

Book III: Greece

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Chapter 1

Glances at Early Greek History.

AMONG the various nations of antiquity, Greece deservedly holds the most distinguished rank, both for the patriotism, genius, and learning of its inhabitants, as well as the high state of perfection to which they carried the arts and sciences.

It formerly comprised various small independent states, differing from each other in forms of government and in the character of the people, but still united in a confederacy for mutual defence, by the counsel of *Amphic'tyons*, and by their common language, religion, and public games.

2. The name *Greece* was never used by the ancient inhabitants of that country. They called their land *Hel'las*, and themselves *Hel'lenes*. It is from the Romans that we have derived the word *Greece*; but why they gave it a different appellation from that used by the natives cannot be determined. The original inhabitants, who were generally considered as the descendants of *Ja'van*, the son of Japhet, lived in the lowest condition of barbarism, dwelling in huts, feeding on acorns and berries, and clothing themselves in the skins of wild beasts, when *Ce'crops* with a colony from Egypt, and *Cadmus* with a body of *Phœni'cians*, landed in Greece, and planted on its shores the first rudiments of civilization.

The early form of government in Greece was a limited monarchy, which was finally abolished, and a republican form generally prevailed.

3. The history of this famous land may be divided into two parts : 1st, the period of uncertain history, which extends from the earliest accounts of the country to the first Persian war, in the year 490 b. c.; 2d, the period of authentic history, extending from the Persian invasion to the final subjugation of Greece by the Romans, BC 146. The first period is generally reckoned from the foundation of *Sic'yon*, the most ancient kingdom of Greece, and comprises a space of about sixteen hundred years. This long succession of ages, though greatly involved in obscurity and fable, is still interspersed with several interesting particulars. It contains no records that properly deserve the name of history.

4. Grecian history, however, derives some authenticity at this period from the *Chronicle of Paros*, preserved among the *Arundelian* marbles at Oxford. The authority of this chronicle has, indeed, been much questioned; but still, by many, it is thought to be worthy of considerable credit. It fixes the dates of the most important events in the history of Greece, from the time of *Cecrops* down to the age of *Alexander the Great*.

5. *Sic'yon*, the capital of the ancient kingdom of that name, was founded by *Ægi'alus*; *Argos* by *In'achus*, the last of the *Ti'tans*; *Athens*, which afterwards bore

such a distinguished part in the history of Greece, was founded by *Cecrops*, with a colony from Egypt. He was an eminent legislator, and instituted the court of *Areop'agus*. *Thebes* was founded by *Cadmus*, who is said to have introduced letters into Greece from Phoenicia; the alphabet, however, only consisted of sixteen letters, and the mode of writing was alternately from right to left, and from left to right.

6. In the time of *Cranaus*, who succeeded *Cecrops*, happened the deluge of *Deuca' lion*, which, though much magnified by the poets, was probably only a partial inundation.

The other memorable institutions that distinguish this period were the *Eleusin' ian* mysteries, the *Olymp' ic* and other games,—of which we shall speak hereafter,—and the marvellous exploits of *Her' cules* and *The' seus*.

1.1 Review Questions

1. What is said of Greece? What did it formerly comprise? How were they united?
2. What was its ancient name? From whom were the inhabitants descended? What was their condition when *Cecrops* landed in Greece?
3. How is the history of Greece divided? How do these periods extend? What is said of the first period?
4. From what does the Grecian history derive authenticity? Of what does this chronicle fix the date?
5. By whom was *Sicyon* founded? *Argos*? *Athens*? *Thebes*? What is said of *Cadmus*?
6. In the time of *Cranaus*, what happened? What institutions distinguished this period?

Chapter 2

The Fabulous and Heroic Ages.

THE fabulous age comprises the period from the foundation of the principal cities to the commencement of civilization, and the introduction of letters and arts into Greece. The first great enterprise undertaken by the Greeks was the Argonaut'ic expedition, which appears in its details to partake more of fable than of history. It was commanded by Ja'son, the son of the king of Iolchos, who was accompanied by many of the most illustrious men of Greece, among whom were Her'cules, The'seus, Cas'tor and Pollux, Or'pheus, AEsculap'ius the physician, and Chi'ron the astronomer.

2. They sailed from Iolchos, in Thes'saly, to Col'chis, on the eastern coast of the Eux'ine Sea; they received the name Argonauts from the ship Ar'go in which they sailed, said to have been the first sea vessel ever built. This famous voyage, which was probably a military and mercantile adventure, is commonly represented to have been undertaken for the purpose of recovering the golden fleece of a ram, which originally belonged to their country. The fleece is pretended to have been guarded by bulls that breathed fire, and by a dragon that never slept.

3. The Heroic Age was particularly distinguished by the Tro'jan war, the history of which rests on the authority of Homer, and forms the subject of his Il'iad,¹ the noblest poem of antiquity. According to the poet, HeVlen, the daughter of Tyn'darus, king of Sparta, was reputed the most beautiful woman of her age, and her hand was solicited by the most illustrious princes of Greece. Her father bound all her suitors by a solemn oath, that they would abide by the choice that Hellen should make of one among them; and that, should she be taken from the arms of her husband, they would assist, to the utmost of their power, to recover her.

4. Hellen gave her hand to Menelaus, and after her nuptials, Tyndarus, her father, resigned the crown to his son-in-law. Paris, the son of Pri'am, king of Troy, a powerful city founded by Dar'danus, having adjudged the prize of superior beauty to Venus, in preference to Juno and Minerva, was promised by her the most beautiful woman of the age for his wife. Shortly after this event, Paris visited Sparta, where he was kindly received by Menelaus; but in return for the kind hospitality tendered to him, he persuaded Hellen to elope with him to Troy, and carried off with her a considerable amount of treasure.

5. This act of treachery and ingratitude produced the Trojan war. A confederacy was immediately formed by the princes of Greece, in accordance with their engagement, to avenge the outrage. An army of one hundred thousand men was conveyed

¹From Ilium, or Troy.

in a fleet of twelve hundred vessels to the Trojan coast. Agamem'non, king of Argos, brother of Menelaus, was selected as commander-in-chief. Some of the other princes most distinguished in this war, were Achilles, the bravest of the Greeks; also Ajax, Menelaus, Ulys'ses, Nes'tor, and Diome'des.

6. The Trojans were commanded by Hec'tor, the son of Priam, assisted by Paris, Deiph'ohus, AE'neas, and Sarpe'don. After a siege of ten years, the city was taken by stratagem, plundered of its wealth, and burnt to the ground.² The venerable Priam, king of Troy, was slain, and all his family carried into captivity. About eighty years after the destruction of Troy, the civil war of the Heracli'dae began; it is usually called the return of the Heraclidae into Peloponne'sus. Hercules, king of Myce'nae, a city of Peloponnesus, was banished from his country, with all his family, while the crown was seized by Atre'us, the son of Pe'lops. After the lapse of about a century, the descendants of Hercules returned to Peloponnesus, and, having expelled the inhabitants, again took possession of the country.

2.1 Review Questions

1. What do the fabulous ages comprise? What was the first great enterprise? Who commanded it? and who accompanied him?
2. From where did they sail? For what was this famous voyage undertaken?
3. For what is the Heroic Age distinguished? What is said of Hellen? How did her father bind all her suitors?
4. To whom did Hellen give her hand? What is said of Paris?
5. What did this treachery produce? Who was commander-in-chief of the Grecian forces? Mention the other princes.
6. By whom were the Trojans commanded? What is said of the city? Of Priam? What happened about eighty years after this? What is said of Hercules?

²Much light has been thrown on the ruins of Troy by the recent researches of Dr. Schliemann.

Chapter 3

The Republic of Sparta.

SPAR'TA, or Lacedae'mon, was the capital of Laco'nia, in the southern part of Peloponne'sus. After the return of the Heraclidae, the government was administered by the two sons of Aristode'mus, who reigned jointly; and this double monarchy was transmitted to the descendants of each for a period of eight hundred and eighty years.

2. This radical principle of disunion, and consequently of anarchy, made the want of a regular system of laws severely felt. Lycur'gus, the brother of one of the kings of Sparta, a man distinguished alike for his great abilities and stern integrity, was invested, by the united voice of the sovereigns and the people, with the important duty of framing a new constitution for his country. The arduous task being at length completed, produced not only an entire change in the form of government, but also in the manners of the people. He instituted an elective senate, consisting of twenty-eight members, whose office was to preserve a just balance between the power of the kings and that of the people. Nothing could come before the assembly of the people which had not received the previous consent of the senate; and, on the other hand, no action of the senate was effectual without the sanction of the people. The kings were continued, but were nothing more than hereditary presidents of the senate and generals of the army.

3. Lycurgus divided the territory of the republic into thirty-nine thousand equal portions among the free citizens. For the purpose of banishing luxury, commerce was abolished. Gold and silver coin was prohibited, and iron money was substituted as a medium of exchange. A uniformity of dress was established, and all the citizens, not excepting the kings, were required to take their principal meals at the public tables, from which all luxury and excess were excluded, and a kind of black broth was the chief article of food. Among some of the admirable ceremonies which prevailed at these public meals, the following is interesting and instructive. When the assembly was seated, the oldest man present, pointing to the door, said, "No word spoken here goes out there." This wise regulation produced mutual confidence, and rendered the people unrestrained in conversation.

4. The institutions of Lycurgus, though in many respects admirable, had still a number of grave defects. Infants, shortly after birth, underwent an examination, and those that were well formed were delivered to public nurses; but all who were deformed or sickly were inhumanly exposed to perish. At the age of seven, children were sent to the public schools. The young were taught to pay the greatest respect to the aged and cherish an ardent love for their country, and the profession of arms was looked upon as the great business of life. Letters were only taught in so far as

they were useful; hence the Spartans, while they were distinguished for many heroic virtues, were never eminent for learning. No production from the pen of a native of Sparta has come down to modern times. These hardy people were accustomed to express themselves in short, pithy sentences, so that even at the present time this style of speaking is called after them laconic—Laconia being one of the names of their country.

5. The youth were early inured to hardship; and were accustomed to sleep on rushes, trained to the athletic exercises, and only supplied with plain and scanty food. They were even taught to steal whatever they could, provided they could accomplish the theft without being detected. Plutarch relates the fact of a boy who had stolen a fox and concealed it under his garments, and who actually suffered the animal to tear out his bowels, rather than discover the theft. The women of Lacedaemon were destitute of the milder virtues that most adorn the female character, and their manners were highly indelicate. Their education was intended to give them a masculine energy, and to fill them with admiration of military glory. Mothers rather rejoiced than wept when their sons fell nobly in battle. "Return with your shield or on your shield," was the injunction of a Spartan mother to her son, when he was going to meet the enemy. She meant that he should conquer or die.

6. For five hundred years the institutions of Lycurgus continued in force. During this period the influence of Sparta was felt throughout Greece; and her government acquired solidity, while the other states were torn by domestic dissensions. In the process of time, however, the severe manners and rigid virtues of her citizens began to relax; changes in her laws and institutions were finally introduced, particularly during the reign of Lysander, whose conquests filled the country with wealth.

From this period luxury and avarice began to prevail, until Sparta, with the other states of Greece, sunk under the dominion of Philip, king of Macedon.

3.1 Review Questions

1. What was Sparta? What is said of the government after the return of the Heraclidae?
2. What is said of Lycurgus? With what was he invested? What did he institute? What is said of the kings?
3. How did Lycurgus divide the territory? What is said of commerce? Of gold and silver? Of iron money? Of dress? Of public tables? What was said by the oldest man present?
4. What is said of the institutions of Lycurgus? How were infants treated? What were the young taught to pay? What is said of letters? How were they accustomed to speak?
5. What is said of the youth? Of the manners of the women? What is said of mothers?
6. How long did the institutions of Lycurgus continue? In the process of time, what took place? What is said of Sparta from this period?

Chapter 4

The Republic of Athens.

ATH'ENS, the capital of At'tica, was distinguished for its commerce, wealth, and magnificence, and as the seat of learning and the arts. The last king of Athens was Co'drus, who sacrificed himself, for the good of his country, in a war with the Heraclidae. After his death, no one being deemed worthy to succeed him, the regal government was abolished, and the state was governed by magistrates, styled archons. At first the office was for life, but it was afterwards reduced to a period of ten years; and finally the archons, nine in number, were annually elected, and were possessed of equal authority.

2. As these changes produced convulsions in the state, and rendered the condition of the people miserable, the Athenians appointed Dra'co, a man of stern and rigid principles, to prepare a code of written laws. His laws were characterized by extreme severity. Every crime was punished with death. Draco being asked why he was so severe in his punishment, replied that the smallest offence deserved death, and that he had no higher penalty for the greatest crime. The severity of these laws prevented them from being fully executed, and at length caused them to be entirely abolished, after a period of one hundred and fifty years.

3. So'lon, one of the seven wise men of Greece, being raised to the archonship, was intrusted with the care of framing a new system of laws for his country. His disposition was mild and condescending; and, without attempting to change the manners of his countrymen, he endeavored to accommodate his system to their prevailing customs, to moderate their dissensions, to restrain their passions, and to open a field for the growth of virtue. Of his laws he said, "If they are not the best possible, they are the best the Athenians are capable of receiving."

4. Solon's system divided the people into four classes, according to their wealth. To the first three, composed of the richest citizens, he intrusted all the offices of the commonwealth. The fourth class, which was more numerous than the other three, had an equal right of suffrage in the public assembly, where all laws were framed and measures of state decreed; and by this regulation the balance of power was thrown in favor of the people. He instituted a senate composed of four hundred, and afterwards increased it to five hundred persons. He restored the court of the Areop'agus, which had greatly fallen into disrepute, and committed to it the supreme administration of justice. Commerce and agriculture were encouraged. Industry and economy were enforced. And the father who had taught his son no trade could not claim a support from him in his old age.

5. The manners of the Athe'nians formed a striking contrast with those of the

Lacedaemonians. At Athens the arts were highly esteemed; at Sparta they were despised and neglected. At Athens peace was the natural state of the republic, and the refined enjoyments of life the aim of its citizens; Sparta was entirely a military establishment; her people made war the great business of life. Luxury characterized the Athenian, frugality the Spartan. They were both, however, equally jealous of their liberty and equally brave in war.

6. Before the death of Solon, Pisistratus, a man of great wealth and eloquence, by courting the popular favor, raised himself to the sovereign power, which he and his sons retained for fifty years.

He governed with great ability, encouraged the arts and sciences, and is said to have founded the first public library known in the world, and first collected the poems of Homer into one volume, which, before that time, were repeated in detached portions.

Pisistratus transmitted his power to his sons, Hip'pias and Hippar'chus. They governed for some time with wisdom and moderation, but having, at length, abused their power, a conspiracy was formed against them, and their government was overthrown by Harmo'dius and Aristogit'on. Hipparchus was slain. Hippias fled to Darius, king of Persia, who was then meditating the invasion of Greece. He was subsequently killed in the battle of Marathon, fighting against his countrymen.

4.1 Review Questions

1. For what was Athens distinguished? After the death of Codrus, how was the state governed? What is said of the office of archon?
2. What is said of Draco? How were his laws distinguished? What reply did he make when asked why he was so severe?
3. What is said of Solon? What did he endeavor to accomplish? Of his laws, what did he say?
4. What is said of Solon's system? Of the fourth class? What did he institute? What is said of commerce, etc.?
5. What was the striking contrast between the Athenians and the Lacedaemonians?
6. What is said of Pisistratus? How did he govern? What is said of Hipparchus and Hippias?

Chapter 5

From the Invasion of Greece by the Persians to the Peloponne'sian War. B. C. 490 to 431.

THE period from the first invasion to the beginning of the Peloponnesian war is esteemed the most glorious in the history of Greece. The series of victories obtained by the inhabitants over the Persians are among the most splendid recorded in the annals of the world. The immediate cause which led to the invasion of Greece seems to have been to avenge the aid which the Athenians gave to the people of Ionia, who attempted to throw off the yoke of Persia.

2. Darius, King of Persia, having reduced the Ionians, next turned his arms against the Greeks, their allies, with the design of making entire conquest of Greece. He despatched heralds to each of the Grecian states, demanding earth and water, which was an acknowledgment of his supremacy. Thebes and several of the other cities submitted to the demand; but Athens and Sparta indignantly refused, and, seizing the heralds, they cast one into a pit and another into a well, and told them to take there their earth and water.

3. Darius now commenced his hostile attack both by sea and land. The first Persian fleet, under the command of Mardo'nius, was wrecked in doubling the promontory of Athos, with a loss of no less than three hundred vessels; a second, of six hundred sail, ravaged the Grecian islands; while an immense army, consisting of one hundred and ten thousand men, poured down impetuously on Attica. This formidable host was met by the Athenian army under the command of Milti'ades, on the plains of Mar'athon, where the Persians were signally defeated and fled with precipitation to their ships. The loss of the Persians amounted to six thousand three hundred; while the Athenian army, which did not exceed ten thousand men, lost only one hundred and ninety-two. A soldier covered with wounds ran to Athens with the news, and having only strength sufficient to say, "Rejoice! the victory is ours," fell down and expired.

4. Miltiades, the illustrious general by whose valor this great victory was gained, received the most inhuman treatment from his ungrateful countrymen. Being accused of treason for an unsuccessful attack on the isle of Paros, he was condemned to death; this punishment, however, was commuted into a fine of fifty talents.¹ In

¹About \$50,000.

consequence of his being unable to pay this amount he was cast into prison, where he died in a few days of the wounds he received in the defence of his country.

5. The Athenians at this time were divided into two parties, under their respective leaders—Aristides, the advocate of aristocracy, and Themistocles, of democracy. Aristides, who on account of his integrity was called the Just, through the intrigues of his great rival was banished for ten years by the Ostracism. It happened, while the people were giving their votes for his exile, that a certain citizen, who was unable to write, and who did not know him personally, brought him a shell and asked him to write the name of Aristides upon it. "Why, what harm has Aristides ever done you?" said he. "No harm at all," replied the citizen, "but I cannot bear to hear him continually called the just." Aristides smiled, and taking the shell wrote his own name upon it, and went into banishment.

6. On the death of Darius, his son Xerxes, who succeeded to the Persian throne, resolved to prosecute the war which his father had undertaken against Greece. Having spent four years in making the necessary preparations, he collected an army, according to Herodotus, numbering over two millions of fighting men; and including the women and retinue of attendants, the whole multitude is said to have exceeded five millions of persons. His fleet consisted of more than twelve hundred galleys of war, besides three thousand transports of various kinds.

7. Having arrived at Mount Athos, he caused a canal, navigable for his largest vessels, to be cut through the isthmus which joins that mountain to the continent, and for the conveyance of his army he ordered two bridges of boats to be extended across the Hellespont, at a point where it measures seven furlongs in breadth. The first of these bridges was destroyed by a tempest, on which account Xerxes, in transports of rage, ordered the sea to be scourged with three hundred stripes, and to be chained by casting into it a pair of fetters. The bridge being again repaired, the army commenced its march, and occupied seven days and seven nights in passing the straits, while those appointed to conduct the march lashed the soldiers with whips, in order to quicken their speed.

8. Xerxes having taken a position on an eminence, from which he could view the vast assemblage he had collected, the plain covered with his troops, and the sea overspread with his vessels, at first called himself the most favored of mortals. But when he reflected that in the short space of a hundred years, not one of the many thousands then before him would be alive, he burst into tears, at the instability of all human things !

9. Most of the smaller cities of Greece submitted at the demand of the Persian monarch; of those which united to oppose him, Athens and Sparta took the lead. The Persian army advanced directly towards Athens, bearing down all before it until it came to the pass of Thermopylae, on the east of Thesphaly. On this spot Leonidas, one of the kings of Sparta, with only six thousand men, had taken his position in order to oppose its progress. Xerxes having arrived at this place, sent a herald to Leonidas, commanding him to deliver up his arms, to whom the noble Spartan replied with laconic brevity, "Come and take them," For two days the Persians endeavored to force their passage through the defile, and were repulsed with great slaughter; but having at length discovered a secret path leading to an eminence which overlooked the Grecian camp, and having gained this advantageous post, under the cover of the night, the defence of the pass became impossible.

10. Leonidas, foreseeing certain destruction, dismissed all his allies, retaining only three hundred of his countrymen, and, in obedience to a law of Sparta, which forbade her soldiers, under any circumstances, to flee from an enemy, resolved to de-

vote his life for the good of his country. Animated by his example, the three hundred Spartans under his command determined to abide the issue of the conflict. Leonidas fell among the first, bravely contending against the thousands of his enemies; of the three hundred heroes, only one escaped to bear to Sparta the news, that her patriotic sons had died in her defence; and this survivor, after his return, felt himself so disgraced at being alive, that he perished by his own hand. Aristodemus, another of the band, being absent when the battle occurred, was considered so much disgraced by this accident that, when he afterwards distinguished himself at the battle of Plataea, he was nevertheless deemed unworthy of any share of the spoils. A monument was afterwards erected on the spot, to commemorate this memorable battle, bearing this inscription, written by Simonides :

“Go, stranger, and to listening Spartans tell, That here, obedient to their laws, we fell.”

11. Xerxes having forced the pass of Thermopylae, directed his march towards Athens, laying waste the country as he advanced with fire and sword. The Athenians, having conveyed their women and children, for safety, to the islands, retired to their fleet, leaving their city in the hands of the Persians, by whom it was pillaged and burnt. The only resource left to the Greeks was placed in their fleet; therefore they immediately commenced preparations for a naval engagement. Their fleet consisted of only three hundred and eighty sail, under the command of Themistocles and Aristides, while that of the Persians amounted to twelve hundred vessels. The engagement took place in the straits of Salamis, which resulted in the total defeat of the Persian armament. Xerxes, who had seated himself upon an eminence, that he might behold the engagement, having seen the complete discomfiture of his squadron, fled with precipitation to the shores of the Hellespont. But, to his great mortification, he found that the bridge of boats which he left had been destroyed by a tempest; terrified, however, at the valor displayed by the Greeks, his impatience would admit of no delay; he therefore crossed the Hellespont in a fishing-boat to his own dominions.

12. The Persian monarch left Mardonius, with three hundred thousand men, to complete the conquest of Greece. This army, early in the following season, was met at Plataea, by the combined forces of Athens and Sparta, consisting of one hundred and ten thousand men, under the command of Aristides and Pausanias, and was defeated with tremendous slaughter, Mardonius himself being numbered among the slain. On the same day the Greeks engaged and destroyed the remains of the Persian fleet, at the promontory of Mycale, near Ephesus. The Persian army was now completely destroyed, and Xerxes, having been frustrated in all his ambitious views, was soon afterwards assassinated, and was succeeded in the Persian throne by his son, Artaxerxes Longimanus, BC 464.

13. At this period, the national character of the Greeks was at its highest elevation. The common danger had annihilated all petty jealousies between the states, and had given them union as a nation. Encouraged by their late victories, they resolved to bid defiance to the Persians; and undertook to aid the Ionians, who had thrown off the yoke of Persia. The combined forces of Sparta and Athens, under the command of Pausanias and Cimón, expelled the Persians from Thrace, destroyed their fleet on the coast of Pamphylia, took the island of Cyprus, and having reduced and plundered the city of Byzantium, they returned with immense booty.

14. Pausanias, who had borne so distinguished a part in the late war, now became intoxicated with glory and power, and aspired to the sovereign dominion of Greece. For this purpose he wrote to Xerxes, offering to effect the subjugation of his country, and to hold it under the dominion of Persia, on the condition of receiving his daughter

in marriage. The treachery was detected before it could be carried into execution, and Pausanias, being condemned by the Eph'ori, took refuge in the temple of Miner 'va, where the sanctity of the place secured him from violence. Being unable to escape from this asylum, he soon perished by hunger. Themistocles, the great Athenian commander, being accused of participating in the treason of Pausanias, was banished from his country by the law of ostracism. The exiled general proceeded to Asia, wrote a letter to the Persian monarch, in which he said, "I, Themistocles, come to thee, who have done thy house most ill of all the Greeks, while I was of necessity repelling the invasion of thy father, but yet more good, when I was in safety, and his return was endangered." He was permitted to live in Persia in great splendor, but being- required by Artaxerxes to take up arms against the Greeks, rather than sully his former glory, by engaging in a war against his native country, although that country had been ungrateful towards him, he chose to suffer a voluntary death.

15. Aristides, after the banishment of Themistocles, directed the affairs of Athens, and upon his death, which happened shortly afterwards, Gi'mon, the son of Miltiades, one of the most illustrious statesmen and warriors of Greece, became the most prominent man in the republic. He gained two important victories over the Persians on the same day, the one by sea and the other by land, near the river Eury'medon, in Asia Minor. But it was the characteristic of the Athenians to treat their most distinguished citizens with ingratitude. Cimon, through the influence of faction, was banished by the ostracism, while Per'icles, a young man of exalted talents and extraordinary eloquence, succeeded in gaining the ascendancy at Athens.

16. Cimon, however, after a banishment of five years, was recalled, and, being restored to the command of the army, gained several other important victories over the Persians, and finally died of a wound he received at the siege of Cic'tium, in Cyprus. Shortly after this event the Persian war, which had lasted, with some slight intermissions, for about fifty years, was brought to a termination. Artaxerxes, weary of a war that only brought disgrace upon his arms and weakened his resources, sued for peace, which was granted on condition that he should give freedom to all the Grecian cities in Asia, and that no Persian ship of war should enter the Grecian seas.

17. After the death of Cimon, Pericles rose to the summit of power. He governed Athens with almost arbitrary sway for nearly forty years. He adorned the city with master-pieces of architecture, sculpture, and painting, patronized the arts and sciences, celebrated splendid games and festivals, and his administration forms an era of splendor and magnificence in the history of Greece. In all his public acts he displayed the greatest moderation and prudence, and the end of all his projects seems to have been the glory of his country and the happiness of his fellow-citizens. He died of a plague which raged at Athens. A little before his death, hearing some of his friends speaking of his achievements, he said, "You have forgotten the most glorious action of my life, which is, that I never caused a single citizen to put on mourning."

5.1 Review Questions

1. What is said of this period? What was the immediate cause which led to the invasion of Greece?
2. What is said of Darius? How did Athens and Sparta treat the heralds?
3. What is said of the first Persian fleet? What was the number of the second fleet? By whom was this host met? What was the loss of the Persians? Of the Athenian army? What is said of an Athenian soldier?

4. What is related of Miltiades, the illustrious general?
6. What is said of Xerxes? What was the number of his array? Of his fleet?
7. Having arrived at Mount Athos, what did he cause? What did he order? How long was the army in passing the straits?
8. What is now related of Xerxes?
9. What is said of the Persian On this spot who opposed its progress? What reply did he make? How long were the Persians stopped?
10. What did Leonidas now do? Of the three hundred how many escaped? What inscription was afterwards placed upon the monument?
11. Where did Xerxes now march? What is said of the Athenians? Who commanded their fleet? What engagement took place? What is said of Xerxes? How did he cross the Hellespont?
12. What did the Persian monarch leave? By whom was this army met? and what was the issue of the battle? On the same day what took place? What was the end of Xerxes?
13. At this period what is said of the Greeks? What did they undertake? What did they effect?
14. What is said of Pausanias? Where did he take refuge? What is related of Themistocles? What was his end?
15. What is said of Aristides and Cimon? After the banishment of Cimon who gained the ascendancy at Athens?
16. Was Cimon again recalled? What is said of the Persian war? What were the conditions of peace?
17. What is said of Pericles? In all his public acts what did he display? How did he die? What did he say before his death?

Chapter 6

From the Beginning of the Peloponnesian War to the Reign of Philip of Macedon— B. C. 431 to 360.

A FEW years before the death of Pericles, the Peloponnesian war began. This long and desperate struggle grew out of the ceaseless rivalry between Athens and Sparta; and for twenty-seven years, with little intermission, it inflicted the deepest calamities upon the Grecian States. The origin of this war seems to have been as follows : The inhabitants of Corcy'ra, while engaged in a contest with the Corin'thians, applied for aid to the Athenians, who readily granted them assistance; this conduct on the part of the latter was deemed a violation of the treaty of the confederate states of Peloponnesus, and war was immediately declared against Athens.

2. Sparta, joined by all the Peloponne'sian states, except Ar'gos, which remained neutral, took the lead against the Athenians, who had but few allies. The Peloponnesian forces, under the command of Archida'mus, the king of Sparta, amounted to sixty thousand, while the Athenian army did not exceed thirty-two thousand, but the fleet of the latter was much the superior. During the first year of the war the confederate forces entered Attica, laid waste the country, and besieged Athens; in the second year, the city was visited by a dreadful plague, which carried off several thousands, and among its victims was the renowned Pericles. The pestilence, however, did not arrest the progress of the war, which continued to rage with unabated fury.

3. After the death of Pericles, Cle'on grew into power, and for a short time directed the Athenian counsels; but he was slain at Amphep'otis, in a battle with Bras'idias, the Spartan general, who was also mortally wounded in the same engagement. After this event, a treaty of peace was concluded between Athens and Sparta, through the influence of Nic'ias, who now became the popular leader at Athens. Peace, however, was of short duration, war being again declared, through the influence of Alcibi'ades, one of the greatest of the Athenian generals, and the most accomplished orator of his time.

4. An expedition was next sent against the island of Sicily, under the command of Alcibiades and Nicias, but the former, being accused of misconduct, was recalled, and the latter was defeated and slain. Alcibiades, after some time, was again placed at the head of the Athenian army, and gained several important victories, but falling a second time into disrepute, he was banished from his country, and took refuge in

Asia, where he died.

5. Lysan'der, the Lacedaemonian general, having defeated the Athenian fleet, at jAEgos-Potamos, on the Hellespont, reduced Athens to the last extremity, by blockading the city by sea and land. The wretched Athenians were at length compelled to accept the most humiliating terms of peace; they agreed to demolish their port, to limit their fleet to twelve ships, and to undertake for the future no military enterprise, but under the command of the Lacedsemonians. Thus ended the Peloponnesian war, by the submission of Athens and the triumph of Sparta, which now became the leading power in Greece, BC 403.

6. Lysander, after the reduction of Athens, abolished the popular government of that state, and established in its place an oligarchy, consisting of thirty magistrates, with absolute power, who, from their atrocious acts of cruelty, were called the Thirty Tyrants. In the space of eight months we are told that fifteen hundred citizens fell victims to their avarice and vengeance, while many others fled from their country. At length Thrasybulus, aided by a band of patriots, expelled the tyrants from the seat of their power, and restored the democratic form of government.

7. An event, which happened about this time, reflected indelible disgrace upon the fickle-minded Athenians, which was the persecution and death. of the illustrious philosopher, Soc'rates, a name at once the glory and the reproach of his country. The sophists, whose futile logic he derided and exposed, represented him as an enemy to the religion of his country, because he attempted to introduce the knowledge of a Supreme Being, the Creator and Ruler of the universe, and to inculcate the belief in a future state of retribution; and being accused, moreover, of corrupting the youth, he was condemned by the assembly of Athens to die by poison.

8. He made his defence in person, with all the manly fortitude of conscious innocence; but the majority of his judges, being his personal enemies, determined on his ruin. During the forty days of his imprisonment, he conducted himself with the greatest dignity; refused to escape when an opportunity offered; conversed with his friends on subjects of moral philosophy, particularly the immortality of the soul; and when the appointed time arrived drank the fatal cup of hem lock, and died with the utmost composure. After the fatal deed was accomplished, the Athenians began to see the sad error into which they had fallen. The judges and accusers of Socrates were either put to death or banished from the city; a brazen statue was erected to his memory, the workmanship of the celebrated Lysip'pus. Thus these fickle ancients endeavored to repair, in some degree, the injustice they had permitted against the most virtuous of their citizens.

9. On the death of Darius, the Persian throne was left to his son, Artaxerxes II., but his younger brother, Cyrus, attempted to dethrone him, and for that purpose he employed about thirteen thousand Grecian troops; but both Cyrus and the Grecian commander were slain in a battle, which was fought at Gunax'a, near Babylon. The remainder of the Grecian army, which numbered about ten thousand, under the command of Xen'ophon, effected a most extraordinary retreat, traversing a hostile country of sixteen hundred miles in extent, from Babylon to the shores of the Eux-ine. This celebrated return, usually called the retreat of Ten Thousand, is beautifully described by Xenophon himself, and is regarded as one of the most extraordinary exploits in military history.

10. The Grecian colonies in Asia having taken part with Cyrus, were assisted by the Spartans, under their king Agesila'us. The Persian monarch, however, by means of bribes, induced Athens and other of the Grecian states, jealous of the power of the Lacedaemonians, to enter into a league against them. Agesilaus was obliged to

return in order to protect his own dominions. He defeated the confederate forces in the battle of Corone'a, but the Spartan fleet was defeated by the Athenians under Conon near Cni'dus. A treaty of peace was finally concluded, by which it was agreed that all the Grecian cities of Asia should belong to Persia, and all others should be independent, with the exception of the islands of Lemnos, Scy'ros, and Imbros, which should remain under the dominion of Athens.

11. While Athens and Sparta were visibly tending to decline, Thebes emerged from obscurity, and rose for a time to a degree of splendor eclipsing all the other states of Greece. The Spartans, jealous of its growing prosperity, took advantage of some internal dissension and seized upon the citadel. Pelop'idas, with a number of Thebans, fled for protection to Athens, where he planned the deliverance of his country. Disguising himself and twelve of his friends as peasants, he entered Thebes in the evening, and, joining a patriotic party of citizens, they surprised the leaders of the usurpation amidst the tumult of a feast and put them all to death; and pursuing his success, in conjunction with his friend Epaminon'das, who shared with him the glory of the enterprise, he finally succeeded in expelling the Lacedaemonian garrison from the Theban territory.

12. A war necessarily ensued between Thebes and Sparta. The Theban army, under the command of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, gained the memorable battle of Leuctra, in which they lost only three hundred men, while the Spartan loss amounted to four thousand, together with their king, Cleom'brotus, who was numbered among the slain. The victorious Thebans, under Epaminondas, joined by many of the other Grecian states, entered the territories of Lacedaemon, and overran the country with fire and sword. The Spartans, who had long boasted that their women had never beheld the smoke of an enemy's camp, were mortified to see the invaders now encamped within the very sight of their capital.

13. Having humbled the power of Sparta, the Theban commander returned with his victorious army to his native city; but the war being again renewed, he gained another great victory over the Lacedaemonians and Athenians at the battle of Mantinea. In the moment of victory he fell mortally wounded; and with the fall of Epaminondas, who was equally eminent as a philosopher, statesman, and general, fell the glory of his country.

The battle of Mantinea was followed by a peace between all the Grecian states, by which each city established its independence.

6.1 Review Questions

1. What was commenced previous to the death of Pericles? What was the origin of this war?
2. What state took the lead against Athens? During the first year of the war what took place? During the second?
3. After the death of Pericles, who grew into power? What was his end? After this event what took place?
4. What expedition was next undertaken? What is said of Alcibiades?
5. What is said of Lysander? Of the Athenians? What were the terms of peace? How did the war end?
6. What did Lysander do? In eight months, how many citizens perished? What did Thrasybillus do?

7. What events took place at this time? How did the Sophists represent him? Why?

8. How did he make his defence? What is said of him during his imprisonment? How did he die? What is said of the Athenians?

9. What did Cyrus attempt? What did the remainder of the army effect after this event?

10. By whom were the Grecian colonies assisted? What did the Persians effect by bribes? What is said of Agesilaus? What battles were fought? What was agreed by the treaty of peace?

11. What state emerged from obscurity? What did the Spartans do? What is said of Pelopidas?

12. What ensued? What battle did the Theban army gain? What was the loss on both sides? What is said of the Spartans?

13. What is said of the Theban commander? What followed the battle of Mantinea?

Chapter 7

Philip of Macedon. The Exploits and Death of Alexander.— B. C. 360 to 324.

GREECE was now in the most abject situation. The spirit of patriotism seemed utterly lost and military glory at an end. Athens, at this time the most prominent state, was sunk in luxury and pleasure; yet she was distinguished for her cultivation of literature and the arts. Sparta, no less changed from the simplicity of her ancient manners, and her power weakened by the new independence of the state of Peloponnesus, was in no capacity to attempt a recovery of her former greatness. Such was the situation of Greece when Philip of Macedon formed the ambitious design of bringing the whole country under his dominion.

2. The kingdom of Macedon had existed upwards of four hundred years, but it had not risen to any considerable eminence. It formed no part of the Greek confederacy, and had no voice in the Amphictyonic council. The inhabitants boasted of the same origin of the Greeks, but were considered by the latter as barbarians. Philip, who laid the foundation of the Macedonian Empire, or, as it is sometimes called, the Grecian Empire, because Greece in its most extensive sense included Macedonia, was sent as a hostage to Thebes, at the age of ten years, where he enjoyed the advantage of an excellent education under Epaminondas. At the age of twenty-four years he ascended the throne of Macedon, by the popular voice, in violation of the natural right of the nearer heirs to the crown.

3. Philip was possessed of great military and political talents, and was equally distinguished for his consummate artifice and address. In order to accomplish the subjugation of the Grecian states, he cherished dissensions among them, and employed agents in each with a view of having every public measure directed to his advantage. The attempt of the Phocians to occupy and cultivate a tract of land consecrated to the Delphian Apollo, gave rise to a contest called the Sacred War, in which most of the states of Greece were involved. The Thebans, Thessalians, and other states undertook to punish the Phocians, who were supported chiefly by Athens and Sparta.

4. Philip proposed to act as arbitrator of the matter in dispute, and procured himself to be elected a member of the Amphictyonic Council. Shortly after this event, the Locrians having encroached upon the consecrated ground of Delphi, and having refused to obey the order of the Amphictyonic Council, Philip was invited to

vindicate their authority by force of arms. Philip began his hostilities by invading Phocis, the key to the territory of Attica. AEs'chines, the orator, moved by a bribe, endeavored to quiet the alarms of the Athenians, by ascribing to him a design only of punishing the sacrilege and vindicating the cause of Apollo. Demos'thenes, with the true spirit of a patriot, exposed the artful designs of the invader, and, with most animated eloquence, roused his countrymen to a vigorous effort for the preservation of their liberties. The attempt, however, was unsuccessful; the battle of Cheronae'a decided the fate of Greece, and subjected all the states to the dominion of the king of Macedon, BC Sol.

5. It was not the policy of the conqueror to treat the several states as a vanquished people; they were allowed to retain their separate independent governments, while he reserved for himself the direction and control of all national measures. Convoking a general council of the states, he laid before them his project for the invasion of Persia, and was appointed commander-in-chief of the forces of all the Grecian states. On the eve of this great enterprise, Philip was assassinated by Pausa'nias, the captain of his guards, while solemnizing the nuptials of his daughter, in the fortyseventh year of his age. The news of the event caused the most tumultuous joy among the Athenians, who indulged the vain hope of again recovering their liberty. But the visionary prospect was never realized. The spirit of the nation was gone, and in all their subsequent revolutions they only changed their masters.

6. On the death of Philip, his son Alexander, surnamed the Great, succeeded to the throne of Macedon, at the age of twenty years. The young king, having reduced to subjection some of the states to the north of Macedon, turned the whole power of his arms against the revolted states of Greece. He defeated the Thebans with immense slaughter, caused their city to be razed to the ground, and thirty thousand of its inhabitants to be sold as slaves. These acts of severity so intimidated the other states of Greece that they immediately submitted to his dominion. Alexander then assembled the deputies of the Grecian states at Cor'inth, and renewed the proposal of invading Persia, and was appointed, as his father had been, the commander-in-chief of their united forces.

7. With an army of thirty thousand foot and five thousand horse, with the sum of only seventy talents and provisions for a single month, he crossed the Hel'lespont, and traversing Phry'gia, proceeded to the site of Troy and visited the tomb of Achilles, whom he pronounced the most fortunate of men in having Pat'rocles for his friend and Ho'mer for his panegyrist. Darius Godoma'nus, resolving at once to crush the youthful hero, met him on the banks of the Grani'cus, with an army of one hundred thousand foot and twenty thousand horse. Here an obstinate battle was fought, in which the Persian monarch was defeated with a loss, according to Plu'tarch, of twenty-two thousand men, while the Macedonian loss was only thirty-four. In this battle, Alexander escaped narrowly with his life—being attacked by an officer, who was about to cleave his head with a battle-axe, when the blow was prevented by Cly'tus, who cut off the hand of the officer with his cimiter, and thus saved the life of his sovereign.

8. The success of this battle was important to Alexander, as it put him in possession of Sar'dis with all its riches. He generously gave the citizens their liberty, and permitted them to live under their own laws. He soon after took Mile'tus, Halicarnas'sus, and other important places. The next important victory was obtained in the great battle of Issus. The Persian army, consisting of six hundred thousand men, was defeated with prodigious slaughter, no less than one hundred and ten thousand being killed, while the Macedonians numbered only four hundred and fifty

among the slain.

The mother, wife, and two daughters of Darius fell into the hands of the conqueror, who treated them with the greatest delicacy and respect. Darius, on hearing of the kindness of Alexander towards his family, offered for their ransom the sum of ten thousand talents—about \$10,000,000—and proposed a treaty of peace and alliance, with the further offer of his daughter in marriage, and all the country between the Euphrates and the AEgean sea.

9. When the offer was laid before Alexander's council, Parmenio is reported to have said, "If I were Alexander, I would accept the terms." "And so would I," replied Alexander, "were I Parmenio." After this he overran Syria, took Damascus, and laid siege to Tyre, which surrendered after a noble defence of seven months. On this occasion, the conqueror exercised an act of barbarous cruelty by causing two thousand citizens of Tyre to be crucified, besides all those who were put to the sword or sold into slavery. He then directed his march towards Jerusalem, which he entered without opposition. Having taken the city of Gaza, he inhumanly sold ten thousand of its inhabitants into slavery, and dragged Betis, its illustrious defender, at the wheel of his chariot, in imitation of Achilles after the taking of Troy.

10. Alexander next proceeded to Egypt, which readily submitted to his arms; and, with incredible fatigues, he led his army through the deserts of Libya to visit the temple of Jupiter-Ammon, and caused himself to be proclaimed the son of that deity. On his return he commenced the building of the city of Alexandria, afterwards the capital of Lower Egypt, and, for a time, one of the greatest commercial cities in the world. He is said to have founded twenty other cities during the course of his conquests. Returning from Egypt, he again received proposals from Darius, who offered to surrender to him the whole of his dominions to the west of the Euphrates; but he haughtily rejected the offer, saying, that "the world could no more admit of two masters than of two suns."

11. Having crossed the Euphrates, he was met at the village of Arbela by Darius, at the head of seven hundred thousand men. A dreadful battle was fought, in which the Persians were defeated, with a loss of three hundred thousand men, while that of Alexander was only about five hundred. This great conflict decided the fate of Persia. Darius first escaped to Media and afterwards into Bactria, where he was betrayed by Bessus, the satrap of that province, and murdered; and shortly after this event the whole Persian empire submitted to the conqueror.

12. Alexander now projected the conquest of India, and having penetrated beyond the Hydaspes, defeated Porus, the illustrious king of that country. He still continued his march to the East; but when he arrived at the banks of the Ganges, his soldiers seeing no end to their toils, refused to proceed any further and demanded that they might be permitted to return to their country. Finding it impossible to overcome their reluctance, he returned to the Indus, and pursuing his course southward by that river, he arrived at the ocean, and, sending his fleet to the Persian Gulf, he led his army across the desert to Persepolis, which, in a fit of frenzy, he ordered to be set on fire. From Persepolis he returned to Babylon, which he chose as the seat of his Asiatic empire. Here, giving himself up to every excess, he was seized with a violent fever, brought on by extreme intemperance, and thus died Alexander the Great, in the thirty-third year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign, BC 324.

13. Perceiving that his end was approaching, he raised himself upon his elbow and presented his dying hand to his soldiers to kiss. Being asked to whom he left his empire, he answered, "To the most worthy." Alexander was the most renowned hero of antiquity. He possessed talents which might have rendered him distinguished as

a statesman and a benefactor of mankind, but it was to his military exploits alone that he is entitled to the surname of Great. In the early part of his career he was distinguished for self-government, and exhibited many noble and generous traits of character; but when intoxicated with his extraordinary success, he gave himself up to unbounded indulgence and to deeds of cruelty and ingratitude. He caused Parnenio, his most distinguished general, who had assisted him in gaining all his victories, to be assassinated on mere suspicion. His friend Cly'tus, who had saved his life in the battle of the Granicus, he struck dead upon the spot, because he contradicted him when heated with wine. He caused the philosopher Callis'tienes to be put to death for refusing to pay him divine honors.*

7.1 Review Questions

1. What is said now of Greece? Of Athens? Of Sparta?
2. How long had the kingdom of Macedon existed? What is said of the inhabitants? Of Philip? At what age did he ascend the throne of Macedon?
3. What did he possess? What did he cherish? What gave rise to the Sacred War?
4. What did Philip propose? After this event what took place? How did he commence hostilities? What is said of AEschines and Demosthenes? What is said of the battle of Cheronaea?
5. What was the policy of the conqueror? Having convoked a council of the states, what did he lay before them? On the eve of this enterprise what happened to Philip? What did the news of this event cause among the Athenians?
6. Who succeeded Philip? How did he treat the Thebans? Having assembled the deputies of the Grecian states, what proposals did he renew?
7. What was the number of his army? Where did he proceed? By whom and where was he met? What was the issue of the battle and the loss on both sides? In this battle what is said of Alexander?
8. What places did he next take? Where was the next victory obtained? What was the number of the Persian army? The number of the slain on both sides? Who fell into the hands of the conqueror? How were they treated? What did Darius offer for their ransom?
9. When the offer was laid before the council, what was said by Parnenio, and what was Alexander's reply? After the siege of Tyre what act of cruelty did he exercise? Having taken the city of Gaza what did he do?
10. Where did he next proceed? On his return what city did he commence? What reply did he make to the proposals of Darius?
11. Where was he met by Darius? What ensued? What was the loss on both sides? What was the fate of Darius?
12. What did Alexander next project? When he arrived on the banks of the Ganges what happened? Where did he die? What was his age and the length of his reign?
13. Perceiving that his end was approaching what did he do? What is said of Alexander? In the early part of his career? When intoxicated with success? Whom did he cause to be assassinated? Whom did he strike dead?

Chapter 8

From the Death of Alexander to the Subjugation of Greece by the Romans. B. C. 324 to 146.

ALEXANDER having named no successor, his vast empire was divided into thirty-three governments, and distributed among as many of the principal officers. Hence arose a series of intrigues, fierce and sanguinary wars, which resulted in the total extinction of every member of Alexander's family, and finally terminated in a new division of the empire into four kingdoms, namely, that of Egypt under Ptolemy; Macedo'nia, including Greece, under Cassan'der; Thrace, together with Bithyn'ia, under Lysima'chus; and Syria, under Seleu'cus.

2, From the period of Alexander's death, the history of the Grecian states, to the time of their subjugation by the Romans, presents only a series of uninteresting revolutions. When the news of this event reached Athens, Demosthenes once more made a noble effort to vindicate the national freedom, and to arouse his countrymen to shake off the yoke of Macedon. His counsels so far prevailed that the Greeks formed a confederacy for the purpose of recovering their liberty. But they were finally defeated by Antip'ater, and Athens was obliged to purchase a peace by the sacrifice of ten of her public speakers, among whom the renowned orator Demosthenes was included. But to avoid falling into the hands of his enemies, he put an end to his own life by taking poison.

* See Biography of Eminent Personages.

3. Under the administration of Polysper'chon, who succeeded Antipater in the government of Macedon, independence for a short time was restored to the Grecian states. Scenes of turbulence were soon renewed among the Athenians; they put to death many of the friends of Antipater, and among the rest was the venerable Pho'cion, now upwards of eighty years of age. He was eminent in his public character and private virtues, and had been forty-five times governor of Athens. To a friend who lamented his fate, he said, " This is only what I long expected. It is thus that Athens has rewarded her most illustrious citizens."

Cassander, who succeeded Polysperchon, appointed Demet'rius Phale'reus governor of Athens. Under his wise administration, which continued twelve years, the city enjoyed a considerable degree of prosperity, and the Athenians, to testify their gratitude, erected no less than three hundred and sixty statues to his memory.

4. The last effort made to revive the expiring liberty of Greece, was the formation

of the Achae'an League, which was a union of twelve of the smaller states for that object. The government of this confederacy was committed to Ara'tus, a young man of eminent abilities, who took the title of praetor. He formed the noble design of liberating his country from the dominion of Macedon, and establishing the independence of all Greece; but the jealousy of some of the principal states, particularly of Sparta, rendered the plan abortive.

Aratus was succeeded by Philopoe'men, who triumphed over the Spartans and AEto'lians, but in an expedition against the Messe'nians, who had revolted, he was defeated and slain. Philopoemen was styled the "last of the Greeks," because after him Greece produced no leader worthy of her former glory.

5. The Macedonians having declared war against the AEtolians, the latter applied for aid to the Romans, who had now become the most powerful nation in the world. The offer was joyfully accepted by the Romans, who had long wished for an opportunity of adding this devoted country to their dominion. Their army, under the command of Quin'tus Flami'nus, defeated Philip, king of Macedon, and proclaimed liberty to all the Grecian states. About thirty years after this event, the Romans, under the command of Paulus AEmilius, again invaded Greece, in a war with Perse'us, the son of Philip, who was entirely defeated in the battle of Pyd'na, and falling into the hands of the conqueror, with all his family, he was led captive to Rome, to grace the triumph of the general. Macedonia was thus reduced to a Roman province, BC 167.

6. The Romans, already jealous of the power of the Achsaan League, endeavored to weaken it by cherishing divisions among the states, and sought the earliest opportunity of again unsheathing the sword against Greece. At length the Spartans, in a contest with the Achaeian states, applied for assistance to Rome. The Romans, under the command of 3feteVlus, marched into Greece and gained a complete victory over the Achaeian army. The consul Mummius completed the conquest by taking and destroying the city of Corinth, in which the remainder of the Achaeian forces had taken refuge. The Achaeian constitution was dissolved, and all Greece was reduced to a Roman province, under the name of Acha'ia, BC 146.

1. In reviewing the history of this extraordinary people, we find much to admire and much to condemn. In point of genius, taste, learning, patriotism, and valor, the Greeks surpassed all the other nations of antiquity. With regard to their forms of government, they were far from corresponding in practice with what they expressed in theory. Even in the palmiest days of Greece, we look in vain for that beautiful idea presented by a well-regulated commonwealth. The condition of the people frequently partook more of servitude than of liberty. Slaves formed the great majority of the inhabitants of the Grecian states; and bondage being a consequence of the contraction of debt, even by free men, a great proportion of these were subject to the tyrannical control of their fellow-citizens. They were perpetually divided into factions, and torn by internal dissensions, which finally led to the downfall of their liberties.

8. In pursuing the history of Athens, the mind is forcibly struck with the injustice and ingratitude frequently manifested towards the most illustrious of her citizens. Miltiades, Aristides, Themistocles, Phocion, Cimon, and Socrates, were all sentenced to death or banishment, yet the Athenians, with their characteristic fickleness and inconstancy, did ample justice to their merits, and sought to punish those by whom they were accused. The most remarkable circumstance which strikes us, in comparing the later with the more early period of Grecian history, is the total change in the genius and spirit of the people. The ardor of patriotism, the thirst for military glory

and love of liberty, decline with the rising grandeur of the nation; while a taste for the fine arts, a love of science and the refinements of luxury are introduced.

8.1 Review Questions

1. How was the empire divided? What arose? Name the four chief empires.
2. From Alexander's death what is said of the history of the Grecian states. When the news reached Athens what did Demosthenes do? What was his end?
3. Under the administration of Polysperchon what was said? What is said of Phocion? What reply did he make to a friend? Who was appointed governor of Athens? What is said of his administration?
4. What was the last effort to revive the liberty of Greece? To whom was the government committed? What did he form? Who succeeded Aratus? What was he styled?
5. What is said of the Macedonians? What was done by their army? When did the Romans invade Greece? What is said of Philip? What was his fate?
6. What is said of the Romans? Who completed the conquest of Greece? To what was it reduced?
7. In reviewing the history what do we find? What is said of the forms of government? Of the people? Of slaves?
8. In pursuing the history of Athens how is the mind struck? Who were sentenced to death or banishment? What remarkable circumstance strikes us? What declined?

Chapter 9

Grecian Antiquities.

9.1 Philosophy.

Philosophy among the pagan Greeks was divided into various sects or schools. Of these, the Ionian sect was the most ancient, founded by Thales, BC 640. He was eminently distinguished for his knowledge of geometry and astronomy, and taught the belief of a first cause and overruling Providence, but erroneously supposed the Deity to animate the universe, as the soul does the body.

The Italian, or Pythagorean, sect was founded by Pythagoras, who taught the absurd doctrine of the transmigration of souls through different bodies. He believed the earth to be a sphere, the planets to be inhabited, and fixed stars to be the suns and centres of other systems.

The Socratic school was founded by Socrates, who was esteemed the wisest and most virtuous of the Greeks, and the father of moral philosophy. He taught the belief of a First Cause, whose beneficence is equal to his power, the Creator and Ruler of the universe. He inculcated the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments.

The Cynics, a ridiculous sect founded by Antisthenes, and supported by Diogenes, condemned knowledge as useless, renounced social enjoyments and conveniences of life, and indulged themselves in scurrility and invective.

The Academic sect was founded by Plato, a philosopher whose doctrines have had, perhaps, a more extensive influence over the minds of mankind than those of any other of the ancients. Plato had the most sublime ideas of the Deity and his attributes. He incorrectly taught, however, that the human soul was a portion of the Divinity, and that this alliance with the Eternal Mind might be improved into actual intercourse with the Supreme Being, by abstracting the soul from all the corruptions it derives from the body. He gave his lectures in the grove of Academus, near Athens.

The Peripatetic sect was founded by Aristotle, who established his school in the Lyceum, at Athens. His philosophy was taught in the schools for sixteen hundred years.

The Sceptical sect was founded by Pyrrho, who stupidly inculcated universal doubt as the only true wisdom. There was, in his opinion, no essential difference between vice and virtue, further than as human compact had discriminated them. Tranquillity of mind he considered to be the greatest happiness, and this was to be obtained by absolute indifference to all dogmas or opinions.

The Stoic sect was founded by Zeno. The Stoics inculcated fortitude of mind,

denied that pain is an evil, and endeavored to raise themselves above all the passions and feelings of humanity. They taught that virtue consists in accommodating the dispositions of the mind to the immutable laws of nature, and vice in opposing these laws. Vice, therefore, they regarded as folly, and virtue the only true wisdom.

The Epicu'reans, named from Epicu'rus, the founder of the sect, maintained that the supreme happiness of man consisted in pleasure.

The principle of all things was a subject of special research by the philosophers of Greece. Tha'les taught that this principle consisted of water; Anaxag'oras, of infinite air; Herac'litus, of fire; Democ'ritus, of atoms; Pythag'oras, of unity; Pla'to, of God, idea, and matter; Aristot'le, of matter, form, and privation; Ze'no, of God and matter; Epicurus, of matter and empty space.

9.2 The Seven Wise Men.

The seven wise men of Greece were Tha'les, of Miletus; So'lon, of Athens; Bias, of Priene; Chi'lo, of Lacedaemon; Pit'tacus, of Mitylene; Cleohii'lus, of Lindos, and Perian'der, of Corinth. Instead of Periander, some enumerate My' son, and others Anachar' sis.

9.3 The Council of the Amphio'tyons.

This Council is supposed to have been instituted by Am.phictyon, the son of Deucalion, king of Thessaly, at an early period of the history of Greece. It consisted, at first, of twelve deputies, from the twelve different cities or states; but the number was afterwards increased to thirty. They met twice a year— in the spring at Delphi, and in the autumn at Thermopylse. The objects of this assembly were to unite in strict unity the states which were represented; to consult for their mutual welfare and defence; to decide all differences between cities; and to try offences against the laws of nations.

9.4 Public Games.

There were four public and solemn games in Greece, namely, the Olym'pic, Pythi'ian, Ne'mean, and Isth'mian. The exercises practised at these games were leaping, running, throwing, boxing, and wrestling; also the horse and chariot races, and contests between the poets, orators, musicians, philosophers, and artists.

The Olympic games were instituted by Her'cules, in honor of Jupiter Olympus, BC 1222 years; they were celebrated in the town of Olympia, in the first month of every fifth year, and lasted five days. The space between one celebration to another was called an Olym'piad, by which the Greeks computed their time. The prize bestowed on the victor was a crown of olive; yet trifling as was this reward, it was considered as the highest honor, and was sought for with the utmost eagerness. The victor was greeted with loud acclamations, and his return home was in the style of a warlike conqueror.

The Pythian games were celebrated every fifth year, in the second of every Olympiad, near Delphi, in honor of Apollo. The reward of the victors was a crown of laurel.

The Nemean games were celebrated in the town of Nemea every third year. The victors were crowned with parsley.

The Isthmian games, so called from b'eing celebrated on the isthmus of Corinth, were instituted in honor of Neptune, and observed every third or fifth year. They were held so sacred that even a public calamity could not prevent their celebration. The victors were rewarded with a garland of pine leaves.

9.5 Literature.

No nation of ancient or modern times surpassed the Greeks in literary taste and genius. In subsequent ages, great advances have been made in science, and in some of the branches of polite learning, yet in chaste and beautiful composition, in brilliancy of fancy, in harmony of periods, in various forms of intellectual efforts, under the name of poetry, oratory, and history, they are still unrivalled.

Poetry in Greece was extremely ancient; it was even cultivated before the introduction of letters. In epic poetry, Homer stands unrivalled. In lyric poetry, the names of Ana'creon, Sap'pho, and Fin'dar, have attained imperishable fame.

History did not engage the attention of the Greeks till a comparatively late period; but Herod'otus, Thucyd'ides, and Xen'ophon will ever be numbered among the greatest masters of narration.

Oratory was cultivated among the Greeks, particularly the Athenians, with the utmost care. The study of eloquence formed the principal employment of the young citizens at Athens. It was that which opened the way to the highest offices, reigned absolute in the assemblies, decided the most important affairs of the state, and was an almost unlimited power to those who had the talent of oratory in an eminent degree. Music was cultivated with great success, and was considered an essential part in the education of the youth. The ancients ascribed to it wonderful effects; they believed it well calculated to calm the passions, soften the manners, and even to harmonize nations naturally rude and barbarous. Dancing was also cultivated with considerable care and attention.

9.6 Arts.

In the more useful and necessary arts of life, the Greeks were never much distinguished. But in those which are termed the fine arts, Greece far surpassed all other nations of antiquity; and those specimens which have survived the wreck of time are regarded as models for imitation, and are acknowledged as standards of excellence, in the judgment of the most polished nations of modern times. During the administration of Pericles, which is called the golden age of the Grecian arts, architecture, sculpture, and painting were carried to the summit of perfection. The architecture consisted of three distinct orders, the Dor'ic, the Ion'ic, and the Corin'thian. The Doric has a masculine grandeur, and an air of strength superior to both the other orders. It is, therefore, well adapted to works of great magnitude. Of this order is the temple of Theseus, at Athens, built ten years after the battle of Marathon. It is almost entire at the present day.

The Ionic is distinguished for its elegance and simplicity, the latter quality being essentially requisite in true beauty. Of this order were the temple of Apollo, at Miletus, the temple of the Delphic oracle, and the temple of Dia'na, at Eph'esus. The Corinthian assumed the highest magnificence by uniting the characters of all the orders.

In sculpture the Greeks excelled no less than in architecture. Specimens of their skill in this respect are perfect models. The Dying Gladiator, the Venus, and the Laoc'oon of the Grecian sculptors have an imperishable fame.

In painting, though very few specimens have descended to us, they are supposed to have excelled. The productions of Zeux'is, Apelle'us, Timanthes, and others which perished, were highly extolled by the writers of antiquity.

9.7 Private and Domestic Life.

The dress of the Greeks differed much from that of most of the modern nations. The men wore an inner garment called a tunic, over which they threw a mantle; their shoes or sandals were fastened under the soles of their feet with thongs. The women, particularly at Athens, wore a white tunic, which was closely bound with a broad sash, and descended in graceful folds to the ground; also a shorter robe, confined round the waist with a ribbon, and bordered at the bottom with stripes of various colors. Over this they sometimes put on a robe which was worn much like the present scarf. In the earlier ages of Greece the inhabitants usually wore no covering on their heads, but in aftertimes they made use of a kind of hat, tied under the chin. The women, however, always had their heads covered. The Athenians wore in their hair a golden grasshopper, as an emblem of the antiquity of their nation, intimating that they sprung from the earth. In Sparta the kings, magistrates, and citizens were but little distinguished by dress. The military costume was of a red color.

The meals of the Greeks were usually four in number. The breakfast was taken about the rising of the sun; the next meal at midday; then came the afternoon repast; and, lastly, the supper, which was the principal meal. Everything capable of sustaining life was used as food, though they were generally fond of jQsh. Water and wine were the usual drink. At first they sat upright at their meals; but, as luxury prevailed, couches were introduced, on which the guests reclined while at table. Marriage among the Greeks was only lawful when the consent of the parents or other relatives could be obtained. Polygamy was allowed only after great calamities, such as war or pestilence.

The Grecian women seldom appeared in strange company, but were confined to the remote parts of the house, into which no male visitor was admitted. When they went abroad, they wore veils to conceal their faces. It was disreputable, however, for them to appear much abroad. Children were required to maintain their parents in old age; but, according to the laws of Solon, parents vwho did not bring up their children to some useful employment could not exact a support from them.

The funerals of the Greeks were attended with many ceremonies, showing that they considered the duties belonging to the dead to be of the highest importance. In their view, it was the most awful of all imprecations to wish that a person might be deprived of funeral honors.¹

Of some of the peculiar institutions of Greece, the court of the Areop'agus and Ostracism were most remarkable. The Areopagus, which signifies the Hill of Mars, from the place where it was held, was the most distinguished and venerable court of justice in ancient times, and took cognizance of crimes, abuses, and innovations, either in religion or government. The Areopagites were the guardians of education and manners, and inspected the laws. To laugh in this assembly was an unpardonable act of levity.

¹For the Oracles and Religion of the Greeks, see the chapter on Mythology.

One of the absurd peculiarities in - the government of Athens was the practice of Ostracism. This was a ballot of all the citizens, in which each wrote down the name of the individual most offensive to him; and he who was marked out by the greatest number of votes was banished from his country for a specified time, often for a number of years. It was not necessary that any crime should be alleged. Neither the property nor the honor of the exile sustained the least injury. By this institution the most flagrant injustice was often committed against the most virtuous citizens.

9.8 Origin of Tragedy.

Tragedy owes its origin to the feasts of Bac'chiis, usually celebrated at the time of the vintage, and at first consisted of a few rude comic scenes, intermixed with songs in praise of that god. Thes'pis, owing to several improvements which he made in tragedy, is generally esteemed its inventor, although there were several tragic

What were children required to do? What is said of funerals? What was thought the most awful imprecation? What were some of the peculiar institutions? What is said of the Areopagus? Of what were they the guardians? What was deemed an unpardonable act of levity? 'What was the Ostracism? By this institution, what was often committed? and comic poets before his time. He carried the actors about in carts, whereas before they were accustomed to sing or recite in the streets, wherever chance led them; he also caused their faces to be smeared over with lees of wine, instead of acting- without disguise, as at first; and he introduced a character among the chorus, who, to give the actors time to rest, repeated the adventures of some illustrious person. The alterations which Thespis made in tragedy gave room for AEschylus to make still further improvements. He was a man of superior genius, and took upon himself to reform rather than to create tragedy anew. He gave masks to his actors, adorned them with robes and trains, and made them wear buskins. Instead of a cart, he erected a stage of a moderate elevation, and entirely changed their style, which, from being merely burlesque, became serious and majestic. But the most important and essential addition of AEschylus consisted in the vivacity and spirit of the action, sustained by the dialogue of the persons of the drama, introduced by him—in the artful working up the stronger passions, especially of terror and pity, which, by alternately afflicting and agitating the soul with mournful and terrible objects, produces a grateful pleasure and delight from that very trouble and emotion; and, lastly, in the choice of his subjects, which were always great, noble, interesting, and contained within due bounds by the unity of time, place, and action. Of the ninety tragedies composed by AEschylus, about seven are now in existence.

AEschylus was in sole possession of the glory of the stage, when a young rival made his appearance in the person of Soph'ocles, to dispute with him the palm. Twenty times he obtained the prize of poetry over his competitors. Of one hundred and twenty tragedies which he composed, only seven are now extant, but these prove him to have carried the drama almost to perfection.

Eurip'ides was the contemporary and the great rival of Sophocles. But nineteen of his seventy-five tragedies remain.²

²For a fuller account of ancient Greece, see Dr. William Smith's History of Greece.

9.9 Review Questions

Philosophy.—What is said of philosophy among the Greeks? Who was the founder of the Ionic sect? What is said of him? Who was the founder of the Pythagorean sect? What did he teach? Who was the founder of the Socratic sect? What did he teach and inculcate?

Who founded the Cynic sect? What did he condemn? Who founded the Academic sect? What did he teach? Where did he give his lectures? Who founded the Peripatetic sect? Who founded the Skeptic sect? What did he inculcate? Who was the founder of the Stoic sect? What did they inculcate? What did they teach? What is said of the Epicureans? What was a subject of special research?

What were the various opinions of the philosophers on this subject?

The Seven Wise Men.—Who were the seven wise men of Greece?

The Council of the Amphictyons.—By whom was it instituted? Of what did it consist? Where did they meet? What was the object of this assembly?

Public Games.—What were the four public games? What were the exercises? By whom were the Olympic games instituted? How often were they celebrated? What was the prize of the victor? What is said of it?

How often were the Pythian games celebrated? In honor of whom? What was the reward of the victors? At what place were the Nemean celebrated? With what were the victors crowned? Why were the Isthmian games so called? What is said of them? What was the reward of the victors?

Literature.—What is said of the Greeks in literary taste? In what are they still unrivalled? What is said of poetry? Of Homer? Of Anacreon, etc.? What is said of History? What is said of Oratory? The study of Eloquence?

Private and Domestic Life.—What was the dress of the men? Of the women? What did the Athenians wear? What was the number of their meals, and when were they taken? What was used? How did they sit at their meals? What is said of marriage? What was allowed? What is said of the Grecian women? What was disreputable?

What is said of Music? What did they ascribe to it? What is said of Dancing?

Arts.—in what were the Greeks never greatly distinguished? In what did they surpass all others? What were the three orders of architecture? What is said of the Doric? How was the Ionic distinguished? What did the Corinthian effect? What is said of sculpture? What have an imperishable fame? What is said of painting?

Origin of Tragedy.—To what does tragedy owe its origin? What is said of Thespis?

How did Thespis carry his actors? What improvement did Aeschylus make? Of his tragedies, how many remain? Who disputed the palm with him? What is said of Euripides?