

ANCIENT AND MODERN GREECE. Map No. I.

A general description of both Ancient and Modern Greece may be found on pp. 21 and 22—Grecian Mythology, 22 to 27—Ancient History of Greece, 27 to 123—Modern History, 51 to 523. For descriptive accounts of the Grecian States, and important towns, cities, rivers, battle grounds, &c., see the "Index to the Descriptive Notes" at the end of the volume.

The following is a brief synopsis of the leading events in Grecian History, beginning with the Persian wars, which ended B. C. 469. The Peloponnesian wars lasted nearly thirty years, 1. C. 431-404. Subjugation of Greece by Philip of Macedon, B. C. 338, after which came the conquests of Alexander, the Achaean League, and then the Roman conquest, B. C. 146, from which time, during thirteen hundred and fifty years, Greece continued to be either really or nominally a portion of the Roman empire. The country was invaded by Alaric the Goth, A. D. 400, and afterwards by Genseric and Zaber Khan, in the sixth and seventh, and by the Normans in the eleventh century. After the capture of Constantinople by the crusaders in 1204, Greece was divided into feudal principalities, and governed by a variety of Norman, Venetian, and Frankish nobles. It was invaded by the Turks in 1438, and conquered by them in 1451. It was the theatre of wars between the Turks and Venetians during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; but by the treaty of Passarovitch, in 1718, it was given up to the Turks, who retained possession of the country till the breaking out of the Greek Revolution in 1821.

The present kingdom of Greece embraces all the Grecian peninsula south of the ancient Epirus and Thes'saly, as seen on the accompanying map, together with Euboea, the Cyc'ades, and the northern Spor'ades. Thes'saly, now a Turkish province, retains its ancient name and limits: Epirus is embraced in the Turkish province of Albania, for which, see Map No. VII.

The Modern Greeks are described as being, generally, "rather above the middle height, and well-shaped; they have the face oval, features regular and expressive, eyes large, dark, and animated, eyebrows arched, hair long and dark, and complexions olive colored." They retain many of the customs and ceremonies of the ancients; the common people are extremely credulous and superstitious, and pay much attention to auguries, omens, and dreams. They belong mostly to the Greek Church; they deny the supremacy of the pope, abhor the worship of images, and reject the doctrine of purgatory, but believe in transubstantiation. The priests are generally poor and illiterate, although improving in their attainments; and their habits are generally simple and exemplary.

The inhabitants of Northern Greece, or Hellas, are said to have retained "a chivalrous and warlike spirit, with a simplicity of manners and mode of life which strongly remind us of the pictures of the heroic age." The inhabitants of the Peloponnesus are more ignorant and less honest than those of Hellas. Previous to the Greek Revolution, remains of the Hellenic race were found, in their greatest purity, in the mountainous parts of the country—in the vicinity of Mount Parnassus in Northern Greece, and the inhospitable tracts of Taygetos in Southern Greece, whither they had been driven from the plains by their ruthless oppressors. The language of the modern Greeks bears, in many of its words, and in its general forms and grammatical structure, a strong resemblance to the ancient Greek—similar to the relation sustained by the Italian to the Latin; but as the pronunciation of the ancient Greek is lost, how far the modern tongue corresponds to it in that particular cannot be ascertained.

Travellers still speak in the highest terms of the fine views everywhere found in Grecian scenery:—and besides their natural beauties, they are doubly dear to us by the thousand hallowed associations connected with them by scenes of historic interest, and by the numerous ruins of ancient art and splendor which cover the country—recalling a glorious Past, upon which we love to dwell as upon the memory of departed friends, or the scenes of happy childhood—"sweet, but mournful, to the soul."

"Yet are thy skies as blue, thy crags as wild;
Sweet are thy groves, and verdant are thy fields,
Thine olive ripe as when Minerva smiled,
And still his honied wealth Hymettus yields.
There the blithe bee his fragrant fortress builds.
The freeborn wanderer of thy mountain air;
Apollo still thy long, long summer gilds,
Still in his beam Mendel's marbles glare;
Art, Glory, Freedom fall, but Nature still is fair.

"Where'er we tread, 'tis haunted, holy ground;
No earth of thine is lost in vulgar mould,
But one vast realm of wonder spreads around,
And all the muses tales seem truly told,
Till the sense aches with gazing to behold
The scenes our earliest dreams have dwelt upon:
Each hill and dale, each deepening glen and wood,
Defies the power which crush'd thy temples gone:
Age shakes Athena's tower, but spares gray Marathon."

Child Harold, cant. II.

NO. I.



ANCIENT ATHENS. Map No. II.

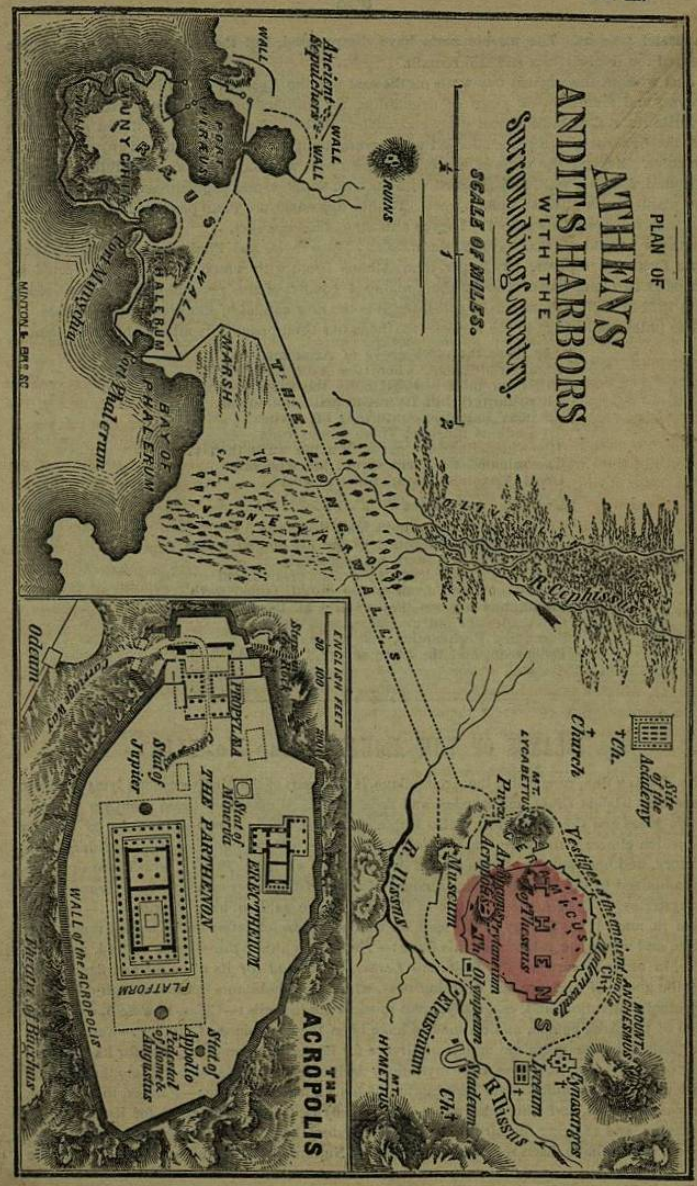
Among the monuments of antiquity which still exist at Athens, the most striking are those which surmount the Acrop'olis, or Cecropian citadel, which is a rocky height rising abruptly out of the Attic plain, and accessible only on the western side, where stood the *Propyle'a*, a magnificent structure of the Doric order, which served as the gate as well as the defence of the Acrop'olis. But the chief glory of Athens was the *Par'thenon*, or temple of Minerva, which stood on the highest point, and near the centre, of the Acrop'olis. It was constructed entirely of the most beautiful white marble from Mount Pentel'icus, and its dimensions were two hundred and twenty-eight feet by one hundred and two—having eight Doric columns in each of the two fronts, and seventeen in each of the sides, and also an interior range of six columns in each end. The ceiling of the western part of the main building was supported by four interior columns, and of the eastern end by sixteen. The entire height of the building above its platform was sixty-five feet. The whole was enriched, within and without, with matchless works of art by the first sculptors of Greece. This magnificent structure remained entire until the year 1687, when, during a siege of Athens by the Venetians, a bomb fell on the devoted Par'thenon, and setting fire to the powder which the Turks had stored there, entirely destroyed the roof, and reduced the whole building almost to ruins. The eight columns of the eastern front, however, and several of the lateral colonnades, are still standing, and the whole, dilapidated as it is, still retains an air of inexpressible grandeur and sublimity.

North of the Par'thenon stood the *Erechtheum*, an irregular but beautiful structure of the Ionic order, dedicated to the worship of Neptune and Minerva. Considerable remains of it are still existing. In addition to the three great edifices of the Acrop'olis, which were adorned with the most finished paintings and sculptures, the entire platform of the hill appears to have been covered with a vast composition of architecture and sculpture, consisting of temples, monuments, and statues of Grecian gods and heroes. Among these may be mentioned statues of Jupiter, Apollo, Neptune, Mercury, Venus, and Minerva; and a vast number of statues of eminent Grecians—the whole Acrop'olis having been at once the fortress, the sacred enclosure, and the treasury of the Athenian nation, and forming the noblest museum of sculpture, the richest gallery of painting, and the best school of architecture in the world.

Beneath the southern wall of the Acrop'olis, near its eastern extremity, was the *Theatre of Bacchus*, which was capable of containing thirty thousand persons, and whose seats, rising one above another, were cut out of the sloping rock. Adjoining this on the east was the *Odéum* built by Pericles, and beneath the western extremity of the Acrop'olis was the *Odéum* or *Musical Theatre*, constructed in the form of a tent. On the north-east side of the Acrop'olis stood the *Pnytanéum*, where were many statues, and where citizens who had rendered service to the State were maintained at the public expense. A short distance to the north-west of the Acrop'olis was the small eminence called *Areop'agus*, or hill of Mars, at the eastern extremity of which was situated the celebrated court of the *Areop'agus*. About a quarter of a mile south-west stood the *Pnyx*, the place where the public assemblies of Athens were held in its palmy days, a spot that will ever be associated with the renown of Demosthenes, and other famed Athenian orators. The steps by which the speaker mounted the rostrum, and a tier of three seats for the audience, hewn in the solid rock, are still visible. A short distance south of the *Pnyx* was the eminence called the *Muséum*, that part of Athens where the poet *Musæus* is said to have been buried.

In the *Ceramicus*, north and west of the Acrop'olis, one of the most considerable parts of the ancient city, were many public buildings, some dedicated to the worship of the gods, others used for stores, and for the various markets, and some for schools, while the old *Forum*, often used for large assemblies of the people, occupied the interior. North of the *Areop'agus* is the *Temple of Theseus*, built of marble by Cimon. The roof, friezes, and cornices, of this temple, have been but little impaired by time, and the whole is one of the most noble remains of the ancient magnificence of Athens, and the most perfect, if not the most beautiful, existing specimen of Grecian architecture.

South-east of the Acrop'olis, and near the *Ilissus*, is now to be seen a cluster of sixteen magnificent Corinthian columns of Pentelic marble, the only remaining ones of a hundred and twenty, which mark the site of the *Temple of Jupiter Olympius*. On the left bank of the *Ilissus* was the *Stádium*, used for gymnastic contests, and capable of accommodating twenty five



thousand persons. The marble seats have disappeared, but the masses of masonry which formed the semi-circular end still remain.

Just without the ancient city walls on the east was the *Lyceum*, embellished with buildings, groves, and fountains,—a place of assembling for military and gymnastic exercises, and a favorite resort for philosophical study and contemplation. Near the foot of Mount Anchesmus was the *Cynosar' ges*, a place adorned with several temples, a gymnasium, and groves sacred to Hercules. Beyond the walls of the city on the north was the *Academy*, or Public Garden,—surrounded with a wall, and adorned with statues, temples, and sepulchres of illustrious men, and planted with olive and plane trees. Within this enclosure Plato possessed a small garden, in which he opened his school. Thence arose the *Academic* sect.

Athens had three great harbors, the *Piræ' us*, *Munych' ia*, and *Phal' erum*. Anciently these ports formed a separate city larger than Athens itself, with which they were connected by means of two long walls. During the prolonged conflict of the revolutionary war in Greece, from 1820 to 1827, Athens was in ruins, but it is the now capital of the kingdom of Greece.

The philosophical era in the history of Athens has been beautifully alluded to by Milton.

"See there the olive grove of Academe,
Plato's retirement, where the Attic bird
Trills her thick-warbled notes the summer-long.
There flowery hill Hymettus with the sound
Of bees' industrious murmur oft invites
To studious musing; There Ilissus rolls
His whispering stream: within the walls then view
The schools of ancient sages; his who bred
Great Alexander to subdue the world,
Lyceum there, and painted Stoa next;

To sage philosophy next lend thine ear,
From Heaven descended to the low-roofed house
Of Socrates; see there his tenement,
Whom, well inspired, the oracle pronounced
Wisest of men; from whose mouth issued forth
Mellifluous streams that water'd all the schools
Of Academics old and new, with those
Surname Peripatetics, and the sect
Epicurean, and the Stoic severe."

ISLANDS OF THE ÆGEAN. Map No. III.

The ÆGEAN SEA, now called the Archipelago, is that part of the Mediterranean lying between Greece, the islands Crete and Rhodes, and Asia Minor. It embraces those groups of islands, the Cyc' lades and the Spor' ades; * also Eubœ'a, Lesbos, Chios, Tenedos, Lemnos, &c., nearly all of which cluster with interesting classical associations. Mentioning only the most important in history, and beginning in the northern Archipelago, we have *Thasos*, now Theso or Tasso, early colonized by the Phœnicians on account of its valuable silver mines:—*Samothrace*, where the mysteries of Cybele, the "Mother of the Gods," are said to have originated:—*Lemnos*, known in ancient mythology as the spot on which Vulcan fell, after being hurled down from heaven, and where he established his forge:—*Tenedos*, whither the Greeks retired, as Virgil relates, in order to surprise the Trojans:—*Lesbos*, celebrated for its olive oil and figs, and as being the abode of pleasure and licentiousness, while the inhabitants boasted a high degree of intellectual cultivation, and, especially, great musical attainments:—*Chios*, now Scio, called the garden of the Archipelago, and claimed to have been the birthplace of Homer:—*Samos*, early distinguished in the maritime annals of Greece for its naval ascendancy, and for its splendid temple of Juno:—*Icaria*, whose name mythology derives from Ic' arus, who fell into the sea near the island after the unfortunate termination of his flight from Crete:—*Patmos*, to which St. John was banished, and where he wrote his Apocalypse:—*Cos*, celebrated for its temple of Æsculapius, and as being the birthplace of Hippocrates, the greatest physician of antiquity:—*Nisyros*, said to have been separated from Cos by Neptune, that he might hurl it against the

* The division between the Cyc' lades and Spor' ades, on the accompanying Map, should include the islands *Asconia*, *Thera*, and *Anaphe*, among the latter.



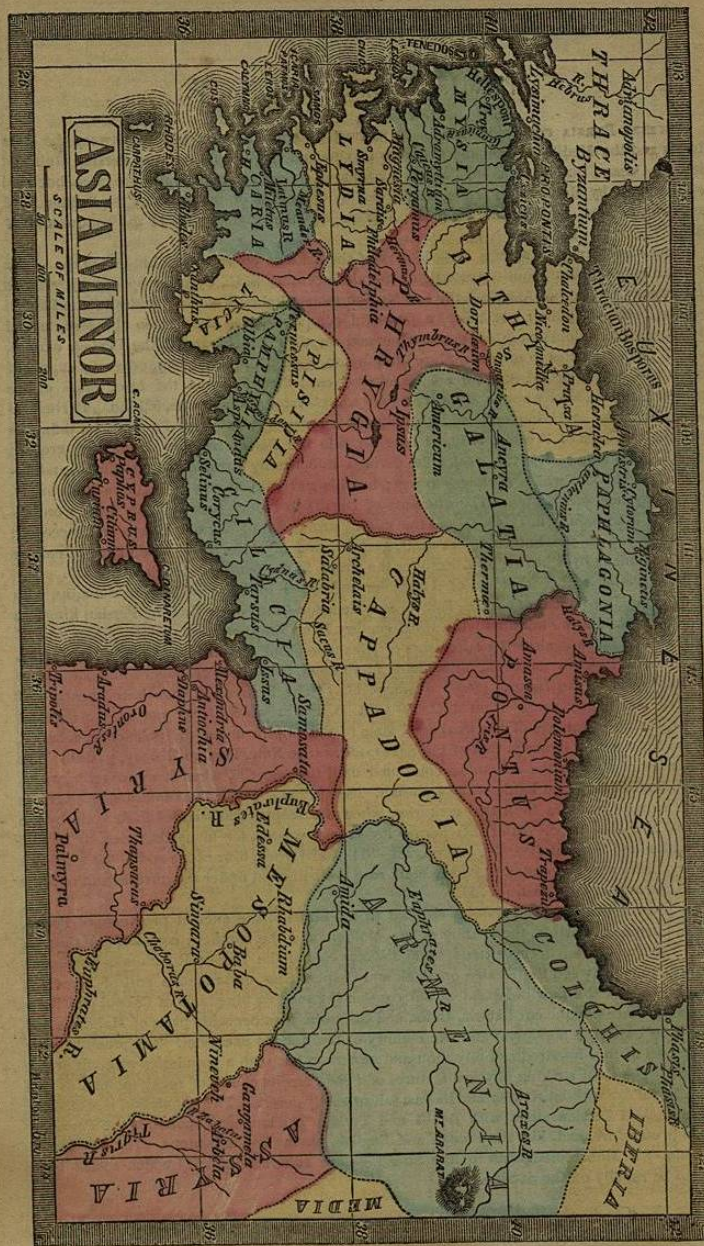
giant *Polydeces*:—*An'aphe*, said to have been made to rise by thunder from the bottom of the sea, in order to receive the Argonauts during a storm, on their return from Colchis:—*Thera*, now called Santorin, said to have been formed in the sea by a clod of earth thrown from the ship *Argo*:—*Astypaléa*, called also *Trapedia*, or the "Table of the Gods," because its soil was fertile, and almost enamelled with flowers:—*Amorgus*, the birthplace of the Iambic poet *Simonides*:—*Ios*, claimed to have been the burial place of *Homer*:—*Melos*, now *Milo*, celebrated for its obstinate resistance to the Athenians, and its cruel treatment by them, (see p. 83):—*Antiparos*, celebrated for its grotto, of great depth and singular beauty:—*Paros*, famed for its beautiful and enduring marble:—*Naxos*, the largest of the *Cyc'ades*, celebrated for the worship of *Bacchus*, who is said to have been born there:—*Seriphus*, celebrated in mythology as the scene of the most remarkable adventures of *Perseus*, who changed *Polydeces*, king of this island, and his subjects, into stones, to avenge the wrongs offered to his mother *Danaë*:—*Delos*, (a small island between *Rhenea* and *Mycanos*,) celebrated as the natal island of *Apollo* and *Diana*:—*Ceos*, the birthplace of the Elegiac poet *Simonides*, grandson of the poet of *Amorgus*. The *Simonides* of *Ceos* was the author of the celebrated inscription on the tomb of the Spartans who fell at *Thermopylae*:—"Stranger, tell the *Lacedaemonians* that we are lying here in obedience to their laws." *Egina*, *Salamis*, *Crete*, *Rhodes*, &c., have been described in other parts of this work. See *Index*, p. 846.

ASIA MINOR. Map No. IV.

ASIA MINOR, or Lesser Asia, a celebrated region of antiquity, embraced the great peninsula of Western Asia, about equal in area to that of Spain, and bounded north by the Black Sea, east by Armenia and the Euphrates, south by Syria and the Mediterranean, and west by the Euxine Sea or Archipelago. The divisions by which it is best known in history are the nine coast provinces, Cilicia, Pamphylia, and Lycia, on the Mediterranean; Caria, Lydia, and Mysia, on the *Ægean*; Bithynia, Paphlagonia, and Pontus, on the Euxine; and the four interior provinces, Galatia, Cappadocia, Phrygia, and Pisidia. All of these were, at times, independent kingdoms, and at others, dependent provinces.

The most renowned of the early kingdoms of Asia Minor was that of Lydia, situate between the waters of the *Hermus* and the *Mæander*, and bounded on the east by Phrygia. Under the last of its kings, the famous *Cræsus*, renowned for his wealth and munificence, the Lydian kingdom was extended so as to embrace the Grecian colonies on the Euxine coast, and nearly all Asia Minor as far as the *Halys*. On the overthrow of *Cræsus* by *Cyrus* the Persian, B. C. 566, the Lydian kingdom was formed into three satrapies belonging to the Medo-Persian empire, under which it remained upward of two centuries. The Macedonian succeeded the Persian dominion, B. C. 331, from which time, during nearly two centuries, Asia Minor was subject to many vicissitudes consequent on the changing fortunes of *Alexander's* successors. During the century immediately preceding the Christian era, the western provinces of the peninsula fell successively into the hands of the Romans, under whom they formed what was called the proconsulship of Asia, (see Map No. IX.) the same which the Greek writers of the Roman era call *Asia Proper*, and in which sense we find the word *Asia* used in the New Testament, (*Acts*, 2: 9,) although in some passages Phrygia is spoken of as distinct from Asia. (*Acts*, 16: 6, and *Revelations*.) The decline of the Roman power exposed the peninsula to fresh invasions from the East; and at the period of the first crusade the Mohammedans had spread over almost the whole peninsula. Asia Minor now constitutes a pachalick of Asiatic Turkey, under the name of *Natalia*, or *Anatolia*—a corruption of a Greek word, (*ανατολή*), meaning the East, corresponding to the French word *Levant*.

The Greek colonists of Asia Minor, who spread themselves along the coast from the Euxine to Syria, were at least equal, in commercial activity, refinement, and the cultivation of the arts, to their European brethren. Among the Grecian poets, philosophers, and historians of Asia Minor, we may mention, in poetry, *Homer*, *Hesiod*, *Sappho*, and *Alcæus*; in philosophy, *Thales*, *Pythagoras*, and *Anaxagoras*; and in history, *Herodotus*, *Ctesias*, and *Dionysius of Halicarnassus*. *Anatolia* is now occupied by a mixed population of Turks and Greeks, Armenians and Jews; besides wandering tribes of Kurds and Turcomans in the interior, engaged partly in pastoral, and partly in marauding occupations.



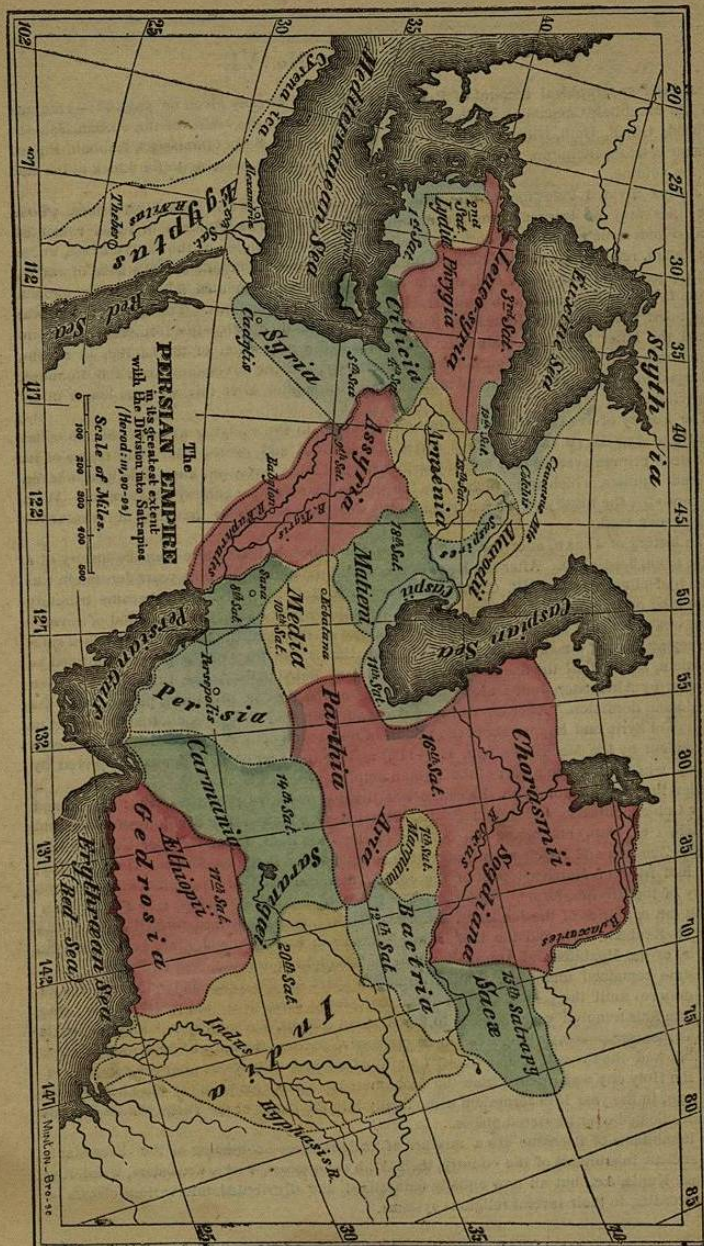
PERSIAN EMPIRE. Map No. V.

ANCIENT PERSIA comprehended, in its utmost extent, all the countries between the river Indus and the Mediterranean, and from the Euxine and Caspian Seas to the Persian Gulf and Indian Ocean; but in its more limited acceptance it denoted a particular province, bounded on the north by Media and Parthia, on the east by Carmania, on the south by the Persian Gulf, and on the west by Susiana. (See Map.) This was the original seat of the conquerors of Asia.

Great obscurity rests on the early history of the nations embraced within the limits of the Persian empire; but about the middle of the sixth century B. C., Cyrus, supposed by some to have been grandson of Astyages, the last Median monarch, being elected leader of the Persian hordes, became, by their assistance, a powerful conqueror, at a time when the Median and Babylonian kingdoms were on the decline, and on their ruins founded the Persian empire, which properly dates from the capture of Babylon, B. C. 536. Cambyses, generally supposed to be the Ahasuerus of Scripture, succeeded Cyrus; then followed the brief reign of the usurper Smerdis, after whom Darius Hystaspes was elevated to the throne, 521 B. C. Darius was both a legislator and conqueror, and his long and successful reign exerted a powerful influence over the destinies of Western Asia. Under his rule the Persian empire attained its greatest extent. (See Map.) His vast realm he divided into twenty satrapies or provinces, and appointed the tribute which each was to pay; but his government was little more than an organized system of taxation. The attempts of Darius to reduce Greece to his sway were defeated at Marathon; (B. C. 490;) and the mighty armament of Xerxes, his son and successor, was destroyed in the battles of Salamis, Plataea, and Mycale. The Medo-Persian empire itself was finally overthrown by Alexander the Great, in the battle of Arbela, B. C. 331.

The Macedo-Grecian kingdom of Alexander succeeded to the vast Persian domains, with the additional provinces of Greece, Thrace, and Macedon—thus exceeding the Persian kingdom in extent. About the middle of the third century B. C., the Parthians, under Arsaces, one of their nobles, arose against the successors of Alexander, and established the Parthian empire, which, under its sixth monarch, Mithridates I., attained its highest grandeur—extending from the Euphrates to the Indus. (See Parthia, p. 179.) The Parthian empire lasted nearly four hundred and eighty years—from B. C. 250 to A. D. 226, at which latter period the Persians proper, taking advantage of the weakened state of the empire under the Seleucidæ, rebelled, and founded a new dynasty, that of the Sassanidæ. (See Note, Persian History, p. 249.) The Persian empire under the Sassanidæ continued until the year 636, when it was overthrown by the Moslems in the great battle of the Cadesiah. (See p. 249.) Persia then continued a province of the caliphs for more than two centuries, when the sceptre was wrested from them by the chief of a bandit tribe. After this period Persia was wasted, for many centuries, by foreign oppression and internal disorder, (see pp. 287—311—351.) when, toward the end of the sixteenth century, order was restored, and Persia again rose to distinction under the government of Shah Abbas, surnamed the Great, (p. 351.)

The present kingdom of Persia is reduced to the limits of the ancient provinces of Persia, Media, Carmania, Parthia, the country of the Matieni, and the southern coasts of the Caspian Sea. The Turkish territories extend some distance east of the Tigris; Russia is in possession of the country between the Euxine or Black and Caspian Seas, embracing a part of Armenia; and on the east the now independent but constantly changing kingdoms of Cabool and Belohistan embrace the ancient Bactria, India, and Gedrosia, together with parts of Margiana and Aria, (now eastern Khorassan,) and the country of the ancient Sarangæi. The present Persia has an area of four hundred and fifty thousand square miles, with a population of eight or ten millions. The most striking physical features of Persia are its chains of rocky mountains; its long arid valleys without rivers; and its vast salt or sandy deserts. The population is a mixture of the ancient Persian stock with Arabs and Turks. The language spoken is the *Parsee*,—simple in structure, and, like the French and English, having few inflections. The religion of the country is Mohammedanism (of the Sheah sect, or adherents of Ali,) which seems, however, to be rapidly on the decline.



PALESTINE. Map No. VI.

A brief geographical account of PALESTINE has been already given on page 40—a account of the Moabites, Canaanites, Midianites, Philistines, Ammonites,—and of the Jordan, Jabesh-Gilead, Gilgal, Gath, Gilboa, Hebron, Tyre, Sidon, Joppa, Syria, Damascus, Rabbah, Edom, Samaria, Gaza, Bethoron, Mount Tabor, &c., may be found by referring to the Index at the end of the volume.

Joshua divided Palestine, or the Holy Land, among the twelve Israelitish tribes, whose localities may be learned from the accompanying map. The Children of Israel remained united under one government until the death of Solomon, when ten of the twelve tribes, under Jeroboam, rebelled against Rehoboam, the son and successor of Solomon. The tribe of Judah, with a part, and part only, of the little clan of Benjamin, remained faithful to Rehoboam. From this time forward Judah and Israel were separate kingdoms. The dividing line was about ten miles north of Jerusalem, between Jericho and Gibeah,—the former belonging to Israel, the latter to Judah. Edom, or Idumea, and the possession of the capital, Jerusalem, therefore fell to Judah; but four-fifths of the territory, and the sovereignty over the Moabites, belonged to Israel. The Syrians (Aramites) and Ammonites, after this, were no longer under subjection.

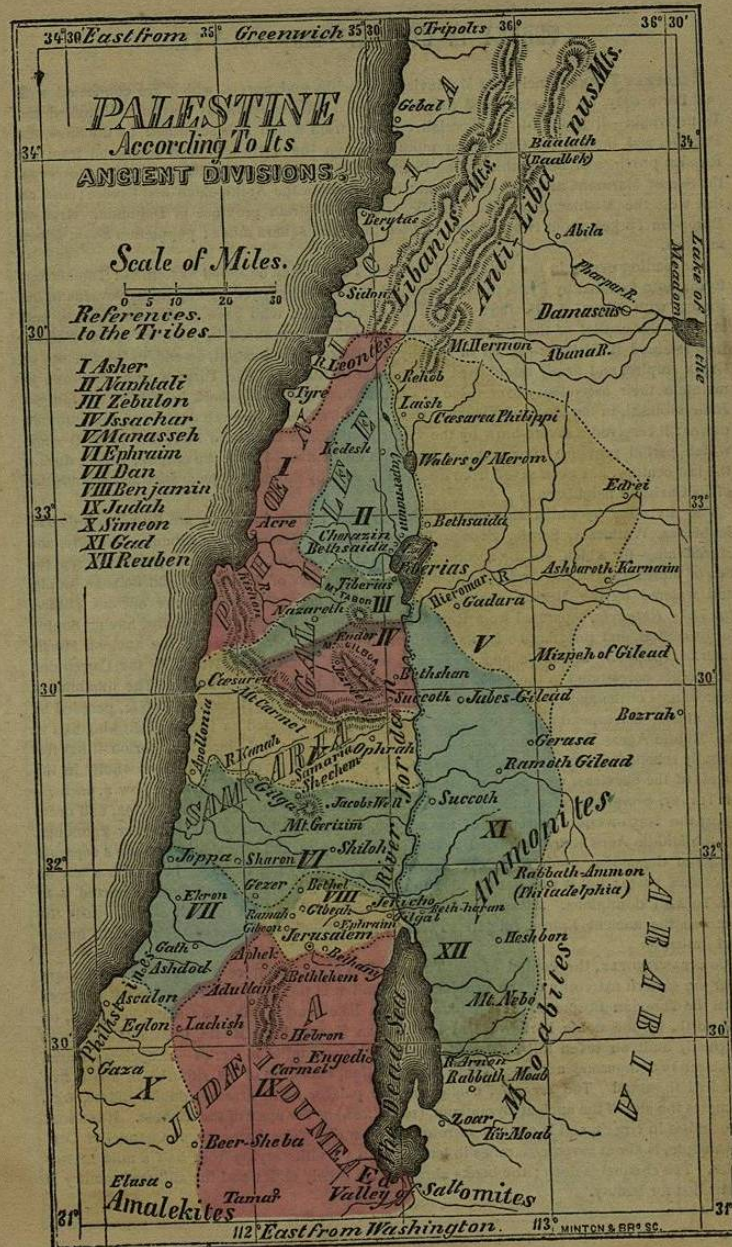
The history of ISRAEL from the time of Jeroboam to the carrying away of the ten tribes captive to Assyria, (B. C. 721,) was a series of calamities and revolutions. The reigns of its seventeen princes average only fifteen years each; and these seventeen kings belonged to seven different families, which were placed on the throne by seven sanguinary conspiracies. With the captivity, the history of the ten tribes ends. Josephus assures us that they never returned to their own land.

The history of JUDAH, after the revolt of the ten tribes, is little more than the history of a single town, Jerusalem. After the lapse of three hundred and eighty-nine years Jerusalem was taken by Nebuchadnezzar, (B. C. 606, and afterwards, B. C. 587,) and Judea became tributary to the king of Babylon. The termination of the captivity of Judah, after a period of seventy years, was the act of Cyrus, soon after the conquest of Babylon, B. C. 530; but it was a common saying among the Jews, that "only the bran, that is, the dregs of the people, returned to Jerusalem, but that all the fine flour stayed behind at Babylon." At the time of the Persian conquest by Alexander, Judea, along with the rest of the Persian provinces, passed under the Macedonian dominion. After the death of Alexander we find Palestine alternately subject to the kings of Syria and Egypt; about the middle of the second century B. C., Judea was rendered independent by the Maccabees, (pp. 112—114,) and in the year 63 B. C. it was conquered by Pompey, when it became a part of the Roman empire. (See p. 177.)

Under the Roman dominion, Palestine was divided into five provinces, viz.: Upper and Lower Galilee, Samaria, Judea, and Peræa,—situated as follows: The divisions of Asher and Naphtali, (see Map,) embracing the country of the Sidonians, formed Upper Galilee;—the tribes of Zebulun and Issachar, embracing the country of the Perizites, formed Lower Galilee;—the half tribe of Manasseh west of the Jordan, and the tribe of Ephraim, embracing the country of the Hivites, formed Samaria;—the tribes of Benjamin, Judah, and Simeon, embracing the countries of the Jebusites, Amorites, Hittites, and Philistines, formed Judea;—the tribes of Reuben, Gad, and the half tribe of Manasseh east of the Jordan, embracing the countries of the Moabites and Ammonites, and the kingdom of Bashan, formed Peræa.

Palestine remained under the Roman dominion (part of the time under the Eastern or reek empire) until the year 636, when Omar conquered Jerusalem, (see p. 249;) after being more than four hundred years subject to the Arabian caliphs, the country fell into the hands of the Turks, (see p. 268,) who proved more oppressive masters than any of their predecessors. Then followed the Crusades; and about four hundred and sixty years after the conquest of Omar, the Holy city was rescued from the Mohammedan yoke, (see p. 283;) but after a series of changes, in the year 1519 Jerusalem came finally into the hands of the Turks, whose flag has ever since floated over its sacred places.

The inhabitants of Palestine are a mixture of various races—consisting of the descendants of the ancient inhabitants of the country, their Arab conquerors, Turks, Crusaders, wandering Bedouins, Kurds, &c., but all now equally naturalized, and distributed into various classes of tribes according to their several religious systems.



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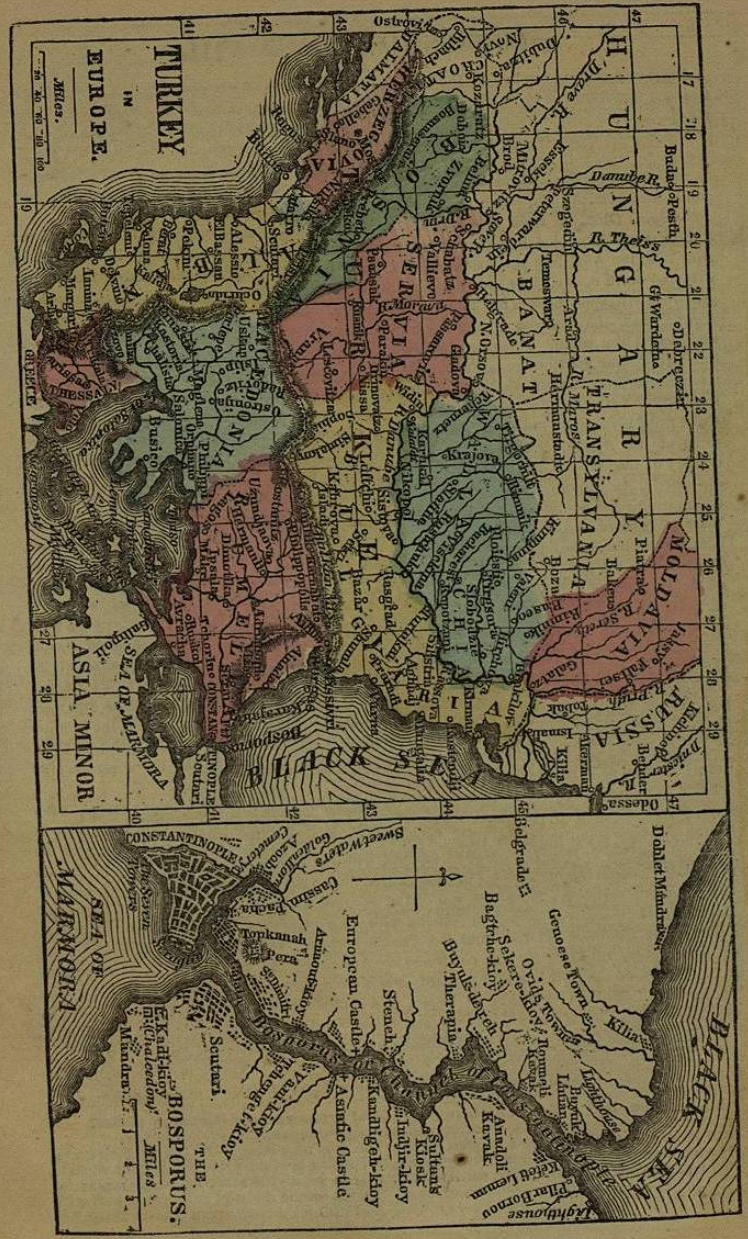
TURKEY IN EUROPE. Map No. VII.

EUROPEAN TURKEY, including Moldavia, Wallachia, and Servia, which are connected with the Porte only by the slenderest ties, is bounded on the north by Slavonia, Hungary, and Transylvania—divisions of the Austrian empire—from which it is separated by the Save, the Danube, and the eastern Carpathian mountains; on the north-east it is separated from the Russian province of Bessarabia by the Pruth; on the east it has the Black Sea, the Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmora, and the Hellespont; on the south the Archipelago and Greece; and on the west the Mediterranean, the Adriatic, and the Austrian province of Dalmatia. Area of European Turkey about two hundred and ten thousand square miles; population about fifteen millions.

The leading events in the history of European Turkey may be stated as follows: The ancient Byzantium founded by Byzas the Megarean, B. C. 656:—destroyed by Septimius Severus in his contest with Niger, A. D. 196:—rebuilt by Constantine, who gave it his own name, and made it the capital of the Roman empire, A. D. 328:—captured in 1204 by the Crusaders, who retained it till 1261:—taken in 1453 by the Turks, who thus put an end to the Eastern or Greek empire, and firmly established their power in Europe. The Turkish arms continue to maintain their ascendancy over those of Christendom until their check in 1683 by the famous John Sobieski, in the siege of Vienna. (See p. 389.) Then began the decline of the Ottoman power: it received a severe blow by the victories of Prince Eugene in 1697; (see p. 390;) since which period province after province has been dismembered from the empire, which, during the last century, has been saved from dissolution only by the mutual jealousies and animosities of its Christian neighbors.

The divisions by which European Turkey is best known in history are Rumilia, Bulgaria, Moldavia, Wallachia, Servia, Bosnia, Turkish Croatia, Hersegovina, Albania, Thessaly, and Macedonia,—for which, see the accompanying Map. *Rumilia*, bordering on the Black Sea, the Sea of Marmora, and the Archipelago, containing the cities of Adrianople and Constantinople, and watered by the Maritza, the ancient Hebrus, is coterminous with the ancient Thrace, (p. 71.) *Bulgaria*, separated from Rumilia by the Balkan range of mountains, having Sophia for its capital, and the Danube for its northern boundary, corresponds to the ancient Moesia Inferior, (p. 200.) *Moldavia* and *Wallachia*, separated from Transylvania by the Carpathian mountains, correspond to the ancient Dacia conquered by Trajan, (p. 200-3.) The inhabitants, descendants of the ancient Dacians, call themselves *Roumuni*, or Romans. *Servia*, peopled by Slavonians—corresponding to the ancient Moesia Superior, formed an independent kingdom in the Middle Ages. It was conquered by the Turks in 1365; but since that period it has frequently rebelled against its Turkish masters. The internal government is now wholly in the hands of the Servians, who pay a small annual tribute to the sultan. *Bosnia*, now a pachalic of Turkey, comprising also under its government Turkish Croatia and Hersegovina, and occupying the north-western extremity of the empire, was anciently included in Lower Pannonia. In the Middle Ages it first belonged to the Eastern empire, and afterwards became a separate kingdom dependent upon Hungary. It was conquered by the Turks in 1493, after a war of seventeen years; but it was not till 1522 that Solymán the Magnificent finally annexed it to the Turkish dominions. *Albania*, a large province bordering on the Adriatic, is nearly the same as the ancient Epirus, (p. 44.) *Thessaly* and *Macedonia* preserve their ancient names and limits.

CONSTANTINOPLE, the capital of the Turkish dominions, occupies a triangular promontory near the eastern extremity of the province of Rumilia, at the junction of the Sea of Marmora with the Thracian Bosphorus. It is separated from its extensive suburbs Galata, Pera, &c., on the north, by the noble harbor called the Golden Horn. Like Rome, Constantinople was originally built on seven hills. The city is about thirteen miles in circuit—comprises an area of about two thousand acres—and has a population, exclusive of its suburbs, of about five hundred thousand. The *seraglio*, containing the palace, mint, arsenal, public offices, &c., occupies the site of the ancient Byzantium, (see p. 218,) at the apex of the triangle. It is about three miles in circuit, and is entirely surrounded by walls. The *Bosphorus*, or Channel of Constantinople, is about seventeen miles in length, with a width varying from half a mile to two miles. The channel is deep; the banks abrupt, with stately cliffs; and the adjacent country is unrivalled for beauty.



ANCIENT ITALY. Map No. VIII.

ANCIENT ITALY was called by the Greeks Hesperia, from its western situation in relation to Greece; and from the Latin poets it received the names Ausonia, Saturnia, and Enotria. (See also p. 123.) About the time of Aristotle, (B. C. 386,) the Greeks divided Italy into six countries or regions,—Ausonia or Opica, Tyrrhenia, Iapygia, Ombria, Liguria, and Henetia; but the divisions by which it is best known in Roman history are those given on the accompanying Map.—Cisalpine Gaul, Etruria, Umbria, Picenum, the country of the Sabines, Latium, Campania, Samnium, Apulia, Calabria, Lucania, and Brutiolum Ager.

Cisalpine Gaul, or *Gaul* this side of the Alps, embracing all northern Italy beyond the Rubicon, was inhabited by Gallic tribes, which, as early as six hundred years B. C., began to pour over the Alps into this extensive and fertile territory. *Etruria*, embracing the country west and north of the Tiber, was inhabited by a nation which had attained to an advanced degree of civilization before the founding of Rome. *Umbria* embraced the country east of Etruria, from the Rubicon on the north to the river Nar, which separated it from the Sabine territory on the south. *Picenum*, inhabited by the Picentes, was a country on the Adriatic, having the river *Æsis* on the north, the *Matrinus* on the south, and on the west the Apennines, which separated it from Umbria. The *Country of the Sabines*, at the period when it was marked out with the greatest clearness and precision, was separated from Latium by the river Anio, from Etruria by the Tiber, from Umbria by the Nar, and from Picenum by the central ridge of the Apennines. (See also Map No. X.) *Latium* was south of Etruria and the country of the Sabines, from which it was separated by the Tiber and the Anio. *Campania*, separated from Latium by the river Liris, was called the garden of Italy. The Campanian nation conquered by the Romans was composed of Oscans, Tuscans, Samnites, and Greeks; the latter having formed numerous colonies in southern Italy. *Samnium*, the country of the Samnites, bordered on the Adriatic, having Picenum on the north, Apulia on the south, and Latium and Campania on the west. The ambitious and warlike Samnites not unfrequently brought into the field a force of eighty thousand foot and eight thousand horse. *Apulia*, inhabited by the early Daunii, Peucetii, and Messapii, bordered on the Adriatic on the east; and, on the west, on the territories of the Samnites, the Campanians, and Lucanians. *Calabria*, called also by the Greeks Iapygia, embraced the south-eastern extremity of the Italian peninsula, answering nearly to what is now called Terra di Otranto. *Lucania*, inhabited by the warlike Lucani, who carried on a successful war with the Greek colonies of southern Italy, was separated from Apulia and Calabria on the north-east by the Bradanus. *Brutiolum Ager*, the Country of the Bruttii, comprised the southern extremity of the peninsula, now called Calabria Ultra. The Bruttii, the most barbarous of the Italian tribes, were reduced by the Romans soon after the withdrawal of Pyrrhus from Italy.

Since the downfall of the Roman empire Italy has never been united in one State. After having been successively possessed by the Heruli, Ostrogoths, Greeks, and Lombards, Charlemagne annexed it to the empire of the Franks in 774: from 888 till the establishment of the republic of Milan in 1150, it generally belonged, with the exception of the territory of the Venetians, to the German emperors. In 1535, Milan, then a duchy, came into the possession of the emperor Charles V. Since the war of the Spanish succession, the duchies of Milan and Mantua have generally belonged to Austria, with the exception of the short time they formed a part of the Cisalpine republic and the French empire. Venice was a republic from the seventh century till 1797. It was confirmed to Austria by the treaty of 1815. The present Italian States are the kingdom of Lombardy and Venice, forming a part of the Austrian empire—kingdom of Sardinia—kingdom of Naples and Sicily—Grand-duchy of Tuscany—States of the Church—Duchies of Parma, Modena, and Lucca—and the little republic of San-Marino.

The French rule in Italy was a great blessing to that unhappy country; "but the coalition," says Sismondi, "destroyed all the good conferred by France." The state of the people contrasts very disadvantageously with the fertility of the soil and the beauty of the climate.

"How has kind Heav'n adorn'd the happy land, And Tyrant's usurp' her happy plains?
And scattered blessings with a wasteful hand! The poor inhabitant beholds in vain
But what avail her unexhausted stores, The redd'ning orange and the swelling grape,
Her blooming mountains and her sunny shores, Joyless he sees the growing oils and wines,
With all the gifts that Heav'n and earth impart, And in the myrtle's fragrant shade repines:
The smiles of nature and the charms of art, Starves, in the midst of nature's bounty
While proud Oppression in her valleys reigns, And in the wader vineyard d'es for thirst."



THE ROMAN EMPIRE. Map No. IX.

REGAL ROME, or Rome under the Kings, occupying a period of about two hundred and forty years, from the founding of the city, 753 B. C., to the overthrow of royalty, 510 B. C., ruled over only a narrow strip of seacoast, from the Tiber southward to Terracina, an extent of about seventy miles. (see Map No. X;) but it already carried on an extensive commerce with Sardinia, Sicily, and Carthage.

REPUBLICAN ROME, occupying a period of about four hundred and eighty years, from the overthrow of royalty 510 B. C. to the accession of Augustus, 28 B. C., extended the Roman dominion, not only over all Italy, but also over all the islands of the Mediterranean—over Egypt, and all Northern Africa from Egypt westward to the Atlantic Ocean—over Syria and all Asia Minor—over Thrace, Achaia or Greece, Macedonia, and Illyricum—and over all Gaul, and most of Spain.

IMPERIAL ROME occupies a period of about five hundred years, extending from the accession of Augustus, 28 B. C., to the overthrow of the Western empire of the Romans, A. D. 476. Under Augustus, the Roman dominion was extended by the conquest of *Mesia*, corresponding to the present Turkish provinces of Bulgaria and Servia—of *Pannonia*, corresponding to the eastern part of southern Austria, and Hungary south of the Danube, Styria, Austrian Croatia, and Slavonia, and the northern part of Bosnia—of *Noricum*, corresponding to the Austrian Salzburg, western Styria, Carinthia, Austria north to the Danube, and a small part of south eastern Bavaria—*Rhaetia*, extending over the country of the Tyrol and eastern Switzerland—and *Vindelicia*, corresponding to southern Wirtemberg and Bavaria south of the Danube. (See also Maps Nos. VII and XVII.) On the death of Augustus, therefore, the Roman empire was bounded by the Rhine and the Danube on the north; by the Euphrates on the east; by the sandy deserts of Arabia and Africa on the south; and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west.

The southern part of Britain, or *Britannia*, was reduced by Ostorius, in the reign of Claudius; and Agricola, in the reign of Domitian, extended the Roman dominion to the Frith of Forth, and the Clyde. With this exception, the empire continued within the limits given it by Augustus, until the accession of Trajan, who, in the year 105, added to it *Dacia*, a region north of the Danube, and corresponding to Wallachia, Transylvania, Moldavia, and all Hungary east of the Theiss and north of the Danube. Trajan also, in his eastern expedition, descended the Tigris from the mountains of Armenia to the Persian Gulf, and for a brief period extended the sway of Rome over Colchis, Armenia, Mesopotamia, and Assyria; and even the Parthian monarch accepted his crown from the hands of the emperor. In the time of Trajan, therefore, who died A. D. 117, the Roman empire attained its greatest extent,—being, at that period, the greatest monarchy the world has ever known,—extending in length more than three thousand miles, from the Western Ocean to the Euphrates, and more than two thousand in breadth, from the northern limits of Dacia to the deserts of Africa,—and embracing an area of sixteen hundred thousand square miles of the most fertile land on the face of the globe. Well might it be called the Roman World.

Adrian, or Hadrian, the successor of Trajan, voluntarily began the system of retrenchment which was forced upon his successors. In order to preserve peace on the frontiers he abandoned all the conquests of his predecessor except Dacia, and bounded the eastern provinces by the Euphrates. The unity of this mighty empire was first broken by the division into Eastern and Western in the year 395. In the year 476 the Western Empire fell under the repeated attacks of the barbarians of Germany and Scythia, the rude ancestors of the most polished nations of Europe. The Eastern Empire survived nearly a thousand years longer, but finally fell under the power of the Turks, who took Constantinople, its capital, in the year 1453, and made it the capital of the Ottoman empire.

