

which she had taken refuge. The walls of Carthage were levelled to the ground, the buildings of the city were burned, a part of the Carthaginian territory was given to the king of Numid'ia, and the rest became a Roman province. (146 B. C.) Thus perished the republic of Carthage, after an existence of nearly eight hundred years,—like Greece, the victim of Roman ambition.

We give below a description of Jerusalem, which was omitted by mistake in its proper place.

Jerusalem, a famous city of southern Palestine, and long the capital of the kingdom of Judah, is situated on a hill in a mountainous country, between two small valleys, in one of which, on the west, the brook Gihon runs with a south-eastern course, to join the brook Kedron in the narrow valley of Jehoshaphat, east of the city. The modern city, built about three hundred years ago, is entirely surrounded by walls, barely two and a-half miles in circuit, and flanked here and there with square towers. The boundaries of the old city varied greatly at different times; and they are so imperfectly marked, the walls having been wholly destroyed, that few facts can be gathered respecting them. The interior of the modern city is divided by two valleys, intersecting each other at right angles, into four hills, on which history, sacred and profane, has stamped the imperishable names of Zion, Acra, Bezeitha, and Moriah. Mount Zion, on the south-west, the "City of David," is now the Jewish and Armenian quarter: Acra, or the lower city, on the north-west, is the Christian quarter; while the Mosque of Omar, with its sacred enclosure, occupies the hill of Moriah, which was crowned by the *House of the Lord* built by Solomon. West of the Christian quarter of the city is Mount Calvary, the scene of the Saviour's crucifixion; and on the eastern side of the valley of Jehoshaphat is the Mount of Olives, on whose western slope are the gardens of Gethsemane, enclosed by a wall, and still in a sort of ruined cultivation. A little west of Mount Zion, and near the base of Mount Calvary, is the pool of Gihon, near which "Zadok the priest and Nathan the prophet anointed Solomon king over Israel." South of Mount Zion is the valley of Hinnom, watered by the brook Gihon. A short distance up the valley of Jehoshaphat, and issuing from beneath the walls of Mount Moriah, is

"Siloa's brook, that flow'd
Fast by the oracles of God."

Jerusalem and its suburbs abound with many interesting localities, well authenticated as the scenes of events connected with the history of the patriarchs, and the sufferings of Christ; but to hundreds of others shown by the monks, minute criticism denies any claims to our respect. Considered as a modern town, the city is of very little importance: its population is about ten thousand, two-thirds of whom are Mohammedans: it has no trade—no industry whatever—nothing to give it commercial importance, except the manufacture, by the monks, of shells, beads, and relics, large quantities of which are shipped from the port of Jaffa, for Italy, Spain, and Portugal.

Jerusalem is generally believed to be identical with the Salem of which Melchisedek was king in the time of Abraham. When the Israelites entered the Holy Land it was in the possession of the Jebusites; and although Joshua took the city, the *citadel* on Mount Zion was held by the Jebusites until they were dislodged by David, who made Jerusalem the metropolis of his kingdom.

CHAPTER VI.

ROMAN HISTORY:

FROM THE CONQUEST OF GREECE AND CARTHAGE, 146 B. C., TO THE
COMMENCEMENT OF THE CHRISTIAN ERA.

ANALYSIS. 1. Situation of Spain after the fall of Carthage. [Celtiberians. Lusitanians.]—2. Character, exploits, and death of Viriathus.—3. Subsequent history of the Lusitanians. War with the Numantians. [Numantia.]—4. SERVILE WAR IN SICILY. Situation of Sicily. Events of the Servile war.—5. DISSENSIONS OF THE GRACCHI. Corrupt state of society at Rome.—6. Country and city population.—7. Efforts of the tribunes. Character and efforts of Tiberius Gracchus. Condition of the public lands.—8. The agrarian laws proposed by Tiberius.—9. Opposed by the nobles, but finally passed. Triumvirate appointed to enforce them. Disposition of the treasures of Attalus.—10. Circumstances of the death of Tiberius.—11. Continued opposition of the aristocracy—tribuneship of Caius Gracchus—and circumstances of his death.—12. Condition of Rome after the fall of the Gracchi.—13. Profligacy of the Roman senate, and circumstances of the first JUGURTHINE WAR.—14. Renewal of the war with Jugurtha. Events of the war, and fate of Jugurtha. [Mauritania.]—15. GERMANIC INVASION. [Cimbri and Teutones.] Successive Roman defeats. [Danube. Noreja.] 16. Marius, appointed to the command, defeats the Teutones. [The Rhone. Aix.] 17. The Cimbri. Greatness of the danger with which Rome was threatened.—18. THE SOCIAL WAR.—19. FIRST MITHRIDATIC WAR. [Pontus. Eu'menes. Pergamus.]—20. Causes of the Mithridatic war, and successes of Mithridates.—CIVIL WAR BETWEEN MARIUS AND SYLLA.—22. Triumph of the Marian faction. Death and character of Marius.—23. Continuance of the civil war. Events in the East. Sylla master of Rome.—23. Proscription and massacres. Death of Sylla.—25. The Marian faction in Spain. SERVILE WAR IN ITALY.

26. SECOND AND THIRD MITHRIDATIC WARS. Lucullus. Manilius, and the Manilian law.—27. Pompey's successes in the East. Reduction of Palestine. Death of Mithridates.—28. CONSPIRACY OF CATILINE. Situation of Rome at this period. Character and designs of Catiline. Circumstances that favored his schemes. By whom opposed.—29. Cicero elected consul. Flight, defeat, and death of Catiline.—30. THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE. Division of power.—31. Caesar's conquests in Gaul, Germany, and Britain. Death of Crassus. Rivalry between Caesar and Pompey. [The Rhine. Parthia.]—32. Commencement of the CIVIL WAR BETWEEN CAESAR AND POMPEY. Flight of the latter. [Raven'na.]—33. Caesar's successes. Sole dictator. His defeat at Dyrrach'ium.—34. Battle of Pharsalia. Flight, and death of Pompey. [Pharsalia. Pelen'sium.]—35. Cleopatra. Alexandrine war. Reduction of Pontus. [Pharos.]—36. Caesar's clemency. Servility of the senate. The war in Africa, and death of Cato. [Thapsus.]—37. Honors bestowed upon Caesar. Useful changes—reformation of the calendar.—38. The war in Spain. [Munda.]—39. Caesar, dictator for life. His gigantic projects. He is suspected of aiming at sovereign power.—40. Conspiracy against him. His death.—41. Conduct of Brutus. Mark Antony's oration. Its effects.—42. Ambition of Antony. Civil war. SECOND TRIUMVIRATE. The proscription that followed.—43. Brutus and Cassius. Their defeat at Philippi. [Philippi.]—44. Antony in Asia Minor,—at the court of Cleopatra. [Tarsus.] Civil war in Italy.—45. Antony's return. Reconciliation of the rivals, and division of the empire among them. [Brundisium.]—46. The peace is soon broken. Sextus Pompey. Lepidus. Antony.—47. The war between Octavius and Antony. Battle of Actium, and disgraceful flight of Antony.—48. Death of Antony and Cleopatra.—49. OCTAVIUS SOLE MASTER OF THE ROMAN WORLD. Honors and offices conferred upon him. Character of his government.—50. Successful wars,—followed by a general peace. Extent of the Roman empire. Birth of the Saviour.

1. AFTER the fall of Carthage and the Grecian republics, which were the closing events of the preceding chapter, the attention of the Roman people was for a time principally directed to Spain.

I. SPAIN
AFTER THE
FALL OF
CARTHAGE.

When, near the close of the second Punic war, the Carthaginian dominion in Spain ended, that country was regarded as being under Roman jurisdiction; although, beyond the immediate vicinity of the Roman garrisons, the native tribes, the most prominent of which were the Celtiberians¹ and Lusitanians,² long maintained their independence.

2. At the close of the third Punic war, Viriáthus, a Lusitanian prince, whose character resembles that of the Wallace of Scotland, had triumphed over the Roman legions in several engagements, and had already deprived the republic of nearly half of her possessions in the peninsula. During eight years he bade defiance to the most formidable hosts, and foiled the ablest generals of Rome, when the Roman governor Cæ'pio, unable to cope with so great a general treacherously procured his assassination.^a (B. C. 140.)

3. Soon after the death of Viriáthus the Lusitanians submitted to a peace, and many of them were removed from their mountain fastnesses to the mild district of Valen'cia,³ where they completely lost their warlike character; but the Numan'tians⁴ rejected with scorn the insidious overtures of their invaders, and continued the war. Two Roman generals, at the head of large armies, were conquered by them, and on both occasions treaties of peace were concluded with the vanquished, in the name of the Roman people, but after-

1. The *Celtiberians*, whose country was sometimes called *Celtiberia*, occupied the greatest part of the interior of Spain around the head waters of the Tagus.

2. The *Lusitanians*, whose country was called *Lusitania*, dwelt on the Atlantic coast, and when first known, principally between the rivers Douro and Tagus.

3. The modern district or province of *Valencia* extends about two hundred miles along the south-eastern coast of Spain. The city of Valencia, situated near the mouth of the river Guadalaviar, (the ancient *Tusia*), is its capital. (*Map No. XIII.*)

4. *Numan'tia*, a celebrated town of the Celtiberians, was situated near the source of the river Douro, and near the site of the modern village of *Chavaler*, and about one hundred and twenty-five miles north-east from Madrid.

a. *Viriáthus*, at first a shepherd, called by the Romans a robber, then a guerilla chief, and finally an eminent military hero, aroused the Lusitanians to avenge the wrongs and injuries inflicted upon them by Roman ambition. He was unrivalled in fertility of resources under defeat, skill in the conduct of his troops, and courage in the hour of battle. Accustomed to a free life in the mountains, he never indulged himself with the luxury of a bed: bread and meat were his only food, and water his only beverage; and being robust, hardy, adroit, always cheerful, and dreading no danger, he knew how to avail himself of the wild chivalry of his countrymen, and to keep alive in them the spirit of freedom. During eight years he constantly harassed the Roman armies, and defeated many Roman generals, several of whom lost their lives in battle. His name still lives in the songs and legends of early Spain.

ward: rejected by the Roman senate. Scip'io Æmiliánus, at the head of sixty thousand men, was then sent to conduct the war, and laying siege to Numan'tia, garrisoned by less than ten thousand men, he finally reduced the city, but not until the Numan'tians, worn out by toil and famine, and finally yielding to despair, had destroyed all their women and children, and then, setting fire to their city, had perished, almost to a man, on their own swords, or in the flames. (B. C. 133.) The destruction of Numan'tia was followed by the submission of nearly all the tribes of the peninsula, and Spain henceforth became a Roman province.

4. Two years before the fall of Numan'tia, Sicily had become the theatre of a servile war, which merits attention principally on account of the view it gives of the state of the conquered countries then under the jurisdiction of Rome. The calamities which usually follow in the train of long-continued war had swept away II. SERVILE WAR. most of the original population of Sicily, and a large portion of the cultivated lands in the island had been added, by conquest, to the Roman public domain, which had been formed into large estates, and let out to speculators, who paid rents for the same into the Roman treasury. In the wars of the Romans, and indeed of most nations at this period, large numbers of the captives taken in war were sold as slaves; and it was by slave labor the estates in Sicily were cultivated. The slaves in Sicily were cruelly treated, and as most of them had once been free, and some of high rank, it is not surprising that they should seek every favorable opportunity to rise against their masters. When once, therefore, a revolt had broken out, it spread rapidly over the whole island. Seventy thousand of the slaves were at one time under arms, and in four successive campaigns four Roman prætorian armies were defeated. The most frightful atrocities were perpetrated on both sides, but the rebellion was finally quelled by the destruction of most of those who had taken part in it. (B. C. 133.)

5. While these events were occurring in the Roman provinces, affairs in the capital, generally known in history as the "dissensions of the Gracchi," were fast ripening for civil war. More than two hundred years had elapsed since the animosities of patricians and plebeians were extinguished by an equal participation in public honors; but the wealth of conquered provinces, and the numerous lucrative and honorable offices, both civil and military, that had been created, had produced

III. DISSENSIONS OF THE GRACCHI.

corruption at home, by giving rise to factions which contended for the greatest share of the spoils, while, apart from these new distinctions had arisen, and the rich and the poor, or the illustrious and the obscure, now formed the great parties in the State.

6. As the nobles availed themselves of the advantages of their station to accumulate wealth and additional honors, the large slave plantations increased in the country to the disparagement of free labor, and the detriment of small landholders, whose numbers were constantly diminishing, while the city gradually became crowded with an idle, indigent, and turbulent populace, attracted thither by the frequent cheap or gratuitous distributions of corn, and by the frequency of the public shows, and made up, in part, of emancipated slaves, who were kept as retainers in the families of their former masters. So long as large portions of Italy remained unsettled, there was an outlet for the redundancy of this growing populace; but the entire Italian territory being now occupied, the indigent could no longer be provided for in the country, and the practice of colonizing distant provinces had not yet been adopted.

7. The evils of such a state of society were numerous and formidable, and such as to threaten the stability of the republic. Against the increasing political influence of the aristocracy, the tribunes of the people had long struggled, but rather as factious demagogues than as honest defenders of popular rights. At length Tibérius Grac'chus, a tribune, and grandson of Scipio Africánu's one of the noblest and most virtuous among the young men of his time, commenced the work of reform by proposing to enforce the Licinian law, which declared that no individual should possess more than five hundred jugers,^a (about two hundred and seventy-five acres) of the public domain. This law had been long neglected, so that numbers of the aristocracy now cultivated vast estates, the occupancy of which had perhaps been transmitted from father to son as an inheritance, or disposed of by purchase and sale; and although the republic still retained the fee simple in such lands, and could at any time legally turn out the occupants, it had long ceased to be thought probable that its rights would ever be exercised.

8. The law of Tibérius Grac'chus went even beyond strict legal justice, by proposing that buildings and improvements on the public lands should be paid for out of the public treasury. The impression has generally prevailed that the Agrarian laws proposed by Tibérius

a. A juger was nearly five-ninths of our acre.

Grac'chus were a direct and violent infringement of the rights of private property; but the genius and learning of Niebuhr have shown that they effected the distribution of *public* lands only, and not those of private citizens; although there were doubtless instances where, incidentally, they violated private rights.

9. When the senators and nobles, who were the principal land holders, perceived that their interests were attacked, their exasperation was extreme; and Tibérius, whose virtues had hitherto been acknowledged by all, was denounced as a factious demagogue, a disturber of the public tranquillity, and a traitor to the conservative interests of the republic. When the law of Tibérius was about to be put to the vote in the assemblies of the people, the corrupt nobles engaged Octávius, one of the tribune's colleagues, to forbid the proceedings; but the people deposed him from the tribuneship, and the agrarian law was passed. A permanent triumvirate, or committee of three, consisting of Tibérius Grac'chus, his brother Cáius, and Ap'pius Clau'dius, was then appointed to enforce the law. About the same time a law was passed, providing that the treasures which At'talus, king of Per'gamus, had recently bequeathed to the Roman people, should be distributed among the poorer citizens, to whom lands were to be assigned, in order to afford them the means of purchasing the necessary implements of husbandry.^a

10. At the expiration of the year of his tribuneship, Tibérius offered himself for reelection, conscious that unless shielded by the sacredness of the office of tribune, his person would no longer be safe from the resentment of his enemies. After two of the tribes had voted in his favor, the opposing party declared the votes illegal, and the disputes which followed occupied the day. On the following morning the people again assembled to the election, when a rumor was circulated that some of the nobles, accompanied by bands of armed retainers, designed to attack the crowd and take the life of Tibérius. A tumult ensued, and a false report was carried to the senate, then in session, that Tibérius had demanded a crown of the people. The senate seized upon this pretext for violent interference, but when the consul refused to disturb the people in their legal assembly, the senators rose in a body, and, headed by Scip'io Nasíca,

a. In 133 B. C. At'talus Philométer bequeathed his kingdom and all his treasures to the Roman people. At'talus was one of the worst specimens of Eastern despots, and took great delight in dispatching his nearest relatives by poison. The Romans had long looked upon his kingdom as their property, and his will was probably drawn up by Roman dictation.

and accompanied by a crowd of armed dependants, proceeded to the assembly, where a conflict ensued, in which Tibérius and about three hundred of his adherents were slain. (B. C. 132.)

11. Notwithstanding this disgraceful victory, and the persecutions that followed it, the ruling party could not abolish the triumvirate which had been appointed to execute the law of Tibérius. During ten years, however, little was accomplished by the popular party, owing to the powerful opposition of the aristocracy; but after Cáius Grac'chus, a younger brother of Tibérius, had been elected tribune, the cause of the people received a new impulse; an equitable division of the public lands was commenced, and many salutary reforms were made in the administration of the government. But, at length, Cáius being deprived of the tribuneship by false returns and bribery, and his bitter enemy Opim'ius having been elected consul by the aristocratic faction, and afterwards appointed dictator by the senate, the followers of Cáius were driven from the city by armed violence, and three thousand of their number slain. (B. C. 120.) The head of Cáius was thrown at the feet of Opim'ius, who had offered for it a reward of its weight in gold.^a

12. Thus ended what has been termed the "dissensions of the Gracchi;" and with that noble family perished the freedom of the republic. An odious aristocracy, which derived its authority from wealth, now ruled the State: the tribunes, becoming rich themselves, no longer interposed their authority between the people and their oppressors; while the lower orders, reduced to a state of hopeless subjection, and despairing of liberty, became factious and turbulent, and ere long prepared the way, first for the tyranny of a perpetual dictatorship, and lastly for the establishment of a monarchy on the ruins of the commonwealth.

13. The profligacy and corruption of the senate were manifest in the events that led to the Jugur' thine war, which began to embroil

a. Tibérius and Cáius Grac'chus, though of the noblest origin, and of superior natural endowments, are said to have been indebted more to the judicious care of their widowed mother Cornelia, than to nature, for the excellence of their characters. This distinguished Roman matron, the daughter of Scip'io Afric'anus the Elder, occupies a high rank for the purity and excellence of her private character, as well as for her noble and elevated sentiments. The following anecdote of Cornelia is often cited. A Campanian lady who was at the time on a visit to her, having displayed to Cornelia some very beautiful ornaments which she possessed, desired the latter, in return, to exhibit her own. The Roman mother purposely detained her in conversation until her children returned from school, when, pointing to them, she exclaimed, "There are my ornaments." She bore the untimely death of her sons with great magnanimity, and in honor of her a statue was afterwards erected by the Roman people, bearing for an inscription the words, "Cornelia, mother of the Gracchi."

the republic soon after the fall of the Grac'chi. The Numid'ian king Micip'sa, the son of Massinis'sa, had divided ^{IV. JUGUR-} his kingdom, on his death-bed, between his two sons ^{THINE WAR.} Hiemp'sal and Adher'bal, and his nephew Jugur'tha; but the latter, resolving to obtain possession of the whole inheritance, soon murdered Hiemp'sal, and compelled Adher'bal to take refuge in Rome. The senate, won by the bribes of the usurper, decreed a division of the kingdom between the two claimants, giving to Jugur'tha the better portion; but the latter soon declared war against his cousin, and, having gained possession of his person, put him to death. The senate could no longer avoid a declaration of war against Jugur'tha; but he would have escaped by an easy peace, after coming to Rome to plead his own cause, had he not there murdered another relative, whom he suspected of aspiring to the throne of Numid'ia. (B. C. 109.)

14. Jugur'tha was allowed to return to Africa; but his briberies of the Roman senators were exposed, and the war against him was begun anew. After he had defeated several armies, Metel'lus drove him from his kingdom, when the Numid'ian formed an alliance with Bac'chus, king of Maurit'ania,¹ but their united forces were successively routed by the consul Márius, formerly a lieutenant in the army of Metel'lus, but who, after obtaining the consulship, had been sent to terminate the war. Eventually the Moorish king betrayed Jugur'tha into the hands of the Romans, as the price of his own peace and security, (B. C. 106,) and the captive monarch, after gracing the triumph of Márius, was condemned to be starved to death in prison.

15. Soon after the fall of Jugur'tha, Márius was recalled from his command in Africa to defend the northern provinces of Italy against a threatened invasion from immense hordes of the Cim'bri and Teu'tones,^a German nations, who, about the year ^{V. GERMANIC} 113, had crossed the Danube² and appeared on the east- ^{INVASION}

1. Maurit'ania was an extensive country of Northern Africa, west of Numid'ia, embracing the present Morocco and part of Algiers. (Map No. IX.)

2. The Danube, the largest river in Europe, except the Volga, rises in the south-western part of Germany, in the Duchy of Baden, only about thirty miles from the Rhine, and after a general south-eastern course of nearly eighteen hundred miles, falls into the Black Sea. (Map No. VIII.)

a. The barbarian torrent of the Cim'bri and Teu'tones appears to have originated beyond the Elbe. The original seat of the Cim'bri was probably the Cimbric peninsula, so called by the Romans,—the same as the modern Jutland, or Denmark. Opinions differ concerning the Teu'tones, some believing them to have been the collective wanderers of many tribes between the Vistula and the Elbe, while others fix their original seats in northern Scandinavia—¹ in the north of Sweden and Norway.

ern declivities of the Alps, where the Romans guarded the passes into Italy. The first year of the appearance of these unknown tribes, from which is dated the beginning of German history,^a they defeated the Roman consul Papir'ius Car'bo, near Noréja,¹ in the mountains of the present Styr'ia. Proceeding thence towards southern Gaul they demanded a country from the Romans, for which they promised military assistance in war; but when their request was refused they determined to obtain by the sword what was denied them by treaty. Four more Roman armies were successively vanquished by them, the last under the consuls Man'lius and Cæ'pio in the year 105, with the prodigious loss of 80,000 Roman soldiers slain, and 40,000 of their slaves.

16. Fortunately for the Romans, the enemy, after this great victory, turned aside towards the south of France and Spain, while Márius, who had been appointed to the command of the northern army, marching over the Alps towards Gaul, formed a defensive camp on the Rhone.² The Germans, returning, in vain tempted Márius to battle, after which they divided into two bands, the Cim'bri taking up their march for Italy, while the Teu'tones remained opposed to Márius. But when the Teu'tones saw that their challenge for battle was not accepted, they also broke up, and marching past the Romans, jeeringly asked them "if they had any commissions to send to their wives." Márius followed at their side, keeping upon the heights, but when he had arrived at the present town of Aix,³ in the south of France, some accidental skirmishing at the outposts of the two armies brought on a general battle, which continued two days, and in which the nation of the Teu'tones was nearly annihilated, (B. C. 102,)—two hundred thousand of them being either killed or taken prisoners.

17. In the meantime the consul Catul'lus had been repulsed by the Cim'bri in northern Italy, and driven south of the Po. Márius hastened to his assistance, and their united forces now advanced across the Po, and defeated the Cim'bri in a great battle on the Rau-

1. *Noréja*, or *Noreia*, was the capital of the Roman province of *Noricum*. The site of this city is in the present Austrian province of *Styria*, about sixty miles north-east from Laybach. (Map No. VIII.)

2. The *Rhone* rises in Switzerland, passes through the Lake of Geneva, and after uniting with the *Saone* flows south through the south-eastern part of France, and discharges its waters by four mouths into the Mediterranean. (Map No. XIII.)

3. *Aix*, called by the Romans *Aqua Sexta*, is situated in a plain sixteen miles north of *Marseilles*. (Map No. XIII.)

a. Kohlrausch's Germany, p. 43

dian plains.^a (B. C. 101.) Thus ended the war with the German nations. The danger with which it for a time threatened Rome was compared to that of the great Gallic invasion, nearly three hundred years before. The Romans, in gratitude to their deliverer, now styled Márius the third founder of the city.

18. A still more dangerous war, called the social war, soon after broke out between the Romans and their Italian allies, caused VI. THE by the unjust treatment of the latter, who, forming part of SOCIAL WAR. the commonwealth, and sharing its burdens, had long in vain demanded for themselves the civil and political privileges that were enjoyed by citizens of the metropolis. The war continued three years, and Rome would doubtless have fallen, had she not, soon after the commencement of the struggle, granted the Latin towns, more than fifty in number, all the rights of Roman citizens, and thus secured their fidelity. (90 B. C.)^b The details of this war are little known, but it is supposed that, during its continuance, more than three hundred thousand Italians lost their lives, and that many flourishing towns were reduced to heaps of ruins. The Romans were eventually compelled to offer the rights of citizenship to all that should lay down their arms; and tranquillity was thus restored to most of Italy, although the Samnites continued to resist until they were destroyed as a nation.

19. While these domestic dangers were threatening Rome, an important African war had broken out with Mithridátes, king of Pontus.¹ It has been related that in the time of Antíochus the VII. FIRST Great, king of Syria, the Romans obtained, by conquest MITHRIDATIO and treaty, the western provinces of Asia Minor, most WAR. of which they conferred upon one of their allies, Eúmenes, king of Per'gamus, and that At'talus, a subsequent prince of Per'gamus, gave back these same provinces, by will, to the Roman people. (See p. 161 and p. 169.)

20. The Romans, thus firmly established in Asia Minor, saw with jealousy the increasing power of Mithridátes, who, after reducing the nations on the eastern coasts of the Black Sea, had added to his

1. *Pontus* was a country of Asia Minor, on the south-eastern coast of the Euxine, having Colchis on the east, and Paphlagonia and Galatia on the west.

a. The exact locality is unknown, but it was on a northern branch of the Po, between Vercelli and Verona, probably near the present Milan. Some say near Vercelli, on the west bank of the *Sessites*.

b. This was done by the celebrated *Lex Julia*, or Julian law, proposed by L. Julius Cæsar

dominions on the west, Paphlagonia and Cappadocia,^a which he claimed by inheritance. Nicomédes, king of Bithyn'ia, disputing with him the right to the latter provinces, appealed to the Roman senate, which declared that the disputed districts should be free States, subject to neither Nicomédes nor Mithridátes. The latter then entered into an alliance with Tigránes, king of Arménia,—seized the disputed provinces—drove Nicomédes from his kingdom—defeated two large Roman armies, and, in the year 88, before the end of the social war, had gained possession of all Asia Minor. All the Greek islands of the Ægean, except Rhodes, voluntarily submitted to him, and nearly all the Grecian States, with Athens, throwing off the Roman yoke, placed themselves under his protection. Mithridátes had received a Greek education, and was looked upon as a Grecian, which accounts for the readiness with which the Greeks espoused his cause.

X 21. The Roman senate gave the command of the Mithridatic war to Sylla, a man of great intellectual superiority, but of profligate morals, who had served under Márius against Jugur' tha and the Cim' bri, and had rendered himself eminent by his services in the social war. The ambitious Márius, though more than twenty years the senior of Sylla, had long regarded the latter as a formidable rival, and now he succeeded in obtaining a decree of the people, by which the command was transferred from Sylla to himself. Sylla, then at the head of an army in the Samnite territory, immediately marched against Rome, and entering the city, broke up the faction of Márius, who, after a series of romantic adventures, escaped to Africa.^b (88 B. C.)

22. Scarcely had Sylla departed with his army for Greece, to carry on the war against Mithridátes, when a fierce contest arose within

a. See Map of Asia Minor, No. IV.

b. Márius fled first to Ostia, and thence along the sea-coast to Mintur' nae, where he was put on shore, at the mouth of the Liris, and abandoned by the crew of the vessel that carried him. After in vain seeking shelter in the cottage of an old peasant, he was forced to hide himself in the mud of the Pontine marshes; but he was discovered by his vigilant pursuers, dragged out, and thrown into a dungeon at Mintur' nae. No one, however, had the courage to put him to death; and the magistrates of Mintur' nae therefore sent a public slave into the prison to kill him; but as the barbarian approached the hoary warrior his courage failed him, and the Mintur' nians, moved by compassion, put Márius on board a boat and transported him to Africa. Being set down at Carthage, the Roman governor of the district sent to inform him that unless he left Africa he should treat him as a public enemy. "Go and tell him," replied the wanderer "that you have seen the exile Márius sitting on the ruins of Carthage." In the following year during the absence of Sylla, he returned to Italy. For localities of Pontine Marshes, Liris and Mintur' nae, see Map No. X.

the city between the partisans of Sylla and Márius; one of the consuls, Cinna, espousing the cause of the latter, and the other, Octavius, that of the former. Cinna recalled the aged Márius; both parties flew to arms; and all Italy became a prey to the horrors of civil war. (B. C. 87.) The senate and the nobles adhered to Octavius; but Rome was besieged, and compelled to surrender to the adverse faction. Then commenced a general massacre of all the opponents of Márius, which was continued five days and nights, until the streets ran with blood. Having gratified his revenge by this bloody victory, Márius declared himself consul, without going through the formality of an election, and chose Cinna to be his colleague, but sixteen days later his life was terminated by a sudden fever, at the age of seventy-one years. Márius has the character of having been one of the most successful generals of Rome; but after having borne away many honorable offices, and performed many noble exploits, he tarnished his glory by a savage and infamous old age.

23. During three years after the death of Márius, Sylla was conducting the war in Greece and Asia, while Italy was completely in the hands of the party of Cinna. The latter even sent an army to Asia to attack Sylla, and was preparing to embark himself, when he was slain in a mutiny of his soldiers. In the meantime Sylla, having taken Athens by storm, and defeated two armies of Mithridátes, concluded a peace with that monarch; (84 B. C.) and having induced the soldiers sent against him to join his standard, he returned to Italy at the head of thirty thousand men to take vengeance upon his enemies, who had collected an army of four hundred and fifty cohorts, numbering one hundred and eighty thousand men,^a to oppose him. (B. C. 83.) But none of the generals of this vast army were equal, in military talents, to Sylla; their forces gradually deserted them, and after a short but severe struggle, Sylla became master of Rome.

24. A dreadful proscription of his enemies followed, far exceeding the atrocities of Márius; for Sylla filled not only Rome, but all Italy, with massacres, which, in the language of the old writers, had neither numbers nor bounds. He caused himself to be appointed dictator for an unlimited time, (B. C. 81,) reestablished the government on an aristocratical basis, and after having ruled nearly three years, to the astonishment of every one he resigned his power, and retired to private life. He died soon after, of a loathsome disease,

a. "From the time of Márius, the Roman military forces are always counted by cohorts or small battalions, each containing four hundred and twenty men."—Niebuhr, iv. 195.