</td>
<td>Accession of archbishop Laud, who carries the persecution of the puritans to a high pitch. (Old popish ceremonies revived. Clergy required to read in their churches the Book of Sports or Sunday Pastimes. Great numbers of ministers ejected. Hooker and others emigrate to America.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1634</td>
<td>NORDLINGEN. The imperialists defeat the confederates under Horn and Saxe-Weimar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1636</td>
<td>Hartford in Connecticut, and Providence in Rhode Island, settled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1636</td>
<td>WITTSOCK.—1637 BRISAC.—1640 CHEMNITZ.—BRANDEIZ. The Swedes under Bannier, with their confederates, victorious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1638</td>
<td>The Solemn League and Covenant, formed in Scotland, against the prelatic tyranny of the English church</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1639</td>
<td>John Hampden takes a noble stand against the usurpations of the crown in England</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1639</td>
<td>New Haven settled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1640</td>
<td>Nov. 3. The Long Parliament convenes. Pym carries to the house of lords the impeachment of Thomas Wentworth, earl of Strafford. Laud is also impeached</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1641</td>
<td>The house of Braganza reign in Portugal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1641</td>
<td>Montreal founded. The Jesuits go out from it to christianize the Indians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1641</td>
<td>WOLFENBUTTEL.—1645 THABOR. The Swedes, under Torstenson, victorious</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1641</td>
<td>May 12. Strafford beheaded on Tower-hill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1642</td>
<td>&quot;The Long Parliament subvert the constitution by assuming sovereignty,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1642</td>
<td>The king attempts to take five members, but fails, and civil war ensues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1643</td>
<td>EDGE-HILL. Indecisive. The first battle of the civil war between the king and people of Great Britain. Several others indecisive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1644</td>
<td>MARSTON-MOOR. The royalists totally defeated by the parliamentary leaders, CROMWELL and Fairfax</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1645</td>
<td>NASEBY. Charles commands in person, and is finally and utterly defeated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1645</td>
<td>MARIENDAL. The imperialists defeat the French under Turenne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1646</td>
<td>NORDLINGEN.—1647 ZUNNERHAUSEN. The French under Turenne defeat the imperialists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1647</td>
<td>Charles a prisoner to Oliver Cromwell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1648</td>
<td>Treaty of Westphalia, closes the Thirty Years' War</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1648-53</td>
<td>Wars of the Fronde, in France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1649</td>
<td>Cromwell subdues the royalists in Ireland</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1650</td>
<td>May 21. The marquis of Montrose hung by the Scottish covenants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1651</td>
<td>July 15. Charles II. lands in Scotland and is proclaimed king</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1651</td>
<td>Sept. 3. DUNBAR. Cromwell defeats the Scots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1651</td>
<td>Sept. 3. WORCESTER. Cromwell again defeats the Scots, when Charles' affairs becoming desperate, he disguises him self and escapes. (Is concealed in an oak, &amp;c.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Chronological Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1653</td>
<td>Cromwell turns out &quot;the Rump Parliament&quot; at the point of the bayonet, and becomes protector of the commonwealth.</td>
<td>371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1653</td>
<td>Naval war between England and Holland. Seven naval actions in a year. Dutch admirals, Van Tromp and De Ruyter—English, Blake and Monk,</td>
<td>371-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1654</td>
<td>Christians, daughter of Gustavus Adolphus—reigns the crown of Sweden to Charles Gustavus,</td>
<td>369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1657</td>
<td>Charles X. (Charles Gustavus,) conquers John Casimir of Poland. He is restored by the &quot;Peace of Oliva,&quot;</td>
<td>365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1658</td>
<td>Dunkirk conquered from the Spaniards by the French, and the English, sent by Cromwell to their aid. It is yielded to the English,</td>
<td>369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1658</td>
<td>Aug. 12. Died Oliver Cromwell,</td>
<td>373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1659</td>
<td>Peace of the Pyrenees, between France and Spain,</td>
<td>369</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1660</td>
<td>Charles II. being brought back by general Monk, is peaceably received as king of Great Britain—hence this period is quoted in English history as &quot;the Restoration,&quot;</td>
<td>372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1661</td>
<td>Charles shows the faithlessness of his character in the failure of his engagements to the Scots in reference to church matters,</td>
<td>373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1662</td>
<td>Winthrop of Connecticut, son of the governor of Massachusetts, pleases Charles II., and obtains a liberal charter for Connecticut,</td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1664</td>
<td>Charles makes war with the Dutch.—New York taken by colonel Nichols, from the Dutch governor Stuyvesant,</td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1665</td>
<td>Terrible plague in London,—nearly 100,000 victims,</td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1666</td>
<td>Sept. 2, 3, 4 and 5,—13,000 buildings consumed by fire in London,</td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1666</td>
<td>Peace of Breda, closes the famous naval war between the English and Dutch,</td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1667</td>
<td>Charles II. gives to Monk, (now the earl of Albemarle,) lord Shaftesbury, and others, a patent of the southern section of the American republic,</td>
<td>374</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1668</td>
<td>Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, consented to by Louis XIV., because the Triple Alliance, by England, Holland and Sweden, had been made against him. The peace was soon violated by Louis, with whom Charles II. makes a shameful secret league,</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1672</td>
<td>SOLBAY. French and English against the Dutch under De Ruyter. A naval action,</td>
<td>376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1673</td>
<td>The two De Witts murdered by their countrymen,</td>
<td>377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1673</td>
<td>Marquette sails down the Wisconsin to the Mississippi,—discovers the mouths of the Illinois, Missouri, Ohio, Arkansas, &amp;c.,</td>
<td>378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1674</td>
<td>CHOCZIM. John Sobieski defeats the Turks,</td>
<td>393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1674</td>
<td>SENEFFE, in Brabant. Prince of Condé commands against the prince of Orange. Indecisive—20,000 killed,</td>
<td>377</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1675-6</td>
<td>Great distress in New England on account of king Philip's war,</td>
<td>381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1676</td>
<td>A rebellion in Virginia, headed by Nathaniel Bacon,</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1678</td>
<td>Peace of Nimeguen. Holland retains her territories,</td>
<td>378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1679</td>
<td>Scottish covenanters defeat Graham of Claverhouse at Drumclog,</td>
<td>381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1682</td>
<td>They are defeated by the duke of Monmouth at Bothwell-bridge,</td>
<td>382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1683</td>
<td>William Penn founds Philadelphia,</td>
<td>382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1683</td>
<td>Peter the Great becomes czar of Russia,—</td>
<td>393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1683</td>
<td>Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney suffer death for opposing tyranny,</td>
<td>381-9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1683</td>
<td>Vienna. John Sobieski, (a second Charles Martel,) defeats the Turks. The Mahometans thus stayed in their progress of conquest.</td>
<td>373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1685</td>
<td>Charles II. succeeded by James II.</td>
<td>383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;James II. sends Sir Edmnd Andros to be governor general in New England.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1686</td>
<td>League of Augsburg. Holland, Spain and England against France.</td>
<td>379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1688</td>
<td>The English Revolution,—when the people by rejecting James II. as their king, and calling in William III., prince of Orange, virtually changed their constitution, by setting aside the divine right of kings, and declaring that of an oppressed people to change their rulers,</td>
<td>383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1689</td>
<td>Killiecrankie. The Scots, under viscount Dundee, hold out for James—defeat the forces of William—Dundee slain,</td>
<td>384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;The Boyne. The Irish, commanded by James in person, defeated by the English under William,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1690</td>
<td>Schenectady and other places destroyed by the French and Indians,</td>
<td>385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1691</td>
<td>Saluces.—Fleurus. French victorious. Also, Of Beachy-Head,</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Anne succeeds William III.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1692</td>
<td>Of La Hogue.—Steenkirk. The English victorious,</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1693</td>
<td>Widdin. The French and Turks allied, defeated by the English,</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1693</td>
<td>(Massacre of Glencoe) in Scotland. Macdonald and many other highlanders were butchered in cold blood by the English after they had surrendered themselves and taken the prescribed oath,</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1694</td>
<td>Neerwinden. King William of England commands against the French general Luxembourg,—is defeated,</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Turks take Belgrade, Upper Hungary, and are again the terror of Europe,</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1697</td>
<td>Peter of Russia sets out on his travels in the suite of his favorite, Le Fort. Goes to Holland to learn ship building. William Penn visits him in London,</td>
<td>395</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Peace of Ryswick. Pecuniary embarrassments oblige the French and English to make peace and they mutually restore conquests,</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Zenta. Prince Eugene, at the head of the German forces, defeats the Turks—their loss 30,000—they never recover, and at the</td>
<td>380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Peace of Carlowitz, they relinquish some of their conquests, Treaty of Partition. England, France and Holland against Spain,</td>
<td>381</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1698</td>
<td>Second Treaty of Partition, against Spain,</td>
<td>386</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1700</td>
<td>Charles II. of Spain leaves his dominions to Philip of Anjou, grandson to Louis XIV., which gives rise to the wars of the Spanish succession,</td>
<td>386</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1701</td>
<td>Narva. Charles XII. of Sweden defeats the Russians,</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;The Grand Alliance, by England, Holland, and Germany, to preserve the balance of power—it being thought it would be endangered if the Bourbons ruled in both France and Spain,</td>
<td>387</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A.D.
1708 The Alliance declares war against France, 397
"Near the DWINA.—GLISSAU.—Charles XII. defeats Augustus king of Poland, 396
"Mobile founded by d'Ibelville, 423
1703 HOCHESTADT. French under Villars defeat the allies, 387
"Peter the Great founds St. Petersburg, 397
1704 BLENHEIM. The allies, commanded by Marlborough, gain a great victory over the French, who lose 40,000, 388
"Deerfield, in Massachusetts, destroyed, 391
706 Peace of Alt Ranstadt, between Charles XII. and Augustus—in which the latter gives up colonel Poth, who is executed, 397
1707 ALMANZA. The French and Spanish, commanded by the duke of Berwick, defeat the allies, 389
1708 OUDENARDE. Marlborough defeats the French under Vendome, 389
1709 PULTOWA. Peter the Great defeats Charles XII., who flies to the Turks, 396
"MINSK. Marlborough and prince Eugene obtain a hard-fought field from Villars, the French commander, 390
1711 May 21. At the PRUTH. Peter the Great rashly advances against the Turks, and is saved, with his army, by the czarina Catharine. Gives up his posts on the sea of Azof, 398
"Charles of Austria becomes emperor of Germany, 390
"In England, queen Anne, no longer attached to the duchess of Marlborough, falls under the influence of the tories, and inclines to peace, 391

1713 Peace of Utrecht. Closes the War of the Spanish Succession, 391
"Death of queen Anne, and accession of George I. of the house of Brunswick, 409
1714 Peace of Rastadt, between Germany and France, 391
1715 PRESTON.—SHERIFF.—MUIR. The forces of the pretender (son of James II.,) are defeated, 410
1718 Peace of Passarowitz. The Turks cede to Austria Belgrade, part of Servia and Wallachia. They receive from Venice the Morea, 404
"Death of Charles XII., and elevation of his sister Ulrica Eleonora to the throne of Sweden, 400
"Quadruple Alliance. England, France, Austria and Holland against Spain, 404
1719 Peter the Great sends an embassy to China, 400
1720 South Sea Scheme—a great speculating hoax, which is the means of much pecuniary distress, 410
1721 Peter takes the title of "Emperor of all the Russians," 400
1733 War of the Polish succession in favor of Stanislaus Leszinski—who finally relinquishes the crown to Augustus II., 404
1735 The Pragmatic Sanction, to secure the Austrian succession to Maria Theresa, 404
1740 War of the Austrian Succession—Frederic II. of Prussia invades Silesia, 405
1741 MOLLWITZ. Frederic victorious, obtains possession of Silesia, 406
"League of Prussia, France, and Bavaria, against Maria Theresa, 405
## CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1742</td>
<td>Peace of Breslau. Frederic II. violates the alliance, and makes peace with Maria Theresa, who cedes to him Silesia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1743</td>
<td>DETTINGEN. English in alliance with the Austrians defeat the French. George II. commands in person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1745</td>
<td>PRESTON-PANS.—FALKIRK.—The forces of the young pretender defeat the Royalists, Frédéric II. again joins the enemies of Maria Theresa, and wins the battles of FRIEDBERG and SORR.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1746</td>
<td>CULLODEN. The friends of the young pretender totally defeated by the duke of Cumberland.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1748</td>
<td>PEACE OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE closes the war of the Austrian succession, or &quot;Eight years' War,&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1750</td>
<td>Ohio Company chartered.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1753</td>
<td>Major George Washington crosses the wilderness to bear a letter to the French commandant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1754</td>
<td>Congress meet at Albany—FRANKLIN's plan of union rejected both in England and America.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1755</td>
<td>Earthquake at Lisbon.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1756</td>
<td>BEADDOCK'S-FIELD. Braddock's defeat and Washington's preservation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1757</td>
<td>FORT EDWARD. Johnson and Lymen defeat the French under baron Dieskau.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1758</td>
<td>The Black Hole of Calcutta, where Surajah shuts up his English prisoners to die for want of air.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1759</td>
<td>&quot;The Seven Years' War&quot; begins, known in America as the French war.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1757</td>
<td>Massacre of Fort William Henry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1760</td>
<td>PLASSEY. Clive defeats Surajah Dowlah, and the British empire of India is founded.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1762</td>
<td>The French conquer Hanover.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1763</td>
<td>PRAGUE. Frederic victorious over the Austrians.—KOLIN. He is defeated by them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1764</td>
<td>ZORNDORF. Frederic defeats the Russians.—HOCH-KIRCHEN. He is defeated by the Austrians.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1773</td>
<td>CUNNERSDORF. Frederic defeated by the Russians and Austrians.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1774</td>
<td>LIGNITZ.—TORQUA. He defeats the Austrians.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1776</td>
<td>HEIGHTS OF ABRAHAM. Wolfe defeats Montcalm. The conquest of all Canada, by the English, follows.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1777</td>
<td>Family Compact between the Bourbons of France and Spain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1778</td>
<td>Peter III. emperor of Russia. His wife Catharine, supposed to be concerned in his death, succeeds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1765</td>
<td>The Stamp Act.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1771</td>
<td>First Partition of Poland, by Russia, Prussia, and Austria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1773</td>
<td>Teak thrown overboard at Boston.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1774</td>
<td>Louis XVI. becomes king of France. The kingdom overwhelmed with debt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1775</td>
<td>LEXINGTON. First blood shed of the war of the American revolution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>June 15, Washington made commander-in-chief.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>June 17, BUNKER'S HILL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Montgomery and Arnold command an expedition against Canada. Montgomery killed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1776</td>
<td>July 4, AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE DECLARED.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>August 27, BROOKLYN. Americans defeated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>December 26-27, TRENTON. Washington victorious.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1777</td>
<td>January 3, PRINCETON. Washington successful.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BRANDYWINE.—GERMANTOWN. British victorious.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BENNINGTON.—STILL-WATER.—SARATOGA. Americans victorious. Burgoyne surrenders his army.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Treaty with France.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1778</td>
<td>MONMOUTH. Americans victorious.—SAVANNAH. They are defeated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1780</td>
<td>CAMDEN. Cornwallis defeats Gates.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GUILFORD C. H. Greene and Cornwallis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sir Eyre Coote conquers Hyder Ali, and takes Seringapatam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1781</td>
<td>YORKTOWN. Washington invests Cornwallis and captures his whole army.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1783</td>
<td>Peace of Paris.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1787</td>
<td>Convention at Philadelphia frame the AMERICAN CONSTITUTION.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1788</td>
<td>Terrible storm in France—causes famine and hastens the revolution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1789</td>
<td>March 4, Washington and John Adams first president and vice-president.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>May 5, The states general convene at Versailles. The French Revolution begins.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oct. 5, The mob at Versailles—women crying, &quot;bread! bread!&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1790</td>
<td>The &quot;National Constituent Assembly&quot; form a constitution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1791</td>
<td>Escape of the royal family. Seized at Varennes and brought back to Paris.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The National Constituent Assembly dissolved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oct. 14, The Legislative Assembly convene in Paris.—Roland. The Jacobins.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1792</td>
<td>March 20, The French declare war against the Austrians. Lafayette vainly seeks to save the king and constitution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aug. 10, The Tuileries attacked. The royal family take refuge in the Assembly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sept. 2, Having been threatened with destruction by the duke of Brunswick, the Parisians massacre the royalists.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sept. 20, The French Republic begins, monarchy being abolished by the National Convention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1793</td>
<td>Jan. 21, Louis XVI. beheaded. The &quot;Infernal Triumvirate,&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;The reign of Terror,&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The First Coalition against France. All the European powers except Sweden, Denmark and Turkey.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VALMY. Dumourier defeats the allies. (Louis Philip distinguishes himself.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Washington and John Adams re-elected president and vice-president.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Period</td>
<td>Event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>The National Convention abolish the Sabbath, and attempt to overturn Christianity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Charlotte Corday kills Marat. Robespierre destroys Danton.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Convention guillotine Robespierre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In America-British retain forts.—Wayne’s War.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jay’s Treaty,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nov. 1, The Directory formed.—Napoleon Bonaparte.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bonaparte’s first brilliant campaign.—Monte Notte—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Millesino—Mondovi—Lodi—Lonato—Cas-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tiglione—Medola—Roveredo—Bassano—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Caldiero—Arcola</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monte Baldo—Rivoli</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oct. 17, Peace of Campo Formio,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Italy, Switzerland and Holland, conquered countries, cut up into governments which the French called republics.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Pyramids. Bonaparte conquers the Mamelukes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>On the Nile. Nelson with a British fleet totally defeats the French.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second Coalition. England, Russia, Austria, &amp;c., against France.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nov. 11, Directory abolished.—The Consulate—Bonnaparte first consul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dec. 14, Death of Washington</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>June 14, MARENGO. Bonaparte defeats the Austrians under Melas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nov. 3, HOHENLINDEN. Moreau defeats the Austrians.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jan. 1, Peace of Lunéville, between France and Austria.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alexander succeeds Paul as emperor of Russia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Peace of Amiens. (England agrees to restore Malta to France.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>England refuses to restore Malta. French seize Hanover. British blockade the mouths of the Elbe and Weser,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bonaparte appointed first consul for life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NAPOLeON’S CORONATION,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third Coalition. England subsidizes Austria and Russia against France,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oct. 18, ULM.—Dec. 2, Austerlitz. N. defeats the Aus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trafalgar. English defeat the French—Nelson killed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dec. 27, Peace of Pressburg, between Austria and France.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Confederation of the Rhine,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>German Empire ceases to exist. The emperor Francis II. takes the title of emperor of Austria,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth Coalition. England and Prussia against France.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oct. 14, JENA. Napoleon totally defeats the Prussians,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dec. 26, Napoleon’s Berlin Decree against neutral commerce,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The British Orders in Council,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feb. 8, Eylau.—June, Friedland. Napoleon defeats the Russians,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Peace of Tilsit. (Napoleon strips Prussia of the kingdom of Westphalia for his brother Jerome.)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Those in capitals, Bonaparte’s victories; those in italics, his defeats.
### CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. D.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1807–8</td>
<td>The English take possession of the Danish fleet,</td>
<td>453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Napoleon sends an army to Portugal. The royal family emigrate to Brazil, &quot;</td>
<td>453</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1808</td>
<td>Napoleon meets Ferdinand, king of Spain, at Bayonne, and compels him to abdicate,</td>
<td>454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;The Spanish patriots defeat the French, &quot;</td>
<td>455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;VINEIRA. English under Wellesley defeat the French, &quot;</td>
<td>455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1809</td>
<td>CORUNNA. English defeated. Sir John Moore's death,</td>
<td>455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Fifth Coalition against France. England, Austria, &amp;c., &quot;</td>
<td>456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;ABENSENBURG, LANDSHUT, ECKMUHL, Aspern, Beilsing, WAGRAM. Battles between the French under Napoleon, and the Austrians, &quot;</td>
<td>456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Peace of Vienna,—followed by the divorce of Josephine, and Napoleon's marriage to Maria Louisa, &quot;</td>
<td>456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;TALAVERA. Wellesley defeats the French, &quot;</td>
<td>457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1812</td>
<td>America declares war against England, on account of spoliations of commerce, and impressment of seamen, &quot;</td>
<td>463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Napoleon invades Russia with half a million of men, &quot;</td>
<td>458</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Aug. 17, SMOLENSKO.—Sept. 7, BORODINO. The French defeat the Russians, &quot;</td>
<td>459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Sept. 14, The burning of Moscow, &quot;</td>
<td>459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Oct. 19, Napoleon begins his disastrous retreat from Russia, &quot;</td>
<td>459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Nov. 28, Passage of the Berezina, &quot;</td>
<td>459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;DETROIT.—QUEENSTOWN. The Americans unsuccessful, &quot;</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;At sea they take the Guerriere and Macedonian frigates, &quot;</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Earthquake at Caracas impedes the revolution, &quot;</td>
<td>471</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1813</td>
<td>The Massacre of FRENCHTOWN,</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;YORK.—LAKE ERIE.—Near the THAMES. Americans victorious, &quot;</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;The Sixth and Grand Coalition against France, &quot;</td>
<td>460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;May 2, LUTZEN.—May 19, BAUTZEN.—Oct. 15, Leipzig. Battles between the French under Napoleon, and the allied armies, &quot;</td>
<td>460</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1814</td>
<td>March 31. The allies enter Paris,</td>
<td>461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;April 11. Napoleon abdicates. He goes to Elba. Louis XVIII. king of France, &quot;</td>
<td>462</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;CHIPPEWA.—BRIDGEWATER.—PLATTSBURG BAY. Americans victorious, &quot;</td>
<td>466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;British take Washington and burn the public buildings, &quot;</td>
<td>467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1815</td>
<td>Jan. 8, NEW ORLEANS. Americans, under Jackson, victorious, &quot;</td>
<td>467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Peace of Ghent, between England and America, &quot;</td>
<td>468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;March 1, Napoleon lands in France. His reign of a hundred days, &quot;</td>
<td>469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;June 18, WATERLOO. Napoleon defeated by the allies under Wellington, &quot;</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;July 15, Napoleon delivers himself to the English and is sent to St. Helena, &quot;</td>
<td>464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Brazil independent of Portugal. Pedro I. is king, &quot;</td>
<td>469</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Americans chastise the Algerines, &quot;</td>
<td>488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1818</td>
<td>Congress of Sovereigns (&quot;Holy Alliance,&quot;') at Aix-la-Chapelle, &quot;</td>
<td>404</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

PART III.

PERIOD IX.

Older His. A.D.

Page

1819 "Manchester riots." Military execution or massacre of 400 persons, - - - - - 478
1819-20 American republic obtains Florida of Spain, - - - - - 489
1820 George IV. succeeds his father, - - - - - 478
1820-1 Struggles of the people in various parts of Europe for constitutional liberty, - - - - - 474
1821 May 5, Death of Napoleon at St. Helena, - - - - - 1464
1823 Congress at Verona. England takes a stand against the aggressions of the Holy Alliance, - - - - - 479
"The Greeks having rebelled against the Turks, form a government, - - - - - 475
"Massacre of Scio. 70,000 killed and made prisoners, - - - - - 475
1823 Iturbide having been made emperor of Mexico, is compelled to abdicate, - - - - - 472
1824 Lord Byron dies at Missolonghi, - - - - - 476
1825 Peace of Yandabu, by which England gains a portion of the Birman empire, - - - - - 481
1824-5 Lafayette in America. "The Nation's Guest," - - - - - 489
1826 July 4, Death of John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, - - - - - 490
1827 The Treaty of London. By which England, France, and Russia regulate the affairs of Greece, - - - - - 476
"NAVARINO. These powers defeat the Turks and compel the sultan to liberate the Greeks, - - - - - 479
1829 Catholic Relief Bill passes the British parliament, - - - - - 479
1830 William IV. succeeds George IV. in England, - - - - - 480
"July 26-7-8, Three Days Revolution in Paris. Louis Philip made king, - - - - - 486
1831 Pedro I. of Brazil, abdicates in favor of his son Pedro II., and goes to Portugal to establish his daughter Maria in that kingdom, - - - - - 470
1830-1 Attempted revolution in Poland, - - - - - 487
1832 Reform Bill passes the British parliament, by which the "rotten boroughs" are disfranchised, and Manchester and other cities represented, - - - - - 486
"General Jackson vetoes the National Bank, - - - - - 491
"Belgium independent. Leopold made king, - - - - - 487
"Peace of Adrianople, between the Turks and Russians. Advantageous to Russia, - - - - - 485
"KONIEH. Ibrahim of Egypt defeats the Turks. England and other powers prevent Egypt from becoming independent, - - - - - 485
1833 Slavery abolished in the British colonies, - - - - - 480
"In Spain, Ferdinand VII. succeeded by Isabella II. - - - - - 486
"Santa Ana at the head of affairs in Mexico, - - - - - 472
"British interfere to protect their merchants in an unrighteous traffic in opium, and compel the Chinese government to pay a large indemnity, give up the island of Hong-Kong, &c. - - 482
1834 Quadruple Alliance. England and France unite with Portugal and Spain to uphold constitutional government under the young queens Maria and Isabella II. - - - - - 470
"A decree made in Greece to encourage female education, - - - - - 477
1835 The Florida War, - - - - - 492
1836 March 2, Texas declares independence, - - - - - 474
Study of the Chronological Illustrations.

The Temple of Time (see Frontispiece) is the perspective delineation of a grand imaginary edifice, which represents the whole of Time from the creation of the world to the present day.

Each pillar or column represents a century. The Christian era (or the birth of Christ) is here represented by a star *. Beginning at the distance of this star, from the foreground, the columns representing centuries are numbered 1st, 2d, 3d, to 19th, which is the number of the present century. That is left not quite half finished, as now (1844,) there remains 1/2 of the century to be accomplished. Beyond the time of Christ the pillars should be numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. to 40—there being forty centuries before Christ. The dividing of the pillars into groups of ten each, a group indicating 1000 years, helps the memory. The increased space between the pillars, filled at the lower part by a statue, marks these divisions. The same division is made sensible on the roof and floor by lines. There are four of these groups before the Christian era, after it one entire group, and almost another. The part of the roof and floor-work, between the two unfinished pillars of the 19th century, represents time which belongs to the 19th century, and so with respect to the 18th, 17th, &c.

On the right hand side of the Temple, the unfinished pillar of the 19th century is inscribed with the name of Napoleon—the man who possessed the most political power, and who has been the most distinguished sovereign of this age on the Eastern continent. On the corresponding unfinished column at the left hand we have placed the name of Bolivar, as being the most distinguished person, and possessing the most political power of any individual on the Western continent, of the 19th century; especially of those not now living. On the pillar of the 18th century, on the side which we have taken for the American, is inscribed the name of Washington; and on that taken for the chronology of the Eastern continent, the names of Peter the Great and Frederick the Great. On the roof are names of the most distinguished persons of the world set down in five different classes. In the class nearest the right hand columns are the most distinguished military commanders of their age; the next embraces the greatest poets and painters; the next or

* The bow is placed in the Temple to mark the time of the deluge.
central division, the most eminent religious characters, the next the philosophers and discoverers; and in the class nearest the left hand side are the most celebrated statesmen.

The pupil will now be able to answer the following questions on the Temple.

Who is the most distinguished sovereign of the 19th century on the Eastern continent? Who is the most distinguished commander on the American continent in the 19th century? Who is the most distinguished personage of the American continent in the 8th century? Who are the most distinguished sovereigns of the Eastern continent in the 18th century? Who in the 17th? Who 16th? and so on till the time of Christ.

In order that the pupil should connect the dates of events with this visible delineation of time, the teacher will do well to accustom him in the study of Middle and Modern History, to point on the Temple to the proper places of given dates. Take, for example, the date 1492, of the discovery of America. The student will consider that fourteen centuries had been completed and nearly another, so that the event will be in the latter part of the 15th century, and as we imagine the pillars to be begun at the bottom and built upward, the place of the date will be within (less than ) of the length of the pillar from the top. If in this way the pupils were accustomed to locate on the Temple the dates of their daily lessons, instead of committing them to memory, it would not only be a pleasant recreation in the room of a painful task, but it would in the end be far more useful.

Next let the pupil turn to the Chronological Chart, which we have called "A Perspective Sketch of the Course of Empire," and let him conceive of this as the floorwork of a larger Temple of Time, where the observer stands opposite the centre, not on one side. Let him then answer the following questions.

Under what three grand divisions is the subject of Universal History here treated? Into how many Periods is the Ancient History divided? Into how many the Middle? Into how many the Modern? What Epochs divides the Ancient from the Middle History? What the Middle from the Modern? What are the Epochs, with their dates, which divide the Ancient History into Periods? What the Epochs that divide the Middle? What those that divide the Modern?

What nations are known to have existed in the first period of Ancient History? What in the second? What in the third? In the fourth &c. What were the principal states of Greece? During what period did each become known? When was the empire of Cyrus formed, and of what nations? When that of Alexander, and of what nations? What nations were included in the Roman empire at the time of Christ, and at about what time were they united to it?

What are the principal barbarous nations which issued from the Northern Hive, and overran the Roman empire? During what periods were their irruptions? What are the modern European nations which arose from the ruins of the Roman empire? During what periods were they divided from it? What modern nations. which did not belong to the Roman empire, were formed from the Northern Hive? When was the empire of Charlemagne, and of what nations was it composed? When was that of Jenghis Khan and of what nations composed? Of Tamerlane—of Margaret of Waldemar—With whom did the Caliphate begin? How long did it continue? At what time did the Turks bring the eastern division of the Roman empire to a close? When was the empire of Charles V. formed, and of what nations did it consist? When was that of Napoleon formed, and of what nations did it consist?

* The frontispiece, although as large as the size of the book will admit, is somewhat confused towards the farther end of the Temple; hence we have not spoken here of the events of ancient history with those of middle and modern, but the student can easily draw for himself a temple on a scale sufficiently large for the distinct representation of the four times ten pillars, which stand for the forty centuries before Christ.

† The names of sovereigns on the pillars, when there are more than one, do not stand in the correct order of time according to our design; which imagines the time of the century to begin at the bottom of the pillar and increase upwards. These names have been thus placed on account of the smallness of the representation, which obliged the engraver to place them lengthwise on the pillar.
Explanations.

That events apparently disappear when viewed through the vista of departed years is matter of common remark. Applying the principle to a practical purpose, we have here brought before the eye, at one glance, a sketch of the whole complicated subject of Universal History. Names of nations and a few distinguished individuals are found in the Ancient of the most distinguished
ANCIENT HISTORY.

FROM THE CREATION TO THE BIRTH OF CHRIST.

PERIOD I.

FROM
B.C.
THE CREATION 1004.
OF THE WORLD,
TO
THE CALLING 1921.
OF ABRAHAM.

CHAPTER I.

The earliest History of Man.

1. The face of the whole earth, with a few exceptions, is now known. The family of man is divided by natural distinctions, into different races; and by the boundary lines of the countries which they inhabit, into different nations, each governed by its own peculiar laws.

2. If we take a map representing the entire world, and inquire concerning the length of time, which the nations it now presents have been known, we shall find in looking back to different periods, that by degrees, their names and places disappear. In A.D. 1491, the whole continent of America was, as to those from whom we derive the knowledge of history, as though it were not. A little before the birth of our Savior, Great Britain, the land of our ancestors, was unknown, as was the whole of the northern part of Europe, the southern part of Africa, and the eastern part of Asia. If we go back 2000 years from the Christian era, no traces of inhabitants are to be found on the face of the earth, except a few comparatively small nations, near the eastern extremity of the Mediterranean sea.

3. Hence, even without referring to the sacred writings, we should conclude, that the human race probably had their origin in that region; and calculating their progress from what is known of later times, we should also conclude that they might

PERIOD I. CHAP. I.—1. What part of the face of the earth is now known? How is the human family divided by nature? How by the boundary lines of countries?—2. When was the whole continent of America unknown? What countries were unknown at the birth of our Savior?—If we go back 2000 years from the Christian era, what inhabitants shall we find on the earth?—3. What inferences in regard to the origin and progress of mankind should we derive from these facts?
GOD CREATES.

The ancient Hebrews have been, supposing they commenced with a single family, about two thousand years from the period last mentioned, in coming to the state in which we then find them. But it is upon the sacred writings alone, that we depend for historical information concerning the creation, and first abode of the human race. These, the calculations of Scripture dates most approved by the learned, fix at 4004 years before the Christian era, and in the region east of the Mediterranean sea. Thus we find our confidence in the truth of the Sacred Scriptures, greatly strengthened by a comprehensive view of universal history.

4. Those nations which have not possessed the Scriptures, have held traditions concerning gods and goddesses, and the origin of men and things, full of monstrous absurdities. Some men, calling themselves philosophers, have, in the pride of their own fancied wisdom, rejected the Scriptures, and have undertaken to make out systems of the world from conjecture; and, by their ridiculous theories, they have made themselves the jest of succeeding ages. Supposing changes more miraculous than any related in Scripture, they have not assigned any power, adequate to their production.

5. In the infancy of the human species, God appears to have dealt with man, in a manner, different from the ordinary course of his providence, at the present day. An earthly parent is more with his helpless and ignorant children, than with those who have experience. The first duty which he teaches them, is implicit obedience to his will; and when he finds them wayward and disobedient, he chastises them, and sometimes, with severity. Thus, as the Scriptures inform us, did the Almighty Parent deal with man, in the infant state of his being.

6. Adam and Eve, whom God had created in his own image, pure and holy, disobeyed his command, and were driven from their first abode, the beautiful garden of Eden.† On the day of their disobedience, the sentence of death was passed upon them. The man was condemned to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow; and the woman, who had been seduced by flattery and undue curiosity, to be the first transgressor, was punished with a double curse. Yet did God, in his mercy, then promise, that of her seed should one arise, to bruise the head of the deceitful. Thus, according to Moses, the promise of a Savior.

* We follow the chronology of Archbishop Usher.
† Some suppose Paradise to have been located in the lovely vale of Cashmire. The Himalah mountains, the highest in the world, tower above it. The four rivers mentioned in Scripture are supposed to be the Indus, the Ganges, Burramooter, and Jihon.

3. On what must we depend for our knowledge of the creation and first abode of the human race? How long is it since the Creation? Where was the first abode of man? How is our confidence in the Scriptures affected by a comprehensive view of history? 4. What kind of traditions and theories have been made by those who have not the Scriptures, or reject them? 5. How did God deal with the human race in their infancy? Where is the garden of Eden supposed to have been? (See note.) What sentence was pronounced on Adam and Eve for their transgression? What promise of mercy was at the same time made to them?
GOD DESTROYS.

was coeval with the fall of man, and his need of a Redeemer.

7. We are informed that the life of man, before the deluge, extended to ten times its present period. Most of the knowledge, now possessed by the human race, is derived from the experience and observation of the men who have lived before them; but in those days there were no such stores of knowledge laid up. A life of several hundred years would give each man time to learn much from his own experience, and thus facilitate the general improvement of the race. Hence it seems very natural to suppose, that God should have allotted to men a longer period of existence at the first. As there are no authorities to consult on this part of history, except the sacred volume, which is, or should be in the hands of every one, we shall refer the student to that for particular facts; mentioning only those which are more immediately connected with the course of events, as detailed by those historians, who, in distinction from the sacred, are termed profane writers.

8. The most remarkable of these events is the universal deluge; when God, again, for the sins of mankind, smote the earth with a curse; and swept away, at once, the whole of a wicked generation, who had filled the earth with violence. Yet when the fountains of the deep were broken up, and when those who had climbed to the tops of the mountains were buried in the waste of waters, Noah, a righteous man, who had, in obedience to the command of God, prepared an ark for himself and family, rode safely over the mighty ruin.

9. The Scripture account of this awful event, is confirmed by the researches and discoveries of those, who have examined the structure of the earth. In thus pursuing the modern science of geology, they find evidences of former changes and convulsions, not to be ascribed to any causes now known to be in operation. And, independently of any other testimony, they conclude that many centuries after the world was originally peopled, animals and vegetables were destroyed by an overwhelming deluge. The great geologist, Cuvier, gives it as his opinion, that the event cannot be dated much farther back than five or six thousand years.” This coincides with the date of the deluge, as drawn from the Mosaic records. A farther source of evidence, is found in the traditionary accounts of nations bording no intercourse with each other. The Chinese, Greeks, Hindoos, and the American Indians, all agree in the general fact, that in remote antiquity, there was an inundation, which overwhelmed the earth.

10. The ark of Noah rested on Mount Ararat, in Armenia.

7. Whence is most of the knowledge now possessed by the human race, derived? What makes it natural to suppose that God allotted a longer duration to human life at first?—8. What was the occasion of the universal deluge? Who survived it?—9. What have we to confirm the Scripture account? Where does Cuvier, reckoning from geological appearances, fix the date?—10. What nations have traditions of a universal deluge?
When the dove had returned with the olive branch, to show that the waves of God's wrath were assuaged, the sole patriarch of the human race went forth with his three sons, Shem, Ham, and Japheth, to take possession of his wide and solitary domain.

11. The Mosaic history informs us, that Shem and his descendants dwelt in Eastern and Southern Asia; Ham and his posterity, Canaan and others, in Western Asia and Africa; and that the "Isles of the Gentiles," meaning probably the Mediterranean, European and Caucasian regions, were divided among the children of Japheth. Modern physiologists have classed the human species under three corresponding races, namely, the Mongol, the Negro, and the Caucasian. The Caucasian race, in their progress, have conquered great portions of the territories, inhabited by the Mongols in Asia and America, while the Negro race are held in servitude by their brethren.

12. We cannot indeed tell exactly, what places on the earth's surface were designated by the names of the countries mentioned at very remote periods; for it was not until ages after, that geography was cultivated as a science, or that accurate maps existed. The sacred historian, after speaking of the location of the descendants of Noah, informs us, that they all collected on the plain of Shinar with the impious design to build a tower whose top should reach to heaven. God confounded their language, and they then separated; wandering to distant countries.

13. We soon begin to find traces of such connections among particular families or tribes, as gave them the name of nations. The earliest mentioned are the Assyrians, the Babylonians or Chaldeans, the Egyptians, and the Jews. Some obscure accounts of Phoenicia also extend back to this period, and in Greece, Sicyon is supposed by some to have been founded.

CHAPTER II.

Assyria.—Egypt.

1. The name of Assyria was derived from Ashur, the son of Shem, who was supposed to have been driven out of his provinces by Nimrod, the grandson of Ham. Nimrod, is said to

10. Where did Noah's ark rest?—11. What, according to the best calculations, were the respective locations of Noah's descendants? How do modern physiologists class the human species?—12. Can we tell exactly what places were designated by the names of the countries mentioned at this period? Why can we not? What occasioned the dispersion of mankind after the deluge?—13. Which were the four earliest nations mentioned in history?—14. Which were the next two? What was the first city of Greece?—CHAP. II.—1. Whence is the name of Assyria derived?
have founded Babylon, about one hundred and fifty years after
the deluge, and is believed to be the same with Belus or Baal, who
was afterwards worshipped as a god. The kingdoms of Assyria
and Babylonia, were at first distinct; but when Ninus, the son
of Ashur, ascended the Assyrian throne, he conquered the adja-
cent provinces, and rendered Babylonia tributary. Ninus com-
pleted the magnificent city of Nineveh, which his father had
begun. This accomplished prince, and his beautiful and highly
gifted queen Semiramis, are treated in the marvellous records of
historians, as the hero and heroine of the age in which they
lived.

2. Ninus, their son, being an infant, at the time of his fa-
ther’s death, Semiramis governed the kingdom. She extended
her dominions by the conquest of Ethiopia, and carried the ter-
ror of her arms beyond the Indus; but her Indian expedition
proving unsuccessful, she returned, with the loss of two-thirds
of her army. She is said to have commenced many of those
noble structures, that adorned and rendered famous the city of
Babylon, which she made the capital of her kingdom; and to
have employed in the execution of her plans, the labours of
two millions of men.

3. Ninus, who succeeded Semiramis, was an indolent and ef-
feminate prince; and is charged with the crime of being acces-
sory to his mother’s death. The Scriptures mention Ama-
raphel, king of Shinar, which was in the land of Chaldea, and
Pul, who is supposed to be the father of Sardanapalus, and in
whom reign the Ninevites repented at the preaching of Jonah.

4. Egypt.—Menes or Misraim, the son of Ham, is supposed
to have been the founder of the first Egyptian monarchy; but
of his immediate successors, nothing is known. Some ages
had elapsed when Busiris, it is said, built Thebes, and made it
the seat of his empire. That a most wonderful city, called by
this name, was built, we know, for remains of it exist to this
day; but there are only traditionary accounts of its founder.
We are told that Osymandias, another Egyptian king, erected
magnificent edifices, adorned them with sculpture and painting,
and founded the first library mentioned in history. Its title or
inscription was, “The office or treasury for the diseases of the
soul.” At this period the Egyptians had already divided the
year into twelve months, each consisting of thirty days and six
hours.

5. Though little is known of the early history and internal,
revolutions of the kingdom of Egypt, yet it is considered as the
point where civilization began, and from whence the rays of
knowledge emanated to other portions of the earth; particularly
to Greece, through which channel, discoveries made by the
Egyptians have come to us. About 2085 B.C. Egypt is said
to have been invaded by the Shepherd-kings from Arabia or
Phoenicia, who conquered Lower Egypt, and Memphis, and
reigned over them two hundred and sixty years. From the ex-
pulsion of the Shepherd-kings until the arrival of Joseph, the
son of Jacob, there is a chasm in Egyptian history.

Note.—While it is held by historians of Christian countries, that Shem is
the father of the Mongola, i.e. the Asiatics and aboriginal Americans;)
Ham of the Negro race, and Japheth the Caucasian, (i.e. Europeans, and
their descendants in America); it is maintained by Mahometan writers, that
Shem is the progenitor of the Eastern nations—Hebrews, Persians, Arab-
ians, and also of the Greeks and Romans, (to whom is assigned the do-
mination of the world, and from whom all good is to proceed,)—that Ham is
the father of the southern nations—Moors, Africans, and Indians, (to whom
is assigned the lot of slavery, but they are to be beloved and cared for by
the other races,) and that Japheth is the ancestor of the northern nations,
Turks, Tartars, Germans, Chinese, Slavi, and native Americans. Though
both accounts are to some degree supposititious, yet, that of the Christian writers
is the more probable, as better corresponding with natural divisions. A
great question arises, how the differences, which are now found in the physi-
cal and mental structures of the different races, have occurred, they having
a common parentage. We believe, that God to suit his own wise purposes,
miraculously changed the colour and structure of some of the first descend-
ants of Noah. This supposes an omission of an important fact in the Script-
ture history; but it leaves, in unquestioned veracity, the revelation we
possess.

5. Why is Egypt important in history? Through what channel have
the discoveries of the Egyptians come down to us? By whom was Egypt
invaded? What part of Egypt did they conquer, and how long did they
reign?
PERIOD II.


CHAPTER I.

The Israelites or Jews.

1. Descended from the stock of Shem, whom the prophetic benediction of Noah had set forth as more blessed than his brethren, ABRAHAM, the progenitor of the Messiah, the father of the faithful, and the founder of the Jewish nation, dwelt in the country of the Chaldees; and retained, in the midst of an idolatrous and corrupt people, the knowledge of the true God. Journeying from thence with his family, his retinue, and his flocks, he rested for a time in Haran, where Terah, his father, died. Here, GOD CALLED HIM, and bade him depart from his kindred, and go into the land of Canaan, that he might behold a country, which his seed should inherit. The obedient Abraham went with his family, including his nephew, Lot; and so-journed in the promised land.

2. A famine compelled him to go into Egypt in pursuit of

Between what dates does this period of Ancient History find its place on the Chronographical Picture of Nations? What nations were known during this period?

CHAP. I. Who was the founder of the Jewish nation? From what stock was he descended? Where did he dwell? Where was he when God called him? For what purpose was Abraham called to go into Canaan? Who accompanied him?

*We recommend to teachers to repeat these questions at the beginning of each Period.
corn. On his return to Canaan, he divided the land with Lot, taking the plain of Mamre, and giving to Lot the valley of the Jordan. In an invasion of the dominions of the princes inhabiting this valley, by Chedorlaomer, king of Elam, (afterwards Persia,) Amraphel, king of Shinar, and others, Lot was taken prisoner. On this occasion Abraham armed his trained servants, and making a sudden and unexpected assault upon the conquerors, recovered Lot, the other prisoners, and the spoils. The limited extent of the tribes, which at this time are introduced into the records of history, may be estimated by the number Abraham led forth in this military excursion, which was only three hundred and eighteen.

3. Lot, by divine command, abandoned Sodom and the other wicked cities of the plain; when they were destroyed by fire. Abraham removed from Mamre, and dwelt in Gerar, where he led a peaceful life, changing the place of his tent as the wants of his flocks and herds required; claiming, however, the land of Canaan as his inheritance.

4. Abraham had at this time two sons; Ishmael, from whom probably descended the wandering tribes of Arabia, and Isaac, his heir, whom, in obedience to God’s command, he took from his fond and unsuspecting mother, to sacrifice upon mount Moriah; but God having tested his faith, provided a victim in the place of the pious youth.

5. Jacob, afterwards called Israel, that son of Isaac who inherited the promise, had twelve sons, among whom he distinguished with blameable partiality, the young and amiable Joseph. Him, therefore, his brethren envied and hated; and they sold him into Egypt. Here he became prime-minister to Pharaoh, the reigning king; and when his father pressed with famine, sent thither his remaining sons to buy bread. Joseph, after, having, by seeming severities, made them sensible of his power, showed them, that he was too generous and noble to harbor revenge. Weeping, he said to the trembling company, “I am Joseph your brother; be not grieved, God sent me before you.” His father Jacob removed to Egypt, with his whole family, including Judah, in whose line was the Messiah. The Egyptians lightly esteemed their pastoral occupation, and Joseph assigned them, for a separate residence, the country of Goshen.

6. After the death of Joseph, the Israelites, though cruelly treated, greatly increased in number. A deliverer of the nation was raised up, in the person of Moses. The command of the king of Egypt had gone forth, to slay all the male infants of the Jews. Jochebed the wife of Amram gave birth to a son. She concealed him for a time; but at length, in pious trust, she com-

2. Why did he go to Egypt? With whom did he divide the land of Canaan, and how did he divide it? When Lot was taken prisoner what was the conduct of Abraham?—3. What befell the wicked cities of the plain? Where did Abraham remove from Mamre?—4. What sons had Abraham? How did Jehovah test the patriarch’s faith?—5. Which son of Isaac inherited the promise? How many sons had Jacob?—6. Relate briefly the history of Joseph after Joseph’s death.
mitted him to God. Having made a little ark or basket, she put the child within it, and placed him among the flags on the brink of the river Nile. Miriam, his young sister, watched his fate. The princess of Egypt, Pharaoh's daughter, came with her maidens to bathe in the stream. She looked upon the weeping child, with compassion and tenderness. She rescued him from the water, and at Miriam's suggestion, restored him for a season to the arms of his mother. The princess then adopted him for her son, and caused him to be educated in all the learning of the Egyptians.

7. Moses was, doubtless, early made acquainted with the secret of his birth, for amidst the splendors of a court, he thought in bitterness upon the wrongs of his kindred. Seeing an Egyptian smite a Hebrew, his indignation broke forth, and he slew him. For this offence, he was obliged to flee from the face of Pharaoh; and he went and dwelt in the land of Midian. Here God, who had heard the cry of the oppressed, spake to him from the burning bush, and gave him commandment to return to Egypt, for the deliverance of his chosen people. Afterwards he was made an instrument to perform many wonderful works in the sight of the Egyptians. At length, the severe judgments of God compelled Pharaoh to consent to the departure of the Hebrews. No sooner, however, had they left the country, than repenting of his permission, the impious monarch pursued them to the borders of the Red Sea. Here the man of God lifted his mysterious wand over the waters; they parted, and the Israelites went forward, through the fearful pass. The Egyptians attempting to follow, the sea closed over them.

8. The passover, a Jewish feast, was by Jehovah's command, instituted in commemoration of the deliverance of the Israelites from the last plague of the Egyptians; and is the most remarkable of the types, which foreshadowed the future coming of the Savior of the world.

CHAPTER II.

Greece receives and sends forth Colonies.

1. Greece was originally inhabited by various tribes, of whom the Pelasgi and the Hellenes were the most powerful. The Pelasgi, a savage people, inhabited the Peloponnesus, and under Inachus, are said to have founded Argos and Sicyon. The

more humane Hellenes, of whom Deucalion was leader, were originally, a small tribe residing in the north of Thessaly; but becoming powerful, they spread themselves over Greece. The Pelasgi, driven from all their possessions, except Arcadia and the region of Dodona, are said to have migrated in various directions;—to Italy, and to Crete, and other islands of the Mediterranean. Probably some of them resided in Thessaly, as a district of that country has always borne their name. The Hellenes were divided into four races, distinguished from each other by many peculiarities of language and customs. These were, the Ionians, (of whom the principal were the Athenians;) the Dorians, (of whom the principal were the Spartans;) the Eolians, and the Achaïans. The traditionary accounts of these early ages represent them as in a savage state, wholly ignorant of husbandry.

2. Cecrops, bringing a colony from Egypt, prevailed upon the inhabitants of Attica, to submit to him as their king; he divided the country into twelve districts, founded the city of Athens, and established the Areopagus—a council of citizens chosen for their wisdom, and wealth, and to whom was entrusted the power of punishing capital offences.

3. Phœnician colonies settled in Crete; in Rhodes, and in several parts of Greece. It is said by some, that they brought with them letters and music, and a more accurate method of computing time, than had hitherto been adopted. Most writers however, are of opinion, that letters were brought into Greece by a Phœnician colony under Cadmus, who settled in Boeotia, and founded the city of Thebes.

CHĀP. II.—1. Give an account of the Pelasgi. Find on the map of Greece Argos and the several places mentioned. Give an account of the Hellenes. Into what races were they divided?—2. Give an account of the founding of Athens. What was the Areopagus?—3. Give an account of the founding of Thebes. When and by whom were letters brought into Greece?—Review of the Chapter.—Who was Inachus? Deucalion? Cecrops? Cadmus? (It is recommended that teachers often question, as a review, concerning the characters mentioned in the lesson.)
PERIOD III.

FROM B.C. 1491. OF THE PASSOVER, TO THE DEATH 980. OF SOLOMON.

CHAPTER I.

Palestine.—Phœnicia.—Egypt.

1. When the Israelites, under the guidance of Moses, left Egypt, they directed their course towards the land of Canaan. While they were encamped in the neighbourhood of Mount Sinai, God gave them the ten commandments, or the moral law, under the most awfully impressive circumstances. Moses, by his direction, formed a civil constitution, and enacted laws for the nation. God, under his name Jehovah, was declared their king, and hence their government was a theocracy. Purity of religious worship was the vital principle of their laws. To present an insuperable barrier to polytheism, they were totally for-

PERIOD III.—CHAP. I.—1. Whither went the Israelites? What occurred at Mount Sinai? What did Moses by God's direction? What was the Jewish government? Why? What was its vital principle?
bidden to intermingle with other nations, who, at this time, were universally idolaters.

2. After wandering forty years, during which the fathers of the nation had descended to their graves, and their children had become fitted by hardships to contend with the powerful tribes who were in possession of their promised inheritance;—after they had acquired more knowledge of the God who protected them, and had learned obedience to his laws, they were permitted to emerge from the wilderness, and behold spread out before them the object of their hopes, the land of promise. After having obtained a victory over the Midianites, (one of the tribes who inhabited this land,) and when in sight of the promised inheritance, Moses died. He was the greatest of law-givers, the first of historians, and favored beyond all other men, with direct communications from God.

3. Joshua succeeded Moses, and during a seven years' war with the powerful tribes who inhabited Canaan he led on the Israelites to conquest, and to the possession of a large portion of the country; when, contrary to the divine command, which had directed the total extermination of the idolaters, and fatally for the future peace of the nation, the Israelites laid down their arms.

4. Impious men have spoken against this command of God given to the Jews. But he who creates, has a right to destroy by storm or earthquake, or by the hands of such executioners as he shall choose; and when he gives his commands to men amidst such awful signs as dividing a sea, leading them by a pillar of fire, and giving them bread from heaven, they have no right to dispute his will. Mankind are not, however, to derive hence, a license to persecute and destroy one another, on pretences of divine intimations, drawn from uncertain sources.

5. The Jews soon surveyed the land, and divided it among the tribes. At the death of Joshua, no successor being appointed, the government was exercised by chiefs, called Judges. This people now reaped the fruits of their disobedience to the divine commands. They not unfrequently relapsed into the idolatry of the surrounding nations, and when compelled to contend with the tribes who dwelt within their borders, were repeatedly delivered into their hands.

These tribes were numerous. Among those frequently mentioned in Scripture are the Midianites, the Amorites, the Jebusites, the Hivites, the Hittites, the Amalekites and the Philistines. This latter nation, who in the days of the Judges conquered the Israelites, are supposed by some to have been a colony from Egypt. They were a sea-faring people, and worshipped a sea-god, Dagon.

1. Why were the Jews prohibited intercourse with other nations?—2. What was the length of their sojourn in the wilderness? What had happened during the time? What good purpose was effected by these hardships? What is said of Moses?—3. Who was leader of the Israelites after his death? What did the Jews in regard to the idolatrous inhabitants of the country?—4. Why were the Jews right in obeying the commands of God, to destroy the heathen idolaters? Does this justify fanatical men, who pretend to inward revelations, in doing similar acts?—5. What did the Jews with the conquered territory? What happened at the death of Joshua?
6. The reign of the Judges continued about 460 years. The most renowned among them were Deborah and Barak, Gideon, Jephthah, and lastly, the prophet Samuel. In his days, the rebellious Israelites demanded a king, and Saul was appointed. He carried on wars with the Amalekites and with the Philistines, to whom the Israelites had previously been forty years in subjection.

7. On his death, David, the son of Jesse, who had distinguished himself in the Philistine wars, was called to the throne of Judah. This young man united qualities seemingly incompatible. He was beautiful almost to effeminacy, and at the same time terrible in arms. He was cool and deliberate in counsel; yet possessed of such tender sensibility, that he keenly felt all the emotions of love, friendship, parental fondness—and, finally, of that best affection of the heart, devotion to his God. His accomplishments were no less various, combining a profound knowledge of war and politics, a skill in music that could calm the madness of Saul, and a talent for poetry, which in the department of sacred song, has, to this day, never been equalled. To this talent, directed by inspiration, we owe the imitable Psalms. Such was David, beloved by God and man. Yet even he sinned; but being rebuked of God, by the prophet Nathan, he humbled himself, and bitterly repented. Hence we find, in his devotional poems, a deep strain of penitential humility.

8. David becoming sole monarch of all the tribes of Israel, he restored the purity of worship, which, under Saul, had declined. He took Jebus, a strong fortress, which had remained in possession of the Jebusites, and on its site he built the city of Jerusalem, in which he resided. He conquered the Philistines, Edomites, and Moabites. He made Syria a Jewish province, and extended his frontiers to the farthest limits of the promised land. He formed an alliance with the Tyrians, and from them obtained many valuable articles of merchandise. He made many costly preparations for building a temple for the worship of God; but left the execution of his design, to Solomon, his son and successor.

9. Solomon early made wisdom his choice; and while he kept it, his nation was elevated to its utmost height of splendor and power. He was surrounded by bold and designing enemies, but he triumphed over them. His foreign treaties secured the peace of his kingdom; and his alliance with Hiram, king of Tyre, furnished many of the splendid decorations of his magnificent temple. In his later years, Solomon fell into the sins of licentiousness and idolatry, and thus lost the favor of God, and brought distress upon his country.

6. How long continued the reign of the Judges? Which were the most eminent? Give an account of Saul?—7. Who was David? What was remarkable in his character? What in his accomplishments? By whom was David rebuked? Was he too proud to repent?—8. What did David become? What acts did he perform? Who succeeded him?—9. What account can you give of Solomon during the different parts of his reign? What did Solomon procure of Hiram? Who was Hiram?
10. Jerusalem had become enriched by the residence of the court, but the country around was impoverished. At length, Solomon had the mortification of losing Syria; which threw off the yoke of Israel, and became an independent nation. The peace of his declining days was farther disturbed by the insurrection of Jeroboam and the Edomites. He died after a reign of forty years.

11. Phœnicia, was the earliest commercial nation, and was at this period powerful and wealthy. The Phœnicians excelled in manufactures of various kinds. They monopolized the trade of the west, and are supposed to have visited Britain. They had colonies in Sicily, the north of Africa, and the Persian Gulf. Some attribute to them the invention of letters, which, it is believed, they carried into Europe. Tyre, the capital, was in its most flourishing state between 1000 and 332 B.C. The several cities of Phœnicia possessed independent kings, but they united in a league or confederacy.

12. Egypt.—In the reign of Mœris, who is regarded as the wisest of the Egyptian kings, the lake Mœris is said to have been excavated. This is one of the most wonderful works of Egypt, and was designed to remedy the inconvenience arising from the irregular inundations of the Nile. It communicated with the river by a canal, having sluices which opened or shut either the canal or the lake, as there was occasion. Sesostris is the most renowned of the kings of Egypt, and in his reign the empire reached its utmost extent. He first conquered Ethiopia, and then overran all the southern part of Asia as far as India. Some believe him to be the same, with that Pharaoh, who in the pride of his power refused to let Israel depart, and was swallowed up in the Red Sea; but he is generally regarded as much later. To Sesostris is attributed the building of the great sepulchral temple at Thebes, and many other of those wonderful monuments of antiquity, of which the astonished traveller still finds the stupendous remains.

13. Ramases or Proteus, is mentioned as a king who kept a sumptuous and hospitable court. Cheops is regarded as the builder of the first pyramid; Shishak, the invader of the Jews, as that of the second, and Mycerinus, of the third. The Egyptians were, as the inhabitants of India now are, divided into castes. Of these, the lowest were herdsmen, and the highest were priests. These, we have reason to believe, had one religious belief for themselves, and taught another to the people; thus making wicked merchandise of that religious sensibility, which God has given to man, as an evidence that there do exist
spiritual influences, and supernatural powers. The idolatry which the Egyptian priests taught the people was of a gross kind. One of their gods, Anubis, was represented with a dog's head; another, Apis, was worshipped in the form of an ox; Isis, in that of a cow; and Osiris was often pictured as having the face of a soul-bird.

CHAPTER II.

Greece.—Troy.

1. The early history of the ancient world is so intermingled with fable, that it is impossible to separate truth from falsehood. The mythology of the Greeks was in part borrowed from that of the Egyptians; and in part, the production of their own vivid fancy, aided in some cases, as in that of the demi-gods, by traditional exploits. The Greeks, and afterwards the Romans, regarded as the oldest of the Superior Gods, Saturn, or Chronos, signifying in Greek, "Time," who was the son of Uranus, the heavens, and Titania, the earth. Janus, under whom, with Saturn, was the golden age of peace, had a temple at Rome, which was shut whenever peace actually occurred. Rhea, was the wife of Saturn. Jupiter, the king of gods and men, dethroned his father Saturn. He held his court on Mount Olympus, in Thessaly, with his wife, the proud and jealous Juno. Besides these were Neptune, god of the sea; Apollo, the ruler of the sun, and god of music, poetry, and eloquence, with whom were associated the Nine Muses; Diana, goddess of the moon and of chastity; Minerva, goddess of wisdom, especially worshipped at Athens; Mars, god of war; Venus, goddess of beauty and love; Vulcan, god of artists who mould iron by fire; Mercury, the swift winged messenger, patron of those who get wealth, whether by honest or dishonest means; Bacchus, the inebriate god of wine; Ceres, goddess of harvests; Vesta, of fire; and Pluto, the god and judge of Hades, or the place of departed spirits.

2. As Inferior Gods, the ancients reckoned Sol, the sun; Luna, the moon; Nox, the night; Aurora, the morn, with many other natural objects and general ideas, such as Fortune, &c. There was much that was highly poetical in this system of idolatry, but unhappily, it was baneful to the virtue of the nations, whose common people (but not their philosophers) believed in, and worshipped such a motley set of immoral divinities;

CHAP. II.—1. Can we now separate the true from the false in ancient story? From what did the Greeks derive their mythology? How many (count them,) are there of those they called superior gods? Give the name and character of each?—2. What were reckoned among the inferior deities? What can you say of this system of idolatry?
THE DEMIGODS.—THE FOUR GAMES.

"all of whom," said Mr. Perdicaris, an eloquent Greek, "were believed to have committed crimes, which, had they been perpetrated in Connecticut, would have sent them to the State's prison." There were priests dedicated to the service of particular divinities, but they were not, like those of Egypt, a separate and distinct class of persons. The same man was often, at the same time, a priest and a military commander.

3. The first of the demigods was THESEUS, who it is said went about slaying monsters, and performing other wonderful deeds, sometimes of heroism and sometimes of perfidy. Acts of political importance are, however, ascribed to him. He is said to have introduced into Athens a republican government, and to have delivered that city from a barbarous tribute exacted by the king of Crete, of seven youths and seven virgins, sent to that island once in nine years, to be sacrificed. He instituted the Isthmian games. HERCULES was, however, the most renowned of all the demigods. He is represented as the personification of masculine strength, with a lion's skin over his shoulders, and a club in his hand, in honor of his slaying the terrible lion which infested the Nemean forest. This was reckoned the capital exploit of his "twelve labors."

4. The public games formed a part of the religious ceremonies of the ancient Greeks. The four principal were, the Olympic, celebrated at Olympus once in four years, in honor of Jupiter Olympus. The Olympic games were instituted in remote antiquity, by whom is uncertain, but it was not until 776 B.C., that the Greeks began to reckon time by Olympiads, one Olympiad being four years. The Pythian games were in honor of Apollo Pythius; the Nemean were celebrated once in two years, and the Isthmian, on the isthmus of Corinth, in honor of Neptune, once in four years. The exercises consisted in racing, wrestling, boxing, &c., and success in them was an object of the highest ambition. The prize awarded to the victor was a simple wreath. In the Olympic games it was composed of wild olive, in the Pythian of laurel, and in the others of parsley.

5. The laws and institutions ascribed to MINOS, who called himself the son of Jupiter, and reigned over Crete, were reckoned as models of wisdom among the surrounding nations. Attica, freed from the bloody wars which disturbed the other states of Greece, made more rapid advances towards civilization. On account of the security of its situation, it became a refuge for the wealthy from all parts of Greece, and the increase of its population early enabled it to send colonies into Asia. An
HISTORY AND POETIC TALES.

Pheidyon, the third king of Athens, established the celebrated Amphicyonic Council. This was a confederacy of twelve cities, whose petty princes met at Delphi, twice a year, to concert measures for their common safety, and to settle disputes arising between members of the union. They adopted, at this early period, the rule that none of the states belonging to the confederacy should be destroyed by the others.

6. Thus, in remote antiquity, do we find the germ of the only legitimate principle of government among men, union for the purposes of peace and mutual protection. The United States of America exhibit this principle in greater perfection, and on a more magnificent scale; and we may indulge the hope, that a time will come, when all nations becoming christianized, shall appoint delegates to meet and amicably settle their disputes, thus ushering in, the predicted reign of universal peace.

7. About this time is supposed to have occurred the celebrated expedition of the Argonautic adventurers. According to ancient tradition, they went to Colchis in search of the "golden fleece," which, by some is supposed to mean the riches of that kingdom. This bold enterprise was conducted by the heroic Jason, who, gaining the affections of Medea, the daughter of the king, a beautiful, but cruel sorceress, he obtained, by means of her enchantments, the object of his search. Leaving a colony on the shores of the Euxine, he departed, carrying away the golden fleece, and the beautiful sorceress, whom he had married. Afterwards deserting her for Glaucæ, daughter of the king of Athens, Medea, in jealousy and rage, put her own children to death, that she might be avenged on Jason, their father.

8. Of the ancient city of Troy nothing is known, except through the uncertain media of poetry and tradition. These fix the date of Teucer, the first sovereign, at about 1400 B.C. The siege of Troy, by the confederated princes of Greece, is related on the authority of the poet Homer. Greece, according to his account, was divided into many small states, of which Mycenæ and Argos were the principal. These, with Achaia and Corinth, were under the dominion of Agamemnon, whose brother, Menelaus, was king of Sparta and the adjacent country.

9. The offence of Paris, the son of Priam, king of Troy, in stealing away the beautiful Helen, the wife of Menelaus, after he had been hospitably entertained by her husband, roused the indignation of the Grecian princes, who had previously been united in a league. They resolved to rescue the princess, and punish the offender. The confederates assembled at Aulis in Boeotia.

5. What council was established? By whom? Where did it meet? How often? For what purpose? What principle did it adopt?—6. What is the only legitimate principle of government? Where is this carried out on a larger scale than in ancient Greece? What hope of the future may be indulged?—7. Give an account of the Argonautic expedition.—8. From what do we derive our accounts of ancient Troy? What does Homer relate of the situation of Greece?—9. What was the object of the Grecian princes? What was the number of the confederated army? Their vessels?
Agamemnon was the leader of the Greeks, among whom, was Menelaus, the wise Ulysses from Ithaca, old Nestor from Pylos, Ajax Telamon, and Ajax the less, and especially the lion of the host, the beautiful and brave Achilles, who slew Hector, the hero of Troy. After a long siege of ten years, the Greeks took and burned Troy, and recovered Helen. On their return, they found their country in a distracted and suffering condition. During the absence of their kings, others had assumed their rights and authority; and for a series of years nothing is heard of in Greece, but a continual succession of wars and disorders.

10. The "War of the Heraclides," occurred eighty years afterwards, between the families of Perseus and Pelops, who had anciently contended for the sovereignty of the Peloponnesus. Hercules, was the great grandson of Perseus, and from him the Perseid family were called the Heraclide. They had been expelled from the Peloponnesus by the Pelopidae, (or the race of Pelops,) and were now princes of Doris, a small rugged tract of country among the mountains of Eta and Parnassus. They at length, conquered the Pelopidae, and made themselves masters of the Peloponnesus. The principal chiefs divided the cities by lot. Sparta fell to Aristodemus, who dying, Eurythennes and Procles, his infant twins, were proclaimed joint kings of Lacedemon, and each became the founder of a royal race. From this time the Dorians had a preponderance in the Peloponnesus, and Lacedemon, or Sparta, acquired the supremacy.

11. Of the old inhabitants, who were of Ionian descent, some sought refuge among their brethren at Athens. Great numbers emigrated, and of these, the Eolians went to the north-western part of Asia Minor, where they built twelve cities, of which Smyrna was the principal. On the island of Lesbos they built five, of which the largest was Mytilene. Those of the conquered who remained in the Peloponnesus were made slaves.

12. The Spartans were indignant against the Athenians for having given refuge to the inhabitants who fled from the Peloponnesus, and they invaded Attica. The oracle of Apollo at Delphi,* had promised success to their arms, on condition that

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9. Who were the principal chiefs of the Greeks? Who was the hero of Troy? What is the date of the destruction of Troy? What was the condition of Greece afterwards? 10. Between what families was the war of the Heraclide? From whom were they named? By whom had they been expelled? What was the result of the war? 11. What became of the old inhabitants of the Peloponnesus? 12. Give an account of the invasion of Attica. Give some account of the oracle at Delphi. (See note.)
they should not kill Codrus, the Athenian king. Codrus, on
learning this, disguised himself as a peasant, entered the Do-
rian camp, provoked a quarrel, and was killed. On the news
of his death, the superstitious army of the invaders immediately
retreated. A dispute arising between the sons of Codrus re-
specting the succession, it was decided that no person was
worthy to succeed that magnanimous sovereign. The office of
king was therefore abolished, and that of Archon substituted in
its stead. To this office, Medon, the eldest son of Codrus, was
first elected. The office was to be held during life, and to be
hereditary; but the Archon was made accountable to the as-
sembly of the people.

13. About this time the Ionians founded colonies in Asia
Minor, south of the Æolian colonies. They took possession
of the islands of Samos and Chios, and of a part of Lydia and
Caria, which from them received the name of Ionia. They
built many cities, of which Ephesus was the principal, and es-
tablished in each an independent government.

12. Who was the last king of Athens? How did he sacrifice himself
for his country? Who was the first archon? What can you say of the
office of archon?—13. Give an account of the Ionian colonies of Asia Mi-
nor. In what direction were they from the Æolian?
PERIOD IV.

FROM B.C. 980. TO 752.

CHAPTER I.

The Hebrews, or Jews.

1. The history of the Jews is always interesting to Christians, from its association with that religion from which our most assured hopes of immortality are derived; but at this period it is so, of itself considered. The wonderful genius of David had extended the Hebrew dominion from the Euphrates to the Mediterranean, and from Phœnicia to the Red Sea. He had also amassed large treasures, so that Solomon was the most powerful and wealthy prince of his age. The alliance with Tyre, introduced a commerce, which enriched the capital and the court; but it brought habits of luxury, and the people were grievously taxed. Rehoboam, the son of Solomon ascended the throne. The people pressed him to redress their grievances. He replied, "My father made your yoke heavy, but I will add to your yoke." Ten tribes revolted; they recalled Jeroboam, the son of Nebat, who after an unsuccessful insurrection during the life of Solomon, had fled into Egypt, and declared him their king. Thus the Hebrew nation became divided into the two kingdoms of Judah and Israel.
2. Prophecy had foretold, that the Messiah should be born of the tribe of Judah, and of the family of David. Besides that tribe, there remained to Rehoboam, the representative of this family, only the tribe of Benjamin; the other ten under Jeroboam, constituting the kingdom of Israel. Of these two kingdoms, although Israel was the larger, and more populous, yet Judah, possessing the chief city, was the richer; and their power being nearly equal, their contests were obstinate and destructive.

3. Jeroboam, fearing that the national worship at Jerusalem would draw away his subjects, "caused Israel to sin," by establishing in his kingdom a species of idolatry. Judea was invaded by Shishak, king of Egypt, who pillaged the temple and the king's house, and carried away the spoils. After a reign of seventeen years, Rehoboam was succeeded by his son Abijah, who, in an attempt to recover Israel, obtained a victory over Jeroboam. Asa, his successor, opposed idolatry and encouraged the subjects of Jeroboam to return to their obedience, and to come up to the great national feasts at Jerusalem. During the reign of this pious prince, Judea was peaceful and prosperous.

4. The Israelites receded farther and farther from the religion of their ancestors. Samaria was founded, and made the capital of Israel, by Omri. Syria had become independent, and Benhadad, its king, declared war against Israel, but he was repelled by Ahab the son of Omri, a powerful but wicked and idolatrous king. Elijah fearlessly encountered four hundred priests of Baal, the Phoenician idol set up for worship by Ahab; and although God, by sending from heaven upon Elijah's sacrifice, the fire for which he prayed, accredited him as his prophet, still he was not regarded. Asa, king of Judah, after a long reign, was succeeded by his worthy son, Jehoshaphat, who entered into an alliance with the king of Israel, and married his son Jehoram to Athaliah, daughter of Ahab.

5. Jehu, who had succeeded to the throne of Israel, determining to extirpate the family of Ahab, slew among others, Ahaziah, then king of Judah and son of Athaliah. This cruel woman now caused her son's children to be put to death, that she

* According to learned conjecture, of Egyptian antiquities, this king had two daughters. The elder, remarkably beautiful, was that "sister spouse" of Solomon, to whom it is supposed the Canticles were addressed, and the other subsequently became the wife of Jeroboam. The sons of Shishak, the "angry brothers" of Solomon's wife, were, it seems, displeased that their sister was subordinate in the harem to the mother of his heir, and this, it is conjectured, led to the Egyptian invasion.
might reign in Jerusalem. But the design of God, that of
the seed of David should come the Messiah, was not thus to
be frustrated. One infant was saved from the massacre by the
compassionate Jehoshaba, wife of Jehoida, the high priest. He
was concealed for six years; and at the age of seven, proclaimed
king in the temple, by the name of Joash. Athaliah heard the
shout, and rushed into the temple, crying treason! treason! But
she was seized and put to death. Several bloody wars took
place, between Israel and Syria, during one of which occurred
the distressing siege of Samaria.

CHAPTER II.

Carthage.—Greece.

1. About this period, a colony of Phœnicians from Tyre,
under Dido their queen, settled on the shores of Africa, and
built Carthage. As this event happened so much later than the
destruction of Troy, the story cannot be true, which is told by
Virgil, of the visit to this queen of Æneas, who had escaped
from the flames of that city.

2. Athens was now under the government of hereditary
archons, and was gradually acquiring power and rank among
the states of Greece. Lycurcgitus was of the family of the Her-
clidæ, and commonly reckoned the tenth in descent from Her-
cules. By his magnanimity in preserving the crown of Sparta
for the infant son of a deceased brother, when it was offered to
himself; he obtained among the people great and deserved popu-
larit,y; and during the minority of his nephew, the government
was placed in his hands. He gave to Sparta a new and singular
constitution, the chief aim of which was to banish luxury,
lust, public spirit in the place of private interest, and to increase
the power of the state, by making it a nation of soldiers.

3. Lycurcgitus procured a new and equal distribution of land.
He compelled every citizen to eat at a public table, where the
food was of the simplest kind, and the conversation grave and
instructive. He banished commerce and all superfluous arts
from Sparta; and forbade the use of any other money than iron
coin. He established a senate of twenty-eight members, to be
elected by the people, over whom the two kings of Sparta were
to preside; also an assembly of the people, which had the
power of repealing or sanctioning the decrees of the senate.

4. Relate the history of Joash?

CHAPTER II.—1. Who was Dido? For what is she distinguished? What
was Virgil related? Why can this not be true?—2. What was the condition
of Athens during this period? Who was Lycurcgitus? How did he be-
come popular in Sparta? What did he give to Sparta?—3. What were the
principal of his institutions?
The children of the Spartans were taken from their parents as the property of the state; the males were trained to arms, and the females rendered hardy and vigorous by exercise and temperance. Mothers were taught to rejoice when their sons fell in defence of their country; and courage was placed first among good qualities. The Spartans were allowed neither fleets nor walls.

4. The institutions of Lycurgus were far from promoting those social affections and domestic virtues, so essential to individual happiness. The youth were directed to steal messes, herbs, &c., from the public halls and gardens; but, if detected, they were severely punished. The design was, by teaching them to become dexterous and cunning, to render them more fit for the stratagems of war. A boy having stolen a young fox and hid it in his bosom, suffered it to tear out his vitals, rather than bear the detection of his theft. The Lacedemonians were forbidden to follow agriculture, or to cultivate mechanic arts. All servile-offices were assigned to the Helots* or slaves, who were treated with great severity. Having bound his countrymen by an oath, to observe his laws until he returned, Lycurgus left Sparta, and returned no more; thus seeking to insure the permanency of his institutions by a voluntary banishment. During the 500 years in which the Lacedemonians adhered to these laws, they were a powerful people.

5. Lycurgus having labored for the good of his own state, travelled over the other portions of Greece. Journeying to Asia, he beheld, with delight, the prosperous condition of the Asiatic colonies. There he discovered the poems of Homer, which he made known to the Dorian conquerors of the Peloponnesus. These poems constitute one of the greatest wonders of mankind. By them we see poetry, the chief of human arts, brought forth at once in its full perfection, by a poet whose birth-place is unknown, and who was probably poor and obscure;—yet to whom, the geography of Greece and Asia Minor was certainly known, and probably its early history.

6. According to Plutarch, Lycurgus committed suicide, putting an end to his life by severe abstinence; but Lucian says, he died a natural death at the age of eighty-five.

* These were so called from Helos, a Laconian town, subdued by the Spartans, who took the inhabitants prisoners, and reduced them to the condition of slavery. Other slaves were afterwards called Helots.

3. What was the character of these institutions in regard to patriotism or the love of country?—4. What in regard to individual happiness and virtue? What was forbidden to the Spartans? By whom were servile offices to be performed? Why were they called Helots? (See note.) What method did Lycurgus take to ensure permanency to his laws?—5. What did he observe in Asia Minor? What did Lycurgus discover? What poems constitute?—6. What accounts are given of the death of Lycurgus?
PERIOD V.

FROM THE FOUNDATION 752 B.C. OF ROME, BY ROMULUS.

TO THE DEATH OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT 323 B.C.

CHAPTER I.

Assyria.—Judea and Israel.—Egypt.

1. THE sovereign power of Assyria was in the hands of the profligate SARDANAPALUS, the last and worst of an effeminate race of princes, when ARBACES, governor of Media, and BELESIUS, governor of Babylon, headed a revolt of the oppressed and murmuring people. Sardanapalus, besieged in Nineveh, his capital, and too weak to attempt defence, ordered the erection of a funeral pile in his own palace, on which he burnt himself with his wives and treasure. Thus ended the first Assyrian empire; having existed more than 1450 years.

2. Upon its ruins were raised three kingdoms, BABYLON, MEDIA, and NINEVEH, or ASSYRIA. Belesis, or Nabonasser, was the first monarch of Babylon; and to him succeeded Merodach Baladan. TIGLATH-PILESER was the first king of Nineveh after the destruction of the ancient Assyrian empire. He was solicited for aid by Ahaz, when Judea was invaded by the kings of Israel and Damascus.† He immediately marched an army into Pales-

† Syria was not, strictly speaking, a kingdom, for the small cities of which it was composed were not connected under one government; but just before this period, its chief city, Damascus, had subjected most of the smaller cities, and was formed into the kingdom of Damascus.

PERIOD V.—CHAP. I.—1. What is said of Sardanapalus? What happened in his reign?—2. What three kingdoms are mentioned? From what empire were they formed? Who were the first kings of Babylon?
THE ASSYRIANS DISTRESS THE JEWS.

3. The throne of Assyria was next occupied by Shalmaneser. He besieged Samaria, which after enduring unexampled horrors from famine, was compelled to surrender; and the ten tribes now suffering the punishment of their continued idolatry and disobedience, were carried into captivity. Great numbers of them were transplanted into a mountainous region in the interior of Asia; and from this time history is silent with respect to the fate of these lost tribes.

4. Shalmaneser next besieged the wealthy city of Tyre. This siege, in which the Tyrians resisted him with the most invincible courage for five years, at length came to an end by his death. Sennacherib, who succeeded him, demanded of Hezekiah, the reigning king of Judah, a heavy tribute. After this, he marched a powerful army into Egypt, and besieged Pelusium. The Egyptians checked his progress by a vigorous resistance. He returned and sent again to Hezekiah, demanding the surrender of Jerusalem. The inhabitants were in consternation. The fate of the ten tribes was vivid in their recollection, and they looked fearfully forward to the destruction of their beloved city. The prophet Isaiah exhorted the king to trust in the God of Israel, assuring him that the power of the Assyrian should be broken. At midnight the Lord sent to the camp the angel of death; and in the morning one hundred and eighty-five thousand of the proud Assyrians lay dead on the plain. The humbled Sennacherib hasted to return to his capital, and was soon after assassinated.

5. Hezekiah was succeeded on the throne of Judah by his son, the imperious and profligate Manasseh. Esarhaddon, son of Sennacherib, and monarch of Assyria, taking advantage of the internal troubles of Babylon, made himself master of that city, and reunited it to the Assyrian empire. Syria and Palestine, after the defeat of Sennacherib, had thrown off their allegiance. Esarhaddon recovered them, and then removed from their country the remnant of the Israelites; transplanting at the same time into the cities of Samaria, an idolatrous people from the countries beyond the Euphrates. He took Jerusalem, and carried away prisoner Manasseh, the wicked king of Judah; but after a few years he released him, and restored to him his kingdom.

6. Josiah restored the purity of the national worship, repaired the temple, and extirpated idolatry from the land.

2. Give some account of Tiglath-Pileser in connexion with Jewish history. — 3. Who succeeded him on the throne of Assyria? For what memorable events of Jewish history is his reign remarkable? Is any thing now known of the "ten tribes"? — 4. Give an account of the siege of Tyre. What account can you give of Sennacherib? — 5. What was the character of Manasseh? Whom did he succeed? What was done in reference to the Jews in his reign, by the Assyrians?
DESTRUCTION OF JERUSALEM.

his virtues suspended for a time only, the fatal decree, which had gone forth against a rebellious people. In the wars between Necho, king of Egypt, and the Assyrians, Josiah opposed the passage of the Egyptians through Judea. A battle was fought between him and the Egyptian king in the valley of Megiddo. The Jews were overthrown and Josiah mortally wounded; when Necho marched to Assyria, and conquered several cities. He then returned to Jerusalem, took the city, de-throned Jehoahaz, the youngest son of Josiah, and made Jehoiakim king. The success of Necho, in his war against the Babylonians, encouraged the Syrians and Jews to throw off the Assyrian yoke.

7. Nebuchadnezzar, who was at this period associated with his father, Nabopolassar, in the government of Assyria, was the most powerful prince that had yet reigned over the Assyrian empire. He recovered from the Egyptians, Carchemish, an Assyrian city, which commanded the passage of the Euphrates, and which Necho had taken. He then marched against Syria and Palestine, and reunited both provinces to his dominions. He took Jerusalem, and carried away many captives and much treasure, including the sacred vessels of the temple.

8. Mattaniah or Zedekiah, the third in succession from Jehoiakim, revolted from the Assyrians. Nebuchadnezzar appeared before the walls of Jerusalem. The inhabitants, expecting succor from Egypt, maintained an obstinate resistance for nearly a year. The city was at length taken by storm, when the vengeance of the Babylonians was wreaked upon its inhabitants. The children of the Jewish king were murdered in the presence of their father, his eyes were put out, and he was carried captive to Babylon. The inhabitants and the remaining treasures were carried away; and the temple, the dwellings, and the fortifications levelled to the dust.

9. Four years after the destruction of Jerusalem, Nebuchadnezzar besieged Tyre. But not until thirteen years did he make himself master of that strong and opulent city. During the siege, the inhabitants retired with their most valuable effects, to an island not far distant, where they built the new city of Tyre. Nebuchadnezzar next invaded and subdued Egypt, which though among the most powerful and warlike of the ancient nations, was now rent by intestine divisions, and weakened by rebellion. The footsteps of his army were every where marked with such horrible devastation, that forty years were not sufficient to repair their ravages. On his return to Babylon, his mind being lifted up, and his heart hardened

6. What king of Judah restored the national worship? In what battle was he mortally wounded? Give some account of Necho.—7. Who were the kings of Assyria?—8. What account can you give of Nebuchadnezzar's action in reference to the Jews?—9. What of Nebuchadnezzar's conduct in regard to the Phcenicians? What in regard to Egypt? What happened on his return to Babylon?
THE MEDES CONQUER ASSYRIA.

with pride, the Almighty deposed him from his kingly throne, and drove him from the dwellings of men. His body was wet with the dew of heaven, and he ate the food of beasts, until he knew "that God ruleth over the kingdoms of men."

10. MEDIA.—DEJOSES established the first monarchy of Media. His efforts were directed to the improvement of the savage and licentious manners then prevailing among the people; and during a reign of fifty-three years, he preserved the nation in peace. He founded the city of Ecbatana, and made it the capital of his kingdom. Dejoces was succeeded by his son Phraortes, who extended the kingdom of Media, by the conquest of Persia; and subjected to his dominions almost all Upper Asia, from Mount Taurus to the river Halys. CYAXARES, his son and successor, invaded Assyria, defeated the Assyrian army, and laid siege to Nineveh. But he was recalled by a danger which threatened his own kingdom.

11. The Scythians were a barbarous nation, who inhabited the north of Europe. They were unacquainted with the arts and sciences, ignorant of agriculture, and without settled habitations. Like other nomadic tribes, they wandered from country to country, as the wants of their families and flocks required, removing their wives and children in a kind of wagons covered with the skins of animals, which, when they settled, formed their simple habitations.

12. This formidable people had invaded Media, and threatened to overspread all Asia. Cyaxares hastened to the relief of his subjects, but was vanquished by the barbarians. For twenty-eight years they spread desolation through all Upper Asia. At length the Medes invited the principal Scythians to a feast, where they were made intoxicated, and in this condition many were massacred. The remainder fleeing to the sovereign of Lydia, (a kingdom now rising to consequence,) he afforded them protection. This embroiled Cyaxares in a war with the Lydians, which, after five years of nearly equal success on both sides, was terminated by peace.

13. Cyaxares no sooner found himself established in his kingdom, than his thoughts reverted to his favorite enterprise, the destruction of Nineveh. He entered into an alliance with Nabopolassar, who had revolted from the king of Assyria, and established himself as an independent king in Babylon. Their united armies laid siege to Nineveh, and effected its entire destruction. Saracus, the reigning king, was killed, and Cyaxares soon made himself master of all the other cities of the kingdom.

CHAPTER II.

Greece.

1. The Spartans, under the laws of Lycurgus, had increased in power, and became the terror of the surrounding states. The Argives, (people of Argos;) the Arcadians, and especially the Messenians, suffered from their ambition. The first war with Messenia continued twenty years, during which the Spartans entirely subdued that people. For forty years they retained them in bondage.

2. At length, Aristomenes arose and attempted the rescue of his country. After having fought three years, with great bravery, and defeated the Spartans in several engagements, Aristomenes was forced to throw himself into Eira, a strong fortress near the sea. Here he had maintained himself during a siege of eleven years, when the Lacedaemonian commander, discovering, on a stormy night, a post which had been deserted by its guard, occupied it with his troops. Aristomenes struggled two days and three nights to regain it. Finding himself foiled, and the people suffering with hunger, he formed a column, in the centre of which he put the women and children, and resolutely demanded a passage out of the place. His enemies saw that he was rendered desperate, and suffered him to retreat to Arcadia. A part of the Messenians were made Helots or slaves, a part received the protection of their allies the Arcadians, and many migrated to Italy and Sicily, and there founded Rhegium and Messina. Sparta was now the chief state of Greece.

3. Athens was gradually assuming a republican form of government. After a succession of twelve hereditary archons, the term of office was limited to ten years, the archons still to be chosen from the family of Codrus. Nine archons were subsequently chosen in place of one, and the term of office limited to one year. These nine were at first elected by the voluntary suffrages of the people, afterwards by lot from among the nobles. Faction and discord prevailing, a reform was needed, and a code of laws, termed the bloody code, was made by Draco. By this, the smallest offence, and the most heinous crime, were alike punished with death or banishment.

4. Thirty years after Draco, when the Athenians, by the rigor and injustice of his laws, were plunged into confusion and misery, the wise Solon was appointed archon, with the power of reforming the state. His first attempt was to settle the quarrels between the rich and the poor. In order to remove the

CHAP. II.—1. What was the condition and conduct of the Spartans? How long was their first war with the people of Messenia? How did it terminate?—2. Give an account of the second Messenian war.—3. What changes occurred in the government of Athens? What were the laws of Draco called? Why?—4. What was the effect of “the bloody code?”
Pisistratus Tyrant of Athens.

Evils which arose from the debts of the poor, and the power of their creditors, he lowered the interest of money, raised its nominal value, and deprived creditors of power over the persons of debtors, or those of their families. He extended the right of property beyond the death of the owners, allowing them to dispose of their estates by will. He divided the people into four classes according to their wealth. Only the first three classes, composed of the rich, could hold public offices; but the fourth had an equal vote in the assembly of the people.

5. The nine archons were continued as chief magistrates, but associated with them was a council or senate; and nothing could be brought before the people which had not been first discussed in this body. The members of the senate were chosen annually by lot, from the first three classes of citizens, and consisted of four hundred persons. The assembly of the people comprised the four classes of citizens, and possessed the power of deciding upon war or peace, of choosing the magistrates, and of deliberating upon the subjects proposed by the senate. Solon restored and augmented the power of the Areopagus, making it the supreme court of judicature. It was composed of those who had held the office of archon with honor and dignity, and its members retained their place for life. The reputation of this court for justice and integrity was so great, that it is said even the Romans, who were now rising to power, referred causes to its decision.

6. But these wise regulations did not long restrain the restless spirit of the Athenians. Pisistratus, a descendant of the ancient kings, and a relation of Solon, by his insinuating manners, and great pretences to zeal for the people, made himself the most popular man in Athens. Appearing one day in the market-place, bloody and covered with wounds, he declared he had received them from his enemies, by whom he had been waylaid. The people believed that his life had been thus exposed for the public good, and a guard of fifty soldiers was granted him. Soon after this, he augmented the number, seized the Acropolis, and exiled all who would not submit. Thus he made himself tyrant of Athens. He was twice expelled, but finding means to reinstate himself, he reigned seventeen years in peace. He governed in a mild and equitable manner, not attempting any farther alterations in the constitution of Solon. He established a public library, and made the Athenians ac-

* Plutarch attributes the origin of this high tribunal to Solon; but from other authorities it would appear that it existed, though with inferior powers, in the time of Draco.
† The Greeks employed the word tyrant, in a sense different from its modern acceptation. With them, it denoted a person who had obtained the sovereignty in a republic, but it had no reference to the abuse of power.

4. Give an account of Solon. Of his edict to help the poor †. Of that in reference to wills †. Respecting the divisions of the people †—5. What did Solon direct in regard to the archons, What with respect to a senate † What respecting an assembly of the people †. What concerning the Areopagus †—6. Who subverted the laws of Solon †. Give an account of him.
quainted with the poems of Homer, which he collected, and ordered to be read at the public feasts.

7. Pisistratus was succeeded by his sons, Hippias and Hipparchus. Their united reign, at first popular, was, after a few years, terminated by the assassination of Hipparchus, at a religious festival. From this time, the government of Hippias exhibits a jealous and cruel policy. The Alcmenæidae, a powerful family, who had been banished from Athens, united with Cleomenes, the reigning king of Sparta. They advanced with a large army, and joined by other exiles who had suffered from the cruelty of Hippias, laid siege to Athens. Hippias and his family fled from Attica and went to Sardis, then under the government of Darius, king of Persia, who espoused his cause.

8. Clisthenes, one of the Alcmenæidae, succeeded to power. He undermined the constitution of Solon, by introducing certain alterations pleasing to the populace. He increased the number of tribes from four to ten, and enacted that fifty should be chosen from each tribe to constitute the senate, from this time, called the council of five hundred.

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CHAPTER III.

Persia.—The empire of Cyrus.

SECTION I.

1. Persia, until the time of Cyrus, consisted of twelve tribes, who inhabited only one province of the vast territory which has since borne this name. Of these tribes, the Pasargadae, to which Cambyses, the father of Cyrus, belonged, was the most noble. The power of Asia was at this time divided between Babylon, Media, and Lydia. Croesus, the king of Lydia, was renowned for his wealth. With the exception of Lydia and Cilicia, his dominions extended over all Asia west of the Halys. Babylon, under the successors of Nebuchadnezzar, had been declining in power.

2. Cyrus was the son of Cambyses, a Persian noble, and Mandane, the daughter of Astyages, king of Media. The Persian tribes united in him, as their chief or king, and he effected the union of the Persian and Median kingdoms. The victories of Cyrus over the Armenians, aroused the jealousy of the neighboring sovereigns. A coalition was formed between the kings.

7. Give an account of his successors.—8. Who next rose to power, and how did he alter the laws of Solon?

CHAP. III.—1. Between what three kingdoms was the power of Asia divided? What can you say of Croesus and his dominions? What of Babylon?—2. Give an account of Cyrus?
of Babylon, Egypt, and Lydia, and a battle fought between the Persians and the allied forces at Thymbra, a city of Lydia, in which the fortune of Cyrus prevailed. He soon made himself master of Sardis, the capital of Lydia, seized upon the vast riches of Croesus, took him prisoner, and put a period to his kingdom, obliging his people to adopt the Persian costume and manners. In his distress the fallen monarch called out "Solon! Solon!" In his prosperity he had received a visit from that philosopher, who would not call him happy, because he lived; and no man living could tell what dangers he might yet experience.

3. Having reduced all Asia Minor, Cyrus carried the war into the Babylonian empire, and in a pitched battle, defeated Belshazzar, who retreated to his capital. The conqueror then sat down before the city. Knowing what passed within, he ordered his men, on a certain evening, to open the great receptacles, prepared by former sovereigns to draw off the water of the river in seasons of inundation. Thus the channel of the Euphrates was drained. Belshazzar, secure in the strength of his city, had that night made a great feast for his nobles, and in the disorder of the festival, the gates of brass, which had closed the descent to the river, had been left open. The troops of Cyrus, passing into its bed, were soon in the heart of the city. In the meantime, the effeminate monarch had been awakened from his dream of pleasure and security, by a mysterious appearance. A hand had written on the wall in characters of divine vengeance—"Mene tekel." Daniel, severe in youthful sanctity, fearlessly read to him their prophetic import, "Thou art weighed in the balance, and found wanting." At this dread moment, the troops of Cyrus were at hand, to verify the words of the prophet. Almost without resistance, they took the city, and slew the sentenced Belshazzar.

4. Cyrus permitted the Jews, who were still in captivity in Babylon, to return to Jerusalem, and not only assisted them in rebuilding their temple, which had been destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, but restored its sacred vessels. The dominions of Cyrus extended from the river Indus to the Egean Sea, and from the Caspian and Euxine Seas, to Ethiopia and the Sea of Arabia. He was a great and virtuous king, and his name was long held in reverence among the nations of the east. He was killed in an expedition against the Scythians.

5. Cambyses, his son, succeeded him. This cruel prince extended his dominions by the conquest of Egypt, whose king he put to death. From a jealousy of his brother Smervis, he ordered his assassination. During the absence of Cambyses, a
THE PERSIANS INVADE THE SCYTHIANS.

67

Magian, calling himself Smerdis, pretended to have escaped the intended assassination, and seized upon the throne of Persia. The imposition was at length discovered, and the impostor de-throned and killed.

6. The royal family becoming extinct by the death of Cambyses, Darius Hystaspes, a Persian nobleman, was raised to the throne. He recovered Babylon, which had revolted, and then collected a formidable army for the invasion of Scythia, taking as allies some of the Asiatic Greeks. He passed into Europe, and crossed the Danube on a bridge of boats. This he left in charge of his Greek allies, with permission, if he did not come back in three months, to destroy the bridge, and return to their country. The Scythians, on learning that Darius had crossed the Danube, sent away their wives and children with their flocks, to the northern part of their country. They then laid waste the region through which the Persians must pass; consuming the forage, and destroying the wells and springs. Having done this, they marched towards their enemy, not with the view of giving him battle, but of drawing him into an ambush. Darius advanced; at length a herald from the Scythian prince appeared, bringing to him a present of a bird, a mouse, a frog, and five arrows. One of his officers expounded the enigma, which the messenger refused to do. "Know," said he, "that unless you can fly in the air like birds, or hide yourself in the earth like mice, or swim the water like frogs, you shall in no wise be able to escape the arrows of the Scythians."

7. The Persian army, amid the barren steppes of the north, and annoyed by the wily enemy, becoming disheartened, their monarch was compelled to relinquish his imprudent enterprise, and retrace his steps towards the Danube. The Persians, having as usual lighted fires in their camp, the Scythians did not discover their retreat till morning, when they despatched envoys to persuade the Greeks to destroy the bridge, they had been left to guard. Being acquainted with all the passes, they arrived before Darius. A consultation of the Grecian chiefs was held, many of whom, believing that the destruction of Darius would procure the future independence of their own states, were in favor of destroying the bridge. Other counsels prevailed; but this treachery was made known to Darius, and was one cause of his subsequent hostility to the Greeks. He recrossed the Danube in safety, and leaving Megabyssus, one of his generals, with part of his army, he retired with the rest of his troops to Sardis. Macedonia and Thrace were conquered by Megabyssus, and added to the Persian dominions.

8. The Ionians of Asia, who had for some time been subject to the Persians, headed by Aristagoras, tyrant of Miletus, re-

5 What were some of his acts? — 6. Who succeeded him? What were his first measures? What did the Scythians when their country was invaded? How was their present explained? — 7. Reect the circumstances of Darius' retreat. What cause of hostility to the Greeks did he find? What general did he have in Europe? What countries did he conquer?
volted from Darius, and despatched ambassadors to the several states of Greece, to implore their aid. Cleomenes, king of Sparta, refused to engage in the war; but the Athenians, offended with Darius for having taken part with Hippias, their banished king, now willingly entered into an alliance with the Ionians. To render the revolt against the Persians more formidable, by engaging the people heartily in their cause, Aristagoras travelled through all Ionia, prevailing upon the tyrants to restore freedom to the cities, of which he himself set an example by liberating Miletus.

9. In the third year of the war, the Ionians collected a fleet, and sailed for Ephesus. Leaving their ships at that place, they marched to Sardis, which they took, and having driven Arraphernes, the cruel Persian governor, into the citadel, they set fire to the city. They then marched towards Ephesus, but the Persian and Lydian armies overtook and defeated them with great slaughter. The Athenians escaped to their ships, and refused to engage any further in the war.

10. Miletus being the centre, and most important city of the Ionian confederacy, Arraphernes concentrated his forces, and besieged the place. The Ionians, with a fleet of three hundred and fifty-three vessels, determined to engage the Persians at sea; who with a naval force far superior to theirs, were lying near the besieged city. So skilful were the Greeks in maritime affairs, that the Persian commander dared not hazard an engagement until he had first sought to corrupt the different squadrons of which the Ionian fleet was composed. He promised indemnity to those countries whose vessels should forsake the Ionian cause, and threatened utter destruction to the places, whose fleets should adhere to it. All, but the Samians, stood firm in their devotion to the common cause. Their admiral, in the commencement of the battle, gave the signal for flight, and of their sixty ships, forty-nine deserted. The Samian people disapproved his treachery, and ordered the names of the eleven captains who disobeyed his commands, to be honorably recorded on a pillar erected by the commonwealth. Though the Ionians and most of the allies fought with bravery, the battle was lost. Miletus was soon after taken by assault; its inhabitants put to the sword, and its dwellings and temples burned. Devastation was spread through the towns and country, to the shores of the Hellespont.

11. Artaphernes was recalled, and succeeded by Mardonius, a young nobleman, who had married a daughter of Darius. He was directed, with a large army and a powerful fleet, to carry the war into Greece. His land army crossed the Hellespont,

8. Who revolted from the Persians? From whom did they seek for aid, and with what success? What measures were taken by Aristagoras?—9. Relate the naval operations of the war. What city did the Greeks burn? What followed? How did the Athenians bear this reverse?—10. What is said of Miletus? By whom was it besieged? Relate the naval battle. Its result.—11. Who succeeded Artaphernes?
CHAPTER IV.

Greece.—The Persian War.

1. Greece was at this time composed of a number of small and independent states, connected with each other by no bond of interest or obligation, but often engaged in feuds and hostilities. Sparta and Athens, having obtained a pre-eminence over the other states, were ever jealous of each other. The Persian invasion for once united them, a national spirit awoke, and laid the foundation of future greatness. The year following the invasion of Mardonius, Darius sent heralds into Greece, demanding of all the cities earth and water, the usual form in which the Persians exacted submission. Thebes, Egin, and many of the cities and islands submitted; but Athens and Sparta resisted the demand, and in the one place the heralds were thrown into a cave, in the other into a well, and bade to procure there the earth and water which they wanted.

2. Darius, in the meantime, had made vigorous preparations for the war. Datis, with Artaphernes, son of the former governor of Lydia, was appointed to succeed Mardonius. They departed from Asia Minor with a fleet of 500 ships, and an army of 100,000 men. Having taken the islands of the Egean Sea, they proceeded to Eretria, a city of Euboea, which had greatly incensed Darius by its participation in the Ionian war. Having reduced the city to ashes, and sent the inhabitants in chains to Persia, the Persians, under the guidance of Hippias, the banished king of Athens, advanced towards Attica, and landed on the narrow plain of Marathon.

3. The Spartans, from some superstitious fears, were unwilling to join the little band of Athenians till after the full moon. In Miltiades, the Athenians possessed a commander capable of directing the energies of the republic, and infusing into the breasts of the people the ardor of his own self-devoting spirit. He had formerly been tyrant of the Chersonesus, and having

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11. Relate the circumstances of his invasion? 

CHAP. IV. 2. Of what was Greece composed? Which states were at the head of Greece? In what manner did the Persians demand submission? How did the several states answer them? 1—2. Relate the military arrangements of Darius. The number of his ships? His troops? Their progress until they arrive at Marathon? 1—3. What forces on the part of the Greeks opposed this formidable army?
accompanied Darius in his Scythian expedition, was acquainted with the Persian mode of warfare. This intrepid man did not even await the approach of the Persians, but marched onward to Marathon with only his little army of 10,000 heroes, and prepared with alacrity for the encounter of the Persian host, which was ten times his own in number.

4. The strength of the Persian army consisted much in its cavalry, and the prudent Miltiades had drawn up his forces on a narrow plain, where cavalry had no opportunity for action. Datis, the Persian commander, was aware of his disadvantageous position, but trusting to the superiority of his forces, concluded to hazard an engagement. On the signal for battle, the Athenians advanced running, at once engaging the enemy in close fight. The whole Persian army retreated in disorder to their ships. The Athenians pursued, slaughtered 12,000, set many of the ships on fire and took seven. An Athenian soldier, finding the victory secure, left the field of battle covered with blood, and such was his exhaustion on reaching the city, that he could only exclaim, "Rejoice, rejoice, the victory is ours," when he fell dead at the feet of the magistrate.

5. Miltiades now obtained of the Athenians a fleet of seventy ships, with the design of punishing those islands which had favored the Persians. He laid siege to Paros, but having received a dangerous wound in attempting to enter the town, he raised the siege and returned to Athens. On the accusation of one of the citizens, this benefactor of Greece was tried for treachery in raising the siege. He was fined fifty talents, and, being unable to pay this sum, was thrown into prison, where he died of the wounds which he received in the service of his ungrateful country.

6. Darius was occupied for three years in preparing a more powerful armament, intending to lead the expedition in person; but dying, Xerxes, his eldest son, succeeded him. Xerxes subdued the Egyptians, who had revolted, and then continued the vast preparations made for the invasion of Greece. After four years, in which he had gathered an army from every part of his extensive empire, he commenced his march towards the Hellespont. He passed the winter at Sardis, from whence he sent heralds to all the Grecian states, except Athens and Lacedaemon, demanding earth and water. The Thessalians and some others submitted.

7. In the spring, Xerxes, at the head of an army, said to have been greater than was ever collected either before or since his time, advanced towards Greece. A bridge of boats had been made at a monstrous expense, for the passage of the host across the Hellespont. The width of the strait and the rapidity of the current were not sufficiently considered, and the undertaking proved

3. What account can you give of Miltiades?—4. Describe the great battle of Marathon.—5. How was Miltiades treated?—6. What was done by Darius? What were the first measures of his successor? What was done by Xerxes in relation to the invasion of Greece?
THE GREAT ARMY OF XERXES.

as useless as it was difficult and dangerous. The bridge was destroyed by a violent storm, and Xerxes, in a fit of passion, ordered the workmen to be put to death, and the rebellious sea to be scourged with three hundred lashes, and chains to be thrown into it. A second attempt succeeded; a bridge was completed, and the army occupied seven days and seven nights in the passage. Having crossed the Thracian Chersonesus, and arrived at Dor, Xerxes reviewed his army. His infantry amounted to 1,700,000, and his cavalry to 80,000. His fleet, when he left Asia, consisted of 1207 vessels, of three banks of oars, each carrying 300 fighting men. The European nations had added to his fleet 20 vessels, each carrying 200 men; besides which, there were small galleys, transport ships, and vessels carrying provisions, amounting in all to 3000.

8. Great was the terror of the Greeks. Athens and Lacedaemon sent ambassadors to Gelon, the principal tyrant of Syracuse,—to Argos, and to the isles of Corycyra and Crete. From each an unfavorable answer was returned. The Athenians next consulted the oracle of Delphi. The answer was, that when all else was destroyed, their wooden walls might preserve them. This Themistocles, who now took the lead in Athens, interpreted to signify their ships. After the battle of Marathon, that profound politician, foreseeing the probable re-invasion of his country, had sought to increase the maritime power of Athens. At his suggestion, the revenues of some silver mines, which had usually been distributed among the people, were applied to the building of a hundred galleys. On the first alarm they had doubled their number of ships, and they now appointed Themistocles to the command. Eurybiades, a Spartan, was commander-in-chief of the whole naval force of the allies.

9. In the present danger, Athens and Eretria had become reconciled, and all internal divisions were healed. Themistocles joined in soliciting the return of Aristides, whose banishment he had been active in procuring. Aristides had, in the war with Darius, been of great service to the state, and by the spotless integrity of his character had acquired the surname of the Just. While the question of his banishment was pending, he heard a citizen, who did not know his person, speak of voting against him. "Why?" said the good man, "what evil has Aristides done to you?" "I am tired," said the citizen, "of hearing him called the Just." He then went into voluntary banishment, but returned at the invitation of his country.

10. The Persian king marched at his ease, through Thrace, Macedonia and Thessaly. The cities through which he passed prepared for him splendid entertainments; and Xerxes believed he had but to march over the necks of a prostrate people.

7. Relate Xerxes' passage of the Hellespont. The size of his army? Of his fleet?—8. What measures were taken by the Greeks? How did Themistocles persuade the Athenians to increase their navy? Who were the naval commanders?—9. What account can you give of Aristides?
Leonidas, the king of Sparta, met him at the pass of Thermopylae,* with only five thousand regular troops. Xerxes, hearing that the Spartans had taken possession of this narrow pass, sent to them that it was the Athenians only, with whom he was at war, and he desired that they would lay down their arms. "Tell him to come and take them," said Leonidas. The Persians attacked, and were repulsed with great slaughter by the Grecian phalanx.† During three days the Persians made repeated attempts, but the Spartans kept the pass. At length a treacherous Greek showed them a secret path, which led to the top of a mountain overlooking and commanding the Spartan position. Leonidas now determined to sacrifice himself and his Spartans, believing that their devotion would show the Persians with whom they had to contend; and his example enkindle the enthusiasm of his countrymen. Besides, the oracle had declared that either Sparta or her king must perish. Reserving his three hundred Lacedaemonians, who were envious of sharing his fate, he dismissed the others. Without a hope either of conquest or escape, this little band advanced to the onset, determined that their lives should cost their enemies dear. Leonidas was one of the first who fell. His soldiers, roused to fury, rallied around his body, and fought till 20,000 Persians were slain. Only one of the three hundred remained to carry the news. Sparta despised him, while she rejoiced over her patriot sons, who so nobly died in her defence.

11. The fleet of Xerxes had encountered a terrible storm, which had destroyed hundreds of his vessels. It had followed the movements of the land forces, and lay near them, on the northern coast of Euboea, and was still superior to the Grecian in strength. Several engagements took place between them, which, though not decisive, were favorable to the Athenians, and served to animate their spirits. News of the battle of Thermopylae induced the Grecian fleet to withdraw from the neighborhood of the Persian, which now took possession of Euboea. Xerxes, advanced through Phocis, burnt its cities, and laid waste the country.

12. The Peloponnesians, forgetful of the claims of their allies, set about fortifying their peninsula by a strong wall extending across the isthmus from the gulf of Corinth to the gulf of Athens. When the Athenians found themselves deserted,

* This was a narrow pass between Mount Ætna and the sea, leading from Thessaly into Phocis. It derived its name from two Greek words, thermas, warm springs, of which there were several near, and pyle, gates. Through this narrow way, not wide enough for two chariots to pass each other, the Persian land forces were obliged to march on their way to Attica.

† A square battalion, or body of soldiers, with their shields joined and pikes crossing each other; and so closely arranged in rank and file, as to render it exceedingly difficult to break it. It sometimes consisted of 2,000 or 10,000 men, but frequently of a smaller number.

10. Relate the conduct and fate of Leonidas. Where was Thermopylae?

11. Relate the naval operations. The progress of the Persian fleet and land army.—12. What circumstances preceded the destruction of Athens?
they abandoned their city. Almost all the male citizens went on board the ships, piously trusting, through faith in the oracle, to their "wooden walls." The protection of the city was solemnly committed to Minerva, and the women and children were sent to Salamis and Ægina. Xerxes advanced and took Athens; he burnt the citadel, and slaughtered the few remaining citizens who had valiantly defended it. The finest paintings and statuary he sent to adorn Susa, now the capital of his own dominions.

13. Eurybiades, with most of the confederates, desired to retreat with the Grecian navy, near to the isthmus of Corinth, where the Grecian land forces were stationed. But Themistocles urged the necessity of maintaining the advantageous position which they occupied in the narrow strait of Salamis. At the same time, to oblige the Greeks to fight, he used a stratagem, which brought the Persians to threaten them at both ends of the strait. Aristides, who was at Ægina, on learning the movements of the Persians, procured a passage to Salamis. On his arrival, the officers were discussing the expediency of a retreat, but he informed them that the entrances of the strait were already in the hands of the Persians.

14. Nothing was left to the Greeks but united resistance. The Persian fleet was far superior in numbers to theirs. The land army, with Xerxes at its head, was drawn up on the Attic shore. The vain monarch, confident that he should but witness an easy conquest, was struck with astonishment and dismay when he found the valor of the Greeks prevailing, and at length beheld the destruction and flight of his mighty armament. Alarm for his personal safety, he was seized with an eager desire to escape to a country, where victory itself had been to him scarcely more than another name for defeat. Fearing, from secret advices, that his bridge across the Hellespont might be destroyed, he hastened to depart, leaving 300,000 of his best forces under Mardonius, by which he still hoped to subjugate the country.

15. The Greeks pursued, as Xerxes fled before them, for forty-five days, during which, his army suffered great distress from famine. At length disease appearing among them, he left them behind, and with only a few attendants hurried forward. Finding his bridge across the Hellespont destroyed, he did not delay in order to chastise the sea a second time, but crossed it in a small fishing boat. The remains of the Persian fleet were stationed at Samos, to prevent the revolt of some of the provinces of Asia Minor. Mardonius with his troops retired for winter quarters into Thessaly.

16. The Carthaginians, who, followed the steps of the Phœcians, from whom they sprang, had made themselves a wealthy...
and powerful maritime nation. They believed that the Greek colony in Sicily might, at this time, be made an easy prey, as they could hope for no assistance from the mother country. They therefore sent out a fleet which landed an army on the island. Gelo, the powerful tyrant of Syracuse, commanding in person, defeated the Carthaginian land forces; while his brother Hiero, who commanded the Sicilian fleet, obtained a victory at sea, on the same day, as is generally believed, that the Greeks defeated the Persians at Salamis.

17. The following spring, Mardonius sent an embassy to persuade the Athenians to separate themselves from the Grecian confederacy. The Spartans, now fearing the effect of that selfish policy which had left the Athenians to struggle alone, despatched messengers to assure them of their determination to send them immediate succors, and beseech them not to sacrifice Grecian freedom to the security of their own city. To the emissaries of Mardonius, Aristides, who was now at the head of affairs, returned a respectful but decided negative; and of the Spartans he requested to send their promised forces into Boeotia, to prevent the retaking of Athens. Mardonius, on learning the result of his negotiation, advanced into Attica, laying waste the whole country. The Athenians receiving no succors from their allies, again abandoned their city, and they now retired to Salamis. Mardonius consigned Athens to destruction, burning and demolishing whatever had been spared the preceding year.

18. Mardonius retired into Boeotia, near the city of Thebes, whose inhabitants were in the Persian interest, and where larger plains would enable him to employ his cavalry with greater advantage. The Grecian forces, amounting to 70,000 men, under the command of Pausanias, king of Sparta, and Aristides, the Athenian general, pursued him. Here occurred the memorable battle of Plataea, where the Greeks obtained a splendid victory. The remains of the Persian fleet were at the promontory of Mycale; the ships were drawn ashore, surrounded by a rampart, and guarded by 60,000 men. On the same day of the victory at Plataea, the Greeks, commanded by Xeriphus, attacked and defeated them, carried the rampart, and burned the Persian fleet. These two successes delivered Greece for ever from the most formidable invasion of which history makes mention.

19. Thrace was about this time subdued by the confederated Greeks, under Pausanias and Cimon; and Byzantium,* the capital, with its rich treasures, fell into their hands. Although the Persians had been forced from Europe, yet the confederated

* Byzantium, afterwards Constantinople, was founded B.C. 658, by a colony from Argos.

16. What attack was made on Sicily? How was it repelled?—17. Relate the circumstances of the second capture of Athens.—18. Give an account of the battle of Plataea. Of Mycale.
GREECE, HEAD OF THE NATIONS.

Greek powers now followed them into Asia, with intent to set the Asiatic Greeks free from their dominion. Xerxes had been succeeded by his son Artaxerxes, who had collected a large naval force at the mouth of the river Eurymedon, and a land force on its banks. A Greek expedition, under Cimon, attacked and defeated the fleet. Then Cimon, decking himself and some of his followers in rich Persian dresses, and going aboard Persian galleys, sailed up the river, and were gladly received in the camp of their deceived enemy; who, thus taken by surprise, were in their horror and amazement easily overcome. The spoils of the camp were immense, and riches now flowed in upon Greece.

CHAPTER V.

Greece.

1. The glory of the Greeks was now at its meridian splendor. Having become the terror of surrounding nations by their success in arms, they became not less their admiration for excellence in the arts, and in the pursuits of philosophy. But their ancient mythology, although it furnished a splendid imagery to the poet, yet as it taught the worship of divinities, who according to popular belief were murderers, thieves, and adulterers, it therefore exercised an injurious effect upon the public morals. Hence arose different sects or schools of philosophy, embodying purer and better systems.

2. These schools were held at Athens. Of all the ancients, Socrates, in his doctrines of the unity and perfections of the Deity, and the immortality of the soul, comes the nearest to Christianity. Some regard him as inspired. He affirmed his belief that a spirit attended him. Plato, his scholar, taught the unity of the Godhead, the immortality of the soul, and man's moral obligation to conduct in a manner worthy of the high dignity of his nature. Aristotle, the most distinguished of the pupils of Plato, was the founder of the Peripatetic school, whose doctrines concern the physical nature of men and things, and deal much in the subtleties of logic. Zeno, the founder of the Stoics, taught that virtue, not happiness, is the chief good—the object and aim of man's existence. The Egyptian priests, although they led the people to worship many gods, yet secretly

19. Give an account of the battle of the Eurymedon.

CHAP. V.—1. What was the state of Greece at this period? What was the character and spirit of their mythology?—2. What was held at Athens? What account can you give of Socrates? Of Plato? Of Aristotle? Of Zeno? What double-dealing was practised by the Egyptian priests? Who was their scholar? What did he teach to his scholars? How? What difference was there in the manner of the Athenian sages?
to their pupils, they taught that there was but one God. Pythagoras, who had received from them their doctrines, taught this to his scholars at his famous school of Crotona, in Italy, but privately. The democratic philosophers of Athens taught publicly for the good of mankind at large, whom they respected, what they themselves believed.

3. The elegant arts of poetry, painting, sculpture, and architecture, were also at this period carried to a perfection never yet equalled in any other age or country. Much credit for patronizing the arts and sciences is due to Pericles, who now obtained ascendency in Athens, and preserved his authority for the forty years comprising the golden period of Athenian history.

4. Though born and nurtured in the aristocracy, yet he artfully joined the democratic party to undermine the influence of Aristides and Cimon. Aristides died, Cimon was banished, and Pericles ruled without a rival. Content with the substance of power, he forborne to excite envy by its pomp and titles. When he spoke, it was with force and eloquence. His administration was just and equitable; but still he was more his own, than his country’s friend. He corrupted the people by treasures, which he removed from Delphos to Athens. He caused the city to be embellished by splendid buildings, and superb statues, executed by Phidias. The envy which he shunned himself, he thus drew upon Athens, from the other Grecian states, and in this manner paved the way for attacks from without; while by flattering the lowest of the people, he weakened the force of the laws, undermined the internal constitution of the state, and rendered it unable to make a vigorous resistance.

5. Such was the reputation for wisdom, which Athens had at this period acquired in distant countries, that a new nation, rising in the west, sent deputies to obtain the laws of Solon. This nation was Rome, destined to be the conqueror of Greece. About this time, Herodotus, the “father of history,” read his work to a public assembly at Athens, and received flattering honors. Eschylus and Sophocles carried the Greek drama to its perfection. Though Greece was thus esteemed by other nations, yet her states, wanting a well defined system of confe deracy, were no sooner delivered from foreign pressure, than

His statue of Minerva was the pride of Athens; but when he was banished he made for the people of Elis a still nobler monument of his art, the statue of Jupiter Olympus, reckoned one of the wonders of the world. A temple of Minerva, situated on the Acropolis, was said to have been the most beautiful building ever erected. It was of pure white Pentelic marble. It was called the Parthenon, because erected to a virgin goddess. Phidias was the chief architect.

GREECE DIVIDED AGAINST ITSELF.

6. The first Sacred war, occurred about this time. It was so called because it originated in a dispute arising from a claim of the Delphians to the sole care of the temple of Apollo; its seat was at Delphos. Three years after this, in a war with the Samians, the Athenians, under Pericles, prevailed and took the island of Samos.

7. The Corecyrians, originally a colony from Corinth, but who now surpassed the mother country, had hitherto declined joining any of the Grecian confederacies. Being at war with Corinth, they asked aid of Athens. Ten galleys were furnished them by the Athenians, but with orders to engage only if the Corinthians invaded the island of Corecyra. Hostile feelings thus beginning between Athens and Corinth, were farther increased by a dispute respecting Pousidea, a Corinthian colony in Macedonia, which was a tributary ally of Athens; and a battle was fought between their forces near that city, in which the Athenians gained the advantage, and then laid siege to the place. The Corinthians sent a deputation to Lacedaemon, accusing the Athenians of having broken the articles of peace. They were willingly listened to by the envious rival of Athens.

CHAPTER VI.

The Peloponnesian War.

1. Thus rivalship for the sovereign power in Greece was impelling Athens and Sparta to a contest fatal to their common country. Athens was the head of the Ionic race, Sparta of the Doric. Athens was regarded as a democracy, and the advocate of the people's rights; Sparta as an aristocracy, and a defender of the privileges of favored classes. In regard to their allies, Athens as mistress of the sea demanded and could collect tribute from her's, while Sparta made no such claim. For this reason in the commencement of this contest between the two ruling powers of Greece, the public voice was favorable to Sparta. Even the Athenian allies, groaning under the burdens imposed on them, secretlylooked to Sparta for deliverance.

2. What was the position of the states of Greece with respect to each other, when no longer pressed by foreign wars? Give some account of the first sacred war.—7. What was the cause of the Corinthian war? Where was a battle fought? What was the result? To whom did the Corinthians apply? In what spirit was their petition received?

CHAP. VI.—1. To what was the rivalship between the two first powers of Greece impelling them? How did the respective situations of Athens and Sparta contrast?
2 Archidamus, king of Sparta, at the head of the Peloponnesians, advanced into Attica. Pericles determined to prevent a battle; and to retaliate for the injuries of the enemy, by a descent upon the Peloponnesian coast. The inhabitants of the country were made to destroy their own houses and fields, to remove their cattle to Euboea, and to retire to the city. Notwithstanding the distress of the multitudes thus collected, they cheerfully bent their energies towards carrying on the war. The Spartan king desolated the country. The popular voice called loudly for battle; but Pericles, though censured, remained firm to his purpose. The Athenian fleet, meanwhile, landed on the Peloponnesus, ravaged the western coast, and so distressed the inhabitants, that the Spartan army was recalled home for its defence. Thus each destroyed the other, while neither gained any thing of value.

3. Athens suffered, the next year, a divine chastisement. A plague of a most virulent character broke out in the city, and multitudes of its crowded population became its victims. Such was the extent of the distress, that the dying were unattended, the dead unburied. Yet the living took it not to heart to amend their ways, but broke out into the most disgraceful licentiousness. The city was crowded; for the invasion of the Spartans had again led Pericles to take the people of the country within the walls, while again he sent the fleet to ravage the Peloponnesus. The same policy was followed in succeeding years. Pericles lost all his family by the plague, and at length, bowed down with sorrow, died himself.

4. The Athenians having been successful in several engagements, and having at Pylos taken a number of Spartan prisoners, the Lacedaemonians made earnest overtures for peace, but they were rejected. In the young Brasidas, Sparta found a general who partially retrieved her affairs. He transferred the seat of war to the coasts of Macedonia, and took Amphipolis, the most valuable of the Athenian possessions in Thrace. Thucydides, the historian, had command of the Athenian squadron, now stationed at Thasos, which he brought up as soon as he found Amphipolis was attacked. Though too late to prevent its surrender, he saved other cities which were threatened. For his failure, though innocent of any mismanagement, the Athenians banished him for twenty years. Cleon was sent with an army to check the Spartans. An engagement ensued in which both he and Brasidas were killed. A truce was made for fifty years, but it was not kept.

5. The chief power in Athens was now shared by Nicias, a nobleman of integrity and patriotism, and Alcibiades, the grandson of Pericles. The latter was born to wealth, possession...

uncommon beauty, and great power over the minds of others; but he was unprincipled and profligate. Hoping to acquire glory by the conquest of Sicily, he had prevailed on the Athenians, contrary to the wiser councils of Nicias, to send out a fleet against Syracuse, which had favored the Spartan cause. The most powerful and splendid armament which had ever sailed from Athens, was fitted out, and Alcibiades and Nicias appointed chief commanders. The night previous to the departure of the armament, some outrages having been committed upon the images of Mercury, which the Athenians discovered after it had sailed, suspicion rested upon Alcibiades. Being summoned home for trial, he left the fleet, fled to the Peloponnesus, and joined the Spartan cause.

6. Syracuse had sent to Sparta, imploring aid against Athens. Alcibiades, determined to make Athens feel his resentment, had pleased the Spartans by conforming to their plain dress and severe manners, and he now artfully wrought upon their fears and their pride; and persuaded them not only to send supplies into Sicily, but to make a fresh incursion into Attica. The Athenians laid siege to Syracuse. A powerful Spartan force under Glycippus arrived. Nicias wrote home for reinforcements, which were sent out under Demosthenes, a relative of the celebrated orator. The two generals were unable to sustain the siege. Battles were fought by sea and land, in which the blood and treasure of Athens perished. In attempting a retreat, both Nicias and Demosthenes were taken prisoners and barbarously slain.

7. The Athenians were in dismay at the news of these disasters; and the condition of the republic seemed desperate. Their treasury was exhausted, their navy almost destroyed, and their allies ready for revolt. Yet the spirit of the people sustained them, and energetic measures were speedily employed to retrieve their affairs. They might have succeeded, had they not found a new source of power to encounter, in the gold of Persia, which had found its way into the hands of their enemies. The satrap of Lydia and of the Hellespont, persuaded by Lyndander, an accomplished Spartan, furnished them with powerful supplies.

8. Meanwhile, Alcibiades finding himself suspected at Sparta, had visited Sardis, and, ingratiating himself with Tissaphernes, the satrap of Lydia, had rendered him favorable to Athens. At the same time he offered his own services to his dejected country. He was recalled and appointed general. Under his guidance the Athenian fleet was repeatedly victorious; Bysantium was taken, and the Athenian supremacy in Ionia and Thrace established.

9. About this time the Athenian fleet, during the absence of Alcibiades, and contrary to his orders, engaged at Notium.

8. What disastrous war did he promote?—6. What treachery to his country did he practise? Give an account of the Sicilian war?—7. What was the condition of Athens?—8. What part did Alcibiades now act?
SUPREMACY OF SPARTA.

Lysander, the Spartan admiral, and was defeated. This drew
upon Alcibiades the wrath of the inconstant populace. He was
dismissed from the command without trial, and again became an
exile. Having retired to a village in Phrygia, the Spartans in-
stigated the Athenians to destroy him. They sent soldiers,
who set fire to his house in the night. As he attempted to es-
cape, the soldiers fearing to approach, killed him with arrows.
One woman, alone, had sufficient regard for him to give his body
a decent burial.

10. After various turns of fortune, Lysander again obtained a
decisive naval victory. He entirely destroyed the Athenian
navy and reduced their allies to submission. He then blockaded
Athens with his fleet, while at the same time it was besieged by
land, with the whole strength of the Peloponnesian forces. Fa-
mine at length compelled the Athenians to surrender, and accept
such terms as their conquerors saw fit to impose. The walls
of Athens were destroyed; its ships, with the exception of twelve,
given up; its exiles restored, and its government changed to an
oligarchy under thirty rulers.

11. Sparta now ruled Greece, yet the constitution and laws
of Lycurgus, under which she had risen to consequence, had
become subverted by Persian gold and other causes of corrup-
tion; and the self-sacrificing spirit of public virtue had passed
from a degenerate people. From the effect of the laws of Ly-
curgus, the power of education may be inferred. If it could
lead men to form and preserve, for so long a period, characters
contrary, in some respects, to reason and nature, much more
might it establish them in the reasonable practices of true reli-
gion and virtue.

12. The chief power in Athens being vested in persons sup-
ported by the Lacedaemonian interest, the most cruel and arbi-
trary measures ensued. Critias, the chief of the thirty tyrants,
had formerly been banished from the city, and he now sought
to gratify his revenge by shedding the blood of his countrymen.
Yet amidst the scenes of tyranny, murder and profligacy which
reigned in Athens, one individual shines forth with the lustre of
virtue. Socrates, the philosopher, conforming his practice to
the principles of morality which he taught, resisted the torrent
of vice, with calmness and intrepidity.

13. The reign of the tyrants could not long continue. The
same year in which it was established, the virtuous Thrasyb-
us, at the head of a number of his exiled countrymen, entered
the city, attacked and defeated the tyrants. Favored by a Spas-
tan party under Pausanias, the king, he procured the banish-
ment of the tyrants, and the restoration of Solon's constitution.
But the better spirit of Greece had departed. The tyranny of
THE RETREAT OF THE TEN THOUSAND.

the many followed that of the few. This fact is strikingly illustrated by the condemnation of Socrates. His death was procured by the Sophists, a sect whose opinions he justly despised. Having taken the poisonous hemlock, he calmly conversed with his friends till the moment of his dissolution. One of his disciples expressed his regret that he should die innocent. Socrates said, with a smile, "Would you have me die guilty?"

CHAPTER VII.

Persian War.—Thébes.

1. Darius Nuthus, king of Persia, died about the close of the Peloponnesian war, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Artaxerxes. Cyrus, another son of Darius, called the younger Cyrus, retained the government of western Asia, as a satrap of his brother. Mutual jealousies and quarrels ensued between the brothers. At length Cyrus raised a considerable army, and engaged in his service 13,000 Grecian mercenaries. With these he marched towards Persia. On his arrival at Conaxa, he was met by Artaxerxes at the head of his army, and defeated and slain. This prince is much extolled by historians. Xenophon, overlooking his lawless ambition, declares, that next to Cyrus the Great, he was the man most worthy to be a king.

2. The Persian followers of Cyrus submitted. The Grecian generals were invited to a council and treacherously slain. Ten thousand Greeks, under Xenophon, the historian, alone remained. They resolutely bent their steps, amidst appalling dangers, towards their distant home; and, through an enemy's country, effected the most memorable retreat which history has recorded.

3. The Persian monarch, offended with the Greeks for the part they had taken in his brother's revolt, his satrap Tisaphernes attacked some Grecian cities on the coast of Asia Minor. These applied to Sparta for aid, and troops were accordingly sent, who united with the 10,000 under Xenophon. But little progress was however made against the Persians, until the arrival in Asia Minor of Agesilaus, the wise and valiant king of Sparta. His energy and address proved effective to their relief, and drew over to his interest some of the Persian commanders. He invaded Phrygia, and, the succeeding summer, defeated a Persian army near Sardis. These successes led the Greeks to the project of the conquest of Persia, which Agesilaus seems

13. What account can you give of the death of Socrates?

CHAP. VII.—I. Give an account of the younger Cyrus.—2. Of the retreat of the 10,0001—3. Give some account of the military operations in Asia Minor. To what project did the Grecian successes lead?
the first to have formed, and which afterwards Philip of Macedon meditated, and his son Alexander executed. But a war which broke out between Sparta and Thebes, and which Persian bribery and intrigues had been instrumental in producing, obliged Agesilaus to return to Greece.

4. THEBES.—During the decay of the Athenian power, Thebes, the capital of Boeotia, had been increasing in strength. The Lacedaemonians plundered the holy land of Elis. This gave the Thebans a pretext to oppose the tyranny of that state Agesilaus, at the head of an army, passed through northern Greece and entered Boeotia. A battle between the Spartans and Thebans was fought near Coronea, in which the former obtained a complete victory. Their success by land was, however, counterbalanced by the loss of a naval battle near Cnidus, where their fleet was destroyed by the Athenians and Persians under Conon. Sparta here lost her maritime supremacy. This war desolated Greece for eight years. Persia, whose gold had fomented it, dictated the conditions of the peace, and obtained for herself the cession of the Asiatic colonies.

5. Sparta next attacked Mantinea, a town of Arcadia, and Olynthus, a city of Chalcidice, where this haughty power assumed to put down the democratical form of government. A Spartan army passing through Thebes, on its way to Olynthus, found that city divided into the usual oligarchical and democratical factions, which were possessed of nearly equal power. Phæbias, the Spartan commander, joined the oligarchical party, and unsuspected by the peaceful citizens, garrisoned the citadel with his troops. Ismenias, the leader of the democratical party, and first magistrate of the city, was seized on the charge of treason, and imprisoned in the citadel. Many of the Thebans fled, and four hundred of them took refuge in Athens. The Lacedaemonians, although they fined Phæbias, and deprived him of the command, yet evinced their approbation of his measures, by retaining the garrison in the citadel, while they sent for Ismenias to Sparta, where he was tried, condemned and executed.

6. A plan for restoring liberty to Thebes, was now formed by some Theban exiles, headed by one of their number, the intrepid Pelopidas. They left Athens in disguise and entered Thebes in the night. They completely surprised their opponents, and throwing open the prison doors, proclaimed liberty to all the citizens. Pelopidas was appointed governor, and receiving aid from Athens, he besieged the citadel. The Lacedaemonians, after a few days' resistance, capitulated, on condition of being allowed to return to their country. Athens, since the expulsion of the tyrants, had regained a part of her former in-

4. What state of Greece was now rising to power? By whom was the battle of Coronea fought? Give an account of the naval battle and its consequences. What is said of the peace which was concluded?—5. Relate the overbearing measures of Sparta.—6. How did Thebes regain her liberty?
Brief Supremacy of Thebes.

ancence; her navy which had been destroyed, was now increased, and the fortifications of the Piræus rebuilt. From Athens, Thebes hoped to derive aid; but when the Lacedæmonians entered Boeotia with a powerful army, the Athenians, struck with terror, shrunk from the war, and renounced their alliance with Thebes.

7. The Lacedæmonians, being now at peace with Athens, and in alliance with the other Grecian states, advanced under Cleombrotus, one of their kings, with a powerful army into Boeotia. Nothing was left to the Thebans, but victory or entire destruction. In Epaminondas they had a general suited to a great emergency. Possessed of powerful talents, of military skill, and of a heart glowing with zeal in the cause of his country, he obtained the unlimited confidence of the people. A decisive engagement was fought at Leuctra, in which this general, aided by Pelopidas, led on the Thebans to victory. The Lacedæmonians had the mortification, (unfelt for ages,) of being vanquished by inferior numbers.

8. Epaminondas, though in the dead of winter, pushed his successes, invaded the Peloponnesus, and penetrated even to Sparta. He had introduced a new and improved system of military tactics, and was considered the ablest commander in Greece. The Laconians, long oppressed by the Spartan aristocracy, took advantage of the occasion to revolt; and were joined by many of the Helots. Athens, now jealous of Thebes, sent an army to the assistance of the distressed Spartans. Both the Lacedæmonians and the Thebans had sent to the Persian king for aid. He, declaring in favor of Thebes, issued decrees, in which he assumed a superiority over Greece, offensive alike to Sparta and to Athens.

9. The aim of Thebes at supremacy in Greece was now apparent, and produced the disaffection of her allies. Her greatness, depending on the talents of her generals, Pelopidas and Epaminondas, could not survive them. Pelopidas being again sent against the Thessalians, won a battle, but fell in the combat. Epaminondas advanced into the Peloponnesus. Though deserted by a part of his allies, he fought with desperate bravery the renowned battle of Mantinea. where, at the moment of victory, he was slain. With him the power of Thebes expired.

10. The Amphictyonic council, which, during the supremacy of Athens and Sparta, possessed little power, had risen again into something of its former importance. The Thebans now prosecuted the Lacedæmonians for the seizure of the citadel, and obtained a decision of the council in their favor, Lacedæmon being fined 500 talents. Another decree of the Amphic-
PHILIP OF MACEDON.

Ancient Hist.

PERIOD V.
CHAP. VIII.

351. Phocian or second Sacred war.

360. Philip of Macedon.

tyons, less just, proved disastrous in its consequences. A vague
and doubtful tradition existed, that the rich Cirrhean plain,
which had long been cultivated by the Phocians, furnishing
subsistence to many of them, had anciently been consecrated
by the Amphictyons to the Delphian Apollo. A decision was
now obtained by the Thebans, who were inveterate enemies of
the Phocians, compelling them to cease from the use of the
sacred land, and pay a heavy fine for its former occupancy.
This gave rise to a civil war of ten years' continuance, which
embroiled all Greece, known by the name of the "Second Sa-
cred War."

CHAPTER VIII.

Macedonia.

1. The supremacy of Sparta was annihilated, the short-lived
glory of Thebes was past, and Athens, though increasing in
strength, was still unable to make good any claim of authority
over the other states. Philip, king of Macedon, a man of
powerful and cultivated talents, took advantage of the times to
forward his own ambitious views. This prince had been the
pupil of Epaminondas, and had learned of him the system of
military tactics, which he had invented. Macedonia, but little
known before the Persian invasion, was supposed to have been
originally peopled from Argos, though it was not considered
one of the Grecian states. From the first Greek invasion to the
battle of Platea, it was subject to Persia. Subsequently it be-
came independent, and now under Philip it was rising to
power.

2. This ambitious monarch designed it to become the head of
Greece. For this purpose, it was necessary to procure its ad-
mission into the Grecian confederacy. The Phocians, by the
plunder of the temple of Delphi, had rendered their cause un-
popular, and Philip joined the Thebans. The Phocians were
conquered, and the council of the Amphictyons decreed that the
Amphictyonic rights of the Phocians should be transferred
to the Macedonians. This was highly displeasing both to the
Spartans and to the Athenians. But the crafty Macedonian had
his faction in every state of Greece. In Athens there was, how-
ever, a powerful party against him, led by the great orator De-
mosthenes, and Phocion, a celebrated Athenian. Aware of his

10. What gave rise to the Phocian, or second Sacred war?
CHAP. VIII.—1. What was now the condition of the principal states of
How did Philip procure the admission of Macedonia into the Grecian con-
federacy? Give some account of his eloquent opponent. (See 2 and 3.)
ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

Sulde policy, and foreseeing in its success the destruction of the
remains of Grecian freedom, they resolutely opposed it.

3. The faction of Philip again excited the religious sensi-
bilities of the people, to use them for his interest. The Locrians
were now accused of cultivating the sacred lands of Apollo, and
this new sacrilege must be avenged. The obsequious Amphict-
yons met, and made Philip their general. Demosthenes, in
notes of thunder, raised a voice of such burning severity, that
to this day the overwhelming accusations of orators are called
"philippics." He so far prevailed, that Athens and Thebes headed
an armed league against him. Philip met the army of the allies
at Chaeronea. He was completely victorious, and the independ-
ence of Greece received its death-blow. A Macedonian garri-
son was placed in the citadel of Thebes. But the measures of
Philip towards his conquered foes were mild and forbearing.
Instead of proceeding towards Athens as a conqueror, to take
vengeance on his enemies, he released the Athenian prisoners
without ransom, and offered peace.

4. Philip next meditated the bold scheme of the conquest
of Persia. He summoned a general assembly of the Amphict-
yons, who met at Corinth, and determined on its invasion.
Philip of course was appointed captain-general of the Grecian
forces. Philip died within the year, but he left a son, and that
son was ALEXANDER. The barbarians of the north had reluc-
tantly submitted to the Macedonian power, and they now re-
volted; the Greeks, to whom the yoke of bondage was yet new,
manifested a spirit of rebellion, and the whole kingdom became
the scene of tumult and commotion. Alexander had from his
earliest years manifested great talents, and a haughty but gene-
rous spirit. While yet a boy he broke the celebrated horse
Eucephalus, and ever after controlled that "cerv animal, which
never suffered any other man to mount him. The philosopher
Aristotle, invited by his father, had been his preceptor, and in-
structed him in all the learning of the times.

5. On Alexander's accession to the throne of Macedon, he
first turned his arms against the barbarians. Having subdued
them, he hastened to chastise the revolted Thebans. He stormed
their city, and caused, with a cruelty which he afterwards rep-
pented, their old men, their women and children to be massa-
cred in the streets, and their buildings to be levelled with the
ground, sparing only the house of the poet Pindar. Athens
now trembled, for Alexander said, "Demosthenes called me a
boy, but I will show him, before the gates of Athens, that I am
a man." But the Athenians submitted, and Alexander, needing
their services, spared them.

3. By whom was the battle mentioned fought, and what was its con-
sequence? How did he treat the conquered?—8. What bold scheme did
Philip next meditate? What was done by the Amphictyons? What change
of sovereigns occurred? What was the state of Alexander's empire on his
father's death? What account can you give of Alexander's early years? Who
was his preceptor?—6. What were his first measures as a sovereign?
6. Another council of the Amphictyons was called at Corinth. All the deputies except those of Lacedaemon, being awed by the arms of Alexander, appointed him commander of the Grecian forces, and again sanctioned the attempt to conquer Persia. That empire had been declining for several preceding reigns. The effeminacy of its monarchs, and the extent of its territory, had left much to the control of the different satraps; and internal dissensions and divisions had so weakened the empire of Darius, the reigning monarch, that notwithstanding his great resources, he was now little fitted for a contest with a warlike nation, headed by so daring a commander.

7. With an army of not more than 30,000 foot and 500 horse, Alexander advanced and crossed the Hellespont. Memon, the most efficient general of Darius, with an army of 600,000, gave him battle at a ford of the rapid Granicus. Alexander and his troops fought like madmen. Hard pressed, he was himself saved by his friend Clitus, from the stroke of a Persian battle-axe. At length the Greeks forced the passage of the river and defeated the Persians with great slaughter. Sardis submitted to the conqueror. The Grecian cities willingly became his allies, and by conciliation or force, he made himself master of all Asia Minor.

8. The ensuing year he met, near Issus, the main army of the Persians, under the command of Darius himself, and again he was the victor. The slaughter of the Persians was immense. Darius and a part of his cavalry escaped, but his wife and family fell into the hands of Alexander, who treated them with hospitality and respect. Instead of pursuing Darius, the conqueror took Damascus, and then marched into Phœnicia. Some of the cities submitted to him without resistance; but Tyre, still the wealthiest and most powerful, maintained a siege of seven months, after which it was taken by assault. Egypt, to which he immediately proceeded, next submitted. During his stay in that ancient country, he founded the city of Alexandria. He visited the temple of Jupiter-Ammon, in Lybia, from a vain-glorious desire to be called the son of Jupiter.

9. The ensuing spring he again marched towards Persia; and having crossed the Euphrates and Tigris, he met at Arbela 700,000 Persians, commanded by Darius, and fought there a more desperate battle, than even that of Issus. Notwithstanding the situation was more favorable to the Persian cavalry, the military skill of the Macedonian phalanx gave them the victory. Darius again fled. His army was now destroyed, and his power at an end. Alexander obtained possession of the southern provinces of his empire almost without resistance. So rapid were
his movements, that Darius, who fled before him, was compelled to retreat into Bactria, while all Media yielded to the conqueror. The friendless monarch was here inhumanly murdered by a dependant, named Bessus, the governor of the province. For this act of ingratitude and treachery, he expected to be rewarded; but Alexander eventually punished his crime by a cruel death.

10. The conqueror, wishing to assimilate the people of his extensive empire, adopted the Persian dress, married Statira, the daughter of Darius, and caused many of his officers to marry Persian women. He spent three years, partly in the intoxicating enjoyment of the immense wealth which he found in the royal cities of Babylon, Susa, Ecbatana and Persepolis. In the latter place, at the instigation of Thais, an Athenian courtesan, he set fire to the palace. A part of the time he devoted to reducing the remaining provinces of his empire to entire subjection. Once, during the period, he successfully carried his arms against the Scythians.

11. New schemes opened before the conqueror. But his troops, long absent from their country, and insensible to the glory of extending conquests, from which they could not hope to derive any advantage, murmured, and turned their eyes wistfully towards Greece. They liked not Alexander’s adoption of the Persian dress, and his evident preference for oriental customs. He had become elated by his conquests, intemperate in wine, and in the indulgence of his passions. In the fury of his anger, he had caused his devoted friends, Parmenio, and his son, to be executed; and with his own hand, in a drunken revel, he had killed Clitus, who saved his life at the Granicus. His troops, in disgust, revolted—but when their favorite commander showed his stern displeasure, the veterans came unarmed, and stood, for two days, imploring his clemency. He wept, forgave them, made them presents, and led them forth again, to make, as he vainly believed, the conquest of the world.

12. He carried his arms beyond the Indus, with uniform success. Taxilus, one of the Indian kings, came forth in peace. "O Alexander," said he, "wherefore should we fight. If I have more riches than you, I will give you a part. If you have most, I am willing to owe you a favor." With him Alexander exchanged presents. Porus, a wise and valiant king was brought prisoner before him. "How do you wish to be treated," asked the conqueror. "Like a king," replied Porus. Again the army remonstrated; and after erecting twelve altars at the utmost limit of his conquests, Alexander turned his course. When he regained the Indus, he found there his fleet under

9. What was the fate of Darius?—10. What marriage is here related? What change in costume, &c.? How did Alexander spend the succeeding three years?—11. What were the causes of the revolt of the army? What was the manner of their return to allegiance?—12. What is said of Taxilus? Of Porus? Beyond what river did Alexander penetrate? What did he erect?
ALEXANDER'S DEATH DISSOLVES HIS EMPIRE.

PERIOD V.

Severe sufferings of the army.

Ancient Hist.

Nearchus. Embarking with a part of his army, he sailed down the Indus to its mouth, and thence marched through Gedrosia, Caramania, and Persia. This was a perilous march, where Alexander had great occasion both for his rash valor, and his generous condescension.

13. The sufferings of his army were severe, but their courage was sustained by the reflection that their course was homewards, and their spirits were cheereed by the noble conduct of their commander. On one occasion, a little water, in a tune of great drought, was found, from which a soldier filed a helmet, and brought it to the thirsting prince. Alexander looked upon his famished troops and poured the water on the ground; not choosing to enjoy a refreshment, in which his companions could not share. Arrived at Babylon, he devoted himself, during the remainder of his life, to the improvement of that city; having selected it, from its commanding situation, and central position, for the seat of his empire. It was Alexander who first projected the plan of opening a communication between Europe and India, through the Nile, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean. But he, whose will never bowed to man, could not resist the messenger of God, sent to call him to his final account. After having been the means of death to so many of his fellow-beings, he sickened with a fever, occasioned by his excesses, and died in the thirty-third year of his age; leaving many of his projects unfinished, and his extensive empire unsettled and insecure, and soon to become a prey to anarchy.

CHAPTER IX.

Rome, under its kings.

1. While the nations of Asia and of Greece seemed tottering on the verge of ruin, Rome had arisen and was destined, ere long, to become the mistress of the world. For the earliest history of the ancient Romans, we have nothing better than tradition and the tales of poets. According to these, ENEAS, with his father Anchises, his son Ascanius, and a small band of followers, fled from the destruction of ancient Troy, and sought refuge on the shores of Latium. Here he at length married Lavinia, the daughter of Latinus, the king, and thus became his successor. Alba-Longa, a city of Latium, or a Latin city, where

12. Trace Alexander's homeward route.—13. What was his conduct to his soldiers? What city did he choose as his metropolis? What project did he form? What can you say of his death?

CHAP. IX.—1. Is there good historical authority for the earliest history of the Romans? What story have we of Eneas? What is regarded as the parent city of Romulus and his colony?
THE GERM OF ROMAN POWER.

language shows that it must have had a cultivated population, as regarded as the parent city of Rome. ROMULUS traced with a plough the place of the first walls. He was the chief of a war-like band of men from Alba-Longa, and was, by election, the first king of the new city.

2. To provide inhabitants for Rome, Romulus invited strangers to settle there, granting them equal privileges with his subjects. Those of the citizens who could show a noble, or even a free ancestry, were termed patricians, and were admitted to a share in the government. Of these one hundred were selected, who formed a senate. The remainder, called plebeians, were subject to the king and patricians; each individual, with his household, being attached to the head of some patrician family, from whom he received protection, and whom he was bound to serve. To the protector and dependant were applied the terms patron and client.

3. Four months after the founding of Rome, Romulus, wishing to provide wives for his followers, invited the Sabines to the celebration of a religious festival. His soldiers, at a given signal, seized all the young women, and carried them off. They married them, and treated them with so much kindness, that they at length became attached to their husbands; and when, some time after, the Sabines made war upon the Romans to recover them, they rushed between the combatants, and pleaded with their fathers and husbands to live in peace and union. Their desires were granted, and the Sabines and Romans became one people.

4. The Senate was now doubled by the addition of a hundred Sabines. Romulus divided the citizens into tribes, each tribe consisting of 300 men and separated into ten curiae, each consisting of 30 men; over each of which was appointed, for religious purposes, a priest called Curio. The senate was the chief council of state. There was a national assembly, composed of the people assembled by curiae, in which questions were decided according to the votes of the greater number of curiae.

5. The first monarchs of Rome do not seem to have derived their crown from hereditary right, nor, with the exception of the two first, to have possessed unlimited power. On the death of Romulus, NUMA POMPILIUS, a Sabine, was elected to the throne. His reign was peaceful and just. Revered as a favorite of the gods, he caused it to be believed that he was honored with celestial communications, by a divine nymph, called Egeria, who met him in solitary places, and gave him instructions in regard to many laws, which he promulgated. He instituted different orders of priests. Their duties were performed by

1. How was the extent of the first city marked?—2. What was meant by patricians and plebeians? By patron and client?—3. How did Romulus provide his colony with wives? What did these women when their fathers made war to recover them?—4. Give an account of the senate. (See paragraphs 2 and 4.) How were the citizens divided? Was there an assembly of the people?—5. Give an account of the administration of Numa Pompilius.
distinguished citizens, not set apart to the sacerdotal office. But
an order of priestesses, called the vestal virgins, were thus set
apart; and it was their duty to guard, in the temple of the god-
ess Vesta, a fire which they were taught to believe was sacred,
and must never be permitted to go out. Numa built the temple
of Janus, which was always to be open in time of war, but
closed in time of peace. The laws of Numa tended to refine
and soften the ferocious manners of the followers of Romulus.

6. The next king, TULLUS HOSTILIUS, made war upon Alba,
to force its people to a union of the two cities. It was at length
agreed that three champions should be chosen by each party to
decide, by battle, whether Alba should be the subject or the
mistress of Rome. The Romans chose three brothers, the Ho-
ratii, and the Albans, their three cousins, the CURIAEI. The
six fought till five were dead. The survivor was Horatius, who
hasted to receive his honors. His sister met him bearing the
robe which she had wrought for Curatus, her lover, one of the
slain. She wept and tore her hair, and bitterly reproach her
brother, who plunged his sword in her bosom. For this he was
condemned to death by the senate, but pardoned by the people.
Alba was razed, and its inhabitants removed to Rome.

7. ANCUS MARTIUS established the superiority of the Romans
over Latium, and extended the territory of Rome to the sea.
He established the colony of Ostia at the mouth of the Tiber,
and made it the port of Rome. TARQUINIUS PRISCUS, who was
next chosen king, continued the wars of Ancus Martius with
the Latins, and conquered the Equi. He added a hundred new
members to the senate; and forming three new tribes from among
the plebeians, united them to the patricians.

8. Servius TULLIUS was the next king. He produced
changes in the government which laid the foundation of the fu-
ture republic. He divided the whole nation into thirty tribes,
four of which were contained in the city, each tribe having a
magistrate who was its head and representative. He also
caused an estimate of the property of each citizen to be made,
and separating the Equites, who comprehended the patricians
and wealthiest of the people, he divided the rest into five classes,
which were again divided into centuries or hundreds. The ef-
forts of Servius to raise the privileges of the plebeians were re-
sisted, though ineffectually, by the patricians, and brought upon
him their enmity.

9. Servius Tullius was murdered at the instigation of his un-
natural daughter, Tullia, by her husband, who thus became king,
under the name of Tarquinus Superbus, or TARQUIN THE
PROUD. He was successful in war, but his haughtiness and ty-
ranny made him odious to the Romans. At length his son,
Sexius, insulted LUCRETIA, a noble Roman lady. She as-

6. Describe the combat of the Horatii and Curiiæi.—7. What was done
in the reign of Ancus Martius? Of Tarquinus Priscus?—8. What regu-
lations were made by Servius Tullius?—9. What can you say of Tarquin the
Proud?
Kingly Government abolished.

9. What caused kingly government to be abolished?

10. What king opposed the cause of Tarquin?

What was done by Mumia to make him believe that it was dangerous to be an enemy to Rome?

What exploit was performed by Horatius Coclé?

11. Give an account of a conspiracy among the patricians.

What were the first consuls?

What was the conduct of Brutus in regard to his sons?

When was the first dictator appointed?

What account can you give of the office?
CHAPTER X.

Disputes between the Patricians and Plebeians.—The Decemviri.

1. The plebeians were originally treated with deference, but the patricians had now seized the government, and the public lands no longer paid, as formerly, a tenth of their revenue to the state. The plebeians, forced by taxation to become debtors, were made bond-slaves, and in the dungeons of the patrician houses suffered the severest distress. At a time when Rome was threatened with a war by the Volsci, the indignation of the populace was roused by the appearance of a man advanced in years, of a pale and haggard countenance, a squalid garb, and a withered, emaciated figure, suddenly throwing himself into the forum.* He was recognized as a centurion of the army, who had shed his blood for his country. He showed to the people, who crowded around him, the cruel marks of recent stripes, which his patrician creditor, not content with his miserable incarceration, had inflicted.

2. Excitement spread from the forum to all parts of the city. The senate were alarmed,—the multitude refused to enlist in the Volscian war,—and the city seemed threatened with destruction within and without. The consul, SERVILIUS, dismissed the senate, and attempted to conciliate the people. He promised that their grievances should be redressed, and declared that he only sought for a delay until danger from the foreign foe should be over. To evince the sincerity of his declarations, he now ordered that no person should hold any Roman citizen in bonds or confinement, so as to prevent his giving his name to the consuls; that no person should take the goods of a soldier upon service, nor detain in custody his children or grandchildren. These measures quelled the tumult, and procured the enlistment needed. The Volsci were defeated; and after them the Sabines and Auruncians.

3. The plebeians, now that peace was established, looked for the redress which they had been promised, but the patricians disregarded their just claims; and open expressions, and secret cabals, proved that their discontent was deep and dangerous. The Volsci, Æquians, and Sabines, profiting by the occasion, again took up arms. The senate and consuls, in dismay, appointed a dictator. LARTIUS VALERIUS, in whose family the plebeians had confidence, being chosen, they deferred urging their

* The Forum was an open space, (marked out by Romulus, and surrounded with porticoes by Tarquinius Priscus,) in which the people assembled to speak upon, and transact public business.

CHAP. X.—1. What change had occurred in regard to the plebeians? What incident roused up the oppressed people?—2. What promises were made to the plebeians by the consuls? What successes followed?—3. Did the plebeians receive the promised redress? What was the consequence?
ROME BECOMES MORE DEMOCRATIC.

just claims, again enlisted, and a force greater than had ever be-
fore been raised, was now enrolled. The Roman soldiers re-
turned victorious from the foreign war, only to see their hopes of
relief again disappointed. Valerius, finding it impossible to
bring the patricians to reason, resigned his office. The senate
feared to disband the soldiers; and believing they would feel
themselves bound by their oaths to the consuls, determined
upon retaining them in arms. By this measure, however, they
only hastened the crisis which they dreaded.

4. The army, without waiting for the commands of the con-
suls, retired to Mons Sacer, (the sacred mount,) about three
miles from the city. There, without any commander, they for-
tified their position. The senate and patricians, then at their
mercy, sent deputies to the camp, who granted the demands of
the plebeians, and allowed them a share in the government.
Three officers from their number, called tribunes, were appointed
as magistrates and invested with inviolable privileges, having
power to protect the people even against the consuls. All debts
were cancelled, and the debtors released; but the law remained
unaltered. The tribunes were to be elected annually, and no
patrician was permitted to hold the office. Thus the contest
between the patricians and plebeians seemed terminated.

6. But it was soon renewed. A famine broke out in the city,
the lands having been untilled during the insurrection of the
plebeians. The sufferings of the people were intense. A quan-
tity of corn was sent as a present by Gelon, king of Sicily. The
senate debated at what price it should be given to the people.
Marcius Coriolanus, a haughty patrician, who had signalized
himself by his valor, proposed the restoration of the former
rights of the patricians as the price of the supply. The peo-
ple heard the proposal with deep indignation, and Coriolanus
was summoned by their tribunes to a trial, and condemned to
exile. He retired to the Volscians, and incited them to a war
with Rome. In the dusk of the evening his tall figure was es-
pied by their general, Aufidius, standing in his tent. Proudly
he announced himself, and offered his services against his native
city. Aufidius gladly accepting them, he marched to the attack
and encamped within five miles of Rome.

6. The senate, unable to depend on the plebeians for assist-
sance, knew not what to do. Deputations were sent, but with-
out success. The priests in their sacred garments went to him as
suppliants, but in vain. The matrons then assembling round
Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus, and Volumnia, his wife,
who led his two little sons, proceeded in sadness to the Volscian
camp. The stern warrior melted at the tears of his mother.

3. How were the people again appeased? How were they again treated
by the patricians and the senate?—4. What bold step was taken by the
soldiers? What concessions were thus forced from the patricians?
5. What soon renewed the ill-feeling between the opposing parties in Rome?
6. What account can you give of the conduct of Coriolanus?—6. How was
Coriolanus won back to his country?
Weeping, he said, “You have saved Rome, but destroyed your son.” In a short time he drew off the Volscian troops. The Romans, in honor of this event, erected a temple to Female Fortune.

7. The patricians and plebeians were still jealous of each other. Dissensions arose concerning the disposition of some lands, gained by a league with the Herulians. Further changes in the government were demanded, and to obtain these, ambassadors were sent to Athens for copies of the Grecian laws. On their return, ten magistrates were created, called the Decemvirs, who were to compile a body of laws for Rome. They were appointed for one year, with absolute power. During that time there were to be neither consuls nor tribunes. It was disputed whether plebeians should hold this high office, and decided that they should not. During the first year the decemvirs executed their trust with impartial justice. Assiduously applying themselves to the framing of just laws, they produced the ten tables, which, after being examined in an assembly of the people, were approved and ratified. It was then said, that two more tables were needed. For the purpose of adding these, the office was continued another year, and new decemvirs elected, at the head of whom was Appius Claudius.

8. These decemvirs held secret meetings among themselves, governed with haughtiness, and as at the expiration of the year they showed no intention to lay down their office, their tyranny seemed likely to become perpetual. A most wicked act of Appius Claudius, which resulted in the death of the young and lovely Virginia, irritated the people to madness; and another revolution took place, by which the decemvirate was abolished, and the consuls and tribunes were restored. During this period, the cause of the plebeians was gradually advancing. A law, allowing the intermarriage of patricians and plebeians, was, after much opposition, passed. Another law, by which plebeians should be admitted to the consulship, was proposed. The plebeians, though unsuccessful in this, obtained, as a sort of compromise, the election of military tribunes with consulary power, to be chosen from patricians or plebeians, without distinction. The censorship, an office confined to the patricians, was also about this time established.

9. In these broils between the patricians and plebeians, the common resort of the aristocracy was to weaken the people by employing them abroad in foreign wars. It was upon the occa

* Appius Claudius sees this lovely young girl in the streets, and determines to get her in his power, procures a base man to claim her as a slave. Her father in vain proves her his, for Appius sits judge. As she is about to be torn from him, the father plunges a dagger to her heart, regarding more her purity than her life.

7. What measures did the Romans take to procure a code of laws? What new magistrates were appointed? How did the first Decemvirs execute their office? Those afterwards elected? What caused their office to be abolished? What laws were established which were favorable to the people?
tion of the wars with the Equi and Volsci, that the venerable Cincinnatus, plowing in his field, received the messengers from Rome, who announced to him that he was appointed dictator of the commonwealth. He left his fields and oxen with regret; and after leading the Romans to victory, he returned in sixteen days to his rural occupations.

10. The Romans, commanded by Camillus, besieged Veii, an opulent city of Etruria, at a distance from Rome. The war being protracted from various causes for ten years, the soldiers were for the first time obliged to stay from Rome during the winter. A schoolmaster of Veii led forth, for a walk, his scholars, the sons of the most respectable families of the besieged city. The lads followed with confidence their teacher, but he wickedly led them by a circuitous route to the camp of their enemies, to deliver them to Camillus, who thus possessing the children, might make his own terms with the parents. But the virtuous Roman, instead of taking advantage of this wickedness, or rewarding the pedagogue, put a whip into the hands of each of the boys, and bade them drive him back with lashes to the city, and tell to their parents his treachery. By this means Camillus won the hearts of the people, who gave up the city. A regular stipend was in this war allowed to the Roman soldiers.

11. In the mean time, the Gaurs, now first mentioned in history, invited by the fertility of the southern countries, poured like a sweeping torrent through the northern provinces of Italy. The Clusians, whose city they besieged, applied to the Romans for aid. The Romans despatched an embassy to the Gallic camp, with offers of mediation. The offers were rejected, when the Roman ambassadors entered Clusium, and engaged zealously in its defence. One of them being recognized in the act of killing a Gallic chief, Brennus, the leader of the Gaurs, sent envoys to Rome, to complain of this breach of the law of nations, and demanded that the offender should be given up; but the Romans haughtily disregarded the demand. Brennus marched instantly towards Rome. An army was hastily collected; but the soldiers, without striking a blow, fled in dismay from the strange appearance of their unknown enemies.

12. The Gaurs continued their march fifteen miles, to the city. The citizens, generally, had abandoned it, and only some of the aged, and a few of consular rank, remained. Their venerable appearance, for a time, stayed the fury of the barbarians. But at length, they put them to the sword. The Gaurs then besieged the citadel, which was saved, when they were about to make a night assault upon it, by the cackling of some geese, awakening the sentinels. At length, the Gaurs agreed to quit the city, on condition of receiving a large amount of gold, which was to be weighed. Brennus threw his sword into the scale,

with the weights, already complained of as too heavy. At this moment, Camillus, who had been banished, entered the city at the head of an army, which he had collected. He told the Romans to put up their gold, and redeem their city with iron. Thus aroused, they chastised the Gauls, and expelled them from Rome. The barbarians had, however, burned it to the ground. The inhabitants wished to leave the spot, and to inhabit Veii; but Camillus prevented them. They soon rebuilt the city, though without order or regularity.

CHAPTER XI.

The Jews.

1. It was under the guidance of ZOROBABEL, of the ancient royal family, and of the high priest JOSHUA, that a colony of Jews was permitted by Cyrus to return and rebuild the temple; but the wealthier and the more numerous part of the nation remained beyond the Euphrates, were they had settled.

2. Samaria was at this time occupied by a race who were not the descendants of the Israelites, but of the colony sent thither by Esarhaddon, after he had carried away the ten tribes. They were unfriendly to the Jews, and prevailed on Cambyses, the son of Cyrus, to forbid them to proceed with the rebuilding of the temple, and it was not until the time of Darius Hystaspes that the interdict was removed. Then EZRA, and after him NEHEMIAH, brought new colonists, who engaged with ardor in the pious task. During the reign of Xerxes, Jerusalem was under the satraps of Syria; but as the Persian empire began to decline, the high priests gradually became the actual chiefs of the nation, though nominally under allegiance to the Persian monarchs.

3. Nehemiah, in his zeal for the violated law, obliged all who had married heathen women, either to separate from them or to quit Jerusalem. MANASSEH, son of Jehoida the high priest, was one of this number; and rather than part with his wife, he accompanied her to her father, SANBALLAT, governor of Samaria. The Samaritans had previously blended the worship of the God of Israel with that of their idols; and Sanballat now obtained of Darius Nothus leave to build, at Mount Gerizim near Samaria.

12. Of the manner in which he was expelled.

CHAP. XI.—1. Who permitted a colony of Jews to return after their captivity? Under whose guidance did they return? Where were the wealthier portion of the nation?—2. By whom was Samaria occupied? How were the Samaritans affected towards the Jews? Give the time and some of the circumstances of the building of the second temple. Under what government was Jerusalem?—3. What law did Nehemiah make? Give an account of Manasses until he became high-priest at Mount Gerizim.
ALEXANDER'S VISIT TO JERUSALEM.

a temple of which he made his son-in-law high priest. The Samaritans asserted the superior sanctity of this temple to that of Jerusalem; and irreconcilable hatred thus arose between them and the Jews.

4. Such was the divided state of Judea, when Alexander the Great having invaded it, sent a mandate to Jerusalem to furnish his army with provisions and troops. JADDAUS, then the high priest, returned for answer that he had sworn allegiance to the king of Persia, and could not desert his cause while he lived. Alexander, as soon as the siege of Tyre was completed, marched to Jerusalem to take vengeance for this refusal.

5. Apprised of his purpose, and utterly unable to contend with him, the high priest in his distress cried to heaven for protection. Being instructed by a vision in the night, he threw open the gates of the city, and strewed the way with flowers. Clothing himself in the splendid vestments of the Levitical priesthood, he went forth to meet the conqueror, followed by all the priests, robed in white. Alexander met him, bowed, and worshipped. Being asked by his astonished friend, why he, whom others adored, should adore the high priest, he answered, "I do not adore him, but the God whose minister he is. I knew him as soon as I saw his habit, to be the same whom I saw in a vision in Macedonia, when I meditated the conquest of Persia; and he then assured me, that his God would go before me and give me success." Alexander then embraced the priests, walking in the midst of them, and thus entering Jerusalem; where, in the most solemn manner, he offered sacrifices in the temple. The high priest then showed him the prophecy of Daniel, and interpreted it to foreshow that the Persian power should be overthrown by him. The monarch encouraged the Jews to make requests of him, which he granted; and during his life he continued to show them favor.
PERIOD VI.

FROM
THE DEATH 323
B. C. 5

TO
THE BIRTH 1
A. D. 3

CHAPTER I.

Empire of Alexander after his death.

1. After the death of Alexander, his vast empire presented a scene of unceasing tumult, confusion, and bloodshed. His generals, bold, ambitious, and unprincipled, were each eager to seize a share of the mighty wreck. The rights of his infant son, Alexander, and of his brother, Aridæus, afterwards called Philip, were acknowledged, and they were styled kings. Their power, however, existed only in name. The dying monarch being asked whom he desired should succeed him, replied "the most worthy." He gave his ring to PERDICAS, who was made commander-in-chief. Conflicting interests and mutual animosities, produced constant wars and assassinations. The only character of virtue sufficient to shed a ray of moral light on this dark picture, was EUMENES, who alone was faithful to the interests of the royal family. In fact the first twenty years from the death of Alexander present a tissue of intrigue and crime, unsurpassed in the history of the world. His wife, his mother, his son, and all the other members of the royal family, were murdered. Perdiccas shared the same fate.
2. A league was at length formed between four of the generals, Ptolemy, Seleucus, Lysimachus, and Cassander. A battle was fought in which they obtained a victory over Antigonus, and his son Demetrius Poliorcetes, who had for some time held the chief authority. The empire was now divided into four parts, and one part assigned to each of the four generals who formed the league. 1st, Ptolemy assumed the regal power in Egypt; 2d, Seleucus, in Syria and Upper Asia, 3d, Lysimachus, in Thrace and Asia Minor as far as Taurus, and 4th, Cassander took as his share Macedonia.

3. EGYPT.—Under Ptolemy, surnamed Soter, or Savior, Alexandria, which he made his capital, rapidly rose, until it became the seat of commerce and the sciences. He protected the national religion, which procured him the love and submission of his people; while his kind and courteous behavior to foreigners drew multitudes, especially of Jews, to his capital. Of all the successors of Alexander, Ptolemy alone was fitted to build up an empire, and though sometimes drawn into the wars of the other princes, he generally preserved Egypt in peace, and transmitted the kingdom entire.

4. His reign, with that of his two immediate successors, Ptolemy Philadelphus, (the most magnificent of the family,) and Ptolemy Euergetes, comprised a whole century; during which, Egypt a second time became the seat of learning. The famous Library of Alexandria was collected, and the city thus made the resort of the learned from every part of the world. After Ptolemy Euergetes, the race became degenerate, and the Romans obtained an ascendency. The beauty, talents and crimes of Cleopatra, a female representative of the Ptolemies, again brought them into notice. The Jews were subject to the Ptolemies until the time of Antiochus the Great. Numbers of them were brought to Alexandria, where they made great progress in sacred literature, and completed the Greek version of the Sacred Books called the Septuagint.

5. SYRIA.—Seleucus, the founder of the dynasty of the Seleucidae, obtained after the battle of Ipsus the government of the extensive provinces of Alexander’s empire in Asia, except Palestine, and the country adjacent to Egypt, which were governed by Ptolemy. In the early part of his reign he made Babylon the seat of his empire. He marched to the Indus, to recover the countries which Alexander had there conquered; but was met by Sandroctus, a native sovereign, with an army of 600,000
and a prodigious number of elephants. Seleucus\(^1\) agreed to leave him in quiet possession for 600 elephants, which he received. He was then called to the east, to resist the aggressions of Lysimachus. He conquered him, and thus acquired large acquisitions to his empire. He extended commerce, and built cities, of which Antioch, in Syria, was the principal. This city he made his capital.

6. **Antiochus Soter** attempted some new conquests, but being unsuccessful, he weakened his kingdom. **Antiochus**, impiously called *Theos*, or God, his weak and vicious successor, was wholly under the dominion of vain and infamous women, and the palace was a scene of revelry and murder. The eastern provinces did not fail to profit by the occasion, and Parthia and Bactria became independent monarchies. The kingdom of Pergamus was founded by Attalus. Of the sovereigns of Syria immediately succeeding, some were of the house of Seleucus, and others were not.

7. The glory of this family revived in **Antiochus III. the Great**. He made an expedition into the east, and while he formally relinquished Parthia and Bactria to separate sovereigns, he regained, by their assistance, other provinces of Upper Asia. He wrested from the Ptolemies the countries which they possessed east of the Mediterranean, and meditated the conquest of Egypt itself. He received the banished Hannibal at his court; and could these two men have cordially united, they might perhaps, have given a new direction to the current of events. The history of Syria is henceforward involved in that of the Roman commonwealth.

8. **Macedonia and Greece**.—Alexander had left the government at home to **Antipater**, the faithful counsellor of his father and of himself. On the death of the conqueror, the European provinces were assigned to him. On his decease, a state of war and anarchy ensued. **Cassander**, by the battle of Ipsus, which established the league of the four generals, became king of Macedonia and a part of Greece. After his short reign, the feeble princes, his sons, suffered the kingdom to fall into

*Seleucus, to strengthen himself in power, married for his second wife, Stratonice, the daughter of Demetrius Poliorcetes. The consuming passion of his son Antiochus Soter for this beautiful woman, which had thrown him into a disease—the physician’s discovery of this by the change of his patient’s pulse when Stratonice appeared—the resolution of the father to relinquish his wife to his son—are passages of history which deeply fix themselves in the memory; and while we admire the magnanimity of Seleucus, we cannot but be shocked at the little heed which was given to the sacredness of marriage, and the brutal tyranny of the times in regard to women; when men considered their wives as their property, to keep or give to another, at their capricious pleasure.*

5. By conquering Lysimachus what countries did he gain? What things did Seleucus, more serviceable to the world than war and murder? Name the Seleucids from Seleucus to Antiochus the Great? (See margin)—6. What time did their united reigns occupy? In whose reign did Bactria and Parthia become independent? What kingdom was founded?—7. Who revived the glory of the Seleucids? What are some of his acts?—8. What account can you give of Antipater? Of Cassander and his sons?
such a distracted state, that Alexander, then king, called to his aid Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, and Demetrius Poliorcetes. Demetrius learning some time after, that Alexander was plotting his assassination, killed him and usurped his throne. Pyrrhus expelled him. He, again, was supplanted by Lysimachus of Thrace, who, like the others, retained his power but a short period. Family quarrels brought on a war with Seleucus Nicator, and in a battle in Phrygia, Lysimachus was defeated and slain. The whole of Asia Minor and Syria was now united to Macedonia and Thrace. Seleucus proclaimed himself king, but on his passage into Europe he was assassinated.

9. Ptolemy Ceraunus, his murderer, who usurped the throne of Macedon, was soon deposed and slain by the Gauls. In three successive invasions these northern barbarians overran Thrace and Macedonia, penetrated to the temple of Delphi, and threatened to lay waste all Greece. They were at length expelled from Greece, but made a settlement in Thrace, which was thus lost to Macedonia. They settled also in Galatia.

10. Antigonus Gonatus, the son of Demetrius, successfully contested the throne of Macedonia, with Alexander, the son of Pyrrhus, that great commander having been killed in an attempt on Argos. Antigonus during a reign of forty years sought to recover the country from its ruinous condition. After his death this monarchy declined. Philip, who reigned some time after, was in league with Hannibal against Rome. He made war to subdue the other states of Greece who had fallen from the Macedonian dominion. He cruelly put to death his amiable son Demetrius, and paved the way for what happened in the reign of Perseus, his successor,—the subjugation of Macedonia to the Roman power.

11. ATHENS.—On the death of Alexander, the Grecian states combined against Antipater, who on this occasion appeared in arms against the Athenians, when they submitted. He demanded the orators. Demosthenes, to avoid falling into his hands, fled to a neighboring city and killed himself by poison. Antipater dying, Ptolemy and Cassander sent Demetrius Phalereus, who ruled Athens ten years. From his rule they were set free by that elegant and accomplished prince, Demetrius Poliorcetes, who had been sent by his father with a large fleet. After having been worshipped as a god by the Athenians, he was recalled, and with his father lost the battle of Ipsus, when the Athenians refused to receive him.

12. Yet it was in these degenerate days that the venerable Phocion lived, whose virtues Alexander had respected, and attempted to reward by lavish presents; none of which, that in—

8. Who were invited to his aid by Alexander? What followed previous to the battle of Cyropedium? What is here related of Seleucus Nicator?—9. What was done by the Gauls?—10. Where was Pyrrhus killed? What is related of Antigonus?—11. What course did the Athenians take on the death of Alexander? Give an account of the death of Demosthenes. On what occasion was Athens visited by Demetrius Poliorcetes? How did the Athenians treat him?
ependent Athenian would accept. He never sought prefer-
ment, but he was forty-five times chosen general. So much
was he in the habit of exposing vice with severity, that generally
some persons felt themselves reproved. Once, when all appl-
plauded, he turned in surprise to a friend, and asked, “Have I
inadvertently let some bad thing slip by me unreproved?”
He was ever the protector of the unfortunate, yet the Athenians
condemned him. After he had taken the poison by which he
was to die, he charged his son to forgive his destroyers.

13. THE ACHÆAN LEAGUE.—Achaia made the last struggle
for Grecian freedom. A union of twelve Achaean cities, pos-
sessed of democratical governments, and league on terms of
perfect equality, had existed from the early ages of Greece until
the death of Alexander the Great; but the confusion and troubles
of the subsequent period had caused its dissolution. A leader
now arose in Aratus, a native of Sicyon, who united the scat-
tered portions of the league, of which he was made general, and
to which he soon added Corinth and Megara.

14. Sparta, corrupted by intercourse with Persia, had departed
widely from the institutions of Lycurgus. Agis, one of the best
and most amiable of its kings, had attempted a reformation, but
Leonidas, his colleague, caused him to be betrayed and assassi-
nated; and obliged his widow, Ariadne—wealthy, and renowned
for wisdom and beauty, to marry Cleomenes, his son. She
served the memory of Agis, and, by her discourse, led Cleo-
menes to admire his character, adopt his plans, and make a
similar attempt to revive the ancient constitution. The power
of the king had been swallowed up by that of the Ephori. He
determined, if possible, to restore it. This was opposed by the
league, and a war ensued, in which the Achæans called to their
aid Antigonus of Macedon. A battle was fought, which Cleo-
menes lost. He fled to Egypt, where he was retained a prisoner
by Ptolemy.

15. Sparta received its independence as a gift from Antigonus,
and in the contest between its succeeding kings and the Ephori,
it fell into anarchy and became the prey of tyrants. In a war
with the Æolians, called the “Social war,” the Achæans asked
aid of Philip III. of Macedon, whose kingdom had, after an in-
terval of peace, become powerful. The Æolians were joined
by the Spartans, and, fatally for the independence of Greece, by
the Romans, who, after the Carthaginian wars, subdued the
whole country. After the death of Aratus, another general
arose among the Achæans, who, in the Æolians wars, more
than supplied his place. Philopæmen was deserving of a bet-

12. What account can you give of Phocion?—13. What is said of
Achaia? Of the Achæan league?—14. What was the condition of Sparta?
What attempt was made by Agis? What was done by Leonidas? What
was Cleomenes persuaded to undertake? What was the result of his at-
ttempt?—15. What now became the condition of Sparta? What war again
set the Grecian states to destroying each other? What foreign power did
they suffer to interfere in their domestic quarrels? What can you say of
Philopæmen?
CHAPTER II.

Rome acquiring new territories.

1. During the war for the conquest of the Latin states, the people of Samnium had joined the Romans, but becoming jealous of their increasing power, they first withdrew from their alliance, and afterwards formed a league with several kindred tribes against them. In the wars which ensued, success was various. A Roman army, under the command of the consuls, Titus Veturius, and Surius Postumius, was decoyed into a defile at the forks of the Caudine river, and there surrounded by the Samnites, so that either escape or battle was impossible. The whole Roman army, including the consuls, could obtain deliverance on no other terms than to pass unarm'd, and almost naked, under the yoke. Then making an agreement of peace they were allowed to return.

2. This indignity produced, in the breasts of the haughty Romans, irreconcilable hatred towards the Samnites. The senate and assembly of the people did not consider themselves bound by the treaty, but raised a formidable army to renew the war. In the battles which followed, the Romans sought to wash away their disgrace in the blood of their enemies, and the fierceness of their encounters surpassed any thing in the previous history of Rome. They conquered Samnium, and after this no power in Italy remained capable of resisting them. The Etrurians were next vanquished. The Tarentines became hostile, and invited to their assistance Pyrrhus, king of Epirus. He found, on invading Italy, that he had not the enervated Persians to cope with, but a people who, it is probable, would have checked Alexander himself. His first battle with the Romans was at Pandosia, and though fiercely contested, the military skill of Pyrrhus finally triumphed, but he said "another such victory would ruin him;" and the polished Greeks, astonished at the tactics of the Romans, remarked, "These barbarians are by no means barbarous."

3. Pyrrhus ravaged the country, took the camp of the Romans, and marched towards the capital. When within fifteen leagues.

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* The yoke was a kind of gallows, composed of three spears, two being fixed in the ground, and the third laid across on the top of the others.
he despatched an ambassador with terms of peace. The senate
intrepidly replied that no terms would be received until the army
of Pyrrhus should be withdrawn from Italy. Fabricius, a citi-
zen of great worth, but poor, was sent ambassador to procure
the ransom of the Roman prisoners. Pyrrhus attempted to
bribe him, but found him incorruptible. He next showed his
terrible elephants, but the Roman was as little moved by fear as
by avarice. The physician of Pyrrhus sent him proposals for
destroying his master by poison. Fabricius informed his enemy
of his treacherous purpose. Pyrrhus, touched with admiration
and gratitude, released the Roman prisoners without ransom.

4. A Sicilian deputation now imploring his aid against the
Carthaginians, Pyrrhus abandoned Italy, and passed over to
Sicily. Here he was at first successful, but after having relieved
the Sicilians, he assumed such a haughty control over them,
that he lost their affections. The Tarentines, now reduced to
distress by the Romans, soliciting his aid, he again embarked
for Italy. He was totally defeated and compelled to return
to Epirus. The Romans had now made themselves masters of
Italy, but the relations sustained by the conquered nations to
Rome were various. Some were merely allies, retaining their
internal constitution, but obliged to pay tribute, and furnish
auxiliary troops when demanded; others were compelled to re-
ceive Roman magistrates, annually elected.

5. SICILY.—After the expulsion of the Athenians, the Sicilians
were invaded by the Carthaginians and lost Agrigentum and
two other cities. Dionysius, the Sicilian general, conducted
the war against them with ability, and acquired the confidence
of the people. Abusing it, he became the tyrant of Syracuse.
He was of so suspicious a temper, that he caused a room to be
made for confining prisoners, from which, as from the human
external ear to the tympanum, sound could be conveyed to an
apartment where he sat to listen to their conversations. Thus
knowing himself disliked and fearing danger, he cruelly destroy-
ed the lives of his subjects. Damocles flattered him. "Thou
shalt," said the tyrant, "taste the sweets of royalty." At a
magnificent banquet, the courtier sat and feasted, when looking
above him, he saw a sword hanging by a hair.

6. His son, Dionysius the Younger, succeeded him, and was
still more execrable tyrant. His cousin Dion, and afterwards
the amiable Corinthian, Timoleon, overthrew him. But the
Syracusans had not sufficient virtue to keep their recovered
freedom. Agathocles, a man of low origin, but of talents and
military renown, seized the sovereign authority. He, dying
childless, affairs fell into confusion, and Pyrrhus was called over

3. What followed this battle? What account can you give of Fabricius?
4. Where did Pyrrhus next go? On his return what battle was fought?
5. What was taken from the Sicilians? By whom? What account can
you give of the elder Dionysius?—6. What two remarkable persons over-
threw at different times the younger Dionysius? Give some further account
of the history of Sicily.
THE FIRST PUNIC WAR.

Ancient Hist.
PERI'D VI.
CHAP. II.

to reduce them to order, but in vain. Hiero, a descendant of Gelo, then obtained the regal authority.

7. Pyrrhus was carrying on the war with the Carthaginians, and had obtained some advantages, when the appearance of a new enemy united the Syracusans and Carthaginians, for a time, in a common league. A body of mercenary troops, called the Mamertines, whom Agathocles had employed in his wars, entered Messana as friends; but murdered the inhabitants, and obtained forcible possession of the city. The Carthaginians and Syracusans were invited to aid the Messanians, while the Mamertines applied to the Romans. Justice inclined the Roman senate to hesitate, but did not deter them from yielding to the stronger dictates of ambition, which prompted them to interfere, that they might turn the disensions of their neighbors to their own advantage. They sent troops to the aid of the marauders, and thus commenced the first Punic war.

8. Hiero soon changed sides, united himself with the Romans, and formed with them a plan for the expulsion of the Carthaginians from Sicily. Agrigentum, after a siege of several months, fell into the hands of the Romans. During this siege they perceived the necessity of a navy, to contend successfully with Carthage. This nation was now mistress of the sea, and at the height of its power, possessing a large portion of Africa, Spain, and Sicily, with Sardinia and other islands. But Rome had a more free constitution; her warlike citizens fought their own battles, while those of Carthage were intrusted to men of other countries, who served for pay. A Carthaginian galley had been taken which served the Romans as a model, and with incredible industry, they set about building a fleet. To imure their men to naval exercises, benches similar to those of the galleys were prepared on land, where they were taught to perform the action of rowing. In two months the fleet was equipped, and Dulius, the commander, sailed in pursuit of the enemy. The two fleets met, and the Romans obtained their first naval victory.

9. A project was formed for transferring the war to Africa. To prevent its execution, the Carthaginians hazarded, and lost, another naval engagement, which took place off the coast of Sicily. Regulus, to whom was committed the African expedition, landed and took Tunis, where he encamped. The Carthaginians received a reinforcement from Greece, commanded by Xanthippus, a Lacedaemonian of great military skill. Regulus was defeated and taken prisoner. The Carthaginians, tired of the war, sent Regulus to Rome, to offer terms of peace; but bound him by oath to return, if the terms offered were not accepted. By the advice of Regulus, the Romans rejected

7. How did the first Punic war commence?—8. What was the course of Hiero?—What was the condition of Carthage? What advantages had the Romans?—How did they proceed in procuring a fleet?—What success had they?—9. What naval battle occurred?—Give an account of Regulus. Who was Xanthippus?
them. He returned a willing prisoner, and was barbarously tortured and destroyed.

10. The war was for some years carried on mostly at sea, and with so equal advantage, that there was no prospect of peace. At length a decisive victory was obtained by LUTATIUS, the Roman admiral, over the Carthaginian fleet. The Romans became masters of the sea, and deprived the Carthaginians of the means of conveying succors to their Sicilian cities. They then made peace on condition of abandoning all their possessions in Sicily, paying the Romans a large sum of money, and restoring their prisoners without ransom. The Carthaginians thus exhibited a character the reverse of that of their enemies; who never, in the most disastrous days of the republic, purchased safety by submission to a foreign foe. Peace was hardly concluded, when the Carthaginians were involved in a war with the mercenaries, whom they had employed. Though finally victorious, the republic was greatly exhausted. The mercenaries in Sardinia, catching the spirit of insurrection, rose, murdered their Carthaginian rulers, and obtained possession. The Romans, regardless of the peace with Carthage, interfered, and made themselves masters of the island. The Carthaginians remonstrated, but unable in their present weakened state to support their right by arms, they were obliged to submit to a second treaty, in which Sardinia was ceded to Rome. But the injustice which the Carthaginians thus suffered, rankled in their minds; and to this the second Punic war, though delayed some years, may be traced.

11. The Carthaginians sought compensation for their late losses, by extending their conquests over Spain. Here also the Romans jealously interfered, and a treaty was forced upon them, restricting their conquests to the further side of the Iberus. These wrongs to his country were keenly felt by HAMILCAR, the Carthaginian general in Spain. He had with him a son, HANNIBAL, a noble boy, whose heart he filled with the implacable enmity which burned within his own; and at the age of nine, he made him swear, upon the sacred altar, eternal enmity to Rome. This he was to declare when he could find or make a fitting occasion. Hamilcar, and his son-in-law, ASDRUBAL, commanded in Spain seventeen years. Most of the southern part of the peninsula submitted to their arms. To secure their conquests, Asdrubal built the city of New Carthage, or Carthagena.

12. After the close of the first Punic war, Rome sent a fleet into the Adriatic, to put a stop to the depredations of the Illyrian pirates. This fleet secured the dominion of the Adriatic, and conquered a part of Illyria. The Grecian cities which had suf-

10. What victory was obtained? What great advantage did this victory give to the Romans? On what conditions did the Carthaginians make peace? On what occasion did the Romans deprive Carthage of Sardinia? What conquests did the Carthaginians make in Spain? What treaty was forced upon them? What did Hamilcar in regard to his son? What city was built by the Carthaginians? What righteous enterprise was now undertaken by the Romans? What did they gain?
f ered greatly from the piratical incursions of the Illyrians, hailed
the Romans as deliverers, and vied with each other in doing
them honor. The Gauls had frequently, since the destruction
of Rome by Brennus, made irruptions into the Roman provinces,
having joined both the Etrurians and Samnites. The north had,
however, remained quiet for some time, and as yet the Romans
had not crossed the Po. Another irruption of the barbarians
now took place, and a bloody war ensued, in which Emilius
defeated them at Clusium, drove them beyond the Po, and Cis-
apline Gaul was added to the Roman dominions.

13. On the death of Asdrubal, Hannibal obtained the com-
mand of the Carthaginian army in Spain. Bent on executing
the plan meditated by his father of humbling the pride of Rome,
his first act was to besiege Saguntum, a city of Spain, under
Roman protection. Ambassadors were despatched, first to Han-
nibal, who refused on some frivolous pretence to admit them to
an audience; then to the senate of Carthage, from whom they
received no satisfaction. Meanwhile Hannibal prosecuted the
siege with vigor, and at length took the city.

14. SECOND PUNIC WAR.—The fate of Saguntum was no
sooner known at Rome, than a war was declared, of which
Hannibal determined to make Italy the seat. With this view he
prepared to pass the Alps; an achievement which the Romans
believed to be altogether impracticable. He had previously
taken measures to secure the favor of the nations through whose
territories he must pass; having distributed gold with an un-
spiring hand among the barbarian chiefs. Early in the spring
he commenced his march. Having reduced the nations which
lay at the foot of the Pyrenean mountains, he here left his
general, Hanno, with a sufficient force to guard their narrow
passes. He also dismissed about ten thousand of his troops,
sending them home with a view of securing their good will.

15. The Gauls, being informed that the war was against Italy,
not only allowed Hannibal to pass through their territories, but
aided him on his way. On his arrival at the Rhone, however,
he found the nations who dwelt on the opposite side, drawn up
to prevent his passage. He sent a detachment of troops farther
up the river, who crossed it in secrecy, and then came down
upon the rear of the Gauls, who, finding themselves surround-
ed, immediately dispersed. Publius Cornelius Scipio and
Tiberius Sempronius were the Roman consuls for this year.
To the former was assigned Spain; to the latter Africa and
Sicily. Scipio departed for his province, but finding that Han-
nibal had already crossed the Pyrenees, he stopped and pitched
his camp at one of the mouths of the Rhone.

12. What did the Grecian cities? Give an account of the war with the
Gauls.—13. What did Hannibal on obtaining the command in Spain?—14. What
was done in Rome when this was known? What was Hannibal de-
termined to do? What were his previous measures?—15. How did Han-
nibal succeed in passing through Transalpine Gaul? What happened at the
Rhone? What account can you give of the Roman consuls?
16. Hannibal, determining to avoid a battle, withdrew his forces from the sea, and followed up the waters of the Rhone until he arrived at the foot of the Alps. Here the hearts of the most courageous grew faint. The mountains with their snowy tops penetrating the clouds—the naked and apparently inaccessible cliffs over which their path must lie—the hostile Gauls, hovering on the precipices which hung over their heads, and ready on their attempt to ascend, to precipitate them into the depths below—all these were objects calculated to fill them with dismay. Hannibal used every art to animate their courage. Having ascertained that the mountaineers abandoned the pass at night, he, with a small party of light troops passed rapidly through it, making himself master of the eminences on which the Gauls had, during the previous day, been posted. At early dawn, the army commenced its ascent. The Gauls perceiving it, hastened to their usual post, but to their surprise, beheld it in possession of their enemy. The mountaineers now pressed into the defile by various circuitous routes, spreading terror and confusion in the army, until Hannibal was compelled to leave the eminence in order to disperse them.

17. The army at length gained the first pass, but they met new difficulties; sometimes, falling into ambush through the treachery of guides; again, led through bewildering tracks, and over wrong roads; now, intercepted by large bodies of the hostile Gauls in battle array; then, shuddering as tremendous rocks were rolled from the precipices above, crushing in their onward course both man and horse. But Hannibal pursued his way, until on the ninth day he completed the ascent. Snow now fell upon the mountains, which increased the dangers of the way. The army, dejected and dispirited, hopeless of any termination of their toils, were sinking into utter despondency, when Hannibal led them to a projecting eminence, and ordered them to halt. Here they looked down and beheld the valley of the Po, stretching out before them in all its beauty and luxuriance. Hannibal lost 30,000 men, and employed fifteen days in the passage of the Alps; and it was five months from the time of his leaving New Carthage, before he arrived in Italy.

18. Scipio had returned from the Rhone, and encamped with his legions at the Ticinus. Here Hannibal attacked and vanquished him. In the heat of the battle the consul was wounded, and would have been killed; but his son, a youth of seventeen, sprang forward and saved his life. That youth it was, who, sixteen years afterwards, conquered Hannibal at Zama. The destruction of a large body of Gauls from the Romans was the consequence of this defeat. Scipio apprehending a general
revolt, removed his camp to the river Trebia. Sempronius had now joined his colleague, and the two consuls, with the whole strength of the Roman army, were ready to oppose the future progress of the Carthaginians. Another battle was fought at Trebia, where the fortune of Carthage again triumphed. When the news of a second defeat of a consular army was brought to Rome, the whole city was in consternation, but no sound of submission was heard.

19. The passage of the Carthaginians over the Appenines, or account of a severe storm, proved nearly as destructive as that over the Alps. Yet, early in the spring, Hannibal was again prepared for battle. Drawing the consul Flaminius into an ambush near lake Thrasymenus, a dreadful conflict ensued. The Romans, surrounded by woods and morasses, and pressed on all sides by their enemy, fought with desperation. An earthquake, which overthrew many of the cities of Italy, and turned rivers out of their courses, passed unnoticed by the furious combatants. The genius of Hannibal again prevailed.

20. The Romans now felt the terrors, which they had so often excited. The appointment of a dictator was regarded as almost their only hope. The prudent Fabius Maximus, with whom the American Washington has been compared, was elected to the office. He first paid solemn attention to religious rites; he next ordered the inhabitants dwelling in insecure towns, to remove to places of greater safety; and those of the country through which Hannibal must pass, to leave their homes, having first burned their houses, and destroyed whatever could afford subsistence. He avoided a battle, hovering near the enemy, checking their depredations, and destroying their supplies. Hannibal, finding his measures to draw Fabius into an engagement ineffectual, wreaked his sworn vengeance upon Rome, by laying waste her fairest possessions. When the Roman army beheld, from the tops of the mountains, the beautiful vale of Campania wasted by fire, its elegant villas smoking in ruins, and desolation spreading on every side, distrust of the motives and policy of their commander, which had before lurked in their hearts, broke forth into open murmurs.

21. While these events passed in Italy, the Romans, under Cneius Scipio, obtained a victory over the Carthaginian fleet near the mouth of the Iberus, after which, several of the nations adjacent to that river submitted to them. Although Fabius had pursued such measures as had preserved the Roman army entire, yet cabals were formed against him, and he was accused of wanting energy. The sole authority was taken from him; yet his counsels so far prevailed, that for two years, Hannibal was not able to bring the Roman army to a general battle. When,
however, Caius Terentius Varro attained the consulship, a
different course was pursued. Hannibal drew him into an en-
gagement at Cannæ. There the flower of the Roman youth
lay dead, upon the most disastrous of the battle-fields of Italy.
Hannibal, instead of proceeding directly to Rome, sought first
to reduce Lower Italy. The most powerful of its nations
submitted to his arms, or sought his alliance. Having estab-
lished his quarters in Capua, the luxurious habits and effeminate
manners which his soldiers there acquired, are assigned as the
prime cause of his subsequent decline. Envy and jealousy had
also arisen against him at home, and the recruits, which were
expected from Carthage, were withheld.

22. In expectation of aid from Philip V., of Macedonia, with
whom he had formed a treaty, and of succors from Spain under
the command of his brother Asdrubal, Hannibal now acted
merely on the defensive. The policy of Rome furnished Philip
with employment, by stirring up enemies against him in his own
country. In the meantime, the Romans were regaining their
strength; new legions were formed, and the spirits of the nation
revived. Capua was at length taken from Hannibal; and though
he had marched boldly to Rome, yet, when he learned, that
while encamped before one of its gates, his presence had in-
spired so little terror that recruits for the army in Spain had
passed out of another, he retired in chagrin. Asdrubal,* his
brother, having effected the passage of the Alps, and arrived
in the north of Italy, was met, defeated by the Roman armies, and
slain. His severed head was thrown into the camp of Hanni-
bal, who exclaimed in agony, “It is done; I have lost all my
good fortune, and Carthage all her hopes.”

23. Meanwhile the younger Scipio had, by the terror of his
arms, re-established the Roman power over the territories of
Spain, and, by his engaging virtues, won the hearts of the peo-
ple. The Celtiberians, a warlike people, were gained by his
generosity and dismissal of a beautiful princess betrothed to their
leader. So great was his renown, that after his return to Italy
he was elected consul, though under the age prescribed, and
having Sicily assigned as his province, he had the power grant-
ed him of carrying the war into Africa at his pleasure. He
accordingly invaded Africa, where his success compelled the
Carthaginians to recall their forces from Italy.

24. The grief of Hannibal, when he received the mandate to
return, was extreme. On his arrival at Carthage, he took the
command of the army, and advanced five days into the country,

* There were four Carthaginian generals by this name. One was the
brother-in-law, and one the brother of Hannibal.

21. Describe the battle of Cannæ! Did Hannibal follow up his victory
by proceeding to Rome? What course did he take?—22. From what
quarters was Hannibal expecting aid? What were the reasons that he did
not receive it? By whom, and with what result was the battle of Metau-
rus?—23. Give an account of the younger Scipio! Why was Hannibal
recalled?
when he encamped at Zama. A battle ensued, in which, though the valor of the Carthaginians sustained their reputation, the Romans obtained a complete victory. Scipio advanced towards Carthage; but at Tunis he was met by ambassadors. The terms imposed by the conqueror, though severe, were accepted by the disheartened senate of Carthage. The Carthaginians agreed to relinquish their possessions in Spain, and thenceforth to restrict their power to Africa; to deliver up the Roman prisoners; to destroy their navy, and to pay tribute to Rome.

25. Carthage, thus deprived of its foreign possessions, and its navy, though enjoying its own constitution, and the name of an independent republic, was effectually deprived of all means of thwarting the boundless ambition of Rome. Even on the side of Africa its power was soon checked. Masinissa, prince of Numidia, who had aided the Romans in the late war, was by them established in his kingdom; and being declared an ally of Rome, the Carthaginians were obliged to remain at peace with him.

CHAPTER III.

The progress of the Roman Power.

1. GREECE.—The Romans had drawn the Ætolians, and subsequently, several other Grecian states, into a league of alliance. Some of the Grecian cities were dissatisfied with the terms of the peace with Philip of Macedonia, which followed the "Social War." The Romans were hostile to Philip, on account of his treaty with Hannibal, and they introduced an army into Greece, commanded by the consul Acilius.

2. Antiochus the Great was on the throne of Syria. To him Hannibal, exiled from his ungrateful country, fled. He pointed out the grasping ambition of Rome, which he invited Antiochus to oppose by carrying a war into Italy, offering to command an advanced army, until the monarch could arrive. The Carthaginians had the meanness to inform the Romans of the movements of Hannibal. Fortunately for Rome, Antiochus did not take his advice; but himself marched an army into Thessaly, took several cities, and proceeded to the pass of Thermopylae, where he was met and defeated by the Roman army under Acilius. He escaped with a very few of his troops to Chalcis,

24. Give an account of the closing battle of the war. What were the conditions of peace? 25. What was now the situation of Carthage?
THE GREAT ROMAN EMPIRE FORMING.

3. The next consul, Lucius Scipio, carried his arms into Asia, fought, and conquered Antiochus. He now sued for peace, which he obtained only by resigning his claims in Europe, and by the cession of all Lesser Asia, as far as Mount Taurus, and the surrender of half his ships. With a show of magnanimity, the Romans freed the Greek cities of Asia Minor, dividing the remainder of the conquered lands between their allies. But their moderation was only in appearance. In reality, they now held sway from the Atlantic to the Euphrates. After the peace with Antiochus, the persecuted Hannibal fled to Parius, king of Bithynia. The Romans demanded him, and he, whose great, but misguided talents, had been employed for the destruction of his fellow-beings, now, far from home and friends, raised his hand against himself.

4. Philip V., of Macedonia, was extending his power, and waiting an occasion to make war upon the Romans. The condition of his young son, Demetrius, whom he had been compelled to surrender as a hostage, and who was now at Rome, for a time delayed the hostilities of the father. At length he received him. The amiable youth had become attached to the Roman people, and his innocent expressions were attributed by his elder brother, Perseus, to treasonable connexion with the enemy of his country,—a design to dethrone his father, and supported by the Romans, to become monarch in his stead. By order of Philip, he was secretly put to death. Too late, the repentant father found, that he had sacrificed an innocent son, to a base and jealous deceiver. Struck with remorse, he died, and left his crown to the unworthy Perseus, who sought everywhere to stir up enmity against the Romans. But after war was declared, his avarice prevented him from affording much aid to his allies. The Romans, on their part, did not pursue the contest in Greece with their usual vigor, till at length, Paulus Æmilius, being elected consul, obtained a decisive victory over Perseus. Perseus fled, was pursued and taken; and with his family carried captive to Rome. Macedonia was now a Roman province.

5. A triumph, as was the case in great successes, was now granted, by the Roman senate, to the conqueror. History gives an account of any exhibitions of human vanity, equal to the triumphs of the victorious generals of Rome. On this occasion, three days were consumed in gorgeous processions, in which the spoils of the vanquished were paraded through the streets, with splendid military show, and martial music. Last

3. Give an account of the battle of Magnesia. What was its consequence on the Syrian power? What was now the extent of the Roman authority? What was the fate of Hannibal?—4. Relate the history of Demetrius. What was the course pursued by Perseus? By whom was the battle of Pydna fought? What was its consequence?—5. Describe the triumph of Paulus Æmilius?
came Paulus Æmilius in his pompous chariot, blazing with gold and purple. Behind the triumphal car of the victor, on foot, and clothed in black, followed the conquered king, with his little children, holding forth their hands, and imploring the pity of the spectators. This, says Plutarch, the children of Perseus had been taught to do, for they were too young to feel their miserable degradation. When Perseus begged of his conqueror to be spared this degrading exhibition, Æmilius replied by hinting to him, that he might spare himself by committing suicide. Paulus Æmilius was however regarded as a man of moderation; but his day was before that of Christianity. The miserable Perseus ended his days in a Roman prison.

6. Antiochus Epiphanes, now king of Syria, was successfully engaged in a war with Egypt, whose kings, Ptolemy Philometor, and Ptolemy Physcon, requested the interference of the Roman senate. They sent ambassadors, requiring of the Syrian prince, in an authoritative tone, to restore the places which he had taken from the Egyptians. Such was the terror of the Roman name, that he felt himself obliged to submit to the imperious mandate.

7. The Third Punic War.—Fifty years having elapsed since the close of the second Punic war, the industrious Carthaginians had repaired their ruined city, so that it began to exhibit traces of its former splendor. Cato, the censor, an austere man, now in his dotage, having had occasion to visit Carthage, and not receiving all the attention to which he thought himself entitled, gave to the senate, on his return, such accounts of its growing power, that he awakened their jealousy; ending all his speeches, no matter on what subject, by saying, "and in my opinion, Carthage must be destroyed." Pretenses were soon found in a dispute which arose between a Roman ally, Masinissa, king of Numidia, and the Carthaginians. While the senate were deliberating on the expediency of immediate war, deputies were received from Utica, the second city of Africa, and in the neighborhood of Carthage, surrendering their city to the Roman power.

8. Having now a convenient depot, the senate no longer hesitated to send a fleet to Africa, although the Carthaginian ambassadors at Rome made offers of satisfaction and submission. No sooner was it known at Carthage that the Roman fleet had arrived at Utica, than ambassadors were despatched thither also, to make all necessary concessions to obtain peace. The Romans demanded that the munitions of war should be conveyed from Carthage to the Roman camp. The Carthaginians gave them up; but the means of defence were no sooner removed from their city, than their ambassadors were informed that it
was the will of the Roman senate that Carthage should be destroyed! and that they commanded all the citizens to depart. With astonishment and grief, the ambassadors supplicated mercy. They could only prevail to obtain permission to send another embassy to Rome. The deputies went and returned, and confirmed the barbarous decree.

9. The citizens, in despair, resolved to defend themselves to the last extremity. The delay of the Roman consuls, who apprehended no resistance from a disarmed city, afforded the Carthaginians an opportunity to prepare for the siege. The temples, palaces, and markets, were converted into arsenals, where men and women worked day and night in the manufacture of arms. But these efforts only delayed a fate, which the unhappy people could not avert. After a bravely sustained siege of three years, Carthage capitulated, with no other condition than that the lives of those who were willing to leave the citadel should be spared. The city, which had existed for 700 years, and which at the commencement of the war contained 700,000 inhabitants, was now reduced to ashes.

CHAPTER IV.

The East.

1. PERGAMUS, a city of Mysia, took advantage of the war of Seleucus with Lysimachus (both of whom claimed it,) to assume independence. The weakness of the Seleucidae, enabled the inhabitants not only to maintain it, but to add to their territory the surrounding country. ATTALUS I., a prince of noble character, laid the foundation of the monarchy. He was the ally of Antiochus the Great, and at the same time, the friend of the Romans. His son, EUOMES II., took part with the Romans against Antiochus, and when they had vanquished that king, they gave to Eumenes almost all his dominions in Asia Minor, and he became an “ally,” which signified little else than a servant of Rome, to be protected in danger, but to be carefully watched, and punished if not found in the ways of obedience. Thus Pergamus nominally had her territory extended, but virtually lost her independence. Pergamus had become, next to Alexandria, the most distinguished seat of arts and literature. A rich library was collected, which Antony

9. How did the cruel conduct of the Romans affect the citizens of Carthage? Were their efforts availing? How long had Carthage continued? How many inhabitants did it contain at the commencement of the war?

PYRRHUS—A GOOD GENERAL—A BAD KING.

afterwards carried to Alexandria as a present to Cleopatra. Artalus III. gave, by will, the kingdom of Pergamus to Rome, and the senate made it a Roman province under the name of Asia.

2. Rhodes became a republic, and enjoyed, for a hundred years, a splendid period of liberty, commerce, and naval power. Epirus was an independent kingdom as far back as the Trojan war; but it makes no figure in history till the time of Pyrrhus II. Olympia, the mother of Alexander the Great, was the daughter of Neoptolemus, a descendant of Achilles, and one of the predecessors of Pyrrhus. His relationship to such heroes inspired the ardor to acquire similar renown. His father having been deposed, Pyrrhus was carried in his infancy to the king of Illyria, who adopted him, and, with an army, placed him on the throne of Epirus at the age of twelve.

3. At seventeen, he was expelled from his dominions. Applying to Demetrius Poliorcetes, he was by him sent to the court of Ptolemy, in Egypt. Here he so ingratiated himself with queen Berenice, that he received the hand of her daughter Antigone, and aid from Ptolemy to reinstate him in his kingdom. But he had not the wisdom to remain there, and take care of his subjects. He went first to Macedonia, where he was engaged in wars with his brother-in-law Demetrius, and his son Antigonus; and next, he passed over into Italy, to head the Tarantines in a bootless war with the Romans. He was finally killed in an attack on Argos, by a tile thrown from a window, by a poor woman, who in the battle saw him about to slay her son. The last sovereign of the race was Deidamia, his grand-daughter. A republic of short continuance followed; and lastly, Epirus fell, with the rest of Greece, under the dominion of Rome.

4. Bithynia and Paphlagonia were formed into separate states, and had their kings during the Persian power. Bias, the reigning king of Bithynia, defended himself successfully against Alexander, as his son and heir did against his successors. Hannibal took refuge with Prusias II., who, advised by him, made war successfully upon Eumenes. Nevertheless, he was about to deliver him to the Romans, when Hannibal prevented it by a voluntary death. The Romans invaded, and, in fact, subdued the country; but to keep up a show of justice, Socrates, the last king, was persuaded, or forced, to give his empire by will to Rome.

5. Pontus was, during the present period, governed by princes subordinate to the Persian monarchs, but deriving their descent from the same stock. Mithridates II., the fourth of these, submitted to Alexander, and after his death, to Antigonus, but was by him distrusted and slain. His son Mithridates

2. What can you say of Rhodes? Of Epirus? Give some account of the lineage of Pyrrhus? Of his early years?—3. Of his life until his going to Italy? Where, and how did he die?—4. What were formed into separate states? Who was Bias, and what did he and his son?—5. Give an account of Pontus?
PARTHIA UNCONQUERED.

III. after the battle of Ipsus, became independent. The territories of the kingdom were gradually enlarged. The Seleucidae had lost ground in their endeavors to subdue it, till Antiochus the Great, taking a wiser course, conciliated the Pontians, and married the daughter of Mithridates. The long reign of Mithridates VI. (the Great) presents, in its earlier portion, the most glorious period of this kingdom; in its middle course, we find three disastrous wars with Rome; and at the last we witness, with regret, this unfortunate king,—his independent mind alone unconquered, roaming, like the hunted lion driven from his lair, seeking friends, and finding none. At length he was ruined by his own son, and Pontus passed into the hands of the Romans.

6. ARMENIA, (afterwards divided into Armenia Major, and Armenia Minor,) was a province of Syria until the victories of Rome over Antiochus the Great; when his governors united in throwing off submission. Armenia Major, east of the Euphrates, was ruled during a succession of reigns by the family of Artaxius, one of these governors. Tigranes, who married the daughter of Mithridates, and was the most renowned of the family, was obliged, on account of the services he had rendered his father-in-law, to cede the greater part of his territory to the Romans, and Armenia Major became a Roman province. Armenia Minor retained its independence till after the Christian era.

7. CAPPADOCIA, like Pontus, was, during the Persian power, governed by princes descended from the kings of Persia, and dependent on them. Like that country also, it fell under the dominion of Alexander, and afterwards that of his successors, but freed itself during their wars. Ariathes VII. married Laodice, the sister of Mithridates the Great, who caused the death of his brother-in-law and his immediate heirs, and placed on the throne his own son. The Romans, under Sylla, came in, to settle these disorders, made a nominal king, but kept the real power in their own hands.

8. PARTHIA, was a large kingdom, which, at its extent, embraced the countries between the Euphrates and the Indus, and comprehended the heart of the ancient Persian empire. The Parthians when they broke from the Seleucidae in the time of Antiochus II., were under Arsaces I. He was the founder of the family of Arsacidæ, which for a long time governed the country. Though this became a nation so powerful that it was able to check the conquests of Rome on the east, yet little is known of its history, except as it came into conflict with that power. The Parthians, so often invaded by the Romans, acquired a dislike to strangers, and blocked up the former channel.
of commerce from the west to the east, by refusing to permit people from other nations to pass through their territories. *Hence the East India commerce made its way through Palmyra, and enriched the country around that city.*

9. BACTRIA shook off the yoke of the Syrian kings under its Greek governor, Theodatus, afterwards king, not only of Bactria, but Sogdiana. One of his descendants, Demetrius, was invaded by Antiochus the Great, but the invasion ended in a treaty; Antiochus giving him his daughter in marriage. He extended the Bactrian kingdom, by the conquest of Northern India and Malabar. *Arsaces VI., conquered Bactria and annexed it to Parthia.*

10. JUDEA.—After the death of Alexander the Great, Judea was added to Syria, and during the wars of his successors, it fell under the dominion of the Ptolemies of Egypt. When Antiochus the Great was on the throne of Syria, the Jews voluntarily submitted to him, and assisted him in driving away the Egyptian troops. Grateful for this service, Antiochus confirmed them in all the privileges of their peculiar religion. The Jewish priesthood had continued in unbroken succession; and in 198 B. C., mention is made in history of *an ecclesiastical senate, or Sanhedrim.*

11. Judea flourished, and was scarcely more than nominally subject to the king of Syria. Wealth had accumulated, particularly the treasures of the temple. Antiochus Epiphanes so managed, as to get into the priesthood creatures of his own, who dispensed it to him in presents. The Jews revolted. Antiochus took Jerusalem, and began a horrid extermination of the worshippers of Jehovah. Headed by the illustrious family of the Maccabees, the people made successful head against their oppressors. The first of these, was the father, Mattathias, the second was his valiant son Judas Maccabeus. He defeated the generals of Antiochus in several battles, and obtained the friendship of the Romans.

12. The third of the illustrious Maccabees, was Jonathan Maccabaeus, who, attaining to the dignity of high-priest, was acknowledged as the head of the nation, even by Demetrius II., now king of Syria. The fourth of the Maccabees was Simon, who succeeded his brother in the high-priesthood, and in consequence of military services to the king of Syria, was freed from tribute, and received the title of prince. His son John Hyrcanus succeeded to his dignities, and not only maintained his independence, but renewed the connexion with Rome. He took advantage of the decline of the Syrian power, and con-

8. How did Palmyra become wealthy?—9. Give an account of Bactria, and observe whether Rome conquered it.—10. Under what masters did Judea at this time fall? At what time do we hear of an ecclesiastical court? 11. What connexion had Judea with the Seleucide? Who was the first of the Maccabees? The second?—12. The third? What account can you give of Judas in his time? What account can you give of John Hyrcanus? Why were this family called the Maccabees? (See note.)
quered Samaria and Idumea. With his death the heroes of this family have an end, and many troubles begin.

13. The Pharisees were a sect whose name implies "set apart;" and they had, from their sanctimonious observances, gained much authority with the people. Zadok, a Jewish philosopher, disgusted with their pretensions, founded a sect called Sadducees, which went to the opposite extreme in matters of religion, denying the immortality of the soul, and the agency of spirits in human affairs. These two sects, formerly at variance only in matters of religion, now became violent political parties. Two sons of Hyrcanus, in deadly hostility to each other, successively occupied his place, but the race had become degenerate—stained with cruelty, disunion, and bloodshed. The Romans came in, as arbitrators, and that, with them, was to rule as masters. They imposed a tribute upon the Jews, sent Aristobulus, a grandson of Hyrcanus, with his family, prisoners to Rome, and appointed one of his opponents, Antipater, as procurator, or Roman governor, of Judea. He adhered to Rome, and when his patron, Julius Caesar, was assassinated, his second son Herod gained the friendship of Mark Antony. He was afterwards by the triumvirate made king; and although a suspicious and cruel man, he obtained the name of "Herod the Great." By the generosity of the Roman sovereign, his kingdom gradually extended, till it embraced all Palestine, with Idumea; and from these countries he was allowed to collect revenue without tribute. It was in the last year but one of his reign that our Lord and Savior Jesus Christ was born.

14. THE ACHÆAN LEAGUE.—Troubles having arisen between the members of the Achæan League, which had till this time, preserved a shadow of liberty, the Romans availed themselves of the opportunity afforded by their disensions, for dissolving it. An embassy was sent to Corinth, with orders to separate as many states as possible from the league. When, to execute their commission, they called on the league to surrender those places in the Peloponnesus, formerly occupied by the Macedonian king, the Corinthian multitude became so furious as to insult the ambassadors, who were obliged to flee from their violence. This furnished the Romans with a pretext for war. The Achæans, although heroic in their efforts to restore the freedom of Greece, did but perish in the attempt. Christus, their general, was defeated, and in the same year that Carthage was burned, Corinth was also taken and destroyed; and Greece, under the name of Achæai, became henceforth a Roman province.

15. SPAIN.—Wars with the native tribes had been waged by the Romans, since the expulsion of the Carthaginians. Cato the Censor had at one time reduced Hither Spain; but the
contest was soon renewed, and carried on with such success by
the natives, as to give even the Roman soldiers a dread of going
thither. Viriathus, a native Lusitanian, was raised to the su-
preme command of his nation, and uniting the various tribes
of Hither and Farther Spain under his command, he proved a
formidable foe. The Romans at length triumphed over him;
not in open warfare, but by hiring his servants to murder him.
This act proclaims the degeneracy, which had already taken
place in the Roman character.

CHAPTER V.

Moral degeneracy of the Romans.—Domestic troubles.

1. Thus, by the arts or arms of Rome, the last feeble glim-
mering of Grecian liberty had been extinguished: Carthage lay
smoking in ruins; Syria had bowed in humble submission, and
Spain had found her native valor unavailing. The Romans
drew the wealth of these vast and remote nations into their
own treasury, and from this period bribery and corruption
swayed the senate at home, while extortion and oppression
marked the administration of the provincial governments abroad.

2. Rome was divided into aristocratic and democratic parties,
whose contests were more destructive than the ancient dissen-
sions between the patricians and plebeians. The great power
of the senate had given rise to a family aristocracy, odious to
the people. A law was passed called Licinian, from Licinius
Stolo, whose object was to restrict the possession of public
land to five hundred acres. This for a while restrained the
avarice of the wealthy, and enabled the poor to obtain farms
at moderate rates. But at length this law was disregarded, and
the rich secured the public lands, which were cultivated by
slaves, of whom the patricians possessed incredible numbers;
the prisoners made in war being often sold, or given away, as
such. Thus, the soldiers who were called on for military ser-
vice, were often left without the means of procuring a livelihood,
while the rich enjoyed the fruits of all their victories and
conquests.

15. What was the conduct of the Romans in regard to the unoffending
natives of Spain? Give some account of the Lusitanian leader. You have
now seen how the Roman senate extended their empire—do you believe
that the Righteous Ruler of the universe could look with approbation upon
their conduct? Review the chapter, and examine the map for the follow-
ing questions. What countries had Rome conquered?

CHAP. V.—1. What was now the extent of the Roman territories?—2.
Into what parties was Rome divided? What had given rise to family aris-
tocracy? What was the law which Licinius Stolo procured? Did this
long remain in force? How was the land of the rich cultivated? Had the
patricians many slaves? What circumstance shows that they feared the
slaves? How were the common soldiers situated?
3. An agrarian law was proposed by the tribune of the people, Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus. He proposed to improve the condition of the poor by a juster distribution of the public lands; and not, as some have supposed, by taking the private property of the rich, and giving it to the poor. The law first proposed was mild in its character. But the enthusiasm of the populace, who began to look forward with hope, and the obstinacy of the nobles in defence of their usurped privileges, brought on violent measures. At length the Licinian law was renewed. Gracchus then made a further proposal, that the treasures of Attalus, left by will to Rome, should be divided among the people. The nobility resisted; sedition ensued, and Tiberius, with three hundred of the citizens, fell victims.

4. Although the leader was destroyed, the party was by no means crushed. Tiberius had made the people feel the power of their tribunes, and they resolved to exercise and increase it. Caes Gracchus, a brother of Tiberius, some years afterwards obtained the office. He proposed several laws which tended to diminish the power of the senate, while they increased that of the people. But his opponents raised a tumult, in which Caius was slain, with three thousand of his friends. Thus the aristocratic party finally triumphed over the people. They procured the repeal of the agrarian laws, confiscated the goods of Caius, and prohibited his family from wearing mourning. But the memory of the Gracchi, was revered by the people, who afterwards erected statues to them, in the most public part of the city.

5. THE JUGURTHINE WAR.—Maucipsa, who had succeeded his father Masinissa on the throne of Numidia, had at his death left his kingdom to his nephew Jugurtha, conjointly with his sons Hiempsal and Adherbal. Jugurtha dethroned the sons, assassinated Hiempsal, and seized the whole kingdom. Adherbal fled to the Roman senate, and appealed to them. Had they acted promptly, they would for once have had a good cause. But they suffered Jugurtha's arts and bribery to produce delay—and the death of Adherbal. Then the senate sent the consul Metellus into Africa. This brave man was bringing the war to a favorable termination, when Marius, a new demagogue, who by his valor and abilities had obtained the favor of the people, was appointed to the chief command. Bocchus, king of Upper Numidia, the son-in-law of Jugurtha, privately offered to deliver him up to Sylla, who was an officer in the army of Marius. Sylla went to the camp of Bocchus, where Jugurtha was given into his hands. The ambitious Sylla had a seal made representing the exploit, and thenceforth claimed the honor of terminating the war. Thus began the quarrel between Marius and Sylla.

3. What family made an effort to deliver the people from this oppression? What did T. S. Gracchus propose? How did he perish? 4. What was afterwards done and suffered by Caius Gracchus? 5. Who was Jugurtha? How happened the Romans to make war upon him? Give an account of the war.
6. The genius of Marius procured a triumph for the plebeians, he being the first of their number made consul. The Cimbri and the Teutones poured down from the north in alarming multitudes. Half a million had collected and were moving towards Rome. Proceeding through Helvetia, they were joined by the Celtic and Helvetic tribes. They attacked Roman Gaul. The senate sent, during four years, three armies against them who were defeated. Then they made Marius a second time consul. Near Aix in Provence, he defeated the Teutones, and near Verona, the Cimbrians. Thus were already begun those barbarian incursions, which proved the final ruin of Rome.

7. Marius having delivered Rome from foreign foes, returned to disturb her domestic tranquillity. He obtained a sixth consulate. Metellus, whom he had supplanted in the Jugurthine war, possessed an inflexible integrity,—the spirit of better days. Marius hated, and determined to ruin him. Associating with himself Saturnus, a tribune of the people, they procured laws to be passed, increasing to an alarming degree the power of the democracy. Metellus opposed them and was banished, though afterwards recalled. The insolence and crimes of the popular party now knew no bounds. Marius, although at first he encouraged them, was at length obliged to call out a body of soldiers to suppress the riot. Thus he incurred their ill-will. Hatred already existed between him and the senate. Sylla, his implacable enemy, was rapidly increasing in popularity, and Metellus, whose banishment he had procured, was recalled from exile. Marius, foreseeing evil, withdrew from Rome. Other and pressing dangers for a while occupied the nation, and gave the factious spirit of the citizens employment without the walls of the city.

8. The Italian allies of Rome had, from time to time, been flattered with the hope of obtaining citizenship, until, despairing of the accomplishment of their wishes, and driven by continued oppressions, they formed a league among themselves, which threatened to subvert the power of Rome itself. This contest was marked by frequent and bloody battles; victory sometimes declaring in favor of the allies, sometimes for Rome. The war was finally terminated by concessions on the part of

* The term citizen, in its common meaning, signifies an inhabitant of a city vested with its freedom and liberties. In Rome the term became extended. Those who lived in other parts of the commonwealth received from the senate the title of Roman citizens, as a reward for services, or as a matter of favor. Hence the distinction was considered highly honorable. Besides, some privileges were connected with it. The Roman citizen could not be scourged, and he had a right, in cases of criminal prosecution, to appeal to Rome and be judged there.

6. How did Marius obtain a triumph for the plebeians? What incursion of barbarians occurred? What were their numbers? What was done to check them? What was done by Marius? What numbers of them were killed, and what made prisoners? What was done with prisoners? (See paragraph 2.)—7. What was the conduct of Marius on his return? What was done by his rival? Relate what next happened to Marius?—8. Give some account of the Social war?
the Romans; the allies eventually obtaining all the privileges which they demanded.

9. Mithridates the Great, during his conquests in Asia Minor, had given indications of hostile views towards Rome, by putting to death great numbers of the Roman citizens of Lesser Asia. The factions in Rome were still distracting the republic. During the Marsean war, in which both Marius and Sylla had been employed, Sylla had increased in popularity, and Marius had declined. War with Mithridates being declared, Marius procured himself to be chosen to conduct it, but the army refusing to obey him, the command was transferred to Sylla.

10. Open war between the rivals ensued. The fortune of Sylla triumphed;—Marius was driven into exile, and in Campania he was seized by Sylla's emissaries and dragged to a prison in Minturnæ. A Gaul was commanded to cut off his head in prison. Entering the dungeon, he met the terrible look and voice of the stern man—"Darest thou kill Caius Marius?" The Gaul at these words dropped his sword and went forth, declaring that he could not do the deed. The people, amazed, took the part of the prisoner. He was released, and escaped to Africa, a price being set upon his head at Rome.

11. Sylla departed for Asia, but not until by his cruelties he had made himself odious to all parties at home. The Grecian cities, with the exception of Athens, which had declared for Mithridates, opened their gates to the Roman army. Sylla besieged that city and took it. He violated the temples of Greece, and made himself master of their treasures, which he distributed with lavish profusion among his soldiers; thereby attaching them to his service, but corrupting the army. Near Chaeronea in Bœotia, and at Orchomenus, in Thessaly, Sylla obtained victories over the forces of Mithridates, who was at length compelled to sue for peace. All claims to Cappadocia, Bithynia, and Lesser Asia, were relinquished; and on these terms Mithridates was declared a friend and ally of the Romans.

12. But while Sylla was thus triumphing in the east, a revolution was effected at Rome. The consul Cinna, of the party of Marius, after the departure of Sylla, having resorted to the former measures of the Marian faction, was expelled by his colleague Octavius. He now raised an army, recalled Marius, defeated the army of the senate, and entered Rome triumphant. Massacres and horrors followed the entrance of the vindictive Marius. Rome, deluged with the blood of his victims, turned her eyes towards the victorious Sylla. Marius heard with appalling dread the approach of his enemy. He sickened and died, and Rome rejoiced at the event. Young Pompey, who was rising into consequence, and had the command of some

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9. Give an account of the beginning of the Mithridatic war.—10. What occurred to Marius?—11. Describe the course of Sylla in Greece. What were the conditions of peace granted to Mithridates?—12. What had happened in Rome? What did Marius on his return.
troops, with most of the leading citizens, declared for Sylla, who entered Rome like a triumphant conqueror.

13. He had now overcome his enemies. The senate and people soon learned, that they had only exchanged one tyrant for another still more bloody. He caused lists of such persons as he disliked, to be put up in public places, offering rewards to those who would kill them. These lists of proscription were daily renewed. Whoever favored a proscribed person, although his own father or nearest relative, was himself devoted to death; while those who destroyed their friends received ample rewards. The streets were filled with the dead. On one occasion, seven thousand persons were assembled in a small place, and there put to the sword; while the insulted senate, sitting near, were compelled to listen to their groans. To such degrading tyranny was Rome, the mistress of the world, compelled to submit; and thus were her cruelties to Carthage, and other fallen enemies, visited upon her own head.

14. Sylla had declared himself dictator; and in this capacity, he modified the laws to suit his own purposes. Afterwards he voluntarily abdicated his power, and although he escaped the chastisement which he deserved, from human hands, yet God smote him with a most loathsome disease, of which he died. In the wars of Marius and Sylla, thirty persons of consular dignity, two hundred senators, and 150,000 Roman citizens are said to have perished.

Sertorius had been an officer under Marius. He escaped from Sylla, and in Lusitania collected 10,000 soldiers, with whom he made head against Metellus and Pompey, with 120,000, gaining a victory at Tarragona. At length Perpenna, his lieutenant, assassinated him at a feast.

Amidst the disorders of Rome, some Thracian gladiators, headed by the gigantic Spartacus, ran away from their masters, and posted themselves strongly in the hills, near Capua. Slaves and the oppressed joined them, till, with an army of 70,000, Spartacus for a time was the terror of Italy. While Crassus commanded against him he was defeated and slain.

CHAPTER VI.

Rome passing from anarchy to despotism.

1. In the east, another war with Mithridates had broken out. The consul Lucullus had obtained the command in that quarter, and conducted the war with such vigor and ability, that

13. Relate some of the cruelties of Sylla.—14. What number of victims is it supposed lost their lives in these civil wars? Give an account of the Sertorian war. Of the Servile war.
the second year he compelled Mithridates to fly to his son-in-law, Tigranes, king of Armenia. Tigranes, although he had before neglected to afford him any aid, now refused to deliver him up. Lucullus, therefore, carried the war into Armenia. At Tigranocerta, and Artaxata, the army of Lucullus obtained victories over the allied forces of these kings; but a mutiny among the Roman soldiers embarrassed his movements, and enabled Mithridates to recover his strength.

2. A party adverse to Lucullus had arisen in Rome. Pompey had been successful in the war in Spain; he had conquered the pirates of Cilicia and Isauria, and now was gratified by being sent, with an army of 30,000, to supersede Lucullus, and thus have the glory of being opposed to Mithridates, the most powerful and able general with whom the Romans had contended since the days of Hannibal. With the aid of Tigranes, he had already reconquered most of his territories. His policy was to avoid a general battle, but to hover near the Romans, and by intercepting their convoys, to distress and reduce them.

3. Pompey felt the effects of these measures, and departed from Pontus into Armenia, determined to reduce that province, or force Mithridates to battle, in order to relieve it. Mithridates followed with his army. Pompey, failing to draw him into an engagement, besieged him in his camp for fifty days. Mithridates, reduced to distress, at dead of night attacked the Roman guards, broke through their entrenchments, and gained the open country. Pompey pursued, and finding unguarded passes, sent detachments, which secretly gained commanding positions in the rear of the Pontians. He then surprised their camp at night. Thus surrounded, they suffered a total defeat. Mithridates escaped with 800 horse; but even this remnant of his army forsook him and fled. With only his wife, his daughter, and one officer, he sought the court of Tigranes, who now refused him a shelter; and he pursued his melancholy way till he found a home among the more generous Scythians.

4. Pompey made Tigranes, by treaty, a Roman ally, in other words, a Roman subject. He then went northward in pursuit of Mithridates. After two years of war with the Scythians and hardship to his troops, getting no clue to the abode of his unfortunate enemy, Pompey retraced his course to Pontus, and reduced those places which remained faithful to the absent monarch. After these victories, Pompey received the submission of twelve kings. He then carried his arms into Syria, conquered Judaea, and penetrated to Arabia.

5. After Pompey’s departure, Mithridates issued from his concealment, and appearing in Pontus at the head of an army, made

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CHAPTER VI.—1. How did Lucullus conduct the second Mithridatic war?—2. What is said of Pompey? What of Mithridates?—3. Give an account of the movements of the contending parties. What did Mithridates after the battle?—4. What was done by Pompey in respect to Tigranes? How did he next extend the Roman power?—5. Give an account of the third Mithridatic war. What did Pharnaces become? What was done in Rome on Pompey’s return?
himself master of several important places. But his officers mutinied, and in vain he asked the aid of the Scythians. His son Pharnaces, availing himself of the disaffection of the army, proclaimed himself king. Mithridates, in despair, committed suicide. Pompey, after declaring Pharnaces an ally to the Romans, returned to Italy. Rome rejoiced in his success, and on the proposal of Cicero, the greatest of Roman orators, twelve days were set apart for thanksgiving to the gods.

6. On his arrival in Italy, Pompey disbanded his army, to the great joy of the senate, who feared he would retain it, and after the examples of Marius and Sylla, make himself absolute in power. Rome was however unquiet. Cataline and his associates had formed a horrible conspiracy. Their intention was to extirpate the Roman senate, plunder the treasury, and set Rome on fire. Through the eloquence and patriotism of Cicero, thence called the "father of his country," aided by the honest and philosophical Cato, the dreadful plot was detected, and the conspirators punished.

7. But the master spirit of the times was Julius Caesar, who had just returned from a successful war in Spain. Concealing his boundless ambition, he was now at Rome, paying court to the ladies, and acting the intriguing demagogue. Crassus, by assuming popular manners, by increasing his great wealth, and by constantly making himself useful by his money, to those who needed his aid, had, with far inferior talents, acquired power and influence in Rome equal to those of either Caesar or Pompey. Crassus and Pompey were at variance. Caesar artfully reconciled them, and the three formed a union, dividing between themselves, under the name of the triumvirate, the supreme power of the commonwealth. Caesar, at his desire, was appointed to undertake an expedition against the Gauls. He believed that in the five years allotted to him, he would be able to form and discipline an army, which would put within his reach the absolute power at which he aimed. The succeeding year, Crassus was to govern Asia, while Pompey remained at Rome at the head of the affairs of Italy, Africa, and Spain.

8. A treaty with Parthia had been entered into by Lucullus, and renewed by Pompey, the terms of which that nation had faithfully kept. But Crassus, wishing to increase his wealth, and to equal the military fame of his rivals, undertook against the Parthians an unprovoked and unrighteous war. At the head of the Roman legions, he passed through Syria and Judea, plundered the temple at Jerusalem, crossed the Euphrates, and reduced many towns of Mesopotamia.

6. How did Pompey recommend himself to the Roman senate? Give an account of the horrible conspiracy which had been formed. To whom was its detection and punishment owing? Who was, however, the master spirit? What appearance did he now put on? How did Crassus become powerful? Who and what was the first triumvirate? How did the three divide the Roman power between them? What sacrilege was committed by Crassus?
9. The Parthians rose in arms, and while Crassus with his army was in winter quarters, they retook the places which he had conquered. When he recommenced his march, they provided him with an artful adviser in Ariamnes, a wily Arabian chief, to whom Crassus gave ear, caught by his great pretences of friendship and gratitude to the Romans, for services rendered his father. Deaf to the remonstrances of Caius Cassius, an able general, and of other officers and friends, who knew the Parthian mode of warfare, he persisted in keeping the open plains of Mesopotamia. For some time the march of the army was through a fertile and well watered country, where the wants of the soldiers were easily and fully supplied. Soon, however, the scene changed, and they entered upon dry and sandy plains, where neither stream, nor tree, nor plant, appeared. A hostile army lurked all around them, and now sure of their prey, openly attacked them. The Romans fought bravely, but in vain; whether advancing, or retreating, the discharge of the Parthian arrows was equally effective. The army of Crassus, surrounded on all sides, was reduced to the greatest extremity; a large division was totally defeated; and his son, who commanded it, slain.

10. Crassus effected a retreat, and threw himself into Charrae: thither he was pursued by Surena, the Parthian general, and fearful of an assault, he determined, unknown to the inhabitants, to leave the city. His design was discovered by Surena, and again a guide was suborned, who led him into marshes, where he was overtaken and finally slain. Of all his army, only 500 horse, under the command of Cassius, escaped.

11. Caesar had at first received the government of Gaul for five years, but at their expiration, he was involved in wars with the barbarians, and other five years were added to the time. During this period, his daring achievements, his adventurous spirit, his personal toils and exposures, exhibited military talents equal, if not superior, to those of Alexander, and of Hannibal. To these he added, what neither of them possessed, the polish of the finished scholar. The commanding powers of language were his, whether he chose to exert them in speaking or in writing. He had in his youth pursued his education in Greece, whither Cicero, Cato, and other eminent orators, at this golden period of Roman eloquence, resorted for instruction; the Romans thus ceding the nobler palm of the arts of peace, to the nation whom they had mastered in war.

12. The expeditions of Caesar brought to the notice of the Romans, places which they had not before known. Thus they connect with him, even us, the Anglo-Americans. By Julius Caesar the Romans were first led to Britain, the land of our progenitors. The language he spoke became in part incorpor-
rated with that of the native barbarians, when his countrymen, following his footsteps, subjugated the island; and this mingled language, farther modified by the Saxon and Norman French, is that which our mothers taught us in our cradles. Caesar twice invaded Britain. In his sanguinary course, he enlarged the bounds of the Roman empire in Gaul, and found tribes, of new and singular appearance. He also invaded Germany, and had bloody battles with its wandering natives, who were distinguished by peculiar customs. They dwelt not in cities, and they paid religious veneration to women.

CHAPTER VII.

Rome the prey of ambitious citizens.

1. On the death of Crassus, the first triumvirate was dissolved, and Pompey and Caesar were left to contend for the supremacy. Julia, the amiable daughter of Caesar, whom he had given in marriage to Pompey, had proved a bond of union between these two ambitious spirits; but she was now dead, and Pompey married Cornelia, of the family of the Scipios, and the widow of the son of Crassus. Animosities between them, fatal to the peace of Rome, were now beginning to appear, which Cicero vainly attempted to reconcile. Pompey enlisted the senate and the people on his side. Caesar, on the other hand, was the idol of his veteran army.

2. Pompey obtained a decree from the senate, commanding Caesar to disband his troops; and Mark Antony, a tribune, fled to Caesar's camp at Ravenna, with the news. To obey the mandate, would be to put himself in the power of his rival. To advance with his army, and pass the river Rubicon, the bound

* Cornelia, was beautiful, amiable, well versed in polite literature, played the lute, and was also acquainted with geometry and philosophy. The condition of women among the ancients was, however, degrading. Their fathers or brothers, without consulting their affections, gave them in marriage, as if suited their own ambitious purposes. When Caesar wished for a political connexion with Pompey, Julia, who was on the eve of a marriage to another, must be given to him. Formerly, when Sylla wished for the same connexion, he took his step-daughter, Emilia, from her husband, and obliged the young Pompey to divorce his first wife Anaitis, and marry her. Men divorced their wives at pleasure. Even Cicero, in his old age, divorced Terentia, the mother of Tullia, for whose death he mourned so immoderately, and married a young heiress, who was his ward. Men, as fathers, have been more generally just to women, than as husbands.

12. The English language which we speak is partly derived from the Latin—Can you tell how it became so? What are you told of Caesar's invasion of Britain, and of Germany?

Chap. VII.—1. How was the first triumvirate dissolved? Whom had Pompey on his side? Whom had Caesar?—2. What decree did the senate pass? How did Caesar hear of it?
ory of his province, would be setting at defiance the power of
the senate. Taking 6,000 soldiers, he advanced with an agitated
mind, paused all night, riding to and fro, on the brink of the in-
terdicted stream, then, at dawn, he dashed forward, and as he
passed, he exclaimed, "the die is cast." The celerity of his
movements surprised his enemies. Pompey, not being in force to
meet him, fled from Rome, first to Capua, and afterwards to
Brundusium. Caesar, by the departure of Pompey, was left in
possession of Italy, and soon entered Rome. Collecting the
members of the senate, he attempted to justify his conduct, and
made proposals of peace, while, at the same time, he continued
his preparations for war. To facilitate these, he entered the
treasury, and took an immense sum, telling the tribune who op-
posed him, and pleaded the violated rights of his country, that
"arms and laws did not flourish together."

3. Appointing lieutenants over the different provinces, with
legions at their command, and leaving Mark Antony com-
mander-in-chief in Italy, he proceeded in person to reduce Spain;
where the army was in the interest of Pompey. Having, with
great hazard, effected this, he returned to Rome, leaving one of
his lieutenants to command in Spain. The patriotic citizens of
Rome knew not how to act. Cicero said, "Caesar is the abler
man, but Pompey has the better cause." Believing thus, he and
most of the senators, magistrates, and distinguished citizens, left
Rome to follow the fortunes of Pompey.

4. Caesar assembled his friends and the citizens which re-
mained; and the praetor, Lepidus, nominated him dictator. He
held the office but eleven days, during which he made some
improvements in the government. He filled the vacant offices
with his friends. Himself and one of his partisans he procured
to be appointed consuls. He next invested Pompey's forces in
Brundusium; but he escaping the snare, crossed the Adriatic into
Greece. Caesar embarked from Brundusium with a part of his
army, leaving the remainder under Antony, to follow; but their
delay, and the danger of their being intercepted by Pompey's
fleet, induced him to make overtures for peace. They were re-
jected. Caesar, impatient to learn the cause of Antony's delay,
attempted to cross the strait in a fishing boat, telling the master,
aflrighted by a storm, "Fear not, thou carriest Caesar and his
fortune." Mark Antony having arrived with the remainder of
his troops, Caesar besieged his rival in camp at Dyrrhachium.
But Pompey forced him from his position with loss; then, as
Caesar retreated, he followed him into Macedonia.

5. Pompey's army far exceeded Caesar's in number; and in
his camp were almost all the friends of Roman liberty—Cicero,
Cato, and his son-in-law, the patriotic Brutus. The two ar-
 mies were drawn up on the memorable plain of Pharsalia.

2. Give the history of Caesar's movements. — 3. What were
Caesar's next measures? What course did the most patriotic Romans now take? Where
did they go, being with Pompey? — 4. What were Caesar's measures? What
was done at Brundusium? What at Dyrrhachium?
They who had sat together in council, shared the same social repast; perchance, drawn their infant sustenance from the same maternal breast, joined in unholy strife. Pompey fought his country’s children, not as he had fought her foes; and Cæsar was victorious. As soon as Pompey perceived that his cavalry were defeated, he retired to his camp in despair, and sat down. When the whole army was routed, and he was informed that Cæsar was approaching to storm the intrenchments, he exclaimed, “in my camp too,” and laying aside the insignia of office, he prepared for flight.

6. Pompey, now a wretched fugitive, passed by Larissa, and in the vale of Tempe, he who could so lately command the attendance of supplicant thousands, prostrated himself to taste the running stream, and was glad to rest his wearied limbs in a fisherman’s hut. In the morning he embarked on the Peneus in a small boat; but coming up with a ship of burden commanded by a Roman, he was welcomed and carried to Mitylene, where the affectionate Cornelia, expecting her husband as the master of the world, was told that if she wished to see Pompey with one ship, and that not his own, she must hasten. When she approached, he ran and caught her in his arms, as she was falling in a fainting fit. Yet it was her husband’s fate, and not her own, that affected her; and she ingeniously sought to blame herself for his ill-fortune.

7. With one small galley, they embarked for Egypt, to seek the protection of Ptolemy. On their arrival at Alexandria, the base counsellors of the young king advised him to assassinate Pompey, in order to obtain the favor of Cæsar. Accordingly, a boat was sent off to the galley, as if to take him to the city. Cornelia, looking after him as he moved from her, saw the assassin stab him through the body; and her shriek of agony was heard upon the shore. Cæsar pursued Pompey to Egypt; but when his head was presented to him, he turned away with abhorrence,—wept the fate of his former friend, and caused his murderers to be punished.

8. The crown of Egypt was in dispute between Ptolemy, the acknowledged king, and Cleopatra, his sister. The claims of Ptolemy had been upheld by the Roman senate, and Cleopatra banished. To lay her cause before Cæsar, she hastened to Alexandria. Cæsar was charmed, as by an enchantress, and he summoned Ptolemy to appear before him. At the instigation of his minister, he disregarded the summons, and despatched an army of 20,000 men to besiege Cæsar in Alexandria, who, attended by only 4,000 troops, was in imminent danger. At length, reinforcements arrived, with which he attacked and carried the camp of Ptolemy; who, in attempting to escape, was drowned. Cæsar settled the crown upon Cleopatra.

5. Describe the battle of Pharsalia? What was the loss on the side of the vanquished?—6. What was the course of Pompey after the battle?—7. What occurred after he reached the shores of Egypt?—8. Who was Cleopatra? What course did Cæsar take to uphold her claim?
CATO AND HIS LITTLE SENATE.

9. The war was closed, but the conqueror lingered. At length he was aroused by intelligence of the revolt and conquests of Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates. According to his own account, he “went, saw, conquered;” and having appointed Mithridates of Pergamus, who had succored him in his distress at Alexandria, to be the successor of Pharnaces, he embarked for Italy. He found, on his arrival at Rome, that during his absence, he had been created dictator for one year, consul for five years, and tribune of the people for life.

10. The remaining partisans of Pompey, including several senators, after their defeat at Pharsalia, passed over to Africa, under Metellus Scipio, Cato, and Juba, the son of Hiempsal, who was dutiful to the last to the senate of Rome. The only independent members of that once august body, now collected in Utica, where Cato presided. Caesar sought them, and defeated in battle their military force. Juba and one of his generals killed each other in despair. Scipio, who commanded the army, was slain; and Cato, the most virtuous and patriotic of the Romans, seeing that all hope was lost, having read and commented on Plato’s work on the immortality of the soul, with philosophic composure committed suicide. Caesar, on his return to Rome from this expedition, was honored with a splendid triumph, which lasted four days; the people, with base flattery, hailing him as the father of his country.

11. The sons of Pompey, yet unsubdued, held Spain, and were in a condition for war. Caesar went thither, conquered, and returned. He had now triumphed over all his enemies, and was supreme in Rome. His sway, unlike that of Marius and Sylla, was mild and equitable;—liberal to his friends, kind and forgiving to his enemies. He made salutary laws. With the aid of learned men he reformed the calendar, and thus showed the advantages of learning in conditions of power. He caused Carthage and Corinth to be rebuilt, and sent out Roman colonies to repopulate them. He planned a war with Parthia, in order to extend the empire, and to revenge the death of Crassus.

12. Had Caesar been ambitious only, and not vain, had he been content with the substance of power, without the childish desire of its show, he might, probably, have lived, and been a blessing to his country. The constitution had long since been subverted by a degenerate people. Rome, without republican virtues, could not be a republic. It only remained to choose her master, and doubtless, Caesar was the fittest man. But Caesar wished to be called king, and to wear the insignia of royalty, which was galling to the pride of the Romans; and when Mark Antony and others crowned his statue, and spoke...

9. Give an account of his expedition to Asia. What honors awaited him at Rome?—10. Who were assembled in Utica? What was the fate of Juba? Of Cato?—11. Describe the conduct of Caesar as supreme in power.—12. What error as a politician did Caesar commit? If our citizens and rulers cease to have republican virtues, what do you suppose will be the fate of our republic?
of his coronation, murmurs arose. The thoughtful Cassius, the
envious Cinna, and others, were stirring up a hatred against
him which aimed at his life; and at length they gained the man
who, since Cato, had more devotion to his country than any
other ‘oman. This was Marcus Brutus, who had fought
again, Caesar at Pharsalia, been pardoned by him, loaded with
favors, and adopted as a son. “Loving Caesar much, he yet
loved Rome more;” and by a misguided patriotism, he joined
the conspiracy, in which sixty senators were engaged.

13. The ides, or fifteenth of March, was the day appointed
for the execution of the murderous deed. The night preceding,
Calphurnia, the wife of Caesar, was warned in a dream; and
would fain have persuaded him not to go that day to the senate.
Caesar, as he passed a soothsayer, who had foretold that the
ides of March would be fatal to him, said triumphantly, “The
ides of March are come.” “But not gone,” was the reply. On
account of the alarm Calphurnia’s dream had given him, he of-
ered sacrifices before going to the capitol. The omens were
inauspicious, and he thought to adjourn the senate, but one of
the conspirators asked “If he would bid them go, and come
again when Calphurnia had better dreams?” He then took his
accustomed seat. A friend gave him a paper, containing an ac-
count of the conspiracy, which he desired him to read instantly.
As he held it in his hand, the conspirators pressed around him
with petitions. At length Cinna gave the signal, by pulling his
robe. At the moment, all drew their swords and fell upon him.
He defended himself at first, but seeing Brutus about to strike, he
exclaimed, “And you too, my son?” Then wrapping his mas-
tle about his head, he fell, pierced with many wounds.

14. Thus died, in the 56th year of his age, a man, who, it is
said, conquered 300 nations, took 800 cities, and in different
battles, defeated 3,000,000 of men, of whom 1,000,000 were
killed in fight. Great as he was, he was a man of blood, and
in blood he fell.

CHAPTER VIII.

Rome under the second Triumvirate.

1. The conspirators retired at first to the capitol, but the fol-
lowing day they appeared in public, and addressed the people,
who seemed to listen with composure. The senate passed a

12. Describe the conspiracy which was now formed.—13. Give an ac-
sount of Caesar’s death.—14. How many nations had he conquered?
Cities? How many men were defeated, and how many slain in his war?

CRAP. VIII.—1. What course was taken by the conspirators after Caesar’s
death?
OCTAVIUS, AFTERWARDS AUGUSTUS.

decree, which, though it confirmed the acts of Cæsar's dictatorship, bestowed such offices upon the conspirators, as might be regarded as an approval of their deed. But with misjudging moderation, they permitted Mark Antony, an eloquent man, whose dangerous character was a singular compound of political design and ardent passion, to bring forward the dead body of Cæsar for a public funeral. Antony touched the national pride of the Romans by enumerating Cæsar's achievements, and their sensibilities by declaring his acts of kindness. With the genuine tears of bereaved affection, he showed them "sweet Cæsar's wounds;" and with the art of the politician read them his will, wherein he manifested his love to the Roman people by bequeathing them money. The deep feelings of sorrow thus excited by the orator, were artfully turned to rage against those who wrought his death. The people rose in their madness; and the conspirators, to save their lives, fled from Rome. Brutus and Cassius went to Athens, where the Greeks, honoring them for their love of liberty, received them cordially; and they applied themselves for a time to the study of philosophy. Brutus had already imbibed from Cato, the sublime devotion to virtue which characterized the Stoics.

2. Antony had brought the senate into many of his measures. A new aspirant now appeared in Octavius, grand-nephew to Julius Cæsar, whom he had adopted as his son, giving him the name of Cæsar, and making him his heir. He had been pursuing his studies in Greece, but on learning his uncle's death, he posted to Rome. Antony, though at the head of affairs, had neglected to pursue the conspirators. He now withheld from Octavius the fortune bequeathed him by his uncle, that he might not have the means of acquiring popularity. Octavius, seeing his design, secured the favor of the people, by selling his patrimonial estate to pay Cæsar's legacy. Cicero, regarding him as less dangerous than Antony, aided him by his great influence.

3. The senate sent to Antony, who was now in Gaul at the head of an army, certain orders, which he thought proper to disregard; whereupon they despatched Octavius, with a force to reduce him to submission. An engagement took place in Cisalpine Gaul, in which Octavius was successful. Lepidus, an unprincipled man, was in command of an army in Farther Gaul. To his camp Antony fled, but was ill received by the general. Feeling his life in danger, he appealed to the army. He was manly and graceful in person, persuasive in speech and manners—the friend of Julius Cæsar, and he appeared among the soldiers in distress. They espoused his cause, and Lepidus now felt that Antony had become his master.

4. Octavius had the command of the forces of the senate, but he had suspicions of the attachment of that body to himself, and

1. Give some account of Cæsar's funeral. Whither did the conspirators flee? What philosophical sect did Brutus belong to?—2. Give an account of Octavius.—3. Describe his expedition against Antony. What sudden turn in Antony's affairs occurred?
thought the destruction of Antony would be but a prelude to his own. When, on making application for the consulship, his suit was rejected, he no longer hesitated upon his course, but privately sent to Antony and Lepidus, proposing terms of reconciliation. They gladly embracing his proposals, the three met on a little island in the Rhine, where, uniting their military force, they formed the second triumvirate.

5. The first business of this iniquitous league was to make a proscriptive list, in which each gave up many friends, in order that the others might agree to the destruction of his enemies. This bloody catalogue contained the names of three hundred senators, and two hundred knights. Octavius gave up to the hatred of Antony, the virtuous Cicero, the friend of his country and the pride of Roman eloquence. He was pursued and murdered. The estates of the proscribed were seized and given to their murderers.

6. The triumviri prepared for war with Brutus and Cassius, who by this time had collected a considerable force. Brutus had travelled into Asia and there made friends. Arsaces of Parthia gave him aid. Brutus, troubled in mind, one night while in Asia, saw, or seemed to see, a terrible spectre, who said "I will meet thee again at Philippi." Said Brutus, "I will meet thee there." The Roman students at Athens embraced his cause; the friends of the commonwealth, and the partisans of the sons of Pompey, who were still scattered in various parts of the provinces, flocked to his standard. The hostile armies met at Philippi, in Macedonia; and again the thousands of Rome stood arrayed against each other. The battle was fought bravely. While Brutus proved victorious over Octavius, Antony completely routed the troops of Cassius, who, ignorant of the success of his colleague, fell upon his sword. Brutus collected the forces of Cassius, and after twenty days, he ceded to the importunity of his troops, and hazarding another battle, he was totally defeated. Witnessing the irreparable loss of his army, and determining not to survive the liberty of his country, he also committed suicide.

7. On the death of Brutus, the party of the conspirators was no longer formidable; and the Roman empire was completely subjected to the triumviri. Octavius returned to Italy, where Lepidus still remained. Antony went into Asia, where he received the homage of its various kings, collected the revenues, and regulated the affairs of provinces and tributary nations, as his caprice might dictate. At Tarsus, for some alleged offence, he summoned to appear before him the fascinating queen of Egypt. Knowing that Antony affected at times to personify

4. What induced Octavius to plan the second triumvirate? Give an account of its formation. 5. What shocking feature had this league? How many were proscribed? Whose murder is particularly noticeable? 6. Give an account of Brutus. Of what troops was his army composed? Describe the battle of Philippi. The fate of Brutus. 7. Had the triumviri still any enemies in the field?
Bacchus, the god of wine, Cleopatra came to him in the character of Venus, sailing up the river Cydnus, in a galley decorated in the perfection of art and elegance. Antony, at her invitation, came to her galley, and was charmed to his ruin. He accompanied her, on her return to Alexandria, where, sunk in effeminacy, he forgot public affairs.

8. Octavius assiduously employed himself in attaching the veteran troops to his person, and in bringing the whole nation to regard him as its head. Italy was, however, the scene of want and misery. Sextus Pompey, who had made himself master of Sicily, infested the sea with his fleet, and prevented the importation of corn; while multitudes of women and children, deprived by the appropriation of the lands to the soldiers, of home and subsistence, crowded the temples and the streets. Multitudes of husbandmen and shepherds flocked to Rome, to excite the compassion of the conqueror. Among the suppliants, the poet Virgil alone found favor, and was permitted to retain his patrimonial estate at Mantua.

9. Antony, roused by the representations of his friends, tore himself from Egypt, and returned to Italy. Octavius met him, and by mediation of friends, and mutual policy, they became reconciled. In making their bargain, the noble Octavia, the sister of Octavius, was given, in the traffic, to be the wife of the lover of Cleopatra; and another division of the empire was made. Octavius took the command in the west; Antony in the east; while to Lepidus was assigned Africa; and to Sextus Pompey, who had now acquired considerable power, the Peloponnessus and the islands of the Mediterranean. Difficulties between Antony and Pompey soon arose, which resulted in the destruction of the latter. Lepidus, thinking this a good opportunity of adding Sicily to his possessions, drew upon himself the indignation of Octavius, who by secret intrigues procured the desertion of his army, made him prisoner, deprived him of all authority, and banished him.

10. Antony, by the influence of Octavius, for three or four years, kept terms with Octavius. He at length undertook to conduct a war against the Parthians, at the head of 60,000 foot and 10,000 horse. He marched into Parthia, suffered defeats by his imprudence, and retraced his steps, after having lost one-fourth of his army. Influenced by his blind passion for Cleopatra, he hastened to Egypt, which again became the scene of his dissipation and folly. He bestowed on Cleopatra and her children, first Phœnicia, Cyrene and Cyprus, and afterwards all Asia from the Mediterranean to the Indus; and the ambitious queen thought, as was known in Rome, that she should yet give law in the capital.”

11. The wrath of Octavius, now sanctioned by the people,

8. What was the condition of Italy? What can you say of Virgil?—9. In this paragraph four principal actors are mentioned—tell what was done by each—1st, Octavius; 2d, Antony; 3d, Lepidus; 4th, Sextus Pompey. —10. Trace through the tenth paragraph the course of Antony.
was ready to break forth. Octavia had borne to Antony two daughters. She had kept his house in patrician hospitality at Rome, and there entertained his friends; and although she knew his crimes against herself, had taken to her home and educated his children by his first wife Fulvia. She now set out to visit, and, if possible, to save him. Antony forbade her approach, publicly divorced her, and married Cleopatra. But his fall was at hand. Octavius attacked, and totally defeated him in a naval engagement, near Actium. Early in the action, sixty vessels, which Cleopatra commanded in person, fled, and Antony immediately followed. His fleet was easily defeated, and after a few days, his land forces, which had been drawn up on the adjoining shore, surrendered, without striking a blow.

12. Antony and Cleopatra repaired to Egypt, whither Octavius followed. Antony despairing of his fortunes, and deceived by a false report of the death of Cleopatra, committed suicide. Octavius was desirous of conveying her to Rome; but to prevent it, she exposed herself to the bite of an asp, which procured a lethargic death, without disfigurement. When the messenger of the conqueror came to take the celebrated queen to grace the triumph of his master, he found her elegantly reclined upon a sofa,—but dead. Of her two maids, one lay dead beside her, and the other dying. Egypt was from this time a Roman province.

13. Octavius, on his return to Rome, was hailed with acclamations, and flattered by a gorgeous triumph. The obsequious senate, whose vacancies he now filled with his own creatures, no longer laid claim to independence; and Rome henceforth became a monarchy. With the recent fate of Julius Cæsar before him, he could not but be aware of the dangers with which he was surrounded. He wisely avoided the vain show of power, and sought to cover his usurpations by names acceptable to the people. At first he called his office the tribunate, and received it for ten years; after which it was renewed, and, at length, he took the titles of Augustus and Emperor. He assiduously courted the favor of the people, continuing to all the magistrates their old titles and offices, although the effective power of every office centred in himself. Counselled by his wise minister, Mæcenas, and conversing freely with Virgil and Horace, he became the framer of salutary laws, and the patron of arts and letters.

14. The world was now in a situation altogether peculiar—different from any thing before or since. The nations were gathered into one. The Roman Empire embraced the best parts of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Its revenues were immense. A great
THE GREATEST EVENT IN THE COURSE OF TIME.

army was kept on foot and distributed in different provinces. The praetorian and city cohorts, afterwards so powerful and dangerous, consisted of 10,000 men, and formed a guard for the Emperor; to whose title, the senate now added that of "Father of his country." The king of Parthia sent to him the spoils of the army of Crassus, and the kings of India sought his friendship. The Spanish nation, being now, for the first time, completely subdued, and insurrection of the German tribes having been quelled, the temple of Janus, which was shut only in profound peace, and which had remained continually open since the reign of Numa Pompilius, was closed. At this period it was that the "Desire of all Nations," the "Prince of Peace,"

JESUS CHRIST,

The Savior of men, was born at Bethlehem, in Judæa.

14. What army was formed within the city of Rome? What was sent by the king of Parthia to Augustus? What temple was shut? How long had it remained open? What personage, above all kings and potentates, now came "to visit the earth in great humility!"
MIDDLE HISTORY.

FROM THE CHRISTIAN ERA TO THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

PERIOD I.

FROM

THE BIRTH A.D. 3 OF CHRIST,

TO

THE DIVISION OF 395 THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

CHAPTER I.

The Roman Empire.

1. The treasures of the world poured into Rome; and stately monuments, splendid buildings, literature and the fine arts, all marked an age of luxury. But the liberty of the people had become extinct. The spirit of the republican institutions had departed, and a military despotism had usurped its place. Here and there, perhaps, a spark of the old Roman spirit might kindle in the breast of some solitary patriot, but it was soon smothered. The memory of the aged carried them back to the scenes of

MIDDLE HISTORY.—PERIOD I.—CHAP. I.—Point out on the map of the Roman empire the countries which it included.—1. What was the condition of the Roman empire?
horror which marked the days of Marius and Sylla, while they knew not freedom, but by history and tradition. The young thus learned to turn with disgust from the prospect of a renewal of civil wars, and welcomed peace and quiet, though purchased, by the surrender of the sovereign power into the hands of one individual.

2. Augustus had a wide grasp of mind, by which he penetrated far into consequences. He had industry and observation to learn for himself the truth of the circumstances and characters which surrounded him; and he was as prompt to do, as he was quick to know. Hence he presents the sublime spectacle of one mind, ruling and reducing to order, a vast scene of chaos, such as was the Roman empire at his elevation.

3. The emperor made a new arrangement of the provinces, which had before been governed by supreme magistrates, commissioned by the Roman people, and named praetors. He now divided between the senate and himself the authority over the whole empire. But in order to keep in his own hands the entire power over the army, he took as his share, all the foreign provinces, and left to the senate the Italian states. These they ruled by proconsuls, with only civil authority. Augustus governed the remainder of the empire, by dividing his army of 400,000 men, and stationing them in such provinces as he chose, under generals of his own appointing, who were dictators, each in his province. The camps of these standing armies were often chosen in the valleys of the great rivers, and they soon became cities. The fleet was manned by 60,000 men, and these were easily transported from place to place at the emperor's pleasure. He instituted as his own guard, ten cohorts of 1,000 soldiers each, who were called the praetorians; and this number he soon doubled.

4. The policy of Augustus inclined him to peaceful measures, and he wisely considered the danger of extending the empire. His tranquillity was, however, disturbed by a disastrous war in Germany, in which Varus, his general, suffered a signal defeat. To establish his authority, and secure the succession in his family, he associated with him in the government, Marcellus, the son of his excellent sister Octavia, by her first marriage, to whom he gave for a wife, Julia, his only child. Marcellus dying, Julia was bestowed on Agrippa, (a general to whom Augustus owed important military successes;) when she became the mother of two sons and three daughters. She was a profligate woman, and Augustus, whose own moral character was

2. What in regard to abilities was the character of Augustus?—3. What new arrangement did he make respecting the provinces?—How did the senate rule the Italian states? How did the emperor govern the remainder? What numbers were in the Roman standing army? The navy? What number constituted a legion? (See note.) How many legions were there, and how distributed? Give an account of the praetorian guard.—4. To what did the policy of the emperor incline him? What disturbed him? Who was Marcellus? Julia? Agrippa?
MORAL DARKNESS.

not good, was at length obliged to banish her from his court. He had married Livia, the mother of two sons, Drusus and Tiberius. The former, recovering the German provinces, received the name of Germanicus. Livia was unprincipled, artful and intriguing. Having great influence over Augustus, she secretly sought to elevate her own sons above the members of his family.

5. Augustus associated Tiberius with himself in the administration of the empire, but required him to adopt Germanicus, the son of his brother Drusus Germanicus, now dead. These things being done, Augustus died in the deep secrecy of the palace. The manner and exact time of his death are unknown; the circumstances were, however, such as gave rise to suspicions, that he was poisoned by Livia.

6. Tiberius, who, at the death of Augustus, was in possession of the imperial power, though an able general, was a hypocritical, sensual, and cruel tyrant. Yet at first he dissembled, and appeared to govern with moderation; but the mask soon dropped. The fame of Germanicus, who, at the death of Augustus, commanded in Gaul, excited his jealousy. He was recalled, and transferred to the command of Syria, where Tiberius procured his death by poison. Livia enjoyed but little the elevation of her favorite son. He was jealous of her power, dreaded her genius, treated her with neglect; and when she died, he denied her funeral honors.

7. He removed his court from Rome to the island of Caprea; but in the midst of brutish sensuality and continual intoxication, he kept, as it were, a demoniac eye on the affairs of Rome;—knew every thing which passed; detected every conspiracy; and while the companions of his vices were quaffing with him the cup of intoxication, he, perhaps, was plotting, with impenetrable dissimulation, to destroy them. Conspicuous virtue was a mark for vengeance. Fearing the friends of those he destroyed, he removed them also. Even the mother’s mourning for her slaughtered son was in his eyes a crime deserving death. The senate, to whom he transferred all the political rights of the people, had become degraded, and thus obsequiously sanctioned his acts, and offered the incense of perpetual flattery, to the man who filled their streets with blood. It was under the adminis-

6. What was the character of Livia? Who were her sons?—5. Who was Germanicus? What account can you give of the death of Augustus?—6. Give an account of the beginning of the reign of Tiberius. How did he treat Livia?—7. Did he while at Capreae understand the affairs of Rome? Was it bad citizens whom he destroyed, and real crimes which he punished? What had he done to gratify the senate? What was at this time their character and condition?
tration of this most debased of men, that our Lord Jesus Christ was crucified in Judea.

8. Tiberius adopted Caligula, the son of the good Germanicus, but not the heir of his virtues; and said he raised "a serpent for Rome, and a Phthoq to burn the rest of the world." Caligula, eager to obtain the imperial dignity, was declared emperor, while Tiberius was supposed to be in the agonies of death. But the tyrant opening his eyes, the party of Caligula threw the bed-clothes over his head, and stifled the reviving spark of existence.

9. Caligula wished that "the Roman people had but one neck, that he might despatch them at a blow." His conduct accorded with the disposition here expressed. After a reign of nearly five years, he was murdered, and the stupid Claudics, the brother of Germanicus, was raised by the praetorian cohorts to the imperial throne. Although vice pervaded the capital, there were able generals abroad, and victory crowned the arms of the legions, especially in the wars with the Parthians and Britons.

10. Nero, whose very name is used to signify all that is base and cruel, was raised to the empire. On his first accession, he revived the hopes of the people, by giving promise of a just and peaceful reign; but the illusion was soon dissipated, and the murder of his tutor, the philosopher Seneca, his brother, his wife, and his mother, displayed the relentless tyranny of his character. He gave loose to the most licentious passions; and subserviency to his pleasures proved the only passport to his favor. Professing himself a patron of the fine arts, he aspired to the character of a poet, and degraded the dignity of the empire by appearing as a public actor on the stage. The discovery of repeated conspiracies, increased his maliciousness and jealousy. The city presented a scene of blood, and funerals darkened the streets.

11. The Christians, who had now become numerous in Rome, were the peculiar objects of his hatred. To amuse himself with such a spectacle as Homer related in the burning of Troy, he caused Rome to be set on fire, then charged the crime upon the Christians, and devised means for their punishment. While the city was burning, he was engaged in revelry and dancing. He decorated his person, sang, played the lyre, and was, in short, the leading coxcomb of his time. He corrupted the high born youth of Rome, making them the companions of his revels. Flatterers and sycophants thronged around him; and he was pleased when they told him that he was the greatest of poets, and that his voice was "divine melody." The

8. Give an account of Tiberius' successor. Of the manner of his succession.—9. What speech of Caligula shows his character? Who succeeded him?—10. Give an account of Nero.—11. What fact respecting the Christians now becomes apparent? On what pretense did Nero seek to destroy them? (What may be presumed concerning the character of the Christians, when such a man as Nero hated them?)
discovery of a design which he had formed for destroying the senate, and again setting fire to the city, produced a general revolt. The senate aroused and pronounced sentence of death against him. Different armies named each its own generals to succeed him. He fled from the capital to a villa owned by one of his favorites, where he put an end to his life.

12. The whole Roman empire now presented a scene of discord. The military force, with which Augustus had kept the world in awe, now, in weaker hands, recoiled upon the monarchy. The soldiers had learned their power, and the senate could only assent to their decisions. In two years, four generals were successively raised to the sovereignty by their respective armies. Three of them were displaced and murdered. Galba, the first of these, was commander of the military forces in Spain, when, at the age of seventy-three, he was proclaimed emperor by his legions. The senate confirmed their choice; and a promised donation to the praetorian cohorts, secured their concurrence. By parsimoniously withholding the promised donation, and attempting to enforce rigid discipline, he alienated the praetorians. They soon proclaimed Otho, who had commanded in Lusitania. A bloody tumult succeeded, in which Galba and his friends were murdered, and Otho elevated to the throne.

13. Vitellius, to whom Galba had committed the command of the German legions, was by them already proclaimed emperor, and was marching towards the capital. His forces met and defeated those of Otho, who committed suicide. Vitellius entered Rome as a conqueror, and a horrible scene of carnage ensued. Meanwhile, the legions of the east declared for Vespasian, who commanded in Judea. Those in Syria, Egypt, and Illyricum espoused his interest. After a bloody civil war Vespasian was raised to the imperial throne. This proved the commencement of a new order of things. His authority was recognized by the senate, and peace and order were restored to the suffering community. Vespasian directed his earliest efforts to the regulation of the finances, the enforcement of discipline in the army, and the subjection of rebellious provinces. Some of the Germans and Gauls had united in an attempt to throw off the Roman yoke, and the success of their arms spread the terror of their name even to Rome itself. The generals of Vespasian were at length victorious, and reduced the Germans to submission.

11. Relate the manner of Nero's death.—12. What was now the condition of the empire? Give an account of the first of the generals raised to be emperor by his army. How did Galba lose the favor of the soldiers? Give an account of his successor.—13. Relate the contest between Otho and Vitellius. By whom was Vitellius succeeded? Give an account of the administration of Vespasian.
CHAPTER II.

Rise of Christianity.—Destruction of the Jewish nation.

1. The New Testament is regarded, by the Christian, as the charter of his everlasting inheritance, and the chart of his course. Its undesigned coincidences with profane history, form no small element in the proof of its veracity. It assumes, and truly, as we know from profane writers, that there existed in Judea, at the time of our Lord’s advent, a strange admixture of authorities, Roman and Jewish, secular and ecclesiastical. We have seen who was that “Caesar Augustus,” that sent forth his edict and taxed the world, when she, the most honored of the human race, was by Providence conducted to a manger in Bethlehem, that the Son of God and man might be brought forth in that lowly place, to show that the pomp of this world detracts from moral grandeur; whose essence is voluntary suffering, encountered not for ourselves, but others.

2. King Herod was the son of Antipater, an Idumean. He was by Julius Caesar made procurator of Judea, and with him the sceptre departed, as foretold, from Judah to foreign princes. Herod, perceiving the greatness of the Roman power, paid his court to Mark Antony, and was by him raised to power. The Jews rebelled against him. He fled and took refuge with the Triumviri at Rome. They received him graciously, and by the favor of Augustus, he was appointed king; when he returned and took possession of Jerusalem and Judea. He built several cities, rebuilt the temple, and was called by men “the Great;” but he was a wretch in cruelty. To cut off the remaining blood of the Maccabees, he murdered a beautiful wife, Mariamne, two sons of his own and hers,—her mother, brother, and grandfather. This man, of whom the emperor Augustus said, “it is better to be Herod’s swine than his sons,” feeling still insecure, when he heard that a child was born who was to fill the throne of David, sent forth his executioners, to whose poniards the shrieking mothers of Bethlehem were forced to yield their infants.

3. On the death of Herod, his three sons, Archelaus, Philip, and Herod Antipas, were appointed over different parts of his kingdom. Herod Antipas beheaded John the Baptist, after that prophet had fulfilled his mission, by proclaiming that a new and heavenly kingdom was to be ushered in; and identi—

CHAPTER II.—1. How is the New Testament regarded by Christians? What forms an element of the proof of its historic truth? What does it assume in which profane writers agree? What might have been the Divine purpose in the lowliness of the place in which our Savior was born? What prophecy was now fulfilled?—2. Give an account of the parentage of Herod. What were the steps by which he rose to power? What his acts and character?—3. What occurred after the death of Herod? What mission did John the Baptist fulfill?
CHRISTIANITY.

flying Jesus, by whom it was to come. After various changes, Judea and Samaria were annexed to Syria under procurators, subordinate to the Syrian governors; of which Pontius Pilate, by whom Christ was given up to be crucified, was the fifth. He is represented by historians as a cruel man, and an unjust judge; considering more, what he himself should gain or lose in money, or in popularity, than the right of the case to be decided. He permitted many cruelties against the innocent, which at length so disturbed the peace of Judea, that complaint was made to the Romans. He was deposed by Vitellius, and sent to Rome for trial. Caligula banished him to Gaul, where, in want and misery, he committed suicide.

4. Although the Jews were, in temporal affairs, under the Romans, yet, in regard to religion, they sternly maintained their independence. Their “chief priests and elders,” formed an ecclesiastical council, with the high-priest at its head. This tribunal it was who first accused Christ to Pilate, of a state offence, that of seeking to make himself king in the room of Caesar; and then, with the fatal imprecation, “let his blood be on us and on our children,” they put him to the death of the cross for alleged blasphemy, because he declared himself the Son of God. But, on the third day, he arose from the dead.

5. His followers, few and unlearned, after seeing him ascend, obeyed his command, by remaining at Jerusalem till the Holy Ghost, the promise of the Father, was sent down. A miraculous change came over them; and now the timid and ignorant fishermen of Galilee, who but lately denied their master, or forsook him and fled, stood forth before the astonished multitudes, gathered from different nations at Jerusalem, and proclaimed to each in his own tongue, what they had heard and seen of Him who was the Word of Life manifest in the flesh; whom, said Peter to the members of the Jewish Sanhedrim, “ye have taken, and with wicked hands have crucified and slain, whom God hath raised up.”

6. That he was risen from the dead, the apostles, especially Peter and John, proved by wonderful miracles wrought in his name, so that many believed. The Jews began to treat the servants of Christ as they had treated their master. Stephen was stoned. A young man, named Saul, stood by, consenting to his death. He was of a resolute, determined mind, and thinking to do God service, he persecuted the church even to strange cities. To this honest, but erring man, the risen Savior revealed himself in glorious light. As soon as he knew his Lord’s will, he was ready to perform it; and from henceforth we find him more

* The whole book of the “Acts of the Apostles,” was once entitled “the Demonstration of the Resurrection.” (See Adam Clark’s Commentary.)

3. Give an account of Pontius Pilate.—4. What was the situation of the Jews in regard to ecclesiastical affairs? What double dealing course did the Sanhedrim pursue in regard to their accusation of our Lord?—5. What course did the disciples of our Savior pursue after his ascension?—Relate the earliest steps in the spread of Christianity.
abundant in the labors of the gospel, than all the other apostles.

7. For a time the word was preached only to the Jewish nation, all others being called Gentiles, and counted by them as unworthy to hold any intercourse with God's chosen people. This dispensation was miraculously changed. A devout Roman centurion learned from an angel that his prayers and alms had ascended, and that he must send for a teacher divinely commissioned. When he appeared, Cornelius would have worshiped; but Peter said, "stand up, I also am a man." Cornelius believed, received the spirit, and was baptized; and thus the wall of partition between Jew and Gentile was broken down.

8. After this, St. Paul carried Christianity into Asia Minor, Greece, and Italy. He, with the other apostles, relinquished all that makes men love this life;—went forth suffering stripes, fastings and imprisonments; every where gentle, no where resisting with violence, not even when death and torture were before them;—preaching alike to the rich and the poor, to flee from the wrath to come, and lay hold on eternal life. Thus was christianity established, by men who exulted in the flames of martyrdom, there finishing their earthly course with joy.

9. Herod Agrippa, the grandson of Herod the Great, received from Caligula the title of king, and from Claudius the dominions of his grandfather. The Jews, but partially subdued, proved troublesome to the Romans. An outbreak occurred on the occasion of an attempt by Caligula, to desecrate the temple by placing in it his own statue; but an open revolt was caused by the rapacity of Gessius Glorus, who was placed over the Jews by Nero. Vespasian commanded the Syrian legions, and obtained repeated victories, at length making himself master of all their strongholds and fortresses, except Jerusalem. Recalled to Rome, to accept the imperial purple, he left his son, Titus, to conduct the war in Judea.

10. He began the siege at the passover, when the Jews, from every nation, were gathered within the city. They were divided into three factions, each with the most rancorous hatred of the others. With the Roman army at their gates, they still continued the fury of their contentions, their outrages, and murders. Every part of the city was filled with pollution and massacre. The religious ceremonies, indeed, were not suspended, but even in the temple, the blood of the citizens mingled with that of the sacrifices. Thus "the abomination of desolation," stood in the holy place, and called down the vengeance of a righteous God. War without, deadly feud and starving famine within, caused a...
scene of “tribulation such as was not since the beginning of the world, no, nor ever shall be.”

11 Titus made the Jews repeated offers of pardon and protection, on condition of surrender, but they resisted with inflexible obstinacy. Tacitus, the great Roman historian, remarks, “that they were misled by an ancient prophecy, which foretold, that in this very juncture the power of the east would prevail over the nations, and a race of men would go forth from Judea, to extend their dominion over the rest of the world.”* The Christians, when they saw “Jerusalem encompassed with armies, and a trench cast round about her,” remembered the prophetic words of their Lord, and fled to the mountains.

12. The Romans stormed the city — the Jews fighting with the most determined bravery. The Roman arms obtained no advantage in the first assault. In the second, which continued three days without intermission, a part of the walls were levelled, and a portion of the city taken. The Jews, driven from one part, retreated to another, and still maintained the fight. At length the temple alone remained. This, Titus resolved to save, but the sentence of its destruction had been pronounced by a higher Power. The Jews crowded into it, and thither the Romans pursued them. In the dreadful uproar, a soldier threw a lighted torch, which caught upon the wood work,—was communicated, and soon enveloped in flames the whole of that beautiful and venerable fabric; and so complete was its final destruction, that “not one stone was left upon another.”

13. Josephus, the Jewish historian, estimates the number which perished during the siege, at eleven hundred thousand. The Jews no longer held the rank of a nation, and Judea was entirely subjected to the Roman power. Its inhabitants have, for more than seventeen hundred years, been scattered over the face of the earth, without ever amalgamating with the various nations with whom they make their residence; thus constituting one of the strongest proofs of the divine authority of the Holy Scriptures.

* “Not understanding,” observes the historian, that “this referred to Vespasian and his son Titus.” Tacitus, equally blind with the Jews, did not himself understand that this race of men were to be the heralds of a peaceful religion, which was destined, in the fulness of time, to spread its heavenly dominion over the whole earth.

11. What offer did Titus make? Why, according to Tacitus, did they not accept? What did the Christians remember and do?—12. Give an account of the final destruction of the city.—13. What was the number killed? What now is the condition of the Jews?
CHAPTER III.

The Roman Empire.

1. VESPASIAN reigned ten years; most of which were passed in tranquillity. He was the first Roman emperor who had died without violence, unless we except Augustus. Titus, who was styled "the delight of mankind," succeeded his father, and sustained the character of a virtuous and beneficent prince. He is one of the rare instances, in which elevation in rank produces improvement in virtue. His efforts were directed to the happiness of his people. The zeal with which he engaged in noble undertakings, may be learned from the regret which he expressed, when, on reviewing the events of a day, and finding no good deed performed, he exclaimed, "O my friends, I have lost a day." His reign of two years was prosperous in all that depended upon himself, although marked with several disastrous events. One of these was the great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, which desolated a considerable portion of the country, and buried in ruins Herculaneum, Pompeii, and Stabiae. The elder Pliny, desirous to observe the phenomenon, went so near the crater, as to be destroyed by the volcano. A fire broke out in Rome, which, for three days raged with fury, and destroyed a great portion of the city; and a pestilence spread its ravages, which in its most destructive period swept from Rome 10,000 persons in a day. Titus repaired from his treasuries the loss by generosity; and his kindness and compassion comforted the hearts of his afflicted people.

2. DOMITIAN, brother of Titus, succeeded him. He was cruel, frivolous, and blasphemously vain; causing himself to be styled God and Lord. He once assembled the senate to debate on the question, in what utensil it was best that a certain fish should be dressed. Once, in mockery, he invited the senate to a feast; and when arrived at the palace, they were by his order conducted to a gloomy subterranean hall, lighted by dim tapers—hung with black, and provided with coffins, on one of which, each guest saw his own name inscribed. Soldiers with drawn swords came in upon them and threatened their lives. After this, which the emperor esteemed a good joke, he let them depart. His chief amusement was catching flies, at which he was very expert. He, however, engaged in war, on an alarming invasion of the Dacians; but it was only to buy a shameful peace by a tribute.

3. BRITAIN.—Julius Cæsar found this island inhabited by forty different nations of the Celts or Gauls, and partially sub-

CHAP. III.—1. Of what is the emperor Titus a rare instance? How did he manifest a right disposition? What disasters occurred in his reign?—2. Give an account of Domitian.—3. What inhabitants did Julius Cæsar find in Britain?
died it. The Romans under Claudius, and Platusus, his gene-
ral, defeated, in several battles, the natives under Caractacu-
The gallant chief often rallied, but was finally overcome.
Under Nero, Sertorius Paulinus was sent over to com-
plete the conquest of the island, which he found a difficult under-
taking. He attributed the obstinate valor with which the natives
resisted, to the dark and gloomy superstition by which their
Druid priests enshrouded and governed them. They practised
their mysterious rites, sometimes gory with human blood, in
the deep recesses of dark groves,—by huge stones, strangely piled
together. Thus they inspired the feeling of religious awe, and
subjugated the minds of the people; to whom the Romans did
great service in delivering them from this tyranny over the soul.
Paulinus destroyed the sacred seat of the Druids in the island
of Mona or Anglesea.

4. On his return to Britain, he met queen Boadicea, who hav-
ing been grievously wronged by the Romans, had exerted such
wonderful energy and eloquence, that she had collected, from
different British nations, an army of 250,000. Paulinus defeated
her, and she committed suicide; when the Romans tarnished
their victory by the cruel slaughter of the vanquished. Ju-
lius Agricola, who was sent to Britain by Vespasian, de-
feated, near the Grampian hills, the brave Calgacus, and
subdued the country to the friths of Clyde and Forth, between
which he constructed a chain of forts. He civilized the native
inhabitants, by persuading them to adopt the costume, language,
and manners of the Romans. Agricola's fame excited the mean
envy of Domitian, who recalled, and probably poisoned him.
The tyrant fell by a conspiracy, and the whole nation rejoiced.
The senate,—perhaps remembering the graves by which he had
frightened them, would not allow his body to be buried. Quin-
tilian was, at this period, teacher of eloquence in Rome, and
the first who received a public salary.

5. Nerva, at the age of seventy, succeeded Domitian. He
is distinguished for his amiable and benevolent character. Find-
ing the weight of the empire too great for his advanced age, he
associated Trajan in the government, and designated him as
his successor. The character of Trajan is one which historians
unite in applauding. The wise Plutarch was his preceptor, and
the younger Pliny, one of the most lovely characters which
Rome has produced, was his intimate friend. Although a war-
rrior, and a conqueror, Trajan governed with moderation and
equity; and so established himself in the affections of his sub-
jects, that it was customary in succeeding times, on the eleva-

2. What was done in the reign of Claudius? To what did Sertorius as-
crbe the obstinate resistance of the Britons? Where did the Druids prac-
tice their rites? What did the Romans destroy, and wherein did they do
service to the Britons?—4. What happened on the return of Sertorius Paul-
inus from Mona? Give an account of Agricola. How did he civilize the
Britons? What further can you relate of Domitian? Who was Quintilian?
—5. Give some account of Nerva. What illustrious author was said to have
been Trajan's preceptor? His friend? What was the character of Trajan?
tion of an emperor, to wish him "the felicity of Augustus, and the virtue of Trajan." His military achievements restored the lustre of the Roman arms. He conquered Dacia, and at the head of his legions, crossed the Euphrates and Tigris, and reduced Mesopotamia to a Roman province. He marched through tracts of country where the Roman arms had never before been known, penetrating even to India. On his return, he established a king upon the Parthian throne, and appointed lieutenants in various provinces.

6. Historians have censured his policy in enlarging the boundaries of the empire, and his inhumanity, in persecuting the Christians, leaves a blot upon his otherwise untarnished fame. He had made laws against them, ordering that they should be put to death when found, but should not be sought after. On his visit to Antioch, the venerable Ignatius, bishop of that city, presented himself to the emperor,—owned, and vindicated the faith of Christ. Trajan imprisoned him, and sentenced him to be thrown to the wild beasts at Rome. Animated with the prospect of a martyr's crown, he went joyfully thither, and suffered death by the lions of the amphitheatre. Trajan died at Seleucia.

7. Hadrian, the succeeding emperor, returned to the pacific policy of Augustus; and with the exception of Dacia, he even relinquished the conquests of his predecessor. This, and the two succeeding reigns, have been pronounced the happiest days of the Roman empire. The laws of Hadrian were salutary, and his administration excellent. He secured the future prosperity of the nation by appointing a worthy successor.

8. This was Titus Antoninus, afterwards surnamed Pius. When he ascended the throne, he found the various departments of government moving on in regularity and order, and the whole empire in prosperity and peace. His reign of twenty-three years flowed on in the same calm and happy course. Averse to war, the circumstances of the state permitted him to indulge his love of peace; while his renown for wisdom procured the admiration of the barbarians, who, in their differences, resorted to him as arbiter. In his reign, the persecution of the Christians ceased, and all classes of his subjects reposed in peace, trusting in the justice of their sovereign.

9. Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, who succeeded Titus in the imperial government, had acquired, by his attachment to science, and philosophy, the name of the Philosopher. The situation of the empire, however, did not permit Aurelius to indulge in his favorite pursuits, or pass his days in contemplative retirement. The camp required his presence; for the peace of

5. Give an account of Trajan's administration.—6. What laws had he made respecting the Christians? Give an account of Ignatius. In what respects has Trajan been censured for impolicy? For cruelty?—7. What was the happiest period of the Roman empire? What account can you give of Hadrian?—8. What of his successor and the state of the empire?—9. What was the name and character of the successor of Antoninus Pius?
the empire was now disturbed in its various borders. In Asia, the Parthians rebelled against the sovereignty of Rome, as did the barbarians on the Rhine and the Danube. Aurelius sent his generals against the Parthians, and in person conducted the war against the hordes of the north. The Parthians were defeated, and many of their cities taken. After many campaigns, Aurelius unhappily fell a victim to the hardships of barbarian warfare.

10. With the reign of Aurelius, the prosperity of the empire ceased; and from the accession of his son Commodus, its decline may be dated. A more striking contrast never was presented, than in the characters of the father and son. Aurelius had taken him to aid in command against the barbarians; and on his death, despite good advice, Commodus purchased a peace, that he might give himself up to the voluptuous pleasures of Rome. There he became a fool and loathsome debauchee; and, outraging all the honorable feelings of the Romans, he fought as a gladiator, in public spectacles, for the amusement of the vulgar.

11. Conspirators put him to death, and raised Pertinax, prefect of the city, to the imperial throne. The praetorian guards murmured at the elevation of a man of whose virtue they were assured, and who, educated in the school of Aurelius, was little likely to yield to their disorderly demands, or shower upon them the profuse liberality of Commodus. His attempt to reform the financial system increased their hatred, and in less than three months from the time they swore allegiance, a sedition broke out in the camp. Two or three hundred of the guards rushed in arms to the palace, where Pertinax, securely relying on his innocence and their oath, was inhumanly murdered. A most disgraceful scene succeeded. Returning to the camp with the head of Pertinax borne as a trophy, the guards now offered the Roman world to the highest bidder.

12. The wealth of Didius Julianus, a vain and voluptuous senator, enabled him to meet the demands of the rapacious praetorians, who immediately completed the contract, proclaimed him emperor, took the oath of allegiance, and escorting him to the palace, surrounded him with the ensigns of imperial dignity. The obsequious senate, though attached to Pertinax, yielded to the occasion, and ratified the election of the praetorians;—but the indignant legions of Britain, of Illyricum, and Syria, each proclaimed its respective general, as more worthy of the empire. Severus, who was in Illyricum, at the head of hardy and disciplined forces, accustomed to contests with the warlike barbarians of the north, advanced towards Rome. By his contiguity to Italy, and the celerity of his movements, he anticipated his rivals, and in sixty-six days from the elevation

9. What disturbances arose?—10. Give some account of Commodus.——
11. Of Pertinax. What degrading measure was taken after the death of Pertinax?—12. What account can you give of Didius Julianus?
of Julianus, without drawing a sword, he was proclaimed emperor at Rome. The praetorians abandoned the victim of their venality; the senate deposed him, and he was executed like a common criminal.

13. Four years of civil war succeeded, during which Severus, with a military talent approaching to that of Julius Caesar, triumphed over his rivals; but he treated them with shocking cruelty. He degraded and banished those praetorians who had been engaged in selling the empire. A war with the Caledonians, which he led in person, occupied him in his later years. To keep out the barbarians from the north, he rebuilt with stone, a wall which Hadrian had made from Solway Firth to the mouth of the Tyne. He died at York. His sons, Caracalla and Geta, then in Britain, were declared joint emperors. Caracalla murdered his brother, whom their mother attempting to save, he wounded her in the arm. He thus obtained sole possession of the throne. His whole reign was stigmatised by deeds of blood and infamy.

14. Caracalla extended the Roman citizenship to all the provinces. The tribute received from the provinces, which Gibbon estimates at a sum equal to about 100,000,000 of dollars, was represented by Augustus as not sufficient for the purposes of government, and he artfully contrived to make the Roman citizens submit to taxation by impost. Succeeding emperors had increased their burdens; and Caracalla extended the right of citizenship, in order to impose on the foreign provinces the taxation of the citizen, while he failed to relieve them from the tribute of the stranger. They felt the double burden, and their discontent was one of the causes of the decline of the empire. Caracalla was assassinated in Syria, at the instigation of Macrinus, praetorian prefect. Macrinus was raised to the throne, but shortly deposed, and Heliogabalus, a reputed son of Caracalla, was invested with the sovereignty. His short reign of four years was one of unmingled infamy. His violent death, the merited punishment of his crimes, again left the imperial throne at the disposal of the army.

15. Alexander Severus, the cousin of Heliogabalus, was invested with the purple. Amiable, just, and humane, his reign is like a beam of light amidst surrounding darkness. He inherited from nature a happy disposition, and a superior intellect, and was educated by a careful mother. Amidst the corrupting influences of regal authority, he was an example of industry, sobriety, and regularity of life; an elegant scholar, an affectionate son, a wise statesman, and an able general. He restored to the senate many of their rights, reduced the tribute of the provinces, and sought to enforce discipline in the army. But the military had become too strong for his curbing hand.

Ulpian, the wisest and most beloved of his counsellors, had incurred the hatred of the guards, for attempting to bring them to order. They sought his life, and pursued him to the presence of the emperor. Alexander commanded, entreated, and covered his friend with his robe, but the audacious murderers stabbed him through it.

16. Alexander went into Asia to conduct a war against the Persians. While he lay at Antioch, a portion of his army revolted. Appearing in the midst of the infuriated soldiery, "Be silent," said he, "in the presence of your sovereign." "Reserve your shouts for the enemy, or I will no longer allow you to be soldiers." They brandished their swords, and rushed towards him. "Keep your courage," said he, "for the field of battle." They persisted in their dangerous demands, and again he spoke: "Citizens, no longer soldiers, lay down your arms, and depart to your respective habitations." The boisterous elements of sedition sunk into grief and shame, and the soldiers obeyed. After a time he restored their arms; and this legion, ever after, were devoted to his interest.

17. The ancient monarchy of Persia had at this period revived, under a chief named Artaxerxes. Repeated, and long-continued wars with the Romans, had weakened the Parthian power. Of this, Artaxerxes availed himself, to produce a general revolt of the Persians. A bloody battle ensued, in which Artabanus, the Parthian king, was defeated, and the Persians restored to the sovereignty of the east. Claiming all Lesser Asia as the successor of Cyrus, the Persian monarch came into collision with the Roman empire. The event of the war was, at least, so far unsuccessful to the Romans, that Artaxerxes retained the countries which he had conquered. Hardly had Alexander returned from the Persian war, before he went north to encounter a vast swarm of barbarians, who threatened to overwhelm the empire. In his camp on the banks of the Rhine, while successfully pursuing the war, this prince, too good for the age in which he lived, fell, with his mother, a victim to another mutiny of the soldiers, fomented by Maximinus, an ambitious aspirant to the throne.

18. Maximinus was born in Thrace. His father was a Goth, and his mother an Alan. Thirty-two years before, Severus, halting his army in Thrace, to celebrate games at wrestling, the young barbarian, Maximinus, of the gigantic height of eight feet, and of size and strength in proportion, presented himself, and, in a rude dialect, asked to be admitted as a competitor. His prodigious exploits astonished the emperor; and he permitted him to enlist as a common soldier. From thence he rose by degrees, till he attained a high command in the army. But without gratitude or mercy, he had nothing but brute force to
recommend him. He persuaded the soldiers that Alexander was effeminate. They slew him, and proclaimed the barbarian emperor. He was suspicious of contempt from the well-born and learned, and he hated and destroyed them. The senate refused to sanction the nomination of the army; and though Maximinus continued the German war with success, his cruelties created disaffection, which, when he made the taxes of the provinces intolerable, broke into revolt.

19. In Africa, the proconsul, Gordian, a man of eminent virtues, was, together with his son, proclaimed emperor, and the election was ratified by the senate. The governor of Mauritania espoused the cause of Maximinus, attacked and defeated the Gordians, who both perished in battle. The senate, desperate on hearing this, nominated two of their own number, Maximus and Balbinus. The news of these proceedings roused Maximinus to fury. At the head of his legions, and breathing vengeance on his foes, he advanced upon Italy: but here he found a wasted and desolate country. By the care of the senate, all provision and forage, and all the inhabitants were removed. He laid siege to Aquileia. His army, suffering from fatigue and famine, became mutinous; a conspiracy was formed, and the barbarian was slain in his tent. The virtuous reign of Maximus and Balbinus was short and insecure. The nation, indeed, rejoiced in the destruction of Maximinus; they undertook reformation, but the real sovereigns of the Roman empire, the prætorian guards, were refractory, and declared they would not acquiesce in any choice made by the senate. They slew Maximus and Balbinus, and proclaimed young Gordian, a descendant of one of those who fell in Africa.

20. In the east, the Persians continued to encroach upon the empire, and had already invaded Mesopotamia. Gordian marched against them, and had compelled them to retreat from the Tigris, when his sudden death checked the progress of the Roman arms. Philip, an artful Arabian, who by his abilities had risen to be prefect of Rome, was immediately proclaimed emperor by the army. The Pannonian legions revolted, and invested their general, Decius, with the purple. The rival emperors met in battle at Verona, where victory declared for Decius; and Philip, after a reign of five years, lost his crown and his life.

19. Give an account of the Gordians, father and son. Whom did the senate proclaim? What was the fate of the Gothic giant? What part was taken by the prætorian guards? Who succeeded Maximus and Balbinus?
20. What was done by Gordian? What can you say of Philip?
CHAPTER IV.

Decline of the Roman Empire.

1. The Goths, supposed to come from the Scandinavian region, now, for the first time, poured down upon the empire. Crossing the Danube, they entered Thrace, and spread devastation and ruin on all sides. Decius marched against them, and after a struggle of two years, this monarch, worthy of better times, perished in battle. Gallus, his general, was made emperor. He purchased a peace with the barbarians, that he might return to the ease and luxury of the palace,—thus revealing the weakness and the wealth of the empire, and taking the surest course to incite other invasions. Nor did the hardy and rapacious barbarians linger long; and while the Goths and other hordes made attacks on the north, Persia menaced Syria and the other provinces in the east.

2. Æmilianus, one of the generals of Gallus, routed the Goths and pursued them beyond the Danube. His praise was everywhere heard, while Gallus was despised. So strong is ambition in man, that Æmilianus coveted the imperial purple, stained as it was with the blood of so many emperors, and worn but as a prelude to assassination. He was proclaimed by his troops, and met the army of Gallus at Spolia. The soldiers of the emperor mutinied, murdered him, and confirmed the succession of Æmilianus. Valerian, who in the reign of Decius had been appointed censor by the senate, and had faithfully executed many offices of trust, now, at the age of sixty, appeared at the head of an army of superior strength, as a competitor for the regal power. The soldiers of Æmilianus, after he had reigned four months, despatched him, to make way for his more powerful rival.

3. Valerian stood high with all; but age had impaired his mind, or the people had been deceived in his character. With the blindness of parental affection, he left in his place, while he departed to the war in the east, his son Gallienus, who possessing genius without judgment, was excellent in poetry, oratory, cookery, and gardening; but contemptible in war and government. The empire was attacked on all sides. The Franks, the Alemanni, the Goths, and the Persians, hovered on the different frontiers, and threatened it with destruction; while Gallienus amused himself in Rome, held mock triumphs,—smiled, and made witty speeches when he heard the news of Rome’s disasters.

4. The Franks, from whom are descended the modern French,
had always defied the Roman arms; indeed they received the name of Franks or Freemen, from their love of independence. They now spread terror and consternation through the provinces of Gaul and Spain; and they passed over into Africa, and threatened the province of Mauritania. The Alemanni, whose name, signifying all men, expressed their great numbers, were a warlike race inhabiting Germany. They crossed the Danube, passed the Rhetian Alps into the plains of Lombardy,—advanced to Ravenna, and alarmed the capital. Gallienus sent his lieutenants against the Franks, but remained in Milan to amuse himself there, whilst on the senate devolved the task of providing for the defence of Italy from its formidable enemies.

5. On the throne of Persia was Sapor, the son of Artaxerxes. He had compelled the Armenians, allied to Rome, to submit to his power, and advanced upon the Roman provinces. Valerian, marching to oppose him, intimidated the Goths, who were in possession of the Euxine, in Asia Minor, and for a time they withdrew. The emperor then passed the Euphrates, and was betrayed into a situation near Edessa, where his army was surrounded by that of the Persians. Affecting to consent to a parley, Sapor made him prisoner. He was the first Roman emperor, who suffered that disgrace. His army surrendered, and the haughty Persian spared him no indignities, mocking him, and treading on his neck; at length the aged emperor sunk beneath his fate and died, while Sapor spread the terror of his arms through Syria and Cilicia.

6. Neither the death of his father, nor the distress of the empire, interrupted the amusements of Gallienus. But the disaffection of his people sometimes roused him to direful revenge. In one instance, he commanded the governor of a province to exterminate all the males. Usurpers, encouraged by the discontent of the people, started up in every direction. A fancied resemblance between this period and that of the Athenian tyrants, gave rise to the assertion that there were thirty claimants in Rome for the imperial purple. Nineteen only can be traced, and all these died by violent means. Gallienus at length fell.

7. At this deplorable crisis the Roman empire seemed lying in hopeless ruin. The civil wars caused by the several usurpations, the contests with the barbarians, and their devastations, together with famine and pestilence, say the historians, had swept from the face of the empire one half of its inhabitants. But, from the course of history, we may infer, that the pride of the Romans had been humbled, and that virtue, so often the child of adversity, was now the fruit of their miseries; and in Claudius, who was next placed upon the throne, Rome

4. Give an account of the Franks—of the Alemanni.—5. Who was Sapor? Give an account of the war between him and the Romans.—6. What was the consequence of the foolish behaviour of Gallienus—and—7. What was now the condition of the empire? What was the character and conduct of Claudius?
once more possessed a sovereign suited to her wants. His first efforts were directed to restore order to the army, and prepare for the expulsion of the barbarian invaders. In his reign of two years, he defeated the Alemanni; and obtained so great a victory over the Goths, who had passed over into Greece, as to obtain the appellation of the Gothic Claudius.

8. Claudius died of the plague, and was succeeded by Aurelian, whose great military abilities for a time stayed the destruction of the Roman empire. The barbarians, though repulsed by Claudius, were ready to resume their depredations. The provinces of Britain, Gaul, and Spain, were in a state of revolt; and Syria, Egypt, and Asia Minor, acknowledged the sway of Zenobia, queen of Palmyra. She was the widow of Odenatus, a general who had humbled the pride of the haughty Sapor. Aurelian, after disciplining his army, obtained some advantages over the Goths, and entered into a treaty, by which he guaranteed them a safe retreat into their own country, on condition of their furnishing the Romans with a body of two thousand auxiliaries, consisting of cavalry. Finding it difficult to defend so extensive a frontier, he withdrew the Roman forces from the ancient Dacia, removing the greater part of the Dacians to the southern side of the Danube; thus adding strength to the province of Mesia, which now received the name of Dacia. A part of the inhabitants of the old province, however, chose rather to remain in subjection to the Goths.

9. While Aurelian was thus engaged, the Alemanni made an irruption into Italy, and extended their devastations from the Danube to the Po. The emperor hastened to meet them, and after three battles, drove them from Italy. He next quelled an insurrection headed by Tetricus, who held command over Gaul, Spain, and Britain. In a bloody battle, fought near Chalons, Aurelian was victorious. The whole empire, with the exception of those provinces which owned the sway of Zenobia, now acknowledged him as its sovereign.

10. Of the early history of Palmyra, whose ruins afford the modern traveller an object of wonder and admiration, little is known. By some, it is supposed to have been the Tadmor of the desert, built by Solomon. But, that so splendid a city should have risen in the midst of a barren waste, can be accounted for, only by its situation, as lying between the Persian Gulf and the Mediterranean sea; thus constituting an emporium for the merchandise conveyed in caravans from India to Europe. In the contests between the Romans and Parthians, Palmyra maintained its independence, until the victories of Trajan; after which, it sunk into a Roman province. In the war which Sapor waged with the Romans, and in which the emperor Valerian was made prisoner by the Persians, Odenatus,

8. What was the character of Aurelian? What enemies had he to contend with? What course did he pursue?—9. Give an account of his war with the Alemanni. With Tetricus.—10. What is known and supposed of Palmyra?
the prince of Palmyra, was the only eastern ally who rendered the Roman empire any service. He made an attempt to recover Valerian, which though unsuccessful, harassed the Persians, and prevented the further progress of their arms. To reward his service, Gallienus declared him his colleague in the empire, but he was assassinated by his nephew.

11. Zenobia, his widow, immediately after his death, assumed his authority, and conquered Egypt, from whose ancient Macedonian kings, she claimed to be descended. Such was her reputation, that Persia, Armenia, and Arabia, dreaded her power, and courted her favor. Her sway extended over Syria, and she assumed the splendid title of "Queen of the East." Zenobia is represented as the personification of mingled loveliness and majesty. These blended harmoniously in her face and figure, in the sound of her voice, and in the powers of her mind; which were improved by the education she had received from the celebrated Longinus. She was mistress of the learned languages, versed in the poetry of Homer, and in the philosophy of Plato. In conduct she was prudent or firm, economical or liberal, as the occasion demanded.

12. But she had to cope with the superior force of the empire, and the military skill of the first captain of the age. Yet Aurelian writes of her, "The Roman people speak with contempt of the war, which I am waging against a woman. They are ignorant both of the character and fame of Zenobia. It is impossible to describe her warlike preparations and her desperate courage." This he writes after he had defeated her, at the two battles of Antioch and Edessa, and while he was prosecuting the siege of Palmyra. Here, reduced to the last extremity, Zenobia undertook to escape by flight, but she was taken prisoner, and conveyed to the camp of Aurelian. The monarch reserved her for his triumph. He allowed the few Palmyrenes who had escaped the desperate siege to rebuild the city; but he stained his glory by putting to death the wise and amiable Longinus.

13. Aurelian on his return was gratified by a splendid triumph, in which the beautiful Zenobia, covered with jewels, and bound in chains of gold, followed his triumphal car on foot. Yet he afterwards gave her a beautiful villa at Tivoli.

— Gibbon, on the authority of Vopiscus and Zosimus, two writers, whom he takes the liberty to disbelieve whenever they tell improbable stories, says that Zenobia imputed her obstinate resistance to Longinus—a poor excuse for the conduct of Aurelian, if true. But the story is not only inconsistent with the whole tenor of her character, but it supposes her to act thus without any motive. What had Zenobia to gain or to lose by attributing her conduct to Longinus? She had already lost all but her life, and the descendant of the family of Cleopatra knew too well that the "Queen of the East" would be preserved by the conqueror as the proudest trophy to grace his triumph.

10 Give an account of Odenatus—11. Of Zenobia.—12. What account did Aurelian give of her? What was the event of the siege of Palmyra? Why is the story of Zenobia's betraying Longinus improbable? (See note.)—13. What exhibition of vanity had the conqueror on his return?
where she found an honorable seclusion. After his triumph, Aurelian advanced towards Asia with the design of humbling the pride of Persia. On his march, near Byzantium, he was assassinated in a sudden frenzy of the soldiers. An interregnum of eight months succeeded his death. The legions repented the rashness which had deprived them of an able, though severe commander, and humbly requested the senate to appoint a successor. The senate, struck with such un wonted respect from the military, referred back the choice to the army. Threes the reciprocal offer was made, and rejected; meanwhile, the whole Roman world remained tranquil.

The senate at length chose one of their number, venerable for virtue and years, Tacitus, a descendant of the historian. He remonstrated against the choice. "Are these limbs, Conscript Fathers," said he, "fitted to sustain the weight of armor, or to practise the exercises of the camp?" But resistance was vain. He was forced to assume the sovereignty. His election was ratified by the legions in France, whither he proceeded. The Scythians had invaded the Asiatic provinces,—he led his troops against them and obliged them to return; but he sunk under the accumulated cares and hardships of a military life, and after an energetic reign of six months, died in Cappadocia. Florianus, the unworthy brother of Tacitus, waited not for the voice of the senate, but with indecent haste ascended the throne. He found an able and powerful rival in Probus, the general of the armies of the east, who took it upon him to avenge the insulted senate. Florianus fell, and Probus already, in effect, master of the empire, submitted his cause to the senate; who, delighted with his respectful behavior, confirmed his power.

The barbarians of Germany, taking advantage of the interregnum which succeeded the death of Aurelian, had renewed their devastations in the provinces, and destroyed many flourishing cities in Gaul. Probus drove back the Franks, recovered the cities, and vanquished the gloomy Lygii, a people residing near the frontiers of Poland and Silesia. "Their shields," says the historian Tacitus, "are black—their bodies painted black. They choose for the combat the darkest hour of the night. Their host advances, covered as it were with a funereal shade, nor do they often find an enemy capable of sustaining so strange and infernal an aspect." Yet the disciplined legions of Probus discomfited these spirits of the night, nor were they afterwards known in history. Probus carried the war into Germany also, and compelled the barbarians to sue for peace. To guard that frontier, he erected an extensive stone wall, strengthened by towers. This good emperor, perceiving that the idleness of the army had been a fruitful source of disorders, exercised the

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13. What more can you say of him? What occurred on his death?
15. What enemies had Probus to encounter? What was the result of his operations? For what did the soldiers assassinate him?
160

FOUR EMPERORS—ONE RULING MIND.

Middle Hist.

PERIOD I.

CHAP. IV.

16. Carus, the pretorian prefect, was raised by the army to the vacant throne. He associated with him in the government, his two sons, Carinus and Numerian. He left the west under the charge of Carinus, while Numerian accompanied him to the east, in an expedition against Persia. Carus had advanced to Mesopotamia, and made himself master of the cities of Seleucia and Cesiphon, when his death, said to have been occasioned by lightning, put an end to the war, as the superstition of the legions would not allow them to proceed farther. Numerian died by the hand of an assassin, during the return of the army from Asia; and Carinus, dwelling in Rome, displayed a poor imitation of Nero—his profligacy, without his taste. The legions of the east conferred the imperial power on Diocletian, who, from being an obscure peasant of Dalmatia, had risen by merit to the command of a Roman army. The soldiery of the west adhered to Carinus. A battle was fought in Mesia. The troops of Carinus were on the point of obtaining the victory, when his assassination, by a tribune whom he had deeply wronged, left to Diocletian the undisputed sovereignty.

17. Diocletian possessed that pervading energetic mind which controls circumstances and events; and his accession is an era which marks the beginning of a new system of government, perfected in the reign of Constantine. To the military despotism which had so long governed the nation, now succeeded the despotism of the court. Diocletian early associated with himself in the cares of government, his friend and fellow-general Maximianus, and gave him an equal share of the imperial honors. For the better administration of the government, he then chose two colleagues. One was Constantius Chlorus, adopted by Maximianus; the other, Galerius, adopted by himself, to whom were committed a share of the sovereign authority, and who were to be the successors of the emperors. On these colleagues he conferred the titles of Caesar. They had the command of the provinces of the Rhine and the Danube, while the two emperors reserved for their immediate superintendence, Africa, Italy, and the east. Maximianus resided in Milan, and Diocletian in Nicomedia.

18. These measures, by depriving Rome of the presence of its emperors, served to diminish the power of the senate, and to sink into oblivion all those republican titles, to which the Romans even yet fondly clung. At such a distance, it could not be expected of the emperors, to apply to the senate for the ratification of their decrees; and the power which had belonged

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16. Who were the succeeding emperors? Give an account of Carus.

Of Numerian. Of Carinus.—17. What was the intellectual character of Diocletian? What change did he begin? How did he distribute the government of the whole empire to himself and three others? Where fix the two principal seats?—18. How did these arrangements affect the senate and people of Rome?
to them only when at the head of the army, now came to be exercised by them upon all occasions. Diocletian introduced into his court the pomp and ceremony of the oriental monarchs; and unlike the former emperors, to whom access might at any time be obtained, he kept himself at an elevated distance, and was approached only with prostration. In thus substituting the manners of Persia for those of Rome, the superior mind of Diocletian was probably actuated by other motives than those of vanity. The monarch would thus be less exposed to the rude license of the soldiers, and might avert the fate of his predecessors. The administration of justice by the emperor was rigorous; and his military achievements relieved the empire, for a time, from numerous foreign invaders.

19. In the preceding reign, Britain had been dismembered from the empire, by the rebellion of Carausius, a naval commander, who was now acknowledged sovereign of the island. He had taught the inhabitants the rude navigation of the day. To Constantius was assigned the redivision of this province, now greatly valued by the Romans. Civil war had, ere his arrival, completed half his work. Carausius had been assassinated, and a new usurper reigned. The inhabitants readily returned to their allegiance, and after a separation of ten years, were glad to be again under the mild protection of the Roman empire.

20. Galerius kept the Goths in check; Maximianus quelled insurrections which had arisen in Africa, while the superior genius of Diocletian was directed to the Persian war. The disgrace inflicted on Rome by the proud Sapor, in the person of the venerable Valerian, was as yet unavenged for. The Romans formerly exercised, as a right, the honor of nominating the king of Armenia. Sapor had subjected this province. Tiridates, son of the king of Armenia, had been preserved, while an infant, from the wreck of his father’s fortune, and protected by the Roman emperors during his minority. As he had now arrived at manhood, Diocletian declared him the sovereign of Armenia, and sent him to claim the throne of his father. The Armenians hailed their native prince with every demonstration of joy, having now been ninety-six years under the Persian government, and nobles and people flocked to his standard.

21. Persia, being at this time embroiled in civil war, had little leisure for the affairs of Armenia, and for a while the arms of Tiridates triumphed. When, however, the civil contests had ended in the elevation of Narses to the Persian throne, Tiridates found himself unable to cope with so powerful an adversary, and had recourse to Roman aid. Diocletian seized the favorable opportunity of humbling, in Persia, the only remaining rival of the empire. His arms triumphed, and Persia was com-

18. Describe the court of Diocletian.—19. What is said of the rebellion in Britain?—20. What was the state of things in the east?—21. Give an account of the Persian war.
CONSTANTINE THE GREAT.

22. After the termination of this war, Diocletian, who had not visited Rome since his elevation, repaired to the city, where he enjoyed a splendid triumph,—memorable as the last of these gorgeous exhibitions of human vanity. In the twenty-first year of his reign, not long after his triumph, and when the empire had been delivered from its foreign enemies, and restored to peace, Diocletian formally resigned the imperial power, and retired with philosophic calmness to the enjoyment of an elegant retreat in Dalmatia. He had prevailed on Maximianus to resign his power also; and the abdication of the two emperors, the one in Milan, the other in Nicomedia, took place on the same day.

23. Diocletian's great name is stained by the most cruel of all the persecutions of the Christians. Of the ten persecutions, the first was (A.D. 64) under Nero; the second, (95) under Domitian; the third, (107,) under Trajan; the fourth, (118,) under Adriam; the fifth, (212,) under Caracalla; the sixth, (235,) under Maximinus; the seventh, (250,) under Decius; the eighth, (257,) under Valerian; the ninth, (274,) under Aurelian; the tenth and most severe was begun on Christmas day, (303,) under Diocletian, when in the city of Nicomedia, then the seat of Diocletian's court, six hundred of the despised followers of Christ assembled to celebrate his nativity. The emperor gave the horrid order to bar the doors, and set the building on fire; and his executioners, fearing man more than God, enclosed them living within their funeral pyre, where their bodies all perished.

24. Constantius, who, with Galerius, was now elevated to the rank of Augustus, retained it but fifteen months, when he sickened at York. Constantine, his son, hastened from Nicomedia with secrecy and celerity, and arriving before his death, was appointed his successor. The army in Britain saluted him Augustus and emperor;—Spain and Gaul ratified the nomination. The inhabitants of Rome felt more than ever the weight of the taxes which were levied with merciless severity upon them, and were indignant at the continued absence of the emperors from the imperial city. The senate, and the pretorians, whose power Diocletian had almost annihilated, joined in a conspiracy with the citizens against Galerius, and Maxentius, the son of Maximianus, was invested at Rome with the imperial dignity. The restless spirit of Maximianus could not submit tamely to the retirement to which Diocletian had doomed him; and he now came forward to lend his name and aid to the party of his son.

22. What occurred at Rome on the return of Diocletian? What further can you relate of this emperor and his colleague?—23. What is a deep blot on his character? Give an account of the ten persecutions.—24. Who were left emperors? Where was Constantius when he made his son his successor? What number of emperors were now in the field, and what was the state of the empire? What account can you give of Valeria? (See note.)
assuming to himself the exercise of imperial power. Two other claimants appeared, and Rome now felt the evils of a divided government. No less than six emperors, at enmity among themselves, shared the sovereign power. These dissensions led to bloody and destructive civil wars. After a period of eighteen years, the genius of Constantine triumphed over all his rivals, and he remained sole master of the empire.

CHAPTER V.

The Roman Empire from the adoption of Christianity.

1. Constantine possessed a lofty and majestic stature, a bold, open countenance, and a graceful deportment. His constitution was made healthy by vigorous exercise in youth, and preserved by temperance and sobriety in later life. In business he was indefatigable, and he looked with a vigilant eye upon the affairs of government; while, by rendering kindness to all who approached him, he secured love, at the same time that his talents and virtues commanded respect. Such was Constantine while dangers surrounded him; but when released from fear, and placed above responsibility, his character seems to have fallen from its elevation. Among other unworthy acts, he is charged with jealous cruelty to his son.

2. Two events mark the boldness of his genius, and render his name memorable. The one was his removal of the seat of the Roman empire to Constantinople; the other was his adoption of Christianity as the religion of the empire. Whether Constantine embraced it from conviction of its truth, or from policy, is matter of dispute. Certain it is, that this religion, though receiving from the Roman power only silent obloquy, or active persecution, had extended among the people; so that Constantine strengthened himself in the affections of the soldiers by adopting it. At this period too, Christianity might number more writers of talent and literary abilities than paganism. Society had in its morals assumed a new and more healthful tone. Women, taught that they were co-heirs with men in the blessings of the gospel, felt their equal value as immortal beings, and thus learned to respect themselves, and insure the respect of men. When such had become the influence of Christianity in the realm, worldly ambition pointed to the course which the emperor pursued in declaring himself a Christian; and

Byzantium improved and named after the emperor

Christianity made the religion of the Roman empire

It had become the religion of a great portion of the people. "A majority of the soldiers were Christians."
CHRISTIANITY DEBASED BY WORLDLY EXALTATION.

325. Christanity debased by worldly exaltation. Surely it was not in the spirit of Christ, who said, "My kingdom is not of this world," that Constantine made it the religion of the empire; —and from henceforth we find its heavenly influence sullied by mingling with earthly things. He made a new division of the Roman world into four Prefectures, which were subdivided into dioceses, and these into provinces. No particular bishop was regarded as head of the whole church, but the emperor was such in point of fact. In this capacity he called the first ecclesiastical council, or collection of bishops at Nice, having, in the controversy between Athanasius and Arius, taken sides against the latter. The council in this respect agreed with the emperor.

3. If after the period of Constantine, it shall appear that human passions, and natural causes, contributed to the extension of a religion, whose divinity is attested by a severe and holy purity before unknown to the world, let it be remembered that what had previously occurred, leaves a chasm in the chain of human means, by which Christianity was established, that cannot be supplied but on the supposition of divine agency. It is in vain that infidelity seeks to shake our faith, by saying that when men were offered eternal life, on condition of their abandoning the pleasures of this, they accepted the offer, because it was an advantageous bargain; —so long as they utterly fail in explaining how the apostles and first teachers of this religion got their own invincible faith, that the doctrine was indeed true? a faith which made them disregard labor, sufferings, and death. Of this no account exists but in the New Testament.

4. On the death of Constantine, his dominions were divided between his three sons, Constantine, Constantius, and Constans. The youth of these princes was not, like that of their father, spent in improving exercises, but in the effeminacy of a court. He knew that he had his fortune to make; they felt that theirs was secured. Hence their administration wanted the vigor of his, while they imitated his ambition and cruelty. During the first year of their reign, two uncles and seven cousins were sacrificed to their jealous fears. With the exception of Gallus and Julian, sons of the brother of Constantine, whose youth and feeble constitution alone saved them, these princes destroyed all the male members of the Constantine family; and they at length turned their arms against each other.

5. Constantine, who governed the eastern portion of the em-

2. What effect had his measures on Christianity? How did he divide the empire? Who was not regarded as head of the whole church? Who was so in fact? What assemblage did he conveive? On what occasion?—3. Suppose infidels should show that human passions and natural causes had something to do in establishing Christianity, what might still be said of its morality? When we go back to the time of the apostles, can we find still a chain of human means sufficient to spread such a self-denying scheme? Suppose an unbeliever, like the historian Gibbon, says that men embraced Christianity because it offered them an advantageous bargain, will this shake our faith? How is the principal argument for the truth of Christianity stated? —4. How were Constantine's dominions divided? How was the government administered?
JULIAN THE APOSTATE.

pire, found himself early involved in a Persian war. The same of his father had, during his life, checked all encroachments on the eastern provinces. Sapor, the grand-son of Narsees, was now on the Persian throne, and had, for several campaigns, waged a successful war upon the provinces. Constantine marched against him—the Persian arms triumphed at Singara. The monarchs at length withdrew their forces, and a peace was concluded. After Constantine's return, a dispute between him and Constans ended in his violent death; and left Constans sole master of the west. He maintained his authority for ten years, when he fell a victim to the ambition of Magnentius, the general of the Gallic legions, who assumed the purple. Constantius, to secure the undivided sovereignty of the empire, fought a bloody battle with Magnentius and defeated him. Of the veteran soldiers of the empire, 54,000 were left dead upon the field; and Magnentius, despairing of the crown, put an end to his life.

6. The civil wars had given the barbarians an opportunity of renewing their depredations upon the frontier provinces. The Franks and the Alemanni had devastated Gaul. Flourishing towns were laid in ashes, and the inhabitants compelled to flee from the country to the fortified cities, where they were obliged to depend for subsistence upon the scanty supply of grain raised within the walls. In the east the Sarmatians had passed the Danube, and the Persian monarch, now returned from a victorious expedition against the Scythians, again threatened the provinces of Asia. Constantius found himself unequal to the weight of the empire, and was constrained to look for some one with whom to divide its cares. His cousin Julian, now the only remaining member of the Constantine family, had been left to pursue his studies in obscurity, among the Grecian philosophers. Constantius appointed him Caesar, and gave him command of the provinces of Gaul. He conducted in person the war with the Sarmatians, whom he defeated and compelled to sue for peace.

7. Julian, (called the Apostle from his having forsaken Christianity,) whose abilities for action had been despised on account of his love of study, showed himself an able general, in a successful contest with the Franks and Alemanni. The fame of his hardy perseverance and successful enterprise, spread through the empire, and increased the already awakened jealousy of Constantius. He issued an order, commanding a large detachment of the veterans who were under Julian, to march to the aid of the eastern legions. The troops, reluctant to enter upon what they deemed a foreign service, and unwilling to leave a general whom they loved, for an emperor whom they despised, refused obedience, and at once proclaimed Julian emperor. With feigned reluctance he accepted the crown, and to enforce

5. Give an account of the Persian war. Of Constans. Of Magnentius.—
6. What was the effect of the civil war? How was the empire attacked? Who was Julian?—7. How did Julian manifest his character? On what occasion was he proclaimed emperor?
his claim, marched with secrecy and despatch to the attack of Constantinople. Constantius, relinquishing the Persian war, marched to meet him; but his death relieved the empire from the horrors of civil contention.

8. The reign of Julian was memorable for the re-establishment of paganism. The emperor was, doubtless, above believing in its follies himself; but he thought like most of the early philosophers of Greece and Rome, that the people must have some religion coined for their use. His ideas of Christianity were associated with the character, and conduct towards his family, of the Constantines, its supporters; and he probably thought that Christianity, as well as paganism, was such a coinage; not reflecting that whatever God has made his creatures to need, he invariably provides. Man is created to need religion; for since the dawn of history there have been double-dealing traffickers in the article. Among these stand prominent the Egyptian, Greek, and Roman priests, the Delphian oraculars, and the Druids of Britain. These manufacturers of fable and imposition, supplied the market kept ever open by man’s mental craving; and they were repaid by his submission of body, soul, and estate. Unlike these, the Christian teachers believed that Christianity was in truth that spiritual food, which the Almighty Parent had himself sent down to satisfy the desires of the famishing soul. To this view of Christianity, which exalts it over all others as the only true religion, Julian himself gave an incidental testimony; for he recommended, that with the heathen ceremonies, the people should follow the Christian morality. This emperor did not indeed revive the persecutions of former pagan sovereigns, or prohibit the worship of the Christians; yet he removed them from offices of trust, and from the care of the education of youth, and oppressed them in various ways.

9. Julian settled the concerns of the west, and proceeded into Asia. After wintering in Antioch, he marched towards Persia, ravaged the plains of Mesopotamia, passed the Euphrates, and spread devastation through a part of Syria. He attempted, with the strenuous aid of the Jews, to rebuild the temple at Jerusalem, in order to disprove the prophecy of Christ. The foundations of the temple were laid, but they were destroyed. “Horrible balls of fire,” says a pagan historian, “breaking out from the foundation with frequent and reiterated attacks, rendered the place inaccessible to the workmen. The victorious element continuing in this manner, seemed obstinately bent to

7. How was his accession secured and the empire saved from civil war?
8. For what is his reign chiefly memorable? What is the strong probability respecting Julian’s own belief? When we know that God has created man to need any thing, what may we infer? Who are named as classes of men who have trafficked with the religious wants of mankind? What have they manufactured for the people? What have they got from the people in return? What difference do you find between these and the early teachers of Christianity? How did Julian incidentally bear testimony to Christianity?—9. Give an account of Julian’s Persian expedition. Of his attempt to rebuild the Jewish temple.
drive them to a distance, and the hopeless attempt was aban-
don."

Christians and pagans alike believed that the doom of a supernatural power forbade the work; and it was no more attempted.

10. At the passage of the Tigris, the Romans obtained a victory over the Persians, but here their successes ended. Julian was induced to burn his fleet at the suggestion of a treacherous Persian, who, in the character of a deserter, had entered his camp. As the Romans advanced their provisions failed. The cattle were driven away, the inhabitants had departed, and the country, naturally fertile, presented only smoking ruins. The emperor sought to retrace his steps, but the Persian prince, with a numerous army, appeared in sight, hovered around, and harassed his retreat. Attempting to force his way, Julian was mortally wounded. His dying moments were passed, not in sacrificing to the gods, but in philosophical discourse. The unexpected death of the leader spread, in the harassed army, confusion and dismay. The officers could not agree upon a successor, when the name of Jovian, a man of no military renown, but attached to the household of Julian, was circulated among the troops, and he was immediately declared emperor.

11. Amid their deliberations and sorrows, the legions had been compelled to continue their retreat, surrounded by the Persians, and momentarily subject to their vexatious and often fatal attacks. Four days after the death of Julian, the disheartened army reached the city of Susa. The Tigris was still to be crossed, and they were almost in despair of effecting their escape. Here Sapor sent them proposals of peace, and although they were disadvantageous, they were accepted. The provinces beyond the Tigris, which Diocletian had obtained of Narses, were then ceded to Persia, and the impregnable city of Nisibis, which had so often resisted the Persian arms, together with some of the strongest fortresses in Mesopotamia, were surrendered; when the army were suffered to pursue their homeward way in ignominious peace.

12. On the accession of Jovian, Christianity again became the established religion of the empire. But his reign was terminated by death before he reached Constantinople. Valentinian, commander of the guards, was unanimously proclaimed his successor. He appointed his brother Valens as his colleague, committing to him the eastern provinces, while himself retired to the western, where he prosecuted the war against the barbarians with considerable success. Yet the decline of the empire became more and more apparent. The civil wars of the sons of Constantine had destroyed vast numbers of soldiers, and left the frontiers exposed to the depredations of the barbarians. The valor and energy of Julian had, indeed, for a moment,

10. What was the manner of his falling into a snare? What were its consequences? What was the manner of Julian's death? Relate the appointment of his successor.—11. Give an account of the treaty of peace and the dismembering of the empire.—12. What religion did Jovian favor?
checked their incursions, but his unsuccessful Persian war had still farther weakened the military force of the empire, and prepared the way for the peace, by which Jovian began its dismemberment. Valentinian died in the twelfth year of his reign, and left the empire to his son Gratian, with the condition that a younger son named Valentinian, then an infant, should be associated with him.

13. The Goths, who had repeatedly invaded the empire, again appeared on its frontier; not now indeed in the character of hostile barbarians, but of humble suppliants, themselves driven from their dominions. The Huns, a vast and terrible race, inhabiting the north of Asia, and more barbarous than either the Goths or Germans, had been precipitated by the wars in the east, upon the frontiers of Europe. Under Attila, called the "Scourge of God," they had subdued the nations of the Alani, who inhabited the regions between the Volga and Taanzis, and advanced upon the kingdom of the Goths. Their first appearance on the Gothic frontier was in the declining days of the great chief, Hermanric, whose dominion, it is said, extended from the Baltic to the Danube and lake Mœsia; and who had united under his sway the two great portions of the Gothic race, the western or Visigoths, and the eastern or Ostrogoths; the former having been governed by the house of the Bælli, the latter by that of Amali. The death of Hermanric, prevented the united efforts of the Goths in checking the invaders, and the Ostrogoths soon submitted. The Visigoths, in terror as the desolating "Scourge" approached, supplicated the emperor Valens, for vacant lands on the southern banks of the Danube, engaging to guard the frontier from the dreaded enemy.

14. Valens agreed to admit the Gothic nation within the empire, on certain conditions, to which they acceded; but the most important of which, the relinquishment of their arms, they afterwards evaded. The nation was transported across the Danube to improve the waste lands of Thrace. A million of barbarians, who could bring into the field 200,000 warriors, were thus admitted to a peaceful settlement within the bosom of the empire. The emperor granted the Goths permission to engage in traffic; but the avarice of the Roman ministers not only rendered the permission useless, but destructive to them. At length their property was exhausted in procuring means of subsistence, and they were compelled to sell their children to obtain bread. The treachery of the Roman governor of Marcianopolis towards Fritigern, a valiant Goth, enkindled his
THEODOSIUS.

wrath. He summoned his countrymen to arms, and led them to Mæsia, which they overran and desolated; and then proceeded to threaten the capital.

15. Valens now sought to crush a nation, whom he had first introduced into the heart of the empire, and then forced by ill-usage to become his enemies. Gratian, who had just succeeded his father in the west, was summoned to his aid, but was prevented by an irruption of the Alemanni, which employed his whole resources. The Visigoths, meanwhile, had formed an alliance with a body of Ostrogoths, who had also procured a settlement on the southern side of the Danube, and with some scattered hordes of the Alani and Huns. On the plains of Adrianople, Valens met the barbarians, and the courage and skill of the Roman legions failed in the encounter. The emperor was wounded, and conveyed to a building, which being fired by the enemy, he perished in the flames. Two-thirds of the imperial army were destroyed; the remainder fled, and the Goths ravaged the country to the suburbs of Constantinople.

16. Gratian, meanwhile victorious over the Alemanni, marched to the relief of the east. He learned on his journey the death of Valens, and the defeat of his army; and sensible of his inability to sustain the weight of an empire sinking under its numerous foes, he associated with himself, in the government, THEODOSIUS, a native of Spain. His father was a general who had distinguished himself in the reign of Valentinian, but was unjustly put to death, by order of Gratian himself. But such was the towering genius of the son, such his reputation for wisdom and magnanimity of temper, that the emperor, in his hour of peril, scrupled not to admit him as his partner. Theodosius was free from the vainglory of conquest, and he pursued at first a careful and watchful policy. From Thessalonica, which he made his head quarters, he kept his eye fixed upon the barbarians, and availed himself of every judicious opportunity of wasting their forces, or gaining over their leaders.

17. Fritigern died, and disunion among the Goths ensued; the different tribes pursued each its own individual interest without concert or design; and in four years from the death of Valens, the policy of Theodosius procured an advantageous peace, the conditions of which were arranged in the neighborhood of Constantinople. Theodosius invited their aged chief, ATHANARIC, to visit the capital, and partake the hospitalities of his palace. The chieftain was astonished at the grandeur and magnificence of the objects presented to his view. "Truly," exclaimed he, "the emperor of the Romans is a god upon earth, and the presumptuous man, who dares to lift his hand against him, is guilty of his own blood." Athanaric sickened and died. Theodosius paid the most respectful honors to his
remains; and his grateful Goths, thus converted into friends, entered the Roman legions, declaring that while Theodosius lived they would acknowledge no other chief.

18. While Theodosius was thus calming the disorders of the east, a new insurrection had arisen in the west. The indolence of Gratian had alienated the affections of his subjects. Maximus, at the head of his legions, entered Gaul, where he was hailed as emperor. Gratian, who was at Paris, fled to Lyons, and was there assassinated, through the intrigues of Maximus, who next invaded Italy, and compelled the widowed empress Justina, with her young son Valentinian II., and her daughter Galla, to flee for succor to the emperor of the east. Theodosius did not invite them to his court, but met them at Thessalonica, whither they had come by sea. His wife being dead, he married the beautiful Galla, and then marched, at the head of a hardy and disciplined army, into Pannonia. On the banks of the Save he met and defeated the forces of Maximus, and executed the usurper. The provinces returned to their allegiance; and Theodosius, superior to the seductions of prosperity, so often fatal to virtue, magnanimously restored to Valentinian the throne of Milan, and added to his dominions the provinces of Britain and Gaul. But the young prince soon fell a victim to domestic treason. Theodosius thus became sole monarch of the empire, now for the last time united under the sway of one sovereign.

19. Since the reign of Constantine, Christianity had been rapidly declining from its primitive purity, and ambitious men sought, through its medium, to gratify the unhallowed lust of power. By gradually extending the authority of the bishops, the foundation was laid of that abominable oppression, which for so many ages was to weigh down the moral and intellectual energies of Europe. During the reign of Theodosius, the ecclesiastical power manifested itself as already superior to the civil. Ambrose, bishop of Milan, had forbidden to the empress Justina, who reigned in the name of her son Valentinian II., the use of a chapel, where she might worship agreeably to her belief in the Arian doctrines. The bishop next sternly and openly denounced her as a heretic, and when she passed an edict to banish him, he refused to obey;—nor could she compel his obedience, or punish his contumacy. Theodosius had, in a moment of passion, given the only cruel order which stains his equitable government, that of putting to the sword the offending people of Thessalonica. He repented, and sought, too late, to hinder its execution. Ambrose boldly reproached him, and exacted of him public penance; and the

18. Give an account of the last days of Gratian. Give some account of Maximus. What account can you give of Justina? Of Galla? Of Valentinian II.? 19. What may be said of Christianity from the reign of Constantine? What during the reign of Theodosius, concerning the stretch of ecclesiastical power? What was done by Ambrose in relation to Justina? To Theodosius?
Death of Theodosius.

Master of the world, in a mournful and suppliant posture, with
sighs and tears, confessed and deplored his crime, in the pre-
sence of the congregation.

20. Theodosius died at Milan, a few months after he had
quelled the disturbances consequent on the death of Valentinian,
lamented by the church, to which he had been reconciled; by
the Roman people, whom he had governed with moderation;
and even by the vanquished provinces, who had experienced his
kindness. Before his death he divided the empire between his
two young sons; and this division proving permanent, becomes
an important epoch in history.

20. Was Theodosius honored in his death? What division of the em-
prise did he make?
PERIOD II.

THE DIVISION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE, 395. INTO THE EASTERN AND WESTERN
AND THE ARABIAN REGIA, 622. OR FLIGHT OF MUHAMMAD.

CHAPTER I.

The Western Empire.

1. The student has hitherto found his attention directed to one great nation, extending its influence to all the smaller kingdoms and nations of the earth, and thus, at the same time, placing before him the whole civilized world. The Egyptian, Assyrian and Chaldean—the Macedonian, Persian, Grecian, and Roman empires, have thus successively risen to his view. But from this period he will find his attention divided, first, between the two divisions of the Roman empire, now distinct and separate governments, and subsequently, between various independent and powerful nations, arising from the ruins of the Roman empire, and the civilisation of the northern barbarians.

2. On the death of Theodosius, his son Arcadius succeeded to the Eastern Empire, comprising Thrace, Dacia, Macedonia, Asia Minor, Syria and Egypt;—while to his remaining son, Honorius, fell the Western Empire, which contained Italy, Africa, Gaul, Spain, Britain, and the provinces of Noricum, Pannonia, and Dalmatia. Although the barbarous nations had

PERIOD II.—CHAP. I.—1. To what has the attention of the student been hitherto directed? What empires have successively occupied the principal place? What is now to become the course of history? From what origins are we to find nations arising?—2. Which of the sons of Theodosius had the Eastern empire? Of what did it consist? Which had the Western? What provinces did it comprise?
bowed to the superior abilities of Theodosius, they knew their own strength, and the weakness of the empire. The Roman armies were not only filled with barbarian auxiliaries, but they were also not unfrequently commanded by chiefs of barbarian origin; while the indolent and effeminate citizens refused to leave their luxurious pleasures for the service of their country. Luxury had, in another manner, laid the train for the subversion of the empire. The Roman soldiers had obtained permission of the different emperors, to cast aside their heavy shields and part of their armor; so that when they were exposed to the attacks of the barbarians, now instructed in the art of war, clad in armor, and skilful in the use of missile weapons, the contest was unequal, and the barbarians had the advantage. The youth and incapacity of Arcadius and Honorius subjected them to the control of their favorites. Rufinus, a Gaul, governed the councils of Arcadius; while Stilicho, a Vandal, directed the administration of his brother.

3. The western Goths, under Alaric, took up arms, passed into Greece, and spread desolation through Macedonia, Thessaly, and Attica. Rufinus, deeming it a stroke of policy to turn their arms upon Italy, negotiated an alliance with them, and privately advised Alaric to seek his fortune in the Western empire, promising that succor should be sent him. The Goths accordingly proceeded towards Illyricum, Istria, and the northeast of Italy. Stilicho, at the head of the western legions, advanced to repulse them. The history of their progress is obscure, but it is certain that Stilicho obtained a decided advantage at Pollentia, and that they were compelled to retreat. Alaric was again defeated at Verona; and the vigilance and skill of Stilicho finally procured a temporary peace.

4. The fears of Honorius were awakened by this invasion, and to preserve his person from danger, he removed his residence from Milan to Ravenna, a more secure situation, which henceforth became the imperial city. An irruption of Pagan barbarians now occurred, more formidable than even that of the Goths, who being christianized, possessed the rudiments of civilisation. These were a confederacy of the German nations, the Vandals, Suevi, Burgundians, and part of the Alani, to the number of 200,000 fighting men. Headed by their king, Radagaisus, they issued from the shores of the Baltic, showed themselves upon the banks of the upper Danube, passed into Italy, and laid siege to Florence. The active Stilicho appeared with his army, surrounded the barbarians, and besieging them in their camp, reduced them to the greatest distress, and com-
pelled a great part of them to capitulate. Radagaisus perished; when the remainder of the army retreated. Leaving Italy, they proceeded to devastate and take possession of Gaul, from the Rhine to the Pyrenees. "This," says Gibbon, "may be considered as the fall of the Roman empire beyond the Alps."

5. The feeble and contemptible Honorius, whose principal occupation, history informs us, was to feed poultry, was moved, by the arts of an ambitious flatterer, to jealousy and hatred against the only man whose talents could support his tottering state. Stilicho was murdered, and Alaric advanced upon Rome. The venerable city was forced to purchase with money the retreat of the barbarians. The conditions of the payment not being strictly complied with, Alaric made this a pretense to return. Again he besieged Rome, and compelled the reluctant senate to receive from him Attalus, the prefect of the city, as their emperor. The capital was still spared, but the Gothic troops overran and devastated Italy. Attalus did not long enjoy the favor of the Gothic chief, who, the following year, degraded him from the imperial dignity. Honorius, at Ravenna, still refused to make peace with the Goths. They returned, thirsting for spoils, and bent upon destruction;—and Rome, so long vaunted as the "eternal city," was taken, and suffered during six days the horrors of sack and pillage, from a barbarous soldiery.

6. Alaric passed triumphantly forth, and bent his course to the south of Italy, intending to embark for Africa,—when he died. His grave was made in the bed of a small stream, whose waters, for that purpose, had been conducted from their channel. After his burial, the stream in resuming its wonted course, concealed for ever the body of the conqueror. Adolphus, his brother-in-law, succeeded him. His first intention was to make Rome the seat of a new empire of the Goths; but study and reflection convinced him, that law and order were essential to a well constituted state; and as the yet unlearned Goths would not submit to these, he magnanimously resolved to seek a region more favorable to the genius of his countrymen, and leave Italy to be governed by her own regulations. After the Goths had enjoyed an undisputed control during four years, he concluded a peace with Honorius, receiving from his hand his sister Placidia* in marriage. He retired from Italy into

* The young Placidia was the daughter of the great Theodosius and Galla. She was taken prisoner at the sack of Rome, and carried away by the barbarians, but was treated with respect. She captivated Adolphus; and the elegant person and ingenuous mind of the young soldier were not regarded by her with indifference; and it may be that Italy was, on this oc-

4. Where did they then go? What part of the Roman empire was now cut off?—5. What kind of emperor was Honorius? How did he reward his best friend and ablest general? What immediately followed? How did Rome put off her evil day? What treatment did the city, formerly boasted as eternal, now receive?—6. Relate the death and burial of Alaric. The noble conduct of his brother-in-law. Where and how was the marriage of Adolphus and Placidia celebrated? (See note.)
Genseric, the Vandal.

7. The independence of Britain was acknowledged by Honorius, and he had ceded the lands of Upper Germany to the Burgundians, and of Lower Germany to the Franks, when, after an ignominious reign of twenty-eight years, he died. Adolphus had fallen in war, and Placidia, having returned to Italy, had become the wife of Constantius, a distinguished general. He succeeded Honorius, was assassinated, and his son Valentinian, a boy of six, proclaimed emperor. The administration was committed to his mother, Placidia, as regent. The armies of the Western empire were commanded by Aetius and Boniface, between whom there was an irreconcilable enmity. The misrepresentations of Aetius, led Placidia wrongly to distrust the loyalty of Boniface, and to recall him from Africa, where he held the command. Boniface, who has been styled the last of the Romans, was roused by the suspicion of his integrity; and revolting, he invited to his aid a desolating scourge.

8. This was Genseric, king of the Vandals, who had established his nation in Spain. He transported his hosts across the straits of Gibraltar, drew to his camp the wandering Moors, and then began the devastation of Africa. Boniface learned too late his mistake, and returned to his allegiance. But the provinces from Tangiers to Tripoli had become a prey to the destructive fury of the Vandals. Boniface engaged them in battle, but was defeated and compelled to retreat. The success of the Vandals was for a time retarded by a treaty with the Western emperor, but in eight years, Genseric had obtained possession of Carthage, and permanently established a kingdom.

9. The terrible Huns, who had driven the Goths and Vandals from the north of Europe, now spread their savage hosts from the banks of the Volga to those of the Danube. Attila, their king, claimed descent from the ancient Huns, who had contended with the monarchs of China; and 700,000 warriors followed his banners. He had conquered the various nations of barbarians who still inhabited northern Europe. The Gepidæ, enation, indebted as much to love, as to reason for deliverance. The royal nuptials were celebrated with great splendor at Narbonne, the capital of the new kingdom won by Gothic valor. A hall was decorated after the Roman fashion. The first place of honor was reserved for Placidia, while Adolphus, clad in a Roman toga, himself took a lower seat. Fifty beautiful youths, attired in silken garments, whom he destined as a gift to his bride then advanced, each presenting to her two cups, the one filled with gold, the other with gems, a part of the spoils of Rome. At the same time Attila, that Attila whom Alaric had created emperor, appeared, and sang the epitalamium.

7. What parts of the empire had become independent? Who succeeded Honorius? How did Placidia become vested with the chief power? In what respect was she unfortunate in her generals? What mistake did she commit? What wrong did Ætius? What great wrong did Boniface?—8. Describe the course of Genseric and his Vandal subjects.—9. Who were the Huns? What was the extent of their empire? The number of their warriors? What nations were subject to Attila?
and the Ostrogoths, the kings of Scandinavia and of the islands, owned his supremacy. His depredations extended to Persia; and Theodosius II, now emperor of the east, was compelled to pay him tribute. He made an alliance with Genseric, and preventing the eastern emperors from yielding assistance to Valentinian, facilitated the conquests of the Vandal king.

10. Intending to invade the Western empire, Attila sought to unite with him the nations of Gaul, among which the Visigoths, headed by Theodoric, the son of Alaric, and permanently settled in the southern part, were the most formidable. Theodoric wavered between the rival powers; but when Ætius marched into Gaul, he united in its defence. Ætius further drew to his standard as allies, the Saxons, the Burgundians, the Sarmatians or Alanis, the Franks, and other powerful tribes. At Chalons, Ætius and his auxiliaries encountered the formidable host of Attila, and by one of the most bloody battles recorded, compelled him to retreat. The Visigoths constituted the strength of the Roman forces, and Theodoric, their valiant king, fell in the battle. The Goths, animated by the son of Theodoric, were furious to revenge his death, but the policy of Ætius, who wished to preserve the Huns as a counterpoise to the power of the Goths, secured Attila a retreat.

11. The power of Attila, however, was not broken, nor his resources exhausted. The ensuing spring, with apparently undiminished strength, he passed the Alps, and invaded Italy,—besieged and took Aquileia, Milan, and Pavia. Valentinian made a hasty retreat from Ravenna to Rome, and the defence of the nation was again committed to Ætius, who, destitute of other troops than his domestic forces, found himself unable to withstand, or retard the depredations of the enemy. The barbarians of Gaul refused to march to the defence of Italy. An embassy, accompanied by Leo, bishop of Rome, in his sacred robes, was despatched to the barbarian camp. Attila listened with attention to their humble supplications, and acceded to a treaty, which purchased the temporary safety of Italy, at an immense price.

12. The death of Attila, which occurred soon after his retreat, by disuniting the various nations who had yielded to the sway of his genius, ruined the power of the Huns, and relieved Rome for a time from the terror of its most formidable enemy. Yet the destruction of the empire was not to be stayed by the removal of external foes. Its internal strength was gone, nor did any virtue remain, to give hopes of recovery. Placidia was now dead, and the feeble Valentinian, no longer governed by her, gave way to jealousy; and the first sword which perhaps he had ever drawn, was plunged into the bosom of his faithful Ætius. He thus, as he was told by a bold Ro-

9. With whom did he form an alliance?—10. What did Attila seek to do? What course was taken by Theodoric? By Ætius? Give some account of the battle of Chalons.—11. What cities did Attila next take? What hindered his taking Rome?—12. What effect had the death of Attila on the empire of the Huns? What was done by Valentinian?
man, "cut off his right hand with his left." His vices did not long remain unpunished. He fell a victim to the vengeance of Petronius Maximus, an injured husband.

13. Maximus was elected emperor. He compelled Eudoxia, the widow of Valentinian, to marry him; and she, in the madness of hatred, secretly called on Genseric to avenge her wrongs. He had become powerful by a naval force, and had extended a system of piracy into every part of the Mediterranean. Joyfully accepting the invitation to invade Italy, he landed his troops at the mouth of the Tiber, and advanced to the gates of the now defenceless city. Maximus, on learning the approach of the Vandals, attempted to escape, but was slain in the streets. The entreaties of the good Leo again saved the city from conflagration, but for fourteen days and nights it presented horrible scenes of pillage and rapine. Private and public wealth, the treasures of palaces and churches, became the prey of the Vandals. The ornaments of the capitol, with the statues of the gods, which since the introduction of Christianity, had not been removed,—with the treasures and vessels of the holy temple of Jerusalem, which had been brought by Titus to adorn his triumph, were alike embarked for Carthage; but they were lost on the passage. The empress Eudoxia, and her three daughters, were carried, by Genseric, prisoners to Africa, with multitudes of Roman women and children.

14. Avitus, of Gaul, was at Toulouse on an embassy to Theodoric II., king of the Visigoths, when the news of the death of Maximus, and of the recent disasters at Rome, was received. The vacant throne tempted his ambition. The powerful Theodoric encouraged it, and by his influence, Avitus was received into Rome as emperor. Count Recimer, a descendant of the kings of the Goths, commanded the barbarian troops who formed the defence of Italy. He was indignant that he should not have been consulted in the choice of an emperor; and compelling Avitus to abdicate, he raised to the imperial dignity Majorianus, a man of virtue and talents, who in his person seemed to revive the image of the Roman majesty. He attempted the character of a reformer, but the various classes who derived advantage from the existing abuses of the degenerate times, united against him.

15. Italy suffered severely from the piracies of the Vandals, and Majorianus built a fleet, vainly attempting to subdue the power of Genseric. His want of success afforded Recimer a pretence to depose him. This maker of emperors next put up Severus, of course himself exercising the sovereign power. Finding a navy necessary to prevent the depredations of the
Vandals, Recimer solicited the aid of Leo, who now filled the imperial throne of Constantinople; and his assistance was granted, on condition that he should nominate an emperor. He accordingly named Athemiurno, who repaired to Italy, where, to strengthen his power, he gave his daughter in marriage to Recimer. The strength of both the Roman empires was now employed against Genseris, but failed to deprive him of his naval supremacy. Recimer became jealous of Athemiurno, and espoused the interest of Olybrius, who had married the daughter of the empress Eudoxia,—marched to Rome, took the city, and delivered it up to pillage. He slew Athemiurno, and declared Olybrius emperor. Forty days after, Recimer died, and Italy rejoiced in the death of the tyrant.

16. Olybrius reigned but seven months. Two competitors appeared, Glycerius, a Roman, and Julius Nepos, the governor of Dalmatia. Glycerius exchanged his crown for a mitre,—Julius Nepos was received by the senate, and reigned a year. Orestes, a Pannonian, who commanded the motley army of barbarians who had enlisted in the Roman service, now excited a rebellion among them. Nepos, on their approach to Ravenna, retreated to Dalmatia, and Orestes proclaimed his son, Augustulus Romulus, emperor of the west. Orestes found the power he had easily acquired for his son, not so easily sustained. The barbarians who procured his elevation, not content by the increase of their pay and privileges, required him to divide among them a third of the lands of Italy. Orestes refused to sacrifice the natives of the soil to their capricious demands. Among them was the ambitious Odoacer, king of the Heruli, a savage people who had migrated from the coast of the Baltic to Pannonia and Noricum. He led them to Rome, took and pillaged the city,—executed Orestes, and assumed the sovereign power. Augustulus Romulus laid down his sceptre, and found mercy in the camp of the Herulian chief. So passes from the historic scene the last emperor of Rome.

17. It is a singular coincidence, that his name contains that of the first king and founder of Rome, and also of the first emperor; reminding us of the infancy, the maturity, and the fall of the empire. Odoacer was the first barbarian who reigned over Italy under the name of king. The western empire, after existing from the foundation of Rome, 1229 years, was now extinct; while the eastern, at the period of their separation in the like state of decay, continued nearly a thousand years longer.

15. What further did Count Recimer[—16. What further changes occurred to the time of the last emperor of Rome? How did Augustulus Romulus gain, and how lose the imperial crown?—17. What singular coincidence may we observe to aid the memory? What may we remark of Odoacer?]
CHAPTER II.

The Eastern or Byzantine Empire.

1. The stronger allurements which the Western empire offered to the barbarians, and the subsidies paid by the emperors of the East, preserved that portion in comparative tranquillity. Arcadius, a weak and timid prince, was, at his death, succeeded by his son Theodosius. He was a minor at the time of his accession, and, during his whole reign, was subject to the influence of his sister, Pulcheria. On his death she succeeded to the throne, and was the first female who swayed the sceptre of the Roman empire. She was a princess of genius and virtue. On her death the Theodosian family became extinct in the east. Marcellus, her husband, continued to reign with a vigorous and prudent policy. Despising the miserable artifices by which former emperors had purchased immunity from the dreaded arms of the Huns, he stopped the payment of the subsidies. The Huns menaced revenge; but the death of Attila occurring at this period, delivered the empire from the danger of the threatened invasion. Leo, the successor of Marcellus, was emperor at the period of the destruction of the Western empire. Zeno, Anastasius, and Justin, successively ascended the throne, but left behind them no deed which should preserve their names from oblivion.

2. Justinian, succeeded Justin. The kingdom of the Vandals in Africa, founded by Genseric, had become established. Hilderic, grandson of Genseric, succeeded him. He was deposed by Belisarius. Justinian, desirous to recover the province, affected to favor Hilderic, and sent Belisarius with an army into Africa. He conquered the Vandals, reduced Carthage, and took Belisarius, whom he carried to Constantinople, to grace his triumph. As Hilderic had been executed, the race of Genseric became extinct, and Africa now belonged to the Eastern empire. Belisarius was seen in the triumphal procession of Belisarius, arrayed in regal robes, and though he neither sighed or wept, he was heard to murmur, "Vanity! vanity! all is vanity!"

Belisarius next marched to Italy, where he defeated the Ostrogoths, subdued Italy and Sicily, and returned to Constantinople with Vitiges, the Gothic king, in chains.

3. These successes awakened the jealousy of Chosroes, reigning sovereign of Persia, who now renewed the war which had been suspended by a truce. Belisarius was sent against him, and the war was waged with various and alternate success, until

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CHAP. II.—1. What preserved the Eastern empire in comparative tranquillity? Give some account of Pulcheria. Of Marcellus. What happened in the reign of Leo? Who were the next three of the emperors?—2. What in the reign of Justinian was the condition of the Vandal empire in Africa? Give some account of the African war. Of the war with the Ostrogoths.—3. Give some account of the Persian war.
the declining years of Justinian and Chosroes cooled their military ardor, and procured a further truce for fifty years. Belisarius was next sent to Italy against the Goths, who had rebelled, but being recalled through a jealousy which had arisen in the mind of the emperor, Narses, another lieutenant of Justinian, was substituted in his place, and effected their complete reduction. After this final conquest of the Gothic kingdom, the government of Italy was administered by officers styled Exarchs, who held their court at Ravenna, and were the representatives of the eastern emperor.

4. The Bulgarians, aided by a multitude of barbarous Slavonians, now crossed the Danube, ravaged Macedonia and Thrace, and extended their devastations within a few miles of Constantinople. Belisarius met and defeated them. But this was the last of his many victories; and he who had so gloriously sustained the military fame of the empire, was doomed by regal ingratitude to pass his old age in penury and disgrace.

5. While the arms of the empire had acquired glory abroad, the declining nation was still in distress. Constantinople was distracted by factions. Earthquakes of unusual extent and duration spread desolation in different parts. Antioch, especially, was almost wholly destroyed, and 250,000 persons were supposed to have been buried in its ruins. A most dreadful pestilence spread its ravages through the empire, and for a time its virulence seemed undiminished by the change of seasons. At length its malignity abated, but for half a century, its presence was in some degree felt. In Constantinople, during three months 5,000, and at last 10,000 persons are reported to have died daily. Many cities of the east were depopulated, and during the reign of Justinian, there was a visible diminution of the human species.

6. Justinian derives his chief reputation from his system of Roman jurisprudence. With the assistance of Tribonian, an eminent lawyer, he digested and simplified the mass of laws, which had been accumulating for ages; and formed those bodies of law called The Justinian Code, the Pandects, and the Institutes. This was the greatest work of the age, and forms the foundation of the present civil law.

7. Justin II., who was nephew and successor to Justinian, was unequal to the weight of government, and associated with himself Tiberius, a man of surpassing merit, the captain of the guards. The barbarian Lombards, under Alboin, conquered the northern part of Italy, and established a kingdom to which they gave the name of Lombardy. By the nomination of the worthy Tiberius, Maurice succeeded him. A revolution had

3. Of the war in Italy. What was established after the destruction of the kingdom 1—4. Give an account of the last victory of Belisarius. Of the treatment he received. 5. What disasters occurred about this time. 6. From what does Justinian derive his chief reputation 1 What are the bodies of law digested by Tribonian called 1—7. Who were the successors of Justinian 1 Give an account of the rise of the Lombard power 1 Who was now the emperor 1
occurred in Persia. Hormouz had succeeded his father Chosroes, or Nourshirvan the Just; but he was of an opposite character. He had in Bahram a general of great talents and ambition. In a fit of hasty displeasure Hormouz sent a present of a woman’s dress, a wheel and a distaff, to Bahram. He put on the dress, and with his presents in his hands, appeared before the army. The enraged soldiers, thus insulted in the person of their commander, revolted, and deposed the foolish monarch. His son Chosroes fled to Constantinople. Maurice received him favorably, and despatched an army to Persia, which subverted the power of Bahram, and placed him, as Chosroes II., on the throne of his fathers.

8. The Avars, an Asiatic race, had fled from the victorious arms of the Turks, or Turcomans. By union with the Lombards, they had destroyed the Gepide. After the Lombards carried their arms and nation into Italy, the Avars settled in Pannonia, which they had vacated, and extended their dominion from the Euxine to the foot of the Alps. While the Persian war employed the imperial arms in the east, the Avars threatened the empire from the north. As soon as the military force was released from the Persian war, Maurice hastened to employ it against these barbarians. His generals were ill selected, with the exception of Priscus, who obtained several victories; but the situation of the army and the empire rendered even his victories unprofitable.

9. The emperor ordered the army to make the country of the Avars their winter quarters. Already inclined to mutiny, they now burst into open revolt, declared Maurice unworthy of the crown, and elevated Phocas, an ignorant and brutal centurion. The rebel army then hastened their return to Constantinople. Maurice and his family had fled to Chaldeson, whither the cruel emissaries of Phocas followed. They compelled the emperor to witness the successive murder of his five sons. The agonized father uttered the ejaculation, “Thou art just, O Lord, and thy judgments are righteous.” Even amidst this dreadful scene, his stern adherence to truth prevailed over natural affection. When the nurse by falsehood sought to preserve the life of his infant, Maurice disclosed her design, and surrendered his child.

10. An ignominious peace with the Avars was made by Phocas, who found himself exposed at once to a revolt of the province of Africa, and to the arms of Chosroes, who now found, in the death of his benefactor, Maurice, a pretext for war. He wrested from the empire many of its eastern fortresses, and carried terror into Syria. Heraclius, son of the arch of Africa, who had never acknowledged the authority of Phocas, advanced at the head of the African forces, and by

a union with the disaffected, made himself master of Con-
stantinople, and deposed and executed the tyrant. Chosroes
made himself successively master of Antioch, Jerusalem, and
Alexandria; and while one division of his army extended
his conquests to Tripoli, another marched to the Bosphorus,
and, for ten years, lay encamped in the neighborhood of Con-
stantinople. The Avars renewed their hostilities, and encamped
their hosts along the plains of Thrace. Thus, on every side,
the speedy dissolution of the empire was threatened.

11. In this extremity the funds of the church were approp-
riated to the service of the empire, and an immense army was
levied, while a large subsidy purchased, though it did not secure
the neutrality of the Avars. Declining to engage the Persian
army, which lay encamped opposite the city, Heraclius, master
of the sea, transported his forces to the confines of Syria and
Cilicia, and pitched his camp near Issus, on the ground where
Alexander had vanquished Darius. Here, secure from attack,
he organized and disciplined his troops. The Persians repaired
to Cilicia; and Heraclius drew them into an engagement, and
defeated them.

12. In the next campaign, Heraclius passed the Black Sea,
and traversed the mountains of Armenia. He penetrated into the
heart of Persia, to compel Chosroes to recall his armies for the
defence of his own kingdom. The Persian king, however,
still maintained an army in the vicinity of Constantinople, to
second the operations of the treacherous Chagan, or chief of
the Avars, who, regardless of the subsidy he had received as
the price of his neutrality, had entered into an alliance with the
Persians. A host of Avars, Gepidae, Russians, Bulgarians, and
Sclavonians, now besieged Constantinople, but were repulsed;
while the Persians, on the opposite side of the Bosphorus, be-
held their discomfiture, without being able to render them any
assistance.

13. Heraclius had, meantime, strengthened his army by an
alliance with the Turks. A memorable battle was fought at
Nineveh, in which the Roman arms triumphed. Chosroes
was shortly after assassinated by his son Siroes, who con-
cluded a peace with the Romans, in which he relinquished the
conquests of his father; and Heraclius withdrawing his forces
from the kingdom, returned to his capital in triumph.

627.

NINEVEH.
Heraclius
(aided by
the Turks)
completely
defeats the
Persians.

628.

Peace with
Persia.

10. What parts of the empire are conquered by Chosroes? What other
enemies are in the field?—11. What was done in this extremity? What
course was taken by Heraclius? Relate the battle of Issus.—12. Where
did Heraclius go the next campaign? Where did Chosroes keep an army?
By what host was Constantinople besieged? Was it taken?—13. With
what nation did the Greek emperor form an alliance? Relate the battle of
Nineveh and its results.
CHAPTER III.

The nations formed on the ruins of the Roman Empire.

1. The overthrow of the Roman empire, and of ancient civilisation, was brought about by the barbarians of the north; and the new kingdoms formed, owed their origin to the same cause. To assist the memory, we shall recall in a connected view the seven great migrations of the German nations into the Roman empire. The first migration occurred before Christ. The Cimbrians and Teutones migrated towards Rome, desiring places to settle. They crossed Helvetia, and were joined by the Celtic and Helvetic tribes, surmounted the Alps, and in the valley of the Po spread death and consternation. They defeated them, in three successive campaigns, the Roman armies under the consuls. At length the reluctant senate sent to meet them Caius Marius. He twice defeated them; their last and final defeat being at Verona.

2. The second migration occurred in the reign of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. The empire was then invaded by a confederacy of the Suevi, Quadi, Marcomanni, Vandals and other European tribes, with several from Sarmatia, of whom were the Jazyges from the Dnieper, the Roxalani and the Alan. The emperor strove against them, and finally lost his life in the contest. His successor ceded to them Dacia, and all north of the Danube. The Goths and the Chatti, who then inhabited the banks of the Vistula and Oder, moved south and pressed forward the Marcomanni upon Illyria and Aquileia. The Romans artfully divided the league, and made peace with each separately; but they broke their treaties, and lost the respect of the barbarians.

3. In the third migration, the Goths settled by permission south of the Danube. Alaric spent five years in disciplining his army according to Roman tactics—then left Illyria; and at Verona, where Caius Marius was once victor, Stilicho (a Vandal) conquered Alaric. Subsequently he returned, and his Goths took Rome. Then, after burying him in the bed of a stream, Adolphus turned westward, and expelling the Suevi, founded the kingdom of the Visigoths in Spain. In the fourth migration, the Suevi, under Hermic, and the Vandals, under Gonderic, went by the invitation of Gerontius, the treacherous Roman governor, into Spain. That province was thus lost to the Roman empire. Other portions of the same tribes, with the Burgundians, took possession of Gaul.

CHAP. III.—1. What is attributed to the barbarians of the north? How many great migrations of the German barbarous nations are reckoned? Relate the first migration.—2. Give an account of the second.—3. Of the third. Of the fourth.
The Vandals in Spain, under Genserics, crossed into Africa, and thus was Rome dismembered in the west and south.

4. The fifth migration is that into Britain of the German nations on the opposite or eastern coast of the North Sea. By this the kingdom of the Anglo-Saxons, in England, was established. As it is these nations, together with the Roman Britons, whose language and blood are our own, a more particular account will follow. Theodoric the Great led the sixth migration, by which the kingdom of the Heruli in Italy was subverted, and that of the Ostrogoths established. Alboin, at the head of the Lombards, in the seventh migration, established the kingdom of Lombardy, north of the Po.

5. Britain.—When Alaric, with his Goths, threatened Rome, Silicho withdrew the legion from Britain which guarded the wall of Severus. The warlike barbarians to the north of the wall—the Scots, said to have migrated from Ireland—the Picts and the Jutes, tribes from the peninsula of Jutland, invaded and distressed the Britons. They applied to Honorius to protect them, and once or twice that emperor sent some feeble aid; but at length he wrote to them, absolving them from their allegiance, and exhorting them to defend themselves. The flower of their youth had been withdrawn, and had fallen in the battles of the empire,—and relying on the Romans, the Britons had sunk into effeminate dependence. Left to themselves, they disagreed in the election of a sovereign, but at length fixed on Vortigern. Their enemies were at their doors, and people and king agreed on the dangerous experiment of asking foreign aid. At their request, 1500 Saxons from the mouth of the Elbe appeared in three galleys, at the island of Thanet, under the brothers Hengist and Horsa. Vortigern took them into his pay, when they proceeded against the Caledonians, whom they defeated at Stamford.

6. The Saxons, however, demanded a stronger force; and next arrived sixteen ships, containing, besides Saxons and Danes, a portion of another tribe, the Angles, from whom England derives its name. In this fleet came Rowena, the beautiful niece of Hengist, whom Vortigern married. The Caledonians were driven out, but still the Saxons continued to draw over large numbers of their countrymen. Vortigern lost his influence, and was compelled to submit to his son Vortimer. The Britons finding the Saxons appropriating the island, endeavored to drive them out, but without success. Hengist made himself king of Kent, which was the first kingdom of the seven or eight which the Saxons founded.

4. Relate the fifth migration. Relate the sixth migration. The seventh.—On what occasion did the Romans withdraw from Britain the northern defences? At what time, and by whom were the Britains absolved from their allegiance to Rome? Who was Vortigern? What was done in consequence of an invitation from him and his people? What was done by the Saxons?—6. Who came with the sixteen ships? When the Britons found that the Saxons were appropriating the island, what was done? Give a farther account of Hengist.
Middle Hist.

PERIOD II.

CHAP. III.

The famous King Arthur with his "knights of the round table."

488. Hengist dies in Kent, aged 69. He had been in Britain 39 years; king of Kent 33.

490. Kent.—Comprising Kent and a part of Surrey. Hengist, the first king, was said to be descended from Odin, or Woden, the war-god of the Scandinavians.

509.—3. Wessex, (West Saxons.)—Founded by Cerdic, a Saxon general, from whom the Saxon kings of England are descended. King Arthur, with his knights, fought this general, and at Baden Hill, near Bath, defeated him, killing, it is said, four hundred with his own hand!

519.—590.

530.—593. 4. Essex, (East Saxons.)—Middlesex and London.

547.—559. 5. Bernicia.—Northumberland, Durham, and a portion of Scotland. This kingdom was founded by Ina, a reputed descendant of Odin.


575.—7. East-Anglia.—A small part of the eastern coast, called also Angle-land, from whence the name, England. The Saxons unanimously agreed to give this name to the country.

596.—8. Mucia.—Formed of a part of Deira,—the last established.

9. The monarchies of the Heptarchy were rather elective than hereditary; the king's power was little, only as he carried out the wishes of his nobles and people, who held councils called Witall, or Wittegemot. Ina, king of the West Saxons, was the first to assemble this body, which is considered the germ of the British parliament. It appears also, that these kingdoms held themselves bound by a species of undefined confederacy; and one of the sovereigns presided over the whole, whose office was called Bretwald. The first Bretwald was Hengist, the third Ethelbert, king of Kent, who subdued some of the other kingdoms; and the seventh and last was Oswy, of North-

7. What was done by Rowena? Who was Arthur? How many years were there of war? Whither were the inhabitants driven?—8. What were the kingdoms of the Heptarchy, or Octarchy?—9. Give an account of the government of the Saxons. What persons having the office of Bretwald are named?
umberland. So complete was the sway of the Saxons in the island, that their language became in a great degree that of the whole people. Perhaps three-fourths of the words in common use in the English language are of Saxon origin. It was during the Heptarchy that Christianity was introduced into England by Augustine.

10. FRANCE.—The Franks were also an association of the warlike tribes of Germany. They derived their name, which signifies freemen, from their love of liberty. They made conquests in Gaul, in the third century, and were governed by chiefs or kings of the family of Merovius. His grandson, Clovis, was chief of a tribe called the Sallian, and the founder of the French monarchy. When the Western empire was subverted by the barbarians, Gaul was at the time divided between the Visigoths, the Burgundians, and the Romans. Syagrius, the Roman commander in Gaul, had, in the declining days of the Roman empire, thrown off his allegiance, and established an independent government. Clovis took arms against him, defeated him at Soissons, and subjected the Roman provinces of Gaul to the sway of the Franks.

11. He next engaged in war with the Alemanni, an independent German nation, and defeated them in a great battle. In the course of the engagement, his troops were ready to give way. Clovis invoked the God of Clotilda, a Christian princess of Burgundy, whom he had married. Rallying his troops to the charge, he obtained the victory, embraced Christianity, and was baptized at Rheims. "Bend thy head, proud barbarian," said St. Reni, the bishop, as Clovis approached the sacred font. The conversion of the monarch was followed by that of great numbers of his subjects. His alliance, by marriage, with the Burgundians, secured their friendship; while his embracing the Catholic Athanasian faith, insured the powerful support of the clergy of Gaul, and afforded the subtle monarch an opportunity of turning their influence to advantage, in a war upon Alaric II., king of the Gallicio Visigoths, who held the Arian tenets, to which the clergy of Gaul were vehemently opposed. The armies of the Visigoths and Franks encountered each other in battle, near Poictiers. Alaric was slain, his forces defeated, and the provinces of Aquitaine and Thoulouse were added to the kingdom of the Franks.

12. On the death of Clovis, his extensive dominions were divided between his four sons. During the reign of these brothers, the dominion of the Franks was extended over Burgundy. The annals of the kingdom present an unravelling scene of en-
Theodoric The Great

MIDDLE Hist.

PERIOD II.

CHAP. III.

395 to 402.

Extent of the kingdom of the Suevi and Vandals. The Visigoths overpower them.

Ostrogoths overpowered by Attila, revolt and are allied to the Romans.

493.

Theodoric the Great, educated at Constantinople, founds in Italy the kingdom of the Ostrogoths.

Wise regulations of Theodoric.

Beathius put to death.

Mity, contention, violence, and bloodshed. Clotaire, the youngest of the four, finally reunited the nation under his sway. On his death, the kingdom was again divided between his four sons, and this second division was followed by crimes even more aggravated and horrid than the first. The death of these four princes, left Clotaire II., grandson of the former monarch of that name, undisputed sovereign of France.

13. SPAIN.—The Suevi and Vandals carried destruction over this flourishing portion of the Roman empire. Their monarchy at one period, extended from the Loire to Gibraltar, but the conquests of Clovis wrested from them the greater portion of their possessions in France. The Vandals, under Genserici, founded a new kingdom in Africa. Adolphus, whose marriage with Placidia was celebrated at Narbonne, proceeded to the conquest of this monarchy, and made a triumphal entry into Barcelona. Of his successors, Theodoric was slain at Chalons;—Euric became entirely independent of the Romans, and hence is regarded as the real founder of the Gothic monarchy in Spain.

14. ITALY.—In Italy was founded the kingdom of the Ostrogoths. This nation, subdued by the Huns, followed the standard of Attila in his invasion of the Roman empire. On his death they threw off their allegiance to the Huns, and by arms established their independence. Theodoric, the son of their monarch, was given as a hostage to Zeno, the emperor of the east, with whom the Ostrogoths formed an alliance. Theodoric was a youth of talents, ambition and courage; and after a residence of some years at the Byzantine court, he returned to his nation elevated above his rude subjects. The emperor Zeno, to divert the Gothic arms from his own dominions, gave Theodoric the kingdom of Italy, which Odoacer had wrested from the Romans. Theodoric defeated Odoacer, and established the kingdom of the Ostrogoths, upon the ruins of that of the Heruli.

15. Theodoric reigned thirty-three years. Under his government Italy was in a state of comparative peace. The Romans or Italians were left in possession of two-thirds of the lands, while the remainder was divided among the Goths. The Italians retained their laws, customs, dress, language, personal freedom, and had the civil administration. Theodoric executed Beathius, the last Roman orator, on the alleged charge of treason against the Gothic government; for which he was visited with remorse. He left no son, but on his death-bed he recommended to the nobles his daughter Amalasontsa, and her son, then ten years of age. The son soon died with disease, and the mother, after some years of able administration, was killed. Thudat suc—
ceeding who was soon displaced to make room for Vitiges. Belisarius then conquered the kingdom, and carried Vitiges captive to Constantinople. When Belisarius left Italy, the Goths revolted, and proclaimed for their king Totila, a brave and war-like prince. Him Narses defeated and slew; and Italy was annexed to the Eastern empire.

16. After the destruction of the kingdom of the Ostrogoths, the Eastern empire was ruled, as formerly, by the Exarchs of Ravenna. Their peace was disturbed by the ferocious Lombards, and their king Alboin. To the weak and often-conquered Italians, Alboin was invincible, and with hardly an effort, he made himself master of the greater part of Italy. But his reign was short. His wife, Rosamond, was a princess of the Gepidae, whose father Alboin murdered. He then compelled her to drink from a cup made of her father’s skull. She avenged the abominable act, by the death of her odious tyrant.

17. THE TURKS.—The original seat of the Turks was among the Altai mountains, in the interior of Asia. The race had been slaves to the Khan of Tartary, by whom they were employed in the manufacture of iron, of which great quantities were found among their native mountains. Leaders at length arose among these slaves, who induced them to throw off their allegiance to their masters. At different times they invaded China and Persia, and showed themselves dangerous enemies. In the wars of Heraclius, the Turks rendered him essential service. Their empire extended itself by degrees over the northern parts of Asia; while on the south their conquests included the nation of the White Huns, who possessed the cities of Bucharia and Samarcand.

16. Who founded the kingdom of the Lombards, and what was his character? What revolting act of his caused his death?—17. Give some account of the Turks.
PERIOD III.

THE ARABIAN REGIRA, 622. FOR FLIGHT OF
TO THE CORONATION 800. OF CHARLEMAGNE.

CHAPTER I.

Mahomet and his Religion.

1. Mahomet is one of the most remarkable men, and altogether the most successful impostor, who appears on the page of history. He was born in Mecca, and was a descendant of one of the most powerful families in Arabia. Early left an orphan, he was indebted for support to the kindness of an uncle, Abulfaleb; who, to instruct him in the business of a merchant, took him when only thirteen into Syria. He remained with his uncle until the age of twenty-five, when he engaged in the service of Khadijah, a rich widow of Mecca, whom he subsequently married, and thereby became one of the richest men of his native city. In his fortieth year he opened his alleged mission; having by previous sanctity and solitary watching in a cave prepared the minds of his family to receive it. To Kadijah he first imparted the story; declaring that the angel Gabriel had appeared to him in the cave, and told him that he was the chosen apostle of God. To love is to trust, and Khadijah believed her husband and rejoiced in his glory. Mahomet's next disciples were Zeid, his servant, Ali his cousin, and Abu Beker his friend.

PERIOD III.—CHAP. I.—1. Give some account of Mahomet and of his parentage. Who was his early protector? Who was Kadijah? At what age, and how, did Mahomet open his alleged mission? How did Kadijah receive his declaration of a divine mission? Who were his next followers?
2. It is probable that the great mind of Mahomet was from his youth teeming with his mighty plan; and that he pursued it in the deep silence of his own heart, many years before he began to develop it in action;—gathering information on every subject connected with it, and educating himself in secrecy. Acquainted with the Jewish and Christian systems, he followed them in the ideas which he inculcated of the Supreme Being. He acknowledged the veracity of their histories, the truth of their miracles, and the divine character of their teachers. His system, he declared, was the perfecting of theirs, he being the Comforter promised by Christ. He spent much time in his cave, and thence issued with the chapters of the Koran, one by one produced, and declared to have been received from the angel Gabriel.

3. These productions are works of genius; and as Mahomet professed himself illiterate, they appeared as miraculous evidence of the truth of his apostleship. Some suppose he kept a monk concealed who wrote them for him. It is far more probable that his time in the cave was spent in studies which he concealed from every eye, and that he thus became master of language, and wrote the Koran himself. He was forty before he opened his mission. He, who was wise enough to know that the faith of his wife was of the first consequence to his success, would be too wise to give himself a master, in any man who would be able at any moment to expose his imposture, or to put an end to it by withholding his assistance. The style of the Koran corresponds to that of Mahomet’s words and actions; and if another man of genius had been engaged in getting up the deception, he would have appeared to claim his share in the rewards of success. For these reasons, we believe that the Koran was both planned and executed by Mahomet himself.

4. After three years labor, Mahomet had only fourteen proselytes. He then invited his numerous relatives to a feast, and told them that the Almighty had commissioned him to call them to him. He offered them present and future happiness, and enquired who would be his vicar. Ali rose up, amidst the laughter of the company, and sternly accepted the office. Now, said they, jeeringly to Abu Taleb, the father of Ali, “You must obey your son.” Still there were those in whom Mahomet’s earnest manner and good character produced conviction. He then began to preach openly to the people, and incensed them by upbraiding them with their idolatry and crimes. His uncle Abu Taleb remonstrated in displeasure, and advised him to cease. “Not,” said Mahomet, “if you set the sun against me on the one hand, and the moon on the other.” Thus the grandeur of his genius
sustained him, and though he made many enemies, he gained a few sincere followers. He next took the bold measure of asserting that he had been favored with an entrance into the heavens, where on the throne of God was written, “There is no God but God, and Mahomet is his prophet.” This became afterwards the creed of his followers. The marvellous tales which he related shocked the faith of many who had before been his disciples; but while some laughed, and some mocked with bitter irony, others believed, and thus became the tools and dupes of him who deceived them.*

5. The powerful tribe of Koreish were Mahomet’s inveterate foes; and they treated his followers so rudely, that he led them forth for a time, but returned. His last flight was to save his life. Accompanied by his friend, Abu Beker, and two other persons, he hasted secretly to Medina. This was Mahomet’s lowest point of depression, and is made the era of his followers. His reception at Medina was the renewal of his hopes. The various tribes and inhabitants of Arabia were accustomed to pay their annual devotions in the Caaba or temple of Mecca. In their pilgrimages there, many of the citizens of Medina had listened to the eloquence of Mahomet, and come converts to his religion. He was now, in his distress, received by them with enthusiasm. Five hundred citizens advanced to meet him; the people unanimously embraced his faith, and swore allegiance to his person. Mahomet had, up to this time, propagated his religion peaceably. If they would not hear him, that, he said, was the affair of him who sent him, not his own. But now that Mahomet felt his power, he pretended to a new command. This proves the selfish wickedness of his imposture. God had now, he averred, directed him to propagate his religion by the sword; and the false prophet, at this time, promised a sensual paradise to those who died fighting in his cause.

6. The first military exploits of Mahomet and his followers were to intercept the caravans of Mecca, engaged in the Syrian trade. Abu Sophian, the head of the Koreishites, and the mortal foe of Mahomet, on returning from Syria with a wealthy caravan, was attacked; and by Mahomet’s personal intrepidity,

* The angel Gabriel, Mahomet said, came spreading seventy pair of wings, and bringing for his accommodation the milk-white mule Alborak. The wonders of his journey were manifold. One will serve as a specimen. Among the varieties of angels, he saw one in the form of a cock, his feet standing on the first heavens, and his head reaching to the second, five hundred days’ journey above, as men travel. When the Almighty sang his morning hymn, this angel-cock always crowed so loud, that he was heard throughout the whole universe except by men and fiends.

4. What pretence did he next boldly make? How was this received?

5. What tribe were the false prophet’s foes? What was Mahomet forced to do? What and when was his lowest point of depression? What is this point of time made? What proved the renewal of his hopes? Relate his reception at Medina. How had Mahomet up to this time propagated his religion? What new command did he now pretend to have received?—0. What were the first military exploits of Mahomet and his followers? Who was Abu Sophian?
defeated. The following year Abu Sophian attacked Medina with 10,000 men of various nations. Divisions were excited among the discordant tribes, and a tempest adding to their distress, Medina was saved. Mahomet's arms were next directed against Mecca, but the Koreishites defended it. A treaty was concluded by which hostilities were to be suspended for ten years, and the prophet was permitted to enter his native city as a pilgrim. His imposing entrance into the city—his devotion and eloquence, produced the conversion of multitudes. The truce was broken, Mahomet was victorious and entered Mecca as a conqueror. The citizens embraced his religion, and were pardoned for past offences. The submission of Mecca resulted in that of all the neighboring tribes. The idols were now every where destroyed, and the faith of Mahomet was established throughout Arabia. At the age of sixty-three, the false prophet died, having spread the terror of his name from the Euphrates to the Red Sea.

7. Abu Beker, his friend, was chosen as his successor, receiving the title of caliph or lieutenant. The Arabian tribes were unused to subjection, and on the death of Mahomet they rebelled, but were again reduced to submission; and the caliph's lieutenant, Caed, called by the Arabians the "Sword of God," conquered a part of Persia. Abu Obeidah, another of the Saracen commanders, conducted an army into Syria, where he met and defeated a formidable force sent by the emperor Heraclius to the defence of the province. The Saracens then invested Damascus, which, seeing no hope of succor, capitulated. Abu Obeidah permitted the Christians of that city to depart into exile; but after three days, Caed, led by an apostate Christian, pursued the fugitives, overtook them, and gave them up to indiscriminate slaughter.

8. Omar succeeded Abu Beker in the caliphate. Being informed by the aged and dying caliph that he was to be his successor, Omar said: "I do not want the place." "But," said Abu Beker, "the place wants you." During the first years of the reign of Omar, the Syrian war was prosecuted; and successive victories increased the enthusiasm, and augmented the numbers of the faithful. Damascus, Heliopolis, Jerusalem, Aleppo, and Antioch, successively fell before the Saracens; and in seven years after the death of the prophet, the whole province of Syria was added to the empire of the Saracens. In Persia they passed the Tigris and took Ctesiphon, when Yazdegird, the Persian monarch, fled for protection to the Turks.

9. The invasion of Egypt succeeded. The rapid success of the Mahometans in this province was in a degree owing to the
divisions and hatred existing among the different Christian sects at this period. The emperor of the east had persecuted a large portion of his Egyptian subjects, who welcomed the Moslems as deliverers. Memphis submitted without resistance, and Alexandria was taken after a siege of fourteen months. The great library of that enlightened city was destroyed. The caliph, when petitioned to spare it, replied, "If these writings of the Greeks agree with the Koran, they are useless, and need not be preserved; if they disagree with it, they are pernicious, and ought to be destroyed." In the reign of the succeeding caliph, Othman, the Saracens extended their conquests into the province of Africa.

10. Dissensions now arose among the Moslems with respect to the rightful succession to the caliphate. An insurrection resulted in the assassination of Othman; and Ali, the cousin of Mahomet, and one of his first four proselytes, was now elected to the office. The pretensions of Ali, who married Fatima, a daughter of the prophet, and of his descendants, the Fatimites, are the origin of the discord which has ever existed between the Persians and the Turks, who had now become Mahometans; the former espousing the interests of Ali, and the latter maintaining the equal sanctity of the three preceding caliphs. On the accession of Ali, the sceptre of the caliphs extended over the kingdoms of Persia, Syria, Arabia and Egypt. Yezdegerd, the last of the Persian monarchs, made an ineffectual attempt to recover his dominions, but betrayed by a servant, and deserted by his allies, he was slain in attempting to escape; and the religion of the Magi was thenceforth displaced by that of Mahomet.

11. The empire of the Saracens began to be weakened by internal dissensions and civil wars. Ali, though not engaged in the assassination of Othman, reaped the advantages derived from his death. Moawiyah, son of Abu Sophian, of the family of Ommiyah, to cover his own ambitious purposes, undertook to

9. Why were the Egyptian subjects of the Greek emperor not attached to his government? What was the progress of the Saracen arms among the cities? What became of the great Alexandrian library? What had Alexandria been for some ages past? What remarkable woman flourished there? (See note.) What conquest was begun in the reign of Othman?—10. Relate the manner of the accession of Ali. What dissension arose respecting the succession to the caliphate? How far did the caliphate now extend? Give some account of Yezdegerd.—11. Who was Moawiyah?
THE MOST IMPORTANT BATTLE RECORDED.

Avenge it. Amon, the viceroy of Egypt, espoused his cause. Moawiyyah was declared caliph at Damascus, and at the head of a large army marched against Ali. After a sanguinary conflict, in which many thousand Moslems perished, a truce was effected between the rival caliphs. Meantime some enthusiasts in the temple at Mecca planned the deliverance of the nation from these evils. Assassins were despatched to procure the death of Ali, Moawiyyah, and Amon. Ali was murdered, while Moawiyyah and Amon escaped. Moawiyyah succeeded to the caliphate, which was now changed into an hereditary office.

12. During the reign of the Omniyades, the lieutenants of the caliphs penetrated the deserts of Africa, and extended to Mount Atlas the terror of their arms. The Moorish tribes along the coast, after a short resistance, were conquered, converted, and adopted into the Arabian family.

13. The Goths of Spain were in possession of the garrison of Ceuta, on the African side of the straits. Here the Saracens were at first repulsed, but at length Count Julian, commander of the garrison, becoming a traitor, put them in possession of the fortress, and instigated them to the invasion of the Gothic kingdom of Spain. The obscure race of kings, who held sway over the monarchy founded by Adolphus in Spain, presents no name worthy of mention in history. A civil war had enabled Roderic, a noble Goth, to dethrone Witiza, the lawful king, and usurp the crown. It was at this period that the Saracens entered Spain. In a decisive battle at Xeres, in Andalusia, they established the Mahometan dominion. The princes and friends of Witiza's family revolted, and joined the Mahometans; and Roderic, "the last of the Goths," was drowned in the Guadquivir. The Goths submitted to the victor, but being Christians, were allowed the enjoyment of their own religion. The dominion of the Saracens extended from the Mediterranean to the Pyrenees. Pelagius, a member of the royal family, finding it impossible to resist the conquerors, retired with a band of followers to the mountains of Asturias, where he established an independent Christian kingdom.

14. The Arabian victors advanced beyond the Pyrenees, bent on the entire conquest of Europe. The valiant Charles Martel, of France, took the field against them. An ever memorable battle was fought near Tours, where an immense multitude were slain. The Saracens retired to Spain, and it is a remarkable fact, that they made no further attack upon the northern nations.

15. In pursuing the victorious course of the Arabs westward,
we have passed by the attempts made, under the caliph Muyyiyah, upon Constantinople. The Moslems attacked it in the summer, and retreated in the winter, for five successive years. At length the Greek fire was invented by Callinicus, of Helipolis, and brought by him to Constantinople. It was a composition of naphtha, pitch, and sulphur, which, when once ignited, could not be extinguished by water. It adhered to wood, and consumed whole fleets; when thrown upon the combatants, it insinuated itself between the joints of their armour, and they died a death of torture. It was projected by pistons, "took fire in the air, and approached its victims in the form of fiery dragons." In one winter the caliph lost a fleet and army; and not only retired, but concluded a peace, by agreeing to pay the emperor a tribute for thirty years. Thus providence barred the way of the Musselmans to the conquest of Europe, both in the west and the east.

16. Damascus was now the seat of the caliphate. The family of Ommiyah, although during ninety years they produced fourteen successive caliphs, yet had never been favorites with the Arabian people. Their early persecution of the prophet, and the tardiness with which they embraced the faith, made them suspected by the devout. The descendants of Ali and Fatima had abandoned their pretensions to the sovereignty, and by strict devotion to the observances of religion, had acquired great reputation for sanctity among their countrymen. The descendants of Abbas, the uncle of the prophet, were more aspiring in their views, and had secretly enlisted great numbers in their cause. The adherents of each of these factions was designated by the adoption of a peculiar color in their dress. The green was appropriated to the Fatimites; the white, to the Ommiyades; and the black to the Abbasides.

17. The contest of the white and black faction could only be terminated by a civil war. Abbas al Saffah, the chosen caliph of the Abbasides, and Merwan, the last of the Ommiyades, led their armies to battle. Merwan was defeated, and the Abbasides triumphed in the east. Abdalrahman alone, of the royal family of Ommiyah, escaped. Spain received the fugitive, and established him on the throne of Cordova, where, for more than two hundred years, his descendants reigned. The dynasty of the Abbasides was established in the east, and they made Bagdad their seat; but the unity of the empire was destroyed. Under these princes, of whom Haroun al Raschid, and his son Al Mamun, stand pre-eminent, learning was patronized, and the literature of Greece and Rome carried to the east.

18. Relate the attacks of the Saracens on Constantinople. What remarkable agent saved the city? By whom was it invented, and what its effect? 16. What was the seat of Caliphat at this period? What three factions existed among the Moslems, and how was each distinguished? 17. Between which was a civil war? Who escaped of the Ommiyades? Where did he reign? Where did the Abbasides fix the seat of government? Which was the most illustrious of these, and what did he encourage? Refer to the map, and look over the chapter, and point out all the country which the Mahometans had now conquered.
CHAPTER II.

The Eastern Empire.—The Church.—The Empire of Charlemagne.

1. EASTERN EMPIRE.—Heraclius lived to see the Syrian province severed from his dominion, and Jerusalem in the hands of the Moslems. The successors of Heraclius, for a considerable period, present no name worthy of record; and the annals of the empire are marked with revolting accounts of intrigues, assassinations, and petty revolutions of the palace. The cruel and shameful vices of Justinian II. produced general disaffection. Being deposed and expelled from the empire, he retired to Bulgaria, a new kingdom on the north-western shore of the Euxine. The Bulgarians furnished him an army, with which he recovered his throne. His cruelties again produced an insurrection, during which he was assassinated. With him perished the last of the race of Heraclius.

2. The Isaurian dynasty commenced with Leo III., who rose from an obscure origin. In his reign was the commencement of the controversy respecting the worship of images; the Roman church contending for the practice, and the Greek church against it. This dispute separated the eastern and western churches, and contributed to disengage Italy from all dependence upon the Greek or Byzantine empire. Image worship was, however, restored by the infamous Irene, who was the empress of Leo IV., and mother of Constantine VI. The death of Leo, while Constantine was but ten years of age, placed the imperial government in her hands. When Constantine arrived at maturity, she still wished to retain the power; and hence bitter enmity arose between the mother and the son. Ambition stifled every sentiment of nature and humanity, and the horrid woman deprived her son of his sight and his life! After Irene had reigned five years, Nicephorus, her treasurer, seized the throne, and doomed her to exile in the island of Lesbos, where she earned a scanty subsistence by spinning.

3. CHURCH HISTORY.—The bishops, or overseers of the Christian churches, at first demeaned themselves in the meek spirit of the founder of their religion. But at length they sought temporal power, and worldly advantage. The bishops

* There were four general councils of bishops and doctors, called Eccumenical Councils. The first was convoked (325) by Constantine, and was held at Nice, in Asia Minor. The Nicene Creed was here adopted. The patriarchs of Alexandria and Constantinople presided alternately. The second was convoked (381) by Theodosius, and held at Constantinop-

CHAP. II. — 1. What was the condition of the Greek empire? Give some account of Justinian II. Of a new nation which had arisen.—2. What dispute occurred in the reign of Leo the Isaurian? What kind of a person was it who restored image worship in Constantinople? Of what horrid act was she guilty?—3. What may be said of the bishops of the Christian churches in the first century? Where were the four general councils held?
of the great cities assumed authority over those of the surrounding country; and Rome, Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem became the seats of ecclesiastical power; and their bishops might be said to constitute an oligarchy in the church. By degrees, those of Rome and Constantinople became predominant, and each regarded the other with jealous rivalry. This unholy spirit broke into action on the question of image-worship; and, as we have seen, severed into two branches the visible church. Pepin’s gift, confirmed by Charlemagne, made a temporal dominion for the bishop of Rome, now called pope. The ambition of these potentates grew as it was gratified, till they aspired to universal dominion. Theodorus I. (642) assumed the title of sovereign pontiff. Gaining one concession after another from Christian princes, the pope of Rome became, through the dark ages, a king of kings; nay more—he assumed to be in the place of God.

4. Monachism, or Monkery, was another feature of the dark ages. Paul of Thebes, in Egypt, fled from the persecution of Decius to a cavern, where dates were his food, and palm leaves his clothing. St. Anthony, another Egyptian, abode in a hut in the desert, and made his filth his feast. At a little distance were the cabins of other ascetics, whom also the fame of Anthony’s sanctity had attracted to be his followers. Soon the practice of retiring to poverty and religious seclusion became general; and monasteries, or houses to contain devotees, both male and female, were erected, and were governed by a superior, called abbot or abbess. The first monastery of the west was founded by St. Benedict, at Casino, near Naples. Convents soon afterwards erected in France. St. Patrick, who introduced Christianity into Ireland, issued from one of these.

5. The idea prevailed, that to torture the body, was to do good to the soul, and was meritorious with God; this was the principle of Aceticism, and was carried to an astonishing length. Simon Stylites lived thirty years on the top of a lofty column. Convents soon existed in all Christian countries; and a host of monks and nuns took vows of celibacy and religious seclusion. But these changes had their causes in the condition of the times. The feudal system had made the great barons so many petty sovereigns; and except when the king was a man of commanding mind, they were wholly unrestrained.

The third was convoked (431) by Theodosius the Younger, and was held at Ephesus. St. Cyril, the patriarch of Alexandria, presided. The fourth was convoked (451) by Marcial, and held at Chalcedon, when it was decided that the church at Constantinople should have the same privileges as that of Rome. The opinions of Arius were the occasion of these councils, and although respectable minorities were in favor of them, they were condemned by the majority.
The fierce passions of these irresponsible lords were ever ready to break out into actions of murder and rapine. Females were allowed no choice in marriage, but were disposed of by fathers or brothers; or, if heiresses, by their liege lords. When the ecclesiastical power was the only appeal of the oppressed, and the convent the only refuge of the victim,—it is no wonder that many good men sought to exalt the power of the clergy, and to found monasteries.

6. The Feudal System is a term used to express the manner in which the chiefs, who conquered by the aid of their armies, and settled in the conquered countries, divided the lands among their followers; and the liabilities and privileges growing out of this division. When the chief, or king, saw the whole undivided territory on the one hand, and the body of his followers wishing to settle it on the other, the question naturally arose, how should he divide it? The unsettled state of the world was to be considered. If he divided it among his people, without preserving a warlike attitude, they would become the prey of some of the armed hordes, still moving in search of settlements. The leader, therefore, after retaining what he chose, gave out the lands in large portions to his principal captains,—on condition of their doing homage to him, paying a certain sum of money, and appearing in the field with a certain number of retainers, whenever he called for their aid. These chief officers, after keeping what they desired for their own use, divided the remainder of the land assigned them, to their own favorites; who were to furnish money and soldiers to them, as they were to the king. The conquered inhabitants who remained became slaves, and were transferable with the lands. These kings rose by their own prowess; but on settling with their nation, the monarchy was generally first elective in their families, then hereditary.

7. In France, the Merovingian dynasty, the degenerate descendants of Clovis, still remained upon the throne. In the disorders consequent upon the weakness or minority of these monarchs, the regency, or administration of government, was committed to the mayor of the palace, who combined the offices of judge and of steward of the household. These mayors acquired such an extent of power, that the authority of the monarch was little more than nominal. One of these officers, Pepin d’Heristal, headed the nobles in a contest against the king and the people; and, after six years of war and confusion, was victorious in the battle of Tostry. By this he established his authority, and made it hereditary. He was succeeded by his son Charles Martel. It was during his administration that the Saracens

5. Why in those times might good men wish to set up the ecclesiastical authority and form monasteries? What is meant by the feudal system? What considerations would induce the chiefs in those times to preserve a warlike attitude? How were the conquered lands divided? What became of the conquered inhabitants? Was the kingly office then hereditary? What officers in France had set their authority above that of the monarchs? Which of them made the office hereditary? What account can you give of his son?
conquered France, from the Garonne to the Rhone. Charles collected his warriors, and fought with them the great battle of Tours, which lasted seven days. He defeated the invaders with a very great loss, and recovered the provinces. This battle in its results is probably the most important ever fought,—influencing not only the destiny of France, but of all Europe,—and putting a check to the final progress of the Mahometan religion. Charles did not assume the name of king, but exercised the full power.

8. He was succeeded in the mayoralty by his son Pepin, who, performing the functions, aspired to the title of sovereign. The aid of Zachary, bishop of Rome, now known by the appellation of pope, was sought by Pepin, who inquired of him, "Whether a prince incapable of governing, or a minister invested with royal authority, and who supported it with dignity, ought to have the title of king?" The pope decided in his favor. The people were absolved from their allegiance, their consciences quieted,—and Childeric III., the last of the Merovingian race, was deprived of his crown, and shut up in a monastery. Pepin was crowned king of France, at Soissons, by St. Boniface, bishop of Mentz. He was not unmindful of his obligations to the pope. In his wars with Astolphus, king of the Lombards, he conquered from them the exarchate of Ravenna, which they had wrested from the Greek empire. This he gave to the pope, who thereby became a temporal sovereign. The kings of France were recognized as patricians of Rome.

9. Pepin was succeeded by his sons Charles and Carloman. The sovereignty of France could hardly be considered as hereditary at this period, as the consent of the nobles was required to the accession of these princes. The death of Carloman left the whole kingdom to Charles. This prince gave early indications of those qualities which gained him the name of Charles the Great, or Charlemagne. He found a pretext for invading the kingdom of Lombardy, in the hostilities of Desiderius against the pope. Charlemagne crossed the great St. Bernard from Geneva, and successively took Pavia and Verona. Lombardy was soon reduced to submission, and the king made captive. Charlemagne next visited Rome, where he was received, by pope Adrian I., with every demonstration of joy, and hailed as the deliverer of the church. He caused himself to be crowned king of Lombardy.

10. The Saxons now extended from Bohemia to the German ocean, and from the Rhine to the Baltic. They had often been

7. What is said of the battle of Tours? From whom are the succeeding kings called the Carolingian dynasty?—8. What question was submitted by Pepin to the arbitration of the pope? What was the decision? Who was the last of the Merovingian kings, and what became of him? What did Pepin give to the pope which made him a temporal sovereign? How did Pepin obtain his title to the exarchate of Ravenna?—9. Who succeeded Pepin? Give an account of Charles. Who was Desiderius? Relate Charlemagne's invasion of his kingdom, and the result. Where did he next go? Of what kingdom was he crowned king?
forced to pay tribute to the monarchs of France, and as often revolted. Charlemagne made war upon them; but it was not till after thirty years of arduous contest, that he reduced them to submission. Witikind, the most valiant and renowned of their chiefs, at length embraced Christianity, and resigned his arms. Charlemagne then obliged the Saxon people, under penalty of death, to receive baptism. He invaded and conquered the Huns and Sclavonians. He then turned and attacked the Saracens of Spain, and annexed to his dominions the territory between the Pyrenees and the Ebro. On his return, as the rear of his army, loaded with booty, passed Roncesvalles, his nephew, Roland, and many of the knights, were attacked by the Gascons, and though brave, they perished in the valley.

11. Until the emperor, Leo the Isaurian, had outraged the feelings of the Catholics by the proscription of image-worship, the authority of the Byzantine court had been acknowledged in Rome. Gregory II., now pope, remonstrated; but finding his efforts for the removal of the edict ineffectual, he excited the people to vindicate what they considered the cause of religion. Rome and Ravenna revolted, and all Italy flew to arms. The statues of the emperors were broken, and at Ravenna, the exarch, and many of the Iconoclasts, or image-breakers, were massacred; and thus the eastern and western churches became ultimately divided.

12. Luitprand, the ambitious king of the Lombards, availed himself of these disorders, took Ravenna, and subdued all the cities of the exarchate. The Greek emperors recovered Ravenna, and continued their persecution of image-worship; and the popes not less zealously continued to favor it. Astolphus, of Lombardy, again subdued Ravenna, and threatened Rome. The pope, Stephen III., went in person to the court of Pepin, who, as has been related, conquered the exarchate, and gave it to the See of Rome. Charlemagne, after conquering the Lombards, affected to confirm the gift of his father to the Holy See, adding to it all the cities and islands which had been annexed to the exarchate. Yet, during the life of Charlemagne, these dominions were dependent upon his power; and both Ravenna and Rome were numbered in his list of the metropolitan cities of his Great Empire of the West.
MAP NO. 8

MIDDLE EUROPE

Exhibiting the Empire
OF THE
HARIJER

The Empire of Charlemagne comprised
A.D. 800, the whole of France, most part of
Germany, with northern and central Italy,
Saxonia, Bohemia, and the north-east
districts of Spain.
PERIOD IV.

FROM THE CORONATION OF CHARLEMAGNE, 800, TO THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE CRUSADES, 1100.

CHAPTER I.

Empire of Charlemagne.

1. At the coronation of Charlemagne, Pope Leo III., after placing the crown upon his head, saluted him with the title of emperor of the Romans. He had quelled the barbarous nations of Europe, with the exception of the Danes, or Normans, and his kingdom comprised France, Germany, Italy, and the north of Spain. From the east Irene, the empress of Constantinople, sought his friendship; and even the caliph of Bagdad, the princely Haroun al Raschid, entered into a correspondence with him, and sent him the keys of the holy sepulchre of Jerusalem. Charlemagne, though a barbarian who at first could not write his name, but "signed his treaties with the hilt of his sword, and enforced them with its point," had yet great sympathy with learned men. After he was a conqueror, he took as a master in certain sciences, Alcuin, an English ecclesiastic, and he founded the university of Paris, the first in Europe.
Charlemagne had daughters whom he was careful to have instructed in the duties of their sex; and he had two brave and warlike sons, by whose death his last years were darkened;—and the invasion of the Norman pirates, whom he foresaw would distress his people, it is said, melted him to tears.

2. Louis, surnamed, from his meekness, "le Debonnaire," was ill qualified to govern the great empire to which, on the death of his father, he succeeded. He early associated his three sons with himself in the empire. Bernard, son of Pepin, Charlemagne's eldest son, had been previously placed on the throne of Italy. He now revolted, claiming that as the son of an elder brother, his right to the empire was superior to that of his uncle. Bernard was made prisoner by Louis, and being condemed to the loss of his eyes, he survived only three days. Louis, seized with remorse for his cruelty to his nephew, impeached himself, and requested the clergy to condemn him to penance; and they gladly seized this opportunity of humbling the civil power at the feet of the ecclesiastical.

3. Meanwhile, the birth of a son, Charles the Bald, by a second marriage, made Louis desirous of another division of his dominions, which should give this son an inheritance with his brothers. Lothaire, his eldest, who was associated with him in the government of the empire, at first consented to a new division. He soon, however, repented, and joined his younger brothers, Pepin and Louis, to whom had been assigned the kingdoms of Aquitaine and Bavaria. The three openly rebelled against their father. Pope Gregory IV. joined the party of Lothaire, who was proclaimed emperor. The father was imprisoned in the monastery of Soissons. The nobility, however, soon returned to their allegiance, took Louis from the convent, and restored him to the throne. Lothaire was forgiven by his father, and permitted to retain the kingdom of Italy. On the death of Louis, his sons turned their arms against each other. Pepin, to whom had been assigned Aquitaine, was dead, and his possessions had been given by his father to Charles the Bald. Lothaire, however, grasped at the whole empire. His brothers united against him; and the blood of thousands flowed to gratify the ambition and hatred of men, who should have shown to each other only kindness and affection.

4. The civil war was succeeded by a negotiation, in which a new division of the empire was made. Lothaire, with the imperial title, was left in possession of Italy, and the north-eastern part of France, known by the name of Austrasia. To Charles the Bald were assigned Neustria and Aquitaine, while Louis

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1. How did he have his daughters instructed? What sources of grief had he in his last years?—2. Give an account of Charlemagne's successor.—3. For what purpose did he make a second division of his dominions? What did his three elder sons? With whom did the pope take part, and what followed? By whom was Louis restored? How did Louis treat Lothaire? What occurred on the death of Louis?—4. How did Lothaire, Louis, and Charles the Bald divide the empire among themselves?
retained possession of Germany. Thus fell the empire of Charlemagne. Divided among his grandsons, and sub-divided among their successors, its several portions became the scene of anarchy.

5. The Normans, or Danes, took advantage of these disturbances, and spread devastation in the dominions of Charles the Bald, even to the neighborhood of Paris. Lothaire, the emperor, in his declining days, divided his dominions between his sons, and sought, by retirement and penance, to expiate the sins of his former life. His eldest son succeeded to the imperial honours under the title of Louis II.

6. Louis of Germany governed his dominions with considerable ability. On his death, they were divided between his three sons. Caroloman governed Bavaria; Louis, Saxony; and Charles, Swabia. Louis II., emperor and king of Italy, dying without sons, the Pope espoused the interest of his uncle, Charles the Bald, who now received at his hands the imperial crown. In virtue of his authority as emperor, Charles was compelled to cross the Alps for the protection of Italy, which was invaded by the Saracens, and during this expedition he died.

7. The successors of Charles are little worthy of a place in history. His son, Louis the Stammerer, reigned but a few months, and was succeeded by his two sons, Louis and Caroloman. The death of these princes, while their brother, Charles the Simple, was yet a minor, transferred the crown of France to Charles the Fat, son of Louis the German king, who had inherited the possessions of his brothers, and had already obtained the imperial crown. Thus, under this monarch, was nearly reunited the empire of Charlemagne. His incapacity for governing it was, however, soon apparent. The Normans again appeared, and besieged Paris for two years, during which the wonderful exploits of Eudes, Count of Paris, and of his brother Robert, saved the city. The inefficiency of Charles, who engaged to pay money to the Normans, on condition of their departure, displeased his subjects, and he was deposed. Charles the Simple, yet a minor, was declared king, and the valiant Eudes held the sovereign authority in trust. The Germans made Arnold, an illegitimate descendant of Charlemagne, their king.

8. Eudes died 898. With all his valor and ability, he had found himself unable to heal the disorders of the realm, which the weakness of Charles the Simple increased. The barons obtained from him a decree, making their estates and titles he-

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4. Did the empire of Charlemagne longer exist?—5. What barbarians invaded France?—6. What portion of France? Who was the successor of Lothaire?—7. Give some account of the affairs of Germany. What is further said of Charles the Bald?—7. Give some account of his successors. Under whom was the empire nearly reunited? Who saved Paris from the incursions of the Normans? Who was the real sovereign of France while Charles the Simple was the nominal one? What account can you give of Arnold?—8. What concessions did the barons gain from Charles the Simple?
ROLLO, OR DUKE ROBERT.

reditary in their families, and this is considered the beginning of modern nobility. They were also permitted to fortify their castles, which Charlemagne had prohibited, but which the attacks of the Normans rendered necessary. In process of time, however, this, with other measures, left the nobles a mere nominal dependence on the crown; and they exercised within their respective domains, the rights of sovereign princes, and France was filled with the miseries arising from their continual depredations upon each other.

9. The Normans, or Danes, made a new incursion, and spread devastation far and wide, plundering even the churches, and carrying terror and dismay into the remotest parts of the country. The martial spirit seemed wholly to have deserted the sons of the Franks; and with the most astonishing cowardice, they suffered themselves to be plundered, and even butchered by the barbarians. Under the command of their celebrated chief Rollo, they sailed up the Seine, and made themselves masters of Rouen, which they fortified. Charles, unable to repel the invaders, ceded to them the province of Nuestra, thereafter called Normandy, and gave to Rollo his daughter in marriage. The Norman chief was, however, to do homage to Charles, kneeling and kissing the royal toe. Though willing to acknowledge the supremacy of the king of France, the haughty Rollo was displeased with the manner. At length it was arranged that one of his officers should perform the ceremony in his name. His substitute, as unwilling to stoop as his master, under pretence of carrying his majesty’s foot to his mouth, overthrown him in the presence of his court; and Charles, unable to revenge the insult, submitted to it in silence.

10. The Normans became converts to Christianity, and Rollo was baptized, receiving the name of Robert. He adopted the feudal system, dividing Normandy into large shares among his chief captains, on condition of their doing homage to him, and bringing to the field a stipulated number of followers. These chief officers divided the remainder of the land thus assigned them, each among his own favorites, who were to furnish soldiers to these chiefs, as they themselves were to the sovereign, who, in Normandy, received the title of duke. This was an improvement upon the course of things among barbarians; as it was better that men should settle down and cultivate the soil, feeling that they possessed it, than that they should be wandering robbers; and in order that other freebooters should not destroy them, as they had the unresisting inhabitants who preceded them, it was necessary to keep up a military organisation. But in the process of time, the feudal system became exceedingly oppressive to the serfs, or villains, as the lowest class were denominated; and the former inhabitants of the
conquered countries were always of this lowest class. Their condition was essentially that of slaves, as they were liable to be sold with the land. They could not, however, be transferred but with the soil; and hence families were not liable to be forcibly disunited.

11. A shadow of royalty alone remained to the degraded descendants of Charlemagne; many of the nobles possessing more resources and greater power than the monarch. **Hugh the Great**, son of the duke of Brittany, put up kings, and put them down at his pleasure. At length his son, **Hugh Capet**, in 989, added to the power, the title of king of France, and was the founder of the Capetian dynasty.

12. Five nations, each governed by their own laws, and their own dukes, the Franconians, the Saxons, the Swabians, the Bavarians, and Lorrainers, composed at this time the German Confederation. Among their princes were able men, and they determined to choose, in a pressing emergency, (the terrible Huns having invaded them,) one of their own number as their emperor. Assembled in diet at Worms, the electors of these nations conferred upon **Conrad**, the duke of Franconia, the imperial dignity. The reign of Conrad was disquieted by the rebellion of some of the powerful nobles of the empire, and by the irruptions of the Huns, who spread themselves over Pannonia, which from them received the name of Hungary. From hence they extended their ravages to the Baltic,—passed the Rhine, and desolated France and the northern part of Italy. Germany was, however, the scene of their most destructive inroads. Conrad became weary of the cares of state, and recommended a rival, who had sought to deprive him of power, as his successor, because he believed his talents fitted him to be an able sovereign. This was **Henry the Fowler**, duke of Saxony. He obtained a decided victory over the Hungarians, which, though it did not effectually subdue their power, yet freed the Germans from their depredations. He was succeeded by **Otto the Great**.

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**CHAPTER II.**

**Britain.**

1. The most interesting event which happened during the Heptarchy was the introduction of Christianity. The period of

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10. Did this tend to equality in the circumstances of men, or what was its tendency?—11. What was the condition of Charlemagne's descendants? What father and son supplanted the Carolingian monarchs and founded a new dynasty? What was it called?—12. Explain the condition of the Germans, and what they now did in reference to the sovereign.

**Chap. II.**—1. When and by whom was Christianity introduced into England? Who was the first martyr?
this, is generally reckoned to be that of the visit of St. Augustine, 596; although there had been Christians much earlier. St. Alban, England’s first martyr, suffered in the persecutions of Diocletian. After much bloodshed, the seven kingdoms which formed the Saxon heptarchy, were united under one monarch, Egbert, king of Wessex. The council of the Witanagemot was composed of about thirty persons, the most powerful in the kingdom, whether lay-men or ecclesiastics; and probably rather hereditary than elective. Their consent was necessary to all laws. Their laws, however, show the barbarity of the times. For murder, offenders were fined, and in proportion to the rank of the person murdered. For a king, the sum was very large; for an earl or bishop about one-fifth as much; for a serf, less than a hundredth. The tranquillity of Egbert’s reign was disturbed by the depredations and assaults of some of the most fierce and fearless of barbarians; who, under the names of sea-kings, Normans, Northmen, and Danes, ranged in ships, pirates at sea, and robbers on land. He encountered them in battle; and though he obtained two successive victories over them, still their ships brought new swarms.

2. Under his successor, Ethelwolf, the nation suffered still more severely from their ravages. Ragnor Ladbrog, a noted sea-king, had been killed in England by Ella, one of the Saxon princes; and to avenge his death, no less than to glut their appetite for plunder, murder, and rapine, these terror native natives of the peninsula of Jutland, commanded by the sons of Ladbrog, again united their forces to ravage England. They landed in great bodies, plundered and desolated the country, made prisoners of the inhabitants, and when attacked by the English, retreated with their booty to their ships. A succession of three weak and inefficient princes, Ethelbald son of Ethelwolf, and Ethelbert and Ethelfred his sons, was followed by the reign of Alfred, the younger son of Ethelwolf.

3. In his early youth, Alfred had accompanied his father in a pilgrimage to Rome, and on his return visited Paris; thus gaining some insight into the characters and situations of other and more civilized nations. At the age of twelve he was ignorant of the art of reading, an acquisition at that time rare; but he delighted in hearing Anglo-Saxon songs. One day he discovered in the hands of queen Judith, a French princess whom his father had married, a written volume of her favorite poems. She promised him that as soon as he could read the volume, he should possess it. He eagerly applied himself to the task, and soon obtained the valued trophy of his victory. At the age of twenty-two he ascended the throne. The Danes were now more formidable than ever. Alfred gained some ad-
vantages over them, and they stipulated to retire; but receiving
reinforcements, they violated their treaty. The young prince
fought eight battles with them in one year; but they swarmed
upon the coast in greater numbers than before.

4. The Saxons believed themselves abandoned by heaven,
and Alfred sought in vain to rally them. He then took the
habit of a peasant, determining to reserve himself for more fa-
vorable times. To make his disguise the more complete, he
laid aside his princely bearing, as well as his regal robes, and
with the dress and language of a rustic, he offered his services
to a herdsman, and faithfully tended his cows as they grazed.
Once, when his mistress had desired him to watch and turn the
cakes at the fire, his mind wandered to other things, and the
good wife scolded him for permitting the cakes to burn. Yet,
knowing his fault, he submitted patiently. He was beloved by
the honest pair, whom he afterwards gratefully rewarded. At
length Oddune, earl of Devon, whose castle the Danes had
besieged, made a sally, and took from them what they supersti-
tiously believed to be an enchanted banner. Alfred now seeing
cause to hope for better days, made himself known to some of
his nobles who had in readiness their forces. He then took a
bold resolution. Disguised as a wandering minstrel, and beari-
g a harp, he entered the camp of the Danes; and while his
music entertained them, they unsuspectingly suffered him to ob-
serve their careless security. He also learned that they were
about to celebrate a festival. Quitting the hostile camp, he re-
vealed himself publicly to his rejoicing subjects, who had
thought him dead. They collected from all quarters, attacked
the astonished Danes on the day of their celebration, and
gained an easy, but complete victory.

5. Alfred granted the Danes permission to settle in Northum-
berland and East Anglia, on condition of their being governed
by his laws, and embracing Christianity. They were accord-
ingly baptized; and the king himself stood godfather for Guth-
rum their chief. The civil and military institutions of Alfred
have acquired for him the admiration of posterity. The love
of letters manifested in youth, continued through life; and,
though burdened with the cares of government, and harassed
with vexatious wars, he yet found time, at the age of thirty-
eight, to study the Latin language, and to write several works
of reputation. He founded the university of Oxford, and he
formed a system of jurisprudence, which is supposed to be the
foundation of English common law. He established a navy,
which is considered as the commencement of the greatest naval
power the world has ever witnessed. In short, it was Alfred

4. Give an account of Alfred's subsequent changes of fortune till the bat-
tle of Ethandune.—5. Where did he permit the Danes to settle, and on
what condition? What did Alfred accomplish to merit the admiration of
posterity? Do you find any vice to counterbalance his accomplishments
and virtues? You have now read the history of many sovereigns, have you
found this a common case?
who laid the foundation of the British monarchy. Nor do we find one act of inhumanity or vice, one habit of indolence or irregularity, to sully the fair fame of his public virtue. He had fought fifty-six battles; but his wars were those of defence and ever unstained by ambition or cruelty.

6. The three immediate successors of Alfred were able princes who held the government with a firm hand. These were Edward the Elder, his son and successor, who built many fortresses and subdued the Danes; Athelstan, natural son of Edward, who is much renowned in history for the victories he obtained over these and other barbarians by whom the kingdom was assailed; and Edmund the Elder, who conquered Northumberland from the Britons and bestowed it on Malcolm, king of Scotland, on condition that he should do homage to him, and defend the northern frontier from the Danes. The reign of Edred, his brother and successor, is memorable for the establishment of monasteries in England; and for the influence which Dunstan, abbot of Glastonbury, possessed over this superstitious monarch.

7. Edred left the throne to Edwy, a prince of seventeen, elegant in his person, and ardent in his affections. The beautiful Elgiva, his second cousin, had captivated his youthful heart, and he married her, contrary to the decree of the church, which forbade marriage between persons of this degree of affinity. Dunstan denounced and insulted him; and he boldly banished the monk from the realm. But the spirit of fanaticism, the prevailing spirit of the age, was on the side of the church. Odo, archbishop of Canterbury, tore Elgiva from her husband, and caused her face to be scarred with a red hot iron, to destroy the beauty which had ensnared the king. The hapless wife escaped from the cruel hands of her persecutors, and was returning to her husband, when they took the fugitive, murdered her, and dethroned the wretched Edwy; who, forsaken by his subjects, and excommunicated by the retentive clergy, soon rested from his sorrows in death.

8. Edgar, a boy of thirteen, brother to Edwy, succeeded him; and Dunstan, who had now returned, took the government in the name of the young prince. This monk set himself against the marriages of the secular clergy, and obliged great numbers of them to separate from their families. He was also

* This monk concealed great ambition under the cloak of sanctity. The ignorance and credulity of those times cannot be better illustrated than by the stories which he made the people believe. In his miserable cell, the devil, as he said, by his holy mortifications, annoyed him by frequent conflicts. At length, he came one day in the shape of a woman. St. Dunstan seized him by the nose with a pair of red-hot pincers. Satan roared and bellowed, and after this never dared show his face to the valiant monk.

6. What were the names and characters of the three immediate successors of Alfred? (Always in answering such questions, give the names in the order of time.) For what is the reign of Edred memorable? Who was Dunstan?—7. Relate the history of Edwy and Elgiva.
active in endowing monasteries, and thus shutting up in idleness many men whose services the kingdom needed. Edgar, as he grew to manhood, saw the difficulty of his situation, and in reality proved the master spirit of his kingdom; but his character presents us greatness without virtue. Flattering the monks, he preserved their favor; and unrestrained by moral principle, he violated, in the pursuit of pleasure, all laws, human and divine. He built and supported a powerful navy, which he divided into three squadrons, commanding each to make by turns, the circuit of his dominions, thus keeping the seamen in practice, and intimidating the Danes. Edgar married for his second wife, Elfrida, the daughter of a nobleman, more celebrated for her beauty than her virtues.*

9. EDWARD II., son of Edgar by his first marriage, was raised by Dunstan to the throne, in opposition to the wishes of Elfrida, who desired her own son, Ethelred, to receive the crown. He obtained the surname of the martyr; for the wicked Elfrida soon caused him to be murdered; thus securing the crown for Ethelred.

10. The Danes, with fresh hopes and recruited strength, again entered England, and the weak monarch gave them money to depart. This was both a lure and an acknowledgment of weakness; and, as if to add yet another inducement to the myriads of the northern hive, the weak and cruel son of Elfrida gave orders for a general massacre of all the Danes in his dominions; and the order was executed with the most barbarous inhumanity. Among the number was Gunhilda, sister of Sweyn, the powerful king of Denmark—a Christian princess, married to a nobleman of England. The mother was made to witness the dying agonies of her children, who were put to death before her face; after which she was herself inhumanly slain. The fierce wrath of Sweyn was enkindled. He collected a formidable armament, landed in the west of England, and carried fire and sword through the land. The timid Ethelred fled to Robert, duke of Normandy, (whose sister

*The fame of her beauty had reached the monarch, and he sent Ethelwold, his favorite, to see if her charms deserved the praise bestowed upon them. Ethelwold, enamored of her herself, falsely told his master that report had exaggerated her beauty—but that she was a rich heiress, and would be a desirable match for himself. Edgar promoted the union. Afterwards, suspecting the treachery, he determined to visit the castle of Ethelwold. The distressed husband confessed to his wife the fault his passion had led him to commit, and besought her to conceal her beauty as much as possible. But Elfrida was careful to attire herself in the most becoming manner. The monarch was charmed, slew the husband with his own hand, and married Elfrida. She who had thus connived at the destruction of her husband, carried dissension and disaster into the royal family.

8. Give an account of the reign and character of Edgar. What was Dunstan engaged in bringing about?—9. What was the name and fate of Edgar’s successor?—10. What was done by Ethelred in relation to the Danes? Give an account of their massacre. Who avenged the death of Gunhilda?
Emma he had married for his second wife. * Sweyn died before he had time to establish himself in his conquered dominions.

11. Ethelred returned to England, but found Canute, the son and successor of Sweyn, a powerful adversary. The death of Ethelred left his eldest son Edmund Ironside to carry on the war. Edmund, though brave, was unable to resist the war-like Danes, surrounded as he was by the treacherous machinations of his own subjects. He was defeated in a battle, and compelled to relinquish a part of his territories. Canute received the northern part of the kingdom, while Edmund was left in possession of the south. But this monarch, worthy of a better fate, was assassinated by two of his rebellious subjects in the interest of Canute, who then seized on the dominions of Edmund, and became sovereign of the entire kingdom. To strengthen his title he married Emma* the widow of Ethelred.

12. Canute sent back a part of his followers into Denmark, and restored the Saxon laws and customs. After this he returned to Denmark, and conquered Sweden and Norway; when he returned to reside in England. Canute became weary of the flatterers, who pronounced him omnipotent. He ordered his chair placed by the sea shore, and commanded the advancing tide to stop; but it moved onwards and wet his robe—when, turning to his flatterers, he sternly rebuked them. On his death, his sons Harold and Hardicanute successively obtained the crown of England. On the death of the latter the English threw off the Danish yoke, and recalled Edward, summoned, on account of his piety, “the Confessor.” He was the son of Ethelred and Emma, and had been under the protection of his maternal uncle, the duke of Normandy. The reign of Edward was disturbed by rebellions among his nobility, some of whom openly aspired to the crown.

13. The death of Edward the Confessor, who was the last of the Saxon kings, left the succession to the English throne open

* Emma was a descendant of Rollo; her father, Richard the Good, of Normandy, being Rollo’s great grandson. She is remarkable as a connecting link in the English history. She married two of the kings of England, Ethelred, to whom she was the second wife, and by whom she had two sons, Alfred and Edward; and after his death Canute, by whom she had one son, Hardicanute. Edmund Ironside was her step-son, as was the second Harold, so that she was connected as either wife or mother, to six of the kings of England, Ethelred, Edmund, Canute, Harold, Hardicanute, and Edward the Confessor. She was aunt to William the Conqueror, and his only claim to the crown of England was through her. Thus she forms the connecting link between the Saxon, the Danish, and the Norman kings of England.

10. Give some account of Emma. (See note.)—11. Give an account of Canute.—12. What did Canute in respect to the Saxon customs? What kingdoms did he conquer? As Canute was originally king of Denmark, of how many, and what countries was he now the sovereign? What method did he take to reprove his flatterers? Who succeeded Canute in the sovereignty of England? What was done on the death of Hardicanute? What was the parentage of Edward the Confessor? Who was his remote ancestor? Of what dynasty is he the last king?
William the Conqueror.

to contention. Edgar, surnamed Atheling, (the illustrious) a son of Edmund Ironside, presented his claim, and also William, Duke of Normandy, natural son of Duke Robert, the brother of Emma. Before, however, the question of right was decided, Harold, son of the powerful Earl Godwin, usurped the sovereignty, and obtained the allegiance of the nation. William, of Normandy, was distinguished for courage, ambition, and military skill. His court was thronged by youth of different countries, eager for military enterprise. William dutifully applied to pope Alexander II. for permission to conquer England. The pope gave him the country, and sent him his blessing, with a ring containing one of St. Peter's hairs. William no longer hesitated, but embarked his army, and landed at Pevensey. Harold was in the north, where he had just defeated the forces of the king of Norway, who had invaded his kingdom, when he learned that the duke of Normandy had landed with a powerful army. Elated with his recent victory, he hastened to the south. Deaf to remonstrances, at Hastings he ventured his kingdom, though with an inferior force, upon the success of a single battle,—lost it—and with it his crown and life.

14. William proceeded to London. Before he reached the city, he was met by a deputation who offered him the crown, accompanied by Edgar Atheling, with the two noblemen Edwin and Morcar, who had proclaimed this descendant of the Saxon line. After six months he revisited Normandy. The rapacity of his army produced a revolt. William hastened his return, and found that the insurrection was headed by the most powerful nobles of the realm, aided by the kings of Scotland and Denmark. He crushed the rebellion, and found pretences to enrich his Norman followers, bestowing on them the estates of the rebels.

15. William introduced the feudal system into England, dividing the kingdom into large landed estates, or baronies, which were distributed among the Norman chiefs, none of the English being permitted to hold those of the first rank. The English nobility were therefore degraded, and the lower classes of the conquered became serfs. William caused a survey of all the lands in England to be made, and recorded in what is termed "the Doomsday Book." He obliged the people to extinguish their lights at the ringing of the curfew, or evening bell.

16. On the death of William, his dominions were divided among his sons. England was the portion of William Rufus. His continental possessions were divided between his younger sons, Robert and Henry, Robert receiving the larger share.

Wars between these brothers followed. At length Robert milled the enthusiastic spirit of the crusades; and resolving to devote himself to the holy enterprise, mortgaged Normandy to his brother William, for a sum of money sufficient to enable him to embark.

17. SCOTLAND.—The ancient Caledonians were never conquered by the Romans, though they employed the arms of some of their most skilful commanders against them. In the fifth century, when the island was abandoned, and the Britons were left to their independence, we find in the northern parts, two powerful and distinct tribes; the Picts and the Scots. The Picts are supposed to be the descendants of the ancient Britons, who, in the Roman conquests, chose to migrate northward rather than to submit. They inhabited the eastern, while the Scots, supposed to be of the same origin with the northern Irish, occupied the western coast of the island. These nations were continually at war with each other, and with the inhabitants of South Britain, who at last, unable to withstand their depredations, called in, as we have seen, the aid of the Saxons. These contests of the Picts and Scots were at length closed by the elevation of a prince named KENNETH MCALPINE, to the throne of both kingdoms, he uniting the blood of the two royal families of the Picts and the Scots. The country received the name of Scotland.

18. DUNCAN succeeded to the crown in 1033, but fell by the hand of MACBETH, who usurped his throne. The usurper was soon slain in battle at DUNSIANE, by Macduff, an injured noble. MALCOLM, the son of Duncan, had taken refuge in England, where he was hospitably received by Edward the Confessor. By the assistance of the Duke of Northumberland, whom Edward sent into Scotland, Malcolm recovered his kingdom. During the remainder of Edward's reign, the two nations were at peace. On the accession of Harold to the English throne, Malcolm favored the insurrection against him. Many of the Saxon nobles of England, stung by the indignities suffered from their Norman conqueror, fled to his court. Among them, were Edgar Atheling, and his sister MARGARET, a virtuous, beautiful, and accomplished princess. The monarch of the Scots made her his queen, and she exerted a most happy influence, laboring

* The language of this people is called the Celtic, or more recently the Gaelic. The learned are at variance respecting the Celts; some maintaining them to be the same people as the Goths, others assigning them a different origin. Julius Caesar found in Gaul, a people whom he called Celts. Some suppose that Caesar referred to the Belgic Gauls. All, we believe, agree that the only remains of this people now discoverable, are found in Ireland and the western part of Great Britain.

17. Were the ancient Caledonians ever conquered by the Romans? What two tribes gave demonstrations of their power in the fifth century? What is believed concerning the Picts? What is said of the Scots? (Examine the note.) Why is the reign of Kenneth McAlpine memorable?—18. Whom did Macbeth assassinate? Where, and by whom was Macbeth slain? Give an account of his successor. What persons fled to Malcolm's court? Give an account of Margaret.
for the instruction of the barbarous Scots, and relieving the distresses of her Saxon countrymen. During the reign of William Rufus, Malcolm was frequently engaged in hostilities, and was finally slain in battle. His children being minors, his brother Donald Banz usurped the crown, and Scotland was for some years embroiled in civil war; but at length, Edgar, the third son of Malcolm and Margaret, obtained the crown.

CHAPTER III.

Germany.

1. After the downfall of Charlemagne's empire, Germany, from the character of its sovereigns, took the lead in the politics of Europe. Otho the Great succeeded his distinguished father, Henry the Fowler. The powerful nobles of his kingdom openly aspired to independence, but he obliged them, by the force of his arms, and the superiority of his genius, to submit. He balanced their power by conferring upon the clergy the rights of temporal princes. Bohemia he rendered tributary to Germany, compelling the inhabitants to embrace Christianity. He encountered the warlike Hungarians near Augsburg, and was victorious. He invaded France and Denmark, and wherever he went, he made the will of others bend to his own.

2. Since the extinction of the empire of Charlemagne, Italy had been governed by native princes, engaged in frequent hostilities with each other, and the realm was divided by powerful factions. Of these princes, perhaps Berenger I., who, from duke of Friuli, became king of Italy, is best known. The aid of Otho was now implored against Berenger II., who had rendered himself odious by his tyranny. Otho marched into Italy, subdued Berenger; made himself master of his kingdom, deposed the licentious pope, John XII., who favored Berenger, and placed Leo VIII. in the papal chair. Otho determining to set the civil above the ecclesiastical power, revived a claim that he and his successors should have the power of naming the pope, and giving investiture to bishops. On the return of Otho to Germany, his Italian subjects again revolted, and on the death of Leo, contested the right of the emperor to nominate his successor. His arms, however, again compelled

18. Who are the successors of Malcolm?  
   Chap. III.—1. On what account did Germany take the lead in politics?  
   From what able monarch did Otho the great descend?  
   What actions showed the force of Otho's character?  
   What nations did he successfully contend with?  
   2. What occurred in Italy after the fall of Charlemagne's empire?  
   What pretext had Otho for invading Italy?  
   What did he affect in Italy?  
   What claim did he set up?
submission, after which his reign was tranquil. He was the most powerful monarch of his time.

3. Otho I. was succeeded by his son, Otho II., who during the life of his father had been elected his successor. By a marriage with Theophana, daughter of the eastern emperor, he obtained a claim to the Grecian provinces of Italy. During his reign, the most disorderly and turbulent proceedings were witnessed at Rome, where at one time three several popes were elected, each anathematizing and excommunicating the others.

4. Otho III., although a minor at the time of his father's death, had by his influence been elected to succeed him. The Italians rebelled, and under Crescentius, a Roman, who took the title of consul, an attempt was made to re-establish the republic. But the degenerate Romans had no longer the virtue to remain free, even if a leader of talents had been at their head. Otho, when he became of age, soon quieted the disturbances made by the party of Crescentius, and restored pope Gregory whom they had deposed. This emperor defeated the Danes, and entered into an alliance with Eric, (who then swayed the sceptre of Sweden, Norway, and Denmark,) obtaining permission for Christian missionaries to enter his kingdom. Otho expelled the Saracens from the south of Italy, where they had made, for forty years, destructive ravages. He dying without heirs, several claimants of the imperial crown appeared.

5. Henry II., grandson of Otho II., obtained the election. His reign is marked by no important event. It is said, that disgusted with the world, he desired to retire to a convent, and assumed the monastic habit. The abbot received him as a brother, but remarked, "Monks owe obedience to their superiors. I order you to continue at the helm of government." Henry obeyed his superior, and reassumed his crown. At his death an assembly of princes, after six weeks deliberation, elected as his successor, Conrad II., surnamed the Salic, duke of Franconia. During his reign, the kingdom of Burgundy was annexed to the German empire.

6. He was succeeded by his son, Henry III., who found himself engaged, at the commencement of his reign, in wars with the Hungarians, the Bohemians, and the Poles who had now become a nation; in all of which, success followed his arms. Henry extended the prerogatives of the crown, and exercised a more absolute power than any former German monarch. His nobles murmured, and after his death their enmity descended to his son and successor, Henry IV., and was manifested in the course of the war with the popes, called the war of the investitures. The former Roman emperors had exercised the power of nominating bishops and abbots, and of giving them

3. Give an account of his successor. What was the state of the pope-dom?—4. Who was Crescentius? Eric? What is here said of the Saracens? What actions were performed by Otho III.?—5. What can you say of Henry II.? What kingdom was annexed to Germany by Conrad the Salic?—6. What account can you give of Henry III.?
Investiture by the ring and crosier. Otho the Great, and his successors, had claimed this power. Pope Alexander II. had published a decree during the life of Henry III., forbidding this investiture, and the doctrine was now maintained, that as the spiritual power was superior to the temporal, the bishops and abbots received their authority from God, and not from the emperor; but, on the contrary, that the emperor was to hold his investiture of the pope, and his authority under him.

7. The famous Hildegard, with the title of Gregory VII., was now in the papal chair. He dispatched a legate to the German emperor, forbidding him to exercise the rights of investiture. Henry treated his messenger with contempt, convoked an assembly of his princes and ecclesiastics, and declared Gregory a usurper of the papacy. Gregory, fully aware of the disaffection of the German nobles, pronounced a sentence of excommunication against Henry, absolving his subjects from their allegiance, and depriving him of his imperial authority. The German nobles, thus encouraged, revolted, and the German clergy, who had just before declared Gregory an usurper, now espoused his cause.

8. Henry, surrounded with dangers, saw no safety but in appeasing the wrath of the pope. With this view, he passed the Alps, and accompanied by only a few domestics, proceeded to Canosa, where Gregory then was, and presented himself as a penitent at the gates of the fortress. The monach was only admitted within the outer court. There, wrapped in sackcloth, with his feet bare, he was detained three days in the month of January, before the haughty pontiff would admit him to his presence. The penance of Henry, and his promise to submit in all things, at length procured him absolution.

9. The reconciliation, however, was short; the arrogance of the pope had alienated the minds of the Italian princes, and a strong party was formed in Henry's favor. He renewed the war, but while engaged with the Italians against the pope, his German subjects revolted. A second excommunication was thundered against him by Gregory, who again deposed him, and declared Rodolph, duke of Swabia, emperor. Henry, augmented his party in Germany, and convening a few bishops who adhered to him, he degraded Gregory and appointed another pope. He defeated and slew Rodolph, when his followers dispersed. Henry then returned to Italy, laid siege to Rome, and continued it for two years, when at length the city was carried by assault. Gregory escaped, but shortly after died. Henry procured the consecration of Clement III. After the emperor's

6. What was the point in dispute between the popes and emperors respecting investiture, or investing with authority? Who was Henry IV.?—7. What pope was his opponent? What course did he pursue towards Henry? How did Henry retaliate? How did the German nobles now conduct?—8. Relate the subject submission of Henry, and the conduct of the pope.—9. Whom in this contest did the Italians favor? Whom did the Germans? By what parties was the battle of Wolsheim fought, and what were its results?
return to Germany, his enemies deposed Clement, and elected Victor, whose early death made way for Urban II. He renewed the war of the investitures, and embroiled Henry in a quarrel with his son, Conrad. This brings the history of Germany to the period when the council of Clermont decided upon the first crusade.

10. Italy.—When on the death of Charles the Fat, the empire of the west passed from the Carolingian family, the government of Italy was usurped by the principal nobles. Of these, the dukes of Spoletto and Tuscany, and the Marquises of Pavia, Susa and Friuli, were the most powerful. The great duchy of Benevento, had been divided into the principalities of Benevento, Salerno and Capua. Apulia and Calabria were still subject to the emperor of the east, Naples and Amalfi were republics, under the protection of the Grecian empire. Rome was subject to the pope. For seventy years the sovereignty of Italy, though little more than a name, was the subject of contest between the most ambitious and powerful nobles. The northern parts were desolated by the Hungarians, while the southern coasts were subject to the inroads of the Saracens, who had made themselves masters of Sicily.

11. It was at this time that the assistance of Otho the Great was sought. He marched into Italy, and received, at Milan, the iron crown of the Lombards, and at Rome, from the pope, the golden crown of the empire; thus reviving in his person, the title of emperor of the Romans, which had been extinct for forty years. Otho, and his immediate successors, exercised the prerogatives with which the emperors of the west had formerly been endowed. They repeatedly marched into Italy at the head of armies, received the homage of the Italian states, exacted their rents, and promulgated their laws. The tie which bound Italy to the German empire was, however, growing weak. The distance of the emperor prevented the continued and energetic exercise of the imperial prerogative, and a spirit of freedom was enkindled.

12. The dangers with which the cities were surrounded, compelled the inhabitants to provide for their own defence, and by permission they rebuilt their walls. The protection they thus afforded, drew multitudes of the country people within them. Their population and wealth rapidly increased. Obedience to the dukes, counts, or marquises, was thrown off, and the people of the cities elected their own magistrates. The war of the investitures, in which the cities engaged, part of them on the side of the emperor, part on that of the pope, showed these little communities their importance, and contributed to diffuse a republican spirit. In Lombardy, Milan was the most important of these independent governments. There existed at this

10. Describe the condition of Italy. What crowns did Otho the Great receive? What occurred after his death?—11. Describe the manner of the growth of the Italian cities. Of their becoming republics. What five are here mentioned?
period, still older republics, which had arisen from the ruins of the Grecian possessions—Venice, Ravenna, Genoa, and Pisa.

13. When Attila drove from their homes the inhabitants of Aquileia and Padua, they found a refuge on some islands in the Adriatic, where they built and settled, calling their city Rialto. It gradually increased in population, and was subject to the Byzantine empire, till the tenth century. It then became commercial and independent, and conquered the adjoining territories called Venetia, Istria and Dalmatia.

14. Early in the eleventh century, the Normans were employed by a prince of Salerno, against the Saracens, who had invaded his territories. Fresh adventurers from the north flocked into Italy, where they founded the small city of Aversa near Capua. A difficulty respecting their pay, at length produced a war between the Normans, and their employers. They invaded Apulia, which they soon subdued. After the conquest of the Grecian possessions of Italy, the republics of Naples and Amalfi, fell before the invaders. The sovereignty of Apulia was conferred upon Robert Guiscard, one of the renowned brothers, sons of Tancred, lord of Hauteville, in Normandy.

15. The pope, Leo IX., formed a league with the emperor of Constantinople against the Normans, and Leo marched in person against Robert, but was defeated and taken prisoner. The devotion of the Normans dictated the most honorable treatment to the head of the church, and the warriors knelt to implore his forgiveness for arming in their own defence. The pope granted them absolution, and conferred upon them the sovereignty of the country they had conquered, which they now held as a fief of the holy see. Roger, the brother of Robert Guiscard, conquered the Saracens of Sicily, and made himself master of the island. Robert next directed his views towards the eastern empire. At the head of his Normans he advanced into Epirus, took the city of Durazzo, and obtained a complete victory over the army of the Greek emperor, Alexius Comnenus. His successes in Greece, however, were of no permanent advantage. Robert was recalled to Italy by the revolt of some of the cities of Apulia. In the war of the investitures, he afforded powerful aid to pope Gregory VII., and at length gave him an asylum when driven from Rome.

13. When and how was Venice founded?—14. Describe the rise of the kingdom of Naples?—15. What league was formed against the Normans? Which of the sons of Tancred of Normandy conquered Sicily? What war was afterwards made by Robert Guiscard?
CHAPTER IV.

France, Spain, Russia, Greek Empire, &c.

1. FRANCE.—The princes of the Carolingian family had become so insignificant, and the ties which bound the nation to its monarch were so slight, that the accession of Hugh Capet, the founder of the new dynasty, was hardly considered as an usurpation, and was attended with no disorder. After a reign of eight years, Hugh transmitted the sovereignty to his son, Robert, whom he had already associated with himself in the government. Robert was undisturbed by foreign foes, but the discipline by which the papal power humbled and subjugated kings, blasted his domestic happiness. He had married BERTHA, sister of RODOLPH, king of Burgundy, his cousin in the fourth degree, while the prohibition of the church extended to the seventh; and GREGORY V. ordered the dissolution of the marriage, under pain of excommunication. The king ventured to disregard the thunders of the Vatican,* aimed not only at him, but against all those who had abetted the offence. The bishops who had sanctioned the marriage were suspended. Robert soon experienced how terrific the power of excommunication had become. His couriers and servants abandoned him. Two domestics were all who dared remain, and even these purified by fire the vessels used by the unfortunate prince, and threw the remaining food to the dogs. The weak monarch, instead of arousing to her defence, at length repudiated his blameless wife.

2. HENRY, his son and successor, being disturbed by domestic conspiracies, sought aid of Robert, duke of Normandy, who re-established him upon the throne. In reward for this service, Henry added to his duchy Chaumont, Pontoise, and other places which belonged to the crown. He was succeeded by his son PHILIP I., only eight years of age. During his minority the regency was committed to the pious and dignified BALDWIN, earl of Flanders, who preserved the peace of the nation by being always ready for war. Philip was on the throne of France, at the time when the council of Clermont decided on the first crusade.

3. SPAIN.—It will be recollected that after the conquest of Spain by the Saracens and Moors, some of the Christian inhabitants fled to the mountains of the north, where they founded

* The palace of the popes of Rome is called the Vatican. The decrees which the pope sent forth had become, from his great power, so terrible, that they were expressively called "the thunders of the Vatican."

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CHAP. IV.—1. What may be said of the accession of the Dynasty of Capet in the room of the Carolingian? Under what circumstances had his successor contracted marriage? What was the consequence of his excommunication?—2. What account can you give of his successors?—3. What country of Spain had not been conquered by the Moors?
the kingdom of Asturias. From this mountainous domain, whose very insignificance proved its security, sprung other kingdoms, which eventually subdued the Mahometan power on the peninsula. The descendants of the powerful Abderrahman had undermined their own strength by their frequent dissensions; and about the commencement of the eleventh century his family became extinct; and the kingdom of Cordova was divided into separate provinces, or petty kingdoms, over which the principal nobles assumed the sovereignty. The Christian dominions in Spain had, at this time, become enlarged by encroachments upon the Saracens, and the kingdoms of Leon, Castile, Navarre, and Aragon had each its respective monarch.

4. Sancho III., or the Great, united in his person the sovereignty of Navarre and Aragon; and his son Ferdinand made himself master of Castile and Leon, so that the whole of Christian Spain was, in 1035, under the government of one family. Alphonso VI., the successor of Ferdinand, recovered the city of Toledo. The wars between the Christians and Moors, in this century, are memorable for the display of valor and chivalry. Don Roderigo Dias de Bivar, called the Cid, (the chief) was the most eminent of the Spanish knights, whose exploits have descended to posterity glowing with all the romance of the age.

5. RUSSIA.—It was during this period that we first meet in history, the name of Russians. In the ninth century they appeared at Constantinople as traders, and exchanged their slaves, furs, honey, and the hides of their cattle, for the corn, wine, oil, manufactures and spices of Greece. The luxury and splendour of Constantinople excited the desires of the barbarians, and piratical expeditions were commenced. Their vessels, descending the Borysthenes, penetrated the Euxine, and spread desolation through the province of Anatolia. At length the adventurous Russians menaced Constantinople. In their first enterprise, they entered the port during the absence of the emperor, Michael. A tempest destroyed their ships, and compelled them to retreat.

6. Afterwards Nicephorus, emperor of Constantinople, instigated Swatoslaus, prince of the Russians, to undertake the conquest of the Bulgarians. The Russian prince having achieved this, soon gave indication of his dangerous vicinity. At the head of his barbarians he invaded the empire, and Nicephorus found himself unable to cope with the enemy he had brought upon his dominions. His successor, John Zimisces, was more successful. He obtained repeated victories over the Russians, drove them out of the empire, and pursued Swatoslaus to Driiza,
a post on the Danube to which he had retreated. Here he besieged him, and compelled him and the remnant of his followers, to return to their nation.

7. Olga, the mother of Swatoslaus, was a princess of uncommon character. She had early embraced Christianity, and received baptism from the patriarch of Constantinople. Her zealous efforts to Christianize her barbarous subjects had, however, proved ineffectual; even her son having rigidly adhered to the ancient religion. Yet the example and influence of Olga were not without effect. Her grandson Vlodomir, on his marriage with Anna, a princess of Constantinople, renounced idolatry, and embraced the Christian faith. Her efforts to civilize her subjects, evinced a mind far in advance of the age in which she lived, and Vlodomir pursued the course marked out by her superior wisdom.

8. THE GREEK EMPIRE.—Basil, the Macedonian, was the founder of a new dynasty. He restored in some measure the falling honor of the empire, and rendered it again formidable to the barbarians and the Saracens. The reigns also of Nicephorus Phocas, and of his successor, John Zimisces, are signalized by their military spirit. John Zimisces conquered the Russians, penetrated Syria, and not only recovered Antioch from the Saracens, but passed the Euphrates, and made himself master of many Saracen cities. After these successes, the empire again sunk into insignificance, under the government of weak and effeminate princes. In the reign of Michael VI., the last of the Macedonian race, the Greeks awoke to a sense of their degradation, and invested Isaac Comnenus with the imperial purple. The Comneni were an illustrious family of Roman origin. Isaac, who was first raised to the imperial dignity, enjoyed his elevation but two years, when his declining health induced him to abdicate.

9. Alexius Comnenus, who succeeded him, filled the Byzantine throne at the time of the first crusade. Dangers surrounded the empire on every side. The provinces of the east had been conquered by the Turks, while the Greek possessions in Italy had been usurped by the Normans, who were advancing to Constantinople. Alexius found himself without soldiers, and with an exhausted treasury; yet compelled to maintain a contest with powerful enemies. He made the best preparations in his power, assembled an army, and marched into Epirus, to meet the Normans, who, under Robert Guiscard, had laid siege to Durazzo. Alexius was defeated; yet, amid all his calamities, he sustained himself with dignity, as shown in the excellent

7. Give some account of Olga.—8. What dynasty acceded to the dominion of the Eastern empire in 867? Give an account of the founder. What three reigns (the two first not consecutive,) are signalized by energy and military talent? What conquests were made by the last of the three? What after this became the condition of the empire? What change of dynasties occurred?—9. Give an account of the second of the Comneni Who invaded his empire? What battle was fought?
History of the times, written by his daughter, Anna Comnena, the best writer of that age, and the most renowned of female historians. The conquests of the Normans were stayed by the return of Robert to Italy, where, having restored tranquillity, he resumed his eastern enterprise. Alexius had improved his naval force, and now disputed with the Norman chief the dominion of the sea. Three engagements took place near the island of Corfu; the third resulting in a victory of the Normans. But the death of Robert relieved the empire from its most formidable enemy.

10. EMPIRE OF THE CALIPHS.—Haroun al Raschid (Aaron the Just) was the sixth of the Abassides. His empire was more extensive, his power more absolute, and his court more splendid, than that of any other monarch of his age. While literature graced his luxurious capital, his victorious arms spread terror through the west. But he was killed in quelling a rebellion in Khurasan. The succession was disputed between his sons, and a civil war ended in the elevation of the youngest, Al Mamun, who was even more distinguished than his father for patronage of arts and letters. In his reign volumes of Grecian science were translated into the Arabic language, and every facility and encouragement afforded to the study of the sciences. He conquered Sicily and Crete.

11. But even in that magnificent reign, the decline of the empire had begun. Mutassem, the successor of Al Mamun, established a guard of 50,000 Turks for the security of his throne; these soon, like the praetorians of Rome, assassinated and elevated sovereigns at pleasure. At length their chief was called “Emir al Omrah,” “Commander of Commanders,” and ruled in the palace as the mayors had in France. The caliph came to be considered merely as the chief ecclesiastical officer. Spain, as we have seen, had revolted, and placed the last of the Ommiyyades, Abdalrahman, upon the throne of Cordova, and even his descendants had passed away, and his kingdom been rent into fragments. Fez was built and made the capital of a petty kingdom. Three dynasties had arisen in Africa in the commencement of the ninth century, and in the tenth, the descendants of Fatima wrested from the Abassides the province of Egypt, and established their throne at Cairo.

12. RISE OF THE TURKISH POWER.—While the empire of the caliphs was thus dismembered, the power of the Turks was rising into consequence. It is believed that they possessed

9. Who was Anna Comnena? For what is she distinguished?
10. Who were the most distinguished caliphs of the Abassides? What was the condition of the caliphate under these two, and what soon after?
11. What was established by Al Mamun’s successor? What happened in consequence of keeping such a standing army? What was the condition of the independent kingdom whose seat was Cordova? What city in Africa had been built as a seat of a petty empire? How many such empires existed in Africa independent of Bagdad in the ninth century? What principal province of Africa did the Abbassides lose in the tenth century?—12.
What account is here given of the Turks?
an ancient Scythian empire, but it had long been dissolved, and now powerful and independent tribes were widely scattered throughout the interior of Asia. Slaves and soldiers of Turkish extraction, were in the service of every monarch of Asia. The principality of Ghazni, in Khurasan, was founded by Alp Tegin, who rose from the condition of a slave. The most distinguished sovereign of the Ghaznevide dynasty, was Mahmud. He was the patron of science, which now centred rather at Ghazni than at Bagdad. Avicenna, "the prince of Arabian philosophers and physicians," flourished during his reign. This great genius, at the age of twenty-one, undertook the first Encyclopedia which was ever compiled, and carried out his plan in twenty volumes, entitling his work "The Utility of Utilities." Besides this, he wrote seventeen other works, translations of which were the only books on mathematics and physics in use in the schools of Europe in the twelfth century. Mahmud added Transoxania and Persia to his dominions, and extended his conquests to Hindostan. He conquered the cities of Delhi, Lahore, and Multan, thus extending to the remote east the religion of the Moslems, which the Turks had embraced. The caliph of Bagdad conferred on him the title of sultan of Ghazni, and his authority was acknowledged from the Caspian to the Indus.

13. Tagrul Beg, a valiant Turk of the family of Seljouk of Samarcand, was the founder of the Seljoukian dynasty. He passed the Jihon, defeated Masoud, then sultan of Ghazni, and received from the caliph of Bagdad the title of sultan. He delivered the caliph from the oppression of the Turkish and Arabian emirs, and restored to him the city and district of Bagdad. Malek Shah, the second prince from Tagrul, was one of the most powerful conquerors of his age. He extended his dominions from the borders of China to the neighbourhood of Constantinople. The reign of Malek was peaceful and prosperous, and through his liberality, the literature of the east revived. On his death, the empire was divided among his sons; the Persian kingdom, as that to which the others were in some measure subordinate, being given to the eldest. Soliman, of the family of Seljouk, was a renowned and powerful sovereign. His interference was felt in the affairs of the Greek empire, as we find him establishing one of the emperors upon the throne. Under this valiant Turk, Jerusalem, Anioch, and at length all Asia Minor was subdued. Alexius, emperor of Constantinople, trembled for the safety of his empire, now also threatened by the Normans. He was forced to comply with the demands of the Turks, and confirm by treaty the conquests of Soliman.

12. Who was the founder of the dynasty of the Ghaznevides? What and where was his capital? Give an account of the most distinguished of the Ghaznevides. Give an account of Avicenna. What dynasty supplanted the Ghaznevides?—13. Give an account of Tagrul Beg—Of Malek Shah—Of Soliman. Notice particularly what cities he took, and how far he extended the Turkish dominions.
PERIOD V.

FROM
THE COMMENCEMENT \[1100.\] OF THE CRUSADES
TO
THE DISCOVERY \[1492.\] OF AMERICA.

CHAPTER I.

Pilgrimages.—Chivalry.—The Crusades.

1. As the spiritual worship of the early Christians was exchanged for the frivolous rites and idle ceremonies of later days, the possession of relics, and pilgrimages made to holy places, became objects of eager desire, and substitutes for personal piety. Of all pilgrimages, that to the holy sepulchre of Jerusalem was the most frequently made, and considered the most meritorious. It was performed by multitudes of devotees from every part of Europe. After the holy city fell into the hands of the Saracens, these pilgrimages, though attended with more difficulty and danger, were still continued. The caliph Haroun al Raschid afforded protection to the Christian pilgrims, even presenting to Charlemagne the keys of the holy sepulchre. His successors, the Abbasides, pursued, as we have seen, the same tolerant system. But when the Fatimites of Africa obtained possession of Palestine and Syria, the pilgrims suffered from them severe persecution. Under the reign of Hakem, the third caliph of the Fatimite race, Christian churches were demolished,
the destruction of the sepulchre attempted, and many Christians suffered death. Under the succeeding caliphs, however, a tolerant spirit revived, and pilgrimages became more frequent than ever. Policy might dictate this course, as the treasury of the caliphs was replenished by the tribute which procured the protection of the devotees.

2. Two years preceding the first crusade, pilgrimages had increased to an unparalleled extent, and multitudes of every age, and rank, and sex, thronged the roads to Jerusalem. The holy land now came into possession of the Turkish hordes; and the pilgrims, who with toil and suffering had pressed their way from the most distant parts of Christendom, often found themselves on their arrival at the holy city, debarred from entrance, by demands which they were unable to meet, and thus deprived of the object for which their sufferings had been endured. Multitudes perished by want, and of the thousands who directed their enthusiastic way to Asia, few returned to their homes.

3. These brought accounts of their injuries to their brethren in Europe. If in our days such devotees had existed, and had uttered complaints, the calm of society would not have been broken. The effects then produced, show how powerfully religious faith animated the mass; and not more remarkable is the stupidity with which the people rejected the Savior, with all his mighty works, than the zeal with which they were now ready to sacrifice every thing to rescue his sepulchre. Yet had this deep feeling existed in the minds of the Christian community one hundred years earlier, its dictates could not have been carried into action. But in the meantime, a spirit had been produced, and an institution had arisen which while it was imbued with the superstition of the times, was yet more honorable to man, than any other merely human. This was the spirit of chivalry and the institution of knighthood, which, connected with Christianity, laid the foundation of a new, and eventually a better order of things.

4. Chivalry arose in Normandy, in the eleventh century. There the home-born oppressions of the castled barons was severely felt. Those petty princes were leading their followers to perpetual wars, and outrage and licentiousness filled the land while no government existed which could protect the weak against the strong. Then the spirit of virtuous indignation against oppression—of deep faith in Christianity, and of newly awakened admiration of the female sex, induced a band of noble minded young men to dedicate themselves in the fear of God to right the wrongs which existed around them. The priest

2. What is said of the acquisitions of the Turks? How did they treat the pilgrims?—3. Suppose in our day such complaints had been made? What do we find then remarkable in the spirit of those times? Could that spirit have been carried into action much earlier? What spirit and what institution had arisen?—4. When and where did it arise? What oppressions gave rise to it? What was the spirit of chivalry? To what did the knights devote themselves?
A BETTER STYLE OF MEN AND WOMEN.

5. Each member of the order possessed the power to confer it on such candidates as had proved themselves worthy by virtuous deeds and valorous exploits; and knighthood soon became an honor to which kings and princes aspired. A consciousleness of purpose, and a firm persuasion of the protection of heaven, bore the knights almost above humanity. They neglected nothing which could increase and preserve their physical powers. They inured themselves from early youth to incredible labors and privations, which made them strong and hardy; and for self-preservation against the arms in use, they armed their persons in steel armor, so heavy, that a man of moderate strength at this day could scarcely lift its weight. The war-horse which bore him to battle, was cared for by the champion, as a mother cares for her child. The true knight possessed the perfection of manners,—courtesy, controlled by candor. To maintain truth in word and act, was a part of his vow. He was not ashamed of his religion, or his love, and never spoke lightly of the one or the other.

6. In the meantime, the female character and condition had been changed by the introduction of Christianity, which showed that women had an equal share with men, in the grace of God and the blessings of immortality. The virtues which elevate the sex were taught and enforced. Men received special directions, from Christ and his apostles, in regard to their treatment of the weaker sex; which moderated their tyranny, and restrained their licentiousness. The feudal system, co-operating with these causes, produced an entirely new feature in modern civilization, which was now arising from the ashes of the ancient. This was domestic society. The hereditary baron in his proud castle, surrounded with his serfs and menials, was a petty sovereign; and but for the society of his own family, must have been reduced to utter solitude. His wife and daughters thus came to be known and appreciated, as the dispensers of domestic joy. Woman being now beheld in her proper niche,—her style of character changed by Christianity,—seemed invested with a new and holy light. Men of finer mould, such as knighthood found or made, seemed awe-struck, and almost rendered idolatrous worship.

7. Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, in France, returned from a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, where his enthusiasm had been fed, and his resentment enkindled. He hastened to

8. What power did each knight possess? Who aspired to be knights? What mentally and physically bore up the knights and fitted them for high achievements? Did they neglect their own health, or even that of their war-steeds? In what respect had the true knight the highest style of fine manners? What had effected a change in the character and condition of women? In what respect did it show them on an equality with men? What precepts of Christianity operated in favor of women? What effect had the feudal system on modern civilization? How did it operate to produce this effect?
visit the pope, Urban II., and with his approbation the enthusiastic Peter went through Europe, publishing the sufferings of the pilgrims, and calling on Christian warriors to have pity upon their brethren,—to go up to battle in the name of the Lord, and no longer suffer the holy sepulchre to be defiled by infidels. The hearts of the people burned as he spoke, and the flames spread from city to city, from country to country. Everywhere the holy Peter was received with rapture. The pope called a council at Placentia. Ambassadors were here received from Alexius Comnenus, emperor of the east, who had previously sent to beg the aid of the western powers against the Turks by whom Constantinople was threatened; and he now reiterated his petition, and pleaded the danger of delay.

8. A second council was convened in the autumn of the same year at Clermont, to make a final decision. An immense multitude of priests, princes, and nobles were present; and so great was the concourse of people, that the city was filled, and thousands compelled to erect shelters in the fields. Urban addressed the assembled crowds, and with the most persuasive eloquence depicted the horrors of infidel oppression, the duty of arming in the defence of the holy cause, and the rewards of the faithful. The effect was overwhelming; the crowds sent forth, simultaneously, the shout “God wills it.” “God wills it.” “It is the will of God,” replied the pope, “and let this memorable word, the inspiration surely of the Holy Spirit, be forever adopted as the battle-cry, to animate the devotion and courage of the champions of Christ.” The sign of the cross was immediately impressed on the right shoulders of the garments of the champions; the pope pronounced the absolution of their sins, and the multitude separated to prepare for the war.

9. The 15th of August following, was fixed for the departure of the pilgrims; but so eager were the lower orders, and so incapable of appreciating the necessity of preparation, that crowds, under the command of Walter the Penniless, and Peter the Hermit, took their departure early in the spring. Walter was possessed of considerable military talent, but the multitudes who marched under his standard were undisciplined and ungovernable. The crowd who followed Peter were, if possible, still more licentious. Before they reached Constantinople, many of these crusaders had fallen by skirmishes with the Hungarians and Bulgarians. From Constantinople they crossed the Bosphorus, but in their progress through Bithynia, nearly the whole fell an easy conquest to the Turks. Peter returned to Constantinople, and Walter fell in battle.

10. But while these undisciplined bodies were hurrying to destruction, the chivalry of Europe, under their most warlike and
THE FIRST CRUSADE.

abb commanders, were preparing for more regular warfare.

The most renowned chiefs of the first crusade were Godfrey of Bouillon, duke of Lorraine; Hugh, count of Vermandois, brother of the French king; Robert, duke of Normandy, son of William the Conqueror; Robert, count of Flanders; Raymond, count of Toulouse; Adhemar, Bishop of Puy, and Bohemond, prince of Tarentum, son of Robert Guiscard. It was under his banners that Tancred, his kinsman, and the price of European chivalry, marched. These various forces, under the command of their respective chiefs, took separate routes for Constantinople.

11. Hugh of Vermandois was the first who reached the dominions of Alexius Comnenus. Here he had expected friendship and welcome, but he was, on his arrival, arrested and imprisoned. The emperor of the east was conscious of his weakness, and though when he supplicated aid from the west, he would gladly have received a few thousand troops, he was alarmed at such formidable and warlike hosts. "It seemed," says the princess Anna Comnena, "as if all Europe, loosened from its foundation, was precipitating itself upon Asia." On the arrival of Godfrey, Hugh was released; not however, until he had done homage to the emperor of the east. The policy of Alexius was to preserve his own sovereignty, and to convey from Constantinople one army, previous to the arrival of another.

12. Before the walls of Nice, now made the capital of the Seljukian kingdom, the several bodies of crusaders met and besieged the city. Robert of Normandy arrived after the commencement of the siege. Peter the Hermit also joined them with the small wreck of his host. The number of the crusaders after this junction, is computed at six hundred thousand armed warriors. While the Christians besieged his capital, Soliman, who had been assembling his warriors from the distant parts of his dominions, arrived on the mountains, in view of the Christian camp. A battle ensued, the Turks were defeated, and obliged to retreat. After a few weeks the city surrendered.

13. The efforts of Soliman in raising another army were unremitting and vigorous, and when, after the surrender of the city, the crusaders commenced their march, he surprised them in Phrygia and gave them battle, but the Christians were again triumphant. Great numbers in both armies fell. The Turks who saved themselves by retreat, proceeded next to desolate the country through which the route of the crusaders lay. Thus the difficulties of their march increased, and numbers sunk under hardships. After halting a while at Antiochetta the army proceeded on their march towards Antioch.

14. After an unsuccessful attempt at storming this city, its

1097. Nice, or Nice, the capital of the Seljukias, besieged and taken by an army of 600,000 crusaders

10. Who were the chiefs of the regular army?—11. How did Alexius Comnenus treat the crusaders?—What was his daughter's expression respecting the number of the crusaders?—12. Give an account of the siege of Nice as to the besiegers. What did the sultan Soliman?—13. What happened to the crusaders on their way from Nice to Antioch?
Destructive Siege of Antioch.

16. The crusaders were in their turn besieged. The Persian Emir and Soliman had joined their forces, and were now set down before Antioch, with three hundred thousand men. The most horrible famine prevailed in the Christian army. Their horses were slain for food, while within their view, the Turkish camp displayed every luxury. When thus reduced to the utmost distress, the superstition of the soldiers was called in aid. Either deluded by their enthusiastic imagination, or practising deception, the priests declared they saw visions from heaven encouraging them to persevere, and promising them victory. A monk asserted that the place where the lance which pierced the Savior’s side was buried, was revealed to him, with directions to procure it, and assurances of victory when in possession of this holy relic. Search was made, and after some digging, the monk descended into the excavation and returned with the lance. The hearts of the soldiers revived, and being purified by the customary rights of the church, the following morning they advanced, full of assurance, against the infidels, although vastly inferior in numbers. The battle was, on the part of the Turks, bravely and obstinately fought. A cry arose among the crusaders that the saints were seen fighting on their side. This gave to the fanatical host resistless might, and the Turks fled in confusion. Their camp fell into the hands of the victors, and abundance succeeded to famine.

16. The chiefs delayed two months in Antioch, when a severe pestilence swept away multitudes of their followers. In October they marched, and at length arrived in sight of the

14. Give an account of the taking of Antioch. What army appears against the crusaders?—15. What was now the condition of the crusading army? By what means did the priests animate the soldiers? What was the result of the battle?—16. With what numbers, and at what time did the crusaders march from Antioch to Jerusalem?
holy city. Dissensions had arisen, but the knights laid them aside by mutual concessions, and directed every thought to their common object. Though now reduced to less than sixty thousand men, the most vigorous preparations were made for the assault of the city. Moveable towers, and all the implements of destruction known to the warriors of the eleventh century were prepared. Efforts of valour almost incredible were made by the chiefs during the two days of the assault. At length they gained the battlements, and there planted the standard of the cross. A most dreadful massacre followed, and the blood of thousands polluted the holy places of Jerusalem.

17. The object of the war being accomplished in the deliverance of the holy sepulchre, the crusaders now bent their thoughts to the permanent establishment of their power. Godfrey of Buillon, the most deserving of their chiefs, was elected king of Jerusalem. He soon found himself compelled to engage in new conflicts, and at Askelon he encountered and defeated a great army of Moslems. On the death of Godfrey, after much dissension, Baldwin, his brother, received the crown. Under his administration, the kingdom of Jerusalem flourished. His army triumphed over the Turks, Persians and Saracens combined. Acre, Tripolis, and Sidon were taken; and also, in 1124, by the aid of the Venetians, Tyre was added to the kingdom of Jerusalem. Thus had this vast movement broken for the time the power of the Turks. Had the Christians remained at home they would probably have been obliged to receive its shock at their own doors.

CHAPTER II.

The Greek Empire.—Germany.—France.

1. THE GREEK EMPIRE.—The emperor Alexius, equally alarmed by the encroachments of the Turks in Asia, and the swarm of pilgrim warriors from Europe, pursued a treacherous course of policy, by which he designed to benefit his own kingdom, whichever way the fortune of war might incline. Thus, while he urged the Christians to the prosecution of the holy war, he afforded them no aid, but rather impeded their movements. On the surrender of Nice to the crusaders, a secret treaty was completed between an agent of Alexius and the Turks, by which that city became the prize of the Grecian emperor. While the Christians proceeded onwards to Jerusalem, and occupied the attention and strength of the Mahometan powers, Alexius recovered by his arms possession of many of
the cities of Asia Minor, and of some of the islands which had been conquered by the Turks. He thus transmitted his empire to his successors with its boundaries enlarged, and its internal affairs in a prosperous condition.

2. John, his son and successor, swayed the imperial sceptre twenty-five years with vigor and clemency. The penalty of death was abolished during his reign. Manuel, a warrior of great physical strength and prowess, was the son and successor of John. He was occupied with a series of wars against the Turks, and the barbarians beyond the Danube. After his reign a period of fifty years occurs where the Byzantine history presents no prominent name or event.

3. GERMANY.—The war of the investitures did not cease with the death of Gregory VII. Urban II. pursued the same design of aggrandizing the Roman See, and Henry IV. of Germany, the same resolution of keeping the power of the emperor superior to that of the pope. At the instigation of Urban, Conrad, the son of Henry, rebelled, assumed the title of king of Italy, and induced many of the cities to submit to his government. Meanwhile, the death of Conrad and Urban, while it changed the actors on the scene, did not change the current of events. Pascal II., successor of Urban, excommunicated the emperor, and induced his younger son, Henry, to revolt and assume the imperial honors. Henry IV. was deposed, and he who had fought sixty battles was reduced to such extreme distress, that he applied for the place of under-chantor in a church at Spires, and was refused, where gratitude was his due. But his fortunes seemed again rising, when he died.

4. No sooner did his successor Henry V., find himself securely seated on the throne, than he entered upon the same course of opposition to the church, which his father had maintained. During the contest, which continued many years, Henry repeatedly marched into Italy, defeated the forces of the pope, and at one time made him prisoner. The pope excommunicated the emperor, and the emperor appointed a new pope, who revoked the sentence, and confirmed his right of investiture. At length the states, weary of the disorder and confusion attending the contest, effected a reconciliation. Calixtus II., who filled with ability the papal throne, called a council, at which the ambassadors of the emperor appeared, and in which a compromise between the emperor and the pope was concluded. The reign of Henry V. was one of the most bloody which had desolated Christendom; marked not only by the war just mentioned, but by others with Hungary and Poland.

5. On the death of Henry, who had no children, the states elected Lothaire, duke of Saxe Supplembourg. He engaged in war with the Bohemians from whom he exacted homage. Lo-
haire espoused the cause of Innocent II., against a rival pope, Anacletus, and marched into Italy to establish his right. This involved him in a war with Roger, duke of Apulia, who espoused the cause of Anacletus. The arms of Lothaire prevailed, Roger was driven from his Italian possessions into Sicily, which he had recently conquered, and Anacletus was imprisoned. During this reign, the Justinian code of laws was adopted in Germany.

6. The sudden death of Lothaire, without heirs, again changed the line of succession. The states convened, and elected Conrad of Franconia, nephew of Henry V. The duke of Bavaria, of the family of the Guelphs, aided by the pope, disputed his title, and embroiled the empire in a civil war. The emperor's brother, Frederic, duke of Suabia, commanded the imperial forces, and his soldiers took the name of Ghibellines, from Ghibel, the place of Frederic's nativity. Hence, while the party favored by the pope was termed the Guelphs, that of the emperor was called the Ghibellines, and the war for supremacy which had been called the wars of the investitures, were renewed under the party watch-words of Guelphs and Ghibellines.

7. No sooner was tranquillity in any measure restored, than Conrad III., inspired by the preaching of St. Bernard with the fanaticism of the times, resolved to take arms in defence of the Christians in the Holy Land, they being pressed by the Mahometan powers, who in 1144 took Edessa. Conrad marched to Asia, but failing in the object of his enterprise, he returned with the wreck of his army. Frederic Barbarossa was elected his successor. He kept up the wars with the popes; subdued the Poles, awed the Bohemians, and obliged the king of Denmark to do him homage. The spirit of liberty had arisen in the Lombard cities; several of which, encouraged by the pope, revolted from the emperor. Frederic marched into Italy, and took signal vengeance on the revolted cities. In razed Milan to its foundations, strewed salt upon its ruins, and destroyed several other cities, or deprived them of their privileges. He marched repeatedly into Italy, but was not successful in his attempts to conquer the Lombards.

8. FRANCE.—Philip I., who was on the throne of France at the commencement of this period, was a profligate and licentious prince. So openly dissolute was his character, that in the council of Clermont, assembled within his own kingdom, Urban II. did not hesitate to pronounce his excommunication. This en-

5. Give some account of the events which occurred during the reign of Lothaire.—6. Who succeeded Lothaire? Who opposed the election of Conrad? What is the origin of the terms Guelph and Ghibelline? Which of these is the name of a family, and which from the name of a town?—7. What incident connected with these wars is related? What was now the condition of the Christians in Palestine? Whom do we find preaching a second crusade? What was done by Conrad in reference to the Holy Land? Give an account of Conrad's successor. Of his operations in Italy.—8. What was the character of Philip I.? What was done by pope Urban, and where?
couraged his nobles, who openly aspired to independence; and during his weak and inefficient reign, many encroachments were made on the prerogatives of the crown.

9. Philip was succeeded by his son Louis VI. The energy and virtue of Louis restored the monarchy. During the principal part of his reign, he was occupied in a war with Henry I. of England, who had acquired Normandy from his brother Robert, and now withheld it from William, the son of Robert. Louis maintained his power over the nobles, by showing himself the protector of the lower orders, and by making freemen of many of the vassals, and thus composing a third estate, or commons.

10. Louis VII, the Young, his son and successor, was early involved in war with the aspiring nobles. He was successful in subduing them, but the destruction of thirteen hundred persons in the town of Vitre, who had taken refuge in a church to which he ordered fire to be put, pressed heavily on his conscience. Reasoning on the vain addition to Christianity made in the dark ages, he believed that his own deeds could be carried by the church to the credit side of his Maker's account current; and to balance this sin, he undertook a Second Crusade. His army fell before the arrows of the Moslems; and after a visit to the holy city, productive of no efficient aid to the Christians there, he returned with the wreck of his forces. On his reaching France, Eleanor, his queen, was divorced on an accusation of adultery. She married the duke of Normandy, afterwards Henry II. of England; who, by this marriage, obtained her rich dowry—the fine provinces of Guienne and Poitou.

11. Philip Augustus, succeeded his father in the fifteenth year of his age. He bore the character of a wily politician, who knows how to move men, as in a game. He entered into an alliance with Richard, the son of Henry of England, and encouraged and aided him in a rebellion against his father. He engaged in the third crusade, with Frederic Barbarossa, and with Richard, who had succeeded to the throne of England under the title of Richard I. Each of these monarchs were aspirants for military fame; nor is it difficult to believe that they regarded Palestine, less with the reverence of devotion, than as a

(Such was the state of learning in this age, that if a man was condemned to death for crime, and could prove that he was so learned a clerk as to be able to read and write, he was set at liberty; the state not knowing how to part with persons of such rare acquirements. This privilege of the learned was called "benefit of clergy."
field on which they were to reap the laurels they so ardently coveted.

12. ENGLAND.—William the Conqueror left three sons, William II., who succeeded to the crown of England, Robert, who inherited Normandy, and Henry. Robert in his zeal for the deliverance of the holy sepulchre, had, as has been related, mortgaged his dukedom to his brother, William II., in order to obtain the sum requisite to enter upon that enterprise; but he was, notwithstanding, the legal heir. The death of William occurred during Robert’s absence in the Holy Land, which enabled Henry, the younger brother, to usurp the sovereignty both in England and France. To render his usurpations secure, Henry courted the favor of his subjects. He promised,—though he did not fulfil,—to restore the laws of Edward the Confessor; and the more effectually to ingratiate himself with the ancient English, he married Matilda, called the good queen Maud, a daughter of Margaret queen of Scotland, and thus a descendant of the Saxon kings.

13. Robert was already on his return from the Holy Land when the news of William’s death reached him. He hastened to England to claim his inheritance, but Henry persuaded him to enter into a treaty, by which he received the dukedom of Normandy, and a small annual tribute, but left Henry in possession of the crown of England. The brother who outlived the other, was to inherit the dominions of the deceased. The jealousy and ambition of the brothers, however, would not permit them to remain at peace, and Henry soon possessed himself by force of Robert’s dominions, made his brother prisoner for life, and inhumanly deprived him of his eyes.

14. Henry’s only son, prince William, in whom, as the child of Maud, was the blood of the Saxon line, was wrecked on his return from Normandy. He might have been saved, but for his fruitless efforts to preserve his sister, a natural daughter of the king. One hundred and forty young nobles perished beside; and Henry never smiled again. He induced a council of the prelates and nobles to take the oath of fealty to his daughter, Maud or Matilda, whom he married to Geoffrey Plantagenet, the earl of Anjou. On the birth of an heir, afterward Henry II., the king procured from the nobles a renewal of the oath, extending it to her son. After a reign of thirty-five years, disturbed by wars and disorders, Henry died.

15. Stephen, earl of Boulogne, grandson of the conqueror in the maternal line, notwithstanding he had been the first to take the oath of fealty to Matilda and her son, now urged his claim to the throne. Before Matilda could arrive in England,
Stephen had been crowned by the archbishop of Canterbury. The kingdom was immediately divided by the partisans of the adverse claimants. Civil war, with its accustomed horrors, raged through the land. The feudal barons built and fortified castles, and now acting independently of the sovereign authority, they made their petty wars, as dictated by ambition or revenge. After many years of alternate success, when the son of Matilda had arrived at age, the nation, weary of the contest, compelled the hostile parties to peace. In a council of nobles and prelates, it was determined that Stephen should retain the crown during his life, and be succeeded by Henry. On the death of Stephen, Henry was received with acclamations by the people of England. He was the most powerful prince of his age. Besides the sovereignty of England and Normandy, he inherited from his father Anjou and Maine; and as the dower of Eleanor, the divorced queen of Louis VII. whom he married, he received Guienne and Poictou.

16. A part of the inhabitants of Ireland are supposed to be the descendants of a colony from Spain, led by Milesius. St. Patrick introduced Christianity into the island, 441. About this period Ireland was the seat of learning. It was divided into separate states, each having its own chief or king. Brian Boro or Boirhume, after reigning thirty years as king of Munster, gained such popularity for his courtesy, bravery, and many kingly virtues, that the nobility elected him sovereign of the whole island. He reigned over it twelve years, and was then killed in battle with the Danes. They did not, however, conquer Ireland, which continued to be governed by its own kings, until it was invaded and conquered by Henry II.

17. The English clergy now arrogantly claimed exemption from all trials before courts of justice; and atrocity crimes were committed by them with impunity. Henry desired to curb this evil, and, in civil affairs, to bring the church into subordination to the crown; and he elevated to the see of Canterbury, Thomas a Becket, who, from the intimacy which had existed between them, and from his habits of luxurious ease, he hoped would prove subservient to his will. But with his change of office, Becket changed his manners; and being now the second person in the kingdom, he soon aspired to be the first. To this end it was necessary to impose on the superstition and credulity of the people, an opinion of his sanctity. He ate bread, drank water, wore shirts of sackcloth seldom changed, lacerated his body with whips, and daily washed the feet of thirteen beggars.

15. What caused the civil war? How did the council settle the dispute? What were the dominions of Henry II. — 16. From whom are a part of the Irish supposed to be descended? What was done by St. Patrick, and when? What was Ireland about this time? What hero is celebrated in Irish annals, and for what? How did Brian Borhume lose his life? When and by whom was Ireland subjugated? — 17. What exemption did the clergy claim? What was often their conduct? What did the king desire? Whom did he put in the first office of the church in England, and for what reasons? What did Becket to gain the people's confidence?
Who could doubt that with such mortifications Becket was a saint? This character established, he openly opposed the authority of the king.

18. Henry summoned a council at Clarendon, in which laws were passed declaring that priests should be amenable to the civil tribunals, without appeal to the pope, and that no edict of the pope shall be binding in England without the sanction of the king. Becket resisted these laws, and was arrested. Henry called him to account for the rents and profits he had received while he was chancellor. Becket appealed to Rome, and obtained the support of pope Alexander III. The king, however, obliged him to flee from England, and he was for a time supported by the king of France. Henry, further to resist the usurpations of the church, suspended the payment of certain church revenues, and concluded an alliance with Frederic Barbarossa, who was at war with the pope.

19. At length, each party afraid of the other, came to conditions of peace; and, waiving controverted points, Becket was restored to his archbishoprick. He came to England like a conqueror, and assumed a splendor little less than regal. He notified three of the principal prelates that the pope had excommunicated them, for certain acts of obedience to the king. When the news of this arrogance was brought to Henry, who was in Normandy, he exclaimed, “Will my servants still leave me exposed to the insolence of this ungrateful and imperious priest?” Four knights of rank, William de Tracy, Hugh de Morville, Richard Britts, and Reginald Fitz Urse, on hearing this, repaired to Canterbury, and assassinated Becket in his church, during the evening service. The news of this sacrilege filled the king with consternation. He hastened to make his peace with Rome, and the death of Becket procured for the church concessions which his life could not. Henry obtained absolution from pope Gregory VIII., and made a pilgrimage to the shrine of the murdered prelate, who was canonized; and so great was the fame of the martyr, especially for healing diseases, that 100,000 pilgrimages to his tomb, are computed to have been made in one year!

20. The latter portion of Henry’s life was embittered by domestic dissensions. The king of France incited his sons to take arms against him. Henry, the eldest, claimed Normandy, and his father’s refusal was the signal for his rebellion. Richard and Geoffrey united with their brother, notwithstanding their father had been liberal to them; and William, the king of Scotland,
joined the confederacy. The English dominions in France were for two years the theatre of war between the contending parties. A pacification was at length effected, and the young princes pardoned. Notwithstanding this, Richard, now his eldest son, rebelled, and united with Philip Augustus of France. Amid these troubles, and sorely disappointed at finding himself deserted by his youngest and favorite son, John, Henry was taken ill, and died. This king, in most respects of a happy character, was yet soured by misfortunes, brought upon him in some measure by his vices; and he expired with a curse against his disobedient children.*

21. Richard I. succeeded to the throne of England. His first acts were preparatory to the famous crusade led by himself and Philip Augustus. On the day of his coronation, a most horrible slaughter of the Jews took place, as a sacrifice acceptable to God. Their residence in the different kingdoms of Europe could never be considered safe, as they were without the protection of the laws; and at times multitudes of them fell victims to a fanatical and infuriated populace.

CHAPTER III.

The Turks and Crusaders.—Eastern Empire.

1. When Jerusalem was taken by the Christians of the first crusade, consternation was spread through the empire of the Moslems. The Seljoukians had followed the usual course of the Asiatic dynasties, and the last of the race sunk into imbecility and vice. The name of the sovereign of Persia was hardly known to the Christians; but the Attabeks became formidable. This was a Turkish name given to the petty princes, who in the decline of the dynasty of Seljouk, obtained the

* When a man marries a bad woman from ambition, and then treats her ill, his family will naturally be the seat of disorders. Henry is that sovereign whose queen, Eleanor, is said to have poisoned his favorite, fair Rosamond. But this story is fabulous, as Rosamond Clifford, it appears, retired to a monastery, and there died. To Henry's want of conjugal fidelity and lawless loves, may be traced many of his troubles. There is too much reason to believe that he cherished a criminal passion for the young Adelais, the betrothed wife of his son Richard, and sister to Philip, king of France, who was sent in her childhood to be educated in England. When she was demanded by Richard, his father would not relinquish her; and on Henry's death, Richard refused to marry her. This caused the enmity of Richard to his father, and the hatred of Philip to Richard.

20. Give an account of Henry's last days.—21. Who succeeded him? What happened on the day of his coronation? What was the condition of the Jews?

CHAP. III.—1. What was the condition of the Seljoukian Turks? Give an account of the Attabeks.
government of the different provinces, and undertook the defence of the Mahometan faith. One of these, NOUREDDIN, son of ZENGI, of Mosul, gradually united the Mahometan powers, and spread his reign from the Tigris to the Nile. He was so good and just a sovereign, that after his death, the oppressed poor cried in the streets, Noureddin! Noureddin! where art thou!

2. The Fatimite caliphs of Egypt were at this time reduced to the most distressed and degraded state. Their prime ministers, called viziers or sultans, had usurped the supreme authority, and Cairo was distracted by hostile factions. The aid of Noureddin was implored by the caliph AZIDADDIN; and SHIRKOH, a valiant commander of Kurdistan, was dispatched to his assistance. Shirkoh was accompanied in his Egyptian expedition, by his nephew SALADIN, who, on the death of his uncle, was promoted to the office of vizier. Saladin at length threw off his allegiance, not only to the caliph of Egypt, but to AL MA'LEL, the successor of Noureddin. He made himself master of Egypt, invaded and conquered Aleppo, Damascus, and Diarbekir; Arabia submitted to his arms, and the inhabitants of Tripoli and Tunis acknowledged his authority.

3. Saladin proceeded to wrest the kingdom of Jerusalem from the Christians. This kingdom, now under GUY OF LUSIGNAN, was reduced to a state of extreme weakness. A battle was fought at Tiberias, in which Saladin was victorious. This battle broke the Christian power in Palestine; and at length Jerusalem itself, in the conquest and defence of which so much blood had been shed, was recovered by the Turks. The conduct of Saladin in the surrender of Jerusalem was mild and magnanimous; he accepted a ransom for the richer prisoners, and permitted the poor to go free. He still extended his conquests, and, with the exception of Tyre, he made himself master of the whole of Palestine.

4. THE THIRD CRUSADE.—The news of the conquest of Jerusalem filled Europe with dismay. Pope Gregory VIII. sought at once to heal the dissensions of the Christian monarchs, and induce them again to take up arms in defence of the Holy Land. The enmity of France and England presenting an obstacle to the absence of either monarch from his kingdom, Richard I., and Philip Augustus solemnly agreed to lay aside their animosities, and together embark in the holy war. The first monarch to go forward, in the third crusade, was Frederic Barbarossa. In his march through the Greek empire, he was

The third crusade undertaken by Richard I. Philip Augustus and F. Barbarossa. (Gregory VIII. enrolls a five years fast, i. e., from Lenton on Wednesdays and Fridays.)

1. Who was now the most powerful sovereign in the east? What was the extent of his dominions? What his character? 2. What was the condition of the Fatimite caliphs of Egypt? To whom did the caliph apply for aid? Who was sent? Give an account of Saladin. Of what countries did he make himself master? 3. What was the condition of the kingdom of Jerusalem? Describe the progress of Saladin in the Holy Land. What was the consequence of Saladin's taking Jerusalem? What agreement was made between Richard and Philip Augustus? Relate the part taken in the third crusade by Frederic Barbarossa.
subjected to all the annoyances which had destroyed the former expeditions. The resolute Frederic, however, crossed the Bosporus, defeated the Moslems, took the city of Iconium, and spread the fame of his military skill, and the terror of his arms, even to the throne of Saladin. But he died by bathing in the Cydnus. His troops proceeded to Antioch, to await there the arrival of the other crusaders.

5. Philip Augustus and Richard wisely resolved to avoid the evils incident to a passage through the Greek empire. They accordingly embarked, Philip at Genoa, and Richard at Marseilles, and met again at Messina, in Sicily. During their stay here, animosities arose between them, which threatened the destruction of the enterprise. Philip, however, advanced to Palestine; and, aided by the remainder of Barbarossa's army, he commenced the siege of Acre. Richard was detained at Cyprus. A terrible storm had dispersed his fleet, and stranded, on that island, vessels in which were embarked Richard's sister Eleanor, and the lady Berengaria, of Navarre, to whom he was engaged in marriage. The king of Cyprus treated the princesses and crews with rigour. Richard, in revenge, landed his army, fought two battles, took the king, and subjugated the island;—and having married his betrothed, he joined the crusaders before Acre.

6. Philip Augustus, displeased with the delay of Richard, and also with his marriage, by which his sister Adelais was slighted, returned to France; leaving, however, 10,000 soldiers under the command of the duke of Burgundy. Near Azotus, Richard, by his personal prowess, as the army was nearly defeated, obtained a victory over Saladin and the Mamelons. He took Cesarea and Jaffa, and advanced within view of Jerusalem; but he was discouraged by the dissensions of the camp, his wasting numbers, and diminished resources. He therefore made with Saladin a truce for three years, on condition that Acre, Jaffa, and the cities conquered by the crusaders, should remain in their possession, and that the Christians should have free access to the Holy City.

7. Had Richard been as discreet and politic as he was brave, he might have made himself master of the east. Perhaps no warrior of history ever dealt such blows as Richard the lion-hearted. Of almost giant size and strength, cased in the heavy armor of the times, his might in the battle field made him a host in himself. Learning one day that his garrison at Jaffa was in jeopardy, Richard hastened with a small body of troops to their relief, rushed with his men into the thickest ranks of the enemy, vanquished every thing that dared oppose him, and

4. When and where did he die? What became of his army?—5. Relate the movements of Richard and Philip Augustus. What important island was taken?—6. What was done by Philip Augustus? What battle was fought? By whom was it fought? What was its result? Did the victor judge it prudent to follow up his success, or did he negotiate?—7. What were some of Richard's exploits?
DEATH OF SALADIN.

rescued two noble knights who had been taken by the Saracens. Once he was surrounded by a band of soldiers, and single handed he cut his way through them. Such terror and admiration seized his enemies, that fifty years afterwards his name was used in the east to frighten wayward children.

8. It is said that, on one occasion, when Saladin perceived the flight of his men, he inquired the cause; and being told that, the English king had himself driven them from the city, asked, "Which is he?" He was pointed to a little hillock, where Richard with his men had halted. "What," said Saladin, "on foot among his servants? This is not as it should be;" and immediately he sent him a horse. After the departure of Richard, and the death of Saladin, which occurred a year afterwards, the Christians of Palestine enjoyed a season of repose. Saladin was the wisest and most upright prince that ever filled a Mahometan throne. When he found himself near death, impressed with the worthlessness of earthly grandeur, he ordered the standard which had been borne in his victorious marches, to be removed, and a shroud to be substituted in its place. This he commanded to be carried through the streets, the criers proclaiming "Behold what Saladin the mighty conqueror carries with him of all his vast dominions." These dominions were divided at his death.

9. EASTERN EMPIRE—The Byzantine empire, already stripped of its Asiatic provinces, was now further dismembered. Bulgaria, which had for almost two centuries acknowledged its supremacy, revolted and became independent. Cyprus had been usurped by a prince of the Comnenian family. Richard of England conquered him, and bestowed the island upon Guy of Lusignan, the former king of Jerusalem.

10. The throne of ISAAC ANGELOS, monarch of Constantinople, was usurped by his brother ALEXIUS ANGELOS, and the dethroned monarch deprived of his sight, and imprisoned. Young Alexius, the son of Isaac, escaped, implored the protection of pope Innocent III., and sought to engage the nations of the west to employ their arms in the restoration of his father. At this time many of the nobles of Germany and France, the flower of western chivalry, had assembled with their vassals at Venice, with the design of procuring conveyance to Palestine for a fourth crusade. To Venice Alexius proceeded, and besought, for his father, the aid of the gallant warriors. His importunity was seconded by DANDOLO, the aged and venerable doge of Venice. A large body of the pilgrims, whose leader was BALDWIN, count of Flanders, embarked with the Venetians for Constantinople.

9. What instance of courtesy is related of Saladin? What was the character of Saladin?—9. What provinces were taken from the Greek empire?—10. What was the conduct of Alexius Angelus? Who was young Alexius? What crusade was about to be undertaken? Where did young Alexius apply for aid, and to whom? By whom was he favored? Who embarked for Constantinople?
11. The crusaders destroyed the Grecian fleet, and rode triumphantly in the harbor. The city, containing above four hundred thousand inhabitants, was besieged by twenty thousand Latin pilgrims. Alexius Angelus, after one attempt at a sally, fled in secrecy from the city, while the nobles released Isaac from prison, placed him upon the throne, and opened the gates of the city to the besiegers. The conditions of the surrender promised by the young Alexius were, the submission of the eastern empire to the pope, aid in the holy war, and a contribution of two hundred thousand marks to his deliverers. The Greeks were displeased with these conditions, and irritated at the prospect of surrendering the independence of their church. The engagements of Alexius were not fulfilled, and the Latins became dissatisfied and insolent in their conduct. The indignant Greeks petitioned the senate to give them a more worthy emperor, and offered the imperial purple in succession to all the senators.

12. **Alexius Ducas**, surnamed Mazoufe, encouraged the revolt, placed himself at its head, and treacherously obtaining possession of the person of Alexius, he murdered him, and assumed the sovereignty. The aged emperor died of grief and fear. Mazoufe at first had possession of Constantinople, and endeavors to defend it against the Latins, whose demands he refused to satisfy. They besieged and again took the city. Plunder followed the conquest, and the most precious monuments of ancient art were destroyed by the hands, not of barbarians, but of the Latin soldiery.

13. The victorious crusaders elected as emperor, their principal leader, Baldwin, count of Flanders; and to another of their chiefs, the Marquis of Montserrat, was given the island of Crete and Asiatic Greece. Baldwin was soon compelled to defend the empire he had conquered. The Greeks of Thrace having revolted, he marched against them; but was defeated and taken captive. Under his successors, the Latin kingdom languished, until in 1261, less than fifty years after its conquest, it was recovered by the Greeks under Michael Paleologus, a nobleman of exalted worth, who became emperor. Another nobleman, Theodore Lascaris, founded a kingdom of which Nice was the seat.

14. **MOGULS.**—Termugin, known as Junghiz Khan, was the son of a barbarian, who reigned over a few hordes of Tar—
GREAT EMPIRE OF THE MOGULS.

15. He led vast multitudes against the Chinese,—passed the great wall, and stormed and destroyed a multitude of cities. His path was the track of desolation. His retreat from China was purchased by a tribute. A second expedition drove the emperor of China to his southern provinces, while the northern were added to the empire of Jenghiz. Passing towards the dominions of the Mahometan sultan, 700,000 Moguls and Tartars followed his standard, while their antagonists, the Mahometans, vainly opposed him with 400,000. City after city, from the Caspian to the Indus, was besieged and taken;—nations and kingdoms were so wasted and depopulated, that five centuries were not sufficient to repair the ravages of four years. While Jenghiz himself engaged in this expedition, one of his generals had spread the terror of his arms from the western provinces of Persia to the banks of the Volga, and the farther shores of the Caspian. Jenghiz Khan was the most cruel and bloody of all tyrants. He made war to exterminate nations, that he might plant the countries with his own people. Once he had 100,000 captives executed on the same day. It is computed that he caused the destruction of 14,470,000 of the human race.

16. On the death of Jenghiz his vast empire was divided among his four sons. They extended his conquests,—nearly completed the reduction of all Asia, and conquered a considerable portion of Europe. His grandson, Kouli (or Kublai) Khan, achieved the entire conquest of China, the northern provinces of which had submitted to Jenghiz, and the remains of the former family of emperors was exterminated. He built Pekin and made it his capital. Bengal and Thibet also yielded him tribute and obedience. The arms of the Moguls were, under another of the grandsons of Jenghiz, again carried into Persia, the empire of the caliphs was subverted, and the conquests of the Moguls extended to Aleppo and Damascus. The Mamelukes of Egypt opposed their progress, but the kingdoms of Anatolia
and Armenia submitted to their sway. They conquered Russia, invaded Poland, and spread devastation through Hungary. Of one of the grandsons of Jenghiz it is said, that in the space of less than six years, he extended his conquests over a line of ninety degrees of longitude.

17. The extensive conquests of the Moguls were not conducted by the successors of Jenghiz in person, but committed to their lieutenants. By degrees these lieutenants threw off their allegiance to the great Khan, and acquired the supreme control in their respective provinces. After a time they renounced idolatry, and all connection with the Mogul idolaters of China, and embraced Mahometanism. Holagou Khan, a descendant of Jenghiz, extirpated the terrible banditti known by the name of the "Society of Assassins," which had continued under a succession of chiefs 172 years, though changing the seat of power. It was founded 1090, by Hassan Sebek, called on account of his residence among the mountains south of the Caspian, "the Old Man of the Mountains." The same title descended to his successors. They pretended to divine inspiration, and their maxim was, "to the faithful nothing is forbidden." In Syria they had at one period, 60,000 men. Their daggers were lurking in the cities of the east and of the west—the terror of all. The Druses were a sect formed from the Assassins, and inhabiting the same region. They adopted faith in Hakem, a counterfeit Mahomet; who, when told of his licentiousness and crimes, said, "their history constituted a sublime allegory for the edifying of the faithful!" So long as mankind love imposition, there will be impostors.

CHAPTER IV.

Germany.

1. Henry VI. succeeded his father Frederic Barbarossa. The death of William, king of Sicily, gave him a claim upon that crown, in right of his empress Constantia, the sister of the deceased. His right was disputed, and again the faithful soldiers of Germany were dragged from their homes to Italy, that their sovereign, who ought to have applied himself in the fear of the Lord to their public affairs, might possess a foreign dominion.

16. Did they conquer Egypt? What countries of Europe were conquered by the Moguls?—17. How did the immense empire of the Moguls pass from the successors of Jenghiz? What religion did these lieutenants embrace? What was done by Holagou Khan? Give an account of the Assassins. Of the Druses.

CHAP. IV.—1. Who succeeded Frederic Barbarossa? How did he derive a claim upon Sicily? What did he to establish his claim?
Henry made himself master of nearly all Campania, Calabria, and Apulia; and at length achieved in another expedition, the conquest of the kingdoms of Sicily and Naples. His efforts to render the imperial dignity hereditary, had so far succeeded, as to procure a decree, by which his son, Frederic II. was, on his death, made king of the Romans, and heir to the empire.

2. Frederic being a minor, his uncle, Philip, duke of Swabia, became regent. The sultan of Egypt had reduced the Christians of the east to great distress, and their only hope was in the aid of their brethren of the west. To engage Frederic in their cause, the pope gave him in marriage Yolanda, the daughter of John of Brienne, titular king of Jerusalem, with that kingdom as her dower. Still Frederic manifested a reluctance to depart, until the patience of the pope was exhausted, and he pronounced his excommunication. The emperor now renewed the war of the Guelphs and Ghibellines. He invaded Italy, compelled the pope to flee from Rome, and ravaged his possessions. Frederic at length proceeded to perform his vow; but departed for the holy land without the sentence of excommunication having been revoked: His crusade was more successful than that of either of the preceding monarchs. The sultan of Egypt ceded to him Jerusalem, with several other cities. A truce of ten years was concluded. Gregory IX. would not allow any ecclesiastics to assist in crowning Frederic king of Jerusalem, but he took the crown from the altar, and with his own hands placed it on his head.

3. The pope instigated his subjects in Italy to revolt, and for several years, Germany and Italy were deluged with blood. A succession of popes declared Frederic excommunicated and de-throned, and new emperors elected. Still he maintained his cause, until death relieved the popes from a fearless and formidable enemy. But the troubles of the empire increased. Tumult and confusion prevailed. All classes were in arms; several emperors were elected, but none properly acknowledged, until Rodolph of Hapsburgh, a prince of the ancient family of the Guelphs, and possessing considerable territories in Switzerland, was raised to the throne. From him sprang the House of Austria.

4. While Germany was in this state of disorder, Denmark, Holland, and Hungary threw off their allegiance to the empire. A confederation of several cities, the principal of which were Lubec, Cologne, Brunswick, and Dantzic, was formed about

1. What countries did he conquer? Who succeeded him? 2. What was now the condition of the Christians in the Holy Land? What did the pope to induce Frederic to undertake a crusade? Did he fulfill his promise at once? What did Frederic in consequence of the pope's excommunication? Relate the circumstances of Frederic's crusade. Which crusade was this? Was there fighting in the Holy Land during this or any future crusade? What was done at the coronation of Frederic in Jerusalem? How many crusades were there? 3. What occurred afterwards during this emperor's reign? What after his decease? Who was elected to succeed him? 4. What states during the interregnum became independent?
this period in the west of Germany. These cities were situated
on, and near the Elbe. They were called the Hanse towns, and
the confederation the Hanseatic League. Rodolph took arms
against Ottocarus, king of Bohemia, who had seized the duchy
of Austria; defeated and slew him in battle. Austria was
given to Albert, the eldest son of Rodolph. The reign of
Rodolph was prosperous and popular. The electors at his
death, rejecting Albert, chose Adolphus of Nassau; but he was
eventually deposed, when Albert obtained the sovereignty.

5. The Swiss Cantons of Uri, Schwitz and Underwald, al-
though free and independent in their internal government, had
been obliged to acknowledge the supremacy of the empire, under
the administration of Rodolph, who, however, treated them
with great lenity. Albert, indignant at the spirit of freedom
which they had occasionally expressed, sent bailiffs, with orders
to tame these mountaineers, and bring them to subjection.
Gesler, one of these officers, had erected in the market place,
a pole on which he placed his hat, commanding the passers by
to pay it obeisance. William Tell refused to yield the ho-
mage. He was sentenced to death, but his sentence was ex-
changed into a command to shoot an apple from the head of his
son; and if his arrow failed, both he and his son were to be
executed. Tell hit the apple;—but Gesler discovered another
arrow in his possession, and inquired for what purpose he de-
signed it. “For thee,” replied Tell. He was imprisoned, and
put on board a boat to be conveyed across the lake of Lucerne.
A storm arose, and Tell was unbound, that his known skill
might save the perishing bark. He guided her course to a shore,
where, springing upon a rock, he killed Gesler with an arrow
as he landed, and then escaped to his friends, in the canton of
Schwitz, who were already banded in the cause of their coun-
try’s liberties.

6. Melchthal, Stauffacher, and Furst, three patriot
leaders, had in secret matured their plans; and the affair of Tell
proving the signal of revolt, the whole country rose in arms.
The Austrian officers, surprised, and unable to resist, were made
prisoners, and conducted to the frontiers, where they were with-
out bloodshed liberated, on their swearing never again to serve
against the Swiss. After the death of Albert, Germany was
again distracted by two emperors being elected at the same time,
and the people arranged by their leaders on opposite sides, were
wasting and destroying their common country and themselves.
During this period, one of their emperors, Leopold, undertook

4. What confederacy arose, and of what cities was it composed? How
does Albert become sovereign of Austria? What account can you give
of his being elected emperor?—5. What three of the Swiss cantons are
here mentioned? What account can you give of them? What orders did
Albert give his officers? Relate the story of William Tell.—6. Who
were the three patriot leaders leagued with Tell? What was done by them
and the Swiss generally? What occurred after the death of Albert in rela-
tion to the succession? What number and kind of force went against the
Swiss? With what did the Swiss defeat them, and where?
to reduce the Swiss, and went against them with 21,000 cavalry. But the brave mountaineers, with 1,300 infantry, defeated them at Morgarten; and established the independence of Switzerland. Other cantons soon joined them, and in 1353, there were thirteen.

7. Henry, Count of Luxembourg, was elevated by the electors to the throne. His short reign is but a repetition of that of his predecessors—intrigues at home,—contests with the popes,—wars in Italy. During one of these he died suddenly, at Benevento. After an interregnum of fourteen months, two emperors were elected in Germany, who, by their conflicting claims, brought again the curse of civil war. Louis of Bavaria being at length elected, carried his arms into Italy. Pope John XXII., who resided at Avignon, excited the German princes to revolt. On the return of the emperor to quell the domestic disturbances, the pontiff recovered his power at Rome, and the friends of the emperor were expelled from the city. Finding all reconciliation with the Roman see impossible, Louis summoned a diet, which decreed that the pope had no superiority over the German emperor; nor was his approval essential in the imperial elections, the power of choosing the emperor being vested in the college of electors alone. For a while the empire remained at peace, but the intrigues of the pontiffs again produced open hostilities to Louis; and Clement VI., who had succeeded to the papal chair, procured the election of Charles of Luxembourg, son and heir of the king of Bohemia. Louis soon died, and Charles becoming emperor, was a mere tool for the reigning popes.

8. It was, however, during this reign, that the constitution called the "Golden Bull" was established. By this the number and duties of the electors were settled, and the succession of each electorate acknowledged as belonging to the oldest son. This famous instrument shows the style and spirit of the times. It begins with an apostrophe to Satan, Anger, Pride, and Luxury; and it sets forth the necessity that the number of electors should be seven, in order to oppose the seven mortal sins! On the death of Charles, his son Wenceslaus succeeded to the imperial throne, as well as to the crown of Bohemia. The shameful levity and utter profligacy of this prince disqualified him for the care of his empire; and under his administration, its affairs, both in Germany and Italy, went to ruin. The electors held a diet and deposed him. Wenceslaus took their treatment, however, in good part, and returned to his hereditary dominions; only desiring the cities to send him as a parting present, some butts of their best wine!

9. Frederic, duke of Brunswick, was next chosen, who was shortly after murdered; and subsequently, Rupert, count palatine of the Rhine, was elected to fill the vacant throne. At this
period may be dated the commencement in Germany of a schism
in the church, which led the way to "the Reformation." John
Huss, of Prague, a follower of certain opinions which Wick-
liffe had taught in England, began to teach in Bohemia. The
emperor Rupert vainly sought to heal the dissensions which
arose in the church, but died without effecting his object. He
was succeeded in the imperial government by Sigismund, king
of Hungary, brother to the deposed Wenceslaus. The disorders
of the church claimed his first attention. A general council
was, with the approbation of the pope, convened at Constance.
Huss was cited to appear, charged with heresy, condemned, and
with a mitre of paper placed upon his head, on which were
painted three devils, he was committed to the flames, and died
maintaining his faith. The same opinions were professed, and
taught by the learned Jerome of Prague, the companion of
Huss; and he suffered the same fate. But these executions served
to increase the number of the Hussites; and in Bohemia they
maintained a long war with the imperial power. A pacification
was at length effected, and they were granted the privileges
which they claimed.

10. Albert, duke of Austria, son-in-law of Sigismund, suc-
ceeded him in the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, and was
subsequently raised to the imperial throne. His short reign
was alarmed by the appearance of the Turks in Bulgaria. His
sudden and early death prevented his meeting them in arms.
He was succeeded on the thrones of Hungary and Bohemia, by
his son Ladislaus, then a minor, and the empire was conferred
on his cousin, Frederic of Austria. This prince wandered,
like his predecessors, after the phantom of power which their
Italian titles conferred, and was crowned at Rome. Europe
was now alarmed at the progress of the Turks, who made them-
selves masters of Constantinople. Assemblies were summoned
for the purpose of arming Christendom against them, but nothing
effectual was done. John Hunniades, general of the Hungari-
ans, compelled them to raise the siege of Belgrade, which they
had invested. Frederic III. was succeeded by his son, Maxi-
milian, arch-duke of Austria. He married Mary, only child of
Charles the Bold, and heiress of Burgundy and Flanders,
and thus obtained possession of these extensive domains, which
were at this period rich and commercial.

11. France.—Philip Augustus, on going to the crusade,
had pledged himself by oath not to encroach upon the do-
minions of Richard; but the pope giving him a dispensation,

9. Who subsequently? What persons were at this period tried and con-
demned? At what council were they condemned, and for what? What
effect had their death upon the belief of the people? What was done, and
what obtained by the Hussites?—10. In whose reign did the Turks ap-
ppear? In whose reign did they conquer Constantinople? What hero met
them in Hungary? Pay particular attention to the successor of Frederic
III. Who was he? By what marriage connexion did he gain large pos-
sessions? In what condition was Burgundy and Flanders?—11. How did
Philip Augustus conduct in reference to Richard of England?
Philip held himself free to follow out his ambitious inclinations. He excited Richard's younger brother John to rebel against him, and practised to have Richard himself detained prisoner in Germany; but the lion-hearted warrior escaped, and Philip wrote to John, "Beware; the devil is unchained." On Richard's return to his dominions, a war ensued between the rivals, but it was characterized by no remarkable event, and waged with little vigor. On the accession of John to the crown of England, Philip summoned him as his vassal of Normandy, to appear before him and answer for the murder of his nephew, Arthur. John neglecting to appear, his continental dominions were declared forfeit, and annexed to the French crown. The pope, in a quarrel with John, gave to Philip the crown of England; and he made extensive preparations for a war in vindication of the claim thus obtained. Meanwhile the pontiff concluded a peace with England, and revoked the gift. Philip, as a sovereign of the French, was one of their best. He not only enlarged his domains, but he consolidated his power, and gained an ascendency over the nobles favorable to the interests of the people, constituting a royal court, to which they could appeal from the decisions of the baronial courts. He also established a royal military force, paid directly from his own coffers.

12. The short reign of Louis VIII. is memorable for nothing save finishing a cruel war undertaken by his father, Philip Augustus, against the Waldenses and Albigenses, religious orders in the south of France. Pope Innocent III. denounced them as heretics, and commanded the chivalry to destroy them. The famous Simon de Montfort commanded against them, and 200,000 men were employed in exterminating a million of harmless people. Louis IX. called Saint Louis, being a minor, his mother, the excellent Blanche of Castile, held the reins of government, and with a vigorous hand. He undertook a crusade for the benefit of Christians in the east, now in distress. He first directed his arms against Egypt, as being the key of the holy land; but his army was reduced by pestilence, defeated by the Moslems, and himself made prisoner. He was re-

* The Albigenses, who were in Piedmont, must be distinguished from the Waldenses, or followers of Peter Waldo, in Dauphiny, Narbonne and Provence. The Albigenses, so called from the town of Albigœs, were a sect of the Monichaans, and held to certain doctrines respecting the origin of good and evil deemed heretical; with these they mingled an abhorrence of the Roman hierarchy, for which the pope decreed their destruction. The Waldenses held to deriving their religion, without the intervention of man, directly from God—by his holy spirit, and through his written word, which they circulated. This makes the Waldenses the true precursors of the Reformation. The persecution of the Albigenses was, however, equally sinful. Some distinguish the Vallenses from the Waldenses as a church coming down from the apostles, and having never bowed to Rome.

11. Where was Richard detained on his return from the holy land? What did Philip write to John when he escaped? How did Philip get possession of Normandy? What gift did he receive from the pope? What was Philip's character as a sovereign? What were his principal acts?—12.

For what was the reign of Philip's son memorable? Who were the Albigenses? The Waldenses? The Vallenses? Give an account of Louis IX.
leased, in exchange for the city of Damietta of which his army had obtained possession. After passing four years in the holy land he returned to his kingdom. But his rage of crusading was not extinguished. He invaded the kingdom of Tunis, in order to convert the monarch and his people; but himself and his army fell a prey to an epidemic disease which ravaged the country.

13. PHILIP THE HARDY, succeeded his father. In his reign a massacre of the French took place in the island of Sicily, called the "Sicilian vespers." CHARLES OF ANJOU, the sovereign of Sicily, was a French prince, and uncle to Philip. His ambition and talents had made him feared and hated by the clergy, especially by the pope; and the seeds of revolt were sown deep in the minds of the Sicilians. At Palermo, as a bride with her train were passing the streets, they were treated rudely by a Frenchman. A Sicilian immediately stabbed him to the heart. Instantly the cry was heard in every direction, "Kill the French! Kill the French!" Men, women, and children were massacred; and the French population in the island wholly exterminated. Charles escaped from Sicily, and appealing to his nephew, Philip, engaged him in his cause. Peter, king of Arragon, had claims upon Naples and Sicily, and these were now acknowledged by the inhabitants. Philip, in order to establish the claims of Charles, invaded Spain; but he suffered much in the attempt, without accomplishing his purpose.

14. PHILIP "the Fair," engaged in contests with the haughty pope, BONIFACE VIII. His finances being low, he exacted money from the priests, notwithstanding Boniface had prohibited the clergy of any kingdom whatever, from granting money to princes, without his special permission. Boniface sent as a legate, to threaten the king of France, one of his own rebel subjects, who was immediately seized and imprisoned by his sovereign. Boniface, enraged, issued a proclamation declaring that the "Vicar of Christ was vested with full authority over all the kings and princes of the earth;" and ordered the French clergy forthwith to repair to Rome. A French priest carried this proclamation to the king. Philip threw it into the fire, assembled the representatives of the states of his kingdom, and laid the case before them. They acknowledged Philip's independent authority, and disavowed the pope's claim. It was on this occasion that the representatives of cities were first regularly summoned to the national assembly. Philip IV. improved the civil policy of France, both in the legislative and judicial departments.

1314. Louis X. 15. His son and successor, LOUIS X., was a mean and avar-
CHAPTER V.

England and France.

1. Edward III., put in a claim to the sovereignty of France, in right of his mother Isabella, daughter to Philip IV. It was disallowed by the French, who unanimously placed Philip on the throne. Edward, doubtless trusting more in the strength of his arms, than in the justice of his cause, assumed the title of king of France, and invaded that kingdom, where he fought the famous battle of Cressy, and defeated the army of Philip with great slaughter. He then besieged and took Calais, when a truce was concluded between the two nations. On taking that city, which had resisted his arms for nearly twelve months, Edward threatened to put the inhabitants to the sword, unless they would deliver up to death six of their principal citizens. Six noble burghers, self-devoted, came forth to his camp with halters on their necks. Edward commanded their execution. His queen Philippa arrived, threw herself upon her knees, and implored her husband to save them. She prevailed, and the gallant burghers exclaimed, "Edward conquers our cities, but Philippa our hearts."

2. Artillery was, for the first time, used at the battle of Cressy, and by the English. The invention of gunpowder is ascribed to Swartz, a monk of Cologne; but Roger Bacon of England, the greatest European philosopher of the dark ages, had, in a work on chemistry, described the mixture, and its explosive force. Small arms were not used till nearly a century afterwards. The knights regarded shooting as a barbarous mode

15. What occurred in the reign of Louis X. What respecting the succession? Who were the three next kings? What change of dynasty took place?

Chap. V.—1. On what ground did Edward III. claim the sovereignty of France? What did he to enforce his claim? What occurred on his taking Calais?—2. Give some account of the invention of gunpowder?
of attacking an adversary. But experience has demonstrated that the invention of fire-arms has been one of the greatest means of civilizing the world. As heavy ordnance costs labor and money to transport it, an advantage not before possessed was given to the invaded over the invader, which kept nations settled. The physical strength of a steel-guarded giant, who could deal heavier blows than his neighbors, no longer gained him an ascendancy to which his moral and intellectual energies afforded him no claim. The hazards of war could be better calculated, and disputes were oftener settled without bloodshed. Whatever increases the dangers and hazards of those who fight, naturally diminishes the number of wars, as it makes people more inclined to settle their differences peaceably.

3. A truce was made, during which Philip VI. died, and left the government to his son John, a prince ill qualified for his station. On the expiration of the truce, the Prince of Wales, called from his armor the Black Prince, who had when very young distinguished himself at Cressy, entered France at the head of an army, and near Poictiers he encountered the forces of John; and although they were far superior in numbers, he routed them and made their king prisoner. No knight ever treated a captive with more respectful courtesy, than the Black Prince did king John. He was carried into England, and during his absence, the government of the kingdom was committed to the dauphin, afterwards Charles V.

4. A truce with England for two years, relieved France from foreign enemies; but it was torn with domestic dissensions, which the weak administration of the young dauphin was unable to check. The national assembly was convened, but instead of assisting the king’s government, they availed themselves of present disturbances to extend their own prerogatives, and limit those of the crown. Paris revolted; the example was followed by many other cities, and anarchy pervaded the nation. In the war of the “Jaquerie,” the peasants rose against the nobility, burnt their castles, and murdered their families without mercy. The horror and desolation which spread through the land, and the want of any authority to check disorders, brought the capital to submit to the dauphin, and Charles now proceeded with vigor to restore order in the state. The truce was now exchanged for a peace. King John was set at liberty for a ransom in money, and for giving up, without reserving even right of homage, several French provinces to England.

5. John did not long survive the peace, and the dauphin,

2. Why was it a means of civilization?—3. What change in sovereigns occurred in France?—4. What suspension of the war now occurred?—5. What was the condition of the kingdom?—6. What occurred in the war of the Jaquerie or peasantry?—7. To what did this anarchy lead the people of Paris?—8. On what conditions did the French make peace with the English?
DUKE OF BURGUNDY ASSASSINATED.

Charles V., ascended the throne. When the internal disorders which had so nearly destroyed his kingdom, had by his vigor and prudence been healed, he renewed the war with England; whose continental affairs, in consequence of the advanced age of Edward III., and feeble health of the Black Prince, were now less prosperous. During the remaining years of his reign, he conquered all the English possessions in France, except Calais, Bordeaux, and Bayonne.

6. His son, Charles VI., a minor, succeeded him. The ambitious dukes of Anjou, Berri, and Burgundy, uncles to the young king, were made regents during his minority. They overburdened the people with taxes, and lavished the revenues of the kingdom upon the regal household, or suffered them to be plundered by the officers of government. This state of misrule led to horrible assassinations, and at length a cruel war. The hostile parties, called from their leaders, Armagnacs or Orleans, and Burgundians, each struggled to obtain the person of the king, and as they obtained it, they alternately seized the reins of government. The dregs of the populace of Paris espoused, with the most ferocious zeal, the parties of the rivals, and unchecked by any authority, committed the most horrid crimes. The unfortunate Charles became insane, and never recovered. Henry V., now on the throne of England, profited by the miseries of France, to renew the war. He landed at the mouth of the Seine, and took Harfleur. On the invasion of a foreign enemy, the French, for the moment, suspended their quarrels, and rallied in defence of the kingdom. An army of 60,000 men, under the constable D'Albret, posted themselves near the village of Agincourt, to intercept the English on their march. A bloody battle ensued, in which Henry was victorious over an army more than four times his number.

7. The Burgundian and Armagnac or Orleans factions, again made war upon each other, and the count D'Armagnac was barbarously massacred in Paris by John of Burgundy. Henry made himself master of Normandy, and prepared to advance to Paris. The young dauphin, now at the head of the Orleans party, attempted to seek a reconciliation with the Burgundians, and a meeting between him and duke John, surnamed the Fearless, was appointed on the bridge of Montreau. The duke knelt to the dauphin. At the moment, one of the Armagnacs stabbed him, and he fell dead at the prince's feet. The Burgundians, who had the good-will of Paris, believed that the royal family were privy to this deed of treachery, and Philip, their young duke, hastened to offer to Henry of England the crown.

8. Who succeeded John of France? What did he before renew the war with England? What was the situation of England's continental affairs? What did Charles conquer—6. Who was Charles VI.? Who were regents during his minority? What was their character and conduct? To what did their misrule lead? What factions arose, and what was their conduct towards the king? What befell the king—7. Relate the succeeding murders of the two factions? To what adjustment with Henry V. of England did these affairs lead?
of France. The other party also, intrigued with this foreign king. Affairs were compromised by the treaty of Troyes, by which Henry espoused the princess Catharine, daughter of Charles VI., and was declared heir of the French monarchy. The two kings Henry V. and Charles VI., died the same year, and Henry VI., the infant son of Henry V., was proclaimed king, with equal rejoicings in London and Paris.

8. Nevertheless, the dauphin assumed the government, under the title of Charles VII., and took the field. He was crowned by his partisans at Poictiers, Rheims, the usual place, being in the hands of his enemies. The regency of France was committed, on the part of the English, to the Duke of Bedford, uncle of the young Henry.

9. While the English interest in France was supported by the dukes of Burgundy and Brittany, the nation, after the death of their monarch, evinced symptoms of returning affection for the amiable Charles, his son. Yet, though the number of his adherents increased, and he received auxiliary troops from Scotland, his treasury was at a low ebb, and his prospects gloomy. The duke of Bedford obtained a victory over the united French and Scotch at Verneuil. He then besieged Orleans, which was considered as the key to France; and Charles, hopeless of relieving it, was about to retire,—when his sinking and almost ruined fortunes were retrieved by means of the most singular kind. A young female presented herself before him, and declared herself commissioned by God to deliver the city of Orleans, and conduct him to Rheims, there to be crowned and anointed. Her own solemn persuasion of the reality of her mission,—which was, she said, communicated in visions,—together with the intrepidity of her manner, made an impression of awe,—even on the minds of the gay courtiers.

10. The politicians saw, that whether true or false, important use might be made of the heroic Joan of Arc; yet at first they doubted, or pretended to doubt; and called a council of the clergy, who pronounced her revelations genuine. Clad in steel armor from head to foot, and mounted on a gallant war-steed, the maid of Orleans rode forth, bearing a consecrated banner. She took the command of the army, and assured, as by a voice from God, the joyful troops followed her into the city. The English affrighted to laugh,—but they were heart-stricken with

(The identical steel armor worn by Joan of Arc is in the "Musée d'Artillerie" at Paris. Its weight is such that an ordinary woman of our day could not lift it.)

7. What two kings died the same year, and what year? What prince was proclaimed king? Who formed, however, a party in France to crown Charles VII.? At what place was the coronation, and why at that place? Who was the English regent in France? Take sides! What was the situation of Charles VII.? What battle was fought, and who conquered? What siege was maintained? By whom were the fortunes of Charles retrieved? Relate her own account of her mission, and her impression concerning it.---10. What is said of the politicians and the clergy? Describe the appearance and first exploits of Joan of Arc.
FRANCE RECOVERED FROM THE ENGLISH.

the fear, that haply they were fighting against God. The heroine led the French to repeated attacks; and by continued victories, compelled their opponents to retire from Orleans.

11. She then demanded of the king, that he should depart for Rheims to be crowned. It seemed a mad undertaking; for the country was in the hands of the English. Yet, Charles obeyed the mandate. The English, although the duke of Bedford was indefatigable, could scarcely be prevailed on to offer the little army any annoyance. The cities, as they passed, opened their gates; Rheims sent its keys, and Charles entered—was crowned—and anointed with the holy oil kept since the time of Clovis. Here the maid declared that her mission was closed; but the French pleaded for her stay, and she unwisely remained in the camp. At the siege of Compeigne, she was taken captive in making a sally, tried by an English ecclesiastical court for the crime of sorcery, and burnt alive. Her influence was however still felt. Heaven had interfered in behalf of the French, and restored their lawful sovereign; and the nation, after such divine interposition, was not slow in returning to its duty.

12. The party of the English rapidly declined;—the death of the duke of Bedford gave the finishing blow to their misfortunes, and enabled Charles to obtain entire possession of his kingdom. The remaining years of his reign were devoted in endeavors to restore the wasted energies of the nation; and were successful in raising it from its long depression, to a high state of prosperity and happiness. A standing army was supported by a tax upon the people. This, by rendering it unnecessary to call upon the forces heretofore furnished by the vassals of the crown, prevented the strict relation which had existed between the nobles and their retainers; and facilitated the decay of the feudal policy, found, in the progress of society, to have become destructive in its consequences, both to the rulers and the people.

13. Louis XI., the son and successor of Charles, gave early indications of that intriguing policy, which characterized his reign. He collected around him to execute his plans, the most degraded of his subjects. His attempts to humble his great vassals, and extend the prerogatives of the crown, caused a war, known by the name of the war of the “Public Weal,” which ended in a treaty favourable to his subjects; but which Louis soon infringed. He was long engaged in hostilities with Charles, surnamed the Bold, duke of Burgundy.

11. After she had raised the siege of Orleans what did she require of Charles? Describe the passage of his army, and the result of the movement. What did Joan then declare? What did she unwisely consent to do? What was the consequence? How was her influence felt after her death?—12. What was now the condition of the English party? To what were the remaining years of Charles VII. devoted? What had been found to be the operation of the feudal system? What was done in France partially to destroy it?—13. Give an account of Louis XI.
14. BURGUNDY, as a kingdom, was founded by RUDOLF. At one period it comprised Switzerland as far as the river Aar,—the country north of the present province of Burgundy, once called Austrasia and Metz; while on the south it took in at its greatest extent Dauphiny and Provence. In 1369 Flanders and Artois had been added to the duchy, by the marriage of duke PHILIP THE GOOD to MARGARET, the heiress of these domains. By other means he acquired dominion over the whole of the Low Countries. The duchy of Burgundy was now an independent sovereignty, in a high state of cultivation, and celebrated for its manufactures of wool. CHARLES THE BOLD, who succeeded John, was the richest and most powerful—kept the most splendid court for tournaments and feats of arms—of any sovereign in Europe. Louis XI. took the extraordinary resolution, after giving Charles much cause of discontent, to go almost alone to pay the fierce Burgundian a visit. Charles, however, was by no means outwitted by him; and Louis could only get from his power by mortifying concessions. The Swiss, whom Charles despised, defeated him in the battles of Granson and Morat. Charles, in attempting to establish his authority in Lorraine, was killed in battle near Nancy. His only child, Mary, married Maximilian of Austria.

15. On the death of Charles, Louis seized part of the dominions of Mary, his daughter, the heiress of Burgundy. Multitudes of the subjects of Louis were sacrificed to his cruelty and treachery. During his reign, 4000 are estimated to have perished by torture, without any kind of trial. Yet he was himself perpetually tormented by the fear of death, and of that punishment thereafter, which he well knew that, for his crimes, he had merited. Yet, as a king, Louis XI. was to the people at large, a better sovereign than many who dazzle by generous qualities, and excite admiration for valor. If he oppressed the people himself, he suffered no one else to do it; and one tyrant has always been found a less evil than many. Louis XI. was succeeded by his son CHARLES VIII., who married ANNE, the duchess of Brittany, by which that province, the last of the great feudatories of France, was annexed to the crown.

14. Give an account of Burgundy as to its founder and early extent? What domains did Philip the Good add by marriage and otherwise? In what state did he leave the duchy to his successor—or what is said of the power and wealth of Charles the Bold? What was done by Louis XI.? How did he get out of the power of Charles? What people did Charles despise? In what battles did they defeat him? Where did he lose his life? Who was his heiress? Whom did she marry? 15. By whom were a part of Mary’s dominions seized? What was the character of Louis XI.?
CHAPTER VI.

England and Scotland.

1. Richard, on the conclusion of the truce with Saladin, hastened his return to his own kingdom, where the intrigues of his brother John, and Philip Augustus, rendered his presence necessary. On his arrival in Germany, where he travelled in disguise, he was discovered, and made prisoner by the duke of Austria; who, for £60,000 placed him in the hands of the emperor. After two years he was liberated, the English paying the emperor £300,000. He then returned to England, and was welcomed with joyful acclamations by his subjects. His brother John had cause to dread his approach; but Richard, naturally kind-hearted, was willing to overlook his misdeeds. "I freely forgive him," said he, "and I hope I may forget his wrongs, as soon as he will my pardon." Richard though a valorous knight, and a jovial companion, was fierce and rash in conduct; and his reign was unfortunate for his country. His delight was in hard blows, and he received his death-wound in storming the castle of a rebellious subject in France.

2. On his death there were two claimants of the English throne; John, who took immediate possession, and Arthur of Brittany, his nephew, son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, an elder brother. John defeated the forces of Arthur, took the young prince prisoner, and killed him. The king of France summoned John to answer for the murder of Arthur, both John and Arthur being, on account of their French possessions, vassals of that monarch. John not appearing, his domains were forfeited, and Philip took possession of Normandy, Maine and Anjou, which were thus alienated from England.

3. The unnatural murder of his nephew Arthur, and the continued violence and oppression of which John was guilty, had rendered his character and person odious to his English subjects; while his weakness enabled the people to put forth their claims to those rights of which they had long been deprived. A confederacy, including nearly all the nobility of England, demanded the restoration of their ancient laws, and the redress of their grievances. To enforce their demands, they prepared for war. John found himself compelled to treat with his subjects at Runnymede, and he subscribed "the charter," or the

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CHAP. VI.—1. What happened to Richard on his return from the crusade? How was the affair concerning his ransom? How much money did the emperor make? What occurred between him and his brother John? What was Richard's character, and the manner of his death?—2. What claimants were there to the crown? What was the conduct of John, and the fate of Arthur? What was done by the king of France? What provinces did the English lose?—3. What made John unpopular and even odious? What important measure was now taken by the nobles? What constitution did they obtain from John? Where and when?
“Magna Charta.” The venerable archbishop of Canterbury, STEPHEN LANGTON, braved the displeasure of the pope, by being one of the foremost in procuring, and afterwards defending from the faithless attempts of John, this great chart of England’s freedom. Twenty-five of the barons were named as guardians of the liberty of the kingdom, to whom was committed the charge of seeing the provisions of the charter executed. This important instrument contains the germ of English constitutional liberty; and not only of English liberty, but of American. The main points for which the charter gives surety are:—1, representation in parliament; 2, trial by jury; 3, writs of habeas corpus. It provides also for the fixed and regular returns of the courts of common pleas, and for the safety of foreign merchants travelling within the realm.

4. John now gave his dominions to the pope, and received them back as a fief of the Holy See, together with absolution from his engagements. Then supplying himself with foreign mercenaries, he attacked the unsuspecting barons, burned their castles, and laid waste their territories. The barons, enraged, offered the crown of England to Louis, the son of Philip Augustus of France, who entered England with an army. But on the death of John, many of the nobles withdrew their support from Louis, and proclaimed Henry III., the son of John. He being a minor, the earl of Pembroke, a wise and upright statesman, was made regent. He conducted the war against Louis, and compelled him to renounce his claim to the crown of England.

5. Henry married Eleanor, the daughter of the count of Provence. That portion of France became early polished in manners; and those of her countrymen who followed the queen, made themselves agreeable to the king, and received his favors; while they looked superciliously down on the offended nobles of England. Henry applied to the parliament for money to enable him to invade France. The barons first demanded the confirmation of the charter, which was granted. The invasion was fruitless; meanwhile the spirit of disaffection spread throughout the kingdom. The great charter was again renewed by Henry with the most imposing ceremonies; but he afterwards disregarding it, a parliament was summoned at Oxford, which confirmed and extended the rights of the people.

6. At the head of the party opposed to the king, was Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester, who by his talents and address

3. What ecclesiastic of England here favored the cause of human rights as well as English liberty? For what were 25 barons selected? What are the main points for which the charter stipulates?—4. What conduct of John showed him not to have been in good faith when he made the engagements of the “Magna Charta”? To whom did the English barons offer the crown, and what was the consequence? What occurred on the death of John respecting the succession and the regency? What war did earl Pembroke finish, and how?—5. Who was Henry’s queen? What was the conduct of the French who accompanied the queen? For what did Henry apply to the parliament? How was his application met by the barons? Where and in what assembly was the great charter finally renewed?
had insinuated himself into the confidence of the people. A civil war ensued. Leicester obtained possession of the person of the king; and for two years exercised the regal power in his name. Edward, the eldest son of Henry, who had at first joined the party against his father, now took the command of the royalists, and by his energy and valor, he obtained a victory over the forces of Leicester at Evesham, where that celebrated earl was slain. Although the reign of Henry is not considered a glorious one, yet during its long continuance his kingdom was less oppressed by exactions than in the times of more warlike sovereigns. It increased in wealth, and extended its commerce; the rights of the common people became more respected, and for the first time they were represented in parliament.

7. His son and successor, Edward, in the period which intervened between the battle of Evesham and his father’s death, went, at the summons of the pope, accompanied by his queen, Eleanor of Spain, and a few military followers—not so much to aid the cause of the Christians, as to behold their defeat in the Holy Land. Yet he found various occasions for the display of bravery and sagacity. He came near falling the victim of an assassin. An infidel stabbed him in his tent, with a poisoned weapon. The affectionate Eleanor sucked out the poison nursed and tended him, and he slowly recovered from its effects.

8. Edward returned to England on the death of his father, and having regulated the affairs of his kingdom, his aspiring mind conceived the design of uniting in his own person the dominion of the whole island. The Welsh, the ancient Britons, now under their king Lewellyn, struggled bravely to retain their independence, but were conquered. Lewellyn was slain in battle. His brother, prince David, was made prisoner by the English, tried as a traitor, and executed with a barbarity not infrequent in that cruel age. Tradition says that Edward then assembled the leaders of the Welsh, and told them he would give them for their sovereign, a prince, with whose manners no possible fault could be found, a Welshman by birth, who could not even speak a word of English; and amidst their acclamations and promises of obedience, he produced his infant son, born in Wales, in the castle of Caernarvon. This was his second son, but the oldest dying, the “Prince of Wales” became thereafter the title of the heir of the monarchy.

9. Events transpired in Scotland which gave to Edward the desired opportunity to interfere in the affairs of that kingdom. Alexander III. died, leaving no other descendant than a grand-

6. Who was Simon de Montfort, and what part did he act? Who set the royal party free from him, and at what battle? What may be said of Henry’s reign? When was the first regular parliament called? Of what representatives did it consist?—7. What crusade did prince Edward join? What happened to him in the Holy Land?—8. On what occasion did he return? Give an account of the conquest of Wales. Of the origin of the title applied to the eldest son of English kings.—9. What is said of Alexander III.?
daughter, MARGARET, then about three years of age; the offspring of Eric king of Norway, and MARGARET, daughter of Alexander. She was affianced to EDWARD, the young prince of Wales, son of the king of England; and she was taken from her home to be there educated. The delicate little “maid of Norway” withered like a transplanted flower, and died at the Orkney Islands, on her passage to England. Thirteen claimants to the Scottish crown appeared, but all were soon dismissed, except JOHN BALIOL and ROBERT BRUCE. They were both descendants of the earl of Huntingdon, third son of David I, king of Scotland. Baliol’s claims would at this day have been acknowledged without controversy, as he was descended from the eldest daughter of the earl of Huntingdon, being her grandson; but he was one remove farther from the blood of the Scottish king than Bruce, who was the son of the second daughter of the earl.

10. Henry II. had compelled WILLIAM, king of Scotland, whom he had taken prisoner, to do homage for his kingdom. Richard I. renounced this claim. Edward renewed it, nor dared Alexander III. refuse compliance.* In virtue of being lord paramount, Edward, on the death of Margaret, summoned the Scottish nobility and clergy to meet him at Norham, on the southern bank of the Tweed; where, by his address, he succeeded in inducing them to recognise his supreme authority, and leave to his decision the question of right between Bruce and Baliol. Both the competitors also gave their solemn assent to his arbitration as sovereign lord of Scotland. After calling much learned council to his aid, Edward decided in favor of BALIOL. Baliol, however, soon found the English yoke galling; and his haughty temper being wrought upon by his nobles, he concluded an alliance with Edward’s enemies, the French, and obtained from the pope a dispensation from his oath of fealty.

11. Edward invaded Scotland at the head of a powerful army, crossed the Tweed, defeated the forces of Baliol, and carried him prisoner to England. WILLIAM WALLACE now rose from obscurity. The fame of his brave and successful exploits drew multitudes to his standard, and at length placed him at the head of a considerable army. He defeated the English governor, near Stirling, made himself master of that fortress, and laid

* On his knees, in presence of the English prelates and barons, he said, “I Alexander, king of Scotland, become the liege man of the lord Edward, king of England, against all men.” This may serve as a specimen of what is meant by the phrase “doing homage,” so frequently occurring in the history of the feudal times. Several conditions, such as supplying a certain number of troops, &c., were generally annexed to this acknowledgment of paramount authority.

9. Who was the “Maid of Norway,” and what was her fate? What account can you give of the claimants to the Scottish throne?—10. How did Edward I. get up a claim to arbitrate in the affairs of Scotland? What question was left to his decision? How did he decide? What is further said of Baliol?—11. What measures did the king of England take? Give an account of the first public acts of William Wallace?
waste the country to Durham. Edward, who had concluded a
peace with France, turned now his whole strength upon Scot-
land; defeated the Scots at Falkirk, proceeded to the northern
parts of the kingdom, and for a time, again subjected it to his
power. Wallace still maintained his independence, but was at
length betrayed to Edward by his pretended friend, Sir John
Monteith, and suffered, on Tower Hill at London, the cruel death
of a traitor.

12. Robert Bruce was grandson to the competitor of Ba-
ilol. His father, in hopes of obtaining from Edward the Scot-
tish crown, had joined the English army. After the battle of
Falkirk he held a conference with Wallace on the banks of the
Carron. But instead of being persuaded to submit to Edward,
the undaunted patriot indignantly upbraided Bruce with having,
for ambition, basely abandoned his native land, and sacrificed
her independence. Bruce felt his reproaches so keenly that he
sickened; and with his dying breath he exhorted his son to
make atonement to his suffering country. On the death of Wal-
lace, young Bruce fled from England and offered himself as a
leader to the Scots, who burned with rage at the base execution
of their hero. He was joyfully received, but soon found him-
self surrounded by dangers and difficulties. Comyn, the heir of
Bailiol held the sovereignty, and affected to combine with Bruce,
while secretly he plotted to betray him. Bruce stabbed him;
and was crowned king at Scone. Edward was enraged, and at
a grand military court at Westminster, he and his son swore
never to rest till Scotland was subdued. Bruce was driven to
extremities; his wife and daughters were made prisoners, and,
with a few followers, he found a winter's refuge in the island of
Rachrin. In the spring, he passed over to Arran, where his ene-
mies were in full possession of the country. But the hearts of
the people were with Bruce. Raising 300 men, he surprised
the English and took the castle of Turnberry in Carrick. His
followers increased; and for eight years he kept the field and
held the whole force of England at bay.

13. Edward I., to fulfil his oath, had raised a large army, and
having marched to Carlisle, disease put a period to his life.
During his reign England made great advances, both in national
power and prosperity, and in individual security. He is called
the English Justinian, from his improvements in jurisprudence.
He established the regularity of parliaments, and confirmed the
right of the people to take a share in them by their representa-
tives. Edward II. his successor, withdrew the forces which
his father had marched into Scotland, or left them under lieu-

11. Give a further account of Edward I. What was the fate of Wal-
lace?—12. Who was Robert Bruce? Relate what part his father took in
the war in which Wallace was the Scottish chief? Relate the course of
young Bruce up to the time of his coronation? What oath was taken by
Edward and his son? What was now the condition and conduct of Bruce?
—13. What was the last public act of Edward? Where did he die? What
was the effect of his reign upon England? What was he called and for
what reason? What did he establish and confirm?
tenants, contrary to his father's dying commands. The reign of this weak prince was disgraced by his subserviency to the worthless favorites whom he kept around him. His nobles, disaffected with his retreat from Scotland, and enraged at beholding unlimited honors and riches lavished upon a Gascon named Piers Gaveston, revolted, and placed at their head, Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, cousin to the king. Edward was at length compelled to yield his favorite to the public indignation, and to renew the Scottish war.

14. Bruce's authority was now acknowledged throughout Scotland, and with the exception of a few fortresses, all the conquests of the English had been recovered. His army which was assembled in the county of Stirling, was much inferior to the English, but rendered intrepid by the knowledge that they must fight for their homes, and their independence. Edward himself headed the English. The Scots had made careful preparations for the action, and chosen well their battle field,—the memorable plain of Bannockburn. The armies were in sight of each other when the Scots knelt to implore the blessing of heaven, and to receive the benediction of their priests. Edward, who had expressed his doubts whether they would "abide battle," on beholding the army in this posture of supplication, exclaimed joyfully, "they crave mercy." "It is from heaven, not from your highness," replied Umfraville, a Scotchman in the English service; "on this field they will either win or die." His prediction was fulfilled; the English were defeated, and driven into their own kingdom.

15. After this unsuccessful campaign against the Scotch, the peace of England was again disturbed by the animosities of the nobility against the favorites of the king. Hugh Spencer was now the object of the royal favor, and of the nation's jealousy. This favorite, and his father, were banished, but were shortly after recalled; and a civil war ensued, in which the earl of Lancaster was taken by the king and beheaded at Pomfret. A truce was concluded with Scotland for thirteen years, and the queen Isabella, the beautiful but unprincipled sister of the king of France, returned to her native country to settle disputes which had arisen between her brother and her husband. In France Isabella united her influence with the members of the Lancaster faction, with whose chief, Mortimer, she carried on an intrigue. She conspired against her husband, and re-embarking for England, landed at Orewell in Suffolk. The disaffected barons of England flocked to her standard, and Edward found himself nearly deserted. The Spencers were made prisoners and

13. What was the character and conduct of his successor? Who was Piers Gaveston? What was done by the nobles? What two measures were taken by Edward to restore himself to favor?—14. Describe the battle of Bannockburn?—15. What favorite again provoked the barons to rebel? What befell the earl of Lancaster? Who was queen Isabella? For what did she go to France? With what nobleman did she form a conspiracy against her husband? When she landed in England how was she received?
executed. The queen summoned a parliament which deposed Edward, on the ground of incapacity for governing.

16. His son, Edward III. was placed upon the throne; and the regency committed to the queen. The deposed monarch was carried from place to place, till at length he was confined in Berkley castle. The vassals one night heard dreadful shrieks from his apartment,—the next morning his death was announced, and no one doubted that he had been murdered. The nation was not long deluded by the pretences of Isabella and Mortimer, who still kept the young prince under their control. A conspiracy, to which he was privy, was formed, which succeeded in delivering him from the power of the regency. Mortimer was taken and executed. Isabella was spared from regard to her rank and sex, but remained a prisoner. She was held in contempt for her vices during the rest of her life; but received in her confinement annual visits from her son.

17. Meantime Scotland had passed from the vigorous hand of Robert Bruce, to his son David II., a minor. Sir James Douglas, who was at one time the support of the throne of Bruce, was absent, and the regency was committed to Randolph Earl of Murray. Edward Baliol, son of John Baliol, took this opportunity of advancing his claim to the Scottish throne, which was supported by the English. He collected an army which defeated that of Bruce at Halidon hill. David was forced to take refuge in France. A Scottish parliament was called, who recognized Baliol as their sovereign, and some of the nobles took the oath of fealty. Soon, however, the attachment of the Scots to their former monarch, and their innate animosity towards the English, by whom Baliol was supported, revived the party of the son of Bruce, and a second and a third invasion by Edward of England, failed of establishing Baliol on the throne.

18. Meanwhile the English monarch assumed the title of king of France, and with an army invaded that kingdom by the way of Flanders. He obtained an important naval victory near Helvoet-Sluys, after which he returned to England, to make more vigorous preparations for another war. This proved successful. The great battle of Cressy was fought, and Calais taken. During this war, David Bruce had returned from France to Scotland, and having raised an army, he carried his arms into the north of England, where he was defeated and made prisoner by an army led by the queen, Philippa, of Hainault.

19. At the expiration of the truce which succeeded the surrender of Calais, the war with France was renewed by Edward,
the valiant prince of Wales, already so much distinguished as "the Black Prince." At the battle of Poictiers, he defeated a French army greatly superior in force, and made John, the reigning king, prisoner. He was sent to England, where the king of Scotland was also a captive. Another truce of two years followed this battle, when the monarchs entered into a treaty, by which Edward III. renounced his pretensions to the crown of France, but obtained the full sovereignty of the ancient English possessions, and recent conquests in that country, together with a liberal ransom for the French king.

20. The differences between England and Scotland were settled by the death of Edward Baliol, and the recognition of David II. by the king of England. The Black Prince received from his father the sovereignty of Aquitaine and Gascony. His chivalric spirit led him to Spain, to reinstate upon his throne "Peter the Cruel," whose daughter Constance, his brother, John of Gaunt had married. But his health failed, and he returned to England, to die a lingering death. After his return the French renewed the war, and recovered, by the valor of the constable Du Guesclin, all the cities which the English had owned in France except Bordeaux, Bayonne, and Calais. After the death of queen Philippa, Edward kept about his person one Alice Perrers, to whose care and mercy he was abandoned when a mortal disease was upon him. She removed him to Shene, and the morning before his death, robbed him of the very ring upon his finger, and departed. The other servants left the helpless man to plunder his house; and he who had been the most powerful monarch of his age, would have breathed his last sigh alone, had not a priest chanced to come in. He admonished him of his situation; Edward thanked him—weep—and expired.

21. This king improved England in its legislation, police, and especially in commerce and manufactures. The magnificent castle of Windsor was built by him. But his foreign wars had drained his kingdom. His successes were but a dazzling show; the evils that followed were a sad reality.

CHAPTER VII.

The war of the Roses.

1. Richard II., son of the Black Prince, at the age of twelve, succeeded his grandfather. On account of his minority, the

19. Give an account of the battle of Poictiers, and mention how long it was after the battle of Cresey. What were the conditions of the truce which followed—20. How were the differences with Scotland adjusted—Give a further account of the Black Prince. Of his father—21. What was the character of Edward's reign, as to his management of internal affairs—

CHAP. VII.—1. Who succeeded Edward III.? What was his age?
administration was intrusted to his uncles, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester; the latter of whom had a controlling ascendance in the government. A state of gloomy discontent pervaded England. Not only had the foreign wars of Edward drained the kingdom; but the galling servitude of feudalism, amounting to personal slavery, was yet unbroken, and worse than the tyranny of lords temporal, was that of the lords spiritual. Besides tithes and rich perquisites, the clergy owned, at this time, more than one half the landed property in England. A great man now appeared as a reformer,—John Wicliffe, born in 1324. He was educated at Oxford, and there received distinguished honours. As early as 1370 he began to speak openly of the corruptions of the Romish church, and to charge the pope with claiming usurped powers. Edward III. invited him to court, and gave him the living of Lutterworth. The pope commanded the English clergy to seize the arch-heretic; but John of Gaunt favored him, and he eluded their utmost vigilance. He then came boldly before parliament, with a severe paper against the papal infallibility, and in favor of the scriptures being used in the vernacular tongue. This he did preparatory to publishing a translation of the Bible. Wicliffe was afterwards persecuted; but he lived to old age, and died of disease; and though his bones were afterwards exhumed and burnt, yet his doctrines, which had gone into the minds of men, there remained and germinated.

2. The discontent of the people broke out in Dartford, fifteen miles from London. A tax gatherer insulted the daughter of a blacksmith; the enraged father slew him by a blow with his hammer. To shield their townsman from the consequences of the act, and to avenge their own cause, his neighbors rallied around him. They took their way to London, and their numbers increased as they went on. They entered the city, burned the duke of Lancaster's palace, pillaged others, and murdered those of the higher orders who fell into their hands. At Smithfield, Richard, then in his seventeenth year, had a conference with Wat Tyler, of Maidstone, whom the insurgents had placed at their head. Signs of an intention to stab the young king were shown by Wat. Walworth, mayor of London, thrust a small sword into his throat, and he fell. The archers drew their bows to avenge his death. Richard rode intrepidly up to them, and spoke like a king; "What are you doing my lieges; Wat was a traitor: come with me, and I will be your leader." The rabble, disconcerted and overawed, followed him as he rode off the field. The nobility had been meantime collecting with their followers. The insurgents, on their knees, implored the king's mercy; and, influenced by the wishes of the royalists,
Richard granted it, and they returned to their homes, only two of the leaders being executed.

3. From this period, when the warm-hearted and elegant young king had given such happy presages of a good reign, we see him by degrees become the victim of a situation which, however desirable it may seem, tends to ruin the character, and blight the happiness of the individual. Richard's ambitious uncles, desirous to keep him from politics, that they might rule unchecked, placed around him gay young men, and encouraged the disposition to pleasure natural to his age. When he became attached to these youthful companions, and granted them favors and emoluments—and when his pleasures became expensive, they charged him with favoritism and extravagance. They fomented discontents against him, and raised a powerful party, who deprived him of all his friends—some of whom were sentenced to death, and executed. Richard learned dissimulation, and quietly remained a mere cypher, while the duke of Gloucester and his party governed in his name.

4. In the meantime the excitement subsided. Some of the adherents of Gloucester privately offered their services to the king, and Richard again extricated himself by a bold stroke. In a great council held at Easter, he unexpectedly asked his uncle his age. "Your highness," said the duke, "is in your twenty-second year." "Then," said the king, "I must be old enough to manage my own concerns; I thank you my lords for your past services, but do not need them longer." He immediately demanded the seals from the arch-bishop of York, and the keys of the exchequer from the bishop of Hereford, and proceeded to appoint new officers. Gloucester was obliged to yield, and Richard continued for several years to govern with discretion. At length, forgetting the lesson taught by adversity, he gave himself up to the gratification of revenge and avarice. Jealousies had always existed between him and his uncle Gloucester, who was now suddenly arrested and sent to Calais, where he was secretly murdered.

5. Not long after the death of Gloucester, Henry, duke of Hereford, son to John of Gaunt, (or Ghent) duke of Lancaster, was arrested on the charge of holding language disrespectful to the king, and sentenced to banishment for ten years. On the death of the duke of Lancaster, Richard unrighteously seized his immense estates, the rightful property of his son. The nobles wrote to Hereford at Paris. He took advantage of Richard's absence on an expedition into Ireland, and landed in England; where he was joined by many of the most powerful barons, and soon collected a large army; his ostensible

3. Give an account of the manner in which his uncles corrupted his mind, and destroyed his peace.—4. How did he manage to get the government into his own hands? How did he govern at first? What faults did he afterwards commit? What did he in regard to his uncle Gloucester?—5. What unrighteousness was he guilty of in regard to the son of his uncle John of Gaunt?
object being to claim his inheritance. The duke of York, who was regent of the kingdom in the absence of Richard, joined Henry, now duke of Lancaster, who thus obtained possession of London. The ministers of Richard were imprisoned, tried by a military court, condemned, and executed as traitors.

6. When Richard learned the news of a general insurrection in his kingdom, he was overwhelmed with grief. He landed in Wales, where he remained some time without forces sufficient to cope with his adversaries. At length, under pretence of negotiation, Richard was made prisoner, and taken by Henry to London. So fallen were his fortunes, that as he passed through the streets, "no man cried God save him." He renounced the crown, whether voluntarily or not, is uncertain. The parliament deposed him for tyranny, and decided that he should be kept a prisoner. He died in the castle of Pontefract. The circumstances of his death are not known, though there are grounds for suspicion that violence was used.

7. The duke of Lancaster was now seated on the throne, under the title of Henry IV. His reign was soon disturbed by the insurrection of the Percies in the north, and of Owen Glendower, in Wales. The northern insurrection was quelled by the battle of Shrewsbury, in which the revolters were defeated; and Percy, (called Hotspur, from his fiery temper,) the son of the earl of Northumberland, was killed. The valorous Owen Glendower so long maintained the contest in Wales, and with such unequal force, that he was suspected of being a magician. The uncertain title by which Henry IV. held the throne was calculated to make him pay court to parliament, and their privileges were enlarged during his reign. In this reign the first laws were passed for punishing heretics by death. William Sawtry, a Wickliffite rector, was burnt at Smithfield; the first Christian in England who was put to death, by men professing to be Christians, for alleged errors of opinion.

8. Henry of Monmouth, was made prince of Wales, and duly acknowledged as heir to the crown; to which he succeeded, on the death of his father, under the title of Henry V. The youth of this prince, with the exception of occasional flashes of valor, and a few acts of wisdom, was spent in frolics and dissipation, amidst dissolute companions. On his accession to the crown, the idlers who had surrounded him, expected to be promoted; and the wise, who had rebuked his youthful follies, to be persecuted. But the man saw with different eyes from the boy; and while he dismissed the former, he advanced the latter.—Laws were enacted against the followers of Wickliffe as heretics; yet the sect increased, and under the name of

5. Give an account of the progress of Henry of Lancaster, until he obtains possession of London.---6. Where was Richard? Give the final history of this unfortunate king.---7. Of what house, or family, was Richard's successor? What insurrections were there? What battle occurred? How was it with the parliament?---8. How had Henry V. spent his youth? How did he conduct when he became king?
Lollards, they formed an extensive party in the realm. The proceedings against them became so severe as to drive them into open rebellion. They were dispersed, and their leader, Sir John Oldcastle, lord of Cobham, a most worthy gentleman, was cruelly executed.

9. Henry now renewed the claim of the Plantagenets to the crown of France; the distracted state of that kingdom, under Charles V. offering a prospect of success. At the head of a powerful army he invaded France, laid siege to Harfleur, which he soon reduced, and terminated his first campaign by the memorable victory of Agincourt. Through the success of his arms, and by treaties with the Burgundian faction, Henry made himself master of Paris, and of a large portion of France. He then married the princess Catharine, daughter of the French king, and was acknowledged heir of that monarchy. Charles was reinstated on the throne, but he was merely a nominal king, while the real authority was in the hands of the English sovereign. Catharine, after Henry's death, married Owen Tudor, of Wales; and from the connexion sprang the house of Tudor.

10. Henry V. died in France,—his son Henry the VI. being yet an infant. Before his death, he appointed his brothers, the dukes of Gloucester and Bedford, the former to the regency of England, and the latter to that of France. The decay of the English power in that kingdom, connected with the story of the "Maid of Orleans," has already been related. Henry VI. was free from vice, mild and forgiving; but he was destitute of capacity. At the age of twenty-five, on the suggestion of his council, he betook himself of marriage; and his bride was Margaret, daughter of the good Rene, patron of "the joyous science" of the troubadours,—titular king of Sicily, and duke of Anjou. Margaret was beautiful in person, and had she found a protector in her husband, (to whom she appears to have been ever an affectionate and faithful wife,) she might, perhaps, have been feminine in character. But she was obliged to be the supporter of one whose mind, naturally weak, sometimes sank into utter imbecility; and history presents her as a masculine woman, coping with the most able politicians and commanders of her day.

11. When Henry IV. succeeded to the sovereignty on the deposition of Richard II., who died without issue, there were still living some of the descendants of the duke of Clarence, elder brother of John of Gaunt; and whose claim was, consequently, superior to that of the Lancastrian family. Their

8. Give an account of the Wiclifites. —9. Give an account of Henry's invasion of France. What is related of the princess Catharine?—10. Whom did Henry appoint regent for England? Whom for France? What was the issue of this great English invasion of France? What was the character of Henry VI.? Whom did he marry? What description of person was she?—11. How did Richard of York derive a claim to the crown?
right had now descended to Richard, Duke of York, through his mother, the last of the descendants of Clarence. The opposition to the queen and her ministry, had procured from parliament the appointment of this nobleman as regent, or protector of the kingdom; but the transient restoration of the king again transferred the power to the queen’s party. The Yorkists took up arms, and a civil war began, which, for thirty years, desolated the land. This was termed “the war of the roses,” the Lancastrian party assuming the red, and the Yorkists the white rose. This war comprehends one of the most disastrous periods of English history. By repeated battles and executions, the kingdom was deluged with blood, and some of the noblest families in the realm were exterminated.

12. The first battle fought between the rival parties was at St. Albans, where the Yorkists were triumphant. They obtained possession of the person of the king, induced him to grant a general pardon, and to reinstate the duke of York in office. A change, however, was again effected by the management of the court party, and York was dismissed by the king. Three years elapsed before hostilities were renewed. The peace-loving king made an effort to reconcile all differences. With his whole court he went in procession to the cathedral of St. Paul’s, and at his desire, the duke of York walked with the queen. But though peace was on their tongues, hatred was in their hearts, and cabals and stratagems again led to war. A battle was fought at Bloreheath, in Staffordshire, in which victory declared for the Lancastrians; and the duke of York was compelled to take refuge in Ireland.

13. Meanwhile the earl of Warwick, who was governor of Calais, espoused the cause of Richard, and with an army landed in Kent. Advancing towards the capital, his forces augmented. He entered, and took possession of London, and of the person of the king. A parliament was summoned, which decided that Henry VI. should possess the crown during his life, but that the duke of York should succeed him; and in the meantime, be intrusted with the administration of the government. The queen, with her young son, had retired into the north of the kingdom, where she had gathered a considerable army. York marched against her, but was defeated and slain at Wakefield-green; and his principal followers were taken and executed.

14. Edward, Earl of March, the son of York, inherited his title, and prosecuted his claim. He was victorious in a battle fought between his forces and the queen’s army, at St. Albans. Margaret, who was now joined by her husband, re-
tired into the north of England, where her greatest strength lay; and Edward IV. was proclaimed king in London. The war now raged with dreadful violence. The armies of Edward and Margaret soon met near Towton, a few miles from York, where was fought the most memorable battle which had yet occurred during the contest. The forces of Edward amounted to 40,000, while the Lancastrians numbered 60,000. The fight continued at intervals during three days, and resulted in the entire discomfiture of the Lancastrian army; and 36,000 Englishmen are said to have fallen in that battle.

15. Margaret fled with her husband, and her son the young prince, to seek friends in Scotland. She next sought aid from Louis XI. of France, and after an absence of two years, returned with a small body of French, which was augmented by her Scottish allies. At the head of these forces, she again met her enemies, but was defeated at Hexham near the Tyne, and, with her husband and son, again compelled to flee. Henry, after being a while secreted in the borders of Scotland, was made prisoner, and confined in the tower. Margaret and the young prince Edward, made their escape to the continent. The Lancastrians without a chief, and where defeated and humbled, were incapable of offering any effectual resistance, and Scotland and France manifested a desire of reconciliation with the ruling monarch of England.

16. Edward had now the misfortune, or the indiscretion, to offend his most powerful adherent, the earl of Warwick; styled the "king maker." While the earl was on the continent, negotiating a marriage between him and the princess of Savoy, sister-in-law of Louis XI., Edward accidentally meeting with the lady Elizabeth Grey, of the family of Wydeville, was so pleased with her, that he privately married her, and soon publicly acknowledged her as his queen. The earl of Warwick highly resented this conduct, which interfered with the negotiation in which he was engaged. The promotion of the queen's family to places of honor and trust, still further alienated the mind of this haughty noble, as well as others of the king's former friends. They conspired against him, and Margaret and Warwick, from being the most implacable of enemies, became friends.

17. Warwick left Calais, of which he was governor; landed in England, and produced so general a revolt, that Edward was obliged to flee to Holland. With the aid of the Flemings, however, he returned and encountered his enemy at Barnet near London, where a battle was fought, in which the army of Warwick was defeated, and himself left dead on the field. The same day Margaret, with her French forces, arrived in England.

14. Describe the course of the war through the two succeeding battles.

15. Relate the further misfortunes of Margaret.

16. How did Edward now offend the earl of Warwick? What was the consequence of Warwick's resentment, and that of other nobles?

17. Relate the battle of Barnet. Of Towksbury.
and another battle was fought at Tewksbury, where she was entirely defeated. Her son, prince Edward, was made prisoner, and brutally murdered by some of the highest nobles in the realm. This battle closed the bloody war, and while it secured the crown to Edward, restored tranquillity, at least for a time, to the kingdom. The husband of Margaret, Henry VI., who had never been more than a nominal king, expired in the tower soon after the battle of Tewksbury. His death has been charged upon Richard of Gloucester, the only surviving brother of the king. The resolute and persevering, but unfortunate Margaret, was kept for years a prisoner; but at length she was ransomed by Louis XI., when she returned to the court of her father.

18. Edward next prepared to invade France. A treaty advantageous to England was the result; for Louis XI. never suffered his subjects to fight, when his own false promises could avert a war. The profissag of Edward, during the last years of his reign, hastened his death. His son Edward, a youth of thirteen, was declared his successor; but his immediate coronation was postponed through the intrigues of his villainous, hypocritical uncle, Richard of Gloucester. A large party of the ancient nobility had manifested a jealousy of the rising fortunes of the Wydevilles, the queen’s relatives. Of this faction, Richard now availed himself for the execution of his sinister designs. On the death of his brother, he hastened to assume the title of protector of the kingdom. Having made himself master of the young king, he next lured, by fair pretences, his younger brother, the duke of York, from the arms of his weeping mother. He then removed all the nobles who were likely to prove an obstacle to his usurpation. The earl of Rivers, and the Wydevilles, Lords Stanley and Hastings, were executed on the same day, and without the form of trial.

19. The obsequious parliament then declared the young prince illegitimate, and proclaimed Richard king. The two royal boys, who were confined in the tower, now disappeared. No inquiry was made concerning them, but all supposed that they were murdered by Richard’s commands.* The duke of Buckingham, who had been an instrument of Richard’s elevation, perceiving the general detestation with which his crimes inspired the nation, turned against him. Henry, earl of Richmond, of the family of Owen Tudor and the dowager queen of Henry V., was, on his mother’s side, descended from John of Gaunt. In the general destruction of the Lancastrian family,

* By the confessions of the assassins afterwards made, it appears that these two lovely boys, of the ages of thirteen and eleven, were strangled in their bed, as they were sleeping together, in a room in the tower, and their bodies buried under the stairs. The wooden chest containing their remains was afterwards discovered.

17. What became of Henry? Of Margaret and her son—18. What happened in relation to the invasion of France? Relate what occurred in regard to the succession. What measures did Richard take to make his usurpation secure—19. What was the fate of the two princely boys? What competitor for the crown was now set up by the disaffected?
he remained the only surviving chief, and though he was now in exile on the continent, yet the Lancastrians formed a conspiracy to dethrone the usurper and confer on him the crown. Richard detected the plot, seized the duke of Buckingham its head, and executed him, with some of his accomplices. Having defeated this design, he summoned a parliament, who acknowledged his title to the crown; to strengthen which, Richard took measures (his wife being yet alive,) for marrying his niece, ELIZABETH, sister to the murdered princes.

20. Meanwhile, Henry of Richmond embarked from Harfleur in Normandy, with 2,000 men, and landed at Milford-Haven in Wales,—where he was gladly received by the Welsh, many of whom joined his army. Richard had been energetic in his measures for repelling the expected invasion, but he could place no reliance upon his disaffected subjects, nor even depend upon the fidelity of those nobles who appeared in his cause. The adverse armies met at Bosworth-field, where the wicked usurper was defeated and slain. Henry was crowned on the field, and saluted king of England. The subsequent marriage of Henry with Elizabeth, united the house of York with that of Lancaster. Henry VII. is the founder of the dynasty of Tudor.

21. Henry was subtle, penetrating,—and vigorous in his measures for defeating the designs of his enemies. But the leading feature of his character was avarice; and to obtain money, he often stooped to falsehood and low artifice. During his reign the impostor LAMBERT SIMMEL appeared, pretending that he was the young king Edward V., and afterwards, PEREIN WABECK set himself up for the duke of York. Marvellous accounts were given of their escape from the tower, and many friends to their cause appeared, but the imposture was at length detected. This reign is memorable as being the period of the discovery of America. Henry VII. was the sovereign under whose banner that part of the continent which we inhabit, was discovered by the Venetian captains, JOHN and SEBASTIAN CABOT.

CHAPTER VIII.

Spain and Portugal.

1. We have seen how Spain was conquered and occupied by the Saracens, except the little territory of Asturias on its

19. Give some account of the duke of Buckingham.—20. Where did Henry land? What battle soon followed? What was the result of the battle? In the alliance between Henry VII. and Elizabeth of York, what political object was answered t—21. What was Henry’s character? What impostors were set up to personate the murdered princes? Why is this reign memorable to Americans?
northern coast. Here the Christians were pent up in a mountainous region, and constantly in danger from their Mahometan foes. Want, difficulty, and danger, educated to hardihood and daring the Christian Spaniards, as similar circumstances did the first settlers of our own republic; and a new destiny was the consequence of a renovation in character. The Saracens meantime, under the mild and peaceful rule of the Omniyades, cultivated science and literature,—agriculture, navigation, and commerce; and precisely at the time when the rest of Europe was in the deepest gloom of the dark ages, Saracenic Spain was most enlightened. AVERROES, of Cordova, made a translation of Aristotle, and introduced it as a study into his native city, and among the Moors of Africa. Algebra was invented, and arithmetic much improved, in the Arab or Saracen schools, while many of the first nobles of Christendom could not even read. But the Saracens became more and more luxurious and enervated. At length they quarrelled among themselves; while from the north the hardy Asturians came down from the mountains, and took from them town after town, and province after province. In 1282, the Castilians under ALPHONSO VI. and his great captain Roderigo Diaz de Bivar, the famous Cid, reached the Tagus, and after a three years siege, took Toledo.

2. The Saracens had applied for aid to their Mahometan brethren of Morocco. The Moors came to their assistance and stayed the progress of the Christians, by defeating them in a great battle, but their leader, YUSEF, by perfidy and violence seated himself upon the throne of the caliphs, and founded the dynasty of the ALMORAVIDES. The Moorish kingdom of Grenada began in 1283. The Christians and Moors kept up a perpetual war, and though success varied—upon the whole the Christians gained; until in 1450 the Moors were confined to a space not much exceeding the present province of Grenada; but within this they had many cities, and a dense and wealthy population. Grenada, the capital, was embellished by costly structures, one of which, the ALHAMBRA, was the most splendid palace in the world.

3. The Christian power in Spain was, for centuries after the Saracen conquest, divided among many small independent sovereignties, which often made war upon each other; and but for having had a common enemy in the Moors, their contests might have been utterly destructive to themselves. By conquest, and

CHAP. VIII.—1. What part of Spain was not conquered by the Saracens? What was the condition of the Christian Spaniards, and what effect had it on their character? How in the meantime were the Saracens employed? What was done by Averroes? What improvements in science were made among the Arabs? What effect in regard to their warlike character did these pursuits produce? By whom was Toledo taken from the Saracens?—2. To whom did they apply for assistance? What was done by the Moors? What dynasty was established by them? At what time did the Moorish kingdom of Grenada begin? What in 1450 was its size? What was its capital? Give some account of the Alhambra.—3. How was it with the Christian power in Spain?
intermarriages, some of the provinces at length attained preeminence. The kingdom of Castile, as comprising Asturias, was looked up to, as the most venerable. One of the kings, Ferdinand III., united Leon to Castile, and conquered from the Moors the cities of Cordova and Seville. James I. of Aragon, a contemporaneous sovereign, made the conquest of the Balearic isles, and of the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia. Alphonso XI., of Castile, conquered Algeciras.

4. Alphonso was succeeded by his son Peter I., whose enormities procured him the appellation of "the Cruel." Henry of Trastamara, his natural brother, was driven into rebellion by his severities, and by apprehension for his own safety. The French monarch, Charles V., enraged by Peter's murder of his queen, Blanche of Bourbon, espoused the interest of Henry, and sent to his aid Du Guesclin, at the head of a considerable body of French soldiers. Peter was driven from his kingdom, and took refuge in France, with Edward, the Black Prince, then governing the English principality of Aquitaine. This prince made it a point of honor to reinstate his suppliant guest; and at the head of an army, he advanced into Castile, defeated the French and Castilians, and restored Peter to the throne. But his cruelties soon produced another rebellion. Du Guesclin, who had been made prisoner by the English, was ransomed, and returned with a recruited army to the aid of Henry. The tyrant, now abandoned by the Black Prince, soon lost his crown and his life, and Henry of Trastamara was made king. The descendants of this monarch, in two distinct lines, ruled the separate kingdoms of Castile and Aragon till the middle of the fifteenth century.

5. The peninsula was at this period divided between the Moorish empire of Grenada and four Christian kingdoms, each under its own sovereign. 1st, Castile, which reached from the bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean. 2d, Aragon, which embraced Aragon proper, and the provinces between that and the Mediterranean. 3d, Portugal, the ancient Lusitania, made a kingdom in 1139, when Alphonso defeated the Saracens in a great battle, took Lisbon, and gained by conquest four of its six provinces. The 4th kingdom of the peninsula was the Pyrenean district of Navarre. The early internal police of Castile presents much popular liberty. The first legislative body, or cortes, in which the commoners were represented, was held

3. How did some of the provinces obtain pre-eminence? Which was looked up to by all the others, and on what account? What union and conquests were effected by Ferdinand III.? What by James I. of Aragon? What by Alphonso XI. of Castile? Observe on the map what must now be the extent of Castile. What of Aragon.—4. Who was the successor of Alphonso XI.? What enemies did his cruelties raise up against him? Who took his part? Was it right and wise to shed blood to force a bad king upon unwilling subjects? Did Peter long keep the crown? What parts of Spain were ruled by the descendants of Henry of Trastamara?—5. Between which kingdoms was Spain divided in the middle of the fifteenth century?
THE SANTA HERMANDAD.

In 1169. But it was only the people of the cities who had this privilege. The nomination of the one representative to which each city was entitled, was at first vested in the separate householders, but afterwards in the municipality. These representatives assembled in the same chamber with those of the nobles and clergy, but they could, of themselves, pass laws binding on the cities, without the concurrence of the other orders. This union of the cities afterwards became still more intimate, when the SANTA HERMANDAD, or "Holy Brotherhood," was established. The cities, by this union, bound themselves by solemn covenant to stand by each other, against all invasion of rights. The Castilians learned from the Moors trade and commerce, and they early made laws to foster their fine breed of sheep. The "Holy Brotherhood" was sanctioned by the monarchs as a balance against the nobles, who owned the country, and while they were exempt from taxes, they held the peasantry in servitude. Some of them could bring large armies into the field, and their revenue far exceeded that of the sovereign. The power of the sovereign was too limited, and was ill defined,—hence was greater or less, according to the abilities of the monarch. He, however, held the balance between the cities and the nobles. Another power, that of the clergy, was then great, and was still rising.

6. The cities belonging to the kingdom of Arragon, taking advantage of their maritime position, fostered a free and commercial spirit, and possessed a considerable navy. Arragon, it appears, had a written constitution in the ninth century, by virtue of which the monarchy was elective, the electors being twelve noblemen. The aristocracy, calling themselves "the Union," already overbalanced the other powers; and from one of the kings, Alphonso III., they obtained two writings, called the "Privileges of the Union," by which they mastered the monarchs, and oppressed the people. Peter IV. rose against them, defeated them at Epila, and assembling a cortes at Saragossa, he produced the conveyance of the "Privileges," and cutting it, while he wounded his hand with his dagger, he let fall the drops of his blood upon the paper. "This writing," said he, "which has caused so much blood to be shed, shall be washed out in the blood of a king." Peter then made laws, which secured in a great degree the peace of the realm, paying great regard to the regulation of the judiciary. The cortes was composed of four branches—1st, the higher nobility; 2d, the inferior, with the knights; 3d, the commons, or citizens; 4th, the clergy. The higher nobility might send their substitutes; and what is par-

5. At what time was the first Cortes? Of whom was it composed? What was the Santa Hermandad? Why was this sanctioned by the monarchs? What was the condition of the nobles? What is said of the power of the king? Of the clergy? 6. What was the condition of the cities of Arragon? How early had Arragon a written constitution? What is related of the nobles? What of Peter IV.? If of what branches was the cortes of Arragon composed?
particularly worthy of remark, *baronial heirress* might also vote in the cortes by proxy; thus was extended to females a principle for which men have so often contended, that taxation and representation should go together.

7. **John II.**, of Arragon, married for his first wife, **Blanche**, the heirress of Navarre; but with the condition that her children should inherit that crown. On her death he married **Joan Henriquez**, the daughter of a nobleman, a woman of high ambition, who became the mother of **Ferdinand**. Joan wrought on the mind of her husband against the children of Blanche, to the prejudice of their rights of succession in the kingdom of Navarre; and after a life of trouble, **Carlos**, the eldest, sank to an untimely grave. Navarre went to his sister **Leonora**, who had married the **Count de Foix**. Ferdinand, now the only son, was acknowledged the heir of Arragon. In **Castile Henry IV.** rendered himself odious by his effeminate and voluptuous life. His subjects rebelled, deposed him, and proclaimed his brother, **Alfonso**. Alfonso dying, Henry was compelled by his subjects to sign a treaty, declaring his noble sister, **Isabella**, heirress to the throne.

8. **Isabella** was possessed of a saintly modesty, of great fore sight and prudence—and, though but eighteen, she had already given indications, not only of unswerving rectitude, but of a dauntless spirit.* In person she was majestic and beautiful. Of the many suitors for her hand, she chose Ferdinand of Arragon. By their union the two principal kingdoms of Spain were united; and thus that country was eventually raised, to be one of the most powerful monarchies of the world. By the articles of the marriage contract, the rights of the sovereignty of Castile were wholly vested in the queen; and through her life she preserved them entire. Her first care, on her full accession to the throne, was to heal the wounds of her kingdom, which had long been bleeding by civil war, misrule, and anarchy. To curb the lawless arrogance of the great nobles, she revived and cherished the "Santa Hermanadad," and committed to regu-

* Isabella, at the age of thirteen, had been trafficked away by her brother to the king of Portugal. She refused to marry him, alleging, though so young, the sound reason that the infantas of Castile could not be disposed of in marriage without the consent of the nobles. At sixteen her brother gave notice that she must marry an aspiring nobleman, every way her inferior, and the object of her dislike. She shut herself up, wept, prayed, and took her resolution—then said to her female friend, "God will not permit it, neither will I," showing a dagger, which she kept in her bosom, vowing to plunge it into the heart of the unworthy man if he dared to approach her. His death saved her the trial.

7. What information do you get from this paragraph of John II.? Of Blanche? Of Joan Henriquez? Of Carlos? Of Leonora? Of Ferdinand? What is related of Henry IV. of Castile? On what occasion was Isabella declared heirress of the first monarchy of Spain?—8. What was the character and appearance of Isabella? Whom did she marry? What was the consequence to the Spanish monarchy of this connexion? What rights were secured to her by her marriage contract? Did she preserve them? What was her first care on fully possessing the throne? What measure did she take to curb the lawlessness of the nobles?
WAR officers of their body the police of the country. She rode on horseback from place to place, and with the most fearless intrepidity superintended the administration of the laws, and the punishment of crime; and no rank or wealth could shield the offender from her even-handed justice. Thus were internal peace and confidence restored, the nobles checked, the royal authority established, and the arts of peace so cultivated, that wealth and plenty took the place of poverty and want.

9. One dark shade falls upon the lovely character of Isabella—she was superstitious. The deep piety of her youthful mind had been tampered with by her confessor, Torquemada, and she had been wrought up to make the promise, that if she ever came to the crown, she would "extirpate heresy." Through this promise, a reluctant consent was wrung from her, by her husband, and the priests, to sanction the Inquisition; which, although carried to its greatest enormity in Spain, began in France. Innocent III. had, by his influence, sent crusading armies, who had swept through the south of France, putting to the sword tens of thousands of the Waldenses and Albigenses. Cases occurred, where some court seemed to the fanatics necessary to decide whether persons apprehended were, or were not heretics, and whether heretical principles might not be charged upon some who went at large. At Toulouse, Innocent established such a tribunal, with inquisitorial powers. The Dominican friars, with their founder, Dominic, at their head, were the first inquisitors. The institution was soon adopted in Germany and Italy. The use of the Scriptures was at the same time forbidden. In Germany the Inquisition was soon and finally discontinued.

10. The Inquisition in Spain was first established at Seville. Pope SIXTUS VI. sent over a bull to authorize it, at the request of three ecclesiastics, of whom the principal was Alphonsus de Ojeda, Dominican prior of St. Paul's, in that city. The sovereign united in this request. The pope would, by means of this tribunal, fix his dominion by such an utter subjugation of the spirits of men, that they, and all they possessed, would be his, whenever he wanted their property or their services; and his agents shared the dominion, and the spoils. Of the latter Ferdinand was to have a large share. The Jews existed in great numbers in Spain, and had much wealth, which they often foolishly paraded. The jealousy of the nobles and the cupidity of the king were thus excited. To make them hated, so

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8. For what purpose did she fearlessly ride from place to place? What objects did her arrangements and energy effect?—9. What blemish is there on the lovely character of queen Isabella? Who was Torquemada? What did he lead her to sanction? To what time and place is this tribunal traced? What led to it in the first instance? Into what countries was it carried? In what discontinued?—10. At what place in Spain was the Inquisition first established? What pope gave his sanction? By whom was the petition for it made? In what respect would such a tribunal give power to the pope? What is said of the Jews, and of their conduct in regard to their wealth?
that their destruction should not cause "an uproar among the people," witnesses, whom we cannot doubt were false, were brought, who testified that they were in the practice of sacrificing Christian children at their feasts. On one occasion, twenty-five knights swore that at their passover they had crucified a Christian boy. But in this age falsehood, as well as fighting for the church, was esteemed meritorious service. Yet the common people did not know this. They believed the reports, and persecuted the Jews unto death throughout all Europe. In Spain they had flourished; their genius had aided the Saracens in the revival of letters, and having remained among the Spaniards after the conquest, their industrial pursuits had made them, not only the wealthiest subjects of the monarchy, but the creditors of most of the improvident nobles. To destroy the Jews would be to cancel these debts, and to convert their property to the use of the church and the state. For these objects the Inquisition was first brought into Spain. Its office, called by a misnomer little short of profane, the "Holy Office," was opened at Seville, Sept. 17, 1480.

11. The inquisitors immediately published an edict, requiring "all persons to aid in apprehending and accusing all such as they might know or suspect to be guilty of heresy." All modes of accusation, even anonymous, were encouraged, and the inquisitors, of whom Ojeda was chief, had soon so many victims, that they removed their sittings from the monastery of St. Paul's to the fortress of Siana, without the city. Jews were convicted and punished when it was found that they wore better clothes on Saturday, the Jewish sabbath, than on other days; if they turned the face of a dying man to the wall, or used warm water in the post-mortem ablution. Four days after the first-sitting, six victims were consumed by fire; and before the end of November three hundred, save two, had been sacrificed. The Inquisition sat upon the dead as well as the living, and condemning those who were in their graves, their menials dug them up and burned the decaying corpses. But it was the wealthy, whether living or dead, who were condemned; and the confiscation of their property, was a well remembered part of their condemnation.

12. Seville by the hand of divine justice lost 15,000 inhabitants by a plague. The inquisitors removed their tribunal for a time, and went on as before. Two thousand were burned in Andalusia within the year. The pope, on the representation of the Jews, rebuked the inquisitors; but he afterwards exorted himself to quiet the uneasy scruples of Isabella, and proceeded.

10. What measures were taken to make the people desire their destruction?—11. What edict was published? What kind of accusations were received? On what sort of facts were Jews condemned and executed? How many were burnt from Jan. 6th to Nov. 4th? What became of the property of the persons condemned? What strange and shocking trials are related?—12. To what place, and on what occasion did the tribunal remove? What double-dealing appears on the part of the pope?
THE SPANISH INQUISITION.

to invest TORQUEMADA with the office of inquisitor-general of Castile and Aragon, with full powers to form a new constitution. From this period is reckoned the origin of the terrible Spanish Inquisition. During the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, there were in different parts of the two kingdoms thirteen different branches, or inferior courts.

13. The new constitution provided that on the first Sundays in Lent, edicts should be proclaimed, ordering all persons who knew or suspected any to be infected with heresy, to lodge information against them;—ministers must refuse the consolatory offices of religion to any one, however true himself, who failed to inform, though it should be against a parent, a child, or a wedded companion. All accusations, signed or unsigned, were admitted—the names of the witnesses being mentioned, their depositions were taken down by a secretary of the office. The unconscious victim was seized in some solitary place by armed menials of the Inquisition, and conveyed to its dark subterranean prison;—his family and friends knew only that he had disappeared, but they might not inquire, or even weep with safety. In his dungeon the prisoner saw only spies of the tribunal; and all its servants were bound by oath and by fear to a secrecy not to be violated by a look. When at length called before the inquisitors, the accused neither saw his accuser nor was suffered to know him or his witnesses. If he refused to confess his guilt he was put to the torture, by rack or fire, in the depth of vaults where no pitying ear, save God’s, could hear his cries. If pain extorted from him the confession of his heretical opinions, it was expected, if he survived, that he would repeat this confession the next day. Should he refuse, his aching form was again subjected to the torture, now still more agonizing. Should he, through all this, aver his innocence, it was not even then considered as established; and nothing was before him but a painful death, or a life of poverty—with a body mutilated, and a character branded with an infamy, which by law was to descend,—blighting his posterity.

14. In the year of the discovery of America, Ferdinand and Isabella were persuaded to pass an edict to banish all the Jews who would not consent to receive baptism. Great was now the distress of these children of Israel as they passed from the pleasant land of their birth. Tens of thousands perished with famine, and the hardships of the change from luxury to homeless beggary. They scattered to different countries of Europe, Asia, and Africa.

15. To the conquest of the Moorish infidels in the south, Ferdinand and Isabella had turned, though with different motives, their united attention. MULEY ABUL HäEM, the sovereign of Grenada, began the war by taking the Spanish fortress of Za-

12. What is regarded as the commencement of the modern Spanish Inquisition?—13. For what, respecting accusations, did Torquemada’s constitution provide? Describe the unfair and cruel proceedings of the Inquisition.—14. Give an account of the banishment of the Jews.—15. To what did the sovereigns of Castile and Aragon now turn their attention?
THE CONQUEST OF GRENA DA.

1461. The Spaniards retaliated by capturing Alhama. The Moors, destined to destruction, did for their enemies more than half their work by intestine divisions. Muley Abul Hacem quarrelling with Zorayda, his chief sultana, the intrepid woman tied together scarfs and veils and delivered herself and her children, by descending from a high tower upon this uncertain support. The people, aroused at her tale of oppression, expelled Abul Hacem, and proclaimed Baordil, his son and Zorayda's. The expelled sovereign was received at Malaga; and thus the kingdom became divided against itself.

16. The Spaniards presented the new spectacle of moving on with the united force of the two kingdoms, headed by their united sovereigns;—Ferdinand commanding the armies in person, and declaring, when amidst peril and exposure he was told that his head could do more than his hand, "that when his men were, for his cause, in danger, he could not stop to calculate chances;"—and Isabella in the meantime taking charge of the finances, and of the whole quarter-master's department; especially attending to the sick and wounded, and introducing, in this respect, improvements in military science. She was ever hovering on the confines of the war, and when the hearts of the men were ready to fail, they sent for her to come to the camp; and she came like a guardian spirit, infusing hope and courage, and dispelling fear. "Isabella," says Mr. Prescott, her eloquent historian, "may be regarded as the soul of this war." It was terminated by the taking of Grenada in 1492, the same year in which Columbus, under Isabella's patronage, discovered the Western continent.

CHAPTER IX.

Italy.

1. Italy was at this period divided between,—1st, the republics in the northern and central parts,—2d, the temporal sovereignty of the pope, and 3d, the kingdom of Naples. The republics which occupied the northern parts of Italy may be divided into four clusters. The first was composed of the cities of central Lombardy, of which Milan was the principal, and included Milan, Cremona, Pavia, Brescia, Bergamo, Parma, Placentia, Mantua, Lodi, and Alexandria. These were the original seats of the liberty of the Italian cities. In the second

15. Give an account of the royal family of Grenada and their divisions. What division ruined the Moors?—16. What spectacle does the Spanish history at this time present? What does Prescott say of Isabella? How, and when was the Moorish war closed?

CHAP. IX.—1. How was Italy at this period divided? Into what clusters were the republics divided?
THE ITALIAN REPUBLICS.

division may be placed Verona, Vicenza, Padua, and Treviso. The cities of Romagna, of which Bologna and Ferrara were of most consequence, composed a third cluster, to which may be added Modena. A fourth, comprised the cities of Tuscany, of which Florence and Pisa were the chief. Besides these, were the two maritime republics of Genoa and Venice. These cities did not all at once throw off their allegiance to the empire, or adopt a republican government. Milan took the lead.

2. The disorders of the German empire during the eleventh century, enabled the citizens of the Italian cities to choose their own magistrates, and to take a share in public deliberations. As these cities increased in wealth and strength, a residence in them became a desirable refuge from the dangers, in which the disordered state of affairs placed the rural gentry. The nobility of the country were themselves oppressed by the cities, and glad to take refuge in them; where, as they were privileged with citizenship, they could attain the power of directing the government. As their strength increased, the desire of extending their power, and the limits of their territories, increased also; this produced encroachments upon the small towns, and upon the territories of the country nobility. Early in the twelfth century, a war was carried on between Milan and Lodi, in which the latter was subjected to the former. Wars continued to be prosecuted between many of the cities.

3. Meanwhile Frederic Barbarossa, of Germany, attempted to regain his dominion in Italy; which, though still acknowledged, existed but in name. Availing himself of the war between Milan and Lodi, and of the jealousies felt by many of the cities towards the former place, Frederic attacked the towns in dependence upon Milan. After two invasions of Italy, Milan itself was compelled by famine to capitulate. Frederic held a diet at Roncaglia, where he defined the imperial rights over the cities, appointed magistrates, called Podesta, to administer justice, and abolished the office of consuls, who were chosen by the people. The Milanese, irritated at this tyranny, as soon as the emperor had withdrawn his army, renewed the war. He returned, destroyed Crema, a dependent of Milan, then laid siege to Milan, which, subdued by famine, surrendered. The citizens were compelled to disperse themselves to four villages a few miles distant, while their habitations were razed to the ground. The misery of the cities of Lombardy was now com-

1. Show on the map the location of each city of the first cluster. Of the second. The third. The fourth. What maritime republics were there, and how situated?—2. At what period did these cities begin to disregard the German power, and perform acts of sovereignty? Did these cities usurp power over the surrounding country? What did the nobles find it most for their interest to do? Did the cities agree among themselves? What example of a contest is given?—3. What was done by Frederic Barbarossa? What regulations were made by the diet? What was done by the Milanese? What next by the emperor? What was now the condition of Milan and the other Lombard cities?
complete. Even those which had enlisted in the service of the emperor, felt that they had sacrificed their liberties to their jealous divisions.

4. The emperor met with a repulse at Verona, against which he had next carried his arms. The spirit of liberty revived; a secret league was formed among the Lombard cities, termed the Lombard league, by which they pledged themselves to mutual assistance in defence of their common rights, for a period of twenty years. Milan, by their united efforts, was quickly rebuilt, and the confederates prepared to withstand the arms of Frederic, whose strength had been reduced by a contest with pope Alexander III., during which, in laying siege to Rome, he lost a large part of his army by pestilence. The war continued many years without any decisive action, until, in the battle of Legano, the confederates obtained a complete victory. Frederic escaped from the field in disguise. By the mediation of Venice, a truce of six years was agreed upon. After this, the peace of Constance was concluded, by which the Lombard republics were established in their former rights. The league was renewed; but unfortunately, no constitution for a permanent federal union was formed.

5. During the reign of Frederic II., these republics were plunged into another protracted war, after which they became entirely emancipated from the empire. The liberties of the people were, however, gradually sacrificed to the ambition of the aristocracy. Of all the Italian nobles, the Medici of Florence make the most distinguished figure in history. The historian Sismondi represents them as a bad family,—the selfish, artful, unprincipled, and heartless destroyers of their country's liberties.* They owed their popularity to their wealth, liberality, and taste in the fine arts. Cosmo de Medici, a man of plebeian origin, the founder of the family, died in 1464. His grandson, Lorenzo de Medici, surnamed "the Magnificent," and the most distinguished for his patronage of the fine arts, died 1492. The sovereign power in Florence, after some attempts to restore the republic, became hereditary in this family.

6. The founder of the family of Sforza was, in 1409, a peasant of Romagna, of prodigious strength of body, and great courage. He gave himself to military pursuits, revived the an-

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* The idea given of the family character by Sismondi is confirmed by that of the two queens of France, Catharine de Medici, the instigator of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and Mary, wife of Henry IV., and by that of Giovanni de Medici, son of Lorenzo, who as pope Leo X., by his abuses of the pontifical power, drove Martin Luther to set up the standard of reformation; also by that of Clement VII., who was the nephew of Lorenzo.  

4. As the misery of the cities began with their disunion, what happened when they again united? Give an account of the battle of Legano. By what peace where the cities established in their former rights? What was renewed, and what was unfortunately omitted 1—5. What happened in the reign of Frederic II.? When did the republics become independent of Germany? What enemy had their liberties after this? Which of all the noble families did the most to destroy the liberties of the people? Give an account of this family. (See note also.)
cient system of tactics, and adapting it to later times, became
considered a distinguished teacher of the art of war, and after-
wards a great captain. His son, Francesco Sforza, exceeded
his father in fame and talents, and at length made himself of so
much importance in the perpetual wars of the times, that he
married a daughter of Visconti, the last duke of Milan of that
name. On his death, Sforza contrived, by arts which soiled his
fair fame, and by the aid of his friend Cosmo de Medici, to ob-
tain the sovereignty of Milan, which continued for a considera-
tble time in his family.

7. The temporal sovereignty of the pope was at this
time fully established over the dominions belonging to the Ro-
man see. The emperor Rodolph, of Germany, giving up his
claim, the pope now held the relation to Italy formerly claimed
by the emperor; but the city of Rome itself often revolted from
his government. The remembrance of the glory of their an-
cestors at times enkindled the spirit of freedom in the breasts
of the degenerate Romans; and it had often burst forth in resis-
tance to the power of the pope. Several times the "holy father"
was expelled from the city. During the residence of the popes
at Avignon in France, no authority of sufficient power existed
at Rome to curb the licentious citizens; and disorders of every
kind were frequent. At different periods, individuals arose who
roused the popular feeling by eloquent harangues, in which they
depicted the blessings of liberty, and recounted the glorious
names of the ancient republic. One of these orators, Arnold
of Brescia, not only denounced the corruptions of the clergy,
but advocated boldly the principles of civil liberty. He was
banished by Innocent II., who branded his doctrine as the "he-
resy of the politicians." He was subsequently recalled to Rome,
and burned at the stake.

8. A century after, Nicholas di Rienzi conceived the vast
project of uniting the several states of Italy into a federative
republic, and of restoring Rome to its ancient greatness, as the
head of the confederacy. He was learned in the antiquities of
the city, and his enthusiasm for his country gave him an irre-
sistible eloquence, while he explained to the listening crowds,
the ancient memorials of the glory of their fathers. The multi-
tude caught the inspiration, and determined to re-establish the
old republican form of government. Rienzi was made tribune
of the people; but under this title he was in fact sovereign of
Rome. At first he administered the government with the strict-
est equity, but by degrees he became spoiled by prosperity;
and manifested neither the virtues which had given him the con-
fidence of the people, nor the talents for a successful usurper.
The nobles whom he had opposed, regained their ascendancy

6. Who was the founder of the Sforza family? Who was his son?—7.
What was the condition of the pope in regard to his temporal sovereignty?—
What in regard to the people of Rome?—What occurred during the resi-
dence of the popes at Avignon? Give an account of Arnold of Brescia.—
9. Give the history of Nicholas di Rienzi.
and re-established the authority of the pope. Rienzi, banished from the city, wandered among the mountains of Hungary and Bohemia, and was at length made prisoner and sent to Innocent VI., at Avignon. He not now fearing him, sent him to quell popular disturbances in Rome. No longer buoyed up by youthful hope, and virtuous enthusiasm, Rienzi no more possessed the power of swaying the multitude by his eloquence; and though at first the populace received him with marks of affection, they, after four months, barbarously took his life.

9. Genoa, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, had attained considerable importance, and its commerce was in a flourishing state. Its prosperity was greatly increased by the settlement of Pera, in the suburbs of Constantinople, which the Genoese obtained from the Greeks, in reward of their services in the recovery of that city. Genoa maintained frequent wars with Pisa, and with Venice, its rivals in trade. Its internal history is marked by frequent contests between its leading families. After several changes of government, it submitted to that of a duke, or doge, and was finally placed under the protection of the king of France. The assistance which the Republic of Venice had given to the crusaders in conveying them to Palestine, was rewarded by a rich commerce with the east. But the commencement of its prosperity and splendor was in the thirteenth century. Having sustained an important part in the conquest of Constantinople by the Latins, it obtained three-eighths of the city, and of the provinces, as a reward. The government of Venice was administered by a doge, or duke, who, as early as the eighth century, exercised the power of a king. Subsequently his authority was limited, and at length it very little exceeded that of the other nobles; and the government became, in the thirteenth century, an oppressive aristocracy. In the fourteenth century, Venice was engaged in wars with her neighbors, which proving generally successful, her prosperity increased. During the fifteenth century, the most splendid period in her annals, she extended her dominion over Padua and Verona, and obtained from the duke of Milan, the city of Vicenza.

10. KINGDOM OF NAPLES.—After the extinction of Robert Guiscard’s posterity, the son and successor of his brother, Roger of Sicily, added to his dominions the Norman possessions of Apulia and Calabria; and subdued the republics of Naples and Amalfi, and the city of Capua. In this new kingdom of Naples he was succeeded by his son, William the Good, the last of the Norman princes. At his death, the crown of Naples and Sicily passed to Henry VI. of Germany, son of

9. Give an account of Genoa. What part of the spoils of Constantinople did Venice receive at the time it was taken by the Latins? What is related of its government? What was the most flourishing period of Venice? What places were conquered?—10. What prince united Naples and the adjoining provinces to Sicily? Who was the last king of the Norman line?
Frederic Barbarossa, who had married Constance, aunt of William. The German princes continued upon the throne of Naples, until at length the pope, who was opposed to them, offered the kingdom to Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX. of France—who led thither an army and enforced his claim. Manfred, the last of the German princes, was slain. The Neapolitans having now their capital made the seat of an extensive empire, were in the French interest; but the Sicilians being regarded by them but an appendage, and treated with insult and indignity, they rose upon the French, and perpetrated the horrid massacre of the "Sicilian Vespers."

11. The people now placed upon the throne Peter III., of Aragon, who had married Constance, the daughter of Manfred. A bloody war succeeded, in which Philip of France supported the pretensions of the house of Anjou. James I., the son of Peter, who had succeeded him on the throne of Aragon, desirous of peace, renounced his claims upon Sicily, in favor of the French; but the Sicilians, unwilling to submit to French domination, placed his brother Frederic upon the throne. From this period, we find the kingdom of Naples a subject of perpetual contention, between the rival princes of France and Spain. The house of Anjou always maintained their claim, and had their "titular kings" of Naples; but the house of Aragon held the actual authority; and an illegitimate branch of the family was upon the throne at the close of this period.

12. On the recovery of Constantinople from the Latins, Michael Paleologus, to secure himself in possession of the throne he had usurped, deprived of his sight and banished John Lascaris, the heir of the crown. The crimes of which Michael was thus guilty, drew upon him the anger of the patriarch Arsenius, who excommunicated him; and stirred up a powerful faction in the empire. Michael was succeeded by his son Andronicus. The Catalans, who had served in the Sicilian wars, at their close swarmed into the Greek empire in quest of plunder. Still more disastrous to the nation were the civil wars waged between the emperor Andronicus, and his grandson of the same name, whose dissolute life induced him to look for another successor. Twice the civil war was interrupted, and again renewed; until at length, after seven years, the younger Andronicus entered the capital triumphant. The aged emperor abdicated the crown, which the younger seized. He was the slave of intemperance and debauchery. He carried war into Asia, but found himself unable to cope with the Otto-

10. What family, or house, then governed Naples? What did the pope oppose these princes in respect to Naples? What house succeeded that of Swabia in Naples? How did the different parts of the kingdom stand affected to the French? Who was called to the throne after the expulsion of the French? What war ensued? Was the contest between the French and Spanish princes settled? Give an account of the emperor of the east. What happened during the reign of his successor? What account can you give of Andronicus II.?
man power. His death left the empire a prey to civil commotions.

13. **John Paleologus** reigned thirty-six years, during which the distress of the nation was continually augmenting. At the instigation of Amurath, the Ottoman sultan, he put out the eyes of Andronicus, his eldest son, and of John, his grandson,—imprisoned them, and made Manuel, his second son, his heir. His discontented subjects removed the two blind princes from their prison to the throne. The emperor, with Manuel, made his escape from Constantinople, and thus civil war was again added to other disasters. A reconciliation between the contending princes was at length effected, by the partition of the remaining possessions of the Greeks; Constantinople being assigned to Manuel and John Paleologus, (who died shortly after,) and all without the wall to the blind princes. The Ottoman sultan, Bajazet, threatened the city. A truce was effected, by the promise of an annual tribute from the Greeks, and the toleration of the Mahometan religion. Bajazet soon violated this truce, and again laid siege to Constantinople, under pretence of vindicating the rights of John, the blind prince. Manuel was constrained to flee, and sought aid from France. Meanwhile, Bajazet restored John to the throne; then, claiming the city for himself, he continued the siege. Constantinople must now have fallen, had not a threatening power in the east demanded the immediate attention of Bajazet.

14. **The Ottoman Turks.**—On the destruction of the Seljoukian kingdom, by the descendants of Jenghis Khan, many of the Turkish chiefs retired among the mountains, and established small principalities. Of these, the Ottoman was destined by Providence to exercise a wide and important influence upon the nations of the earth. It was founded by Othman;—his reign of twenty-seven years was one of war and conquest. Prusa, near the sea of Marmora, was made the capital of his kingdom. He was succeeded by his son Orchan, who continued his encroachments upon the Grecian provinces, conquered the whole of Bithynia, and obtained a victory over Andronicus the younger. Solyman, the son of Orchan, with several thousand Turks, crossed the Hellespont in the civil wars of the Grecian princes. They took possession of the fortresses of Thrace, and the Grecian power being insufficient to expel them, they obtained a permanent footing in Europe.

15. Orchan and Solyman both dying, Amurath, the son of Orchan, succeeded. He pushed the Turkish conquests in Europe, subjected nearly the whole of Thrace, and made Adrianople his European capital. He then attacked the warlike tribes between the Danube and the Adriatic. In a battle with these

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13. Of John Paleologus  
14. Of Manuel  
15. Of the two blind princes  
16. Of Bajazet  
17. Of the two blind princes  
18. What occurred when the kingdom of the Seljoukians was destroyed?  
19. Who founded the Ottoman sovereignty?  
20. What was his capital?  
21. What was done by his son?  
22. What by his grandson?  
23. Give an account of Amurath.
nations, in Servia, although victorious, he fell by the hand of a Servian soldier, who starting up from among the heaps of slain upon the battle-field, stabbed this destroyer of his country's independence. Amurath established the janizaries, the praetorians of the Ottoman empire. They were selected from among his captives, educated in the religion of the Moslems,—trained to the exercise of arms, and consecrated by a dervish. Amurath was succeeded by his son Bajazet, the rapidity of whose marches and conquests procured for him, among his countrymen, the name of Ilderim, or the lightning. He extended the empire of the Ottomans in Asia; and in Europe he subjected the remaining parts of Thrace, Macedonia, and Thessaly. He carried his arms into Hungary, and defeated at Nicopolis a confederate army of French and Germans.

16. The interference of Bajazet in the affairs of the Greek princes, and his siege of Constantinople, have already been mentioned. From this siege, he was recalled by a Mogul irruption under Tamerlane, to defend his Asiatic dominions. Tamerlane was a descendant, in the female line, of Jenghis Khan; and from being the chief of a small province of Transoxania, he raised himself to the sovereignty of the Mogul empire. In a campaign of one year, he made himself master of Delhi, passed the Ganges, and penetrated to the Burrampooter, when intelligence of the conquests of Bajazet, induced him to return. After conquering the Christians in Georgia, and one city in Anatolia, Tamerlane left for a time the Ottoman dominions. At Aleppo, the capital of Sicily, he conquered the Turkish emirs; but at Damascus he met a temporary check from the Mamelukes* of Egypt.

17. The time occupied by Tamerlane in the Syrian conquest, gave to Bajazet an opportunity to prepare for the coming contest. At Angora was fought between them the memorable battle in which the Turks were completely vanquished, and the sultan made prisoner. Tamerlane at first affected to treat Bajazet with much consideration, and made to him moralizing speeches; but afterwards he put him in an iron cage, in which he was carried about to grace his triumphant marches. The invasion of Europe was prevented more by the want of a fleet to conduct the forces of Tamerlane across the Hellespont, than by the suppliant embassies of the Greeks and the sons of Bajazet. Tamerlane next projected the conquest of China, where the dynasty of Jenghis had recently been overthrown; but death pre-

* The Mamelukes were originally slaves, purchased from the shores of the Caspian, and first organized as a body guard by the renowned Saladin, sultan of Egypt and Syria. Their numbers were from time to time augmented, until they became the most powerful military force of Egypt, and at length gained a supremacy in the government.

15. Of his successor.—16. What called Bajazet from the siege of Constantinople? Who was Tamerlane? Give an account of his conquests.—17 Give an account of the contest between Bajazet and Tamerlane. How was the vanquished treated by the conqueror?
vented the execution of his plans. Though the strength of the
Ottoman power was for a time suppressed, yet the sons of Bahazet were left in possession of the different provinces of his
kingdom; and discord and destructive civil wars followed,
which ceased only with the death of all, save Mahomet I.,
under whose sway the unity of the empire was restored. Mahomet
was succeeded by Amurath II., who renewed the siege
of Constantinople, but was recalled by a revolt in his own do-
minions.

18. The revival and spread of the Turkish power in Europe,
awakened Pope Eugenius to a consciousness of the danger, not
only of Constantinople, but of all Christendom. He wisely
sought to form a league among the Christian powers against the
infidels. The Hungarians and Poles, under their monarch Ladislaus,
in whom the government of both kingdoms was united,
undertook the war. His army was augmented by many soldiers
from France and Germany, and strengthened by the counsels
and conduct of the pope’s legate, cardinal Julian, and the brave
Hungarian general, John Hunniades. The Christians, in two
successive battles, humbled the Ottoman power, and drew from
Amurath an offer of peace, by which he was to withdraw from
their frontier. The remonstrances and intrigues of the cardinal
prevailed against the advice of Hunniades, and the Christians
violated the treaty. With an army diminished by the departure
of the French and Germans, (volunteers, who on the first sound
of peace, had hastened to their homes,) Ladislaus marched to
encounter Amurath. The Turk, irritated and incensed by the
bad faith of his opponents, hastened to avenge himself. On the
field of Varna, the armies were drawn up in hostile array, and
a most sanguinary conflict terminated in the triumph of the Mahometans. Ladislaus signalized himself by daring feats, but at
length perished on the field. 10,000 Christians were slain,
but so great was the loss of the Turks, that Amurath declared
another such victory would prove his ruin. The valiant Hunniades survived, and for many years defended the Hungarian
frontier from the arms of the infidels.

19. Mahomet II. succeeded his father on the Ottoman
throne. While he was making professions of friendship to
Constantine, the last of the Greek emperors, he was secretly
maturing a plan for the conquest of his capital. He erected a
fortress on the European side of the Bosphorus, which gave him
the command of the streets, and in spite of the supplications of
the Greeks, prepared to besiege the city. The winter preced-
ing the siege, was one of distress and dismay within the capital.
Constantine, with a spirit worthy of the best days of the em-
pire, endeavored to animate the fainting hearts of his degenerate

17. What happened in the Ottoman empire after the capture of Bajazet? Give an account of Amurath II. 17-18. What was done by pope Eugenius? What army was collected? What military movement favorable to the Christians occurred? What bad conduct followed? Give an account of the great battle of Varna. What account can you give of John Hunniades?
END OF THE GREEK EMPIRE.

subjects, to quell their divisions, and to inspire them with heroic ardor. He conveyed the intelligence of his distress to the western monarchs, and solicited the aid of his Christian brethren. But amid the din of arms and petty contentions which resounded through the western nations, the petitions of Constantine passed unheeded, and their own danger from the Turks was blindly disregarded. Constantine next attempted to effect a reconciliation of the churches, which might enlist the pope in his cause; but the attempt only brought upon him the wrath of the Greek churches, and involved the city in new disorders.

20. Meanwhile Mahomet continued his active preparations for the siege, which early in the spring he opened by sea and land. The spirits of the Greeks revived when a small fleet of five ships, furnished by Sicily, the Morea, and some of the islands of the Archipelago, triumphantly entered the harbor, after obtaining a splendid victory over the Turkish fleet which guarded the Bosphorus. Mahomet now devised a plan, by which his fleet obtained possession of the harbor, the entrance to which was guarded by a chain, and defended by the Greek vessels. He caused a passage of nearly two leagues to be dug over land, lined with planks, and smeared with grease; and in the space of one night, by the help of engines, and a prodigious number of men, he drew a fleet of more than a hundred vessels across this passage, and launched them all in the harbor. The city, after enduring a siege of fifty-three days, was taken by assault. Constantine, the last of the Cæsars, perished bravely fighting, while multitudes fell by his side. The city experienced the horrors of sack and pillage, heightened by the animosity which the Mahometans felt towards the Christians. Mahomet now established his throne in the capital of the cast, and the remainder of the Greek empire soon fell before the arms of the Moslem conqueror. A succession of able princes filled the Turkish throne, under whom the empire became consolidated.


37
MAP NO. 9
THE WESTERN CONTINENT
Exhibiting the Early Navigators, Historical Occurrences &c.

Longitude West from Greenwich
PERIOD I.
FROM THE DISCOVERY OF AMERICA TO THE TREATY OF CHÂTEAU CAMBRESIS, WHICH ESTABLISHED PROTESTANTISM.

CHAPTER I.
General view of Europe.

1. At the commencement of this period of history, we find the nations entering upon a new order of things. Indeed, the student of universal history may say this in every age; and he who should have expected the state of the world to continue unchanged, or who should have believed that in the mirror of the past he could see the future, would have been mistaken. Theories whose basis is analogy, often mislead the student; and nowhere more than in history. It has been said that nations are

MODERN HISTORY.—PERIOD I.—CHAP. I.—1. What do we find on commencing the present period? Do we in any two ages find the state of the world alike?
like individuals, and therefore must have their growth, maturity, and decay. This is no better reasoning than it would be to affirm that nations, being like rivers, composed of aggregated particles which change as they flow, must by the laws of nature flow on while time endures. Nations are unlike individuals, because there is no physical necessity for their decline. They are unlike rivers, because their particles are intellectual and moral agents, amenable to a righteous God; and their prosperity or decay will be according to their own conduct, and his Providential appointment.

2. But although the world is ever changing, the period now under consideration is in this respect altogether remarkable; it is in fact the dawning of a new historic day. The crusades, although undertaken in the spirit of a fanaticism, at war with Christianity, and carried on with a great and criminal destruction of human life, had yet beneficial effects on European civilization. They brought distant nations together, who thus each learned much from the others, and returning to their homes, they there improved political and social relations. They acquired a taste for articles of convenience of which they had not before known the use, and learned where their wants might be supplied; and where their own surplus productions might find sale. Thus an impulse was given to trade, manufactures, and arts; and European Commerce began soon after the commencement of the crusades. Venice led the way; Constantinople, Genoa, and Pisa were among the earliest commercial marts. London obtained its first charter, with power to elect its sheriff, from Henry I.;—its first trading company was formed in 1319. Florence, under the Medici, was the emporium of trade, as well as arts. London was of little mercantile importance, when Bruges and Ghent, and afterwards Antwerp, were the centres of European commerce. Paper money was introduced from China into Italy, in the thirteenth century. In the fourteenth, banks existed in Genoa and Florence.

3. This was an age of invention and discovery. The art of printing was invented, and the polarity of the magnetic needle discovered, by which navigation was improved and new regions made known. By these arts, knowledge took wings, and became so widely spread, that no barbarian burner of libraries could again deprive the world of its intellectual riches. The Bible was printed;—the human mind, which had begun to expand, thus received an impulse, that prepared the way for

1. Suppose in this free country persons should say that it does not matter how rulers and people conduct, things must take their course, because nations are like individuals—what reply would you make?—2. What effect had the crusades in ushering in a new historic day? What account can you give of the introduction of commerce? What city led the way in commerce? What others are among the oldest commercial cities? What account can you here give of London? Of Florence. What other cities are named?—3. What great inventions and discoveries were made in the arts, which facilitated the spread of knowledge?—What is remarked concerning the spread of sacred knowledge by the printing of the bible?
THE DAWN OF MODERN CIVILIZATION.

breaking the most galling fetters by which mankind were ever enslave; and the REFORMATION dawnd upon Christendom. The invention of gunpowder made a change in the art of war, which took the palm from mere physical strength and courage. It gave the invaded advantages over the invader; thus lessening the probability of settled nations being again overrun, and bringing the chances of war more within the scope of calculation. These circumstances, combined with the introduction of diplomatic art, and with the practice which now prevailed of employing and paying regular armies, instead of the feudal service, greatly ameliorated the condition of Europe in respect to war. When immense masses of barbarians were moving over and prostrating the settled nations, the feudal system seemed necessary to fix them. This mission was now fulfilled, and the system was passing to decay, or changing its form. The principal thrones of Europe had been simultaneously filled with kings who had, with great talent and deep policy, depressed the nobles and strengthened the royal authority. The principals of these were Louis XI., Henry VII., and Ferdinand, the Catholic. At the same time Isabella of Castile, and John II., of Portugal, by their patronage of navigators, added vast regions by discovery. The practice of sending diplomatic agents or ambassadors from nation to nation, arose in this age, and was said to have commenced with the Spaniards. Diplomacy was, however, “a knavish calling,” as these national agents were by order of their kingly; to whom the whole foreign department of each country belonged, watching to take unfair and dishonest advantages; caring nothing for the rest of the world, if their own master’s power was advanced, and not scrupling, for selfish purposes, to stir up bloody and causeless wars between other nations. Posts for carrying dispatches were about this time introduced.

4. A highly important feature of the present period, was the revival of learning. This may in its beginnings be traced to the brilliant genius of Charlemagne; he having founded the first university in Europe, that of Paris. His friend and preceptor Alcuin, was its brightest ornament. Alfred of England founded the second university, that of Oxford. He was himself a scholar, and one of those to whom the English language owes its formation. The Scholastic Philosophy, began with Alcuin, and continued to be regarded as the highest pursuit of acute minds through five centuries. The grand object of inquiry among the

3. What effect had the discovery of gunpowder? What other circumstances contributed to change the state of Europe respecting war? What is here said of the feudal system? What three kings are named, and for what are they remarkable? What two sovereigns were the most remarkable for patronizing discovery? What can be said of diplomacy at that period? What great convenience to the world originated about this time?—4. What important feature of this period is next noticed? What part had Charlemagne in this movement? Alfred of England? Which of these monarchs was himself a scholar? What is said of the Scholastic Philosophy? What account is given of Alcuin?
schoolmen, or scholastic philosophers was, "what is the object of our thoughts when we employ general terms." The schoolmen at first united in opinion that there were in the mind real ideas, or existences, corresponding to general terms, and hence were called Realists. For two centuries Realism prevailed; but in the course of the discussions much freedom of thought on mental operations was elicited by the writers, among whom may be named John Scotus Erigena, who taught at Oxford, and Gerbert, who became pope under the name of Sylvester II. These were opposed by Roscellinus† of Compeigne, and after him, by Peter Abelard of Paris, who maintained that general terms are like algebraic signs,—themselves, in their compound signification, the objects of thought when employed by the reasoning faculty, which without such aid, could not on general subjects perform its proper functions. This doctrine of words or names, was called "Nominalism." The acute reasoners who maintained it, were led to some inferences concerning sacred things which alarmed the church. Duns Scotus, one of the Oxford scholastics, called the "subtle doctor," was so much admired that it is said he had 30,000 students to attend his lectures. He was invited to Paris and there excited equal attention. He was the author of a theory respecting the birth of the Virgin, called the "Immaculate conception," which he brought two hundred arguments to prove, and which was afterwards the cause of persecution in the church.

5. Ancient manuscripts which had been kept for ages carefully preserved in monasteries,—their only safe depositories through the dark ages, began now to be examined by the monks, who alone possessed sufficient learning. From another source the ancient lore of Greece and Rome was introduced. The Cordovan Averroes had translated Aristotle's works, and Michael Scot had rendered them from Arabic into Latin. Aristotle now enjoyed a literary supremacy in the several universities which at this time existed. The works of the Arabian Avicenna were also translated and introduced into the schools. From the Arabians too, proceeded algebra, that powerful engine

* The author of this work, in 1832, published an article on this memorable question in "the Journal of Science," in which she undertook to prove that it could not be answered in the terms proposed, because the question itself contains a latent fallacy.

† Roscellinus taught the doctrine of the Trinity in such a manner, that he was charged with Tritheism, and was obliged to flee from persecution for heresy and sin against the Holy Ghost.

4. What was the grand question which so long occupied the schoolmen? What was their opinion at first? For how long a time did Realism prevail? Did some mental improvement result from these metaphysical reasoners? Who among them are mentioned? By whom were they opposed? What doctrine did their opponents maintain? With what heresy was Roscellinus charged? Give an account of Duns Scotus.—5. Where were the remains of ancient learning preserved? By whom examined and brought forth? Who were the only learned men? What Arabian authors were now studied? What author was now regarded as of supreme authority in the schools?
of the mind, which enables it to wield in calculation, subjects which without it, the human powers cannot grasp. England now produced a philosopher who turned his attention to subjects of natural science,—this was Roger Bacon, the most philosophic genius of the middle ages. So much in advance of his age was "friar Bacon," that he was regarded as a magician. The revival of Aristotle's works, which were considered as favoring realism, brought up its long-voiced question, and William Occam gained great applause as a defender of Nominalism. In the meantime the philosophy of Plato revived, and favored by the Medici, was opposed to that of Aristotle. When Constantinople was taken by the Turks, many learned men fled to the different parts of Europe, who became authors and teachers in universities; and thus the downfall of the eastern empire greatly promoted the diffusion of learning.

6. Language.—The Latin was cultivated as the only language of the learned during the dark ages. New languages, however arose, formed by mingling the dialects of the barbarians with the Latin. The first of these which produced authors of any note was that of Provence;—there the troubadours, those minstrel poets of the "joyous science," took their rise; numbering in their ranks many knights of fame and royal degree, each of whom sung in Provençal French, his ladye's charms, his own devotion, and the exploits of heroes, particularly those of Palestine. The Italian language in Italy took the place of the Latin, and the great Dante consecrated it by the "Divine Comedy;" Petrarach had shown its fluent melody by his love sonnets, and Boccaccia its powers in prose. Chaucer, the father of English poetry, had begun to demonstrate the richness and adaptation to verse of his native tongue;—Wicliffe, the reformer, had shown its powerful energy in prose. The imprisoned monarch, James I., of Scotland, had woed the muse in the deep solitude to which his youth was barbarously condemned, and he became not only the most learned man, but the best poet of his age. In Germany the vernacular tongue early produced good histories and excellent poems; one of which, called the Nibelungen-Leid, bears some striking resemblances to the Iliad, and is yet unequalled in the German language for the simple pathos of its narrative.

7. Architecture.—Among the wonders of the dark ages, we are struck with the fact, that they produced, apparently all at once, a species of architecture unrivalled for blended majesty.

5. Give an account of Roger Bacon. Of William Occam. What philosophy was now opposed to that of Aristotle? What effect had the taking of Constantinople by the Turks on the literature of Europe? What was the only language of the learned in Europe? How did new dialects arise? Which was the first of these new dialects that produced authors? What account can you give of the troubadours? What writers by their genius gave character to the modern Italian? Who were the earliest writers in the English language? What species of composition did the Germans early excel in? What remarkable poem produces Y. What is said of a species of architecture produced in the dark ages?
and beauty, and which inclines the beholder to religious awe. It has received the name of Gothic, but is not now believed to have originated with the Goths, but with the Lombards. The great cathedral of Milan is regarded to this day as unsurpassed. Notre Dame at Paris was one hundred years in building. About the same time was required for erecting the great York Minster, the cathedrals of Rheims and Rouen, and the church of St. Marks at Venice. The greatest church,—in fact the most spacious hall ever built, is St. Peter's at Rome. The present structure was begun about 1513, and not completed till 1614. The measures resorted to by various popes, particularly Leo X., to obtain means for its completion, was a moving cause of the downfall of the papacy.

8. Music, the universal language of feeling,—always the most refined and elegant of the arts, and now one of the most profound of the sciences, received the rudiments of its present form in the dark ages. Guido of Arezzo was the inventor of the notation by lines and spaces, but he used dots. His scale was imperfect, being only a hexachord; to express the sounds of which, he used six syllables. Franco of Cologne added the seventh note, and invented the musical divisions of time; and John of Muris, the characters by which they are expressed. Archimedes is by some regarded as the inventor of the organ. The fable of the beautiful St. Cecilia, with the nightly visits of the angel, who was drawn down by her melody, dates back to the third century; when a lovely Christian lady of that name, who excelled in music, suffered martyrdom at Rome. One of the earliest composers of music was the imprisoned royal bard, James I. of Scotland. He played eight different instruments with such skill, that he seemed to be inspired. An Italian writer, his cotemporary, boasts of him as the pride of his age in regard to music; particularly for a new kind which he had invented, of a plaintive and soothing character, and which, says the author, was imitated by the Italians. Though songs of war and love came into vogue with the troubadours, yet the object of music was, in these ages, religious. The organ was brought to great perfection; the grand and simple style of sacred music prevailed; and the long aisles and echoing vaults of the vast cathedrals, heightened its effect.

9. Painting, under the patronage of the Medici, revived at Florence, and the great Italian school was established. Cimabue, its founder, struck out for himself an original and majestic style, in which he was excelled by Leonardo di Vinci. Michael Angelo carried the style to a degree of sublimity
which belongs to no other painter. RAPHAEL SANZIO, to the sublime, united grace and beauty; and his works exhibit the utmost perfection which the art has reached.

10. But though improvement was thus dawning upon the world; the papal dominion, the most absolute to which mankind has ever been subjected, was existing in full force; and it comprehended all Christendom, except the Greek church. For in order to keep unity, those who presumed to deny the pope's and the church's infallibility, were cut off by fire and sword. A council of 1200 bishops at Rome, decreed that the secular powers must be compelled to extirpate from their territories all heretics; and a million of the Waldenses and others suffered. Rome had thus a second time become the seat of empire; but small was the power of Augustus and Trajan compared with that of the popes. They assumed only political authority, whereas the popes claimed divine power. They were "vicars of Christ, and vicegerents of God," therefore the earth, with all things therein, was under their control; they gave kingdoms or took them away; nay, they entered the inner sanctuary of the mind, to be there the guiding will, the understanding, and the conscience. Whatever they set up as truth, men must believe; what they were pleased to call sin, men must call sin too; and what they commanded, though it was otherwise crime, must be performed on pain of eternal damnation. The whole army of monks, and crusading monkish warriors, such as the knights of St. John and those of the Teutonic order, were under vows of obedience and celibacy, and often changing their location, they had no tie to hinder their entire devotion to the great central power,—no country but Rome.

11. The practice of auricular confession began about A.D. 1200. By this, the emissaries of the pope, in the persons of confessors, obtained the secrets of those in power; and were thus kept advised of coming events, and could prepare to meet them. The sins confessed, it was believed, might be absolved by the confessor, especially in consideration of penance, such as flagellation, and wearing shirts of hair-cloth; and thus absolved, divine vengeance was no more to be feared for the most flagrant transgressions. Hence the power of conscience was put to rest; and deluded men, believing that the priesthood could open and shut the gates of heaven, sought rather to obtain their favor, than that of the all-seeing God. The papacy took advantage of this delusion to extend its power and wealth. Partial indulgences for the suspension of penance, on account of particular sins, or plenary indulgence could be had for money. The church made merchandise of natural affection, requiring masses to be paid

10. What is said of the papal dominion? How did the Roman church preserve unity? What decree is mentioned? Who were under vows of obedience and celibacy? What in regard to country was the consequence of their not being allowed to have families?—11. What advantages did the popes gain by auricular confession? How was conscience put to rest on the part of the persons confessing? Whose favor would they naturally seek to obtain?
for, by the people, to take their dead relatives from purgatory and send them to heaven. They made laws respecting marriage and divorce, such as the Creator never made, but which the pope could remit for a consideration; and they taxed the love of fame, by the profane mockery of canonization, which authorized men to worship what God has forbidden. This began as early as 993, where in a council at the Lateran palace, in Rome, John XV. declared that "Hilderic, bishop of Augusta, might be worshipped as a saint reigning with Christ in heaven." This practice was continued, and men of shameless lives might hope to be canonized; if they proved the devoted servants of the hierarchy. The church, by these and other means, grew rich; and the priests, in many instances, rioted in luxury and ill-concealed voluptuousness. But if men had accusing thoughts, they must not breathe them to the winds; the Inquisition had its secret agents at every turn. That of Spain alone had 20,000 officials.

12. The monarchs of Europe were allowed peaceably to exercise their political functions, provided they gave no offence to the church, whose interest it was to keep its votaries from weakening each other, and lavishing their treasures in war. Many honorable exceptions to this character of worldly ambition with which the Roman hierarchy is chargeable, appear, especially in its earlier day. While they did but what all are apt to do, seize advantages and keep them; they little thought what a tremendous engine they were constructing. It would be unjust to brand them with all the evils which mankind have suffered from religious persecution. The principles of toleration which teach that religion is a matter between man and his Maker, and not subject to human authority, were in those days unknown. Force and fraud were the engines employed to govern mankind. The first was mainly depended on by the kings and nobles, and the last, in this period of the world, by the church. Bad as were these methods, they were better than the absolute anarchy and barbarism which prevailed after the downfall of the empire of Charlemagne;—when ancient civilization was broken up, and modern had not begun to exist.

13. England, under Henry VII., had been far more prosperous than under her more warlike sovereigns. By degrees, the disorders and insurrections which attended the commencement of his reign were quieted, many good laws were passed, commerce and industry were encouraged; and though his avarice led him to make oppressive exactions, they were counterbalanced by these advantages. The parliament at this period had little independence, but gave its sanction to such acts as

11. What means were taken to draw money from the people? What tribunal took charge of any who might complain?—12. Was the papacy generally friendly to peace? Should we make religious persecution a complaint against the church solely? What may be said of the earlier popes? What were the two main engines used against the violence and anarchy which prevailed after the death of Charlemagne?—13. Give an account of England.
were most agreeable to the king's will. Scotland at this period, flourished under James IV., one of the greatest of her kings, who held the marauding nobles in check, and protected commerce. He married Margaret, the daughter of Henry VII., and by this marriage the Stuarts afterwards filled the English throne.

14. In France, all the great feudal nobles had been brought into subjection to the monarch. Charles VIII., who succeeded his father, Louis XI., had by his marriage with Anne, the heiress of Brittany, re-united that important province to the crown of France. In Germany, the emperor, Frederic III., was succeeded by his son Maximilian I. The low countries and Burgundy had been annexed to the empire, by his marriage with Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold, and the heiress of these provinces. His hereditary possessions were also increased by the death of his cousin, the arch-duke of Austria, to whose dominions he succeeded. The empire became better organized by the establishment of imperial courts, and a division into circles. Mary of Burgundy died, leaving the emperor a son, Philip, and a daughter, Margaret, who was affianced to Charles VIII., and sent to France to be educated. Maximilian made suit to Anne of Brittany, and was accepted. Charles VIII. supplanted him, married his espoused, and sent home his daughter. Hence, hatred arose between Germany and France. Portugal, under the sway of John II., had commenced a series of successful naval enterprises, which extended her commerce and power, and made her respectable among the nations of Europe.

15. Spain, by the territory and talents which were united in its joint sovereigns, was taking the lead in the politics of Europe. The eldest of their children, who bore her mother's name, became the wife of Emmanuel, of Portugal. By the condition of this marriage the Jews were banished from that kingdom. John the second, the amiable heir of Spain, received for a bride, Margaret, that daughter of the emperor Maximilian who had been educated in France; while Joanna, their third child, married Philip the Handsome, the emperor's son; and their youngest child, Catharine of Arragon, was affianced, and afterwards married to Arthur, the heir of England. Scarcely had his marriage festivities ceased, when John died with a fever. Isabella, the queen of Portugal, soon after expired in her mother's arms. Such repeated trials of her maternal heart, affected her health; and queen Isabella's days were overcast, and drew to a close. But the affectionate mother survived to sustain another trial not less severe. Her third daughter, Joanna, had accompanied her husband to the Low Countries, and having at Ghent given birth to a son, afterwards Charles

13. Give an account of Scotland.—14. Of France. Of Germany. Of Portugal.—15. Which was now becoming the most prominent power in Europe? What marriage connections did the Spanish sovereigns make for their children? What family misfortunes sunk the health of Isabella?
200

a MONUMENT.

V., she returned to Spain to be acknowledged with her hus-
band, as next proprietor of the crown. The frivolous charac-
ter of Philip, and the jealous fondness of Joanna, made them both
intractable. Philip had little attachment to his wife; and soon
left her to pass his time in Flanders; when Joanna became ins-
ane, and continued so throughout her life.

16. Switzerland had come into collision with Charles the
Bold, who thought that war with so contempible a foe would
be but amusement. The Swiss defeated and cut up his army in
two engagements. In these, as well as at Morgarten, they demon-
strated the superiority of infantry. The skeletons of the Burgun-
dian soldiers who fell were collected, and on the pile of human
bones the Swiss placed an inscription, "Charles the Bold invaded
Switzerland and left this Monument." Thus cautioned, the neigh-
boring monarchs permitted the hardy mountaineers to perfect
their free institutions in peace. Their enterprising youth found
employment and reward in foreign service, being esteemed the
best and most faithful soldiers in Europe. They would, how-
ever, engage in no wars but such as they believed to be just; and
they were always noted for their attachment to the mountain-
ous haunts of their boyhood.

17. Italy remained divided into independent states. Genoa
was prosperous; Venice had become possessed of the isle of
Cyprus and continued to monopolise the commerce of the Med-
iterranean, and of the Indies. Her merchants outvied in wealth
and splendor, the monarchs of the most mighty nations. Milan
was governed by Ludovico Sforza, called "the Moor," who had
usurped the ducal honors. Naples was under the sway of an
illegitimate branch of the house of Arragon. Florence was go-
vernment of the family of the Medici. In Rome, the papal throne
was filled by the infamous Alexander VI., who was seeking to
extend the papal territories, and establish his wicked son, Caesar
Borgia, in a principality in Italy. The Ottoman throne was at
this time filled by Bajazet II., a mild, yet courageous prince.
He made war upon the Mamelukes of Egypt, and subdued that
kingdom. Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Poland were be-
hind the other European nations, and a considerable period
elapses before their history becomes much connected with the
politics of Europe.

18. Before closing our remarks on the general state of Chris-
tian Europe, we will hazard an hypothesis, which, though it
should be regarded as visionary, will yet help the memory, by
giving a common bearing to many otherwise unconnected facts.
It is this: Europe is destined to become a GRAND CONFEDERACY.

15. How long did she live after the birth of her grandson Charles V.?—
16. Give an account of the invasion of Switzerland by Charles the Bold?—
What very appropriate monument did the Swiss erect on the field of Morat?—
What was the condition of the Swiss at this period?—17. What were the
principal states of Italy at this period?—What was the condition of Genoa?
Venice? Milan? Naples? Florence? Who was the Ottoman sultan?
Who was the pope, and what was he seeking to do? —What is said of the
other European nations?
and, at the end of the fifteenth century, it began to verge towards this point. But the limits of the federative power were ill-defined; and therefore could not be rightly understood and duly acknowledged by the individual states. There has been no regular representation of the several states in one general congress; no boundaries fixed to each state, to which all have been obliged to agree, and no prescribed force to carry into effect laws for the common good of the whole, or to protect the weak from the aggressions of the strong. But the idea of a balance of power, which about this time began to be contended for, is an indefinite confederation, tacitly acknowledging the obligations of each nation to respect the rights of the others; and saying to each—if you go too far, (it does not say how far,) we will all interfere to check you. The wars of Europe from this period of history, have been either the struggles of individual ambition against this undefined federative power; or the jealousy of nations, that some king or dynasty would become so strong as to endanger the unwritten federative constitution of Europe.

CHAPTER II.

Discovery of America.

I. The discovery of America is the most important event recorded in profane history. The extraordinary man by whom it was accomplished, was CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, a native of Genoa. Like many of his countrymen, he early engaged in navigation. His attention to astronomy, and his knowledge of the figure of the earth, led him to believe that there might be vast countries still undiscovered; and that by sailing west, he might find a passage to the East Indies, of which MARCO POLO, a Venetian traveller, had given glowing descriptions. His first application for aid in his project, was made to his countrymen. They regarded his theory as a chimera of a visionary enthusiast. He next turned to Portugal; John II. rejected his services, but sent out ships privately to avail himself of the plans communicated by Columbus. He failed, and Columbus quitted his court in disgust. To Henry VII. of England, he had fruitlessly applied, through his brother BARTHOLOMEW, while he made personal application to Ferdinand and Isabella. After eight

18. What may it be supposed that Europe is destined to become? What principle began to be contended for? In what light may that be considered?

CHAP. II.—II. What led Columbus to believe there were undiscovered regions? What passage did he believe might be found by sailing west? Of what powers did he mainly solicit aid?
years, passed in indigence, and in repeated applications to the court, Isabella at length became so far satisfied of the soundness of his views, that she determined for herself, and the crown of Castile, to become the patron of the enterprize. The monarchs were at this time at St. Fe — Grenada having just surrendered, and so completely drained were her finances by the Moorish war, that the queen had no resource to raise the necessary funds but the sale of her jewels, which she cheerfully offered. But St. Angel the receiver of Arragon, loaned her the money.

2. The armament, when fitted out, consisted of only three small vessels, manned by ninety men. With these frail barkas, Columbus sailed from Palos in Spain, August 3d, 1492, and committed himself to the mercy of an unknown sea; nor is it wonderful, that the superstitious crew, uninspired with the enthusiastic hopes of their commander, should have regarded the enterprise with feelings of awe and terror. After sailing many days, discovering nothing but a boundless waste of waters, where no human being had ever before penetrated, their hearts misgave them; and they proposed to put to death their obstinate commander, who resisted all their solicitations to return. The genius of Columbus prevailed over the spirit of sedition; yet he was compelled to promise, that if, after three days no land should be discovered, he would abandon the enterprise. Within the time specified, a little after midnight, on the 12th of October, the joyful shout of land! land! was uttered from the masthead by Columbus himself. As the glad mariners approached the shore, which proved to be that of one of the Bahama islands, they beheld it crowded with the gazing natives, who pressed with eager curiosity, to view the wonderful machines which were about to visit them.

3. Since the time when Noah left the ark to set his foot upon a recovered world, a landing so sublime as that of Columbus, had never occurred. His majestic person attired with splendor, his more majestic mind deeply penetrated with religious gratitude,—he led forth his officers and men; and he was himself the first European, who trod the American soil. His first act was to prostrate himself, and return devout thanks to that Being who had guided and preserved him. He next erected a crucifix, and took possession of the island,—which he called St. Salvador,—for the crown of Castile and Leon. The innocent inhabitants received the Spaniards with joy, as superior beings. From St. Salvador, Columbus visited several of the islands adjacent, and discovered Cuba and Hispaniola. Arranging, with the free consent of the inhabitants, to leave a garrison of his own men on

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1. Who was the only sovereign to comprehend and aid him? Why were the Spanish revenues at this time exhausted? How did the queen propose to raise the money?—2. What was the size of the fleet with which Columbus sailed? From what place did it depart, and when? What were the circumstances of the voyage? What land was first made, and when?—2. Give an account of the landing of Columbus! What discoveries did he next make? What preparation made for his return?
the Island of Cuba, he took a few of the natives, and what gold he could obtain, together with specimens of the productions of the country; and on the 16th of January, 1493, he set sail on his return, and arrived on the 16th of March at Palos, from whence he had departed seven months and eleven days before.

4. His success spread his renown through Europe. The inhabitants of Spain crowded to behold him. The sovereigns received him with the most distinguishing marks of favor. A new spirit was awakened, and multitudes were now ready to embark in an enterprise, which promised them wealth and honor. Ferdinand and Isabella, agreeably to previous stipulation, appointed Columbus admiral and viceroy of all the countries discovered. The sanction of the pope was solicited, and Alexander VI., in virtue of his authority as viceregent of God, and therefore supreme lord of the whole earth, gave to the Spanish monarchs the sovereignty of all the countries which their navigators should discover to the west of a meridian, 350 leagues westward of the Cape de Verd Islands. To this arrangement, Portugal, which was to possess all discoveries on the other side of the meridian, was indebted for the kingdom of Brazil. Columbus set forth on his second voyage with 17 vessels. On his return to Hispaniola, he found that the Spaniards whom he had left, had been massacred, and their fort destroyed. After the departure of their commander, their licentiousness and rapacity had known no bounds; and the kind-hearted natives were at length aroused to madness; and destroyed, in self-defence, the abusive intruders.

5. Columbus now made choice of a healthy situation, where he founded a city, which he named Isabella. During a short absence of Columbus, the Spaniards, disobeying his commands, irritated the natives by new excesses; who, assembling in vast numbers, sought to drive from the land these terrible invaders. Columbus having returned, attacked them in the night, and so alarmed were they by his fire-arms, and other weapons of European warfare, that they fled without resistance; and he at length subjected the whole island to the Spanish government. The unhappy natives next attempted to destroy their oppressors by neglecting the cultivation of the maize and cassada which furnished bread. They were themselves, however, the greatest sufferers. The Spaniards received supplies from Europe, while the Indians, having retired to the mountains and wooded parts of the island, and subsisting upon the spontaneous productions.
of the soil, died with famine and disease; and in a few months,
more than a third part of the inhabitants of the island perished.
6. Columbus leaving the government of the colony to his
faithful brother, Bartholomew, again returned to Spain, where
his enemies were undermining his interest with the king.
He was received with seeming favor; but the delays attendant
on the fitting out of another expedition, and the preparations
for making the colony permanent, detained him two years. In
his third voyage, he proceeded farther to the south, discovered
the mouth of the Orinoco, and landed on the continent. John
and Sebastian Cabot, sailing under the patronage of Henry
VII., had the year previous discovered the continent at Labrador.
On his arrival at Hispaniola, Columbus found the colony in a
suffering state. The insurrections of the natives, and still worse,
the mutiny of the Spaniards, had reduced his brother to the
greatest distress. Private adventures from Spain began to be
attempted. Alonzo de Ojeda sent by the merchants of
Seville, followed the track of Columbus, having obtained
his charts and journal. Amerigo Vespuccio, a native of Flo-
rence, accompanied this expedition; and by publishing a work
on his return, descriptive of the country and natives on the
coast of South America, he came to be considered the discoverer
of the continent; and thus fraudulently deprived Columbus
of the honor of giving it his name.
7. Meanwhile the Portuguese had pushed their discoveries
in the south and east. A squadron, under the command of
Vasco de Gama, had doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and
thus discovered the passage to India. The following year,
another expedition, sent to the East Indies, under Cabral,
steering west to avoid the winds and calms off the coast of
Africa, discovered by accident the coast of Brazil, in South
America, and took possession of the country. As it was found
to be on the Portuguese side of the pope's line, the right of that
monarchy to the country was not disputed. This accidental
discovery proved of more value to the crown of Portugal
than all its East India possessions.
8. Many of the colonists whom Columbus had carried over
were of the very dregs of society—criminals, who were re-
leased from prison to plant colonies in the New World. His
attempts to enforce discipline among this licentious mass, ex-
posed him to their hatred; and they made false accusations
against him, which reached the court of Spain. There he had
active enemies; for envy, which ever follows and seeks to de-
preciate superior merit, had been awakened, by witnessing his

6. Give some particulars of the visit of Columbus to Spain. Of his
third voyage. Who had discovered the continent before Columbus? What
account can you give of Ojeda? Of Amerigo Vespuccio?—7. What im-
portant discoveries were made by the Portuguese?—8. Of what character
were many of the Spanish colonists? How did Columbus suffer on account
of this both in the colony and in Spain?
splendid successes. In one respect his conduct had laid him open to misrepresentation. Isabella had forbidden the slavery of the natives. Columbus had faithfully endeavored to fulfill her wishes; but circumstances forced him to allow a species of servitude almost amounting to slavery. This was told at court, with exaggerations. Isabella, though she had long withheld these calumnies, at last yielded to their influence, and believed Columbus to be guilty of oppression to the innocent natives, for whom her kind heart was warmly interested.

9. Francis de Bovadilla was now appointed to proceed to Hispaniola, with power to examine into the administration of Columbus, and if necessary, to supersede him in the government. On his arrival, the island had been reduced by Columbus to submission, and all insurrections composed. Bovadilla, however, at once assumed the government, and sent Columbus in chains to Europe. Ferdinand, ashamed of this injustice, gave orders on his arrival in Spain, that he should be released, and invited to court. The cold and calculating monarch received him with civility;—Isabella, with such tenderness, that Columbus knelt at her feet and wept. He related to his sovereigns his trials, his efforts, and his injuries. But, though Bovadilla was removed from the government and recalled, Columbus was not reinstated in his rights, now so extensive as to be an object of jealousy to the court. On the contrary, Nicholas de Ovando was appointed governor of St. Domingo.

10. Columbus felt keenly this new injury; and he remained two years an unsuccessful suitor at the court of Spain. Finding it vain to solicit redress from an ungrateful monarch, he offered to conduct another voyage of discovery, to seek a new passage to the Indies, which he expected to find somewhere near the isthmus of Darien. Ferdinand, hoping to reap farther advantages from his genius, furnished him with four small ships, and Columbus, at an advanced age, again went forth to seek new countries. This voyage was disastrous; after sailing along the coast a considerable distance, he found his hopes of discovering a strait, delusive. He encountered a violent storm, and his vessels were so much injured as to compel him to run them aground at Jamaica. Here, far away from all aid or consolation, he was detained more than a year by the governor of St. Domingo. When he returned, Isabella was dead, and from her alone he had hopes of sympathy and justice. Heart stricken by this blow, he sank into despondency, and died at Valladolid, A. D. 1506.

11. Hernando Cortez, an idle, wilful, and irregular young man, left his paternal mansion, in Estremadura, at the age of

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8. In what respect had his conduct laid him open to misrepresentation?—9. Who was now sent over by the Spanish sovereigns, and with what powers?—10. In what state did he find the island? What however did he do? How did the sovereigns treat Columbus? Who was sent over governor?—11. What did Columbus next undertake? What was the character of his last voyage? What further account can you give of Columbus?
nineteen, and went an adventurer, to Hispaniola, where Diego
Columbus, son and successor of the great admiral was governor.
He sent Velasquez with an armament, to colonize Cuba. The
good monk Las Casas, went as the companion of Velasquez,
and exerted an influence to prevent the atrocious abuse of the
natives which had occurred in the conquest of Hispaniola. Cortez,
also, who had acquired some fortune, went with Velasquez, and
settling in Cuba, he evinced such talent and energy, that on a
proposition of sending an armament to possess a rich country
to the west, which had been visited by Grijalva, Cortez
was appointed to command the expedition; and six years
after Nunez de Balboa had discovered from the mountain
heights, the great Pacific, Cortez set sail from St. Jago in
Cuba for Yucatan. It was at night, with a fleet half-manned
and half-equipped, and without ceremony of leave-taking, that
Hernando Cortez set forth on an expedition which gave a new
empire to Spain. Cortez had learned that Velasquez, grown
jealous, was about to supersede him in the command, after he
had embarked all his fortune and hopes in the enterprise.

12. There was reigning in Mexico, Montezuma, the powerful
sovereign of the Aztecs, or principal tribe of the country; and
Cortez met a people more civilized than any the Spaniards had
before found in the New World. Mexico was a great and rich
city, as was Tetzuco and several others. But the blighting curse
of a terrible superstition was upon them. A cruel priesthood had
made them submit to a discipline by which their very souls
were subjugated. For their bloody war-god they demanded
human sacrifices, which they offered in a manner shocking be-
yond expression, and in astonishing numbers. The flesh of
these human victims, the Mexicans cooked and ate! ate it at
their feasts, and made merry. And the different tribes had
perpetual wars with each other to get a supply of victims for
these sacrifices. It is not wonderful, that such a nation was
ripe for divine retribution. Cortez was made the human in-
strument.

13. Montezuma, in his lake-encircled capital, was by his reg-
ular couriers advised, from the first, of the arrival and move-
ments of the Spaniards. Doubtful whether they were human
beings, or the descendants of a benevolent deity, whom their
traditions had taught them to expect; he wavered between giv-
ing them welcome as friends, or resistance as enemies. The
latter, however, would have been his only safety. The Spaniards
came to plunder his wealth and possess his kingdom; and no
consideration of gratitude or kindness would have stayed their

11. Who was Hernando Cortez? What was done, and by whom, in
reference to colonizing Cuba? What had Cortez to do with this colony? By
whom was the Pacific ocean first discovered? What was done by Grij-
alva? What was the manner of Cortez's leaving St. Jago? Why did he
thus? 12. What sovereign was on the throne of Mexico? What kind of a
people did Cortez find? What was the character of their religion and reli-
gious rites? Were they cannibals?—13. What were the opinions, and what
was the conduct of Montezuma?
unrighteous course. Montezuma sent to Cortez a magnificent present, a mock sun of burnished gold—a moon of massy silver, and rich mantles, curiously wrought of the many-tinted feathers of their bright birds,—with fruits and flowers; but the emperor forbade their approach to his capital. This present excited their avarice, and lessened their fears. Cortez told the Spaniards the Spaniards wanted gold; they had a disease of the heart which nothing else would relieve! To keep his followers from looking back, Cortez burned his fleet. Fertile in mental resources—sleepless in vigilance, and staunch in determination, he then swept through the country with an army of about 600 men; sometimes fighting against odds which would be quite incredible, but for artillery, of which the Mexicans had no previous knowledge, and cavalry, which equally surprised and frightened them, they supposed that the horse and his rider were one.

14. Arrived at his capital, Montezuma came out to meet the Spaniards;—received, fed, and lodged them, as the descendants of gods. But Cortez believing that he was plotting to destroy them, took advantage of the frank courtesy of the sovereign,—seized his person, and conveyed him to the extensive building assigned to the Spaniards. The Mexicans were horror stricken; for with them the person of their emperor was sacred. Cortez through him, held them for a time in check. But at length, as the king appeared upon a balcony to say what Cortez had dictated, they attempted to kill him. He then died voluntarily.† GUA- TAMOZIN, his nephew, succeeded him; and had the natives been united, his talents and devotion would have saved his country; but they fought against each other, and the Spaniards took their sovereign prisoner. To make him discover into what part of the lake his riches were thrown, they stretched him, with a faithful adherent, over burning coals. He turned to his master a beseeching look, and Guatamozin replied to it—"Am I taking my pleasure." Not being able to shake his constancy, Cortez took the sovereign from torture, but afterwards hanged him. Having fully subjugated the country, he returned to Spain. Charles V. sent him over again, but with diminished authority. Although in his declining years the emperor treated him coldly, yet he ennobled his posterity.

15. FRANCIS PIZARRO, who went as a soldier of fortune to the West Indies, having obtained some knowledge of Peru, returned to Spain to solicit authority and means to undertake its conquest. He obtained the authority, but could not procure the

13. What present did he send? What effect had it? What disease did Cortez say the Spaniards had? What did Cortez do to prevent his men from thinking of going back? What was the number of the Spanish army? What is said of the encounters of Cortez with the natives? 14. When they arrived at Mexico how did Montezuma meet them? What was the behavior of Cortez? What the fate of Montezuma? Who was his successor? What hindered his expelling the Spaniards? How did Cortez treat Guatamozin? Relate the remaining history of Cortez.—15. Who was Francis Pizarro? I or what did he return to Spain?
money, till meeting Cortez, he furnished him the necessary funds to equip a small armament. With three light vessels and 180 soldiers, Pizarro, with his associate D'Almagro, sailed from Panama to conquer Peru. He landed, and at Tumbes received a small reinforcement. In Peru he met people of nearly the same degree of civilization as those in Mexico, and here too, was a divided empire. Between Huascar, the legitimate, and Atahuallpa, the reigning Inca or sovereign, was a war in which Pizarro immediately engaged, affecting to take the part of Atahuallpa. By his party the Spanish leader was introduced into the heart of the country; where the mild and amiable people received him in state, as the ambassador of a great monarch. He treacherously attacked them, and made Atahuallpa prisoner, who offered for his ransom a room full of gold. After Pizarro had received it, the faithless robber put the Inca to a cruel death; and subdued and oppressed the country. Pizarro and Almagro quarrelled, the army divided, and, in a battle, Pizarro took as prisoner and afterwards executed, his former friend. By the son of Almagro, Pizarro was himself assassinated.

CHAPTER III.

Italy the subject of contention, and seat of war.

1. A war now commenced, the seat of which was Italy, but which engaged several of the great powers. Its first object was the sovereignty of Naples, which, as we have before seen, had been long contested between the French and Spanish. The throne was claimed by Charles VIII. of France, though occupied by Ferdinand II., a prince of the illegitimate house of Aragon. Charles, though the son of Louis XI., who wished him to learn little else than his favorite maxim, "he who knows not how to dissemble, knows not how to reign;" had yet quite other views of the beau-ideal of royalty. He had read romances, and his head was turned with the belief that he was destined to become a great conqueror. Ludovico Sforza, "the Moor," now duke of Milan, who wanted the aid of the French in the civil broils in which he was engaged, artfully wrought
upon his foible; and Charles, after making arrangements to propitiate Ferdinand of Spain, by relinquishing to him Roussillon, an important province, invaded Italy at the head of a large army. All the Italian powers were alarmed, and even Sforza was surprised at the result of his intrigue; but, as no effectual opposition was made, Charles swept through northern Italy; and achieved the conquest of Naples without the shedding of blood. He was, however, at little pains either to conciliate the people, or to establish his government; while the licentious manners of the French rendered the Neapolitans wholly averse to their dominion. Meanwhile the jealousy of the surrounding nations was excited by the grasping ambition of the emperor. Ferdinand of Spain had an eye to the future possession of Naples himself, and notwithstanding his treaty, he, through his diplomatic agents, stirred up against Charles the “League of Venice,” memorable as being the first alliance in Europe pointing to the principle of confederacy. By this league Ferdinand of Spain, the pope Alexander VI., the emperor Maximilian, the republics of Venice and Milan, (for the double-dealing Sforza was in it,) agreed together to expel the French from Italy. Charles, on learning this, left a governor in Naples, and garrisons in the principal towns,—marched to meet the confederate armies, and encountered them near Parma, where a battle ensued. Though his enemies had nearly double his force, he obtained a partial victory; but was obliged to retreat to France, with but little the air of a conqueror.

2. Ferdinand II., the reigning king, took advantage of his retreat to recover Naples; and was aided by the great Spanish captain Gonsalvo de Cordova, who was sent to his aid by Ferdinand of Spain. By their united efforts the French were driven from Italy. The king of Naples died, and was succeeded by his uncle, Frederick. Pope Alexander VI. received the great captain after his successes with honor; but, in a personal interview, spoke against his master. The captain boldly defended him, and plainly told the pope, that he had better reform his own scandalous life. The death of Charles VIII., who left no sons, was followed by the elevation of the Duke of Orleans, Louis XII., to the throne of France. He immediately asserted a right to the Duchy of Milan, through his grandmother, Valentina Visconti, and revived the claims of the house of Anjou upon the crown of Naples. By various incitements, he allured pope Alexander VI., the Venetians, and the Florentines, to his interest. He then marched into Italy, and achieved the con-

1. Who played upon the vanity of Charles to incite him to attack Italy? What treaty did he first make with Ferdinand of Spain? How did he succeed in his invasion of Naples? What was his subsequent conduct? What league was formed against him? 2. What was done by Ferdinand of Naples? Who was sent by Ferdinand of Spain to his assistance? Relate what happened between him and the pope? Who succeeded Ferdinand of Naples? Who succeeded Charles VIII. of France? What claims were made, and what was done by Louis XII.? What powers joined him?
310

THE MOST WARLIKE OF THE POPEs.

quest of Milan, almost without a blow. Sforza was eventually taken, and ended his days an unpitied prisoner in France.

3. Louis next set himself to the recovery of Naples; and for this object formed an alliance with Ferdinand of Spain, who did not scruple, thus, by a secret treaty, to plot against his relation Frederic, while openly he professed to aid him against the French. The kingdom of Naples was to be divided, the French king to have the northern; and the Spanish the southern portion; and each to conquer his own division. This treaty prepared the way for bloody and lasting wars; the French and Spanish portions not being defined, each nation claimed the central parts. While Gonsalvo de Cordova was already pushing the war in Italy, Ferdinand was amusing Louis with negotiations. When the Spanish troops had made themselves masters of Naples, Louis being sensible that he had been duped, prepared to attack Ferdinand with vigor, and to carry the war both into Spain and Italy. But despite his efforts, the Spaniards remained masters of the whole kingdom.

4. Meantime a change in the views of the popedom had taken place. The death of Alexander VI. was followed by the election of Julius II. This pontiff, not satisfied with the engines which his sacred character put into his hands, to bend kings to his will, sunk that character in the ambition to rival those kings in the extent of his temporal dominions; and in intrigue, and martial achievement, he proved the master spirit of his day. His object was to extend the popedom over all Italy. The power of Venice must first be humbled. To effect this, Julian entered into an alliance, called the "League of Cambrai," with Louis of France, and Maximilian of Germany. The only complaint of these sovereigns was, that the people against whom they confederated had no king, and thus they stirred up the envy of those who had. The Venetians could not withstand their power. After losing a battle, they gave up their possessions on the continent, and retreated to their city.

5. Julius determining to expel every foreign power from Italy, now found means to draw the Venetians into an alliance against France. Spain and Switzerland soon joined the "Holy League." Louis dispatched a powerful army into Italy, under the command of his gallant nephew, Gaston de Foix. After brilliant successes, this young hero penetrated to Ravenna,—there encountered the troops of the allies, and completely defeated them: but he fell in battle, and with him fell the fortunes of the French. They were driven out of Milan, and Sforza, the son of Ludovico, regained the ducal throne. Meanwhile Ferdinand of Spain made himself master of Navarre, which he

3. What shameful treaty was now made between Charles XII. and Ferdinand the Catholic? Who again commanded the Spaniards in Italy? How did the French king bear his disappointment in regard to his part of Naples?—4. Give an account of Julius II. Of the league of Cambrai. What complaints had those allies to make of Venice?—5. What new league did the system of diplomacy next produce? What battle occurred in consequence? What conquest was made by Ferdinand of Spain?
conquered from John d’Albret, a nobleman of France, in alliance with Louis, who became sovereign of that kingdom by marriage with its heiress.

6. The death of pope Julius, at this period, changed the aspect of things. His successor, the accomplished Leo X., of the house of Medici, showed himself friendly to France. The death of Louis XII. occurred shortly after that of pope Julius. Leaving only a daughter, the crown of France descended to his cousin, Francis I. This popular prince was distinguished for the manly beauty of his countenance and person, the suavity of his manner, his valor and ambition, rather than for the soundness of his mind. Bent on the recovery of Milan, he assembled a large army, and led them in person across the Alps. At Marignan he encountered the Swiss in the service of the Milanese, fought and won a bloody battle. The duchy of Milan submitted; and its duke, Maximilian Sforza, abandoned his claim to its sovereignty, and in exchange received a pension from France. Leo X. now made peace with France, and Europe for a short season enjoyed a general tranquillity.

7. The death of Ferdinand, king of Spain, was followed by the elevation of his grandson, Charles V., then sixteen years of age, the son of Philip the Handsome, and the unfortunate Joanna. From his maternal grand-parents, he inherited Spain and Navarre; from his paternal, Austria and the Netherlands. About two years after the elevation of Charles to the sovereignty of Spain, the death of his grandfather, the emperor Maximilian, left the imperial throne vacant, and presented a source of competition between Charles and Francis. Both offered themselves as candidates. The electors very naturally preferred the claims of Charles, who was a prince of German origin, and heir to the Austrian possessions, to those of a foreigner, who was not even acquainted with their language. At another period they might have been jealous of concentrating so much authority in one man; but at this time they felt the need of a powerful sovereign to defend them from the alarming power of the Turks. Charles, therefore, was elected emperor of Germany.

8. It was not long before the disappointed Francis found pretexts for hostilities. He presented claims to Naples, and required the restoration of Navarre to its hereditary prince, as an ally of France. Charles, on the other hand, revived his claim upon Burgundy, which he averred had been unjustly wrested from his grandmother, Mary of Burgundy, by Louis XI.; and he claimed Milan as a fief of the German empire. Both monarchs made preparation for war, and strengthened

6. Who succeeded Julius II.† Who Louis XII.† For what was he distinguished‡ What success did he obtain†—7. Who succeeded Ferdinand the Catholic† Who were his parents† Who were his father’s parents, and what possessions did he inherit from them‡ Consider the preceding history, and relate also who were his mother’s parents, and what he derived from them. What two competitors had the electors to decide between, in their choice of an emperor, and how did they decide†—8. What claims were now set up by the two rival princes, Charles and Francis†
themselves by alliances. The French were unsuccessful, and
were expelled from Milan. Francesco Sforza, brother of the
late duke, was raised to the duchy, which he held as a fief
of the German empire. Francis was meanwhile perplexed by
the defection of one of his most important subjects, a man of
splendid talents, as well as of powerful connections. This was
Charles, Duke of Bourbon, constable of the kingdom; who,
from a quarrel with the queen-mother, abandoned the service
of his country, and in a spirit of revenge, entered that of the
emperor.

9. The French king, having successfully repelled an invasion
of Provence by the forces of the imperialists, marched in person
at the head of an army into Italy; and besieged Pavia. A division
of the opposing army, under the duke of Bourbon, attacked, de-
feated, and made him prisoner. Francis wrote to his mother,
"Madam, all is lost but our honor." France was filled with
dismay, and the other allied powers with surprise and grief.
Francis was conveyed to Spain. His reception in that kingdom
gave to Charles the character of an ungenerous and unfeeling
rival. Henry VIII. of England, who had previously been in
alliance with Charles, now entered into a treaty with the queen-
mother, Louisa of Savoy, who was regent of France, by which
he pledged himself to a defensive alliance with that kingdom,
and to the exertion of his power in procuring the release of
the captive monarch. Charles at last became thoroughly alarm-
ed by the discovery that Francis had resolved to resign his
crown, and was taking measures to carry his purpose into effect.
He then negotiated with his prisoner the peace styled "the
Treaty of Madrid," by which he was released; but the condi-
tions were hard; and, as Francis had planned, the states refused
to ratify the treaty, and the pope absolved the monarch from
his oath.

10. Leo X. was succeeded by Clement VII., also of the
house of Medici. This pope, the Venetians, and the duke of
Milan, now formed a league with Francis against the emperor,
and induced Henry VIII., of England, to become its protector.
This was termed a "Holy League," the pope being at its
head. The duke of Bourbon again received the command of
the imperial forces in Italy, and before the arrival of reinforce-
ments to the confederates from France, he took Milan, plun-
dered and overran the territory, and advanced upon Rome.
The pope, alarmed, shut himself up in the castle of St. Angelo.
Bourbon prepared to storm the city, but while mounting the

8. What was done at Milan? Which of the generals of Francis now
turned traitor to him?—9. Relate the operations of Francis in Italy. The
battle of Pavia and its consequences. How was Francis treated by Charles?
To what power did Louisa the queen regent apply, and what alliance was
formed? By what treaty, and on what kind of terms was Francis liberated?
How did he fulfil them?—10. Give an account of the Holy League. Who
headed its forces? What reply did one of the grandees of Spain make to
the sovereign, when asked to lodge the duke de Bourbon? (See side note.)
What bold measures were immediately taken by the emperor's forces? 
The capture of Rome. What happened to the pope, and what
did Charles in consequence? 11. What part was the King of England
taken in these continental affairs, and by whose instigation?  What new
treaty was formed? Who commanded the confederated armies of France and England? What was done by them? 12. In what manner did the
French king give offence, and to whom? What honorable title did Andrew
Doria obtain, and for what services? How did Doria resent the injury done
his country by the French? What effect had this on the arms of the con-
federates?  What peace was now negotiated, and by whom?
exercise of their opinions; but he was desirous of interposing his authority for the suppression of heresy. *The empire was in great danger from the Turks*, who had already invaded Hungary, and now menaced the Austrian dominions. To obtain the assistance of the protestants against the Turks, Charles affected great moderation. *Soliman*, the Turkish sultan, entered Hungary at the head of 300,000 men. Charles assembled from different parts of the empire a well-disciplined regular force of 90,000 foot, and 20,000 horse, besides many irregulars. The emperor himself, for the first time, took the command in person. No battle was fought; but after manœuvring through a summer campaign, Solymann, overawed, relinquished his proposed invasion, and retraced his steps to Constantinople.

14. Charles now returned to Spain, and prepared for an expedition against the Barbary states. *Aruch Barbarossa* and his brother *Hayraddin*, from being commanders of a fleet of pirates, had made themselves the terror of all the countries on the shores of the Mediterranean. They ravaged the coasts of Italy, and *invaded the kingdom of Tunis, which they conquered*, and drove away its king. The exiled prince applied to Charles for aid, and the emperor gladly entered upon a war which might rid him of piratical neighbors, and in the eyes of all Christendom be, in truth, a holy expedition. He collected a veteran army, and with a fleet of nearly five hundred vessels sailed for Africa. Aruch being now dead, Hayraddin put himself under the protection of the Turks, drew together the Moorish and Arabian forces of the different African princes, to whom he represented the invasion as an attack upon all Mussulmen. Notwithstanding this formidable resistance, the expedition of the emperor proved successful. The conquest of Tunis, the release of twenty thousand Christian slaves, and the check given to the piratical power, were truly glorious to Charles; and called forth the applause and admiration of the civilized world.

15. The absence of the emperor in Africa, seemed to Francis a fit opportunity for renewing the war. The trial and execution of his envoy at the court of Milan, for the murder of one of the duke's domestics, afforded a pretext. Having obtained the countenance of the pope by the marriage of his son *Henry*, with the niece of the pontiff, *Catharine de Medicis*, he dispatched an army into Italy and took possession of the territories of the duke of Savoy, an ally of the emperor, almost without opposition. The death of Sforza without heirs, now occurring, Francis renewed his claim to the duchy of Milan. Charles, in the meantime, returned successful from his African expedition, and flattered himself that he might add France to his other conquests. He invaded it, and was pressing forward.

13. What affairs pressed upon the emperor at this time? Relate the movements of the Turks?—14. Who were the authors of the piracies of the Barbary states? Relate the emperor's expedition against them?—15. What was done by Francis to strengthen his cause with the pope? What in reference to Milan? What measures of retaliation were taken by Charles?
with vigor. Francis prudently resolved to maintain only a de-

defensive warfare. He directed his general, Montmorenci, who
commanded in the south of France, to lay waste the country
on which the emperor must depend for subsistence. By pursuing
this Fabian mode of warfare, he rendered the attempts of the
imperial forces entirely unsuccessful.

16. Francis, in the meantime, gained a temporary advan-
tage, but ultimately hurt his cause, by negotiating with the Ot-
toman sultan, and thus putting all Christendom in jeopardy.
Soliman dispatched an army into Hungary, which defeated the
Germans in a great battle at Essek, on the Drave, and sent his
fleet under Barbarossa to the coast of Italy;—the Turks landed
near Tarento, ravaged the country, and retired. The feelings
of all the Christian powers were outraged by this union.
Most creditable efforts were made by the pope to effect a peace.
Both monarchs greatly desired it, yet the terms could not be
settled. At last a truce of ten years was agreed upon.

17. During the period of this truce, Charles wished to pass
through France to the Netherlands, to suppress an insurrection
of the citizens of Ghent. He hesitated whether he should trust
himself to the power of the French king. The generosity of
Francis' character, and his chivalric notions of honor, induced
him to make the trial. He was received with regal hospitality,
and conducted safely through his rival's dominions. Charles
suppressed the insurrection, and inflicted rigorous punishments
upon the inhabitants of Ghent, his native city. During this
year, he made a second expedition against the pirates, which
was disastrous and unsuccessful. Meantime, his obstinate re-

demal refusal to grant to Francis the investiture of Milan, caused the

truce to be broken. For two years, war raged in France and
Spain, Italy and the Netherlands with all its concomitant hor-

ors, but without any decisive result. A treaty of peace was
at length concluded at Crespi, in which Charles made several
concessions.

CHAPTER IV.

The Reformation.

1. The corruptions of the Romish church, and the despotic
power which the popes exercised, had frequently produced

15. What course was directed by Francis, and what was the result?—

16. What very reprehensible measure had Francis taken? What was
done by Solymon? What by the pope? What arrangement was all that
could be effected?—17. What example of chivalric honour is here related?

What acts are related of Charles? Tell where were two years of war and
bloodshed, and tell if you can for what? In what year was peace made,
and where?
controversies between the pontiffs, and the different sovereigns of Christendom. In many instances, individuals too, of uncommon penetration and courage, remonstrated. An instance of this, within the church, was given by Roger Bacon's friend, whom, he said, was the most learned man in Europe, Robert Grosste, (or Greathead,) bishop of Lincoln. Innocent IV. commanded him to give an office in the church to his nephew, a child, five years old. This zealous and honest Christian wrote to the pope, "That when the benefices intended for able pastors were given to those incapable of performing pastoral duties, it was a crime hateful to God, and hurtful to men, and if committed by the Holy See, would forfeit all its glory, and plunge it into the pains of hell?" The pope, on reading the letter, exclaimed, "How dare this doating old fool to write thus to me. Is not his master, the king of England, my subject, or rather my slave?" Such, however, was the weight of the bishop's character, that he was not molested; and on his death bed, he declared his belief, that the reigning pope was anticrist. When such discontents were among men whom the church exalted, much more were they found among those, who, without any favor, were trodden down by its gigantic power. The Waldenses, Wickliffe, Huss, and Jerome of Prague had borne their testimony, and although they had passed away, the leaven of their doctrines was still working in the public mind. The revival of letters had awakened a spirit of enquiry, and the influences of the art of printing began to be felt.

2. Martin Luther was destined to exercise an influence on human opinion almost miraculous, in destroying the curse of a soul-blighting despotism. To his mother, Luther attributed his early bent to religious devotion, by which, though educated for a lawyer, he became an Augustin monk. He had a friend struck dead by lightning at his side, which also affected his mind. In the spirit of his order he wrought in menial occupations; and even begged through the streets of Wittenberg in Saxony, with a bag at his back. He had never, at this time, perused the Scriptures; but finding a neglected Latin copy in the library of his convent, he read and studied it; and his soul kindled with new energies, as he saw how truth had been wronged by ignorant piety, and hypocritical infidelity. Indulgences, when first they were sold to raise money for the crusades, were but the commutation of prescribed penances; now they implied a release from the guilt of sin, and the vengeance of Heaven; and Leo X. employed the sale to raise money to pay a debt, and to complete the mighty edifice of St.
Peter's church. Tetzell, a Dominican friar, impudent, from the inquisitorial power of his order, employed his ensnaring eloquence to persuade the people to purchase indulgences. Luther had prepared himself to deliver a course of lectures on Scripture repentance, which led him to examine and detect this mystery of iniquity; and he took ground against the Dominican. Tetzell threatened him with the inquisition, and, with a word, he might then have delivered him to its fires;—but Luther had a work to do and he was preserved. He had acquired such reputation that he was made professor of theology, in a university which the Elector of Saxony had founded at Wittenberg. He applied himself more and more to scripture studies, and wrote "Ninety-five Propositions," after the scholastic forms, denouncing the doctrines of purgatory, penance, and indulgences; hung them on a church door in Wittenberg, and invited a public disputation. His challenge not being accepted he published his "Propositions." Thus went forth to the world, the first sound of the Reformation.

3. So wonderful was the effect produced on the public mind in Germany, that Tetzell now found himself in a condition rather to fear force than to use it; for the hearts of the people were with Luther. To recover his ground with the public, Tetzell published an answer to Luther, in one hundred and fifty-six propositions; but as they were based on the infallibility of the pope, while Luther derived his proofs from Scripture, the question was still left open. Tetzell, in an assembly of Monks, burnt Luther's book;—the students of the university of Wittenberg, took public ground in the contest, by burning that of Tetzell. The court of Rome became alarmed, and from thenceforth used its mighty power to crush Luther, and were unable. Cardinal Cajetan was sent to Germany, and gave money to the needy Maximilian, who publicly requested the pope to extinguish the new heresy. Luther was forthwith summoned to Rome. Delivered, as he now was by the emperor, to papal vengeance, he became as a thing accursed by the church and the state. But he had friends in his God, and in his own genius, and he did not despair. His keen understanding pointed to him Frederic, Elector of Saxony, as a protector. The elector’s vote was important to the wishes of Maximilian, in favor of his grandson Charles V. as his successor to the empire; and Luther sought and obtained his protection. Instead of going to Rome, he was allowed, at the elector's request, to appear for trial before a council at Augsburg. Finding his destruction resolved on, he escaped from his enemies, and returned to Wittenberg.

2. How did it providentially occur that Luther was prepared to detect and expose this wickedness? What was Tetzell’s power, and how did he threaten Luther? What did Luther in respect to his Propositions—3. How was Luther’s publication received? In what situation did this place Tetzell, and what course did he take? How did the students of Wittenberg take ground in the contest? What was done by the pope? How did cardinal Cajetan succeed with Maximilian? What was Luther’s condition and his course? To what place did he go, and whence return?
4. After this Luther openly propagated his opinions. The pope published against him a bull of excommunication. *Luther had a pile erected, on which he publicly burned it!* His intrepidity proved his safety, and that of his cause; for common minds confide, where great courage is displayed. Charles V. succeeding to the German empire, he convoked an assembly of its princes, the first ever held, to meet at Worms, in order to put down the new doctrines. Before this august tribunal, where the stern emperor himself was to preside, Luther was summoned;—and to this, in spite of the remonstrances of his friends, he said he would go, "though there were as many devils in Worms as there were tiles on the houses." The elector had procured for him the emperor's safe-conduct for a certain number of days. Luther's entrance into Worms showed the intense and favorable interest he excited. The papal throne and the German empire was,—so God appointed,—shaken by the one mind enshrined within that monk, whom a dense and almost impenetrable human mass were straining to behold,—as bare-headed, and in an open carriage, he rode into Worms. Luther appeared calm and respectful in the presence of his judges. "Are you the author of these books," he was asked. He replied, "I am." "Will you," was the next demand, "retract the opinions herein expressed?" To this he answered, that he desired time for consideration. After two days' reflection, he again appeared before the princes and firmly gave his negative. "Unless, said he, I shall be convinced by Scripture, (for I can put no faith in popes and councils, as it is evident that they have frequently erred, and even contradicted each other,) unless my conscience shall be convinced by the word of God, I neither will, or can recant; since it is unworthy of an honest man to act contrary to his own conviction. Here I stand; it is impossible for me to act otherwise—so help me God."

5. His boldness was taken by Charles as an affront; and the ban of the empire was added by the emperor to the excommunication of the pope; so that Luther would be an outlaw the moment his safe-conduct should expire. The elector Frederic caused him, as he was returning to Wittenberg, to be seized by armed men, and forcibly conveyed, as a place of concealment, to the castle of Wartburg. Luther here performed the great work of translating the scriptures into the German language; and through his amiable friend, the eloquent Melan-
The Reformers are Called Protestants.

THON, he communicated many treatises for the public press. While Luther was still under a sentence of death, which any one who met him was at liberty to execute, he sailed forth from his confinement,—returned, and was joyfully received at Wittenberg, where he exerted himself to compose the differences which had arisen among the friends of the Reformation.

6. ADRIAN VI. who succeeded Leo X., published a declaration, in which,—intending to reform the church, he says, "many abominable acts have been committed for several years past in this holy chair; and we shall endeavor that our court, from which, perhaps, all this evil has proceeded, shall undergo a speedy reform." The German princes, some of whom were Catholics, drew up a list to be transmitted to Rome, of the iniquities of the priesthood, and the evils of the church system; and requested, for the purpose of adopting measures of reform, the calling of a general council. These public documents contained the avowals of friends,—nay, the confession of the papacy itself; and thus confirmed what had been asserted by the reformers. Adrian was, however, the stern foe of Luther's doctrine, and was fully bent on his destruction. He soon died, perhaps by poison, and was succeeded by Julian de Medicis, under the name of Clement VII.; when the object of the papacy was, as before, not to reform, but to aggrandize.

7. For the eight years succeeding the diet of Worms, Charles was fully occupied by his contests with Francis. In the meantime, the sentiments of the Reformers continued to spread rapidly. In Switzerland, two or three years before Luther commenced his career, Zuinglius, a priest of Zurich, entered on a similar course, and the Swiss generally embraced his opinions. But a minority opposed them by an armed force, and Zuinglius was killed in battle. His principal friend, Ecolampadius, died with grief. Erasmus, the most learned man of his age, who had chosen a retirement in Switzerland, gave his influence against the abuses of popery, if not warmly in favor of the reformation. From Germany the new opinions extended to France, the Low Countries, and England. In the meantime, the peace of Cambray liberated Charles from the French war, and he summoned a diet at Spires, to settle religious controversies. The decree of the diet confirmed that of Worms; and forbade any further innovation in religious affairs. The elector of Saxony, with other princes of the empire, and the deputies of fourteen imperial cities, protested against this decree, and hence the reformers received the name of Protestants.

8. The emperor summoned another diet at Augsburg. Luther

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5. Under what circumstances leave it.—6. What declaration was published by Adrian VI.? What list of grievances was by the German princes sent to Rome? How did these publications serve the cause of the reformation? What occurred on the death of pope Adrian?—7. How was Charles V. employed? Who was Zuinglius, and where did he stand for the reformation? Who was his friend? Who was Erasmus? What countries did the new opinions extend to? Give an account of the proceedings of the diet at Spires? How did the reformers get the title of Protestants?
RISE OF THE JESUITS.

was not permitted to attend, and Melanchthon drew up the protestant confession of faith, which was presented to the diet; but all efforts at reconciliation were fruitless. A more rigorous decree was passed against the protestants; who now formed the league of Smalkald, in which the protestant states pledged themselves to defend each other against all aggressions. They also formed a secret alliance with Henry VIII. of England, and with Francis, the constant enemy of Charles. From this period, 1531, to the peace of Crespi, 1544, the emperor, occupied by his wars with the French, and the Turks, and by his expedition to Africa, left the protestants free to promulgate their opinions.

9. While the papacy was thus losing on the one hand, it was gaining on the other. Ignatius of Loyola, an elegant young knight, was fiercely fighting at the siege of Pamplona, when he received severe wounds in both his legs. As he lay confined, a book of saints and martyrs was put into his hands; and when he arose from his bed, he laid aside his military honors, and practised the most abject and painful mortifications. He then went a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, and became imbued with a belief, that he had a special call to found a society for the conversion of those who sat in darkness. The pope gave his sanction, and the society was founded, and is still known by the name of the Jesuits. This society has produced a Xavier, a Marquette, and a host of others who zealously labored in heathen lands. The Jesuits afterwards became corrupt; and their union, their secrecy, and unprincipled acts performed under the base maxim, that “the end sanctifies the means,” made them the dread not only of protestant, but of catholic countries. The cause of the reformation was also wounded by its friends. When Luther first returned to Wittenberg, he found among them, those who were setting aside all rule. Asserting a baptism from on high, they called themselves Anabaptists. Their leader telling Luther they needed not the Scriptures, they were guided by a spirit, he impatiently replied, “I slap your spirit on the snout!” The result of their movements, showed that Luther had discerned its nature. Munzer, the chief leader, after making many proselytes, led them forth in armed masses, ranging the land and committing excesses, in order to drive out “the Canaanitish nations.” No less than 60,000 persons are supposed to have perished. At length Muhlenhausen, in Thuringia, became their chief seat. Munzer assumed the sole power, and no crime was too shameful for him and his followers to perpetrate. At length they were defeated in battle, and Munzer was slain.

10. When relieved from his cares, Charles leagued with the

8. What occurred at the diet of Augsburg? What league did this lead to? What obliged Charles to leave the protestants a time at liberty?—
9. Give an account of the founder of the Jesuits. Of the society of the Jesuits. Of the anabaptists. What was done after they ranged in arms with Munzer at their head?
pope to extirpate heresy. They convened a council at Trent. The
protestants refused to submit to its decisions. Considering
its doctrines as abhorrent both to reason and Scripture, they
resolved rather to resort to arms. Charles, unprepared for in-
mediate war, had recourse to his usual arts of intrigue and ne-
gotiation. He won Maurice, a prince of the Saxon family, by
promising to give him the possessions of the elector of Saxony.
While the emperor and princes of the league were thus negoti-
ating, Luther died; and the protestants were subjected to all the
evils arising from divided councils. Maurice invaded Saxony,
defeated the troops of the Elector, and made himself master of
almost the whole electorate. The disheartened confederates
sued to the emperor for peace; but the conditions he imposed
were so rigorous, that they were at once rejected. Their army,
meantime, very imprudently separated. This was no sooner
done, than Charles took measures to procure the separate sub-
mission of the princes. All but the elector of Saxony, and the
landgrave of Hesse, yielded. The former returned to his elec-
torate, which he recovered. The death of Francis, relieving
Charles from fear of France, he carried the war into Saxony.
The elector was defeated and taken prisoner. The landgrave
alone, was now in arms, and the emperor, by artifice obtained
possession of his person, and detained both him and the elector
in rigorous captivity. The league, so formidable at first, was
thus wholly dispersed.

11. At a diet held in Augsburg, there was presented by the
emperor's orders, a system of doctrine called "the Interim,"
because it was to be binding only until a general council should
be called. This system, although relaxed in one or two points,
was decidedly against the protestants; and did not satisfy either
them or the catholics. In the meantime the emperor manifested
a desire to make the imperial dignity hereditary in his family;
and hence he sought to procure his son, Philip, to be elected
emperor, to the prejudice of his brother Ferdinand, who had
already received the title of king of the Romans. These, with
other measures, alarmed the German princes. The electors re-
 fused to yield to his solicitation. Maurice of Saxony now se-
cretly became his enemy, and with consummate art, set himself
to countermine his plans. He obtained of Charles the command
of the imperial army, and was employed to compel the citizens
of Magdeburg to submit to the Interim. After accomplishing
that object, he delayed, under various pretexts, to disband his
army. He next obtained the support of Henry II. who had suc-
ceded his father in France. At the head of 20,000 foot, and

10. What council was convened, and by whom? What did the protest-
ants think of its decrees, and what prefer to receiving them? Who
was won by Charles? In what year did Luther die? What was then the con-
dition of the protestants? What course was pursued by Charles, and how
far did he succeed in breaking up the league of Smallkald?—11. What was
the scheme called the interim, and how did the protestants receive it? What
other measure did Charles pursue displeasing to the German princes? What
course was now taken by Maurice?
5,000 horse, he now published a manifesto against the emperor, boldly stating the reasons of his taking arms. Charles, out of health, and not suspicious of ill, was, with a few soldiers, at Innspruck. Astounded at the news of the defection of Maurice, he had no resource but flight. Unable to travel in a carriage, the sovereign of half Europe was hurried over the Alps in a litter. He arrived safely at Villach, in Carinthia, where he remained till matters were settled with the protestant princes.

12. Maurice finding the pursuit fruitless, returned to Innspruck. The council summoned to Trent, had been removed on pretence of an epidemic, to Bologna, and they now separated in consternation. Meantime negotiations commenced at Passau, which at length terminated in a peace, styled "the Peace of Religion." Its principal stipulation was, that the liberties and rights of the protestants in Germany should be secured. The French king had no part in this treaty, so that Charles still had a war upon his hands. The Turkish fleet again made a descent upon Italy, and ravaged the coast of Naples; while, in Hungary, the imperial arms were unsuccessful. Charles, wearied with the cares of royalty, now abdicated his crown; resigning the sovereignty of Spain and the Netherlands to his son Philip. His brother Ferdinand was chosen emperor by the electors of Germany. In order to leave his dominions in quiet, he made a truce with Henry II. of France, for five years. He then retired to a monastery in Spain, where he passed the two remaining years of his life, with no amusement but that of making watches.

CHAPTER V.

England.—Scotland.

1. Henry VIII., on the death of his father, succeeded to the throne at the age of eighteen. Handsome, generous, and adroit in martial exercises, his accession to the throne was hailed with a joy the more sincere on account of the unpopularity of his father. His first step was to secure the alliance of Spain by a marriage with Catharine of Arragon, the widow of his brother Arthur. He retained in his service the counsellors of his father, and assisted in their deliberations, that he might learn to

11. What was now the situation of the emperor?—12. To what place was the council of Trent removed? When and where was a peace concluded? Was the empire of Charles wholly in a state of peace? Give an account of his abdication and retirement.

Chap. V.—1. What was the first appearance and conduct of Henry VIII of England, after his accession?
THE REFORMATION IN SCOTLAND

conduct public affairs. But he had within him the germs of violent passions, which, nursed in the hot-bed of unrestrained self-indulgence and flattery, attained at length an enormous growth. The adulation which he received on account of his feats at tournaments, inflated him with the vain desire of equaling the military fame of Edward III. and Henry V. in the fields of France. Making the quarrels of Louis XII. with the pope, a pretence for war, he invaded his kingdom with an army, and demanded the surrender of those provinces, which had formerly belonged to the English.

2. During his absence, James IV. of Scotland, incited by the French court, and complaining of grievances received from the English, collected an army, crossed the Tweed, and passing through Alnwick, encamped at Flodden. Here he was met by the Earl of Surrey; and the bloody battle of Flodden-Field was fought, in which the king of Scotland perished, with the flower of the Scottish nobility.

3. James V. was only a year old at the time of his father's death. Henry intrigued to get the administration placed in the hands of his sister, queen Margaret, mother of the young king. Between her and the duke of Albany, a nobleman in the interest of the French court, constant disensions arose. Hostilities with the English continued, with no important results. James assumed the administration at the age of seventeen. He made peace with Henry; but espousing successively two French princesses, the last of whom was Mary of Guise, the Scottish monarch became closely united with the French. Scotland, as well as England, had become imbued with the principles of the reformation. James, however, adhered zealously to the religion of Rome, and persecuted the protestants. This was another source of enmity between him and the king of England, and another war ensued. At Haddonrig, the Scottish arms triumphed over the English. Shortly after, James having assembled an army of 30,000 men, their feudal leaders refused to advance into England. Afterwards another army was collected, and when news arrived of their disgraceful flight on the western border, the monarch sank under the mortification, and died a week after the birth of his daughter, who was afterwards so celebrated as Mary, queen of Scots.

4. Meanwhile a decided spirit of opposition to the church of Rome was spreading. John Knox, the stern reformer of Scotland, was already in the field. Henry VIII. had written against Luther in the earlier part of his reign, and received from the

1. What effect had the flatteries he received respecting his feats of arms, upon his political measures?—2. Give an account of the battle of Flodden-field—its occasion—the parties—and the result.—3. Who succeeded James IV. of Scotland? What was done respecting the regency? When did James assume the government? What matrimonial connections form? What contests with the English are noticed? What effect had the flight of his army on James V.? What child did he leave? Observe how she was connected with the royal family of England.—4. How was it with regard to the spread of the reformation? Who was John Knox?
pope the title of "Defender of the Faith." He had also, burned several heretics; but wishing to be divorced from his excellent wife Catharine of Arragon, and to espouse Anne Boleyn, a lady of his court, he thought, or affected to think his union with Catharine illegal, because she was his brother's widow; and he now supported the cause of the catholics, that he might win the favor of the pope, who, he hoped, would annul the marriage. To him he accordingly appealed, but his suit was delayed from time to time. At length Clement VII., under the influence of Catharine's nephew, Charles V., summoned Henry to appear at Rome; an insult which the monarch highly resented. Henry next proposed the question of the validity of his marriage to the universities of Europe, and from several of these received answers propitious to his purpose.

5. Cardinal Wolsey, whom Henry had raised to great power, secretly desired to procure a marriage for him with some French princess, in order to forward his own designs upon the papal crown. Wolsey was a great, though an ambitious man, and he had by his influence over the king, kept his violent passions in check. Becoming wearied of this control, and incited to suspicion by Anne Boleyn and her friends, Henry at length resolved on his destruction. The meekness with which the cardinal submitted to his arbitrary will,—not denying unjust accusations, giving to the king large estates, and quietly returning to his ecclesiastical functions, would have propitiated any, but a cruel tyrant. In his retirement, however, Wolsey was apprehended on the charge of high treason; but was seized on his journey to London with a mortal disease. Being near to death he said, "Had I but served my God as diligently as I have served my king, he would not have given me over in my gray hairs."

6. The new counsellors of Henry, the sycophantic Cromwell and Cranmer, gave whatever advice, they supposed the king desired to have. It was resolved in the affair of the divorce to await no longer the pope's determination. Henry, assuming to be himself head of the church, made Cranmer primate, or first dignitary; and as such he pronounced that the marriage of Henry with Catharine was null and void. That virtuous princess had conducted with the utmost dignity and prudence; and during the five years in which Henry had disturbed her peace, as well as that of the nations of Europe by seeking this divorce, she never uttered a disrespectful expression. After his marriage with Anne Boleyn, Catharine, being about to die,
wrote him an affectionate letter of forgiveness, which he read after her death with tears.†

7. The execution of Sir Thomas More, chancellor of the kingdom, who is said to have resembled the ancient sages more than any man who had appeared in Europe for centuries, awakened the indignation of all Christendom. He refused either to affirm or deny the validity of Catherine's marriage, or the supremacy, which the king now assumed in matters of religion; although he declared himself ready to swear that he would support the succession to the crown, established by parliament. The despotic Henry and his obsequious ministers pronounced him guilty of treason. Bishop Fisher also suffered death for denying the king's spiritual supremacy.

8. Three years after his marriage with Anne Boleyn, Henry, whose affections had again wandered, caused her to be beheaded on the scaffold, and the next day married the new favorite, Jane Seymour. She died after giving birth to a son, afterwards Edward VI. A marriage was then negotiated with Anne, duchess of Cleves, which ended in a divorce; and was succeeded by one with Catherine Howard, who was brought to the scaffold. He was then married to Catherine Parr, who survived him.

9. The war with Scotland continued. Henry desired to procure the hand of the young queen, Mary Stuart, for his son Edward, and thus unite both crowns. The French party preponderated in the Scottish councils, and Mary was affianced to Francis, the dauphin. The war, although sanguinary, resulted in nothing decisive, and at length a peace was concluded. Henry's last days were much occupied in ecclesiastical affairs. He was acknowledged supreme head of the church, suppressed the religious houses, turned out the monks and nuns, and took possession of the church property; but he favoured the doctrines of Rome, and burned at the stake those who denied them; as he did also those by whom they were maintained, if they disputed his supremacy. At times, however, he seemed to lean to the side of the reformers of Germany, whose opinions were, certainly, making silent progress in England; but in church and state, he was the most despotic tyrant that ever swayed the English sceptre.

10. Henry, by his will, left his crown, first to his son, Edward VI., the son of Jane Seymour, next to Mary, daughter of Catharine of Spain, and next to Elizabeth, daughter of Anne Boleyn. Edward was but nine years of age at the death

* The king ordered his servants to dress in mourning for Catharine; but Anne appeared on that day in a robe of yellow silk. Henry, after he had brought Anne to the scaffold, shed no tears.

† Give an account of the chancellor. For what was he condemned and executed? Who else was executed for the same offence? What was the fate of Anne Boleyn? Mention Henry's succeeding wives. How did the French interest thwart the views of Henry in Scotland? How were Henry's last days occupied? How did he deal with the monasteries? How did he manifest his capricious and cruel tyranny? What was his character?
of his father. The government was committed to a regency at the head of which was his uncle, Henry Seymour, earl of Hertford, now created duke of Somerset. He, adopting the opinions of Luther, established a church, with the aid of learned, pious, and judicious men; not only independent of the see of Rome, but dissenting from it in doctrine and practice, and using special precautions that it should never coalesce. During this reign, a liturgy in the English language was adopted, and the church of England established on much the same foundation as that on which it now rests.

11. The health of Edward failed, and the hopes derived from his amiability of character and attachment to the protestant cause were about to be blighted. The duke of Northumberland now sought to prepare the way for the elevation to the throne, of his son lord Guilford Dudley, who had married the lady Jane Grey, granddaughter of Mary, youngest daughter of Henry VII. The attachment of Edward VI. to the lady Jane, who was about his own age, and who had been, under the celebrated Roger Ascham, the companion of his studies, together with her piety and sweetness of character, rendered the young king accessible to the reasonings of Northumberland; and without the knowledge of Lady Jane, he declared her his successor. When, on the death of Edward, the tidings of her elevation were announced to her, she fainted with surprise and grief; and on her recovery, she sought to escape the unwelcome dignity, urging the prior claims of Mary and Elizabeth. But in an evil hour she suffered her scruples to be overruled by her ambitious relatives, and she was proclaimed queen. A contest ensued between Northumberland and the partisans of Mary, in which the latter were successful. The duke was impeached for treason, and beheaded. The innocence of lady Jane, and her husband, lord Dudley, procured them a short respite; but at length, they too were condemned, and suffered on the scaffold.

12. The leading partisans of lady Jane were next tried and executed; and the Catholic bishops were restored. Negotiations were shortly after commenced for the marriage of the queen, which, notwithstanding the remonstrances of her subjects, resulted in a treaty with Charles V., who had proposed her union with his son Philip II. An insurrection, headed by Sir Thomas Wyatt, and the duke of Suffolk, showed the disturbed state of the public mind. The conspirators had urged the princess Elizabeth to assume the crown, which, with her characteristic prudence she refused.

10. Who succeeded Henry? Give some account of the political events of his reign. What was done in church affairs?—11. How was Edward tampered with, in regard to the succession, and whom did he appoint? What were his reasons for appointing this lady? How did she receive the news of her elevation? What was the result?—12. What was done with the adherents of lady Jane? Whom did queen Mary marry? What insurrection was the consequence of her marrying a strict Catholic, she being one herself? What was offered to Elizabeth?
THE FIRES OF SMITHFIELD.

13. Shortly after the arrival of Philip in England, the realm was, with great ceremony, re-united to the Roman church, and absolved by the pope's legate, Cardinal Pole, from the sins of heresy and schism. At Rome, this event was celebrated with great joy and splendor. This reconciliation was the signal for lighting up the fires of persecution in England. The first martyr was John Rogers, who was burnt at Smithfield, March 4th, 1555. The bishops Latimer, Ridley, Hooper, and Cranmer, fathers of the English church, also suffered martyrdom. The number of those who were put to death for conscience sake, during this short reign, is estimated at 400, of whom 290 were burned alive. Many of the protestants fled to foreign lands. John Calvin was teaching with great reputation at Geneva, and there many of the persecuted found repose. The death of Mary, which occurred not long after, was followed by the accession of her sister Elizabeth to the throne. The following year, the wars which had so long agitated Europe, were composed by the treaty of Chateau Cambresis, which procured a general peace.

14. POLAND, anciently inhabited by Vandals, was, in 550, made a duchy. About 300 years afterwards, Piastus, a peasant, was elected duke. He lived to the age of 120, and made so excellent a sovereign, that the Poles called his successors, when native princes, Piasts. Christianity was introduced about the time that Poland became a kingdom, under Boleslaus III. A succession of civil wars followed until 1178, when Casimir the Just restored order. From Andrew II. the Poles obtained a great charter, which laid the foundation of their national freedom. Looking back to the early history of this country,

Cardinal Pole was by birth an English nobleman, and allied to the royal family. Early in the reign of Henry VIII., his piety led him to take orders in the church. When that monarch sought to be independent of the see of Rome for the iniquitous purpose of obtaining a divorce, Pole had the firmness to oppose him, which changed the love, the king had borne him, to hatred. Forced to leave England, the pope and emperor of Germany espoused his cause, and he received high honors in the church. Henry, in revenge, put to death several of his relatives, and among them his aged mother, the countess of Salisbury. On the accession of Mary, he was recalled. Had his mild counsels been followed, instead of those of the cruel priests, Gardiner and Bonner, the blood of many martyrs who perished in this reign, might have been spared. In regard to the personal character of Mary, much allowance should be made for the errors of her government, from the peculiar circumstances of her childhood, as well as the influence of her husband, to whom she was faithful and devoted. The blood shed by Mary in England was little in comparison to that which flowed in Spain by the inquisition, allowed by her grandmother. Yet Isabella is lauded, even by protestants, while her granddaughter is called "The Bloody Mary." Times had changed, but Mary, brought up in seclusion with her wronged and unhappy mother, had not changed with them.

13. What was done soon after Philip's arrival? Who was first put to death? Where did he suffer? What others are mentioned? Who succeeded Mary? What occurred the following year? By whom was Poland anciently inhabited? When was it made a duchy? From whom were the early princes called Piast? Under what sovereign, and when did Poland become a kingdom? What is said of Casimir the Just? What was done in the reign of Andrew II.?
we see not why, had the Poles been united, and judicious as well as patriotic, they might not have been at this day one of the first powers in Europe. But the practice of choosing foreign sovereigns early began. In 1370, Louis, the able sovereign of Hungary, was elected king of Poland; and he ruled a domain, parts of which touched the Adriatic, the Black sea, and the Baltic. Lithuania, though often at war with Poland, had till this period preserved its independence, and was the last portion of Europe unchristianized. Louis had sought to secure the succession of Poland to his eldest daughter Maria and Sigismund, elector of Brandenburg, to whom she was betrothed; but the Poles preferring Hedwige, the younger daughter, she was married to Jagello, duke of Lithuania, and he was elected under the name of Ladislaus I. He was baptized, and his people received Christianity; and he became the founder of a dynasty, under which Poland saw her best days.

15. Prussia was conquered by the Teutonic Knights, an order of military monks, who, returning from the crusades, in 1225, obliged the people, at the point of the sword, to submit to their government, and receive their religion. By their barbarities they almost depopulated the country. Casimir IV., of Poland, took up arms for the oppressed people, and long and bloody wars followed, in which the knights were, in 1466, overcome. Albert, the grand master of the order, then renounced the Catholic, and embraced the Reformed religion, and was made duke of east Prussia, as a vassal of Poland. Albert founded the University of Konigsberg. The first diet of Poland was in 1468. The reigns of Sigismund I., and of his son and successor Sigismund II., form the brightest era of Polish history. The reformation was received, and Poland was the first of the nations to declare religious toleration. The death of Sigismund II. terminated the male line of the Jagellons, and, unhappily, foreigners were afterwards elected by the contentious nobles. The frame of society and government had now lost its balance, the aristocracy having reduced to nothing the power of the people, and of the sovereign

(Poland was the ancient Sarmatia, and during the last portion of the middle ages, the principal of the Slavonic Nations, so called from the Slavi, a barbarous and peculiar people, who once wandered over its fertile regions, which extended from the Euxine to the Baltic. The Poles were originally divided into small republics, under chiefs elected for life, called palatins or vaivodes.)

14. Give an account of Louis. Of the extent of his empire. What occurred respecting the succession? What is remarked concerning the dynasty of the Jagellons?—15. By whom; and when was Prussia conquered? By whom, and when were the Teutonic Knights reduced to submission? What was done by Albert? What occurred 1468? What reigns form the brightest era in Polish history? When were the Jagellons ex-
PERIOD II.

FROM
The Treaty or General Peace of Château Cambresis, 1559.

TO
The Assasstination of Henry IV., of France, 1610.

CHAPTER I

England and Scotland.

1. After Charles V., the main light of the historic picture falls upon Elizabeth of England; as being the most powerful, sagacious, and politic sovereign of the time. Though she succeeded to the crown without opposition, her claims were everywhere disputed by the Catholics, on the ground that the marriage of her father, Henry VIII., to her mother, Anne Boleyn, was not valid; the pope not having sanctioned his divorce from Catharine of Arragon. The pope accordingly issued a bull, declaring her illegitimate, and absolving her subjects from their oath of allegiance. Her cousin-german, Mary, Queen of Scots, was esteemed by the Catholics, the lawful heir. She had remained in France, been educated to extensive knowledge of languages, general literature, and elegant accomplishments; and was now married to the dauphin, afterwards Francis II. By the advice of the Duke of Guise and the Cardinal of Lorraine, the brothers of her mother, she assumed the arms and title of "queen of England;" thus giving just occasion of alarm.

PERIOD II.—CHAP. I.—1. What may be said of Elizabeth of England as to her merits as a sovereign? What causes of annoyance had she? Where was now Mary queen of Scots? Who gave her bad advice, and what did she in consequence?
to Elizabeth, although no immediate measures were taken to support her claim. Meanwhile Elizabeth strengthened herself in her authority, by choosing and sustaining able counsellors, and adopting prudent measures; while with mingled courtesy and dignity, she made herself as a mother to the lowest of her subjects; never refusing to receive their petitions, and judge between them and their most powerful oppressors. But, like her father, she had an indomitable will, a disposition to control unchecked, all affairs in her kingdom, both secular and ecclesiastical. Hence her reign procured England prosperity and peace, but neither civil or religious liberty.

2. In Scotland, the reformation had made great progress. The heads of the protestant party, the principal of whom was John Knox, jealous of the influence of the Guises over the queen-regent Mary of Guise, had associated as the "Congregation of the Lord." The papists, alarmed, resorted to persecution. The regent at one time was in favor with the protestants, but she forfeited their esteem by her duplicity; and rebellion ensued. The protestants applied to Elizabeth, who sent an army to their assistance. The queen regent, though she received troops from France, retired to Leith, where she was besieged. Here she died; when the Guises dispatched envoys from France to Edinburgh, and a treaty was concluded with Elizabeth's ambassadors; by the terms of which, the French forces were to be withdrawn from Scotland, and Francis and Mary to abstain from assuming the title of king and queen of England. The rights of the protestants were secured by the treaty, which provided for a regency of twelve persons to be chosen jointly by the queen of Scots and the parliament, to govern the realm during her absence. After this, the French and English armies both left Scotland; but Elizabeth held a controlling influence.

3. The protestants, still headed by John Knox, now persecuted in their turn. Worship according to the ritual of the Romish church was utterly prohibited by law, and the third offence of this kind made punishable by death. Meantime the Guises, although compelled by the disorders in France, to yield for the present, did not relinquish their design of establishing their niece, Mary, upon the throne of England. Influenced by them, Francis II. and Mary, now king and queen of France, refused to ratify the treaty which their ambassadors had made in Edinburgh, and continued to assume the title and arms of monarchs of England. The sudden death of Francis left the beautiful Mary, now no longer queen of France, at liberty to return to Scotland; and a deputation of her subjects arrived with a
pressing invitation that she should assume the government. She 
complied, and bade adieu to France with tears and lamentations 
"Farewell! dear France,—farewell!" she said, as the receding 
vessel carried her from its beloved shores, to a land around 
which clustered dark forebodings of the future.

4. On her arrival she was received with joy, and by her first 
measures she acquired the confidence of the protestant party. 
Mary, however, was a papist; and her adherence to the regular 
celebration of mass soon awakened the jealousy, and at length 
alienated the affections of those of her subjects over whom 
Knox held a controlling influence;* and she thenceforth re- 
cieved from them abusive treatment, and on some occasions, 
outrageous insult. There was now peace between England 
and Scotland; and apparently cordial friendship between the 

5. Among the aspirants for the hand of the fair queen of 
Scots, was her cousin, HENRY STUART, LORD DARNLEY, eldest 
son of the earl of Lenox, his mother being MARGARET DOUG- 
LAS, niece to Henry VIII. Darnley was elegant in his person, 
and after Mary, next heir to the English crown. Him Mary 
made, and by this measure excited the jealousy of the vigi- 
lant Elizabeth. Darnley proved not only weak and vain, but 
savage in temper; and he soon ceased to pay to the lovely Mary 
the homage her heart demanded, and to which she had been 
accustomed in France. The favor she showed to DAVID RIZ- 
ZIO, an Italian musician, whom she had made her private secre- 
tary, excited the jealousy of Darnley, who, with some of his 
friends, entered the queen's apartment, dragged the Italian from 
her presence, and murdered him in the room adjoining. The 
birth of her son JAMES soon followed this tragical event.

6. A few months after, the house in which Darnley slept was 
destroyed by an explosion of gunpowder, and he was killed. 
The earl of Bothwell was supposed to be the author of this 
 atrocious deed; and rumor attributed to the queen a share of 
the guilt. Bothwell, after a mock trial, was exculpated from the 
charge of murder. The queen exalted him to high honors and 
offices, and about three months after the murder of her hus- 
band, she married him. An attempt of Bothwell to get posses- 
sion of the infant James, drove the indignant nobles to arms. 
Mary also assembled forces; but on witnessing the reluctance

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* A table is now shown (the fragments having been collected) in I holy Rood house, at Edinburgh, on which stood an image of the virgin, which John Knox, intruding himself into the private apartment of his sovereign, 
dashed to pieces in her presence.

3. What change now took place in the condition and location of Mary?—
4. How was Mary received? How treated by the protestant leaders? Were 
her relations with Elizabeth amicable?—5. How did she excite Elizabeth's 
jealousy? Who was lord Darnley? What kind of man did he prove to 
be? What shocking outrage was he guilty of? What occurred soon after?
6. How was Darnley killed? What was believed concerning the murder- 
ers? What was the conduct of Mary towards Bothwell? What was now 
the position of Mary?
of her troops to fight in defence of Bothwell, and receiving assurances from the confederated lords, of their willingness to submit to her government, provided Bothwell was banished from her councils, she dismissed him, and he fled to the Orkneys. Here his piracies raised him new enemies, and he was finally captured, and died unpitied in a prison in Norway. The queen herself was treacherously kept a prisoner in the castle of Loch Leven by the confederated lords, who took upon themselves the administration of the government. They next compelled her to resign, and then proclaimed her son king, under the title of James VI; making the Earl of Murray regent of the kingdom.

7. Mary escaped from her prison by the aid of the chivalric young Douglas, a captive to her charms. At Hamilton, she was joined by a large number of the nobility, and, with an army of 6,000, she met and encountered, near Glasgow, the forces of Murray, and suffered a total defeat. She then rashly threw herself upon the generosity of Elizabeth for protection. The English queen unjustly made her a prisoner, and contrary to the laws of nations, Mary, being like herself, an independent sovereign, she assumed to try her before a court of English and French commissioners, on the charge of being accessory to the death of her husband. Mary objected to the jurisdiction, and at the same time denied the charge, but was pronounced guilty; and thenceforth she was kept a prisoner in England, always strictly guarded, and sometimes poorly accommodated. Nineteen years after her first trial, she was arraigned again, on the accusation of being a party to a conspiracy against the life of Elizabeth;—condemned, and executed at Fotheringay castle. The misfortunes of the lovely queen of Scots, insensibly lead the heart to regard her with sympathy; and throw a veil over her improprieties, it may be her crimes.

8. The internal administration of the English government was, during this period, wise and vigorous. Cecil, Lord Burleigh, the secretary of state, knew every winding of human policy, even to its ultimate axiom, that good faith and fair dealing are, on the whole, the most profitable. The nation rose to wealth and consequence, more rapidly than at any former period. The religion of the reformation was permanently established, and troops were sent to France to aid the distressed protestants in that kingdom. England and Spain were at this period the most powerful nations of Europe; and the interests of the monarchs being opposed, pretexts for hostilities were found. Philip was at the head of a league formed among the
catholic powers, for the suppression of heresy; while Elizabeth was regarded as the leader of the protestant party. Philip espoused the interests of Mary, queen of Scots, encouraged and strengthened insurrections in England, and dispatched a body of Spaniards and Italians, to assist the Irish in a rebellion against the English government. Elizabeth, by the vigor of her arms, not only crushed the rebellion in her own states, but yielded effectual support to the inhabitants of the Low Countries, who were struggling to escape from the tyrannical domination of Spain.

9. England was now alarmed with the intelligence that the Spanish monarch was preparing an immense fleet, styled the "Invincible Armada," for the invasion of the island. Philip laid every part of his vast dominions under contribution; and the length and nature of his warlike preparations, betokened that the enterprise contemplated nothing less for its object, than the entire conquest of Britain. Indeed, so confident were the Spaniards of success, that many nobles attended the armament, merely to receive a share in the division of the country.

10. Elizabeth was fully awake to the emergency. She superintended the military preparations herself. She mounted her horse, rode forth and inspected her troops at Tilbury,—awakened their hopes, and aroused their energies. "I will," said she, "fight at your head, for though I have but the arm of a woman, I have the heart of a king; and I am ready to pour out my blood." The Armada, from which such mighty achievements were expected, was attacked in the channel by the English under Howard and Drake, several ships taken, and others sank, or damaged; so that the Spanish commander, the duke of Medina Sidonia, was obliged to return to Spain for repairs. The winds proving contrary, he sailed north to make the circuit of the island. Off the Orkneys, a severe storm dispersed and wrecked the fleet. One half of the vessels, and a still greater proportion of the seamen and soldiers were destroyed. Thus ended this formidable invasion, whose destruction proved the commencement of the maritime supremacy of England.

11. The parliament during this reign, as in the preceding, generally displayed the most abject submission to the will of the sovereign. On one occasion they demanded liberty of speech; the queen peremptorily refused, and they submitted. But towards the close of the reign they took a bolder tone; and the queen showed her policy in granting with a good grace, what she saw she could not safely refuse. In this reign Sir Francis Drake circumnavigated the globe; an exploit which

8. Concerning the queen of Scots what part was taken by Philip, and what hostile measures towards England did he pursue?—9. What great enterprize had the Spaniards now in hand? What appears to have been their expectations of the result of the invasion?—10. How did the queen of England meet the emergency? Describe the operations and fate of the armada? What did the destruction of this armament prove?—11. How was it with the parliament during this reign? What was done by Sir Francis Drake?
filled Europe with astonishment. Commercial relations were entered into with Russia and Turkey. Elizabeth gave, in 1573, to Sir Humphrey Gilbert, the first patent to lands in the new world to which the royal signature of England was affixed. Gilbert lost his property and life in vain attempts to settle the country; when the queen transferred the patent to his brother-in-law, the scientific and courtly Sir Walter Raleigh. The navigators sent out by him discovered a fair coast, which the virgin queen named Virginia, and which Raleigh was at much expense to colonize; but his attempts to plant permanent settlements were disastrous failures. Elizabeth was not particularly liberal to men of genius; yet her reign produced William Shakespeare, the prince of poets.

12. SPAIN AND THE NETHERLANDS.—The treaty of Chateau Cambresis being concluded, Philip, after endeavoring to quiet the Netherlands, returned to Spain. Having encountered a severe storm at sea, on his first landing, he threw himself on his knees, and in gratitude for his own preservation, vowed to devote the remainder of his life to destroying heretics! His utmost efforts, aided by the tortures of the Inquisition, were now exerted for their extirpation, and he gave the monstrous order, that all heretics in Spain, Italy, the Indies, and the Netherlands, should forthwith be converted to the Catholic faith or put to death. The Netherlands had received the doctrines of the reformation. They had become wealthy by their commerce and manufactures, and the free government of their cities had contributed to foster a spirit of liberty. The persecution of Spain now drove them to revolt.

13. The cruel Duke of Alva was sent by Philip, with a large body of Spanish and Italian soldiers, to reduce the Dutch to submission. He caused the Counts Egmont and Horn, who had taken the lead, to be executed. William of Nassau, prince of Orange, who succeeded them in command,

In speaking of Elizabeth, it is the common place remark, that "though she was an indifferent woman, she was a first-rate ruler." This is one of those many expressions, by which ordinary women, who are influenced by them, are made through their lives a species of larger infants; and queens, should any read them, must be led to suppose that queen-craft requires, or excuses vice. Will the Almighty make such distinctions? Elizabeth was a human being placed in authority. Did she do best, the best things? That was wise, and some indulgence should be shown for her irregularities of temper, when she gave her thoughts to the anxious cares of her high vocation. Did she indulge in violent outbreaks of temper? That is disgraceful in man or woman. Did she disguise and act a double part? That is wrong in woman or in queen. Isabella of Spain, who but for her bigotry would have been a better queen, never was insincere, although she had the example of a beloved husband.

11. With what nations were commercial treaties made? What was done in regard to colonizing America?—12. Give an account of the movements of Philip of Spain after the treaty of Chateau Cambresis? What dreadful order did he give? What tribunal had he to aid him? What was the condition of the Netherlands? What effect had Philip's persecution?—13. What commander was sent against them? Whom did he cause to be executed? Who succeeded them as the leader of the Dutch? What difficulties did the Prince of Orange experience?
enlisted in his service a body of the German protestants; but unable to bring Alva to an engagement, and possessing no fortified place, he was compelled to disband his army. Executions now were numerous, and many of the Dutch fled and took refuge in England. Their privateers, which had disposed of prizes in the English ports, were on the remonstrances of the Spanish court, excluded. This compelled them to seek a harbor of their own; and they seized and fortified the Brille, a port in Holland. The spirit of the Hollanders revived, and many towns took sides with the prince of Orange. Alva, foreseeing the length and probable result of the war, petitioned to be recalled; and he returned to Spain to boast, that during the five years of his command in the Netherlands, 18,000 heretics had perished by the hands of the public executioner.

14. Requesens, the Spanish governor who succeeded, tried the efficacy of milder measures; but the disease was past remedy, and the inhabitants, smarting under their recent oppressions, continued the war with various success. A detachment under Louis, brother to the prince of Orange, was defeated and slain by the Spaniards, who next laid siege to Leyden; but the Dutch dreaded the Spanish rule more than death, and they opened their dykes and sluices. A powerful wind impelled the waters with fury against the works of the besiegers, and compelled them to retreat. The Dutch offered the sovereignty of the Low Countries to Elizabeth, but she prudently declined it, though she aided them with men and money. At length a treaty, called the pacification of Ghent, was concluded, by which it was stipulated that all foreign troops should be expelled, and the inquisition of the Netherlands abolished. Requesens died;—Don John of Austria, who succeeded, violated the treaty, and the war was renewed. Unhappy divisions between the states had prevented vigorous efforts against the common enemy. The prince of Orange exerted himself to produce a union, and procured a meeting of deputies at Utrecht, from Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Groningen, Overysel and Guelderland, who signed the articles called the union of the Seven United Provinces. Thus commenced the Republic of Holland.

15. The Duke of Parma, one of the most accomplished generals of the age, now commanded the Spanish forces. The states doubting their ability to withstand the power of Spain, again offered the sovereignty to Elizabeth; and on her second rejection, to the Duke of Anjou. The duke, by an attempt upon the liberty of the states, lost their confidence, and was obliged to return to France, where he soon after died. The
command of the confederates devolved upon the prince of Orange, who, through his whole life was faithful to the liberties of his countrymen; but an assassin, whom a reward offered by Philip had instigated to the ruthless deed, took his life. The states appointed his son Maurice to succeed him in command.

16. The duke of Parma, having reduced Ghent and Brussels, besieged Antwerp, the richest and most populous city in the Netherlands. The inhabitants made every effort to save the city, but were at last obliged to capitulate. At this disastrous juncture, when the provinces were ready to sink under continued efforts, Elizabeth finding her interest now united with theirs, embarked heartily in their cause. Her favorite, the Earl of Leicester, was dispatched thither, with six thousand English troops, while Sir Francis Drake was sent to attack the Spaniards in the West Indies. Leicester, having failed to render any effectual assistance, was recalled, and Lord Willoughby appointed to the command of the English forces.

17. The duke of Parma was obliged to lead his army into France in aid of the Catholic party, and he was also required to direct the operations of the “Invincible Armada,” and thus obliged to neglect the concerns of the Netherlands. On the death of that able commander, Mansfield was appointed to succeed him. Maurice now took Breda, and with the aid of the English, under Sir Francis Vere, made himself master of Gertruydenberg and Groningen. At Turnhout, in Brabant, they obtained a complete victory over the Spaniards. In 1597, the Dutch and English squadrons made a joint attack upon the Spanish fleet, in the bay of Cadiz; destroyed it, and took the city. Philip now began to think of peace; but as the states would hearken to no terms which did not recognize their independence, he chose rather to transfer his dominion over the revolted provinces to his daughter Isabella, who was affianced to Albert, duke of Austria.

18. Albert, after his marriage, endeavored to prevail on the United Provinces to submit, by promises of lenity. They disregarded his advances, and resolved upon liberty or death. Albert then issued a decree, excluding them from all intercourse with Spain, Portugal, and the Spanish Netherlands. This, though designed to injure their commerce, had a contrary effect, and changed the current of their trade, without lessening its profit. The hostile parties now strengthened their armies. Prince Maurice enlisted bodies of Germans, Swiss, and French. The arch-duke received supplies from Spain, Italy, and Ger-

15. What further can you relate of the prince of Orange? Who succeeded him? What city was now besieged? What course was now taken by the queen of England? Whom did she send? How did Leicester succeed? Examine the operations detailed in this paragraph, and say which has the advantage. Why did the duke of Parma neglect the affairs of the Netherlands? What engagements are related? What city in Spain is taken? What passed in respect to a treaty of peace? What transfer was made? What measures were taken by Albert to induce submission? How did each party strengthen its army?
many. A sanguinary battle was fought at Nieuport, near Ostend, in West Flanders, in which the Dutch and English obtained the victory.

19. Albert soon took the field with a powerful force, and sat down before Ostend. After a memorable siege of three years, which cost the archduke the lives of 70,000 men, Ostend capitulates. Prince Maurice, meanwhile, had reduced seven towns, which more than balanced its loss. After prosecuting the war two years longer, the court of Spain retaining possession of the ten provinces, treated with the seven who had acceded to the union as an independent nation. A truce of twelve years was concluded, during which their civil and religious liberties were guarantied to the states. Through the energy and persevering industry of the Dutch, their commerce was extended and their wealth increased. The East India Company was established during this period.

20. While Philip II. had lost the Netherlands, he had acquired Portugal. Don Sebastian, the sovereign, under the influence of the Jesuits, attempted an invasion of Morocco. Sailing for Africa with an army of 20,000 men, his forces were defeated, and he was slain in battle. He was succeeded in his kingdom by his uncle, Cardinal Henry. On his dying childless, the line of succession was broken, and many claimants to the crown arose. Philip, although not possessed of the best right, was the most powerful; and he was accordingly crowned king of Portugal. The whole Spanish peninsula, now united under one monarch, was, on the death of Philip II., transmitted to his son, Philip III.

CHAPTER II.

France.

1. Francis I. dying in France, his son Henry II. succeeded him. The death of Henry II., shortly after the treaty of Cambresis, left the throne of France to his son, Francis II. This kingdom was now a scene of contention. The protestant religion had taken a deep hold of the affections of the French people, and numbered among its disciples the Prince of Conde, Admiral Coligni, and many other important personages. The Guises

19. Where was a battle fought, and with what result?—19. Give an account of the siege and capture of Ostend. What had prince Maurice gained? What is said of the measures of the court of Spain? What treaty was made? What did the industry of the Dutch effect?—20. What accession had Philip of Spain received? Who were the last sovereigns? Why was Philip made king?

CHAP. II.—1. Who succeeded Henry II. of France? Who was now queen of France? What was the state of the kingdom? Who were the Protestant leaders?
CATHARINE DE MEDICI.

were at the head of the Catholic party; and in fact, through their influence over the young and feeble Francis, they were at this period at the head of the whole French nation. Swayed by a furious zeal against the Protestants, and not satisfied with influencing the councils of the young king, they plotted to gain possession of his person, and force him into all their measures. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medici, more from ambition than maternal regard, opposed them. This led them to the adoption of milder measures. Condé, who had been made prisoner, was released. Shortly after, the Guises recovered their influence with the court.

2. The see of Rome had a powerful support in the Jesuits. When Loyola threw himself with all the intrepidity of his enthusiastic character into the formation of this order, both the pope and the inquisition opposed him; but subsequently they adopted the society and turned it to their purposes. Paul III. confirmed the order in 1540, and the next year Loyola was created general, or grand master of the society, with powers subordinate only to the pope. Its seat was at Rome, whence missions were sent to every part of the Old and New World; which, in reference to this society, was divided into twelve provinces. After Loyola's death, which occurred in 1556, the order was in a degree remodeled. Its main object then became, to defend the supreme authority of the papacy, and for this purpose to control public opinion;—to work by good or bad means, as would most effect the downfall of its foes, or the elevation of its friends. The Jesuits by private tokens knew each other; but mingling in all the walks of social life, they were not known to the uninitiated, who were thus surrounded by spies. Monarchs, whom they daily approached as confessors, were blindly wrought upon to do the will of this dark and dangerous order; and their secret councils were too often betrayed and transmitted to Rome.

3. The sudden death of Francis II. transferred the supreme authority to his mother, who exercised the office of regent during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Catharine sought to render her own power paramount, by balancing opposite factions, and steering a middle course between them. De l'Hôpital, whom she made chancellor, was an upright and honest man; and notwithstanding he was a catholic, he influenced the queen to show some favor to the protestants. A meeting of catholic and protestant divines took place at Poissy, where the cardinal Lorraine, on the part of the former, and

1. Who the Catholic, and what was their influence and power? Who was Catharine de Medici, and what part did she take?—2. By whom had Loyola, in the first founding of his society, been opposed? What did these parties subsequently do? When and by whom was the society confirmed? What success had Loyola as regarded his society, during his lifetime? There appears to have been a change as to the objects of the society after his death, explain what it was.—3. What event placed Catharine de Medici in power? What policy did she pursue? What counsel had she, and how did he influence her? Where did the two parties hold a conference?
THE HUGUENOTS.

Theodore Beza on that of the latter, held a theological dispute, but without coming to any amicable understanding. Meanwhile, a deputation from the different parliaments of the kingdom, published an edict granting toleration to the protestants, or Huguenots as they were called, and permitting them to assemble for worship without the walls of towns and cities. The Guises left the court, indignant that such a favor should be granted to heretics. But during the absence of the queen and court from Paris, the duke of Guise returned thither, and upon his arrival the populace rose in his favor, and evinced great zeal in the catholic cause.

4. The protestants prevailed in the south and west of France, and, under the prince of Condé, made Orleans their head quarters. The catholics entered into a league with Philip of Spain, and the protestants with Elizabeth of England. Havre de Grace was yielded to Elizabeth, and a body of 6,000 troops furnished by her. The catholics besieged Rouen, which, after a bloody defence, surrendered. Anthony of Bourbon, king of Navarre, who had at first favored, but afterwards abandoned the protestant cause, was here slain. His queen, Jeanne d'Albret, with her young son, afterwards the gallant Henry IV., still adhered to the protestants. The first important battle was fought at Dreux, where the prince of Condé, and admiral Coligni commanded the protestants; the duke of Guise and the constable Montmorenci the catholics. The contest was obstinate, but terminated in the defeat of the protestants. Admiral Coligni retreated from the field with the remnant of the army, and the prince of Condé was made prisoner. The duke of Guise, not long after, was shot by an assassin while engaged in the siege of Orleans.

5. An accommodation now took place, and the protestants were granted the liberty of worship within those towns of which they were in possession. This was, however, soon abridged. A meeting between Charles IX. and his sister, the queen of Spain, was arranged to take place at Bayonne, in France, near the Pyrenees. At this conference, which Catharine, and the duke of Alva, as minister of Philip, attended, "the Holy League" was formed for the extirpation of heresy. Meanwhile the cardinal Lorraine was at Rome, concerting measures with the pope for carrying the designs of the league into effect. The protestants under Condé and Coligni, again resorted to arms; a battle was fought at St. Denis, five miles north of Paris.

3. Who were the chief speakers? Was any good done? What edict was published? What persons were offended, and why? What is further said of the duke of Guise? What part of France favored the protestants? Who commanded, and where did they make their head-quarters? What foreign powers were now interested in the dispute? What place yielded to the English? What happened at the siege of Rouen? What parties were opposed at the battle of Dreux, and what were the results? What assassination occurred? What engagement was made to the protestants, and how was it kept? As the league here mentioned was important, be particular in relating who formed it, when it was formed, where, and what was its object? Where was the cardinal Lorraine? Relate the battle of St. Denis?
in which the aged constable, Montmorenci, commander of the catholics, was slain. The protestants, however, were at length driven from the field. They next laid siege to Chartres; during which time, Catharine with her usual artifice, betook herself to negotiations, and another treaty, called the "Lame peace," was concluded.

6. This was soon infringed by an order, dictated by the double-dealing Catharine, to arrest Condé and Coligni for treason. They, having kept themselves on their guard, escaped, and again placed themselves at the head of the protestant forces. At Jarnac they met and were defeated by Henry Duke of Anjou, brother of the king. Condé fell in the battle. This defeat, and more especially the death of their commander, threatened ruin to the protestants. Many of the officers refused to obey Coligni, and dissensions ran high in their ranks. At this juncture, the intrepid, Jeanne d'Albret, queen of Navarre, stepped forward, animated the dispirited protestants by her zeal, and furnished them with funds. "Despair not," said she, presenting her young son, "behold the new chief whom heaven has sent to command you." From this time Henry was acknowledged as their leader, although the more experienced Coligni yet guided their councils. He strained every nerve, in again preparing the troops for action. Poictiers, commanded by the young Duke of Guise, was besieged, but an epidemic disorder in the camp compelled Coligni to raise the siege.

7. Henry of Anjou now appeared in the field, and Coligni, urged by his troops, many of whom were German auxiliaries, anxious to return to their homes, hazarded a battle. The plains of Moncontour now witnessed the entire defeat of the protestants. Coligni, though severely wounded, was soon in the field at the head of another formidable army. Having obtained some successes which inspired his troops, the court commenced negotiations, and a treaty highly favorable to the protestants was concluded. Liberty of worship in their towns was again granted; and their well-grounded fears of treachery were lulled by their being permitted to garrison four strong places, Rochelle, Montauban, Cognac, and La Charte, as guarantees that the conditions would be observed. But the most horrible perfidy was meditated. The design of the court was no other than to lull the fears of the protestant leaders, draw them to the capital, and other cities, and then massacre them all.

8. On various pretexts, they were induced to come to Paris. Coligni, ever true to his country, was incited by the prospect of commanding in a war with Philip of Spain, for the recovery

5. What peace was next made? Have you read of any peace made by that bad woman which did not prove a "lame peace" to those who put any faith in her engagements?—6. How did she infringe this treaty? What occurred at the battle of Jarnac? What was done by Jeanne d'Albret? How was young Henry regarded?—7. What parties engaged at Montcontour? What was the result? What did Coligni? What treaty was now made? What was the design of Catharine and her party?—8. How and where were the leaders of the protestants collected?
of Flanders. He was received with the most devoted respect, consulted on every occasion, and addressed by the young monarch with the title of father. The virtuous queen of Navarre came with Henry, her gallant son, then seventeen. A marriage had been proposed for him, with Margaret, the sister of the king; but the suspicious eye of maternal affection saw treachery in the caresses of Catharine; and she withheld her consent. She died suddenly, probably by poison. The negotiations for the marriage proceeded; and the leaders of the protestants throughout France were summoned to Paris to celebrate its festivities. The wedding took place on the 17th of August, and Paris resounded with mirth and revelry.

9. At the stillness of midnight, on St. Bartholomew's eve, August 24th, the tocsin bell of St. Germain L'Auxerrois, awoke the inhabitants of Paris. It was the signal to begin the dreadful massacre; and the morning light looked upon more than ten thousand bleeding corpses of the protestants, strewed throughout the streets, and within the houses and sanctuaries of the city. Warriors, women, infants, and old men were slain. In other parts of France, there were put to death sixty thousand more. The catholic family of Montmorency gave funeral honors to the mangled remains of Coligni. Pope Pius V., on hearing of the massacre, was affected to tears; but Gregory XII. who at this time succeeded him, insulted the majesty of heaven by returning public thanks for these atrocious cruelties.

10. The king was, meanwhile, seized with all the horrors of remorse. When the assassins, who had acted by his authority, came to relate, and make a merit of their bloody deeds, the spectators beheld him shuddering as if with cold. He hated from that time his wicked mother and the Guises. "I know not," said he to his confidential physician, "what has happened to me, but in mind and body I am shaking as in a fever. It seems to me every moment, whether waking or sleeping, that mangled bodies present themselves to me with hideous faces, and covered with blood." No earthly medicine could reach the seat of his disease; and he died at the chateau of Vincennes in the most agonizing tortures, and bathed in his own blood, which oozed from his veins.

11. His brother, Henry of Anjou, was proclaimed as Henry III. He was not at the time in France, but in Poland, where he had been elected king. The catholics, two years after his accession, formed the celebrated league for the defence of religion, at the head of which was Henry, Duke of Guise. War was declared against Henry, king of Navarre, who had escaped the massacre of St. Bartholomew; and, after having been kept three years a prisoner of state, had regained his liberty. The
league had in the field two armies, each 20,000 strong, while the king of Navarre could raise at the most, only 5,000 men; yet his valor and abilities, and that of his few followers sustained him. At Coutras he encountered an army of the royalists, which he defeated, but was unable to reap the advantages of victory; for he had no means of paying his troops, and a great part of them left him soon after the battle.

12. The designs of the league became apparent. Guise was openly solicited to dethrone the king of France, and take the sceptre into his own hands. This he dared not do; but he instigated the Parisians, who had organized a military force of 20,000 men, to seize the person of the sovereign. The Parisians failed in their attempt, and Guise proceeded to Paris to accomplish it himself; but the king escaped, and took refuge at Rouen. Guise, finding many difficulties in the way of his usurpation, entered into a compromise with the king of France, and was appointed lieutenant-general of the kingdom. Henry, however, felt himself unsafe upon his throne, while his rival was in being; and Guise was assassinated by his orders, as he was entering the council chamber. His brother, the cardinal, was sent to prison, where he was shortly after slain; and about this time died, too, that faithless queen, and wicked woman, Catharine de Medici.

13. The pope now denounced the king of France as a heretic, and the partisans of the league, incensed against him for the assassination of their leader, placed the Duke of Mayenne, the surviving brother of Guise at its head. In these circumstances, Henry of France leagued with Henry of Navarre, who, at the head of their united forces, marched to Paris, and invested it. The French monarch retired to St. Cloud, where the dagger of a monk, suborned by the duchess of Montpensier, sister to the duke of Guise, accomplished his death. When dying, he named Henry of Navarre his successor. He now claimed the throne of France, and assumed the title of Henry IV. The duke of Mayenne caused the cardinal Bourbon, to be proclaimed under the name of Charles X.; but he being a prisoner at Tours, Mayenne took the whole command of the war.

14. Henry met the veteran army of the league at Arques, with a force not one quarter of their number. Hard pressed, his little army overpowered, Henry rushed into the thickest of the battle, and exclaimed, “Are there not fifty gentlemen to die with their king?” The faltering troops rallied; renewed the fight; and became masters of the field. Henry soon after received reinforcements from England, while Mayenne obtained

11. Give a more particular account of Henry of Navarre. Of the battle of Coutras.—12. What were the designs and the conduct of Henry of Guise in relation to the sovereignty of France? How did Henry of France keep the treaty of peace? What other plotters of the great massacre died about this time?—13. What was now done by the pope and the partisans of the league? What by Henry of France? What by Henry of Navarre? What was done by the agency of the duchess of Montpensier? Whom did Henry III. declare his successor?—14. Relate the battle of Arques.
HENRY IV.

supplies from Spain. Disastrous was now the civil war which wasted the fair fields of France, where brothers and former friends were shedding each other's blood. On the plain of Ivry another battle took place. Henry, in directing it, said to his troops, "If you lose your standards, follow my white plume; you will find it in the way to victory and honor." His prediction was accomplished, and his enemies defeated.

15. Henry had invested the capital, and while his warlike attitude made him feared, he showed the kindness of his disposition, by using every effort to induce the Parisians to submit; but they refused. His heart was pained to witness the distress to which they were reduced by famine, and he suffered those who wished to leave the city to pass his lines in safety; and even, although blamed by his officers, granted a passage to several convoys of provision, destined for the city. Meanwhile the duke of Mayenne, who had been to Flanders, returned reinforced by Spanish troops, under the duke of Parma. Henry was compelled to withdraw his forces from the siege, to oppose the Spaniards; whom, however, he was at last unable to bring to a combat. Their object being the relief of the city, when that was accomplished, they withdrew from France.

16. The cardinal of Bourbon was now dead. The exploits of Henry had filled Europe with his martial fame. The strictness with which he kept his faith when once plighted, and the constancy of his attachment to his friends, made him confided in; and he had displayed a benevolence, which should have touched the hearts of the people. But worn out as France was with the wars of the league, still such was the bigotry of the times, that Henry was convinced that he could not obtain the crown unless he became a catholic. The protestant divines counselled him rather to renounce protestantism, than to continue the war. He accordingly did so, and was received into the bosom of the catholic church. By this measure, the league received a blow from which it could never recover. Paris capitulated, and Henry was received into the city as king of France. The provinces gradually followed the example of the capital, until at length the whole nation submitted. Mayenne, supported by the Spanish interest, continued for a time in arms;

• It was during these wars that the marquis of Rosny, afterwards the duke of Sully, and ever attached to the fortunes of Henry, hearing that his wife was dangerously ill, went in disguise, with a few followers, to his castle, to visit her. His brothers (catholics) had taken his castle, and deaf to his earnest pleadings, refused to admit him to visit his dying wife. The daring Rosny prepared to attack his own castle, when his brothers, rather from fear than from pity or affection, permitted him to enter.

14. What foreign nations furnished troops, and what was the character of the war? Relate the battle of Ivry.—15. How did Henry conduct the siege of Paris? How was he compelled to withdraw his army from the siege? 16. How was Henry situated in 1594? To what was he counselled by protestant divines, and what did he do? What was the effect of his recantation on Paris? On other parts of France? What did the duke of Mayenne?
but after the pope had absolved Henry, this officer made his submission; was received into favor, and ever after remained a firm friend to his sovereign.

17. The opposition of the protestants, whose suspicions began to be excited by a delay in securing their rights, and by the disposal of all the great offices to the catholics, prevented Henry from carrying on vigorously the war against Spain. The Spaniards took Calais and Amiens, and it was with difficulty that Henry could, in the exhausted state of his finances, raise an army to withstand them. At length, at the head of such forces as he could assemble, he advanced to Amiens, which he invested, and compelled the city to surrender. He next came to an accommodation with the protestants, granting them, by the celebrated edict of Nantes, the enjoyment of their religion, and admission to public offices. Ambassadors now met at Ver- vins, where a peace with Spain was concluded, on terms favorable to France.

18. Although policy compelled Henry to grant most of the high offices to catholics, yet his chosen friend and counsellor, from the beginning to the end of his career, was a protestant. This was the wise DUKE OF SULLY. The economy and discreet management of this minister, brought the totally deranged finances of the kingdom to order, and soon placed at the disposal of his beloved monarch, a well furnished treasury. Henry, constantly seconded by Sully, followed the bent of his benevolent heart, in studying to promote the welfare of his kingdom. Commerce, agriculture, and manufactures, all received a new impulse. Nor did he limit his desires of doing good to his own subjects, but he conceived the bold design of banishing war from Europe, by uniting the great powers in one confederacy; establishing a grand council after the model of the Amphicyonick, to which all the principal states of Europe should send their delegates, and refer their differences. Sully at first opposed his views as visionary, but afterwards entered fully into them. Elizabeth of England, for whom Henry had a high respect, was also a party to the scheme.* It was the opinion of these sovereigns, that the house of Austria must first be humbled before this project could be carried into effect. The death of Elizabeth was deplored by Henry; yet he proceeded to make...

* This is stated on the authority of the duke of Sully—see his "Memoirs." Some writers have treated Henry's great design with levity, considering it as a mere covering to his views against the house of Austria. The character of Elizabeth makes it not improbable that this motive was predominant with her; but Henry had a great and benevolent heart as well as a fertile mind, and he was not a man of pretences.

17. With what were the protestants displeased? How did the war with Spain proceed? By what edict were the protestants quieted? What treaty was made with Spain?—18. Give an account of the duke of Sully? What did he in regard to the finances? In what did he aid his friend and sovereign? What bold and philanthropic design had Henry formed? Who entered into his views? What was believed must be done before they could be accomplished?
vast preparations for the accomplishment of his design; but he was cut off in the midst of them, by the dagger of Ravillac, an obscure assassin. The French nation wept for him as for a father. The vile assassin,—whose name the afflicted Sully never would pronounce,—suffered a terrible death.

19. Henry IV. as has been related, married at an early age, Margaret, sister to the king of France. He afterwards divorced her, and married Mary de Medici, a weak and passionate woman, whom he too often irritated by his prominent fault, a want of conjugal fidelity. She on her part, incapable of appreciating the noble energies of his character, or seeking by discreet measures to win his wandering affections, did but make herself disagreeable by continual reproaches, and by keeping around her, Italian favorites, whom he particularly disliked.

20. GERMANY.—Ferdinand I., the younger son of Philip the Handsome, and the insane Joanna, succeeding his brother Charles V. as emperor of Germany, occupied his short reign in honest endeavors to compose the religious differences which agitated the empire; and in prosecuting claims to the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia, which he derived by his marriage with the heiress, Anne, daughter of Ladislaus. In these countries the Turks resisted him and made conquests. In the diet of Ratisbon, assembled soon after his accession, the "Peace of Religion" was confirmed. The council of Trent was reassembled in 1562. The whole body of protestants rejected its dogmas, and denied its authority; as did a portion of the catholics. It is memorable as being the last called a general council.

21. Maximilian II., son and successor of Ferdinand, was early in his reign engaged in war with S. Germany I., with whom his father had unsuccessfully contended, and who was now bent on the conquest of Germany. The success of the imperial generals checked the progress of the Ottoman arms, and on the death of Solyman, his son and successor Selim II., concluded a peace of twelve years. Maximilian was succeeded by his son Rodolph II., during whose long reign, the empire continued almost undisturbed by intestine broils. He was himself of a peaceful temper, and devoted much of his time to the study of astronomy, in company with Tycho Brahe and Kepler. His brother Matthias conducted the war with the Turks, who had invaded Hungary; and the renown and influence he acquired by his success, enabled him to obtain the crown of Hungary, and make himself master of Austria and Moravia, all of which
Rodolph confirmed to him, rather than his own peace and that of the empire should be disturbed.

22. The Ottoman Empire.—The sultan Solyman, besides the war which he carried on with the German empire, during the reign of Maximilian, had despatched a fleet and army to reduce the island of Malta, where the knights of St. John had been established, and still maintained themselves. The Turkish general, Mustapha, besieged the island; but the governor of Sicily coming to the aid of the knights, the Turks, after a siege of five months, were obliged to abandon the enterprise with the loss of 24,000 men.

23. Selim II. after having concluded a peace with Germany, turned his arms eastward; but failing in his attempt to reduce Persia, he invaded the island of Cyprus, which belonged to the republic of Venice. A league was formed between the pope, Pius V., the king of Spain, and the Venetians, for its defence. Their forces failing to arrive in season, the Turks conquered Cyprus, and subjected its inhabitants to the most inhuman cruelties. They extended their ravages to the coasts of Italy, Dalmatia, and Istria. The pope, the Spaniards, and the Venetians, assembled their fleet, and a naval engagement between them and the Turks took place in the gulf of Lepanto. For duration, fierceness, and destruction of human life, it was at that period unequalled. The Christians, commanded by Don John of Austria, were at length victorious. The following season, however, Selim equipped another fleet, which again spread the terror of the Turkish arms. Philip soon found his attention drawn to the Low Countries; and the Venetians concluded a treaty, by which Cyprus was left in possession of the Turks. Tunis, which had been taken by Don John of Austria, was re-taken by the sultan. The three sovereigns who immediately succeeded Selim, did not extend the Turkish conquests.

22. Give an account of the siege of Malta and its result—23. Of the conquest of Cyprus! Of the battle of Lepanto! Of the Turkish depredations!
PERIOD III.

FROM

THE ASSASSINATION 1610. OF HENRY IV.

TO

THE EXECUTION OF 1648. AND THE TREATY CHARLES I. OF WESTPHALIA.

CHAPTER I.

The Scandinavian Nations.—Germany.

1. THE Scandinavian Nations are those west of the Baltic, Denmark, Norway and Sweden. Their history during the dark ages is that of unprincipled freebooters,—bloody pirates,—who looked upon the more peaceful and wealthy, as the wolf upon the well-fed lamb. We have seen how, under the names of Sea-kings, Danes, and Normans, they ravaged and conquered England,—and caused Charlemagne to weep for the miseries which he saw that these, the only barbarians of Europe subdued by his martial genius, would yet inflict upon his people. We have seen them, under Rollo, overcome and give their name to the west of France, and thence through William the Conqueror, Robert Guiscard, and his brother Roger, give law to England, Naples, and Sicily. In the great movement of the crusades, some of the most distinguished leaders, Bohemond and Tancred, were of this stock. The abandonment of their barbarous and sanguinary customs was owing in part to their intercourse with more civilized nations; but chiefly to Chris-

PART III.—CHAP. I.—I. Which were called the Scandinavian nations? What were the people during the dark ages? What in the course of the history has already been related of them? To what causes was the change in their barbarous customs owing?
tianity which was introduced into Denmark in the ninth century, into Norway in the tenth, and into Sweden in the eleventh.

2. The union of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden under MARGARET OF WALDEMAR, "the Semiramis of the North," greatly contributed to their common advantage. She was the daughter of WALDEMAR II., king of Denmark. By her talents and address she obtained, on her father's death, contrary to the Salic custom of the Danes, peaceable possession of the sovereignty. On the death of her husband, Håquin, king of Norway, she in the same peaceable manner, in the face of custom and prescription, made herself queen of the admiring Norwegians; and such was her fame for wisdom and energy, that when the Swedes were oppressed by Albert, a German conqueror, they invited her aid. She went with an army, defeated Albert in battle, and made him prisoner. After seven years of war, occurred the "Union of Calmar," by which the three nations formally united in a confederacy, each having its own legislature, but under the same monarch. They elected Margaret. She established many wise regulations, and during her reign great advances were made in commerce and the arts. But she was absolute; and when the nobility reminded her, that they had records of her oath to observe restrictions, she replied, "You had better keep them, as I shall the castles and cities of my kingdom, and all else pertaining to my dignity." She had no child, but adopted Eric, a grand-nephew, who proved a weak prince, and unequal to his station.

3. A period of war and confusion succeeded, when Sweden had a separate king. In 1513, CHRISTIAN II., called the "Nero of the North," was king of Denmark and Norway. Sweden was divided into two parties, and TROLL, archbishop of Upsal, encouraged Christian to invade that kingdom. He killed the king, Steen Sture, in battle, and was acknowledged by the diet. He then made a great feast, and treacherously slew his guests,—ninety-four nobles and bishops,—after which he let loose his troops upon the people; and Sweden bled at every pore. GUSTAVUS VASA, the son of a nobleman, fled and concealed himself among the mountains of Dalecarlia, whence he issued with a resolute band. All his countrymen rose at his signal of revolt, against the man whom they all hated. They expelled the Danes, and placed Gustavus on the throne. He encouraged agriculture and commerce, improved the Swedish jurisprudence;—and on the breaking out of the Reformation, he, with the Swedish people, received its doctrines. It was in

2. What union contributed to advance their prosperity? Whose daughter was Margaret, and what throne did she ascend on his death? Who was her husband, and in what manner did she succeed to his authority? What were the circumstances of her becoming the sovereign of Sweden? What particulars can you give of the Union of Calmar?—3. What was the condition of these nations in 1513? What account can you give of Christian II. of Gustavus Vasa?
defence of these that we are soon to see his descendant, the
great GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS come forward as the hero of his
age. With him to command her armies, and his able minister
OXENSTIERN to manage her revenues and internal police, Sweden
rose, in this period, to a first rate power. After the dissolution
of the Union of Calmar, Norway became again confederated with
Denmark, each of the two states having its own assembly,
but both under the same king.

4. At the death of Rodolph, the imperial throne was given
to his brother, the archduke Matthias. The protestant
princes of the German confederation had formed a league called
"The Evangelical Union." Matthias had hitherto shown himself
friendly to them, but they now pressing him for an exten-
sion of their privileges, he resisted their demands, and they
complained that he encroached upon their rights, and took up
arms. This proved the beginning of the thirty years' war.
Matthias procured the crowns of Bohemia and Hungary for his
cousin Ferdinand, the duke of Styria, whom he designed for
his successor in the empire. These measures alarmed the Hun-
garians and Bohemians, who took part with the revolted princes
of the Evangelical Union. Amidst these disorders Matthias
died, and Ferdinand II. was raised to the imperial throne. The
Bohemians continued their revolt, deposed Ferdinand, and
elected to the sovereignty of that kingdom, Frederic V., elec-
tor palatine of the Rhine, who had married the daughter of
James I., reigning sovereign of England. Besides the support
of the protestant princes of the empire, Frederic received the
aid of Bethlem Gabor, the chief or vaivode of Transylvania,
a tributary of the grand sultan; a body of 8,000 troops from
the Low Countries under Henry of Nassau, and 2,000 Eng-
lish volunteers. His preparations were, however, inadequate
for the war, in which he had to withstand the united strength
of the house of Austria,—the emperor, the king of Spain, and
the arch-duke of Austria. Their army being commanded by
Tilly, defeated that of Frederic at Prague. The imperialists
drove him from his palatinate, and degraded him from his
electoral dignity, which was conferred upon the duke of Ba-
varia. Frederic's father-in-law refused in this extremity to
aid him, much to the annoyance of his subjects; the English
considering that their king showed himself, by this neglect,
false to the protestant cause.

5. Ferdinand, after crushing a league of the northern powers,
at the head of which was Christian IV., of Denmark, aspired to establish a despotic power in Germany,—to reduce the princes to the rank of nobles, and to revive the imperial jurisdiction in Italy. His first attempt upon the protestant princes was made by an edict requiring them to restore the church lands and benefits which they had possessed since the peace of Passau. The princes remonstrated, and urged that the edict was illegal. Ferdinand persisted, and the protestants formed a secret alliance with Gustavus Adolphus, of Sweden. This monarch had already shown his valor in war, and his wisdom in peace. He was a zealous protestant, and he deemed it policy to unite himself with those powers who sought to weaken the dreaded influence of the house of Austria; and furthermore, the emperor had incurred his displeasure, by assisting the Poles in their wars against the Swedes. The alliance was extended to the court of France, where the cardinal Richelieu was the prime mover, and he sympathised with Gustavus in the desire of curbing the Austrian power. Holland also came into the alliance; and Charles I., now king of England, furnished the allies with 6,000 men.

6. Gustavus entered Pomerania, and made himself master of many important places. At Leipsic, he obtained a complete victory over the imperial forces, under the command of Tilly, who was an able general. All the members of the Evangelical Union now joined his standard; and he possessed himself of the whole country from the Elbe to the Rhine. Tilly having been killed, the renowned Wallenstein succeeded him. To him Gustavus offered battle at Lutzen. The contest lasted from day-break till sunset, when the obstinate valor of the Swedes at length triumphed over the superior numbers of the enemy; but Gustavus perished. When wounded on the field, and asked by an enemy who he was, “I am,” said he, “the king of Sweden, and I seal with my blood the protestant religion, and the liberties of Germany.”

7. As Gustavus left but one child, Christina, a daughter of six years of age, the government of Sweden was held by the able statesman Oxenstiern, who was made regent. The war was conducted with vigor, and officers formed in the school of Gustavus sent into Germany. The imperial general, Wallenstein, being assassinated, the command was given to Ferdinand, king of Hungary, eldest son of the emperor. The accession

5. What league did Ferdinand crush? What did his ambition next aspire to? What new league was formed against him? What account is given of Gustavus Adolphus? What motives operated with him in forming the league? Look over your map, and point to the countries subject to the different branches of the house of Austria, (the whole Spanish peninsula, Naples and Sicily, Flanders, Germany, Hungary and Bohemia,) and now point to the nations leagued against them.—6. What battle was fought, and with what result? Who succeeded Tilly in command? Where did Gustavus give him battle, and with what result?—7. Who was heiress, and who regent of Sweden? What was the fate of Wallenstein? Who succeeded him in command?
of the dukes of Lorraine and Bavaria, with a reinforcement of Spanish troops, at this time, strengthened the imperial party. The army of the confederates, under the command of General Horn, and the duke of Saxe-Weimar, encountered the forces of the king of Hungary at Nordlingen. One of the most bloody battles recorded in history ensued. It ended in the total defeat of the Swedes. The emperor now negotiated with the Evangelical Union the treaty of Prague, by which he left the protestants in possession of the church property, and permitted the free exercise of their religion throughout the empire, with the exception of the kingdom of Bohemia, and the provinces of the house of Austria.

8. A new alliance was formed between Sweden and France, and the latter kingdom now openly participated in the war. In upper Germany, the elector of Saxony was defeated by the Swedish general, Bannier, in a battle fought at Wittstock. Ferdinand III., on the death of his father, succeeded to the imperial throne, and continued the war against Sweden, France, and the protestants. The duke of Saxe-Weimar defeated the imperial army near Brisac, and reduced this with many other towns. The Swedes were triumphant in Pomerania. Bannier crossed the Elbe, entered Saxony, obtained advantages over the imperialists in several slight engagements, and near Chemnitz, gained a complete victory. He next invaded Bohemia, and at Brandeis fought the imperialists, under Hofskirck, and, again victorious, he pursued the retreating army to the walls of Prague, and took the imperial general prisoner.

9. Bannier next formed a plan of attacking Ratisbon, during the session of a diet, which the emperor had there convened. Joined by the French army under Guebriant, he crossed the Danube on the ice, captured 1,500 of the enemy's horse, and seized the equipage and advance guard of the emperor, who himself narrowly escaped being made a prisoner. An unexpected thaw saved the city, and compelled Bannier to recross the river. A powerful imperial army now assembled under general Piccolomini, and the Archduke Leopold. Bannier marched through Bohemia, followed by the imperial general, but before any decisive action could take place, death deprived the confederates of the great Swedish commander. Torstenson, another general who had served under Gustavus Adolphus, was sent from Sweden by Oxenstierm, with a strong reinforcement of troops, and a large sum of money. Before the arrival of Torstenson, Guebriant had led his forces to battle, and de-

7. Who commanded the army of the allies? What battle was fought, and with what result? What arrangements were made by the treaty of Prague?—8. What new alliance was formed? Trace through this paragraph the victories of the Swedes under their great general Bannier. Who succeeded Ferdinand II. in the empire? What victory did the duke of Saxe-Weimar gain over his troops?—9. What bold plan was formed by Bannier? Whose assistance had he in its execution? How far did it succeed? What change in the Swedish commanders now took place? What had the French general Guebriant done before the arrival of Torstenson?
feated the imperialists near Wolfenbuttel. After his arrival, the French and Swedes separated. Guelbriant entered Westphalia, and Torstenson, Bohemia.

10. In the ensuing campaign, Guelbriant defeated the imperial general, and made himself master of almost the whole electorate of Cologne. Torstenson obtained two victories over the imperialists, after which he reduced Leipzig. The court of Vienna, in dismay, commenced negotiations, which were, however, retarded by the death of Louis XIII., and of cardinal Richelieu: During these conferences, Torstenson invaded Holstein; the king of Denmark having exhibited evidence of hostility towards Sweden. Christian IV., the Danish king, now implored the aid of the emperor, who dispatched one of his generals to withstand the army of Torstenson. The mediation of France soon produced an accommodation between these northern powers, and enabled Sweden to turn all her energies against the empire.

11. France and Sweden also entered into a treaty with George Raccozi, the vaivode of Transylvania, who, by invading Hungary, divided the forces of the empire. Torstenson invaded Bohemia, and after an unsuccessful attempt at surprising Prague, drew the imperialists into an engagement near Thabor, where he defeated them with great slaughter. Many towns now submitted to the conquerors, who became masters of the Danube on the side of Moravia. In the meantime, the imperialists, under the elector of Bavaria, met the French, now under the command of the marshal Turenne, and defeated them on the plains of Mariendale.

12. Turenne, however, made a successful retreat, crossed the Maine in safety, and soon after received a reinforcement of 8,000 men, under the Duke d'Enghien, afterwards the great Condé. At Nordingen he encountered the imperialists, and was now victorious. The success of Turenne spread terror through the provinces, and induced the electors of Saxony and Bavaria, and the German princes, to renounce the alliance with the emperor, and make a truce with France. The following year the elector of Bavaria, by the armistice of Ulm, induced Wrangel, the Swedish general who had succeeded Torstenson, to abandon Bohemia. The treaty was violated, and the next spring, Wrangel, joined by Turenne, fought the imperialists and defeated them at Zunnerhausen. Königsmark, another Swedish general, surprised the new city of Prague, and made himself its master.

13. The emperor now sued earnestly for peace, and the ne-
CLOSE OF THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

Negotiations resulted in the Treaty of Westphalia, signed October 24, 1648. This highly important treaty constitutes an approach to confederation among the contracting powers;—it has served as a basis for the future treaties,—most of the succeeding wars having had reference to the balance of power. Its conditions showed that the pride of the house of Austria was humbled. To France were granted Alsace, Brisac, and the sovereignty of Metz, Toul, and Verdun;—to Sweden, 5000,000 crowns, with Upper Pomerania, the Isle of Rugen, and a part of Lower Pomerania, Wismar, Bremar, and Verden, to be held as fiefs of the empire. The upper palatinate, with the electoral dignity, was continued to the duke of Bavaria, while the lower palatinate was restored to Charles Louis, son of the deposed elector; an eighth electorate being established on his account. Switzerland and Holland were declared to be free and sovereign states, and "the three religions, Catholic, Lutheran, and Calvinistic," were each admitted to the free enjoyment of their several tenets. Thus ended the thirty years' war, which, though destructive, shows improvement in the state of the world; as it was not so much a war of conquest, as of principle;—protestantism, as in Sweden, determining to defend itself against ecclesiastical tyranny; and nationality, as in France, fearing the grasp of the giant strength of the House of Austria. The ends of the contest were accomplished. The thirty years' war broke the power of the pope, and humbled the House of Austria.

14. SPAIN.—Philip III. was a prince of little ambition, and governed by his ministers and the priests. After the peace which he concluded at the Hague, with the revolted provinces of the Netherlands, he turned his attention to the extermination of heresy in Spain. The Moriscoes, descendants of the ancient Moors, were ordered to leave the realm within thirty days, on penalty of death. They resisted the cruel decree, and vainly attempted to establish an independent kingdom. They were, however, banished; and thus Spain, deprived of nearly a million of industrious inhabitants, suffered a diminution of national strength, greater than any foreign enemy had ever caused. The succeeding monarch, Philip IV., became more closely united with the German branch of the house of Austria. Philip and his ambitious minister, Olivarez, at the expiration of the truce, renewed the attempt to bring the Netherlands into submission to the crown. But Spain, now on the decline, was at last obliged to acknowledge in full the independence of the

13. What important treaty was made? To what does this treaty constitute an approach? For what has it served as a basis? To what have most succeeding European wars had reference? What did France obtain? What Sweden? What was done in regard to the palatinate respecting which the thirty years' war began? What smaller countries had their independence guaranteed? What arrangement was made with regard to religion? What remarks are made respecting the thirty years' war?—14. What was the character of Philip III. of Spain? What cruel expulsion marks his reign? Relate some of the events of the reign of Philip IV.
United Provinces. In Italy, her affairs were going to ruin, and she had a war with France upon her hands.

15. PORTUGAL, during this inefficient reign, struck for her independence, and placed the Duke of Braganza, whose title was superior to that of the king of Spain, upon the throne, under the name of John IV. All the Portuguese settlements in Asia, Africa, and the islands, expelled their Spanish governors, and Brazil was recovered. Catalonia also revolted and placed itself under the direction of France; but after some years of war that province was reduced by the Spaniards to submission.

CHAPTER II.

France.

1. On the death of Henry IV., his son, Louis XIII., being only nine years old, his mother, Mary de Medici, was made regent, by those who expected through her to govern France. She was unfit to hold the reins of government, and especially at a time when they required a firm and vigorous hand. The powerful arm of Henry IV. had scarcely restrained the nobles, who aimed at independence, and always furnished leaders to the malecontents of the kingdom. Mary soon departed from the line of policy pursued by her husband; and dismissing Sully, trusted the management of affairs to her Italian favorites, Leonora Galigai, and her husband, Concini. Upon these, and other favorites, she lavished the wealth which Sully by his prudence had accumulated. The Catholic party under their auspices, reassumed the ascendant. A union with Spain was the consequence, by which Louis married Anne, daughter of Philip II. But misrule had brought confusion and distress. The powerful nobles meditated revolt. A meeting of the states' general was called, memorable as the last of these national assemblies previous to the French revolution, but this measure was productive of no effect in removing the grievances of the kingdom.

2. The young king, under the influence of De Luynes, his favorite, was now stirred up to resentment against the Italian favorites of his mother. Concini was arrested when proceeding

15. What was now done in Portugal? How was it with the foreign possessions of that kingdom? What was done by the inhabitants of Catalonia?

CHAP. II.—1. Who administered the government of France after the death of Henry IV.? Was it well administered? Who were the queen's favorites? How did she treat her husband's friend and wise councillor? What is here said of the Catholic party and their doings? What of the meeting of the states' general?—2. What was done by Louis under the influence of De Luynes?
to the council chamber at the Louvre, and on pretence of resistance, shot. Leonora was tried for sorcery; and when asked by her accusers, by what process of the black art she acquired such influence over her mistress, she boldly replied, "Simply by the power which a strong mind has over a weak one." But she was burned as a sorceress, and the queen regent exiled to Blois; while De Luynes continued to control Louis. Richelieu, bishop of Luçon, and afterwards cardinal, effected an accommodation between her and her son. The bold, aspiring genius of this priest made her the tool of his intriguing policy; and with her aid he raised a powerful opposition to Louis, and his worthless favorite.

3. The Huguenots, displeased at an attempt of the king to establish the catholic religion, called an assembly at Rochelle, intending, as is supposed, to establish a republic. The command of the royal army was given by De Luynes to Lesdiguiéres, a Huguenot who had embraced the Romish faith. The northern provinces which had followed the doctrines of the reformation, were reduced; but at the siege of Montauban, the royalists were defeated with the loss of a great part of their army. De Luynes died of chagrin; and the following year a treaty was concluded between the monarch and his protestant subjects, which placed their affairs as they were before this war.

4. On the death of De Luynes, Mary procured, though not without difficulty, a seat in the king's council for Richelieu. Thenceforward the genius of the cardinal obtained an entire ascendancy over both monarch and ministers, and he became in fact, master not only of France, but in a measure, as we have seen, director of the destinies of Europe. The aim of his policy was to elevate the monarchy of France; and to this end, he wished first to destroy the power of the Huguenots, whom he disliked as heretics, and whose assemblies he regarded as the prolific source of sedition and insurrection; second, to humble the high nobility; and third, to check the grasping power of the house of Austria.

5. He concluded an alliance with England, by the marriage of Henrietta, youngest daughter of Henry IV., to Charles, the prince of Wales. He shortly after infringed the treaty last concluded with the Huguenots, and having provoked them to rebel, while unprepared for war, defeated their plans; and at last made an accommodation with them, favorable to the crown. To humble the House of Austria, he formed first a secret alliance

2. Give some account of the trial of Leonora? What was done with the queen-regent? Through what remarkable person did she regain some degree of influence? In what condition did the cardinal place the king and his favorite? — 3. What was now done by the Huguenots? What is it supposed they intended? What measures were taken to oppose them, and with what success?— 4. To whom did Richelieu owe his election to a seat in the king's council? What did he soon become? What was the aim of his policy? What three impediments did he wish to destroy as being in the way of the aggrandizement of the French crown? — 5. What marriage was negotiated? How did Richelieu treat the Huguenots?
with Gustavus Adolphus, and afterwards, at the death of that monarch, as has been stated, he openly joined the Swedes. Had his abilities been more under the direction of that benevolence which loves all mankind; or even of that justice which refuses to injure one class to benefit another, France would have had more cause to bless his memory. As it was, his talents were employed to crush the rights of the people. He laid the foundation of the grandeur and absolute dominion of Louis XIV.; and, in the reaction, that of the bloody French revolution.

6. ENGLAND, SCOTLAND AND IRELAND.—The history of England during this period, is memorable for that struggle between the parliament and the monarch, which, beginning in the reign of James I., became more violent in that of his successor; and at length ended in limiting the royal prerogative, and establishing the rights and liberties of the people. On the death of Elizabeth, the crown of England passed quietly from the house of Tudor, in which it had remained since Henry VII., to that of Stuart. Her successor, James I.* of England, and VI. of Scotland, son of the unfortunate Mary, was, as our history has shown, great grandson of Margaret, the eldest daughter of that monarch. The accession of James was hailed by all classes of the English with enthusiasm. By profession a protestant, and accustomed to the rigid and austere notions of the Scottish church, he was peculiarly acceptable to his protestant subjects, while to the catholics, he was endeared by the remembrance of his mother's claims and injuries. The pride of the Scots too, was gratified in giving a monarch to their haughty neighbors, who had for ages been seeking their subjugation.

7. On the arrival of James in England, his manners,—conceited, careless, good-natured and pedantic, soon began to be unfavorably contrasted with the royal dignity and courtesy of those of Elizabeth. Some disaffection was also caused by his profuse liberality to his Scottish courtiers, though he left the great offices of state in the hands of Elizabeth's ministers. Sir Robert Cecil, the second son of Cecil, lord Burleigh, was his prime minister; a more shrewdly cunning, but less honest man than his father, and therefore a less sound politician. The Puritans, an order of protestants who regarded the ceremonies and discipline retained in the English church as an approach to popery, had not yet openly separated from it, expecting, that on the accession of James, these usages would be abolished; and

* The reign of James I. commenced seven years before the death of Henry IV. It was judged best in this, as in some other cases, to admit of some irregularities, rather than to break the thread of the history at an inconvenient place?

5. What measures did he take to humble the house of Austria? What remarks are made on Richelieu's services to his country?—6. For what is this period of English history memorable? What change of dynasties now occurred? Who was Elizabeth's successor? How was his accession received by different classes?—7. What comparison was made between his manners and those of Elizabeth? What disaffection was there respecting his Scottish courtiers? What sect of protestants is here mentioned?
THE GUNPOWDER PLOT.

they petitioned the king accordingly. James had in his early youth imbibed their notions; yet, in his mature years, he feared the republican tendency of their principles. His maxim was, "no bishop, no king." He called a conference at Hampton-court, for the purpose of hearing the arguments on both sides, and at its close he declared, that "he would have one doctrine, one discipline, one religion in substance and ceremony," and he therefore enjoined the puritans to conform to the established worship. He shortly after made arrangements on a large scale for the accurate translation of the Scriptures; to which we are indebted for our excellent version.

8. The memorable "Gunpowder Plot," was concocted by William Catesby, and his chief accomplices were Sir Edward Digby, and William Tresham;—zealous catholics—men of character, who believed that the act they meditated would be acceptable to God. The purpose of the plot was to destroy the king and parliament. One of the conspirators hired a coal cellar, under the building where the house of lords met, and there deposited thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, which was to be exploded on the first day of the meeting of parliament, when the king, queen, and prince of Wales† would be in the house. The secret, which had been in the keeping of at least twenty persons for more than a year, was discovered by means of a letter written to dissuade Lord Montague, a catholic nobleman, from going to the house on that day. Montague communicated the letter to the king, who, on the evening previous to the meeting, caused search to be made, when the whole plot was developed. Guy Fawkes, an officer in the Spanish service, was found in the cellar with a match in his pocket. The other conspirators were also discovered, and all consigned to punishment. Torture was used to extract confessions.

9. The most politic and commendable measure of James I., was the progress which he made towards the settlement and civilization of Ireland. He abolished certain customs which supplied the place of laws, and which had kept that island in a state of barbarism and disorder. Among others, was that called the Eric, wherein a price was set upon every man, by the payment of which, his murderer would escape unpunished. The English laws were substituted, and regular courts of judicature established; while, for making such new laws as might be necessary, an Irish house of commons was regularly constituted. Ulster was colonized by Scotch and English protestants. James recommended a union of the English and Scottish parliaments, and took the title of "King of Great Britain." He encouraged the colonization of America.

7. What measure did he take to settle the minds of his people on religious questions? What was the king's language and decision? Who were the principal persons concerned in the gunpowder-plot? What was its design? How was it discovered? What circumstance respecting their punishment marks a barbarous age? What may be said of James' conduct in regard to Ireland? What other good measures did he encourage?
PARLIAMENT ASSERTS ITS RIGHTS.

10. The attempts of James to introduce the customs, rites, and discipline of the church of England into Scotland, were met with decided opposition,—produced popular tumults, and drew upon him the enmity of that kingdom. In his latter years, too, the parliaments of England assumed a determined tone in regard to the measures of the court. The house of commons remonstrated against the intended marriage of the prince of Wales with a catholic princess of Spain. They besought the king to unite with Sweden in war against the house of Austria for the recovery of the palatine for Frederic, his protestant son-in-law. James resented this interference of the commons, and commanded them not to presume to meddle with any thing that regarded his government. But they boldly presented still another remonstrance, claiming, that they were entitled to interpose in all matters of government, and, that freedom of speech in public debate, was their ancient and undoubted right. The king replied that their pretensions were what their predecessors had never, during the weakest reigns, presumed to urge; and insinuated, that their privileges were derived from the royal favor; but they remained firm and resolute.

11. Negotiations for a marriage between Charles, now prince of Wales, and the infanta of Spain, had been commenced, but were broken off through the intrigues of the unworthy favorite both of James and his son, the Duke of Buckingham, and an unfortunate war with Spain ensued. An alliance with France and the Low Countries, for restraining the power of Austria, which met the entire approbation of parliament, was formed. A marriage was also concluded between the prince of Wales, and Henrietta, sister of Louis XIII. As the princess was a catholic, this match, although more acceptable than the Spanish, was by no means agreeable to the nation. James died in the fifty-ninth year of his age. His unwarlike disposition better suited the interest, than the inclination of his subjects; and England, under his government, was prosperous.

(After the death of Cecil, who was made earl of Salisbury, James fell under the dominion of unworthy favorites. The first who ruled him was Thomas Carr, earl of Somerset; the second was George Villiers, whom he created duke of Buckingham, and made him his chief counsellor, for the wise reasons that he was handsome and of a pleasing address. He had learned to deal with James so as to carry his point; and he behaved like a petted and spoiled child,—getting his way sometimes by whining and coaxing, and sometimes by bullying and threatening the indulgent and timid king. Lord Clarendon gives a lively picture of the manner in which he wrought upon James to sanction the visit of himself and the prince of Wales to the infanta of Spain, to whom Charles was betrothed. During that visit, Buckingham disgraced the prince by his pranks. The Spanish minister said, the infanta must curb the favorite after she was married. Buckingham, displeased, opposed the match, broke it off, and then told the parliament lying stories, laying the blame upon the Spaniards.)

10. What tyrannical attempts of the king in regard to church matters met opposition? What was the temper of the parliament?—11. What negotiations of marriage were broken off, and by whom? What connexions were formed with France? What is remarked of the unwarlike disposition of James?
increasing in wealth and national power. The great Bacon honored this reign by his philosophical researches, but unhappily disgraced it by corruptly receiving bribes, while filling the high judicial office of lord chancellor. Hervey discovered the circulation of the blood, which, opposed by his cotemporaries, made him poor while he lived, but gained him posthumous fame. 12. Charles I., who was twenty-five years of age when he succeeded to the throne, had spent much of his youth with the dissolute young Buckingham; and he was ignorant of the state of the nation. His measures were of course ill calculated to heal divisions, of whose existence he was little aware. His first act was to summon a parliament, to obtain the means of paying the debts contracted by the crown, during the preceding reign, and to enable him to prosecute the Austrian war. The parliament granted a small sum, inadequate to the wants of the nation. Their object was, by withholding supplies, to obtain from the monarch some new security for their liberties. The contest between the prerogative of the king, and the rights of the commons, now fairly commenced. Charles, inheriting from his father lofty ideas of the royal prerogative, and regarding this attempt to circumscribe his authority, as little less than a conspiracy against his throne, dissolved the parliament. To supply his necessities, he resorted to illegal methods of taxation, which had been practised by the Tudors.

13. Having, by strenuous efforts, succeeded in fitting out a fleet, the command was given to lord Wimbledon, a favorite of the duke of Buckingham. This officer sailed to Spain, mismanaged matters, and returned. Charles was obliged to summon another parliament to obtain supplies. The commons granted the money, and at the same time, requested the king to remove the duke of Buckingham from his counsels. Charles rejected the petition, and again dissolved the parliament.

14. A war with France, undertaken at the instigation of Buckingham, was now added to the alarming list of evils. Nothing was left to Charles, hopeless as that measure seemed, but again to summon a parliament. This body now resolved to provide some security for their rights and their liberties, so often violated. They determined to furnish a fresh supply to the king; but before passing the vote, they appointed a committee, who prepared a bill, declaring the illegality of the measures of the court, and securing their liberties from future infringement. This bill, called a "Petition of Rights," passed both houses of parliament, and required only the royal

11. What is said of Lord Bacon? Of Hervey?—13. What was the position of Charles I. on coming to the throne? What his first act? What did parliament, and what was their object? What was the contest which had now begun? How did the king view the question of royal prerogative? What did he in regard to the parliament and his needed supplies?—13. What was done in relation to the Spanish war? What was Charles obliged against? how to raise money? What was the result of the parliament's meeting?—14. What new war had Charles the folly to undertake? What did the parliament which the king now called, and what did they obtain?
assent to become a law. Charles gave it his sanction in the usual form, but with such evident tokens of unwillingness, as made his sincerity distrusted. The supply which had been voted to the king, was eventually granted. Parliament was proceeding still farther to reform abuses, when it was prorogued by the king.

15. Shortly after, Buckingham, while preparing with a fleet to go to Rochelle in aid of the French protestants, was assassinated by the deliberate stroke of Felton, a religious enthusiast. The expedition to Rochelle failed; and while Charles had expended in preparations for its success, the subsidies granted by parliament, its failure served only to inflame the discontent of his subjects.

16. The next parliament renewed a claim to the right of regulating the mode of taxation; they also complained of grievances in matters of religion. Charles, irritated at the continued attempts to limit his prerogative, again determined to dissolve the parliament, but when the speaker of the house of commons was about to rise in order to signify the king’s intention, he was forcibly held in the chair, until a remonstrance was drawn up and passed. The enraged monarch, committed to prison and fined the leaders of the parliamentary party, who, by this prosecution, only acquired an increase of popularity. Charles now resolved to govern by his prerogative, and for twelve years there was no parliament. Being unprovided with means for continuing the continental war, he made peace with France and Spain. He extorted money-gifts from his subjects, under the name of loans and “benevolences,” and claimed a legal right to levy taxes for the support of a navy, calling these taxes ship-money. John Hampden refused to pay his assessment, of twenty shillings. He was a man of commanding abilities, of popular manners, unblemished honor and patriotism; and he thus boldly and openly set the example of braving the power of the crown, in behalf of the legal rights of the people. Though the court of exchequer decided against him, giving many reasons for their decision, yet the people, as Hampden had foreseen, perceived the weakness of the royal pretensions, when tried in the balance of justice; and became more and more determined not to submit to such unreasonable exactions.

17. The mutual hostility of the religious parties became more inveterate. The puritans, now a numerous body, justly complained of the rigorous measures taken by the episcopacy to enforce conformity with the rules of the established church; while the church, under the control of the bigoted archbishop Laud, increased their causes of complaint, by introducing

15. Give an account of the death of Buckingham — 16. What was done in the next parliament? How did Charles determine to govern? How long a time intervened without a parliament? What means did he use to get money? Who resisted his will? — 17. What was the state of the country in regard to religious parties?
new and more offensive ceremonies, and showing a manifest
tendency towards the catholic forms and faith.

18. Charles made a journey into Scotland, where his cause
had been favored, for the purpose of bringing the Scots to con-
form to the customs of the English Church. This united that
nation to oppose him. An outcry was raised against popery,
and both the clergy and people entered into a bond of union,
pledging themselves to resist all religious innovations, and to
support each other against all opposition. This was termed
"The Solemn League and Covenant." The covenanters pre-
pared to maintain their rights by military force. Charles, on
his part, raised an army to punish their refractory zeal. Afraid
to hazard a battle, and sensible of the disinclination of his Eng-
lish troops to the war, he endeavored to negotiate; but as he
would not concede all that the Scots required, the war was re-
newed. The advantage was now all on the side of the cove-
nants. During the pacification, Charles had disbanded his
army, and though he again collected a body of troops, he had
no means of paying them.

19. In this dilemma, he was obliged to resort to the humilia-
ting expedient of again calling a parliament. He obtained no
aid, and dissolved it.—The army of the covenanters advanced
into England. At Newcastle-upon-Tyne, they encountered a
detachment of the royal forces under Lord Conway, and de-
feated them. In their march into England, the Scots maintained
the most exact discipline, paid for their provisions, and made
protestations of loyalty to the king; wishing only to obtain ac-
cess to the royal person, and the redress of their grievances; and
Charles was again obliged to make concessions, to obtain a ces-
sation of hostilities.

20. Another assembly was now convened, which obtained the
name of the LONG PARLIAMENT, and proved the most remarkable
of all the parliaments of England. Its chief leaders were John-
Pym, John Hampden, and Denzil Holles. The younger
Vane, now just returned from New England, where he had been
made governor of Massachusetts, was, from his character and
family connexions, very influential. A week after this parlia-
ment convened, Pym carried up to the house of lords an im-
peachment of high-treason against Thomas Wentworth, earl
of Stratford, who was committed to the tower. Wentworth had,
at the beginning of this contest, occupied the same ground in
the patriot party, as Pym and Hampden; but the king bought
his services, and repaid him with riches and an earldom; he
having become the adviser of Charles in his most illegal stretches
of power. It was by his counsel that Charles had first taken up

18. What was done in Scotland? What was the league called? What
was the king's position in Scotland after this?—19. What was he again
obliged to do? What military operations occurred?—20. What was the
parliament called which now convened,—and what did it prove to be? Who
were its principal leaders? What was done by Pym? Give some account
of Wentworth.
REFORM BECOMES USURPATION.

arms. He had ruled in Ireland, repressing disorders, but giving
offence by his tyranny. Now, the representatives of the king-
dom joined to impeach him with the design of altering the
constitution from a limited to an absolute monarchy. He ap-
peared with great dignity before the house of commons, where
he made a most able defence; but the extensive mischiefs trace-
able to his ill advice and illegal rule, were by his judges con-
sidered as proving his offence, and worthy of death. Strafford
had hopes from Charles, to whom he had affectionately written
to do as he judged best for himself. The king took him at his
word, and signed Strafford’s death warrant; not believing him to
have been guilty, and contrary to his promise. When Strafford
knew this, he exclaimed, “put not your trust in princes!” and
resigned himself to his fate.

21. In the meantime, other high-handed measures of reform
were going on. Denzil Holles impeached archbishop Laud,
who was sent to the tower; as was Sir Robert Berkeley, the judge
who gave the decision against Hampden in the case of the ship-
money. The prison doors were opened to the incarcerated pur-
itanism; and the tribunal of the “Star Chamber,” by which the
last kings, with a show of law, had oppressed the people, was
abolished. By a still bolder measure the commons attacked
the other branch of the legislative body, and declared that
bishops should not sit in the house of lords; and by another act,
they, in effect, made their own sitting perpetual. At this time
a mysterious rebellion broke out in Ireland, in which more than
10,000 protestants were massacred by the catholics. The king
among others, was suspected as having been one of its plotters.
Parliament granted money to suppress it; but not in such a way
that it went directly into the king’s hands. But now that pre-
cedent, and law, and order were set aside, every thing was tur-
moil and confusion. Insolent bands of apprentices patrolled
the streets of London, who, wearing their hair cut round, captain
Hyde drew his sword, and said he would “crop the ears of the
round-headed dogs,” and from hence the parliamentary party
were called “the Roundheads.”

22. Charles now meditated a bold stroke to restore his au-
thority, but it proved its final subversion. He caused five of
the members of Parliament to be impeached for treason, and
despatched a sergeant-at-arms to the house to demand them;
he was sent back without any positive answer. The king un-
wisely proceeded in person, with armed attendants, to the house;
but the five members were gone, and as the king withdrew, the
cry which greeted him as he retired, was not “God save the
king;” but “privilege!—privilege of parliament!” Tumults suc-

20. Of what crime was he impeached? Relate the course of his trial
and execution.—21. What other bold measures were these reforming poli-
ticians next engaged in? What massacre occurred in Ireland? What was
the state of things now that law and order were set aside? What is the
origin of the name Round-Heads?—22. Relate the event which proved the
final subversion of the king’s authority.
CHARLES I. OVERPOWERED.

ceeded, and the royal family were obliged to flee from London. Both parties now raised troops, and prepared to decide the contest by the appeal to arms. Charles raised his standard at Nottingham. On his side were most of the nobility, and the highest rank of the gentry, with their dependents; but he was destitute of arms, ammunition, and money. On the side of the parliament, were not only the main body of the military force of London, but most of the great corporations, with the seamen. A battle, not decisive, was fought at Edgehill, in which Charles commanded in person, aided by his nephew, Prince Rupert; while his opponents were headed by the Earl of Essex. At Lansdown, a battle was fought without any decisive result. At Stratton and Roundway Down, the royalists were victorious.

23. In a skirmish on Chalgrove-field, the patriot Hampden was slain. The royalists made themselves masters of Bristol, and laid siege to Gloucester. The parliament commanded their army under Essex to march to the relief of Gloucester. The king was compelled to raise the siege. The armies fought at Newbury. Neither side could claim the victory, but both sustained great loss.

24. The Scots now united with the parliament, while the Irish dispatched succour to the king. At Marston Moor, a bloody battle was fought, and lost by the royalists. Fifty thousand troops were engaged—a larger force than was employed at any other period during this war. The parliamentary commanders were Sir Thomas Fairfax, and Oliver Cromwell. The royalists were led by the Marquis of New Castle, and Prince Rupert. At Naseby was fought his last and fatal battle, in which Charles commanded in person, and displayed "the conduct of a prudent general, and the valor of a stout soldier." After the loss of this battle, he retreated to Wales; but finding himself unable to retrieve his fortunes, he resolved to throw himself on the generosity of the Scots. He arrived at their camp at Newark, and was at first received with marks of respect; but he was detained a prisoner, and at length delivered to the English, for the consideration of 400,000 pounds. He was conducted to Holdenby, where he was detained a prisoner by the parliament, until a change of events took him out of their hands.

25. Between the opponents of the monarch there now existed conflicting interests, and hostile feelings. Another religious

* Clarendon relates in a touching manner the great satisfaction which the king felt that his children were permitted to come and spend a day with him. These were his younger children. His eldest son was with his mother in France—learning of her doubtless some of those lessons in dissoluteness and double-dealing, which he afterwards practised.

22. What followed Charles' unfortunate visit to the house of commons? Where did Charles erect his standard, and who were on his side? How was it with the other party? Give some account of the battle of Edgehill. What other battles were fought in 1642—23. What in 1643? In which of these was Hampden killed?—24. Give some account of the battle of Marston Moor. Of Naseby.
CHARLES I. EXECUTED.

sect had arisen, who maintained among other opinions, that right of freedom for all, in matters of religion, which at this day is so extensively acknowledged. These were the independents, at the head of whom was Oliver Cromwell. They were opposed, not only to the king and prelacy, but also to the presbytery. This party professed the desire of establishing a republican form of government. Cromwell, by his real, or pretended zeal for religion and liberty, had gained the entire confidence of the army. He sought to obtain possession of the king’s person, and privately dispatched a party of five hundred horse, under cornet Joyce,* who seized him at Holdenby, and conducted him to the army. Cromwell now marched at the head of the army to London, where he gave laws to the parliament,—which had become extremely unpopular with the nation. At the same time he paid great court to Charles, whom the hostilities of these two parties seemed again to bring into some consequence. Even at this time the king rejected overtures for a reconciliation, refusing to relinquish his high pretensions, and allow the people that share in the government which they claimed. Cromwell and his adherents established him at Hampton court, where he lived for some time with the appearance of freedom.

26. The situation of the king, however, soon became unpleasant. The visits of his friends were denied him, and angry menaces were thrown out against him by the people. Charles at length made his escape from the palace, and remained awhile concealed at Litchfield; but was soon compelled to place himself in the keeping of Hammond, governor of the Isle of Wight. He was here detained a close prisoner, until at length his opponents, fearing for their own safety in case of the revival of his party, brought him to a public trial for treason, on the ground of levying war against the parliament; illegally condemned,—and unjustly executed him on the scaffold.

27. European Colonies on the coast of North America.—James Cartier, as early as 1534, discovered the bay and river of St. Lawrence; and in 1541 he built a fort near the site of Quebec. In 1565 St. Augustine was founded by Pedro Menendez, a Spanish bigot, who cruelly put to death nine hundred French Huguenots, that under Coligni’s patronage, had

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25. What division arose among the anti-royalists? What was the new sect called, and who was at its head? What was Cromwell’s position? What measures did he take to get the king into his power? Does it appear that Charles might yet, by concessions, have been reconciled to his people? Where was he kept by Cromwell?—26. Give the sequel to the history of Charles I.—27. What discovery was made by James Cartier? For whom? When? What city did he found, and when? By whom and when was St. Augustine founded? What massacre is related?
AMERICA COLONIZED.

made themselves a home in the wilderness, to escape the persecutions of their native land. As this occurred while the massacre of St. Bartholomew was plotting, it may well be supposed the government of France paid no attention to the slaughter of French heretics in distant lands; but the Chevalier Gouges made a private expedition, in which he avenged their death, by slaying two hundred of the Spanish settlers of Florida. This country was discovered for Spain in 1512, by Ponce de Leon, an aged Spanish grandee, who ranged the New World in search of a fabulous "fountain of health." In 1603 Henry IV., of France, sent out the Sieur de Monts, who founded Port Royal. Quebec was begun by Champlain in 1608.

28. On the failure of Sir Walter Raleigh's attempts to colonize Virginia, the English government, fearing the encroachment of the French and Spanish, divided between two companies the extensive coast of what is now the Republic of America. The northern part was assigned to the "London Company," and the southern, to the "Plymouth Company." The settlers of the London company succeeded, by means of finding a warrior, navigator, and magistrate combined in Capt. John Smith, "the father of Virginia." They established a permanent settlement in Jamestown. The grand sachem of the natives was Powhatan, before whom, on one occasion, Smith was brought a prisoner, and condemned to die. When his head had been placed upon the block, Pocahontas, the young daughter of the chief, laid her head on Smith's to save his life, or first receive the stroke. The chief relented, and the Indian princess afterwards carried provisions to the colony, and informed them of the plots laid by the natives to destroy them.

29. The Plymouth company were unsuccessful in their first attempts to colonize. In 1620 the May Flower sailed under their auspices from Plymouth, with one hundred settlers. These were a part of the congregation of John Robinson, who had removed from England to Holland, to enjoy that religious freedom which James I. denied them; they being puritans, of a sect denominated separatists. They now sought a home in the western wilds, regarding themselves but as Pilgrims in this world. They named the place where they settled Plymouth, from that which they last saw in England. Their success and godly quiet was made known. When Charles I. added to his father's tyranny, a great emigration occurred of those noble spirits,—who could not in matters of conscience bend to human authority,—who would not bow to lawless secular oppression;—and who wished not for the strife of ambi-

27. By whom was it retaliated? Who discovered Florida? By whom was Port Royal founded, and when?—29. What companies were now formed by the English? How was our coast divided between them? Which was the first permanent settlement made on the coast between Canada and Florida? What is said of Captain Smith? Relate the heroism of Pocahontas.—39. Under whose auspices did the May Flower sail? Who were the persons embarked? Where did they settle? What drove great numbers of their best population from England to America?
tion and of blood. These emigrated to the New World where, in prayer and pious trust—in hardship and savage warfare, they laid the foundation of a great republic. In 1643, four colonies, Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Haven, having each established within itself a representative democracy, formed a Union, their delegates meeting every year to devise good regulations, and guard the common safety.

30. In the meantime an English navigator, Henry Hudson, sailing in the service of the Dutch, discovered the Hudson river, to which both the Dutch and the English laid claim. The Dutch, however, took possession of the country in its vicinity, and founded New York and Albany. Swedes and Finlanders settled Delaware. Lord Baltimore, an English catholic, became, by a patent from Charles I., proprietor of Maryland; and his brother, Leonard Calvert, conducted the first colony to that state.

29. What was done in relation to union by four of the colonies?—30. Who discovered the Hudson river? What nations claimed it? What town did the Dutch found?
PERIOD IV.

FROM
THE PEACE OF 1648, CLOSING THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR,
TO
THE PEACE OF 1713, THE WARS OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION.

CHAPTER I.

France.

1. The peace of Westphalia left the conflicting claims of France and Spain unsettled, and the war between these two powers still continued. Louis XIV., being a minor, the reins of government were held by his mother, Anne of Austria, who was guided entirely by the counsels of Cardinal Mazarin, the successor of Richelieu. Paris was filled with seditious spirits, and the intrigues of the capital soon plunged the nation in civil war. The parliament of Paris, * instigated by the Cardinal de

* This parliament was a judicial, not a legislative body. No meeting of the national assembly was held from the regency of Mary de Medici, till the reign of Louis XVI.

PERIOD III.—CHAP. I.—1. What powers were at war after the treaty of Westphalia? Who was regent of France? Who successor of Richelieu as first minister? What was the state of Paris? What claims were set up by the parliament of Paris? What was this parliament? (See note.)
Retz, an ambitious rival of Mazarin, and roused by the example of their English neighbors, claimed the authority of examining, and refusing to pass, the edicts of the crown. The discontented among the nobility and citizens of Paris, supported the parliament in its opposition to the measures of Mazarin. This minister, in want of money to support the war with Spain, ordered a fine to be levied upon the new buildings in the suburbs of Paris, groundling his right upon an old act which forbade the erection of buildings in these places. The parliament prohibited the levy, and the minister was obliged to desist. Other occasions of discord arose, until Mazarin arrested and committed to prison the president and five of the most factious members.

2. The mob of Paris, joined by some of the more respectable citizens, proceeded on the following day to barricade the streets. The royal troops attacked them. The whole populace rose in arms, and the court was forced to yield, and delivered up the prisoners, when the city returned to order. The queen regent, however, did not consider the seditious capital a place of safety; and with the young king and Mazarin she retired to St. Germain. The insurrections continued, and were called "The Wars of the Fronde." Some of those who were engaged being armed with slings, the wits of the court contemptuously applied to the insurgents the epithet of "frondeurs," or "slingers." Constant intrigues and change of parties perplex the history of these wars, and sometimes give it a ludicrous air. The generals who figured most were Condé and Turenne. Towards their close a battle was fought at Paris, near the suburb St. Antoine, between Condé, who had brought troops from Spain, and the royal forces under the command of Turenne, which was at last decided in favor of the frondeurs under Condé, by the intrepidity of Mademoiselle Montpensier, daughter of the duke of Orleans.

3. After five years of civil war, the French nation, without having advanced one step towards freedom, again humbly submitted themselves to the royal authority. Louis XIV., though young, assumed the government, entered Paris triumphant, and was welcomed by the acclamations of his people. Condé repaired to Spain. No clamors for the assembling of the states were heard, and Louis directed the parliament of Paris to resume no more to interfere with his affairs. *After this period*

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* She prevailed on the municipal officers to open the gate St. Antoine; when she directed the firing of the guns of the Bastille, and even with her own hand applied the match. The court party by this means lost the battle. "She has killed her husband," said Mazarin, who knew that she was ambitious to marry some crowned head; and in fact these valorous proceedings of the lady decided Charles II. of England (according to Clarendon) not to offer her his hand.

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1. By whom were its claims supported? What acts of hostility occurred between the minister and the parliament?—2. What was the cause of the queen taking the young king to St. Germain? What were these insurrections called? What account can you give of them?—3. How long did they continue? What did the French people gain by these wars? How did they receive Louis XIV. on his assuming the sovereignty? Was anything said of assembling a national legislature? What was that of France called? (See note.)
the French monarch exercised unlimited power. During the
wars of the Fronde, the Spanish war languished, but now, under
the conduct of Turenne, it was prosecuted with vigor. Condé,
who commanded the Spanish armies, undertook the siege of
Arras, but was repulsed by the French,—compelled to raise the
siege and retreat. The successes of the hostile nations were
nearly equal, until Mazarin obtained for Louis the alliance of
Cromwell, who now governed the commonwealth of England.
In consequence of this treaty, 6,000 English joined the French
army in Flanders. Dunkirk fell before their united strength,
and was assigned to the English.

4. Spain and France became alike desirous of peace; and the
ambassadors of the respective sovereigns met in the isle of
Pheasants, in the Pyrenees, and settled its terms. By the
"Treaty of the Pyrenees," Philip agreed to pardon the revolted
Catalans, and Louis, the prince of Condé. Louis espoused
Maria Theresa, the infant of Spain, but renounced all claim
upon the Spanish monarchy. Mazarin died soon after the con-
clusion of this treaty, which completed the achievement of those
great objects of policy undertaken by Richelieu, and continued
by his successor. France was extended in territory, her nobles
humbled, and the House of Austria weakened. But it was the
day of their sunshine, that, with the Bourbons, engendered
the storm of the revolution, which at length overthrew them.

5. SWEDEN.—Christina, the daughter of Gustavus Adol-
phus, who was seated on the throne of Sweden at the conclu-
sion of the thirty years' war, acquired considerable renown by
her attention to literature, and her patronage of men of letters,
which drew to her court the learned of other nations. Her
example shows how fruitless is mere intellectual vigor and cul-
tivation, when not guided by benevolence and piety. Her lit-
ereary labors, instead of qualifying her to fill with usefulness and
honor the station in which Providence had placed her, wrought
in her a distaste to the cares of royalty, and the mere selfish
wish of following, undisturbed, her own propensities. Resigning
her crown to Charles Gustavus, she repaired to Rome; and,
that she might enjoy the charms of Italian society there, she
renounced the protestant faith, in which she had been bred. Thus
the imputation of being a heretic did not interfere with her
pleasures. In her visits to Paris, her dissolute life shocked even
the French court, and her cruelties to her attendants excited
their abhorrence.

6. Charles X. of Sweden conquered Poland, and compelled
John Casimir, the reigning king, to flee to Silesia. The Poles

3. What did the French monarchy become? How did the war with Spain
proceed? Whose aid turned the scale? What is said of Dunkirk?—4.
Give an account of the peace of the Pyrenees. What events occurred soon
after? What objects of Richelieu's policy had now been carried out?—5.
Who and what was Christina? By what did she acquire some renown?
What may be learned by her example? To whom did she resign her crown?
Give some account of her subsequent life.—6. What conquest was made
by Charles X.?—
revolted from the Swedish yoke, and, assisted by the Russians, Danes, and Germans, expelled the Swedes. Charles now turned his arms against Denmark. His death, which occurred while he was engaged in the siege of Copenhagen, left the throne of Sweden to his son, then a minor. A treaty of peace was concluded at Olivia, in West Prussia, by which the Danish and Polish monarch each made some sacrifices to Sweden; and John Casimir was restored to his throne.

7. ENGLAND.—After the execution of Charles I., the commons passed an act, abolishing kingly power as useless, burdensome, and dangerous. They also abolished the house of lords, and committed the great seal, the form and inscription of which they changed, to a certain number of persons, who were styled “the Conservators of the liberties of England.” The proceedings of the Long Parliament in respect to revenue, deprived them of the favor of the people. At first the civil war had been carried on much by voluntary contributions on both sides. The sacrifices made by individuals are almost incredible. The marquis of Worcester gave to Charles 100,000 pounds, and the marquis of Newcastle his whole estate. On the side of the republicans, men often gave all their plate, and women all their jewels. But after the king’s death the parliament devised new methods of taxation, and drained the people. And although at first they were self-denying, at last they appropriated in one way and another, large sums to themselves and their relations. But their power was upheld by a standing army of 45,000 under Cromwell. He, however, saw the growing discontent of the public mind, and shaped his course accordingly. Laws were made, meantime, of great strictness. Under one of these a man was burnt at Winchester for being a popish priest. Cromwell was appointed by parliament lord lieutenant of Ireland, and at the head of an army he entered the island where the earl of Ormond, an adherent of Charles I., was still in arms. Cromwell reduced the Irish to submission, and established the authority of parliament. The marquis of Montrose, attempting to raise troops in Scotland for the king, was taken and executed, with forty of his followers.

8. Meanwhile the Scottish covenanters, though little attached to the royal family, resolved to support the monarchy, and raised an army of 36,000,—the command of which was given to Gen. Lesley. They then proclaimed Charles II. king of Scotland.

6. Did Poland continue in subjection? What country was Charles attacking when he died? Give an account of the peace of Oliva. Who succeeded Charles X.?—7. What act was now passed in England by the commons? How did they deal with the house of lords? Who were the keepers of the great seal? What was the cause of the public dissatisfaction to the Long Parliament? How was money raised to carry on the civil war? What was done after the king’s death? What part was taken by Cromwell? With whom did he contend in Ireland, and with what result? Give some account of the marquis of Montrose?—8. What was done by the Scottish covenanters?
Charles, who had sought refuge in Holland, embarked for that country; and on his arrival, before he landed, he signed the covenant. Parliament now recalled Cromwell from Ireland, made him captain-general of all their forces, and sent him against the Scots. He defeated them at the battle of Dunbar, gaining the victory mainly by his own regiment. He then made himself master of Edinburgh and Leith. In the meantime, the Scots, though weakened by divisions among themselves, and jealous of the prince they supported, (having kept a national fast for his sins and those of his family,) had, notwithstanding, assembled an army, with which Charles entered England. Cromwell followed; and a year after the battle of Dunbar he defeated the royal troops at Worcester. Charles was obliged to flee. After more than a month's concealment in different places, and under different disguises, he landed in Normandy.

9. The authority of the "Commonwealth" was now acknowledged throughout the whole extent of the English possessions. Cromwell took care to keep in his own hands the entire control of the army. The parliament now distrusted him,—of which he was aware. Taking a file of soldiers, he entered the Parliament hall, commanded the speaker to leave his chair, and told the members they had sat long enough, unless they had done more good. Then, with his thick and confused utterance, he addressed individual members—telling Sir Harry Vane he was a juggler—Chaloner, that he was a drunkard—and in short, charging some with breaking one commandment, and some another, and telling the whole, "You are no longer a parliament; I say you are no longer a parliament."

Cromwell, now, while the name of liberty was upon his lips, became a military despot. By a council of his officers, he was appointed "Protector of the Commonwealth," and addressed by the title of "highness." He next summoned a number of men from the three kingdoms, who, having assembled at London, he pronounced them a parliament; but did not allow them to sit long, for they showed too much the character of honest patriots to suit his views.

10. Jealousies arose between England and Holland, and a naval war ensued. After several undecisive engagements, the English fleet under Blake and Monk, engaged the Dutch...
der Van Tromp and De Ruyter, off Portland. The battle was fought with obstinacy for two days; the third the Dutch were forced to yield, after which they sued for peace. England, now under the energetic government of Cromwell, rose to an importance among the nations of Europe, which had been unknown since the days of Elizabeth. The Spaniards and French, the Venetians and Swiss, courted the alliance of the protector. He formed connections with France; and engaged in the Spanish war. Besides the forces sent to the continent in aid of France, a naval armament was dispatched to the West Indies; and Jamaica, one of the Spanish islands, was conquered by admiral Penn, and retained by the English. The settlements in North America had been favored by the Long Parliament. From Cromwell they had a severer blow than they had ever received from the Stuarts, in the "Navigation Acts," by which he introduced a restricted system of trade, prohibiting the colonists from using their own ships, and thus obliging them to sell their products to the English, and from them to obtain their supplies.

11. Cromwell's domestic government was perhaps as mild and equitable as his dangerous situation would permit, beset as he was by enemies who conspired against his life; yet it was rigorous, and he was guilty of some acts of tyranny and injustice, on which Charles had never dared to venture. He died five years after he obtained the protectorate, and was succeeded by his son Richard, whose mild and unambitious disposition, so unlike that of his father, took alarm at the turbulence and cabals which surrounded him. He resigned the protectorate, and retiring, first to the continent, and afterwards to his estate in the country, he lived unmolested and unoffending. The nation was now divided into many parties and sects. The people became weary of confusion and change, and desired in their hearts the revival of the monarchy.

12. General Monk, an able commander, both by sea and land, was at the head of the army in Scotland. He now marched into England, and advanced to London, where he proceeded to execute a plan he had formed for restoring Charles II. to the throne. Disguising his designs under the appearance of zeal for the commonwealth, he procured the dissolution of the parliament then in session, and the assembling of a new one; and succeeded in securing the election of friends of the monarchy as members of the new parliament. On its assembling, a messenger, bearing a letter from Charles to Gen. Monk, was introduced. The prince offered a general pardon, promised liberty of conscience—assured the soldiers of their arrears, and sub-

10. What was England in regard to foreign respectability? What war did Cromwell maintain? What island did admiral Penn conquer for the English? What is said of the North American settlements? 11. What was the character of Cromwell's domestic government? Give an account of his successor. 12. Who was Gen. Monk, and what did he do? What plan had he formed? What measures did he cause to be taken in reference to a parliament? What letter was read?
CHARLES II. RESTORED.

mitted all grants to parliamentary arbitration. The house of peers now took their share in the government, and both houses attending, Charles II. was proclaimed king. Sir Matthew Hale, the distinguished chief justice, aided by Prynne, wished to have limitations imposed upon the royal authority; but these important suggestions were, for selfish ends, overruled by Monk. Charles sailed from the Hague,—was met at Dover by general Monk, and conducted to London. His return was hailed with joy by the nation.

13. Charles thus restored to his throne, everything conspired to promise a popular and prosperous reign. But the character of the monarch soon blighted the hopes of the nation; and proved that even the school of adversity does not always teach wisdom. His agreeable person, and easy, engaging manners, made him liked by all who approached him, even by those whose judgments most strongly disapproved the unblushing profugy of his life. Thus his vicious example became particularly dangerous to his subjects; and licentiousness quickly spread from the court to the extremes of the kingdom. His first measures were mild and popular, but his people soon found that his engagements weighed little. Notwithstanding he had sworn to support the covenant, and to protect the rights of conscience, he re-established episcopacy as the exclusive religion; restored the bishops to their seats in parliament, and the inferior clergy to their benefices. The disappointed puritans had a still more galling demonstration to encounter in the "Act of Uniformity." By this it was ordained that every minister, school-master, or fellow of a college, must declare his consent to every thing contained in the book of common prayer; and that all ministers should be ejected who had not episcopal ordination. By this oppressive act two thousand ministers, in one day, were driven from their livings.

14. Prosecutions were commenced against those concerned in the death of Charles I. Some were executed, and some fled to foreign kingdoms, where, under the name, "regicides," they were hunted. Three of these judges, Goffe, Whalley, and Dixwell, concealed themselves in New England. Fears of popery existed, and were increased by the marriage of the king with Catharine of Portugal, a catholic princess. But although the amiable character and manners of the queen gave general satisfaction, the king treated her at first with coldness, then with insult, and finally with neglect.

15. Charles engaged in hostilities with the Dutch on false pretences, hoping by means of involving himself in a popular

12. What attempt was made by Sir Matthew Hale? Relate some of the circumstances of Charles' return.—13. What blighted the hopes of the English nation respecting their monarch? How was he faithless to the covenanters? What was ordained in the Act of Uniformity? How did this affect the clergy who could not conscientiously conform?—14. What account can you give of the regicides, as those were called concerned in the death of the late king? Who was queen, and how was she treated by the king?—15. Give an account of the war with the Dutch.
war, to obtain money from parliament, and regain the good will of his subjects, whose jealousies were aroused by the interference of the Dutch in their foreign trade. He wished also to restore to his nephew, William III., the dignity of stadtholder, which had formerly belonged to the family of Orange, but had been recently abolished by the Dutch. Holland was now, from her commerce, wealth and industry, a first-rate power. John de Witt, who was at the head of the republican party, had before entered into an alliance with France. The English dispatched squadrons to Africa and America, and in both, they took possession of the Dutch settlements. It was at this time that Col. Nicholas took New Amsterdam, from the Dutch governor Stuyvesant; and in honor of James, duke of York, to whom his brother, king Charles, had patented this country, it received the name of New York.

16. A naval engagement took place off the coast of Holland, between the Dutch fleet, under the command of the admiral Opdam, and the English, under the Duke of York, which ended in the defeat of the Dutch. Louis XIV. now sent out a fleet to aid them. The king of Denmark, also, jealous of the naval power of England, came forward to their assistance. In the following year a sea-fight took place off Dunkirk, the English being commanded by Monk, now duke of Albemarle, and Prince Rupert; and the Dutch by De Ruyter, and the younger Van Tromp. It lasted four days, with alternate success, when at length the arrival of another English squadron compelled the Dutch to retire.

17. In London a dreadful plague broke out, and nearly one hundred thousand persons fell its victims. A terrible fire burned four days, and consumed thirteen thousand buildings. Charles, though generally selfish, showed on these occasions, a fatherly solicitude for his subjects. This was particularly the case in the activity manifested in extinguishing the fire, and providing for the suffering population, who were exposed unsheltered to the elements. A Dutch fleet, under De Ruyter, entered the Thames, and burned several British ships of war. Shortly after this, a treaty of peace was signed at Breda. England retained possession of New York, and ceded to the Dutch Surinam.

18. Charles gave to his favorites large tracts of land in America. To lord Clarendon and others he made a considerable grant, which he extended, giving, in 1667, to Lord Shaftesbury and others, a territory comprehending the whole southern section of the American Republic. For this new country, Shaftesbury, with the aid of John Locke, the great writer on

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15. What place on our coast was taken from the Dutch? What change of name occurred?—16. Give an account of the naval engagement off the coast of Holland. What nations aided the Dutch? What battle took place off Dunkirk?—17. What calamities now visited London? What was the conduct of the king on these occasions? What was done by a Dutch fleet? What was gained and lost by England at the peace of Breda?
the "Human Understanding," attempted to form such a constitution as should realize their beau-ideal of political wisdom. This turned out a complete failure; but the settlements in the Carolinas grew, and governed themselves much after their own will. The proprietors, however, sent governors, of whom, Sayle founded Charleston. In the wars between Spain and England, these provinces came into collision with the Spanish province of Florida. In Virginia, which was at that time a loyal state, the misrule of Governor Berkeley produced a disastrous insurrection, headed by Nathaniel Bacon; and a bloody civil war ensued,—which was quieted by the death of the leader, and the submission of his followers.

CHAPTER II.

Europe during the Wars of the Spanish Succession.

1. While England and the United Provinces had been weakening each other by mutual hostilities, Louis XIV. was maturing plans for the aggrandizement of the French monarchy by taking from Spain her provinces on his northern frontier. The death of Philip IV., had left the throne of that kingdom to be filled by his son Charles II., a sickly infant; and the regency was committed to the queen-mother, a woman of little ability. Notwithstanding the renunciation of Louis on his marriage, he took advantage of the time to bring forward claims, in right of his queen, to the country which he meant to conquer, and entered the Spanish Netherlands at the head of 40,000 troops. The Spaniards were unprepared for the invasion, and town after town fell before the French. The rapid successes of Louis alarmed the other powers, and the English, Dutch, and Swedes, united against him in a league, called "the Triple Alliance." Louis was now willing to negotiate; and at Aix-la-Chapelle the ambassadors of the different nations met, and formed a treaty of peace, which left to the French monarch the conquests he had made, but compelled him to relinquish all other claims upon the Spanish provinces.

2. Louis, however, determined to take a future occasion to revenge himself upon Holland for the share she had taken in obstructing his ambitious views; and he also sought to detach
England from the triple alliance. The wants and weakness of
Charles, led him to the shameful measure of a secret treaty, by
which he agreed to assist the king of France in the conquest of
the United Provinces, and the Low Countries; to embrace pub-
licly the catholic faith, and to establish it in his kingdom; and in
reward of these services, he was to receive from Louis the sum
of 200,000 pounds, besides an annual subsidy; and in case of
rebellion in England, a military force.

3. While the Dutch were flattering themselves with the hope
of a long peace, Louis, at the head of an army, invaded and
conquered the duchy of Lorraine, in order to furnish himself
with an easy passage into the United Provinces. He had found
measures to detach Sweden, as well as England, from the triple
alliance; and to bring some of the German nobles into the
French interest. This extensive confederacy, and the formid-
able military and naval preparations, threatened the entire over-
throw of the republic. Charles, keeping the treaty he had
formed a secret, obtained from his unsuspecting parliament the
largest supply the commons had ever granted to a king, in order
to enable him to sustain the engagements under which the triple
alliance placed the English nation. He then, acting according
to his secret treaty, ordered an attack upon a Dutch fleet from
Smyrna, valued at two millions sterling; and shortly after, on
frivolous pretexts, he declared war against Holland. The com-
bined English and French fleets amounted to more than a hun-
dred sail, while the army collected by Louis numbered 120,000,
commanded by the ablest generals of the age.

4. The Dutch, relying on the faith of treaties, were not pre-
pared with a sufficient military force. The strength of the re-
publicans was also weakened by dissensions among themselves.
William, prince of Orange, was appointed commander in chief
of the army. De Witt, whose authority was now declining,
sought to recover it, and to inspirit the states to some great
naval operation. He equipped a fleet, which, under admiral De
Ruyter, came up with the united fleets of the English and French,
as they lay at anchor in Solbay. De Ruyter attacked them,
but obtaining no decisive advantage, he retreated to the coast
of Holland, whither he was pursued by the English admiral.
Meanwhile the French king, assisted in his command by Tu-
renne, moved northward at the head of a large army, and
reached the Rhine almost without opposition; took Nimeguen,
Arnhem, and invested Utrecht. The prince of Orange, with his
small army, retreated before him; and in a few weeks, all the

2. What treaty was made by him with Charles II.†—3. What was the
first hostile movement of Louis† What nations were now united with Louis
against the Dutch† What double-dealing did Charles practice with his par-
liament† What attack did he order† What fleet and army was collected
against the Dutch†—4. What was now the condition of the Dutch† Who
was made commander of the army† Relate the naval operations. By whom
was Louis XIV. assisted in command† What successes did they obtain† What
provinces were left to the Dutch†
provinces except Holland and Zealand, had submitted to the conqueror.

6. This crisis roused the citizens of Amsterdam and of the whole province of Holland, and every hand was nerved. The populace were taken into pay. Ships were stationed in the harbor, and the Dutch consigned their fertile fields and flourishing villages to destruction, opening the sluices of their canals, and inundating the country to save the city. Yet while they prepared to resist, they sought for peace, but their overtures were rejected; and the resolute Dutch determined to leave their native land, if they could not defend it, and settle in India or America. In the frenzy of the times, the people, feeling the necessity of an acknowledged sovereign, and blaming the two De Witts, by whose influence the office of stadtholder had been abolished, now rose in fury, imprisoned and put them to death, and invested the prince of Orange with that dignity. The united fleet of the confederates about this time advanced towards the coast of Holland, having on board the army which was designed to complete its conquest. The Dutch thanked an overruling Providence when it was carried back to sea, and prevented by severe storms from landing the army.

6. The emperor of Germany, the king of Spain, and the elector of Brandenburgh, now awoke to the grasping ambition of Louis, and were ready to lend the States their aid. The prince of Orange retook Naarden, and joining his forces with those of the emperor under Montecuculi, they besieged and took Bonne, and subduing the principal part of the electorate of Cologne, interrupted the communication between France and the United provinces. The French were compelled to evacuate their conquests and retreat. The following year the parliament of England compelled Charles II. to abandon his shameful French alliance, and make peace with Holland.

7. The efforts of the French monarch to sustain the war were unremitting. He brought, this year, four armies into the field, and commenced the campaign by marching in person into Franche Compte, and subduing the whole province. Condé, at the head of another army, encountered the prince of Orange at Seneffe in Brabant, and a bloody battle ensued, where twenty thousand were left dead on the field, without any decisive victory. On the side of Germany, the French were successful, for there Turenne commanded. He conquered the Palatinate, but sanctioned cruelties. Louis began to fear the result of the combination against him, and bribed the king of England to prorogue his parliament, lest it should compel him to unite in the confederacy.

5. What was now the conduct of the citizens of Amsterdam? Which of their own patriots did they destroy?—6. Who now sided the Dutch? Relate the military operations of the Dutch and their allies?—7. To what did the English parliament compel the king?—7. Relate the progress of the French in the north. In Brabant. On the side of Germany. For what did Louis bribe Charles?
8. In the next campaign the imperial general, Montecuculi, was opposed to Turenne, and by his skill prevented the progress of the French. The death of Turenne, who was killed by a cannon ball while reconnoitering the enemy, was an irreparable misfortune to Louis. On the ocean, the French were victorious chiefly through the skill of Du Quesne, who yet held but an inferior rank in the navy. Several battles were fought, in one of which De Ruyter, the Dutch admiral, was killed. Negotiations for peace were entered into at Nimeguen, in 1678, the Dutch retaining their former territories.

9. In the meantime, France gained by the efforts of the Jesuit missionaries, the prospect of a great empire in America. In 1640 they founded Montreal, to gain a starting point for their great effort to convert and subjugate the natives. These resolute and self-denying soldiers of the cross, carried their discoveries up the Ottowas, the St. Lawrence, and the great lakes; till finally Father Marquette, with but one companion, embarked in a little boat on the solitary Wisconsin; and, with a courage not less remarkable than that of Columbus, the dauntless Jesuit floated seven days with the Wisconsin, then reaching the object of his search, the great Mississippi, he followed its course, discovering the mouths of the vast tributaries, Missouri, Ohio, and Arkansas. La Salle, an enterprising Frenchman, undertook to colonize these regions, and was the first European who, embarking on the upper Mississippi, followed the river to the ocean. In honor of his master, Louis XIV., this extensive country was named by La Salle, Louisiana.

10. In Germany, the emperor Leopold was alarmed by a rebellion of the Hungarians, aided by the Turks. Mahomet IV., then on the Ottoman throne, invaded the empire with the most formidable force which the Turks had ever sent against Christendom. His army entered Germany, and laid siege to Vienna. The suburbs were destroyed, and nothing less than the surrender of the city was expected, when the renowned John Sobieski, king of Poland, whose alliance the emperor had obtained, joined by several of the German princes, arrived before the Turkish camp. A battle ended in the precipitate flight of the Turks, and the relief of the distressed city. Among the spoils of the Turkish camp was found the celebrated standard of Mahomet, which was presented by the captors to the pope. In other battles the Turks and Hungarians were defeated, and Hungary was restored to the empire.

11. Louis XIV., having raised the navy of France to a degree of consequence unknown before his reign, various ports were
conducted at great expense. His squadrons commanded the Mediterranean, and in some measure stopped the depredations of the Barbary pirates. He caused Algiers to be bombarded, and obliged the Algerines to release their Christian captives. Louis in resentment towards the Genoese, who had assisted the Spaniards, ordered their city also bombarded, and compelled the doge to implore his clemency at Versailles. This was the name of a palace which he had erected at enormous cost, and where he kept his court, with a degree of expense and splendor probably not equalled by any other monarch of Europe.

12. At this period, he lost his great minister, Colbert, who by his patronage of manufactures and commerce, and his skill in managing the revenue of the kingdom, had enabled his monarch to maintain such expensive wars, and erect such magnificent edifices. Colbert had protected and patronized the Huguenots. Louis was himself a bigot, and he was now encouraged by Louvois, the successor of Colbert, to commence a religious persecution, in the course of which, he revoked the edict of Nantes, passed by Henry IV. The protestants were ordered to declare themselves converted by a day appointed. Of those who were refractory, the leaders were broken on the wheel, while the common people were hanged. The penalty of death was also enacted against all who attempted to emigrate;—yet, notwithstanding, 50,000 families abandoned their country. Louis thus stained his character, and greatly injured France; for by means of these emigrations, the French skill in manufactures was carried to other countries, while a great amount of wealth and industry was lost to their own.

13. From this period the power of Louis began to decline. The French protestants carried with them a hatred of their king, which they infused into the hearts of their brethren in the neighboring kingdoms. A league of the princes belonging to the German empire was formed at Augsburg, for preventing the further encroachments of France; and with them, Holland, Spain, and, finally, England united. Louis exerted his utmost vigor in preparing to withstand his numerous and powerful enemies. The French were first in the field. The dauphin led an army to the Rhine, and laid siege to Philipsburg, which fell before his arms. The French overran the Palatinate, where, by order of the king, they destroyed the great towns, and spread desolation through the country. This barbarous warfare served only to render the enemies of France more inveterate, and the cam-

11. What had Louis XIV. done in respect to a navy for France? What in respect to the pirates and their prisoners? How did he humble the Genoese? What account can you give of Versailles—12. Give an account of the arrangements of Colbert? In what respect was Louis different, and what did the king in part through his influence? What cruelties were now exercised against the Huguenots? In what respect did these enormities injure Louis and his kingdom?—13. Had the revocation of the edict of Nantes and the persecution a permanent effect on the power of Louis? What league was now formed? What was now done by the French, and how did it affect their cause?
PAECE OF RYSWICK.

The campaign was, on the whole, against them. The following year, Louis dispatched an army into Italy, under CATINAT, which was victorious over the forces of the duke of Savoy at Saluces. Luxembourg obtained a victory over the Dutch and Spanish on the plains of Fleurus. The naval operations of France were also prosperous. Admiral Tourville defeated the combined squadrons of the English and Dutch, off Beachy head, and even made a descent upon the coast of England.

14. In the succeeding campaign, WILLIAM, prince of Orange, now king of England, who at the commencement of the war was engaged in settling the affairs of that realm, resumed the command in Flanders. Louis took Mons, and the French arms were successful on the side of Spain; yet this year, no decisive advantages were obtained by either side. The following spring, Louis besieged and took Namur, while Luxembourg was stationed so as to prevent the king of England from bringing relief to the besieged town. But at sea, the French, under the command of Tourville, were defeated off Cape La Hogue by the English; and at Steinkirk, William attacked and defeated their army.

15. At Widdin, the PRINCE OF BADEN, who commanded the imperial forces, obtained a complete victory over the Turks, with whom the French king was now in alliance. The following year, however, a new vizier, of more military skill, changed the face of affairs. During the absence of the prince of Baden, who was settling disturbances in Transylvania, the Turks retook Widdin and made themselves masters of Belgrade, and all Upper Hungary. Meanwhile the French general, Luxembourg, surprised king William, who, with his army, occupied the village of Neerwinden. The conflict here was long and obstinate, and though victory at length declared for the French, it was dearly bought. Luxembourg afterwards took Charleroi. In Spain, the MARÉCHAL DE NOAILLES, and in Piedmont, Cat- nat, prosecuted the war with success. During the three remaining campaigns of this war, no event of consequence took place except the conquest of Namur by king William. The parties were at length desirous of peace, and a congress under the mediation of Charles XI., now king of Sweden, assembled at Ryswick to settle the terms. The basis of the treaty was the restoration of all places taken during the war. France acknowledged William as king of England.

16. Soon after the treaty of Ryswick, a battle took place at Zenta, between the imperial forces under prince Eugène of Savoy, and the Turks, under the command of the sultan MUSTA- PHA II., in which prince Eugene obtained a decisive victory. 20,000 Turks were left dead on the field, besides prisoners and those drowned in attempting to escape. The pavilion of the sultan,

13. Give some account of the campaign of 1691.—14. Of that of 1692.—15. What important battle was fought in 1693? Relate the battle of Neerwinden? What is said of the three last campaigns of this war? Give an account of the peace of Ryswick.—16. Relate the battle of Zenta.
DEFEATS OF THE COVENANTERS.

the great seal of the empire, and the immense stores of the army fell into the hands of the victors. This event produced a peace between the German and Ottoman empires, which was signed at Carlowitz, and which restored tranquillity to Europe.

CHAPTER III.

England.

1. Charles II. again outraged the feelings of English patriots, by the sale of Dunkirk to the French, for the sum of £400,000. His brother James, the duke of York, declared himself a convert to the catholic religion, and the evident prepossessions of the king to the same faith, awakened anew the fears of popery, with its inquisitorial horrors. Charles, though he often offended his subjects, yet by his insinuating manners and scheming brain, could ever find ways to recover their favor. He proposed for this object, a marriage between the princess Mary, eldest daughter of the duke of York, and William, prince of Orange; which, in spite of the remonstrances of James, he carried into effect. On another occasion he obliged his brother, who was much disliked by the people, to retire to Brussels. Great disorders arose in Scotland, in consequence of the arbitrary measures of the English ministry, in the establishment of episcopacy in that kingdom. Dr. Sharp, archbishop of St. Andrews, was murdered in his coach by Balfour, and eleven other covenanters. Graham, of Claverhouse, was defeated by the covenanters at Drumclog; but the duke of Monmouth conquered them at Bothwell bridge. Monmouth behaving with great lenity to the prisoners, he was recalled in disgrace, and the duke of York, who had returned, was sent by his brother to administer the government of Scotland. He cruelly persecuted the covenanters, seeming to enjoy their sufferings.

2. The court party, during the last years of Charles, gathered strength, and tyrannical principles were advanced, and gained ground. A conspiracy was formed to oppose the succession of the duke of York. Among the conspirators was Lord Russell, who was tried and executed. Another conspiracy, called the Rye House Plot, was headed by the duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles, which contemplated raising him to the

16. What was the consequence of the treaty of Carlowitz?
   Chap. III.—1. How did Charles further offend the English? What was done by his brother? What measures were taken by Charles to keep his people in good humour? What troubles arose in Scotland? What account can you give of Dr. Sharp—his murder and murderers? Who was sent against the covenanters, and where were they defeated?—9. What party and principles gained ground, and when? What conspiracy was detected, and who was made the victim?
throne, and assassinating the king. Charles pardoned the offence. ALGERNON SIDNEY, an ornament to mankind, was apprehended on a charge of high treason, for having been the author of a treatise, in which he asserts that power is originally in the people, and delegated by them to the parliament, to whom the king is amenable. For these opinions, written, but not published, did the infamous JEFFRIES, his judge, condemn to death this friend of human rights, and "he rejoiced to die for the good old cause."

3. Charles was succeeded by his brother, the duke of York, under the title of JAMES II. Assembling his council, he declared his determination to maintain the established government both in church and state. But his conduct in sending to make submission to the pope—going in state to high mass, which by act of parliament was an illegal assembly—levying taxes without consent of parliament—and advancing catholics to office while he displaced episcopalian, soon convinced the people of the hollowness of his professions. Insurrections broke out; one in Scotland, headed by the DUKE OF ARGYLE, and another in England, headed by the duke of Monmouth. Their forces were defeated and scattered, and the leaders executed;—Argyle at Edinburgh, and Monmouth at London. But these successes, instead of consolidating the power of the king, in consequence of the bad measures which followed, had a contrary effect. Military executions of the prisoners were frequent, and sometimes attended with circumstances of horrid cruelty. * Jeffries, who was chancellor of the kingdom, received from James a special commission to try the rebels; and to be tried by this cruel and unjust judge, was to be condemned and executed.

4. By upholding such cruelties, the monarch made himself hated by his people. At the same time he made great pretensions to zeal for religious toleration; but it was because he wished to bring forward the Catholics. WILLIAM PENN, the celebrated quaker, who had returned from the colony of Pennsylvania, which he had founded in North America, was much in company with James; his father, admiral Penn, having been a personal friend of the king. Penn was deceived into a belief that this bigot and tyrant had good designs respecting liberty of conscience. But his intentions were manifestly to break

* After the battle of Sedgemoor, near Bridgewater, in which Monmouth was defeated, lord Feversham, whocommanded against him, ordered a number of the prisoners to be hanged without form of trial. Col. Kirk did the same at Bridgewater, and when he saw their feet twitching, as they were struggling in death, he ordered the band to a lively tune, saying, "I will give them music to their dancing."

2. What account can you give of the Rye House Plot? Give an account of the trial of Algernon Sidney? 3. Who succeeded Charles? What were his professions, and what was his conduct? What insurrections broke out, and with what results? What measures followed, and how did they affect the stability of James' power? What is said of Jeffries? 4. What is said of William Penn? In what year did he found Philadelphia?
A WRONGED PEOPLE RIGHT THEMSELVES.

don down the free portions of the English constitution, and bring
every thing into subjection to his own arbitrary will. To the
New England states, who had been flourishing under their
charters, derived at different times from the British crown, he
sent over his minions, that coxcomb of a tyrant, Sir EDMUND
ANDROSS, who took away the charters, and assumed absolute
authority. To the clergy of the established church, the king
became particularly obnoxious. He not only deprived them of
privileges formerly granted them, but grossly insulted them as
a body, by directing them to read in public his declaration of
equal indulgence to all religions; a paper which contained mat-
ters contrary to their legal claims and declared opinions. The
archbishop of Canterbury, and six bishops, met and drew up a
petition that the king would not oblige them to promulgate
that, which by former acts of parliament was illegal. He not
only refused to grant the petition, but committed the bishops to
the tower, and prosecuted them for a libel.

5. The whole of the community, except a few office holders,
now felt that the measure of tyranny and oppression was full;
and that such a government could no longer be endured. Many
of the most considerable persons, both in church and state,
made secret applications to William, prince of Orange, who
had married MARY, eldest daughter of James. The Tories and
Whigs united to request that he would undertake the defence
of the nation; a proposal highly acceptable to William, who
had ever kept his eye upon the English throne. He sailed with
a fleet for England, and landed his army at Torbay without
opposition. The accessions to his party were so numerous and
rapid, that it seemed as if the whole realm were in the conspi-
cracy. The army and navy deserted to him. James, after being
absent from his palace, returned to find that his favorite daughter
Anne had left him. “God help me,” said the afflicted man,
“my very children have forsaken me!” He sent the queen and
prince of Wales to France, whither he followed himself, about
the time that William advanced to London.

6. A convention was summoned, and a vote passed, declaring
James to have broken the original compact between king and
people; and that, withdrawing from the kingdom, he had left
the throne vacant. James was now dethroned, but William was
not king; and in the arrangement of this affair, that prince
showed the soundness of his judgment. At first, the conven-
tion thought of making Mary the sovereign, and William regent;

* These terms were first used in the reign of Charles II,—the Tory party
being those who maintained the prerogative of the crown,—and the Whig,
those who advocated the rights of the people.

4. What was done in reference to the New England states? How did
James offend the established clergy?—5. What had now become the
feeling of the community? What was done to call in another person to
take the crown from James? Give some account of the movements of
William. Of James.—6. What was passed in the convention? What
ground did William take in regard to a divided authority?
but he sent them word that he would not accept of a power which depended on the life of another; and if they concluded on this plan, he could render them no assistance. Mary seconded his views, and the prince and princess of Orange were jointly declared king and queen of England. This event, called in English history the Revolution, is one of the most singular and important on record. It was accomplished almost without bloodshed; and in its course the principle was acknowledged, that the people had by their representatives a right to elect their sovereign. No king could thenceforth assume, as their former princes had done, that the whole kingdom was his; he deriving from God, and the people from him. This relic of the feudal system was, in England, left behind, when James, for his attempts upon English constitutional liberty, was ejected; and William of Orange, by the pleasure of the nation, was made king.

7. In Scotland a powerful party held out for James, headed by Viscount Dundee. At Killiecrankie, this brave and popular chieftain gave battle to the forces of William, under Mackay, and obtained a victory, but fatally for the cause of James, he fell in the engagement. James, on his flight from England, had been hospitably received by Louis XIV., and lodged at St. Germain en Laye. Having now collected a few hundred of his own subjects, and some French officers, he embarked for Ireland. The Earl of Tyrconnel, who commanded there, remaining faithful to his interests, had assembled an army of 40,000 men. James was received with enthusiasm, and entered Dublin amidst acclamations. The Irish protestants, however, resisted with intrepidity, though at times reduced to the utmost distress. William, who for a time had been compelled by the disputes which agitated the English parliament, to leave the Irish war to his lieutenants, now proceeded to that kingdom in person. A battle was fought on the banks of the Boyne, in which the monarchs were each at the head of their respective armies. Victory declared in favor of William; James again fled to France, and Ireland soon after submitted to the power of the conqueror.

8. Though the reign of William was often disturbed by the Jacobites, yet the majority of the nation supported him in his measures. While he was personally engaged in the continental wars, Mary, whose manners were popular, exercised with ability the office of regent, although, when her husband was in England, she was the most submissive of his subjects. Her death was deeply lamented by him, and by the people. William died at Kensington, by a fall from his horse. This monarch ruled with ability, yet not well. Ambition was in his

6. What is this event called in English history? Why is it singular and important? What disturbance occurred in Scotland? What in Ireland? Relate the battle of the Boyne. What circumstances are mentioned of the life and death of William and Mary?
ENGLISH NATIONAL DEBT BEGINS.

heart; and this was not modified as it should have been, by a
regard to the good of mankind, and especially to that of the
people whom he governed. He determined so to sway the po-
litics of Europe, "that not a gun should be fired without his con-
sent." Hence he augmented the disturbances on the continent,
sent forth his armies to shed the blood of distant unoffending
people; and to maintain these armies, he commenced the system
of borrowing money, which has in its consequences, accumulated
the enormous national debt that has brought England to the
verge of destruction.

9. In America "King William's War" reached the people of
New England, where the French and Indians from Canada,
came stealthily upon them—roused their slumbers by the war-
whoop, and waked them to behold their infants dashed against
the wall, and their dwellings in flames;—themselves reserved for
scalping and tortures. Thus were surprised, Schenectady, in
New York, Salmon-Falls in New Hampshire, and Casco in
Maine. In American legislation, some of the measures of
William III. showed that he believed the free institutions
of that country were tending to independence, and that he
endeavored to bar their way. Puritan New England had re-
joiced in his accession, and he recalled their petty tyrants, and
suffered the smaller states to go quietly back to their charter
democracies; but to the people of Massachusetts, the larger
and leading state, who had shown the most determined self-
will, William would not restore their former privileges, but
compelled them to receive, with a new charter, royal governors.
Disputes between these governors and their constituents began
at once, which were never settled but at the war of the Ameri-
can revolution. To carry his measures in parliament, William
resorted to the dishonorable and demoralizing plan of bribing the
members of that body and other persons of influence, both at
home and abroad. During his reign, "an Act of Settlement"
was passed, notwithstanding the opposition of the Jacobite
party, which secured the crown of England to Sophia, duchess
dowager of Hanover, and her descendants; they being protest-
ants. William was succeeded by Anne, (married to George,
prince of Denmark,) sister of Mary, and second daughter of
James II. She continued the alliance with the house of Austria;
and it was during her reign that the victories of the Duke of
Marlborough reflected such lustre on the British arms.

8. What is remarked concerning the reign of this monarch? What bad
system did he commence?—9. How and where did the effect of his wars
reach America? What did he comprehend respecting the American insti-
tutions? How did he proceed with them? What demoralizing plan did he
adopt in order to carry his measures in parliament? Give an account of the
'Act of Settlement.' Who was the princess Sophia? (See note.)

49
CHAPTER IV.

Europe.—Thirteen year's War of the Spanish Succession.

1. The peace of Ryswick had scarcely composed hostilities between the European powers, when jarring claims and intrigues, concerning the succession to the Spanish crown arose, which eventually produced war. Charles II., the reigning monarch of Spain, had no children; and the feeble state of his health gave reason to expect the immediate vacancy of the throne. Louis XIV., the emperor Leopold, and the elector of Bavaria, each possessed claims to the succession on account of descent in the maternal line from the royal family of Spain. The balance of power in Europe it was said, required that neither the house of Austria, nor that of Bourbon, should obtain such an accession of strength, as the acquisition of the Spanish monarchy would give. A treaty of partition was therefore formed by England, France, and Holland, dividing the territories of the Spanish monarchy among the different claimants. This treaty, which the framers designed to preserve secret, became known in Spain, and justly displeased both the king and the nation. Charles immediately made a will, excluding both the house of Bourbon and that of Austria, and bequeathing his crown, with all the Spanish possessions, to the elector of Bavaria. The death of the elector, which occurred soon after, again renewed the intrigues of Louis and Leopold. The king of England continued to interest himself in the negotiations, and a second treaty was formed between England, France, and Holland, by which a new partition of the Spanish dominions was made. To this partition also, the emperor refused to accede.

2. The intrigues of the clergy, and the influence of the pope, whom Charles consulted, and who feared for his own territories, in case of a union between Spain and Austria, drew Charles from the Austrian interest, and induced him to make a secret will, in which Philip, duke of Anjou, second son of the dauphin, was declared his heir. The death of Charles, and the publication of this will, caused a powerful sensation throughout Europe. The desire of aggrandizing his family, at length overcame every other consideration in the mind of Louis. He accepted the will, and conveyed the duke of Anjou, his grandson, to Madrid, where he was crowned as Philip V.

3. England and Holland, though highly dissatisfied by the
WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION BEGINS.

want of faith which Louis had displayed, did not consider it for their interest to engage in war, and reluctantly acknowledged the title of Philip; but the emperor of Germany prepared for immediate hostilities, and despatched an army under prince Eugene into Italy, to enforce his claim to Milan. Here, through the treachery of the duke of Savoy, who pretended to be in the French interest, the imperialists obtained repeated advantages, and made themselves masters of the country between the Adige and the Adda.

4. During this time, England and Holland were attempting to negotiate with France, and produce an amicable adjustment of the Spanish claims. All efforts proving vain, they entered into a treaty with the emperor of Germany, called the "Grand Alliance," whose objects were to prevent the union of the French and Spanish monarchies, to procure for the emperor the Spanish possessions in Italy; to recover Flanders as a barrier to Holland, and to secure the English and Dutch commerce. On the death of James II., which occurred at this time, at St. Germain, Louis acknowledged his son as king of England, and gave him the title of James III. William at once recalled his ambassador from France, and his subjects seconded with ardor his preparations for war. In the midst of them, William died; but Anne, who succeeded to the English throne, continued the same measures of foreign policy. England, Holland, and the German empire declared war against France on the same day. The German princes generally were in the league. Frederic, the elector of Brandenburgh, had been won by receiving from the emperor the title of king of Prussia. This is the first acknowledgment of Prussia as a kingdom.

5. During the first campaign, operations were not on a great scale. In Italy, and on the Upper Rhine, the French arms were successful; but in Flanders, the allies, commanded by the duke of Marlborough, make themselves masters of several places. Their naval operations, also, were fortunate. A French fleet, which had just arrived in the harbor of Vigo, having in charge an immense treasure which it had brought from America, was attacked by the English and Dutch, the vessels captured or destroyed, and a great amount of wealth taken. The king of Portugal and the duke of Savoy now openly espoused the interests of the Grand Alliance.

6. In the second campaign, Louis exerted himself to the utmost; and the electors of Bavaria and Cologne, engaged with zeal in his cause. The former carried on the war in Germany, and in union with maréchal Villars, the French commander, obtained a victory over the imperialists on the plains of Hoch-
The following year Marlborough was early in the field, having planned with care and secrecy to relieve the emperor, whose capital was threatened on the one hand by the Hungarians, who were in a state of revolt; and on the other, by the French and Bavarians, whose successes in the preceding campaign had put them in possession of Augsburg, and opened the road to Vienna. He designed to march into Germany, and deceiving the French by a feint, succeeded in crossing the Rhine, the Maine, and the Neckar. Having united with the imperialists under the prince of Baden, he compelled the elector of Bavaria to retreat from Donauesch, which he took.

8. Soon after this, prince Eugene united his army to that of Marlborough, and a great battle was fought between the allies, and the French and Bavarians, near the village of Blenheim. The hostile armies were nearly equal in strength, each number ing about 80,000 men; but the superior military skill of Marlborough and Eugene, gave them the victory. This success relieved the emperor, and put the allies in possession of some important places in Alsace. At sea, the Confederate fleets of the English and Dutch attacked Gibraltar, and the English seamen made themselves masters of that almost impregnable fortress. The operations of the French, however, were successful in other quarters. In Italy their arms triumphed; and also in Portugal, where the war on the part of the allies was conducted by the Archduke Charles, who had assumed the title of king of Spain.

9. The ensuing spring, Louis had an army of 70,000 men, under maréchal Villars, in readiness to oppose the duke of Marlborough, who was thus prevented from penetrating into France. The most important events of this campaign were transacted in Spain, where the arms of the confederates met with signal success. The principal places in the province of Extremadura were reduced;—nearly the whole territory of Valencia, and the province of Catalonia, submitted to the archduke. The death of the emperor Leopold, which occurred this year, placed his son Joseph upon the imperial throne, but did not affect the policy of the court.

10. In the next campaign, Marlborough, at the head of the English and Dutch, obtained at Ramillies an important victory over the French, under maréchal Villeroi. This victory en-
FRANCE EXHAUSTED BY THE WAR.

abled Marlborough to conquer Brabant, and almost all Spanish Flanders. The duke of Vendome was recalled from Italy to oppose Marlborough. Prince Eugene had already crossed the Po, and carried on a successful warfare in that quarter. Joining the duke of Savoy, their united armies attacked the French before Turin, and completely routed them. In Spain, also, victory declared for the confederates. Philip was obliged to leave Madrid, which the English and Portuguese entered. Charles, the archduke of Austria, was declared king, under the title of Charles III., but did not himself advance to Madrid. Philip collected another army, and recovered his capital.

11. Louis XIV. now perceiving the distress to which his great expenditures were reducing his kingdom, made proposals of peace to the other powers, which, chiefly through the ambition of Marlborough and Eugene, were rejected. The war therefore continued, and Louis, though greatly embarrassed, prepared to carry it on with vigor. Several armies were collected, and reinforcements sent into Spain. In Italy, continued misfortune attended the French and Spaniards; the whole kingdom of Naples was reduced by the allies, and the territory of the duke of Savoy entirely recovered. Here, however, the success of the allies, for this campaign, ended. In Flanders, the duke of Vendome prevented Marlborough from performing anything of importance. In Germany, mareschal Villars had obtained considerable success, and penetrated to the Danube. The Hungarians continued to distress the empire. In Spain, the confederates met with a memorable defeat at Almanza, where the duke of Berwick commanded the French and Spanish. After this, the French and Spaniards, under this able commander, recovered the whole kingdom of Valencia for Philip. An attempt of prince Eugene and the duke of Savoy upon Toulon, was successfully repulsed by the French. The advantages of this campaign were mainly on the side of France.

12. During the next year, the English were roused to more vigorous exertions, by an attempt of Louis to convey the pretender, James III., to Scotland, but the vigilance of admiral Byng prevented his landing. Marlborough was now in Flanders. At Oudenarde, a battle was fought between the forces under him, and the French army under the duke of Vendome, where again the confederates were victorious. Soon after this, prince Eugene took the city of Lisle, which he had besieged two months. Ghent and Bruges, of which the duke of Vendome had obtained possession in the early part of the cam-

10. Relate the course of the victory—the circumstances of the next battle. What occurred in Spain?—11. In the sixth campaign what successes had the allies? What the French and Spanish? In the beginning of the campaign what did the king of France desire? Which side had on the whole the advantage?—12. What attempt was made by Louis XIV.? Relate the battle of Oudenarde. The remaining transactions of the campaign.
WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION CONTINUES.

13. Louis again made liberal proposals of peace, which were
again rejected. Not only were his armies unfortunate, but his
subjects were suffering under a grievous famine, and his finances
exhausted. This monarch, by his regal munificence, and his
imposing qualities of person and character, was the idol of his
subjects, to whom they willingly sacrificed their blood and
treasure. By his patronage of literature, he had the talents and
genius of France in his interest. Hence, when the rejection of a
proffered peace left him no hope but in the successful prose-
cuction of the war, France aroused to new and extensive
preparations. To maréchal Villars, he gave the command of
his armies in Flanders, where Marlborough and Eugene acted
in concert with a force of 100,000 men. The confederates
having reduced Tournay, besieged Mons. Villars encamped his
army a short distance from that city, where he was attacked by
Marlborough and Eugene, and after a fierce and long-contested
battle, he was compelled to retreat from the field, and abandon
Mons to the allies; yet he could hardly be said to have lost
the victory, since the number of slain in the army of the con-
 federates, was double that on the side of the French. Villars
held them in check, and prevented their entering France, or
gaining any other important advantage. At the close of this
campaign, the French king renewed his solicitations for peace,
and negotiations to that effect commenced at Gertruydenberg.
Louis was willing to make ample concessions; but the demands
of the allies were so exorbitant, as to preclude all hope of re-
conciliation, and the negotiations were broken off.

14. In Flanders, several places of importance surrendered to
the allies. In Spain, a battle was fought at Almenara, in which
the two competitors for the crown, Philip and the archduke
Charles, appeared at the head of their respective forces. The
contest was decided in favor of Charles, and Philip was again
compelled to flee from Madrid, of which Charles took pos-
session. The Spaniards, however, continued faithful to Philip’s
cause, and the duke of Vendome, who received the command
of the French in that quarter, soon retraced their affairs, and
recovered Madrid.

15. About this period, two events took place, which tended to
produce a cessation of hostilities. The emperor Joseph dying,
his brother, the archduke Charles was raised to the imperial
dignity; and as it was inconsistent with the avowed object of
the Grand Alliance, to permit the throne of two nations to be
occupied by one monarch, Charles was now considered as dis-
qualified for the throne of Spain. A change had been effected

13. What remarks are here made concerning Louis XIV.? Relate the
battle of Mons, with its consequences. What was done concerning nego-
tiations for peace?—14. Relate the principal events of the ninth campaign
—15. From what two events was peace expected?
in the British ministry, by which the Tories had acquired the ascendency in the court of Anne, and a change of measures might speedily be expected. Marlborough was indeed continued in office, but it was evident that his influence was on the decline. Negotiations were the next year entered into between the English and French courts; Marlborough was recalled and dismissed from his offices.

16. Conferences were opened at Utrecht, and treaties of peace were signed by all the belligerent powers, except the emperor and the king of Spain. By the terms of these treaties, Philip V. was secured on the throne of Spain, on condition of his renouncing, for himself and descendants, all claim upon the crown of France. The heirs of the French monarchy were also to renounce all claim upon that of Spain, so that the two kingdoms should in no case be united. Sicily was given to the duke of Savoy, in addition to his hereditary dominions. The Italian possessions of Spain and the Netherlands, were relinquished to the house of Austria. The Rhine was to be the established boundary between Germany and France. The right to both sides of the river Amazon in America, was confirmed to the king of Portugal. The title of Anne to the throne of England, and the eventual succession of the family of Hanover to that throne, was to be acknowledged by France. Gibraltar and Minorca were to remain in possession of the English. Hudson's bay and swaits, the town of Placentia in Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, in North America, and the island of St. Christopher in the West Indies, were also to be ceded to that government by France. Luxembourg, Namur, and Charleroy, were given to the United Provinces; and Lisle, Aire, Bethune, and St. Vincent were restored to France.

17. As the emperor refused his assent to the treaty, the war between the empire and France continued. Turning all their strength against Germany, the French were now successful in their operations, and the following year, Charles VI. was forced to conclude a peace at Rastadt, on less favorable terms than had been offered him at Utrecht. In New England the French and savages made destructive night attacks. The settlers never retired to their rest free from fear; for when the Indians came, they started up like a satanic creation of the night;—did their deadly errand and were gone. Thus, in the depth of winter, was Deerfield surprised by a party of French and Indians, under Huertel de Rouville, a Frenchman; and the whole settlement destroyed.

16. (Examine the maps in learning the conditions of the important treaty of Utrecht.) What conditions were made by the Spanish and French Bourbons? What part of the Spanish possessions were given to Germany? Of what was the Rhine to be the boundary? What condition respecting the English throne was made? What accession of territory did England receive? What was confirmed? What did Holland gain?—17. Between what powers was the treaty of Rastadt? How did "Queen Anne's war," as it was called in America, affect the American provinces?
CHAPTER V.

Poland, Russia, and China.

1. POLAND.—Sigismund II., dying without issue, the throne was afterwards disposed of by the nobles, who held their elections in the open air, armed and on horseback. The principle that the majority must govern, was repudiated by them; and to make the election unanimous, the majority often fell upon the minority and slew them with their swords. Seldom agreeing on one of their own number, they, with a policy suicidal to their country, offered their crown to foreign princes, who hence learned to interfere with the affairs of Poland. John Sobieski, the hero of Polish history, was, however, a native Pole; and was made king after he had defeated the Turks in the great battle of Choczim. He had before risen by his public services to be grand marshal of Poland, and palatine of Cracovia. After his election, he marched to the relief of the emperor of Germany, the Turks having besieged his capital. He compelled them to raise the siege of Vienna, and to flee with precipitation. By stopping the progress of the Mahometans, he merited the title of a second Charles Martel. On the death of Sobieski, the Polish electors chose as their king, Frederick Augustus, elector of Saxon.

2. RUSSIA.—The greatness of Russia began, 1462, with Ivan Vasilovich, for the family of Ruric. Up to this period many petty chiefs, of different degrees of authority, ruled the different parts of those vast regions. Ivan had, physically, the size and strength of a giant, with ambition and mental energy in proportion, and he centralized the power of Russia, by subjugating contiguous provinces. Since the time when the descendents of Jenghiz Khan overran the country, the Russians had been under the galling yoke of the "Tartars of the Golden Horde." In 1395 Tamerlane had devastated the country from Azof to Moscow. The Russians after this were under tribute to the horde of Khatshak. These Tartars quarrelled and divided into four portions,—the Tartars of Crimea, of Khasan, of Astrachan, and of Siberia. Ivan took advantage of their disunion, refused the tribute, and made war upon the Tartars. He was naturally ferocious in temper; but his character was modified by that of his wife, an accomplished Greek princess, Sophia, niece of Constantine, the last empe-
FORMATION OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

ror of Constantinople. By this connexion he took the title of Czar, (Caesar,) and claimed the throne of the ancient Greek empire. He fortified the Kremlin or citadel of Moscow; and by severe despotism at home, and successful war abroad, he effected the consolidation of the Russian power.

3. Ivan IV., (the Terrible,) formed a military guard, called Strelitzes, (shooters,) which were the first regular Russian army. This sovereign conquered the Tartars of Khasan and Astrachan, reduced the khan of Siberia to tribute, and subjected the Don Cossacks. Afterwards, the Swedes warred upon him, and he made peace by relinquishing Carelia and Ingria, and all the Russian possessions on the Baltic. After his death occurred a period of anarchy within, and the ingress of hordes of Tartars from without. At length the Russians with one accord rose up, and rejecting the competitors of the Ruric family, elevated to the throne, Michael Romanoff. He restored peace, and re claimed some of the alienated provinces. He was succeeded by his son Alexis, a wise and powerful sovereign. He reduced the Cossacks of the Ukraine. By his direction the laws of Russia were revised. He mingled in the politics of Europe, sending ministers to France and Spain, but refusing to receive an ambassador from Oliver Cromwell.

4. Alexis was succeeded by his eldest son Theodore II. On the death of this sickly prince, Ivan and Peter, two young sons of Alexis were declared; but their sister, Sophia, by the force of her talents, and ambitious intriguing mind, had made herself the virtual head of the nation; notwithstanding the laws of Russia which doomed her, as an unmarried daughter of the Czar, to perpetual confinement in a convent. She managed to get the control of the strelitzes; and made a powerful Boyar, (Russian nobleman,) Prince Gallitzin, head of her party. Ivan was feeble of mind and body, and Sophia had no difficulty in ruling him; but Peter, though but a boy, manifested so much decision and energy of character, that she is said, not only to have neglected his education, but purposely to have put him in the way of criminal pleasures, that he might thus ruin his mental and physical constitution; but divine Providence suffered it not to be. By the help of the strelitzes Sophia afterwards conspired against his life. He escaped, and received the undivided sovereignty, while she was imprisoned in a convent. Peter, after taking a terrible vengeance on the conspirators, set himself to the task of ruling well the vast country which he had inherited. Indeed the desire to improve and civilize his people, and procure for Russia the advantages of commerce and navigation,
became the ruling impulse of one of the most laborious lives on record.

5. In the suite of the Danish ambassador was a young man, elegant in appearance, but modest and retiring. Peter invited him to enter his service, but Le Fort said he owed gratitude to the Danish ambassador for aiding him in his necessities, and he was useful to him; he therefore declined so much as asking his benefactor to part with him. Peter, struck with his self-sacrificing faithfulness, asked the ambassador himself; and he was delighted with the prospect of greatness, which Peter’s favor opened before this young Genevese. Peter made him his instructor and friend, and eagerly listened to his accounts of the more civilized nations of the south. He asked Le Fort’s opinion of his troops. “They are,” said Le Fort, “well-made men, but neither their dress or discipline fit them for action.” Peter desired to see the military costume of the south. In two days Le Fort appeared before him in the German uniform. Peter was delighted, and wished a company to be dressed in the same manner. Le Fort selected fifty of the tallest and most symmetrical of the strelitizes, and before the Czar believed it possible, they were paraded in full uniform, practising their newly learned evolutions beneath his window. Peter, to show his young nobility an example, himself enlisted in this company,—and here began his military career, by faithfully performing service as a drummer.

6. In favoring and increasing this new corps, Peter had in view to supplant the dangerous strelitizes. He had foreign officers in his service, especially the two Scottish Gordons, but he wished for more. “Your majesty,” said Le Fort, “cannot command such services, because your finances are in no better condition than your army; your impost duties are so high, that the merchants practise frauds to get rid of paying them.” On this, Peter changed the ten per cent. duties to five, made strict regulations against smugglers, and his receipts were soon doubled. Peter exercised at times the most barbarous severities. With his own hand he sometimes knouted, and sometimes de- capititated offenders. Without severity he could not have maintained his authority; but he was subject to fits of ungovernable rage. Le Fort, moved with pity, would offer his own broad shoulders for the cruel knout, or his head for the block; then Peter would frequently relent and spare the offender.

7. The want of shipping and seaports occupied the Czar’s mind. He began to learn the construction and management of vessels from a small one which he procured to be built on lake Peipus. He then took the extraordinary resolution to go to Holland and learn ship-building. But when he declared his intention of go-

5. Relate Peter’s first acquaintance with Le Fort! What happened between them in relation to the military? What example did Peter set to his young nobility?—6. What occurred in respect to the finances? How did Le Fort save the lives of many Russians?—7. What subject occupied the Czar, and what did he begin to learn?
PETER OF RUSSIA IN HOLLAND.

7. What resolution did he take? What causes of dissatisfaction did the Russian clergy avow, and what did they attempt? What did Peter do?—8. How did he travel? Describe Peter’s behavior at Amsterdam. Where did he then go, and how was he treated by the king? How did he like William Penn? How was he called home, and what happened on his return? What did Le Fort and he do? What then occurred?—9. What did Peter now covet, and why did he and the neighboring kings think it would be a good time to get what belonged to another country?
regain of Denmark, and Augustus of Saxony, now raised to the throne of Poland. While Peter desired some of the provinces of Charles which would give him a port on the Baltic, Augustus wished to obtain Swedish Livonia; and Frederic IV. of Denmark, had a grudge against Charles of Sweden, on account of his taking part with his enemy, the duke of Holstein Gottorp. The Danes invaded the territories of the duke, who was brother-in-law to Charles, and who was vigorously supported not only by him, but also by the English and Dutch, with whom he had formed an alliance. Charles carried the war into Denmark, and besieged Copenhagen. The Danish king, reduced to great distress, obtained the mediation of England and France, and a peace was concluded between Denmark and Sweden, highly honorable to the latter.

10. In the meantime, the Russians had commenced hostilities, and laid siege to Narva. Charles now advanced to the defence of that part of his kingdom, and although the Russian army numbered 80,000 men, he, with 8,000, attacked their camp, defeated them, and relieved Narva. Peter, who was not in the battle, but was at the head of another army of 40,000 men, after learning the result, retired to his own dominions, exclaiming, "I knew that the Swedes would beat us, but in time they will teach us to beat them." In the meantime, Augustus had invaded Livonia, and laid siege to Riga. After the victory at Narva, the season was too far advanced to permit Charles to carry his arms against Augustus, but early in the ensuing spring he appeared in the field against the Poles and Saxons. The army of Augustus was stationed on the banks of the Dvina, where Charles, after forcing the passage of the river, encountered them, and obtained a complete victory. With rapid strides he then marched through Courland and Lithuania. At Birsen, the town in which Peter and Augustus, a few months previously, had planned his destruction, he now formed the resolution to dethrone the king of Poland. Augustus governed the Poles with the same arbitrary sway which he had been accustomed to exercise over his Saxon subjects, and the nobles who elected him were chafed and indignant; and Charles peremptorily declared he would never grant them peace until they chose a new sovereign.

11. The hostile monarchs met at Glissau, and the heroic Swede, though with but half the number of troops, defeated the king of Poland. Cracow surrendered, but Charles being wounded by a fall from his horse, a few weeks were thereby afforded Augustus to rally his supporters. Charles being now recovered,
marched against the remains of the Saxon army which had been defeated at Glissau, dispersed them, and then proceeded to invest Thorn, whither Augustus had retired. He escaped, and fled to Saxony. Charles assembled a diet at Warsaw, which, under his influence, deposed Augustus, and elevated Stanislaus Leczinski, an accomplished Poleander of noble birth. Augustus received supplies of Russian troops, and he had still adherents who joined his standard; but Charles and Stanislaus obtained repeated victories over separate bands of the Russians, and at length drove them from Poland. Charles penetrated Saxony, and at Alt Ransadt Augustus, driven to extremity, subscribed a disgraceful peace, by which he not only renounced all claim to the crown of Poland, and acknowledged the title of Stanislaus,—but he wrote him a letter of congratulation. The worst feature of the treaty was, however, his giving up to Charles, colonel Patkul, a noble-minded Swede, whom that hot-headed king had banished, for having spoken to him with an honourable plainness; and who, having entered the service of the czar, was sent as Russian minister to Augustus. He now basely surrendered him,—and Charles cruelly slew him.

12. The czar Peter, in the meantime, had improved the discipline of his armies, increased their strength, and he had conquered Ingría, Livonia, and the city of Narva. In the newly conquered country, and on a desert island, which the long winter of that climate rendered almost inaccessible, he had laid the foundation of a new city, designed for the royal residence; and to this he had transported, in less than five years, 300,000 inhabitants.

13. Poland being subdued, Charles, confident of success, and resolving to attack his Russian enemy in the heart of his own dominions, directed his march to Moscow; but the roads, by Peter's order, were destroyed, and the country desolated.—Finding himself obstructed on the route first attempted, and receiving a promise of succor from Mazeppa, the chief of the Cossacks, Charles next endeavored to penetrate to the capital of Russia through the Ukraine. He also ordered his general, Lewenhaupt, to bring him a reinforcement from Livonia. He entered the Ukraine in September, and overcoming every obstacle, advanced to the river Dwina, where he expected to be joined by Lewenhaupt and Mazeppa. The former was encountered by the Russians and defeated; the latter failed of his promised succor. Still, Charles, with a dreary winter before

* Mazeppa was a Pole, brought up as page to the king. Afterwards an injured husband had him tied to the back of a wild horse, which carried him to his native woods among the Cossacks, who made him their hetman.

11. What was next done in regard to the Polish election? How was Augustus situation? (What was it with the Russian invading troops?) What occurred at Alt Ranzadt? Relate the account given of colonel Patkul? What had the czar Peter done in the meantime in respect to his army? What conquests had he made? What city had he founded, and what number of inhabitants placed in it?—13. Describe the course taken by Charles XII. What is said of Lewenhaupt? Of Mazeppa?
him, and with his army suffering from fatigue and famine, madly persisted in his march. At Fultowa, he engaged the Russian army, consisting of more than 70,000 men, under the eye of the czar. Charles, so often the conqueror, here suffered an entire defeat. With only 300 guards, he escaped, wounded, from the field, went to Bender, and put himself under the protection of the Turks. Great was Peter's joy at this success. He advanced officers, and rewarded soldiers; and as for himself, having, in the heat of the battle, taken prisoner a Swedish commander, and having had a ball shot through his hat, he, for these demonstrations, promoted himself to the rank of major-general.

14. Augustus had declared the treaty, which Charles had extorted from him, void; and renewed his claim to the crown of Poland. The czar supported his pretensions, entered Poland with an army, and reinstated him in the regal authority. Denmark declared war anew with Sweden; Peter laid claim to several of its provinces, and the king of Prussia to others; and nothing but the interposition of the southern powers of Europe, prevented its dismemberment.

15. Charles was received by the Turks with great hospitality, and employed himself in seeking to engage the Ottoman Porte in war with Russia. The Porte showed their disposition to gratify his wishes, by imprisoning the Russian ambassador. Peter, when informed of this, advanced up Turkey at the head of 40,000 men. Cantimir, prince of Moldavia, had vainly promised to aid him, and he marched into his country near Jassy he discovered an army of 200,000 Turks, and soon after a considerable body of Tartars. He fortified his camp on the banks of the Pruth, where he lay besieged by the two hostile armies. The Turks now attacked him, and for three days kept the Russians fighting. Their numbers had wasted by nearly one-half,—their provisions failed,—and Peter retired in despair to his tent, forbidding any one to follow him. The czarina Catharine, with the wives of several of the officers, had accompanied the Russian army. She bethought herself of a last resource. The Turkish vizier might perhaps receive offers of peace if a suitable present could be made him,—without he could not be approached. She bought of all the ladies their jewelry, on pledge of future payment, and to these added her own. She then approached the irritable Peter, who seeing gleam of hope, was pleased and grateful. The vizier received Catharine's messenger, and sent back an answer of peace; and Peter and his army were saved; he giving up his ports on the sea of Azof.

16. Meanwhile the affairs of Sweden continued to suffer

13. Relate the battle of Pultowa. What is related of Charles XII. after the battle? What of the czar Peter?—14. What was the consequence of Charles' defeat in Poland with other powers?—15. What was done by the insurrection of Charles, in Turkey? What was done by the czar in consequence? Describe the situation of Peter at the Pruth. How was he relieved, and his army saved?
The refusal of Charles to subscribe to a treaty which the emperor and maritime powers had formed, kept alive the war in Sweden. The Danes, Saxons, and Russians, continued hostilities; and the Swedes, though reduced to great distress, perseveringly resisted. Charles was troublesome to the Turks, who, though they desired not to violate the laws of hospitality, yet requested him to leave their dominions, and at last resorted to force, but still without effect. At length, receiving intelligence that the Swedes were urging the regency of the kingdom upon his sister, with a view of forcing her to make peace with Denmark and Russia, he was induced to return to his kingdom. He arrived at Stralsund in Pomerania, five years after the battle of Pultowa.

17. The czar, whose navy had acquired considerable strength, commanded the Baltic, and now besieged Charles with a small army which he had collected, in Stralsund. The place was taken by storm. Charles escaped in a small vessel, passed safely through the Danish fleet, and landed in Sweden. Fifteen years had passed since the monarch left his capital, bent on the conquest of the world. In his humbled fortunes, he did not choose to revisit it, but passed the winter at Carlsbroon. Undaunted amid all his reverses, and unsated with blood, he still thought of war. While his numerous enemies had made themselves masters of all his provinces, and threatened to destroy Sweden itself, Charles invaded Norway, and made the useless conquest of Christiana, which he was soon forced to abandon. However, he a second time invaded that kingdom, and while watching the attack of his soldiers upon Frederichshall, he was struck on the head by a cannon ball, and expired without a groan. The Swedish senate took immediate measures for settling the government. Ulrica Eleonora, sister of Charles, was raised to the throne. Treaties with the different powers were concluded, in which, by ample concessions, Sweden obtained peace. The czar, her most powerful enemy, was the last pacified, and then, only by obtaining the important provinces of Livonia, Esthonia, Ingría, and Carelia.

18. Peter had married, when very young, the daughter of a Russian nobleman. After a few years he put her way, for no alleged cause, and confined her in a convent. Yet Alexis, the son whom she bore him, he designed as his heir; but the youth often saw his mother, and he grew up undutiful and intractable towards his father,—making game of his improvements, and practising petty deceptions to escape, when the czar wished him to attend to matters of importance. His marriage with a lovely and amiable princess, but made his hopeless intemperance and

16. How was Sweden at this time situated? What was the conduct of Charles towards the Turks? What induced him to return to Sweden?—17. What happened on his return? What course did he take after his escape from Stralsund? Where and how did his death occur? Who was made queen? On what conditions did Sweden obtain peace, especially from the czar?—18. What was the character of the czar Alexi? How had Peter treated the mother of Alexis?
profligacy the more apparent; and the neglected and ill-treated
wife died of a broken heart. Peter then threatened. His son
escaped to Vienna, telling the emperor his life was in danger.
Peter invited him to return on the pledge of safety; but he
brought him to trial, and the nobles and clergy pronounced him
worthy of death. The evening before his execution was to have
taken place, he died in his bed, doubtless by poison. After this,
Peter took the title of "Emperor of all the Russians," which has
been retained by his successors. He made an excursion to the
Caspian, intending to attack Persia; but returned after having
founded a city. His wife, Catharine, was crowned empress
during the lifetime of her husband, and on his death she succeeded,
by his will, to the government of the Russian empire.

19. CHINA.—In 1719, the czar Peter, sent an embassy across
Siberia to China; and in 1737, Russia formed a treaty of friend-
ship with that power, and sent an envoy to the court of Pekin.
China is interesting from its great extent and population, but
materials for its history are scarce. Before the Christian era,
from 1776 to 1122, three dynasties reigned; after which, until
250 B.C., there is utter historical darkness; owing, it is said,
to the destruction of the Chinese records by Schi-Ho-Ang-Ti;
who became the founder of a prosperous dynasty soon after the
erection of the great wall, about 300 years before Christ.
Through the middle ages China makes no figure, until Kublai
Khan, a grandson of Jenghiz, conquered the country; founded
Pekin, and made himself Great Khan of China. During his
prosperous reign, Marco Polo, a Venetian traveller, visited his
kingdom. Publishing his travels on his return, his description
of the riches of the "East Indies," the name given to the re-
gions of the east, so inflamed the minds of the Italians, that
they became a nation of discoverers; their great object being to
find a passage by sea to these rich countries. The race of Jen-
ghiz lost the supremacy in 1368, being then supplanted by the
dynasty of Ming. This was driven out in 1647, by the Man-
cheel Tartars, whose dynasty, called that of Tsing, has since
continued to reign. The Chinese reckon this dynasty to be
their twentieth. In the seventeenth century they received the
Jesuit missionaries; but early in the eighteenth, they drove them
out, and persecuted their followers.

* We have continued this account of the northern nations beyond the peace
of Utrecht, for the purpose of bringing to a close the career of the two prin-
cipal actors, Charles XII. and Peter the Great.

18. Did marrying an interesting woman reclaim him? Relate the re-
mainder of his history. What new title did Peter take? What excursion
did he make? Who succeeded him?—19. What embassy is here men-
tioned? What treaty? What remarks are made concerning the Chinese
history before the time of their historical darkness? What from that time
to the reign of Kublai Khan? What during his reign? What after it?
MAP NO. 12.

THE COUNTRIES AROUND THE

BALTIIC.

NORTH SEA.

FINLAND.

COURLAND.

RUSIA.

SILIA.

LAND OF THE SKANDINSV.

NEAR RV.

NORWAY.

ENGLAND.

FRANCE.

GERMANY.

SWITZERLAND.

ITALY.

ENGLAND.
PERIOD V.

FROM
THE TREATY OF Utrecht,
WHICH CLOSES 1713,
THE WAR OF THE SPANISH SUCCESSION,

TO
THE TREATY OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, WHICH CLOSES 1748,
THE WAR OF THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION

CHAPTER I.

Invasion of the Turks.—Eight years war.

1. The peace of Utrecht had produced a considerable change in the situation and affairs of the southern nations of Europe. Austria received an accession of territory in the Spanish Netherlands, and in Italy. Two new kingdoms arose, Prussia, the title of whose king, Frederick II., was now, for the first time, acknowledged by France; and Sicily, which, with his hereditary possessions, was erected into a kingdom for Victor Amadeus II., duke of Savoy. No treaty having been made between Spain and Austria, although the war ceased, neither of these kingdoms resigned its pretensions. Peace was for the interest of the leading powers; yet Austria was soon at war with the Turks, who had encroached upon the Venetian possessions, and overrun the Morea. Their army, under prince Eugene, attacked and defeated the Turks at Zenta, at Peterwaradin, and

PERIOD V.—CHAP. I.—1. What changes were produced by the treaty of Utrecht? What new kingdom arose? What two nations were not parties to the treaty of peace? What encroachments had the Turks recently made? Give an account of the commander sent against them. (See note.) What signal victories did Prince Eugene gain over the Turks?
again at Belgrade. A peace was soon after concluded, at Passarowitz, in which Turkey ceded to Austria Belgrade, part of Servia, and Wallachia. Venice retained part of Dalmatia, but surrendered to the Turks the Morea.

2. While Austria was employing her forces in the east, Spain, under Philip V., was concerting measures for renewing hostilities, with the design to recover possessions, which the treaty of Utrecht had given to the house of Austria. The Spaniards made themselves masters of Sardinia, and a great part of the island of Sicily. Alberoni, the minister of Philip, had also concerted measures to procure for his monarch the regency of France, (his grandfather, Louis XIV., being now dead,) and for placing the son of James II., called "the pretender," upon the throne of England; but another, and leading object of the court, was to recover the Spanish possessions in Italy, as a portion for the children of Elizabeth, the queen of Spain, an Italian princess of the house of Farnese, and heiress to the duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Modena. These designs of the Spanish court aroused the jealousy of England, France, Austria and Holland; and they formed a league for the preservation of the peace of Utrecht, called the "Quadruple Alliance," which provided that the emperor of Germany should renounce all claim to Spain and its colonies; and that the king of Spain should give up his pretensions to the provinces already ceded. It stipulated also, that Don Carlos, son of Elizabeth, should eventually succeed to the duchies of Tuscany, Parma and Placentia; and that the duke of Savoy should exchange Sicily for Sardinia. The Spanish court refused the dictation of the "Alliance," and a declaration of war was made by England and France against Spain, when Philip V., alarmed at the consequences of resistance, disgraced his minister Alberoni, and acceded to the terms of the "Quadruple Alliance."

3. The emperor of Germany, Charles VI., who had no sons, desired to secure the succession of the Austrian territories, his hereditary domain, to his daughter, Maria Theresa. With this view he put forth his "Pragmatic Sanction," securing the succession of female heirs; having previously obtained the assent of the hereditary states of the empire; to which he now sought by negotiation, to add the approval of the other European powers, and which he finally obtained.

4. The throne of Poland becoming vacant by the death of Augustus, Stanislaus Leczinski, whom Charles XII. of Sweden, had formerly elevated, was now chosen king by the Polish electors, and received the support of Louis XV. of France, who had married his daughter. The sovereigns of Russia and Austria opposed his election, and compelled he Poles to a second

1. What changes of territory were made at the peace of Passarowitz?—2. What places were taken by Spain? What designs entertained? What was the course of Spain in regard to the Quadruple Alliance?—3. What was done by Charles VI. to secure his daughter's succession?—4. By whom was Leczinski chosen, and to what sovereignty?
choice, when Augustus, son of the deceased monarch, was raised to the throne. The king of France resenting this treatment to his father-in-law, formed an alliance with the kings of Spain and Sardinia, and commenced hostilities. The war was carried on in Italy by the allies, who made themselves masters of most of the Austrian possessions in that country. The German empire was attacked by the French, and Philip the Third was taken. The losses of the emperor, and the pacific disposition of Cardinal Fleury, who was at the head of the French ministry, caused a peace—which, the succeeding year, was settled at Vienna. By this treaty the French guaranteed the "Pragmatic sanction." Stanislaus renounced his claim to the Polish throne, and received in compensation the duchy of Lorraine, where he passed his days in study and philosophic repose; the former duke receiving Tuscany in exchange. Don Carlos was acknowledged king of the two Sicilies,† and the king of Sardinia received some accession of territory.

5. The emperor, Charles VI., believed that he had secured to his daughter his rich Austrian possessions, including the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia. But the Pragmatic Sanction, which they had guaranteed, proved a feeble barrier against the selfishness and ambition which ruled in the hearts of the neighboring monarchs. The death of Charles was immediately followed by claims from the Elector of Bavaria to the kingdom of Bohemia, of Augustus, Elector of Saxony, now king of Poland, to the whole Austrian territories, and by other antiquated demands. Nevertheless, Maria Theresa took possession of her inheritance, and received the most flattering homage; particularly from her Hungarian subjects, with whom her dignified and conciliating manners had rendered her extremely popular. She had married Francis of Lorraine, grand duke of Tuscany, and she greatly desired his elevation to the imperial throne.

6. Prussia had now become a kingdom of considerable strength and importance. An immense treasure amassed by the parsimony of its first king, Frederic William, and an army of sixty thousand men, had passed under the control of his son Frederic II., who was now eager to employ the power and wealth of which he was master, to enlarge his territories. His heart was chiefly bent on obtaining Silesia, which belonged to Maria Theresa. At the head of a powerful army, he marched into the territory, and then offered to support her claims in

† i.e. Naples and Sicily.)

1738. Maria Theresa (called the queen of Hungary.)

1740. Associates in power her husband Francis of Lorraine.

War of the Austrian succession.

Dishonora the conduct of Frederic II.
other quarters, on condition of her peaceably relinquishing to
him Lower Silesia. She rejected his offer, and prepared to re-
sist his usurpation. Their armies met at Mollwitz; the Prus-
sians obtained a victory, and the whole province of Silesia sub-
mited to Frederic.

7. His successes awakened the ambition of the French court.
A treaty was formed between Louis XV., Frederic of Prussia,
and CHARLES, elector of Bavaria, by which it was agreed to
divide the Austrian inheritance, and place the elector of Bav-
aria on the imperial throne. The Bavarian and French forces
entered Upper Austria, and advancing upon Vienna, compelled
Maria Theresa to retire to Hungary. The generous Hungarians,
roused by the wrongs of their sovereign, swore "We will die
for our queen, Maria Theresa." From the other parts of her
dominions also, powerful armies rallied to her standard. The
elector, on account of the lateness of the season, and the
strength of Vienna, turned towards Prague, which was taken,
and he was there crowned king of Bohemia. Proceeding to
Frankfort, he was, in that city, elected emperor of Germany,
under the title of CHARLES VII. An army of the queen now
invaded the Bavarian territories.

8. Frederic, regardless of his allies, entered into a treaty with
María Theresa at Breslau. She granted him Upper and Lower
Silesia, the object of his desires, and he engaged to remain
neutral. The neutrality of Poland was also purchased by a
grant of new territories. Meanwhile, the French army in Bo-
hemia was reduced to the necessity of acting on the defensive.
That portion which was in possession of Prague, was at length
compelled to retire, but through the skill of their commander,
BELLEILSE, they effected a safe retreat. Louis, now deserted
by Frederic, offered proposals of peace, which Maria Theresa
rejected. GEORGE II. of England, sent to her aid British and
Hanoverian troops, and in the next campaign the French were
driven from Bohemia, and the emperor was reduced to distress.
At Dettingen, the British, Hanoverian, and Austrian troops, un-
der the eye of GEORGE II, maintained a sanguinary contest with
the French, and defeated them. The king of Sardinia now be-
came an ally of Maria Theresa.

9. These successes of the queen, and the haughtiness with
which she rejected every proposal of peace, led to a new
coalition against her. Louis XV. renewed his alliance with
Spain at Fontainbleau, and declared war against England; and

6. How did she receive his offer? What battle followed, and what was its result?—7. What treaty was now formed against Maria Theresa? How did the allies commence hostilities? Relate the movements of the elector of Bavaria till he became emperor. Where, in the mean time, was Maria Theresa, and what attached subjects did she find?—8. What were the parties in the treaty of Breslau, and what its conditions? Whom besides Frederic did Maria Theresa buy to be neutral? What was now the condition of the French in Bohemia? Relate the battle of Dettingen. What ally now joined the cause of the queen?—9. What led to a new coalition against Maria Theresa?
from this period these two powers may almost be regarded the
principals in the war. By the influence of France,—Prussia,
Sweden, and some of the German princes, were at length in-
duced to arm in defence of the emperor. The king of Prussia
invaded Bohemia. His successes at first were rapid, but he
was soon compelled to surrender his conquests and retire. The
emperor was in danger of being driven again from his capital,
when death put an end to his hopes and fears. Maximilian,
his son, now entered into a treaty with the queen of Hungary,
by which he agreed that her husband should be made emperor;
she engaging to put him in possession of his hereditary estates.
Francis of Lorraine was accordingly elected emperor at Frank-
fort, under the title of Francis I.

10. The armies of Prussia continued the war in Silesia and
Bohemia; but after Frederic had obtained two decisive and
bloody victories, one near Friedberg in Silesia, the other at Sorr
in Bohemia, a treaty of peace was made at Dresden, by which
he acknowledged the validity of Francis' election, and was con-
firmed in the possession of Silesia. The French maintained
the war with obstinacy in Flanders. Saxe, who commanded the
French army, obtained a victory over the English and Hanoverians,
under the Duke of Cumberland, at Fontenoy, and re-
duced Brussels and Brabant. The Duke of Cumberland was
recalled by the progress of the young pretender, prince Charles
Edward, whom the French had encouraged to make a
descent upon England. The Austrians were left to maintain
the contest in Flanders, and marshal Saxe obtained a victory
over them, at Roucoux.

11. Maria Theresa having made peace with Prussia, was
ready to turn the whole force of her arms against France and
Spain. The king of England, incensed at the support given to
the pretender, only waited to suppress the insurrection which
his presence occasioned, to engage with new zeal in the contin-
ental war. In the succeeding campaign, the Dutch took an
active part against the French. The Duke of Cumberland,
after having defeated the pretender's adherents in the battle of
Culloden, and disgraced himself by the barbarities committed
after it, returned with a reinforcement of British troops. An in-
decisive, but bloody battle was fought at Val, after which the
French invested, and finally, to the great consternation of the
Dutch, made themselves masters of Bergen-op-Zoom, the strong-
est fortification in Dutch Brabant. At sea the British flag was
triumphant.

9. What powers made a league at Fontainbleau? What other powers
were induced by France to unite against Austria?—10. By what peace did
Frederic again desert his allies? Did he serve his own purposes by gaining
the province he desired? What victories did he first gain? What fortress
was taken in America? What generals were now in Flanders, and what
battles were fought? What called the English commander away?—
11. What battle did he fight in Scotland, and who were defeated? What
battle was fought during the last campaign of the eight years' war? What
is said of Bergen-op-Zoom?
PACIFICATION OF EUROPE.

12. Louis now turned his thoughts towards peace, which the situation of his kingdom, notwithstanding his late victories, rendered necessary. A congress was opened at Aix-la-Chapelle, and a treaty formed, on the basis of mutual restitution. The queen of Spain obtained for her second son the sovereignty of the duchies of Parma and Placentia. The king of Prussia was guarantied the possession of Silesia. The right of Maria Theresa to the hereditary possessions of the house of Austria, with the exception of such portions as were already ceded to other powers, was acknowledged, and guarantied anew. That England should return her conquests, was subject of severe mortification to the people of New England; who had manifested their loyalty and courage by the remarkable siege and capture of Louisburg; then the key of the French possessions, and the strongest fortress in America. Thus was closed, "The Eight Years' War;" during which blood flowed freely to gratify a few crowned heads; who sent armies to be slaughtered, with as little compunction as they would have moved the pawns upon a chess board; and often for purposes worse than idle. This war began with Frederic's desire to rob a young queen of her honest inheritance, which he had engaged to respect; and ended with his consummating the robbery.

CHAPTER II.

England.

1. The union of the legislative powers of England and Scotland, is the most important event of the reign of queen Anne. The bill proposed allowed the Scots to send to the British parliament sixteen peers and forty-five commoners, with reciprocal rights of trade. It was violently opposed in the Scottish parliament, on the ground of inequality of representation; but was finally accepted, on the parliament of England paying 398,000 pounds sterling as an equivalent.† It diminished the political importance of Scotland, but secured its tranquillity. England was weary of the long and sanguinary wars of the Spanish succession, and intrigues were set on foot against the duke of Marlborough. Queen Anne, when young, had formed an intimacy with the witty, sprightly, but high tempered SARIH JENNINGS, afterwards married to Col. Churchill, who rose by his great military services, and by the affection of the queen for

13. Where did a congress assemble? What were the conditions of the peace? Why were the people of New England mortified that the English should give up their conquests? What remarks close the chapter?

CHAP. II.—II. What was the most important political event of the reign of queen Anne? What plan was proposed? How were difficulties finally adjusted? Give an account of queen Anne’s female favorites.
his wife, until he became duke of Marlborough, and received the splendid estate and palace called from one of his great battles, "Blenheim." The duchess introduced to the service of the queen, one Agnes Hill, a weak but cunning sycophant, who supplanted her in Anne's affections, and afterwards became "the lady Masham." The duchess had become presuming and imperious; and when she found that the queen was growing tired of her sway, she gave loose to her fiery tongue, and irritated Anne by continual reproaches. When affairs came to this pass among the women, then the enemies of Marlborough, the lords Bolingbroke, Oxford, and others, by paying court to lady Masham, brought the queen to treat the duchess with cutting neglect, and strip the duke of his offices. The duke in his political and pecuniary operations, had laid himself open to censure. After this, the treaty of Utrecht was negotiated, and a brief pacification of Europe ensued.

2. Queen Anne survived this event but a short time; for her ministers no longer occupied with a foreign war, broke into furious quarrels with each other. With all the energy her gentle nature could command, the queen sought to direct affairs, and settle difficulties; and to that purpose she attended an long conference and dispute of her cabinet council. Her feminine mind was overwhelmed with this strife of masculine passions; she declared she could not outlive it—sunk into a lethargy, and after lingering two days, expired. The ministers, when they found that the queen must die, roused to a better spirit; and by their wise and rapid measures, placed the kingdom in a condition, which secured the peaceful accession of the Hanoverian line, in the person of George I.

3. The three great factions who now divided the nation, were the whigs, tories, and Jacobites, of which only the latter were opposed to the king. It was his policy to conciliate them all; instead of which, he lent himself completely to the whig party, and was guilty of flagrant injustice to the leading tories; taking away their estates, and in some instances procuring their execution. Henry St. John, Lord Bolingbroke, and the earl of Ormond, who had stood high in queen Anne's favor, were attainted of high treason and deprived of their estates. The aged earl of Oxford was impeached, and though suffering with disease, so that his physician declared imprisonment would endanger his life, yet the king unmercifully kept him confined in the tower. The principal crime alleged against him, was that of having led queen Anne to make the peace of Utrecht. That such allegations were but mere pretences to commit legal
murder on men whom the king, and his unprincipled and artful minister, Sir Robert Walpole, wished out of their way, the people believed; and hence hatred arose in many minds.

4. The Jacobite party gained ground;—the leaders projected a rebellion, and the pretender was invited over. Louis XIV. favored, though not openly, his cause; the Earl of Mar, aided by many of the Scottish nobles, took arms; and the Earl of Derwentwater put himself at the head of a force in the north of England. While the pretender was preparing to embark, Louis XIV. died; and the duke of Orleans, the regent of France, did not favor the enterprise of the Jacobites, though he amused and deceived them by false pretences.† The troops of George I. totally defeated lord Derwentwater, at Preston, and on the same day another army, under the command of the Duke of Argyle, gained an advantage over the earl of Mar, at Sheriffmuir. After these transactions, the pretender arrived in Scotland, and was proclaimed king by his adherents; but finding his cause desperate, and knowing that a heavy price was set upon his head, he returned to France. Some of his adherents fled,—some submitted,—and some were apprehended, and treated with unspARING cruelty. Lord Derwentwater was beheaded on Tower-hill.

5. This reign was the era of the famous speculating project, called the "South Sea Scheme." The "South Sea Company" was formed on some pretence of securing advantages in the South Sea trade, but with the real object of obtaining the public stock, and becoming the sole creditor of the nation. An enormous amount of South Sea stock was created in the first place, without any actual capital. Of this, a large amount was given in bribes to insure the co-operation of persons, influential in the view of the speculators. They succeeded, and the holders of a considerable part of the public debt were induced to exchange their securities for this stock; and it rose in the market at one time to 400 per cent. above par. The whole nation seemed seized with the South Sea mania. The government and the Bank of England, as well as innumerable individuals, became deeply involved. At length the bubble burst. The stock sunk to rise no more; and individuals who had rashly parted with their real property to purchase nominal, found themselves in a destitute and forlorn condition. The bank of England was in imminent danger of failure, and public credit, of extinction. George I., who had gone on a visit to his Hanoverian dominions, was called home in haste; and he and his parliament succeeded, after great difficulties, in allaying the evil, and setting

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4. What was done by the Jacobite party? By whom was the pretender favored? Give an account of the battle of Preston. Of Sheriffmuir. What is related of the pretender? Of his adherents?—5. What speculating project was now set on foot? What account is given of the South Sea Company? Of the stock issued by this company? How far did the speculators succeed? What parties became involved? When the bubble burst what happened?
the wheels of commerce again in motion; but many families were irretrievably ruined, and the national credit and resources were, for some years, impaired.

6. George II., as has been related, engaged in alliances with Frederic the Great, of Prussia, and Maria Theresa of Austria, and sent an army against the French under the duke of Cumberland. Another attempt was made to restore the Stuarts. The CHEVALIER CHARLES EDWARD, son of the pretender, encouraged by the Jacobites, landed in Scotland. The Highland chieftains and some lowland nobles joined him with their retainers. At their head the prince marched to Edinburgh, surprised and made himself master of the city. He established himself in Holy-Rood palace, and caused his father to be proclaimed king of Great Britain. He afterwards gained a victory over the king's troops at Preston Pans. Parliament, alarmed, recalled the duke of Cumberland from the continental war, and put him at the head of their forces.

7. Meantime Charles Edward made an irruption into England, took the town of Carlisle, and proceeded to Derby. But finding that few of the English Jacobites joined his standard, and learning that extensive preparations were making against him, the disappointed adventurer retraced his steps. At Falkirk, he obtained another advantage over the royal troops; but Cumberland, who followed him, gained a bloody victory over his adherents at Culloden. The duke gave no quarter to those who surrendered; and when from among the mangled bodies on the battle-field, some rose up, recovering from the faintness of their wounds, there were those in watching, who shot them down; and who killed even females who came to seek for their dead. From this time the wretched young prince,—a heavy price set upon his head, wandered for five months under various disguises. He was pursued and hunted from place to place; suffering extreme hardships, yet experiencing the attachment and fidelity of the Highlanders, the poorest of whom would not betray him for money. At length he procured a passage to France. The cruel battle of Culloden crushed for ever the hopes of the unfortunate Stuarts.

6. What has already been related respecting the foreign alliances and wars of George II.? Relate the progress of the young pretender up to the time of the battle of Preston Pans or Gladsmuir. Who was successful at that battle?—7. Relate the progress of Charles Edward in England. Why did he retrace his steps? What other battles were fought and with what success? Give a more particular account of the battle of Culloden. What became of the young pretender after this?
PERIOD VI.

FROM THE PEACE OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, 1748, WHICH CLOSES THE EIGHT YEARS' WAR, TO THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, 1776, BY THE REPUBLIC OF AMERICA.

CHAPTER I.

The Seven Years' War.

1. An awful visitation of Almighty God was manifested at this period; a dreadful earthquake levelled the palaces of Lisbon in the dust, and crushed its inhabitants beneath their ruins. The earth opened and swallowed them up, and the sea overflowed them; so that 30,000 perished in an hour. But the rulers of the nations were bent on again preparing for their people the more destructive evil of war.

2. Austria formed an alliance with France, Russia, and Swe-

* This war might properly be called the Silesian war, as its cause was the desire which Frederick of Prussia had to possess the province of Silesia. It is often quoted in European history as the War of the Austrian Succession. In America it was called the Old French War.

PERIOD VI.—CHAP. I.—I. What visitation of Providence is here related?
AUSTRIA ATTACKS PRUSSIA.

The alliance of the empress, Maria Theresa with France, the ancient and hereditary enemy of the house of Austria, for the purpose of invading a part of the German empire, is accounted for, by her animosity towards Frederic of Prussia for seizing Silesia, and her desire not only to recover it, but to make reprimands. Indeed, the formidable alliance against Prussia hoped to divide that kingdom among themselves. The French took Minorca. The king of Prussia invaded Saxony, and compelled Augustus, the elector, to abandon Dresden, of which he took possession. He then invaded Bohemia, and obtained a victory over an Austrian army at Loucitz.

3. The following year, the French under maréchal d'Étrettes, passed the Rhine to invade Hanover. George II., now king of England, was warmly attached to his electoral dominions, and sent his brother, the Duke of Cumberland to the continent, to command an army of 40,000 Hanoverians and Hessians; notwithstanding which, the French conquered from them the electorate. It was reconquered the succeeding campaign. Frederic of Prussia was now in an alarming condition. An army of 180,000 Russians was threatening to invade his dominions; the Swedes were in arms, and ready to enter Pomerania in order to regain that country; and the empress Maria Theresa had augmented her armies to 180,000, intending to attack him on the side of the German empire. He found it necessary to make four divisions of his army; each of which was to enter Bohemia separately, but to unite with the others; and all to join in the neighborhood of Prague. After the union of three divisions, Frederic gave battle to the Austrians, who, under the command of prince Charles of Lorraine, and Marshal Daun, were encamped near Prague. After a hard fought battle, the Austrians were compelled to quit the field, and retire within the walls, which Frederic closely besieged. On the approach of marshal Daun, at the head of another division of the Austrian army, Frederic, with a part of his forces, advanced towards the Elbe, and gave him battle at Kolin. He lost the field, and was compelled to raise the siege of Prague and evacuate Bohemia.

4. The Russians, French, and Swedes, had now invaded Prussia, but the martial genius of Frederic did not desert him. Assembling another army, he offered battle to the French and imperialists at Rosbach, where he obtained a complete victory. He then marched and met the army of the Austrians in Silesia, under prince Charles, and at Leuthen was again victorious. The Russians, meanwhile, had retired into their own country, and

2. What two alliances were formed? What seems the moving cause of these alliances, and the war which followed? Give an account of the principal occurrences of the first campaign.—3. Relate the first events of the second campaign. (1757.) What was the situation of Frederic in respect to invading armies? What were his arrangements? In what battle was he successful, and whom did he defeat? What reverse did he meet, and how many men did he lose?—4. Relate the last events of the second campaign, including two battles.
the Prussian army, which had been opposed to them, being left at liberty, turned against the Swedes, and recovered many of their conquests in Pomerania.

5. The king of Prussia in the next campaign besieged Olmutz; but after four weeks, turned his forces against the Russians, who had invaded Brandenburg. He obtained a victory over them at Zorndorf, and compelled them to retreat into Poland. Frederic was afterwards defeated at Hochkirchen, by the Austrians; but he still retained Silesia, and prevented them from deriving any important advantage from their victory. He next marched into Saxony, where the Austrians had besieged Dresden and Leipzig, compelled them to raise the siege of both cities. Thus ended the campaign with the triumph of the Prussian arms. The British had in the meantime been successful at sea.

6. The succeeding campaign opened upon Frederic with a reverse. The Russians again advanced upon Silesia, and made themselves masters of Frankfort upon the Oder. The Prussian monarch marched against the combined Russian and Austrian force, under General Laudon, which was posted at the village of Cunnersdorf. A most sanguinary battle ensued. Notwithstanding the almost incredible exertions of Frederic, the superior numbers of the Russians and Austrians prevailed, and the Prussians were defeated. At one period of the battle, victory seemed to have declared in favor of Frederic, who at the moment wrote a congratulatory note to his queen, "We have driven the Russians from their intrenchments—expect within two hours to hear of a glorious victory." His triumph was short, and in a few hours another note conveyed to the queen the orders, "Remove the royal family from Berlin—Let the archives be carried to Potsdam—The town may make conditions with the enemy." Yet so skillful were Frederic's manoeuvres, that the Russians did not hazard the attack of Berlin, and he soon appeared again in the field with a formidable force.

7. Meantime, prince Ferdinand, with the British and Hanoverian forces, drew the French into an engagement at Minden, and completely defeated them. A Russian army was to join the Austrians in Silesia. To prevent this junction, was now the object of Frederic, and at Lignitz, he drew the Austrians into a battle, before the arrival of the Russians, and defeated them. The Russians on learning this, repassed the Oder, but sent a strong detachment into Brandenburg, where they joined the Austrians, and made themselves masters of Berlin. Frederic passed into Saxony, and at Torqua defeated the Austrians under marshal Daun. This victory resulted in the recovery of nearly

5. Relate the principal events of the campaign of 1758. or the third. —6. Give a particular account of the battle of Cunnersdorf. Did Frederic give up in discouragement because he was unfortunate? What important event occurred in America this year?—7. What other three battles occurred in Europe? Relate the battle of Minden. Of Lignitz. Of Torqua. What was now Frederic's position?
the whole of Saxony, where the Prussian king established his winter quarters.

8. The death of George II., which occurred at this period, did not affect the relations of England and Prussia. George III. continued in the same line of policy, being determined to preserve his German possessions. A change had taken place in the Spanish councils;—Charles III., brother of the late monarch, Ferdinand VI., having ascended the throne. The success of the British arms in America now caused to be formed a Family Compact between the Bourbon kings of France and Spain; the result of which was war between England and Spain. Portugal became also involved in this war, by refusing to join in the compact against England. The king of Prussia continued the war in Silesia; and his brother, Prince Henry, in Saxony. In 1761 the Russians and Austrians took Berlin. Frederic’s measures were throughout this campaign, wholly defensive. At sea, the British flag was still triumphant. Besides the capture of some vessels, this campaign was signalized by the conquest of Belle-Isle, on the coast of France.

9. A sudden and unexpected event occurred at this time, in the death of Elizabeth, empress of Russia, which relieved Frederic from a dreaded and inveterate enemy. Her nephew, Peter III., succeeded, who allied himself with the hero of Prussia, now called “Frederic the Great.” Russia and Sweden also entered into alliance with him; and the Prussian king found himself at liberty to turn his whole strength against the Austrians. But another revolution occurred in Russia. Peter III. had, by his numerous innovations in the internal administration of his kingdom, as well as by his alliance with Frederic, occasioned great discontent in his empire. Domestic dissenision was added to the evils which surrounded him, and his empress Catharine, headed a conspiracy of the disaffected among the clergy, nobility, and army. Peter was deposed, imprisoned, and probably murdered; and Catharine was invested with the supreme power. She did not, however, resume the policy of Elizabeth, but while she recalled the Russians from the service of Frederic, she preserved the nation in a strict neutrality.

10. Frederic continued the war with increased energy; recovered Silesia, and invaded Bohemia and Franconia. The British had been successful at sea, and in America. Negotiations had been in progress between England, and France and Spain, and a peace was now concluded at Paris. Here was

8. What is here related of England? Of Spain? Between whom was a Family Compact made? What other powers became involved in war? What account can you give of the 5th and 6th campaigns of the seven years’ war?—9. What sovereign of Russia had carried on this war against the Prussians? Give from the side note the succession of Russian sovereigns? When Peter III. succeeded Elizabeth what change occurred in regard to the relations of the northern powers with Prussia? What counter movements took place in the succeeding reign?—10. Who were the parties to the peace of Paris?
A NATION ANNihilated.

ceed to Great Britain, Canada, in its utmost extent, all the
western side of the Mississippi, except New Orleans and its
territories, the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, and Flor-
da.† Great Britain made some concessions to France in the
partition of the West India Islands. Shortly after the conclu-
sion of this treaty, another was made between Prussia, Austria,
and Saxony, at Hubertsburg, which closed the "Seven Years'
War." Silesia was, finally ceded to Prussia; all conquests
were restored, and each power returned to the boundaries it
possessed at the opening of the war. This war had not only
devastated the fair plains of Europe, and drunk the blood of
myriads of her sons, but it had spread destruction through her
dependencies, in Asia and America; thus stretching over more
than half the circuit of the globe. And this destruction of the
human race was made, because monarchs, with already much
more of the world than they could enjoy, coveted still greater
territories; and their thousands tamely followed them to be
slaughtered. In pity to their fate, we forbear to say they de-
served it by their folly.

11. PARTITION OF POLAND.—We have seen how in
Poland the error of electing a foreign monarch had led the way
to a system of foreign interference. Augustus II., elector of
Saxony, had triumphed over Stanislaus Leczinski, by the aid of
Russian and Austrian arms. Still there existed in Poland a
powerful party who deprecated foreign influence, and desired a
Pole for their monarch. On the death of Augustus, Ca-
tharine of Russia turned this sentiment to the advantage of
Stanislaus Poniatowski, a native, whose personal appearance
and prepossessing manners, had procured for him her favor; but
whose character and habits unfit him for the station. He
having been proposed by the empress, to fill the Polish throne,
Russian soldiers, sent to enforce his election, surrounded the
senate-house where the diet was assembled. Malachow-
ski, an aged patriot, and marshal of the last diet, entering the
assembly, where only eight senators out of fifty appeared, ex-
claimed with a loud voice, "since the Russian soldiers hem us
in, I suspend the authority of the diet." The soldiers ordered
him to resign the marshal's staff, and threatened him with ven-
gence. Malachowski intrepidly replied, "You may cut off
my hand, or take my life, but I am marshal, elected by a free
people, and I can only be deposed by a free people—I shall
retire."

1764-5. Catherine forces the Poles to
elect Stanislaus Ponia-
towski.

12. The partisans of Poniatowski, supported by the Russian
arms, proceeded to an illegal election, and the minion of Ca-
tharine was made king. After the coronation, she maintained

10. What were its conditions† What other treaty soon followed† Who
were the parties and what the conditions†—11. What great mistake had
the Polish electors been guilty of† What did it produce† How did Augus-
tus III. prevail over Stanislaus Leczinski† Were all the Poles satisfied† What
was done by the empress of Russia† What was done by the aged
Marshal†—12. Who was made king, and by what means was his election
carried†
an ambassador at Warsaw, by whose means she governed the monarch, 20,000 Russian troops being scattered over the country. The patriots who left Warsaw before the election, had attempted to form confederations in different provinces of the kingdom. They were now permitted to return, and did not immediately offer any opposition to the government. The favor of Catharine was shortly withdrawn from the king of Poland, and she fomented the dissensions which existed between the dissidents (or protestants,) and catholics, until the unhappy nation was involved in the miseries of a civil war. The leading patriots were now arrested by the Russian soldiers, and transported to Siberia. Catharine offered them liberty on condition of their submitting to the authority of Russia, but they all rejected the disgraceful offer with contempt.

13. The Poles next solicited and obtained the aid of the Turks. The Russian empress declared war with the Porto, and her fleet sailed through the Mediterranean to rouse the Greeks to arms, but owing to dissensions among their commanders, nothing decisive was effected. Two Russian armies, however, entered and overran a part of the Turkish dominions. This was discouraging to the Poles, whose army did not exceed 8,000 men, but they had seized the strongest posts among the mountains, and, under their general, PULASKI, kept the field, and occasionally annoyed their enemy. In the following year, the advantages of war still remained with the Russians; and a short period of alternate hope and fear was all that was now allowed for the little band of Polish patriots. They soon learned that a league had been concluded between Maria Theresa of Austria, Catharine of Russia, and Frederic of Prussia; and that these royal thieves had taken the greater part of their country, and divided it among themselves, annexing their several portions to their own dominions. The contemptible Poniatowski, who was entirely under their control, was by them made sovereign of the remainder.

14. Some of the Poles raised their voices against these iniquitous proceedings. The patriot REYTEN, finding that all was lost, was driven by grief to insanity. Protestations were sent to the other powers of Europe, but were unheeded. The patriot chiefs being obliged to flee, Pulaski crossed the ocean, and sacrificed his life in the cause of American independence. The partition of Poland has found no justifiers, even among those who have considered the many wars in which Europe has been involved, as being defensible, on the ground of maintaining the balance of power; a phrase which, as settled by the practices

12. Who was virtually the sovereign of Poland? How were the patriots treated? How was a civil war produced?—13. What occurred with regard to the Turks? What was the situation of the patriots and their leader? Who were the royal robbers here spoken of? What did they take to which they had no right? Who was sovereign of the remainder?—14. What particulars are mentioned of the acts of the patriots? Where was PULASKI killed? (See note.) Has the partition of Poland been justified?
which have grown out of it, seems to mean a combination of a few families, to maintain each other in their hereditary authority; thus making Europe a grand aristocracy, the members of which are called kings instead of nobles. The great plan of Henry IV. of France, had it been established, would not, like the American constitution, have guarantied to the people their rights of self-government, but it would have given them much security against the horrors of war, and saved the blood of countless thousands.

CHAPTER II.

England and France, and their Colonies.

1. THE domestic history of England during the reign of George II., is a catalogue of the political knavery of the minister, Sir Robert Walpole, who made no scruple to spend the public money, and increase the national debt, that he might practice every species of bribery and corruption which was calculated to keep himself in power. At length he became odious to the nation, and changes in the ministry occurred; but the course of politics was not yet reformed. About this period, the war against France, carried on in America, commenced. At first it was managed without spirit or success. At length, to prop up their sinking credit, the ministry called to a seat in the cabinet, William Pitt, a leader in parliament, distinguished for his high powers of eloquence; but to their surprise, they found he had accepted a post of honor to serve his country, and that neither office nor money could tempt him to countenance measures which he did not approve. Rather than do this, he resigned his offices and retired. The nation were clamorous in his praise, and petitioned the king to recall him. Pitt was recalled and made prime minister. From this period, Great Britain rose rapidly. Men were appointed to office, not because they were the creatures of those in power, but because they were suited to the service, and were true friends to their country. France and England during this period, came into collision from difficulties commencing in their distant colonies of India and America.

2. INDIA.—The fabulous computation of time contained in

14. What meaning seems now to attach in Europe, to the phrase, balance of power? What is said of the plan of Henry IV.?

CHAP. II.—Learn from the side note who were the three first sovereigns of the house of Hanover, and the time of the accession of each. What may be said of the domestic history of England at this time? What account can you give of William Pitt? Of the effect of his ministry? In what places did the English and French come into collision?
the sacred books and traditionary accounts of India, go back to ages far beyond those indicated either by Scripture, or by the course of profane history. Then, say they, the immortal gods dwelt on the earth. Their reign was immediately succeeded by a dynasty of mortals descended from the sun, and more remotely by a family from the moon. Krishna, a demi-god, the author of the Vedas and other sacred books, lived in the time of the lunar dynasty. After this they had earth-born kings, of whom Porus was on the throne when Alexander of Macedon invaded India, and Sandroctotus became the ally of Seleucus. Fifty years before Christ, was a reign distinguished as an era, on account of the encouragement given to literature, when nine writers flourished, called "the nine gems," one of whom wrote a lexicon of the language, and another a grammar. At the Christian era, India was divided into four kingdoms, and subsequently into a greater number. In the tenth century the Ghaznevide sultans, supplanted by the Turks, invaded India; and in the next century, Bahram established a kingdom whose seat was Lahore. Jenghiz Khan passed over India, and added it to his conquests.

1206. Sayid Khan.

3. The Mahometan kingdom of Delhi was founded by a Turkish prince, who overthrew the kingdom of Lahore. This empire was subverted by Tamerlane, who took and plundered Delhi. Sayid Khan ruled at first as his viceroy, but soon became independent and founded another Mahometan dynasty, called the Afghaan. Baber is, however, regarded as the founder of the wealthiest, and most powerful dynasty which has ever reigned in India. He was a descendant of Tamerlane, who having been driven from his kingdom at the north, invaded India, expelled the Afghans, and founded the Tartar dynasty of the Great Moguls. Akbar, the grandson of Baber, raised the empire to great prosperity by his wise government and judicious patronage of the arts. In 1600 there were English traders at Surat.

4. Shah Jehan, the successor of Akbar, was governed by the sultana Nourmahal. In 1602, the "Dutch East India Company" was formed. In 1609, Admiral Hawkins, their first envoy, procured for the English Company some important grants. Aureng-Zeb, was noted for his energy and his cruelty. The empire of the Moguls was in his day one of the richest in the

2. What computation of time is found in the sacred books and traditionary accounts of India? What do these say concerning the inhabitants of the earth in that remote antiquity? What is said of Krishna? What of the kings after him? What occurred fifty years before Christ? What at the Christian era respecting the division of India? What occurred in the tenth century? Where did the Ghaznevides establish a kingdom? Who conquered India, and at what time?—3. What empire was founded by a Turkish sovereign? What was done by Tamerlane? By Sayid Khan, and of what dynasty did he become the founder? Give an account of Baber. How did Akbar raise the empire to prosperity? How early do you hear of the English in India, and at what place?—4. What do you learn of Shah Jehan? At what time was the Dutch East India Company formed? What is said of the first English envoy to the court of the Great Mogul?
THE BRITISH EMPIRE IN INDIA.

world; its revenue being £32,000,000. But he persecuted the ancient inhabitants who refused to embrace Mahometanism, and by losing their good will, he lost the cement which bound together the great empire of the Moguls; and after his death, one province after another fell away from his successors. Their indolence was taxed with the loss of their power by the nabobs, on whom they devoted their duties; and in a few years, the Grand Mogul was but a state-puppet, moving as he was moved. At this time India was invaded by the powerful Nadir Shah of Persia, who took Delhi, and carried away a great booty in money and jewels.

5. The Mahottas, an active and energetic people, heretofore but little known, conquered, in 1668, a part of the Deccan, and, under Sevaje, established a kingdom. This kingdom they continued to extend during the next century. The French, under Labourdonnais, governor of the isle of France, made an attack on the English trading settlement at Madras, and took the place, but restored it at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. The French having possession of Pondicherry, Dupleix, its commander, seeing the divided state of the country, attempted, by taking part with one of two rivals, to seize the Deccan as if for the other, but in reality for the French East India Company. The other party was Mahomet Ali, who appealed to the English. The French had the advantage, until Clive, who came from England as a clerk, having manifested military talent, was made a captain. He took Arcot, and won the battle of Arni; after which a truce was made.

6. The English at Calcutta, were now suddenly attacked by Surajah Dowlah, the sovereign of the province of Bengal, at the head of 50,000 men. The governor vainly resisted, and then escaped on shipboard, leaving behind two hundred of the garrison. These were confined in a room not twenty feet square, in a hot night in June, with no water, and scarcely a breath of air. In vain they shrieked, for the tyrant had no pity. In this “Black Hole of Calcutta,” one hundred and eighty men died in the course of the night. India has paid dearly for this cruelty. The Company at Madras sent Clive at the head of a small army, who retook Calcutta, and reduced Surajah to terms. The seven years’ war now breaking out, the French were again active and Surajah united with them. Clive met his army at Plassey, and with only 1,000 English, and 3,000 natives, defeated 70,000. Surajah was taken and put to death, and the British became virtually masters of his territory. Thus began the British empire in India. Its permanence was secured when the British having increased their conquests, the Great Mogul...
or emperor, granted them at the peace of Allahabad, the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa.

7. The English came into collision with Hyder Ali, a powerful chief, who had founded the new kingdom of Mysore. In 1773 parliament sent Mr. Warren Hastings, as governor-general over the provinces of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. Soon after this, the French settlements at Pondicherry and elsewhere, were taken by the English, and Hyder Ali, who had ravaged the Carnatic, was completely defeated by Sir Eyre Coote. Hyder was succeeded by his son, Tipoo Saib. The English, though he long resisted, at length defeated him; and driving him into Seringapatam, his capital, they took it by storm; he bravely losing his life in its defense. His immense treasures, and his territory, became the prey of the conquerors. Warren Hastings was accused of mal-practices and recalled to England, where he was impeached by the eloquent Edmund Burke; and being tried before parliament, he was defended by the idol of the whig party, Charles James Fox, the witty Sheridan, and others. The trial lasted eight years, and the accused was finally acquitted. William Pitt, the younger, now prime minister of England, proposed, and carried through parliament an improved system of government for British India, under the direction of a "Board of Control."

8. AMERICA.—We have seen that the English discovered in America the Atlantic coast; the French, the St. Lawrence and its waters, and afterwards the upper Mississippi. That discovery gave the right of soil none disputed; but the boundaries of the countries claimed on account of these discoveries, were wholly indefinite, and each nation was ambitious of possessing large territories. Hence, they took care in granting the letters patent to their subjects, who were disposed to colonize the country, to make their claims sufficiently extensive. Thus several of the English patents which bounded east on the Atlantic, gave the patentees the country as far west as the Pacific; while the French, in some instances, gave patents running from the St. Lawrence, indefinitely, south. While the settlements kept along the shore of the ocean, and the valley of the St. Lawrence, they caused no dispute; but now the English, having extended themselves to the west, and the French to the south, their claims interfered. The English jealousy was also awakened by finding a line of posts extending from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to that of the Mississippi, projected and partly

7. What is said respecting Hyder Ali? Respecting the French? Respecting Tipoo Saib? Warren Hastings? Who impeached him? Who defended? Learn from the side note what formed the capital article in his impeachment. What bill did Mr. Pitt procure to be passed?—8. What have you learned from the previous history concerning the English and French discoveries? What right was supposed to be given by discovery? What source of contention existed with regard to boundaries? What kind of patents were granted by the English? By the French? What circumstances alarmed the English with regard to the great extent of the French claims in America?
MAJOR WASHINGTON.

made by the French; which, if completed, would establish their authority over the great valley of the west. This was pompously exhibited in the large maps of De Lisle, the royal geographer, as a part of New France. By these maps, the Alleghany mountains were removed from their place, and set near the Atlantic; the strip of land between them and the ocean, being all that was allowed to belong to the English; while New France stretched, in grand letters, from the mouth of the St. Lawrence to that of the Mississippi. The valley of the Mobile was also claimed by France, a settlement having been made at its mouth by Canadian French, under Le Moine d' Iberville.

9. Determined to resist these claims, the English parliament granted to a company of gentlemen, mostly in Virginia, of whom Lawrence Washington was one, 600,000 acres of land, on or near the Ohio river. "The Ohio Company" sent their agents to take possession of the territory. The Marquis du Quesne, governor of Canada, first threatened, and next seized and imprisoned those who had erected trading-houses on these lands. Dinwiddie, the English governor of Virginia, sent, though in the dead of winter, a young officer of twenty-two, across the wilderness of the Alleghany mountains, to bear despatches to the French commandant. This young man was George Washington, destined to become the "Father of his Country," and one of the chief lights of history. Major Washington fulfilled his trust, by conveying to the French commandant in the vicinity of lake Erie, Dinwiddie's summons to quit the territory. The French not obeying this mandate, Dinwiddie sent Washington, with a regiment, to enforce it. Although his conduct was gallant, his force was inferior, and he was unsuccessful. The French now proceeded to the erection of a fort at the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers; to which they gave the name of Du Quesne.

10. The British cabinet recommended to the colonies to cultivate friendship with the most powerful tribes of the savages, and to form a union among themselves. Accordingly, a Congress of delegates from the colonies of New England, met at Albany, with those from New York, Maryland, and Pennsylvania; and on the 4th of July, 1754, Benjamin Franklin, of Pennsylvania, drew up a plan of union, which being approved by the congress, copies were transmitted to the several colonial governments, and to the court of Great Britain. It suited not the...
colonies, because it granted too much power to the crown; it suited not the English ministry, because it gave too little, and it was mutually rejected. Thus was tested that inherent difference of opinion between the colonies and mother country, on matters of government, which eventually separated them.

11. The course of history has led us to remark from what quarters the opposition to arbitrary power had originated in Europe; and it is curious to observe, that it was precisely from those quarters that these colonies were originally peopled. It was when the despotic proceedings of James I. and Charles I. had roused the patriots of England to assert their rights, that some, unwilling to make disturbance in their native land, and yet determined to enjoy their civil and religious rights, found a home on the rude coasts of New England. Just after the Dutch had resisted the tyranny of Spain, nobly contending for liberty, colonies from Holland came and settled on the banks of the Hudson. When the protestants of France strove for freedom from the civil oppression and religious persecutions of the Guises and Bourbons, they made settlements in the south; and when episcopacy took the rod of persecution from the catholics, in the days of Charles I., the peaceful Calvert, (Lord Baltimore,) came with a colony, and found a refuge where the city now stands which bears his name.

12. Arrived in America, almost every man was an agriculturist;—not poor, for he lived on his own domain, and acknowledged no other lord of his land, than the Lord of the whole earth; yet he was obliged to be industrious to live, and to be watchful and valiant, to escape the terrible savage who ambushed his path and his dwelling. Thus the infant principles of manly independence found a home in America, and thus were they schooled to a vigorous maturity. The court of Great Britain had, on various occasions, seen them manifested, much to their annoyance. They had allowed at first, without suspicion of the consequences, the free, and equal citizens of the new world to form confederacies, on the simple principles of natural justice, of equal rights, and mutual defence. The offices of the country were not then marks for ambition, but posts of difficulty and danger; reluctantly, in most instances, accepted, and gladly relinquished.

13. At length, under James II., the court of Great Britain having grown jealous, interfered, and sent Sir Edmund Andros over as governor-general of the offending provinces. And after the change in the government of Massachusetts, made by William III., it was enjoined upon the colonies to compensate the

10. In the colonies? What was tested by this?—11. What have we been led to remark? What is said of the English? The Dutch? The French? The protestants and the catholics?—12. What was the condition of the early settlers? What principles had thus found a home and been matured? How was the court of Great Britain affected by them? How was it with the offices of the country?—13. Give an account of the measures taken by the British court to repress an independent spirit.
services of the royal governor. This was a source of disaffection; but the colonists proportioning their pay of the royal officers, to their opinion of their good behavior, still ordered political affairs much in their own way. The English next instructed their governors to demand fixed salaries. This, the unyielding spirit of the colonial assembly would never grant; and Massachusetts thenceforth became an object of special dislike to the British government. Such was the character of the men who met at Albany, in July 1754; and whom, not even the pressure of a coming war, and an exterminating savage enemy, could induce to frame a government acceptable to the court of Great Britain. That nation, however, felt that the colonies were her own. GENERAL BRaddock was accordingly dispatched to Virginia with 1500 men,—which reinforced by the colonial militia, under Washington, proceeded through the desert to attack fort Du Quesne. The British general, ignorant of the terrible character of the American savage as a foe, and rejecting all advice from the colonial commander, fell into an ambush, and was slaughtered with more than half his army. The colonists alone retreated in order from the field, under the conduct of the intrepid Washington,—who on the day of the battle had four bullets lodged in his clothes, and was the only officer on horseback who escaped unhurt.

14. In the meantime, the French had sent out the BARON DIESKU with a formidable force. He advanced from Montreal by the way of the lakes Champlain and George, to attack fort Edward, on the Hudson. Here the colonial forces under generals JOHNSON and LYMAN, met and defeated his army with the loss of 1,000 men; among whom was Dieskau himself. These operations in America were one of the moving causes of the "Seven Years' War" declared in 1756; in which, as we have seen, England united with Prussia against France and her allies. In 1757, COLONEL MONROE, a British officer, was besieged in fort William Henry by the MARQUIS MONTCALM, at the head of 9,000 men. Monroe capitulated, but had not yet left the fort, from which he was guarantied a safe conduct, when a massacre was begun by the Indians in Montcalm's army, which he could not, or would not restrain. No pen can describe the horrors of that midnight butchery; where the sick, the wounded, men, women, and infants, all bled beneath the tomahawk and the scalping-knife.

15. George II., now aroused in earnest, and recalling Pitt, made him prime minister. He sent out, in a fleet commanded by ADMIRAL Boscawen, a reinforcement of 14,000 men, under the command of GENERAL AMHERST. These, together with the British and colonial forces already in America, made 50,000
1759. Ticonderoga, Crown Point, and Niagara taken. (Prideaux killed at Niagara.)

Heights of Abraham. Wolfe defeats the French, and Quebec surrenders.

1764. Lord Grenville. (His ministry continues from 1763-65.)

Stamp Act to go into effect Nov. 1.

15. What had been done in the preceding war respecting Louisburg? What was done in 1758? What are the other principal events of this campaign?—16. What was done by general Amherst? What by general Prideaux? What is here said of James Wolfe? Give some account of his operations. Relate the battle of the Heights of Abraham. What were its results?—17. Relate the first attempt in the British parliament to tax America. Give an account of the Stamp Act.
ricans regarded this as an attempt to take from them their just rights. Most of the colonies elected delegates, who met in congress in the city of New York. In a formal "Declaration of Rights," the congress asserted that they were entitled to all the rights and privileges of natural born subjects of Great Britain,—in particular, that of not being taxed except by their own representatives. They prepared a dutiful address to the king, and petitions to both houses of parliament. A systematic and uniform opposition was made to the Stamp Act. The people not only refused to purchase the stamps, but so treated those who took the offices of distributors, that they were forced to resign.

18. The English government, thus foiled, changed their ministry and repealed the Stamp Act; but parliament declared their right to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever." A new project for taxation was soon got up, with the apprehension of sending troops over to enforce it. Duties were laid on tea, &c. Tea was sent over,—and at Boston, men, armed and disguised, went at night and threw the cargoes of three vessels into the sea,—for which parliament shut up their port by law, and sent over General Gage with an army. Non-importation agreements were entered into by all the colonies.

19. Gen. Gage had been sent to Massachusetts in the spirit of hostility to that province. The people viewed his movements with jealousy and alarm; and preparing to resist, had collected warlike stores in different places. In an attempt of the British troops to take possession of the magazines at Concord, in the neighborhood of Boston, hostilities commenced, and the first blood was shed. The militia rose, and although they could not prevent the destruction of the stores, yet they drove the British back to their strongholds in Boston, with loss. But this first blood was like the spark which ignites the magazine. The indignant country took arms; and in a few weeks twenty thousand militia were assembled in the neighborhood of Boston. The British army was largely reinforced by troops under General Howe.

20. The "Continental Congress" assembled at Philadelphia. They took measures to raise men and money, and conferred the command of their armies on Washington. The militia, to drive the British troops from Boston, took, in the night, possession of Bunker's Hill, a position which commanded the town. As soon as they were perceived, General Gage sent a force to drive them from the entrenchments which they were throwing...
THE BRITISH EVACUATE BOSTON.

up. Under cover of their ships lying in the harbor, and of the flames of Charlestown, which they had fired, three thousand of the British troops ascended the hill and attacked the Americans, who were commanded by Colonel Prescott. The result of the day was honorable to the republicans, although, from the failure of ammunition, they were obliged to retire.

21. Gen. Montgomery and Col. Arnold were despatched at the head of separate armies for the conquest of Canada. Montreal, and the fortress of St. John surrendered to Montgomery Advancing down the St. Lawrence,—at Quebec, he met Arnold, who had taken the direct route through the woods. In the depth of winter their joint forces attacked that fortress;—Montgomery fell, and the enterprise failed.

22. Washington, at the head of a formidable force, had, the preceding season, appeared before Boston,—taken possession of the adjacent heights, and invested the British forces. He continued the siege through the winter, and on the 17th of March, Gage was forced to evacuate the town. The enemy, taking to their shipping, commenced a marauding warfare, and burnt Falmouth, Bristol, and other towns on the sea-board. Washington entered Boston in triumph; but he afterwards established his head quarters at New York,—stationing a part of the army, under generals Putnam and Sullivan, at Brooklyn.

20. Relate that battle.—21. Relate the attempt upon Canada.—22. The operations in and about Boston. What was done on the 17th of March? What afterwards, by the British? What was done by Washington?
PERIOD VII.

FROM

THE DECLARATION BY 1776. OF AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE,

TO

THE CORONATION 1804. OF NAPOLEON.

CHAPTER 1.

Republic of America after the Declaration of Independence, to the adoption of the Federal Constitution.

1. The 4th of July, 1776, is the birth day of our Republic; which is remarkable, not only as the oldest civilized nation of the western continent, but for the extent of its territory, the rapid increase of its population and resources, and especially for its political institutions, which have exhibited, in practice, a government of natural justice, and equal rights, heretofore regarded but as the vision of the enthusiast. On that memorable day, the American congress, still environed with difficulties, took, with solemnity, the bold measure of declaring that "America was, and of right ought to be, FREE and INDEPENDENT." The most disastrous defeat of the war followed hard upon this declaration. That division of the army commanded by Sullivan, on Long Island, was surprised and defeated with great loss. Washington, threatened in New York, retreated into the interior. The British generals, Howe and Clinton, followed him to White Plains, where an indecisive engagement took place. But at Fort Washington, which was commanded by
Col. Magaw, the British took the fort with 2,000 prisoners. Howe was now commander-in-chief of the British forces.

2. The garrison of Fort Lee evacuated that post, and, under Greene, joined the desponding army of Washington, who crossed the Hudson, and retreated into New Jersey, his forces greatly reduced, and in want of almost everything necessary for a winter’s campaign. He continued to retreat before his victorious enemy, who tracked his bare-footed army by their blood left on the projections of the frozen ground, till he had crossed the Delaware into Pennsylvania. On the stormy night of the 26th of December, Washington re-crossed the Delaware amidst floating ice, and attacked 1,000 Hessians stationed at Trenton, and made them prisoners. Then eluding the pursuit of the British army, he fell upon, and surprised another division stationed at Princeton. These brilliant successes, following such a train of misfortunes, like a sudden light amidst darkness, revived the drooping spirits of the Americans. They were cheered also, by the arrival of the young and generous La Fayette, who had left, in France, all that, to an ordinary mind, makes existence desirable, and brought to lay upon the altar of right and justice, his life, his exertions, and his fortune. Washington received, and ever loved him as a son.

3. France, Spain, and Holland, now began to regard the cause of America with favor; and negotiations were commenced with these powers. General Howe, approaching Philadelphia by the way of the Chesapeake, defeated Washington at the Brandywine on the 11th of September, and entered the city. He was again successful at Germantown on the 4th of October. Gen. Burgoyne, with a formidable army, made up of British regulars, and Indian and Hessian allies, had made a descent from Canada. He opened a communication above Lake Champlain, and took Ticonderoga. General Fraser, who was despatched in pursuit of the flying garrison, came up with their rear at Hubbardton, and after a sanguinary conflict, the British obtained their last victory in that quarter. Shortly after this battle, Colonels Baum and Breymen were detached by Burgoyne, with a corps of Hessians, in search of provisions, and ordered to advance upon Bennington. They were met near that place by General Stark, a militia officer, and totally defeated. After encountering severe losses, and great hardships, Burgoyne arrived at Stillwater, upon the Hudson. Here a battle occurred, in which he was defeated by the Americans, under General

2. What was done by general Greene? Relate the situation and movements of Washington and his army. Did he sit down in despondency? (See for an answer what he did on the cold and stormy night of the 26th of December, and ten days afterwards.) What change in the tone of public feeling is noticed? What arrival of a foreigner added to the public satisfaction? What foreign nations now began to regard favorably the American cause? Relate the successes of the British in Pennsylvania? Begin the history of Burgoyne’s invasion. Relate the battle of Hubbardton. Of Bennington. Of Stillwater. Of Saratoga. What important event followed the battle of Saratoga?
REVOLUTIONARY WAR CONTINUES.

GATES. The British commander found retreat impossible, and on the 17th of October, he was compelled to surrender his whole army prisoners of war. This expedition cost the British, in killed, wounded, deserters and prisoners, an army of 9,000 men. It inspired the Americans, and disposed the European nations to favor their cause; and a treaty of alliance with France was entered into on the 6th of February, 1778.

4. Washington being now re-inforced, compelled SIR HENRY CLINTON, who had succeeded Howe, to evacuate Philadelphia; and pursuing him on his retreat, he came up with him, and defeated him at Monmouth. Clinton now turned his chief attention to the conquest of the southern states. He sent a detachment of troops under COLONEL CAMPELL, who, on the 29th of December, took Savannah; the garrison and stores falling into his hands. The British authority was now extended over Georgia. To Charleston, in South Carolina, Washington had sent GENERAL LINCOLN to the aid of GOVERNOR RUTLEDGE. In April, Clinton, with a force of about eight thousand men, laid siege to it, and on the 12th of May, the city was surrendered, with the artillery and garrison. Clinton organized a royal government for Carolina; and distributed 4,000 troops in different garrisons; then leaving LORD CORNWALLIS in command, he returned to his head quarters in New York.

5. General Gates being sent to stop the progress of the British army in the South, was defeated at Camden by lord Cornwallis. The BARON DE KALB, a gallant German volunteer in the American army, was slain. After this disaster, GENERAL GREENE was appointed to the command of the southern armies. At Guilford, he skilfully contended with Cornwallis, and though not victorious, he retired from the field in good order. Cornwallis retreated into Virginia, leaving LORD RAWDON in Carolina to sustain the royal cause, now on the decline. Becoming discouraged with fatigue, loss of health, and the obloquy he had incurred by the execution of COLONEL HAYNE, a native Carolinian, Rawdon returned to England; when the command devolved on COLONEL STUART. Greene, in the meantime, having improved the discipline of his troops, sought the enemy, and fought and defeated him at Eutaw Springs.

6. On leaving the Carolinas, lord Cornwallis entered Virginia, threatening chastisement to "the boy." So he termed La Fayette, who, having been by Congress made a major general, now commanded the small body of American forces assigned for the defence of that state. But he showed himself a veteran

3. What great results were produced by this signal success?—4. Who had succeeded Howe in command? What was he compelled to do? Relate the battle of Monmouth? What occurred on the 29th of December? Relate the capture of Charleston. The subsequent arrangements of Clinton. —6. What is here said of general Gates? Relate the battle of Camden. As Gates was unsuccessful, who was sent in his place? Relate the battle of Guilford Court House. What change of commandants occurred in South Carolina? Relate the battle of Eutaw Springs. —6. What occurred in Virginia?
in courage and skill; not only eluding the pursuit of the British general, but finding means to harrass his outposts incessantly, and to hold him in check, until the plans forming by Washington for his destruction, should be matured.

7. Washington had, by a well managed feint, deceived Sir Henry Clinton into the belief that New York was his designated point of attack. Admiral de Grasse, with a formidable French fleet, was ordered to block up York river, so as to prevent reinforcements reaching Cornwallis who was posted at Yorktown. In the meantime, the American commander, having formed a junction with a French army, which had arrived the year before, under Count Rochambeau, arrived, by forced marches, at Yorktown, and invested the British army by land. Cornwallis made vigorous efforts to extricate himself, but in vain. The chivalry of America and France were upon him, each vying with the other in feats of intrepidity. The British general had sustained himself in the belief, that timely succor would arrive from New York. This hope now failed him; and to prevent a general assault from the combined French and American armies, who had already destroyed his defences, he offered terms of capitulation. On the 19th of October, 1781, the army, consisting of 7,000 men, were surrendered to the Americans; and the fleet, consisting of two frigates and twenty transports, with their convoys, to the French.

8. Thus ended the active operations of the most disastrous war in which England was ever engaged. That nation even for a time lost her wonted ascendency on the ocean. The fleets of France and Spain sustained themselves with bravery, in many conflicts; and the province of Florida, which Great Britain had received from Spain in 1763, was retaken by that power. A war so wholly unsuccessful and disastrous, drew upon the English ministry a large share of public odium. They were assailed by the press, and by the people at large; and compelled to resign. A new ministry was formed, of men favorable to Great Britain’s acknowledging American Independence, since her efforts to hinder it had, though attended with so much expense, proved unavailing. This was therefore done by the treaty of Paris, Sept. 3d, 1783. By this treaty, Great Britain lost Tobago and Senegal, ceded to France; Minorca and Florida, ceded to Spain; and the United States of America, made independent. But she, as has been related, had gained an empire in India.

9. The British armies having been withdrawn, those of the United States were disbanded; not, however, without danger to the peace and liberty of the country. This danger Wash-
mston quelled by his influence,—frowning with severe disdain on intimations of making him a king. He then presented his accounts to congress, detailing with exactness his expenditures; but refusing for his personal services to accept anything, either for himself or his relatives. Having resigned his offices, and given a farewell embrace to his officers, he retired to the seclusion of a happy home. The articles of Confederation, which had bound the states in war, were now inadequate to their government. A convention met, and made Washington its president; when the present constitution of the Republic was framed. It was adopted; and Washington was unanimously chosen to be "the first in peace," as he had been "the first in war." John Adams was elected vice president, Thomas Jefferson was appointed secretary of state. The revenue was committed to Alexander Hamilton; and the system established by him, has not been essentially departed from. Washington and Adams were the second time elected president and vice president. Political parties began to assume a character of great bitterness,—the terms federal and republican becoming the party names. Distinguished men arrayed themselves at the head of each; and English and French politics were adopted, the first by the federal, the last by the republican party. Washington maintained a neutral position, but his paternal heart was grieved at the acrimonious dissensions of his political family.

10. A dispute arose between Great Britain and the Republic. The Americans, being neutral in the European war, had supplied the French with corn. Orders were issued by the British ministry to search, seize, and detain all American vessels engaged in that trade. The British also continued to occupy a chain of forts on the northern frontier, which, by the treaty of Paris, they had agreed to surrender,—where they sheltered the Indians who depredated on the United States. Gen Wayne was at this period sent against the savages, who had defeated the Americans, under St. Clair and Harmar. Wayne reduced them to order. The American government considered the British as implicated in the conduct of the savages. They laid an embargo of thirty days on all English shipping in their ports. But the points in dispute being submitted to negotiation, Mr. Jay was sent over,—who returned with a treaty of commerce, which, despite popular clamor, was ratified by the president and senate.

9. How did Washington treat intimations to make him a king? What did he in respect to his accounts? To offers of reward for his personal services? What next is related of him? What is said of the articles of Confederation? What was done by a convention of delegates? When did the new constitution go into effect, and who was the first president? Who was the first vice president? What is said of Thomas Jefferson? Of Alexander Hamilton?—10. What causes of dispute arose between Great Britain and the United States? What is said of the savages? How were the disputes with England settled?
CHAPTER II.

The French Revolution.

1. All the nations who had been engaged in the "Seven Years' War," found themselves, at its termination, suffering under the burden of grievous taxes. France had, however, suffered the most severely; and was, at the close of the contest, in a state of the most lamentable depression. The evils of the long continued wars in which this nation had been engaged during the reigns of Louis XIV. and Louis XV., had been developed, and the finances of the kingdom were in a state of irretrievable disorder and confusion. The reign of Louis XV. is especially signalized as an era of profligacy and corruption. This licentious monarch suffered his councils to be guided by abandoned women;—the treasures of his suffering people were lavished at their bidding, and offices disposed of, as their avarice or caprice might dictate. The marriage of Louis, the dauphin, with the arch-duchess of Austria, Marie Antoinette, was celebrated with great pomp; and for a time withdrew the minds of the peasantry from the sense of their sufferings. But they had been ground down to abject poverty, by oppressive taxation, and were subjected to arbitrary imprisonment.

2. The parliament of Paris had acquired power, and now exhibited a determined opposition to the court. The middle class had become enlightened, but many of them had unfortunately imbibed from Voltaire, Rousseau, and others, opinions hostile to religion and morality. The American revolution had been favorably regarded, and Franklin was received and honored at the court of Louis, and the principles of rational liberty, which the American patriots advocated, were embraced even by some among the nobility; and La Fayette and others left their country to aid them in the struggle. France, at length, though she could ill afford it, gave the national support to America, and thus became involved in a war with Great Britain. Louis XVI. made fruitless attempts to improve his finances, and ameliorate the condition of his people. The national debt amounted to the enormous sum of 6,000,000,000 of livres! The minister, Calonne, in order to relieve the government of its embarrassments, proposed to levy a tax upon the privileged orders. The nation, knowing the liberty of America and England, and chafed at its own degradation, demanded loudly that their national le-
DESTRUCTION OF THE BASTILLE.

Legislature, called the States General, should again be called. The court feared to do; and the minister convened the Notables, an assembly selected from the higher classes. This assembly saw not, that they stood upon a volcano ready to explode; and they refused to be taxed. On the 13th of July, 1788, as the harvest was nearly ready for the sickle, occurred a dreadful storm of hail, lightning, wind, and rain. Some of the hailstones weighed ten ounces; and the people, beat to the earth as they were going to church, lay prostrate,—believing that the end of the world had come. Their harvest,—their vines and fruit trees were all destroyed. The succeeding winter was severe,—famine came upon the miserable population, and there was a ferocity in their murmurs which terrified the court. The king, by the advice of Neckar, then in the ministry, convoked the States General.

3. Their deputies met at Versailles on the 5th of May, 1789. The commons, or third estate, who in former times had been governed by the two other orders, the clergy and noblesse, now manifested an independent spirit; and even when the king came to address them, they covered their heads in ominous disrespect. The three estates had formerly sat in different chambers. Now the commons, on meeting, refused to proceed to business until joined by the other orders. Against the threats of the king, and the opposition of the aristocracy, the commons, at the head of whom was Mirabeau, carried the point of consolidating the assembly in one chamber; but the clergy united with them treacherously; that they might help them do their worst, that so they should the sooner ruin themselves. The deputies gave themselves the title of the "National Assembly."

4. Louis had dismissed Neckar, and a new minister ordered a corps of foreign troops to advance towards Versailles and Paris,—these places having declared for the assembly; which was now engaged in making for France a free constitution. Jealous for the rights of their legislature, all Paris flew to arms. The "National Guard" was formed. They assembled with the citizens at the Bastile; and that gloomy prison, where so many innocent victims of royal caprice and tyranny had been immured, was levelled with the ground. Two days after this event La Fayette was made commander of the National Guard. The assembly demanded the dismissal of the foreign troops. The minister retained them. When Louis was informed of the cause

2. What was the feeling and voice of the nation? By what measure did the minister seek to avert this, and what was its result? What occurred on the 13th of July, 1788? What was the cause, and what were the consequences of the lamíné? When and where did the assembly meet? What was the bearing of the third estate? What point did they make and how succeed in carrying it? Who was the leader, or head of the commons? What, according to M. Thiers, was the object of the clergy in consenting to sit in the room with the commons? What was the assembly engaged in doing? What military corps was formed? By whom did the people fear that the assembly would be overawed, and what did they do? What day was the Bastile destroyed, and what occurred two days after?
of the excitement and agitation, all of which had been concealed from him, he visited the assembly, threw himself upon its protection and ordered the retreat of the troops. He next visited Paris, where he was received with demonstrations of attachment; which he strengthened by confirming the appointments made by the assembly.

5. The king and royal family gave a splendid fete at Versailles, on the first day of October. This was told to mothers, whose children were suffering with famine; and on the morning of the fifth, a multitude of women in Paris rose, and set up the cry of bread! bread! and demanded to be led to Versailles. The rising became general, and arms were seized. La Fayette, unable to stop the mob, accompanied them to Versailles, at the head of the national guards. The women went first—the crowd surrounded the palace; the king appeared, and gratified them by promising to go to Paris. The queen was menaced during the day; but at evening, though the mob were at Versailles, all seemed quiet. This, La Fayette reported to the king and queen, urging, however, the placing within the palace of additional guards. The queen refused;—blindly distrusting him. He then retired for a short repose. During the last hours of the night, some of the more violent of the mob found an unguarded entrance into the palace,—sought the queen’s apartment, and would have murdered her, had she not escaped to another. La Fayette, informed of these disorders, which would have been prevented, had he been permitted to station the guards within the palace, threw himself among the infuriated mob, and saved the body guard, whom they were about to massacre. He next sought the queen—persuaded her to go with him to the balcony, where he bowed to her, and kissed her hand with profound respect; and the changeful multitude seeing his devotion, shouted “Vive la Reine.” The royal family removed to Paris; the National Assembly followed; and its presence, with the exertions of La Fayette, for a time calmed the tumults of the populace, and restored a temporary quiet to the city.

6. In the National Assembly were men of noble motives, and disinterested conduct; but while they proceeded with the work of uprooting ancient usages, they sometimes destroyed too unsparingly the good with the bad. The remains of the old feudal system were cleared away; the lands belonging to the religious houses were converted to the use of the nation; and the estates of those who fled from France on the repeal of the edict of Nantes, were ordered to be restored. With the vast landed property of the church, which fell under the control of
the assembly, and with the confiscated domains of the emigrant
nobility, they constituted a fund for the national use; and on
this basis, issued their paper securities, which passed current,
and received the name of assignats. But while the assembly
was laboring to complete the constitution, the king assenting
to their acts, various counter movements were in operation. Marie
Antoinette neither loved nor trusted the French people. While
this beautiful and accomplished woman was the idol of the court,
she was censured by the nation for her extravagance and levity;
and charged with more crimes than she had committed. The
true daughter of Maria Theressa, she would, if left to herself, have
opposed the revolution by energetic measures. The nobility
had, in many cases, emigrated, and stirred up foreign princes
against the reformers. The court saw that the tide had become
too strong for them to cope with, and they, desirous to escape,
were in correspondence with the emperor of Austria, and ex-
pected an armed force to come to their assistance. The catholic
clergy were seeking at home, by base means, to destroy the
new order of things. On the other hand, among the revolu-
tionists, clubs were formed, among which was that of the Jaco-
bins, who stirred up the people to censure the measures of the
new government, as too moderate, and too lenient to the prin-
ciples of monarchy.

7. Meantime the crowned heads of Europe, alarmed at the
prevalence of principles which tended to disorganize their own
states, now threatened to interfere for the purpose of restoring
the authority of Louis. On the north an Austrian army was
approaching France, commanded by the duke of Brunswick.
It was soon known that its object was to afford protection to
the royal family, who escaped at night from Paris. Incensed
at their distrust and intention of joining their enemies, the peo-
ple pursued,—arrested the royal fugitives at Varennes, and car-
rried them back to the capital. The sense of personal danger
arising from the near approach of a hostile army, with whom
their own sovereigns were in league, roused up the people
to an agony which led to horrid deeds. Paris became a
scene of tumult and uproar, and the whole kingdom was con-
vulsed. In the assembly, violent discussions arose. Some
maintained, that Louis had, by his flight, abdicated the throne;
and the more violent demanded his execution. The new con-
stitution being completed, September 29th, 1791, the Constituent
Assembly declared its business accomplished; and not only dis-
solved, but decreed, with more magnanimity than wisdom, that
no member of its own body should be eligible to a re-election.

6. What movements counter to the National Assembly emanated from
the court? What from the nobility? What from the clergy? What
among the revolutionists?—7. What danger threatened the revolutionists
from the surrounding kings? What armed force was on the north? For
what purpose did it approach the confines of France, and what was done by
the royal family? What was the result of this attempt to escape? What
was done by the National Constituent Assembly?
8. Deputies being chosen, the "Legislative Assembly," composed of men ignorant and violent, convened October 14th. Roland was now minister of the interior, and Dumourier for foreign affairs. Francis II., emperor of Austria, imperatively demanded the restoration of the old order of things, and was preparing to enforce his demand by the sword. On the 20th of March, the assembly declared war against him. Maret of Rochambeau, La Fayette, and Luckner, commanded the French armies; but after an unsuccessful invasion of Belgium, they were driven back, and the Austrians took the offensive. Their want of success is ascribed to the malignity of the faction in the army which were opposed to the Assembly. La Fayette was at the head of the party, in favor of a constitutional monarchy. He wrote to the Legislative Assembly, finding it departing from first principles. Members threatened his life, when suddenly he appeared at the bar of the house. He conjured the deputies to respect the constitution, and warned them of the danger arising from the Jacobin chiefs. He also appealed to the national guards, by whom he was greatly beloved. The court, which he wished to save, unhappily still distrusted him; and thus, themselves defeated his measures for their preservation; and La Fayette returned in despair to the army.

9. Prussia had joined Austria, and the combined army, amounting to 115,000 men, advanced and entered the French territory; when the duke of Brunswick published a manifesto, threatening the assembly with the loss of their heads, and all Paris with destruction, if the slightest insult was offered to the royal family. Such insults had already been offered. The revolutionists grew frantic. Destruction must be done—a work, and they naturally sought to screen themselves, by turning it upon their enemies, domestic and foreign. In Paris all was uproar and agitation. The tocsin was sounded, the drums beat, and armed men assembled, organized and united; and early in the morning they besieged the Tuileries. Louis with his family, once more beheld its beautiful garden, as they passed to enter the house of deputies, and claim the protection of the assembly. After the king left the palace, the rioters massacred the Swiss guards. They then surrounded the assembly, which yielding to their demands, passed a vote to dethrone the king. The Luxembourg was first assigned him as his residence; thence he was transferred, a prisoner, to the Temple.

10. After these events, La Fayette, ever true to constitutional liberty, seeing that it could no longer be maintained, attempted,
EXECUTION OF LOUIS XVI.

The combined army made themselves masters of Longwy and Verdun. The commune of Paris, when informed of this, gave orders for the general massacre of the royalists. About three hundred murderers were employed in the horrid service, and three days were devoted to the inhuman butchery. The assembly and the ministry attempted in vain to arrest the massacre; the soldiers who guarded the prisons were unable to afford their unhappy inmates relief. The Legislative Assembly closed their career, and were succeeded by an assembly still more violent, called the "National Convention." The regal power was declared to be abolished and a republic established. Violent contests occurred in the assembly between the factions of the Gironde and the Mountain; the former reproached the massacre, and wished to save the king,—the latter gloried in their deeds of blood, and determined to destroy not only the king, but all persons who were opposed to their own violent measures. The Jacobins prevailed. Louis was tried, condemned, and on the twenty-fifth of January he was brought to the guillotine, an innocent victim of the crimes of his predecessors.

12. The execution of the king rendered parties irreconcilable, and called down upon the nation the vengeance of monarchical Europe. England put forth her energies, and through her money and influence The First Coalition was formed against France, in which all the European powers united, except Sweden, Denmark and Turkey. Before the trial of Louis, Dumourier had been placed at the head of the French armies, and sent against the Prussians. At Valmy he obtained some advantage, and the Prussians retreated. The French next recovered Verdun and Longwy, and finally achieved the conquest of Belgium. Dumourier now invaded Holland, took Breda and Gruydenberg, but was recalled to the command in Belgium, where the Austrians had, in their turn, been successful. He hazarded an engagement at Neer-Winden, and was defeated.

10. What was the course pursued by La Fayette when a peaceful revolution changed to violence and outrage? Give an account of the principal parties in France.—11. When informed that danger was threatening Paris, by the approach and success of the invading army, what horrid massacre was perpetrated? What contention arose among the factions? Which prevailed, and what was done?—12. What immediate consequences resulted from the execution of the king? Relate some of the military operations in the north.
13. Meanwhile an insurrection had taken place in La Vendée which held out for the king; and the most heart-sickening scenes of destruction and carnage, want and destitution there occurred. This and other events increased the rigor of the convention, and the hatred of the parties. The Girondists were overthrown;—the Mountain faction obtained supreme authority, and the "Reign of Terror" began. The once gay, and still beautiful queen, after having suffered for the necessaries of life in the gloomy prison of the Conciergerie, was condemned and executed. The leaders of the Girondists were also put to death, and Danton, Robespierre, and Marat, in the name of the republic, exercised with arbitrary despotism, cruelties the most barbarous. Licentiousness and profligacy walked forth unveiled: even the forms of religion were destroyed; and Christianity was declared a nullity. The Sabbath was abolished; and one day in ten set apart, not for religion, but for idleness and licentiousness. The goddess of reason, personified by a naked prostitute, was drawn in triumph through the streets of Paris; and the municipal officers of the city, and the members of the National Convention of France, joined publicly in the impious parade.

14. Of the three despots, Marat was assassinated by Charlotte Corday, a young girl, self-devoted to the good of her country. Danton was condemned through the instrumentality of Robespierre. This atrocious man, for a time, maintained the sway alone; but at last, deserted by his associates, he was condemned by the convention; and the guillotine, which had, during his reign of nearly two years, shed the innocent blood of thousands, for once let fall the stroke of justice, and delivered the earth from a ferocious monster.

15. Meanwhile, the republican armies under Jourdan and Pichegru, had retrieved the honor of the French; and in the Netherlands and elsewhere achieved many conquests. After the fall of Robespierre and his associates, the revolutionists began to see that, if blood continued to flow, their own must soon swell the tide. The constitution was remodelled, so as to become less democratic, and the executive government was intrusted to a Directory, consisting of five persons. The legislative body was formed of two councils, that of the "ancients," of two hundred and fifty, and the "council of five hundred." All laws were to originate with the five hundred, but not to pass without the sanction of the ancients. Some of the provisions of the new constitution offended the Parisians and the National Guards, 30,000 of whom rose in arms. Barras, one of the
NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

DIRECTORS, brought forward and placed at the head of the regular troops, a young Corsican officer, who promptly reduced them to order. He had distinguished himself at the siege of Toulon. He was NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

CHAPTER III.

Victorious Career of Napoleon Bonaparte.

1. Austria and England were now the only powers of the first order engaged in the war against France; the others having withdrawn from the coalition. Bonaparte was raised to the rank of general, and intrusted by the directors, who mediated the conquest of Austria, with the command of the army of Italy. Moreau led the army of the Sambre and Meuse, which was to press forward on the eastern frontier of Germany; and Jourdan commanded that of the Rhine. A junction of these three armies was designed to take place at Vienna. Moreau and Jourdan crossed the Rhine. The Austrian generals were unable to withstand them, and all Germany was filled with consternation. The imperial forces at length united, and under the Arch-Duke Charles, they attacked Jourdan and defeated him. By this event, Moreau, who had advanced 200 miles, and had the defiles of the Black Forest in his rear, was placed in a dangerous position. His safe retreat, made under the most embarrassing and dangerous circumstances, is considered a great military exploit.

2. Bonaparte, meanwhile, advanced into Italy, passing round the southern extremity of the Alps, and keeping near the shores of the Mediterranean. At Monte Notte, he encountered the Austro-Sardinian army, and here obtained his first victory. He again defeated his enemy at Millesimo, then at Mondovi. In less than a month, he had gained three battles, destroyed 25,000 of the enemy’s forces, and made himself master of the mountain passes. Pressing forward, he crossed the Po, and attacking with desperate bravery the Austrians, at the bridge of Lodi, he forced their general, Beauharnais, to retreat upon Mantua. Milan submitted to his arms, and those powers of Italy heretofore neutral or interested in the Austrian cause, now sought the friend-

1795-6.
( Bonaparte’s quelling the mob recommended him to the Directory, Barras brought him forward.)

1796.
Jourdan defeated by the archduke.
Moreau’s celebrated retreat through the Black Forest.

April 4th. MONTE- NOTTE.
15th. MILESIMO.
18th. MONDOVI
Bonaparte’s first victories over the Austrians.

May 11. LODI.
ship of the conqueror The dukes of Parma and Modena, the grand duke of Tuscany, and even the pope were compelled to purchase his favor,—not only with money and provisions, but with their finest paintings and statuary, which were transported to Paris.

1796.

3. Mantua was now the only place of strength which remained to the Austrians in Italy; and to this Bonaparte laid siege. To defend it, 80,000 Austrians were despatched into Italy, under the command of Wurmsr. Learning that the divisions of this army had unwisely been so far extended as to prevent easy communications with each other, Bonaparte left Mantua, and advancing unexpectedly, defeated one division at Lonato, and another at Castiglione. Wurmsr, on learning this, advanced with his main force; when, at Medola, victory again declared for the French. These three defeats had destroyed nearly half the Austrian army.

4. Bonaparte now resumed the siege of Mantua, which had in the meantime received supplies of men and provisions. Wurmsr, who had retreated to the Tyrol, having been re-inforced by 20,000 men, left Davidovich in command of a strong force, and himself moved again towards Mantua. Bonaparte waited only until Wurmsr had entirely separated his two divisions, when leaving a small force at Mantua, he proceeded rapidly towards Roveredo, attacked and defeated Davidovich. He then, with astonishing celerity, marched upon the advance guard of Wurmsr, attacked and defeated it; and the next day obtained a decided victory over the main body, under Wurmsr, at Bassano. This general, as a last effort, succeeded in throwing himself, with a remnant of the Austrian army, now reduced to 18,000 men, into Mantua.

5. Another Austrian army, under Alvinczi, was sent to relieve that city. Bonaparte met him at Caldiero, and was repulsed; but at Arcola, where he fought three days, he was again victorious. Thus closed the wonderful campaign of 1796;—which the minister of war reported thus to the directory, “Italy has been entirely conquered—three large armies entirely destroyed—fifty stands of colors have been taken—forty thousand Austrians have laid down their arms:—all has been accomplished by an army of thirty thousand Frenchmen, commanded by a general, scarce twenty-six years old.” About this time, Corsica, the native land of Bonaparte, was, by his

2. What was the result of this brilliant success? Which of the soveraigns of these states made their submission, and with what were they compelled to purchase the favor of the conqueror?—3. What strong fortress held out for Austria? What was done in reference to it? By what army did the Austrians attempt to defend it? How did Bonaparte destroy nearly half this army?—4. Relate Bonaparte’s three next victories. To what number was Wurmsr’s army reduced, and what, as a dernier resort, did he do?—5. What general was next sent by the Austrians? What battles did Bonaparte fight with this army, and with what success? What did the French minister report to the Directory concerning this astonishing campaign? What is said of Corsica.
agency, reunited to France. The destructive civil war of La Vendee was ably and honorably brought to a close by General Hoche, at the head of 100,000 men.

6. The Austrians reinforced the army of Alvinzi. Bonaparte, at Montebaldo, failed of his usual success; but, in a desperate battle at Rivoli, he was again victorious, when Mantua surrendered, and Italy was conquered. Bonaparte now advanced towards Austria. Vienna was in alarm, and the humbled court now consented to negotiations, which were opened at Idenberg on the 9th of April. While waiting for authority from the Directory to complete the treaty, the young conqueror sat down at Montebello, in the vicinity of Milan; where ambassadors from Germany, the popedom, Genoa, Venice, Piedmont, and the Swiss Republic, gathered around him, each seeking his favor. On the 17th of October the treaty was concluded at Campo Formio. To France was ceded Flanders, Savoy, and the extension of its boundary to the Rhine.

7. Austria was to be indemnified by receiving a part of the territories of Venice. An insurrection in that city, with the murder of some of the French soldiery, during the absence of Bonaparte, afforded him a pretext to conquer that republic. The Austrians took possession of some of its provinces, and the French the remainder, with the capital. Naples was formed into a Parthenopean Republic. The Cisalpine Republic was formed of the French portion of the duchy of Milan, and several other Italian states. The constitution of Genoa also was changed, and it received the name of the Ligurian Republic. About the same time Holland was conquered by Pichegru, and the Batavian Republic there established. An insurrection took place in Rome, of which the French troops taking advantage, occupied the city, subverted the papal government, and established the Roman Republic. French influence also produced a revolution in Switzerland, where the French arms, after several battles, triumphed, and the Helvetic Republic was established. Geneva was united to France.

8. In the meantime the English, now left single handed to contend with France, had maintained their superiority at sea, and in successive engagements, defeated the French and their allies. The Directory of France, victorious on the continent, but disturbed by factions and disorders at home,—perhaps unwilling to retain in Paris a general, who possessed ambition,

5. What of the disastrous war of La Vendee?—6. Relate the battles fought in the beginning of the year 1797 between Bonaparte and Alvinzi. What was the consequence of the victory of Rivoli? What course did the French commander take after the conquest of Italy? When and where did negotiations begin? Where was now the young conqueror, and how surrounded? Give some account of the peace of Campo Formio.—7. Relate the iniquitous proceedings with respect to Venice. Enumerate the burlesque republics which the French now formed of their conquered provinces. Show on your maps the location of each. What city was united to France?—8. What had been the fortune of war on the seas?
and unlimited power over the troops, now planned a new and
singular enterprise,—the conquest of Egypt. The preparations
were made under pretence of an expedition against England,
and the command was given to Bonaparte. He embarked at
Toulon, and on his passage he achieved the conquest of Malta;
and though pursued by the British fleet, he arrived in safety at
Alexandria. He ascended the Nile, and near Cairo, in sight of
those monuments of antiquity, he gained the sanguinary battle
of the Pyramids, over the Mamelukes, under Murad Bey, whose
cavalry had been regarded as invincible. Cairo surrendered;
Egypt was conquered, and the remnant of the Mamelukes dis-
persed and fled.

9. Admiral Nelson, the hero of the British navy, commanded
a fleet, which followed the French to the bay of Aboukir, near
the mouth of the Nile, where their vessels were moored; and
after a bloody battle, entirely defeated them, and nearly destroy-
ed their ships;—thus rendering the English masters of the Me-
diterranean, and placing the French army in a perilous situation.
Learning that the Turks had assembled two armies for the de-
ference of Egypt, Bonaparte traversed the desert which separates
Africa from Asia; and entering Palestine, he defeated another
body of Mamelukes, and took Gaza and Jaffa. Bent upon the
conquest of Syria, he invested Acre, but receiving a repulse
from the English, under Sir Sydney Smith, he was compelled
to raise the siege, when he retired into Egypt. A Turkish army
having landed at Aboukir, Napoleon advanced against it, and
obtained another decisive victory. Intelligence from Europe
now induced him to abandon Egypt; and leaving his army un-
der Kleber, he returned to France with secrecy and despatch.
On the 14th of December, 1799, died George Washington,
the father of his country, whose death filled the American peo-
ple with unaffected sorrow.

10. While Bonaparte was engaged in Egypt, a reverse of
fortune had taken place in the French affairs. A "Second Coali-
tion" had been formed against France, composed of England,
Russia, Naples, the Ottoman Porte, and Austria. The Austrian
war had been renewed. The Archduke Charles having won
two battles over Jourdan, had penetrated Switzerland. The
Russians and Austrians, under Suwarrow, had defeated the
French at Cassano, and made themselves masters of Milan and
Turin. In short, repeated defeats had deprived the French of
nearly all their conquests in Italy. In other quarters, the arms
of France were more successful. Under Massena, they defeated

8. What new project was got up by the Directory? Give an account of
Bonaparte's expedition against Egypt.—9. What important naval battle
was fought, and what were the results? Relate the circumstances of Bona-
parte's invasion of Syria. What bad action was he guilty of at Jaffa? (See
note.) What battle did Bonaparte gain after his return to Egypt? Whether
did he go? Whose death occurred, and when?—10. What nations were
parties to the second coalition against France? What had been done by
the Austrian armies in Italy? How had the French succeeded in other
quarters?
a Russian army in Switzerland, and took *Zurich*. A combined English and Russian army, under the duke of York, which had invaded Holland, was, after some partial successes, compelled to retreat.

11. France was torn by factions, which the directorial government could not manage. Bonaparte, with the *Abbe Sieyes*, planned another revolution, in which he took care to be appointed to the command of all the military in Paris. The legislative body, (met at St. Cloud,) like Cromwell, he expelled from their place of session, at the point of the bayonet. Three Consuls were appointed, of whom Bonaparte was first. Placed now at the head of the French nation, he *made earnest overtures of peace to England*, but they were *haughtily rejected*. Russia, however, abandoned the coalition.

12. Moreau had now the command in upper Germany, and Bonaparte invaded Italy with 30,000 men. He crossed Mount St. Bernard, through passes heretofore deemed inaccessible, surprised the Austrians, conquered the country to the Po, and restored the Cisalpine Republic. *Melas*, the Austrian general, had left what he deemed a sufficient force to guard the passes of the Alps, and with the main army advanced upon Genoa. Leaving there a besieging force, he marched towards France, encountered the French, under *Suchet*, and compelled them to retreat. On the eve of invading France, he received the astounding intelligence of Bonaparte’s passage over Mount St. Bernard. Melas turned back, and on the plains of Marengo, the hostile armies met. The shock was terrific; but the fierce and bloody encounter left the French masters of the field. This battle restored to France almost all she had lost in the preceding campaign; and was followed by an armistice, which extended to the armies on the Rhine. Moreau had crossed the Rhine, penetrated Bavaria, and gained the battle of Hoehenlinden where he took 10,000 prisoners, and entered Austria. Negotiations for peace were now opened at Luneville. The several republics founded by the French were acknowledged; and the Rhine was made the boundary between France and the German empire. A treaty of peace was made, at Florence, with Naples. The naval war had meanwhile been to the advantage of the English, to whom *Malta* had surrendered.

13. In the north of Europe affairs wore a new aspect. *Paul*, now emperor of Russia, won over by the policy of Bonaparte, evinced a hostile spirit towards the English, and laid an embargo on their shipping. He also engaged Denmark and

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11. What did Bonaparte find to do when he returned from Egypt? Who aided him in changing the government? How was the new revolution effected? What were the three first magistrates called, and who was first of the three? What did the First Consul in regard to England? What nation abandoned the coalition?—12. Relate Bonaparte’s second invasion of Italy. The movements of Melas. The battle of Marengo. What armistice was made? What in the meantime had been done by Moreau? What treaties of peace were now made? What is said of the naval war?—13. Who was Paul, and what was done by him?
Sweden in an "Armed Neutrality," the object of which was to injure England. The English despatched ships to the Baltic, took possession of the Danish fleet, and attacked Copenhagen, thus obliging the Danes to sue for peace. The death of Paul produced another change. His son, Alexander, by mediating between England and France, effected a peace between them. It was favorable to France; England restoring all conquests except Trinidad and Ceylon. Peace was also concluded between France and the Porte. The English and Turkish army had defeated the French forces in Egypt, and restored that country to the Turks. Bonaparte was now consolidating his power, by seeking the favor of every class. He re-established the Roman catholic religion, revived the priesthood, re-organized the national institute, permitted the emigrants to return, and pleased the officers of the army, already devotedly attached to his person, by creating the "Legion of Honor," a military aristocracy, of which himself was chief. He was declared by the senate first consul for life.

14. In the French island of St. Domingo the negroes had risen upon their masters, and massacres succeeded. The English invaded the island. The French colonists and negroes made peace, and together expelled the common enemy. Although still tributary to France, they adopted a new government, and Toussaint Louverture, who, though a negro, possessed distinguished talents and virtues, now held the first station on the island. The French attacked the islanders; Toussaint was treacherously made prisoner and taken to Paris, where Bonaparte disgracefully permitted the sable patriot to suffer and die in prison. The islanders resisted the French successfully, and maintained their liberty.

15. A year had not elapsed since the peace of Amiens, before the refusal of England to fulfil the treaty, produced a renewal of the war between France and that power. The French seized the electorate of Hanover, and a British squadron blockaded the mouths of the Elbe and the Weser. It was at this period that Bonaparte stained his name by the murder of the duke D'Enghien. He had been accused of favoring those who conspired against the life of the first consul. He was arrested, and, after the form of a military trial, condemned, and shot in the trench of the castle of Vincennes. The obsequious senate now offered to Bonaparte the title of Emperor; and he prepared for the coronation of himself, and his consort, the charitable and elegant Josephine.

13. How did his hostility to England affect Denmark? Who was Paul's successor, and what is the first act related of him? Give an account of the treaty of Amiens. In what was Bonaparte now occupied, and what measures did he bring to effect.—14. What had been done in St. Domingo? What oppressive act is related of Bonaparte?—15. What caused the renewal of war between France and England? What possession of the English was seized by the French? What measure of retaliation did the British take by means of their navy? What was done by Bonaparte in relation to the duke D'Enghien?
PERIOD VIII.

FROM

The Coronation 1804 of Napoleon.

TO

The Battle 1815 of Waterloo.

CHAPTER I.

The Great Empire of Napoleon.

1. NAPOLeON was, with Josephine, vested with the imperial dignity on the second of December, 1804. The pope, reconciled by the establishment of the catholic religion, assisted at the splendid ceremonial;—crowned and anointed him, in the church of Notre Dame. Those states which had been called republics, were now to be remodelled, and the Cisalpine and Ligurian were formed into the kingdom of Italy, of which Napoleon was crowned king at Milan. Thus a second Charlemagne had arisen to restore for a brief season the empire of the first.

2. England, with the influence she used, and the money with which she subsidized Russia and Austria, now formed with them a Third Coalition. Spain had already allied herself to France. Napoleon with his attached soldiers,—rapid as a mountain torrent,—crossed the Rhine,—took prisoners an Austrian army

PERIOD VIII.—CHAP. I.—I. What account can you give of the coronation mentioned? What other coronation besides that of Paris is related? To whom may Napoleon be compared, in respect to the empire which he ruled?

—2. What powers now coalesced against France? What nation was with France? Give an account of Napoleon's invasion of Germany.
at Ulm, and while Francis and his court fled to Hungary, entered his capital. At Austerlitz, on the anniversary of his coronation, he met the united Austrian and Russian armies. From sunrise until evening, the battle was hotly waged; when the genius of Napoleon again prevailed, and the allies were compelled to retreat, leaving to the French 30,000 prisoners, and an immense quantity of artillery. The successes of Ulm and Austerlitz were followed by the treaty of Presburg, Austria now deserting the coalition.

3. In 1806, the ambitious views of Napoleon became still more apparent. Holland had, the preceding year, been formed into a kingdom, of which his brother, Louis Bonaparte, was made king. Naples was now given to Joseph Bonaparte, the elder brother, who was also invested with the title of king of the two Sicilies. Several provinces were constituted duchies, or grand fiefs of the empire, and given to the emperor's relations and favorites. His sister, Pauline, was made princess of Guastalla; his brother-in-law Murat, grand-duke of Berg and Cleves; while Eugene Beauharnois, the son of his empress Josephine by a former marriage, was sent viceroy to Italy. Fourteen princes in the south and west of Germany, were formed into the "Confederation of the Rhine." They were separated from the Germanic body, and recognized Napoleon as their head, under the title of Protector. The German empire now ceased to exist; Francis II. laying down the title of emperor of Germany, and assuming that of emperor of Austria. Switzerland was also brought under the dominion of France, Napoleon declaring himself its "Meditator."

4. Frederic William of Prussia, who had heretofore been neutral, this year engaged in the war against France. The main origin of his enmity was the duplicity of Napoleon, who had encouraged the Prussians to seize the electorate of Hanover, and who had since, in negotiating with Great Britain, offered to restore it. The Prussian army, with their allies, amounted to 110,000 men. Napoleon met them at Jena, with 150,000 and obtained a complete victory. The different bodies of the Prussian army were, one after another, obliged to surrender, and in little more than a month, the French took 140,000 prisoners, great numbers of standards, large quantities of artillery, and made themselves masters of the principal towns of the kingdom. From Berlin, Napoleon issued his famous decree, declaring the islands of Great Britain in a state of blockade, and prohibiting the countries under his government from all intercourse with

2. Of the battle of Austerlitz. What treaty followed this great battle?—
3. Let the pupil study with the maps, and show upon them the new kingdoms, or what would be much the better way, sketch on a slate, blackboard, or paper, central and southern Europe with the new divisions. As the change in Germany has remained, be particular to remember it.—4. What power now joined England in a fourth coalition against France? What had provoked the king of Prussia? Relate the military operations of the Prussians and French with the Prussian losses. What system did Napoleon commence, and what decree issue from one of the capitals of Prussia?
that nation. He next detached Saxony from Prussia; conferred upon the elector the dignity of king, and brought him into his alliance. The Prussian provinces on the lower Rhine were reduced by an army from Holland, under Louis,—and Silesia, by a French army under Jerome Bonaparte, a younger brother of Napoleon.

5. Russia became now seriously alarmed, and her armies advanced to protect her empire. At Pultusk, a battle was fought between the French and Russians, without any decisive result. Again at Eylau, from three o'clock in the afternoon until the next night, the two armies fought,—when, about twelve o'clock, the carnage ceased, the French keeping possession of the field. The armies now, for some time, remained inactive. In May, the French besieged and took Danzig. The June following, a decisive battle was fought at Friedland, where the Russians were defeated, and compelled to retreat with great loss. This battle was followed by the capture of Konigsberg, and by a personal interview between Alexander and Napoleon, who met on a raft in the middle of the river Niemen, for neither of these potentates would go to visit the other. The peace of Tilsit was concluded. Napoleon made hard conditions with Prussia, stripping Frederic William of one-third of his dominions. The brothers of Napoleon were acknowledged in their dignities; and another of the family, Jerome Bonaparte, provided with a kingdom in Westphalia.

6. Denmark having manifested signs of hostility towards the English, that government, fearing that Napoleon would possess himself of the Danish navy, demanded of the Danes to deposit their ships of the line in some British port. The haughty demand was refused. A British fleet was despatched to the Baltic, conveying land forces, which defeated a Danish army, and invested Copenhagen. The city capitulated, and the shipping and naval stores were delivered up to the English. The Danish government refused to ratify the capitulation, and declared war against England.

7. Napoleon now turned his ambitious eye towards the south, coveting the peninsula of Spain and Portugal. He made a secret treaty with Charles IV. of Spain, by which he was to send French troops through the Spanish dominions,—take Portugal, and then divide it with Spain. The French army, headed by Junot, advanced towards Lisbon; and Napoleon declared that the family of Braganza had ceased to reign. Under these circumstances, the prince regent, (John VI,.) and royal family resolved to remove the seat of government to Brazil; and they

5. Relate the military operations of the Russians and French. What followed the battle of Friedland? What conditions did Napoleon make with Prussia? What new kingdom was made, and for whom?—6. Give an account of the contest between the Danes and the English.—7. What addition to his dominions did Napoleon now covet? What treaty was formed between him and the Spanish sovereign? How did Napoleon contrive to get an army into Spain? What declaration was made by Napoleon? What was done by the royal family of Portugal?
hastily embarked in a British fleet, which had blockaded the city, and which now afforded them protection from the French, who soon after entered Lisbon.

8. The court of Madrid was agitated by the most violent factions, arising from the discord of the royal family,—no doubt fomented by the emissaries of Napoleon. In March, 1808, Charles IV. abdicated the crown in favor of his son Ferdinand, VIII. Murat, with a French army, took possession of Madrid. Under these circumstances, Charles and Ferdinand, with the royal family, were induced by Napoleon to go to Bayonne, where he compelled Ferdinand to abdicate, and the younger members of the family to renounce all claim upon the Spanish crown. He retained them prisoners, and issued orders for an assembly of notables to meet at Bayonne, to settle the government. No Spaniards, except the partisans of France, attended. Joseph Bonaparte, who resigned the kingdom of Naples to Murat, the husband of Caroline Bonaparte, was here made king of Spain. Napoleon's base treachery towards Spain was, perhaps, his first fatal error.

9. During this year a new system of French jurisprudence was published, under the title of the "Code Napoleon." The ablest jurists in France had been employed by the emperor in its formation; he gave much personal thought and labor to it, and it now remains as his best title to future fame. Soon after the publication of this code, Napoleon established a university for the superintendence of national education. Nor did he entirely overlook the education of the female sex, though he was far from regarding the subject in its true light. The institution which he founded, and placed under the celebrated Madam Campan, was designed rather as a means of encouraging the military, than of elevating the female mind and character; it being made for the daughters of the "Legion of Honor," especially those whose fathers fell in his service.

10. From Napoleon, let us turn for a moment to a less dazzling, but a more worthy character. La Fayette had for four years inhabited the gloomy dungeons of Omlutz. The emperor of Austria, appealed to by Washington in behalf of the American people, and by other friends of justice and humanity, offered him his liberty if he would abjure his principles. No less the votary of truth than the friend of human rights, La Fayette would not tamper with a lie to save himself, or even his dearer family, who had, with the generous devotion of truly noble French women, immured themselves with him. By the treaty of Campo Formio, he received his liberty, at the instance of Bonaparte. He retired to the chateau of La Grange, having been reinstated in that portion of his paternal inheritance. Na-
poleon sought to draw him thence, and make him another satellite in his system; but the patriot, though grateful for his release, rejected every situation by which he would have contemnanced the military despotism to which his country was subjected, and quietly gave himself to agricultural pursuits.

11. Spain, though believed to be degenerate, had yet her patriots, who would not tamely relinquish her national independence. They roused to arms, although not less than 100,000 French troops were dispersed throughout the kingdom. The Spaniards were, indeed, enervated by that luxury, which the gold and silver of the west had brought in its train, but not so much, the peasantry, as the nobles. Provincial assemblies were formed, acknowledging the authority of Ferdinand VII.; and orders were issued for raising volunteers, and organizing armies. The French fleet in the harbor of Cadiz, was compelled by its patriotic citizens to surrender; and a French army, near Almanza, was almost wholly destroyed. At Valencia too, they learned that the Spanish people, though destitute of regular troops, would defend their soil. At Saragossa they were again repulsed with the loss of 12,000 men. In Andalusia, the French general, Dufont, was defeated, and compelled to surrender his army. These victories placed the southern parts of the kingdom entirely in the hands of the patriots. King Joseph meanwhile arrived at Madrid, and assumed the reigns of government but learning the successes of the Spaniards, he retreated from the capital.

12. George III., of England, became insane; and his son, afterwards George IV., was made regent. He formed an alliance with the Spanish patriots, and with those of Portugal,—who, following their example, now rose in arms against the French. The British despatched an army under Sir Arthur Wellesley, which landed in Portugal October 12th, 1808; and obtained, at Vimeira, a victory over the French under Junot, and compelled them to evacuate Portugal. Another British army landed in Spain, under the command of Sir John Moore.

13. Napoleon now took upon himself the command of the Spanish war. He defeated several patriotic armies, and advanced upon Madrid, which, after a weak defence, surrendered. Sir John Moore, who had proceeded to Salamanca, retreated, closely followed by the French, who overtook him at Corunna, and attacked him as he was about embarking his army. The English gained their ships, but not without loss. Sir John was killed,—and his officers, before their departure, snatched a few dangerous and sorrowful moments to bury him on the shore.

14. Russia and Denmark, now in the interest of France, made war upon Sweden, which favored England. The Swedes

11. Give an account of Spain, and the exertions of the patriots.—12. What occurred in England? What alliance did the English now form? Relate the battle of Vimeira, and the events which followed.—13. Relate the course of events in the peninsula, from the time of Napoleon's taking command, till after the battle of Corunna.
were beaten, and Finland was added to the Russian empire.

GUSTAVUS IV. was deposed by the Swedes, on pretence of his incapacity for governing; and the duke of Sudermania elected king, under the title of CHARLES XIII. British vessels were now excluded from the Swedish ports.

15. While Napoleon was busy settling his brother Joseph’s kingdom in Spain, where he abolished the inquisition, Austria was raising and disciplining great armies. The Tyrolese rebelled, the Westphalians expelled their king Jerome; and Prussia and Italy were ready to avail themselves of the first adverse circumstances to burst the chains by which the despot of Europe had bound them. Napoleon returned to France—then led his armies across the Rhine; and after successfully fighting the archduke CHARLES at Abensberg, Landshut, he obtained the brilliant victory of Eckmühl, which opened his way to Vienna. Francis fled—and the French, after entering his capital, proceeded down the southern bank of the Danube,—the archduke having collected his scattered army, and taken a position on the northern bank towards Presburg. At Aspern and Essling, the French attempted to cross the river, but were driven back with great slaughter, and compelled to recross to Lobau, an Island in the river, from which Napoleon had erected bridges for conveying his army to the opposite bank. After remaining several weeks on this island, Napoleon deceived the Austrians with regard to his contemplated point of attack, caused a bridge to be thrown over the river, opposite to a wing of the Austrian army, which was stationed at Wagram. One night sufficed for its completion, and the following morning the surprised Austrians beheld the French army ready to attack them. The battle began at sunrise, and at night the French had conquered.

16. The Treaty of Vienna, which was signed by Francis and Napoleon, was less unfavorable to Austria, than might have been expected from her almost ruined condition. The cause was not long a secret. The fair MARIA LOUISA, eldest daughter of the emperor of Austria, was cast into the balance, to be given in marriage to Napoleon. Accordingly, after his return to France, he divorced Josephine,—thus violating the laws of God,—severing from his side, and breaking the heart of the best of his friends,—while he took in her place the daughter of his ancient enemy.

14. What had been doing in the north of Europe?—15. What did Napoleon in Spain? What in the meantime had happened in Germany?—16. What is remarked concerning the peace of Vienna? What did Napoleon on his return to France?
CHAPTER II.

The decline and fall of Napoleon's Empire.

1. The British invaded Holland with a fleet, bearing an army of 40,000 men, under the earl of Chatham, and made themselves masters of Flushing. A French army was sent against them, under Bernadotte. The British took possession of the island of Walcheren, with a view of blocking up the Scheldt; and being kept by their leaders in that unhealthy spot, many fell victims to the pestilential atmosphere of the marshes which surrounded them. The remainder returned; and the enterprise, to the grief and mortification of the English, entirely failed of its object.

2. The peninsular war had been prosecuted by the generals of Napoleon, while he was occupied with the Austrians. Saragossa, after a vigorous and determined resistance, in which 20,000 of its defenders perished, fell before the French, under Soult; whose army then entered Portugal, but was forced by Wellesley to retreat. Efforts, more united, were now made by the English and Portuguese. Their armies entered Spain; and at Talavera, they achieved a victory over the French, commanded by king Joseph in person. A reinforcement from France, under Ney, arriving, Wellesley was compelled to retreat into Portugal. At Ocana, the French, under Joseph, obtained a complete victory over the Spaniards; and at the termination of this campaign, the cause of the unfortunate patriots seemed desperate.

3. The ensuing winter the French made themselves masters of Malaga, and completed a line of posts from the bay to the Mediterranean, intersecting the whole of Spain, through its capital. They took Seville, and commenced the siege of Cadiz. The strong fortress of Ciudad Rodrigo was carried by the French; Portugal was invaded, and Almeida taken. Wellesley now adopted the Fabian policy, and harassed his enemy, avoiding general actions. At the pass of Busaco, the French, under Massena, attacked him, but were repulsed with considerable loss. He retreated within about thirty miles of Lisbon, and Massena made Santarem his head quarters. This year, the Cortes of Spain assembled, declared the renunciation at Bayonne to be null and void, and swore allegiance to Ferdinand VII. They also appointed a regency of three of their most popular officers, and vested in them the executive power.

4. Early in January, Stcher, on the part of the French, took Tortosa, and Soult, Olivenza. The whole of the preceding
year, marshal Victor had been engaged in the siege of Cadiz; yet the place seemed no nearer being reduced. Massena retreated from Santarem, and was closely pursued by Wellesley, now Lord Wellington, who came up with him and defeated him in a sanguinary battle at Albuera. Wellington now commenced the siege of Badajos, but on the advance of the French, who were reinforced, he raised the siege and retired. Suchet besieged Tarragona, which surrendered, and experienced every species of shocking outrage. He next invaded Valencia, defeated the Spanish general, Blake, and took the fortress of Murviedro.

5. Hamburg was now annexed to the French empire. Austria was recruiting her finances, and recovering from the depression into which her wars with France had plunged her. The marriage of Napoleon with Maria Louisa, seemed to give to Francis a prospect of permanent friendship with France, but Austria, and also Prussia, felt humbled by being made subservient instruments to the policy of France, to humble England and aggrandize itself. Russia was this year engaged in successful war with the Ottoman Porte. Alexander had been careful not to offend Napoleon, but he was yet capable of withstanding his power; and the only continental sovereign who was. Causes of difference had, however, arisen between them, and appearances were ominous of approaching war. Denmark, from fear of France, kept up the show of hostility towards England Sweden had received, as the heir of her monarchy, marshal Bernadotte, an officer of Napoleon. Such was the situation of Europe at the opening of the year 1812.

6. In Spain, lord Wellington, who still commanded the allies, took Badajos and Ciudad Roderigo,—obtained a decisive victory at Salamanca, and soon after entered Madrid, which Joseph Bonaparte, on his approach, evacuated. Alexander of Russia had, in March, issued a formal declaration of war against France, having previously made peace with the Porte, and settled all disputes with England. Napoleon, after vast preparations, began early in the spring to march numerous bodies of his troops into the interior of Germany; and in May he set out from Paris, accompanied by the empress, Maria Louisa. After receiving the flattering homage of the various German monarchs, whose dominions he visited, he met the emperor, Francis II., at Dresden, and being assured of the alliance of Austria and Prussia, proceeded northward. He crossed the Vistula with 500,000 men. His armies which had been directed to open a passage to St. Peters burg, were foilcd in their attempt. The Russians, under count Wittgenstein, defeated a French army under Oudinot, at

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4. What were the principal events of the campaign of 1811?—5. What is said of Hamburg at this period, (the beginning of the year 1812)? Of Austria Prussia Russia Denmark Sweden?—6. What military events occurred in Spain? What was now done by Russia? Describe Napoleon's advance towards Russia. What were his numbers? At what places were his troops checked by the Russians?
Polotsk, and General Essen, who commanded at Riga, checked the advance of the French under Macdonald.

7. Napoleon, on the 17th of August, attacked the main Russian army at Smolensko. The Russians, after a valiant contest, retired; but the French, on entering the city, found it in flames. The Russian army now retreated to a position near Moscow, where Kutusoff was called to the command. The French came up with the Russians at Borodino, where a desperate battle was fought, which continued with great fury through a whole day, and left the French masters of the bloody field, on which lay 50,000 of their own dead. The Russians acknowledged a loss of 25,000.

8. Kutusoff, unable to withstand the invaders, retired with his army to the provinces beyond Moscow. On the 14th of September, the French entered that venerable city, but found it deserted by its inhabitants and on fire. Napoleon was alarmed, for he had intended to winter in Moscow,—and he made strenuous efforts to save it, but in vain. For one fire extinguished, ten were set. Women as well as men with blazing torches were seen madly running from house to house,—till their incendiary work was done. Napoleon speaks thus of the horror of the scene—"It was the spectacle of a sea and billows of fire, a sky and clouds of flame; mountains of red rolling flames, like immense waves of the sea, alternately bursting forth and elevating themselves to skies of fire, and then sinking into the ocean of flame below." The destruction of the city which precluded the possibility of making it his winter quarters, and the assemblages of Russian troops around Moscow, induced the French emperor to offer terms of peace. The reply was, that no terms could be listened to, while the enemy remained in the country.

9. Napoleon lost some weeks in awaiting answers to despatches which he had sent to Petersburg. No alternative but retreat was now left, and humiliating as was the measure, he embraced it. Dividing his forces, he directed Murat and Beauharnois, with a detachment of 50,000 men, to attack the grand Russian army, while he led theremainder on the route to Minsk. Murat and Beauharnois met with a severe repulse, and the whole French army continued its retreat under the most distressing circumstances. The cold which now came on with unusual severity, destroyed immense numbers, and unfitted the survivors for vigorous exertions; while the hardy Russians pursued close upon their heels, and slaughtered them at every turn. At the passage of the Berezina, Napoleon, to save the main body of his army, ordered the bridge on which they had crossed, to be blown up. But a portion of the French were still on the other side. As they were rushing towards it, driven by the fire of their pursuers, they heard a crash,—and the bridge blew up. Uttering a shriek of despair, numbers plunged into the

stream, and sunk amidst floating ice, while the remainder were butchered by the Russians. When the army reached Wilna, Napoleon gave the chief command to Murat, and himself hastened to bear to France the tale of his misfortunes. Marshal Ney commanded the rear, and that generous soldier was himself the last man to quit the hostile frontier. Thus was destroyed the most formidable army of modern times. Out of the 500,000 men who composed it, not more than 50,000,—one in ten, recrossed the Russian frontier.

10. THE SIXTH AND GRAND COALITION.—The allies of Napoleon, whose friendship was founded in necessity, and the nations whose submission to France had been obtained at the point of the bayonet, now showed their readiness to emancipate themselves from its yoke. Prussia gave the signal of defection, and early this year leagued with Russia and England. Sweden, already in the interest of Russia, soon joined "The Sixth Coalition."

11. On the return of Napoleon to Paris, his genius appeared invested with new splendor; and the hold he possessed upon the affections of the French, seemed strengthened by misfortune. Though all France was thrown into mourning, the nation responded to the call of their sovereign, and new levies, to the amount of 350,000 men, were made early in the spring of 1813. The wreck of the grand army with which Napoleon had entered Russia, had been placed in the fortresses occupied by the French in Prussia.

12. The Russian armies now advanced, and the inhabitants of the countries through which they passed, every where joined them; and the French were compelled to abandon their fortresses and retreat. Alexander and Frederic fixed their head quarters at Dresden. Napoleon advanced at the head of his new recruits, and at Lutzen the French met the army of the allies, and after a bloody conflict, remained masters of the field. Unable to maintain themselves on the Elbe, the main army of the allies retreated from Dresden, (which Napoleon took,) to Bautzen, where another battle was fought with great loss on both sides. The French again conquered,—but the allies retired in good order. An armistice of six weeks took place.

13. Napoleon might now, by the surrender of his conquests, have negotiated; but this, in an interview with the Austrian

9. Who carried the news of these disasters to Paris? What is said of Ney? What remarks are made concerning the army?—10. To what had Napoleon owed the friendship of his allies? What nations now leagued against him, and what was the league called?—11. What is said of Napoleon's demeanor on his return to Paris? What was the conduct of the people of France? What was the number of the new army? Where was the wreck of that with which Napoleon had invaded Russia?—12. What is related of the Russian and Prussian armies, and of their sovereigns? Relate the military operations till after the armistice of Plewitz.—13. With whom did Napoleon have an interview, and what opportunity did he let slip?
DOWNFALL OF NAPOLEON.

Minister, Metternich, he refused, and Austria joined the allies. Hostilities were renewed in August, when Napoleon had, in various posts in Saxony and Silesia, 250,000 men. The allies attacked Dresden during the absence of Napoleon in Silesia, but his rapid return defeated their plans. He saved the city, and killed and made prisoners 25,000 of their troops. At Cull, the allies obtained a victory over the French general Vandamme. The Prussian general, Blucher, was victorious at the Katzbach, and in other quarters the allies gained advantages over the generals of Napoleon. He now concentrated his forces, and marched to Leipsic. On the 16th of October, the grand army of the allies advanced; and the battle of Leipsic, the great battle which decided Napoleon's fate, commenced and continued three days. Napoleon, watching its progress, saw the princes of the "Confederation of the Rhine," pass over with their troops to his enemies. This was the fatal stroke. He lost the battle—and his fortunes were irretrievably fallen. Again he sought his capital, followed by the remnant of a noble army, and arrived at Paris on the 9th of November.

14. The Spanish campaign had been equally disastrous. The French generals, not reinforced, could only maintain a defensive warfare. At Vittoria, the English and patriots, under Wellington, obtained a great and decisive victory over Joseph, who was retreating with immense treasures towards France. All became the booty of the conquerors, who were now masters of the peninsula. After the retreat of Napoleon from Germany, the garrisons which had been left there, were forced, one by one, to surrender. The allied sovereigns now advanced upon the Rhine, and with the opening of the next campaign, France was on all sides threatened with invasion. Wellington had entered upon its southern frontier, and the Russians and Austrians were ready to advance on the side of the Rhine. Holland, without tumult or bloodshed, emancipated herself from the French yoke, and reconstructed her ancient government. Murat, the king of Naples, ungratefully abandoned Napoleon, now in the time of his utmost need.

15. The French people were worn out with war; and all efforts to rouse the national spirit and recruit the army, proved ineffectual. The allies entered France; and Napoleon, after making the most of his inadequate means of defence, found himself surrounded by difficulties which no genius or skill could surmount. On the 30th of March, 1814, the allies advanced upon Paris. The empress Maria Louisa, and all the civil authorities, left the city, and a French army, which had taken a position on the heights of Montmartre, near Paris, was defeated. The following day the metropolis was given up to the allied sovereigns.

13. Give an account of military operations previous to the battle of Leipsic. Of that battle and its consequences.—14. Give an account of the military operations in Spain. Of the position of France at the beginning of the campaign of 1814. What was done by Holland? What is said of Murat?—16. Relate the advance of the allies to Paris. At what time did they enter that city?
16. Wellington advanced to Bourdeaux, and there erected the standard of the Bourbons. The Austrians made themselves masters of Lyons. Napoleon who had been engaged in attempts to obstruct and prevent the union of the grand armies, was still manoeuvring, with 50,000 men, to relieve Paris, when he learned its capitulation to the Russian and Prussian sovereigns. * With an agonized mind he retired and stationed himself at Fontainbleau; and there learned the general defection. On the 11th of April, 1814, he signed an act of abdication, renouncing for himself and his family, the thrones of France and Italy. He received from the allies the sovereignty of a small island, chosen by himself,—Elba, in the Mediterranean; where he was to retain the imperial title, and receive an income from France. Alexander made himself justly popular with the French; and chiefly by his giving freedom to the prisoners of Napoleon’s army, by which 150,000 Frenchmen were restored to their families.

17. A new constitution, dictated by the allied sovereigns, was received by the French senate; France was reduced to the limits it had occupied at the commencement of the revolution, the Bourbons were recalled, and Louis XVIII., who had been residing in England, was declared king. He had a task to perform, in rewarding friends, responding to the claims of the old royalists, and quieting enemies, to which he was not equal. The year had not expired, before discontents and murmurs were heard, and intrigues and conspiracies were carried on. A congress of the allied sovereigns had assembled at Vienna, to adjust and settle the concerns of Europe. They had not yet adjourned, when, ten months from his departure for Elba, Napoleon again trod the soil of France. With his imperial guard of Elba, numbering about 1,000 men, he escaped from the island, landed at Cannes, near Frejus, and at once advanced towards Paris. The troops stationed in his course, were in vain exhorited by the officers of the king to oppose his progress. The sight of their general awakened pleasing remembrances of past, and dreams of future glory,—and they hailed him with joyful acclamations. At Grenoble, where he first met his former soldiers, they seemed, for a moment, hesitating. Napoleon advanced alone, and offered his breast,—“Let him who will, kill his emperor.” Overcome by the appeal, they threw down their arms, and rushed to embrace him. The troops of Lyons, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the brother and nephew of the king, followed their example.

18. Louis, meanwhile, had made the best dispositions in his power to arrest the progress of his rival. But he knew not whom to trust. Ney promised to bring Napoleon in a cage.

16. Describe the situation of France in regard to the invading armies. Which of the allies first entered Paris, and when? What was the course of Napoleon?—17. What was done by the allied sovereigns? What was the position of Louis XVIII.? Where had the congress of allied sovereigns met? Describe the course of Napoleon from the 1st to the 12th of March.
and Louis gave him the command of the army stationed at Melun, to oppose his entrance into the capital. This army was drawn up, expecting that, which Napoleon had collected on his way. A galloping of horses was heard, and Napoleon himself, with a few attendants, arrived, at full speed, in an open carriage. He leaped from his vehicle, and threw himself into their arms. Their hearts melted; and thus, the proudest of his victories, Napoleon won the last army which Louis could bring into the field. On the 20th of March, Louis again went into exile, and established his little court at Ostend.

19. When the news of Napoleon's embarkation from Elba was made known to the sovereigns at Vienna, they burst into a laugh; but they soon found occasion for more serious proceedings. Scornfully rejecting the proffers of Napoleon for reconciliation, they issued their manifesto, declaring that he had forfeited the only legal title to life, and "that he was a disturber of the public tranquillity, and without the pale of civil and social relations." Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, reassembled large armies. England gave not only men, but 11 millions pounds sterling, which was paid in subsidies to the allies. The whole fortified frontier of the Belgic provinces on the side of France, was occupied by strong garrisons, chiefly of troops in British pay, of which Wellington took the command. The Prussian army, under Blucher, advanced to cooperate with him. The allies had in arms, in their various positions, upwards of a million of troops, to make war, as they declared, upon one man!

20. The efforts of Napoleon were unremitting and gigantic. He raised an army of 200,000 men; a force, which, though vastly inferior to that of the allies, was yet formidable. On the 16th of June, Napoleon obtained, at Ligny, his last victory, in which he compelled the Prussians to retreat. On the 18th, was fought the ever memorable battle of Waterloo. The Prussians were commanded by Blucher; the English by Wellington; and the French were for the last time under the eye of Napoleon. The battle was long and obstinately contested. It ended in the complete triumph of the allies,—and the sun of Napoleon now set forever.

21. He returned to Paris, and there found that he had no longer the confidence of the nation. Some proposed that he should dissolve the legislative chambers, and assume the dictatorship, La Fayette, then a member of the body, came forward, made and carried a motion that all attempts to dissolve the assembly at that important crisis, should be high treason.

18. Relate the occurrences to the 20th of March.—19. What effect did the news of Napoleon's return produce on the sovereigns at Vienna? What manifesto did they issue? What nations took up arms again? What did England give? What troops were on the northern frontier?—20. What army was now raised by Napoleon? Give a sketch of his short campaign till after the 18th of June.—21. What occurred after Napoleon's return to Paris? What was proposed in the assembly by La Fayette?
"France," he said, "had shed blood enough for the ambition of one man. Against the force in arms it was vain to attempt resistance." Napoleon abdicated, recommending his son; but the assembly made no pledge. Napoleon then taking a sorrowful farewell of his army, went to Rochefort, designing to embark for America. The harbor was blockaded by a British squadron. He went on board one of the ships, and surrendered himself to the commander, claiming, as he was self-delivered, the hospitality of the British nation. They sent him to St. Helena, a rock in the ocean. He died,—and in a little grass-grown nook, two weeping willows marked the grave of Napoleon. But the everlasting mountains above, and the perpetual sea below, were regarded by the passing mariner, as emblems of his genius and his fame.

CHAPTER III.

Great Britain and America.

1802. English provoke a new war.

1. The terms of the Treaty of Amiens were mortifying to England. She had surrendered all her conquests, except Trinidad in the West Indies, and Ceylon in the East. Some public rejoicings were held in London, but the people generally were by no means satisfied. And when it was seen that Bonaparte not only maintained his military armaments, but made new attempts to aggrandize France, Great Britain violated the treaty by refusing to give up the island of Malta. France then seized Piedmont; when the British recalled their minister, and declared war. Bonaparte then not only deprived them of Hanover, but made vast preparations for the invasion and conquest of the British islands. The English spirit rose with the crisis, and Napoleon was deterred from the project of invasion, and obliged to march into Germany, to combat the Third Coalition that "British gold and hatred," to use his words, had raised against him.

2. In the meantime the English continued the war in the East Indies, and acquired large territories from the native princes. They were triumphant over the French by sea, and captured their East India homeward fleet. England now declared war against Spain; that power being subservient to the views of Napoleon, and employed in increasing and strengthening her naval armaments. The French fleet, under admiral Ville-neuve, formed a junction with that of Spain, and both num-

21. Relate the sequel of Napoleon's history.

CHAP. III.—1. How did the people of England view the treaty of Amiens? How did they violate it, and what was done by France? When did England declare war, and what further was done by the two belligerents?—2. What was done in Asia? What did the English capture at sea? What is here said concerning Spain?
bening thirty-two sail of the line, were attacked off Cape
Trafalgar by the British fleet, consisting of twenty-seven sail,
under lord Nelson. The combined fleets were conquered, and
nearly destroyed; but Nelson, with 2,000 British seamen fell
in the battle. William Pitt, the energy of whose character
had so long controlled the nation, sunk under the weight of his
cares in the beginning of the next year; and his rival Mr. Fox,
appointed his successor, died also before its close. During the
administration of the latter, the Cape of Good Hope was con-
quered by the British.

3. Napoleon, having, by the great battles of Austerlitz and
Jena, reduced the continent of Europe to fear, if not to sub-
mission, attempted, in 1807, to compel the people, by what he
called his "his continental system," to prohibit British com-
cerce. To retaliate upon France, the English ministry had
issued orders for blockading that large portion of the western
coast of Europe extending from the mouth of the Elbe to Brest.
These and other measures of France and England nearly anni-
hilated the commerce of the American republic. Mr. Jeffer-
son, then president, caused an embargo to be laid on American
shipping; but proving extremely unpopular, it was repealed,
and a non-intercourse with the two offending nations substituted.
Great Britain made open pretensions to the supremacy of the
ocean, assumed the right to search neutral vessels, and to take
from them, not only such articles as the officers of their ships
judged contraband, but also her native seamen. Under this
pretended right she had grossly insulted the American flag,
having taken native born American sailors, and pressed them
into her service; yet England had, at this moment, some apo-
logy, in standing alone to set bounds to the ambition of Na-
poleon.

4. The venerable George III. having, in 1809, attained the
50th year of his reign, his subjects kept the anniversary of his
coronation as a jubilee. His general health was good, but his
mind was borne down by a severe domestic affliction, in the
sickness and death of his favorite daughter Amelia,—and his
reason was lost. His son George, the prince of Wales, was
formally invested with the regency of the kingdom. The com-
merce of the Americans, continuing to be crippled by the
restrictive systems of the two belligerent powers, they consid-
ered that both had given them just cause of war; but before
putting forth a declaration, they offered peace to that power
which should rescind its measures. This was partially done by
France; whereupon the republic declared war against England.
5. General Hull, on the part of the Americans, invaded Upper Canada, but soon retreated. The British General Brock, pursued him to Detroit, and there caused him to surrender his whole force. At Queenstown occurred another affair between the American troops and the British. The American militia, unused to war, did not perform in a soldier-like manner. A small body of regular troops, under Captain Wool, repelled an attack of the British, led by Brock, in which that commander was repulsed and slain. The American honor was well sustained at sea. The British frigate Guerriere struck to the frigate Constitution, commanded by Captain Hull; and the frigate Macedonian was captured by Commodore Decatur, commanding the frigate United States. In several other naval actions the Americans were also victorious.

6. General Winchester was defeated at Frenchtown; and by the treachery of the British commander, Colonel Proctor, 522 Americans were massacred by the savages after their surrender. But York, the capital of Upper Canada, surrendered to the Americans, under General Dearborn. General Clay was defeated at the rapids of the Miami. Fort George was taken by the Americans; and the British squadron on lake Erie captured by Commodore Perry. On lake Ontario, a strong naval armament was kept up, without any decisive superiority. In the meantime, a British squadron entered Chesapeake Bay, and committed depredations on its shores. The Chesapeake, an American frigate, too hastily fitted for sea, surrendered to the Shannon, a British frigate of superior force, off Boston harbor.

7. Lake Erie being now commanded by the Americans, an army under General Harrison, was landed in Canada, who pursued the forces under general Proctor, and the famous Indian chief Tecumseh, and defeated them on the Thames. Commodore Chauncey having obtained the ascendancy on lake Ontario, an army under General Brown crossed the Niagara river, and aided by the militia under General Porter, captured fort Erie. This was the first of a brilliant series of victories obtained by the American generals, Porter, Scott, Ripley and Brown, on the Niagara frontier, over the troops who had fought under Wellington in Spain. The most bloody of these conflicts was the night-battle of Bridgewater.

8. Sir George Prevost, the governor of Canada, being reinforced by Wellington's veterans, at the head of 14,000 troops, invaded the American territory at Plattsburgh, where were stationed about 4,000 American troops, under General Macomb. A British flotilla on lake Champlain, under Captain Downie, reached Plattsburgh bay at the same time, and attacked the American squadron, commanded by Commodore Macdonough.

5. What is said of Hull and his invasion of Queenstown? Of the affair at Frenchtown? Of the successes this year at sea?—6. What account is given of the affair at Frenchtown? What are the other events by land and sea, of the campaign of 1813?—7. What occurred on the Thames? On the Niagara frontier in 1814?—8. What occurred at Plattsburgh, and on lake Champlain?
A severe conflict ensued in the harbor of Plattsburgh, which ended in the total destruction of the British flotilla, and the fall of Downie. The commander-in-chief of the British forces saw this unexpected result with dismay. The militia of the adjacent states of New York and Vermont, by a general rally, were pushing forward by forced marches to succor Macomb; the outposts of the British were attacked, and Sir George Prevost ordered and executed a retreat so hasty, that his camp equipage and military stores were abandoned.

9. In the south, a barbarous predatory warfare had been waged by Admiral Cockburn. Nor was its character much changed, on the arrival of General Ross. This officer landed a force from the united fleets of Cockburn, Malcolm and Cochrane, and proceeded to Washington for the avowed purpose of burning and destroying the public edifices and works of art at that place. This object being effected, the British commander made a hasty retreat, and re-embarked his troops. The next attempt of General Ross was against the city of Baltimore, which was ably defended by a corps under General Smith. While advancing to the attack, Ross was met by a detachment of American riflemen, and fell mortally wounded. By this time the defences around Baltimore assumed so formidable an appearance, that the British commanders, both of the navy and army, judged that the prospect of success was not equal to the hazard, and the invading army withdrew.

10. Admiral Cochrane went to the West Indies. Being re-enforced, his fleet now consisted of thirteen ships of the line with transports, in which he received Sir Edward Packenham, and an army of 13,000 efficient men, destined for an attack upon New Orleans. Well grounded fears being entertained for the safety of that important city, General Jackson was charged with its defence. The British troops effected a landing on the 23d of December, and took a position nine miles below New Orleans. Gen. Jackson had taken his position with judgment, and fortified it with care. On the 8th of January, Sir Edward Packenham attempted to storm the American entrenchments. A deadly fire from their batteries, and entrenched riflemen, overwhelmed and threw back the British divisions, as often as they were brought to the charge. Packenham was killed, and the second and third in command wounded, when at length the British were driven from the ground. Their loss was 2,600, while of the Americans but seven were killed, and six wounded, a disproportion of loss not recorded of any other battle. Thus closed the military operations on land. At sea there had been spirited engagements, in which the American naval character was proved to stand a comparison with that of the British.

11. Peace had in the meantime been concluded between the

9. Relate the operations of General Ross, and the events in connexion.
10. Relate the invasion and defence of New Orleans.
two nations, by a treaty negotiated at Ghent. Changes in Europe had done away that part of the subject of complaint on the side of the Americans which related to commerce; and the question concerning the claim of the British to search neutral vessels, for the purpose of impressment, was waived. But the Americans had shown the British, that it could not with impunity be exercised on them. Before the intelligence of peace could be communicated to the naval commanders on distant stations, other naval actions were fought, which terminated in the triumph of the American arms. Peace with America, was at this moment fortunate for England; for Napoleon, her old and most dreaded enemy, soon after broke loose from Elba, and repossessed himself of the throne of France. Upon an emergency so unexpected, all the energies of the British empire were needed, and, as we have before seen, put in requisition. We have also seen the result. Napoleon delivered himself to England, declaring that he considered her the noblest of his foes.

11. What treaty was made? Were the points in dispute arranged? Why was peace favorable to England?
PERIOD IX.

FROM THE BATTLE 1815 OF WATERLOO.

TO THE PRESENT, 1844, OF CLOSING THIS HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

Brazil and Portugal.—Revolutions in America and Europe.

1. THE removal of John VI. of Portugal, and the Portuguese government, in 1808, to Brazil, was the commencement of that great South American empire. The Brazilian government opened their ports to all friendly nations; abolished the inquisition and the slave trade, and entered into an advantageous treaty of alliance and commerce with England. In 1815, John VI. returned to Portugal, and his son, Pedro, administered the government. The Brazilians now asserted their independence, formed a constitution, and elected that prince emperor, under the title of Pedro I. Portugal acknowledged the independence of Brazil, and the emperor exchanged ministers and treaties with foreign nations.

2. John VI. died in Portugal, March 10th, 1826. By the constitution of Brazil, Pedro the emperor, to whom the crown of Portugal now belonged, could not leave the new empire; and he resigned Portugal to his young daughter, Maria de Gloria. Miguel, brother of Pedro, contested her right, and was aided

PERIOD IX.—CHAP. I.—1. Who was sovereign of Portugal at the time of the government's removal to Brazil? When did the removal occur? What were the first acts of the government? What occurred in 1815?—2. How was Pedro situated on the death of his father, and what course did he take?
by the nobility and the priests. The constitutionalists and patriots were in favor of Maria, who at their request, crossed the ocean. But as Miguel was waging a war of extermination against her partisans, she was first taken to London, and then back to Brazil. In the meantime, the native Brazilians had demanded reforms in the administration, which were by no means agreeable to the Portuguese. Pedro wavered between the parties, and each was displeased with the concessions made to the other. Both the army and the people were against the emperor. On the 8th of April, 1831, he abdicated in favor of his infant son, Pedro II., a native of Brazil. A regency being established, he embarked with his daughter Maria, and the rest of his family, for Portugal.

3. Leaving Maria in France, Pedro entered his hereditary dominions, and summoned his brother to surrender to the queen, his daughter. The cruelties of Miguel, had already arrayed against him the liberal party of the Portuguese, who now rallied under Pedro. The Portuguese clergy branded the adherents of Pedro and his daughter as heretics, with whom no faith was to be kept; and thus throughout Portugal was civil war sharpened by religious persecution. The fleet of Miguel was captured; Lisbon surrendered, and the usurper fled to Spain. The populace rallied, proclaimed Maria, broke open the prisons, and liberated more than 5,000 prisoners. The queen's right was acknowledged by the high powers of Europe; the clergy were humbled, the convents were suppressed, and their property confiscated to the state. Courts of justice were instituted on the model of those of England and France, and the trial by jury established. Miguel, however, still kept up a cruel partisan warfare; when, on the 24th of April, 1834, a quadruple alliance was signed between the powers of Portugal, Spain, France and Great Britain. This treaty guarantied the throne of Portugal to Maria II., and also engaged to expel from Portugal the usurper Don Miguel. An adequate force was despatched from England to aid Maria in maintaining her authority. Under these circumstances Portugal was of course ruled by that nation. Spain had, by a singular coincidence, its young queen Isabel II., whose claim was upheld by the liberal party, and a usurper-uncle, Don Carlos, who was sustained by the royalists and clergy. The Quadruple Alliance also guarantied the claims of Isabel, and engaged to expel Carlos.

4. THE AMERICAN COLONIES OF SPAIN.—The jealous policy of Spain had led her to suppress, as much as
possible, all intercourse between her extensive American colonies and the rest of the world. Wearied with despotism, and disgusted with the quarrels and crimes of the reigning family, these provinces took advantage of the invasion of Spain by Napoleon, and asserted their independence. This opened an intercourse between them and foreign nations, and their history thenceforth began to be known.

5. In 1806, GENERAL MIRANDA, a native of Caraccas, who had served with reputation in the armies of republican France, made a generous, but premature attempt to liberate his native country. But in 1810, the patriots rose again, and although GENERAL MURILLO, with 10,000 troops was sent from Spain; yet the Spanish authorities were deposed, and a new government organized, under the name of the "Confederation of Venezuela." A congress assembled, independence was declared, and a constitution on republican principles was adopted. But the numerous clergy were hostile, and soon found an occasion to arrest the progress of public opinion, in the fatal earthquake which occurred March 26, 1812. On that day at 4 o'clock, P. M., with scarce a minute's warning, 4,500 dwellings and 19 churches were swallowed up, and 8,000 people went down to one common grave. The priests represented this dreadful phenomenon as a sign of the particular wrath of heaven, inflicted upon a rebellious and disobedient country, for daring to alter their political condition. The people were dismayed, and the whole province again submitted to royal authority.

6. In 1813, this province was again emancipated by the bold genius and successful military operations of SIMON BOLIVAR. In repeated battles he conquered the Spaniards, expelled them from his native country, and then entering New Granada, he drove them from Carthagenas, its capital, which he entered on the 16th of August. Buenos Ayres became independent in 1816, Chili in 1818, Peru and Guatemala in 1821. The Spanish authorities continued to resist, until their defeat at the great battle of Ayacucho. The power of Spain over these extensive countries is broken, and their independence of foreign dominion established. But they seem destined to be rent by domestic factions, and the lawless desire for power, of ambitious military chieftains.

7. MEXICO.—While under the government of Spain, Mexico was a viceroyalty; the viceroy having all the powers of a king. The Mexicans declared independence in 1813. ITURBIDE, an
ambitious Mexican, at first opposed the revolution. In 1816, he destroyed or drove to the mountains, all the revolutionary chiefs, except Guerrero; and in 1822 he restored the vice-royalty. Iturbide then raised his own standard, and caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, under the title of Augustine I. The populace shouted him, and drew his carriage through the streets of Mexico. But a powerful party, headed by Victoria, Guerrero, Santa Anna, and other distinguished military men, opposed the new government, and after a bloody struggle, the emperor was, in 1823, compelled to abdicate; but he was allowed to take refuge in Europe on a pension. In 1824 Iturbide returned; but he was a Napoleon in no one's estimation but his own; and as soon as he stepped upon the shore of his country, he was arrested and shot.

8. The constitution of 1824 was adopted, and in 1825, the first constitutional congress assembled. Two political parties, the Scotch and Yorkists, were in 1823, arrayed against each other in the choice of president. After an arduous contest, the election resulted in the choice of Gen. Pedraza, of the Scotch party, over Guerrero, candidate of the York party, by a majority of two votes. General Santa Anna, at the head of the military, proclaimed Guerrero president. After some fighting, Pedraza was compelled to yield, and Guerrero was inaugurated president in 1829.

9. Gen. Bustamente, of the Scotch party, having been elected vice president, placed himself in his turn at the head of a body of troops, and denounced the president Guerrero. He advanced upon the capital, and Guerrero finding himself too weak to withstand him, abdicated the presidency, and general Bustamente was elected by the army as his successor. In 1831, Santa Anna, after having been for some time in a state of rebellion against the president Bustamente, on the 16th of July issued an exciting proclamation, calling on the Mexicans to arm against him. At length, in 1833, after sanguinary conflicts, Santa Anna prevailed over Bustamente; and established himself in power, and by some sort of an election, was made president. To inhuman scenes of civil war and bloodshed, the cholera this year added its ravages; and 22,000 persons are supposed to have perished with this plague in the capital only.

10. The administration of Santa Anna commenced with some acts favorable to liberty and toleration. Ecclesiastical tithes, monastic vows, and the authority of the pope were abolished; and the education of youth taken out of the hands of the priests. Five free colleges were established upon the ruins of the monk-
ish institutions; and professors, either native or foreign, were employed without regard to religious tenets. But the old clergy had still great power with the people; and revolts against the president, broke out in several of the states of the Mexican confederacy. At Guadalupe, Santa Anna, having obtained a decisive victory over the insurgent general, García, became the idol of his army, and was greeted by the sounding title of the "illustrious savior of his country."

11. New principles were now introduced into the administration. With the ostensible view of restraining the turbulence arising from the imperfections of the federative system, Santa Anna procured a constitutional decree to be enacted, changing the form of government, to that which was termed, "A popular representative central system,—based upon the Roman catholic religion, on the independence and indivisibility of the actual territory, on the division of the power of the government, and the freedom of the press." And of this incongruous government, the object of which was despotism, cloaked with fair words, Santa Anna was constituted "president and supreme chief of the nation, and protector of its votes freely expressed!" The supreme chief was fast consolidating his government; but he met with opposition, chiefly from the English and Anglo-American part of the population. Against those, the Spaniards were inspired with hatred; in consequence of which, an inhuman massacre took place at Zacatecas.

12. Texas in extent of territory, was one of the most considerable states of Mexico. Being contiguous to the republic of America, it was filling fast with some of the most enterprising citizens of its states. They believed that Mexico would adhere to republican principles; and they were attracted by the fertility of Texas, and its other natural advantages. Besides these there was another class, composed of insolvent debtors, and other persons from the United States, who were less likely to make good inhabitants in their newly chosen country. But all had been nurtured in the lap of civil liberty, and taught to believe that the people's rights were sacred; and they all refused to adopt the changed government introduced by Santa Anna. They nullified his laws, resisted his custom house officers, and in some places drove them from the territory. Santa Anna issued his manifesto against the inhabitants of Texas. They fearlessly prepared to contest their independence. The San Felipe, a vessel manned by Texans, fought and took a Mexican vessel of war. Santa Anna despatched General Cos, with a strong force, to the mouth of the river Brazos. General Houston assumed the command of the Texian forces.

10. Relate the battle of Guadalupe.—11. Did Santa Anna, like Washington, remain true to his country after power was in his hands, or did he then change his course?—12. Give some account of Texas, and its inhabitants. What ground did they take respecting Santa Anna's subversion of the Mexican constitution? What measures did they take to resist the power of Santa Anna? What military operations occurred?
He took Bahia, the fort of Goliad, and finally, with severe loss on both sides, he conquered the Alamo,—the name given to a fortress in San Antonio de Bexar.

13. On the 2d of March, 1836, a convention of delegates, chosen for that purpose, drew up and published, in the name of the people of Texas, an able Declaration of Independence;—although they were at the same time menaced by Santa Ana, who on the 6th of March, arrived at the Alamo, (on the borders of Texas,) with an army of from three to six thousand men. That fortress was defended by 180 Texans, under the command of Colonel Travis. Santa Ana commenced an assault about midnight. At dawn only seven men of the garrison were found alive. They cried for quarter, and being refused, renewed the battle, and fought till every man was slaughtered. More than one thousand of the assailants are said to have perished.

14. After the fall of the Alamo, General Houston with about 1000 men, fell back upon the Colorado. Colonel Fanning with a garrison of 500 was left to defend Goliad; but, inferior in force, he evacuated the fortress. Santa Anna pursued, and cut off his retreat; when Fanning surrendered upon the faith of being treated according to the rules of Christian warfare: but Santa Anna caused him and his men instantly to be put to death. Elated and confident, he then hastened to engage the main body of the Texans, encamped upon the Brasso, whom his cruelty had wrought to fury. Houston, bearing down upon his enemies, thrice his own number, brought them to action so close, as to be within half rifle distance; and in less than thirty minutes compelled them to flee. This battle secured the independence of Texas. Among the prisoners was Santa Anna himself, who, after being detained some months in captivity, was set at liberty. A new constitution was adopted, and General Houston was elected president.

15. THE GREEK REVOLUTION.—The desire of liberty among the people, and a just appreciation of human rights, distinguishes the nineteenth century. In 1820–21 it manifested itself not only in the rising republics of America, but in Spain, Portugal, Naples, Piedmont,—and lastly, in the Turkish empire, where in Greece it produced permanent effects. The sovereigns of Europe banded together in what they called "The Holy Alliance;" interfered to frustrate the wishes of the people in the other countries, notwithstanding they asked merely for constitutional monarchies. Greece, though a Christian nation under Mahometan rule, would have fared no better, had not Great Britain prevented the Holy Alliance from interfering

13. What was done on the 2d of March, 1836? Describe the military operations till after the fall of Alamo.—14. From the fall of Alamo to the battle of San Jacinto. Relate that battle and its consequences.—15. By what is the nineteenth century distinguished? How did this spirit manifest itself in the years 1820–21? Why did not the effects of this spirit, thus manifested by the people, become permanent? To what empire did Greece at this time belong? Why did not the Holy Alliance prevent the emancipation of Greece?
against her emancipation, wrought out by the desperate valor of her sons. That interference was not, however, at this time.

16. Russia as we have seen, had often in her employable foreigners. Such were the Greeks, Count Capo D'Istria, Alexander Ypsilanti and others. Their hearts were set upon the release of their country; and the Russian authorities, willing to weaken the Porte, that they might take its provinces, encouraged them by hopes of aid, to raise the standard of revolt. They formed a secret society, called "the Hetaireia," who were bound by oath to stand for each other, and for the liberties of Greece. They then openly revolted. The Turks, of course, made war upon them to reduce them to submission. Russia having thus divided the Turkish empire against itself, treacherously withheld her promised aid, and left the Greeks to fight their own battles. The struggle with them was now not only for liberty but for life; and there is nothing in the history of ancient Greece to compare with the fierce valor, with which the modern Greeks resisted their oppressors. Even their women took arms.

17. Turkish vengeance attacked first the Greek clergy, and Gregory, the venerable patriarch of Constantinople, was barbarously slain, at the door of his sanctuary. This act roused the Greeks; and appalling horrors were perpetrated in the conflicts which ensued. The Greeks were without a government, and without support, except what they received from charitable associations in Great Britain, France, and America. Yet they proceeded in 1822, to form a union under an independent federal government. The Persians having now invaded the Turkish empire, the sultan was obliged to send a powerful army to the Euphrates; and he also placed a strong military force upon the Danube, to watch certain hostile movements of Russia. One of his own vassals, also, the bold and desperate Ali Pacha, of Albania, was in open rebellion against him. These troubles compelled him for a season to relax his operations against the revolted Greeks; but having at length purchased a peace with Persia, beheaded Ali Pacha, and entered into friendly relations with Russia, he was again ready to prosecute the Greek war.

18. Fifteen thousand of the most barbarous of the Asiatic Turks were let loose upon the beautiful island of Scio. The Scioites resisted, but were overpowered, and their little paradise laid waste—and 40,000 men, women, and unresisting children, were massacred, while 30,000 were carried into Mahometan slavery.

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16. What Greeks were in the service of Russia, what did they desire, and what encouragement did they have? What did they then do? What part did Russia now take? What was the character of the struggle in which the Greeks were now engaged?—17. Who were the first objects of the vengeance of the Turks? In what year did the Greeks form an independent government? What circumstances for a time called off the attention of the Turks from the Greek war?—18. What was the first act of the Turks after this suspension? What numbers were massacred and carried away prisoners at Scio?
captive. The Turkish fleet now took on board the murderers who were prepared to desolate the Morea. The Ipsariotes, having secured their families, went on board their little fleet. With the courage of desperation they then grappled their fire ships to the ship commanded by the Turkish admiral, which blew up with terrible destruction. The commander himself, and nearly three thousand of his men perished in the explosion.

19. KURCHID PACHA, at the head of 25,000 Turks, passed the straits of Thermopylae, and inhumanly laid waste the Morea. The Greek chiefstains, NICETAS, DEMETRIUS YPSILANTI, and COLOCOTRONI, occupied the straits which the enemy had passed, and cut off his communications. The Turkish commander, reduced to extremities, offered to evacuate the Grecian territory, which was refused him. He then made a desperate effort to break through the Greek defences in the night. But Nichetas fell upon the confused and bewildered Turks, and cut up and destroyed the whole army. After this, the Turks made but little progress in Greece, until IBRAHIM PACHA, of Egypt, was appointed by the sultan governor of Greece, and charged with the management of the war. He opened the campaign of 1826 with energy, and the conquest of Greece seemed inevitable. In this alarming crisis, the Greeks implored aid of the Christian powers.

20. England now interfered in earnest, and on the 6th of July, 1827, by The Treaty of London, the ministers of Great Britain, France, and Russia, guarantied the pacification of Greece, and the ministers of the three powers notified the Turkish government, that “Greece must thereafter govern herself.” The Turks rejected the offered pacification of the three powers, and Ibrahim, with the Turkish-Egyptian fleet, entered the bay of Navarino. While lying there in order of battle, the combined British, French and Russian fleets approached, and a deadly conflict ensued. The Turkish armada of 110 ships fought with desperation. Not a flag was struck, and the whole fleet was either burnt, sunk, or disabled. Hostilities now ceased, and the sultan soon after acceded to the treaty of London.

21. The Greeks had chosen a republican form of government, and made count Capo d'Istria their president; but the combined powers, having decided that the government must be monarchical, conferred the crown upon prince OTHO, second son of LOUIS, king of Bavaria. His ministers have been occupied in organizing the government. They have gratified the people by establishing the religion of the ancient Greek church.

18. What was done by the men of Ipsara?—19. What military operations are next related? When the great commander, Ibrahim Pacha, was sent to Greece by the sultan, what occurred?—20. What power now interfered, and what treaty was made? What notice was given to the Turkish authorities, and how did they receive it? Relate the battle which followed, with its results.—21. What government had the Greeks chosen? What form of government did the allied powers impose upon them, and whom give them for a king?
DEPRESSION SUCCEEDS WAR.

Commerce and agriculture begin to revive and schools are encouraged. On the 5th of July, 1834, a royal decree was made to encourage the spreading of female education over Greece, by the establishment of a school at Athens for the instruction of female teachers, a measure worthy of the genius of this interesting people. The Greeks had been long expecting and petitioning for a charter of their rights,—a constitution defining the limits of the authorities set over them. Not receiving this just claim, they entered into a combination, and in the summer of 1843 compelled Otho to grant them a constitutional government.

CHAPTER II.

The British Empire.

1. Until the close of the wars of the French revolution, the attitude of Great Britain had been warlike. She had stood the bulwark of Europe against the encroachments of Napoleon, but in so doing had subjected herself to immense sacrifices. Her debt amounted to more than the whole resources of the kingdom, if applied to no other purpose, could pay in forty years. As usual, war had been a season of excitement and intoxication; and peace, like the sudden withdrawal of a fever, made the nation languid and almost perishing from exhaustion. Hundreds of thousands had been provided for, who were at once thrown out of employ; the nation expending less by £60,000,000 annually, than in the years of the war. Want bred discontent and murmurs. America, the best customer of England, was suffering a similar depression, so that foreign trade failed to afford relief. Seasons were unfavorable, and harvests scanty; wages low, and provisions high. Laborers pressed by necessity, combined to extort higher wages. Masters could give no more, and discharged their operatives. Writers took advantage of these disaffections to sow disorganizing principles, and the faults of the English government, real and imaginary, became the agitating theme of her discontented people,—as vast

* So much the best customer, that when in 1836 all the exports from Great Britain to every part of the world, including her own provinces, amounted to £53,368,000, those to our republic were £12,423,000,—nearly one-quarter of the whole.

21. What is said of religion and education in Greece? What has lately taken place in Greece in respect to a constitution?

CHAP. II.—1. What was the attitude of Great Britain during the wars with Napoleon? What do you learn of her national debt in 1816? What was the first effect of peace? What was the difference of the national expenditure during the last years of the war and the first of the peace? What was the actual expenditure in each? (See side note.) Describe the progress of discontent among the people.
assemblages met in the open air. Workmen coming forth from
their numbers, harangued them on their poverty contrasted
with the luxury of those, who doing nothing, rioted in the na-
tion's wealth. These orators chiefly fixed on the grievance of
the unequal representation in the house of commons,—by which
Manchester, with 187,000 inhabitants, and other large manu-
factoring cities, had no representative in parliament, while the bo-
rough of Old Sarum, with only twelve inhabitants, and fifty
others similarly situated and called "rotten boroughs," were
each represented. The cry of these people was for a radical
reform of these abuses. Hence they were called "The Radicals."

A fleet was sent to Algiers under Lord Exmouth, who put an
entire stop to the piracy of the Algerines,—a good work begun
by the Americans. After the city had been bombarded by the
English, the Dey bound himself by treaty to deliver all Chr

2. In 1817–18, a gleam of commercial prosperity, operating
with the vigilance of the ministry in apprehending the itinerant
orators, produced a temporary calm; but in 1819, the orators
being set at liberty, the disturbances became more alarming
than before; and, in both England and Scotland, vast field meet-
ings were held, and the throne and the houses of parliament
were overwhelmed with petitions. The more violent were pre-
paring by secret organization and nocturnal trainings, to raise
the standard of open rebellion. On the 16th of August 50,000
people of all ages and both sexes, went forth from Manchester
to hold a peaceful meeting in the fields, with banners where
floated the characters "Liberty or Death," "Annual Parlia-
ments," "No Corn Laws," &c. None wore an offensive wea-
pon, and the speaker was just expressing his confident hope of
their quiet demeanor, when suddenly a body of calvary came
upon them, dashed through their thickest ranks, trampling them
to death, and cutting them down with sabres! Thus more
than 400 peaceable citizens were massacred. This severe mea-
sure was followed, Nov. 13th, by "The Six Acts," which em-

3. On the death of the aged and insane monarch, George III.,
the prince regent, now George IV., was invested with full so-
vereignty. He was an immoral man. No cruelty, exercised on
the mind and character, could exceed that, with which he had
treated his wife, Caroline of Brunswick. She was a woman
of high spirit, and being made unhappy in England, she had
been abroad for some years. She now came home to claim a

1. What grievance was complained of? Describe the origin of the term
"the Radicals." What did Lord Exmouth accomplish? 2. What was
the state of things in 1817–18? Relate the occurrences of the 16th of Au-
gust, 1819, at Manchester. What was done by parliament the November
following? 3. Who became king, and at what time? What was his char-
acter and his treatment of his wife? Who was she?
part in the approaching coronation. Her return was met by a prosecution for breach of the marriage vow, instituted by her husband, and odious to the nation; as the prosecutor was notoriously guilty himself, and had done every thing the opposite of affording her a husband’s protection. After a trial she was acquitted by the judges; but she was not allowed to share in the coronation. This was celebrated with pomp, and at an expense of £262,000; notwithstanding it was a season of such distress in Ireland, that more than 200,000 persons were without the means of subsistence, and many were daily starving to death.

4. In the succeeding years England took a ground with regard to European affairs which entitles her to the gratitude of the world. The “Holy Alliance,” by their measures at the congress of Verona, had fully developed their hostility to all claims of constitutional liberty on the part of the people. England checked their proceedings, and at length virtually broke the league. She caused the independence of Greece from the Turkish yoke to be recognized, but her sovereign united with the others in prohibiting a republican form of government, and imposing on that people a foreign king.

5. The catholics in Ireland had suffered since their conquest by William III., grievous privations; but their condition had been gradually made better. In 1778 a law was abolished by which children of that denomination were deprived of the inheritance of parents; and another which forbade a catholic to keep school on pain of imprisonment. In 1791 their places of worship and schools were tolerated, and they were allowed to practise law. In 1793 they were permitted to hold offices in the army and navy. The catholic question was again agitated, and Lord John Russel introduced a bill by which the catholics were permitted to share in all municipal offices of power and trust. But they were yet dissatisfied, and in Ireland, “The Catholic Association,” at the head of which is Daniel O’Connell, contrived means to get so entire a control over the whole catholic population comprising the greater part of the Irish people, as to levy a tribute from them under the name of rent. The duke of Wellington became prime minister, and contrary to expectation he made it his policy to settle this question by concession. He therefore, though with great difficulty, carried through parliament laws granting the catholics the highest offices in the judiciary and the legislature. O’Connell, however, soon found other subjects of agitation, and contrived to keep and increase his authority over the people. His present subject of complaint is the legislative union of Ireland with England.

3. What course did she pursue? What is said of the coronation as to expense? What better use does it seem that the money might have been put to, as it respects the people of Ireland?—4. What is said of the course of England and that of the Holy Alliance?—5. Give an account of the progress of emancipation in Ireland up to the time of the Wellington ministry. What policy did Wellington pursue, and what carry through parliament? What subject of agitation have employed O’Connell and his party?
and the "Repeal" meetings in Ireland held under his auspices, have been attended by hundreds of thousands. Recently he has been apprehended, tried, and imprisoned.

6. William IV. succeeded his brother, George IV. The French revolution of the "Three Days" brought afresh to the people desires for the reformation of abuses, especially of the unequal representation in the House of Commons. The House itself was now favorable to the Reform. The Reform Bill was brought in by Lord Brougham, and after many struggles on the part of its friends, it passed to the great joy of the nation at large. Old Sarum, and fifty-five other "rotten boroughs," whose members had been sent into the House of Commons, either by the crown or nobility, were by this bill disfranchised; and 42 manufacturing cities and flourishing places, were now first empowered to send their representatives. In Hanover the people felt the impulse towards an increase of political liberty, and the English government gave them a new constitution, by which they have a legislature of two branches. Some one of the royal family of England is to constitute the chief executive. In 1833, Great Britain abolished colonial slavery; parliament granting £20,000,000 to remunerate the slave owners. Mr. Wilberforce was the prime mover in those benevolent acts.

7. In 1834, parliament passed "the Poor Law Amendment Act." The poor laws in England and Wales had dispensed large sums to the poor; but great abuses had been reported to parliament by persons employed to investigate. Paupers were so provided for, that their condition was better than that of the independent laborer, who had to sustain his part of the enormous expenditure. By the many officers employed in dispensing the fund a considerable part of it was absorbed. The "Amendment Act" provided that the relief of the poor should be placed in the hands of three commissioners, who are empowered to appoint their assistants. This "triumvirate" system was regarded as an experiment which time must test, and complaints have arisen under its operation. The great amount of pauperism led to the belief that the population was in excess, and the consequent encouragement of emigration. At least 100,000 annually leave Great Britain for Canada, the United States, Australia, and the Cape of Good Hope. These last places are fast rising to consequence. The English parliament gave attention to national reforms. Lord Brougham brought forward in the House of Commons, plans of popular education,

* The principal supporters of this bill.—lord Brougham, lord John Russel, earl Grey, and lord Althorpe, received presents of gold cups purchased by penny subscriptions, to which 300,000 persons contributed.

6. Who succeeded George IV.? What do you understand by the Reform Bill, and what can you relate respecting it? What was done in Hanover? What laws did parliament make regarding slavery? What liberal sum appropriate?—7. What is said of the operation of the poor laws? Of their amendment? Of emigration? What further laws did this period of reform produce?
and lord John Russel a project for the "Reform of Municipal Corporations," which was passed into a law.

8. After a short reign in which England had made a great and honorable advance in political liberty, industrial arts, and mercantile enterprise, William IV. died, and was succeeded by his niece, Victoria. Ernest, the oldest surviving son of George III., became king of Hanover. A rebellion in Canada, which Great Britain had ruled with much moderation, had broken out, chiefly among the disaffected of the French population, improperly aided by individuals of the United States. But it appeared, that though the rebels showed fighting courage, they had neither well digested plans, nor strict concert; and the rebellion was soon crushed.

9. The British Empire in India has continued to extend. In 1816 the isles of Mauritius and Bourbon were conquered from France. In 1815, by a war with the natives, the English obtained Kumaoon and the mountain passes; and the same year the native kingdom of Candy in Ceylon. In 1818, a last effort of the Maharrattas was quelled, and their whole country subjected. In 1824, in a war with Birmah, the British conquered its north-eastern states, which were ceded, together with an annual tribute in 1825, at the Peace of Yandah. In

8. What is remarked concerning the short reign of William IV.† Who succeeded him † Who became sovereign of Hanover † Give some account of the rebellion in Canada.—9. Give an account of the growth of the British empire in India.
1814 the charter of the East India Company was modified, their monopoly limited to twenty years, and restricted to China. At the close of 1833, the China trade being free to all British subjects, difficulties occurred between the English traders and the Chinese, in regard to the sale of opium, which the authorities of that Empire had interdicted as hurtful to the people. The English continued to bring large quantities; the Chinese took prisoners the merchants, and compelled them to throw overboard the deleterious drug, to the value of £2,000,000. The English government took up the quarrel,—attacked the Chinese and obtained such advantages, that the emperor made peace by submitting to pay the English $11,000,000, to throw open five of his ports, and cede in perpetuity the island of Hong-Kong.

10. Yet, with an empire on which the sun never sets, there are dark home-bred clouds in the horizon of Great Britain. She has a great national debt. The ardent Irish are ruled by the catholics, and hence at enmity with the British government; and now its all powerful aristocracy have against them in "the Free Church," the bone and sinew of the nationality of Scotland. We have seen how, in the reign of queen Anne, the Scots suffered their parliament to become merged into that of England. It was, however, on the strict assurance that their national church should be left free. But the union was no sooner accomplished than the Bolingbroke ministry, to make way for the restoration of the Stuarts, carried through parliament, a law distributing among the aristocracy of Scotland the church benefices or livings; so that congregations had no longer the right to choose their own ministers.

11. The General Assembly of the Scottish church, though dissatisfied, acquiesced at the time; because the lay patrons universally made it a rule not to impose pastors on unwilling congregations. In late years, attempts have been made to enforce the law, according to its letter. The party opposed to the usurpation, and headed by Dr. Chalmers, became the majority of the General Assembly, which now refused to ordain pastors, unless they were freely called by the people. The lay patrons attempted to coerce them to ordain, by processes at the civil law; which they carried through, to the last appeal,—the British house of lords, who gave the cause against the assembly, and in favor of the lay patrons. Then, on the 15th of May, 1843, when the Assembly met at Edinburgh, instead of proceeding to business, the moderator declared that the Assembly could no legislate for the Scottish church, for they were no longer free
He left the house, and five hundred ministers followed him, multitudes of the people cheering them on. They met by themselves, and by deed gave up all the church property;—their endeared churches, and pleasant parsonages; thus stripping themselves to the amount of $14,000,000 dollars. The people sustained them; and in a year $2,000,000 have been collected by voluntary contributions in Scotland, England and America; 470 new churches have been built, and about 800 congregations have been formed.

CHAPTER III.

France and the Holy Alliance, including a general view of Continental Europe, from 1815 to 1844.

1. On the abdication of Napoleon the command of the French army devolved on marshal Davoust. By a military convention with Blucher and Wellington, he withdrew his army behind the Loire; and Paris was again occupied with foreign troops, under whose protection, Louis XVIII., a second time, took possession of the throne. France was now compelled to surrender some of her most flourishing provinces,—to maintain, for five years, a foreign army, in eighteen fortresses on the north and east,—to pay a tribute of 700,000,000 francs,—and to restore the works of art to the nations from which Napoleon had taken them. Marshal Ney was condemned and shot, contrary to the treaty of capitulation.

2. The sovereigns of Russia, Prussia, and Austria, signed at Paris, the league called the "Holy Alliance." They declared in this, their determination to make Christianity the basis of their actions, domestic and foreign. They asserted their divine right to govern "three branches of one and the same Christian nation." They invited England to become a party; but the regent declined giving his signature, although he expressed his approval. Austria sent armies to repress the free spirit of Naples. In June, 1815, Ferdinand IV. was restored. Murat, who had been deposed, made a foolish attempt to regain the throne,—was taken as he landed on the shore, and afterwards shot. Alexander of Russia, having assumed the title of czar and king of Poland, gave the Poles, by a charter, the semblance of constitutional liberty; and appointed Constantine, his brother, commander-in-chief of the kingdom.

II. What, for the sake of their religion, was relinquished by the Scottish clergy?

CHAP. III.—1. What occurred in Paris on the abdication of Napoleon? To what were the French compelled by the allies? What is related of Marshal Ney?—2. What league was made at Paris? By whom? What objects did it set forth? Which of the powers soon interfered with the affairs of another nation? What is said of Ferdinand? (See side note.) What was the fate of Murat? What was done by Alexander in respect to Poland?
3. At the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, France became a member of the Holy Alliance. This congress established the principle of an "armed intervention," or in other words, the members of the Holy Alliance agreed to assist each other with their whole military force, against their own subjects, in case of a revolt in either kingdom. At the congress which convened at Troppau, these principles were still further extended, and the right was claimed to interfere by coercion in the domestic affairs of all other nations. This pretended right was exercised in relation to the affairs of Spain, Portugal and Naples. The people of all these kingdoms had obtained better securities for their liberties, by adopting free constitutions. Their respective rulers had sworn to be governed by them, and the citizens felt that they had secured the blessings of liberty to themselves and their posterity. But the "Holy Alliance" sent their armies, broke up the domestic arrangements of the people, abrogated their constitutions, and restored the sovereigns to absolute power.

4. These acts of gross violence against the sovereignty of nations, were abhorrent to all liberal men in Europe and America. The government of the United States through president Monroe, took solemn notice of them; and declared that such principles should not be extended to any part of the American continent. The philanthropist will however, indulge the hope, that notwithstanding the wrongs with which the Holy Alliance stands chargeable, that it contains within it the germ of a better order of things; and that there may yet be, in Europe, a tribunal where nations may resort for the redress of real or supposed grievances.

5. In France, the principles of the Holy Alliance created great excitement; and they were boldly denounced in the chamber of deputies. The ministry became alarmed, and were proceeding to extreme measures, when public attention was diverted by the death of Louis XVIII. — His brother, the duke of Artois, a bigot in politics and religion, ascended the throne, under the title of Charles X. As liberal ideas gained ground with the people, the government became more and more agitated with alarm. The return of La Fayette, from a visit of friendship to America, was watched with apprehension. The arbitrary Villele was at the head of the ministry. He had obtained a majority in the French chamber of deputies by influencing the elections. But this short-sighted expedient only increased the general disaffection.

6. Pending the struggle with Napoleon, the sovereigns of Germany had promised their subjects, what, by their progress in
COMMERCIAL LEAGUE OF THE GERMAN STATES.

intelligence they ardently desired, constitutional governments; but when the war was over, few remembered their engagements. The king of Bavaria and the duke of Baden, however, fulfilled theirs in good faith. These states and Prussia have given great attention to primary education. A Commercial League, under the auspices of Prussia has been formed, connecting in a new bond almost all the states which formerly belonged to the Germanic body. This league is called the "Zoll Verein."

7. Alexander I. of Russia, was not only a statesman and warrior, but an estimable man. Under his administration the power of his vast and yet semi-barbarous empire was felt in every court of Europe. On his death, which the civilized world regretted, Constantine, his brother, was declared emperor. This prince was then administering the government of Poland. He renounced his hereditary rights to his brother Nicholas, who assumed the government, and dated his reign from the death of Alexander. He repelled an invasion of the Persians under Abbas Mirza, and compelled him to cede to Russia large territories on both sides of the river Araxes, and pay the expenses of the war. Nicholas has since manifested himself an able and accomplished sovereign; and is beloved by the Russians and respected by foreign nations.

8. Mahmoud II., the sultan of Turkey, took occasion from an insurrection of the janizaries, to attack and destroy the dangerous power of that body, the praetorians of Turkey. He modelled his armies on the European system, and placed himself in a hostile attitude against Russia, then occupied with the Persian war. The Russian forces, amounting to 200,000, invaded his kingdom, and after numerous sieges and battles, in which victory repeatedly changed sides, at length prevailed. Having passed the Balkan mountains, the Russians occupied Adrianople, the second city in the Turkish empire, where, in 1829, they dictated the terms of a peace by which they obtained the free navigation of the Black Sea and Dardanelles. Subsequently, by the treaty of Unkiar Skelessi, the Porte engaged to close those straits against any other nation, at the demand of Russia. This alarmed England lest Russia should, by subjugating Turkey, get a preponderating power. The able viceroy of Egypt, Mehemet Ali, sent his son Ibrahim with an army, who overran Syria, and defeated the Turks at the battle of Konieh. The English interfered, and obliged Mehemet to withdraw his forces, and still acknowledge his vassalage to the sultan; but his subjection is rather nominal than real. Egypt is improving under his auspices.

9. Ferdinand VII of Spain, was, in 1830 sinking under dis-
case. Having no children, Don Carlos his brother was prospective heir to the crown; and the priests and ultra royalists believed that under his auspices they were to be restored to their ancient influence. As this would be destruction to the existing government, Ferdinand was persuaded on the birth of a daughter, named Isabella, to abrogate the Salic law, declare her his successor,—and to constitute her mother, Christina, regent. The followers of Don Carlos remonstrated; but on the death of Ferdinand in 1833, the arrangement went into effect, and Isabella II., then three years old, was proclaimed. Don Carlos was also proclaimed by his party, and a sanguinary civil war ensued; he being supported by the clergy and absolutists, and the queen-regent by the liberal party. France and England being constitutional monarchies, cordially united in giving their support to the young queens, Maria of Portugal, and Isabella II. of Spain. The southern and eastern provinces of Spain rose in 1835, and demanded back a constitution which had been adopted in 1812. By the regent's consent it was anew proclaimed. The same year the order of Jesuits was suppressed in Spain,—900 convents were interdicted, and their property confiscated for the use of the government. Still the party of Don Carlos kept its ground, being favored in the northern provinces. The most revolting scenes occurred of the fratricidal slaughter of brethren of the same political family. In 1840 a peace was made; and the same year the queen-dowager resigned the regency,—which the Cortes conferred on General Espartero. In 1843 he was exiled, and Spain is again the theatre of civil war. Portugal is comparatively tranquil.

10. After the coronation of Charles X. in France, the Jesuits, and such as adhered to arbitrary principles, were taken into favor with the king. They were opposed with great energy and boldness by the liberals. To take off public attention from their measures, and make themselves popular with the nation, the ministry made a war with Algiers. It was ably conducted, and ended in the subjugation of that country; but the ministry obtained no credit even for this, and the elections were carried against them. This they attributed to the influence of "a free press," which they said, "was at all times an instrument of disorder and sedition." On the 26th of July, 1830, they published "The Three Ordinances." The first, dissolved the chamber of deputies; the second, suspended the liberty of the press, and the third, presented a new and arbitrary law of election. The first attempts to carry these despotic ordinances into execution, was the signal for "The Revolution of the Three

9. What was the state of Spain in 1830? What arrangements were made by Ferdinand VII.? What occurred on his death to produce civil war? By whom were the opposite parties supported? What ground was taken by France and England? What was done in Spain in 1833? In 1840 and 1843? What is in 1844 the state of Spain and Portugal?—10. Who were favored by Charles X.? What was done by the liberals? What war was got up, and how did it result? What were the three ordinances?
Days.” This revolution, like the American, was a contest for principle. Under the guidance of the venerable Lafayette, “The Standard” around which the liberal French, as if moved by one spirit, involuntarily rallied, the revolution was effected. About 1000 men fell during the “three days,” Lafayette was again made commander-in-chief of the national guards. Charles and the royal family departed from France. The chamber of deputies, at the recommendation of Lafayette, made Louis Philip, of the family of Orleans, king of the French. The late ministers were tried and sentenced to perpetual imprisonment. Hereditary nobility was abolished, and the elective franchise extended.

11. The severity of the Russian government in Poland, with the loss of national existence, had always been intolerable to that ancient people. An extensive conspiracy of the youth of the first families was formed to liberate their country. Their operations were at first carried on in secret, but the conspiracy was discovered, and the prisons were crowded with Polish victims. On the evening of the 10th of November, 1830, a young Polish officer entered the military school at Warsaw and called the youth to arms. The cadets instantly took up their line of march, and accompanied by the students of the university, proceeded to the residence of Constantine, and forced their way into his palace. He escaped by a secret passage. The insurrection immediately became general. Forty thousand Polish troops and citizens, having seized the public arsenal and armed themselves, expelled the Russian troops from Warsaw. A Polish diet was immediately assembled, and independence declared. The emperor Nicholas issued a proclamation denouncing the patriots as rebels. A succession of sanguinary battles followed, in which the Poles were at first victorious; but single-handed, they were unable to resist the giant power of Russia. They concentrated their forces around Warsaw, where, after several days of continued fighting, the Polish armies were defeated,—Warsaw was taken, and its defenders slaughtered, or driven into exile.

12. The French revolution of 1830 was immediately followed by that of Belgium. The Belgic people, always French in their institutions and feelings, had been, at the congress of Vienna, injudiciously annexed to Holland. An opportunity was now seized to sever themselves, and a national congress assembled, which declared the independence of Belgium; and in 1832 adopted a constitutional monarchy. The representatives of the five powers, Britain, France, Austria, Russia and Prussia, assembled in London, arranged the boundaries of the new kingdom, and apportioned the national debt between it and Holland. It was arranged that Leopold, of Saxe Coburg, should be king.

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11. What three days are mentioned, and what was done during the time? Who was the leader at this time? Who at the recommendation of Lafayette was made king.—11. Relate the last valiant struggle of the Poles—

12. What account can you give of Belgium?
of Belgium. Leopold afterwards married Louisa, eldest daughter of Louis Philip.

13. The repeated attempts which have been made upon the life of Louis Philip, have been a reason or pretence for so strengthening his power, and his military arrangements, that he has wholly abridged the liberties of the French people,—completely shackled the press, and placed Paris under military despotism. This king has, however, bent in some things to the spirit of the age; his government having patronized schools for the improvement of the common people; and while his power has promptly quelled their insurrections, he has gratified the feelings of the French in asking the British for the remains of him, whose conquests gave them, for a time, such a proud eminence among the nations. A warlike vessel was sent to St. Helena. The grass-grown nook has been disturbed,—and its willow no longer waves over the grave of Napoleon. Attended by six hundred thousand persons—borne on a glittering car, the conqueror again enters Paris. But death has conquered him; and it is but dust and ashes, which is borne aloft, in that pompous ceremonial. The spirit which once gave such mighty energy is gone—we know not whither.

CHAPTER IV.

The Republic of America.

1. In the treaty of Ghent, between Great Britain and the United States, the contracting nations were, in regard to territory, restored to their respective limits before the contest. The free institutions of the Republic had been tested, and found adequate to a state of war, as well as of peace; and happily those violent and often alarming party feuds which had arrayed one half of the people against the other, had been composed. Commodore Decatur was dispatched with a formidable naval force into the Mediterranean, to chastise the piratical powers on the coast of Barbary. The Algerines were never before so completely humbled. Their shipping was captured, their defences destroyed, and the terrified Dey, while his chief city lay exposed to the destructive fire of Decatur's guns, consented to make compensation for his past injuries to American commerce, and to withdraw his claims to the tribute, which the American republic

13. What has been the course of Louis Philip? In what respect has he bent to the spirit of the age? In what particular did he gratify the French people? Relate some particulars of the second funeral of Napoleon.

CHAP. IV.—I. How had the peace of Ghent settled affairs between Great Britain and America? What circumstances favorable to America are noticed? What was done by an American fleet under commodore Decatur?
as well as Europe, had previously submitted to the disgrace of paying. Tunis and Tripoli were also compelled to agree to humiliating terms of peace.

2. The efforts of congress were directed to improve the internal condition and prosperity of the Union. The Bank of the United States, which had been established during Washington's administration, was re-chartered, with a capital of 35,000,000 of dollars; and a tariff of duties on foreign commerce was established, whose object was to secure some of the more common domestic manufactures against a ruinous foreign competition. Mr. Madison, having enjoyed the presidency two constitutional terms, declined another election; and the votes of the colleges of electors of the several states were given, with great unanimity, to James Monroe, also a citizen of Virginia. Mr. Monroe's administration was distinguished by wisdom and firmness. The federal Union, which had from time to time enlarged by the admission of new states,† increased steadily in general prosperity. The United States were fast relieving themselves from the pressure of pecuniary embarrassments occasioned by the late war. They had an affluent revenue, acquired mostly from duties upon foreign commerce, and from sales of public land. All internal duties and taxes were abolished; and the surviving soldiers of the revolution were relieved from poverty by the grant of an adequate pension. "The era of good feeling," that so signally characterized the commencement of the administration of President Monroe, still more conspicuously distinguished its close.

3. By invitation from the American government, general Lafayette arrived in New York, August, 1824. All the associations connected with the name of Lafayette, were dear to the American people; and he was met by a warmth of national friendship and gratitude, beyond his most sanguine anticipations. Every where hailed as the cherished "guest of the nation;" his progress through the twenty-four states of the republic was one continual triumphal procession; but unlike the heroes of ancient Rome, he was followed by happy friends, not humbled enemies. The gratitude of his adopted country did not exhaust itself in empty honors. In consequence of his services and expenditures during the American revolution, congress made him a grant of two hundred thousand dollars, and a valuable township of land in Florida. The interviews of Lafayette with some of his most distinguished co-patriots of the olden time, among whom were the elder Adams, Jefferson, Madison, and Monroe, standing as they all were on the verge of time, could not but be affecting. Still more so were his pilgrimages to the tombs of Washington, and others of the illustrious dead. After having been present at the inauguration of the younger

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2. What two measures of Congress are here related? What change of presidents occurred? What is here mentioned in the side note? What was the character of Mr. Monroe's administration, and the condition of the country?—3. Relate the visit of Lafayette to America.
THREATENED REBELLION OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

Mr. Adams, March 4th, 1825, and received from him the nation's farewell, he embarked on board the new frigate Brandywine, and returned to act again an important part on the theatre of France.

4. On the fiftieth anniversary of the declaration of American independence, July 4th, 1826, died Thomas Jefferson, the author of that declaration, and John Adams, its most devoted advocate. On the fifty-fifth anniversary died James Monroe, another ex-president. At peace with all the world, and flourishing in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, the United States enjoyed a degree of prosperity never perhaps exceeded by that of any people. A wise and vigorous system of finance and expenditure, restricted to the wants of the public, reduced, and finally extinguished the national debt; while population and wealth increased in a ratio before unknown in the history of nations.

5. On the 4th of March, 1829, General Jackson was inaugurated president of the republic, and John C. Calhoun, vice president. In 1832, North America was visited by the fatal "Asiatic Cholera," which began in Asia about fifteen years before. It passed through Europe, then made its appearance in Canada, from whence it spread destruction over America; being chiefly fatal in populous cities. On the 4th of March, 1833, general Jackson was again inaugurated president of the republic, and Martin Van Buren was made vice president.

6. The protective duties laid by congress, while they advanced the prosperity of the manufacturing interest of the north, increased the price of commodities, some of which were especially needed at the south. Hence a violent anti-tariff party arose, chiefly in South Carolina. After working themselves up by meetings, speeches, and the press, to a high pitch of excitement, this party proceeded to declare, through a convention chosen for the purpose, that congress in laying protective duties had exceeded its just powers—that its acts, on this head, should be null and void, and that it should be the duty of the legislature of South Carolina to make provision to resist them by an armed force. The legislature obeyed the ordinance; and thus for the first time, one of our sister states was in the attitude of rebellion against the paternal rule of the general government. The president affectionately called on the wandering state to return to obedience; while he took such decided measures to compel submission, as left little hope that resistance would be availing. The nullification party then consented to a compromise, which was introduced into congress by Henry Clay.

7. The national bank had, with apparent satisfaction to the business community, afforded the facility of easy transmission,

3. What change of presidents was made in 1825? 4. What remarkable coincidence has occurred in the death of three ex-presidents? 5. What was the state and prospects of the country? 6. When did the two inaugurations of general Jackson occur, and who were the vice presidents? 7. What account is given of the Asiatic cholera? 8. What occurred in consequence of the tariff or protective duties? 9. What was the course of the anti-tariff, or nullification party in South Carolina? 10. What was that of the president?
DESTRUCTION OF THE NATIONAL BANK.

and a uniform currency to every part of the republic. A party, however arose, with president Jackson at its head, who opposed the bank, doubting its constitutionality and expediency. His opponents alleged that the directors had refused to permit its offices to be made by the government the reward of party services; as unhappily those of the revenue and post-office have, within the present century, been more or less made. The friends of Gen. Jackson, on the other hand, asserted that the agents of the bank had corruptly used their great moneyed power against the supporters of his administration. However the contest between the executive and the bank might have begun, its course was mutual injury, and its close destruction to the bank; the president, in 1832, putting his veto upon a bill for rechartering it, which had passed both houses of Congress. In 1833, the charter being soon to expire, Gen. Jackson directed Mr. Duane, the secretary of the treasury to withdraw from it the government funds. Mr. Duane, personally responsible in heavy bonds, refused; believing that the constitution regarded the keeper of the public purse, as amenable rather to the house of representatives than to the executive. Gen. Jackson removed him and put Mr. Taney in his place, by whom the funds were withdrawn. They were afterwards, by act of congress, placed in certain selected state banks, which were encouraged to discount freely; and thus facilities too great before, by which money might be obtained on credit, were increased.

8. A perfect madness of speculation became rife throughout the land. The lots of cities, real or imaginary, were so bought and sold that fortunes were made in a day. Idleness and extravagance took the place of industry and economy. This public fever had, in 1837, a fearful crisis. Before it every one seemed growing rich, after it many individuals and families were truly reduced from affluence to hopeless poverty. The banks were obliged to suspend specie payment, and credit seemed universally at an end. But by a return to the neglected virtues of industry and economy, and by the great productive powers of the labor, the soil, and the manufactures of the country, business has revived. The banks of New York, in 1838, resumed specie payment, and those in other parts of the country, which did not utterly fail, soon followed their example. State governments, and other corporations, which partook the general mania of dealing upon credit, are now paying old debts, rather than making new ones; and they are all beginning to learn, that the people prefer to be taxed, rather than that any corporation to which they belong, should suffer the disgrace of "repudiating their debts."

9. A portion of the aboriginal Indian tribes remained on their
reservations within the republic. Their settled practice of making war, when so far from having declared it, their show of friendship was the greatest, made them dangerous and dreaded neighbors. The general government had become involved in an agreement with Georgia to extinguish the Indian title to lands within its borders. Yet in its north-western section the Cherokees, the most civilized of the North American tribes, inhabited and refused to quit their ancient domain. The president believed, that if the Indians attempted to remain within the United States, it would but lead, as in former cases, to their own destruction. He therefore proposed to congress that they should set apart a large territory in the far west, and remove them thither. Congress authorized general Jackson to carry out his project, and, one by one, the tribes have been sent to their destined abode. The treaty by which certain of their chiefs pledged the Cherokees, was considered by the body of that nation as unfairly obtained; but they were obliged to leave their homes by the presence of a military force, which they could not hope to resist.

10. The Seminoles of Florida, incited by their chief Osceola, refused to remove; and a war was carried on to hunt them out from the unhealthy morasses of that peninsula, destructive of numbers of our bravest soldiers, and millions of our treasure. One little army of 117 men, under major Dade, fell into an ambush and were all cut off. A year after, at lake Okeechobee, 138 were killed, among them was the commander colonel Thompson; and it was not until 1842 that the Seminoles were subdued and carried to the Indian territory. While the Florida war was in progress, the Creeks attacked a steamboat on the Chattahoochee river and burned it;—another was fired, and with all its passengers consumed. General Scott was sent against these Indians; and in a few months they were reduced to submission, and sent to the west.

11. On the 4th of March, 1837, occurred the inauguration of Martin Van Buren, as president of the United States, and Richard M. Johnson, as vice president. Mr. Van Buren was unfortunate in the time of his accession to the presidency, as it was the year of “the revulsion” when there was so much pecuniary distress. Many thought that the government should have attempted something for the general relief; but the president believed that the faults of individuals had produced the depression, and individual industry and enterprise would alone suffice to restore prosperity. Meantime, as the banks where the government deposits had been kept were not considered safe, he projected a plan for keeping the public purse, called “the sub-
treasury scheme," which proving unpopular, he lost the next election. It was by the freemen given to General Harrison, as president, and John Tyler, as vice president. The benevolent and kind hearted Harrison died in one month after he was inaugurated,—when, by the constitution, Mr. Tyler became president.

12. The affinity of blood, of language, and of a free press and constitutional government, which exists between Great Britain and this country, together with a close commercial connexion, seems at this time cementing these two great branches of the Anglo-Saxon family. During Gen. Jackson's administration, when Louis Philip wholly neglected to fulfil the terms of a treaty by which the French had engaged to pay for their spoliations on our commerce,—and general Jackson had taken that resolute tone of compulsion from which he never receded, England interfered by her friendly mediation, and saved us from a war; persuading the king of the French to show his justice, rather than his valor. When our citizens interfered in the rebellion of Canada, Great Britain liberally accepted the assurances of our government, that the interference was unauthorized; and a question long agitated, concerning the boundary line between Maine and Lower Canada, has at length been amicably adjusted by a treaty negotiated at Washington, by Lord Ashburton on the part of the British government, and Daniel Webster the American secretary of state. The great operations of Christian benevolence by which the present age is distinguished, have been mainly carried on by these two nations, Great Britain generally taking the lead. In another remarkable characteristic of the present time, the application of steam to useful arts, particularly to the increase of the speed of travelling by sea and land,—while the Anglo-Saxon nations have led the rest of the world, the Americans have not been at all behind their father-land.

13. The free institutions of America are watched by European politicians with intense interest. None can deny their excellence; but many predict their downfall. Trials have already occurred, but they have been thus far efficiently met.

By the goodness of Almighty God, we have been preserved from civil war; and our hope for the future preservation of our righteous institutions is in him, as in the degree of piety, virtue, and intelligence, which exists among our citizens, female as well as male. The course of history, which we have pursued, has shown us, that with virtue a nation may continue prosperous and happy; but when the people become corrupt, then ensues anarchy,—to save from whose bloody and intolerable scourge, the iron rule of despotism is welcomed as a relief.

11. Who was Mr. Van Buren's successor in the presidency, and how long did he remain? Who succeeded him?—12. What remark concerning Great Britain and our republic is here made? What friendly office did Great Britain perform in regard to France? In what two instances has Great Britain shown a disposition to cultivate peace with our republic? In what respects have Great Britain and America led the rest of the world?—13. What are the author's concluding remarks?
If they are wrong who hold that this is the inevitable destiny of our republic, no less do those err who treat with levity every suggestion that such is our danger. Has the Ruler of Nations given assurance that he will set aside the order of his providence in our behalf? Has he given us a license to commit, with impunity, offences for which he has filled other nations with blood? Let the father consider, as he looks upon the group which surrounds his fireside, that, although their being has begun under the sunny skies of public prosperity, its course may lie through the gloomy influences of public misrule, and finally, of desolating anarchy; — then will he turn aside from his too anxious cares to earn a fortune for their present and future luxury, and awake to preserve the institutions of his country, which cannot go to decay without dashing out the value of property, and putting life itself in peril; for, rocked in the eagle-nest of liberty, America must first be crushed, before she changes her republicanism for monarchy. He would then lay by his petty prejudices of section or party; — he would vote for no miscreant to public office, who, false to the laws of his God and a traitor to his domestic relations, makes a contemptible parade of his love to his country; — he would pay no money to support public prints which are careless of truth, and scatter public immorality; — and he would not, by laxity of family discipline, leave the wills of his children in the untamed condition of savage nature, but betimes inure them to obey lawful authorities. In all the boasted political compacts of the founders of our government, the solemn obligation was entered into, to yield voluntary obedience to the constituted powers. Finally, the conscientious respect to law in the hearts of the people, is that one virtue—the offspring and the parent of many others—which alone can sustain a republican government. This, with the continued smiles of the God of our Fathers, may preserve our noble political inheritance; not only to bless our own posterity, but to remain a beacon-light, amidst the dark waves of oppression, in which the weakness and wickedness of mankind have, for so many ages, involved the nations of the earth.