“From the Sons of God, to the Sons of Men”

The Bible With Complexion, Vol. ii

The Generations from Takelot I and Queen Kapes of Egypt
to Omowale Jabali


Notes for TAKELOT I:
Hedjkheperre Setepenre Takelot I was a son of Osorkon I and Queen Tashedkhons who ruled Egypt for 13 Years according to Manetho. Takelot would marry Queen Kapes who bore him Osorkon II. Initially, Takelot was believed to be an ephemeral Dynasty 22 Pharaoh since no monuments at Tanis or Lower Egypt could be conclusively linked to his reign, or mentioned his existence, except for the famous Pasenhor Serapeum stela which dates to Year 37 of Shoshenq V. However, since the late 1980s, Egyptologists have assigned several documents mentioning a king Takelot in Lower Egypt to him rather than Takelot II. Takelot I's reign was relatively short when compared to the three decades-long reigns of his father Osorkon I and son, Osorkon II. Takelot I, rather than Takelot II, was the king Hedjkheperre Setepenre Takelot who is attested by a Year 9 stela from Bubastis as well as the owner of a partly robbed Royal Tomb at Tanis which belonged to this ruler as the German Egyptologist Karl Jansen-Winkeln reported in a 1987 Varia Aegyptiaca 3 (1987), pp. 253-258 paper.[1] Evidently, both king Takelots used the same prenomen or royal name: Hedjkheperre Setepenre. The main difference between Takelot I and II is that Takelot I never employed the Theban inspired epithet 'Si-Ese' (Son of Isis) in his titulary, unlike Takelot II.[2]


"It was Takeloth I who first used the prenomen Hedjkheperre Setepenre (in imitation of his grandfather Shoshenq I), being followed in this [practise] by Takeloth II. The only clear distinction...between Takeloth I and II (as both use the epithet Meriamun) is that Takeloth II uses also the epithet Si-Ese, "Son of Isis", in his second cartouche. A second marker suggested by Jansen-Winkeln (with some reserve) is that Takeloth I has his name spelt with the vertical t-sign (Gardiner U33, ti becoming t), while [both] Takeloth II and III use the small loaf t-sign (X 1), and the rope-tether sign (V 13). This criterion...seems sound. This would suggest attributing to Takeloth I (not II) a donation-stela of Year 9 (from Bubastis), another in Berlin (also from Bubastis) and a fragment in the former Grant collection. This also bears on the high priests of Ptah at Memphis and the Serapeum. There, a block is known bearing the name of a high priest Merenptah and a pair of cartouches hitherto attributed to Takeloth II which, in fact, correspond precisely to those now attributable to Takeloth I (no Si-Ese; tall t). Therefore it seems proper to move this priest back in time to the reign of Takeloth I."

Child of TAKELOT and QUEEN KAPES is:
2. i. OSORKON\(^6\) II.

**Generation No. 2**

2. **OSORKON\(^6\) II (TAKELOT\(^5\) I, OSORKON\(^4\) I, SHOSHONK\(^3\) I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT\(^2\), THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA\(^1\) SHOSHENQ)** He married QUEEN KAROMAMA I.

Children of OSORKON and QUEEN KAROMAMA are:
3. i. TAKELOT\(^7\) II.
4. ii. HIGH PRIEST AT KARNAK NIMLOT.

**Generation No. 3**

3. **TAKELOT\(^7\) II (OSORKON\(^6\) II, TAKELOT\(^5\) I, OSORKON\(^4\) I, SHOSHONK\(^3\) I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT\(^2\), THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA\(^1\) SHOSHENQ)** He married QUEEN KAROMAMA II, daughter of HIGH PRIEST AT KARNAK NIMLOT.

Child of TAKELOT and QUEEN KAROMAMA is:
5. i. SHOSHONK\(^8\) III.

4. **HIGH PRIEST AT KARNAK\(^7\) NIMLOT (OSORKON\(^6\) II, TAKELOT\(^5\) I, OSORKON\(^4\) I, SHOSHONK\(^3\) I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT\(^2\), THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA\(^1\) SHOSHENQ)**

Child of HIGH PRIEST AT KARNAK NIMLOT is:
6. i. QUEEN\(^9\) KAROMAMA II.

**Generation No. 4**

5. **SHOSHONK\(^8\) III (TAKELOT\(^7\) II, OSORKON\(^6\) II, TAKELOT\(^5\) I, OSORKON\(^4\) I, SHOSHONK\(^3\) I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT\(^2\), THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA\(^1\) SHOSHENQ)** He married PRINCESS OF MEMPHIS DJEDBASTESANKH, daughter of HIGH TAKELOT and PRINCESS TJEDBASTPEROU.

Notes for SHOSHONK III:
King Usermaatre Setepenre or Usimare Setepenamun Shoshenq III ruled Egypt's 22nd Dynasty for 39 years according to contemporary historical records. Two Apis Bulls were buried in the fourth and 28th years of his reign and he celebrated his Heb Sed Jubilee in his regnal year 30. Little is known of the precise basis for his successful claim to the throne since he was not a son of Osorkon II and Shoshenq's parentage and family ties are unknown.

From Shoshenq III's eighth regnal year, his reign was marked by the loss of Egypt's political unity, with the appearance of Pedubast I at Thebes. Henceforth, the kings of the 22nd Dynasty only controlled Lower Egypt. The Theban High Priest Osorkon B (the future Osorkon III) did date his activities at Thebes and (Upper Egypt) to Shoshenq III's reign but this was solely for administrative reasons since Osorkon did not declare himself king after the death of his father, Takalet II. On the basis of Osorkon B's well known Chronicle, most Egyptologists today accept that Takalet II's 25th regnal year is equivalent to Shoshenq III's 22nd year.[1]

Family
Shoshenq III married Djed-Bast-Es-Ankh, the daughter of Takalet, a High Priest of Ptah at Memphis, and Tjesbasterpu, Osorkon II's daughter.[2] He had at least 4 sons and 1 daughter: Ankheshen-Shoshenq, Bakennefi A, Pashedbast B, Pimay the 'Great Chief of the Ma', and Takalet C, a Generalissimo. A certain Padehebenbast may also have been another son of Shoshenq III but this is not certain. They all appear to have predeceased their father through his nearly four decade long rule. Shoshenq III's third son, Pimay ('The Lion' in Egyptian), was once thought to be identical with king Pami ('The Cat' in Egyptian), but it is now believed that they are two different individuals, due to the separate orthography and meaning of their names. Instead, it was an unrelated individual named Shoshenq
IV who ultimately succeeded Shoshenq III. Shoshenq III was buried in the looted Royal Tomb NRT V at Tanis.

Child of SHOSHONK and PRINCESS DJEDBASTESANKH is:
7.  i.  STEPENRE³ PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS.

6.  QUEEN⁸ KAROMAMA II (HIGH PRIEST AT KARNAK³ NIMLOT, OSORKON⁶ II, TAKELOT⁵ I, OSORKON³ I, SHOSHONK³I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT², THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA¹ SHOSHENQ)  She married TAKELOT II, son of OSORKON and QUEEN KAROMAMA.

Child is listed above under (3) Takelot II.

Generation No. 5

7.  STEPENRE⁹ PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS (SHOSHONK⁶ III, TAKELOT² II, OSORKON⁶ II, TAKELOT⁵ I, OSORKON³ I, SHOSHONK³I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT², THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA¹ SHOSHENQ)

Notes for STEPENRE PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS:
1.  Pimay was a son of king Shoshenq III who served as a 'Great Chief of the Ma' during his father's reign.

While it was traditionally assumed that Pimay succeeded his father, newer archaeological evidence uncovered by Aidan Dodson in 1993 established that a new Tanite dynasty 22 king named Shoshenq IV actually succeeded Shoshenq III. Pimay was a different man from king Pami of the 22nd Dynasty because the orthography and translation of their respective names are different. While the name Pami reads as 'The Cat' in Egyptian, the name Pimay translates as 'The Lion.' King Pami's name was mistakenly transcribed into Pimay by past historians based on the common (and now erroneous) view that he was Shoshenq III's son and successor. Moreover, if Pimay did indeed outlive his father, he should have succeeded his father as king rather than the obscure Shoshenq IV who is not attested as a son of Shoshenq III in contemporary historical sources. Consequently, it seems certain that Shoshenq III outlived all of his sons through his nearly 4 decade long reign. Pimay, hence, likely predeceased his father.

2.  Usermaatre Setepenre Pami was an Egyptian Pharaoh who ruled Egypt for 7 years. He was a member of the Twenty-second dynasty of Egypt of Meshwesh Libyans who had been living in the country since the Twentieth dynasty of Egypt when their ancestors infiltrated into the Egyptian Delta from Libya. Their descendants began to rule Egypt from the mid-940s BC onwards with the ascendance of Shoshenq I to power. Pami's name, in Egyptian, means the Cat or 'He who belongs to the Cat [Bastet].'[1]

Pami's precise relationship with his immediate predecessor—Hedjheperre Setepenre Shoshenq IV—is unknown but he is attested as the father of Shoshenq V in a Year 11 Serapeum stela dating to the latter's reign. Pami was once assumed to be Pimay, the third son of Shoshenq III who served as the "Great Chief of Ma" under his father. However, the different orthographies of their names (Pami vs. Pimay) prove that they were 2 different individuals. In addition, the name Pami translates as 'The Cat' in Egyptian whereas the name Pimay means 'The Lion.' Pami's name was mistakenly transcribed as Pimay by past historians based upon the common belief that he was Shoshenq III's son. This is now recognised to be an erroneous translation of this king's nomen/name which should rather be written as Pami. While a previous Dynasty 22 king held the title 'Great Chief of the Ma' before ascending the throne—namely Shoshenq I—Shoshenq III's son, Pimay, was a different man from king Pami because their names are different. Moreover, if Pimay did indeed outlive his father, he should have then succeeded his father as king rather than the obscure Shoshenq IV who is not attested as a son of Shoshenq III. Consequently, it seems certain that Shoshenq III outlived all of his sons through his nearly 4 decade long reign.

While a minority of scholars hold to the traditional view that Pami was Pimay, a son of Shoshenq III by his wife Queen Djed-Bast-Es-Ankh, no archaeological evidence proves that Pami was ever a son of Shoshenq III. The different spelling and meanings of the word Pami and Pimay and the fact that Shoshenq III was actually succeeded by Shoshenq IV—rather than Pimay as was once thought—suggest rather that Pami was a son of his obscure
predecessor—Shoshenq IV instead.

**Reign Length**

Two Apis bulls were buried in Pami's own reign—one each during his Second and Sixth Year respectively. The Year 2 II Peret day 1 Serapeum stela from Pami’s reign states that 26 Years passed between Year 28 of Shoshenq III and the burial of the previous Apis Bull and Year 2 of Pami. Pami’s Highest Year Date was originally thought to be his 6th Year based on his Year 6 Serapeum stela. However, in 1998, Pierre Tallet, Susanne Bickel and Marc Gabolde from the University of Montpellier published the surviving contents of a reused stone block from an enclosure wall at Heliopolis in a BIFAO 98(1998) paper titled "Heliopolitan Annals from the Third Intermediate Period."

According to the article, the block is 2 cubits (104 cm) large and likely formed the right inside side of a doorway. The block is essentially an Annal document which postdates Pami's reign and was originally part of a larger monument which catalogued the deeds of various Dynasty 22 Pharaohs. However, only the section concerning Pami’s reign has survived. It chronicles this king's Yearly donations both to the gods of the Great Temple of Heliopolis and to other local deities and temples in this city. While the ending of the block is damaged, a 7th Regnal Year can be clearly seen for Pami and a brief 8th Year in the lost or erased section is possible. In any event, his Highest Year Date is now his 7th Year and Pami would have reigned for almost 7 full years based upon this document.

**References**


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Child of Stepenre Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Hermopolis is:

8. i. Shoshonk V\(^\text{10}\) Aakheperre.

**Generation No. 6**

8. **Shoshonk V\(^\text{10}\)** Aakheperre (Stepenre\(^\text{9}\) Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Hermopolis, Shoshonk\(^\text{8}\) III, Takelot\(^\text{7}\) II, Osorkon\(^\text{8}\) II, Takelot\(^\text{1}\) I, Osorkon\(^\text{8}\) I, Shoshonk\(^\text{1}\) I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot\(^\text{2}\), the Great Chief of the Ma\(^\text{1}\) Shoshonq). He married Tadibast III.

Notes for Shoshonk V Aakheperre:

Shoshenq V was the final king of the Twenty-second dynasty of Egypt of Meshwesh Libyans which controlled Lower Egypt. He was the son of Pami according to a Year 11 Serapeum stela from his reign. His prenomen or throne name, Akheperre, means "Great is the Soul of Re."[1]

The burial of two Apis Bulls is recorded in Year 11 and Year 37 of his reign.[2] Shoshenq V's highest Year date is an anonymous Year 38 donation stela from Buto created by the Libyan Chief Tefnakht of Sais which can only belong to his reign since Tefnakht was a late contemporary of this king.[3] This stela, which reads simply as "Regnal Year 38 under the Majesty of the King of Upper and Lower Egypt, Lord of the Two Lands, BLANK, Son of Re, BLANK," may reflect the growing power of Tefnakht in the Western Delta at the expense of Shoshenq V whose name is omitted from the document.[3]

Shoshenq V is believed to have died around 740 BC after a reign lasting 38 years. With his death, the Libyan 22nd Dynasty kingdom in the Egyptian Delta disintegrated into various city states under the control of numerous local kinglets such as Tefnakht at Sais and Buto, Osorkon IV at Bubastis and Tanis, and Iuput II at Leontopolis.

**Child of Shoshonk Aakheperre and Tadibast is:**

9. i. Osorkon IV ‘C’ of\(^\text{12}\) Ma'at.

**Generation No. 7**
9. **Osorkon IV** ́C of ¹¹ MAAT (Shoshonq V¹⁰ Aakheperre, Stepenre⁹ Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonq³ III, Takelot³ II, Osorkon⁴ II, Takelot³ I, Osorkon³ I, Shoshonq¹ I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot², the Great Chief of the Ma¹ Shoshenq) He married Princess of Libya.

Notes for Osorkon IV ́C of MAAT:
Osorkon IV was a ruler of Lower Egypt who, while not always listed as a member of the Twenty-second dynasty of Egypt, he is attested as the ruler of Tanis—and thereby one of Shoshenq V's successors. Therefore he is sometimes listed as part of the dynasty, whether for convenience or in fact.

His parentage is uncertain: he could be a son of Shoshenq V[1]. His mother, named on an electrum headpiece in the Louvre, is Tadibast III[2].

Reign
Kenneth Kitchen gives his reign dates as 732/30 - 716 BC.

His reign was never recognised at Memphis where documents were dated to the reign of 24th Saite dynasty king Bakenranef. During his time, Egypt was ruled concurrently by four dynasties - 22nd, 23rd, 24th and the 25th. Shortly after Osorkon had ascended the throne, Upper Egypt was conquered by the Kushite king, Piankhi, and Osorkon IV ended ruling only the East Nile Delta region.

Relationship with Assyria
He is perhaps mentioned in the bible as the Pharaoh "So" to whom Hoshea, King of Israel appealed for help.
However, So dispatched no aid or troops. The Israelite capital Samaria was captured by the Assyrian king Shalmaneser V in 722 BC and its inhabitants were imprisoned and taken to exile in Assyria and Media. To avoid military conflict with the Assyrians or even invasion, Osorkon sent presents, including several horses, to placate the new Assyrian king Sargon II, who rose to power later in 722. Osorkon's tactic apparently worked, since Sargon accepted his gifts and did not take action against him.

References

Child of Osorkon MAAT and Princess Libya is:
10. i. **Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re´ of¹² Egypt.**

Generation No. 8

10. **Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re´ of¹² Egypt (Osorkon IV ́C of ¹¹ MAAT, Shoshonq V¹⁰ Aakheperre, Stepenre⁹ Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonq³ III, Takelot³ II, Osorkon⁴ II, Takelot³ I, Osorkon³ I, Shoshonq¹ I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot², the Great Chief of the Ma¹ Shoshenq)**

Notes for Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re´ of Egypt:
Shepsesre Tefnakht (in Greek known as Tephachthos), was a prince of Sais and founder of the relatively short Twenty-fourth dynasty of Egypt who rose to become a Chief of the Ma at his home city. He is thought to have reigned roughly 732 BCE - 725 BCE or 7 years. Tefnakht I first began his career as the "Great Chief of the West" and Prince of Sais, and was a late contemporary of the last ruler of the 22nd dynasty: Shoshenq V. Tefnakht I was actually the second ruler of Sais; he was preceded by Osorkon C, who is attested by several documents mentioning him as this city's Chief of the Ma and Army Leader, according to Kenneth Kitchen.[2] A recently discovered statue dedicated by Tefnakht I to Amun-Re reveals important details about his personal origins.[3] The statue's text states that Tefnakht was the son of a certain Gennefsetskau and the grandson of Basa, a priest of Amun near Sais.[4] Consequently, Tefnakht was not actually descended from a line of Chiefs of the Ma and Libu tribes as traditionally believed but rather came from a family of priests. Tefnakht's royal name, Shepsesre, translates as "Noble like Re" in Egyptian.[5]
Biography
Tefnakht erected two donation stelas in Years 36 and 38 of Shoshenq V as a Prince at Sais. His Year 38 stela from Buto is significant not only because Tefnakht employs the rather boastful epithet of "Great Chief of the entire land" but due to its list of his religious titles as prophet of Neith, Edjo and the Lady of Imay.[6] This reflects his control over Sais, Buto to the north and Kom el-Hish to the southwest even prior to the end of the 22nd Dynasty with the death of Shoshenq V and reflects Tefnakht's political base in the Western Delta region of Egypt. The 22nd Dynasty was politically fragmenting even prior to the death of Shoshenq V. Tefnakht established his capital at Sais, and formed an alliance with other minor kings of the Delta region in order to conquer Middle and Upper Egypt, which was under the sway of the Nubian king Piye. He was able to capture and unify many of the cities of the Delta region, thus making Tefnakht considerably more powerful than any of his predecessors in either the 22nd or 23rd dynasties.

Tefnakht was not a member of the Tanite based 22nd Dynasty of Egypt since Tanis is located in the Eastern Delta whereas his local city of Sais was situated in the Western Delta closer to Libya. His modest title 'Great chief of the West' also hints at a non-royal background. Prior to assuming the title of "Great Chief of the West", Tefnakht managed to extend his control southward, capturing the city of Memphis and besieging the city of Herakleopolis, which was an ally of the Kushite king Piye of Nubia. This caused him to face considerable opposition from Piye, especially after Nimlot, the local ruler of Hermopolis defected from Piye's sphere of influence, to his side. A pair of naval engagements soon checked any further advances by Tefnakht's coalition into Piye's Middle Egyptian territories, and Memphis was soon recaptured by Piye. After further campaigns, Tefnakht's allies surrendered to Piye and Tefnakht soon found himself isolated. He finally dispatched a letter formally submitting his loyalty and swearing his loyalty to Piye. Tefnakht, however, was the only Lower Egyptian prince to avoid seeing Piye face to face. These details are recounted in the Great Victory stela of Piye which this Nubian ruler erected on the New Year's Day of his 21st regnal year. Shortly afterwards, Piye returned home to Nubia at Gebel Barkal, and never returned to Lower Egypt again.

Kingship
Despite this setback, Tefnakht was left alone as the local prince of his local region of Sais. He managed, over time, to soon reestablish his kingdom's control in the Delta region from the political vacuum which resulted after Piye's departure from this region. It is generally believed that prince Tefnakht officially proclaimed himself as king Shepsesre Tefnakht I and adopted a royal title sometime after Piye's departure from Lower Egypt. His successor at Sais was Bakenranef.

While most scholars such as Kenneth Kitchen have equated Manetho's Tefnakht with the king Shepsesre Tefnakht of Sais who is attested by the Year 8 Athens donation stela, a recent article by Olivier Perdu[7] has suggested that this Tefnakht was rather Tefnakht II, a much later king of Sais who ruled in the mid-680's BCE during the late Nubian 25th Dynasty. In his paper, Perdu published a newly discovered stela dating from the second year of Necho I's reign, which he contends is similar in style, text and content to the Year 8 stela of Shepsesre Tefnakht. Perdu, thus, infers that that these two kings of Sais, Necho I and Tefnakht II, were close contemporaries. However, his arguments are not currently accepted by most Egyptian scholars such as Dan'el Kahn or Kenneth Kitchen who still believe that the Year 8 Athens stela of king Shepsesre Tefnakht likely belongs to Tefnakht I rather than a hypothetical Tefnakht II who would then have assumed power in 685 BC at Sais, early during the reign of Taharqa, one of the most powerful Nubian rulers of Egypt. Kahn has also stressed at an Egyptological Conference at Leiden that Perdu's epigraphic criteria here in the famed Athens stela—such as the use of the tripartite wig, the method through which the falcon-headed god keeps his head upright in the same stela and on temple wall reliefs contemporary with Tefnakht I's time, the decoration of the stela scene: Heaven supported by wAs scepters—appear already in use in the 24th or early 25th Nubian dynasty during Piye, Shabaka or Bakenranef's reign.[8] The invisible back side of the tripartite wig can be found on the donation stela of Shebitku from Pharbitos and on the Bakenranef/Bocchoris vase dating to the last days of Piye and the beginning of Shabaka—all appear close in time to the presumed reign of Tefnakht I. Moreover, the head of the falcon-headed god Horus is, as Perdu himself noted, similar in style to the stela of Tefnakht, chief of the Meshwesh and Piye's chief rival.[9]

Unlike Necho I, neither of this king's presumed Saite royal predecessors, a certain Nekauba and Tefnakht II, are monumentally attested in Lower Egypt. Hence, the latter two kings who appear in the records of Manetho's Epitome may well be fictitious. Moreover, it is improbable that Taharqa, perhaps one of the most powerful Kushite kings of the Nubian 25th dynasty for the first 18 years of his reign, would have tolerated the existence of a rival line of native Egyptian kings at Sais during the first half of his reign when he exercised full control over Memphis and the Delta.
region. After all, the 24th dynasty Saite rulers Tefnakht had fought Taharqa's father Piye and Bakenranef resisted the Shabaka's expansion of Kushite power into the Delta region.

References
1. Tefnakht
4. Del Francia, pp.63-112 & 76-82

Child of TEFNAKHTE (I) SHEPSES RE OF EGYPT is:
11. i. BAKENRANEF (BOCCHORIS) WAH KA¹³ RE'.

Generation No. 9

11. BAKENRANEF (BOCCHORIS) WAH KA¹³ RE' (TEFNAKHTE (I) SHEPSES RE' OF¹² EGYPT, OSORKON IV C OF¹¹ MAAT, SHOSHONK V¹⁰ AAKHEPEREE, STEPENRE¹⁰ PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONK¹² III, TAKELOT² II, OSORKON² II, TAKELOT² I, OSORKON² I, SHOSHONK² I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT², THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA¹ SHOSHENQ)

Notes for BAKENRANEF (BOCCHORIS) WAH KA RE':
Bakenranef, known by the ancient Greeks as Bocchoris,[1] was briefly a king of the Twenty-fourth dynasty of Egypt. Based at Sais in the western Delta, he ruled Lower Egypt from c. 725 to 720 BC. Though the Ptolemaic period Egyptian historian Manetho[2] considers him the sole member of the Twenty-fourth dynasty, modern scholars include his father Tefnakht in that dynasty. Although Sextus Julius Africanus quotes Manetho as stating that "Bocchoris" ruled for six years, some modern scholars again differ and assign him a shorter reign of only five years, based on evidence from an Apis Bull burial stela. It establishes that Bakenranef’s reign ended only at the start of his 6th regnal year which, under the Egyptian dating system, means he had a reign of 5 full years. Bakenranef's prenomen or royal name, Wahkare, means "Constant is the Spirit of Re" in Egyptian.[3]

Manetho is the source for two events from Bakenranef's reign. The first is the story that a lamb uttered the prophecy that Egypt would be conquered by the Assyrians, a story later repeated by such classical authors as Claudius Aelianus (De Natura Animalis 12.3). The second was that Bakenranef was captured by Shabaka, a king of the Twenty-fifth dynasty, who executed Bakenranef by having him burned alive. A Kushite king, Shabaka extended his rule over the whole of Egypt, which had been split since the Twenty-first dynasty.

Diodorus Siculus, writing about three centuries after Manetho, adds some different details. Diodorus states that although Bakenranef was "contemptible in appearance", he was wiser than his predecessors (1.65). The Egyptians attributed to him a law concerning contracts, which provided for a way to discharge debts where no bond was signed; it was observed down to Diodorus' time (1.79). For this, and other acts, Diodorus included "Bocchoris" as one of the six most important lawmakers of ancient Egypt. For a minor kinglet briefly in control of the Nile Delta,
this is an unexpectedly prominent ranking: "He was a surprising choice," Robin Lane Fox observes,[4] "Perhaps some Greeks, unknown to us, had had close dealings with him; from his reign we have scarab-seals bearing his Egyptian name, one of which found its way into a contemporary Greek grave on Ischia up near the Bay of Naples." Ischia was the earliest of eighth-century Greek colonies in Italy.

The Roman historian Tacitus mentions that many Greek and Roman writers thought he had a part in the origin of the Jewish nation:

Most writers, however, agree in stating that once a disease, which horribly disfigured the body, broke out over Egypt; that king Bocchoris, seeking a remedy, consulted the oracle of Hammon, and was bidden to cleanse his realm, and to convey into some foreign land this race detested by the gods. The people, who had been collected after diligent search, finding themselves left in a desert, sat for the most part in a stupor of grief, till one of the exiles, Moses by name, warned them not to look for any relief from God or man, forsaken as they were of both, but to trust to themselves, taking for their heaven-sent leader that man who should first help them to be quit of their present misery. They agreed, and in utter ignorance began to advance at random. Nothing, however, distressed them so much as the scarcity of water, and they had sunk ready to perish in all directions over the plain, when a herd of wild asses was seen to retire from their pasture to a rock shaded by trees. Moses followed them, and, guided by the appearance of a grassy spot, discovered an abundant spring of water. This furnished relief. After a continuous journey for six days, on the seventh they possessed themselves of a country, from which they expelled the inhabitants, and in which they founded a city and a temple [5]

Despite the importance implied by these writers, few contemporary records of Bakenranef have survived. The chief inscription of his reign concerns the death and burial of an Apis bull during Years 5 and 6 of his reign; the remainder are a few stelae that Auguste Mariette recovered while excavating the Serapeum in Saqqara. Shabaka deposed and executed Bakenranef by burning him alive at the stake and buried the Bull in his own Year 2 (720 BC) while campaigning in Lower Egypt. This effectively ended the short-lived 24th Dynasty of Egypt as a potential rival to the Nubian 25th Dynasty.

References
1.^ Bakenranef's name is consistently Bocchoris in the Greek accounts and in Tacitus; the decipherment of Egyptian hieroglyphics has permitted the reconstruction of his authentic Egyptian name.
2.^ Manetho, frags. 64, 65.
5.^ Tacitus, Histories, 5.3

Child of BAKENRANEF (BOCCHORIS) WAH KA RE' is:
12. i. SHEPSESRE¹⁴ TEFNAKHTII, PRINCE OF EGYPT.

Generation No. 10

12. SHEPSESRE¹⁴ TEFNAKHTII, PRINCE OF EGYPT (BAKENRANEF (BOCCHORIS) WAH KA¹³ RE; TEFNAKHTE (I) SHEPSES RE OF¹² EGYPT, OSORKON IV C OF¹¹ MAAT, SHOSHONK V¹⁰ AAKHEPERRE, STEHENRE² PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONK³ III, TAKELOT² II, OSORKON⁴ II, TAKELOT³ I, OSORKON⁵ I, SHOSHONK⁴ I, SHOSHONK⁵ I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT⁶, THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA¹ SHOSHENQ)

Notes for SHEPSESRE TEFNAKHTII, PRINCE OF EGYPT:
Tefnakht II may have been a native Saite king who ruled Sais during the 25th Nubian Dynasty of Ancient Egypt or merely a local mayor of Sais who was erroneously assigned a kingship by the later kings of the Twenty-sixth dynasty of Egypt. Tefnakht II was a separate person from the illustrious Great Chief of the West Tefnakhte, who is mentioned in Piye's Year 20 Victory Stela and would have ruled part of Lower Egypt around 685 to 678 BC as a minor Saite king when the Nubian Dynasty still controlled all of Egypt. Tefnakht II appears in Manetho's Epitome as a certain Stephinates and is assigned a reign of seven years – a figure which is supported by the discovery of his Year 8 Athens stela. Manetho also writes that he was succeeded by an unknown king named Nekauba at Sais. The
father of Tefnakht II is unknown and the king may or may not have been a descendant of the last ruling Saite king, Bakenranef who was executed in Year 2 of Shabaka. According to Sextus Africanus's version of Manetho's Epitome, the 26th Dynasty comprised nine kings which began with a Stephinates and ended with a Psammetichus (i.e., Psamtik III). Africanus copy of Manetho's Epitome also accurately records Psamtik I's reign of the 26th Dynasty as being 54 years and Apries's reign at 19 years. Consequently, it appears that Manetho regarded Tefnakht II to be the founder of the 26th Dynasty of Sais.

Karl-Heinz Priese noted in a 1970 article that there was no compelling reason to identify this king with the more famous Tefnakht—Piye's chief rival in Lower Egypt—aside from the similarity of their names. The earlier Tefnakht is only attested as a "Chief of the West", rather than an actual king of Sais. More significantly, however, a recent 2002 CRAIBL article by Olivier Perdu publishes a newly discovered Year 2 donation stela discovered near Sebennytos which dates to Necho I's reign. Perdu reveals that it is close in style, form and content with the Year 8 donation stela of Shepsesre Tefnakht. Perdu suggested that these two Saite kings were close contemporaries. Hence, Shepsesre Tefnakht would rather be a 7th century BC king who ruled Sais around the same time as king Necho I (672-664 BC) and likely ruled Sais around 685 BC-678 BC. He would then be succeeded by an unknown Nekauba who, in turn, succeeded by the well-documented Necho I, father of Psamtik I.

However, Perdu's arguments are not accepted by many Egyptologists who note that his epigraphic criteria here—such as the use of the tripartite wig, the slender figure of the king and the method through which the falcon-headed god keeps his head upright in stelas and temple wall reliefs contemporary with Tefnakht I's time—appear in use already in the early 25th Nubian dynasty during Piye's or Shabaka's reign and even in the Year 38 Shosheng V donation stela of Tefnakht, Chief of the Ma made by Tefnakht I, who was Piye's rival. Moreover, for Tefnakht II to have begun a native line of kings of Sais in the 680s BC, there must have been a political vacuum in Upper Egypt but Tahrarqa exercised firm control over this region until his setbacks against the Assyrians in 671 BC. Consequently, the conventional view that Shepsesre Tefnakht should probably be identified with Tefnakht I rather than a hypothetical Tefnakht II remains valid.

Notes for Neko:
Necho I (sometimes Nekaou) (672 BC–664 BC) was the prince or governor of the Egyptian city of Sais. He was the first attested local Saite king of the twenty-sixth dynasty of Egypt who reigned for 8 years, according to Manetho's Epitome. Egypt was reunified by his son, Psamtik I. Necho I is primarily known from Assyrian documents but is now also attested in one contemporary Egyptian document from his reign. He was officially "installed" at Sais by Assurbanipal around 670 BC, but he already ruled Egypt as a local king prior to this event. According to historical records, Necho I was killed by an invading Kushite force in 664 BC under Tantamani for being an ally of Assyria. The Nubian invasion into the Egyptian Delta was subsequently repelled by the Assyrians who proceeded to advance south into Upper Egypt and sack Thebes.

Necho I's Year 2 is now attested on a privately held donation stela that was first published by Olivier Perdu. [2] The
Psamtik in the second volume of Herodotus (2.2). During his travel to Egypt, Herodotus heard that Psammetichus ("Psamtik") sought to discover the origin of language by conducting an experiment with two children. Allegedly he gave two newborn babies to a shepherd, with the instructions that no one should speak to them, but that the shepherd should feed and care for them while listening to determine their first words. The hypothesis was that the first word would be uttered in the root language of all people. When one of the children cried "bekos" with outstretched arms the shepherd concluded that the word was Phrygian because that was the sound of Phrygian word for "bread." Thus, they concluded that the Phrygians were an older people than the Egyptians, and that Phrygian was the original language of men. There are no other extant sources to verify this story.

Wives
Psamtik I's chief wife was Mehtenweskhet, the daughter of Harsiese, the Vizier of the North and High Priests of Atum at Heliopolis. Psamtik and Mehtenweshket were the parents of Necho II, Merneith, and the Divine Adoratrice Nitocris I.

Psamtik's father-in-law—the aforementioned Harsiese—was married three times: to Sheta, with whom he had a daughter named Naneferheres, to Tanini and, finally, to an unknown lady, by whom he had both Djedkare, the Vizier of the South and Mehtenweshket.[4] Harsiese was the son of Vizier Harkhebi, and was related to two other Harsieses, both Viziers, who were a part of the family of the famous Mayor of Thebes Montuemhat.

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This article incorporates text from a publication now in the public domain: Chisholm, Hugh, ed (1911). Encyclopædia Britannica (11th ed.). Cambridge University Press.

Children of Psamtik and Queen Mehtenweshket are:
15. i. Pharaoh Nectanebos "Necho II".
   ii. Nitocris I (Divine Adoratrice).

Notes for Nitocris I (Divine Adoratrice):
Nitocris I (alt. Nitarret, Nitokris I) (died 585 BC) served as the heir to and then the Divine Adoratrice of Amun or God's Wife of Amun for a period of over seventy years, between 655 BC and 585 BC.[1] She was the daughter of the Saite Period twenty-sixth dynasty Egyptian king Psamtik I. Psamtik I dispatched a powerful naval fleet in March 656 BC to Thebes and compelled the serving God's Wife of Amun Shepenupet II, a daughter of Piye to adopt his daughter Nitocris I as her heir to this office in the well known Adoption Stela.[2] It is unknown at what date she actually assumed the office of Divine Adoratrice of Amun for herself but she served in this position until Year 4 of Apries in 585 BC.

Prior to her career in this office, the Assyrians had invaded Egypt in 671 B.C., sacked Thebes and robbed its temples of their many treasures. When she was in her eighties, she adopted her great-niece Ankhnesneferibre,[3] the daughter of Psamtik II.

During her tenure, she was attested by several building works around Karnak, Luxor and Abydos.[4] She was buried in the grounds of Medinet-Habu[5] in a tomb chapel which "she shared with her natural mother and adoptive grandmother."[6] Her sarcophagus was reused in a Ptolemaic tomb at Deir el-Medina, and is today located in the Cairo Museum.[7]

Preceded by
Shepenwepet II God's Wife of Amun

655–585 BCE Succeeded by
 Ankhesneferibre

Preceded by
Amenirdis II Divine Adoratrice of Amun

656–586 BCE Succeeded by
 Ankhesneferibre

References
2. ^ James H. Breasted, Ancient Records of Egypt, Part Four, §§ 942ff.; The adoption stela of Nitocris
4. ^ Dodson & Hilton, p.247
6. ^ Dodson & Hilton, p.247
7. ^ Dodson & Hilton, p.247

Notes for Pharaoh Nectanebos “Necho II”:
See ‘Zedekiah’ c. 597-586 (Judah) and c. 610-595 (Kings at Napata, Egypt 26th Dynasty).

A Pharaoh who defeated Josiah in the Valley of Megiddo (609 BC) and was himself defeated by Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, in the battle of Carchemish (605 BC; 2 Chr 35:20, 22). Variant spellings of the Bible include Neco, Necoh and Nechoh.

Necho II (sometimes Nekau) was a king of the Twenty-sixth dynasty of Egypt (610 BCE – 595 BCE).

Necho II is most likely the pharaoh mentioned in several books of the Bible (see Hebrew Bible / Old Testament). The Book of Kings states that Necho met King Josiah of the Kingdom of Judah at Megiddo and killed him (2 Kings 23:29) (see Battle of Megiddo (609 BC)). The Book of Chronicles 2 Chronicles 35:20-27 gives a lengthier account and 2 Chronicles 35:20 states that whenJosiah had prepared the temple, Necho king of Egypt came up to fight against the Babylonians at Carchemish on the Euphrates River and that King Josiah was fatally wounded by an Egyptian archer. He was then brought back to Jerusalem to die. Necho is quoted as saying:

"What quarrel is there between you and me, O king of Judah? It is not you I am attacking at this time, but the house with which I am at war. God has told me to hurry; so stop opposing God, who is with me, or he will destroy you."

(NIV)

However, at Carchemish in the summer of 605 BC (or 607 BC by some sources) an important battle was fought by the Babylonian army of Nebuchadrezzar II and that of Pharaoh Necho II of Egypt (see the record contained in the Book of Jeremiah chapter 46 regarding Egypt and its defeat).[1] The aim of Necho's campaign was to contain the Westward advance of the Babylonian Empire and cut off its trade route across the Euphrates. However, the Egyptians were defeated by the unexpected attack of the Babylonians and were eventually expelled from Syria.

Necho II was the son of Psammetichus I by his Great Royal Wife Mehtenweskhet. His prenomen or royal name Wahemibre means "Carrying out the Wish of Re."[2]

Reign
Necho played a significant role in the histories of the Assyrian Empire, Babylonia and the Kingdom of Judah. Upon his ascension, Necho was faced with the chaos created by the raids of the Cimmerians and the Scythians, who had not only ravaged Asia west of the Euphrates, but had also helped the Babylonians shatter the Assyrian Empire. That once mighty empire was now reduced to the troops, officials, and nobles who had gathered around a general holding out at Harran, who had taken the throne name of Ashur-uballit II. Necho attempted to assist this remnant immediately upon his coronation, but the force he sent proved to be too small, and the combined armies were forced to retreat west across the Euphrates.

First campaign
Aerial view of Tel Megiddo site of the battle of Megiddo in 609 BC. In the spring of 609 BC, Necho personally led a sizable force to help the Assyrians. At the head of a large army, consisting mainly of his mercenaries, Necho took the coast route Via Maris into Syria, supported by his Mediterranean fleet along the shore, and proceeded through the low tracts of Philistia and Sharon. He prepared to cross the ridge of hills which shuts in on the south the great Jezreel Valley, but here he found his passage blocked by the Jewish army. Their king, Josiah, sided with the Babylonians and attempted to block his advance at Megiddo, where a fierce battle was fought and Josiah was killed.
Herodotus reports the campaign of the pharaoh in his Histories:

“Necos, then, stopped work on the canal and turned to war; some of his triremes were constructed by the northern sea, and some in the Arabian Gulf, by the coast of the Sea of Erythrias. The windlasses for beaching the ships can still be seen. He deployed these ships as needed, while he also engaged in a pitched battle at Magdolos with the Syrians, and conquered them; and after this he took Cadytis (Kadesh), which is a great city of Syria. He sent the clothes he had worn in these battles to Branchidae of Miletus and dedicated them to Apollo.”

Necho soon captured Kadesh on the Orontes and moved forward, joining forces with Ashur-uballit and together they crossed the Euphrates and laid siege to Harran. Although Necho became the first pharaoh to cross the Euphrates since Thutmose III, he failed to capture Harran, and retreated back to northern Syria. At this point, Ashur-uballit vanished from history, and the Assyrian Empire was conquered by the Babylonians.

Leaving a sizable force behind, Necho returned to Egypt. On his return march, he found that the Judeans had selected Jehoahaz to succeed his father Josiah, whom Necho deposed and replaced with Jehoiakim. He brought Jehoahaz back to Egypt as his prisoner, where Jehoahaz ended his days (2 Kings 23:31; 2 Chronicles 36:1-4).

Second campaign
Meanwhile, the Babylonian king was planning on reasserting his power in Syria. In 609 BC, King Nabopolassar captured Kumukh, which cut off the Egyptian army, then based at Carchemish. Necho responded the following year by retaking Kumukh after a four month siege, and executed the Babylonian garrison. Nabopolassar gathered another army, which camped at Qurumati on the Euphrates. However, Nabopolassar's poor health forced him to return to Babylon in 605 BC. In response, in 606 BC the Egyptians attacked the leaderless Babylonians (probably then led by the crown prince Nebuchadrezzar) who fled their position.

At this point, the aged Nabopolassar, passed command of the army to his son Nebuchadrezzar II, who led them to a decisive victory over the Egyptians at Carchemish, and pursed the fleeing survivors to Hamath. Necho's dream of restoring the Egyptian Empire in the Middle East as had occurred under the New Kingdom was destroyed as Nebuchadrezzar conquered Egyptian territory from the Euphrates to the Brook of Egypt (Jeremiah 46:2; 2 Kings 23:29) down to Judea. Although Nebuchadrezzar spent many years in his new conquests on continuous pacification campaigns, Necho was unable to recover any significant part of his lost territories. For example, when Ashkalon rose in revolt, despite repeated pleas the Egyptians sent no help, and were barely able to repel a Babylonian attack on their eastern border in 601 BC. When he did repel the Babylonian attack, Necho managed to capture Gaza while pursuing the enemy. Necho turned his attention in his remaining years to forging relationships with new allies: the Carians, and further to the west, the Greeks.

Ambitious projects.
At some point during his Syrian campaign, Necho II initiated but never completed the ambitious project of cutting a navigable canal from the Pelusiac branch of the Nile to the Red Sea, the earliest precursor of the Suez Canal.[3] It was in connection with this new activity that Necho founded a new city of Per-Temu Tjeku which translates as 'The House of Atum of Tjeku' at the site now known as Tell el-Maskhuta,[4] about 15 km west of Ismailia. The waterway was intended to facilitate trade between the Mediterranean Sea and the Indian Ocean. Necho also formed an Egyptian navy by recruiting displaced Ionian Greeks. This was an unprecedented act by the pharaoh since most Egyptians had traditionally harboured an inherent distaste for and fear of the sea.[5] The navy which Necho created operated along both the Mediterranean and Red Sea coasts.[6]

Herodotus (4.42) also reports that Necho sent out an expedition of Phoenicians, who in three years sailed from the Red Sea around Africa back to the mouth of the Nile.[7] Some current historians tend to believe Herodotus' account, primarily because he stated with disbelief that the Phoenicians "as they sailed on a westerly course round the southern end of Libya (Africa), they had the sun on their right - to northward of them" (The Histories 4.42) -- in Herodotus' time it was not known that Africa extended south past the equator; however, Egyptologists also point out that it would have been extremely unusual for an Egyptian Pharaoh to carry out such an expedition.[8] Alan B. Lloyd doubts the event and attributes the development of the story by other events.[9]
Death and succession

Necho II died in 595 BC and was succeeded by his son, Psamtik II, as the next pharaoh of Egypt. Psamtik II, however, later removed Necho's name from almost all of his father's monuments for unknown reasons.

References

General information

Footnotes
1.^ Jeremiah 46-48, biblegateway.com
4.^ Shaw & Nicholson, p.201
5.^ Clayton, p.196
6.^ Herodotus 2.158; Pliny N.H. 6.165ff; Diodorus Siculus 3.43
7.^ Note however that though the original documents state "Red Sea", many ancient manuscripts reference the "Mediterranean Sea" as the "Red Sea". See History of Suez Canal and painting by Wybylack for more detail.
8.^ For instance, the Egyptologist Alan Lloyd wrote "Given the context of Egyptian thought, economic life, and military interests, it is impossible for one to imagine what stimulus could have motivated Necho in such a scheme and if we cannot provide a reason which is sound within Egyptian terms of reference, then we have good reason to doubt the historicity of the entire episode.” Alan B. Lloyd, "Necho and the Red Sea: Some Considerations", Journal of Egyptian Archaeology, 63 (1977) p.149.
9.^ Lloyd points out that geographical knowledge at the time of Herodutus was such that Greeks would know that such a voyage would entail the sun being on their right but did not believe Africa could extend far enough for this to happen. He suggests that the Greeks at this time understood that anyone going south far enough and then turning west would have the sun on their right but found it unbelievable that Africa reached so far south. He suggests that "It is extremely unlikely that an Egyptian king would, or could, have acted as Necho is depicted as doing” and that the story might have been triggered by the failure of Sataspes attempt to circumnavigate Africa under Xerxes the Great. For more see: Lloyd, Alan B. "Necho and the Red Sea: Some Considerations Journal of Egyptian Archaeology, Vol. 63, (1977), pp. 142-155

Further reading
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Notes for KHEDEBNEITHIRBINETI, QUEEN OF EGYPT:

Khedebneithirbinet I ("Neith Kills the Evil Eye")[2] was an ancient Egyptian queen from the Twenty-sixth dynasty of Egypt, probably the wife of pharaoh Necho II and the mother of his successor, Psamtik II.

Biography
The identification as Necho's wife is solely based on the fact that her sarcophagus dates to the 26th dynasty, that her titles as King's wife and King's mother [3] fit, and that no other wife is attested for the king. [4] Her stone sarcophagus lid (ÄS3), now located in Vienna, was discovered in 1807 and indicates that she was probably buried at Sebennytos in Lower Egypt if the provenance given for this object is correct.[5]
Guardian. Then we find Jeremiah and the girls going to the Egyptian city of Tahpanhes. In fact, there is an ancient
the group with Jeremiah. Jeremiah
[72x95]kings. This man would not travel by foot (on land). Jer 41:10 establishes the presence of the "king's daughters" in
[72x118]Isaiah fills ou
[72x129]nations, not nations (in general). This is repeated with the word kingdoms; the kingdoms. The bible is concerned
[72x187]that this meant his prophesying against them. This is
[72x210]true. The mystery is, where did
[72x221]destroyed, and threw down kingdoms. History shows that his prophecies about the destruction of kingdoms came
[72x233]Jeremiah's commission has always puzzled scholars. One can find where Jeremiah rooted out, pulled down,
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tells us that a "righteous man from the east" was put over nations and
kings. This man would not travel by foot (on land). Jer 41:10 establishes the presence of the "king's daughters" in
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References
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Child of Pharaoh II and Mehetenweskhet Heliopolis is:
16. i. Te Tephi18 Scota, Princess of Egypt.

Child of Pharaoh II and Khedebneithirbinet is:
17. ii. Psamtek II Neferibre, King of Egypt.

Generation No. 14

Notes for Te Tephi Scota, Princess of Egypt:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

JEREMIAH'S VOYAGE
An old man arrives on an Island with a small group of people in 583 BC. He brings the daughter of a King, a scribe named Simon Brug and some relics. The powerful Milesian High King of all Ireland allows the old man complete control. Instituting laws, schools and congresses, the old man forever changes the face of the Island's history, and subsequently the history of the entire world. Apparently incidental to all this, is the fulfilling of a 500 year old prophecy.

Few people know that Jeremiah was much more than a prophet. He tends to get lumped in with Isaiah, Ezekial, and the others. Jeremiah did more than go around speaking doom and gloom. He held a high level position in the kingdom of Judah. He was the grandfather of King Zedekiah. II Kings 24:18. Most importantly, Jeremiah was God's Trustee of the Bloodline and the Throne of David.

Jeremiah's commission has always puzzled scholars. One can find where Jeremiah rooted out, pulled down, destroyed, and threw down kingdoms. History shows that his prophecies about the destruction of kingdoms came true. The mystery is, where did Jeremiah "build and plant?" The scriptural account doesn't contain any building and planting. There is also some confusion about Jeremiah's being put "over the nations." It would appear at first glance that this meant his prophesying against them. This is not the case. First, Jer 1:10 says that God set him "over the nations, not nations (in general). This is repeated with the word kingdoms; the kingdoms. The bible is concerned with only one people, the twelve tribes of Israelites. Jeremiah was to "throw down" AND "build and plant" the Israelite nations. We'll have to follow his trail to find where he accomplished his mission.

First we'll look at the Biblical account. Jer 15:11-14 tells us Jerry is going to a brand new place he "knowest not." Isaiah fills out the picture a bit. Isaiah 41:1-3 tells us that a "righteous man from the east" was put over nations and kings. This man would not travel by foot (on land). Jer 41:10 establishes the presence of the "king's daughters" in the group with Jeremiah. Jeremiah, as their great-grandfather, would certainly have assumed the position of Guardian. Then we find Jeremiah and the girls going to the Egyptian city of Tahpanhes. In fact, there is an ancient
structure there that bears the name, "Palace of the Jew's daughters." Isaiah helps us again with a last bit of confirmation, in chapter 37:31, telling us that a "remnant of Judah" shall escape and "take root downward."

Before going on, we must take notice of what God had promised Jeremiah and his fellow travelers. God told Jeremiah that he'd be treated kindly by the Babylonians and die a natural death. Baruch, Jeremiah's scribe and Ebed-Melech, the Ethiopian, are also told they'd be spared. The probable number in Jeremiah's traveling band was five: Jeremiah, Baruch, Ebed-Melech Tea Tephi and her sister.

It's not so hard to trace the migration of large groups of people. Not so with small groups. But God knows this too, and has left evidence that we may overcome our doubts about Jeremiah's destination. But we have to go the history books. Only one place in the world claims to have the grave of the prophet Jeremiah. Only one country's history tells of an old man, and his scribe Brug bringing a king's daughter from Egypt. Only one country claims the Harp of David for it's Arms. Only one country has Jerreys coming out of it's ears.

IRELAND.

Although, due to the Bards embellishing the story, accounts of Jeremiah's arrival and work in Ireland differ in some details, the basic elements of each tale are the same.

The Stone, known as the "Stone of Destiny" came from Spain, and before that, from Egypt. It came in the company of an aged guardian, who was called "Ollam Folla", (Hebrew for revealer or prophet). Accompanying the man was an eastern king's daughter Eochaidh (Eremhon) married the daughter, Tea Tephi, the aged guardian became the most influential Statesman and Spiritual leader of Ireland.

Remember the evidence I mentioned, that God would supply us to confirm Jeremiah's trip? The following picture is of an inscription found in a tomb located in Schiabhla-Cailliche, near Oldcastle, County, Meath, Ireland, not far from Tara. Thirty-some stones with strange markings upon them, lie in the sepulchral chamber within the huge cairn of stones which make up the tomb. A large carved stone outside the tomb is till pointed out as Jeremiah's judicial seat. Our confirmation lies on those thirty stones in the cairn.

One interpretation, by George Dansie of Bristol, says the the stones show a Lunar Eclipse, in the constellation of Taurus and a conjunction of the planets Saturn and Jupiter in Virgo. The prow of a ship is shown in the center, with five lines indicating the number of passengers it carries. On the left, a part of the ship, perhaps the stern, is shown with only four passengers, one having been left behind, as indicated by the line falling away from the ship. The wavy line indicates the passage of the ship across the ocean, terminating at a central point on an island.

The stellar and planetary alignment of the inscription gives a date of 583 BC. This date allows just the right amount of time for our little band to go to Egypt, and return to Palestine briefly before making their way to Spain, then Ireland.

Buried ineradically in the poetry and folk-lore of Ireland is the tale of a Prophet, an Egyptian Princess and Simon Brug (Baruch) a Scribe. They Landed in Ireland about the same time that the destruction of Jerusalem took place, bearing with them a great chest and a stone wrapped on a banner. The Princess married the Zarahite King, Eochaidh II, Ard-dath, Ard-righ, or Heremon (horse man of all Ireland), and their son was Irial. I, (M.R. Munro Faure) give quotations from old Irish verse:

The praises of Tea Tephi, daughter of Lughaidh (equivalent in Erse of Bethel) are sung as:
"The Beautiful One with a Royal Prosperous Smile."
"Tephi (Hebrew beautiful) the most beautiful that traversed the Plain."
"Temor of Bregia, whence so called."

Relate to me O learned Sages,
When was the place called Temor?
Was it in the time of Parthalon of battles?
Or at the first arrival of Caesaire?
Tell me in which of these invasions
Did the place have the name of Tea-mor?
O Tuan, O generous Finchadh,
O Dubhan, Ye venerable Five
Whence was acquired the name of Te-mor?
Until the coming of the agreeable Teah
The wife of Heremon of noble aspect.
A Rampart was raised around her house
For Teah the daughter of Lughaidh (God's House)
She was buried outside in her mound
And from her it was named Tea-muir.
Cathair, Crofin not inapplicable.
Was its name among the Tuatha-de-Danaan
Until the coming of Tea - the Just
Wife of Heremon of the noble aspect?
A wall was raised around her house
For Tea the daughter of Lughaidh,
(And) she was interred in her wall outside,
So that from her is Tea-mor.
A habitation which was a Dun (Hebrew court) and a fortress
Which was the glory of murs without demolition,
On which the monument of Tea after her death,
So that it was an addition to her dowry.
The humble Heremon had
A woman in beautiful confinement
Who received from him everything she wished for.
He gave her whatever he promised,
Bregatea a meritorious abode
(Where lies) The grave, which is the great Mergech (Hebrew burial place)
The burial place which was not violated.
The daughter of Pharaoh of many champions
Tephi, the most beautiful that traversed the Plain.
She gave a name to her fair cahir,
The woman with the prosperous royal smile,
Mur-Tephi where the assembly met.
It is not a mystery to be said
A Mur (was raised) over Tephi I have heard.
Strength this, without contempt,
Which great proud Queen have formed
The length, breadth of the house of Tephi,
Sixty feet without weakness
As Prophets and Druids have seen.

From "Forward" - Watchman What of the Dawn

Notes for Gallam Milesius of Spain:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

In Irish origin legends, Míl Espáine or Míl Espáne (later pseudo-Latinised as Milesius; also Miled/Miledh) is the
ancestor of the final inhabitants of Ireland, the "sons of Míl" or Milesians, who represent the vast majority of the Irish Gaels.

Míl is very much the product of Latin Christian scholarship. His name is an Irish version of Latin Miles Hispaniae, meaning "Soldier of Hispania", which is attested in a passage (§ 13) in the 9th-century pseudo-history Historia Brittonum ("The History of the Britons"). The work offers an account of how Ireland was successively taken by settlers from Iberia, among them Partholom, Nimeth and the "three sons of a Hispanic soldier" (tres filii militis Hispaniae).[1] As A.G. van Hamel has suggested, the status of Iberia as the land of origin can be traced back to Isidore of Seville, who in the introduction to his history of the Goths, Vandals and Suebi had elevated Iberia to the "mother of all races".[2] A further explanation may lie in the mistake made by some classical geographers in locating Ireland closely opposite Iberia. For instance, the Lebar Gabála (§ 100) recounts that from Bregon's Tower, the Milesian Íth was able to see right across the sea to Ireland.[3]

He served as a soldier in Scythia and Egypt, before remembering a prophecy that his descendants would rule Ireland. He set off to the west, getting as far as Iberia where he fought several battles before dying, never seeing Ireland himself.

His wife Scota and his uncle Íth, who had spied Ireland from a tower, sailed to Ireland where Íth was killed by the Tuatha Dé Danann. When his body was brought back to Iberia, Míl's eight sons and Íth's nine brothers invaded Ireland and defeated the Tuatha Dé Danann.

He figures prominently in the mythological genealogies of John O'Hart, being the common ancestor of all the Irish.

He served as a soldier in Scythia and Egypt, before remembering a prophecy that his descendants would rule Ireland. He set off to the west, getting as far as Iberia where he fought several battles before dying, never seeing Ireland himself.

His wife Scota and his uncle Íth, who had spied Ireland from a tower, sailed to Ireland where Íth was killed by the Tuatha Dé Danann. When his body was brought back to Iberia, Míl's eight sons and Íth's nine brothers invaded Ireland and defeated the Tuatha Dé Danann.

He figures prominently in the mythological genealogies of John O'Hart, being the common ancestor of all the Irish.

Milesius died in Iberia before he could reach the Isle of Destiny. His wife Scota went to Ireland with their eight sons. Due to some terrible storms (attributed to the magic of the Tuatha Dé Danann who already lived in Ireland) most of Milesius' sons died when they tried to land

References

Milesius, in his youth and in his father's life-time, went into Scythia, where he was kindly received by the king of that country, who gave him his daughter in marriage, and appointed him General of his forces. In this capacity Milesius defeated the king's enemies, gained much fame, and the love of all the king's subjects. His growing greatness and popularity excited against him the jealousy of the king; who, fearing the worst, resolved on privately dispatching Milesius out of the way, for, openly, he dare not attempt it. Admonished of the king's intentions in his regard, Milesius slew him; and thereupon quitted Scythia and retired into Egypt with a fleet of sixty sail. Pharaoh Nectonibus, then king of Egypt, being informed of his arrival and of his great valour, wisdom, and conduct in arms, made him General of all his forces against the king of Ethiopia then invading his country. Here, as in Scythia, Milesius was victorious; he forced the enemy to submit to the conqueror's own terms of peace. By these exploits Milesius found great favour with Pharaoh, who gave him, being then a widower, his daughter Scota in marriage; and kept him eight years afterwards in Egypt. During the sojourn of Milesius in Egypt, he employed the most ingenious and able persons among his people to be instructed in the several trades, arts, and sciences used in Egypt; in order to have them taught to the rest of his people on his return to Spain. [The original name of Milesius of Spain was "Galamh" (gall: Irish, a stranger; amh, a negative affix), which means, no stranger: meaning that he was no stranger in Egypt, where he was called "Milethea Spaine," which was afterwards contracted to "Miló Spaine" (meaning the Spanish Hero), and finally to "Milesiu" (mileadh: Irish, a hero; Lat. miles, a soldier).] At length Milesius took leave of his father-in-law, and steered towards Spain; where he arrived to the great joy and comfort of his people; who were much harassed by the rebellion of the natives and by the intrusion of other foreign nations that forced in
after his father's death, and during his own long absence from Spain. With these and those he often met; and, in fifty-four battles, victoriously fought, he routed, destroyed, and totally extirpated them out of the country, which he settled in peace and quietness. In his reign a great dearth and famine occurred in Spain, of twenty-six years' continuance, occasioned, as well by reason of the former troubles which hindered the people from cultivating, and manuring the ground, as for want of rain to moisten the earth - but Milesius superstition believed the famine to have fallen upon him and his people as a judgment and punishment from their gods, for their negligence in seeking out the country destined for their final abode, so long before foretold by Cachear their Druid or magician, as already mentioned - the time limited by the prophecy for the accomplishment thereof being now nearly, if not fully, expired. To expiate his fault and to comply with the will of his gods, Milesius, with the general approbation of his people, sent his uncle Ithe, with his son Lughaidh [Luy], and one hundred and fifty stout men to bring them an account of those western islands; who, accordingly, arriving at the island since then called Ireland, and landing in that part of it now called Munster, left his son with fifty of his men to guard the ship, and with the rest travelled about the island. Informed, among other things, that the three sons of Cearmad, called Mac-Cuil, MacCeacht, and MacGreine, did then and for thirty years before rule and govern the island, each for one year, in his turn; and that the country was called after the names of their three queens - Eire, Fodhla, and Banbha, respectively: one year called "Eire," the next "Fodhla," and the next "Banbha," as their husbands reigned in their regular turns; by which names the island is ever since indifferently called, but most commonly "Eire," because that MacCuill, the husband of Eire, ruled and governed the country in his turn the year that the Clan-na-Milé (or the sons of Milesius) arrived in and conquered Ireland. And being further informed that the three brothers were then at their palace at Aileach Neid, in the north part of the country, engaged in the settlement of some disputes concerning their family jewels, Ithe directed his course thither; sending orders to his son to sail about with his ship and the rest of his men, and meet him there. When Ithe arrived where the (Danann) brothers were, he was honourably received and entertained by them; and, finding him to be a mail of great wisdom, and knowledge, they referred their disputes to him for decision. That decision having met their entire satisfaction, Ithe exhorted them to mutual love, peace, and forbearance; adding much in praise of their delightful, pleasant, and fruitful country; and then took his leave, to return to his ship, and go back to Spain. No sooner was he gone than the brothers; began to reflect on the high commendations which Ithe gave of the Island; and, suspecting his design of bringing others to invade it, resolved to prevent them, and therefore pursued him with a strong party, overtook him, fought and routed his men and wounded himself to death (before his son or the rest of his men left on ship-board could come to his rescue) at a place called, from that fight and his name, Magh Ithe or "The plain of Ithe" (an extensive plain in the barony of Raphoe, county Donegal); whence his son, having found him in that condition, brought his dead and mangled body back into Spain, and there exposed it to public view, thereby to excite his friends and relations to avenge his murder. [Note: that all the invaders and planters of Ireland, namely, Parthalonians, Neimhedh, the Firbolgs, Tuatha-de-Danann, and Clan-na-Milé, where originally Scythians, of the line of Japet, who had the language called Bearla-Tobbai or Gaoidhilg [Gaelic] common amongst them all; and consequently not to be wondered at, that Ithe and the Tuatha-de-Danann understood one another without an Interpreter - both speaking the same language, though perhaps with some difference in the accent]. The exposing of the dead body of Ithe had the desired effect; for, thereupon, Milesius made great preparations in order to invade Ireland - as well to avenge his uncle's death, as also in obedience to the will of his gods, signified by the prophecy of Cachear, aforesaid. But, before he could effect that object, he died, leaving the care, and charge of that expedition upon his eight legitimate sons by his two wives before mentioned. Milesius was a very valiant champion, a great warrior, and fortunate and prosperous in all his undertakings: witness his name of "Milesius," given him from the many battles (some say a thousand, which the word "Milé" signifies in Irish as well as in Latin) which he victoriously fought and won, as well in Spain, as in all the other countries and kingdoms be traversed in his younger days. The eight brothers were neither forgetful nor negligent in the execution of their father's command; but, soon after his death, with a numerous fleet well manned and equipped, set forth from Breoghan's Tower or Brigantia (now Corunna) in Galicia, in Spain, and sailed prosperous to the coasts of Ireland or Inis-Fail, where they met many difficulties and various chances before they could land: occasioned by the diabolical arts, sorceries, and enchantments used by the Tuatha-de-Danann, to obstruct their landing; for, by their magic art, they enchanted the island so as to appear to the Milesians or Clan-na-Milé in the form of a Hog, and no way to come at it (whence the island, among the many other names it had before, was called "Muc-Inis or "The Hog Island"); and withal raised so great a storm, that the Milesian fleet was thereby totally dispersed and many of them cast away, wherein five of the eight brothers, sons of Milesius, lost their lives. That part of the fleet commanded by Heber, Heremon, and Amergin (the three surviving, brothers), and Heber Donn, son of Ir (one of the brothers lost in the storm), overcame all opposition, landed safe, fought and routed the three Tuatha-de-Danann Kings at Sliave-Mis, and thence pursued and overtook them at Tailten, where another bloody battle was fought; wherein the three (Tuatha-de-Danann) Kings and their Queens were slain, and their army utterly routed and destroyed: so that they could never after give any
opposition to the Clan-na-Milé in their new conquest; who, having thus sufficiently avenged the death of their great uncle Ithe, gained the possession of the country foretold them by Cachear, some ages past, as already mentioned. Heber and Heremon, the chief leading men remaining of the eight brothers, sons of Milesius aforesaid, divided the kingdom between them (alloting a proportion of land to their brother Amergin, who was their Arch-priest, Druid, or magician; and to their nephew Heber Donn, and to the rest of their chief commanders), and became jointly the first of one hundred and eighty-three Kings or sole Monarchs of the Gaelic, Milesian, or Scottish Race, that ruled and governed Ireland, successively, for two thousand eight hundred and eighty-five years from the first year of their reign), Anno Mundi three thousand five hundred, to their submission to the Crown of England in the person of King Henry the Second; who, being also of the Milesian Race by Maude, his mother, was lineally descended from Fergus Mór MacEarca, first King of Scotland, who was descended from the said Heremon - so that the succession may be truly said to continue in the Milesian Blood from before Christ one thousand six hundred and ninety-nine years down to the present time. Heber and Heremon reigned jointly one year only, when, upon a difference between their ambitious wives, they quarrelled and fought a battle at Ardeath or Geshill (Geashill, near Tullamore in the King's County), where Heber was slain by Heremon; and, soon after, Amergin, who claimed an equal share in the government, was, in another battle fought between them, likewise slain by Heremon. Thus, Heremon became sole Monarch, and made a new division of the land amongst his comrades and friends, viz.: the south part, now called Munster, he gave to his brother Heber's four sons, Er, Orba, Feron, and Fergna; the north part, now Ulster, he gave to I'ir's only son Heber Donn; the east part or Coigeadh, Galian, now called Leinster, be gave to Cromthann-sciath-bheil, one of his commanders; and the west part, now called Connaught, Heremon gave to Un-Mac-Oigge, another of his commanders; allotting a part of Munster to Lughaidh (the son of Ithe, the first Milesian discoverer of Ireland), amongst his brother Heber's sons. From these three brothers, Heber, Ir, and Heremon (Amergin dying without issue), are descended all the Milesian Irish of Ireland and Scotland, viz.: from Heber, the eldest brother, the provincial Kings of Munster (of whom thirty-eight were sole Monarchs of Ireland), and most of the nobility and gentry of Munster, and many noble families in Scotland, are descended. From Ir, the second brother, all the provincial Kings of Ulster (of whom twenty-six were sole Monarchs of Ireland), and all the ancient nobility and gentry of Ulster, and many noble families in Leinster, Munster, and Connaught, derive their pedigrees; and, in Scotland, the Clan-na-Rory - the descendants of an eminent man, named Ruaadhri or Roderick, who was Monarch of Ireland for seventy years (viz., from Before Christ 288 to 218). From Heremon, the youngest of the three brothers, were descended one hundred and fourteen sole Monarchs of Ireland: the provincial Kings and Hermonian nobility and gentry of Leinster, Connaught, Meath, Orgiall, Tirowen, Tirconnell, and Clan-na-boy; the Kings of Dalriada; all the Kings of Scotland from Fergus Mór MacEarea, down to the Stuarts; and the Kings and Queens of England from Henry the Second down to the present time. The issue of Ithe is not accounted among the Milesian Irish or Clan-na-Milé, as not being descended from Milesius, but from his uncle Ithe; of whose posterity there were also some Monarchs of Ireland (see Roll of the Irish Monarchs, infra), and many provincial or half provincial Kings of Munster: that country upon its first division being allocated to the sons of Heber and to Lughaidh, son of Ithe, whose posterity continued there accordingly. This invasion, conquest, or plantation of Ireland by the Milesian or Scottish Nation took place in the Year of the World three thousand Ova hundred, or the next year after Solomon began the foundation of the Temple of Jerusalem, and one thousand six hundred and ninety-nine years before the Nativity of our Saviour Jesus Christ; which, according to the Irish computation of Time, occurred Anno Mundi five thousand one hundred and ninety-nine: therein agreeing with the Septuagint, Roman Martyrologies, Eusebius, Orosius, and other ancient authors; which computation the ancient Irish chroniclers exactly observed in their Books of the Reigns of the Monarchs of Ireland, and other Antiquities of that Kingdom; out of which the Roll of the Monarchs of Ireland, from the beginning of the Milesian Monarchy to their submission to King Henry the Second of England, a Prince of their own Blood, is exactly collected. [As the Milesian invasion of Ireland took place the next year after the laying of the foundation of the Temple of Jerusalem by Solomon, King of Israel, we may infer that Solomon was contemporary with Milesius of Spain; and that the Pharaoh King of Egypt, who (1 Kings iii. 1.) gave his daughter in marriage to Solomon, was the Pharaoh who conferred on Milesius of Spain the hand of another daughter Scotia.] Milesius of Spain bore three Lions in his shield and standard, for the following reasons; namely, that, in his travels in his younger days into foreign countries, passing through Africa, he, by his cunning and valour, killed in one morning three Lions; and that, in memory of so noble and valiant an exploit, he always after bore three Lions on his shield, which his two surviving sons Heber and Heremon, and his grandson Heber Donn, son of Ir, after their conquest of Ireland, divided amongst them, as well as they did the country: each of them bearing a Lion in his shield and banner, but of different colours; which the Chiefs of their posterity continue to this day; some with additions and differences; others plain and entire as they had it from their ancestors. The Celts of Ireland descend from three sons of Milesius, (37-1 Heremon, 37-2 Heber and 37-3 Ir) and from his uncle (35-1 Ithe)
Levantine revolt against the Babylonians" that involved, among other, Zedekiah of the 591 BC, during the fourth year of his reign, Psamtik II launched an expedition into Palestine "to foment a general uprising against those kings in Egypt "by hacking out their names and emblems of royalty from their statues and reliefs."[7] Later, in 591 BC, during the fourth year of his reign, Psamtik II launched an expedition into Palestine "to foment a general Levantine revolt against the Babylonians" that involved, among other, Zedekiah of the Kingdom of Judah.[8]
Monuments
Psamtik II was both a dynamic warrior pharaoh as well as a prolific builder in his brief 6 year reign. A significant Saite temple was likely built by Psamtik II and his son Apries at the village of El-Mahalla El-Kubra which lies equidistant from Sebennytos and Behbeit El-Hagar in the Lower Nile Delta.[9] Officials from the Napoleonic expedition to Egypt observed "an extraordinary number of pharaonic building elements of granite and turquoise reused in modern buildings" at this site; this discovery was subsequently confirmed by Nestor L'Hôte in 1828 who counted more than 120 granite columns built into this village's mosque alone.[10][11] A 1.8 metre long fragment of red granite with the name of Psamtik II and a door lintel of Apries was also seen at El-Mahalla El-Kubra.[10]

Under Psamtik II's reign, a pair of more than 21.79 metre high obelisks were erected in the temple of Heliopolis; the first Emperor of Rome, Augustus later had one of the obelisks, which had probably been thrown down by the Persian invaders in 525 BC, brought to Rome in 10 BC.[10] Psamtik II also constructed a kiosk on Philae island. This kiosk today "represents the oldest known monument known on the island" and consisted "of a double row of four columns, which were connected by screen walls."[10]

The Temple of Hibis was founded by Psamtik II at Kharga Oasis. Another view of the reconstructed Temple of Hibis at Kharga Oasis in December 2008. Psamtik II was also responsible for founding the Temple-house at Hibis in El-Kharga Oasis for the triad of Amun, Mut, and Khonsu with significant installations for the cult of Osiris.[12] This 19.5 X 26 metre temple was originally situated on the bank of an ancient lake which has now disappeared and its temple decorations were only completed under the Persian kings Darius I and possibly Darius II.[10] The Hibis temple consisted of a hypostyle hall with two-by-two papyrus capital columns, a hall of offerings, three sanctuaries in the rear section of the temple and a chapel at the side of the sanctuaries for the cult of Psamtik II.[13] The front of the temple house of Hibis featured:

"a pronaos with four papyrus bundle columns and screen walls. During the construction of the pronaos, the side walls were extended for the addition of a court[yard]. This extension, was, however, only carried out in the 30th Dynasty by Nectanebo I and Nectanebo II.] The eight papyrus columns of the pronaos still show the New Kingdom type of open, bell-shaped capitals."[14]
A massive sandstone gateway through an outer enclosure wall still stands almost 5 metres tall and was constructed during the Ptolemaic or Roman periods.[15] Many inscriptions and decrees were carved on the gateway on a wide variety of topics such as taxation, inheritance, the court system and the rights of women, with the earliest text dating to 49 AD.[15]

The Temple of Psamtik II at Hibis was completely preserved until 1832 when its roof and portions of the temple were removed for the construction of an aluminium factory.[14] Only excavation work by the Metropolitan Museum of Art in 1910-1911 and restorations performed by the Egyptian Antiquities Service arrested its decline.[16] Today, the Hibis temple remains—together with the Oracle or Ammonieon of Siwa—as "the best preserved and best-documented temple of the early Egyptian Late Period and is therefore a primary monument to the history of Egyptian temple building."[14]

Successor
When Psamtik II died in 589 BC, he was succeeded by Apries who was his son by Queen Takhut, a Princess of Athribis. Psamtik and Queen Takhut were also the parents of Menekhubaste, a Priestess of Atum at Heliopolis, and Ankhnesneferibre, a God's Wife of Amun who was served in this powerful office in Upper Egypt through to the remainder of the Saite period in 525 BC when Egypt was conquered by the Persians.[17] The date of Psamtik II's death is mentioned in the Adoption stela of Ankhenesneferibre: Year 6, I Akhet day 23.[18]

References
3. king Psammetichus II (Psamtik II)
4. Britannica, p.756
6. Bonnet & Valbelle, pp.166-167
Children of Psamtek Neferiibre and Takhout Atribbis are:

19. i. Haibre Wahibre, King of Egypt.
   ii. Priestess of Atum at Helipolis Menekhubaste.
   iii. Ankhnesneferibre.

Notes for Ankhnesneferibre:
Ankhnesneferibre held the office of Divine Adoratrice of Amun (or God's Wife of Amun) during the 26th Dynasty of Egypt from around 586 to 525 BC. During the same time, she also held the office of God's Wife of Amun, which was the highest office in the priesthood of the temple of Amun in Thebes.

Detail from the sarcophagus of Ankhnesneferibre now in the British Museum. The title, Divine Adoratrice of Amun, conveyed even more political authority than the earlier office especially during the Late Libyan period through to the Kushite Dynasty 25 and sainie Dynasty 26 period. Ankhnesneferibre was the daughter of Psamtik II and his wife Takhuit. Ankhnesneferibre was dispatched to Thebes and adopted by her predecessor in this office, Nitocris I as a stela from Karnak records.[1] Eight years later, in Year 4 of her brother Apries's reign (c.586 BC), she formally assumed the office of Divine Adoratrice of Amun herself when Nitocris I died.[2] Henceforth, she would govern Thebes for a period of 60 years until the Persian conquest of Egypt in 525 BC.[2] After the Persians captured Egypt, the office of the Divine Adoratrice of Amun was abolished and Ankhnesneferibre disappears from history. She is depicted in a number of statues and her black basalt sarcophagus was subsequently reused in Deir el-Medina during the Ptolemaic period by a man named Pymentu.[3] Her sarcophagus is today located in the British museum.[2]

Ankhnesneferibre's tomb can be found in the complex of Medinet Habu.

The Divine Adoratrice of Amun was a second title created for the chief priestess of the ancient Egyptian deity, Amun. During the first millennium BCE, when the holder of this office exercised her largest measure of influence, her position was an important appointment facilitating the transfer of power from one pharaoh to the next, when his daughter was adopted to fill it by the incumbent office holder. The Divine Adoratrice ruled over the extensive temple duties and domains, controlling a significant part of the ancient Egyptian economy.

God's Wife of Amun, a title for a similar office of the high priestess, originated as a title held by a daughter of the High Priest of Amun during the reign of Hatshepsut and continued as an important office while the capital of Egypt remained in Thebes.

Later, the added title of Divine Adoratrice of Amun can be seen to accompany a resurgence of the title God's Wife of Amun which had fallen into disuse. The God's Wife title was revived in the 20th Dynasty, when Ramesses VI's daughter Aset held the office, as well as the additional office of Divine Adoratrice.[1] He reigned from 1145-1137 BC. She never married and seems to have been the first of the celibate holders of the office of Divine Adoratrice of Amun, as he stipulated along with the new tradition that she would adopt the daughter of the succeeding pharaoh as her successor at the end of his reign in order to facilitate the transition to the next pharaoh.[2] Generally, the tradition was followed and the position was filled by the daughter of the current king, who was adopted as the daughter of the incumbent Divine Adoratrice.
The new office reached the very heights of its political power during the late Third Intermediate Period of Egypt when Shepenupet I, Osorkon III's daughter, was first appointed to this post at Thebes. The Nubian king Kashta, in turn, appointed his daughter, Amenirdis, as her successor. The high status of this office is illustrated by the tomb of Amenirdis at Medinet Habu.[4]

Toward the end of the Third Intermediate Period and the start of the Late Period, during the 25th and 26th Dynasties, the office was at its height both politically and economically. As the role of the high priests of Amun changed from a mostly spiritual to a more 'earthly' role, the Divine Adoratrice became the main focus of the cult of Amun in Thebes. During the twenty-sixth dynasty, the Saite king Psamtek I forcibly reunited Egypt under his rule in March 656 BC and he compelled the God's Wife of Amun serving at the time, Shepenupet II, daughter of Piye, to adopt his daughter as her chosen successor to this position.

When the Napatan kings from Kush started to extend their power into Upper Egypt, the reigning God's Wife of Amun, Shepenupet I, was persuaded to adopt Amenirdis, the daughter of Kashta as her heir. This sequence was followed throughout the 25th Dynasty until Egypt was conquered by Psamtek I, who had his daughter, Nitocris I, adopted by Amenirdis II. The Adoption Stela of Nitocris' shows the ceremony involved by this event, and the prestige of the role:[3]

“ I have given to him my daughter to be a god's wife and have endowed her better than those who were before her. Surely he will be gratified with her worship and protect the land who gave her to him. ”

At this time, the dynastic rulers were based in the Nile Delta region, and the office of the Divine Adoratrice was a means to secure peaceful relations with the Theban area where the cult of Amun was centered. A number of the God's Wives had mortuary shrines constructed on the west bank of the river, mostly alongside the Medinet-Habu of Ramesses III.

Because of the power and prestige of the offices, the ceremony of adoption by the current incumbent of the post was used as a way for the kings of the delta area to project their power into the south of Egypt. In the same manner it was used by Napatan kings to project their power northward into Egypt proper. The power of the Divine Adoratrice of Amun was limited to the area around Thebes, which was the center of the cult.

Divine Adoratrice of Amun Name Comments Dates

Shepenupet I Daughter of Osorkon III 754 – 714 BCE
Amenirdis I Daughter of Kashta, sister of Piye 740 – 720 BCE
Shepenupet II Daughter of Piye, sister of Tahrqa 710 – 650 BCE
Amenirdis II Daughter of Tahrqa 670 – 640 BCE
Nitocris I Daughter of Psamtek I 656 – 586 BCE
Ankhnesneferibre Daughter of Psamtek II, great-niece of Ankhnesneferibre 595 – 525 BCE
Nitocris II Never ruled; office was abolished (Persian conquest) 525 BCE

Notes

Generation No. 15

18. Heremon (2nd Monarch) of Ireland (Tephi)18 Scoti; Princess of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos "Necho" II, Psamtek I, Neko I, Shepsesre Tefnakht II, Prince of Egypt, Bakenraae Nefer (Bocchoris) Wah Ka13 Re, Tefnakht (I) Shepesis Re of Egypt, Osorkon IV C of Maat, Shoshonk I"40 Aakheperre, Stepenre Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk III, Takeilot II, Osorkon II, Takeilot II, Osorkon II, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot, the Great Chief of the Maat Shosheno) He married Tamar (Tephi) of Judah, daughter of Zedekeiah (Mattaniah) (22nd & Last King) of Judah.

Notes for Heremon (2nd Monarch) of Ireland:
Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]
HEREMON was the seventh son of Milesius of Spain, but the third of the three sons who left any issue. From him were descended the Kings, Nobility, and Gentry of the Kingdoms of Connaught, Dalriada, Leinster, Meath, Orgiall, Ossory; of Scotland, since the fifth century; of Ulster, since the fourth century; and of England, from the reign of King Henry II., down to the present time.

THE Stem of the Irish Nation from Heremon down to Art Eannhearn, Monarch of Ireland in the second century. "The House of Heremon," writes O'Callaghan, "from the number of its princes, or great families - from the multitude of its distinguished characters, as laymen or churchmen - and from the extensive territories acquired by those belonging to it, at home and abroad, or in Alba as well as in Ireland - was regarded as by far the most illustrious: so much so, according to the best native authority, that it would be as reasonable to affirm that one pound is equal in value to one hundred pounds, as it would be to compare any other line with that of Heremon."

36. Milesius of Spain.

37. Heremon: his son. He and his eldest brother Heber were, jointly, the first Milesian Monarchs of Ireland; they began to reign, A.M. 3,500, or, Before Christ, 1699. After Heber was slain, B.C. 1698, Heremon reigned singly for fourteen years; during which time a certain colony called by the Irish Cruithneaigh, in English "Cruthneans" or Picts, arrived in Ireland and requested Heremon to assign them a part of the country to settle in, which he refused; but, giving them as wives the widows of the Tuatha-de-Danans, slain in battle, he sent them with a strong party of his own forces to conquer the country then called "Alba," but now Scotland; conditionally, that they and their posterity should be tributary to the Monarchs of Ireland. Heremon died, B.C. 1683, and was succeeded by three of his four sons, named Muimne, Luigne, and Laighean, who reigned jointly for three years, and were slain by their Heberian successors.

38. Irial Faidh ("faidh": Irish, a prophet): his son; was the 10th Monarch of Ireland; d. B.C. 1670. This was a very learned King; could foretell things to come; and caused much of the country to be cleared of the ancient forests. He likewise built seven royal palaces, viz., Rath Ciombaoith, Rath Coincheada, Rath Mothuig, Rath Buirioch, Rath Luachat, Rath Croicne, and Rath Boachoil. He won four remarkable battles over his enemies: - Ard Inmath, at Teabtha, where Stirne, the son of Dubh, son of Fomhar, was slain; the second battle was at Teamhuiuige, against the Fomhóraice, where Eichtghe, their leader, was slain; the third was the battle of Loch Muighe, where Lugrot, the son of Moghefheby, was slain; and the fourth was the battle of Cuill Martho, where the four sons of Heber were defeated. Irial died in the second year after this battle, having reigned 10 years, and was buried at Magh Muagh.

39. Eithrial: his son; was the 11th Monarch; reigned 20 years; and was slain by Conmaol, the son of Heber Fionn, at the battle of Soirrean, in Leinster, B.C. 1650. This also was a learned King, he wrote with his own hand the History of the Gaels (or Gadelians); in his reign seven large woods were cleared and much advance made in the practice of agriculture.

40. Foll-Aich: his son; was kept out of the Monarchy by Conmaol, the slayer of his father, who usurped his place.

41. Tigernmas: his son; was the 13th Monarch, and reigned 77 years; according to Keating, he reigned but 50 years; he fought twenty-seven battles with the followers of the family of Heber Fionn, all which he gained. In his reign gold was mined near the Liffey, and skilfully worked by Inchadhan. This King also made a law that each grade of society should be known by the number of colours in its wearing apparel: - the clothes of a slave should be of one colour; those of a soldier of two; the dress of a commanding officer to be of three colours; a gentleman's dress, who kept a table for the free entertainment of strangers, to be of four colours; five colours to be allowed to the nobility (the chiefs); and the King, Queen, and Royal Family, as well as the Druids, historians, and other learned men to wear six colours. This King died, B.C. 1543, on the Eve of 1st of November, with two of his four sons, named Muimne, Luigne, and Laighean, who reigned jointly for three years, and were slain by their Heberian successors.

42. Enboath: his son; was the 20th Monarch; in his reign the Picts again refused to pay the tribute imposed on them 250 years before, by Heremon, but this Monarch went with a strong army into Alba and in thirty pitched battles overcame them and forced them to pay the required tribute. Aongus was at length slain by Eana, in the battle
of Carman, B.C. 1409.
46. Main: his son; was kept out of the Monarchy by Eadna, of the line of Heber Fionn. In his time silver shields
were given as rewards for bravery to the Irish militia.
47. Rotheachtach: his son; was the 22nd Monarch; slain, B.C. 1357, by Sedne (or Seadhna), of the Line of Ir.
48. Dein: his son; was kept out of the Monarchy by his father's slayer, and his son. In his time gentlemen and
noblemen first wore gold chains round their necks, as a sign of their birth; and golden helmets were given to brave
soldiers,
49. Siorna "Saoghalach" (long-oevus): his son; was the 34th Monarch; he obtained the name "Saoghalach" on
account of his extraordinary long life; slain, B.C. 1030, at Aillín, by Rotheachta, of the line of Heber Fionn, who
usurped the Monarchy, thereby excluding from the throne -
50. Oilioll Aolcheoin: son of Siorna Saoghalach.
51. Gialchadh: his son; was the 37th Monarch; killed by Art Imleach, of the Line of Heber Fionn, at Moighe Muadh,
B.C. 1013.
52. Nuadhas Fionnfail: his son; was the 39th Monarch; slain by Breasrioghacta, his successor, B.C. 961.
53. Aedan Glas: his son. In his time the coast was infested with pirates; and there occurred a dreadful plague
(Aphthal) which swept away most of the inhabitants.
54. Simeon Breac: his son; was the 44th Monarch; he inhumanly caused his predecessor to be torn asunder; but,
after a reign of six years, he met with a like death, by order of Duach Fionn, son to the murdered King, B.C. 903.
55. Muredach Bolgach: his son; was the 46th Monarch; killed by Eadhna Dearg, B.C. 892; he had two sons - Duach
Teamhrach, and Fiacha.
56. Fiacha Tolgrach: son of Muredach; was the 55th Monarch. His brother Duach had two sons, Eochaidh
Framhuine and Conang Beaeg-eaglach, who were the 51st and 53rd Monarchs of Ireland. Fiacha's life was ended by
the sword of Oilioll Fionn, of the Line of Heber Fionn, B.C. 795.
57. Duach Ladhrach: his son; was the 59th Monarch; killed by Lughaidh Laighe, son of Oilioll Fionn, B.C. 737.
58. Eochaidh Buadhach: his son; was kept out of the Monarchy by his father's slayer. In his time the kingdom was
twice visited with a plague.
59. Ugaine Mór: his son. This Ugaine (or Hugony) the Great was the 66th Monarch of Ireland. Was called Mór on
account of his extensive dominions, - being sovereign of all the Islands of Western Europe. Was married to Cásair,
dau. to the King of France, and by her had issue - twenty-two sons and three daughters. In order to prevent these
children encroaching on each other he divided the Kingdom into twenty-five portions, allotting to each his (or her)
distinct inheritance. By means of this division the taxes of the country were collected during the succeeding 300
years. All the sons died without issue except two, viz: - Laeghair Lorc, ancestor of all the Leinster Heremonians;
and Cobthac Caolbreagh, from whom the Heremonians of Leath Cuinn, viz., Meath, Ulster, and Conacht derive
their pedigree. Ugaine Mór: In the early ages the Irish Kings made many military expeditions into foreign countries.
Ugaine Mór, called by O'Flaherty, in his Ogygia, "Hugonius Magnus," was contemporary with Alexander the Great;
and is stated to have sailed with a fleet into the Mediterranean, landed his forces in Africa, and also attacked Sicily;
and having proceeded to Gaul, was married to Cásair, daughter of the King of the Gauls. Hugonius was buried at
Cruachan. The Irish sent, during the Punic wars, auxiliary troops to their Celtic Brethren, the Gauls; who in their
alliance with the Carthaginians under Hannibal, fought against the Roman armies in Spain and Italy. Ugaine was at
length, B.C. 593, slain by Badhbhchadh, who failed to secure the fruits of his murder - the Irish Throne, as he was
executed by order of Laeghaire Lorc, the murdered Monarch's son, who became the 68th Monarch.
60. Colethach Caol-bheag: son of Ugaine Mór; was the 69th Monarch; it is said, that, to secure the Throne, he
assassinated his brother Laeghaire; after a long reign he was at length slain by Maion, his nephew, B.C. 541.
61. Melg Molbhthach: his son; was the 71st Monarch; was slain by Modhchorb, son of Cobthach Caomh, of the
Line of Heber Fionn, B.C. 541.
62. Iaran Gleofathach: his son; was the 74th Monarch; was a King of great justice and wisdom very well learned
and possessed of many accomplishments; slain by Fear-Chorb, son of Modh-Chorb, B.C. 473.
63. Conla Caomh: his son; was the 74th Monarch of Ireland; died a natural death, B.C. 442.
64. Oilioll Cas-fiachlach: his son; was the 77th Monarch; slain by his successor, Adhamhar Folchtaion, B.C. 417.
65. Eochaidh Alt-Leathan: his son; was the 79th Monarch; slain by Feargus Fortamhail, his successor, B.C. 395.
66. Aongus (or Æneas) Tuireach-Teamrach: his son; was the 81st Monarch; his son, Fiacha Firmara (so called
from being exposed in a small boat on the sea) was ancestor of the Kings of Dalriada and Argyle in Scotland. This
Aongus was slain at Tara (Teamhrach), B.C. 324.
67. Enna Aigneach: the legitimate son of Aongus; was the 84th Monarch; was of a very bountiful disposition, and
exceedingly munificent in his donations. This King lost his life by the hands of Críomthán Cosgrach, B.C. 292.
68. Assaman Eamhna: his son; was excluded from the Throne by his father's murderer.
69. Roighen Ruadh: his son; in his time most of the cattle in Ireland died of murrain.

70. Fionnlogh: his son.

71. Fionn: his son; m. Benia, dau. of Criomthan; had two sons.

72. Eochaidh Feidhlioch: his son; was the 93rd Monarch; m Clothfiannon, dau. of Eochaidh Uchtenleathan, who was a very virtuous lady. By him she had three children at a birth - Breas, Nar, and Lothar (the Feanamhas), who were slain at the battle of Dromchriadiad; after their death, a melancholy settled on the Monarch, hence his name "Feidhlioch." This Monarch caused the division of the Kingdom by Ugaine Mór into twenty-five parts, to cease; and ordered that the ancient Firvolgian division into Provinces should be resumed, viz., Two Munsters, Leinster, Conacht, and Ulster. He also divided the government of these Provinces amongst his favourite courtiers: - Conacht he divided into three parts between Fiodhach, Eochaidh Allat, and Tinne, son of Conragh, son of Ruadhri Mór, No 62 on the "Line of Ir;" Ulster (Uladh) he gave to Feargus, the son of Leighe; Leinster he gave to Ros, the son of Feargus Faire; and the two Munsters he gave to Tighernach Teadhbheamach and Deagbadh. After this division of the Kingdom, Eochaidh proceeded to erect a Royal Palace in Conacht; this he built on Tinne's government in a place called Druin-na-n Druagh, now Craughan (from Craughan Crodhearg, Maedhbh's mother, to whom she gave the palace), but previously, Rath Eochaidh. About the same time he bestowed his daughter the Princess Maedhbh on Tinne, whom he constituted King of Conacht; Maedhbh being hereditary Queen of that Province. After many years reign Tinne was slain by Maceacht (or Monaire) at Tara. After ten years' undivided reign, Queen Maedhbh married Oilioll Mór, son of Ros Ruadh, of Leinster, to whom she bore the seven Maine; Oilioll Mór was at length slain by Conall Cearnach, who was soon after killed by the people of Conacht. Maedhbh was at length slain by Ferbhuidhe, the son of Conor MacNeasa (Neasa was his mother); but in reality this Conor was the son of Fachtna Fathach, son of Cas, son of Ruadhri Mór, of the Line of Ir. This Monarch, Eochaidh, died at Tara, B.C. 130.

73. Bress-Nar-Lothar: his son. In his time the Irish first dug graves beneath the surface to bury their dead; previously they laid the body on the surface and heaped stones over it. He had also been named Fineamhinas.

74. Lughaidh Sriaibh-n Dearg: his son; was the 98th Monarch; he entered into an alliance with the King of Denmark, whose daughter, Dearborguill, he obtained as his wife; he killed himself by falling on his sword in the eighth year before CHRIST.

75. Crimthann-Niadh-Nar: his son; who was the 100th Monarch of Ireland, and styled "The Heroic." It was in this Monarch's reign that our Lord and Saviour JESUS CHRIST was born. Crimthann's death was occasioned by a fall from his horse, B.C. 9. Was married to Nar-Tath-Chaoch, dau. of Laoch, son of Daire, who lived in the land of the Picts (Scotland). Crimthann Niadh Nar: This Monarch and Conaire Mór (or Conary the Great), the 97th Monarch of Ireland, respectively made expeditions to Britain and Gaul; and assisted the Picts and Britains in their wars with the Romans. Crimthann was married to Buiné, daughter of the King of Alba, and the mother of Feredach Fionn Feachtachnach, (the next name on this Stem). O'Flaherty in the Ogygia, p. 181, says, "Naira, the daughter of Loich, the son of Dareetus of the northern Picts (Scotland), married this Monarch and Conaire Mór: his son; was the 93rd Monarch; m Clothfiannon, dau. of Eochaidh Uchtenleathan, who was a very virtuous lady. By him she had three children at a birth - Breas, Nar, and Lothar (the Feanamhas), who were slain at the battle of Dromchriadiad; after their death, a melancholy settled on the Monarch, hence his name "Feidhlioch." This Monarch caused the division of the Kingdom by Ugaine Mór into twenty-five parts, to cease; and ordered that the ancient Firvolgian division into Provinces should be resumed, viz., Two Munsters, Leinster, Conacht, and Ulster. He also divided the government of these Provinces amongst his favourite courtiers: - Conacht he divided into three parts between Fiodhach, Eochaidh Allat, and Tinne, son of Conragh, son of Ruadhri Mór, No 62 on the "Line of Ir;" Ulster (Uladh) he gave to Feargus, the son of Leighe; Leinster he gave to Ros, the son of Feargus Faire; and the two Munsters he gave to Tighernach Teadhbheamach and Deagbadh. After this division of the Kingdom, Eochaidh proceeded to erect a Royal Palace in Conacht; this he built on Tinne's government in a place called Druin-na-n Druagh, now Craughan (from Craughan Crodhearg, Maedhbh's mother, to whom she gave the palace), but previously, Rath Eochaidh. About the same time he bestowed his daughter the Princess Maedhbh on Tinne, whom he constituted King of Conacht; Maedhbh being hereditary Queen of that Province. After many years reign Tinne was slain by Maceacht (or Monaire) at Tara. After ten years' undivided reign, Queen Maedhbh married Oilioll Mór, son of Ros Ruadh, of Leinster, to whom she bore the seven Maine; Oilioll Mór was at length slain by Conall Cearnach, who was soon after killed by the people of Conacht. Maedhbh was at length slain by Ferbhuidhe, the son of Conor MacNeasa (Neasa was his mother); but in reality this Conor was the son of Fachtna Fathach, son of Cas, son of Ruadhri Mór, of the Line of Ir. This Monarch, Eochaidh, died at Tara, B.C. 130.

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76. Feredach Fionn-Feachtachnach: his son; was the 102nd Monarch. The epithet "feachtachnach" was applied to this Monarch because of his truth and sincerity. In his reign lived Moran, the son of Maom, a celebrated Brehon, or Chief Justice of the Kingdom; it is said that he was the first who wore the wonderful collar called Iodhain Morain; this collar possessed a wonderful property: - if the judge who wore it attempted to pass a false judgment it would immediately contract, so as nearly to stop his breathing; but if he reversed such false sentence the collar would at once enlarge itself, and hang loose around his neck. This collar was also caused to be worn by those who acted as witnesses, so as to test the accuracy of their evidence. This Monarch, Feredach, died a natural death at the regal city at Tara, A.D. 36.
77. Fiacha Fionn Ola: his son; was the 104th Monarch; reigned 17 years, and was (A.D. 56) slain by Eiliomh MacConrach, of the Race of Ir, who succeeded him on the throne. This Fiacha was married to Eithne, daughter of the King of Alba; whither, being near her confinement at the death of her husband, she went, and was there delivered of a son, who was named Tuathal.

78. Tuathal Teachtmár: that son; was the 106th Monarch of Ireland. When Tuathal came of age, he got together his friends, and, with what aid his grandfather the king of Alba gave him, came into Ireland and fought and overcame his enemies in twenty-five battles in Ulster, twenty-five in Leinster, as many in Connaught, and thirty-five in Munster. And having thus restored the true royal blood and heirs to their respective provincial kingdoms, he thought fit to take, as he accordingly did with their consent, from each of the four divisions or provinces Munster, Leinster, Connaught, and Ulster, a considerable tract of ground which was the next adjoining to Uisneach (where Tuathal had a palace): one east, another west, a third south, and a fourth on the north of it; and appointed all four (tracts of ground so taken from the four provinces) under the name of Midhe or "Meath" to belong for ever after to the Monarch's own peculiar demesne for the maintenance of his hall; on each of which several portions he built a royal palace for himself and his heirs and successors; for every of which portions the Monarch ordained a certain chiefry or tribute to be yearly paid to the provincial Kings from whose provinces the said portions were taken, which may be seen at large in the Chronicles. It was this Monarch that imposed the great and insupportable fine (or "Erie") of 6,000 cows or beees, as many fat muttons, (as many) hogs, 6,000 mantles, 6,000 ounces (or "Uinge") of silver, and 12,000 (others have it 6,000) cauldrons or pots of brass, to be paid every second year by the province of Leinster to the Monarchs of Ireland for ever, for the death of his only two daughters Fithir and Darina. (See Paper "Ancient Leinster Tributes," in the Appendix). This tribute was punctually taken and exacted, sometimes by fire and sword, during the reigns of forty Monarchs of Ireland upwards of six hundred years, until at last remitted by Finachta Fleadhach, the 153rd Monarch of Ireland, and the 26th Christian Monarch, at the request and earnest solicitation of St. Moling. At the end of thirty years' reign, the Monarch Tuathal was slain by his successor Mal, A.D. 106. This Monarch erected Royal Palace at Tailleean; around the grave of Queen Tailte he caused the Fairs to be resumed on La Lughnasa (Lewy's Day), to which were brought all of the youth of both sexes of a suitable age to be married, at which fair the marriage articles were agreed upon, and the ceremony performed. Tuathal married Baine, the dau. of Sgaile Balbh, King of England. It is worthy of remark that Tacitus, in his "Life of Agricola," states that one of the Irish princes, who was an exile from his own country, waited on Agricola, who was then the Roman general in Britain, to solicit his support in the recovery of the kingdom of Ireland; for that, with one of the Roman legions and a few auxiliaries, Ireland could be subdued. This Irish prince was probably Tuathal Teachtmar, who was about that time in Alba or (Caledonia). Tuathal afterwards became Monarch of Ireland, and the Four Masters place the first year of his reign at A.D. 76; and as Agricola with the Roman legions carried on the war against the Caledonians about A.D. 75 to 78, the period coincides chronologically with the time Tuathal Teachtmar was in exile in North Britain; and he might naturally be expected to apply to the Romans for aid to recover his sovereignty as heir to the Irish Monarchy.

79. Fedhlimidh (Felim) Rachtmar: his son; was so called as being a maker of excellent wholesome laws, among which he established with all firmness that of "Retaliation;" kept to it inviolably; and by that means preserved the people in peace, quiet, plenty, and security during his time. This Felim was the 108th Monarch; reigned nine years; and, after all his pomp and greatness, died of thirst, A.D. 119. He married Ughna, dau. of the King of Denmark.

80. Conn Ceacachtaích (or Conn of the Hundred Battles); his son; This Conn was so called from hundreds of battles by him fought and won: viz., sixty battles against Cahir Mór, King of Leinster and the 109th Monarch of Ireland, whom he slew and succeeded in the Monarchy; one hundred battles against the Ulsterians; and one hundred more in Munster against Owen Mór (or Mogha Nua-Dhad), their King, who, notwithstanding, forced the said Conn to an equal division of the Kingdom with him. He had two brothers - 1. Eochaídh Fionn-Fohart, 2. Fiacha Suidhe, who, to make way for themselves, murdered two of their brother's sons named Conla Ruadh and Crionna; but they were by the third son Art Eanfhear banished, first into Leinster, and then into Munster, where they lived near Cashel. They were seated at Deici Teamhrach (now the barony of Desee in Meath), whence they were expelled by the Monarch Cormac Ulfhada, son of Art; and, after various wanderings, they went to Munster where Oilioll Olum, who was married to Sadbh, daughter of Conn of the Hundred Battles, gave them a large district of the present county of Waterford, a part of which is still called Na-Deiseacha, or the baronies of Desies. They were also given the country comprised in the present baronies of Clonmel, Upper-Third, and Middle-Third, in the co. Tipperary, which they held till the Anglo-Norman Invasion. From Eochaídh Fionn-Fohart decended O'Nowlan or Nolan of Powerty (or Foharta), in Lease (or Leix), and Saint Bridget; and from Fiacha Suidhe are O'Dolan, O'Brick of Dunbrick, and O'Faelan of Dun Faelan, near Cashel. Conn of the Hundred Battles had also three daughters: 1. Sadbh (or Sabina), who m. first, MacNiadh, after whose death she m. Oilioll Olum, King of Munster. 2. Maoin; and 3. Sarah (or Sarad), m. to Conan MacMogha Laine.
Conn reigned 35 years; but was at length barbarously slain by Tiobraidhe Tireach, son of Mal, son of Rochruidhe, King of Ulster. This murder was committed in Tara, A.D. 157, when Conn chanced to be alone and unattended by his guards; the assassins were fifty ruffians, disguised as women, whom the King of Ulster employed for the purpose.

81. Art Eanfhear, the 112th Monarch of Ireland, in the second century of our era.

Notes for TAMAR (TEPHI) OF JUDAH:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Ancient Irish histories indicate there were two prominent eastern ladies, both of whom appear to have been daughters of Zedekiah who were later connected with the people of Ireland: SCOTA and TAMAR TEPHI.

1) SCOTA was apparently the older of the two celebrated women, and some biblical scholars believe Scota was one of Zedekiah’s daughters. Scotch-Irish records explain that this eastern lady, Scota, had previously married Niul—one of Pharaoh Hophra’s mercenary soldiers—while she was living as a royal refugee (a “daughter”) under the protective administration of the Pharaoh Hophra, who had a royal “house” or palace at Taapanhes, Egypt (see Jer. 33:9; 44:30). It was this Scota whose name the people of Ireland later adopted—as Ireland was subsequently called “Scotia” until the 10th century AD (Moore’s History of Ireland, vol. 1). Later that name, Scota, was applied to North Britain (i.e. Scotland) and still later Scota was applied to a province in Southeastern Canada called NOVA SCOTIA.

Notice the following account of what happened to “JACOB’S PILLOW STONE” in connection with King Zedekiah’s daughters: TEA TEPHI and SCOTA—“It [this “Pillow Stone” or “Stone of Destiny”] was saved from destruction with the Temple, was cherished as a palladium by the Jews; and, after the death of Zedekiah, was carried by a migrating colony, with ‘SCOTA the King’s daughter’ under the leadership of the Prophet Jeremiah.... It was taken to ‘The Isles of the Sea,’ and preserved as a Stone of Destiny, by the ‘People of Scota’.... Finally, it was ‘stolen’ by Edward, King of England, and placed in the Coronation Chair at Westminster Abbey where it still is” (THE STONE OF DESTINY, by F. Wallace Connon, p. 15).

Note In December 1996, this Stone of Destiny was returned to the Scots. This “chunk of sandstone [called the “Stone of Scone”]” was returned to Edinburgh, Scotland from London, England—amidst the playing of bagpipes, and the jubilation of the Scots”: “Friday [Nov. 15, 1996—700 years after 1296] the pale yellow stone—on which every great king of Scotland was crowned until 1296—was returned home to the skirt of pipes, toasts of whiskey and a school holiday.... The STONE came home because the British government of Prime Minister John Major decided it should, and it will go to Edinburgh Castle for display...” (The Los Angeles Times, Nov. 16, 1996).

2) TAMAR TEPHI was apparently the second of King Zedekiah’s “daughters.”

Tamar means Palm. When Tamar is combined with Tephi (Heb. “beautiful”) it means palm beautiful—that is, “Beautiful Palm.” In Irish history, Tamar Tephi was also known by the name Tea Tephi. When “Tea” (Heb. wanderer) is combined with “Tephi” (Heb. “beautiful”), we get Tea Tephi (Beautiful Wanderer). We shall soon see why this beautiful princess was called a “Beautiful Wanderer.”

At the fall of Jerusalem in about 586 BC, these two princesses were quite young, as proven by the fact that their father, King Zedekiah, who was only 32 years old when he was taken to Babylon at the time when Jerusalem was captured by the Babylonians: “Zedekiah was twenty-one years old when he became king, and he reigned eleven years [until taken to Babylon in 586 BC]” (2 Chr. 36:22).

Since the two royal Jewish princesses, Tamar and Scota, spent several years in Taapanhes (Daphne), Egypt—during the reign of Pharaoh Hophra—they, in a sense, became Pharaoh’s “adoptive daughters” by being under his protective custody. Irish annals reveal that, while yet in Egypt, Princess Scota married a man named Niul, a Milesian mercenary (i.e. a Gael of Israelite ancestry) in the employ of Pharaoh Hophra. Later, after going to Ireland, Princess Tea Tephi married an Irish prince of the Zerah branch of Judah bearing the princely title of Eochaidh (“Erimionn,”
or “Heremon”).

After Jerusalem’s fall, the leaders of a Jewish remnant stubbornly insisted on going to Egypt—regardless of God’s instruction to the contrary. The LORD then told them that if they disobeyed, most of them would be “consumed by the sword and by famine.... Yet a small number who escaped the sword would return from the land of Egypt to the land of Judah...” (Jer. 44:27-28).

God also told Jeremiah and the Jews, “Behold, I will give PHARAOH HOPHRA king of Egypt into the hand of his enemies...as I gave Zedekiah king of Judah into the hand of Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon, his enemy who sought his life” (v. 30). Ancient Irish history mentions that—not long after the fall of Jerusalem in 586 BC—a gray-haired sage (or prophet) came to Ireland, bringing an Eastern Princess (Tea-Tephi). He was accompanied by his scribe, “Simon Brach” (sometimes spelled Breck or Berech), whom the Bible reveals to be Jeremiah’s secretary, BARUCH (Jer. 31:32). “The word that Jeremiah the prophet spoke to Baruch...when he had written these words in a book at the instruction of Jeremiah.... Thus says the LORD...to you, O Baruch.... ‘Behold, I have built, I will break down, and what I have planted I will pluck up, that is, this whole land.... And do you seek great things for yourself? Do not seek them; for behold, I will bring adversity on all flesh.... But I will give your life to you as a prize, wherever you go’” (45:1-5).

But Jeremiah and his secretary, Baruch, were to be under God’s protection “in all places” wherever they went (Jer. 1:5). But where were Jeremiah and Baruch to go? Remember, Jeremiah had been commissioned “to root out and to pull down, to destroy and to throw down” the Kingdom of Judah, and the “THRONE of DAVID.” He was also told that, afterward, he was to “BUILD and to PLANT” in another place (v. 10).

What was Jeremiah to build and plant? Obviously, the same Throne, which he had helped to pull down in Judah! Another scripture which is sometimes used to show that a daughter of Zedekiah would continue to rule on David’s Throne is found in Isaiah 37:31-32: “And the remnant who have escaped of the house of Judah shall again take root downward, and bear fruit upwards. For out of Jerusalem shall go forth a remnant, and those who escape from Mount Zion. The zeal of the LORD of hosts will do this.”

The Bible reveals that after the Babylonians destroyed Jerusalem in 586 BC, a “remnant”—including the “king’s daughters,” Jeremiah, his scribe, Baruch (Jer. 43:6-7), did escape Babylonian captivity and fled to Taiphanes, Egypt for refuge. It was out of this “remnant” from Mount Zion (the ROYAL RESIDENCE of the kings of JUDAH) that King Zedekiah’s daughters came. And according to Jeremiah’s divine commission (Jer. 1:9-10), one of those “daughters” was to be “planted” and “built” into a viable dynasty in the “height of Israel”—among the Israelite peoples of the “Lost Ten Tribes” of Israel, many of whom then lived in Ireland and other N.W European countries (Ezek. 17:2-24).

TAMAR TEPHI bint ZEDEKIAH (Jechoniah)

BIRTH: Abt 600 B.C. in Jerusalem, Judah (South Kingdom)
DEATH: 1 Aug 534 B.C. in Odhba, Meath, Leinster, Ireland
BURIAL: 'Great Mergech' 'Hill of Tara', Meath, Leinster, Ireland
FATHER: ZEDEKIAH (Jechoniah) ap Maataniah ap Josiah
MOTHER:
MARRIAGE: 580 B.C. - Eochaidh ben MILESIUS (King of Ireland) - Braganza (Iberia) Spain
CHILDREN:
1. Faidh Irial ben EOCHAIDH
   BIRTH: in Connaught, Ireland
   DEATH: Magh Muaagh (now Knockmoy) Galway, Connaught, Ireland
2. Aengus ben EOCHAIDH
   BRITH: in Connaught, Ireland
TAMAR TEPHI’S JOURNEY

Nebuchadnezzar, King of Babylon conquered Israel and then a few years later, about 587 B.C. he conquered Judah. Zedekiah was King of Judah at the time. Nebuchadnezzar's army destroyed and burned Jerusalem and took most of the people captive. He left only a few to work the land. He killed Zedekiah's sons in front of him and then put out his eyes and carried him off to Babylon where he later died.

The Prophet Jeremiah took Zedekiah's daughters, who were his granddaughters, and after much struggle ended up in Egypt. They took the 'Stone of Scone' which was Jacob's pillow when he had his dreams. They along with Jeremiah's scribe, Baruch, set sail for Spain where one of the daughters married into Spanish Royalty. They went on from there and landed at Howth and travelled to Tara. There Tamar was married to Eochaidh - the King of Ireland.

Eochaidh was descended from Zereh 'of the Red Hand', whose father was Judah. Tamar Tephi was from David's line thru Perez, the twin brother of Zerah, whose father was Judah. Their marriage brought the 'Red-Hand' and the 'Star of David' under a single Royal Crown uniting the two royal lines from Judah.

The 'Stone of Scone' resides with royalty and was used for Royal Coronations from then to now.

Tamar and Eochaidh had four children.

Child of HEREMON IRELAND and TAMAR JUDAH is:

20. IRIAL (IAREL EURIALUS) FAIDH (FAITH) MACEREMOIN.


Notes for HAIBRE WAHIBRE, KING OF EGYPT:

Apries (Ancient Greek: Ἀπρεία) is the name by which Herodotus (ii. 161) and Diodorus (ii. 68) designate Wahibre Haaibre, Ἀπρεία (Pharaoh-Hophra), a pharaoh of Egypt (589 BC – 570 BC), the fourth king (counting from Psamtik I) of the Twenty-sixth dynasty of Egypt. He was equated with the Waphres of Manetho, who correctly records that he reigned for 19 years. Apries is also called Hophra in Jeremiah 44:30.

Apries inherited the throne from his father, pharaoh Psamtik II, in February 589 BC and his reign continued his father's history of foreign intrigue in Palestinian affairs.[3] Apries was an active builder who constructed "additions to the temples at Athribis (Tell Atrib), Bahariya Oasis, Memphis and Sais."[4] In Year 4 of his reign, Apries’ sister Ankhnesneferibre was adopted as the new God’s Wife of Amun at Thebes.[5] However, Apries’ reign was also fraught with internal problems. In 588 BC, Apries dispatched a force to Jerusalem to protect it from Babylonian forces sent by Nebuchadnezzar II. His forces were quickly crushed and Jerusalem was destroyed by the Babylonians. His unsuccessful attempt to intervene in the politics of the Kingdom of Judah was followed by a mutiny of soldiers from the strategically important Aswan garrison.[6]

While the mutiny was contained, Apries later attempted to protect Libya from incursions by Dorian Greek invaders but his efforts here backfired spectacularly as his forces were mauled by the Greek invaders.[6] When the defeated army returned home, a civil war broke out between the indigenous Egyptian army troops and foreign mercenaries in the Egyptian army. At this time of crisis, the Egyptians turned in support towards a victorious general, Amasis II who had led Egyptian forces in a highly successful invasion of Nubia in 592 BC under pharaoh Psamtik II, Apries’ father.[6] Amasis quickly declared himself pharaoh in 570 BC and Apries fled Egypt and sought refuge in another foreign country. When Apries marched back to Egypt in 567 BC with the aid of a Babylonian army to reclaim the throne of Egypt, he was likely killed in battle with Amasis’ forces.[7][8] Amasis thus secured his kingship over
Egypt and was now the unchallenged ruler of Egypt.

Amasis, however, reportedly treated Apries' mortal remains with respect and observed the proper funerary rituals by having Apries' body carried to Sais and buried there with "full military honours."[5] Amasis, the former general who had declared himself pharaoh also married Apries' daughter Chedebnitjerbone II to legitimise his accession to power. While Herodotus claimed that the wife of Apries was called Nitetis in (Greek), "there are no contemporary references naming her" in Egyptian records.[9]

Apries' obelisk in Rome is known as the 'Pulcino della Minerva'Eusebius placed the eclipse of Thales in 585 BC in the eighth or twelfth year of Apries' reign.

Monuments
An obelisk which Apries erected at Sais was moved by the 3rd century AD Roman Emperor Diocletian and originally placed at the Temple of Isis in Rome. It is today located in front of the Santa Maria sopra Minerva basilica church in Rome.

References
This article incorporates text from a publication now in the public domain: Chisholm, Hugh, ed (1911). Encyclopædia Britannica (11th ed.). Cambridge University Press.

2. ^ Clayton, p.195
3. ^ Peter Clayton, Chronicle of the Pharaohs, Thames and Hudson, 1994 hardback, p.196
5. ^ a b Shaw & Nicholson, p.37
6. ^ a b c Clayton, p.197
7. ^ Wahibre

Child of HAIBRE WAHIBRE, KING OF EGYPT is:
21. i. PRINCESS OF EGYPT20 NEITHYTI.

Generation No. 16


Notes for IRIAL (IAREL EURIALUS) FAIDH (FAITH) MACEREMOIN:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Irial Faidh (“faidh”: Irish, a prophet): his son; was the 10th Monarch of Ireland; d. B.C. 1670. This was a very learned King; could foretell things to come; and caused much of the country to be cleared of the ancient forests. He likewise built seven royal palaces, viz., Rath Ciombaoith, Rath Coincheada, Rath Mothuig, Rath Buirioch, Rath Luachat, Rath Croicne, and Rath Bacochill. He won four remarkable battles over his enemies: - Ard Inmath, at Teabtha, where Stirne, the son of Dubh, son of Fomhar, was slain; the second battle was at Teannmhuighe, against the Fomhoroische, where Eichtghe, their leader, was slain; the third was the battle of Loch Muighe, where Lugrot, the
Hoffmann has suggested a translation based on the Sun” by noting its relation to the Persian noun for sun, khor, while using Plutarch noted that The name Cyrus is a Latinized form derived from an Greek form of the Old Persian Kuruš. [15] The name and its own, in a reciprocal cultural exchange. The Lebôdà Érenn places his death during the reign of Tautanes in Assyria (1191-1182 BC according to Jerome’s Chronicon) [2] Geoffrey Keating dates his reign from 1269 to 1259 BC,[3] the Annals of the Four Masters from 1681-1671 BC.[4]

Child of IRIAL (IAREL EURIALUS) FAIDH (FAITH) MACEREMOIN is:

22.  i.  EITHRIAL [21].


Notes for CYRIUSII, KING OF PERSIA:

Cyrus II of Persia (Old Persian: Kuruš (c. 600 BC or 576 BC–530 BC[2]), commonly known as Cyrus the Great[3], also known as Cyrus the Elder, was the founder of the Achaemenid Empire. [4] Under his rule, the empire embraced all the previous civilized states of the ancient Near East, [4] expanded vastly and eventually conquered most of Southwest Asia and much of Central Asia, parts of Europe and Caucasus. From the Mediterranean sea and Hellespont in the west to the Indus River in the east, Cyrus the Great created the largest empire the world had yet seen. [5]

The reign of Cyrus the Great lasted between 29 and 31 years. Cyrus built his empire by conquering first the Median Empire, then the Lydian Empire and eventually the Neo-Babylonian Empire. Either before or after Babylon, he led an expedition into central Asia, which resulted in major campaigns that brought “into subjection every nation without exception.” [6] Cyrus did not venture into Egypt, as he himself died in battle, fighting the Massagetae along the Syr Darya in December 530 BC. [7][8] He was succeeded by his son, Cambyses II, who managed to add to the empire by conquering Egypt, Nubia, and Cyrenaica during his short rule.

Cyrus the Great respected the customs and religions of the lands he conquered. [9] It is said that in universal history, the role of the Achaemenid empire founded by Cyrus lies in its very successful model for centralized administration and establishing a government working to the advantage and profit of its subjects. [4] In fact, the administration of the empire through satraps and the vital principle of forming a government at Pasargadai, were the works of Cyrus. [10] Aside from his own nation, Persia (modern Iran), Cyrus the Great also left a lasting legacy on the Jewish religion through his Edict of Restoration, where because of his policies in Babylonia, he is referred to by the people of the Jewish faith, as “the anointed of the Lord” or a “Messiah.” [11][12]

Cyrus the Great is also well recognized for his achievements in human rights, politics, and military strategy, as well as his influence on both Eastern and Western civilizations. To date, Cyrus the Great and his historical signature define the national identity for many Iranians. [13] Cyrus and, indeed, the Achaemenid influence in the ancient world also extended as far as Athens, where many Athenians adopted aspects of the Achaemenid Persian culture as their own, in a reciprocal cultural exchange. [14]

The name Cyrus is a Latinized form derived from an Greek form of the Old Persian Kuruš. [15] The name and its meaning has been recorded in ancient inscriptions in different languages. The ancient Greek historians Ctesias and Plutarch noted that Cyrus was named from Kuros, the Sun, a concept which has been interpreted as meaning “like the Sun” by noting its relation to the Persian noun for sun, khor, while using -vash as a suffix of likeness. [16] Karl Hoffmann has suggested a translation based on the meaning of an Indo-European-root “to humiliate” and
accordingly "Cyrus" means "humiliator of the enemy in verbal contest."[15] In the Persian language and specially in Iran, Cyrus' name is spelled as "????? ?????" or "Kurošé Bozorg" which translates to Cyrus the Great. In the Bible, he is known as Koresh (Hebrew: ????).[17]

Dynastic history
See also: Achaemenes, Achaemenid family tree, and Teispids

The four winged guardian figure representing Cyrus the Great, a bas-relief found at Pasargadae on top of which was once inscribed in three languages the sentence "I am Cyrus the king, an Achaemenian."[18] The Persian domination and kingdom in the Iranian plateau started by an extension of the Achaemenid dynasty, who expanded their earlier domination possibly from the 9th century BC onward. The eponymous founder of this dynasty was Achaemenes (from Old Persian Haxamaniš). Achaemenids are "descendants of Achaemenes" as Darius the Great, the ninth king of the dynasty, traces his genealogy to him and declares "for this reason we are called Achaemenids". Achaemenes built the state Parsumash in the southwest of Iran and was succeeded by Teispes, who took the title "King of Anshan" after seizing Anshan city and enlarging his kingdom further to include Pars proper.[4] Ancient documents[19] mention that Teispes had a son called Cyrus I, who also succeeded his father as "king of Anshan". Cyrus I had a full brother whose name is recorded as Ariaramnes.[4]

In 600 BC, Cyrus I was succeeded by his son Cambyses I who reigned until 559 BC. Cyrus the Great was a son of Cambyses I, who named his son after his father, Cyrus I.[20] There are several inscriptions of Cyrus the Great and later kings that refer to Cambyses I as the "great king" and "king of Anshan". Among these are some passages in the Cyrus cylinder where Cyrus calls himself "son of Cambyses, great king, king of Anshan". Another inscription (from CM's) mentions Cambyses I as "mighty king" and "an Achaemenian", which according to bulk[21] of scholarly opinion was engraved under Darius and considered as a later forgery by Darius.[22] However Cambyses II's maternal grandfather Pharnaspes is named by Herodotus as "an Achaemenian" too.[23] Xenophon's account in Cyropædia further names Cambyses's wife as Mandane and mentions Cambyses as king of Persia. These agree with Cyrus's own inscriptions, as Anshan and Parsa were different names of the same land. These also agree with other non-Iranian accounts, except at one point from Herodotus stating that Cambyses was not a king but a "Persian of good family".[24] However, in some other passages, Herodotus's account is wrong also on the name of the son of Chispish, which he mentions as Cambyses but, according to modern scholars, should be Cyrus I.[25]

The traditional view based on archaeological research and the genealogy given in the Behistun Inscription and by Herodotus[4] holds that Cyrus the Great was an Achaemenian. However it has been suggested by M. Waters that Cyrus is unrelated to Achaemenes or Darius the Great and that his family was of Teispid and Anshanite origin instead of Achaemenid.[26]

Early life
The best-known date for the birth of Cyrus the Great is either 600-599 BC or 576-575 BC.[27] Little is known of his early years, as there are only a few sources known to detail that part of his life, and they have been damaged or lost.

Herodotus's story of Cyrus's early life belongs to a genre of legends in which abandoned children of noble birth, such as Oedipus and Romulus and Remus, return to claim their royal positions. Similar to other culture's heroes and founders of great empires, folk traditions abound regarding his family background. According to Herodotus, he was the grandson of the Median king Astyages and was brought up by humble herding folk. In another version, he was presented as the son of a poor family that worked in the Median court. These folk stories are, however, contradicted by Cyrus's own testimony, according to which he was preceded as king of Persia by his father, grandfather and great-grandfather.[28]

After the birth of Cyrus the Great, Astyages had a dream that his Magi interpreted as a sign that his grandson would eventually overthrow him. He then ordered his steward Harpagus to kill the infant. Harpagus, morally unable to kill a newborn, summoned the Mardian Mitradates (which the historian Nicolaus of Damascus calls Atradates), a royal bandit herdsman from the mountainous region bordering the Saspires,[29] and ordered him to leave the baby to die in the mountains. Luckily, the herdsman and his wife (whom Herodotus calls Cyno in Greek, and Spaca-o in Median) took pity and raised the child as their own, passing off their recently stillborn infant as the murdered Cyrus.[30][31] For the origin of Cyrus the Great's mother, Herodotus identifies Mandane of Media, and Ctesias insists that she is fully Persian but gives no name, while Nicolaus gives the name "Argoste" as Atradates's wife;
whether this figure represents Cyno or Cambyses's unnamed Persian queen has yet to be determined. It is also noted that Strabo has said that Cyrus was originally named Agradates by his stepparents; therefore, it is probable that, when reuniting with his original family, following the naming customs, Cyrus's father, Cambyses I, names him Cyrus after his grandfather, who was Cyrus I.

Herodotus claims that when Cyrus the Great was ten years old, it was obvious that Cyrus was not a herdsman's son, stating that his behavior was too noble. Astyages interviewed the boy and noticed that they resembled each other. Astyages ordered Harpagus to explain what he had done with the baby, and, after Harpagus confessed that he had not killed the boy, Astyages tricked him into eating his own broiled and chopped up son.[32] Astyages was more lenient with Cyrus and allowed him to return to his biological parents, Cambyses and Mandane.[33] While Herodotus's description may be a legend, it does give insight into the figures surrounding Cyrus the Great's early life.

Cyrus the Great had a wife named Cassandane. She was an Achaemenian and daughter of Pharnaspes. From this marriage, Cyrus had four children: Cambyses II, Bardiyas (Smerdis), Atossa, and another daughter whose name is not attested in the ancient sources. Also, Cyrus had a fifth child named Artystone, the sister or half-sister of Atossa, who may not have been the daughter of Cassandane. Cyrus the Great had a specially dear love for Cassandane. Cassandane also loved Cyrus to the point that on her death bed she is noted as having found it more bitter to leave Cyrus, than to depart her life.[34] According to the chronicle of Nabonidus, when Cassandane died, all the nations of Cyrus's empire observed "a great mourning", and, particularly in Babylonia, there was probably even a public mourning lasting for six days (identified from 21–26 March 538 BC). Her tomb is suggested to be at Cyrus's capital, Pasargadæ. [35] There are other accounts suggesting that Cyrus the Great also married a daughter of the Median king Astyages, named Amytis. This name may not be the correct one, however. Cyrus probably had married once, after the death of Cassandane, to a Median woman in his royal family.[36] Cyrus the Great's son Cambyses II would become the king of Persia, and his daughter Atossa would marry Darius the Great and bear him Xerxes I.

Rise and military campaigns
The Standard of Cyrus the Great
The Median Empire, Lydian Empire, and Neo-Babylonian Empire, prior to Cyrus the Great's conquests. Median Empire
Further information: Persian Revolt, Battle of Hyrba, Battle of the Persian Border, and Battle of Pasargadæ
Though his father died in 551 BC, Cyrus the Great had already succeeded to the throne in 559 BC; however, Cyrus was not yet an independent ruler. Like his predecessors, Cyrus had to recognize Median overlordship. During Astyages's reign, the Median Empire may have ruled over the majority of the Ancient Near East, from the Lydian frontier in the west to the Parthians and Persians in the east.

In Herodotus's version, Harpagus, seeking vengeance, convinced Cyrus to rally the Persian people to revolt against their feudal lords, the Medes. However, it is likely that both Harpagus and Cyrus rebelled due to their dissatisfaction with Astyages's policies.[30] From the start of the revolt in summer 553 BC, with his first battles taking place from early 552 BC, Harpagus, with Cyrus, led his armies against the Medes until the capture of Ecbatana in 549 BC, effectively conquering the Median Empire.[37]

While Cyrus the Great seems to have accepted the crown of Media, by 546 BC, he officially assumed the title "King of Persia" instead. With Astyages out of power, all of his vassals (including many of Cyrus's relatives) were now under his command. His uncle Arsames, who had been the king of the city-state of Parsa under the Medes, therefore would have had to give up his throne. However, this transfer of power within the family seems to have been smooth, and it is likely that Arsames was still the nominal governor of Parsa, under Cyrus's authority—more of a Prince or a Grand Duke than a King.[38] His son, Hystaspes, who was also Cyrus's second cousin, was then made satrap of Parthia and Phrygia. Cyrus the Great thus united the twin Achamenid kingdoms of Parsa and Anshan into Persia proper. Arsames would live to see his grandson become Darius the Great, Shahanshah of Persia, after the deaths of both of Cyrus's sons.[39] Cyrus's conquest of Media was merely the start of his wars.[40]

Lydian Empire and Asia Minor
Further information: Battle of Pteria, Battle of Thymbra, and Siege of Sardis (547 BC)

Croesus on the pyre. Attic red-figure amphora, 500–490 BC, Louvre (G 197) The exact dates of the Lydian conquest are unknown, but it must have taken place between Cyrus's overthrow of the Median kingdom (550 BC) and his
conquest of Babylon (539 BC). It was common in the past to give 547 BC as the year of the conquest due to some interpretations of the Nabonidus Chronicle, but this position is currently not much held.[41] The Lydians first attacked the Achaemenid Empire's city of Pteria in Cappadocia. Croesus besieged and captured the city enslaving its inhabitants. Meanwhile, the Persians invited the citizens of Ionia who were part of the Lydian kingdom to revolt against their ruler. The offer was rebuffed, and thus Cyrus levied an army and marched against the Lydians, increasing his numbers while passing through nations in his way. The Battle of Pteria was effectively a stalemate, with both sides suffering heavy casualties by nightfall. Croesus retreated to Sardis the following morning.[42]

While in Sardis, Croesus sent out requests for his allies to send aid to Lydia. However, near the end of the winter, before the allies could unite, Cyrus the Great pushed the war into Lydian territory and besieged Croesus in his capital, Sardis. Shortly before the final Battle of Thymbra between the two rulers, Harpagus advised Cyrus the Great to place his dromedaries in front of his warriors; the Lydian horses, not used to the dromedaries' smell, would be very afraid. The strategy worked; the Lydian cavalry was routed. Cyrus defeated and captured Croesus. Cyrus occupied the capital at Sardis, conquering the Lydian kingdom in 546 BC.[42] According to Herodotus, Cyrus the Great spared Croesus's life and kept him as an advisor, but this account conflicts with some translations of the contemporary Nabonidus Chronicle (the King who was himself subdued by Cyrus the Great after conquest of Babylonia), which interpret that the king of Lydia was slain.[43]

Before returning to the capital, a Lydian named Pactyas was entrusted by Cyrus the Great to send Croesus' treasury to Persia. However, soon after Cyrus's departure, Pactyas hired mercenaries and caused an uprising in Sardis, revolting against the Persian satrap of Lydia, Tabalus. With recommendations from Croesus that he should turn the minds of the Lydian people to luxury, Cyrus sent Mazares, one of his commanders, to subdue the insulation but demanded that Pactyas be returned alive. Upon Mazares's arrival, Pactyas fled to Ionia, where he had hired more mercenaries. Mazares marched his troops into the Greek country and subdued the cities of Magnesia and Priene. The end of Pactyas is unknown, but after capture, he was probably sent to Cyrus and put to death after a succession of tortures.[44]

Mazares continued the conquest of Asia Minor but died of unknown causes during his campaign in Ionia. Cyrus sent Harpagus to complete Mazares's conquest of Asia Minor. Harpagus captured Lycia, Cilicia and Phoenicia, using the technique of building earthworks to breach the walls of besieged cities, a method unknown to the Greeks. He ended his conquest of the area in 542 BC and returned to Persia.[30]

Neo-Babylonian Empire
Further information: Battle of Opis

Superimposed on modern borders, the Achaemenid Empire under Cyrus's rule extended approximately from Turkey, Israel, Georgia and Arabia in the west to Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, the Indus River (Pakistan) and Oman in the east. Persia became the largest empire the world had yet seen. By the year 540 BC, Cyrus captured Elam (Susiana) and its capital, Susa.[45] The Nabonidus Chronicle records that, prior to the battle(s), Nabonidus had ordered cult statues from outlying Babylonian cities to be brought into the capital, suggesting that the conflict had begun possibly in the winter of 540 BC.[46] Near the beginning of October, Cyrus fought the Battle of Opis in or near the strategic riverside city of Opis on the Tigris, north of Babylon. The Babylonian army was routed, and on October 10, Sippar was seized without a battle, with little to no resistance from the populace.[47] It is probable that Cyrus engaged in negotiations with the Babylonian generals to obtain a compromise on their part and therefore avoid an armed confrontation.[48] Nabonidus was staying in the city at the time and soon fled to the capital, Babylon, which he had not visited in years.[49]

Two days later, on October 7 (proleptic Gregorian calendar), Gubaru's troops entered Babylon, again without any resistance from the Babylonian armies, and detained Nabonidus.[50] Herodotus explains that to accomplish this feat, the Persians, using a basin dug earlier by the Babylonian queen Nitokris to protect Babylon against Median attacks, diverted the Euphrates river into a canal so that the water level dropped "to the height of the middle of a man's thigh", which allowed the invading forces to march directly through the river bed to enter at night.[51] On October 29, Cyrus himself entered the city of Babylon and detained Nabonidus.[52]

Prior to Cyrus's invasion of Babylon, the Neo-Babylonian Empire had conquered many kingdoms. In addition to Babylonia itself, Cyrus probably incorporated its subnational entities into his Empire, including Syria, Judea, and
Arabia Petraea, although there is no direct evidence of this fact.[53]

After taking Babylon, Cyrus the Great proclaimed himself "king of Babylon, king of Sumer and Akkad, king of the four corners of the world" in the famous Cyrus cylinder, an inscription deposited in the foundations of the Esagila temple dedicated to the chief Babylonian god, Marduk. The text of the cylinder denounces Nabonidus as impious and portrays the victorious Cyrus pleasing the god Marduk. It describes how Cyrus had improved the lives of the citizens of Babylonia, repatriated displaced peoples and restored temples and cult sanctuaries. Although some have asserted that the cylinder represents a form of human rights charter, historians generally portray it in the context of a long-standing Mesopotamian tradition of new rulers beginning their reigns with declarations of reforms.[54]

Cyrus the Great's dominions comprised the largest empire the world had ever seen.[5] At the end of Cyrus's rule, the Achaemenid Empire stretched from Asia Minor in the west to the northwestern areas of India in the east.[55]

Death
The details of Cyrus's death vary by account. The account of Herodotus from his Histories provides the second-longest detail, in which Cyrus met his fate in a fierce battle with the Massagetae, a tribe from the southern deserts of Khwarezm and Kyzyl Kum in the southernmost portion of the steppe regions of modern-day Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan, following the advice of Croesus to attack them in their own territory.[56] The Massagetae were related to the Scythians in their dress and mode of living; they fought on horseback and on foot. In order to acquire her realm, Cyrus first sent an offer of marriage to their ruler, Tomyris, a proposal she rejected. He then commenced his attempt to take Massagetae territory by force, beginning by building bridges and towered war boats along his side of the river Jaxartes, or Syr Darya, which separated them. Sending him a warning to cease his encroachment in which she stated she expected he would disregard anyway, Tomyris challenged him to meet her forces in honorable warfare, inviting him to a location in her country a day's march from the river, where their two armies would formally engage each other. He accepted her offer, but, learning that the Massagetae were unfamiliar with wine and its intoxicating effects, he set up and then left camp with plenty of it behind, taking his best soldiers with him and leaving the least capable ones. The general of Tomyris's army, who was also her son Spargapises, and a third of the Massagetai troops killed the group Cyrus had left there and, finding the camp well stocked with food and the wine, unwittingly drank themselves into inebriation, diminishing their capability to defend themselves, when they were then overtaken by a surprise attack. They were successfully defeated, and, although he was taken prisoner, Spargapises committed suicide once he regained sobriety. Upon learning of what had transpired, Tomyris denounced Cyrus's tactics as underhanded and swore vengeance, leading a second wave of troops into battle herself. Cyrus the Great was ultimately killed, and his forces suffered massive casualties in what Herodotus referred to as the fiercest battle of his career and the ancient world. When it was over, Tomyris ordered the body of Cyrus brought to her, then decapitated him and dipped his head in a vessel of blood in a symbolic gesture of revenge for his bloodlust and the death of her son.[57][58] However, some scholars question this version, mostly because Herodotus admits this event was one of many versions of Cyrus's death that he heard from a supposedly reliable source who told him no one was there to see the aftermath. [59]

Herodotus, also recounts that Cyrus saw in his sleep the oldest son of Hystaspes (Darius I) with wings upon his shoulders, shadowing with the one wing Asia, and with the other wing Europe. [60] Iranologist, Ilya Gershevitch explains this statement by Herodotus and its connection with the four winged bas-relief figure of Cyrus the Great in the following way:[60]

"Herodotus, therefore as I surmise, may have known of the close connection, between this type of winged figure, and the image of the Iranian majesty, which he associated with a dream prognosticating, the king's death, before his last, fatal campaign across the Oxus."

Ctesias, in his Persica, has the longest account, which says Cyrus met his death while putting down resistance from the Derbices infantry, aided by other Scythian archers and cavalry, plus Indians and their elephants. According to him, this event took place northeast of the headwaters of the Syr Darya.[61] An alternative account from Xenophon's Cyropaedia contradicts the others, claiming that Cyrus died peaceably at his capital.[62] The final version of Cyrus's death comes from Berossus, who only reports that Cyrus met his death while warring against the Dahae archers northwest of the headwaters of the Syr Darya.[63]

Burial
Cyrus's tomb lies in Pasargadae, Iran, a UNESCO World Heritage Site (2006). Main article: Achaemenid
architecture

Cyrus the Great's remains were interred in his capital city of Pasargadae, where today a limestone tomb (built around 540-530 BCE[64]) still exists which many believe to be his. Both Strabo and Arrian give nearly equal descriptions of the tomb, based on the eyewitness report of Aristobulus of Cassandreia, who at the request of Alexander the Great visited the tomb two times.[65] Though the city itself is now in ruins, the burial place of Cyrus the Great has remained largely intact; and the tomb has been partially restored to counter its natural deterioration over the years. According to Plutarch, his epitaph said,

"O man, whoever you are and wherever you come from, for I know you will come, I am Cyrus who won the Persians their empire. Do not therefore begrudge me this bit of earth that covers my bones.[66]"

Cuneiform evidence from Babylon proves that Cyrus died around December 530 BC,[8] and that his son Cambyses II had become king. Cambyses continued his father's policy of expansion, and managed to capture Egypt for the Empire, but soon died after only seven years of rule. He was succeeded either by Cyrus's other son Bardiya or an impostor posing as Bardiya, who became the sole ruler of Persia for seven months, until he was killed by Darius the Great.

The translated ancient Roman and Greek accounts give a vivid description of the tomb both geometrically and aesthetically; The tomb's geometric shape has changed little over the years, still maintaining a large stone of quadrangular form at the base, followed by a pyramidal succession of smaller rectangular stones, until after a few slabs, the structure is curtailed by an edifice, with an arched roof composed of a pyramidal shaped stone, and a small opening or window on the side, where the slenderest man could barely squeeze through.[67]

Within this edifice was a golden coffin, resting on a table with golden supports, inside of which the body of Cyrus the Great was interred. Upon his resting place, was a covering of tapestry and drapes made from the best available Babylonian materials, utilizing fine Median workmanship; below his bed was a fine red carpet, covering the narrow rectangular area of his tomb.[67] Translated Greek accounts describe the tomb as having been placed in the fertile Pasargadae gardens, surrounded by trees and ornamental shrubs, with a group of Achaemenian protectors called the "Magi", stationed nearby to protect the edifice from theft or damage.[67][68]

Years later, in the ensuing chaos created by Alexander the Great's invasion of Persia and after the defeat of Darius III, Cyrus the Great's tomb was broken into and most of its luxuries were looted. When Alexander reached the tomb, he was horrified by the manner in which the tomb was treated, and questioned the Magi and put them to court.[67] On some accounts, Alexander's decision to put the Magi on trial was more about his attempt to undermine their influence and his show of power in his newly conquered empire, than a concern for Cyrus's tomb.[69] Regardless, Alexander the Great ordered Aristobulus to improve the tomb's condition and restore its interior.[67] Despite his admiration for Cyrus the Great, and his attempts at renovation of his tomb, Alexander would eventually ransack Persepolis, the opulent city that Cyrus had helped build, and order its burning in 330 B.C.[70]

The edifice has survived the test of time, through invasions, internal divides, successive empires, regime changes and revolutions. The last prominent Persian figure to bring attention to the tomb was Mohammad Reza Pahlavi (Shah of Iran) the last official monarch of Persia, during his celebrations of 2,500 years of monarchy. Just as Alexander the Great before him, the Shah of Iran wanted to appeal to Cyrus's legacy to legitimize his own rule by extension.[71]

After the Iranian revolution, the tomb of Cyrus the Great survived the initial chaos and vandalism propagated by the Islamic revolutionary hardliners who equated Persian imperial historical artifacts with the late Shah of Iran. There are allegations of the tomb being in danger of damage from the construction of the Sivand Dam on river Polvar (located in the province of Pars) and flooding, but there is no official acknowledgement of this claim. This has nonetheless, caused a petition to be drafted to the U.N. demanding protection of this historical entity. United Nations recognizes the tomb of Cyrus the Great and Pasargadae as a UNESCO World Heritage site.[64]

Legacy

Cyrus the Great liberated the Hebrew exiles to resettle and rebuild Jerusalem, earning him an honored place in Judaism. In scope and extent his achievements ranked far above that of the Macedonian king, Alexander who was to demolish the empire in the 320s but fail to provide
any stable alternative.

Charles Freeman in 'The Greek Achievement'[72]

The achievements of Cyrus the Great throughout antiquity is well reflected in the way he is remembered today. His own nation, the Iranians, have regarded him as "The Father", the very title that had been used during the time of Cyrus himself, by the many nations that he conquered, as according to Xenophon:[73]

"And those who were subject to him, he treated with esteem and regard, as if they were his own children, while his subjects themselves respected Cyrus as their 'Father' ... What other man but 'Cyrus', after having overturned an empire, ever died with the title of 'The Father' from the people whom he had brought under his power? For it is plain fact that this is a name for one that bestows, rather than for one that takes away!""

The Babylonians regarded him as "The Liberator".[74] After his conquest of Babylon, followed Cyrus's help for the return of Jews; for this, Cyrus is addressed in the Jewish Tanakh as the "Lord's Messiah". Glorified by Ezra, and by Isaiah, Cyrus is the one to whom "Yahweh, the God of heaven" has given "all the Kingdoms of the earth".[18]

Cyrus was distinguished equally as a statesman and as a soldier. By pursuing a policy of generosity instead of repression, and by favoring local religions, he was able to make his newly conquered subjects into enthusiastic supporters.[75] Due in part to the political infrastructure he created, the Achaemenid empire endured long after his death.

The rise of Persia under Cyrus's rule had a profound impact on the course of world history. Iranian philosophy, literature and religion all played dominant roles in world events for the next millennia. Despite the Islamic conquest of Persia in the 7th century CE by the Islamic Caliphate, Persia continued to exercise enormous influence in the Middle East during the Islamic Golden Age, and was particularly instrumental in the growth and expansion of Islam.

Children of Princess Neithiyti and Cyrus are:
23.  i. Princess of Persia21 Atoissa.
    ii. Cambyses II.
    iii. Smerdis.
    iv. Artystone.

Generation No. 17


Notes for Ethriel:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

The 11th Monarch; reigned 20 years; and was slain by Conmaol, the son of Heber Fionn, at the battle of Soirrear, in Leinster, B.C. 1650. This also was a learned King, he wrote with his own hand the History of the Gaels (or Gadelians); in his reign seven large woods were cleared and much advance made in the practice of agriculture.

Ethriel, son of Íriel Fáid, according to medieval Irish legends and historical traditions, succeeded his father as High King of Ireland. During his reign he cleared six plains. He ruled for twenty years, until he was killed in the Battle of
Rairiu by Conmáel in revenge for his father Éber Finn, who had been killed by Ethriel's grandfather Érimón. He was the last of the chieftains who arrived in the invasion of the sons of Mil to rule Ireland. The Lebor Gabála Érenn says that during his reign Tautanes, king of Assyria, died (1182 BC according to Jerome's Chronicon), as did Hector and Achilles (the Trojan War is usually dated to the 13th century BC), and Samson was king of the Tribe of Dan in ancient Israel.[1] Geoffrey Keating dates his reign from 1259 to 1239 BC,[2] the Annals of the Four Masters from 1671 to 1651 BC.[3]

Child of Eithriál is:

24. i. Foll-Aich

23. Princess of Persia: Atossa (Princess of Egypt; Neithyti, Haibre; Wahibre, King of Egypt; Psamtek II; Neferibre, King of Egypt; Pharaoh Nectanebos 'Necho'; Psamtek I; Neko; Shepses; Tefnakht II; Prince of Egypt; Bakrenanef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka; Tefnakhte; Shepses Re; of Egypt; Osorkon IV; of Ma'at; Shoshonk V; Aakheperre; Stepenrê; Pimay. Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis; Shoshonk II; Ta'kelot II; Osorkon II; Ta'kelot I; Osorkon I; Shoshonk I; Great Chief of the Meshwesh; Nimlot, the Great Chief of the Ma I; Shoshenq) She married Darius I, King of Persia, son of Prince Hystaspes and Rhodogune Babylonia.

Notes for Princess of Persia Atossa:
Atossa (from Old Persian *Utau?a, and Avestan Hutaosa) was an Achaemenid queen and daughter of Cyrus the Great and his wife, Cassandane. She lived from 550 BC to 475 BC and probably was a sister (or half-sister) of the Persian king Cambyses II.

Atossa married Darius the Great (Darius I) during 522 BC after Darius I, with the help of the nobleman Otanes, defeated the followers of a man claiming to be Bardiya(Smerdis), the younger brother of Cambyses II.

Xerxes I was the eldest son of Atossa and Darius. Atossa lived to see Xerxes invade Greece. Being a direct descendent of Cyrus the Great, Atossa had a great authority within Achamenian royal house and court. Atossa's special position enabled Xerxes, who was not the eldest son of Darius, to succeed his father. [1]

Literary references
Aeschylus also included her as a central character in his tragedy The Persians. Also Atossa is one of the major characters in the Gore Vidal work, Creation.

References

Notes for Darius I, King of Persia:
Reigned from about 522 to 485 BC. He was one of the most able Persian kings and is also known as Darius Hystaspis, or Darius, son of Hystaspis.

Darius I (Old Persian: Darayavahuş) (550 – 486 BCE), also known as Darius the Great, was the fourth king of kings of the Achaemenid Empire. Darius held the empire at its peak, then including Egypt, Balochistan, and parts of Greece. The decay and eventual downfall of the empire commenced with his death and the ascension of his son, Xerxes I.

Darius ascended the throne by overthrowing the alleged magus usurper of Bardiya with the assistance of six other Persian noble families; Darius was crowned the following morning. The new emperor met with rebellions throughout his kingdom, and quelled them each time. A major event in Darius's life was his expedition to punish Athens and Eretria for their aid in the Ionian Revolt and subjugate Greece. Darius expanded his empire by conquering Thrace and Macedon, and invading Scythia, home of the Scythians, Iranian tribes who had invaded Media and had previously killed Cyrus the Great.
Darius organized the empire, by dividing it into provinces and placing satraps to govern it. He organized a new uniform monetary system, along with making Aramaic the official language of the empire. Darius also worked on construction projects throughout the empire, focusing on Susa, Pasargadae, Persepolis, Babylon, and Egypt. Darius devised a codification of laws for Egypt. He also carved the cliff-face Behistun Inscription, an autobiography of great modernlinguistic significance. Darius, also started many massive architectural projects including magnificent palaces in Persepolis, and Susa.

Darius (or Dareus) is the latin form of the Greek Dareîos, which is a shortened form of the Old Persian Darayavauš. The Old Persian form is also seen to have been reflected in the Elamite Da-ri-(y)a-ma-u-iš, BabylonianDa-(a-)ri-ia-(a-)muš, Aramaic language dryhwš and archaizing drywhwš, and possibly the longer Greek form Dareiaîos. The translation of his name from Old Persian to English is holding firm the good, which can be seen by the stem daraya meaning “hold” and the adjective vau meaning “good, which combined must be translated as “holding firm the good.”[1]

Primary sources
See also: Behistun Inscription and Herodotus

Darius left a tri-lingual monumental relief on Mount Behistun which was written in Elamite, Old Persian and Babylonian between his coronation and his death. The inscription begins with a brief autobiography with his ancestry and lineage. To aid the presentation of his ancestry, Darius wrote down the sequence of events which occurred after the death of Cyrus the Great.[2][3] Darius mentions several times that he is the rightful emperor by the grace ofAhura Mazda, the Zoroastrian God. In addition, further texts and monuments from Persepolis have been found, including a fragmentaryOld Iranian inscription from Gherla, Rumania (Harmatta), and a letter from Darius to Gadates, preserved in a Greek text of the Roman period.[4]

Herodotus, a Greek historian and author of The Histories, provided an account of many Persian emperors and theGreco-Persian Wars. He wrote an extensive amount of information on Darius which spans half of book 3, along with books 4, 5 and 6; it begins with removal of the alleged usurper Gaumata and continues to the end of Darius's reign. [4]

The Book of Ezra (chapter 6, verse 1) describes the adoption and precise instructions to rebuild the Temple in Jerusalem. It was completed and inaugurated of the sixth year of Darius (March 515 BCE), as also related in the Book of Ezra (chapter 6, verse 15), so the 70-year prophecy of Jeremiah was fulfilled. Between Cyrus and Darius, an exchange of letters with King Ahasuerus and Artaxerxes is described (Chapter 4, Verse 7), the grandson of Darius I, in whose reign Ezra and Nehemiah came to Jerusalem. The generous funding of the temple gave Darius and his successors the support of the Jewish priesthood. [5][6]There is mention of a Darius in the Book of Daniel, identified as Darius the Mede. He began ruling when he was 62 years old (chapter 5, verse 31), appointed 120 satraps to govern over their provinces or districts (chapter 6, verse 1), was made king over the realm of the Chaldeans (chapter 9, verse 1), and predated Cyrus (chapter 11, verse 1). Therefore, many scholars identify him with Cyaxares II rather than Darius I of Persia.[7]

Early life
Darius was born as the eldest of five sons to Hystaspes and Rhodugune in 550 BCE. Hystaspes was a leading figure of authority in Persia, which was the homeland of the Persians. Darius’ inscription states that his father was satrap of Bactria in 522 BCE. According to Herodotus, Hystaspes was the satrap of Persis, although most historians state that this is an error. Also according to Herodotus (III.139), Darius, prior to seizing power and "of no consequence at the time", had served as a spearman (doryphoros) in the Egyptian campaign (528–525 BCE) of Cambyses II, then the Persian emperor.[8]Hystaspes was an officer in Cyrus’ army, and a noble of his court.[9] Before Cyrus and his army crossed the Aras River to battle with northern tribes, he enthilled his son Cambyses II as emperor in the case that he should return from battle.[10] However, once Cyrus had crossed the Aras River, Cyrus received a dream with a vision of Darius in which he had wings atop his shoulders, and stood upon the confines of Europe and Asia (the whole known world). When Cyrus awoke from the dream, he inferred it as a great danger to the future security of the empire, as it meant that Darius would one day rule the whole world. However, his son Cambyses was the heir to the throne, not Darius, causing Cyrus to wonder if Darius was forming treasonable and ambitious designs. This led Cyrus to order Hystaspes to go back to Persis, and watch over his son strictly, until Cyrus himself returned.[11] Darius did not seem to have any treasonous thoughts as Cambyses II ascended the throne peacefully, and through
Ascension

The rise of Darius to the throne contains two variations, an account from Darius, and the other from Greek historians. Some modern historians have inferred that Darius' rise to power might have been illegitimate. To them, it seems likely that Gaumata was in fact Bardiya, and that under cover of revolts, Darius killed the heir to the throne and took it himself.[12] Darius' account, written at the Behistun Inscription states that Cambyses II killed his own brother Bardiya, but that this murder was not known among the Iranian people. A would-be usurper named Gaumata came and lied to the people, stating he was Bardiya.[13] The Iranians had grown rebellious against Cambyses' rule, and on 11 March 522 BCE, a revolt against Cambyses broke out, in his absence. On 1 July, the Iranian people chose to be under the leadership of Gaumata, as "Bardiya". No member of the Achaemenid family would rise against Gaumata for the safety of their own life. Darius, who had served Cambyses as his lance-bearer until the deposed ruler's death, prayed for aid, and in September 522 BCE, he along with Otanes, Intranphrenes, Gobryas, Hydarnes, Megabyxus and Aspathines killed Gaumata in the fortress of Sikayauvati.[13] Several days after Gaumata had been assassinated, Darius and the other seven nobles discussed the fate of the empire. At first, the seven discussed the form of government; a democratic republic was strongly pushed by Otanes, an oligarchy was pushed by Megazybus, while Darius pushed for a monarchy. After stating that a republic would lead to corruption and internal fighting, while a monarchy would be led with the single-mindedness, not possible in other governments, Darius was able to convince the other nobles that a monarchy was the correct form of government. To decide who would become the monarch, the six nobles (Otanes stated that he no interest in becoming emperor) decided on a test. All six nobles would gather outside mounted on their horses at sunrise, and the nobles' horse which neighed first would become emperor. According to Herodotus, Darius had a slave, Oebares who helped Darius win this contest. Before the contest, Oebares rubbed his hand over the genitals of mare that Darius' horse had a fondness for. When the six nobles gathered outside, Oebares placed his hands beside the nostrils of Darius' horse, who became excited at the smell and neighed. Immediately after, lightning and thunder occurred leading the other six noblemen to believe to be an act of God, causing them to dismount and kneel before Darius.[14] Darius did not believe that he had achieved the throne through fraud but through brilliant sagacity, even erecting a statue of himself mounted on his neighing horse stating "Darius, son of Hystaspes, obtained the sovereignty of Persia by the sagacity of his horse and the ingenious contrivance of Oebases, his groom."[15]

According to the accounts of Greek historians, Cambyses II had left Patizeithes in charge of the kingdom when he headed for Egypt. He later sent Prexaspes to murder Bardiya. After the killing, Patizeithes put his brother Gaumata, a Magian who resembled Bardiya, on the throne and declared him the emperor. Otanes discovered that Gaumata was an impostor, and along with six other Iranian nobles including Darius, created a plan to oust the pseudo-Bardiya. After killing the impostor along with his brother Patizeithes and other Magians, Darius was crowned king the following morning.[4]

Early reign

Following his coronation at Pasargadae, Darius moved to Ecbatana. He soon learned that support for Bardiya was strong, and revolts in Elam and Babylonia had broken out. Darius ended the Elamite revolt when the revolutionary leader Aschina was captured and executed in Susa, after three months the revolt in Babylonia had ended. While in Babylonia, Darius learned a revolution had broken out in Bactria, a satrapy which had always been in favour of Darius, and had initially volunteered an army of soldiers to quell revolts. Following this, revolts broke out in Persis, the homeland of the Persians and Darius. These new revolts led to a renewed revolt in Elam and Babylonia. With all these ongoing revolts, revolts broke out in Media, Parthia, Assyria, and Egypt. By 522 BCE, the majority, if not the entire Achaemenid Empire was rebelling against Darius and in turmoil. Even though Darius did not have the support of the populace, Darius had a loyal army, led by close confidants and nobles (including the six nobles with whom he removed Gaumata) with whom he was able to suppress and quell all revolts within a year. In Darius' words, he had killed a total of eight "lying kings" through the quelling of revolutions. Darius left a detailed account of these revolutions at the Behistun Inscription.

One of the first acts of Darius' reign was the slaying of Intaphernes. Intaphernes was one of the seven noblemen who had deposed of the previous ruler, and instilled Darius as the new monarch. The seven had made an agreement that they could all visit the new king whenever they pleased except when he was with his wife. One evening, Intaphernes went to the palace to meet Darius, but was stopped by two officers who stated that Darius had retired for the night. Becoming enraged and insulted, Intaphernes drew his sword and cut off the ears and noses of the two officers. While
leaving the palace, he took the bridle from his horse, and tied the two officers together. The officers went to the king and showed them the state that Intaphernes had morphed them into. Darius began to fear for his own safety, he thought that all seven noblemen had combined together to rebel against him, and that the attack against his officers was the first outbreak. He sent a messenger to each of the noblemen, asking them if they approved of Intaphernes' actions, to which they denied and disavowed any connection to Intaphernes' actions, stating they stood by their decision to appoint Darius as emperor. Taking precautions against further resistance, Darius sent soldiers to seize Intaphernes, along with his son, family members, relatives and friends who were capable of arming themselves. Darius believed that Intaphernes was planning a rebellion, but when he was brought to the court, there was no proof of any planning. Nonetheless, Darius killed his entire family, excluding Intaphernes' brother and son, after she was given an option of choosing between her husband and son, to whom she chose her brother. Her reasoning for doing so was that she can have another husband and son, but she will always have one brother. Darius was impressed by her response, and spared her brother's life along with her son's life.[16]

Military campaigns
After securing his authority over the entire empire, Darius embarked on a campaign to Egypt where he defeated the armies of the Pharoh and secured the lands that Cambyses had conquered while incorporating a large portion of Egypt into the Achaemenid Empire. Darius also led his armies to the Indus River, building fortresses and establishing Persian rule. [17]

Babylonian revolt
After Bardiya was murdered, widespread revolts occurred throughout the empire, especially on the eastern side. Darius asserted his position as emperor by force, taking his armies throughout the empire, suppressing each revolt individually. The most notable of all the revolts is the Babylonian revolt which was led by Nebuchadnezzar III. This revolt occurred when Otanes withdrew much of the army out of Babylon to aid Darius in suppressing other revolts. Darius felt that the Babylonian people had taken advantage of him and deceived him, which resulted in Darius gathering up a large army and marching to Babylon. At Babylon, Darius was met with closed gates and a series of defenses to keep him and his armies out of Babylon.[18] Darius encountered mockery and taunting from the rebels, including the famous saying "Oh yes, you will capture our city, when mules shall have foals." For a year and a half, Darius and his armies were unable to capture Babylon, though he attempted many tricks and strategies—even copying that which Cyrus the Great had employed when he captured Babylon. However, the situation changed in Darius's favor when, according to the story, a mule owned by Zopyrus, a high-ranking soldier, foaled. Following this, a plan was hatched for Zopyrus to pretend to be a deserter, enter the Babylonian camp, and gain the trust of the Babylonians. The plan was successful, and the Darius' army eventually surrounded the city and overcame the rebels.[19]

During this revolt, Scythian nomads took advantage of the disorder and chaos and invaded southern Persia. Darius first finished defeating the rebels in Elam, Assyria, and Babylon, then attacked the Scythian invaders. He pursued the invaders, who led him to a marsh; there he found no known enemies but an enigmatic Scythian tribe distinguished by their large pointed hats.[20]

Persian invasion of Scythia
The Scythians were a group of north Iranian nomadic tribes, speaking a Indo-Iranian language who had invaded Media, killed Cyrus in battle, revolted against Darius and threatened to disrupt the trade between Central Asia and the shores of the Black Sea as they lived between the Danube river and the Don River, and the Black Sea.[4][21]Darius crossed the Black Sea at the Bosphorus Straits using a bridge of boats. Darius conquered large portions of Eastern Europe -even crossing the Danube to wage war on the Scythians. Darius invaded Scythia, where the Scythians evaded Darius' army, using the feinting and retrofitting technique eastward while wasting the countryside, by stopping wells, intercepting convoys, destroying pastures, and continuous skirmishes on Darius' army.[22] Seeking to fight with the Scythians, Darius' army chased the Scythian army deep into Scythian lands, where there were no cities to conquer, and no supplies to forge. In frustration, Darius sent a letter to the Scythian ruler, Idanthrysus to fight or surrender. The ruler replied that he would not stand and fight with Darius until they found the graves of their fathers and tried to destroy them - until then, they could continue their current technique as they had no cities or cultivated lands to lose.[23] Darius ordered a halt at the banks of Oarus, where he built eight frontier fortresses spaced at intervals of eight miles. After chasing the Scythians for a month, Darius' army was suffering losses due to fatigue, privation, and sickness. In fear of losing more troops, he halted the march at the banks of the Volga River and headed towards Thrace.[24] He had conquered enough territory of Scythia to force the
Scythians to respect the Persian forces.

Persian invasion of Greece
Main article: First Persian invasion of Greece

Map showing key sites during the Persian invasions of Greece

Darius's European expedition was a major event in his reign, which began with the invasion of Thrace, after which he left Megabyzus to conquer Thrace, returning to Sardis to spend the winter. Before returning, Darius also conquered many cities of the northern Aegean, while Macedonia submitted voluntarily. The Asiatic Greeks and Greek islands had submitted to Persian rule by 510 BCE. Nonetheless, there were certain Greeks who were pro-Persian, such as the Medizing Greeks, which were largely grouped at Athens. This improved Greek-Persian relations as Darius opened his court and treasuries to the Greeks who wanted to serve him. These Greeks served as soldiers, artisans, statesmen and mariners for Darius. However, Greek fear of the strength of Darius' kingdom became very strong and the constant interference by the Greeks in Ionia and Lydia were all stepping stones in the conflict that was yet to come between Persia and Greece. When Aristagoras organized the Ionian revolt, Eretria and Athens supported him by sending ships and troops to Ionia and burning Sardis. Persian military and naval operations to quell the revolt ended in the Persian reoccupation of Ionia and Greek islands. However, anti-Persian parties gained more power in Athens, and pro-Persian aristocrats were exiled from Athens and Sparta. Darius responded by sending a group of troops led by his son-in-law across the Hellespont. However, a violent storm and harassment by Thracians forced the troops to return back to Persia. Seeking revenge on Athens and Eretria, Darius assembled another army consisting of 20,000 under his Admiral, Datis who met success when he captured Eretria and advanced to Marathon. In 490 BCE, at the Battle of Marathon, the Persian army was defeated by a heavily armed Athenian army, with 9,000 men who were supported by 600 Plataeans, 1,000 soldiers from each of eleven Greek city-states (11,000 men in total) and 10,000 lightly armed soldiers led by Miltiades. The defeat at Marathon marked the end of the first Persian invasion of Greece. Darius began preparations for a second force which he would command, instead of his generals. However, before the preparations were complete, Darius had died, thus leaving the task to his son Xerxes.

Family
Darius was son of Hystaspes and grandson of Arshama I, both men belonging to the Achaemenid tribe, and being alive when Darius ascended the throne. Darius justifies his ascension to the throne with his lineage tracing back to Achaemenes, even though he was distantly related. For these reasons, Darius married Atossa, daughter of Cyrus, with whom he had four sons, Xerxes, Achaimenes, Masistes and Hystaspes. He also married Artystone, another daughter of Cyrus, with whom he had two sons, Arsames and Gobryas. As well, Darius married Parmys, the daughter of Bardiyana, with whom he had a son, Arioros. Furthermore, Darius married Phratagone, with whom he had two sons, Abrokomas and Hyperantes, along with another woman of the nobility, Phaidime, the daughter of Otanes, with whom the number of children is not known. Before these royal marriages, Darius married a commoner with whom he had three sons, Artobazanes (the first born), Arabignes and Arsamenes, while the daughters are not known. While Artobazanes was the first born of Darius, Xerxes became the heir and the next king with the influence of Atossa, who had great authority in the kingdom due to Darius' love being the greatest for her out of all of his wives.

Death
Tomb of Darius the Great; located next to other Achaemenian emperors at Naqsh-e Rustam
After becoming aware of the Persian defeat at the Battle of Marathon, Darius began planning another expedition against the Greek-city states; this time, he, not Datis, would command the imperial armies. Darius had spent three years preparing men and ships for war when a revolt broke out in Egypt. This revolt in Egypt worsened his failing health and prevented the possibility of leading another army himself; soon, Darius was dead. In October 486 BCE, the body of Darius was embalmed and entombed in the rock-cut sepulcher which had been prepared for him several years earlier.

Xerxes, eldest son of Darius and Atossa, succeeded to the throne as Xerxes I; however, prior to Xerxes's accession, he contested the succession with his elder half-brother Artobazan, Darius' eldest son who was born to his commoner first wife before Darius rose to power.

The cuneiform inscriptions on Darius's tomb were squeezed and made into negative forms by the German archaeologist Ernst Herzfeld in 1923. They are currently housed in the archives of the Freer Gallery of Art and Arthur M. Sackler Museum, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, DC.
Government Organization

See Darius I, imagined by a Greek painter, 4th century BCE

Early in his reign, Darius wanted to organize the loosely organized empire with a system of taxation which had been passed down to him from Cyrus and Cambyses. To do this, Darius created twenty provinces called satrapies (or archi) which were each assigned to a satrap (archon) and specified fixed tributes that the satrapies were required to pay. A complete list is preserved in the catalog of Herodotus, beginning from Ionia and listing the other satrapies from west to east excluding Persis which was the land of the Persians and the only province which was not a conquered land. Tributes were paid in both silver and gold talents. The tributes from each satrap that were paid in silver were measured with the Babylonian talent, and those paid in gold were measured with the Euboic talent. The total tribute from the satraps came to a number less than 15,000 silver talents.[27]

The majority of the satraps were of Persian origin and were members of the royal house or the six great noble families. These satraps were personally picked by Darius to monitor these provinces, which were divided into sub-provinces with their own governors which were chosen either by the royal court or by the satrap. The assessment of the tribute was accomplished by Darius sending a commission of men to evaluate the expenses and revenues of each satrap. To ensure that one person did not gain too much power, each satrap had a secretary who observed the affairs of the state and communicated with Darius, a treasurer who safeguarded provincial revenues, and a garrison commander who was responsible for the troops. Additionally, royal inspectors who were the "eyes and ears" of Darius completed further checks over each satrap.[28]

There were headquarters of imperial administration at Persepolis, Susa, and Babylon while Bactria, Ecbatana, Sardis, Dascylium and Memphis also had branches of imperial administration. Darius chose Aramaic as a common language, which soon spread throughout the empire. However, Darius gathered a group of scholars to create a separate language system only used for Persis and the Persians, which was called Aryan script which was only used during official inscriptions.[28]

Economy
Gold darics such as this one (with a purity of 95.83%) were only issued by the king himself. (circa 490BCE). Darius conducted the introduction of a universal currency, the daric sometime before 500 BCE. Darius applied the coinage system as a transnational currency to regulate trade and commerce throughout his empire. The daric was also recognized beyond the borders of the empire - in places such as Celtic Central Europe and Eastern Europe. There were two types of darics, a gold and a silver. Only the king could issue gold darics, important generals and satraps issued silver darics, the latter usually to recruit Greek mercenaries in Anatolia. The daric was a major boost to international trade, merchandised goods such as textiles, carpets, tools, and metalworks began to travel throughout Asia, Europe and Africa. To further improve trade Darius built a royal highway, a postal system, and Phoenician-based commercial shipping. The daric also improved government revenues as the introduction of the daric led to new taxes on land, cattle and marketplaces (among others). This also led to the registering of land, where it was measured and taxed accordingly. The increased government revenues helped maintain and improve existing infrastructure. The increased government revenues also helped fund irrigation projects in dry lands. This new tax system also led to the formation of state banking and the creation of banking firms. One of the most famous banking firms was Murashu and Sons, based in Nippur.[29] These banking firms provided loans and credit to clients.[30]

The daric was called darayaka within the empire, and was most likely named after Darius. In an effort to further improve trade, Darius built canals, underground waterways, and a powerful navy. He further improved and expanded the network of roads and way stations throughout the empire, so that there was a system of travel authorization for the King, satrap, or other high official, which entitled the traveller to draw provisions at daily stopping places.[31][28]

Religion
By the grace of Ahuramazda am I king; Ahuramazda has granted me the kingdom.

See Darius, on the Behistun Inscription
While there is no absolute consensus on the kings before Darius, such as Cyrus and Cambyses, it is well established that Darius was an adherent of Zoroastrianism[32] or at least a firm believer in Ahura Mazda. As it can be seen at
the Behistun Inscription, Darius believed that Ahura Mazda had appointed him to rule the Achaemenid Empire. Darius had dualistic convictions and believed that each rebellion in his kingdom was the work of druj, the enemy of Asha. Darius believed that because he lived righteously by Asha, Ahura Mazda supported him. [33] In many cuneiform inscriptions denoting his achievements, he presents himself a devout believer perhaps even convinced that he had a divine right to rule over the world.[34]

In the lands that were conquered by his empire, Darius followed the same Achaemenid tolerance that Cyrus had shown, and later Achaemenid emperors would show. He supported faiths and religions that were "alien" as long as the adherents were submissive and peaceable, sometimes giving them grants from his treasury for their purposes. [35] He had funded the restoration of the Jewish temple which had originally been decreed by Cyrus the Great, presented favour towards Greek cults which can be seen in his letter to Gadatus, and supported Elamite priests. He had also observed Egyptian religious rites related to kingship and had built the temple for the Egyptian God, Amun.[36]

Construction
See The ruins of Persepolis. In the foreground is the treasure house, right behind the Palace of Darius. During Darius's Greek expedition, he had begun construction projects in Susa, Egypt and Persepolis. He had linked the Red Sea to the river Nile by building a canal which ran from modern Zaqaziq to modern Suez. To open this canal, he traveled to Egypt in 497 BCE, where the inauguration was done among great fanfare and celebration. Darius also built a canal to connect the Red Sea and Mediterranean.[26][37] On this visit to Egypt, he erected monuments and executed Aryandes on the accounts of treason. When Darius returned to Persis, he found that the codification of Egyptian law had been finished.[25]

Additionally, Darius sponsored large construction projects in Susa, Babylon, Egypt, and Persepolis. In Susa, Darius built a new palace complex in the north of the city. An inscription states that the palace was destroyed during the reign of Artaxerxes I, but was rebuilt. Today, only glazed bricks of the palace remain with the majority of them in Louvre. In Pasargadæ, Darius finished all incomplete construction projects from the reign of Cyrus the Great. A palace was also built during the reign of Darius, with an inscription in the name of Cyrus the Great. It was previously believed that Cyrus had constructed this building, however due to the cuneiform script being used, the palace is believed to have been constructed by Darius. In Egypt, Darius built many temples, and restored those that had previously been destroyed. Even though Darius was a Zoroastrian, he built temples dedicated to the Gods of the Ancient Egyptian religion. Several temples found were dedicated to Ptah and Nekhbet. Darius also created several roads and routes in Egypt. The monuments that Darius built were often inscribed in the official languages of the Persian Empire, which were Old Persian, Elamite, Babylonian and Egyptian hieroglyphs. To construct these monuments, Darius had hired a large number of workers and artisans of diverse nationalities. Several of these workers were deportees who had been employed specifically for these projects. These deportees enhanced the economy and improved international relations with neighboring countries that these deportees arrived from.[28]

Child of Princess Atossa and Darius is:
25. i. Princess of Persia22 Chandravarnna.

Generation No. 18

24. Foll-Aich22 (Eithrial21, Irial (Iarel Eurialus) Faidh (Faith)20 MacEremoin, Heremon (2nd Monarch) or19 Ireland, Tea Tephi18 Scotia; Princess of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos “Necho”17 II, Psamtek9 I, Neko15 I, Shepsesre14 TefnakhtII, Prince of Egypt, Bakenraen (Bocchoris) Wah Ka13 Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepes Re’ or12 Egypt, Osorkon IV C of11 Ma’At, Shoshonk V10 A埃及epre, Stepenre9 Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk V III, Takeolt2 II, Osorkon9 II, Takeolt2 I, Osorkon9 I, Shoshonk8 I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot9, the Great Chief of the Ma1 Shoshenq)

Child of Foll-Aich is:
26. i. Tigernmas23.

25. Princess of Persia22 Chandravarnna (Princess of Persia21 Atossa, Princess of Egypt20 Neithyti, Haibre19 Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II18 Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos “Necho”17 II,
Psamtek\textsuperscript{16} I, Neko\textsuperscript{15} I, Shepses\textsuperscript{14} Tefnakth II, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka\textsuperscript{13} RE; Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re of\textsuperscript{22} Egypt, Osorkon IV, C of\textsuperscript{11} MA’AT, Shoshonk V\textsuperscript{40} Aakheperre, Stepere\textsuperscript{9} Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk\textsuperscript{8} III, Takeot\textsuperscript{2} II, Osorkon\textsuperscript{6} II, Takeot\textsuperscript{7} I, Osorkon\textsuperscript{5} I, Shoshonk\textsuperscript{4} I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot\textsuperscript{7}, the Great Chief of the MA\textsuperscript{1} Shoshenq) She married Maurya I of Taxila.

Child of Princess Chandravarna and Maurya Taxila is:

27. i. Maurya II of\textsuperscript{23} Taxila.

Generation No. 19

26. Tigernmas\textsuperscript{23} (Foll-Aich\textsuperscript{22}, Ethriai\textsuperscript{21}, Iriel (Iarel Eriailus) Faidh (Faith)\textsuperscript{20} MacERemoIn, Heremon (2nd Monarch), of\textsuperscript{19} Ireland, Tea Tephi\textsuperscript{8} Scotia; Princess of Egypt. Pharaoh Nectanebos ‘Necho’\textsuperscript{17} II; Psamtek\textsuperscript{16} I, Neko\textsuperscript{15} I, Shepses\textsuperscript{14} Tefnakth II, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka\textsuperscript{13} RE; Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re of\textsuperscript{22} Egypt, Osorkon IV, C of\textsuperscript{11} MA’AT, Shoshonk V\textsuperscript{40} Aakheperre, Stepere\textsuperscript{9} Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk\textsuperscript{8} III, Takeot\textsuperscript{2} II, Osorkon\textsuperscript{6} II, Takeot\textsuperscript{7} I, Osorkon\textsuperscript{5} I, Shoshonk\textsuperscript{4} I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot\textsuperscript{7}, the Great Chief of the MA\textsuperscript{1} Shoshenq)

Notes for Tigernmas:
[Step of the House of Connor, FTW]

[House of Momey, FTW]

Tigernmas: his son; was the 13th Monarch, and reigned 77 years; according to Keating, he reigned but 50 years; he fought twenty-seven battles with the followers of the family of Heber Fionn, all which he gained. In his reign gold was mined near the Liffey, and skilfully worked by Inchadhan. This King also made a law that each grade of society should be known by the number of colours in its wearing apparel: - the clothes of a slave should be of one colour; those of a soldier of two; the dress of a commanding officer to be of three colours; a gentleman’s dress, who kept a table for the free entertainment of strangers, to be of four colours; five colours to be allowed to the nobility (the chiefs); and the King, Queen, and Royal Family, as well as the Druids, historians, and other learned men to wear six colours. This King died, B.C. 1543, on the Eve of 1st of November, with two-thirds of the people of Ireland, at Magh Sleaveg (or Field of Adoration), in the county of Leitrim, as he was adoring the Sun-God, Crom Cruach (a quo Macroom). Historians say this Monarch was the first who introduced image worship in Ireland.

Tigernmas,\textsuperscript{[1]} son of Follach, son of Ethriel, a descendant of Érimón, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical traditions, an early High King of Ireland. His name means either “Lord of Death” or “Beautiful Lord” in Old Irish.\textsuperscript{[2]}

According to the Lebor Gabála Érenn he became king when he overthrew his predecessor Conmael in the Battle of Ónach Macha, and within a year of his accession had won twenty-seven battles against the descendants of Eber Finn, almost completely destroying Eber’s line. It is said that during his reign gold was first smelted in Ireland, by the wright Ichadhan. Tigernmas was the first king to give drinking-horns to his followers, and the first to have clothes dyed purple, blue and green and decorated with brooches, fringes and ornaments. Seven lakes and three rivers burst from the ground during his reign. After reigning for seventy-seven years (or 100 years according to the Book of Fenagh, P 23), he and three-quarters of the men of Ireland died on Magh Slécht while worshipping Crom Cruach, a cruel deity propitiated with human sacrifice.\textsuperscript{[3]}\textsuperscript{[4]} According to the Annals of the Four Masters, Ireland was without a High King for seven years after his death, before Eochaid Étghudach took the kingship.\textsuperscript{[5]}

The Lebor Gabála synchronises his reign with the deaths of Thineas and Decylas, kings of Assyria, and the reigns of David and Solomon in Israel;\textsuperscript{[3]} the Laud Synchronisms with the Judean kings Asa and Jehoshaphat and the Assyrian king Pertiades (Pyriatides).\textsuperscript{[6]} The Annals of the Four Masters dates his reign to 1621-1544 BC.;\textsuperscript{[5]} Geoffrey Keating to 1209-1159 BC.\textsuperscript{[7]}
Child of Tigernmas is:
28. i. Enboath²⁴.

27. Maurya II of²³ Taxila (Princess of Persia²² Chandravarnna, Princess of Persia²¹ Atossa, Princess of Egypt²⁰ Neithity, Haibre¹⁹ Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtik II¹⁸ Neferbire, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos 'Necho'¹⁷ II', Psamtik¹⁶ I, Neko¹⁵ I, Shepsesre¹⁴ TefnakhtiI, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka¹³, Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re' of²² Egypt, Osorkon IV 'C' of²¹ MAAT, Shoshonk V¹⁰ Aakheperre, Stepenre⁹ Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk³ III, Takelot² II, Osorkon⁴ II, Takelot³ I, Osorkon³ I, Shoshonk¹ I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot⁵, the Great Chief of the Ma¹ Shoshenq)

Child of Maurya II of Taxila is:
29. i. Maurya III of²⁴ Taxila.

Generation No. 20

28. Enboath²⁴ (Tigernmas²³, Foll-Aich²², Eithrial²¹, Irial (Iarel Eurlalus) Faidh (Faith)²⁰ MacEremon, Heremon (2nd Monarch) of²⁹ Ireland, Tea Tephi¹⁸ Scotia; Princess of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos 'Necho'¹⁷ II', Psamtik¹⁶ I, Neko¹⁵ I, Shepsesre¹⁴ TefnakhtiI, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka¹³, Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re' of²² Egypt, Osorkon IV 'C' of²¹ MAAT, Shoshonk V¹⁰ Aakheperre, Stepenre⁹ Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk³ III, Takelot² II, Osorkon⁴ II, Takelot³ I, Osorkon³ I, Shoshonk¹ I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot⁵, the Great Chief of the Ma¹ Shoshenq)

Child of Enboath is:
30. i. Smiomghall²⁵.

29. Maurya III of²⁴ Taxila (Maurya II of²³, Princess of Persia²² Chandravarnna, Princess of Persia²¹ Atossa, Princess of Egypt²⁰ Neithity, Haibre¹⁹ Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtik II¹⁸ Neferbire, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos 'Necho'¹⁷ II', Psamtik¹⁶ I, Neko¹⁵ I, Shepsesre¹⁴ TefnakhtiI, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka¹³, Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re' of²² Egypt, Osorkon IV 'C' of²¹ MAAT, Shoshonk V¹⁰ Aakheperre, Stepenre⁹ Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk³ III, Takelot² II, Osorkon⁴ II, Takelot³ I, Osorkon³ I, Shoshonk¹ I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot⁵, the Great Chief of the Ma¹ Shoshenq)

Child of Maurya III of Taxila is:
31. i. Maurya IV of²⁵ Taxila.

Generation No. 21

30. Smiomghall²⁵ (Enboath²⁴, Tigernmas²³, Foll-Aich²², Eithrial²¹, Irial (Iarel Eurlalus) Faidh (Faith)²⁰ MacEremon, Heremon (2nd Monarch) of²⁹ Ireland, Tea Tephi¹⁸ Scotia; Princess of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos 'Necho'¹⁷ II', Psamtik¹⁶ I, Neko¹⁵ I, Shepsesre¹⁴ TefnakhtiI, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka¹³, Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re' of²² Egypt, Osorkon IV 'C' of²¹ MAAT, Shoshonk V¹⁰ Aakheperre, Stepenre⁹ Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk³ III, Takelot² II, Osorkon⁴ II, Takelot³ I, Osorkon³ I, Shoshonk¹ I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot⁵, the Great Chief of the Ma¹ Shoshenq)

Child of Smiomghall is:
32. i. Fiacha²⁶ Labhrainn.

31. Maurya IV of²⁵ Taxila (Maurya III of²⁴, Maurya II of²³, Princess of Persia²² Chandravarnna, Princess of Persia²¹ Atossa, Princess of Egypt²⁰ Neithity, Haibre¹⁹ Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtik II¹⁸ Neferbire, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos 'Necho'¹⁷ II', Psamtik¹⁶ I, Neko¹⁵ I, Shepsesre¹⁴ TefnakhtiI, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka¹³, Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re' of²² Egypt, Osorkon IV 'C' of²¹
THE HIGH KING OF IRELAND.

Fiacha Labhrainne, son of Smirgoll, son of Tigernmas, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He came to power by killing the previous incumbent, Eochaid Faebarglas, of the line of Heber, at the battle of Carman. During his reign all the inhabitants of Scotland were brought in subjection to the Irish Monarchy, and the conquest was secured by his son the 20th Monarch. Fiacha at length (B.C. 1448) fell in the battle of Bealgadain, by the hands of Eochaidh Mumho, the son of Moefeibhis, of the race of Heber Fionn.

Fiachu Labhrainne, son of Smirgoll, son of Tigernmas, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He came to power by killing the previous incumbent, Eochaid Faebarglas, of the line of Heber, at the battle of Carman, in vengeance for his father, who had been killed by Eochaid in the battle of Druimm Liathán. He was named after the river Labrainn, which burst from the ground during his reign. He fought a sea battle against the descendants of Eber Finn, and fought a battle against the Érainn at Mag Genain in County Fermanagh, which resulted in Loch Erne bursting from the ground. In another battle he killed Eochaidh's son Mofebis. Mofebis's son Eochu Mumho killed him in vengeance in the battle of Sliab Belgatain.[1] Geoffrey Keating adds that during his reign, his son Aengus Olmucada conquered Scotland.[2] The Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronises his reign with those of Piritiades and Ofratalus in Assyria. The chronology of Keating's Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 1095-1071 BC, that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 1473-1449 BC.[3]

Child of MAURYA IV OF TAXILA is:
34. i. AONGUS27 OLMUCACH.


Child of MAURYA V. OF MAGADHA is:
35. i. KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE27 CHANDRAGUPTA.

Generation No. 22

32. FIACHA26 LABHRAINN (SMoMGHALL25, ENboATH24, TigERNMas23, FOll-AICH22, EThRIAL21, IRIAL (Jarel EURIALUS) FAIDH (FAITH)20 MACEREMOIN, HEREMON (2ND MONARCH) OF19 IRELAND, TEA TEPHI18 SCOTA, PRINCESS OF EGYPT, PHARAOH NECTANEBOs ‘NECHO17 II’, PSAMTEK16 I, NEKO15 I, SHEPSEsRE14 TEFNAKHII, PRINCE OF EGYPT, BAKENRANEf (BOCCORIS) WAb KA13 RE, TEFNAKHTE (I) SHEPSES RE OF12 EGYPT, OSORKON IV ‘C’ OF10 MAAT, SHOSHONK V9 AAKHEPERRE, STEPENRE8 PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONkVIII, TAKELOTII, OSORKONVI, TAKELOTI, OSORKONIV, SHOSHONkIII, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWesh, NIMlot9, THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MaI SHOSHENQ)

Notes for FIACHA LABHRAINN:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]
but also a Nandanvaya (Act IV). Again more than a millennium later, Dhundiraja, India. More than half a millennium later, the Sanskrit drama Mudrarakshasa not only calls him Mauryaputra (Act II) but also a Nandanvaya (Act IV). Again more than a millennium later, Dhundiraja, a commentator of 18th century on
Mudrarakshasa states that Chandragupta was son of Maurya who in turn, was son of the Nanda king Sarvarthasiddhi by a wife named Mura, daughter of a Vrishala (shudra). Mudrarakshasa uses terms like kula-hina and Vrishala for Chandragupta's lineage. This reinforces Justin's contention that Chandragupta had a humble origin.[10][11] On the other hand, the same play describes the Nandas as of Prathita-kula i.e. illustrious lineage. The medieval commentator on the Vishnu Purana informs us that Chandragupta was son of a Nanda prince and a dasi (English: maid), Mura. The poets Kshmendra and Somadeva call him Purvananda-suta, son of genuine Nanda as opposed to Yoga-Nanda i.e. pseudo Nanda.

The Buddhist text of the Mahavamsa calls Chandragupta a section of the Khattya (Kshatriya) clan named Moriya (Maurya). Divyavadana calls Bindusara, son of Chandragupta, an anointed Kshatriya, Kshatriya Murdabhishikata, and in the same work, king Ashoka, son of Bindusara, is also styled a Kshatriya. The Mahaparinimibhana Sutta of the Buddhist canon states that the Moriyas (Mauryas) belonged to the Kshatriya community of Pippalivana. These traditions, at least, indicate that Chandragupta has come from a Kshatriya lineage. The Mahavamshatika connects him with the Sakya clan of the Buddha, a clan which also belongs to the race of Aditya i.e. solar race by all the vedas and Hindu puranas. See the page shakya for more details. All the puranas and vedas together proved shakya clan as a branch of ikshwaku vamsha or surya vamsha. All the buddhist texts shows the genealogy of shakya kings of suryavamsha.

Ashok Maurya’s inscription claiming to be 'Buddhi Sakya' further proves the Mauryas to be an offshoot of the Shakyas to whom 'Sakyamuni' Siddhartha Buddha belonged.

A medieval inscription represents the Maurya clan as belonging to the solar race of Kshatriyas. It is stated that the Maurya line sprang from Suryavamsi Mandhatri, son of prince Yuvanashva of the solar race.

“The first statue installed in the courtyard opposite Gate No. 5 of Parliament House, is of the great Indian Emperor Chandragupta Maurya It is inscribed on it that "Shepherd Boy Chandragupta Maurya dreaming of the India he was to create".

Historically, founder of the Mauryan dynasty Chandragupta Maurya was a (Shepherd) boy who with the help of the Brahmin Chanakya revolted against the atrocities of the Nanda kings and established the Mauryan Empire.

Very little is known about Chandragupta's youth. what is known about his youth is gathered from later classical Sanskrit literature, as well as classical Greek and Latin sources which refer to Chandragupta by the names "Sandracottos" or "Andracottus". He was paragon for later rulers.

Plutarch reports that he met with Alexander the Great, probably around Takshasila in the northwest, and that he viewed the ruling Nanda Empire in a negative light:

“ "Androcottus, when he was a stripling, saw Alexander himself, and we are told that he often said in later times that Alexander narrowly missed making himself master of the country, since its king was hated and despised on account of his baseness and low birth." "
—Plutarch, Parallel Lives: Life of Alexander 62.9

According to this text, the encounter would have happened around 326 BCE, suggesting a birth date for Chandragupta around 340 BCE.

Junianus Justinus (Justin) describes the humble origins of Chandragupta, and explains how he later led a popular uprising against the Nanda king.

Chandragupta Maurya, with the help of Chanakya, defeated the Magadha kings and the bulk army of Chandravanshi clan. Following his victory, defeated generals of Alexander settled in Gandhara (Kamboja kingdom of Aryan Mahajanpad), today's Afghanistan. At the time of Alexander's invasion, Chanakya was a teacher at Takshasila University. The king of Takshasila and Gandhara, Ambhi (also known as Taxiles), made signed a peace treaty with Alexander. Chanakya, however, planned to defeat the foreign invasion and sought help from other kings to unite and fight Alexander. Porus (Parvateshwar), a king of Punjab, was the only local king who was able to challenge
Alexander at the Battle of the Hydaspes River, but was defeated.

Chanakya then went to Magadha further east, to seek the help of Dhana Nanda, who ruled a vast Nanda Empire which extended from Bihar and Bengal in the east to Punjab and Sindh in the west,[12] but he was denied any such help. After this incident, Chanakya started to convince his disciple Chandragupta of the need to build an empire that could protect Indian territories from foreign invasion.

Chanakya's teacher and later his prime minister[13] Chanakya, who is also known as Kautilya and was the author of the Arthashastra, is regarded as the architect of Chandragupta's early rise to power. Chandragupta Maurya, with the help of Chanakya, began laying the foundation of the Maurya Empire. In all forms of the Chanakya legend,[14] he is thrown out of the Nanda court by the king, whereupon he swears revenge. While in Magadha, Chanakya by chance met Chandragupta in whom he spotted great military and executive abilities. Chanakya was impressed by the prince's personality and intelligence, and immediately took the young boy under his wing to fulfill his silent vow.

Nanda army
The Nanda Empire at its greatest extent under Dhana Nanda circa 323 BCE. According to Plutarch, at the time of Alexander's Battle of the Hydaspes River, the size of the Nanda Empire's army further east numbered 200,000 infantry, 80,000 cavalry, 8,000 chariots, and 6,000 war elephants, which was discouraging for Alexander's men and stayed their further progress into India:

"As for the Macedonians, however, their struggle with Porus blunted their courage and stayed their further advance into India. For having had all they could do to repulse an enemy who mustered only twenty thousand infantry and two thousand horse, they violently opposed Alexander when he insisted on crossing the river Ganges also, the width of which, as they learned, was thirty-two furlongs, its depth a hundred fathoms, while its banks on the further side were covered with multitudes of men-at-arms and horsemen and elephants. For they were told that the kings of the Ganderites and Praesii were awaiting them with eighty thousand horsemen, two hundred thousand footmen, eight thousand chariots, and six thousand fighting elephants. And there was no boasting in these reports. For Androcottus, who reigned there not long afterwards, made a present to Seleucus of five hundred elephants, and with an army of six hundred thousand men overran and subdued all India." —Plutarch, Parallel Lives, "Life of Alexander" 62.1-4

In order to defeat the powerful Nanda army, Chandragupta needed to raise a formidable army of his own.[12]

Conquest of the Nanda Empire
Further information: Nanda Dynasty
Main article: Nanda War

Chandragupta's empire when he founded it c. 320 BCE, by the time he was about 20 years old. Chanakya had trained Chandragupta under his guidance and together they planned the destruction of Dhana Nanda. The Mudrarakshasa of Visakhadutta as well as the Jaina work Parisishtaparvan talk of Chandragupta's alliance with the Himalayan king Parvatka, sometimes identified with Porus,[15]

It is noted in the Chandraguptakatha that the protagonist and Chanakya were initially rebuffed by the Nanda forces. Regardless, in the ensuing war, Chandragupta faced off against Bhadrasala – commander of Dhana Nanda's armies. He was eventually able to defeat Bhadrasala and Dhana Nanda in a series of battles, ending with the siege of the capital city Pataliputra[12] and the conquest of the Nanda Empire around 321 BCE,[12] thus founding the powerful Maurya Empire in Northern India by the time he was about 20 years old.

Conquest of Macedonian territories in India
Chandragupta had defeated the remaining Macedonian satrapies in the northwest of the Indian subcontinent by 317 BCE. After Alexander's death in 323 BCE, Chandragupta, turned his attention to Northwestern India (modern Pakistan), where he defeated the satrapies (described as "prefects" in classical Western sources) left in place by Alexander (according to Justin), and may have assassinated two of his governors, Nicanor and Philip.[disambiguation needed][4][12] The satrapies he fought may have included Eudemus, ruler in western Punjab
until his departure in 317 BCE; and Peithon, son of Agenor, ruler of the Greek colonies along the Indus until his departure for Babylon in 316 BCE. The Roman historian Justin described how Sandrocottus (Greek version of Chandragupta's name) conquered the northwest:

"Some time after, as he was going to war with the generals of Alexander, a wild elephant of great bulk presented itself before him of its own accord, and, as if tamed down to gentleness, took him on its back, and became his guide in the war, and conspicuous in fields of battle. Sandrocottus, having thus acquired a throne, was in possession of India, when Seleucus was laying the foundations of his future greatness; who, after making a league with him, and settling his affairs in the east, proceeded to join in the war against Antigonus. As soon as the forces, therefore, of all the confederates were united, a battle was fought, in which Antigonus was slain, and his son Demetrius put to flight."

—Junianus Justinus, Historiarum Philippicarum libri XLIV, XV.4.19

Expansion

By the time he was only about 20 years old, Chandragupta, who had succeeded in defeating the Macedonian satrapies in India and conquering the Nanda Empire, had founded a vast empire that extended from the Bay of Bengal in the east, to the Indus River in the west, which he would further expand in later years.

Conquest of Seleucus' eastern territories

Silver coin of Seleucus I Nicator, who fought Chandragupta Maurya, and later made an alliance with him. Chandragupta extended the borders of his empire towards Seleucid Persia after his conflict with Seleucus c. 305 BCE. Seleucus I Nicator, a Macedonian satrap of Alexander, reconquered most of Alexander's former empire and put under his own authority eastern territories as far as Bactria and the Indus (Appian, History of Rome, The Syrian Wars 55), until in 305 BCE he entered in a confrontation with Chandragupta:

"Always lying in wait for the neighboring nations, strong in arms and persuasive in council, he acquired Mesopotamia, Armenia, 'Seleucid' Cappadocia, Persis, Parthia, Bactria, Arabia, Tapouria, Sogdia, Arachosia, Hyrcania, and other adjacent peoples that had been subdued by Alexander, as far as the river Indus, so that the boundaries of his empire were the most extensive in Asia after that of Alexander. The whole region from Phrygia to the Indus was subject to Seleucus. He crossed the Indus and waged war with Sandrocottus [Maurya], king of the Indians, who dwelt on the banks of that stream, until they came to an understanding with each other and contracted a marriage relationship. Some of these exploits were performed before the death of Antigonus and some afterward."

—Appian, History of Rome, The Syrian Wars 55

The exact details of engagement are not known. As noted by scholars such as R. C. Majumdar[16] and D. D. Kosambi, Seleucus appears to have fared poorly, having ceded large territories west of the Indus to Chandragupta. Due to his defeat, Seleucus surrendered Arachosia, Gedrosia, Paropamisadae, and Aria.

Mainstream scholarship asserts that Chandragupta received vast territory west of the Indus, including the Hindu Kush, modern day Afghanistan, and the Balochistan province of Pakistan.[17][18] Archaeologically, concrete indications of Mauryan rule, such as the inscriptions of the Edicts of Ashoka, are known as far as Kandhahar in southern Afghanistan.

It is generally thought that Chandragupta married Seleucus's daughter, or a Greek Macedonian princess, a gift from Seleucus to formalize an alliance. In a return gesture, Chandragupta sent 500 war-elephants,[16][19][20][21][22][23] a military asset which would play a decisive role at the Battle of Ipsus in 302 BCE. In addition to this treaty, Seleucus dispatched an ambassador, Megasthenes, to Chandragupta, and later Deimakos to his son Bindusara, at the Mauryan court at Pataliputra (modern Patna in Bihar state). Later Ptolemy II Philadelphus, the ruler of Ptolemaic Egypt and contemporary of Ashoka the Great, is also recorded by Pliny the Elder as having sent an ambassador named Dionysius to the Mauryan court.[24]

Classical sources have also recorded that following their treaty, Chandragupta and Seleucus exchanged presents, such as when Chandragupta sent various aphrodisiacs to Seleucus:
"And Theophrastus says that some contrivances are of wondrous efficacy in such matters [as to make people more amorous]. And Phylarchus confirms him, by reference to some of the presents which Sandrakottus, the king of the Indians, sent to Seleucus; which were to act like charms in producing a wonderful degree of affection, while some, on the contrary, were to banish love."

After annexing Seleucus' eastern Persian provinces, Chandragupta had a vast empire extending across the northern parts of Indian Sub-continent, from the Bay of Bengal to the Arabian Sea. Chandragupta then began expanding his empire further south beyond the barrier of the Vindhya Range and into the Deccan Plateau except Tamil Country, Kalinga (modern day Orissa). By the time his conquests were complete, Chandragupta succeeded in unifying most of Southern Asia. Megasthenes later recorded the size of Chandragupta's acquired army as 400,000 soldiers, according to Strabo:

"Megasthenes was in the camp of Sandrocottus, which consisted of 400,000 men"
—Strabo, Geographica, 15.1.53

On the other hand, Pliny, who also drew from Megasthenes' work, gives even larger numbers of 600,000 infantry, 30,000 cavalry, and 9,000 war elephants:

"But the Prasii surpass in power and glory every other people, not only in this quarter, but one may say in all India, their capital Pilibothra, a very large and wealthy city, after which some call the people itself the Pilibothri,—nay even the whole tract along the Ganges. Their king has in his pay a standing army of 600,000-foot-soldiers, 30,000 cavalry, and 9,000 elephants: whence may be formed some conjecture as to the vastness of his resources."
—Pliny, Natural History VI, 22.4

Jainism
Chandragupta gave up his throne towards the end of his life and became an ascetic under the Jain saint Bhadradhau, migrating south with them and ending his days in sallekhana at Shravanabelagola, in present day Karnataka; though fifth-century inscriptions in the area support the concept of a larger southern migration around that time.[25] A small temple marks the cave (Bhadradhau Cave) where he is said to have died by fasting.

There are two hills in Shravanabelagola, Chandragiri (Chikkabetta) and Vindyagiri. The last shruta-kevali, Bhadradhau Swami, and his pupil, Chandragupta Maurya (formerly the King), are believed to have meditated here. Chandragupta Basadi, which was dedicated to Emperor Chandragupta Maurya, was originally built there by Emperor Ashoka in the third century BC.

Successors
Main article: Maurya Empire
Chandragupta Maurya renounced his throne to his son, Bindusara, who became the new Mauryan Emperor. Bindusara's son Ashoka the Great, became one of the most influential kings in India's history due to his important role in the history of Buddhism. Ashoka the Great after witnessing the results of his wars, became a devoted Buddhist and a man of peace.

In popular culture Kautilya's role in the formation of the Mauryan Empire is the essence of a historical/spiritual novel The Courtesan and the Sadhu by Dr. Mysore N. Prakash.[26]

In Santosh Sivan's 2001 epic Hindi language film Asoka, the last moments of Chandra Gupta Maurya as an emperor is portrayed. Also the sword of Chandra Gupta Maurya plays an important role in the film. The film opens with an old and tired Chandragupta Maurya giving away all his material possessions and taking the life of a Jain saint. His favorite grandson, prince Asoka, claims his grandfather's sword. Chandra Gupta Maurya explains that the sword is in fact a demon that, whenever unsheathed, craves blood without regard to friend or foe. He throws away the sword but the young prince Asoka reclaims and unsheathes it whereupon it accidentally slashes his dear birds on a tree. At one point, Emperor Asoka mentions that he "want to be a greater emperor than Chandra Gupta Maurya". The film ends with Emperor Asoka throwing the sword at the same spot his grandfather, Chandragupta Maurya, had thrown it and embracing Buddhism. Emperor Asoka understands that his grandfather's advice about the sword was right.
Television series Chanakya is archetypal account of the life and times of Chanakya, based on the play "Mudra Rakshasa" (The Signet Ring of "Rakshasa")
A Television series on Imagine TV available as "Chandragupta Maurya" (The serial is based on the life of Indian ruler "Chandragupta Maurya" and "Chanakya")[27]

Child of KING CHANDRAGUPTA and PRINCESS NANDINI is:
37.  i.  BINDUSA28 (AMITROCHATES), KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE.

Generation No. 24


Child of MAIN is:
38.  i.  ROTHEAUCHTACH29.


Notes for BINDUSA (AMITROCHATES), KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE:
Bindusara was the second Mauryan emperor (c. 320 BC – 272 BC, ruled. 298 BC – c. 272 BC) after Chandragupta Maurya the Great. During his reign, the empire expanded southwards. He had two well-known sons, Susima and Ashoka, who were the viceroys of Taxila and Ujjain. The Greeks called him Amitrochates or Allitrochades - the Greek transiteration for the Sanskrit word 'Amitraghata' (Slayer of enemies). He was also called 'Ajatashatru' (Man with no enemies) in Sanskrit.[2]

Bindusara was the son of the first Mauryan emperor Chandragupta and his queen Durdhara. According to a legend mentioned in the Jain texts, Chandragupta's Guru and advisor Chanakya used to feed the emperor with small doses of poison to build his immunity against possible poisoning attempts by the enemies.[3] One day, Chandragupta not knowing about poison, shared his food with his pregnant wife queen Durdhara who was 7 days away from delivery. The queen not immune to the poison collapsed and died within few minutes. Chanakya entered the room the very time she collapsed, and in order to save the child in the womb, he immediately cut open the dead queen's belly and took the baby out, by that time a drop of poison had already reached the baby and touched its head due to which child got a permanent blueish spot (a "bindu") on his forehead. Thus, the newborn was named "Bindusara".[4]

Bindusara inherited a large empire that consisted of what is now, Northern, Central and Eastern parts of India along with parts of Afghanistan and Baluchistan. Bindusara extended this empire to the southern part of India, as far as what is now known as Karnataka. He brought sixteen states under the Mauryan Empire and thus conquered almost
all of the Indian peninsula (he is said to have conquered the 'land between the two seas' - the peninsular region between the Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea). Bindusara didn't conquer the friendly Dravidian kingdoms of the Cholas, Pandyas, and Cheras. Apart from these southern states, Kalinga (the modern Orissa) was the only kingdom in India that didn't form the part of Bindusara's empire. It was later conquered by his son Ashoka, who served as the viceroy of Ujjaini during his father's reign.

Bindusara's life has not been documented as well as that of his father Chandragupta or of his son Ashoka. Chanakya continued to serve as prime minister during his reign. During his rule, the citizens of Taxila revolted twice. The reason for the first revolt was the maladministration of Suseema, his eldest son. The reason for the second revolt is unknown, but Bindusara could not suppress it in his lifetime. It was crushed by Ashoka after Bindusara's death.

Ambassadors from Seleucid Empire (such as Deimachus) and Egypt visited his courts. He maintained good relations with the Hellenic World. Unlike his father Chandragupta (who was a Jain), he believed in the Ajivika (an ancient Indian sect that preached equality for all people).

Bindusara died in 273 BC (some records say 268 BC) and was succeeded by his son Ashoka the Great.

Bindusara extended his empire further as far as south Mysore. He conquered sixteen states and extended the empire from sea to sea. The empire included the whole of India except the region of Kalinga (modern Orissa) and the Dravidian kingdoms of the south. Kalinga was conquered by Bindusara's son Ashoka.

Early Tamil poets speak of Mauryan chariots thundering across the land, their white pennants brilliant in the sunshine. Bindusara campaigned in the Deccan, extending the Mauryan empire in the peninsula to as far as Mysore. He is said to have conquered 'the land between the two seas', presumably the Arabian sea and the Bay of Bengal.

Administration during Bindusara's Reign
Bindusara maintained good relations with Seleucus Nicator and the emperors regularly exchanged ambassadors and presents. He also maintained the friendly relations with the Hellenic West established by his father. Ambassadors from Syria and Egypt lived at Bindusara's court. He preferred the Ajivika philosophy rather than Jainism.

Apparently he was a man of wide interest and taste, since tradition had it that he asked Antiochus I to send him some sweet wine, dried figs and a sophist:

“ But dried figs were so very much sought after by all men (for really, as Aristophanes says, There's really nothing nicer than dried figs), that even Amitrochates, the king of the Indians, wrote to Antiochus, entreating him (it is Hugesander from Delphi who tells this story) to buy and send him some sweet wine, and some dried figs, and a sophist; and that Antiochus wrote to him in answer, The dry figs and the sweet wine we will send you; but it is not lawful for a sophist to be sold in Greece Athenaeus, "Deipnosophilistae" XIV.67 [5] ”

References
2. "Both of these men (Megasthenes and Deimachus) were sent ambassadors to Palimbothra (Pataliputra): Megasthenes to Sandroctottus, Deimachus to Allitrochades his son" (Strabo II.I, 9).He had a big family. Strabo II.I, 9
5. Athenaeus, "Deipnosophilistae" XIV.67

Child of BINDUSA (AMITROCHATES) and SUBHADRANGI (DHARMA) is:
39. i. ASHOKA29 VARDHANA, KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE.

Generation No. 25

Notes for Rotheachtach:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Rotheachtid, son of Maen, son of Óengus Olmacid, was, according to according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He came to power by killing the previous incumbent, his grandfather’s killer Ënna Airgdech, in the battle of Raigne. He ruled for twenty-two years. The Lebor Gabála Erenn gives two versions of his death. In one version, he was killed in single combat in Cruachan by Sétna Airt, who fought to protect his son Fiachu Finscoothach. In the other version, he died of his wounds in Tara.[1] The chronology of Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 1005–980 BC,[2] that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 1383–1358 BC.[3]

His son was Demal mac Rotheachtid.

Child of Rotheachtach is:
40. i. Dein³⁰

39. **Ashoka**²⁹ Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire (Bindusa²⁸, Amrochatas, King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire, Chandragupta, Maurya²⁶, V. of Magadha, Maurya IV of²⁵, Taxila, Maurya III of²⁴, Maurya II of²³, Princess of Persis²², Chandhravarna, Princess of Persis²¹ Atossa, Princess of Egypt²⁰ Neithyti, Haiibre,²⁹ Waiibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II, Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebo’s “Necho”¹⁷ II, Psamtek¹⁶ I, Neko¹⁵ I, Shepesesre¹⁴, TefnakthII, Prince of Egypt, Bakenrafe (Bocchoris) Wah Ka¹³ Re, Tefnakht (I), Shesres Re of ¹² Egypt, Osorkon IV ‘C of ¹¹ Maat, Shoshonk V¹⁰ Aakheperre, Stepene†² Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk³ II, Takeolt² II, Osorkon² II, Takeolt² I, Osorkon³ I, Shoshonk³ I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot², the Great Chief of the Ma³ Shoshenq) He married Queen of Maurya Empire Padmayati.

Notes for Ashoka Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire:
Ashok Maurya or Ashoka (Devanagari: ??, Bangla: ???, IAST: Asoka, IPA: [a’so’kә], ca. 304–232 BC), popularly known as Ashoka the Great, was an Indian emperor of the Maurya Dynasty who ruled almost all of the Indian subcontinent from ca. 269 BC to 232 BC.[1] One of India's greatest emperors, Ashoka reigned over most of present-day India after a number of military conquests. His empire stretched from present-day Pakistan and Afghanistan in the west, to the present-day Bangladesh and the Indian state of Assam in the east, and as far south as northern Kerala and Andhra Pradesh. He conquered his kingdom named Kalinga, which no one in his dynasty had conquered starting from Chandragupta Maurya. His reign was headquartered in Magadha (present-day Bihar, India). He embraced Buddhism from the prevalent Hindu tradition after witnessing the mass deaths of the war of Kalinga, which he himself had waged out of a desire for conquest. He was later dedicated to the propagation of Buddhism across Asia and established monuments marking several significant sites in the life of Gautama Buddha. Ashoka was a devotee of ahimsa (nonviolence), love, truth, tolerance and vegetarianism. Ashoka is remembered in history as a philanthropic administrator. In the history of India, Ashoka is referred to as Samraat Chakravartin Ashoka - the Emperor of Emperors Ashoka.

His name "asoka" means "painless, without sorrow" in Sanskrit (the a privativum and soka "pain, distress"). In his edicts, he is referred to as Devamunpriya (Pali Devana?piya or "The Beloved Of The Gods"), and Priyadarsin (Pali
Piyadasi or "He who regards everyone with affection").

Along with the Edicts of Ashoka, his legend is related in the later 2nd century Asokavadana ("Narrative of Asoka") and Divyavadana ("Divine narrative"), and in the Sri Lankan text Mahavamsa ("Great Chronicle").

Ashoka played a critical role in helping make Buddhism a world religion.[2] As the peace-loving ruler of one of the world’s largest, richest and most powerful multi-ethnic states, he is considered an exemplary ruler, who tried to put into practice a secular state ethic of non-violence. The emblem of the modern Republic of India is an adaptation of the Lion Capital of Ashoka.

Ashoka was born to the Mauryan emperor Bindusara and his queen, Dharma [or Dhamma]. Ashokavadana states that his mother was a queen named Subhadrangi, the daughter of Champa of Telangana. A palace intrigue kept her away from the king. This eventually ended, and she bore a son. It is from her exclamation "I am now without sorrow", that Ashoka got his name. The Divyavadana tells a similar story, but gives the name of the queen as Janapadakalyani.[3][4]

Ashoka had several elder siblings, all of whom were his half-brothers from other wives of Bindusara.

He had been given the royal military training knowledge. He was a fearsome hunter, and according to a legend, he killed a lion with just a wooden rod. He was very adventurous and a trained fighter, who was known for his skills with the sword. Because of his reputation as a frightening warrior and a heartless general, he was sent to curb the riots in the Avanti province of the Mauryan empire.[5]

The Divyavandana refers to Ashoka putting down a revolt due to activities of wicked ministers. This may have been an incident in Bindusara’s times. Taranatha’s account states that Chanakya, one of Bindusara’s great lords, destroyed the nobles and kings of 16 towns and made himself the master of all territory between the eastern and the western seas. Some historians consider this as an indication of Bindusara’s conquest of the Deccan while others consider it as suppression of a revolt. Following this Ashoka was stationed at Ujjayini as governor.[4]

Bindusara’s death in 273 BC led to a war over succession. According to Divyavandana, Bindusara wanted his son Sushim to succeed him but Ashoka was supported by his father’s ministers. A minister named Radhagupta seems to have played an important role. One of the Ashokavandana states that Ashoka managed to become the king by getting rid of the legitimate heir to the throne, by tricking him into entering a pit filled with live coals. The Dipavansa and Mahavansa refer to Ashoka killing 99 of his brothers, sparing only one, named Tissa. [4] Although there is no clear proof about this incident. The coronation happened in 269 BC, four years after his succession to the throne.

Ashoka is said to have been of a wicked nature and bad temper. He submitted his ministers to a test of loyalty and had 500 of them killed.[citation needed]

Ascending the throne, Ashoka expanded his empire over the next eight years, from the present-day boundaries and regions of Burma–Bangladesh and the state of Assam in India in the east to the territory of present-day Afghanistan in the west; from the Pamir Knots in the north almost to the peninsular of southern India (i.e. Tamil Nadu / Andhra Pradesh).[4]

Conquest of Kalinga
Main article: Kalinga War
While the early part of Ashoka’s reign was apparently quite bloodthirsty, he became a follower of the Buddha’s teaching after his conquest of Kalinga on the east coast of India in the present-day states of southern Orissa and north coastal Andhra Pradesh. Kalinga was a state that prided itself on its sovereignty and democracy. With its monarchical parliamentary democracy it was quite an exception in ancient Bharata where there existed the concept of Rajdharma. Rajdharma means the duty of the rulers, which was intrinsically entwined with the concept of bravery and Kshatriya dharma. The Kalinga war happened eight years after his coronation. From his 13th inscription, we come to know that the battle was a massive one and caused death to more than 100,000 soldiers and many more common people who were defending their mother land; over 150,000 were deported,[6]. When he was walking through the grounds of kalinga after his conquer, rejoicing his victory, he was moved by the number of bodies strewn
there and the helpless wails of the kith and kin of the dead.

As the legend goes, one day after the war was over, Ashoka ventured out to roam the city and all he could see were burnt houses and scattered corpses. This sight made him sick and he cried the famous monologue:

What have I done? If this is a victory, what's a defeat then? Is this a victory or a defeat? Is this justice or injustice? Is it gallantry or a rout? Is it valor to kill innocent children and women? Do I do it to widen the empire and for prosperity or to destroy the other’s kingdom and splendor? One has lost her husband, someone else a father, someone a child, someone an unborn infant.... What's this debris of the corpses? Are these marks of victory or defeat? Are these vultures, crows, eagles the messengers of death or evil?

The brutality of the conquest led him to adopt Buddhism, and he used his position to propagate the relatively new religion to new heights, as far as ancient Rome and Egypt. He made Buddhism his state religion around 260 BC, and propagated it and preached it within his domain and worldwide from about 250 BC. Emperor Ashoka undoubtedly has to be credited with the first serious attempt to develop a Buddhist policy.

Ashokan Pillar at Vaishali
Prominent in this cause were his son Venerable Rahul and daughter Sanghamitra (whose name means "friend of the Sangha"), who established Buddhism in Ceylon (now Sri Lanka). He built thousands of Stupas and Viharas for Buddhist followers. The Stupas of Sanchi are world famous and the stupa named Sanchi Stupa was built by Emperor Ashoka. During the remaining portion of Ashoka's reign, he pursued an official policy of nonviolence (ahimsa).

Even the unnecessary slaughter or mutilation of animals was immediately abolished. Everyone became protected by the king's law against sport hunting and branding. Limited hunting was permitted for consumption reasons but Ashoka also promoted the concept of vegetarianism. Ashoka also showed mercy to those imprisoned, allowing them leave for the outside a day of the year. He attempted to raise the professional ambition of the common man by building universities for study, and water transit and irrigation systems for trade and agriculture. He treated his subjects as equals regardless of their religion, politics and caste. The kingdoms surrounding his, so easily overthrown, were instead made to be well-respected allies.

He is acclaimed for constructing hospitals for animals and renovating major roads throughout India. After this transformation, Ashoka came to be known as Dhammashoka (Sanskrit), meaning Ashoka, the follower of Dharma. Ashoka defined the main principles of dharma (dhamma) as nonviolence, tolerance of all sects and opinions, obedience to parents, respect for the Brahmans and other religious teachers and priests, liberality towards friends, humane treatment of servants, and generosity towards all. These principles suggest a general ethic of behaviour to which no religious or social group could object.

Some critics say that Ashoka was afraid of more wars, but among his neighbors, including the Seleucid Empire and the Greco-Bactrian kingdom established by Diodotus I, none could match his strength. He was a contemporary of both Antiochus I Soter and his successor Antiochus II Theos of the Seleucid dynasty as well as Diodotus I and his son Diodotus II of the Greco-Bactrian kingdom. If his inscriptions and edicts are well studied one finds that he was familiar with the Hellenic world but never edicts, which talk of friendly relations, give the names of both Antiochus of the Seleucid empire and Ptolemy III of Egypt. The fame of the Mauryan empire was widespread from the time that Ashoka's grandfather Chandragupta Maurya defeated Seleucus Nicator, the founder of the Seleucid Dynasty.

Stupa of Sanchi. The source of much of our knowledge of Ashoka is the many inscriptions he had carved on pillars and rocks throughout the empire. All his inscriptions have the imperial touch and show compassionate loving. He addressed his people as his "children". These inscriptions promoted Buddhist morality and encouraged nonviolence and adherence to Dharma (duty or proper behavior), and they talk of his fame and conquered lands as well as the neighboring kingdoms holding up his might. One also gets some primary information about the Kalinga War and Ashoka's allies plus some useful knowledge on the civil administration. The Ashoka Pillar at Sarnath is the most popular of the relics left by Ashoka. Made of sandstone, this pillar records the visit of the emperor to Sarnath, in the 3rd century BC. It has a four-lion capital (four lions standing back to back) which was adopted as the emblem of the modern Indian republic. The lion symbolizes both Ashoka's imperial rule and the kingship of the Buddha. In translating these monuments, historians learn the bulk of what is assumed to have been true fact of the Mauryan
Empire. It is difficult to determine whether or not some actual events ever happened, but the stone etchings clearly depict how Ashoka wanted to be thought of and remembered.

Ashoka's own words as known from his Edicts are: "All men are my children. I am like a father to them. As every father desires the good and the happiness of his children, I wish that all men should be happy always." Edward D'Cruz interprets the Ashokan dharma as a "religion to be used as a symbol of a new imperial unity and a cementing force to weld the diverse and heterogeneous elements of the empire".

Also, in the Edicts, Ashoka mentions Hellenistic kings of the period as converts to Buddhism, although no Hellenic historical record of this event remain:

The conquest by Dharma has been won here, on the borders, and even six hundred yojanas (5,400–9,600 km) away, where the Greek king Antiocchos rules, beyond there where the four kings named Ptolemy, Antigonos, Magas and Alexander rule, likewise in the south among the Cholas, the Pandyas, and as far as Tambaparni (Sri Lanka).

—Edicts of Ashoka, Rock Edict 13 (S. Dhammika)

Ashoka also claims that he encouraged the development of herbal medicine, for human and nonhuman animals, in their territories:

Everywhere within Beloved-of-the-Gods, King Piyadasi's [Ashoka's] domain, and among the people beyond the borders, the Cholas, the Pandyas, the Satiyaputras, the Keralaputras, as far as Tamraparni and where the Greek king Antiocchos rules, and among the kings who are neighbours of Antiocchos, everywhere has Beloved-of-the-Gods, King Piyadasi, made provision for two types of medical treatment: medical treatment for humans and medical treatment for animals. Wherever medical herbs suitable for humans or animals are not available, I have had them imported and grown. Wherever medical roots or fruits are not available I have had them imported and grown. Along roads I have had wells dug and trees planted for the benefit of humans and animals.

—Edicts of Ashoka, Rock Edict 2

The Greeks in India even seem to have played an active role in the propagation of Buddhism, as some of the emissaries of Ashoka, such as Dharmaraksita, are described in Pali sources as leading Greek (Yona) Buddhist monks, active in spreading Buddhism (the Mahavamsa, XII[7]).

Death and legacy

The Junagadh rock contains inscriptions by Ashoka (fourteen of the Edicts of Ashoka), Rudradaman I and Skandagupta. Ashoka ruled for an estimated forty years. After his death, the Mauryan dynasty lasted just fifty more years. Ashoka had many wives and children, but many of their names are lost to time. Mahindra and Sanghamitra were twins born by his first wife, Devi, in the city of Ujjain. He had entrusted to them the job of making his state religion, Buddhism, more popular across the known and the unknown world. Mahindra and Sanghamitra went into Sri Lanka and converted the King, the Queen and their people to Buddhism. They were naturally not handling state affairs after him.

In his old age, he seems to have come under the spell of his youngest wife Tishyaraksha. It is said that she had got his son Kunala, the regent in Takshashila, blinded by a wily stratagem. The official executioners spared Kunala and he became a wandering singer accompanied by his favourite wife Kanchanamala. In Pataliputra, Ashoka hears Kunala's song, and realizes that Kunala's misfortune may have been a punishment for some past sin of the emperor himself and condemns Tishyaraksha to death, restoring Kunala to the court. Kunala was succeeded by his son, Samprati, but his rule did not last long after Ashoka's death.

In the year 185 BC, about fifty years after Ashoka's death, the last Maurya ruler, Brhadrata, was assassinated by the commander-in-chief of the Mauryan armed forces, Pusyamitra Sunga, while he was taking the Guard of Honor of his forces. Pusyamitra Sunga founded the Sunga dynasty (185 BC-78 BC) and ruled just a fragmented part of the Mauryan Empire. Many of the northwestern territories of the Mauryan Empire (modern-day Afghanistan and
Northern Pakistan) became the Indo-Greek Kingdom.

In 1992, Ashoka was ranked #53 on Michael H. Hart's list of the most influential figures in history. In 2001, a semi-fictionalized portrayal of Ashoka's life was produced as a motion picture under the title Asoka. King Ashoka, the third monarch of the Indian Mauryan dynasty, has come to be regarded as one of the most exemplary rulers in world history. The British historian H.G. Wells has written: "Amidst the tens of thousands of names of monarchs that crowd the columns of history, their majesties and graciousnesses and serenities and royal highnesses and the like, the name of Asoka shines, and shines, almost alone, a star."

Buddhist Kingship

Main articles: History of Buddhism and History of Buddhism in India
Further information: Buddhism in Sri Lanka and Buddhism in Burma

One of the more enduring legacies of Ashoka Maurya was the model that he provided for the relationship between Buddhism and the state. Throughout Theravada Southeastern Asia, the model of ruler ship embodied by Ashoka replaced the notion of divine kingship that had previously dominated (in the Angkor kingdom, for instance). Under this model of 'Buddhist kingship', the king sought to legitimize his rule not through descent from a divine source, but by supporting and earning the approval of the Buddhist sangha. Following Ashoka's example, kings established monasteries, funded the construction of stupas, and supported the ordination of monks in their kingdom. Many rulers also took an active role in resolving disputes over the status and regulation of the sangha, as Ashoka had in calling a conclave to settle a number of contentious issues during his reign. This development ultimately lead to a close association in many Southeast Asian countries between the monarchy and the religious hierarchy, an association that can still be seen today in the state-supported Buddhism of Thailand and the traditional role of the Thai king as both a religious and secular leader. Ashoka also said that all his courtiers were true to their self and governed the people in a moral manner.

Historical sources

Western sources

Ashoka was almost forgotten by the historians of the early British India, but James Prinsep contributed in the revelation of historical sources. Another important historian was British archaeologist John Hubert Marshall who was director-General of the Archaeological Survey of India. His main interests were Sanchi and Sarnath besides Harappa and Mohenjodaro. Sir Alexander Cunningham, a British archaeologist and army engineer and often known as the father of the Archaeological Survey of India, unveiled heritage sites like the Bharhut Stupa, Sarnath, Sanchi, and the Mahabodhi Temple; thus, his contribution is recognizable in realms of historical sources. Mortimer Wheeler, a British archaeologist, also exposed Ashokan historical sources, especially the Taxila.

Eastern sources

Main articles: Edicts of Ashoka, Ashokavadana, Mahavamsa, and Dipavamsa

Bilingual inscription in (Greek and Aramaic) by king Ashoka, from Kandahar (Shar-i-kuna). Kabul Museum.Information about the life and reign of Ashoka primarily comes from a relatively small number of Buddhist sources. In particular, the Sanskrit Ashokavadana ('Story of Ashoka'), written in the 2nd century, and the two Pali chronicles of Sri Lanka (the Dipavamsa and Mahavamsa) provide most of the currently known information about Ashoka. Additional information is contributed by the Edicts of Asoka, whose authorship was finally attributed to the Ashoka of Buddhist legend after the discovery of dynastic lists that gave the name used in the edicts (Priyadarsi – 'favored by the Gods') as a title or additional name of Ashoka Mauriya. Architectural remains of his period have been found at Kumhrar, Patna, which include an 80-pillar hypostyle hall.

Edicts of Ashoka - The Edicts of Ashoka are a collection of 33 inscriptions on the Pillars of Ashoka, as well as boulders and cave walls, made by the Emperor Ashoka of the Mauryan dynasty during his reign from 272 to 231 BC. These inscriptions are dispersed throughout the areas of modern-day Pakistan and India, and represent the first tangible evidence of Buddhism. The edicts describe in detail the first wide expansion of Buddhism through the sponsorship of one of the most powerful kings of Indian history. It give more information about Ashoka's proselytism, Moral precepts, Religious precepts, Social and animal welfare.

Ashokavadana - The Ashokavadana is a 2nd century CE text related to the legend of the Maurya Emperor Ashoka. The legend was translated into Chinese by Fa Hien in 300 CE.
Mahavamsa - The Mahavamsa ("Great Chronicle") is a historical poem written in the Pali language, of the kings of Sri Lanka. It covers the period from the coming of King Vijaya of Kalinga (ancient Orissa) in 543 BC to the reign of King Mahasena (334–361). As it often refers to the royal dynasties of India, the Mahavamsa is also valuable for historians who wish to date and relate contemporary royal dynasties in the Indian subcontinent. It is very important in dating the consecration of the Maurya emperor Ashoka.

Dipavamsa - The Dipavamsa, or "Deepavamsa", (i.e., Chronicle of the Island, in Pali) is the oldest historical record of Sri Lanka. The chronicle is believed to be compiled from Atthakatha and other sources around the 3–4th century, King Dhatusena (4th century CE) had ordered that the Dipavamsa be recited at the Mahinda (son to Ashoka) festival held annually in Anuradhapura.

The use of Buddhist sources in reconstructing the life of Ashoka has had a strong influence on perceptions of Ashoka, as well as the interpretations of his edicts. Building on traditional accounts, early scholars regarded Ashoka as a primarily Buddhist monarch who underwent a conversion to Buddhism and was actively engaged in sponsoring and supporting the Buddhist monastic institution. Some scholars have tended to question this assessment. The only source of information not attributable to Buddhist sources are the Ashokan edicts, and these do not explicitly state that Ashoka was a Buddhist. In his edicts, Ashoka expresses support for all the major religions of his time: Buddhism, Brahmanism, Jainism, and Ajivikaism, and his edicts addressed to the population at large (there are some addressed specifically to Buddhists; this is not the case for the other religions) generally focus on moral themes members of all the religions would accept.

However, there is strong evidence in the edicts alone that he was a Buddhist. In one edict he belittles rituals, and he banned Vedic animal sacrifices; these strongly suggest that he at least did not look to the Vedic tradition for guidance. Furthermore, there are many edicts expressed to Buddhists alone; in one, Ashoka declares himself to be an "upasaka", and in another he demonstrates a close familiarity with Buddhist texts. He erected rock pillars at Buddhist holy sites, but did not do so for the sites of other religions. He also used the word "dhamma" to refer to qualities of the heart that underlie moral action; this was an exclusively Buddhist use of the word. Finally, the ideals he promotes correspond to the first three steps of the Buddha's graduated discourse.[8]

Contributions
Global spread of Buddhism
Ashoka, now a Buddhist emperor, believed that Buddhism is beneficial for all human beings as well as animals and plants, so he built 84,000 stupas, Sangharama, viharas, Chaitya, and residences for Buddhist monks all over South Asia and Central Asia. He gave donations to viharas and mathas. He sent his only daughter Sanghamitta and son Mahindra to spread Buddhism in Sri Lanka (ancient name Tamraparni). Ashoka also sent many prominent Buddhist monks (bhikshus) Sthaviras like Madhyamik Sthavira to modern Kashmir and Afghanistan; Maharashkrit Sthavira to Syria, Persia / Iran, Egypt, Greece, Italy and Turkey; Massim Sthavira to Nepal, Bhutan, China and Mongolia; Sohn Uttar Sthavira to modern Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar (old name Suvarnabhumi for Burma and Thailand), Thailand and Vietnam; Mahadhammarakkhita sathivara to Maharashtra (old name Maharatttha); Maharakkhit Sthavira and Yavandhammarakkhita Sthavira to South India. Ashoka also invited Buddhists and non-Buddhists for religious conferences. Ashoka inspired the Buddhist monks to compose the sacred religious texts, and also gave all types of help to that end. Ashoka also helped to develop viharas (intellectual hubs) such as Nalanda and Taxila. Ashoka helped to construct Sanchi and Mahabodhi Temple. Ashoka never tried to harm or to destroy non-Buddhist religions, and indeed gave donations to non-Buddhists. As his reign continued his even-handedness was replaced with special inclination towards Buddhism.[9] Ashoka helped and respected both Sramans (Buddhists monks) and Brahmins (Vedic monks). Ashoka also helped to organize the Third Buddhist council (c. 250 BC) at Pataliputra (today's Patna). It was conducted by the monk Moggaliputta-Tissa who was the spiritual teacher of the Mauryan Emperor Ashoka.

As administrator
Mauryan ringstone, with standing goddess. Northwest Pakistan, third century BC. British Museum. Ashoka's military power was so strong that he was able to crush those empires that went to war against him. Still, he was on friendly terms with kingdoms in the South like Cholas, Pandya, Keralputra, the post Alexandrian empire, Tamraparni, and Suvarnabhumi who were strong enough to remain outside his empire and continued to profess Hinduism. According to his edicts we know that he provided humanitarian help including doctors, hospitals, inns, wells, medical herbs and engineers to his neighboring countries. In neighboring countries, Ashoka helped humans as well as animals. Ashoka
also planted trees in his empire and his neighboring countries. Ashoka was perhaps the first emperor in human history to ban slavery, hunting, fishing and deforestation. Ashoka also banned the death sentence and asked the same for the neighboring countries.[10] Ashoka commanded his people to serve the orders of their elders, parents and religious monks (shramana and Brahmin). Ashoka also recommended his people study and respect all religions. According to Ashoka, to harm another's religion is a harm to one's own religion. Ashoka was against any discrimination among humans. He helped students, the poor, orphans and the elderly with social, political and economic help. According to Ashoka, hatred gives birth to hatred and a feeling of love gives birth to love and mercy. According to him the happiness of people is the happiness of the ruler. His opinion was that the sword is not as powerful as love. Ashoka was also kind to prisoners, and respected animal life and tree life. Ashoka allowed females to be educated. He also permitted females to enter religious institutions. He allowed female Buddhist monastics such as Bhikkhuni. He combined in himself the complexity of a king and the simplicity of a buddhist monk. Because of these reasons he is known as the emperor of all ages and thus became a milestone in the History of the world.

The Ashoka Chakra, "the wheel of Righteousness" (Dharma in Sanskrit or Dhamma in Pali)"The Ashoka Chakra (the wheel of Ashoka) is a depiction of the Dharmachakra or Dhammachakka in Pali, the Wheel of Dharma (Sanskrit: Chakra means wheel). The wheel has 24 spokes. The Ashoka Chakra has been widely inscribed on many relics of the Mauryan Emperor, most prominent among which is the Lion Capital of Sarnath and The Ashoka Pillar. The most visible use of the Ashoka Chakra today is at the centre of the National flag of the Republic of India (adopted on 22 July 1947), where it is rendered in a Navy-blue color on a White background, by replacing the symbol of Charkha (Spinning wheel) of the pre-independence versions of the flag. Ashoka Chakra can also been seen on the base of Lion Capital of Ashoka which has been adopted as the National Emblem of India.

The Ashoka chakra was built by Ashoka during his reign. Chakra is a Sanskrit word which also means cycle or self repeating process. The process it signifies is the cycle of time as how the world changes with time.

A few days before India became independent on August 1947, the specially constituted Constituent Assembly decided that the flag of India must be acceptable to all parties and communities.[11] A flag with three colours, Saffron, White and Green with the Ashoka Chakra was selected.

Pillars of Ashoka (Ashokstambha)

The Asokan pillar at Lumbini, Nepal The pillars of Ashoka are a series of columns dispersed throughout the northern Indian subcontinent, and erected by Ashoka during his reign in the 3rd century BC. Originally, there must have been many pillars of Ashoka although only ten with inscriptions still survive. Averaging between forty and fifty feet in height, and weighing up to fifty tons each, all the pillars were quarried at Chunar, just south of Varanasi and dragged, sometimes hundreds of miles, to where they were erected. The first Pillar of Ashoka was found in the 16th century by Thomas Coryat in the ruins of ancient Delhi.

Child of ASHOKA VARDHANA and Queen PADMAYATI is:

41. i. KING OF KASHMIR AND GANDHARA KUNALA.

Generation No. 26

40. DEIRETHACTACH, MAIN, AONGUS OLMUCACH, FIACH, LABHRAINN, SMIOMGHALL, ENBOATH, TIGERNMAS, FOLL-AICH, EITHRIAL, IRIAL, FAIDH (FAITH), MACEREMOIN, HEREMON (2ND
Emperor's succeeded by another, older grandson, Dasaratha. After the demise of Dasaratha, Sampriti did indeed become Emperor.

When Ashoka died, Sampriti was as yet too young to rule. Therefore, Ashoka was but for his son. “When,” cried the king, “has a son been born to you?” “Samprati” (meaning “Just now”) was the name given to Kunala's son, and though a baby in arms, he was anointed king.

Ashoka sent his son to Ujjain, there to be brought up and carry out his princely education, to become the heir to the throne of the Mauryan Empire.

When the prince was eight years old, the king wrote (in Prakrit) to the tutors that Kunala should begin his studies.[1]

One of Ashoka's wives who wanted to secure the succession to her own son, being then present took up the letter to read it. She secretly put a dot over the letter ‘a’, changed Adheeyu into Andheeyu. Without rereading the letter, the king sealed and dispatched it. The clerk in Ujjayini was so shocked by the cruel sentence of his father. Considering that as yet no Maurya prince had disobeyed the chief of the house, she sought to correct the error. She secretly put a dot over the letter 'a', changed Adheeyu into Andheeyu.

When Kunala had been sent to Taxila to put down a rebellion, which he managed to do peacefully. But he was similarly blinded through the treacherousness of Ashoka's wife Tishyaraksha.

Alternatively, some stories explain that Kunala was to have been blinded by his father. But when the prince was eight years old, the king wrote (in Prakrit) to the tutors that Kunala should begin his studies.[1] One of Ashoka's wives who wanted to secure the succession to her own son, being then present took up the letter to read it. She secretly put a dot over the letter ‘a', changed Adheeyu into Andheeyu -- another word, meaning he must be blinded. Without rereading the letter, the king sealed and dispatched it. The clerk in Ujjayini was so shocked by the cruel sentence of his father. Considering that as yet no Maurya prince had disobeyed the chief of the house, and unwilling to set a bad example, he stoutly put out his eyesight with a hot iron”. [1]

Notes for King of Kashmir and Gandhara Kunala:

[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Kunala or Kunal (3rd Century B.C) was the son of Emperor Ashoka and Queen Padmavati, and presumptive heir to the throne of the Mauryan Empire.

Kunal is the name of one of the Himalayan birds, (painted snipes). The meaning of Kunal in Sanskrit is "Lotus" in Sanskrit. Kunal also means "bird with beautiful eyes", "someone who sees beauty in everything" or "one with beautiful eyes" to see.[1].

Early life

Ashoka sent his son to Ujjain, there to be brought up and carry out his princely education, to become the heir to the throne of the Mauryan Empire.

Blinding

When the prince was eight years old, the king wrote (in Prakrit) to the tutors that Kunala should begin his studies.[1] One of Ashoka's wives who wanted to secure the succession to her own son, being then present took up the letter to read it. She secretly put a dot over the letter ‘a’, changed Adheeyu into Andheeyu -- another word, meaning he must be blinded. Without rereading the letter, the king sealed and dispatched it. The clerk in Ujjayini was so shocked by the cruel sentence of his father. Considering that as yet no Maurya prince had disobeyed the chief of the house, and unwilling to set a bad example, he stoutly put out his eyesight with a hot iron”. [1]

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[edit] Attempts to claim throne

Years later Kunala came to Ashoka's court dressed as a minstrel accompanied by his favourite wife Kanchanmala. When he greatly pleased the king by his music, the king wanted to reward him. At this, the minstrel revealed himself as prince Kunala and demanded his inheritance. Ashoka sadly objected that being blind, Kunala never could ascend the throne. Thereupon the latter said that he claimed the kingdom not for himself but for his son. "When," cried the king, "has a son been born to you?" "Samprati" (meaning "Just now") was the answer. Samprati accordingly was the name given to Kunala's son, and though a baby in arms, he was anointed Ashoka's successor. However, when Ashoka died, Sampriti was as yet too young to rule. Therefore, Ashoka was succeeded by another, older grandson, Dasaratha. After the demise of Dasaratha, Sampriti did indeed become Emperor. [1]
It is said that Prince Kunala established a kingdom in the Mithila region on the Indo-Nepal Border. It might be the same place where the present village, Kunauli (earlier known as Kunal Gram) at the bank of Kosi river at Indo-Nepal Border is situated. There are some historical and archaeological evidences to support this claim.

Portrayal in popular media
A semi-fictionalized portrayal of Kunal’s life was produced as a motion picture under the title Veer Kunal (1925). Ashok Kumar, a Tamil film was produced in 1941 based on the life of Kunal.

Kunal Pathri Temple
Another reference of Kunal comes from place called Kunal Pathri Temple (located in the Dhauladhar Ranges in Kangra District, Himachal Pradesh) which is rock pilgrimage near Dharamsala. It is said that there used to live a great devotee of Lord Vishnu named Kunal. This temple is dedicated to Goddess Kapaleshwari. It has beautiful carvings of gods and goddesses. It is believed that the skull of Devi Sati (Dakshayani), the wife of Lord Shiva, fell here after being cut off by the Chakra of Lord Vishnu into fifty-one pieces, to stop the ferocious dance, Tandava Nritya, of Shiva carrying the corpse of Sati (Dakshayani).

Child of King of Kashmir and Gandhara Kunala is:
43.  i.  King of Maurya Empire31 Brihadhratha.

Generation No. 27

42.  Siorna31 “Saoghalach” (Dein30, Rotheachtach29, Main28, Aongus27 Olmucach, Fiacha26 Labhrainn, Smiogmhal25, Enboath24, Tigernma23, Foll-Aich22, Ethrial21, Irial (Iarel Eurialus) Faidh (Faith)20 Mac Eremoin, Heremon (2nd Monarch) of Irelánd, Te Tephí18 Scota; Princess of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos “Necho”17 II; Psamtek6 I, Neko15 I, Shepsesre14 TefnakhtII. Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wahka13 Re, Tefnakhte (i) Shepses Re of Egypt, Osorkon IV, C of Ma’at, Shoshonk V, Aakheperre, Stepenre9 Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk III, TakelotII, OsorkonII, TakelotI, OsorkonI, ShoshonkI, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, NimlotII, the Great Chief of the Ma1 Shoshenq)

Notes for Siorna “Saoghalach”:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Sírna Sáeglach (“the long-lived”).[1] son of Dian mac Demal, son of Demal mac Rothechtaid, son of Rothechtaid mac Main, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He separated the province of Ulster from the authority of the High King, and is said to have made war against the Ulaid, who had killed his great father, for a hundred years according to the Lebor Gabála Érenn,[2] 150 years according to the Annals of the Four Masters,[3] but Geoffrey Keating, citing an ancient poem, gives him only twenty-one years.[4] According to one version of the Lebor Gabála, the Ulaid united with the Fomorians and gave him battle at Móin Trógaide in County Meath, but a plague fell on them and the leaders of both sides died. According to another version, agreed by Keating and the Four Masters, Sírna was killed by Rothechtad Rotha at Alind. The Lebor Gabála synchronises the start of his reign with the reign of Deioces of the Medes (694–665 BC), and his death with his successor Phraorites (665–633 BC). The chronology of Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Érinn dates his reign to 814–794 BC, that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 1181–1031 BC. His Son was Ailill Olcháin.

Child of Siorna ‘Saoghalach’ is:
44.  i.  Olioll12 Aolcheoin.
43. **KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE**\(^{31}\) **BRIHADRATHA (KING OF KASHMIR AND GANDHARA)**\(^{30}\) **KUNALA, ASHOKA**\(^{29}\) **VARDHANA, KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE, BINDUSA**\(^{28}\) (AMITROCHATES), **KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE, KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE**\(^{27}\) **CHANDRAGUPTA, MAURYA**\(^{26}\) **V. OF MAGADHA, MAURYA IV OF**\(^{25}\) **TAXILA, MAURYA III OF**\(^{24}\) **MAURYA II OF**\(^{23}\), **PRINCESS OF PERSIA**\(^{22}\) **CHANDRAVARNA, PRINCESS OF PERSIA**\(^{21}\) **ATOSA, PRINCESS OF EGYPT**\(^{20}\) **NEITHYTI, HAIubre**\(^{19}\) **WAHIBRE, KING OF EGYPT, PSAMTEK II**\(^{18}\) **NEFERIBRE, KING OF EGYPT, PHARAOH NECTANEBOS ‘NECHO’**\(^{17}\) **II’, PSAMTEK I, NEKO I, SHEPSESRE I, TEFNAKHTII, PRINCE OF EGYPT, BAKRENANEF (BOCCHORIS) WAH KA I, TEFNAKHTE (I) SHEPSES RE OF**\(^{12}\) **EGYPT, OSORKON IV ‘C’ OF**\(^{11}\) **MAAT, SHOSHONK V, AAKHEPERRE, STEPENRE II, PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONK III, TAKELOT II, OSORKON II, TAKELOT I, OSORKON I, SHOSHONK I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT, THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA II SHOSHENQ** He married **QUEEN OF MAURYA EMPIRE**.

Notes for **KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE** **BRIHADRATHA**:

[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Brihadratha Maurya was the last ruler of the Mauryan dynasty. He ruled from c. 187–180 BCE. He was killed by his senapati (commander-in-chief), Pushyamitra Sunga.

According to the Puranas, Brihadratha succeeded Satadhanvan and he ruled for seven years.\(^{[1]}\) Mauryan territories, centered around the capital of Patliputra, had shrunk considerably from the time of the great Emperor Ashoka when Brihadratha came to the throne.

In 180 BCE, northwestern India (parts of modern day Afghanistan and Pakistan) were attacked by the Greco-Bactrian king Demetrius. He established his rule in the Kabul Valley and parts of the Punjab (the present-day Pakistan). The Yuga Purana section of the Gargi Samhita says that the Yavana (Greco-Bactrian) army led by King Dhamamita (Demetrius) invaded the Mauryan territories during Brihadratha's reign and after occupying Panchala region and the cities of Saketa and Mathura, they finally captured Patliputra. But soon they had to leave to Bactria to fight a fierce battle (probably between Eucratides and Demetrius).\(^{[2]}\)

Usurpation of power by Pushyamitra Sunga

He was killed in 180 BCE and power usurped by his commander-in-chief, the Brahmin general Pushyamitra Sunga, who then took over the throne and established the Sunga dynasty. Banabhatta in his Harshacharita says, Pushyamitra, while parading the entire Mauryan army before Brihadratha on the pretext of showing him the strength of the army, crushed his master, Brihadratha Maurya, because he was too weak to keep his promise (probably to repulse the Yavanas).\(^{[3]}\)

Child of **KING BRIHADRATHA and QUEEN EMPIRE** is:

45. i. **SUNDARI**\(^{32}\) **MAURYA, PRINCESS OF MAURYA EMPIRE.**

**Generation No. 28**


Child of OLIOLL AOLCHEOIN is:

46. i. **GIALCHADH**\(^{33}\).

45. **SUNDARI**\(^{32}\) **MAURYA, PRINCESS OF MAURYA EMPIRE (KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE**\(^{31}\) **BRIHADRATHA, KING OF KASHMIR AND GANDHARA**\(^{30}\) **KUNALA, ASHOKA**\(^{29}\) **VARDHANA, KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE, BINDUSA**\(^{28}\) (AMITROCHATES),
The Maurya Empire was a geographically extensive Iron Age historical power in ancient India, ruled by the Mauryan dynasty from 321 to 185 BC. Originating from the kingdom of Magadha in the Indo-Gangetic plains (modern Bihar, eastern Uttar Pradesh and Bengal) in the eastern side of the Indian subcontinent, the empire had its capital city at Pataliputra (modern Patna).[1][2] The Empire was founded in 322 BC by Chandragupta Maurya, who had overthrown the Nanda Dynasty and rapidly expanded his power westwards across central and western India taking advantage of the disruptions of local powers in the wake of the withdrawal westward by Alexander the Great's Greek and Persian armies. By 320 BC the empire had fully occupied Northwestern India, defeating and conquering the satraps left by Alexander.[3]

Under Chandragupta, the Mauryan Empire conquered the trans-Indus region, which was under Macedonian rule. Chandragupta then defeated the invasion led by Seleucus I, a Greek general from Alexander's army. Under Chandragupta and his successors, internal and external trade, agriculture and economic activities, all thrived and expanded across India thanks to the creation of a single and efficient system of finance, administration, and security.

After the Kalinga War, the Empire experienced half a century of peace and security under Ashoka. Mauryan India also enjoyed an era of religious harmony, religious transformation, and expansion of the sciences and of knowledge. Chandragupta Maurya's embrace of Jainism increased social and religious renewal and reform across his society, while Ashoka's embrace of Buddhism has been said to have been the foundation of the reign of social and political peace and non-violence across all of India. Ashoka sponsored the spreading of Buddhist ideals into Sri Lanka, Southeast Asia, West Asia and Mediterranean Europe.[3]

The population of the empire has been estimated to be about 50-60 million making the Mauryan Empire one of the most populous empires of the time.[4][5]

Archaeologically, the period of Mauryan rule in South Asia falls into the era of Northern Black Polished Ware (NBPW). The Arthashastra and the Edicts of Ashoka are the primary sources of written records of Mauryan times. The Lion Capital of Asoka at Sarnath, has been made the national emblem of India.

Notes for Sundari Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire:
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Notes for Demetrius I, King of Bactria:
Demetrius I (Greek: ?, Persian: /Pashto:?) was a Buddhist Greco-Bactrian king (reigned circa 200–180 BC). He was the son of Euthydemus and succeeded him around 200 BC, after which he conquered extensive areas in what now is eastern Iran, Afghanistan and Pakistan[1] thus creating an Indo-Greek kingdom far from Hellenistic Greece. He was never defeated in battle and was posthumously qualified as the Invincible (Aniketos) on the pedigree coins of his successor Agathocles.[2]
"Demetrius" was the name of at least two, probably three Greek kings of Bactria (known as "????? ????" or Balkh Province in Afghanistan) and India. The much debated Demetrius II was a possible relative, whereas Demetrios III (c.100 BC), is known only from numismatic evidence.

The father of Demetrius, Euthydemus, was attacked by the Seleucid ruler Antiochus III around 210 BC. Although he commanded 10,000 horsemen, Euthydemus initially lost a battle on the Arius[3] and had to retreat. He then successfully resisted a three-year siege in the fortified city of Bactra, before Antiochus finally decided to recognize the new ruler.

The final negotiations were made between Antiochus III and Demetrius. Antiochus III was reportedly highly impressed by the demeanour of the young prince, and offered him one of his daughters in marriage, around 206 BC:

"And after several journeys of Teleas to and fro between the two, Euthydemus at last sent his son Demetrius to confirm the terms of the treaty. Antiochus received the young prince; and judging from his appearance, conversation, and the dignity of his manners that he was worthy of royal power, he first promised to give him one of his own daughters, and secondly conceded the royal title to his father." Polybius 11.34[4]

The term used for "young prince" is neaniskos (?ea??s???), suggesting an age around 16, which in turn gives a birth date for Demetrius around 222 BC.

Demetrius started the invasion of northwestern India from 180 BC, following the destruction of the Mauryan dynasty by the general Pusyamitra Sunga, who then founded the new Indian Sunga dynasty (185-78 BC). The Mauryans had had diplomatic alliances with the Greeks, and they may have been considered as allies by the Greco-Bactrians.[5] The Greco-Bactrians may also have invaded India in order to protect Greek populations in the subcontinent.[6]

Demetrius may have first started to recover the province of Arachosia, an area south of the Hindu Kush already inhabited by many Greeks but ruled by the Mauryas since the liberation of the territory by Chandragupta from Seleucus. In his "Parthian stations", Isidorus of Charax mentions a colony named Demetrias, supposedly founded by Demetrius himself:

"Beyond is Arachosia. And the Parthians call this White India; there are the city of Biyt and the city of Pharsana and the city of Chorochao and the city of Demetrias; then Alexandropolis, the metropolis of Arachosia; it is Greek, and by it flows the river Arachotus. As far as this place the land is under the rule of the Parthians." "Parthians stations", 1st century BC[7]

A Greek dedication inscribed on stone and discovered in Kuliab, a hundred kilometers northeast of Ai-Khanoum, also mentioned the victories of the prince Demetrius during the reign of his father:

"Heliodotos dedicated this fragrant altar (...) so that the greatest of all kings Euthydemus, as well as his son, the glorious, victorious and remarkable Demetrius, be preserved of all pains, with the help of the Fortune with divine thoughts"[8]

The Greek campaigns may have gone as far as the capital Pataliputra in eastern India (today Patna):

"Those who came after Alexander went to the Ganges and Pataliputra" (Strabo, XV.698)
"The Greeks who caused Bactria to revolt grew so powerful on account of the fertility of the country that they became masters, not only of Ariana, but also of India, as Apollodorus of Artemita says: and more tribes were subdued by them than by Alexander — by Menander in particular (at least if he actually crossed the Hypanis towards the east and advanced as far as the Imausal), for some were subdued by him personally and others by Demetrius, the son of Euthydemus the king of the Bactrians." (Strabo 11.11.1[9])

Silver tetradrachm of Demetrius I. British Museum. It is generally considered that Demetrius ruled in Taxila (where many of his coins were found in the archaeological site of Sirkap). The Indian records also describes Greek attacks on Saketa, Panchala, Mathura and Pataliputra (Gargi-Samhita, Yuga Purana chapter). However, the campaigns to Pataliputra are generally attested to the later king Menander I and Demetrius I probably only invaded areas in Pakistan. Other kings may have expanded the territory as well.

By ca 175 BC, the Indo-Greeks ruled parts of northwestern India, while the Sungas remained in the Gangetic,
Central, and Eastern India. The Indo Greek presence in the Northwest continued until the last petty principality was absorbed by the Sakas around 20 BC.

The Hathigumpha inscription, written by the king of Kalinga, Kharavela, has been interpreted to describe the presence of the Greek king "Demetrius" with his army in eastern India, possibly as far as the city of Rajagriha about 70 km southeast of Pataliputra and one of the foremost Buddhist sacred cities, but claims that Demetrius ultimately retreated to Mathura on hearing of Kharavela's military successes further south:

"Then in the eighth year, (Kharavela) with a large army having sacked Goradha, causes pressure on Rajagaha (Rajagriha). On account of the loud report of this act of valour, the Yavana (Greek) King Dim[i]ta retreated to Mathura having extricated his demoralized army." Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XX.[10]

[edit] Aftermaths

Silver obol of Demetrius. Extremely small (12 millimeters in diameter), but beautifully crafted. Demetrius I died of unknown reasons, and the date 180 BC, is merely a suggestion aimed to allow suitable regnal periods for subsequent kings, of which there were several. Even if some of them were co-regents, civil wars and temporary divisions of the empire are most likely.

The kings Pantaleon, Antimachus, Agathocles and possibly Euthydemus II ruled after Demetrius I, and theories about their origin include all of them being relatives of Demetrius I, or only Antimachus. Eventually, the kingdom of Bactria fell to the able newcomer Eucratides.

Demetrius II was a later king, possibly a son or nephew of his namesake, and he ruled in India only. Justin mentions him being defeated by the Bactrian king Eucratides, an event which took place at the end of the latter's reign, possibly around 150 BC. Demetrius II left behind his generals Apollodotus and Menander I, who in turn became kings of India and rulers of the Indo-Greek Kingdom following his death.

According to Ptolemy, a Demetriapolis was founded in Arachosia.

Demetrius is a legend as well as an enigma. He was mentioned by Geoffrey Chaucer ("D, lord of Ind").

Demetrius and Buddhism

The other main coin type of Demetrius.

Obv: Rejoicing young elephant with bell, within the royal bead and reel contour. Rev: Caduceus, representing concord between two serpents. Greek legend ??S??IOS ????????? (BASILEOS DEMETRIOU) "Of King Demetrius".

Greco-Buddhist representation of Buddha, Gandhara, 1st-2nd century AD. Buddhism flourished under the Indo-Greek kings, and it has been suggested by W.W. Tarn that their invasion of India was not only intended to show their support for the Mauryan empire. However, that persecution in turn is debatable, with contemporary historians such as Romila Thapar suggesting that some of the accounts might be the product of exaggeration from Buddhist missionaries. Thapar attributes purely economic motivations to the Indo-Greek invasion of Southern Asia.[11]

Coinage & connection with Buddhism

The coins of Demetrius are of four types. One bilingual type with Greek and Kharoshthi legends exists: it is naturally associated with the Indian Demetrius II. A series with the king in diadem are likely to be early issues of Demetrius I.

More interesting are the "elephant" coins: The first type shows Demetrius (I) with elephant-crown, a well-known symbol of India and an allusion to Ganesha.

The other "elephant" type of Demetrius I represents a rejoicing elephant, depicted on the front on the coin and surrounded by the royal bead-and-reel decoration, and therefore treated on the same level as a King. The elephant, one of the symbols of Buddhism and the Gautama Buddha, possibly represents the victory of Buddhism brought about by Demetrius. The reverse of the coin depicts the caduceus, symbol of reconciliation between two fighting serpents, which is possibly a representation of peace between the Greeks and the Sungas, and likewise between Buddhism and Hinduism.
Alternatively though, the elephant has also been described as a possible symbol of the Indian capital of Taxila (Tarn), or still as a symbol of India. Unambiguous Buddhist symbols are found on later Greek coins, but Demetrius I, who was born in the milieu of Bactria and struck coins with Buddhist gods, personally was a Buddhist. His conquests did however influence the Buddhist religion in India:

Greco-Buddhist art
There are several parallels between Demetrius and the first representations of the Greek Buddha in human form.

Also in another parallel, the characteristic protector deity of Demetrius (Heracles standing with his club over his arm, as seen on the reverse of his coins), was represented in the Greco-Buddhist art of Gandhara as the protector deity of the Buddha.

Child of SUNDARI MAURYA and DEMETRIUS is:
47.     i.  KING OF BACTRIA[33] AGATHOCLES.

Generation No. 29


Notes for GIALCHADH:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Giallachad, son of Ailill Olcháin, son of Srína Sáeglach, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He took power after killing his predecessor, and the son of his grandfather’s killer, Elim Olfróinéchta, in the battle of Comair Trí rUisce. He is said to have taken one out of every five men of Munster hostage. He reigned for nine years, before being killed by Elim’s son Art Imlech at Mag Muaide. The Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronises his reign with that of Phraortes of the Medes (665-633 BC).[1] The chronology of Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 786-777 BC.[2] that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 1023-1014 BC.[3]

His Son was Nuadu Finn Fáil.

Child of GIALCHADH is:
Notes for King of Bactria Agathocles:

Agathocles Dikaios (Greek: ? "GoodGlory", ? ???a??? "the Just") was a Buddhist Indo-Greek king, who reigned between around 190 and 180 BCE. He might have been a son of Demetrius and one of his sub-kings in charge of the Paropamisade between Bactria and India. In that case, he was a grandson of Euthydemus whom he qualified on his coins as "Basileas Theos" ("????a? Te?" Greek for "God-King").

Agathocles was contemporary with or a successor of king Pantaleon. He seems to have been attacked and killed by the usurper Eucratides, who took control of the Greco-Bactrian territory. Little is known about him, apart from his extensive coinage.

Agathocles issued a series of "pedigree" dynastic coins, probably with the intent to advertise his lineage and legitimize his rule, linking him to Alexander the Great, a king Antiochus Nikator (Greek: "????t?" "Victorious", probably intended is Antiochus III), the founder of the Greco-Bactrian kingdom Diodotus and his son Diodotus II, Euthydemus, Pantaleon, and Demetrius.

The pedigree coinage has been seen as a token of his ancestry, but a critical view might be considered. All the associations provide a contradictory image. The Euthydemid kings (Demetrius and Euthydemus) are not known to be related to Diodotus – in fact, Euthydemus I overthrew Diodotus II! The Seleucids were enemies of the Euthydemids as well – in fact king Antiochus III had besieged Bactra for almost three years before claiming victory over Euthydemus I. Nevertheless, Antiochus III is known to have used the epithet "Nikator" ("????t??" Greek for "Victorious")[1]

Finally, the association with Alexander was a standard move for usurpers in the Hellenistic world, such as the pseudo-Seleucids Alexander Balas and the Syrian general Diodotus Tryphon.

All in all, the coins might well support the view of an usurper, or more probable a member of a minor branch of a dynasty, anxious to gather support from all quarters with his various memorial coins. However, the similarities between his coinage and that of Pantaleon make it probable that Agathocles was indeed a relative of the latter, who in that case might have been a usurper as well.

The Buddhist coinage of Agathocles is in the Indian standard (square or round copper coins) and depicts Buddhist symbols such as the stupa, the "tree in railing", or the lion. These coins sometimes use Brahmi, and sometimes Kharoshthi, whereas later Indo-Greek kings only used Kharoshthi.

The Hinduist coinage of Agathocles is few but spectacular. Six Indian-standard silver drachmas were discovered at Ai-Khanoum in 1970, which depict Hindu deities.

These are the first known representations of Vedic deities on coins, and they display early Avatars of Vishnu: Balarama-Sankarshana and Vasudeva-Krishna.

The dancing girls on some of the coins of Agathocles and Pantaleon are also sometimes considered as representations of Lakshmi, the consort of Vishnu.

Child of King of Bactria Agathocles is:
49. i. PRINCESS OF BACTRIA Agathocleia.
Notes for NUADHAS FIONNFLA:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

House of Morney.FTW]

Nuadu Finn Fáil (Nuadu the Fair of Fál - a poetic name for Ireland), son of Gállchad, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland, who took power after he killed his predecessor, and his father’s killer, Art Imlech. The Lebor Gabála Êrenn says he ruled for either sixty or forty years [1] (Geoffrey Keating says twenty,[2] the Four Masters forty)[3] before being killed by Art’s son Bres Rí. The Lebor Gabála synchronises his reign with that of Cyaxares of the Medes (625–585 BC). The chronology of Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 755–735 BC, that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 1002–962 BC. His Son was Áedán Glas.

Child of NUADHAS FIONNFLA is:
50. i. ÁEDÁN[15] GLAS.

Notes for PRINCESS OF BACTRIA AGATHOCLEIA:
Agathokleia Theotropa, “the Goddess-like” was an Indo-Greek queen who ruled in parts of northern India as regent for her son Strato.

The traditional view, introduced by Tarn and defended as late as 1998 by Boparachchi, is that Agathokleia was the widow of Menander I. In the civil wars after Menander’s death, the Indo-Greek empire was divided, with Agathokleia and her young son Strato maintaining themselves in the eastern territories of Gandhara and Punjab.

The modern view, embraced by R. C. Senior and probably more solid since it is founded on numismatical analyses, suggests that Agathokleia was a later queen, perhaps ruling from 110–100 BCE or slightly later. In this case, Agathokleia was likely the widow of another king, possibly Nicias or Theophilus.

In either case, Agathokleia was among the first women to rule a Hellenistic kingdom, in the period following the reign of Alexander the Great.

Some of her subjects may have been reluctant to accept an infant king with a queen regent: unlike the Seleucid and
Ptolemaic kingdoms, almost all Indo-Greek rulers were depicted as grown men. This was probably because the kings were required to command armies, as can be seen on their coins where they are often depicted with helmets and spears. Agathokleia seems to have associated herself with Athena, the goddess of war. Athena was also the dynastic deity of the family of Menander, and Agathokleia's prominent position suggests that she was herself the daughter of a king, though she was probably too late to have been a daughter of the Bactrian king Agathocles.

The coins of Agathokleia and Strato were all bilingual, and Agathokleia's name appears more often in the Greek legend than in the Indian.

Notes for Menander Soter, king of Mathura:
Menander I Soter "The Saviour" (known as Milinda in Indian sources) was one of the rulers of the Indo-Greek Kingdom from either 165 or 155 BC to 130 BC (the first date Osmund Bopearachchi and R C Senior, the other Boperachchi).[1]

His territories covered the eastern dominions of the divided Greek empire of Bactria (modern day ????? ??? or Bactria Province) and extended to India (modern day Pakistani provinces of the NWFP, Punjab and parts of Himachal Pradesh and the Jammu region).

His capital is supposed to have been Sagala, a prosperous city in northern Punjab (believed to be modern Sialkot), Pakistan.

He is one of the few Bactrian kings mentioned by Greek authors, among them Apollodorus of Artemita, quoted by Strabo, who claims that the Greeks from Bactria were even greater conquerors than Alexander the Great, and that Menander was one of the two Bactrian kings, with Demetrius, who extended their power farthest into India:

"The Greeks who caused Bactria to revolt grew so powerful on account of the fertility of the country that they became masters, not only of Ariana, but also of India, as Apollodorus of Artemita says: and more tribes were subdued by them than by Alexander-- by Menander in particular (at least if he actually crossed the Hypanis towards the east and advanced as far as the Imaüs), for some were subdued by him personally and others by Demetrius, the son of Euthydemus the king of the Bactrians; and they took possession, not only of Patalena, but also, on the rest of the coast, of what is called the kingdom of Saraostus and Sigerdis. In short, Apollodorus says that Bactriana is the ornament of Ariana as a whole; and, more than that, they extended their empire even as far as the Seres and the Phryni." (Strabo 11.11.1 [2])

2. Silver drachm of Menander I (155-130 BC).
Obv: Greek legend, Ὅ (BASILEOS SOTEROS MENANDROU) lit. "Of Saviour King Menander".
Rev: Kharosthi legend: MAHARAJA TRATASA MENADRASA "Saviour King Menander". Athena advancing right, with thunderbolt and shield. Taxila mint mark. Strabo also suggests that these Greek conquests went as far as the capital Pataliputra in northeastern India (today Patna):

"Those who came after Alexander went to the Ganges and Pataliputra" (Strabo, 15.698). The Indian records also describe Greek attacks on Mathura, Panchala, Saketa, and Pataliputra. This is particularly the case of some mentions of the invasion by Patanjali around 150 BC, and of the Yuga Purana, which describes Indian historical events in the form of a prophecy:

"After having conquered Saketa, the country of the Panchala and the Mathuras, the Yavanas (Greeks), wicked and valiant, will reach Kusumadhvaja. The thick mud-fortifications at Pataliputra being reached, all the provinces will be in disorder, without doubt. Ultimately, a great battle will follow, with tree-like engines (siege engines)." (Gargi-Samhita, Yuga Purana chapter, No5).

In the West, Menander seems to have repelled the invasion of the dynasty of Greco-Bactrian usurper Eucratides, and pushed them back as far as the Paropamisadai, thereby consolidating the rule of the Indo-Greek kings in the northern part of the Indian Subcontinent.

The Milinda Panha gives some glimpses of his military methods:
"Has it ever happened to you, O king, that rival kings rose up against you as enemies and opponents?
-Yes, certainly.
-Then you set to work, I suppose, to have moats dug, and ramparts thrown up, and watch towers erected, and strongholds built, and stores of food collected?
-Not at all. All that had been prepared beforehand.
-Or you had yourself trained in the management of war elephants, and in horsemanship, and in the use of the war chariot, and in archery and fencing?
-Not at all. I had learnt all that before.
-But why?
-With the object of warding off future danger."
(Milinda Panha, Book III, Chap 7)

His reign was long and successful. Generous findings of coins testify to the prosperity and extension of his empire (with finds as far as Britain): the finds of his coins are the most numerous and the most widespread of all the Indo-Greek kings. Precise dates of his reign, as well as his origin, remain elusive however. Guesses among historians have been that Menander was either a nephew or a former general of the Greco-Bactrian king Demetrius I, but the two kings are now thought to be separated by at least thirty years. Menander's predecessor in Punjab seems to have been the king Apollodotus I.

Menander's empire survived him in a fragmented manner until the last Greek king Strato II disappeared around 10 AD.

The 1st-2nd century CE Periplus of the Erythraean Sea further testifies to the reign of Menander and the influence of the Indo-Greeks in India:

"To the present day ancient drachmae are current in Barygaza, coming from this country, bearing inscriptions in Greek letters, and the devices of those who reigned after Alexander, Apollodorus [sic] and Menander."
—Periplus Chap. 47.[3]

Menander was the first Indo-Greek ruler to introduce the representation of Athena Alkidemos ("Athena, saviour of the people") on his coins, probably in reference to a similar statue of Athena Alkidemos in Pella, capital of Macedon. This type was subsequently used by most of the later Indo-Greek kings.

Menander and Buddhism
The Milinda PanhaMain article: Milinda Panha
According to tradition, Menander embraced the Buddhist faith, as described in the Milinda Panha, a classical Pali Buddhist text on the discussions between Milinda and the Buddhist sage Nagasena. He is described as constantly accompanied by a guard of 500 Greek ("Yonaka") soldiers, and two of his counsellors are named Demetrius and Antiochus. This type of discussion was known to ancient Greeks as a "sozo", it is important for Buddhists to understand the cultural context in which this discussion was held.

3. Bronze coin of Menander I with a Buddhist eight-spoked wheel.
Obv: Greek legend, ? (BASILEOS SOTEROS MENANDROU) lit. "Of Saviour King Menander" with eight-spoked wheel.
Rev: Kharosthi legend MAHARAJA TRATASA MENADRASA "Saviour King Menander", with palm of victory. In the Milindapanha, Menander is introduced as

"King of the city of Sâgala in India, Milinda by name, learned, eloquent, wise, and able; and a faithful observer, and that at the right time, of all the various acts of devotion and ceremony enjoined by his own sacred hymns concerning things past, present, and to come. Many were the arts and sciences he knew--holy tradition and secular law; the Sâňkhya, Yoga, Nyâya, and Vaisheshika systems of philosophy; arithmetic; music; medicine; the four Vedas, the Purânas, and the Itihâsas; astronomy, magic, causation, and magic spells; the art of war; poetry; conveyancing in a word, the whole nineteen. As a disputant he was hard to equal, harder still to overcome; the acknowledged superior of all the founders of the various schools of thought. And as in wisdom so in strength of body, swiftness, and valour there was found none equal to Milinda in all India. He was rich too, mighty in wealth and prosperity, and the number of his armed hosts knew no end." (The Questions of King Milinda, Translation by T. W. Rhys Davids,
Buddhist tradition relates that, following his discussions with Nagasena, Menander adopted the Buddhist faith:

"May the venerable Nāgasena accept me as a supporter of the faith, as a true convert from to-day onwards as long as life shall last!" (The Questions of King Milinda, Translation by T. W. Rhys Davids, 1890).
He then handed over his kingdom to his son and retired from the world:

"And afterwards, taking delight in the wisdom of the Elder, he handed over his kingdom to his son, and abandoning the household life for the houseless state, grew great in insight, and himself attained to Arahatship!" (The Questions of King Milinda, Translation by T. W. Rhys Davids, 1890)
There is however little besides this testament to indicate that Menander in fact abdicated his throne in favor of his son. Based on numismatic evidence, Sir Tarn believes that he in fact died, leaving his wife Agathocleia to rule as a regent, until his son Strato could rule properly in his stead. Despite the success of his reign, it is clear that after his death, his "loosely hung" empire splintered into a variety of Indo-Greek successor kingdoms, of various size and stability.

Other Indian accounts

Indian relief of probable Indo-Greek king, possibly Menander, with Buddhist triratana symbol on his sword. Bharhut, 2nd century BC. Indian Museum, Calcutta (drawing). A 2nd century BC relief from a Buddhist stupa in Bharhut, in eastern Madhya Pradesh (today at the Indian Museum in Calcutta), represents a foreign soldier with the curly hair of a Greek and the royal headband with flowing ends of a Greek king, and may be a depiction of Menander. In his right hand, he holds a branch of ivy, symbol of Dionysos. Also parts of his dress, with rows of geometrical folds, are characteristically Hellenistic in style. On his sword appears the Buddhist symbol of the three jewels, or Triratana.
A Buddhist reliquary found in Bajaur bears a dedicatory inscription referring to "the 14th day of the month of Karttika" of a certain year in the reign of "Maharaja Minadra" ("Great King Menander"): "Minadrasa maharajasa Katiassa divasa 4 4 4 11 pra[na]-[sa]me[da]... (prati)tha[t[i]ta pranasame[da]... Sakamunisa"
"On the 14th day of Karttika, in the reign of Maharaja Minadra, (in the year ...), (the corporeal relic) of Sakyamuni, which is endowed with life... has been established" [4]
According to an ancient Sri Lankan source, the Mahavamsa, Greek monks seem to have been active proselytizers of Buddhism during the time of Menander: the Yona (Greek) Mahadhammarakkhita (Sanskrit: Mahadharmaraksita) is said to have come from "Alasanda" (thought to be Alexandria of the Caucasus, the city founded by Alexander the Great, near today's Kabul) with 30,000 monks for the foundation ceremony of the Maha Thupa ("Great stupa") at Anuradhapura in Sri Lanka, during the 2nd century BC:
"From Alasanda the city of the Yonas came the thera ("elder") Yona Mahadhammarakkhita with thirty thousand bhikkhus." (Mahavamsa, XXIX [5])
These elements tend to indicate the importance of Buddhism within Greek communities in northwestern India, and the prominent role Greek Buddhist monks played in them, probably under the sponsorship of Menander.

Coins of Menander
Menander has left behind an immense corpus of silver and bronze coins, more so than any other Indo-Greek king. During his reign, the fusion between Indian and Greek coin standards reached its apogee. The coins feature the legend (Greek: ? (BASILEOS SOTEROS MENANDROU)/ Kharosthi: MAHARAJA TRATASA MENADRASA).

According to Bopearachchi, his silver coinage begins with a rare series of drachms depicting on the obverse Athena and on the reverse her attribute the owl. The weight and monograms of this series match those of earlier king Antimachus II, indicating that Menander succeeded Antimachus II.

Silver coin of Menander, with Athena on reverse. British Museum. On the next series, Menander introduces his own portrait, a hitherto unknown custom among Indian rulers. The reverse features his dynastical trademark: the so called Athena Alkidemos throwing a thunderbolt, an emblem used by many of Menander's successors and also the emblem of the Antigonid kings of Macedonia.
In a further development, Menander changed the legends from circular orientation to the arrangement seen on coin 4 to the right. This modification ensured that the coins could be read without being rotated, and was used without exception by all later Indo-Greek kings.
These alterations were possibly an adaption on Menander's part to the Indian coins of the Bactrian Eucratides I, who had conquered the westernmost parts of the Indo-Greek kingdom, and are interpreted by Bopearachchi as an indication that Menander recaptured these western territories after the death of Eucratides.

5. Attic Tetradrachm of Menander I in Greco-Bactrian style (Alexandria-Kapisa mint).
Obv: Menander throwing a spear.
Rev: Athena with thunderbolt. Greek legend: ? (BASILEOS SOTEROS MENANDROU), "Of King Menander, the Saviour". Menander also struck very rare Attic standard coinage with monolinguial inscriptions (coin 5), which were probably intended for use in Bactria (where they have been found), perhaps thought to demonstrate his victories against the Bactrian kings, as well as Menander's own claim to that the kingdom.
The bronze coins of Menander featuring a manifold variation of Olympic, Indian and other symbols. It seems as though Menander introduced a new weight standard for bronzes.

[edit] Menander II, a separate Buddhist ruler

Main article Menander the Just
Coin of Menander the Just Obv: Menander wearing a diadem. Greek legend: ? (King Menander the Just).
Rev: Winged figure bearing diadem and palm, with halo, probably Nike. The Kharoshthi legend reads MAHARAJASA DHARMIKASA MENADRASA (Great King, Menander, follower of the Dharma, Menander). A second king named Menander with the epithet Dikaios, "the Just" ruled in the Punjab after 100 BCE. Earlier scholars, such as A.Cunningham and W.W.Tarn, believed there were only one Menander and assumed that the king had changed his epithet and/or was expelled from his western dominions. A number of coincidences led them to this assumption:

The portraits are relatively similar, and Menander II usually looks older than Menander I.
The coins of Menander II feature several Buddhist symbols, which were interpreted as proof of the conversion mentioned in Milinda panha.
The epithet Dikaios was translated into Kharosthi as Dharmikasa, which means "Follower of the Dharma" and was interpreted likewise.
However, modern numismatists as Bopearachchi and R.C. Senior have shown, by difference in coin findings, style and monograms, that there were indeed two distinct rulers. The second Menander could have been a descendant of the first, and his Buddhist symbols a means of alluding to his great ancestor's conversion.

Coin of Menander the Just (Indian standard).
Obv: Athena standing, with spear and palm branch, shield at her feet, making a benediction gesture with the right hand, similar to the Buddhist vitarka mudra. The Greek legend reads ? (Of King Menander the Just).
Rev: Buddhist lion. Kharoshti legend reads MAHARAJASA DHARMIKASA MENADRASA (Great King, follower of the Dharma, Menander). With this distinction, the numismatical evidence for the Milinda panha is all but gone. The first Menander only struck a rare bronze series with a Buddha wheel (coin 3).
[edit] Menander's death

Plutarch (Praec. reip. ger. 28, 6) reports that Menander died in camp while on campaign, thereby differing with the version of the Milindapanha. Plutarch gives Menander as an example of benevolent rule, contrasting him with disliked tyrants such as Dionysius, and goes on explaining that his subject towns disputed about the honour of his burial, ultimately sharing his ashes among them and placing them in "monuments" (possibly stupas), in a manner reminiscent of the funerals of the Buddha.[6]

"But when one Menander, who had reigned graciously over the Bactrians, died afterwards in the camp, the cities indeed by common consent celebrated his funerals; but coming to a contest about his relics, they were difficultly at last brought to this agreement, that his ashes being distributed, everyone should carry away an equal share, and they should all erect monuments to him." (Plutarch, "Political Precepts" Praec. reip. ger. 28, 6 [7])
Despite his many successes, Menander's last years may have been fraught with another civil war, this time against Zoilos I who reigned in Gandhara. This is indicated by the fact that Menander probably overstruck a coin of Zoilos.

The Milinda Panha might give some support the idea that Menander's position was precarious, since it describes him as being somewhat cornered by numerous enemies into a circumscribed territory:
After their long discussion "Nagasaka asked himself "though king Milinda is pleased, he gives no signs of being pleased". Menander says in reply: "As a lion, the king of beasts, when put in a cage, though it were of gold, is still facing outside, even so do I live as master in the house but remain facing outside. But if I were to go forth from home into homelessness I would not live long, so many are my enemies" (Milinda Panha, Book III, Chapter 7, quoted in Boppearachchi [8])

[edit] Theories of Menander's successors

Menander was the last Indo-Greek king mentioned by ancient historians, and the development after his death is therefore difficult to trace.

a) The traditional view, supported by W.W. Tarn and Boppearachchi, is that Menander was succeeded by his Queen Agathokleia, who acted as regent to their infant son Strato I until he became an adult and took over the crown. Strato I used the same reverse as Menander I, Athena hurling a thunderbolt, and also the title Soter.

Coin of Strato I and Agathokleia.

Obv: Conjugate busts of Strato and Agathokleia. Greek legend: BASILEOS SOTIROS STRATONOS KAI AGATOKLEIA "Saviour King Strato, and Agathokleia".
Rev: Athena throwing thunderbolt. Kharoshthi legend: MAHARAJASA TRATASARA DHARMIKASA STRATASA "King Strato, Saviour and Just (="of the Dharma")". According to this scenario, Agathocleia and Straton I only managed to maintain themselves in the eastern parts of the kingdom, Punjab and at times Gandhara. Paropamisadae and Pushkalavati were taken over by Zoilos I, perhaps because some of Agathocleia's subjects may have been reluctant to accept an infant king with a queen regent.

b) Against this, R.C. Senior and other numismatics such as David Bivar have suggested that Straton I ruled several decades after Menander: they point out that Straton's and Agathocleia's monograms are usually different from Menander's, and overstrikes and hoard findings also associates them with later kings.

In this scenario, Menander was briefly succeeded by his son Thrason, of whom a single coin is known. After Thrason was murdered, competing kings such as Zoilos I or Lysias may have taken over Menander's kingdom. Menander's dynasty was thus dethroned and did not return to power until later, though his relative Nicias may have ruled a small principality in the Kabul valley.

Legacy
Buddhism
Main article: Greco-Buddhism

Vitarka Mudra gestures on Indo-Greek coinage. Top: Divinities Tyche and Zeus. Bottom: Depiction of Indo-Greek kings Nicias and Menander II.

After the reign of Menander I, Strato I and several subsequent Indo-Greek rulers, such as Amyntas, Nicias, Peukolaos, Hermaeus, and Hipposratos, depicted themselves or their Greek deities forming with the right hand a symbolic gesture identical to the Buddhist vitarka mudra (thumb and index joined together, with other fingers extended), which in Buddhism signifies the transmission of the Buddha's teaching. At the same time, right after the death of Menander, several Indo-Greek rulers also started to adopt on their coins the Pali title of "Dharmikasa", meaning "follower of the Dharma" (the title of the great Indian Buddhist king Ashoka was Dharmaraja "King of the Dharma"). This usage was adopted by Strato I, Zoilos I, Heliokles II, Theophilos, Peukolaos and Archebios.

Altogether, the conversion of Menander to Buddhism suggested by the Milinda Panha seems to have triggered the use of Buddhist symbolism in one form or another on the coinage of close to half of the kings who succeeded him. Especially, all the kings after Menander who are recorded to have ruled in Gandhara (apart from the little known Demetrius III) display Buddhist symbolism in one form or another.

Both because of his conversion and because of his unequaled territorial expansion, Menander may have contributed to the expansion of Buddhism in Central Asia. Although the spread of Buddhism to Central Asia and Northern Asia is usually associated with the Kushans, a century or two later, there is a possibility that it may have been introduced in those areas from Gandhara "even earlier, during the time of Demetrius and Menander" (Puri, "Buddhism in Central Asia").
Representation of the Buddha
Main article: Greco-Buddhist art

One of the first known representations of the Buddha, Gandhara. The anthropomorphic representation of the Buddha is absent from Indo-Greek coinage, suggesting that the Indo-Greek kings may have respected the Indian an-iconic rule for depictions of the Buddha, limiting themselves to symbolic representation only. Consistently with this perspective, the actual depiction of the Buddha would be a later phenomenon, usually dated to the 1st century, emerging from the sponsorship of the syncretic Kushan Empire and executed by Greek, and, later, Indian and possibly Roman artists. Datation of Greco-Buddhist statues is generally uncertain, but they are at least firmly established from the 1st century.

Another possibility is that just as the Indo-Greeks routinely represented philosophers in statues (but certainly not on coins) in Antiquity, the Indo-Greeks may have initiated anthropomorphic representations of the Buddha in statuary only, possibly as soon as the 2nd-1st century BC, as advocated by Foucher and suggested by Chinese murals depicting Emperor Wu of Han worshipping Buddha statues brought from Central Asia in 120 BC (See picture). An Indo-Chinese tradition also explains that Nagaraja, also known as Menander’s Buddhist teacher, created in 43 BC in the city of Pataliputra a statue of the Buddha, the Emerald Buddha, which was later brought to Thailand.

Stylistically, Indo-Greek coins generally display a very high level of Hellenistic artistic realism, which declined drastically around 50 BC with the invasions of the Indo-Scythians, Yuezhi and Indo-Parthians. The first known statues of the Buddha are also very realistic and Hellenistic in style and are more consistent with the pre-50 BC artistic level seen on coins.

Detail of Asia in the Ptolemy world map. The "Menander Mons" are in the center of the map, at the east of the Indian subcontinent, right above the Malaysian Peninsula. This would tend to suggest that the first statues were created between 130 BC (death of Menander) and 50 BC, precisely at the time when Buddhist symbolism appeared on Indo-Greek coinage. From that time, Menander and his successors may have been the key propagators of Buddhist ideas and representations: "the spread of Gandhari Buddhism may have been stimulated by Menander's royal patronage, as may have the development and spread of Gandharan sculpture, which seems to have accompanied it" (Melville, "The shape of ancient thought", p378)

Geography
In Classical Antiquity, from at least the 1st century, the "Menander Mons", or "Mountains of Menander", came to designate the mountain chain at the extreme east of the Indian subcontinent, today’s Naga Hills and Arakan, as indicated in the Ptolemy world map of the 1st century geographer Ptolemy.

Child of Princess Agathocleia and Menander Soter is:
51. i. Strato III, King of Mathura.

Generation No. 31

51. **Strato** I, King of Mathura (Princess of Bactria, Agathoclea, King of Bactria, Agathocles, Sundari, Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire, Brihadartha, King of Kashmir and Gandhara, Kunal, Ashoka, Varshana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa (Amritochates), King of Maurya Empire, Maurya, V. of Magadha, Maurya IV, Taxila, Maurya III, Maurya II, Princess of Persia, Chandravarman, Princess of Persia, Atossa, Princess of Egypt, Neithyti, Haire, Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II, Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos, 

Notes for **Strato I**, King of Mathura:

Strato I (Greek: St?t?) was an Indo-Greek king who was the son of the Indo-Greek queen Agathokleia, who presumably acted as his regent during his early years before Strato's father, another Indo-Greek king, was killed.

Until recently, consensus was that he ruled between c. 130–110 BCE in Northern India and that his father was the great king Menander I. Menander ruled the entire Indo-Greek empire, but in this scenario, the western parts including Paropamisade and Arachosia, gained independence after the death of Menander I, pushing Strato and Agathokleia eastwards to Gandhar and Punjab. This view was introduced by Tarn and defended as late as 1998 by Bopearachchi.

The modern view, embraced by R.C. Senior and probably more solid since it is founded on numismatical analyses, suggests that Strato I was a later king, perhaps ruling from 110–85 BCE, though perhaps still a descendant of Agathokleia. In this case, Agathokleia was the widow of another king, possibly Nicias or Theophilus.

A third hypothesis was presented in 2007 by J. Jakobsson: according to this, the coins of Strato in fact belong to two kings who both may have ruled around 105–80 BCE, though in different territories:

Strato Soter and Dikaios (Greek: "Strato the saviour and just/righteous"), was Agathokleia's son.

Strato Epiphanes Soter (Greek: "Strato the illustrious, saviour"), was a middle-aged king who may have been Agathokleia's brother and ruled in western Punjab.

This theory was based on difference in titles, in monograms and coin types between the two.

Agathokleia’s importance was gradually downplayed on the coins, so presumably her guardianship ended when Strato came of age. Strato I was also the only Indo-Greek king to appear bearded, probably to indicate that he was no longer an infant. Strato, or the two Stratos, fought for hegemony in Punjab with the king Heliokeles II, who overstruck several of their coins. There were very likely wars with other kings as well. The middle-aged Strato, according to the third theory, was succeeded by his son Polyxenios, who ruled only for a short time.

A hoard of Strato's coins was found in Mathura outside New Delhi, which may have been the easternmost outpost of the Indo-Greek territory.

Child of **Strato I**, King of Mathura is:

53. i. King of W. Gandara, Hippostratos.
“Necho” II, Psamtek I, Nekot I, Shepsesre I, Tefnakht II, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka, Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re of Egypt, Osorkon IV C of Maat, Shoshonk V, Aakheperre, Stepere Pi May, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk III, Takelot II, Osorkon II, Takelot I, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot, the Great Chief of the Ma Shoshenq)

Notes for Simeon Brec:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Siomón Brecc ("the speckled, spotted, ornamented"),[1] son of Áedán Glas, son of Nuadu Finn Fáil, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He took power after killing the previous incumbent, Sétna Innaraid, and was killed by Sétna’s son Dui Finn. The Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronises his reign with that of Xerxes I of Persia (485–465 BC).[2] The chronology of Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 685–679 BC.[3] that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 910–904 BC.[4] His Son was Muiredach Bolgrach

Child of Simeon Brecc is:
54. i. Muredach Bolgach.

53. King of W. Gandara Hippostratos (Strato I, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria, Agathoclea, King of Bactria, Agathocles, Sundari Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire, Brihadratha, King of Kashmir and Gandhar; Kunala, Ashoka, Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa (Amitochates), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire, Chandragupta, Maurya V, of Magadha, Maurya IV of Taxila, Maurya III of, Maurya II of, Princess of Persia, Chandravarman, Princess of Persia, Atossa, Princess of Egypt, Neithiyti, Hibre, Wabibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II, Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos ‘Necho’ II, Psamtek I, Nekot I, Shepsesre, Tefnakht II, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka, Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re of Egypt, Osorkon IV C of Maat, Shoshonk V, Aakheperre, Stepere Pi May, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk III, Takelot II, Osorkon II, Takelot I, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot, the Great Chief of the Ma Shoshenq)

Notes for King of W. Gandara Hippostratos:
Hippostratos (Greek: ‘p’p’st’at’?) was an Indo-Greek king who ruled central and north-western Punjab and Pushkalavati. Bopearachchi dates Hippostratos to 65 to 55 BCE whereas R.C. Senior suggests 60 to 50 BCE.

In Bopearachchi’s reconstruction Hippostratos came to power as the successor to Apollodotus II, in the western part of his kingdom, while the weak Dynisios ascended to the throne in the eastern part. Senior assumes that the reigns of Apollodotus II and Hippostratos overlapped somewhat; in that case Hippostratos first ruled a kingdom to the west of Apollodotus dominions.

Just like Apollodotus II, Hippostratos calls himself Soter, “Saviour”, on all his coins, and on some coins he also assumes the title Basileo Megas, “Great King”, which he inherited from Apollodotus II. This may support Senior’s scenario that Hippostratos extended his kingdom after Apollodotus’ death. The relationship between these two kings remains uncertain due to lack of sources. Hippostratos did however not use the symbol of standing Athena Alkidesmos, which was common to all other kings thought to be related to Apollodotus II. The two kings share only one monogram.

The quantity and quality of the coinage of Hippostratos indicate a quite powerful king. Hippostratos seems to have fought rather successfully against the Indo-Scythian invaders, led by the Scythian king Azes I, but was ultimately defeated and became the last western Indo-Greek king.

Coins of Hippostratos
Hippostratos issued silver coins with a diadem portrait on the obverse, and three reverses. The first is the image of
a king on prancing horse, a common type which was most frequently used by the earlier kings Antimachus II and Philoxenus. The second reverse also portrays a king on horseback, but the horse is walking and the king making a benediction gesture - this type resembles a rare type of Apollodotus II. The third is a standing goddess, perhaps Tyche.

Hippostratos struck several bronzes of types used by several kings; Serpent-legged deity (as used by Telephus) / standing goddess. Apollo/tripod (Apollodotus II, several earlier kings) Sitting Zeus-Mithras / horse, reminiscent of coins of Hermaeus.

Child of King of W. Gandara Hippostratos is:
55.  
   i.  Princess of W. Gandara\textsuperscript{37} Calliope.

\textit{Generation No. 33}

\textbf{54. Muredach\textsuperscript{37} Bolgach (Simeon\textsuperscript{36} Breac, Aedan\textsuperscript{35} Glas, Nuadhas\textsuperscript{34} Fionnfail, Gialchadh\textsuperscript{33} Ojoll\textsuperscript{32} Aolcheoin, Siorna\textsuperscript{31} Saoghalach, Dein\textsuperscript{30} Rotheachtach\textsuperscript{39} Main\textsuperscript{28} Aongus\textsuperscript{27} Olmuchach, Fiacha\textsuperscript{26} Labhrainn, Smiogmhall\textsuperscript{25} Enboath\textsuperscript{24} Tigernmas\textsuperscript{23} Foll-Aich\textsuperscript{22}, Ethriial\textsuperscript{21}, Iriel (Iarel Euralus) Faidh (Faith\textsuperscript{20} MacEREMOIN, Heremon (2nd MONARCH) of\textsuperscript{19} IRELAND, Tea Tephi\textsuperscript{18} Scota. Princess of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos ‘Necho\textsuperscript{17} II’, Psamtek\textsuperscript{16} I, Neko\textsuperscript{15} I, Shepsesre\textsuperscript{14} TefnakhtiI. Prince of Egypt, Bakekranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka\textsuperscript{13} Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepese Re of\textsuperscript{12} EGYPT, Osorkon IV ‘C’ of\textsuperscript{11} MAAT, Shoshonk V\textsuperscript{10} Aakahpeerre, Stepenre\textsuperscript{9} Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk\textsuperscript{8} III, Takelot\textsuperscript{7} II, Osorkon\textsuperscript{6} II, Takelot\textsuperscript{5} I, Osorkon\textsuperscript{4} I, Shoshonk\textsuperscript{3} I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot\textsuperscript{2}, the Great Chief of the Ma\textsuperscript{1} Shosheneq).

Notes for Muredach Bolgach:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.CW]

Muiredach Bolgach, son of Siomón Brecc, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He took power after killing his predecessor, and his father’s killer, Dui Finn, ruled for 13 months or four years depending on the source consulted, and was then killed by Dui’s son Enna Derg. The Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronises his reign with that of Artaxerxes I of Persia (465-424 BC).[1] The chronology of Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 674-670 BC,[2] that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 894-893 BC.[3] His Son was Fiachu Tolgach.

Child of Muredach Bolgach is:
56.  
   i.  Fiacha\textsuperscript{35} Tolgach.

\textbf{55. Princess of W. Gandara\textsuperscript{37} Calliope (King of W. Gandara\textsuperscript{36} Hippostratos, Strato\textsuperscript{35} I, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria\textsuperscript{34} Agathoclea, King of Bactria\textsuperscript{33} Agathocles, Sundari\textsuperscript{22} Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire\textsuperscript{31} Brihadratha, King of Kashmir and Gandhara\textsuperscript{30} Kunala, Ashoka\textsuperscript{29} Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa\textsuperscript{28} (Amroh)\textsuperscript{27} King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire\textsuperscript{26} Chandragupta, Maurya\textsuperscript{25} V. of Magadh, Maurya IV of\textsuperscript{24} Taxila, Maurya III of\textsuperscript{23} Maurya II of\textsuperscript{22} Prince of Persia\textsuperscript{21} Chandravarna, Princess of Persia\textsuperscript{20} Atossa, Princess of Egypt\textsuperscript{20} Neithyti, Haire\textsuperscript{19} Wahiye, King of Egypt, Psamtek II\textsuperscript{18} Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos ‘Necho\textsuperscript{17} II’, Psamtek\textsuperscript{16} I, Neko\textsuperscript{15} I, Shepsesre\textsuperscript{14} TefnakhtiI, Prince of Egypt, Bakekranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka\textsuperscript{13} Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepese Re of\textsuperscript{12} EGYPT, Osorkon IV ‘C’ of\textsuperscript{11} MAAT, Shoshonk V\textsuperscript{10} Aakahpeerre, Stepenre\textsuperscript{9} Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk\textsuperscript{8} III, Takelot\textsuperscript{7} II, Osorkon\textsuperscript{6} II, Takelot\textsuperscript{5} I, Osorkon\textsuperscript{4} I, Shoshonk\textsuperscript{3} I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot\textsuperscript{2}, the Great Chief of the Ma\textsuperscript{1} Shosheneq) She married King of Peshwar Hermaeus, son of King of Peshawar Amyntas.
Notes for King of Peshwar Hermaeus:
Hermaeus Soter "the Saviour" was a Western Indo-Greek king of the Eucratid Dynasty, who ruled the territory of Paropamisade in the Hindu-Kush region, with his capital in Alexandria of the Caucasus (near today's Kabul, Afghanistan). Bopearachchi dates Hermaeus to circa 90 - 70 BCE and R C Senior to circa 95 - 80 BCE but concedes that Bopearachchi's later date could be correct.

Hermaeus seems to have been successor of Philoxenus or Diomedes, and his wife Kalliope may have been a daughter of Philoxenus according to Senior. Judging from his coins, Hermaeus' rule was long and prosperous, but came to an end when the Yuezhi, coming from neighbouring Bactria overtook most of his Greek kingdom in the Paropamisade around 70 BCE. According to Bopearachchi, these nomads were the Yuezhi, the ancestors of the Kushans, whereas Senior considers them Sakas.

Following his reign, it is generally considered that Greek communities remained under the rule of these Hellenized nomads, continuing rich cultural interaction (See Greco-Buddhism). Some parts of his kingdom may have been taken over by later kings, such as Amyntas Nikator.

The coinage of Hermaeus was copied widely (posthumous issues), in increasingly barbarized form by the new nomad rulers down to around 40 CE (see Yuezhi article). At that time Kushan ruler Kujula Kadphises emphatically associated himself to Hermaeus on his coins,[1] suggesting he was either a descendant by alliance of the Greek king, or that at least he wanted to claim his legacy. In any case, the Yuezhi-Kushan preserved a close cultural interaction with the Greeks as late as the 3rd century CE.

Given the importance of Hermaeus to the nomad rulers, it is possible that Hermaeus himself was partially of nomad origin.[2]

Hermaeus issued Indian silver coins of three types. The first type has diademed or sometimes helmeted portrait, with reverse of sitting Zeus making benediction gesture. Hermaeus also issued a rare series of Attic silver tetradrachms of this type, which were issued for export to Bactria.

The second type was a joint series of Hermaeus with his queen Kalliope. The reverse departs from the traditional Hermaeus format, in that it shows the king on a prancing horse. The "king on a prancing horse" is characteristic of the contemporary Greek kings in the eastern Punjab such as Hippostratos, and it has been suggested that the coin represented a marital alliance between the two dynastic lines. The horseman on Hermaeus' version is however portrayed somewhat different, being equipped with a typic Scythian longbow.

The third series combined the reverses of the first series, without portrait.

Hermaeus also issued bronze coins with head of Zeus-Mithras and a prancing horse on the reverse.

Contacts with China
A Chinese historical record from the Hanshu Chap. 96A could possible be related to Hermaeus, even though this is very speculative and the record more likely refers to later Saka kings. The chronicle tells how a king who may possibly be identified as Hermaeus received the support of the Chinese against Indo-Scythian occupants, and may explain why his kingdom was suddenly so prosperous despite the general decline of the Indo-Greeks during the period. The Chinese records would put Hermaeus's dates later, with his reign ending around 40 BCE.

According to the Hanshu, Chap. 96A, Wutoulao (Spalirises?), king of Jibin (Kophen, upper Kabul Valley), killed some Chinese envoys. After the death of the king, his son (Spaladagames) sent an envoy to China with gifts. The Chinese general Wen Zhong, commander of the border area in western Gansu, accompanied the escort back. Wutoulao's son plotted to kill Wen Zhong. When Wen Zhong discovered the plot, he allied himself with Yinmofu (Hermaeus?), "son of the king of Rongqu" (Yonaka, the Greeks). They attacked Jibin (possibly with the support of the Yuezhi, themselves allies of the Chinese since around 100 BCE according to the Hanshu) and killed Wutoulao's son. Yinmofu (Hermaeus?) was then installed as king of Jibin, as a vassal of the Chinese Empire, and receiving the Chinese seal and ribbon of investiture.
Later Yinmofu (Hermaeus?) himself is recorded to have killed Chinese envoys in the reign of Emperor Yuandi (48-33 BCE), then sent envoys to apologize to the Chinese court, but he was disregarded. During the reign of Emperor Chengdi (51-7 BCE) other envoys were sent, but they were rejected as simple traders.

These events may have initiated an alliance between the Greeks and the Yuezhi (even possibly a dynastic alliance), explaining why the Yuezhi gained pre-eminence after the reign of Hermaeus, why their rulers such as Heraios then minted coins in a way very faithful to the Greek type, and why the first Kushan emperor Kujula Kadphises associated himself with Hermaeus on his coins, in a way characteristic of a ruler asserting his pedigree.

Biblical connection

Although very likely, some Christian Biblical scholars have suggested that Hermaeus may have been one of the three Kings (actually identified as being Magi by the bible, and unnumbered) from the east who are related to have visited Jesus at the time of his birth:

"After Jesus was born in Bethlehem in Judea, during the time of King Herod, Magi from the east came to Jerusalem and asked, 'Where is the one who has been born king of the Jews? We saw his star in the east and have come to worship him'" Matthew 2:1–8.

Child of Princess Calliope and King Hermaeus is:

57. i. Princess of Peshwar.

Generation No. 34

56. Fiacha\textsuperscript{38} Tolgrach (Muredach\textsuperscript{37} Bolgach, Simeon\textsuperscript{36} Breac, Aedan\textsuperscript{15} Glas, Nuadh\textsuperscript{34} Fionnfail, Gialcadh\textsuperscript{33}, Olioll\textsuperscript{2} Aolchoine, Siorna\textsuperscript{31} “Saoghalach”, Dein\textsuperscript{30}, Rotheachtach\textsuperscript{29}, Main\textsuperscript{28}, Aongus\textsuperscript{27}, Olmucach, Fiacha\textsuperscript{26} Labhrainn, Sioimghall\textsuperscript{25}, Enboath\textsuperscript{24}, Tigernmas\textsuperscript{23}, Foll-Aich\textsuperscript{22}, Ethrial\textsuperscript{21}, Irial (Iarel Erielus) Faidh (Faith)\textsuperscript{30} MacEremonin, Heremon (2nd Monarch) of Ireland, Tea Tephi\textsuperscript{18}, Scotia, Princess of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos “Necho”\textsuperscript{17} II, Psamtek\textsuperscript{16} I, Neko\textsuperscript{15} I, Shepsesre\textsuperscript{14} TefnakhtII, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka\textsuperscript{13} Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re’ of\textsuperscript{12} Egypt, Osorkon IV ‘C’ of\textsuperscript{11} Ma’at, Shoshonk\textsuperscript{10} V, Aakeperre, Stepenre’ Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk\textsuperscript{8} III, Takelot\textsuperscript{7} II, Osorkon\textsuperscript{6} II, Takelot\textsuperscript{7} I, Osorkon\textsuperscript{6} I, Shoshonk\textsuperscript{8} I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot\textsuperscript{7}, the Great Chief of the Ma’\textsuperscript{1} Shoshenq)

Notes for Fiacha Tolgrach:

[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Fiachu Tolgrach, son of Muiredach Bolgrach, was a legendary High King of Ireland, according to some medieval and early modern Irish sources. In the Lebor Gabàla Êrinn he is not a High King: he kills the former High King Art mac Lugdach, but during the reign of Art’s son Aillil Finn he is killed in battle against Airgetmar. His son Dui Ladrach later becomes High King.[1] However, in Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn[2] and the Annals of the Four Masters[3] he succeeds Art as High King and rules for seven or ten years, until he is killed by Aillil Finn, who succeeds him. The chronology of Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 593-586 BC, that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 806-796 BC.

Child of Fiacha Tolgrach is:

58. i. Duach\textsuperscript{19} Ladhraich.

57. Princess of Peshwar (Princess of W. Gandara\textsuperscript{37} Calliope, King of W. Gandara\textsuperscript{36} Hippostratos,
Strato\(^{35}\), King of Mathura, Prince of Bactria\(^{34}\), Agathoclea, King of Bactria\(^{33}\), Agathocles, Sundari\(^{32}\), Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire\(^{31}\), Brihadratha, King of Kashmir and Gandhara\(^{30}\), Kunala, Ashoka\(^{29}\), Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusara\(^{28}\) (Amritochates), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire\(^{27}\), Chandragupta, Maurya\(^{26}\) V. of Magadha, Maurya IV of\(^{25}\), Taxila, Maurya III of\(^{24}\), Maurya II of\(^{23}\), Princess of Persia\(^{22}\), Chandravaruna, Princess of Persia\(^{21}\), Atossa, Princess of Egypt\(^{20}\), Neithytih, Haibre\(^{19}\), Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II\(^{18}\), Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos "Necho"\(^{17}\), Psamtek II\(^{16}\), Neko\(^{15}\), Shepse\(^{14}\), TefnakhtII, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka\(^{13}\), Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepse Re of\(^{12}\) Egypt, Osorkon IV C of\(^{11}\) MAAT, Shoshonk V\(^{10}\), Aakeheerre, Stepenere\(^{9}\), Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk III, Takelot\(^{7}\) II, Osorkon II, Takelot\(^{6}\) I, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshewsh, Nimlot\(^{2}\), the Great Chief of the MA\(^{1}\) Shoshenq).

Child of Peshwar and Kuvula Kadphises is:
59. i. Vema\(^{39}\) KadphisesII, King of the Kusamhs.

Generation No. 35

58. Duach\(^{39}\), Ladhrach (Fiacha\(^{38}\), Tolgrach, Muredach\(^{37}\), Bolgach, Simeon\(^{36}\), Breac, Aedan\(^{35}\), Glas, Nuadhna\(^{34}\), Fionnfail, Gialchadh\(^{33}\), Ololl\(^{32}\), Aolchoein, Sigorta\(^{31}\), "Saoghalach, Dein\(^{30}\), Rotheachacht\(^{29}\), Main\(^{28}\), Aongus\(^{27}\), Olmacuch, Fiacha\(^{26}\), Labrainn, Smioghall\(^{25}\), Enboxi\(^{24}\), Tigernm\(^{23}\), Foll-Aich\(^{22}\), Ethrihal\(^{21}\), Iriel (Iarel, Euralis), Faide (Faith)\(^{20}\), Maceremoïn, Heremon (2nd Monarch) of I\(^{19}\) Ireland, Tea Tephi\(^{18}\), Scotia, Princess of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos "Necho"\(^{17}\) II, Psamtek II\(^{16}\), Neko\(^{15}\), Shepse\(^{14}\), TefnakhtII, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka\(^{13}\), Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepse Re of\(^{12}\) Egypt, Osorkon IV C of\(^{11}\) MAAT, Shoshonk V\(^{10}\), Aakeheerre, Stepenere\(^{9}\), Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk III, Takelot\(^{7}\) II, Osorkon II, Takelot\(^{6}\) I, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshewsh, Nimlot\(^{2}\), the Great Chief of the MA\(^{1}\) Shoshenq).

Notes for Duach Ladhrach:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Mornay.FTW]

Dui Ladhrach, son of Fiachu Tolgrach, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He helped his father kill the High King Art mac Lugdach, then helped Airgetmar take the throne by killing Art's son Ailill Finn and grandson Eochu mac Ailell. Finally he and Eochu's son Lugaid Laidech killed Airgetmar, and Dui took the throne himself, ruling for ten years until his former accomplice Lugaid killed him. The Lebor Gabála synchronises his reign with that of Artaxerxes III of Persia (358-338 BC).[1] The chronology of Geoffrey Keating's Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 547-537 BC.[2] That of the Annals of the Four Masters to 748-738 BC.[3] His Son Eochu Buadach

Child of Duach Ladhrach is:
60. i. Eochaidh\(^{40}\), Buadchach.
Child of Vema Kadiphises II, King of the Kushans is:

61.   i.  **Kanishka**⁴⁰, King of Kushans.

**Generation No. 36**

60.  **Eochaidh**⁴⁰ Buadhach (Duach)³⁹ Ladrach, Fiacha³⁸ Tolgrach, Muredach³⁷ Bolgach, Simeon³⁶ Breac, Aedan³⁵ Glas, Nuadhais³⁴ Fionnfail, Gilchadh³⁳, Olioll² Aolcheoin, Siorna³¹, Saoghalach², Dein³⁰, Rotheachtach²⁹, Main²⁸, Aongus²⁷ Olmucach, Fiacha²⁶ Labhrainn, Siomghallí²⁵, Enboath²⁴, Tigernmas²³, Foll-Aich²², Eithrial²¹, Iriel (Iare, Eurlais) Faidh (Faith)²⁰ MacEremoin, Heremon (2nd Monarch) of Ireland, Tea Tephi¹⁸ Scota, Princess of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos ‘Necho’²² ii, Psamtek¹⁶ i, Neko¹⁵ i, Shepseres¹⁴ Tefnakhtii, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah K¹³ Re, Tefnakht (I) Shepse Re of Egyptian Osorkon IV C of Í Ma’At, Shoshonk V⁰ Aakheperre, Stepnre² Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk² III, Takelot ii, Osorkon II, Takelot i, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot², the Great Chief of the Ma⁵ Shoshenq)

Notes for Eochaidh Buadhach:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Fiach Tolgrach, son of Muiredach Bolgrach, was a legendary High King of Ireland, according to some medieval and early modern Irish sources. In the Lebor Gabáil Érenn he is not a High King: he kills the former High King Art mac Lugdach, but during the reign of Art’s son Ailill Finn he is killed in battle against Airgetmar. His son Dui Ladrach later becomes High King.[1] However, in Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn[2] and the Annals of the Four Masters[3] he succeeds Art as High King and rules for seven or ten years, until he is killed by Ailill Finn, who succeeds him. The chronology of Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 593-586 BC, that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 806-796 BC.

Child of Eochaidh Buadhach is:

62.   i.  **Ugaine⁴¹ Móir.**

**Generation No. 37**

61.  **Kanishka**⁴⁰, King of Kushans (Vema³⁹ Kadiphises II, King of the Kushans, Princess of Peshwar, Princess of W. Gandara³⁷ Calliope, King of W. Gandara³⁶ Hippostrotos, Strato³⁶ i, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria³⁴ Agathoclea, King of Bactria³³ Agathocles, Sundari² Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire³¹ Brhadratha, King of Kashmir and Gandhara³⁰ Kunala, Ashoka²⁹ Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa (Amritchates), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire²⁷ Chandragupta, Maurya²⁶ v, of Magadha, Maurya IV of²⁵ Taxila, Maurya III of²⁴, Maurya II of²³ Prince of Persia²² Chandravarna, Princess of Persia²¹ Atossa, Princess of Egypt²⁰ Neithiyti, Habbre¹⁹ Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II²² Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos ‘Necho’²² ii, Psamtek¹⁶ i, Neko¹⁵ i, Shepseres¹⁴ Tefnakhtii, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah K¹³ Re, Tefnakht (I) Shepse Re of Egyptian Osorkon IV C of Í Ma’At, Shoshonk V⁰ Aakheperre, Stepnre² Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk² III, Takelot ii, Osorkon II, Takelot i, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot², the Great Chief of the Ma⁵ Shoshenq)

Child of Kanishkai, King of Kushans is:

63.   i.  **Huvishka⁴³, King of Kushana.**

Breg

Synchronises his reign to that of Ptolemy II Philadelphus (281 BC, ruled for thirty or forty years, until he was killed by his brother Bodbchad. According to the Lebor Gabála[1] he was children, which stood for twenty

"..." says that, as well as Ireland, he ruled “Alba to the Sea of Wight” and took power by killing his predecessor, and his foster-son Ugaine Mór (Hugony, “the great”), son of Eochu Buadach, son of Dui Ladrach, was, according to medieval Irish
documented during the succeeding 300 years. All the sons died without issue except two, viz: - Laeghaire Lorc, ancestor of all the Leinster Heremonians; and Cobthach Caolbhreagh, from whom the Heremonians of Leath Cunn, viz., Meath, Ulster, and Conacht derive their pedigree. Ugaine Mór: In the early ages the Irish Kings made many military expeditions into foreign countries. Ugaine Mór, called by O'Flaherty, in his Ogygia, “Hugonius Magnus,” was contemporary with Alexander the Great; and having proceeded to Gaul, was married to Cæsair, daughter of the King of the Gauls. Hugonius was buried at Cruachan. The Irish sent, during the Punic wars, auxiliary troops to their Celtic Brethren, the Gauls; who in their alliance with the Carthaginians under Hannibal, fought against the Roman armies in Spain and Italy. Ugaine was at length, B.C. 593, slain by Badhbchadh, who failed to secure the fruits of his murder - the Irish Throne, as he was executed by order of Laeghaire Lorc, the murdered Monarch's son, who became the 68th Monarch.

Úgaine Mór (Hugony, "the great"), son of Eochu Buadach, son of Dui Ladrach, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He was the foster-son of Cimbaeth and Macha Mong Ruad, and took power by killing his predecessor, and his foster-mother's killer. Rechtaid Rigderg. The Lebor Gabála Érenn says that, as well as Ireland, he ruled "Alba to the Sea of Wight" – i.e. the whole of the island of Britain – and that "some say" he ruled all of Europe. He married Cessair Chrothach, daughter of the King of the Gauls, who bore him twenty-two sons and three daughters. He is said to have divided Ireland into twenty-five shares, one for each of his children, which stood for three hundred years, until the establishment of the provinces under Eochu Feidlech. He ruled for thirty or forty years, until he was killed by his brother Bodbcadh. According to the Lebor Gabála[1] he was succeeded directly by his son Lóegaire Lorc, although the Annals of the Four Masters[2] and Geoffrey Keating's Foras Feasa ar Éirinn[3] say Bodbcadh was king for a day and a half until Lóegaire killed him. The Lebor Gabála synchronises his reign to that of Ptolemy II Philadelphus (281-246 BC). The chronology of Keating's Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 441-411 BC, the Annals of the Four Masters to 634-594 BC. His Son Was Cobthach Cöl Breg

Notes for Ugaine Mór:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Ugaine Mór: his son. This Ugaine (or Hugony) the Great was the 66th Monarch of Ireland. Was called Mór on account of his extensive dominions, - being sovereign of all the Islands of Western Europe. Was married to Cæsair, dau. to the King of France, and by her had issue - twenty-two sons and three daughters. In order to prevent these children encroaching on each other he divided the Kingdom into twenty-five portions, allotting to each his (or her) distinct inheritance. By means of this division the taxes of the country were collected during the succeeding 300 years. All the sons died without issue except two, viz: - Laeghaire Lorc, ancestor of all the Leinster Heremonians; and Cobthach Caolbhreagh, from whom the Heremonians of Leath Cunn, viz., Meath, Ulster, and Conacht derive their pedigree. Ugaine Mór: In the early ages the Irish Kings made many military expeditions into foreign countries. Ugaine Mór, called by O'Flaherty, in his Ogygia, “Hugonius Magnus,” was contemporary with Alexander the Great; and is stated to have sailed with a fleet into the Mediterranean, landed his forces in Africa, and also attacked Sicily; and having proceeded to Gaul, was married to Cæsair, daughter of the King of the Gauls. Hugonius was buried at Cruachan. The Irish sent, during the Punic wars, auxiliary troops to their Celtic Brethren, the Gauls; who in their alliance with the Carthaginians under Hannibal, fought against the Roman armies in Spain and Italy. Ugaine was at length, B.C. 593, slain by Badhbchadh, who failed to secure the fruits of his murder - the Irish Throne, as he was executed by order of Laeghaire Lorc, the murdered Monarch's son, who became the 68th Monarch.

References
2. Annals of the Four Masters M4566-4606
3. Geoffreay Keating, Foras Feasa ar Éirinn 1.28-1.29

Child of Ugaine Mór is:
64. i. COLETHACH[42] CAOL-BHREAGH.
Gabála gives fifty, and dates his death to Christmas Eve, 307 BC. It states that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 592 BC, Maurya ruled for either fifty or thirty years. The Lebor Gabála recorded that he had ruled for either fifty or thirty years.

Cobthach Úgain Mor, son of Úgain Mor, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He took power after murdering his brother Léigair Leac.[1] The story is told that he was so consumed with jealousy for his brother that he wasted away to almost nothing, from which he gained his epithet Cobthach, the "meagre of Brega". Acting on advice from a druid, he sent word to that he was ill, so that Léigaire would visit him. When he arrived, he pretended to be dead. As he lay on his bier, Léigaire prostrated himself over his body in grief, and Cobthach stabbed him with a dagger. He paid someone to poison Léigaire's son, Aíllil Óine, and forced Aíllil's son Labraid to eat part of his father's and grandfather's hearts, and a mouse, and forced him into exile — according to one version, because it had been said that Labraid was the most hospitable man in Ireland.[2] Cobthach later made peace with Labraid, now known by the epithet Loingsech, "the exile", and gave him the province of Leinster, but relations broke down again and war broke out between them, and Labraid burned Cobthach and his followers to death in an iron house at Dind Ríg. He had ruled for either fifty or thirty years. The Lebor Gabála gives fifty, and dates his death to Christmas Eve, 307 BC. It also synchronises his reign with that of Ptolemy II Philadelphus (281-246 BC). The chronology of Keating's Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 409 BC.

Notes for Cocoaethach Caol-Bhreagh:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Child of Huvishkal, King of Kushana is:
65.  i.  KING OF KUSHANA55 VASUDEV.

Generation No. 38


Child of Cocoaethach Caol-Bhreagh is:
66.  i.  MELGI34 MOLBHITHACH.

65.  KING OF KUSHANA55 VASUDEV (HUUVISHKA41 I, KING OF KUSHANA, KANISHKA40 I, KING OF KUSHANS, VEMA39 KADIPHISESI, KING OF THE KUSHANS, PRINCESS OF38 PESHWAR, PRINCESS OF W. GANDARA37 CALLIOPE, KING OF W. GANDARA36 HIPPOSTRATOS, STRATO35 I, KING OF MATHURA, PRINCESS OF BACTRIA34 AGATHOCLEIA, KING OF BACTRIA33

Child of KING OF KUSHANA VASUDEVA IS:

67. I. KANISHKA III, KING OF KUSHANA.

Generation No. 39


Notes for MELG MOLBHATHAC:
[stem of the house of Connor.FTW]

[House of Normey.FTW]

Meilge Molbthach ("the praiseworthy"),[1] son of Cobthach Cól Breg, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He took power after killing his predecessor, and his father's killer, Labraid Loingsech. He ruled for seven or seventeen years, until he was killed by Mug Corb, grandson of Rechtaid Rigderg, in Munster. It is said that when his grave was dug, a lake burst over the land, which was called Loch Meilge after him. The Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronises his reign with that of Ptolemy III Euergetes of Egypt (246-222 BC).[2] The chronology of Geoffrey Keating's Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 369-362 BC.[3] The Annals of the Four Masters to 523-506 BC.[4]

Child of MELG MOLBHATHAC IS:

68. I. IRAN GLEOFATHACH.

Child of KANISHKAIII, King of Kushana is:

69. i. **VASUDEVA**II, King of Kushana.

**Generation No. 40**


Notes for IRAN GLEOFATHACH:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Irereo Fáthach ("the wise"),[1] son of Meilge Molbhthach, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He took power after killing his predecessor, Óengus Ollom, and ruled for seven or ten years, until he was killed in Ulster by Fer Corb, son of Mug Corb. The Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronises his reign with that of Ptolemy III Euergetes of Egypt (246-222 BC).[2] The chronology of Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 337-330 BC,[3] the Annals of the Four Masters to 481-474 BC.[4]

Child of IRAN GLEOFATHACH is:

70. i. **CONLA**45 CAOMH.

**Generation No. 41**


Child of VASUDEVAII, King of Kushana is:

71. i. **VASUDEVA**43III, King of Kushana.
70. **Conla** Caomh (Iaran, Gleofathach, Melg, Molbhithach, Coleothach, Caol-bhreach, Ugaime, Mor, Eochaithiu, Buadhach, Duach, Ladhrach, Ficha, Tolgrach, Muredach, Bolgach, Simeon, Breac, Aedan, Glas, Nuadhais, Fionnfail, Gialchadh, Olioll, Aolcheoin, Siorna, Saoghalach, Dein, Rotheachtach, Main, Aongus, Olmucadh, Ficha, Labhainn, Siomghall, Enboath, Tigernmas, Foll-Aich, Ethrial, Irial (Iarel) Eurialus) Faith (Faith) MacEremoin, Heremon (2nd Monarch) of Ireland, Tea Tephi, Scotia; Princess of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebo 'Necho' II, Psamtek, I, Neko, I, Shepses, Tefnakht II, Prince of Egypt, Bakenanef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka, Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re of Egypt, Osorkon IV 'C' of Maat, Shoshonk, Aakeperebere, Stephene, Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk III, Takelot II, Osorkon II, Takelot I, Osorkon I, Shoshonk II, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot, the Great Chief of the Ma Shoshenq)

Notes for Conla Caomh:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]
[House of Morney.FTW]

Conla Cáem ("the beautiful"), also known as Conla Cruaidhelgach ("bloody blade"), son of Irereo, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He came to power after he killed his predecessor, and his father’s killer, Fer Corb, and ruled for four (or twenty) years until he died in Tara, and was succeeded by his son Alill Caifaiselach. The Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronises his reign with that of Ptolemy IV Philopator of Egypt (221-205 BC).[1] The chronology of Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 319-315 BC,[2] the Annals of the Four Masters to 463-443 BC.[3]

Child of Conla Caomh is:
72. i. **Olioll** Cas-fiachlach.

71. **Vasudeva** III, King of Kushana (Vasudeva, II, King of Kushana, Kanishka III, King of Kushana, King of Kushana, Vasudeva, Huvisha, I, King of Kushana, Kanishka, King of Kushana, Vema, Kadiphises II, King of the Kushans, Princess of Peshwar, Princess of Gandhara) Calliope, King of W. Gandara, Hippostatos, Strato, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria, Agathocles, Sundari, Mother of Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire, Brihadhrath, King of Kashmir and Gandhara, Kunala, Ashoka, Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa (Amitrochates), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire, Chandragupta, Maurya V, of Magadha, Maurya IV, Taxila, Maurya III, Maurya II, Princess of Persia, Chandarvanna, Princess of Persia, Atossa, Princess of Egypt, Neithyti, Haire, Wabir, King of Egypt, Psamtek, Nefertibre, Nefertibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos 'Necho' II, Psamtek, I, Neko, I, Shepses, Tefnakht II, Prince of Egypt, Bakenanef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka, Tefnakht (I) Shepses Re of Egypt, Osorkon IV 'C' of Maat, Shoshonk, Aakeperebere, Stephene, Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk III, Takelot II, Osorkon II, Takelot I, Osorkon I, Shoshonk II, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot, the Great Chief of the Ma Shoshenq)

Child of Vasudeva III, King of Kushana is:
73. i. **King of Seistan** Vasudeva.

Generation No. 42

72. **Olioll** Cas-fiachlach (Conla, Caomh, Iaran, Gleofathach, Melg, Molbhithach, Coleothach, Caol-bhreach, Ugaime, Mor, Eochaithiu, Buadhach, Duach, Ladhrach, Ficha, Tolgrach, Muredach, Bolgach, Simeon, Breac, Aedan, Glas, Nuadhais, Fionnfail, Gialchadh, Olioll, Aolcheoin, Siorna, Saoghalach, Dein, Rotheachtach, Main, Aongus, Olmucadh, Ficha, Labhainn, Siomghall, Enboath, Tigernmas, Foll-Aich, Ethrial, Irial (Iarel) Eurialus) Faith (Faith) MacEremoin, Heremon (2nd Monarch) of Ireland, Tea Tephi, Scotia; Princess of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos 'Necho' II, Psamtek, I, Neko, I, Shepses, Tefnakht II, Prince of Egypt, Bakenanef (Bocchoris) Wah
Notes for OLIOLL CAS-FIACHLACH:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Ailill Caísfiaclach ("having crooked/hateful teeth"),[1] son of Conna Cáem, was, according to medieval Irish legends and historical traditions, a High King of Ireland. He succeeded his father, and reigned for twenty-five years, until he was killed by Adamair. The Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronises his reign with that of Ptolemy V Epiphanes in Egypt (204-181 BC).[2] Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign from 315 to 290 BC,[3] the Annals of the Four Masters from 443 to 418 BC.[4]

Child of OLIOLL CAS-FIACHLACH is:
74.  i.  EOCHAIHD ALT17 LEATHAN.


Child of KING OF SEISTAN VASUDEVA is:
75.  i.  IFRA17 HORMIZ, PRINCESS OF SEISTAN.

Generation No. 43


Notes for EOCHAIHD ALT LEATHAN:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]
Eochaid (or Eochu) Ailtlethan ("broad blade"),[1] son of Ailill Caísfiaclach, was, according to medieval Irish legends and historical traditions, a High King of Ireland. According to the Lebor Gabála Érenn, he took the throne after overthrowing and killing the previous incumbent, Adamair, and ruled for eleven years, until he was killed in battle by Fergus Fortamail. The Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronises his reign with that of Ptolemy V Epiphanes in Egypt (204-181 BC).[2] The chronology of Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 285-274 BC,[3] that of the Annals of the Four Masters (which gives him a reign of seventeen years) to 414-396 BC.[4]

Child of Eochaidh Alt Leathan is:


Notes for Ifra Hormiz, Princess of Seistan:
In prehistoric times, the Jiroft Civilization covered parts of Sistan and Kerman Province (possibly as early as the 3rd millennium BC).

Later the area was occupied by Aryan tribes related to the Indo-Aryans and Iranian Peoples. Eventually a kingdom known as Arachosia was formed, parts of which were ruled by the Medean Empire by 600 BC. The Medes were overthrown by the Achaemenid Persian Empire in 550 BC, and the rest of Arachosia was soon annexed. In the 3rd century BC, Macedonian king Alexander the Great (known in East as Sikander) annexed the region during his conquest of the Persian Empire and founded the colony of "Alexandria in Arachosia" (modern Kandahar).

Alexander's Empire fragmented after his death, and Arachosia came under control of the Seleucid Empire, which traded it to the Mauryan dynasty of India in 305 BC. After the fall of the Mauryans, the region fell to their Greco-Bactrian allies in 180 BC, before breaking away and becoming part of the Indo-Greek Kingdom.

After the mid 2nd century BC, much of the Indo-Greek Kingdom was overrun by tribes known as the Indo-Scythians or Sakas, from which Sistan (from Sakastan) eventually derived its name. The Indo-Scythians were defeated around 100 BC by the Parthian Empire, which briefly lost the region to its Suren vassals (the Indo-Parthian) around 20 AD, before the region was conquered by the Kushan Empire in the mid 1st century AD. The Kushans were defeated by the Sassanid Persian Empire in the mid 3rd century, first becoming part of a vassal Kushansha state, before being overrun by the Hephthalites in the mid 5th century. Sassanid armies reconquered Sistan in by 565 AD, but lost the area to the Arab Rashidun Caliphate after the mid 640s. (For Sistan's history after the Islamic conquest, see History sections of Afghanistan and Iran).

[edit] Islamic conquest “Sistan was invaded and conquered by expeditions from Kirman . The Muslim conquest of Sistan began in 23( 643/644) when Asim b Amr and Abdullah b Umar made an incursion and seized Zarang. The Sistanis concluded a treaty with the Muslims , to the effect that they should pay Kharij . The commander of a
Muslim army camped in Kirman Abd Allah B Amir sent Al Rabi B Ziyad (In Tarikh i Sistan it is Al Ziyalap-28) al Hinithi to Sistan. Rabi crossed that desert between Kirman and that province ie Sistan and reached Zaliq, a fortress between five farsangs of the Sistan frontier whose diqaqs surrendered to him. Rabi reduced two other localities (or the fortress) of Karkuya mention of whose Fire Temple in the song of the Fire of Karakuya has come down to us in the anonymously written Tarikh i Sistan and Heisum without bloodshed. Falling back on Zaliq, Rabi projected the seizure of Zaranj of which though formerly it had submitted to the Muslims had once more to be subdued. Between Zaliq and Zarang, some minor localities like Zught, Nasrudh and Sherwadh were taken with much fighting.

The Marzban of Zaranj Aparwez who commended at Zaranj strongly contested the advances of Rabi, but at last was obliged to surrender it to the Muslims. It is said that when Aparwez appeared before Rabi to discuss terms, he found the Arab general sitting on the corpse of a dead soldier.[2]

The Saffarids (861-1003 CE), one of the early Iranian dynasties of the Islamic era, were originally rulers of Sistan.

Sistan has a very strong connection with Zoroastrianism and during Sassanid times Lake Hamun was one of two pilgrimage sites for followers of that religion. In Zoroastrian tradition, the lake is the keeper of Zoroaster's seed and just before the final renovation of the world, three maidens will enter the lake, each then giving birth to the saoshyans who will be the saviours of mankind at the final renovation of the world.

The most famous archaeological sites in Sistan are Shahr-e Sukhteh and the site on Kuh-e Khwajeh, a hill rising up as an island in the middle of Lake Hamun.

The Vanished Paradise of Seistan

Quoted from:
George Curzon, Persia and the Persian Question, vol 1 (1892)

The derivation of the name Seistan or Sejestan from Sagastan, the country of the Sagan, or Sacae, has, says Sir H. Rawlinson, never been doubted by any writer of credit, either Arab or Persian; although it is curious that a band of roving nomads, as were these Scythians, who descended hither from the north in the third century A.D., should have bequeathed a permanent designation to a country which they only occupied for a hundred years. (Some English writers, however, have derived it from sages, a wood that is grown locally and is used as fuel by the Persians.) Expelled by the Sassanian monarch Varahran II (A.D. 275 -292) they have long vanished from history themselves; but in the name of the district they may claim a monumentum oare perennius.

At different epochs of history territories of very differing sizes have been called Seistan, according as the dominion of their rulers has been extended or curtailed. In its stricter application, however, the name has always been peculiar to the great lacustrine basin that receives the confluent waters of the Helmund and other rivers, whose channels converge at this point upon a depression in the land's surface, with very clearly defined borders, and a length from north to south of nearly 250 miles. It is certain that in olden days this depression was filled by the waters of a great lake; and, were all the artificial canals and irrigation channels, by which the river-contents are now reduced and exhausted, to be destroyed, I imagine that it would very soon relapse into its primeval conditions.

The modern Seistan may be said to comprise three main depressions, which, according to the season of the year and the extent of the spring floods, are converted alternately into lakes, swamps, or dry land. The first of these depressions consists of the twofold lagoon formed by the Harut Rud and the Farrah Rud flowing from the north, and by the Helmund and the Khash or Khushk Rud flowing from the south and east respectively. These two lakes or pools are connected by a thick reedbed called the Naizar, which, according to the amount of water that they contain, is either a marsh or a cane-brake. In flood time these two lakes, ordinarily distinct, unite their waters, and the conjoint inundation pours over the Naizar into the second great depression, known by the generic title of Hamun or Expanse, which stretches southwards like a vast shallow trough for many miles. When the British Commissioners were here in 1872, the Hamun was quite dry, and they marched to and fro across its bed. But in 1885-6, when some of the members of the later Russo-Afghan Boundary Commission were proceeding this way from Quetta to the confines of Herat, it was found to be an immense lake, extending for miles, with the Kuh-i-Khwajah, a wellknown
mountain and conspicuous landmark usually regarded as its western limit, standing up like an island in the middle. In times of abnormal flood the Hamun will itself overflow; and on such occasions the water, draining southwards through the SaTshela ravine, inundates the third of the great depressions to which I alluded, and which is known as the Zirreh Marsh. This was said at the time of the Commission not to have occurred within living memory, it being a far more common experience to find all the river-beds exhausted than all the lake-beds full ; and the Zirreh as a rule presents the familiar appearance of a salt desert. In 1885, however, a British officer exploring Western Beluchistan found water two feet deep flowing down the Sarshela or Shela, and forming an extensive Hamun in the northern part of the Zirreh, which was said to be over one hundred miles in circumference.

It will readily be understood from the above description how variable is the face of Seistan, and what a puzzle to writers its Protean comparative geography becomes. For not only do the lakes alternately swell, recede, and disappear - the area of displacement covering an extent, according to Rawlinson, of one hundred miles in length by fifty miles in width - but the rivers also are constantly shifting their beds, sometimes taking a sudden fancy for what has hitherto been an artificial canal, but which they soon succeed in converting into a very good imitation of a natural channel, in order to perplex some geographer of the future. It is not surprising, therefore, that while the country owes to the abundant alluvium thus promiscuously showered upon it its store of wealth and fertility, it also contains more ruined cities and habitations than are perhaps to be found within a similar space of ground anywhere in the world.

Such in brief outline is the physical conformation of Seistan. I will now proceed to its history. From the earliest times there has been something in Seistan that appealed vividly to the Persian imagination. The country was called Nimroz, from a supposed connection with Nimrod, 'the mighty hunter'; it was the residence of Jamshid, and the legendary birthplace of the great Rustam, son of Zal, and fifth in descent from Jamshid. King Arthur does not play as great a part in British legend as does the heroic Rustam in the myths of Iran. For, after all, Arthur was a mortal man (and, if we are to follow Tennyson, almost a nineteenth century gentleman), while Rustam fought with demons and jinns as well as against the pagan hordes of Turan and Afrasiab. Perhaps our Saint George of the Dragon would be a nearer parallel; and just as we stamp the record of his matchless daring upon our coinage, so do the Persians emblazon the great feats of Rustam upon gateway and door and pillar.

Seistan emerges into the clearer light of ascertained history in the time of Alexander the Great, when it was known as Drangiana (identical with the land of the Herodotean Sarangians). He probably passed this way on his march eastwards to India; whilst on his return therefrom, though he pursued a more southerly line himself, through Gedrosia (Mekran) to Carmania (Kerman), he despatched a light column under Craterus through Arachotia and Drangiana. Under the Sassanian monarchs Seistan was a flourishing centre of the Zoroastrian worship, and hither came the last sovereign of that dynasty, Yezdijird, flying from the victorious Arabs on his way to his fate at Afer. It was under the succeeding regime that the province attained the climax of its material prosperity; and to this-the Arab-period are to be attributed the vast ruins of which I have previously spoken. In the ninth century a native dynasty known as the Safari or Coppersmiths, was founded by one Yakub bin Leitb, a potter and a robber, but a soldier and a statesman who won by arms a shortlived empire that stretched from Shiraz to Kabul, but collapsed before the iron onset of Mabmud of Ghuzni in the succeeding century. El Istakhri, visiting Seistan at this epoch, described it as a country of populous cities, abundant canals, and great wealth; among its natural resources being included a rich gold mine that subsequently disappeared in an earthquake. In the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries Seistan, like most of its neighbours, experienced the two successive visitations of those scourges of mankind, Jenghiz Khan and Timur Beg, being turned from a smiling oasis into a ruinous waste, and suffering a murderous blow from which it has never recovered. The Sefavi dynasty repeoped it under the local rule of the ancient reigning family of Kaiani, who claimed descent from Kai Kobad, the first Achaemenian king. But the march of time brought round the fated cycle of injury and desolation; and at the bands both of the Afghan invaders of 1722, and of Nadir Shah who expelled them, it completed its chronic tale of suffering. Remaining a portion of the mighty empire of the Afshar usurper till his death in 1747, it then passed to the sceptre of Ahmed Shah Abdali, the adventurous captain who, imitating his master's exploits, rode off and founded the Durani empire in Afghanistan. From this epoch dates its appearance on the stage of modern politics, and during the last thirty years upon the chess-board of Anglo-Indian diplomacy . . .

(For further information on the Helmund River, vide a paper by C. R. Markham on 'The Basin of the Helmund,' in the Proceedings of the R. G. S. (New Series), Vol. i. P. 191.)
(The Kuh-i-Khwaiah, known also as Kuh-i-Rustam, is an isolated bluff composed of a crystalline black rock resembling basalt, and rising to a height of about 400 feet above the level of the Hamun, in which it constitutes a famous landmark for many miles. It was a stronghold of the old Kaianian dynasty who ruled Seistan, and is said to have been held for seven years by one of their number against the troops of Nadir Shah. It is also a place of popular resort among the Seistanis, for at No Ruz (March 21) a fair is held there, and the flattened summit is used as a race-course. For further information, vide 'Visit to the Kuh-i-Khwaiah,' by Major B. Lovett, in the Journal of the R. G. S., Vol. xliv. p. 145 (1874).)

(When Sir C. MacGregor was exploring Beluchistan in 1877, he skirted the Zirreh Desert on the south for two days and a half without finding a solitary pool of brackish water, 'Nowhere was there the slightest sign of dampness. Everywhere it was the same—nothing but sand, and all the vegetation as dry as bones, crumbling into dust at the least touch.' At length, and with great difficulty, he did manage in one spot to extract a little fluid from the soil; and this was how, in his inimitable unvarnished way, he described it: 'If any should wish to save themselves the trouble of going to Zirreh to fetch Zirreh water, I think I could give a recipe, which would taste something like it. Take, then, the first nasty looking water you can find, mix salt with it till you make it taste as nasty as it looks, then impregnate it with gas from a London street-lamp, and add a little bilge-water. Shake vigorously, and it is ready for use.'—Wanderings in Balochistan, p. 183.)

(The great authority on the early history and inhabitants of Seistan is Sir H. Rawlinson's essay, entitled 'Notes on Seistan,' published in the Journal of the R. G. S. vol. xliii. pp. 272-294 (1873). Compare also the excellent and accurate summary of Dr. Bellew, From the Indus to the Tigris, pp. 248-262, and Inquiry into the Ethnography of Afghanistan, 1891. The chief modern inhabitants of Persian Seistan are the Seistanis, who occupy a servile position among other and dominant tribes; the Kaianis claiming descent from the Kai dynasty of Cyrus; the Kurd Galis, a branch of the Kurds of Kurdistan, who emigrated and established the Malik Kurd dynasty of Ghor, 1245-1383, A.D.; Iranian elements known as Tajik; and Beluchis, of whom the principal tribes in Seistan are the Sarbandi, who were transported by Timur to Hamadan, but brought back by Nadir Shah, and the Shahreki.)

Notes for HORMIZD II, EMPEROR OF PERSIA:
Hormizd II, was the eighth Persian king of the Sassanid Empire, and reigned for seven years and five months, from 302 to 309. He was the son of Narseh (293–302).

Almost nothing is known of his reign. After his death his oldest son Adarnases (Adur-Narseh), who had a cruel disposition, was killed by the grandees after a very short reign:[1] another son, Hormizd, was held prisoner, while the throne was reserved for the child of his concubine, Shapur II. Another version has it that Shapur II was the son of Hormizd II's first wife, and that while still pregnant she was made to wear a crown over her pudenda so that the baby would be born as a king.[2]

Relief "The Equestrian Victory of Hormizd II"His son Hormizd escaped from prison in 323 with the help of his wife, and found refuge at the court of Constantine the Great (324–337) (Zosimus ii. 27; John of Antioch, fr. 178; Zonaras 13–5). In 363, Hormizd served against Persia in the army of the Roman emperor Julian (361–363); in turn his son, of the same name, later served as proconsul (Ammianus Marcellinus 26. 8. 12).

References
2. ^ Touraj Daryaee, 16.

Child of IFFR HORMIZD and HORMIZD is:
77. i. SHAPUR III, EMPEROR OF PERSIA.

Notes for Aongús Tuirmeach-Teamrach:
[Stem of the House of Connor,FTW]

[House of Morney,FTW]

Óengus Tuirméach Tenrach, son of Eochaid Ailtlethan, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He came to power after killing his predecessor, and his father’s killer, Fergus Fortamail. His sons included Ênna Aigneach and Fiacha Fer Mara. Ênna later became High King himself and was the ancestor of Conn of the Hundred Battles and thus the Connachta and Úi Neill High Kings, while Fiacha was the ancestor of Ailill Êrinn and the Clanna Dedad.[1] Óengus is said to have fathered Fiacha on his own daughter when drunk, and to have put him in a boat, wrapped in a purple robe with a golden fringe and accompanied by treasure, and set him out to sea – hence the epithet fer mara, “man of the sea”. He was found and brought up by fishermen, and became the ancestor of several High Kings of Ireland and the later Dál Riata monarchs of Scotland. The Lebor Gabála Érenn interprets his epithet as meaning “the reckoner of Tara”, saying that “by him was ‘reckoning’ first made in Ireland”. [2] Geoffrey Keating gives his epithet as Tuirbeach, “ashamed”, because of the incestuous conception of Fiacha.[3] He reigned for thirty or sixty years, and died at Tara, succeeded by his nephew Conall Collamrach. The Lebor Gabála synchronises his reign with that of Ptolemy VI Philometor in Egypt (180-145 BC). The chronology of Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Êirinn dates his reign to 262-232 BC, that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 385-326 BC.[4]

Child of Aongús Tuirmeach-Teamrach is:

78. i. ENNA49 AIGNEAC.

77. **Shapur**48 II, Emperor of Persia (Ifra47 Horimiz, Princess of Seistan, King of Seistan46 Vasudeva, Vasudeva45 III, King of Kushana, Vasudeva44 II, King of Kushana, Kanishka43 III, King of Kushana, King of Kushana42, Vasudeva, Hnishka41 I, King of Kushana, Kanishka40 I, King of Kushans, Vema39 KadiphisesII, King of the Kushans, Princess of28 Peshwar, Princess of W. Gandara37 Calliope, King of W. Gandara36 Hippostratos, Strato35 I, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria34 Agathoclea, King of Bactria33 Agathocles, Sundari32 Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire31 Brihadratha, King of Kashmir and Gandhara30 Kunala, Ashoka29 Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa28 (Amritochates), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire27 Chandragupta, Maurya26, V. of Magadha, Maurya IV of25 Taxila, Maurya III of24, Maurya II of23, Princess of Persia22 Chandravaruna, Princess of Persia21 Atossa, Princess of Egypt20 Neithyti, Haibre19 Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek18 Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos “Necho”17 II”, Psamtek6 I, Neko15 I, Shepse414 TefnakhtII, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka13 RE, Tefnakhte (I) Shepse Re of12 Egypt, Osorkon IV C of41 Ma’at, Shoshonk10 Aakheperre, Stepene9 Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk9 III, Takelot2 I, Osorkon6 II, Takelot2 I, Osorkon6 I, Shoshonk1 I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot5, the Great Chief of the MA1 ShoshenQ)
Notes for SHAPUR II, EMPEROR OF PERSIA:
Shapur II the Great was the ninth King of the Persian Sassanid Empire from 309 to 379 and son of Hormizd II.[3] During his long reign, the Sassanid Empire saw its first golden era since the reign of Shapur I (241–272). His name is sometimes given in English as "Shahpour" or "Sapor".[4]

When King Hormizd II (302–309) died, Persian nobles killed his eldest son, blinded the second, and imprisoned the third (Hormizd, who afterwards escaped to the Roman Empire).[5] The throne was reserved for the unborn child of one of the wives of Hormizd II. It is said that Shapur II may have been the only king in history to be crowned in utero: the crown was placed upon his mother's belly. This child, named Shapur, was therefore born king; the government was conducted by his mother and the magnates.

Conquests
Dark green: the Sassanid empire; Medium green: contested territory; Light green: temporarily occupied in the seventh century during war with the Byzantine Empire, three hundred years after Shapur's reign. During the early years of the reign of Shapur, Arabs crossed the Persian Gulf from Bahrain to "Ardashir-Khora" of Pars and raided the interior. In retaliation, Shapur led an expedition through Bahrain, defeated the combined forces of the Arab tribes of "Taghlib", "Bakr bin Wael", and "Abd Al-Qays" and advanced temporarily into Yamama in central Najd. He resettled these tribes in Kerman and Hormizd-Ardashir. Arabs named him, as "Shabur Dhul-aktaf" or "Zol 'Aktaf" that means "The owner of the shoulders" after this battle.[6]

In 337, just before the death of Constantine I (324–337), Shapur II, probably provoked by religious differences, broke the peace concluded in 297 between Narseh (293–302) and Emperor Diocletian (284–305), which had been observed for forty years. This was the beginning of two long drawn-out wars (337–350 and 358-363) which were inadequately recorded. After crushing a rebellion in the south, Shapur II invaded Roman Mesopotamia and recaptured Armenia. Apparently 9 major battles were fought. The most renowned was the inconclusive Battle of Singara (Sinjar, in Iraq) in which the Roman emperor Constantius II was at first successful, capturing the Persian camp, only to be driven out by a surprise night attack after Shapur had rallied his troops (344 or 348?). Gibbon asserts that Shapur II invariably defeated Constantius, but there is reason to believe that the honours were fairly evenly shared between the two capable commanders. (Since Singara was on the Persian side of the Mesopotamian frontier, this alone may suggest that the Romans had not seriously lost ground in the war up to that time.) The most notable feature of this war was the consistently successful defence of the Roman fortress of Nisibis in Mesopotamia. Shapur besieged the fortress three times (337, 344? and 349) and was repulsed each time by Roman general Lucilianus.

Although often victorious in battles, Shapur II had made scarcely any progress. At the same time he was attacked in the east by Scythian Massagetae and other Central Asian tribes. He had to break off the war with the Romans and arrange a hasty truce in order to pay attention to the east (350). Most able and persistent of Shapur's opponents in the north east was Grumbates, ruler of the Xionites. After a prolonged struggle (353–358) they were forced to conclude a peace, and Grumbates agreed to enlist his light cavalrymen into the Persian army and accompany Shapur II in renewed war against the Romans.

In 358 Shapur II was ready for his second series of wars against Rome, which met with much more success. In 359, Shapur II invaded southern Armenia, but was held up by the valiant Roman defence of the fortress of Amida (Diyarbekir, in Turkey) which finally surrendered in 359 after a seventy-three day siege in which the Persian army suffered great losses. The delay forced Shapur to halt operations for the winter. Early the following spring he continued his operations against the Roman fortresses, capturing Singara and Bezabde (Cirze?). Constantius arrived from the west at this time, and unsuccessfully tried to recapture Bezabde. In 363 the Emperor Julian (361–363), at the head of a strong army, advanced to Shapur's capital at Ctesiphon and defeated a superior Sassanid army at the Battle of Ctesiphon; however, he was killed during his retreat back to Roman territory. His successor Jovian (363–364) made an ignominious peace, by which the districts beyond the Tigris which had been acquired in 298 were given to the Persians along with Nisibis and Singara, and the Romans promised to interfere no more in Armenia. The great success is represented in the rock-sculptures near the town Bishapur in Persis (Stolze, Persepolis, p. 141); under the hooves of the king's horse lies the body of an enemy, probably Julian, and a supplicant Roman, the Emperor Jovian, asks for peace.
Shapur II then invaded Armenia, where he took King Arshak II, the faithful ally of the Romans, prisoner by treachery and forced him to commit suicide. He then attempted to introduce Zoroastrian orthodoxy into Armenia. However, the Armenian nobles resisted him successfully, secretly supported by the Romans, who sent King Pap, the son of Arshak II, into Armenia. The war with Rome threatened to break out again, but Valens sacrificed Pap, arranging for his assassination in Tarsus, where he had taken refuge (374). Shapur II subdued the Kushans and took control of the entire area now known as Afghanistan and Pakistan. Shapur II had conducted great hosts of captives from the Roman territory into his dominions, most of whom were settled in Susiana. Here he rebuilt Susa, after having killed the city's rebellious inhabitants.

By his death in 379 the Persian Empire was stronger than ever before, considerably larger than when he came to the throne, the eastern and western enemies were pacified and Persia had gained control over Armenia.

Contributions
Under Shapur II's reign the collection of the Avesta was completed, heresy and apostasy punished, and the Christians persecuted (see Abdecallas, Acepismas of Hnaita). This was a reaction against the Christianization of the Roman Empire by Constantine I. He was successful in the east, and the great town Nishapur in Khorasan (eastern Parthia) was founded by him. He founded some other towns as well.

See also
Raba

References
3. ^ Touraj Daryaei, 16.
5. ^ [1]

Child of Shapur II, Emperor of Persia is:
79.  
   i. Shapur III, Emperor of Persia, d. 388.

Generation No. 45

78.  

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Child of Enna Aigneac is:
80.  
   i. Assaman Emhna.

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79.  

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Shapur III was the eleventh Sassanid King of Persia from 383 to 388. Shapur III succeeded his father Ardashir II in the year 383.[1]

Negotiations between the Romans and the Persians which had begun in the reign of Ardashir II culminated in a treaty of mutual friendship in the year 384.

According to this treaty, Armenia was partitioned between the Romans and the Persians. Therefore two kingdoms were formed, one a vassal of Rome and the other, of Persia. The smaller of these, which comprised the more western districts, which was assigned to Rome was committed to the charge of the Arshak III who had been made king by Manuel Mamikonian, the son of the unfortunate Pap of Armenia, and the grandson of the Arshak II contemporary with Julian. The larger portion, which consisted of the regions lying towards the east, passed under the suzerainty of Persia, and was handed over to an Arshakuni, named Khosrov III, a Christian. Thus friendly relations were established between Rome and Persia which survived for thirty-six years.

Shapur III left behind him a sculptured memorial, which is still to be seen in the vicinity of Kermanshah. It consists of two very similar figures, looking towards each other, and standing in an arched frame. On either side of the figures are inscriptions in the Old Pahlavi character, whereby we are enabled to identify the individuals represented with the second and the third Shapur. They are identical in form, with the exception that the names in the right-hand inscription are "Shapur, Hormizd, Narses," while those in the left-hand one are "Shapur, Shapur, Hormizd." It has been supposed that the right-hand figure was erected by Shapur II and the other afterwards added by Shapur III; but the unity of the whole sculpture, and its inclusion under a single arch, seem to indicate that it was set up by a single sovereign, and was the fruit of a single conception. If this be so, we must necessarily ascribe it to the later of the two monarchs commemorated, i.e. to Shapur III, who must be supposed to have possessed more than usual filial piety, since the commemoration of their predecessors upon the throne is very rare among the Sassanians.

Shapur III died in 388, after reigning a little more than five years. He was a man of simple tastes, and was fond of spending his time outdoors in his tent. One version says that, on one such occasion, when he was thus enjoying himself, there was a violent hurricane which blew the tent under which he was sitting. The falling tent-pole struck him fatally on his head resulting in his death a few days later. However, though most of his subjects believed in the authenticity of this story there were whispers that he could have been the victim of a conspiracy hatched by his courtiers.

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Child of ShapurIII, Emperor of Persia is:
81. i. YAZDAGRIDI*I. EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA.
When Bahram IV was assassinated in 399, his son Yazdegerd succeeded him. The Persian soldiers who had
there took place a civil war between his sons. Bahram V emerged victorious and claimed the throne. Yazdegerd I
was good. They gave him the epithet of Ramashtras or "the Zoroastrians and later C
Yazdegerd promoted Christianity in the early years of his reign and later opposed it. His alternate persecution of
Roman prince.

Empire. Early during his reign, Yazdegerd was entrusted the care of the Roman prince Theodosius by his father
Yazdegerd I's reign was largely uneventful. The king is described as being of a peacefu
was the thirteenth Sassanid king of Persia and ruled from 399 to 421. He is believed by some to be the son of Shapur

Child of Assaman Emhna is:

82.  i.  Roighen

81.  Yazdagird I, Emperor of Sasanian Persia (Shapur III, Emperor of Persia, Shapur II, Emperor of Persia, Istra, Hormiz, Princess of Seistan, King of Seistan, Vasuda, Vasudeva, Vasudeva III, King of Kushana, Vasudeva IV, King of Kushana, Kanishka III, King of Kushana, King of Kushana, Vasudeva, Huviska, King of Kushana, Kanishka I, King of Kushana, Vema, Kadiprises II, King of the Kushans, Princess of Peshwar, Princess of W. Gandara, Calliope, King of W. Gandara, Hippostratos, Strato II, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria, Agathoclea, King of Bactria, Agathocles, Sundar II, Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire, Brihadatha, King of Kashmir and Gandhara

Notes for Yazdagird I, Emperor of Sasanian Persia:

Yazdegerd I, or Izdekeri ("made by God", modern Persian:?????? ???; in Greek accounts ?sd????d??, Isdigerdes), was the thirteenth Sassanid king of Persia and ruled from 399 to 421. He is believed by some to be the son of Shapur III (383–388)[1] and by others to be son of Bahram IV[citation needed] (388–389). He succeeded to the Persian throne on the assassination of Bahram IV in 399 and ruled for twenty-one years till his death in 421.

Yazdegerd I's reign was largely uneventful. The king is described as being of a peaceful disposition. There were cordial relations between Persia and the Eastern Roman Empire as well as between Persia and the Western Roman Empire. Early during his reign, Yazdegerd was entrusted the care of the Roman prince Theodosius by his father Arcadius on the latter's death in 408, and Yazdegerd faithfully defended the life, power and possessions of the Roman prince.

Yazdegerd promoted Christianity in the early years of his reign and later opposed it. His alternate persecution of Zoroastrians and later Christians earned him the epithets of Al Khasha[2] or "the Harsh" and Al Athim or "the Wicked" and Yazdegerd the Sinner.[3] However, his general disposition towards the citizens of the Persian Empire was good. They gave him the epithet of Ramashtras or "the most quiet".[4]

The later part of his reign was occupied by his attempts to convert Armenia to Zoroastrianism. During his last days, there took place a civil war between his sons. Bahram V emerged victorious and claimed the throne. Yazdegerd I died in 421 and was succeeded by his son Bahram V or Bahramgur.

When Bahram IV was assassinated in 399, his son Yazdegerd succeeded him.[5] The Persian soldiers who had
murdered Bahram IV did not hurt him on account of his excellent character and fine disposition. The general tenor of his rule was quite peaceful.

Relations with Rome
The Ostrogoth invasion of 386, the revolt of Maximus in 387, the Antioch revolt of 387, the invasion of Gaul in 388, the massacres at Thessalonika and the rebellion of Argobastes and Eugenius in 393 had severely weakened the Roman Empire. Between 386 and 398, Gildo the Moor ruled an independent kingdom in Africa, and in 395 the Goths took to arms under their leader Alaric.[6] But Yazdegerd on his accession to the throne desisted from assuming any aggressive posture towards the Eastern Roman Emperor Arcadius or the Western Roman Emperor Honorius. Yazdegerd's extreme tranquility and his reluctance to invade the Roman Empire earned him the epithet "Ramashtras," "the most quiet," or "the most firm," he justified his assumption of it by a complete abstinence from all military expeditions.[4]

Adoption of Theodosius
On the ninth year of his reign, it is believed, Yazdegerd was entrusted the care of Prince Theodosius by his father Arcadius, the Eastern Roman Emperor.[4] It was strange that Arcadius chose neither his younger-brother Honorius nor any of his distinguished subjects for the purpose and instead entrusted his son to the charge of the Persian monarch. He accompanied the appointment by a solemn appeal to the magnanimity of Isdigerd, whom he exhorted at some length to defend with all his force, and guide with his best wisdom, the young king and his kingdom. One writer even goes to the extent of claiming that Arcadius gifted Yazdegerd a thousand pounds of pure gold in return for his favour. When Arcadius died, and the testament was opened, information of its contents was sent to Isdigerd, who at once accepted the charge assigned to him, and addressed a letter to the Senate of Constantinople, in which he declared his determination to punish any attempt against his ward with the extremest severity. Flattered, he performed his newfound role with utmost sincerity providing him the best possible education and assistance.

A eunuch named Antiochus was selected and sent to Constantinople to look after the young Emperor.[7] He was, for many years, the prince's intimate companion. He was supposed to have been killed or expelled from the kingdom by Pulcheria, elder sister of Theodosius. However, even after Antiochus' end, Yazdegerd continued his aid to the young monarch.[7]

However, these narratives were written a century and a half after the death of Arcadius, and have been rejected by modern scholars due to the silence of contemporary writers as outweighing the positive statements of the later ones.

Religious policy
According to Wein, Yazdegerd I was a wise, benevolent, and astute ruler.[8] He was also known for his religious tolerance, towards both Christians and Jews. For example, the Talmud (Ksubos, 61a) relates that Ameimar, Rav Ashi, and Mar Zutra would sit in his court. However, excessive zeal of the Christian bishop of Ctesiphon, Abdaas, provoked a reaction, and when he tried to burn the Great Fire temple of Ctesiphon, Yazdegerd I turned against the Christians (see following).

Early inclination towards Christianity
See also: Maruthas

During the early part of his reign, Yazdegerd inclined towards Christianity. George Rawlinson feels that Yazdegerd may even himself wanted to convert to Christianity.[2] Antiochus openly wrote in favor of Christians, and this rapidly increased conversions to Christianity.[2] He openly persecuted the Magi, the Zoroastrian high-priests, who were sworn enemies of Christians.

Yazdegerd is believed to have been an ardent follower of at least two prominent Christian bishops: Marutha, bishop of Mesopotamia, and Abdaas, the bishop of Ctesiphon.[2] Marutha in particular exerted a great amount of influence over the Persian Emperor, and it was at his insistence that Yazdegerd issued a declaration in 410 giving Christians the freedom of worship.[9] This proclamation is sometimes regarded as "the Edict of Milan for the Assyrian Church".[10]

According to the Byzantine historian Procopius, "From the start, Yazdegerd was a sovereign whose nobility of character had won for him the greatest renown. He gave his Christian subjects such freedom, even support that they
prayed daily for the safety of 'the victorious and glorious king' ".[11] A contemporary Christian account says that "the good and clement King Yazdegerd did well to the poor and wretched".[12][13]

Yazdegerd sent the Catholicos of Seleucia-Ctesiphon to mediate between the king and his brother who governed Pars. Another Catholicos was Yazdegerd's envoy to Theodosius.

Persecution of Christians
See also: Abda of Kaskhar

Yazdegerd immediately switched sides when Abdaas burnt down the fire temple at Ctesiphon and refused to rebuild it. The burning evoked a strong reaction from the Magi, and Yazdegerd was forced to take action. Yazdegerd responded by authorizing Zoroastrian priests to destroy Christian churches all over the Empire. Christians were arrested in large numbers. There was widespread slaughter of Christians in the Persian Empire for the next five years. Christian churches all over the nation were destroyed, and Christians driven off from the kingdom.

A few Christian subjects boldly confessed their faith in Christ, but many others sought to conceal their beliefs. However, they were all arrested and slaughtered in large numbers. Thus Isdigerd alternately oppressed both Zoroastrians as well as Christians and earned the disaffection of both the parties. He earned the epithets of "Al-Khasha" or "the Harsh," and "Al-Athim" or "the Wicked".[2]

[edit] Relations with Armenia
When indulging in the persecution of Christians in Persia, Yazdegerd also attempted to spread Zoroastrianism in Armenia.

In the year 413, Vram-Shapuh, the King of Armenia, died and the crown passed on to Artases, who was a boy of ten. Under these circumstances, Isaac, the Metropolitan of Armenia, proceeded to the court of Ctesiphon, and petitioned Yazdegerd to replace Artases with Khosrov III who had been deposed twenty-one years earlier, and whom Bahram IV had imprisoned in the "Castle of Oblivion".[14] Yazdegerd I released Khosrov III and reinstated him upon the throne of Armenia in order to stabilize the condition. However, Khosrov survived for only a year, and on his death, the throne became empty once again, leaving Armenia to chaos.[15] So Yazdegerd responded by placing his own son Shapur on the throne of Armenia, forcing him upon the reluctant nobles of Armenia.[15] Shapur concentrated on reconciliation and established friendly relations with the nobles. He made every effort to convert the Christian Armenians to Zoroastrianism, but was largely unsuccessful.[15] He ruled Armenia for four years and returned to Ctesiphon in 419 to capture the throne from the king Yazdegerd I, who was in his death-bed.[15]

Death
Yazdegerd I died in the year 419 or 420. However, the circumstances surrounding Yazdegerd's death are not clear. According to popular legend, he was killed during his stay in Hyrcania by a fabulous horse which emerged magically from a stream. However, this is believed to be some sort of allusion to his death at the hands of his nobles.[16] However, Yazdegerd I is more likely to have died due to sickness than fallen a victim of conspiracy.

War of succession
When Yazdegerd I was overcome by mortal illness in the year 419,[15] Shapur immediately rushed to Ctesiphon to claim the Sassanian throne leaving behind a viceroy to govern Armenia.[15] But the viceroy-designate was killed soon after Shapur left Armenia. A battle of succession followed and lasted for three years after Yazdegerd's death.[15] Shapur was treacherously killed by the courtiers in the initial stages of the battle. Bahram V arrived from Hira and captured the throne after defeating the Persian nobles with an Arab army in a three-year-long battle.[15] Narseh, another son of Yazdegerd I was appointed governor of Khorasan.

Coins of Yazdegerd I
The coins of Yazdegerd are not of much artistic value. They all bear the head of a middle-aged man, with a short beard and hair gathered behind the head in a cluster of curls. The distinguishing mark is the inflated ball above the head which is adorned with a crescent in the front. On the reverse side of the coin is a fire-altar. The coins bear the legend: "Mazdisn bag ramashtras Izdikerti, malkan malka Airan," or "the Ormazd-worshipping divine most peaceful Isdigerd, king of the kings of Iran;" and on the reverse, Ramashtras Izdikerti, "the most peaceful Isdigerd".[15] In some cases, Yazdegerd's coins also bear the names of "Ardashatri" (Artaxerxes) or, "Varahran", probably a reference to Ardashir, the founder of the Sassanid Empire and Yazdegerd I's son Bahram V or
Bahramgur. Perhaps a more reasonable account of the matter would be that Yazdegerd had originally a son Ardeshir, whom he intended to make his successor, but that this son died or offended him, and that then he gave his place to Bahramgur.

Footnotes
1.^ Nöldeke, p. 73 n. 3
2.^ a b c d e Rawlinson 1882, p.275.
3.^ Arabic al-atôim, Tabari I, p. 847
4.^ a b c Rawlinson 1882, p.272.
5.^ Rawlinson 1882, p.269.
7.^ a b Rawlinson 1882, p.273.
8.^ Wein
10.^ Wigram, p. 89
11.^ Procopius(1.2, 8)
12.^ Nöldeke, p. 75 n.
13.^ Greatrex-Lieu, p. 32
15.^ a b c d e f g h i Rawlinson 1882, p.278.

Child of YAZDAGRID and SHUSANDUKHT is:
83. i. VARAHAN V\(^5\) (BAHRAM), EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA.

Generation No. 47

82. ROIGHEN\(^41\) RUADH (ASSAMAN)\(^50\) EMINHA, ENNA\(^49\) AIGNEAC, AONGUS\(^48\) TIURMEACH-TEAMRACH, EOCHADH ALT\(^47\) LEATHAN, OLIOLL\(^46\) CAS-FIACHLACH, CONLA\(^45\) CAOMH, IARAN\(^44\) GLEOFATHACH, MELG\(^43\) MOLBITHACH, COLETHACH\(^42\) CAOL-BHREAGH, UGAIN\(^41\) MÖR, EOCHAIDH\(^40\) BUADHACH, DUACH\(^39\) LADHRACH, FIACHA\(^38\) TOLGRACH, MUREDACH\(^37\) BOLGACH, SIMEON\(^36\) BREC, AEDAN\(^35\) GLAS, NUADHAS\(^34\) FIONNFAIL, GIALCHADH\(^33\), OLIOLL\(^32\) AOLCHEOID, SIORNA\(^31\)
"SAOGHALACH", DEIN\(^30\), ROTEACHTACH\(^29\), MAIN\(^28\), AONGUS\(^27\) OLMUCHA, FIACH&A\(^26\) LABHRAINN, SMIOMGHALL\(^25\), ENBOATH\(^24\), TIGERNAS\(^23\), FOLL-AICH\(^22\), EITHIRAIL\(^21\), IRIAL (JAREL EURIALUS) FAIDH (FAITH)\(^20\) MACERMOIN, HEREMON (2ND MONARCH) OF \(^19\) IRELAND, TEA TEPHI\(^18\) SCOTA; PRINCESS OF EGYPT, PHARAOH NECTANEBOS "NECHO\(^{II}\) II", PSAIMTEK\(^16\) I, NEKO\(^15\) I, SHEPESRE\(^14\) TEFNAKHTI, PRINCE OF EGYPT, BAKERNANEF (Boccors) WAH KÁ\(^13\) RE, TEFNAKHTI (I) SHEPES RE OF \(^12\) EGYPT, OSORKON IV C OF \(^11\) MAAT, SHOSHONK \(^10\) AAKHEPERRE, STEPENRE\(^9\) PIMAY PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONK \(^8\) III, TAKELOT\(^7\) II, OSORKON\(^6\) II, TAKELOT\(^6\) I, OSORKON\(^5\) I, SHOSHONK I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT\(^5\), THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA\(^4\) SHOSENQ)

Child of ROIGHEN RUADH is:
84. i. FIONNLOIG\(^52\).

83. VARAHAN V\(^51\) (BAHRAM), EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA (YAZDAGRID)\(^50\) I, EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA, SHAPUR\(^49\) III, EMPEROR OF PERSIA, SHAPUR\(^48\) II, EMPEROR OF PERSIA, IFFA\(^47\) HORMIZ, PRINCESS OF SEISTAN, KING OF SEISTAN\(^46\) VASUEVA, VASUEVA\(^45\) III, KING OF KUSHANA, VASUEVA\(^44\) II, KING OF KUSHANA, KANISHKA\(^43\) III, KING OF KUSHANA, KING OF KUSHANA\(^42\) VASUEVA, VUVISHKA\(^41\) I, KING OF KUSHANA, KANISHKA\(^40\) I, KING OF KUSHANS, VEMA\(^39\) KADIPHISES II, KING OF THE KUSHANS, PRINCESS OF \(^38\) PESHVAR, PRINCESS OF W. GANDARA\(^37\) CALLJOPE, KING OF W. GANDARA\(^36\) HIPPOSTRATOS, STRATO\(^35\) I, KING OF MATHURA, PRINCESS OF BACTRIA\(^34\) AGATHOCLEIA, KING OF BACTRIA\(^33\) AGATHOCLES, SUNDARI\(^32\) MAURYA, PRINCESS OF MAURYA EMPIRE, KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE\(^31\) BRAHADARATHA, KING OF KASHMIR AND GANDHARA\(^30\) KUNALA, ASHOKA\(^29\) VARDHANA, KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE, BINDUS\(^28\) AMITROCHATES, KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE, KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE\(^27\) CHANDRAGUPTA, MAURYA\(^26\) V. OF MAGADHA, MAURYA IV OF \(^25\) TAXILA, MAURYA III OF \(^24\) MAURYA II OF \(^23\) PRINCESS OF PERSIA\(^22\) CHANDRABAVNA, PRINCESS OF PERSIA\(^21\) ATossa, PRINCESS OF EGYPT\(^20\) NEITHYTI, HABRE\(^19\) WAHIBRE, KING OF EGYPT, PSAIMTEK II\(^18\) NEFERibre, KING OF EGYPT,
Bahram Gur (Persian: ?????) was a son of Yazdegerd I (399–420) and Artaxias and is considered to be an evidence of his victory over the Huns.

Invasion of the Huns
During the later part of Bahram V's reign, Persia was invaded from the northeast by Hephthalite hordes who ravaged northern Iran under the command of their Great Khan. They crossed the Elburz into Khorasan and proceeded as far as the ancient town of Rei. Unprepared, Bahram initially made an offer of peace and submission which was well-received by the Khan of the Hephthalites. But crossing Tabaristan, Hycania and Nishapur by night, he took the Huns unawares and massacred them along with their Khan, taking the Khan's wife hostage. The retreating Huns were pursued and slaughtered up to the Oxus. One of Bahram's generals followed the Huns deep into Hun territory and destroyed their power. His portrait which survived for centuries on the coinage of Bukhara (in contemporary Uzbekistan) is considered to be an evidence of his victory over the Huns.

War with Rome
The persecution of James Intercisus led to a war with the Eastern Romans.

In the year 421, the Romans sent their general Ardaburius with an extensive contingent into Armenia. Ardaburius defeated the Persian commander Narseh and proceeded to plunder the province of Arzanene and lay siege to Nisibis. Ardaburius abandoned the siege in the face of an advancing army under Bahram, who in turn besieged Theodosiopolis (probably Theodosiopolis in Osroene).

Peace was then concluded between the Persians and Romans (422) with a return to status quo ante bellum.

Berlin

Relations with Armenia
The situation in Armenia occupied Bahram immediately after the conclusion of peace with Rome. Armenia had been without a king since Bahram's brother Shapur had vacated the country in 418. Bahram now desired that a descendant of the royal line of kings, a scion of the Arshakunis, should be on the throne of Armenia. With this intention in mind, he selected an Arshakuni named Artaxias IV (Artashes), a son of Vramshapuh, and made him King of Armenia.

But the newly appointed king did not have a good character. The frustrated nobles petitioned Bahramgur to remove Artaxias and admit Armenia into the Persian Empire so that the province would be under the direct control of the Sassanian Emperor[citation needed]. However, the annexation of Armenia by Persia was strongly opposed by the Armenian patriarch Isaac of Armenia, who felt the rule of a Christian better than that of a non-Christian regardless of his character or ability. Despite his strong protests, however, Armenia was annexed by Bahram, who placed it under the charge of a Persian governor in 428.

Notes for VARAHAN V (BAHRAM), EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA:
Bahram V[1] (Persian: ?????) was the fourteenth Sassanid King of Persia (421–438). Also called Bahram Gur or Bahramgur (Persian: ????? ????), he was a son of Yazdegerd I (399–421),[2] after whose sudden death (or assassination) he gained the crown against the opposition of the grandees by the help of Mundhir, the Arab dynast of al-Hirah.

Bahram V began his reign with a systematic persecution of the Christians, among whom was James Intercisus.

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again due to lack of evidence.

Another legend, found in the Shahnameh, is about Bahram slaying two lions and gaining the crown between them.

The sculpture of Bahram Gur in Azneft square.[edit] Legacy Bahram V has left behind a rich and colorful legacy, with numerous legends and fantastical tales. His fame has survived the downplay of Zoroastrianism and the anti-Iranian measures of the Umayyads and the Mongols, and many of the stories have been incorporated in contemporary Islamic lore.

His legacy even survives outside Iran. He is the king who receives the Three Princes of Serendip in the tale that gave rise to the word Serendipity. He is believed to be the inspiration for the legend of Bahramgur prevalent in the Punjab.

He is a great favourite in Persian tradition, which relates many stories of his valour and beauty; of his victories over the Romans, Turks, Indians, and Africans; and of his adventures in hunting and in love. He is called Bahram Gur, "Onager," on account of his love for hunting, and in particular, hunting onagers.

For example, the Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam, by Edward Fitzgerald, quatrain 17:

"They say the Lion and the Lizard keep
The Courts where Jamshyd gloried and drank deep:
And Bahram, that great Hunter - the Wild Ass
Stamps o'er his Head, and he lies fast asleep."

To which Fitzgerald adds the following footnote (1st edition, 1859): "Bahram Gur - Bahram of the Wild Ass from his fame in hunting it - a Sassanian sovereign, had also his seven palaces, each of a different colour; each with a Royal mistress within; each of whom recounts to Bahram a romance. The ruins of three of these towers are yet shown by the peasantry; as also the swamp in which Bahram sunk while pursuing his Gur.

Some have judged Bahram V to have been rather a weak monarch, after the heart of the grandees and the priests. He is said to have built many great fire-temples, with large gardens and villages (Tabari).

Coins
The coins of Bahram V are chiefly remarkable for their crude and coarse workmanship and for the number of the mints from which they were issued. The mint-marks include Ctesiphon, Ecbatana, Ispahan, Arbel, Ledan, Nehavend, Assyria, Chuzistan, Media, and Kerman or Carmania. The headdress has the mural crown in front and behind, but interposes between these two detached fragments a crescent and a circle, emblems, no doubt, of the sun and moon gods. The reverse shows the usual fire-altar, with guards, or attendants, watching it. The king's head appears in the flame upon the altar.

Notes
1.^ In the Western sources he is also called Gororanes (Theodoret, Historia Ecclesiastica, V.37.6).

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Child of Varahvan V (Bahram), Emperor of Sassanian Persia is:

85. i. Yazdagird II, Emperor of Sassanian Persia.

**Generation No. 48**


Child of Fionnlogh is:

86. i. Fionn.


He married Empress of Sassanian Persia Dinak.

Child of Yazdagird and Empress Dinak is:

87. i. Emperor of Sassanian Persia, Peroz.

**Generation No. 49**

Wisdom in dealing with the catastrophe

Historians record that Peroz I showed an extreme rigidity of character in the face of such an adversity and great loss. Either in the Tigris or the Euphrates. Eventually the crops failed and thousands perished. A seven-year famine devastated the crops and ruined the country. Sources say that the wells became dry and that there was not a trickle of water either in the Tigris or the Euphrates. Eventually the crops failed and thousands perished.

Historians record that Peroz I showed an extreme rigidity of character in the face of such an adversity and great wisdom in dealing with the catastrophe. As a result of his wisdom and benevolence, Persia gradually recovered from the effects of the famine.
the famine.

First campaign against the Huns
No sooner had Persia recovered from the famine, than war broke out with the Huns of the north. Provoked by an insult heaped upon him by Khush-Newaz, Peroz led an invasion of the Hephthalite country forcing them to retreat. But when Peroz pursued the Hephthalites to the hills, he suffered a crushing defeat, was captured and forced to surrender his son Kavadh I to Khush-Newaz as a hostage, until the ransom was paid.[1]

Trouble in Armenia
In 481, Peroz was defeated by the Kushans. Soon afterwards, Iberia broke into revolt and declared its independence. Peroz sent the Persian Governor of Armenia to Iberia to quell the rebellion. But no sooner had he left the province, that Armenia rose in rebellion and chose an Armenian Christian called Bargatide as its Emperor.

The Persian Governor, Adar-Vishnasp after restoring Persian rule in Iberia rushed to Armenia to quell the rebellion but was squarely defeated. Peroz responded by sending two large armies to the region, one under Adar-Narseh into Armenia and the other against Iberia.

Sahag, the Armenian king, was killed and Mihran was wreaking havoc in Persia, but just when success was within grasp, Peroz blundered by recalling Mihran and entrusting the command to one Hazaravough. Hazaravough too did not remain long in Armenia and was recalled in a few months. This policy of rotating military commanders frequently ensured that Armenia was lost to the Persians for the time being.

Second campaign against the Huns and death
Towards the end of his reign, Peroz gathered an army of 50,000-100,000 men and, placing his brother Balash at the head of the government in Ctesiphon, he invaded the Hephthalites in order to avenge the insult heaped upon him during the first campaign. He set up his position at Balkh and rejected the terms of peace offered by Khush-Newaz. However, when a showdown with the Persians seemed imminent, Khush-Newaz sent a small body of troops in advance in order to trick Peroz into an ambuscade. The plan was successful, and the Persians were defeated with great slaughter, Peroz being one of the victims. Khush-Newaz, however, treated the body of his erstwhile friend with dignity and dispatched it to Persia to be buried with full honors. Balash was crowned the next Emperor of Persia.

Soon afterwards, the Hephthalites invaded and plundered Persia. Persia, however, was saved when a noble Persian from the Parthian family of Karen, Zarmihr (or Sokhra/Sufra), raised Balash (484–488), one of Peroz I’s brothers, to the throne.

Notes

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Child of EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA PEROZ is:

Eochu or Eochaid Feidlech (“the enduring”),[1] son of Finn, was, according to medieval Irish legends and historical traditions, a High King of Ireland. He is best known as the father of the legendary queen Medb of Connacht.

According to the 12th century Lebor Gabála Érenn, he took power when he defeated the previous High King, Fachtna Fáthach, in the Battle of Leitir Rúaid.[2] The Middle Irish saga Cath Leiretech Ruibhe tells the story of this battle. While Fachtna Fáthach was away from Tara on a visit to Ulster, Eochu, then king of Connacht, raised an army, had the provincial kings killed and took hostages from Tara. When news reached Fachtna at Emain Macha, he raised an army of Ulstermen and gave battle at Leitir Rúaid in the Corann (modern County Sligo),[3] but was defeated and beheaded by Eochu. Eochaid Sálbuidhe, the king of Ulster, was also killed. Fergus mac Róich covered the Ulster army’s retreat, and Eochu marched to Tara.[4]

Various Middle Irish tales give him a large family. His wife was Cloithfinn,[5] and they had six daughters, Derbriu, Eile, Mugain, Eithne, Clothru and Medb, and four sons, a set of triplets known as the three findemna, and Conall Anglondach. Derbriu was the lover of Aengus of the Tuatha Dé Danann. Her mother-in-law, Garbdalb, turned six men into pigs for the crime of eating nuts from her grove, and Derbriu protected them for a year until they were killed by Medb.[6] When Conchobar mac Nessa became king of Ulster, Eochu gave four of his daughters, Mugain, Eithne, Clothru and Medb, to him in marriage in compensation for the death of his supposed father, Fachtna Fáthach. Eithne bore him his eldest son Cormac Cond Longas, although other traditions make him the son of Conchobar by his own mother, Ness. Medb bore Conchobar a son called Amalgad, but later left him, and Eochu set her up as queen of Connacht. Some time after that, Eochu held an assembly at Tara, which both Conchobar and Medb attended. The morning after the assembly, Conchobar followed Medb down to the river Boyne where she had gone to bathe, and raped her. Eochu made war against Conchobar on the Boyne, but was defeated.[3]

The three findemna tried to overthrow their father in the Battle of Druimm Criaich. The night before the battle, their sister Clothru, afraid that they would die without an heir, seduced all three of them, and the future High King Lugaid Riab nDerg, was conceived. The next day they were killed, and their father, seeing their severed heads, swore that no son should directly succeed his father to the High Kingship of Ireland.[7]

He ruled for twelve years, and died of natural causes at Tara, succeeded by his brother Eochu Airem. The Lebor Gabála synchronises his reign with the dictatorship of Julius Caesar (48-44 BC).[2] The chronology of Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éireann dates his reign to 94-82 BC,[8] that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 143-131 BC.[9]

Child of Eochaid Feidlioch and Cloth-fionn is:

i. **Bress-Nar-Lothar**

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89. **Kavadh I** (Kobad), Emperor of Sassanian Persia (Emperor of Sassanian Persia)[85] Peroz, Yazdagird II, Emperor of Sassanian Persia, Varahan V[86] (Bahram), Emperor of Sassanian Persia, Yazdagird I, Emperor of Sassanian Persia, Shahpur III, Emperor of Persia, Shapur II, Emperor of Persia, Ifra' Hormiz, Princess of Seistan, King of Seistan, Vasudeva, Vasudeva III, King of Kushana, Vasudeva II, King of Kushana,
Kavadh, however, escaped and found refuge with the Hephthalites, whose king gave him his daughter in marriage and aided him to return to Persia. In 498 Kavadh became king again and punished his opponents. He had to pay a tribute to the Hephthalites and applied for subsidies to Rome, which had before supported the Persians. But now the Emperor Anastasius I (491–518) refused subsidies, expecting that the two rival powers of the East would exhaust one another in war. At the same time he intervened in the affairs of the Persian part of Armenia and restored Iberia to Iran's effective control.

War and succession
Kavadh joined the Hephthalites and began war against the Byzantine Empire. In 502 he took Theodosiopolis (Erzurum) in Armenia; in 503 Amida (Diarbekr) on the Tigris. In 505 an invasion of Armenia by the western Huns from the Caucasus led to an armistice, during which the Romans paid subsidies to the Persians for the maintenance of the fortifications on the Caucasus.

When Justin I (518–527) came to the throne in Constantinople, the conflict began anew. His Arab vassal, al-Mundhir IV ibn al-Mundhir, laid waste Mesopotamia and slaughtered the monks and nuns. In 531 Belisarius was defeated at the Battle of Callinicum. Shortly afterwards Kavadh died, at the age of eighty-two, in September 531. During his last years his favourite son Khosrau I had had great influence over him and had been proclaimed successor over his older brothers, Kawus (Caoses) and Zames. He also induced Kavadh to break with the Mazdakites, whose doctrine had spread widely and caused great turmoil throughout Persia.

Effect on Sassanid Empire
In 529 Mazdaki doctrine was formally refuted in a theological discussion held before the throne of the king by the orthodox Magians, and its adherents were slaughtered and persecuted everywhere; Mazdak himself was hanged. Kavadh evidently was, as Procopius (Pers. i.6) calls him, an unusually clear-sighted and energetic ruler. Although he could not free himself from the yoke of the Hephthalites, he succeeded in restoring order in the interior and

Notes for Kavadh (Kobad), Emperor of Sasanian Persia:
Kavadh or Kavadh I (Persian: ????? Qabad) (born 449, ruled 488–531) was the son of Peroz I (457–484) and the nineteenth Sasanid king of Persia, reigning from 488 to 531. He was crowned by the nobles in place of his deposed and blinded uncle Balash (484–488).

The date of his birth is unclear; John Malalas claims that at his death he was 82 years old, hence born in 449, but Procopius mentions that he had barely entered puberty when his father Peroz was killed with his entire army during a campaign against the Hephthalites in 484. After this disaster, only few members of the royal line remained; according to Procopius, of the ca. 30 sons of Peroz, Kavadh was the only one to remain alive. At first, his uncle Balash assumed the throne, reigning until 488, when a coup deposed him and brought Kavadh to the throne.

Kavadh I gave his support to the communistic sect founded by Mazdak, son of Bamdad, who demanded that the rich should divide their wives and their wealth with the poor. His intention evidently was, by adopting the doctrine of the Mazdakites, to break the influence of the magnates. But in 496 he was deposed and incarcerated in the "Castle of Oblivion (Lethe)" in Susiana, and his brother Djamasp (496–498) was raised to the throne.

Return from exile
Kavadh, however, escaped and found refuge with the Hephthalites, whose king gave him his daughter in marriage and aided him to return to Persia. In 498 Kavadh became king again and punished his opponents. He had to pay a tribute to the Hephthalites and applied for subsidies to Rome, which had before supported the Persians. But now the Emperor Anastasius I (491–518) refused subsidies, expecting that the two rival powers of the East would exhaust one another in war. At the same time he intervened in the affairs of the Persian part of Armenia and restored Iberia to Iran's effective control.

War and succession
Kavadh joined the Hephthalites and began war against the Byzantine Empire. In 502 he took Theodosiopolis (Erzurum) in Armenia; in 503 Amida (Diarbekr) on the Tigris. In 505 an invasion of Armenia by the western Huns from the Caucasus led to an armistice, during which the Romans paid subsidies to the Persians for the maintenance of the fortifications on the Caucasus.

When Justin I (518–527) came to the throne in Constantinople, the conflict began anew. His Arab vassal, al-Mundhir IV ibn al-Mundhir, laid waste Mesopotamia and slaughtered the monks and nuns. In 531 Belisarius was defeated at the Battle of Callinicum. Shortly afterwards Kavadh died, at the age of eighty-two, in September 531. During his last years his favourite son Khosrau I had had great influence over him and had been proclaimed successor over his older brothers, Kawus (Caoses) and Zames. He also induced Kavadh to break with the Mazdakites, whose doctrine had spread widely and caused great turmoil throughout Persia.

Effect on Sassanid Empire
In 529 Mazdaki doctrine was formally refuted in a theological discussion held before the throne of the king by the orthodox Magians, and its adherents were slaughtered and persecuted everywhere; Mazdak himself was hanged. Kavadh evidently was, as Procopius (Pers. i.6) calls him, an unusually clear-sighted and energetic ruler. Although he could not free himself from the yoke of the Hephthalites, he succeeded in restoring order in the interior and
fought with success against the Romans. He built some towns which were named after him, and began to regulate taxation.

Child of Kavadh I (Kobad), Emperor of Sasanian Persia is:
91. i. Khushraw (Chrosroe I) of 55 Kings.

Generation No. 51


He married Clothra ingen Echach Uí Éremóin.

Notes for Bress-Nar-Lothar:
Marriage 1 Clothra ingen Echach Uí Éremóin

Child of Bress-Nar-Lothar and Clothra Éremóin is:
92. i. Lughaidh Sribhainn56 Dearg.

91. Khushraw (Chrosroe I) of 55 Kings (Kavadh E4 (Kobad), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Emperor of Sasanian Persia53 Peroz, Yazdagird52 II, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Varahan4 Varahan41 (Bahram), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Yazdagird50 I, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Shapur49 III, Emperor of Persia, Shapur48 II, Emperor of Persia, Ifra47 Hormiz, Princess of Seistan, King of Seistan46 Vasdeva, Vasudeva45 III, King of Kushana, Vasudeva44 II, King of Kushana, Kanishka43 III, King of Kushana, King of Kushana42 Vasdeva, Huvishka41 I, King of Kushana, Kanishka40 I, King of Kushana, Vema39 KadhikhecII, King of the Kushans, Princess of38 Peshwar, Princess of W. Gandara37 Calliope, King of W. Gandara36 Hippostratos, Strato35 I, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria34 Agathoclea, King of Bactria33 Agathocles, Sundari32 Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire31 Brihadratha, King of Kashmir and Gandhara30 Kunala, Ashoka29 Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa28 (Amirochates), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire27 Chandragupta, Maurya26 V, of Magadha, Maurya IV of25 Taxila, Maurya III of24, Maurya II of23, Princess of Persia22 Chandravarnna, Princess of Persia21 Atossa, Princess of Egypt20 Neithyti, Hamir19 Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II18 Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos “Necho”17 II, Psamtek16 I, Neko15 I, Shepsesre14 TefnakhtiII, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka13 RE, Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re of12 Egypt, Osorkon IV’ C of11 Ma’At, Shoshonk V10 Aakehepperre, Stepnere9 Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk8 III, Takelot7 II, Osorkon7 II, Takelot6 I, Osorkon6 I, Shoshonk5 I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot5, the Great Chief of the Ma’1 Shosheno)

Notes for Khushraw (Chrosroe I) of Kings:
Khosrau I (also called Chosroes I in classical sources, most commonly known in Persian as Anushirvan or Anushirvan, Persian: ????????? meaning the immortal soul), also known as Anushiravan the Just or Anushirawan the Just (??, Anushiravan-e-adar??, Anushiravan-e-dadgar) (r. 531–579), was the favourite son and successor of Kavadh I (488–531), twentieth Sassanid Emperor (Great King) of Persia, and the most famous and celebrated of the Sassanid Emperors.

He laid the foundations of many cities and opulent palaces, and oversaw the repair of trade roads as well as the
building of numerous bridges and dams. During Khosrau I's ambitious reign, art and science flourished in Persia and the Sassanid Empire reached its peak of glory and prosperity. His rule was preceded by his father's and succeeded by Hormizd IV.

Khosrau I's father, Kavadh I, was involved with a group of Zoroastrians called the Mazdakites. The Mazdakites believed in an egalitarian society and many lower class peasants supported the Mazdakite revolution.[1] Kavadh, wanting to centralize power by taking power away from the great noble families, supported this movement. Upon Kavadh's death in 531, the Mazdakites gave their loyalty to Kavadh's eldest son, Kawus, while the noble families and the Zoroastrian Magi gave their support to Khosrau I. Khosrau presented himself as an anti-Mazdakite supporter.[2] He, much like his father, believed in a strong centralized government. Khosrau met his brother Kawus in war and defeated him as well as his Mazdakite followers. Subsequently Mazdak, as well as a majority of his followers, were executed for his heretical beliefs and Khosrau took the Sassanian throne.[3] At Khosrau's succession, Byzantine and Sassanian Persia were in open conflict with each other. Neither empire was able to get an advantage of the other, causing Emperor Justinian and King Khosrau to agree on a peace treaty in 531.[4]

Khosrau I was married to the daughter of a Turkish khaqan named in Armenian sources as Kayen[5] and in the Persian sources as Qaqim-khaqan[6]

Khosrau I represents the epitome of the philosopher king in the Sassanian Empire. Upon his ascension to the throne, Khosrau did not restore power to the feudal nobility or the magi, but centralized his government.[7] Khosrau's reign is considered to be one of the most successful within the Sassanian empire. The peace agreement between Rome and Persia in 531 gave Khosrau the chance to consolidate power and focus his attention on interior improvement.[8] His reforms and military campaigns marked a renaissance of the Sassanian empire, which spread philosophic beliefs as well as trade goods from the far east to the far west.

Reforms
The internal reforms under Khosrau were much more important than those on the exterior frontier. The subsequent reforms resulted in the rise of a bureaucratic state at the expense of the great noble families, strengthening the central government and the power of the Shahanshah. The army too was reorganized and tied to the central government rather than local nobility allowing greater organization, faster mobilization and a far greater cavalry corps. Reforms in taxation provided the empire with stability and a much stronger economy, allowing prolonged military campaigns as well as greater revenues for the bureaucracy.[9]

Tax Reforms
Khosrau's tax reforms have been praised by several scholars, the most notable of which is F. Altheim.[10] The tax reforms, which were started under Kavadh I and completely implemented by Khosrau, strengthened the royal court by a great deal.[11] Prior to Khosrau and Kavadh's reigns, a majority of the land was owned by seven great noble families: Suren, Waraz, Karen, Aspahbadh, Spandiyadh, Mihran, and Zik.[12] These great landowners enjoyed tax exemptions from the Sassanian empire, and were tax collectors within their local provincial areas.[13]

Minted Coin of Khosrau I. With the outbreak of the Mazdakite revolution, there was a great uprising of peasants and lower class citizens who grabbed large portions of land under egalitarian values. As a result of this there was great confusion on land possession and ownership. Khosrau surveyed all the land within the empire indiscriminately and began to tax all land under a single program. Tax revenues that previously went to the local noble family now went to the central government treasury.[14] The fixed tax that Khosrau implemented created a more stable form of income for the treasury.

Because the tax did not vary, the treasury could estimate fairly well how much they were going to make in revenue for the year.[15] Prior to Khosrau's tax reforms, taxes were collected based on the yield that the land had produced. This system was changed to one which calculated and averaged taxation based on the water rights for each piece of property. Lands which grew date palms and olive trees used a slightly different method of taxation based on the amount of producing trees that the land contained.[16] These tax reforms of Khosrau were the stepping stone which enabled subsequent reforms in the bureaucracy and the military to take place.

Bureaucracy Reforms
The hallmark of Khosrau's bureaucratic reform was the creation of a new social class. Before the Sassanian empire consisted of only three social classes, magi, nobles, and peasants/commoners. Khosrau added a fourth class to this hierarchy between the nobles and the peasants, called the deghans. The deghans were small land owning citizens of the Sassanian empire and were considered lower nobility.

Khosrau promoted honest government officials based on trust and honesty, rather than corrupt nobles and magi.[17] The small landowning deghans were favored over the high nobles because they tended to be more trustworthy and owned their loyalty to the Shah for their position in the bureaucracy.[18] The rise of deghans became the backbone of the empire because they were now held the majority of land and positions in local and provincial administration.[19]

The reduction of power of the great families helped to improve the empire. This was because previously, each great family ruled a large chunk of land and each had their own king. The name Shahanshah, meaning King of Kings, derived from the fact that there were many feudal kings in Sassanian Persia with the Shahanshah as the ruler of them all. Their fall from power meant their control was redirected to the central government and all taxes now came to the central government rather than to the local nobility.

Military Reforms
Major reforms to the military made the Persian army capable of fighting sustained wars and on multiple fronts as well deploy armies faster.[20] Prior to Khosrau's reign, much like other aspects of the empire, the military was dependent on the feudal lords of the great families to provide soldiers and cavalry. Each family would provide their own army and equipment when called by the Shahanshah. This system was replaced with the emergence of the lower deghan nobility class, who was paid and provided by the central government.[21]

The main force of the Sassanian army was the Savaran cavalry. Previously only nobles could enlist into the Savaran cavalry which was very limited and created shortages in well trained soldiers. Now that the deghan class was considered nobility, they were able to join the cavalry force and boosted the number of cavalry force significantly.[22]

The military reform focused more on organization and training of troops. The cavalry was still the most important aspect of the Persian military, with foot archers being less important, and mass peasant forces being on the bottom of the spectrum.

Khosrau discarded the old satrap system and replaced it with four military districts with a spahbad, or general, in charge of each district.[23] Before the reforms of Khusrau, the General of the Iranians (Eran-sapahbed) controlled the military of the entire empire.[24] The four zones consisted of Mesopotamia in the west, the Caucasus region in the north, the Persian gulf in the central and southwest region, and Central Asia in the east. This new “quatro” system not only created a more efficient military system but also “[administration] of a vast, multiregional, multicultural, and multiracial empire.”[25]

Military Equipment
By Khosrau's reign, super-heavy cavalrymen were discontinued and replaced with a more efficient form of cavalry. New “composite” cavalrymen were now the main cavalry force, trained to use both lances as well as bows. These versatile knights came in response of defeats from central Asian nomads. The composite cavalrymen wore spangenhelm style helmets, chain mail, and small shields. Their armor was lighter than previous Savaran cavalrymen, but they continued to carry heavy lances as well as bow case containing two bows. These composite cavalrymen proved to be much more versatile on the battlefield and were much more fluid.[26]

War With Justinian
In 532, Khosrau and Justinian, emperor of the Eastern Roman/Byzantine Empire concluded Pax Perpetuum, or the Eternal Peace in hopes of settling all land disputes between the Romans and Sassanians.[27][28] In 540, Khosrau broke the Pax Perpetuum and struck Mesopotamia and Syria. He then moved out to Antioch, taking a path that was south of the usual military route in order to extract tributes from towns along the way to Antioch.[29] The walls of Antioch had been greatly damaged during an earthquake in 525-526, and the Romans had not since repaired them because of western military campaigns, which made it much easier to conquer.[30] Khosrau sacked and burned the city at which point Justinian sued for peace, giving Khosrau a large amount of money. While traveling back to
Persia, Khosrau took ransoms from multiple Byzantine towns at which point Justinian called off his truce and prepared to send his great commander Belisarius to move against the Sassanians.[31]

There were many motives behind Khosrau's strike against the Byzantines during their Eternal Peace. Emissaries from the Ostrogoth kingdom in the west appealed to Khosrau to put pressure on the eastern front of East Rome.[32] Gothic envoys spoke to Khosrau's court and spoke of Justinian's goal to unite the world under Roman rule. The Gothic envoys persuasively informed Khosrau that if Persia did not act soon, they would soon become victims of Byzantine aggression.[33] It was the Persian military's fear that once the Roman army had conquered the west, they would turn east and strike down Persia. In order to prevent this, Khosrau preemptively struck Antioch.[34] There were also pressure and unrest in both Arabia and Armenian who were both eager for war.[35]

A year after his sack of Antioch, Khosrau brought his army north to Lazica on request of the Lazic King to fend off Byzantine raids into his territory. At the same time, Belisarius arrived in Mesopotamia and began attacking the city of Nisbis. Although Belisarius had greatly outnumbered the city garrison, the city was too well fortified and he was forced to ravage the countryside around the Nisbis subsequently getting recalled back west.[36]

After successful campaigns in Armenia, Khosrau was encouraged once again to attack Syria. Khosrau turned south towards Edessa and besieged the city. Edessa was now a much more important city than Antioch was, but the garrison which occupied the city was able to resist the siege. The Persians were forced to retreat from Edessa, but were able to forge a five year truce with the Byzantine Empire. Four years into the five year truce, rebellion against Sassanian control broke out in Lazica. In response, a Byzantine army was sent to support the people of Lazica, effectively ending the established truce and thus continuing the Lazic Wars.[37]

Lazic Wars
The Lazic wars are intertwined with Khosrau's war with Justinian in so much as there were many battles which overlapped each other, yet they are generally considered different wars. Whereas Khosrau's wars with Justinian were fought at the sake of fighting Romans, the Lazic wars were often fought on behalf of Lazic and Armenian citizens, or in defense of Sassanian outposts in Lazica.

The Caucasus region, especially northern Armenia, has always been a major area of Romano-Sassanian rivalry.[38] The Lazic wars began when the Sassanians intervened on Byzantine encroachments on behalf of the King of Lazica. Khosrau was able to penetrate deep into Lazica and secure the fortress city of Petra, located on the coast of the Black Sea, which provided Persia with a strategic port.[39]

Khosrau was forced to pull out of Lazica, leaving only a 1,500 man garrison in Petra to defend the territory while he went to deal with Belisarius in Mesopotamia.[40] In 542, Justinian attempted to make a truce with Khosrau, but rather than sending peace delegates, Justinian sent a massive 30,000 man army into Armenia. Sassanian general Nabed's army of 4,000 was severely outnumbered and was forced to retreat to the town of Anglon in Armenia.[41] The Byzantine army pursued the Sassanians into the town but to Byzantines' dismay, they walked into an ambush and were completely routed. This massive defeat in 543 gave Sassanians the offensive in the Lazic war as well as in the war against Justinian.[42]

Justinian and Khosrau declared a five year truce in 545 but war continued to ravage the Caucasus region. An uprising of anti-Sassanian control struck the Lazica region in 547. In response, Justinian sent 8,000 troops in support of Lazic King Gubazes.[43] A Byzantine-Lazic army besieged the city of Petra, holding a garrison of 1,500 Sassanian troops. As a result, 1,200 of the Sassanian soldiers were killed, but the Byzantine-Lazic coalition was soon forced to retreat when a relief army of 30,000 pro-Sassanian troop arrived.[44]

In 549 the previous truce between Justinian and Khosrau was disregarded and full war broke out once again between Persians and Romans. The last major decisive battle of the Lazic wars came in 556 when Byzantine general Martin defeated a massive Sassanian force led by a Persian nakhvaegan (field marshal).[45] Negotiations between Khosrau and Justinian opened in 556, leading to the establishment of a 51 year peace agreement in 561 in which Persians would leave Lazica in return for an annual payment of gold.[46]

According to ancient historian Meander Protector, a minor official in Justinian's court, there were 12 points to the
treaty, stated in the following passage:

“1. Through the pass at the place called Tzon and through the Caspian Gates the Persians shall not allow the Huns or Alans or other barbarians access to the Roman Empire, nor shall the Romans either in that area or on any other part of the Persian frontier send an army against the Persians.

2. The Saracen allies of both states shall themselves also abide by these agreements and those of the Persians shall not attack the Romans, nor those of the Romans the Persians.

3. Roman and Persian merchants of all kinds of goods, as well as similar tradesmen, shall conduct their business according to the established practice through the specified customs posts.

4. Ambassadors and all others using the public post to deliver messages, both those traveling to Roman and those to Persian territory, shall be honoured each according to his status and rank and shall receive the appropriate attention. They shall be sent back without delay, but shall be able to exchange the trade goods which they have brought without hindrance or any impost.

5. It is agreed that Saracen and all other barbarian merchants of either state shall not travel by strange roads but shall go by Nisibis and Daras, and shall not cross into foreign territory without official permission. But if they dare anything contrary to the agreement (that is to say, if they engage in tax-dodging, so-called), they shall be hunted down by the officers of the frontier and handed over for punishment together with the merchandise which they are carrying, whether Assyrian or Roman.

6. If anyone during the period of hostilities defected either from the Romans to the Persians or from the Persians to the Romans and if he should give himself up and wish to return to his home, he shall not be prevented from so doing and no obstacle shall be put in his way. But those who in time of peace defect and desert from one side to the other shall not be received, but every means shall be used to return them, even against their will, to those from whom they fled.

7. Those who complain that they have suffered some hurt at the hands of subjects of the other state shall settle the dispute equitably, meeting at the border either in person or through their own representatives before the officials of both states, and in this manner the guilty party shall make good the damage.

8. Henceforth, the Persians shall not complain to the Romans about the fortification of Daras. But in future neither state shall fortify or protect with a wall any place along the frontier, so that no occasion for dispute shall arise from such an act and the treaty be broken.

9. The forces of one state shall not attack or make war upon a people or any other territory subject to the other, but without inflicting or suffering injury shall remain where they are so that they too might enjoy the peace.

10. A large force, beyond what is adequate to defend the town, shall not be stationed at Daras, and the general of the East shall not have his headquarters there, in order that this not lead to incursions against or injury to the Persians. It was agreed that if some such should happen, the commander at Daras should deal with the offence.

11. If a city causes damage to or destroys the property of a city of the other side not in legitimate hostilities and with a regular military force but by guile and theft (for there are such godless men who do these things to provide a pretext for war), it was agreed that the judges stationed on the frontiers of both states should make a thorough investigation of such acts and punish them. If these prove unable to check the damage that neighbours are inflicting on each other, it was agreed that the case should be referred to the general of the East on the understanding that if the dispute were not settled within six months and the plaintiff had not recovered his losses, the offender should be liable to the plaintiff for a double indemnity. It was agreed that if the matter were not settled in this way, the injured party should send a deputation to the sovereign of the offender. If within one year the sovereign does not give satisfaction and the plaintiff does not receive the double indemnity due to him, the treaty shall be regarded as broken in respect of this clause.

12. Here you might find prayers to God and imprecations to the effect that may God be gracious and ever an ally to
him who abides by the peace, but if anyone with deceit wishes to alter any of the agreements, may God be his adversary and enemy.

13. The treaty is for fifty years, and the terms of the peace shall be in force for fifty years, the year being reckoned according to the old fashion as ending with the threehundred- and-sixty-fifth day.[47]

""

War in the East
With a stable peace agreement with the Byzantines in the west, Khosrau was now able to focus his attention on the eastern Hephthalites.[48] Even with the growth of Persian military power under Khosrau's reforms, the Sassanians were still uneasy at the prospect of attacking the Hephthalite on their own and began to seek allies.[49] Their answer came in the form of Turkic incursions into Central Asia.[50] The movement of Turkic people into Central Asia very quickly made them natural enemies and competitors to the Hephthalites.[51]

The Hephthalites were a strong military power but they lacked the organization to fight on multiple fronts.[52] The Persians and the Turkic tribes made an alliance and launched a two pronged attack on the Hephthalites, taking advantage of their disorganization and disunity. As a result, the Turkic tribes took the territory north of the Oxus river, while the Persians annexed land to the south.[53]

Friendly relations between Turks and Persians quickly deteriorated after the conquest of Hephthalite peoples. Both Turks and Persians wanted to dominate the Silk Road and the trade industry between the west and the far east.[54] In 568 a Turkish embassy was sent to Byzantine to propose an alliance and two pronged attack on the Sassanian Empire. Fortunately for the Persians, nothing ever came from this proposal.[55]

Campaign in Yemen Against Ethiopia
In 522, before Khosrau's reign, a group of monophysite Ethiopians led an attack on the dominant Himyarites of southern Arabia. The local Arab leader was able to resist the attack, and appealed to the Sassanians for aid, while the Ethiopians subsequently turned towards the Byzantines for help. The Ethiopians sent another force across the Red Sea and this time successfully killed the Arab leader and replaced him with an Ethiopian man to be king of the region.[56]

In 531, Justinian suggested that the Ethiopians of Yemen should cut out the Persians from Indian trade by maritime trade with the Indians. The Ethiopians never met this request because an Ethiopian general named Abraha took control of the Yemenite throne and created an independent nation.[57] After Abraha's death one of his sons, Ma'd-Karib, went into exile while his half-brother took the throne. After being denied by Justinian, Ma'd-Karib sought help from Khosrau, who sent a small fleet and army under commander Vahriz to depose the current king of Yemen. After capturing the capital city San'a'l, Ma'd-Karib's son, Saif, was put on the throne.[58]

Justinian was ultimately responsible for Sassanian maritime presence in Yemen. By not providing the Yemenite Arabs support, Khosrau was able to help Ma'd-Karib and subsequently established Yemen as a principality of the Sassanian Empire.[59]

War With Justin II
Justinian died in 565 and left Justin II to succeed the throne. In 555, The Sassanian governor of Armenia built a fire temple at Dvin and put to death a popular and influential member of the Mamikonian noble family. This execution created tremendous civil unrest and led to a revolt and massacre of the Governor and his personal guard in 571. Justin II took advantage of this revolts and used it as an excuse to stop paying annual payments to Khosrau, effectively putting an end to the 51 year peace treaty that was established ten years earlier. The Armenians were considered allies to the Byzantine Empire and a Byzantine army was sent into Sassanian territory and besieged Nisbis in 572.[60]

Justin was succeeded by Tiberius, a high ranking military officer in 578.[61] Khosrau invaded Armenia once again feeling that he had the upper hand, and was initially successful. Soon after, the tables turned and the Byzantines gained a lot of local support. Another truce was attempted to be made in 578, but was abandoned when the Sassanian's gained a great victory. The war turned again when Byzantine commander Maurice entered the field and captured many Sassanian settlements.[62] The revolt came to an end when Khosrau gave amnesty to Armenia and
brought them back into the Sassanian empire. Peace negotiations were once again brought back up, but abruptly ended with the death of Khosrau in 579.[63]

Building Projects
Khosrau’s reign marked an expansion in building. Khosrau constructed a number of walls on his frontiers to protect from nomadic incursions as well as other enemies. On the southeast frontier he built a wall called the Wall of the Arabs in order to prevent Arab nomads from raiding his empire. In the northeast he built a wall to protect the interior of his empire from the Hephthalite and Turkish threat that was growing on his boarder.[64] His wall building campaign was also extended into the Caucasus region where he built massive walls at Derbent.[65]

After the conquest of Antioch in 541, Khosrau built a new city near Ctesiphon for the inhabitants he captured. He called this new city Weh Antiok Khusrau or literally, “better than Antioch Khosrau built this.”[66] Local inhabitants of the area called the new city Rumagan, meaning “town of the Greeks” and Arabs called the city al-Rumiyya. Along with Weh Antiok, Khosrau built a number of fortified cities.[67]

Khosrau I greatly improved the road system within the Sassanian empire. These roads greatly improved the quickness that the armies were able to move, increasing the efficiency of the military. This led to greater defense of the empire as well as much quicker transportation of military intelligence. Chains of stations were also built along the roads. This allowed couriers to travel much more quickly and have safe resting stops as well as provide travelers with shelter.[68]

Philosopher King
Khosrau I was known to be a great patron of philosophy and knowledge. He accepted refugees coming from the Eastern Roman Empire when Justinian closed the neo-Platonist schools in Athens in 529.[69] He was greatly interested in Indian philosophy, science, math, and medicine. He sent multiple embassies and gifts to the Indian court and requested them to send back philosophers to teach in his court in return.[70] Khosrau made many translations of texts from Greek, Sanskrit, and Syriac into Middle Persian.[71] Khosrau received the title of “Plato's Philosopher King” by the Greek refugees that he allowed into his empire because of his great interest in Platonic philosophy.[72]

A synthesis of Greek, Persian, Indian, and Armenian learning traditions took place within the Sassanian Empire. One outcome of this synthesis created what is known as bimaristani, the first hospital that introduced a concept of segregating wards according to pathology. Greek pharmacology fused with traditions from the Iranian plateau and India resulted in significant advances in medicine.[73] According to historian Richard Frye, this great influx of knowledge created a renaissance during, and proceeding Khosrau's reign.[74]

Intellectual games such as chess and backgammon demonstrated and celebrated the diplomatic relationship between Khosrau and a “great king of India.” The vizier of the Indian king invented chess as a cheerful, playful challenge to King Khosrau. When the game was sent to Sassanian Persia it came with a letter which read, “As your name is the King of Kings, all your emperorship over us connotes that your wise men should be wiser than ours. Either you send us an explanation of this game of chess or send revenue and tribute us.”[75] Khosrau's grand vizier successfully solved the riddle and figured out how to play chess. In response the wise vizier created the game backgammon and sent it to the Indian court with the same message. The King was not able to solve the riddle and was forced to pay tribute.[76]

Gundishapur
Khosrau I is known to have either founded or greatly expanded the academy of Gundeshapur, located in the city of Jundishapur.[77] The Academy was built in order to provide a place for incoming Greek refugees to study and share their knowledge.[78] The foundation of this learning center introduced the studies of philosophy, medicine, physics, poetry, rhetoric, and astronomy into the Sassanian court.[79] Gundeshapur became the focal point of the combination of Greek and Indian sciences along with Persian and Aramaic traditions. The cosmopolitan which was introduced by the institution of Gundeshapur became a catalyst for modern studies.

Legacy
Although Khosrau’s achievements were highly successful and helped centralize the empire, they did not last long after his death. The local officials and great noble families resented the fact that their power had been stripped away
from them and began to regain power quickly after his death.[80] Khosrau's reign had a major impact on Islamic culture and political life. Many of his policies and reforms where brought into the Islamic nation in their transformation from a decentralized oligarchy into an imperial empire.[81]

There are a considerable amount of Islamic work that was inspired by the reign of Khosrau I, for example the Kitab al-Taj of Jahiz.[82] There are a considerable amount of Islamic texts that refer to Khosrau's reign that it is sometimes hard to tell what is fact and what is fallacy.[83]

His reign signifies the promotion and possibly even the creation of the Silk Road between ancient China, India, and the western world.[84] Richard Frye makes the argument that Khosrau's rationale behind his numerous wars with the Byzantine empire as well as the eastern Hephthalites was to establish the Sassanian dominance on this trade route.

References

Child of Khushraw (Chosroes I) of Kings is:
93. i. HORMIZDIV, EMPEROR OF SASSANIAN PERSIA.

Generation No. 52


Notes for LUGHAIDH SRIABH-NDearg:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

• ID: 144285
• Name: Lewy ‘of the Red Circles’ of Ireland
• AKAN: Lughaidh Sriabh-N Dearn V. 1 2
• AKAN: Lughaidh Sriabh nDearn mac Breas 2
• AKAN: Ard-rí na h’Eireann 2
• Sex: M
•Change Date: 5 MAR 2009
•Birth: -34
•Event: Title FROM -34 TO -9 98th Monarch of Ireland 312
•Death: -9 of Killed himself by falling on his sword 1
•Note: Lughaidh Sríabh nDearg mac Breas, Ard-ri na h’Éireann died 0009 B.C. After having been twenty six years in the sovereignty of Ireland, he died of grief. Some say he killed himself by falling upon his own sword. 98th Monarch of Ireland 0034 B.C.. He ruled his first year over Ireland 0034 B.C.. He was born. "His (Eochaid's) other daughter was named Clotherne, who was debauched by her own brothers, who in a drunken fit lay with her, all three, the product of which union was a son named Lugaidh, who had (a strange thing to be told) a red circle about his neck and another about his middle. To distinguish each brother’s proportion of him, the head and face resembling Bress; the middle part between the two circles, Nar; and thence downward resembling the third brother, Lothar. For which he has the nickname of Sríabh ndearg, i.e., red circled." He was the son of Bress-Nar-Lothar mac Echach Uí Éremóin and Clothra ingén Echach Uí Éremóin. Also called Lewy “of the Red Circles”. Also called Lugaid Reóderg mac Bres Nar Lothar. Also called Lughaidh Sriabh nDearg. Lughaidh Sríabh nDearg mac Breas, Ard-ri na h’Éireann associated with Clothra ingén Echach Uí Éremóin, daughter of Eochaid Feidlech mac Finn, Ard-ri na h’Éireann; Mother-son. 2

Father: Bress-Nar-Lothar mac Echach Uí Éremóin
Mother: Clothra ingén Echach Uí Éremóin

Marriage 1 Clothra (Clotherne) ingen Echach

Lugaid Riab nDerg ("the red-striped") or Réoderg ("Red Sky"), son of the three findemna, triplet sons of Eochu Feidlech, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland.

He was conceived of incest. The night before the three findemna, Bres, Nár and Lothar, made war for the High Kingship against their father in the Battle of Druimm Criaich, their sister Clothru, concerned that her brothers could die without heirs, seduced all three of them, and a son, Lugaid, was conceived.[1] His epithet came from two red stripes around his neck and waist, dividing him into three: above the neck he resembled Nár; from the neck to the waist he resembled Bress; and from the waist down he resembled Lothar.[2] Incest features further in Lugaid's story: he slept with Clothru himself, conceiving Crimthann Nia Náir.[3]

Rise to power
The Lebor Gabála Érenn says he came to power after a five year interregnum following the death of Conaire Mór (six years according to the Annals of the Four Masters).[4] His foster-father, the Ulster hero Cúchulainn, split the Lia Fáil (coronation stone at Tara which roared when the rightful king stood or sat on it) with his sword when it failed to roar under Lugaid. It never roared again except under Conn of the Hundred Battles.[5]

Marriage
His wife was Derbforgaill, a daughter of the king of Lochlann (Scandinavia), who had fallen in love with Cúchulainn from afar and come to Ireland with a handmaiden in the form of a pair of swans, linked by a golden chain, to seek him out. Cúchulainn and Lugaid were at Loch Cuan (Strangford Lough) and saw them fly past. Cúchulainn, at Lugaid's urging, shot a slingstone which hit Derbforgaill, penetrating her womb, and the two women fell on the beach in human form. Cúchulainn saved Derbforgaill's life by sucking the stone from her side, and she declared her love for him, but because he had sucked her side he could not marry her - evidently he had violated some geis or taboo. Instead he gave her to Lugaid. They married, and she bore him children.

Deaths of Derbforgaill and Lugaid
One day in deep winter, the men of Ulster made pillars of snow, and the women competed to see who could urinate the deepest into the pillar and prove herself the most desirable to men. Derbforgaill's urine reached the ground, and the other women, out of jealousy, attacked and mutilated her, gouging out her eyes and cutting off her nose, ears, and hair. Lugaid noticed that the snow on the roof of her house had not melted, and realised she was close to death. He and Cúchulainn rushed to the house, but Derbforgaill died shortly after they arrived, and Lugaid died of grief.
Cúchulainn avenged them by demolishing the house the women were inside, killing 150 of them.[6]

Alternatives
For Lugaid Réoderg, an alternative tradition exists that he met his death at the hands of the Trí Rúadchinn Laigen, the "Three Reds of the Laigin" also involved in the death of Conaire Mór.[7] Lucius Gwynn suggested that what may have happened is an earlier King of Tara known as Lugaid Réoderg may have become confused with a separate and minor character from the Ulster Cycle associated with Cúchulainn.[8] T. F. O'Rahilly, on the other hand, believed the epithet Riab nDerg to simply be a corruption of the earlier Réoderg, meaning something like "of the red sky",[9] and does not believe them to be distinct legendary figures (see below).

Further analysis
The view advanced by O'Rahilly was that Lugaid Riab nDerg is yet another emanation of the heroic mytho-dynastic figure Lugaid, closely associated with the prehistoric Érainn,[10] a population of late Iron Age Ireland who provide Irish legend with its earliest known Kings of Tara. One of their most notable representatives in that office is Lugaid's immediate predecessor, Conaire Mór.

Specifically, O'Rahilly believed Lugaid Riab nDerg to be the double of Lugaid mac Con Roí, whose alternative epithet was mac Trí Con "son of Three Hounds", and who himself is to some extent identical with Lugaid Mac Con.[11] The last, usually known simply as Mac Con "Hound's Son", is an Érainn king matching Conaire Mór in importance in Irish legend. Another is Cú Roí mac Dáire, or simply Dáire,[12] father of Lugaid mac Con Roí. A 'fourth' Lugaid and 'ancestor' of Mac Con was Lugaid Lóigde.

Lugaid's reign
He had ruled for twenty, twenty-five or twenty-six years. The Lebor Gabála synchronises his reign with that of the Roman emperor Claudius (AD 41-54). The chronology of Geoffrey Keating's Foras Feasa ar Éireann dates his reign to 33-13 BC,[13] that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 33-9 BC.

Child of LUGHAIDH DEARG and CLOTHRA ECHACH is:
94.  i.  CRIAMTHANN-NIADH-NAR.[57]


Notes for HORMIZD IV, EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Hormizd IV, son of Khosrau I, reigned as the twenty-first King of Persia from 579 to 590.[1]
He seems to have been imperious and violent, but not without some kindness of heart. Some very characteristic stories are told of him by Tabari (Theodor Nöldeke, Geschichte d. Perser und Araber unter den Sasaniden, 264 ff.). His father's sympathies had been with the nobles and the priests. Hormizd IV protected the common people and introduced a severe discipline in his army and court. When the priests demanded a persecution of the Christians, he declined on the ground that the throne and the government could only be safe if it gained the goodwill of both concurring religions. The consequence was that Hormizd IV raised a strong opposition in the ruling classes, which led to many executions and confiscations.

When Hormizd IV came to the throne in 579, he killed his brothers. From his father he had inherited an ongoing war against the East Roman (Byzantine) Empire and against the Turks in the east. Negotiations of peace had just begun with the Emperor Tiberius II, but Hormizd IV haughtily declined to cede anything of the conquests of his father. Therefore the accounts given of him by the Byzantine authors, Theophylact Simocatta (iii.16 ff), Menander Protector and John of Ephesus (vi.22), who give a full account of these negotiations, are far from favourable.

Map of the Roman-Persian frontier

Determined to teach the haughty prince a lesson, the Roman General Maurice crossed the frontier and invaded Kurdistan. The next year, he even planned to penetrate into Media and Southern Mesopotamia but the Ghassanid king al-Mundhir allegedly betrayed the Roman cause by informing Hormizd IV of the Roman Emperor's plans. Maurice was forced to retreat in a hurry but during the course his retreat to the Roman frontier, he drew the Persian general Adarmahan into an engagement and defeated him.

In 582, the Persian general Tamkhosrau crossed the Perso-Roman frontier and attacked Constantina, but was defeated and killed. However, the deteriorating physical condition of the Roman Emperor Tiberius forced Maurice to return to Constantinople immediately. Meanwhile John Mystacon, who had replaced Maurice, attacked the Persians at the junction of the Nymphius and the Tigris but was defeated and forced to withdraw. Another defeat brought about his replacement by Philippicus.

Philippicus spent the years 584 and 585 making deep incursions into Persian territory.[2] The Persians retaliated by attacking Monocartium and Martyropolis in 585. Philippicus inflicted a heavy defeat on them at Solachon in 586 and besieged the fortress of Chlomaron. After an unsuccessful siege, Philippicus retreated and made a stand at Amida. Soon, however, he relinquished command to Heraclius in 587.

In the year 588, the Roman troops mutinied and taking advantage of this mutiny, Persian troops once again attacked Constantina but were repulsed. The Romans retaliated with an equally unsuccessful invasion of Arzanene, but defeated another Persian offensive at Martyropolis.

In 589, the Persians attacked Martyropolis and captured it after defeating Philippicus twice. Philippicus was recalled and was replaced by Comentiolus under whose command the Romans defeated the Persians at Sisauranon. The Romans now laid siege to Martyropolis but at the height of the siege news circulated in Persia about a Turkish invasion.

The Turks had occupied Balkh and Herat and were penetrating into the heart of Persia when Hormizd IV finally dispatched a contingent under the general Bahram Chobin to fight them back. Bahram marched upon Balkh and defeated the Turks killing their Khan and capturing his son.

Soon after the threat from the north was exterminated, Bahram was sent to fight the Romans on the western frontier. He was initially successful, raiding in Svaneti as well as warring off both Iberian and Roman offensives against Caucasian Albania, but was defeated by the Roman general Romanus in a subsequent battle on the river Araxes. Hormizd, jealous of the rising fame of Bahram, wished to humiliate him and sent him a complete set of women's garments to wear. Bahram responded by writing him an extremely offensive letter. Enraged, Hormizd sent Persian soldiers to arrest Bahram but they moved over to Bahram's side. Now Bahram moved to Persia with a large army to depose the haughty monarch and place himself on the throne.

Besides, Hormizd's behavior had now turned so unbearable that his son, Khusrau broke into open revolt. With a civil war brewing in Persia, Hormizd did not survive on the Persian throne for long. The magnates deposed and blinded Hormizd IV and proclaimed his son Khosrau II King. The sources do not agree on how Hormizd was killed:
Theophylact Simocatta states (iv.7) that Khosrau killed him a few days after his father was blinded; the Armenian historian Sebeos (History, Ch.10.75) states that Hormizd's own courtiers killed him.

References

Notes for CRIAMTHANN-NIADH-NAR:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

• ID: 144283
• Name: Crieffan Crimthann (Crimthann) ‘Niadh-Nar’ MacLugaid II.
• Nickname: The Heroic 1
• Sex: M
• Change Date: 5 MAR 2009
• Event: Title -7 100th Monarch of Ireland 1 2
• Death: 9 of From a horse fall 2
• Note: Crimthann Nia Naire mac Lugaid, Ard-ri na h’Éireann ruled his eigth year over Ireland during the first year of the age of Christ 0001 AD at age of the world 5200. He ruled his first year over Ireland 0007 B.C.. 100th Monarch of Ireland 0007 B.C.. He witnessed the death of Ard-ri na h’Éireann Conchobar Abra-truad mac Find Filed Uí Éremóin 0008 B.C. Killed by his successor, Crimthann, son of Lughaidh Sribh nDearg. Crimthann Nia Naire mac Lugaid, Ard-ri na h’Éireann died 0009 AD at Dun Crimthainn, Edair, Ireland. In his sixteenth year in the sovereignty of Ireland, he died after returning from the famous expedition upon which he had gone. He was the son of Lughaidh Sribh nDearg mac Breas, Ard-ri na h’Éireann and Clothra ingen Echach Uí Éremóin. Crimthann Nia Naire mac Lugaid, Ard-ri na h’Éireann undertook an expedition from which he returned with him the wonderful jewels, among which were a golden chariot, and a golden chess board, inlaid with a hundred transparent gems, and
the Cedach Crimhthainn, which was a beautiful cloak, embroidered with gold. He brought a conquering sword, with many serpents of refined messy gold inlaid in it; a shield, with bosses of bright silver; a spear, from the wound inflicted by which no one recovered; a sling, from which no erring shot was discharged; and two greyhounds, with a silver chain between them, which chain was worth three hundred cumhals; with many other precious articles. "Nicknamed Niadh-Nar, as being ashamed of his incestuous birth, which the word Niah signifies to verify the truth of those unnatural births." Also called Crimhthann Niadh-Nar. Also called Crimhthann Niadh Nair. He was Crimhthann Niadhain, son of Lughaidh. He married Naira of the Picts, daughter of Loich of the Picts.

Father: Lewy 'of the Red Circles' of Ireland b: -34
Mother: Clothru (Clotherne) ingen Echach

Marriage 1 Naira (Mar Tath Chabob) of the Picts

Crimhthann Nia Nár (nephew of Nár), son of Lugaid Riab nDerg, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. Lugaid is said to have fathered him on his own mother, Clothru, daughter of Eochu Feidlech.[1]

The Lebor Gabála Érenn says he overthrew the High King Conchobar Abbraduad, but does not say he became High King himself - Conchobar was succeeded by Cairbre Cinnchair.[2] Geoffrey Keating[3] and the Annals of the Four Masters[4] agree that Crimhthann succeeded Conchobar as High King and ruled for sixteen years. He is said to have gone on a voyage with his aunt Nár, a fairy woman, for a month and a fortnight, and returned with treasures including a gilded chariot, a golden fichell board, a gold-embroidered cloak, a sword inlaid with gold serpents, a silver-embossed shield, a spear and a sling which never missed their mark, and two greyhounds with a silver chain between them. Soon after he returned he fell from his horse and died at Howth. Keating says he was succeeded by his son Feradach Finnfechtnach, the Annals of the Four Masters by Cairbre Cinnchair.


Child of CRIAMTHANN-NIADH-NAR AND NAR-TATH-CHAOCH PICTS is:
96.  FERADACH⁵⁸ FIONN-FEACHTNACH.

95.  Khusraw⁵⁷ (Hormizd⁵⁸ )IV, Emperor of Sassanian Persia, Khusraw (Chosroes I) of⁵⁹ Kings, Kavadh I⁶⁰ (Kobad), Empress of Sassanian Persia, Emperor of Sassanian Persia⁶¹ Peroz, Yazdagird⁶² II, Emperor of Sassanian Persia, Varahan V⁶³ (Bahram), Emperor of Sassanian Persia, Yazdagird⁶⁴ I, Emperor of Sassanian Persia, Shapur⁶⁵ III, Emperor of Persia, Shapur⁶⁶ II, Emperor of Persia, Ifra⁶⁷ Hormiz, Princess of Seistan, King of Seistan⁶⁸ Vasudeva, Vasudeva⁶⁹III, King of Kushana, Vasudeva⁷⁰ II, King of Kushana, Kanishka⁷¹ III, King of Kushana, King of Kushana⁷² Vasudeva, Huvishtka⁷³ I, King of Kushana, Kanishka⁷⁴ I, King of Kushans, Vema⁷⁵ Kadphises III, King of the Kushans, Princess of⁷⁶ Peshwar, Princess of W, Gandara⁷⁷ Calliope, King of W, Gandara⁷⁸ Hippostratos, Strato⁷⁹ I, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria⁸⁰ Agathoclea, King of Bactria⁸¹ Agathocles, Augustus, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire⁸² Brijadrathe, King of Kashmir and Gandhara⁸³ Kunal, Ashoka⁸⁴ Sarvadhan, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa⁸⁵ (Amritochates), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire⁸⁶ Chandragupta, Maurya⁸⁷ V, of Magadha, Maurya IV of⁸⁸ Taxila, Maurya III of⁸⁹, Maurya II of⁹⁰, Princess of Persia⁹¹ Chandarvarna, Princess of Persia⁹² Atossa, Princess of Egypt⁹³ Neithyti, Habi⁹⁴ Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtik II⁹⁵ Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos 'Neocho'⁹⁶ II, Psamtik⁹⁷ I, Neko⁹⁸ I, Shepesresre⁹⁹ I, TefnakhteII, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka¹⁰⁰ Re, Tefnakhte (I), Shepesre Re of²¹ EGYPT, Osorkon IV 'C' of²² MAAT, Shoshonk V²³ Aahhererpe, Stepane²³ Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk³³ III, Takelot², Osorkon², Takelot², Osorkon², I, Shoshonk², Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot², the Great Chief of the Ma³ Shoshenq)  He married (1) Queen Shirin the Aramean.  He married (2) Princess
OF BYZANTIUM MIRIAM, daughter of MAURICE TIBERIUS and EMPRESS CONSTANTIA.

Notes for KHUSRAW II:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Khosrau II (Khosrow II, Chosroes II, or Xosrov II in classical sources, sometimes called Parvez, "the Ever Victorious" – (in Persian: ???? ??????)), was the twenty-second Sassanid King of Persia, reigning from 590 to 628. He was the son of Hormizd IV (reigned 579–590) and the grandson of Khosrau I (reigned 531–579).

Khosrau II was inferior to his grandfather in terms of proper education and discipline. He was haughty, cruel, and given to luxury; he was neither a warrior-general nor an administrator and, despite his brilliant victories, did not personally command his armies in the field, relying instead on the strategy and loyalty of his generals. Nevertheless, historian Muhammad ibn Jarir al-Tabari describes him as:

Excelling most of the other Persian kings in bravery, wisdom and forethought, and none matching him in military might and triumph, hoarding of treasures and good fortunes, hence the epithet Parviz, meaning victorious.[1]

According to legend, Khosrau had a shabestan in which over 3,000 concubines resided.[1]

Khosrau II was raised to the throne by the same magnates who had rebelled against his father Hormizd IV. Soon after being crowned, Khosrau had his father blinded, then executed. However, at the same time, General Bahram Chobin had proclaimed himself King Bahram VI (590–591), exemplifying Khosrau's difficulty in maintaining control of his kingdom.

The war with the Byzantine Empire, which had begun in 571, had not yet come to an end. So, Khosrau II fled to Syria, and, subsequently, to Constantinople, where the Emperor Maurice (582–602) agreed to assist Khosrau in regaining his throne. In return, the Byzantines would re-gain sovereignty over the cities of Amida, Carrhae, Dara and Miyafariqin. Furthermore, Persia was required to cease intervening in the affairs of Iberia and Armenia, effectively ceding control of Lazistan to the Byzantines.[2][3]

A large percentage of the leading bureaucrats, administrators, governors, and military commanders, along with the majority part of the Persian military, acknowledged Khosrau II as the King of Persia. Therefore, in 591, Khosrau returned to Ctesiphon with Byzantine aid and subsequently defeated Bahram VI at the Battle of Blarathon. Bahram fled to the Turks of Central Asia, and settled in Ferghana.[4] However, a few years later, he was killed by a hired assassin send by Khosrau II.[5] Then, peace with Byzantium was concluded. For his aid, Maurice received the Persian provinces of Armenia and Georgia, and received the abolition of the subsidies which had formerly been paid to the Persians.

Towards the beginning of his reign, Khosrau II favoured the Christians. However, when in 602 Maurice was murdered by his General Phocas (602–610), who usurped the Roman (Byzantine) throne, Khosrau launched an offensive against Constantinople, ostensibly to avenge Maurice's death, but clearly his aim included the annexation of as much Byzantine territory as was feasible. His armies invaded and plundered Syria and Asia Minor, and in 608 advanced into Chalcedon.

In 613 and 614, Damascus and Jerusalem were besieged and captured by General Shahrbaraz, and the True Cross was carried away in triumph. Soon afterwards, General Shahin marched through Anatolia, defeating the Byzantines numerous times, and then conquered Egypt in 618. The Romans could offer but little resistance, as they were torn apart by internal dissensions, and pressed by the Avars and Slavs, who were invading the Empire from across the Danube River.

Khosrau's forces also invaded Taron at times during his reign.[6]

Richard Nelson Frye speculates that one major mistake of Khosrau II, which was to have severe consequences in the future, was the capture, imprisonment, and execution of Nu'amān III, King of the Lakhmids of Al-Hira, in approximately 600, presumably because of the failure of the Arab king to support Khosrau during his war against the Byzantines. (Nu'amān was crushed by elephants according to some accounts.) Afterwards the central
government took over the defense of the western frontiers to the desert and the buffer state of the Lakhmids vanished. This ultimately facilitated the invasion and loss of Lower Iraq less than a decade after Khosrau's death by the forces of the Islamic Caliphs.[7]

Ultimately, in 622, the Eastern Roman Emperor Heraclius (who had succeeded Phocas in 610 and ruled until 641) was able to take the field with a powerful force. In 624, he advanced into northern Media, where he destroyed the great fire-temple of Ganzhak (Gazaca). Several years later, in 626, he captured Lazistan (Colchis). Later that same year, Persian general Shahrbaraz advanced to Chalcedon and attempted to capture Constantinople with the help of Persia's Avar allies. His maneuver failed as his forces were defeated, and he withdrew his army from Anatolia later in 628.

Following the Khazar invasion of Transcaucasia in 627, Heraclius defeated the Persian army at the Battle of Nineveh and advanced towards Ctesiphon. Khosrau II fled from his favourite residence, Dastgerd (near Baghdad), without offering resistance. Meanwhile, some of the Persian grandees freed his eldest son Kavadh II (he ruled briefly in 628), whom Khosrau II had imprisoned, and proclaimed him King on the night of 23–4 February, 628.[8] Four days afterwards, Khosrau II was murdered in his palace. Meanwhile, Heraclius returned in triumph to Constantinople and in 629 the True Cross was returned to him and Egypt evacuated, while the Persian empire, from the apparent greatness which it had reached ten years ago, sank into hopeless anarchy. It was overtaken by the armies of the first Islamic Caliphs beginning in 634.

Notes for QUEEN SHIRIN THE ARAMEAN:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Shirin (? – 628 a.d.) (Persian: ?????) was a wife of the Sassanid Persian Shahanshah (king of kings), Khosrau II. In the revolution after the death of Khosrau's father Hormizd IV, the General Bahram Chobin took power over the Persian empire. Shirin fled with Khosrau to Syria where they lived under the protection of Byzantine emperor Maurice. In 591, Khosrau returned to Persia to take control of the empire and Shirin was made queen. She used her new influence to support the Christian minority in Iran, but the political situation demanded that she do so discreetly. Initially she belonged to the Church of the East, the so-called Nestorians, but later she joined the monophysitic church of Antioch, now known as the Syriac Orthodox Church. After conquering Jerusalem in 614, the Persians supposedly captured the cross of Jesus and brought it to their capital Ctesiphon, where Shirin took the cross in her palace.

The earliest source mentioning Shirin is the Ecclesiastical history of Evagrius Scholasticus, where she is mentioned as "Sira". It preserves letter sent by Khosrau II to the shrine of Saint Sergius in Resafa. One dated to 592/593 includes the following passage[1]: "At the time when I [Khosrau II] was at Beramais, I begged of thee, O holy one, that thou wouldest come to my aid, and that Sira might conceive: and inasmuch as Sira was a Christian and I a heathen, and our law forbids us to have a Christian wife, nevertheless, on account of my favourable feelings towards thee, I disregarded the law as respects her, and among my wives I have constantly esteemed, and do still esteem her as peculiarly mine.” [2]

"Thus I resolved to request of thy goodness, O Saint, that she might conceive: and I made the request with a vow, that, if Sira should conceive, I would send the cross she wears to thy venerable sanctuary. On this account both I and Sira purposed to retain this cross in memory of thy name, O Saint, and in place of it to send five thousand staters, as its value, which does not really exceed four thousand four hundred staters. From the time that I conceived this request and these intentions, until I reached Rhosochosron, not more than ten days elapsed, when thou, O Saint, not on account of my worthiness but thy kindness, appearedst to me in a vision of the night and didst thrice tell me that Sira should conceive, while, in the same vision, thrice I replied, It is well.”[2]

"From that day forward Sira has not experienced the custom of women, because thou art the granter of requests; though I, had I not believed thy words, and that thou art holy and the granter of requests, should have doubted that she would not thenceforward experience the custom of women. From this circumstance I was convinced of the power of the vision and the truth of thy words, and accordingly forthwith sent the same cross and its value to thy venerable sanctuary, with directions that out of that sum should be made a disc, and a cup for the purposes of the
divine mysteries, as also a cross to be fixed upon the holy table, and a censer, all of gold: also a Hunnish veil adorned with gold. Let the surplus of the sum belong to thy sanctuary, in order that by virtue of thy fortune, O saint, thou mayest come to the aid of me and Sira in all matters, and especially with respect to this petition; and that what has been already procured for us by thy intercession, may be consummated according to the compassion of thy goodness, and the desire of me and Sira; so that both of us, and all persons in the world, may trust in thy power and continue to believe in thee.

Theophylact Simocatta gives a similar account with additional information. "In the following year the Persian king [Khosrau II] proclaimed as queen Seirem [Shirin] who was of Roman birth and Christian religion, and of an age blossoming for marriage, slept with her. ... "In the third year he entreated Sergius, the most efficacious in Persia, that a child by Seirem be granted to him. Shortly afterwards this came to pass for him.[3] The Roman (Byzantine) ancestry of Shirin is contradicted by Sebeos: "[Xosrov], in accordance with their Magian religion, had numerous wives. He also took Christian wives, and had an extremely beautiful Christian wife from the land of Xuzhastan named Shirin, the Bambish, queen of queens [tiknats' tikin]. She constructed a monastery and a church close to the royal abode, and settled priests and deacons there allotting from the court stipends and money for clothing. She lavished gold and silver [on the monastery]. Bravely, with her head held high she preached the gospel of the Kingdom, at court, and none of the grandee mages dared open his mouth to say anything—large or small—about Christians. When, however, days passed and her end approached, many of the mages who had converted to Christianity, were martyred in various places."[4]

The Khuzistan Chronicle, written by an Aramean Christian from Khuzistan [Iran] probably in 680 is described as the Syriac counterpart of the Armenian work of Sebeos. We read about the relationship between the bishop Isho Yahb and the persian king Khosrau II. Parvez (590-628) : "Isho Yahb was treated respectfully throughout his life, by the king himself and his two christian wives Shirin the Aramean and Mary the Roman". (Theodor. Nöldeke: Die von Guidi herausgegebene syrische Chronik, Wien 1893, p. 10)

The Chronicle of Séert (Siirt) is an anonymously authored historiographical text written by the Nestorian Church in Persia and the Middle East, possibly as early as the 9th century AD. The text deals with ecclesiastical, social, and political issues of the Christian church giving a history of its leaders and notable members. LVIII. - History of Khosrau Parvez, son of Hormizd "Khosrau, by gratitude for Maurice, ordered to rebuild churches and to honor the Christians. He built himself two churches for Marie (Maryam) and a big church and a castle in the country of Beth Laspar for his wife Shirin, the Aramean." (Patrologia Orientalis, Tome VII. - Fascicule 2, Histoire Nestorienne (Chronique de Séert), Seconde Partie (1), publiée et traduite par Mgr Addai Scher, Paris 1911, Published Paris : Firmin-Didot 1950 p. 467)

Notes for PRINCESS OF BYZANTIUM MIRIAM:
Maria is the name of a supposed daughter of Maurice, Byzantine Emperor and wife of Khosrau II. Her existence is recorded in the Chronicle of Michael the Syrian. "Maurice accorda sa fille Marie en mariage à Khosrov" [1][2]

Historicity
Shirin. Christian - Queen - Myth of Love. A woman of late antiquity - Historical reality and literary effect (2004) by Wilhelm Baum examines the sources concerning Maria and her relation to another consort of Khosrau II, Shirin. The historical setting for a marital alliance between the Justinian Dynasty and the Sassanids would be 590. At the time Khosrau was an exiled prince who sought assistance from Maurice to claim the throne against Bahram Chobin.[3]

The Shahnameh by Ferdowsi reports Khosrau and Shirin to have married prior to his exile. Sebeos reports Shirin being a native of Khuzestan, while the Chronicle of Edessa reports Shirin to be an Aramean, implying an origin from Suristan. The Rawzat a?-?afa? by Mir-Khvand has Shirin being originally a servant in a house frequented by Khosrau, and introduced to the future monarch there. They are all later accounts and could be influenced by legends.[3]

Maria is notably absent from Byzantine sources. She appears instead in accounts by the Chronicle of Edessa, Dionysius Telmaharensis (as preserved in the Chronicle of 1234), Muhammad ibn Jarir al-Tabari, Patriarch
Concerning her age, Baum notes the known facts on Maurice's marriage. Maurice and his wife Constantina were married in August 582. If a legitimate child of Maurice, Maria would be less than eight-years-old in 590.[4] There are nine children of Maurice and Constantina named in primary sources, six sons (Theodosius, Tiberius, Peter, Paul, Justin, Justinian) and three daughters (Anastasia, Theoctiste, Cleopatra).[2]

The Shahnameh features a tale of Maria dying poisoned by Shirin. Later tales featuring the two as rival queens occur in later texts. In several cases, their struggle is based on trying to elevate different heirs to the throne. Primary sources indicate that Siroe (Kavadh II) was the eldest son of Khosrau and not a son of Shirin. Various accounts have Maria as his mother. With Shirin supporting her own son, Merdanshah.[5]

Baum considers Shirin to be a historic figure, Maria being a figure of legend, perhaps originating with a historical Maria from the Byzantine Empire, one who was a member of Khosrau II's harem but neither a queen, nor an imperial princess.[6]

Child of Khosrau and Queen Aramean is:
97. i. Prince of Sasanian Persia⁵⁸ Shahrihar.

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Eutychius of Alexandria, Ferdowsi, the Chronicle of Seert, Michael the Syrian, Bar-Hebraeus and Mir-Khvand. The Chronicle of Seert and Mari ibn Sulaiman are unique in mentioning that Maria was also called "Shirin" and in equating the two figures. Both also feature her as a daughter of Maurice. However, Theophylact Simocatta, the most detailed historical resource on Maurice, never mentions her.[4]

[House of Morney.FTW]
Father: Crimthann (Criomthann) `Niadh-Nar' MacLugaid II.
Mother: Naira (Mar Tath Chabob) of the Picts

Marriage 1 Spouse Unknown
Children
1. Fiache (Fiachaidh IV) Fionnolaíadh MacFeredaig II.

Feradach Finnfechtnach (modern spelling: Fearadhach Fionnfechtnach - "fair-blessed").[1] son of Crimthann Nia Náir, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. There is some disagreement in the sources over his position in the traditional sequence of High Kings.

The Lebor Gabála Érenn[2] and the Annals of the Four Masters[3] agree that he came to power after the death of Cairbre Cinnchait. The Annals say that when Cairbre overthrew his father, his mother, Baine, daughter of the king of Alba, was pregnant with him, but this would make him less than five years old when he came to the throne: it is likely this is a doublet of a similar story told of the later High King Tuathal Techtmar.[4] The Annals also add that Ireland was fertile during his reign, contrasting it with the barren reign of the usurper Cairbre. Geoffrey Keating[5] has Feradach succeed his father Crimthann, placing Cairbre's reign later. Keating relates that the judge Morann mac Máin (who in the Lebor Gabála and the Annals is the son of Cairbre and his wife Mani) lived in Feradach's time. Morann owned the id Morainn (Morann's collar or torc)[6] which would contract around the neck of a judge who made an unjust judgment until he made a just one, or of a witness who made a false testimony until he told the truth.

Feradach ruled for twenty years according to the Lebor Gabála and Keating, twenty-two according to the Annals, before dying a natural death at Tara. In all sources he was succeeded by Fiachtnach Finn. The Lebor Gabála synchronises his reign with that of the Roman emperor Domitian (AD 81-96) and the death of Pope Clement I (AD 99). The chronology of Keating's Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to AD 5-25, that of the Annals of the Four Masters to AD 14-36.

References
3.^ Annals of the Four Masters M14-36
4.^ T. F. O'Rahilly, Early Irish History and Mythology, Dublin Institute for Advanced Studies, 1946, pp 159-161
5.^ Geoffrey Keating, Foras Feasa ar Éirinn 1.38

Child of Feradach Fionn Feachtnach is:
98. i. Fiacha Fionn39 Ola.

97. Prince of Sasanian Persia58 Shahrihar (Khushraw57 II, Hormizd56 IV, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Khushraw (Chrosroe I) of55 Kings, Kavadh I54 (Kobad), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Emperor of Sasanian Persia53 Peroz, Yazdagird22 II, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Varahan V41 (Bahram), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Yazdagird30 I, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Shapur29 III, Emperor of Persia, Shapur28 II, Emperor of Persia, Igra47 Hormiz, Princess of Seistan, King of Seistan26 Vasudeva, Vasudeva45 III, King of Kushana, Vasudeva44 II, King of Kushana, Kanishka43 III, King of Kushana, King of Kushana42 Vasudeva, Huvishka41 I, King of Kushana, Kanishka40 I, King of Kushans, Vema39 KadphisesII, King of the Kushans, Princess of58 Peshwar, Princess of W. Gandara37 Calliope, King of W. Gandara36 Hippostratos, Strato35 I, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria34 Agathoclea, King of Bactria33 Agathocles, Sundari32 Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire31 Brihadratha, King of Kashmir and Gandhara30 Kunal, Ashoka29 Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa28 (Amritochates), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire27 Chandragupta, Maurya26 V, of Magadha, Maurya IV of25 Taxila, Maurya III of24, Maurya II of23 Princess of Persia22 Chandravarman, Princess of Persia21 Atossa, Princess of Egypt20 Neithyti, Haireb19 Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II18 Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebo `Necho'17 II', Psamtek16
I, Neko15 I, Shepsesre14 TefnakhthII, Prince of Egypt, Bakenraneef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka13 Re, TefnakhthI (I) Shepses Re of12 Egypt, Osorkon IV14 C of31 Maat, Shoshonk V40 Aakheperre, Stepennre6 Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk III, Takelot II, Osorkon II, Takelot I, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot2, the Great Chief of the Ma1 Shoshenq)

Child of Prince of SASANIAN PERSIA SHAHRIHAR is:

99. YAZDAGIRD III of59 Persia, b. 600; d. 651.

Generation No. 55


Notes for Fiacha Fionn Ola:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Fiacha Finnolach,[1] son of Feradach Finnfeachtach, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a King of Ireland. He took power after killing his predecessor, Fiatach Finn. He ruled for fifteen, seventeen, or twenty-seven years, depending on the source consulted, after which he, and the freemen of Ireland, were killed in an uprising of aithech-tuatha or "subject peoples", led, according to the Lebor Gabála Érenn and the Annals of the Four Masters, by Eilim mac Conach, or by Cairbre Cnochait according to Geoffrey Keating. His wife Eithne, daughter of the king of Alba (Scotland), who was pregnant, fled home to Alba, where she gave birth to Fiach’s son, Tuathal Techtmar, who would ultimately return to Ireland to claim the throne. The Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronises his reign with that of the Roman emperor Nerva (AD 96-98).[2] The chronology of Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to AD 28-55,[3] that of the Annals of the Four Masters to AD 39-56.[4]

Child of Fiacha Ola and Eithne Alba is:

100. Tuathal60 Teachtmar.

Yazdegerd III or Yazdgerd III (also spelled Yazdiger or Yazdigerd, Persian: یزدگرد سوم, "made by God") was the twenty-ninth and last king of the Sassanid dynasty of Iran and a grandson of Khosrau II (590–628). His father was Shahryar, whose mother was Miriam, the daughter of the Byzantine Emperor Maurice.[1] Yazdegerd III ascended the throne on 16 June 632 after a series of internal conflicts.

Yazdegerd was born in central Iran, reigned as a youth and had never truly exercised authority. The Muslim conquest of Persia began in his first year of reign, and ended with the Battle of al-Qadisiyya. Yazdegerd sought an alliance with Emperor Heraclius, who was an old rival of the Persian Empire.

Following the battle of al-Qadisiyyah, the Arabs occupied Ctesiphon, and the young king fled eastward into Media going from one district to another, until at last he was killed by a local miller for his purse at Merv in 651.[2]

The legend is that he was killed by a miller who robbed him of his clothes and jewellery, but there is a strong suspicion that the governor of Merv, was the real culprit.[3]

Ferdowsi a contemporary of Mahmud of Ghazni recounts the killing of Yazdegerd by the miller at the behest of Mahuy Suri

"Mahuy sends the miller to cut off his head on pain of losing his own, and having none of his race left alive. His chiefs hear this and cry out against him, and a Moped of the name of Radui tells him that to kill a king or prophet will bring evil upon him and his son, and is supported in what he says by a holy man of the name of Hormuzd Kharad Shehran, and Mehrunush. The miller most unwillingly goes in and stabs him with a dagger in the middle. Mahuy's horsmen all go and see him and take off his clothing and ornaments, leaving him on the ground. All the nobles curse Mahuy and wish him the same fate.[4]

The Zoroastrian religious calendar, which is still in use today, uses the regnal year of Yazdegerd III as its base year. Its calendar era (year numbering system), which is accompanied by a Y.Z. suffix, thus indicates the number of years since the emperor's coronation in 632 AD.

Yazdegerd's son Peroz II fled to China. His daughter Shahrbanu is believed to be the wife of Husayn ibn Ali; his other daughter Izdundad was married to Bustanai ben Haninai, the Jewish exilarch. The Bahá'í religious leader Bahá'u'lláh's ancestry can be traced back to Yazdegerd III.[5][6]

Notes
2. Iran - Encyclopædia Britannica Online
Ceann Gubha, lordly, noble, Ollarbha, spring. Ceanngubha is the name of the hill on h'Éireann died in 106 at Meath. He reigned 30 years. It is to him the Bóruma Laigen was first paid.

Tuathal Techtmar mac Fiachach, Ard-rí na h'Éireann was a witness where Fiacha Findfolaid mac Feradaig, Ard-rí na h'Éireann left of children but one son only, who was in the womb of Eithne, daughter of the King of Alba Scotland. Tuathal was his the son's name 0056. 106th Monarch of Ireland between 0076 and 0106. Tuathal Techtmar mac Fiachach, Ard-rí na h'Éireann was one of the Irish princes in exile from his country, as noted by Tacitus in his "Life of Agricola," who waited on Agricola, then the Roman General in Britain, to solicit his support in the recovery of Ireland circa 0075. He was raised by his mother and grandfather in Alba (Scotland). He restored the true royal blood and heirs to their kingdoms and created the kingdom of Meath (or Meath) = the middle kingdom. Also called Tuathal Teachtmár, also called Tuathal "the Legitimate" Teachtmár means "the Legitimate." He married Baine ingen Scal, daughter of Scal (?). Tuathal Techtmar mac Fiachach, Ard-rí na h'Éireann was the father of Conn Céithchathach, Ard-rí na h'Éireann died in 106 at Magh Line, at Moin An Chatha, Dal Araideh, Ireland. After having been thirty years in the sovereignty of Ireland, was slain by Mal, son of Rocheaidhe, King of Ulster, where the two rivers, Ollar and Ollarbh, spring. Ceanngubha is the name of the hill on which he was killed, as this quatrains proves:

"Ollar and Ollarbh,
"Ceann Gubha, lordly, noble,
"Are not names given without a cause,
"The day that Tuathal was killed." 2

Father: Fiache (Fiachaidh IV) Fionnolaidh MacFeredaig II.
Mother: Eithne of Alba b: abt 0025

Marriage 1 Baine ingen Scal

Túathal Techtmar ("the legitimate").[1] son of Fíachu Finnolach, was a High King of Ireland, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition. He is said to be the ancestor of the Uí Néill and Connacht dynasties through his grandson Conn of the Hundred Battles. The name may also have originally referred to an eponymous deity.[2]

Túathal was the son of a former High King deposed by an uprising of "subject peoples" who returned at the head of an army to reclaim his father's throne. The oldest source for Túathal's story, a 9th century poem by Mael Mura of Othain, says that his father, Fiacha Finnolach, was overthrown by the four provincial kings, Elim mac Conrach of Ulster, Sanb (son of Cet mac Mághach) of Connacht, Forbre of Munster and Eochaid Ainchenn of Leinster, and that it was Elim who took the High Kingship. During his rule Ireland suffered famine as God punished this rejection of legitimate kingship. Túathal, aided by the brothers Fiacha Cassán and Findmall and their 600 men, marched on Tara and defeated Elim in battle at the hill of Achall. He then won battles against the Ligmuini, the Gaillión, the Fir Bolg, the Fir Domnann, the Ulaid, the Muma, the Fir Ól nÉcmacht and the Érainn, and assembled the Irish nobility at Tara to make them swear allegiance to him and his descendants.[3][4]

Later versions of the story suppress the involvement of the provincial nobility in the revolt, making the "subject peoples" the peasants of Ireland. The Lebor Gabála Érenn[5] adds the detail of Túathal's exile. His mother, Eithne Imgel, daughter of the king of Alba (originally meaning Britain, later Scotland), was pregnant when Fíachu was overthrown, and fled to her homeland where she gave birth to Túathal. Twenty years later Túathal and his mother returned to Ireland, joined up with Fiacha Cassán and Findmall, and marched on Tara to take the kingship.

The Annals of the Four Masters[6] features a similar revolt a few generations earlier, led by Cairbre Cinnchait, against the High King Crimthann Nia Náir. On this occasion Crimthann's son Feradach Finnfechtnach is the future king who escaped in his mother's womb, although the Annals claim he returned to reclaim his throne only five years later. The story repeats itself a few generations later with Elim's revolt against Fiachu, and the exile and return of Túathal. Geoffrey Keating[7] harmonises the two revolts into one. He has Crimthann hand the throne directly to his son, Feradach, and makes Cairbre Cinnchait, whose ancestry he traces to the Fir Bolg, the leader of the revolt that overthrew Fiachu, killing him at a feast. The pregnant Eithne flees as in the other sources. Cairbre rules for five years, dies of plague and is succeeded by Elim. After Elim had ruled for twenty years, the 20- or 25-year-old Túathal was prevailed upon to return. He landed with his forces at Inber Domnainn (Malahide Bay). Joining up with Fiacha Cassán and Findmall and their marauders, he marched on Tara where he was declared king. Elim gave battle at the hill of Achall near Tara, but was defeated and killed.

Túathal fought 25 battles against Ulster, 25 against Leinster, 25 against Connacht and 35 against Munster. The whole country subdued, he convened a conference at Tara, where he established laws and annexed territory from each of the four provinces to create the central province of Míde (Meath) around Tara as the High King's territory. He built four fortresses in Meath: Tlachtga, where the druids sacrificed on the eve of Samhain, on land taken from Munster; Uisneach, where the festival of Beltaine was celebrated, on land from Connacht; Táiltiu, where Lughnasadh was celebrated, on land from Ulster; and Tara, on land from Leinster.

He went on to make war on Leinster, burning the stronghold of Aillen (Knockaulin) and imposing the bórama, a heavy tribute of cattle, on the province. One story says this was because the king of Leinster, Eochaid Ainchenn, had married Túathal's daughter Dairine, but told Túathal she had died and so was given his other daughter, Fithir. When Fithir discovered Dairine was still alive she died of shame, and when Dairine saw Fithir dead she died of grief.
Túathal, or his wife Baine, is reputed to have built Ráth Mór, an Iron Age hillfort in the earthwork complex at Clogher, County Tyrone. He died in battle against Mal mac Róchride, king of Ulster, at Mag Line (Moyllynny near Larne, County Antrim). His son, Fedlimid Rechtera, later avenged him.

[edit] Historical context
The Annals of the Four Masters gives the date of Túathal’s exile as AD 56, his return as 76 and his death as 106. Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn broadly agrees, dating his exile to 55, his return to 80 and his death to 100. The Lebor Gabála Erenn places him a little later, synchronising his exile with the reign of the Roman emperor Domitian (81-96), his return early in the reign of Hadrian (122-138) and his death in the reign of Antoninus Pius (138-161).

[edit] The first of the Goidels? The scholar T. F. O’Rahilly suggested that, as in many such “returned exile” stories, Túathal represented an entirely foreign invasion which established a dynasty in Ireland, whose dynastic propagandists fabricated an Irish origin for him to give him some spurious legitimacy. In fact, he proposed that Túathal’s story, pushed back to the 1st or 2nd century BC, represented the invasion of the Goidels, who established themselves over the earlier populations and introduced the Q-Celtic language that would become Irish, and that their genealogists incorporated all Irish dynasties, Goidelic or otherwise, and their ancestor deities into a pedigree stretching back over a thousand years to the fictitious Mil Espáine.[8]

[edit] Romans in Ireland? Taking the native dating as broadly accurate, another theory has emerged. The Roman historian Tacitus mentions that Agricola, while governor of Roman Britain (AD 78 - 84), entertained an exiled Irish prince, thinking to use him as a pretext for a possible conquest of Ireland.[9] Neither Agricola nor his successors ever conquered Ireland, but in recent years archaeology has challenged the belief that the Romans never set foot on the island. Roman and Romano-British artefacts have been found primarily in Leinster, notably a fortified site on the promontory of Drumanagh, fifteen miles north of Dublin, and burials on the nearby island of Lambay, both close to where Túathal is supposed to have landed, and other sites associated with Túathal such as Tara and Clogher.

However, whether this is evidence of trade, diplomacy or military activity is a matter of controversy. It is possible that the Romans may have given support to Túathal, or someone like him, to regain his throne in the interests of having a friendly neighbour who could restrain Irish raiding.[4][10] The 2nd century Roman poet Juvenal, who may have served in Britain under Agricola, wrote that "arms had been taken beyond the shores of Ireland",[11] and the coincidence of dates is striking.

Child of TúATHAL TEACHTMAR and Baine SCAI is:
102. i. FEDHLIMID (FELIM)61 RACHTMAR, d. 130.

Bostanai (Hebrew: ??????) was the first exilarch under Arabian rule; he flourished about the middle of the seventh century. The name is Aramaized from the Persian "bustan" or "bostan" (as proper name see Ferdinand Justi, Iranisches Namenbuch, p. 74). Almost the only exilarch of whom anything more than the name is known, he is frequently made the subject of legends.

Bostanai was the son of the exilarch Hananiah. Hai Gaon, in "Sha'are ?ede?," p. 3a, seems to identify Bostanai with Haninai, and tells that he was given for wife a daughter of the Persian king Chosroes II (died 628), by the calif Omar (died 644). (See Rapoport, in "Bikkure ha-Ittim," x.83; B. Goldberg, in "Ha-Maggid," xiii.363). Abraham ibn Daud, however, in his "Sefer ha-?abbalah" (Adolphe Neubauer's Medieval Jewish Chronicles, i.64), says that it was the last Sassanid king, Yezdegerd (born 624; died 651-652; see Nöldeke, "Tabari," pp. 397 et seq.), who gave his daughter to Bostanai. But in that case it could have been only Calif Ali (656-661), and not Omar, who thus honored the exilarch (see "Ma'aseh Bet David"). It is known also that Ali gave a friendly reception to the contemporary Gaon Isaac (Sherira II's "Letter," ed. Neubauer, ib. p. 35; Abraham ibn Daud, ib. p. 62); and it is highly probable, therefore, that he honored the exilarch in certain ways as the official representative of the Jews. The office of the exilarch, with its duties and privileges, as it existed for some centuries under the Arabian rule, may be considered to begin with Bostanai.

The relation of Bostanai to the Persian princess (called "Dara" in "Ma'aseh Bet David," or "Azdad-war" (Nöldeke, "Isdundad")), according to a genizah fragment, had an unpleasant sequel. The exilarch lived with her without having married her, and according to the rabbinical law she should previously have received her "letter of freedom," for, being a prisoner of war, she had become an Arabian slave, and as such had been presented to Bostanai.

After the death of Bostanai his sons insisted that the princess, as well as her son, was still a slave, and, as such, was their property. The judges were divided in opinion, but finally decided that the legitimate sons of the exilarch should grant letters of manumission to the princess and her son in order to testify to their emancipation. This decision was based on the ground that Bostanai had probably lived in legitimate marriage with this woman, and, although there were no proofs, had presumably first emancipated and then married her.

Nevertheless, the descendants of the princess were not recognized as legitimate 300 years afterward (Hai Gaon, l.c.). The statement in the genizah specimen (see bibliography below) is doubtless dictated by enmity to the exilarch; Abraham ibn Daud's statement (l.c.) is contrariwise prejudiced in favor of the exilarch; but compare genizah fragment published by Schechter In Jew. Quart. Rev. xiv.242-246.

The name "Bostanai" gave rise to the following legend: The last Persian king (Hormuzd), inimical to the Jews, decided to extinguish the royal house of David, no one being left of that house but a young woman whose husband had been killed shortly after his marriage, and who was about to give birth to a child. Then the king dreamed that he was in a beautiful garden ("bostan"), where he uprooted the trees and broke the branches, and, as he was lifting up his ax against a little root, an old man snatched the ax away from him and gave him a blow that almost killed him, saying: "Are you not satisfied with having destroyed the beautiful trees of my garden, that you now try to destroy also the last root? Truly, you deserve that your memory perish from the earth." The king thereupon promised to guard the last plant of the garden carefully. No one but an old Jewish sage was able to interpret the dream, and he said: "The garden represents the Davidic line, all of whose descendants you have destroyed except a woman with her unborn boy. The old man whom you saw was David, to whom you promised that you would take care that his house should be renewed by this boy." The Jewish sage, who was the father of the young woman, brought her to the king, and she was assigned to rooms fitted up with princely splendor, where she gave birth to a boy, who received the name "Bostanai," from the garden ("bostan") which the king had seen in his dream.

The veracity of this account was disputed by Rabbi Sherira Gaon who claimed his own lineage traces to a pre-Bostanaian branch of the Davidic line. [1]

The figure of the wasp in the escutcheon of the exilarch was made the subject of another legend. The king had taken delight in the clever boy, and, spending one day with him, saw, as he stood before him, a wasp sting him on the
temple. The blood trickled down the boy's face, yet he made no motion to chase the insect away. The king, upon expressing astonishment at this, was told by the youth that in the house of David, of which he had come, they were taught, since they themselves had lost their throne, neither to laugh nor to lift up the hand before a king, but to stand in motionless respect (Sanh. 93b). The king, moved thereby, showered favors upon him, made him an exilarch, and gave him the power to appoint judges of the Jews and the heads of the three academies, Nehardea, Sura, and Pumbedita. In memory of this Bostanai introduced a wasp into the escutcheon of the exilarchate.

The genizah fragment says that the incident with the wasp occurred in the presence of the calif Omar, before whom Bostanai as a youth of sixteen had brought a dispute with a sheikh, who filled his office during the exilarch's minority, and then refused to give it up. Bostanai was exilarch when Persia fell into the hands of the Arabians, and when Ali came to Babylon Bostanai went to meet him with a splendid retinue, whereby the calif was so greatly pleased that he asked for Bostanai's blessing. The calif, on learning that Bostanai was not married, gave him Dara, the daughter of the Persian king, as wife; and the exilarch was permitted to make her a Jewess and to marry her legitimately. She bore him many children, but their legitimacy was assailed after their father's death by the exilarch's other sons ("Ma'aseh Bostanai," several times printed under different titles; see Benjacob, s.v.). This legend was made known only in the sixteenth century (compare Isaac Akrish), but the Seder 'Olam Zu?a, composed in the beginning of the ninth century, drew upon the legends of the garden and the wasp (see Mar Zutra II).

The name "Dara" for the Persian princess in Christian sources occurs also as that of Chosroes' daughter (Richter, "Arsacidæ," p. 554, Leipzig, 1804). The legend glorifying Bostanai probably originated in Babylon, while the genizah fragment, branding all the descendants of Bostanai as illegitimate, being descendants of a slave and unworthy to fill high office, comes from Palestine. This latter view is of course erroneous, as may be gathered from Hai's remark, above mentioned, for the post-Bostanaite house of exilarchs was not descended from the princess. It is true, however, that the Bostanaites were hated by the scholars and the pious men, probably in part because Anan, founder of the Karaite etc., was a descendant of Bostanai (see Sherira's "Letter," ed. Neubauer, i.33). Benjamin of Tudela says that he was shown the grave of Bostanai near Pumbedita.

Notes

Sources
This article incorporates text from the 1901–1906 Jewish Encyclopedia, a publication now in the public domain. This article is an evolution of the corresponding article in the public-domain Jewish Encyclopedia, which gives the following bibliography:

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Child of IZDUNDAD PERSIA and BUSTANAI DAVID is:
103. i. HANINI BAR ADOI² DAVID.
102. Fedhlimidh (Felim) 61 Rachtmar (Tuathal) 60 Teachtar, Fiacha Fionn 59 Ola, Feredach 58
Fionn-Feachtnach, Ciamhann-Naidh-Nar 55, Lughaidh Sliabh-n 56 Dearg, Bress-Nar-Lothar 55, Eochaidh 54
Feildloch, Fionn 53, Fionnloch 52, Roighen 51 Ruadh, Assaman 50 Emhina, Enna 49 Agmeac, Aongus 48
Tuirmeach-Tearmaich, Eochaidh Alt 47 Leathan, Olioll 46 Cas-Fiacchlach, Conla 45 Caimh, Iarann 44
Gleofathach, Melg 43 Molbhthach, Coileathach 42 Caol-bhireagh, Ugaine 41 Mór, Eochaidh 40 Buadhach,
Duach 39 Ladhrach, Fiacha 38 Tolgrach, Muredach 37 Bolgach, Simeon 36 Breac, Aedan 35 Glas, Nuadhais 34
Fionnfail, Gialchadh 33 Olioll 32 Ailchein, Siorna 31 Saoghalach 30 Dein, Rotheachtach 29, Main 28,
Aongus 27 Olmcach, Fiacha 26 Labhrainn, Smiomghall 25 Enbhardt, Tigernmas 24, Foll-Aichd 21
Iriall (Iarel Eurliais) Faidh (Faithd) 20 MacREEMOIN, Heremon (2nd Monarch) 19 Ireland, Tea Tephi 18
‘Scota, Prince of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos “Necho” 17”, Psamtek 16 I, Neko 15 I, Shepseise 14 Tefnakhti II,
Prince of Egypt, Bakenraneb (Bocchoris) Wah K 13 Re, Tefnakht I) Shepses Re of 13 Egypt, Osorkon IV
“C” of 12 MAAT, Shoshonk III, Aakheperre, Stepenu 11 Piyan, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk III,
Takelot 10 II, Osorkon II, Takelot I, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Mesmesh, Nimlot, the
Great Chief of the Ma’ Shoshenu) died 130.

Notes for Fedhlimidh (Felim) Rachtmar:
[stem of the house of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Fedlimid Rechtmar (“the lawful, legitimate” or “the passionate, furious”) or Rechtai (“the judge, lawgiver”)[1] son
of Tuathal Techtar, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. His
mother was Bâine, daughter of Scál. He took power after killing his predecessor, and his father’s killer, Mal mac
Rochride.[2] He is said to have instituted the principle of an eye for an eye into Irish law, after which the behaviour
of the Irish improved.[3] The completion of the road construction around Tara is attributed to him.[4] He ruled for
nine or ten years before dying in his bed, and was succeeded by Cathair Mór. One of his sons, Conn Céchtachadh,
would succeed Cathair. Two other sons, Fiacha Suigde, ancestor of the Dal Fiachrach Suighe, and Eochaid Finn, are
named in medieval sources.[5] The Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronises his reign with that of the Roman emperor
Marcus Aurelius (161-180). The chronology of Geoffrey Keating’s Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 104-113,
that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 110-119.[6]
Child of Hanini David and Rolande de Laon is:

105. i. Makir Theuderic of Toulouse, b. 720; d. 782, Narbonne, Aude, France.

Generation No. 58


Notes for Conn Ceadchathach Mac Feideilm:
Conn Céatᶜhathach (‘of the Hundred Battles’, pron. [kʰn ‘ke³d̪ɛx?2ax]), son of Fedlimidh Rechtmar, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland, and the ancestor of the Connachta, and, through his descendant Niall Nóigiallach, the Uí Néill dynasties, which dominated Ireland in the early middle ages, and their descendents, including Scottish clans such as the Clan Donald.

The Annals of the Four Masters says that five roads to Tara, which had never been seen before, were discovered on the night of Conn’s birth.[1] According to the Lebor Gabála Erenn, he took power after killing his predecessor Cathair Mór.[2] In other sources his predecessor is Daire Doimthech.[3] The Lia Fáil, the coronation stone at Tara which was said to roar when the rightful king stood on it, soared under Conn for the first time since Cúchulainn split it with his sword when it failed to roar for Lugaid Riab nDerg.[4] In the saga Baile in Scáil (‘The Phantom’s Ecstatic Vision’), Conn treads on the stone by accident while walking the ramparts of Tara, implying that the stone had been lost and half-buried since Cúchulainn’s time. A druid explains the meaning of the stone, and says the number of cries the stone made is the number of kings who will follow Conn, but he is not the man to name them. A magical mist arises, and a horseman approaches who throws three spears towards Conn, then asks him and the druid to follow him to his house, which stands on a plain by a golden tree. They enter, and are welcomed by a woman in a gold crown. First they see a silver vat, bound with gold hoops, full of red ale, and a golden cup and serving spoon. Then they see a phantom, a tall beautiful man, on a throne, who introduces himself as Lugh. The woman is the sovereignty of Ireland, and she serves Conn a meal consisting of an ox’s rib 24 feet (7.3 m) long, and a boar’s rib. When she serves drinks, she asks “To whom shall this cup be given?”, and Lugh recites a poem which tells Conn how many years he will reign, and the names of the kings who will follow him. Then they enter Lugh’s shadow, and the house disappears, but the cup and serving spoon remain.[5] An earlier text, Baile Chuinn Cétchathaigh (The Ecstatic Vision of Conn of the Hundred Battles) gives a poetic list of kings, many of which are recognisable from the traditional List of High Kings of Ireland, but without narrative context.[7]

Reign
Conn had a long reign - twenty, twenty-five, thirty-five or even fifty years according to different versions of the Lebor Gabála— but spent much of it at war with Muc Nuadat, king of Munster. The Medieval Text Cath Maige Leana alleges that Mug Nuadat’s father Mug Neit, son of Deirgine expelled the kings of Munster from their kingdoms by hoarding food for seven years and then using it to provide for the men of Ireland during a famine which his Druids had earlier predicted. When the people of Munster begged for Mog Neit’s provision, the latter demanded that they expel their kings, namely Conaire Coem and MacNiad mac Lugdach of the Clann Dedad. When the latter two fled to Conn for assistance and made alliances with him by marrying his two daughters Saraid and Sadb.
Legend has it that the hero Fionn mac Cumhail was born in Conn's time. His father, Cumhall, a warrior in Conn's service, was a suitor of Muirme, daughter of the druid Tadg mac Nuadat, but Tadg refused his suit, so Cumhall abducted her. Conn went to war against him, and Cumhall was killed by Goll mac Morna in the Battle of Cnucha. But Muirme was already pregnant, and Tadg rejected her, ordering her to be burned. She fled to Conn, and Conn put her under the protection of Cumhall's brother-in-law Fiacal mac Conchinn. It was in Fiacal's house that she gave birth to a son, Deimne, who was later renamed Fionn. When he was ten, Fionn came to Tara put himself into Conn's service. He learned that every year at Samhain, the monster Aillen would put everyone at Tara to sleep with his music, and burn down the palace with his fiery breath. Fionn killed Aillen, leaving Art alone. After that Art was known as Óenfer - the "lone" or "solitary".

Family
Conn had two sons, Connla and Art. Connla fell in love with a fairy woman from Mag Mell, and went with her to her otherworld home in her crystal boat, leaving Art alone. After that Art was known as Óenfer - the "lone" or "solitary".

After Conn's wife Eithne Táebfada, daughter of Cathair Mór, died, another fairy woman, Bé Chuille, was banished by the Tuatha Dé Danann to Ireland. She had fallen in love with Art from a distance and sought him out in her currah, but when she met Conn and learned he was without a wife, agreed to marry him instead, on the condition that Art be banished from Tara for a year. The men of Ireland thought this unjust, and Ireland was barren during that year. The druids discovered that this was Bé Chuille's fault, and declared that the famine could be ended by the sacrifice of the son of a sinless couple in front of Tara. Conn went in search of this boy in Bé Chuille's currah. He landed on a strange island of apple-trees. The queen of the island had a young son, the result of her only sexual union. Conn told her that Ireland would be saved if the boy bathed in the water of Ireland, and she agreed. He took him back to Ireland, but when the druids demanded his death, he, Art and Fionn mac Cumhail swore to protect him.
Just then, a woman driving a cow carrying two bags approached, and the cow was sacrificed instead of the boy. The bags were opened: one contained a bird with one leg, the other a bird with twelve legs. The two birds fought, and the one-legged bird won. The woman said the twelve-legged bird represented the druids, and the one-legged bird the boy, and revealed herself as his mother. She told Conn that the famine would end if he would put Bé Chuille away, but he refused. Bé Chuille was later banished from Tara as the result of a series of challenges she and Art made each other over a game of fichell.[13]

Death
Conn was eventually killed by Tipraite Tírech, king of the Ulaid. The Lebor Gabála and the Annals say Tipraite defeated him in battle in Túath Amrois. Keating says Tipraite sent fifty warriors dressed as women from Emain Macha to kill him at Tara. His son-in-law Conaire Cóem succeeded him as High King, and Conn's son Art would later succeed him. The Lebor Gabála synchronises Conn's reign with that of the Roman emperor Marcus Aurelius (161-180). The chronology of Geoffrey Keating's Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 116-136, that of the Annals of the Four Masters to 122-157.

Child of Conn Mac Feideilmid and Ethnone Taebfada is:
106. i. Airt Aoinfher69 Mac Conn, d. 195.

105. Makir Theuderic of Toulouse (Hanin Bar Acho61 David, Izdundad "Dara" Sasanaid of60 Persia, Yazdagird III of59, Prince of Sasanan Persia58 Shahriar, Khusrav57 II, Hormizd56 IV, Emperor of Sasanan Persia, Khushraw (Chrosroic I) of55 Kings, Kavadh I4 (Kobad), Emperor of Sasanan Persia, Emperor of Sasanan Persia53 Peroz, Yazdagird II, Emperor of Sasanan Persia, Varahan V51 (Bahram), Emperor of Sasanan Persia, Yazdagird50 I, Emperor of Sasanan Persia, Shapur49 III, Emperor of Persia, Shapur48 II, Emperor of Persia, Ibra47 Hormiz, Princess of Seistan, King of Seistan46 Vasaudeva, Vasaudeva45 III, King of Kushana, Vasaudeva44 II, King of Kushana, Kanishka43 III, King of Kushana, King of Kushana42 Vasaudeva, Huvishka41 I, King of Kushana, Kanishka40 I, King of Kushans, Vema39 KadhisesII, King of the Kusans, Princess of38 Peshwar, Princess of W. Gandara37 Calliope, King of W. Gandara36 Hippocrates, Strato35 I, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria34 Agathoclea, King of Bactria33 Agathocles, Sundari24a Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire31 Brahadhrata, King of Kashimir and Gandhara30 Kunala, Ashoka29 Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa28 (Amitrochates), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire27 Chandragupta, Maurya26V, of Magadha, Maurya IV25 Taxila, Maurya IV24, Maurya II23, Princess of Persia22 Chandravaruna, Princess of Persia21 Atossa, Princess of Egypt20 Neithyti, Haibre19 Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtik II18 Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos "Necho"17 II, Psamtik16 I, Neko15 I, Shepeses14 TeanakhtII, Prince of Egypt, Bakenraanef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka13 Re, Teanakhte (I) Shepeses Re of12 Egypt, Osorkon IV C of11 Maat, Shoshonk40 I, Aakeherpe, Stepenre8 Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk8 III, Takelot7 II, Osorkon6 II, Takelot5 I, Osorkon4 I, Shoshonk3 I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot7, the Great Chief of the Ma4 Shoshenq) was born 720, and died 782 in Narbonne, Aude, France. He married Aude "Aldana" de Martel, daughter of Charles Martel and Rotrude Austrasia. She was born Abt. 730.

Notes for Makir Theuderic of Toulouse:
Theuderic (Thierry) I DE SEPTIMANIE Exilarch of Narbonne in Septimania 2550
Born: Abt 720, Babylon
Died: Before 804, <Narbonne, Aude, France>

Thierry IV or Theoderic IV (ca. 720 – ca. 782) was a Frankish noble. Count of Autun and Toulouse; he was a son of Sigebert V, and grandson of Sigebert IV of Raze. Thierry married Auda, daughter of Charles Martel, sister of Pepin III.

Children
William of Gellone (755 – 28 May 812/4)
Alda of Gellone (born ca. 770); married Fredalon

Another name for Theuderic was Natronai al-Makir Judiarch of Narbonne, Makhir of the Caliph 771-793.
Duke of Toulouse

Theodoric I of Septimania was received by Charlemagne and was given the title "King of the Jews". His ancestry is possibly one of the greatest lineages of antiquity. Theodoric, claimed (or others do for him) descent not only from the Merovingian Kings, but lineal descent from King David himself. Both the king and the Pope acknowledged this pedigree. Also called Makhir Natronai ben Habibi the Resh Galuta. Also called Rabbi Makir ha-David. Also called Dietrich.

"The evidence is sketchy and muddled at this distance, but a persistent account of Theodoric I has it that he was the Jewish Exilarch in Narbonne, and that he succeeded in establishing a regionally autonomous Jewish-led state around Narbonne. Makhir has been identified as being Makhir Natronai, Resh Galuta in Baghdad, ousted from that position by a cousin in 771. If true, it would be a matter of considerable interest; the Baghdad Exilarchs were reputed to be lineal descendents of the ancient Hebrew King David. What is fairly clear is that Septimania achieved an independent position in this era by some means or other, with the status of a Duchy or even possibly a Kingdom."

He was sent by Haroun Al-Rashid, Calif of Baghdad to Charlemagne, King of the West at his request, who wanted to establish in Europe a middle class based on a Jewish nucleus between 786 and 793.

Children of MAKIR TOULOUSE and AUDE DE MARTEL are:
107. i. WILLIAM63 DE TOULOUSE, b. 755; d. 812.
   ii. ALDA OF GELLONE, b. 770.

Generation No. 59


He married ACHTAN.

Notes for AIRT AOINFER MAC CONN:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Art mac Cuinn ("son of Conn"), also known as Art Óenfher (literally "one man", used in the sense of "lone", "solitary", or "only son").[1] was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland.

According to legend, he was not Conn's only son: he had a brother called Conna, who fell in love with a fairy woman, and went with her to Mag Mell, never to be seen again. After that, Art was alone and gained his nickname[2] (Geoffrey Keating says he had two brothers, Connla and Crionna, who were killed by their uncle
Another fairy woman, Bé Chuelle, who had been banished to Ireland by the Tuatha Dé Danann, fell in love with Art, but, when she learned his father Conn was still alive and a widower, agreed to marry him instead, on the condition that Art be banished from Tara for a year. The injustice caused famine in Ireland, until Art forced Bé Chuelle to leave as a forfeit in a game of fidchell.[4]

Art succeeded to the High Kingship after his brother-in-law Conaire Cóem, was killed by Nemed, son of Sroibcenn, in the battle of Gruitone. He ruled for twenty or thirty years. During his reign Conaire’s sons took revenge against Nemed and his allies, the sons of Ailill Aulom, in the Battle of Cennfebrat in Munster. Ailill’s foster-son Lugaid mac Con was wounded in the thigh in the battle, and was exiled from Ireland. He made an alliance with Benne Brit, son of the king of Britain, raised an army of foreigners, and returned to Ireland. He defeated and killed Art in the Battle of Maigh Mucruimhe in Connacht.[5] According to legend, Art was given hospitality by Olc Acha, a local smith, the night before the battle. It had been prophesied that a great dignity would come from Olc’s line, and he gave Art his daughter Achtan to sleep with. Art’s son Cormac was conceived that night.[6] However, according to Keating, Achtan was Art’s official mistress, to whom he paid a dowry of cattle; his wife, and the mother of his other children, was Medb Lethderg.[7]


Child of Airt Mac Conn and Achtan is:
108. i. Cormac Ulfhada Mac Airt, d. 266.


Notes for William de Toulouse:
Saint William of Gellone (755 – 28 May (traditional) 812/4) was the second Count of Toulouse from 790 until his replacement in 811. His Occitan name is Guilhem, and he is known in French as Guillaume d’Orange, Guillaume Fierabrace, and the Marquis au court nez.

He is the hero of the Chanson de Guillaume, an early chanson de geste, and of several later sequels, which were categorized by thirteenth-century poets as the geste of Garin de Monglane. Another early product of oral traditions about William is a Latin Vita (“Biography”), written before the 11th century, according to Jean Mabillon, or during the 11th century according to the Bollandist Godfrey Henschen.
William was born in northern France in the mid-8th century. He was a cousin of Charlemagne (his mother Aldana was daughter of Charles Martel) and the son of Thierry IV, Count of Autun and only nominally of Toulouse. As a kinsman and trusted comes he spent his youth in the court of Charlemagne. When the abducted count of Toulouse Chorso was released on unfavourable conditions by the Basque Adalric, Charlemagne deposed him and appointed his trustee of Frankish stock William instead (790). He in turn successfully subdued the Gascons.

In 793, Hisham I (called by the Franks Hescham), the successor of Abd ar-Rahman I, proclaimed a holy war against the Christians to the north. He amassed an army of 100,000 men, half of which attacked the Kingdom of Asturias while the other half invaded Languedoc, penetrating as far as Narbonne.

William met this force and defeated them. He met the Muslim forces again near the river Orbieu at Villedaigne but was defeated, though his obstinate resistance exhausted the Muslim forces so much that they retreated to Spain. In 801, William commanded along with Louis King of Aquitaine a large expedition of Franks, Burgundians, Provençals, Aquitanians, Gascons (Basques) and Goths that captured Barcelona from the Moors.

In 804, he founded the monastery of Gellone (now Saint-Guilhem-le-Désert) near Lodève in the diocese of Maguelonne, which he placed under the general control of Benedict of Aniane, whose monastery was nearby. He retired as a monk there in 806 where he eventually died on the 28 May 812 (or 814). His feast is on that date.

Among his gifts to the abbey he founded was a piece of the True Cross, a present from his cousin Charlemagne, who reportedly wept at his death. Charlemagne had received the relic from the Patriarch of Jerusalem according to the Vita of William. When he died, it was said the bells at Orange rang on their own accord. He mentioned both his family and monastery in his will. [1]. He granted property to Gellone and placed the monastery under the perpetual control of the abbots of Aniane. So many pilgrims were attracted to Gellone that his corpse was exhumed from the modest site in the narthex and given a more prominent place under the choir, to the intense dissatisfaction of the Abbey of Aniane. A number of forged documents and assertions were produced on each side that leave details of actual history doubtful. The Abbey was a major stop for pilgrims on their way to Santiago de Compostela. Its late 12th century Romanesque cloister, systematically dismantled during the French revolution, found its way to The Cloisters in New York. The Sacramentary of Gellone, dating to the late 8th century, is a famous manuscript.

William in romance
Main article: La Geste de Garin de Monglane
William's faithful service to Charlemagne is portrayed as an example of feudal loyalty. William's career battling Saracens is sung in epic poems in the 12th and 13th century cycle called La Geste de Garin de Monglane, some two dozen chansons de geste that actually center around William, the great-grandson of the largely legendary Garin.

One section of the cycle, however, is devoted to the feats of his father, there named Aymeri de Narbonne, who has received Narbonne as his seigniory after his return from Spain with Charlemagne. Details of the “Aymeri” of the poem are conflated with a later historic figure who was truly the viscount of Narbonne from 1108 to 1134. In the chanson he is awarded Ermengart, daughter of Didier, and sister of Boniface, king of the Lombards. Among his seven sons and five daughters (one of whom marries Louis the Pious) is William.

The defeat of the Moors at Orange was given legendary treatment in the 12th century epic La Prise d'Orange. There, he was made Count of Toulouse in the stead of the disgraced Chorso, then King of Aquitaine in 778. He is difficult to separate from the legends and poems that gave him feats of arms, lineage and titles: Guillaume Fièbrebras, Guillaume au Court-Nez (broken in a battle with a giant), Guillaume de Narbonne, Guillaume d'Orange. His wife is said to have been a converted Saracen, Orable later christened Guibourc.

Later references
In 1972 historian Arthur Zuckerman published A Jewish Princedom in Feudal France, a book about the dynasty of Makhir of Narbonne published by Columbia University Press. In that book Zuckerman argued that it was possible that William of Gellone was in fact one of the sons of Makhir, who he identified with the individual known in medieval sources as "Theodoric, King of the Jews of Septimania.” Zuckerman made no definitive conclusions on this point, and the suggestion has since been refuted. (Graboïs, Aryeh, "Une Principauté Juive dans la France du Midi à l'Époque Carolingienne?", Annales du Midi, 85: 191-202 (1973); N.L. Taylor, "Saint William, King David,

William, listed under the name "Guillem de Gellone", is a prominent figure in the pseudohistorical book Holy Blood Holy Grail. The book claims that William was the son of Theodoric, and that since Theodoric was Merovingian, that meant that William was Merovingian as well, and plus was a "Jew of royal blood". The book goes on to state that "modern scholarship and research have proved Guillem's Judaism beyond dispute." It should be noted, however, that many other claims in the book which were listed as "fact", were later proven to be false (such as the existence of the Priory of Sion), because the authors were basing much of their researches on "medieval documents" which were later shown to be forgeries.

The importance of citing William's noble heritage and Judaism, was so that the authors could prove a genealogical link between the House of David, the Merovingian nobility, and France, in order to make a case that the Holy Grail actually was the bloodline of Jesus that had worked its way into the bloodline of Frankish royalty. This line of reasoning was later incorporated into the plot of the bestselling novel The Da Vinci Code and from there into various television documentaries.

Preceded by
Torson Count of Toulouse
790–811 Succeeded by
Beggo

References
Wikimedia Commons has media related to: William of Gellone

Catholic Encyclopedia: St William of Gellone
"L'Abbaye de Saint-Guilhem-le-Desert" (in French)
Metropolitan Museum: The Saint-Guilhem Cloister

Child of WILLIAM DE TOULOUSE and GUIBOR HORNBACK is:
109. i. BERTHA64 de TOULOUSE, b. 777.

Generation No. 60


Notes for CORMAC ULFHADA MAC AIRT:
[Stem of the House of Conor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]
Cormac mac Airt (son of Art), also known as Cormac ua Cuinn (grandson of Conn) or Cormac Ulfada (long beard), was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He is probably the most famous of the ancient High Kings, and may have been an authentic historical figure, although many legends have attached themselves to him, and his reign is variously dated as early as the 2nd century and as late as the 4th. He is said to have ruled from Tara, the seat of the High Kings of Ireland, for forty years, and under his rule Tara flourished. He was famous for his wise, true, and generous judgments. In the Annals of Clonmacnoise, translated in 1627, he is described as:

“absolutely the best king that ever reigned in Ireland before himself...wise learned, valiant and mild, not given causelessly to be bloody as many of his ancestors were, he reigned majestically and magnificently”.

The hero Fionn mac Cumhaill is supposed to have lived in Cormac's time, and most of the stories of the Fenian Cycle are set during his reign.

Cormac's father was the former High King Art mac Cuinn. His mother was Achtan, daughter of Olc Acha, a smith (or druid) from Connacht. According to the saga "The Battle of Mag Mucrama", Olc gave Art hospitality the night before the battle of Maigh Mucruimhe. It had been prophesied that a great dignity would come from Olc's line, so he offered the High King his daughter to sleep with that night, and Cormac was conceived. (Geoffrey Keating says that Achtan was Art's official mistress, to whom he had given a dowry of cattle).

The story is told that Achtan had a vision as she slept next to Art. She saw herself with her head cut off and a great tree growing out of her neck. Its branches spread all over Ireland, until the sea rose and overwhelmed it. Another tree grew from the roots of the first, but the wind blew it down. At that she woke up and told Art what she had seen. Art explained that the head of every woman is her husband, and that she would lose her husband in battle the next day. The first tree was their son, who would be king over all Ireland, and the sea that overwhelmed it was a fish-bone that he would die choking on. The second tree was his son, Cairbre Lifechair, who would be king after him, and the wind that blew him down was a battle against the fianna, in which he would fall. The following day Art was defeated and killed by his nephew Lugaid mac Con, who became the new High King.

Cormac was carried off in infancy by a she-wolf and reared with her cubs, but a hunter found him and brought him back to his mother. Achtan then took him to Fiachrae Cassán, who had been Art's foster-father. On the way they were attacked by wolves, but wild horses protected them.

[edit] Rise to power
At the age of thirty, armed with his father's sword, Cormac came to Tara, where he met a steward consoling a weeping woman. The steward explained that the High King had confiscated her sheep because they had cropped the queen's woad-garden. Cormac declared, "More fitting would be one shearing for another," because both the woad and the sheep's fleeces would grow again. When Lugaid heard this, he conceded that Cormac's judgement was superior to his and abdicated the throne. Other traditions say that Cormac drove Lugaid out by force, or that he left Tara because his druids had prophesied he would not live another six months if he stayed. In all versions he went to his kin in Munster, where the poet Ferches mac Commain killed him with a spear as he stood with his back to a standing stone.

But Cormac was unable to claim the High Kingship, as the king of the Ulaid, Fergus Dubdétach, drove him into Connacht, and took the throne himself. He turned to Tadg mac Céin, a local nobleman whose father had been killed by Fergus, promising him as much land on the plain of Brega as he could drive his chariot round in a day if he would help him claim the throne. Tadg advised him to recruit his grandfather's brother Lugaid Láma. Cormac sought him out, and when he found him lying in a hunting-booth, wounded him in the back with a spear. Lugaid revealed that it had been he who had killed Cormac's father in the Battle of Maigh Mucruimhe, and Cormac demanded, as ératic for Art's life, that Lugaid give him Fergus' head.

Having recruited Tadg and Lugaid, Cormac marched against Fergus, and The Battle of Crinna began. Tadg led the battle, keeping Cormac out of the action at the rear. Lugaid took the head of Fergus' brother, Fergus Foltlebair, and brought it to Cormac's attendant, who told him this was not the head of the king of Ulster. He then took the head of Fergus's other brother, Fergus Caishfiachlach, but again the attendant told him it was the wrong head. Finally he killed Fergus Dubdétach himself, and when the attendant confirmed he'd got the right man, Lugaid killed him and collapsed from exhaustion and loss of blood.
Tadg routed Fergus's army, and ordered his charioteer to make a circuit of the plain of Brega to include Tara itself. He was severely wounded, and fainted during the circuit. When he came to, he asked the charioteer if he had driven around Tara yet. When the charioteer answered no, Tadg killed him, but before he could complete the circuit himself, Cormac came upon him and ordered physicians to treat his wounds - treatment which took a whole year. Cormac took the throne, and Tadg ruled large tracts of land in the northern half of Ireland.[2]

[edit] Family
According to the saga "The Melody of the House of Buchet",[8] Cormac married Eithne Táebfada, daughter of Cathaír Mór and foster-daughter of Buchet, a wealthy cattle-lord from Leinster whose hospitality was so exploited that he was reduced to poverty. However, in other traditions Eithne is the wife of Cormac's grandfather Conn Cétchathach. Keating[2] says the foster-daughter of Buchet that Cormac married was another Eithne, Eithne Ollamda, daughter of Dúnlaing, king of Leinster. Also according to Keating, Cormac took a second wife, Ciarmait, daughter of the king of the Cruthin, but Eithne, out of jealousy of her beauty, forced her to grind nine measures of grain every day. Cormac freed her from this labour by having a watermill built.

Cormac is credited with three sons, Dáire, Cellach and Cairbre Lifechair, and ten daughters. Two of his daughters, Gráinne and Aillbe, married the hero Fionn mac Cumhaill. In the well-known story "The Pursuit of Diarmuid and Gráinne", Gráinne was betrothed to Fionn, but instead ran off with a young warrior of the fianna, Diarmuid Ua Duibhne. Diarmuid and Fionn were eventually reconciled, but Fionn later contrived Diarmuid's death during a boar hunt, but was shamed by his son Osín into making amends to Gráinne. Fionn and Gráinne were married, and Gráinne persuaded her sons not to make war against Fionn.[9]

[edit] Reign
Cormac's reign is recorded in some detail in the Irish annals.[7] He fought many battles, subduing the Ulaid and Connacht and leading a lengthy campaign against Munster. In the fourteenth year of his reign he is said to have sailed to Great Britain and made conquests there. In the fifteenth, thirty maidens were slaughtered in Tara by Dúnlaing, king of Leinster, for which Cormac had twelve Leinster princes put to death. In other texts he is said to have been temporarily deposed twice by the Ulaid, and to have once gone missing for four months. He is also said to have compiled the Psalter of Tara, a book containing the chronicles of Irish history, the laws concerning the rents and dues kings were to receive from their subjects, and records of the boundaries of Ireland.[10]

Although he is usually remembered as a wise and just ruler, one story presents him in a less flattering light. Having distributed all the cattle he had received as tribute from the provinces, Cormac found himself without any cattle to provision his own household after a plague struck his herds. A steward persuaded him to treat Munster as two provinces, the southern of which had never paid tax. He sent messengers to demand payment, but Fiachu Muillethan, the king of southern Munster, refused, and Cormac prepared for war. His own druids, who had never advised him badly, foresaw disaster, but he ignored them, preferring to listen to five druids from the sidhe supplied by his fairy lover, Báirinn.

Cormac marched to Munster and made camp on the hill of Druim Dámhgaire (Knocklong, County Limerick). His new druids' magic made the camp impregnable and his warriors unbeatable, dried up all sources of water used by the Munstermen, and nearly drove Fiacha to submission. But Fiacha in desperation turned to the powerful Munster druid Mug Ruith for aid, and his magic was too strong even for Cormac's fairy druids. He restored the water and conjured up magical hounds who destroyed the fairy druids. His breath created storms and turned men to stone. Cormac was driven out of Munster and compelled to seek terms.[11]

Cormac owned the wonderful gold cup given to him by the sea-god Manannan mac Lir in the Land of the Living. If three lies were spoken over it, it would break in three; three truths made it whole again. Cormac used this cup during his kingship to distinguish falsehood from truth. When Cormac died, the cup vanished, just as Manannan had predicted it would.

The 8th-century text The Expulsion of the Déisi describes enmity between Cormac and the group known as the Déisi, descendants of Cormac's great grandfather Fedlimid Rechtmar who had been his retainers. Cormac's son Cellach (or Conn) abducts Forach, the daughter of a Déisi leader. Her uncle Óengus Gabúaithecthe comes to rescue her, but Cellach refuses to release her. Óengus runs Cellach through with his 'dread spear', which has three chains attached to it; these chains wound one of Cormac's advisers and blind Cormac in one eye. Cormac fights seven battles against the Déisi, and expels them from their lands. After a period of wandering, they settled in Munster.
Cormac, having lost an eye, moves into the Tech Clétig on the hill of Achall, as it was against the law for a disfigured king to sit in Tara. His duties as king are taken on by his son Cairbre Lifechair.[2][7][12][13]

Death
After ruling for forty years Cormac choked to death on a salmon bone. Some versions blame this on a curse laid by a druid because Cormac had converted to Christianity. Some versions of the Lebor Gabála Érenn synchronise his reign with that of the Roman emperor Marcus Aurelius (161-180). Keating dates his reign to 204-244; the Annals of the Four Masters to 226-266. An entry in the Annals of Ulster dates his death as late as 366.[3] He was succeeded by Eochaid Gonnat.

Notes for PEPIN OF ITALY:
Pepin (April 777 – 8 July 810) was the son of Charlemagne and king of the Lombards (781–810) under the authority of his father.

Pepin was the second son of Charlemagne by his then-wife Hildegard.[1] He was born Carloan, but when his half-brother Pepin the Hunchback betrayed their father, the royal name Pepin passed to him. He was made king of Lombardy[2] after his father's conquest of the Lombards, in 781, and crowned by Pope Hadrian I with the Iron Crown of Lombardy.

He was active as ruler of Lombardy and worked to expand the Frankish empire. In 791, he marched a Lombard army into the Drava valley and ravaged Pannonia, while his father marched along the Danube into Avar territory. Charlemagne left the campaigning to deal with a Saxon revolt in 792. Pepin and Duke Eric of Friuli continued, however, to assault the Avars' ring-shaped strongholds. The great Ring of the Avars, their capital fortress, was taken twice. The booty was sent to Charlemagne in Aachen and redistributed to all his followers and even to foreign rulers, including King Offa of Mercia. A celebratory poem, De Pippine regis Victoria Avarica, was composed after Pepin forced the Avar khan to submit in 796.[3] This poem was composed at Verona, Pepin’s capital after 799 and the centre of Carolingian Renaissance literature in Italy. The Versus de Verona (c.800), an urban encomium of the city, likewise praises king Pepin.[4]

His activities included a long, but unsuccessful siege of Venice in 810. The siege lasted six months and Pepin's army
was ravaged by the diseases of the local swamps and was forced to withdraw. A few months later Pepin died.

He married Bertha, whose ancestry is not known from any reliable source although she has been called the daughter of William of Gellone, count of Toulouse. He and Bertha had five daughters: (Adelaide, married Lambert I of Nantes; Atala; Gundrada; Bertha; and Tetrada), all of whom but the eldest were born between 800 and Pepin’s death and died before their grandfather’s death in 814. Pepin also had an illegitimate son Bernard. Pepin was expected to inherit a third of his father’s empire, but he predeceased him. The Lombard crown passed on to his illegitimate son Bernard, but the empire went to Pepin’s younger brother Louis the Pious.

Child of Bertha de Toulouse and Pepin Italy is:

111. i. Bernhard of Italy, b. 797; d. 818.

Generation No. 61


Notes for Cairbre Lifiochar McCormarc:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Cairbre Lifiochar ("lover of the Liffey"), son of Cormac mac Airt, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. He came to the throne after the death of Eochaid Gonnat. During his time Bresal Belach was king of Leinster, and refused to pay the bórama or cow-tribute to the High King, but Cairbre defeated him in the Battle of Dubchomar, and from then on exacted the bórama without a battle.

Reign
According to the 8th-century text known as The Expulsion of the Déisi, Cairbre takes the throne when his father Cormac is blinded by Óengus Gaibhítiaibhech of the Déisi, it being against the law for the king to have any physical blemish. The chronicles indicate that Eochaid Gonnat succeeded Cormac, but was soon succeeded by Cairbre following his death in battle.

According to Cath Gabhra (The Battle of Gabhra), a narrative of the Fenian Cycle of Irish mythology, Cairbre married Aine, daughter of Fionn mac Cumhaill. During his reign, his sons Fiaacha Sraibhte and Eochaid Doimlen killed Òengus Gaibhítiaibhech. To make peace, Cairbre betrothed his daughter, Sgiam Sholais, to a Déisi prince. However, the fianna demand a tribute of twenty gold bars, which they claimed was customarily paid on such occasions. Cairbre decides the fianna have become too powerful, and raises a huge army from Ulster, Connacht and Leinster against them. They are joined by Goll mac Morna and his followers, who turn against their comrades in the fianna, but Munster and the Déisi side with the fianna. Cairbre's army wins in the Battle of Gabhra, but Cairbre
himself falls in single combat against Fionn's grandson Oscar, who dies of his wounds shortly afterwards. Fionn himself either dies in the battle, or had been killed on the River Boyne the previous year. The only survivors of the fianna are Califfe mac Rónain and Fionn's son Óisín.

Cairbre had ruled for seventeen, twenty-six or twenty-seven years. He was succeeded by Fothad Cairpreth and Fothad Airgthech, sons of Lugaid mac Con, ruling jointly. The chronology of Geoffrey Keating's Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 245-272, the Annals of the Four Masters to 267-284.[1][2][3][4]

Child of CAIRBRE LIFIOCHAR Mc CORMARC is:

112. i. FIACHAIDH SRAIBHTHINE OF 66 IRISH, d. 332.


Notes for BERNHARD OF ITALY:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Bernard (797, Vermandois, Picardy – 17 April 818, Milan, Lombardy) was the King of the Lombards from 810 to 818. He plotted against his uncle, Emperor Louis the Pious, when the latter's Ordinatio Imperii made Bernard a vassal of his cousin Lothair. When his plot was discovered, Louis had him blinded, a procedure which killed him.

Bernard was the illegitimate son of King Pepin of Italy, the second legitimate son of the Emperor Charlemagne. In 810, Pepin died from an illness contracted at a siege of Venice; although Bernard was illegitimate, Charlemagne allowed him to inherit Italy. Bernard married Cunigunda of Laon in 813. They had one son, Pepin, Count of Vermandois.

Prior to 817, Bernard was a trusted agent of his grandfather, and of his uncle. His rights in Italy were respected, and he was used as an intermediary to manage events in his sphere of influence - for example, when in 815 Louis the Pious received reports that some Roman nobles had conspired to murder Pope Leo III, and that he had responded by butchering the ringleaders, Bernard was sent to investigate the matter.

A change came in 817, when Louis the Pious drew up an Ordinatio Imperii, detailing the future of the Frankish Empire. Under this, the bulk of the Frankish territory went to Louis' eldest son, Lothair; Bernard received no further territory, and although his Kingship of Italy was confirmed, he would be a vassal of Lothair. This was, it was later alleged, the work of the Empress, Ermengarde, who wished Bernard to be displaced in favour of her own sons.
Resenting Louis' actions, Bernard began plotting with a group of magnates: Eggideo, Reginhard, and Reginhar, the last being the grandson of a Thuringian rebel against Charlemagne, Hardrad. Anshelm, Bishop of Milan and Theodulf, Bishop of Orléans, were also accused of being involved: there is no evidence either to support or contradict this in the case of Theodulf, whilst the case for Anshelm is murkier.[1][2]

Bernard's main complaint was the notion of his being a vassal of Lothair. In practical terms, his actual position had not been altered at all by the terms of the decree, and he could safely have continued to rule under such a system. Nonetheless, "partly true" reports came to Louis the Pious that his nephew was planning to set up an 'unlawful' - i.e. independent - regime in Italy.[1]

Louis the Pious reacted swiftly to the plot, marching south to Chalon. Bernard and his associates were taken by surprise; Bernard travelled to Chalon in an attempt to negotiate terms, but he and the ringleaders were forced to surrender to him. Louis had them taken to Aix-la-Chapelle, where they were tried and condemned to death. Louis 'mercifully' commuted their sentences to blinding, which would neutralize Bernard as a threat without actually killing him; however, the process of blinding (carried out by means of pressing a red-hot stiletto to the eyeballs) proved so traumatic that Bernard died in agony two days after the procedure was carried out. At the same time, Louis also had his half-brothers Drogo, Hugh and Theoderic tonsured and confined to monasteries, to prevent other Carolingian off-shoots challenging the main line. He also treated those guilty or suspected of conspiring with Bernard harshly: Theodulf of Orleans was imprisoned, and died soon afterwards; the lay conspirators were blinded, the clerics deposed and imprisoned; all lost lands and honours.[1][2][3]

His Kingdom of Italy was reabsorbed into the Frankish empire, and soon after bestowed upon Louis' eldest son Lothair. In 822, Louis made a display of public penance at Attigny, where he confessed before all the court to having sinfully slain his nephew; he also welcomed his half-brothers back into his favour. These actions possibly stemmed from guilt over his part in Bernard's death. It has been argued by some historians that his behaviour left him open to clerical domination, and reduced his prestige and respect amongst the Frankish nobility.[1] Others, however, point out that Bernard's plot had been a serious threat to the stability of the kingdom, and the reaction no less a threat; Louis' display of penance, then, "was a well-judged gesture to restore harmony and re-establish his authority."[3]

References
1. a b c d McKitterick, Rosamond, The Frankish Kingdoms under the Carolingians
2. a b Riche, Pierre, The Carolingians, p. 148
3. a b McKitterick, Rosamond, The New Cambridge History, 700-900

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Child of BERNHARD ITALY and CUNIGUNDE PARMA is:
113. i. PEPIP[4]IL, LORD OF PERONNE QUENTIN OF VERMANDOIS, b. 817; d. 848.

Generation No. 62

112. FLACHAIDH SRAIBHTHINE OF66 IRELAND (CAIRBRE LIFIOCHAR65 MC CORMAC, CORMAC ULFHADA64 MAC AIRT, AIRT AOFNFIHER63 MAC CONN, CONN CEDACHATHACH62 MAC FEIDEILMID, FEDEILMIDH (FELIM)61 RACHTMAR, TUATHAL60 TEACHTMAR, FIACHA FIONN39 OLA, FEREDACH58 FIONN-FEACHTMHACH, CRIAMTHANN-NIADH-NAR57, LUGHAIDH SRIABH-N66 DEARG, BRESS-NAR-LOTHAR55, EOCAILTHDHE34 FEDEILIOCH, FIONN53, FIONNLOGH52, ROIGHEN51 RUADH, ASSAMAN50 EMHNA, ENNA49 AIGNEAC, AONGUS48 TOIREMEACH-TEAMRACH, EOCAILTHDHE AL37 LEATHAN, OLIOLL46 CAS-FIACHLACH, CONLA45 CAOMH, IRAAN44 GLEOFATHACH, MELG43 MOLBHATHACH, COLETHACH32 CAOL-BHREAGH, UGAIN31 MÓR, EOCAILTHDHE40 BUADHACH, DUACH39 LADHRACH, FIACHA38 TOLGRACH, MUREDACH37 BOLGACH, SIMEON36 BREC, AEDAN35 GLAS, NUADHAS34 FIONNFAIL, GIALCHANH33, OLIOLL32 AGLCHEOIN, SIONN31 -SÁOGHALACH, DEIN30, ROTHACHTACH29, MAIN28, AONGUS27 OLMUCHACH, FIACHA26 LABHRAINN, SWIOMGHALL25,
Fiacha Sraibhtine, son of Cairbre Lifechair, was, according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, a High King of Ireland. On his father's death, Fothad Cairpthech and Fothad Airgthech, sons of Lugaid mac Con, had taken the throne jointly, but within the year Fothad Airgthech killed his brother. Fíacha and the fianna then defeated and killed Fothad in the Battle of Ollarba.

Fíacha's son, Muiredach Tírech, commanded his armies, as the king himself was not allowed to go into battle. Once, Muiredach led a victorious expedition to Munster. The three Collas — Colla Uais, Colla Fo Chri and Colla Menn, sons of Fíacha's brother Eochaid Doimlén — gave battle to Fíacha while Muiredach and his army were still in Munster. Fíacha's druid, Dubchomar, prophesied that if Fíacha was to defeat the Collas, none of his descendants would ever rule Ireland, and likewise, if the Collas won, none of their descendants would be king after them. Fíacha was defeated and killed in what became known as the Battle of Dubchomar.

Fíacha had ruled for 31, 33, 36 or 37 years. The chronology of Geoffrey Keating's Foras Feasa ar Éirinn dates his reign to 273–306, the Annals of the Four Masters to 285-322.[1][2][3]

Family tree: Cormac mac Airt Eithne Ollamda Fionn mac Cumhaill

Cairbre Lifechair Aine

Fiacha Sraibhtine Eochaid Doimlén

Muiredach Tírech Colla Uais Colla Fo Chri Colla Menn

Eochaid Mugmedón

Úi Néill Connachta

References
Child of Fiachaidh Sraibhthine of Ireland is:


Notes for Pepin II, Lord of Peronne Quentin of Vermandois:
[Stem of the House of Connor, FTW]

Pepin (born c. 815) was the first count of Vermandois, lord of Senlis, Péronne, and Saint Quentin.[1] He was the son of King Bernard of Italy and Cunigunda.[1]

Pepin first appears in 834 as a count to the north of the Seine and then appears as same again in 840. In that year, he supported Lothair I against Louis the Pious.

Pepin’s wife is unknown, but has been recorded as Rotaide de Bobbio. His heir inherited much Nibelungid territory and so historian K. F. Werner hypothesised a marriage to a daughter of Theodoric Nibelung. Their children were:

Bernard (c. 844-after 893), count of Laon
Gerberge (born c. 854), who married Diedrich De Gaud
Pepin (c. 846-893), count of Senlis and lord of Valois (877-893)
Herbert I of Vermandois[2] (c. 850-907)
Beatrix (born c. 854)
Maud (born c. 857), who married Malahule Ragnaldsson of More
Adelaide (born c. 858)
Cunigunda

Child of Pepin and Rotaide Bobbio is:

115. i. Pepin of Berenger[37] Baueux, b. 846; d. 896.

Generation No. 63
Child of Muireadhach Tirech MacFiaich MacFiaich II is:

116.  i.  Eochaid (Eochu) Mughedon of 68 Ireland, d. 365.
Osorkon II, Takeлот 5 I, Osorkon 4 I, Shoshonk 3 I, Great Chief of the Meshewsh, Nimlot 2, the Great Chief of the Ma 3 Shoshenuq) was born 846, and died 896.

Notes for Pepin of Berenger and Baueaux:
Berenger II (died 896) was the Count of Bayeux and Rennes and Margrave of the Breton March from 886 until his death a decade later.

Roland and his successors under Guy of Nantes were aristocrats from Maine. Berenger's kin became the first bilingual Breton and Gallo speaking lords holding residence within Brittany (Rennes and Penthièvre, rather than the Loire Valley-predominant Nantes or Vannes, which nevertheless had at least one Franco-Saxon conflict in Angers), as a consequence of the Breton nobility being more or less broken under the Norman invasions of the 880s and as a reward for holding his ground against their attacks.

Berenger may have been son of Henry of Franconia, himself perhaps a member of the Senior Capets through the Babenberg lineage. This has been suggested because (1) Berenger named his supposed daughter with the feminine form of Poppo, a name common among the Babenbergs, and (2) the main Capetian branch had traditionally held the Breton March. There have been alternatives suggested, making him Saxon.

Berenger is speculated to have married the daughter of Gurvand, Duke of Brittany, by which relationship he attained the countship of Rennes. This would make him brother-in-law of Judicael, Duke of Brittany. He is thought to be the Berenger of Bayeux whose daughter Poppa was captured in a raid and married to Rollo of Normandy. Various reconstructions make him father, grandfather, or great-grandfather of Judicael Berenger, later Count of Rennes.

Child of Pepin of Berenger and Baueaux is:
117. i. Poppo de Valois of 66 Normandy, b. 870.

Generation No. 64


Notes for Eochaid (Eochu) Mugmedon of Ireland:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Eochaid Mugmedón ("slave-lord", pronounced [“x?ð ’m?:n??ð’n”], according to medieval Irish legend and historical tradition, was a High King of Ireland of the 4th century, best known as the father of Niall of the Nine Hostages and ancestor of the Uí Néill and Connachta dynasties. He is not mentioned in the list of kings of Tara in
the Baile Chuind (The Ecstasy of Conn), but is included in the synthetic lists of High Kings in the Lebor Gabála Érenn, the Irish annals, Geoffrey Keating’s history, and the Laud Synchronisms.

According to the Lebor Gabála Érenn[1] and its derivative works, Eochaid was the son of the former High King Muiredach Tírech, a descendant of Conn Céchtachach. Muiredach was overthrown and killed by Cáelbad son of Cronn Bradruí, an Ulster king, but Cáelbad only ruled one year before Eochaid killed him and took the throne. The Lebor Gabála says he extracted the bórama or cow-tribute from Leinster without a battle. However, Keating records that he was defeated in the Battle of Cruachan Claonta by the Leinster king Éinne Cenvalalach.[2]

According to the saga "The Adventures of the Sons of Eochaid Mugmedon",[3] he is said to have had two wives: Mongfind, daughter of Fidach, who bore him four sons, Brion, Aillil, Fiachrae and Fergus; and Cairnenn Chadub, daughter of Sachell Balb, king of the Saxons, who bore him his most famous son, Niall. Mongfind is said to have hated Cairnen, and forced her to expose her child, but the baby was rescued and raised by a poet called Torna. When Niall grew up he returned to Tara and rescued his mother from the servitude Mongfind had placed her under. Mongfind appears to have originally been a supernatural personage: the saga "The Death of Crimthann mac Fidaig" says the festival of Samhain was commonly called the "Festival of Mongfind", and prayers were offered to her on Samhain eve.[4] Although it is probably anachronistic for Eochaid to have had a Saxon wife, T. F. O'Rahilly argues that the name Cairnenn is derived from the Latin name Carina, and that it is plausible that she might have been a Romano-Briton.[5] Indeed, Keating describes her not as a Saxon but as the "daughter of the king of Britain".[6]

After ruling for seven or eight years, Eochaid died of an illness at Tara, and was succeeded by Mongfind's brother Crimthann mac Fidaig, king of Munster. Keating dates his reign to 344–351, the Annals of the Four Masters to 357–365.[7] Daniel P. McCarthy, based on the Irish annals, dates his death to 362.[8]

Child of EOCHAID IRELAND and MONGFIND is:

118. ii. BRION (BIAN) MacECHACH.

117. Poppe de Valois of Normandy (Pepin of Berenger and Baues, Pepin II, Lord of Peronne, Quentin de Vermandois, Bernhard of Italy, Bertha de Toulouse, William, Makir Thuederic of Toulouse, Haini bar Adof, David, Izundad “Dara” Sasanid of Persia, Yazdagird III of Persia, Prince of Sasanian Persia, Shahriyar, Khusrav IV, Hormizd IV, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Khusrav (Chrosroe I) of Persia, Kavadh I (Kobad), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Peroz, Yazdagird II, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Varahan VIII (Bahrin), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Yazdagird V, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Shapur III, Emperor of Persia, Shapur IV, Emperor of Persia, Igra, Hormiz, Princess of Seistan, King of Seistan, Khvansa, Vasaudeva, Vasaudeva, King of Kushana, Vasaudeva, Huvisheka, King of Kushana, Kishnaka, King of Kushana, King of Kushana, Vasaudeva, Huvisheka, King of Kushana, Vamesh, King of the Kshans, Princess of Peshwar, Princess of W. Gandara, Calliope, King of W. Gandara, Hippostratos, Strato, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria, Agathoclea, King of Bactria, Agathocles, Sundart, Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire, Brihadhrata, King of Kaishmir and Gandhara, Kuna, Ashoka, Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa, A mitrochates, King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire, Chandragupta, Maurya, V. of Magadha, Maurya IV, Taxila, Maurya III, Maurya II, Princess of Persia, Chandravarina, Princess of Persia, Atossa, Princess of Egypt, Neithyti, Haire, Wahibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos ‘Necho’ II, Psamtek II, Neferibre, King of Egypt, Bakenanef (Bocchoris) Wah Kā, Re, Tefnakhte, I Sheshes Re, Egypt, Osorkon IV, C of MAAT, Shoshonk V, Aakeperre, Stepenre, Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk V, Takelot II, Osorkon II, Takelot, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshekh, Ninlot, Great Chief of the Ma (Shoshenq) was born 870. She married (1) Rolf Rognvaldsson of Normandy. He was born 846, and died 931. She married (2) Rolf Rognvaldsson of Normandy. He was born 846, and died 931.

Notes for Rolf Rognvaldsson of Normandy:

Rollo (c. 846 – c. 931), baptised Robert and sometimes numbered Robert I to distinguish him from his descendants, was a Norse nobleman of Norwegian or Danish descent and founder and first ruler of the Viking
principality in what soon became known as Normandy. His descendants were the Dukes of Normandy.

The name "Rollo" is a Latin translation due to the clerics from the Old Norse name Hrólfr, modern Scandinavian name Rolf (cf. the latinization of Hrólfr into the similar Roluo in the Gesta Danorum), but Norman people called him Rouf, and later Rou too (see Wace's Roman de Rou).[1] He married Poppa. All that is known of Poppa is that she was a Christian, and the daughter to Berengar of Rennes, the previous lord of Brittania Nova, which eventually became western Normandy.

Rollo was a powerful Viking leader of contested origin. Dudo of St. Quentin, in his De moribus et actis primorum Normannorum ducum (Latin), tells of a powerful Danish nobleman at loggerheads with the king of Denmark, who had two sons, Gurim and Rollo; upon his death, Rollo was expelled and Gurim killed. William of Jumièges also mentions Rollo's prehistory in his Gesta Normannorum Ducum, but states that he was from the Danish town of Fakse. Wace, writing some 300 years after the event in his Roman de Rou, also mentions the two brothers (as Rou and Garin), as does the Orkneyinga Saga.

Norwegian and Icelandic historians identified Rollo instead with Ganger Hrolf (Hrolf, the Walker), a son of Ragnvald Eysteinsson, Earl of More, in Western Norway, based on medieval Norwegian and Icelandic sagas. The oldest source of this version is the Latin Historia Norvegiae, written in Norway at the end of the 12th century. This Hrolf fell foul of the Norwegian king Harald Fairhair, and became a Jarl in Normandy. The nickname "the Walker" came from being so big that no horse could carry him.

The question of Rollo's Danish or Norwegian origins was a matter of heated dispute between Norwegian and Danish historians of the 19th and early 20th century, particularly in the run-up to Normandy's 1000-year-anniversary in 1911. Today, historians still disagree on this question, but most would now agree that a certain conclusion can never be reached.

In 885, Rollo was one of the lesser leaders of the Viking fleet which besieged Paris under Sigfred. Legend has it that an emissary was sent by the king to find the chieftain and negotiate terms. When he asked for this information, the Vikings replied that they were all chieftains in their own right. In 886, when Sigfred retreated in return for tribute, Rollo stayed behind and was eventually bought off and sent to harry Burgundy.

Later, he returned to the Seine with his followers (known as Danes, or Norsemen). He invaded the area of northern France now known as Normandy.

In 911 Rollo's forces launched a failed attack on Paris before laying siege to Chartres. The Bishop of Chartres, Joseaume, appeals for help were answered by the Robert, Marquis of Neustria, Richard, Duke of Burgundy and Manasses, Count of Dijon. On 20 July 911, at the Battle of Chartres, they defeated Rollo despite the absence of many French barons and also the absence of the French King Charles the Simple.[2]

In the Treaty of Saint-Clair-sur-Epte (911) with King Charles, Rollo pledged feudal allegiance to the king, changed his name to the Frankish version, and converted to Christianity, probably with the baptismal name Robert.[3] In return, King Charles granted Rollo land between the Epte and the sea as well as Brittany and the hand of the Kings daughter, Gisela. He was also the titular ruler of Normandy, centred around the city of Rouen. There exists some argument among historians as to whether Rollo was a "duke" (dux) or whether his position was equivalent to that of a "count" under Charlemagne.

According to legend, when required to kiss the foot of King Charles, as a condition of the treaty, he refused to perform so great a humiliation, and when Charles extended his foot to Rollo, Rollo ordered one of his warriors to do so in his place. His warrior then lifted Charles' foot up to his mouth causing the king to fall to the ground.[4]

In 911 Rollo stayed true to his word of defending the shores of the Seine river in accordance to the Treaty of Saint-Clair-sur-Epte, however he also continued to act like a Viking chief with attacks on Flanders.

After Charles was deposed by Robert I, Rollo considered his oath to the King of France to be over. It started a
period of expansion westwards. Negotiations with French barons ended with Rollo being given Le Mans and Bayeux and continued with the seizure of Bessin in 924. The following year saw the Normans attack Picardy.

Rollo began to divide the land between the Epte and Risle rivers among his chieftains and settled there with a de facto capital in Rouen. Eventually Rollo's men intermarried with the local women, and became more settled as Normans. At the time of his death, Rollo's territory extended as far west as the Vire River.

Family
14th century depiction of the marriage of Rollo and Gisela

Rollo married twice:

1. Poppa, the daughter of Berengar II of Neustria and had issue:
   - William Longsword
   - Gerloc
   - Crispina, who married Grimaldus I of Monaco
   - Gerletta
   - Kajla, who married a Scottish King called Bjolan, and had at least a daughter called Midbjorg, she was taken captive by and married Helgi Ottarson.
2. Gisela of France (d.919), the daughter of Charles III of France.

Sometime around 927, Rollo passed the fief in Normandy to his son, William Longsword. Rollo may have lived for a few years after that, but certainly died before 933. According to the historian Adhemar, 'As Rollo's death drew near, he went mad and had a hundred Christian prisoners beheaded in front of him in honour of the gods whom he had worshipped, and in the end distributed a hundred pounds of gold around the churches in honour of the true God in whose name he had accepted baptism.' Even though Rollo had converted to Christianity, some of his prior religious roots surfaced at the end.

Legacy
Rollo is the great-great-great-grandfather of William the Conqueror. Through William, he is an ancestor of the present-day British royal family, as well as an ancestor of all current European monarchs and a great many pretenders to abolished European thrones. A genetic investigation into the remains of Rollo's grandson Richard I and great-grandson Richard II has been announced, with the intention of discerning the origins of the famous Viking warrior.[5]

The "Clameur de Haro" in the Channel Islands is, supposedly, an appeal to Rollo.

Notes for ROLF Rognvaldsson of Normandy:
Rollo (c. 846 – c. 931), baptised Robert and so sometimes numbered Robert I to distinguish him from his descendants, was a Norse nobleman of Norwegian or Danish descent and founder and first ruler of the Viking principality in what soon became known as Normandy. His descendants were the Dukes of Normandy.

The name "Rollo" is a Latin translation due to the clerics from the Old Norse name Hrólf, modern Scandinavian name Rolf (cf. the latinization of Hrólf into the similar Roluo in the Gesta Danorum), but Norman people called him Rouf, and later Rou too (see Wace's Roman de Rou).[1] He married Poppa. All that is known of Poppa is that she was a Christian, and the daughter to Berengar of Rennes, the previous lord of Brittainia Nova, which eventually became western Normandy.

Rollo was a powerful Viking leader of contested origin. Dudo of St. Quentin, in his De moribus et actis primorum Normannorum ducum (Latin), tells of a powerful Danish nobleman at loggerheads with the king of Denmark, who had two sons, Gurim and Rollo; upon his death, Rollo was expelled and Gurim killed. William of Jumièges also mentions Rollo's prehistory in his Gesta Normannorum Ducum, but states that he was from the Danish town of Fakse. Wace, writing some 300 years after the event in his Roman de Rou, also mentions the two brothers (as Rou and Garin), as does the Orkneyinga Saga.
Norwegian and Icelandic historians identified Rollo instead with Ganger Hrolf (Hrolf, the Walker), a son of Rognvald Eysteinsson, Earl of Møre, in Western Norway, based on medieval Norwegian and Icelandic sagas. The oldest source of this version is the Latin Historia Norvegiae, written in Norway at the end of the 12th century. This Hrolf fell foul of the Norwegian king Harald Fairhair, and became a Jarl in Normandy. The nickname "the Walker" came from being so big that no horse could carry him.

The question of Rollo's Danish or Norwegian origins was a matter of heated dispute between Norwegian and Danish historians of the 19th and early 20th century, particularly in the run-up to Normandy's 1000-year-anniversary in 1911. Today, historians still disagree on this question, but most would now agree that a certain conclusion can never be reached.

In 885, Rollo was one of the lesser leaders of the Viking fleet which besieged Paris under Sigfred. Legend has it that an emissary was sent by the king to find the chieftain and negotiate terms. When he asked for this information, the Vikings replied that they were all chieftains in their own right. In 886, when Sigfred retreated in return for tribute, Rollo stayed behind and was eventually bought off and sent to harry Burgundy.

Later, he returned to the Seine with his followers (known as Danes, or Norsemen). He invaded the area of northern France now known as Normandy.

In 911 Rollo's forces launched a failed attack on Paris before laying siege to Chartres. The Bishop of Chartres, Joseaume, appeals for help were answered by the Robert, Marquis of Neustria, Richard, Duke of Burgundy and Manasses, Count of Dijon. On 20 July 911, at the Battle of Chartres, they defeated Rollo despite the absence of many French barons and also the absence of the French King Charles the Simple.[2]

In the Treaty of Saint-Clair-sur-Epte (911) with King Charles, Rollo pledged feudal allegiance to the king, changed his name to the Frankish version, and converted to Christianity, probably with the baptismal name Robert.[3] In return, King Charles granted Rollo land between the Epte and the sea as well as Brittany and the hand of the Kings daughter, Gisela. He was also the titular ruler of Normandy, centred around the city of Rouen. There exists some argument among historians as to whether Rollo was a "duke" (dux) or whether his position was equivalent to that of a "count" under Charlemagne.

According to legend, when required to kiss the foot of King Charles, as a condition of the treaty, he refused to perform so great a humiliation, and when Charles extended his foot to Rollo, Rollo ordered one of his warriors to do so in his place. His warrior then lifted Charles' foot up to his mouth causing the king to fall to the ground.[4]

Statue of Rollo in RouenAfter 911, Rollo stayed true to his word of defending the shores of the Seine river in accordance to the Treaty of Saint-Clair-sur-Epte, however he also continued to act like a Viking chief with attacks on Flanders.

After Charles was deposed by Robert I, Rollo considered his oath to the King of France to be over. It started a period of expansion westwards. Negotiations with French barons ended with Rollo being given Le Mans and Bayeux and continued with the seizure of Bessin in 924. The following year saw the Normans attack Picardy.

Rollo began to divide the land between the Epte and Risle rivers among his chieftains and settled there with a de facto capital in Rouen. Eventually[when?] Rollo's men intermarried with the local women, and became more settled as Normans.[clarification needed] At the time of his death, Rollo's territory extended as far west as the Vire River.

Family
14th century depiction of the marriage of Rollo and GiselaRollo married twice:

1. Poppa, the daughter of Berengar II of Neustria and had issue:
   
   William Longsword
   Gerloc
   Crispina, who married Grimaldus I of Monaco
Gerletta
Kadlin, who married a Scottish King called Bjolan, and had at least a daughter called Midbjorg, she was taken captive by and married Helgi Ottarson.
2. Gisela of France (d.919), the daughter of Charles III of France.

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The "Clameur de Haro" in the Channel Islands is, supposedly, an appeal to Rollo.

Child of POPPA NORMANDY and ROLF NORMANDY is:
119.   i. ADELEID[69].

Child of POPPA NORMANDY and ROLF NORMANDY is:
120.   ii. WILLIAM LONGSWORD OF[69] NORMANDY, b. 891.

*Generation No. 65*


Notes for BRION (BIAN) MACÉCHACH:
The older half-brother of Niall of the Nine Hostages and one of the three brothers whose descendants were known as the Connachtan.[1] Brion is said to have been king of Connacht. According to the traditional Irish chronology, his father died in 362.[2] Brion's descendants, the Uí Briúin, gave rise to many Kings of Connacht and its ruling families over the next thousand years. A descendant of his via the Uí Briúin Ai was Tairrdelbach Ua Conchobair, who became High King of Ireland in 1166.
"The Violent Death of Crimthann mac Fidaig and of the Three Sons of Eochaid Muigmedón" gives the story of the sons of Eochaid Múgmedóin. According to this saga, Brión was the favorite son of his mother Mongfíind, sister of Crimthann mac Fidaig (d. 367), the king of Munster. She wanted Brión to succeed Eochaid but upon his death, war broke out with her stepson Niall Nogiaillach (d. 405). When she realized the war was not going in her favor she arranged for Crimthann to become high king and sent Brión away to learn soldiering. On Brión's return after seven years, Mongfíind poisoned her brother in order to get the throne for Brión.

However, Niall acquired the throne and made Brión his champion and levier of his rents and hostages. Brión took the throne of Connacht leading to war with his brother Fiachrae. Brión defeated Fiachrae at the Battle of Damclluain (near Tuam, County Galway) who was taken captive to Tara. However, Fiachrae's son Nath Í rallied forces and defeated Brión who was slain at a second Battle of Damclluain. Brión was buried at Ross Camm. Fiachrae was released and became the new king of Connacht.[3]

Descendants

According to Tirechan, Patrick visited the "halls of the sons of Brion" at Duma Selchae in Mag nAi, but does not give their names. An equivalent passage in the Vita Tripartita, possibly of 9th-century origin, names six sons. "A series of later sources dating from the eleventh century onward, meanwhile, enumerates Brión's progeny as no less than twenty-four. No doubt the increasing power of the Ui Bruin was responsible for this dramatic swelling of the ranks, as tribes and dynasties newly coming under Ui Briuin sway were furnished with ancestries that would link them genealogically to their overlords. Into this category fall the Ui Bruin Umaill, and likely also the Ui Bruin Ratha and Ui Bruin Sinna." (p485, "Ui Bruin", Anne Connon, in "Medieval Ireland: An Encyclopedia").

Children of Brion MacEcháin and Rossa Lainig are:

ii. Duach Galach, King of Connaught.

In 935, she married William Towhead, the future count of Poitou and duke of Aquitaine. She gave him two children before dying on 14 October 962:

William IV of Aquitaine
Adelaide of Aquitaine, wife of Hugh Capet

Notes for William III, Duke of Aquitaine:
William III (915 – 3 April 963), called Towhead (French: Tête d’étoupe, Latin: Caput Stupe) from the colour of his hair, was the "Count of the Duchy of Aquitaine" from 959 and Duke of Aquitaine from 962 to his death. He was also the Count of Poitou (as William I) from 935 and Count of Auvergne from 950. The primary sources for his reign are Ademar of Chabannes, Dudo of Saint-Quentin, and William of Jumièges.

William was son of Ebalus Manzer and Emilienne. He was born in Poitiers. He claimed the Duchy of Aquitaine from his father's death, but the royal chancery did not recognise his ducal title until the year before his own death.

Shortly after the death of King Rudolph in 936, he was constrained to forfeit some land to Hugh the Great by Louis IV. He did it with grace, but his relationship with Hugh thenceforward deteriorated. In 950, Hugh was reconciled with Louis and granted the duchies of Burgundy and Aquitaine. He tried to conquer Aquitaine with Louis's assistance, but William defeated them. Lothair, Louis's successor, feared the power of William. In August 955 he joined Hugh to besiege Poitiers, which resisted successfully. William, however, gave battle and was routed.

After the death of Hugh, his son Hugh Capet was named duke of Aquitaine, but he never tried to take up his fief, as William reconciled with Lothair.

He was given the abbey of Saint-Hilaire-le-Grand, which remained in his house after his death. He also built a library in the palace of Poitiers.

Family background, marriage and issue
His father was duke Ebles Manzer, who already was a man in his middle years when he was born in about 913. According to the chronicle of Ademar de Chabannes, his mother was daughter of Rollo of Normandy. On the other hand, the less reliable Dodo has William III himself to marry in about 936 a daughter of Rollo. The lady (more likely his mother) was Geirlaug, in gallic usage Gerloc.

William III married a lady named or renamed Adele, perhaps about 936, which might have been a match arranged by William I of Normandy for him.

With his wife Adeleid, they had at least one child whose filiation is clearly attested:

William, his successor in Aquitaine. He abdicated to the abbey of Saint-Cyprien in Poitiers and left the government to his son.
Many genealogies accept the high likelihood that their daughter was:

Adelaide, who married Hugh Capet
But her parentage is not reliably testimonied in documentation of their epoch, instead it is regarded only as a good possibility by usual modern genealogical literature.

See also Dukes of Aquitaine family tree.

Child of Adeleid and William is:
122. i. Adelaide of Aquitaine.

120. William Longsword of Normandy (Poppe de Valois of Pepin of Berenger and Baueux, Pepin II, Lord of Peronne Quentin of Vermandois, Bernhard of Italy, Bertha of Toulouse, William, Makir Theuderic of Toulouse, Hanini Bar Adol David, Izdundad “Dara” Sasanid of Persia, Yazdagird III
His son Richard the Fearless, child of his first wife, Sprota, succeeded him. He was ambushed and killed by followers of Arnulf on 17 December 942 at Picquigny while at a meeting to settle their differences.

After putting down the rebellion, William attacked Brittany and ravaged the territory. Resistance to the Normans was led by Alan Wrybeard and Beranger but shortly ended with the Wrybeard fleeing to England and Beranger seeking reconciliation. However, it was not through invasion that he gained Breton territory but by politics, receiving Contentin and Avranchin as a gift from the Rudolph, King of France.

In 935, William married Luitgarde, daughter of Herbert II of Vermandois whose dowry gave him the lands of Longueville, Coudres and Illiers l’Eveque. His expansion northwards, including the fortress of Montreuil brought him into conflict with Arnulf I of Flanders.

The funerary monument of William Longsword in the cathedral of Rouen, France. The monument is from the XIVth century. In 939 William became involved in a war with Arnulf I of Flanders, which soon became intertwined with the other conflicts troubling the reign of Louis IV. It began with Herluin appealing to William for help to regain the castle of Montreuil from Arnulf. Losing the castle was a major setback in Arnulf’s ambitions and William’s part in it gained him a deadly enemy. He was ambushed and killed by followers of Arnulf on 17 December 942 at Picquigny on the Somme while at a meeting to settle their differences.

His son Richard the Fearless, child of his first wife, Sprota, succeeded him.
Child of WILLIAM NORMANDY and SPOTA is:
123. i. RICHARD I, DUKE OF NORMANDY, b. 933; d. 996.

**Generation No. 66**


Notes for FELDELM FOLTCIAN:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

• ID: 144070
• Name: Feldelm Folchain
• Nickname: The Fair 1
• AKAN: Fedelmia 1
• Sex: F
• Change Date: 5 MAR 2009
• Birth: abt 475 1 2
• Event: Title Queen of Dalriada 1

Father: Brion (Brian) MacEchach of Ireland
Mother: Rossa of Laigin

Marriage 1 Domangart Reti of Dalriada I. b: abt 0465
Children
1. Gabran (Gabhran) MacDomangart of Argyll b: 500

/Tuathal Techtmar I. b: 56 d: 106 =>

/Felim Rachtmar "the Lawgiver" MacTuathal

d: 119

| Baine ingen Scal |

/Conn Ceadchathach MacFeideilmid d: 157
/Airt ‘the Solitary’ Aoinfhear MacConn d: 195
/Cormac Ulfhada (Uilhota; ‘Longbeard’) MacAirt d: 0266
Notes for Domangart Réti of Dalriada I:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Domangart Réti was king of Dál Riata in the early 6th century, following the death of his father, Fergus Mór.

He had at least two sons: Comgall and Gabrán, both of whom became kings in succession. The Tripartite Life of St. Patrick states that he was present at the death of the saint, circa 493. Domangart died around 507 and was succeeded by Comgall.

His byname, Réti, appears in Adomnán's Life of Saint Columba, in the form Corcu Réti, perhaps a synonym for Dál by Comgall.

His primitive Irish language term for a kin group, usually combined with the name of a divine or mythical ancestor, is apparently similar to the term Dál. Alternatively, rather that representing an alternative name for all of Dál Riata, it has been suggested Corcu Réti was the name given to the kin group which later divided to form the Cenél nGabrán of Kintyre and the Cenél Comgaill of Cowal, thus excluding the Cenél nOengusa of Islay and the Cenél Loairn of middle and northern Argyll.

Child of Feldelm Foltchain and Domangart Dalriada is:

122. 1. Gabran (Gabhran) MacDomangart of Argyll, b. 500.
In 956, Hugh inherited his father's estates and became one of the most powerful nobles in the much-reduced West Frankish kingdom. However, as he was not yet an adult, his uncle Bruno, Archbishop of Cologne, acted as regent. Young Hugh's neighbours made the most of the opportunity. Theobald I of Blois, a former vassal of Hugh the Great, took the counties of Chartres and Châteaudun. Further south, on the border of the kingdom, Fulk II of Anjou, another former client of Hugh the Great, carved out a principality at Hugh's expense and that of the Bretons.[4]

In 956, Hugh Capet when he was Duke of France, calling him "d backbone the grace of God" (Dux Dei Gratia). Minted at Paris (Parisi Civita)The realm in which Hugh grew up, and of which he would one day be king, bore no resemblance to modern France. Hugh's predecessors did not call themselves rois de France ("Kings of France"), and that title was not used until the time of his distant descendant Philip II Augustus. Kings ruled as rex Francorum ("King of the Franks") and the lands over which they ruled comprised only a very small part of the former Carolingian Empire. The eastern Frankish lands, the Holy Roman Empire, were ruled by the Ottonian dynasty, represented by Hugh's first cousin Otto II and then by Otto's son, Otto III. The lands south of the river Loire had largely ceased to be part of the West Frankish kingdom in the years after Charles the Simple was deposed in 922. The Duchy of Normandy and the Duchy of Burgundy were largely independent, and Brittany entirely so, although from 956 Burgundy was ruled by Hugh's brothers Odo and Henry.[6]
From 977 to 986, Hugh Capet allied himself with the German emperors Otto II and Otto III and with Archbishop Adalberon of Reims to dominate the Carolingian king, Lothair. By 986, he was king in all but name. After Lothair's son Louis died in May of 987, Adalberon and Gerbert of Aurillac convened an assembly of nobles to elect Hugh Capet as their king. In front of an electoral assembly at Senlis, Adalberon gave a stirring oration and pleaded to the nobles:

Crown the Duke. He is most illustrious by his exploits, his nobility, his forces. The throne is not acquired by hereditary right; no one should be raised to it unless distinguished not only for nobility of birth, but for the goodness of his soul.[7]

He was elected and crowned rex Francorum at Noyon in Picardy on 3 July 987, by the prelate of Reims, the first of the Capetian house. Immediately after his coronation, Hugh began to push for the coronation of his son Robert. Hugh's own claimed reason was that he was planning an expedition against the Moorish armies harassing Borrel II of Barcelona, an invasion which never occurred, and that the stability of the country necessitated two kings should he die while on expedition.[8] Ralph Glaber, however, attributes Hugh's request to his old age and inability to control the nobility.[9] Modern scholarship has largely imputed to Hugh the motive of establishing a dynasty against the pretension of electoral power on the part of the aristocracy, but this is not the typical view of contemporaries and even some modern scholars have been less sceptical of Hugh's "plan" to campaign in Spain.[10] Robert was eventually crowned on 25 December that same year.

Hugh Capet possessed minor properties near Chartres and Angers. Between Paris and Orléans he possessed towns and estates amounting to approximately 400 square miles (1,000 km²). His authority ended there, and if he dared travel outside his small area, he risked being captured and held for ransom, though, as God's anointed, his life was largely safe. Indeed, there was a plot in 993, masterminded by Adalberon, Bishop of Laon and Odo I of Blois, to deliver Hugh Capet into the custody of Otto III. The plot failed, but the fact that no one was punished illustrates how tenuous his hold on power was. Beyond his power base, in the rest of France, there were still as many codes of law as there were fiefdoms. The "country" operated with 150 different forms of currency and at least a dozen languages.[citation needed] Uniting all this into one cohesive unit was a formidable task and a constant struggle between those who wore the crown of France and its feudal lords. As such, Hugh Capet's reign was marked by numerous power struggles with the vassals on the borders of the Seine and the Loire.

While Hugh Capet's military power was limited and he had to seek military aid from Richard I of Normandy, his unanimous election as king gave him great moral authority and influence. Adémar de Chabannes records, probably apocryphally, that during an argument with the Count of Auvergne, Hugh demanded of him: "Who made you count?" The count riposted: "Who made you king?". [11]

Hugh made Arnulf Archbishop of Reims in 988, even though Arnulf was the nephew of his bitter rival, Charles of Lorraine. Charles thereupon succeeded in capturing Reims and took the archbishop prisoner. Hugh, however, considered Arnulf a turncoat and demanded his deposition by Pope John XV. The turn of events outran the messages, when Hugh captured both Charles and Arnulf and convoked a synod at Reims in June 991, which obediently deposed Arnulf and chose as his successor Gerbert of Aurillac. These proceedings were repudiated by Rome, although a second synod had ratified the decrees issued at Reims. John XV summoned the French bishops to hold an independent synod outside the King's realm, at Aachen, to reconsider the case. When they refused, he called them to Rome, but they protested that the unsettled conditions en route and in Rome made that impossible. The Pope then sent a legate with instructions to call a council of French and German bishops at Mousson, where only the German bishops appeared, the French being stopped on the way by Hugh and Robert.

Through the exertions of the legate, the deposition of Arnulf was finally pronounced illegal. After Hugh's death, Arnulf was released from his imprisonment and soon restored to all his dignities.

Hugh Capet died on 24 October 996 in Paris and was interred in the Saint Denis Basilica. His son Robert continued to reign.

Most historians regard the beginnings of modern France with the coronation of Hugh Capet. This is because, as Count of Paris, he made the city his power centre. The monarch began a long process of exerting control of the rest of the country from there.
He is regarded as the founder of the Capetian dynasty. The direct Capetians, or the House of Capet, ruled France from 987 to 1328; thereafter, the Kingdom was ruled by cadet branches of the dynasty. All French kings through Louis Philippe, and all royal pretenders since then, have belonged to the dynasty.

Marriage and issue
Hugh Capet married Adelaide, daughter of William Towhead, Count of Poitou. Their children are as follows:

- Robert II, who became king after the death of his father
- Hedwig, or Hathui, who married Reginar IV, Count of Hainaut
- Gisela, or Gisele

A number of other daughters are less reliably attested.[12]

Notes
1. Capet is a byname of uncertain meaning distinguishing him from his father Hugh the Great. Folk etymology connects it with "cape", other suggested etymologies derive it from terms for chief, mocker or big head. His father's byname is presumed to have been retrospective, meaning Hugh the Elder, this Hugh being Hugh the Younger, Capet being a 12th century addition; James, p. 183.

References

Child of Adelaide AQUITAIN and Hugh capet is:
125. i. Gisèle71 CAPET.
Richard was the first to actually have held that title. He was called Richard the Fearless (French, Sans Peur), the duke of Normandy from 942 to 996; he is considered the first to actually have held that title. He was called Richard the Fearless (French, Sans Peur).

He was born to William I of Normandy, ruler of Normandy, and Sprota. He was still a boy of around 10 years of age when his father died on 17 December 942. His mother was a Breton concubine captured in war and bound to William by a Danish marriage. After William died, Sprota became the wife of Esperleng, a wealthy miller; Rodulf of Ivry was their son and Richard’s half-brother.

Life
Richard was still a boy when his father died, and so he was powerless to stop Louis IV of France when he seized Normandy and split the lands, giving lands in lower Normandy to Hugh the Great. Louis kept him in confinement in his youth at Léon, but he escaped with the assistance of Osmond de Centville, Bernard de Senlis (who had been a companion of Rollo of Normandy), Ivo de Bellèsme, and Bernard the Dane (ancestor of families of Harcourt and Beaumont).

In 946, Richard agreed to “commend” himself to Hugh, Count of Paris. He then allied himself with the Norman and Viking leaders, drove Louis out of Rouen, and took back Normandy by 947. The rest of his reign was mainly peaceful, apart from conflict with Theobald I, Count of Blois marked by the restoration of Church lands and monasteries.

Richard cemented his alliance with Hugh, marrying his daughter Emma. When Hugh died, Richard became vassal to his son Hugh Capet who became king in 987. Although married to Emma, they produced no offspring, his children being the product of a relationship with Gonnor, a woman of Danish origin who gave him an heir, Richard. [1]

He later quarrelled with Ethelred II of England regarding Danish invasions of England because Normandy had been buying up much of the stolen booty.

Richard was bilingual, having been well educated at Bayeux. He was more partial to his Danish subjects than to the Franks. During his reign, Normandy became completely Gallicized and Christianized. He introduced the feudal system and Normandy became one of the most thoroughly feudalized states on the continent. He carried out a major reorganization of the Norman military system, based on heavy cavalry.

Marriages
His first marriage (960) was to Emma, daughter of Hugh “The Great” of France, and Hedwiga de Sachsen. (She is not to be confused with Emma of France.) They were betrothed when both were very young. She died 19 Mar 968, with no issue.
Richard & his children
According to Robert of Torigni, not long after Emma's death, Duke Richard went out hunting and stopped at the house of a local forester. He became enamoured of the forester's wife, Seinfreda, but she being a virtuous woman, suggested he court her unmarried sister, Gunnor, instead. Gunnor became his mistress, and her family rose to prominence. Her brother, Herefast de Crepon, may have been involved in a controversial heresy trial. Gunnor was, like Richard, of Norse descent, being a Dane by blood. Richard finally married her to legitimize their children:

Richard II "the Good", Duke of Normandy (996), died 1026.
Robert, Archbishop of Rouen, Count of Evreux, died 1037.
Mauger, Earl of Corbeil, died after 1033
Robert Danus, died between 985 and 989
another son (On tapestry name looks like Lillam, Gillam, Willam)
Emma of Normandy (c.985-1052) wife of two kings of England.
Maud of Normandy, wife of Odo II of Blois, Count of Blois, Champagne and Chartres
Hawise of Normandy (b. ca. 978), d. 21 February 1034. m. Geoffrey I, Duke of Brittany

[edit] Mistresses
Richard was known to have had several other mistresses and produced children with many of them. Known children are:

Geoffrey, Count of Eu, (b. ca. 970)
William, Count of Eu (ca. 972-26 January 1057/58)[2] m. Leseline de Turqueville (d. 26 January 1057/58).
Beatrice of Normandy, Abbess of Montvilliers d.1034 m. Ebles of Turenne (d.1030 (divorced)
Robert "Papia" m. Gilbert de St Valery (based on a claim his wife as a daughter of "Richard of Normandy" -- the only Richard who chronologically fits is Richard I. Name is not confirmed in any source. ref)
[edit] Possible other children
Late chroniclers claimed that two of the De Hautevilles of Naples/Sicily were nephews of "Duke Richard". As the two were children of Tancred of Hauteville by different mothers, this would mean that both of Tancred's wives had been sisters of a Duke Richard, and by chronology, of Richard II, although this is not backed up by contemporary source. If true, Richard would have had at least two more illegitimate children:

Fressenda (ca. 995-ca. 1057)
Muriella

Death
He died in Fecamp, France on 20 November 996 of natural causes.

Notes for DUCHESS OF NORMANDY GUNNORA:
Gunnora (or Gunnor) (c. 936 – 1031) was the wife and consort of Richard I of Normandy. Her parentage is unknown, earliest sources reporting solely that she was of Danish ancestry and naming siblings including brother Herfast de Crepon who is sometimes erroneously given as her father.

She was living with her sister Seinfreda, the wife of a local forester, when Richard, hunting nearby, heard of the beauty of the forester's wife. He is said to have ordered Seinfreda to come to his bed, but the lady substituted her unmarried sister, Gunnora. Richard, it is said, was pleased that by this subterfuge he had been saved from committing adultery, and the two became lovers. Gunnora long acted as Richard's mistress or wife by more danico, but when Richard was prevented from nominating their son Robert to be Archbishop of Rouen, the two were married, making their children legitimate in the eyes of the church.

Gunnora, both as mistress and duchess, was able to use her influence to see her kin favored, and several of the most prominent Conquest-era Norman magnates, including the Montgomery, Warenne, Mortimer, Vernon/Redvers, and Fitz Osbern families, were descendants of her brother and sisters.

Richard and Gunnora were parents to several children:
Richard II "the Good", Duke of Normandy (966)
Robert, Archbishop of Rouen, Count of Évreux, died 1037.
Mauger, Earl of Corbeil, died after 1033.
Robert Danus, died between 985 and 989
Emma of Normandy (c. 985-1052) wife of two kings of England.
Maud of Normandy, wife of Odo II of Blois, Count of Blois, Champagne and Chartres
Hawise of Normandy, wife of Geoffrey I of Brittany

Child of Richard and Duchess Gunnora is:
126.  i.  Richard II, Duke of Normandy, b. 963.

Child of Richard I, Duke of Normandy is:

Generation No. 67


Notes for Gabran (Gabhran) MacDomangart of Argyll:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

• ID: 144067
• Name: Gabran (Gabhran) MacDomangart of Argyll
• Nickname: The Treacherous 1
• Sex: M
• Change Date: 5 MAR 2009
• Birth: 500 2
• Event: Title FROM 538 TO 558 4th King of Dalriada & Scots 2 1
• Death: BET 558 AND 560 2 1

Father: Domangart Reti of Dalriada I. b: abt 0465
Gabrán mac Domangairt was king of Dál Riata in the middle of the 6th century. He is the eponymous ancestor of the Cenél nGabráin.

The historical evidence for Gabrán is limited to the notice of his death in the Irish annals. It is possible that his death should be linked to a migration or flight from Bridei mac Maelchon, but this may be no more than coincidence.[1]

Gabrán’s chief importance is as the presumed ancestor of the Cenél nGabráin,[2] a kingroup which dominated the kingship of Dál Riata until the late 7th century and continued to provide kings thereafter. Kings of Alba and of Scotland traced their descent through Gabrán to his grandfather Fergus Mór, who was seen as the ultimate founder of the royal house as late as the 16th and 17th centuries, long after the Gaelic origins of the kingdom had ceased to have any real meaning.

Unlike the Cenél Loairn, the Senchus Fer n-Alban does not list any kindreds within the Cenél nGabráin. However, probable descendants of Gabrán, such as Dúngad mac Conaing and his many kinsmen, would appear to have disputed the succession with the descendants of Eochaid Buide grandson of Gabrán, so that this absence of explicit segments in the kindred may be misleading.[3] A genealogy of David I of Scotland in the Book of Ballymote notes the following divisions:

After Áedán mac Gabráin, between the main line, called "the sons of Eochaid Buide" and "the children of Cináed mac Ailpín", and the "sons of Conaing"

After Eochaid Buide, between the main line and the "children of Fergus Goll" and the "children of Connad Cerr ... or the men of Fife", although modern studies make Connad Cerr a member of the Cenél Comgaill

After Eochaid mac Domangairt, between the main line and the Cenél Comgaill

The domain of the Cenél nGabráin appears to have been centred in Kintyre and Knapdale and may have included Arran, Jura and Gigha. The title king of Kintyre is used of a number of presumed kings of the Cenél nGabráin. Two probable royal sites are known, Dunadd, which lies at the northern edge of their presumed lands, and Aberte (or Dún Aberte), which is very likely the later Dunaverty on the headland beside Southend, Kintyre.

Kilmartin may have been an important early Christian site by reason of its proximity to Dunadd and its dedication to Saint Martin of Tours, as may Kilmichael Glassary. However, there appears to be no religious site of the importance of Lismore in the lands of the rival Cenél Loairn.

Child of GABRAN ARGYLL and FEDEL IN FEIDELMID is:
128. 1. AIDAN MACGABRAN of22 ARGYLL, b. 533.

125. GISELE77 CAPET (ADELAIDE OF70 AQUITaine, ADELeD69, POPPA DE VALois OF68 NORMANDY, PEPIN OF BERENGER AND67 BAUEUX, PEPIN66 II, LORD OF PERONNE, QUENTIN OF VERMANDOIS, BERNHARD OF55 ITALY, BERTHA64 de TOULOUSE, WILLIAM63, MAKIR THEUDERIC OF62 TOULOUSE, HANINI BAR ADO61 DAVID, IZDUNDAD “DARA” SASANID OF60 PERSIA, YAZDAGIRD III of59, PRINCE OF SASANIAN PERSIA38 SHAHRIRAH, KHUSRAW51 II, HORMIZD56 IV, EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA, KHUSRAW (CHROSROE I) OF55 KINGS, KAVADH I54 (KOBAD), EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA, EMPEROR OR SASANIAN PERSIA53 PEREZ, YAZDAGIRD52 II, EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA, VARAHAN V51 (BAHRAM), EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA, YAZDAGIRD50 I, EMPEROR OF SASANIAN PERSIA, SHAPUR59 III, EMPEROR OF PERSIA, SHAPUR48 II, EMPEROR OF PERSIA, IFRIBA47 HORMIZD, PRINCESS OF SEISTAN, KING OF SEISTAN46 VASUDEVA, VASUDEVA45 III, KING OF KUSHANA, VASUDEVA44 II, KING OF KUSHANA, KANISHKA43 III, KING OF KUSHANA, KING OF KUSHANA42 VASUDEVA, HUVISHKA41 I, KING OF KUSHANA, KANISHKA40 I, KING OF KUSHANA, VEMA48 KADIPHISES II, KING OF THE KUSHANS, PRINCESS OF39 PESHWAR, PRINCESS OF W. GANDARA37 CALLIOPE, KING OF W. GANDARA36 HIPPOSTRATOS,
Strato\textsuperscript{35} I, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria\textsuperscript{34} Agathoclea, King of Bactria\textsuperscript{33} Agathocles, Sundari\textsuperscript{32} Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire\textsuperscript{31} Brihadratha, King of Kashmir and Gandhara\textsuperscript{30} Kunala, Ashoka\textsuperscript{29} Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa\textsuperscript{28} (Amithocharite), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire\textsuperscript{27} Chandragupta, Maurya\textsuperscript{26} V. of Magadha, Maurya IV of\textsuperscript{25} Taxila, Maurya III of\textsuperscript{24} Maurya II of\textsuperscript{23} Princess of Persia\textsuperscript{22} Chandravarna, Princess of Persia\textsuperscript{21} Atossa, Princess of Egypt\textsuperscript{20} Neithyti, Hibre\textsuperscript{19} Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II\textsuperscript{18} Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoho Nectanebos "Necho" II, Psamtek I, Neko\textsuperscript{17} I, Shepesre\textsuperscript{16} I, Tefnakht II, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka\textsuperscript{15} Re, Tefnakhte I, Shepeses Re of\textsuperscript{12} Egypt, Osorkon IV C of\textsuperscript{11} Maat, Shoshonk I\textsuperscript{10} Aakheperre, Stepene\textsuperscript{9} Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk II, Takelot II, Osorkon III, Takelot I, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Grea Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot\textsuperscript{7}, the Great Chief of the Ma\textsuperscript{1} Shoshenq\textsuperscript{6}

She married Hugh I, Count of Ponthieu, son of Hildouin de Ponthieu and Hersende de Ramuret.

Notes for Hugh I, Count of Ponthieu:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Hugh I of Ponthieu (ca. 970 – ca. 1000), son of Hildouin III de Ponthieu and Hersende la Pueuse de Ramuret, countesse of Arcis. He was also known as Hugo Miles.

He was chosen by Hugh Capet, duke of France (not yet king), to be "advocate of the abbey of Saint-Riquier and castellan of Abbeville". He also received Hugh Capet's daughter, Gisela, in marriage.

Hugh's origins are unknown, and the date which he received his fief is only "ascertainable within broad limits" as c.980. He is not known to have ever styled himself Count of Ponthieu.

Family
He married ca. 994 Gisèle Capet, daughter of Hugh Capet and Adelaide of Aquitaine. Enguerrand I of Ponthieu was first to take the comital title after killing Arnold II of Boulogne in battle, sometime between 1024 and 1027, and marrying his widow. Thus, the counts of Ponthieu, who figure prominently in early Norman history, were even newer to their status as landed lords than the Normans. Guy of Ponthieu was also his son.

Child of Gisèle Capet and Hugh is:
129. i. Enguerrand\textsuperscript{21} I, Count of Ponthieu, d. 1045.

126. Richard of\textsuperscript{71} Normandy (Richard\textsuperscript{70} I, Duke of Normandy, William Longsword of\textsuperscript{69} Normandy, Poppa de Valois of\textsuperscript{68} Pepin of Berenger and\textsuperscript{67} Baueaux, Pepin\textsuperscript{66} II, Lord of Peronne Quentin of Vermandois, Bernhard of\textsuperscript{65} Italy, Bertha\textsuperscript{64} de Toulouse, William\textsuperscript{63} I, Makir theuderic of\textsuperscript{62} Toulouse, Hanini bar Ado\textsuperscript{61} David, Izdudand "Dara" Sasan of\textsuperscript{60} Persia, Yazdagird III of\textsuperscript{59} Prince of Sasanian Persia\textsuperscript{58} Shahrivar, Khusraw\textsuperscript{57} II, Hormizio\textsuperscript{56} IV, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Khushraw (Chosroes I) of\textsuperscript{55} Kings, Kavad I\textsuperscript{54} (Kobad), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Emperor of Sasanian Persia\textsuperscript{53} Peroz, Yazdagird II, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Varahah I\textsuperscript{51} (Bahram), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Yazdagird\textsuperscript{50} I, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Shapur\textsuperscript{49} III, Emperor of Persia, Shapur\textsuperscript{48} II, Emperor of Persia Ibra\textsuperscript{47} Hormiz, Prince of Seistan, King of Seistan\textsuperscript{46} Vasaudeva, Vasaudeva\textsuperscript{45} III, King of Kushana, Vasaudeva\textsuperscript{44} II, King of Kushana, Kanishka\textsuperscript{43} III, King of Kushana, King of Kushana\textsuperscript{42} Vasaudeva, Huvishtka\textsuperscript{41} I, King of Kushana, Kanishka\textsuperscript{40} I, King of Kushans, Vema\textsuperscript{39} Kadiphises\textsuperscript{38} I, King of the Kushans, Princess of\textsuperscript{37} Peshwar, Princess of W. Gandara\textsuperscript{36} Calliope, King of W. Gandara\textsuperscript{35} Hippostratos, Strato\textsuperscript{34} I, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria\textsuperscript{33} Agathoclea, King of Bactria\textsuperscript{32} Agathocles, Sundari\textsuperscript{31} Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire\textsuperscript{30} Brihadratha, King of Kashmir and Gandhara\textsuperscript{29} Kunala, Ashoka\textsuperscript{28} Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa\textsuperscript{27} (Amithocharite), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire\textsuperscript{26} Chandragupta, Maurya\textsuperscript{25} V. of Magadha, Maurya IV of\textsuperscript{24} Taxila, Maurya III of\textsuperscript{23} Maurya II of\textsuperscript{22} Princess of Persia\textsuperscript{21} Atossa, Princess of Egypt\textsuperscript{20} Neithyti, Hibre\textsuperscript{19} Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II\textsuperscript{18} Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoho Nectanebos "Necho" II, Psamtek I, Neko\textsuperscript{17} I, Shepesre\textsuperscript{16} I, Tefnakht II, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka\textsuperscript{15} Re, Tefnakhte I, Shepeses Re of\textsuperscript{12} Egypt, Osorkon IV C of\textsuperscript{11} Maat, Shoshonk I\textsuperscript{10} Aakheperre, Stepene\textsuperscript{9} Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk II, Takelot II, Osorkon\textsuperscript{8} II, Takelot I, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot\textsuperscript{7}, the
Great Chief of the Ma'at Shoshenq) was born 963. He married Judith of Brittany, daughter of Conan
Brittany and Ermengarde d'Anjou. She was born 982, and died 1017.

Notes for Richard of Normandy:
Richard II (born 23 August 970, in Normandy, France – 28 August 1026, in Normandy), called the Good (French: Le Bon), was the eldest son and heir of Richard I the Fearless and Gunnora.[1]

Richard succeeded his father as Duke of Normandy in 996 but the first five years of his reign were spent with Count Ralph of Ivry wielding power and putting down a peasant insurrection.[2]

When he took power he strengthened his alliance with the Capetians by helping Robert II of France against the duchy of Burgundy. He formed a new alliance with Brittany by marrying his sister Hawise to Geoffrey I, Duke of Brittany and by his own marriage to Geoffrey's sister, Judith.

He also repelled an English attack on the Cotentin Peninsula that was led by Ethelred II of England. He pursued a reform of the Norman monasteries.

Connections to England
In 1013 AD, England was invaded by the Danes and Æthelred the Unready fled to his brother-in-law in Normandy. His marriage to Emma of Normandy, sister of Richard, had made them unpopular among the English.

Connections to Norway
In 1015 AD, Olaf II of Norway was crowned king. Prior to this, Prince Olaf had been in England and on his way to unite Norway he wintered with Duke Richard II of Normandy. In 881 AD, this region had been conquered by the Norsemen. As Duke Richard was an ardent Christian, and the Normans had converted to Christianity, Prince Olaf was baptized in Rouen.

Richard II (right), with the Abbot of Mont Saint Michel (middle) and Lothair of France (left).[edit]

Marriages
Richard attempted to improve relations with England through his sister Emma of Normandy's marriage to King Æthelred, but she was strongly disliked by the English. However, this connection later gave his grandson, William the Conqueror, part of his claim to the throne of England.

He married firstly (996) Judith (982-1017), daughter of Conan I of Brittany, by whom he had the following issue:

Richard (c. 1002/4), duke of Normandy
Alice (c. 1003/5), married Renaud I, Count of Burgundy
Robert (c. 1005/7), duke of Normandy
William (c. 1007/9), monk at Fécamp, d. 1025
Eleanor (c. 1011/3), married to Baldwin IV, Count of Flanders
Matilda (c. 1013/5), nun at Fecamp, d. 1033

Secondly, he married Poppa of Envermeu, by whom he had the following issue:

Mauger (c. 1019), Archbishop of Rouen
William (c. 1020/5), count of Arques

[edit] Other marriages / children
Traditionally, Richard had a third wife named Astrid (Estritha), daughter of Sweyn Forkbeard, King of England, Denmark, and Norway, and Sigrid the Haughty. This is extremely unlikely, however, given the political situation.

An illegitimate daughter of Richard I, sometimes called "Papia", is also at times given as a daughter of Richard II. Tancred of Hauteville's two wives Muriella and Fredensenda are likewise given as daughters of "Duke Richard of Normandy", referring to either Richard I or Richard II.

References:
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Judith of Brittany (982–1017) was the daughter of Conan I, Duke of Brittany and Ermengarde of Anjou, and the mother of Robert the Magnificent.

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Eleanor (c. 1011/3), married to Baldwin IV, Count of Flanders
Matilda (c. 1013/5), nun at Fécamp, d. 1033

The duchess Judith died in 1017 and was buried in the abbey of Bernay, which she had founded.

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Normandy portal

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Richard (c. 1002/4), duke of Normandy
Father: Gabran (Gabhram) MacDomangart of Argyll b: 500

Notes for Aidan MacGabran of Argyll:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

• ID: 144066
• Name: Aidan MacGabran of Argyll
• Nickname: The Trecherous 1
• Sex: M
• Change Date: 10 OCT 2009
• Birth: CA 533 2 1
• Event: Title Duke of Britons 1
• Event: Title 574 6th King of Dalriada 2 1 3
• Note: Crowned 574 in Scotland.
• Death: 17 APR 0609 in Kilkerran 2 3 1
• Burial: Kilkerran 2
• Note: Poss. retired early to monastery leaving his sons (esp. Artur of Camelot) as military commanders. 1

Father: Gabran (Gabhram) MacDomangart of Argyll b: 500
Áedán mac Gabráin (pronounced ['aːdən mak 'ɡavraːn?] in Old Irish) was a king of Dál Riata from circa 574 until his death, perhaps on 17 April 609. The kingdom of Dál Riata was situated in modern Argyll and Bute, Scotland, and parts of County Antrim, Ireland. Genealogies record that Áedán was a son of Gabrán mac Domangairt.

He was a contemporary of Saint Columba, and much that is recorded of his life and career comes from hagiography such as Adomnán of Iona's Life of Saint Columba. Áedán appears as a character in Old Irish and Middle Irish language works of prose and verse, some now lost.

The Irish annals record Áedán's campaigns against his neighbours, in Ireland, and in northern Britain, including expeditions to the Orkney Islands, the Isle of Man, and the east coast of Scotland. As recorded by Bede, Áedán was decisively defeated by Æthelfrith of Bernicia at the Battle of Degsastan. Áedán may have been deposed, or have abdicated, following this defeat.

The sources for Áedán's life include Bede's Historia ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum; Irish annals, principally the Annals of Ulster and the Annals of Tigernach; and Adomnán's Life of Saint Columba. The Senchus fer n-Alban, a census and genealogy of Dál Riata, purports to record his ancestry and that of his immediate descendants. None of these sources are contemporary. Adomnán's work was written in the very late 7th century, probably to mark the centenary of Columba's death. It incorporates elements from a now lost earlier life of Columba, De virtutibus sancti Columbae, by Cumméne Find. This was written perhaps as early as 640. However, neither the elements incorporated from Cumméne's work nor Adomnán's own writings can be treated as simple history. Bede's history was written some 30 years after Adomnán's. The surviving Irish annals contain elements of a chronicle kept at Iona from the middle of the 7th century onwards, so that these too are retrospective when dealing with Áedán's time.[1]

The Rawlinson B 502 manuscript, dated to c. 1130, contains the tale Gein Branduib maic Echach ocus Aedáin maic Gabráin (The Birth of Brandub son of Eochu and of Áedán son of Gabrán). In this story, Áedán is the twin brother of Brandub mac Echach, a King of Leinster who belonged to the Úi Cheinnselaig kindred. Áedán is exchanged at birth for one of the twin daughters of Gabrán, born the same night, so that each family might have a son. The Prophecy of Berchán also associates Áedán with Leinster. John Bannerman concluded that "[t]here seems to be no basis of fact behind these traditions."[2] Francis John Byrne suggested that the Echtra was written by a poet at the court of Diarmait mac Maíl na mBó, an 11th-century descendant of Brandub, and was written to cement an alliance between Diarmait and the Scots king Máel Coluim mac Donnchada ("Malcolm III"), who claimed to be a descendant of Áedán.[3] A lost Irish tale, Echtra Áedáin mac Gabráin (The Adventures of Áedán son of Gabrán), appears in a list of works, but its contents are unknown.[4] Áedán is a character in the epic Scél Cano meic Gartnáin, but the events which inspired the tale appear to have taken place in the middle of the 7th century.[5] He also appears in the tale Compert Mongáin.[6] Áedán additionally appears in a variety of Welsh sources, making him one of the few non-Britons to figure into Welsh tradition.[7]

[edit] Neighbours Áedán was the chief king in Dál Riata, ruling over lesser tribal kings. The Senchus fer n-Alban records the sub-divisions of Dál Riata in the 7th and 8th centuries, but no record from Áedán's time survives. According to the Senchus, Dál Riata was divided into three sub-kingsdoms in the 7th century, each ruled by a kin group named for their eponymous founder. These were the Cenél nGabráin, named for Áedán's father, who ruled
over Kintyre, Cowal and Bute; the Cenél Loairn of northern Argyll; and the Cenél nÓengusa of Islay. Within these there were smaller divisions or tribes which are named by the Senchus.[8] Details of the Irish part of the kingdom are less clear.

Looking outward, Dál Riata's neighbours in north Britain were the Picts and the Britons of the Hen Ogledd, the Brythonic-speaking parts of what is now Northern England and southern Lowland Scotland. The most powerful British kingdom in the area was Alt Clut, later known as Strathclyde and Cumbria. Late in Áedán's life, the kingdom of Bernicia would become the greatest power in north Britain.[9]

In Ireland, Dál Riata formed part of Ulster, ruled by Báetán mac Cairill of the Dál nÁraidi. The other major grouping in Ulster were the disunited tribes of the Cruithne (or Picts), later known as the Dál nAraidi. The most important Cruithne king in Áedán's time was Fiachnae mac Báetáin. Beyond the kingdom of Ulster, and generally hostile to it, were the various kingdoms and tribes of the Uí Néill and their subjects and allies. Of the Uí Néill kings, Áed mac Ainmuirech of the Cenél Conaill, Columba's first cousin once removed, was the most important during Áedán's reign.[10]

[edit] Reign

Footprint used in king-making ceremonies, Dunadd.

Adomnán, the Senchus fer n-Alban and the Irish annals record Áedán as a son of Gabrán mac Domangairt (died c. 555–560). A Welsh poem states that Áedán's mother was a daughter of King Dumnagual Hen of Alt Clut.[11] The Welsh text Bonedd Gwyr y Gogledd (The Descent of the Men of the North) also indicates a descent from Dumnagual, although the genealogy is much confused.[12] Áedán's brother Eoganán is known from Adomnán and his death is recorded c. 597.[13] The Senchus names three other sons of Gabrán, namely Cuildach, Domnall, and Domangart.[14] Although nothing is known of Cuildach and Domangart or their descendants, Adomnán mentions a certain Ioan, son of Conall, son of Domnall, "who belonged to the royal lineage of the Cenél nGabráin",[15] but this is generally read as meaning that Ioan was a kinsman of the Cenél nGabráin, and his grandfather named Domnall is not thought to be the same person as Áedán's brother Domnall.[16]

Áedán was about forty years old when he became king, following the death of his uncle Conall mac Comgaill in 574.[17] His succession as king may have been contested; Adomnán states that Columba had favoured the candidacy of Áedán's brother Eoganán.[18] Adomnán claims that Áedán was ordained as king by Columba, the first example of an ordination known in Britain and Ireland.[19]

In 574, following the account of Conall's death, the Annals of Ulster and the Annals of Tigernach record a battle in Kintyre, called the Battle of Teloch, or Delgu. The precise location of the battle is unidentified. The annals agree that "Dúnchad, son of Conall, son of Comgall, and many others of the allies of the sons of Gabrán, fell."[20] In 575, the Annals of Ulster report "the great convention of Druim Cett", at Mullagh or Daisy Hill near Limavady, with Áed mac Ainmuirech and Columba in attendance.[21] Adomnán reports that Áedán was present at the meeting.[22] The purpose of the meeting is not entirely certain, but one agreement made there concerned the status of Áedán's kingdom. Áedán and Áed agreed that while the fleet of Dál Riata would serve the Uí Néill, no tribute would be paid to them, and warriors would only be provided from the Dál Riata lands in Ireland.[23]

The reason for this agreement is thought to have been the threat posed to Áedán, and also to Áed, by Báetán mac Cairill. Báetán is said to have forced the king of Dál Riata to pay homage to him at Rosnaree on Islandmagee. Áedán is thought to be the king in question, and Ulster sources say that Báetán collected tribute from Scotland.[24] Following Báetán's death in 581, the Ulstermen abandoned the Isle of Man, which they had captured in Báetán's time, perhaps driven out by Áedán who is recorded as fighting there c. 583.[25] Earlier, c. 580, Áedán is said to have raided Orkney, which had been subject to Bridei son of Maelchon, King of the Picts, at an earlier date.[26]

Áedán's campaigns on the Isle of Man have sometimes been confused with the battle against the Miathi mentioned by Adomnán. The Miathi appear to have been the Maeatae, a tribe in the area of the upper river Forth. This campaign was successful, but Áedán's sons Artúr and Eochaid Find were killed in battle according to Adomnán.[27] This battle may have taken place c. 590 and be recorded as the Battle of Leithreid or Leithrig.[28]

The Prophecy of Berchán says of Áedán: "Thirteen years (one after another) [he will fight against] the Pictish host (fair the diadem)." The only recorded battle between Áedán and the Picts appears to have been fought in Circinn, in 599 or after, where Áedán was defeated. The annals mention the deaths of his sons here.[29] It has been suggested
that this battle was confused with the "Battle of Asreth" in Circinn, fought c. 584, in which Bridei son of Maelchon was killed. This battle is described as being "fought between the Picts themselves".[30]

A number of Welsh traditions point to warfare between Áedán and King Rhudderch Hael of Alt Clut, the north British kingdom later known as Strathclyde. Adomnán reports that Rhudderch sent a monk named Luigbe to Iona to speak with Columba "for he wanted to learn whether he would be slaughtered by his enemies or not". A Welsh triad names Áedán's plundering of Alt Clut as one of the "three unrestrained plunderings of Britain", and the poem Peiryan Vaban tells of a battle between Áedán and Rhudderch.[31] The lost Irish epic Orgain Sratha Cluada is usually thought to refer to the attack on Alt Clut in 870 by Vikings, but MacQuarrie suggests that it may refer to an attack by Áedán on Rhydderch.[32]

[edit] Degsastan and afterDegsastan appears not to have been the first battle between Áedán and the Bernicians. The death of his son Domangart in the land of the Saxons is mentioned by Adomnán, and it is presumed that Bran died in the same otherwise unrecorded battle.[33]

Of the roots of this conflict, Bede mentions only that Áedán was alarmed by Æthelfrith's advance. Wherever the Battle of Degsastan was fought, Bede saw it as lying within Northumbria. The battle was a decisive victory for Æthelfrith, and Bede says, carefully, that "[f]rom that day until the present, no king of the Irish in Britain has dared to do battle with the English." Although victorious, Æthelfrith suffered losses; Bede tells us his brother Theobald was killed with all his following. Theobald appears to be named Eanfrith in Irish sources, which name his killer as Máel Umair mac Béitáin of the Cenél nEógain, son of High-King Béitán mac Ninnedo. The Irish poem Compert Mongáin says that the king of Ulster, Fiachnae mac Béitáin of the Dál nAraidi, aided Áedán against the Saxons, perhaps at Degsastan. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle mentions that Hering, son of King Hussa of Bernicia, was present, apparently fighting with Áedán.[34]

After the defeat of Degsastan, the annals report nothing of Áedán until his death around six years later, perhaps on 17 April 609, the date supplied by the Martyrology of Tallaght, composed c. 800. The Annals of Tigernach give his age as 74.[35] The Prophecy of Berchán places his death in Kintyre and says "[h]e will not be king at the time of his death", while the 12th century Acta Sancti Lasriani claims that he was expelled from the kingship. John of Fordun, writing in the 14th century, believed that Áedán had been buried at Kilkerran in Kintyre.[36]

[edit] Áedán's descendantsÁedán was succeeded by his son Eochaid Buide. Adomnán gives an account of Columba's prophecy that Eochaid's older brothers would predecease their father.[37] Áedán's other sons are named by the Senchus fer n-Alban as Eochaid Find, Tuathal, Bran, Baithéne, Conaing, and Gartnait.[38] Adomnán also names Artúr, called a son of Conaing in the Senchus, and Domangart, who is not included in the Senchus. Domangart too may have been a grandson rather than a son of Áedán, most likely another son of Conaing. The main line of Cenél nGabráin kings were the descendants of Eochaid Buide through his son Domnall Brecc, but the descendants of Conaing successfully contested for the throne throughout the 7th century and into the 8th.[39]

It has been suggested that Gartnait son of Áedán could be the same person as Gartnait son of Domelch, king of the Picts, whose death is reported around 601, but this rests on the idea of Pictish matriliny, which has been criticised. Even less certainly, it has been argued that Gartnait's successor in the Pictish king-lists, Nechtan, was his grandson, and thus Áedán's great-grandson.[40]

Of Áedán's daughters, less is known. Maithgemm, also recorded as Gemma, married a prince named Cairell of the Dál Fiatach. The names of Áedán's wives are not recorded, but one was said to be British, and another may have been a Pictish woman named Domelch, if indeed the Gartnait son of Domelch and Gartnait son of Áedán are one and the same.[41]

[edit] Notes1.^ Hughes; Bannerman; Fraser.
2.^ Bannerman, pp. 89–90
3.^ Byrne, "Ireland and her neighbours", p. 897. Fraser, p. 296, notes that "the 'discovery' of a genealogical link" was a common result of an alliance.
romance”.

10. Adomnán, I, 49; Bannerman, pp. 80 and 88–89; Anderson, ESSH, pp. cxxix–clvii.
17. Bannerman, p. 81.
19. Adomnán, III, 5 and translator's note 358; Broun; Byrne, Irish kings, p. 159; Yorke, p. 241.
20. Bannerman, pp. 81–82; Anderson, ESSH, pp. 78–79; M.O. Anderson, p. 149, suggests that Báetán mac Cairill may have been the enemy against whom the battle was fought.
21. Anderson, ESSH, p. 79. The date of Druim Cett has been disputed. Sharpe, in the editor's notes to Adomnán's Life, note 204, proposes a much later date, c. 590. Sharpe is followed by Meckler ("The Annals of Ulster and the date of the meeting at Druim Cett", Peritia, vol. 11, 1997) but this is challenged by Jaski ("Druim Cett revisited", Peritia, vol. 12, 1998). Charles-Edwards, Early Christian Ireland, p. 491, takes the meeting to have been "some years later" than 575.
22. Anderson, ESSH, p. 83, note 2; M.O. Anderson, pp. 148–149; Bannerman, pp. 1–2; Byrne, Irish kings, p. 110.
24. Anderson, ESSH, pp.87–88; Bannerman, pp. 2–4; Byrne, Irish kings, pp. 109–111; Ó Cróinín, Early Medieval Ireland, pp. 50–51.
25. Anderson, ESSH, p. 89; Bannerman, pp. 83–84; Ó Cróinín, pp. 50–51.
27. Adomnán, I, 8–9 and translator's note 81; Bannerman, pp. 82–83. Bannerman, pp. 90–91, notes that Artúr is the son of Conaing, son of Áedán in the Senchus fer n-Alban.
29. Bannerman, pp. 84–86.
31. Adomnán, I, 15 and translator's note 89; Bannerman, pp. 88–89.
33. Adomnán, I, 9; Bannerman, pp. 85 and 91–92.
34. Bede, I, 34; Bannerman, pp.86–88; Byrne, Irish kings, p. 111; Kirby, pp. 70–72. MacQuarrie, pp. 103–104, notes some textual inconsistencies in the Irish sources, and suggests that the "Battle of the Saxons" recorded in the Irish annals may not be Bede's "Battle of Degsastan".
35. Bannerman, pp.80–81; Fraser, Caledonia to Pictland, p. 141.
38. The name Conaing implies a familiarity with Anglo-Saxons and their language as it is derived from Old English cyning, king: Byrne, Irish kings, pp.111–112. The appearance of two sons named Eochaid is not an error, as noted by Charles-Edwards, p. 6.
41. Bannerman, pp. 88–89. A daughter named Conchenn is mentioned in some very late tales.
Anderson, M. O. (1980), Kings and Kingship in Early Scotland (2nd ed.), Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press,
ISBN 0-7011-1604-8

Child of AIDAN MACGABRAN of ARGYLL is:
132. i. EOCAIH BUIDE MACAIDAN of ARGYLL I, b. April 583.

Enguerrand I was the son of Hugh I count of Ponthieu.

He was apparently married twice. By his first wife Adelaide, daughter of Arnulf, Count of Holland he had his heir, count Hugh II, and possibly a son named Robert (although Robert might have been a younger half-brother of Hugh II's). His other sons, Guy, Bishop of Amiens and Fulk (later abbot of Forest l'Abbaye), were evidently sons by the second wife. She has been identified as the wife of a count Arnold II of Boulogne who died in battle against Enguerrand I. He was in his forties when he took the widow of his erstwhile enemy to wife.

Enguerrand died around 1045 "at a great age."

Notes for Enguerrand I, Count of Ponthieu:

[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Child of Enguerrand and Adelaide is:

i. Hugh II, Count of Ponthieu.


Notes for Robert de Normandy:

Robert the Magnificent[1] (French: le Magnifique) (22 June 1000 – 3 July 1035), also called Robert the Devil (French: le Diable), was the Duke of Normandy from 1027 until his death. Owing to uncertainty over the numbering of the Dukes of Normandy he is usually called Robert I, but sometimes Robert II with his ancestor Rollo as Robert I. He was the son of Richard II of Normandy and Judith, daughter of Conan I of Rennes. He was the father of William the Conqueror.

When his father died, his elder brother Richard succeeded, whilst he became Count of Hiémois. When Richard died a year later, there were great suspicions that Robert had Richard murdered, hence his other nickname, "the Devil". He is sometimes identified with the legendary Robert the Devil.[citation needed]

Robert aided King Henry I of France against Henry's rebellious brother and mother, and for his help he was given the territory of the Vexin (1032). He also intervened in the affairs of Flanders, supported his cousin Edward the
Confessor, who was then in exile at Robert's court, and sponsored monastic reform in Normandy.

By his mistress, Herleva of Falaise, he was father of the future William I of England (1028–1087). He also had an illegitimate daughter, but the only chronicler to explicitly address the issue, Robert of Torigny, contradicts himself, once indicating that she had a distinct mother from William, elsewhere stating that they shared the same mother. This daughter, Adelaide of Normandy (1030 – c. 1083), married three times: to Enguerrand II, Count of Ponthieu, Lambert II, Count of Lens, and Odo II of Champagne.

After making his illegitimate son William his heir, he set out on pilgrimage to Jerusalem. According to the Gesta Normannorum Ducum he travelled by way of Constantinople, reached Jerusalem, and died on the return journey at Nicaea on 2 July 1035. Some sources attribute his death to poison and date it to 1 or 3 July. His son William, aged about eight, succeeded him.

According to the historian William of Malmesbury, William sent a mission to Constantinople and Nicaea, charging it with bringing his father's body back to be buried in Normandy. Permission was granted, but, having travelled as far as Apulia (Italy) on the return journey, the envoys learned that William himself had meanwhile died. They then decided to re-inter Robert's body in Italy.

Sources

Notes for Harleve Arlette Harlette de Falais:
Herleva (c. 1003 – c. 1050) also known as Herleve,[1] Arlette,[2] Arletta[3] and Arlotte,[4] was the mother of William I of England. She had two other sons, Odo of Bayeux and Robert, Count of Mortain, who became prominent in William's realm.

The background of Herleva and the circumstances of William's birth are shrouded in mystery. The written evidence dates from a generation or two later, and is not entirely consistent. The most commonly accepted version says that she was the daughter of a tanner named Fulbert from the town of Falaise, in Normandy. Translation being somewhat uncertain, Fulbert may instead have been a furrier, embalmer, apothecary, or a person who laid out corpses for burial.[5]

It is argued by some that Herleva's father was not a tanner but rather a member of the burgher class.[6] The idea is supported by the fact that her brothers appear in a later document as attestors for an under-age William. Also, the Count of Flanders later accepted Herleva as a proper guardian for his own daughter. Both facts would be nearly impossible if Herleva's father (and therefore her brothers) was a tanner, which would place his standing as little more than a peasant.

Orderic Vitalis described Herleva's father Fulbert as being the Duke's Chamberlain (cubicularii ducis).[7][8]

According to one legend, still recounted by tour guides at Falaise, it all started when Robert, the young Duke of Normandy saw Herleva from the roof of his castle tower. The walkway on the roof still looks down on the dyeing trenches cut into stone in the courtyard below, which can be seen to this day from the tower ramparts above. The traditional way of dyeing leather or garments was for individuals to trample barefoot on the garments which were awash in the dyeing liquid in these trenches. Herleva, legend goes, seeing the Duke on his ramparts above, raised her skirts perhaps a bit more than necessary in order to attract the Duke's eye. The latter was immediately smitten and ordered her brought in (as was customary for any woman that caught the Duke's eye) through the back door. Herleva
refused, saying she would only enter the Duke’s castle on horseback through the front gate, and not as an ordinary commoner. The Duke, filled with lust, could only agree. In a few days, Herleva, dressed in the finest her father could provide, and sitting on a white horse, rode proudly through the front gate, her head held high. This gave Herleva a semi-official status as the Duke’s mistress.

She later gave birth to his son, William, in 1027 or 1028, and probably a daughter, Adelaide, in 1030.

Marriage to Herluin de Conteville
Herleva later married Herluin de Conteville in 1031. Some accounts however, maintain that Robert always loved her, but the gap in their social status made marriage impossible, so, to give her a good life, he married her off to one of his favourite noblemen.[citation needed]

Another source suggests that Herleva did not marry Herluin until after Robert died because there is no record of Robert ensuing another relationship, whereas Herluin married another woman, Fredesendis, by the time he founded the abbey of Grestain.[9]

From her marriage to Herluin she had two sons: Odo, who later became Bishop of Bayeux, and Robert, who became Count of Mortain. Both became prominent during William’s reign. They also had at least two daughters, Emma, who married Richard LeGoz (de Averanches), and a daughter of unknown name who married William, lord of la Ferté-Macé.[10]

Death
According to Robert of Torigni, Herleva was buried at the abbey of Grestain, which was founded by Herluin and their son Robert around 1050. This would put Herleva in her forties around the time of her death. However, David C. Douglas suggests that Herleva probably died before Herluin founded the abbey because her name does not appear on the list of benefactors, whereas the name of Herluin’s second wife, Fredesendis, does.[11]

References
1.^ Douglas, David C. William the Conqueror (1964), p. 15
2.^ Freeman, Edward A. The History of the Norman Conquest (1867), p. 530
4.^ Abbott, Jacob. William the Conqueror (1903), p. 41
10.^ Douglas 1964, p. 381
11.^ Douglas 1964, p. 382

Child of Robert de Normandy and Harleve de Falais is:
134.  i. WILLIAM I “THE CONQUER” KING OF ENGLAND, b. 1027; d. 1087.

He succeeded to the County on his father's death in 1026. In 1016, Reginald I, Count Palatine of Burgundy was the second Count of the Free County of Burgundy. Born in 986, he was the son of Otto I, Count Palatine of Burgundy (the first Count) and Ermentrude of Reims and Roucy. She married Renaud I of Burgundy and had the following children:

1. William I of Burgundy (1020–1087)
2. Gui de Brionne or Guy of Burgundy (c. 1025-1069), educated at the court of Normandy, who would succeed the Duchy of Normandy against his cousin William of Normandy (later William the Conqueror), but had to leave his county of Brionne and Vernon in Normandy, after being at the head of the coalition of the barons of Normandy, which was defeated at the Battle of Val-ès-Dunes in 1047. It is known that Guy de Brionne found refuge with his uncle Geoffroy II of Anjou. He later attempted to usurp the county of Burgundy to his brother William.
3. Hugh (c. 1037 - c. 1086), Viscount of Lons-le-Saunier, sire Montmorot, Navilly and Scey married to Aldeberge Scey. They had a son Montmorot Thibert, founder of the house Montmorot (alias Montmoret).
4. Falcon or Fouques of Burgundy (in fate unknown).

Reginald I, Count Palatine of Burgundy was the second Count of the Free County of Burgundy. Born in 986, he was the son of Otto-Willaume, Count of Burgundy (the first Count) and Ermentrude of Reims and Roucy.

In 1016, Reginald married Alice of Normandy. He succeeded to the County on his father's death in 1026. Reginald was succeeded by his son, William I, on his death in 1057.

Child of Alice of Normandy and Reginald I:

135. i. William II, Count of Burgundy, b. 1020; d. 1087.

Generation No. 69

Notes for Eochaid Buide MacAidan of Argyll I:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Eochaid Buide was king of Dál Riata from around 608 until 629. "Buide" refers to the colour yellow, as in the colour of his hair.

He was a younger son of Áedán mac Gabrán and became his father's chosen heir upon the death of his elder brothers. Adomnán’s Life of Saint Columba has Columba foresee that Eochaid, then a child, would succeed his father in preference to his adult brothers Artúr, Eochaid Find and Domangart.

In the last two years of his reign, 627–629, Eochaid was apparently co-ruler with Connad Cerr, who predeceased him. Eochaid was followed by his son Domnall Brecc.

Eochaid’s other sons named by the Senchus fer n-Alban are Conall Crandomna, Failbe (who died at the Battle of Fid Eoin), Cú-cen-máthair (whose death is reported in the Annals of Ulster for 604), Conall Bec, Connad or Conall Cerr (who may be the same person as Connad Cerr who died at Fid Eoin), Failbe, Domangart and Domnall Donn (not the same person as Domnall Donn unless his obituary is misplaced by 45 years like that of Ferchar mac Connad)

According to the Fled Dún na nGéd, Eochaid Buide was the grandfather of Congal Cáech. The story has anachronistic features as it has Eochaid alive at the time of the battle of Mag Rath (securely dated to within a year of 637), but it is chronologically feasible that Congal Cáech could have been the son of Eochaid’s daughter if the identification of Cú-cen-máthair and the dating of his death is correct.

Child of Eochaid Buide MacAidan of Argyll I is:
136. i. Domnall Brecc44 De Dalraidha, b. 595.
Hugh II of Ponthieu was count of Ponthieu and lord of Abbeville, the son of Enguerrand I of Ponthieu. Evidently Hugh II was the half brother of Guy, who became the bishop of Amiens; Fulk, who became the abbot of Forest l’Abbeye; and Robert. However, it is possible that both Robert and Hugh II were the sons of Enguerrand’s first wife, and Guy and Fulk the sons of a later wife that Enguerrand I married when he was in his forties. Hugh II was married to Bertha of Aumale, Countess of Aumale. They had at least five children: Enguerrand II who succeeded Hugh II as Count of Ponthieu; Robert; Hugh (whose name is inferred by evidence contained within The Carmen de Hastingae Proelio); Waleran, and a daughter who was married to William of Normandy (the Conqueror).
Bastard because of the illegitimacy of his birth.

To press his claim to the English crown, William invaded England in 1066, leading an army of Normans, Bretons, Flemings, and Frenchmen (from Paris and Île-de-France) to victory over the English forces of King Harold Godwinson at the Battle of Hastings, and suppressed subsequent English revolts in what has become known as the Norman Conquest.[2]

William of Malmesbury, the foremost historian of the day, reported of William: "He was of just stature, extraordinary corpulence, fierce countenance; his forehead bare of hair; of such strength of arm that it was often a matter of surprise that no one was able to draw his bow, which he himself could bend when his horse was on full gallop; he was majestic whether sitting or standing, although the protuberance of his belly deformed his royal person: of excellent health so that he was never confined with any dangerous disorder except at the last."[3]

His heavy taxes, together with the extractions of the greedy Norman landlords he put in power, submerged the great mass of Anglo-Saxon freemen into serfdom. By 1086, the Domesday Book showed that England comprised 12% freeholders; 35% serfs or villeins: 30% cotters and borders; and 9% slaves.[4] William was one of the foremost soldiers of the medieval era, conquering a large kingdom from a smaller base. Most important, William created a feudal state that brought order, peace, law to England, promoted commerce, and created a strong central government that long endured.[5]

His reign, which imposed Norman culture and leadership on England, reshaped England in the Middle Ages. The details of that impact and the extent of the changes have been debated by scholars for centuries. In addition to the obvious change of ruler, his reign also saw a programme of building and fortification, changes to the English language, a shift in the upper levels of society and the church, and adoption of some aspects of continental church reform.

William was born in either 1027 or 1028 in Château de Falaise in Falaise, Normandy, France, and more likely in the autumn of the later year.[1] William was the only son of Robert I, Duke of Normandy, as well as the grandnephew of the English Queen, Emma of Normandy, wife of King Ethelred the Unready and then of King Canute the Great.[6] Though illegitimate, his father named him as heir to Normandy. His mother, Herleva, who later married and bore two sons to Herluin de Conteville, was the daughter of Fulbert of Falaise. In addition to his two half-brothers, Odo of Bayeux and Robert, Count of Mortain, William also had a sister, Adelaide of Normandy, another child of Robert.

William's illegitimacy affected his early life. As a child, his life was in constant danger from his kinsmen who thought they had a more legitimate right to rule. One attempt on William's life occurred while he slept at a castle keep at Vaudreuil, when the murderer mistakenly stabbed the child sleeping next to William.[7] Nevertheless, when his father died, he was recognised as the heir to Normandy. His mother, Herleva, who later married and bore two sons to Herluin de Conteville, was the daughter of Fulbert of Falaise. In addition to his two half-brothers, Odo of Bayeux and Robert, Count of Mortain, William also had a sister, Adelaide of Normandy, another child of Robert.

[edit] Duke of Normandy
Portait of William the Conqueror, painted ca. 1620 by an unknown artist. National Portrait Gallery, LondonBy his father's will, William succeeded him as Duke of Normandy at age seven in 1035. Plots by rival Norman noblemen to usurp his place cost William three guardians, though not Count Alan III of Brittany, who was a later guardian. William was supported by King Henry I of France, however. He was knighted by Henry at age 15. By the time William turned 19 he was successfully dealing with threats of rebellion and invasion. With the assistance of Henry, William finally secured control of Normandy by defeating rebel Norman barons at Caen in the Battle of Val-ès-Dunes in 1047, obtaining the Truce of God, which was backed by the Roman Catholic Church. Against the wishes of Pope Leo IX, William married Matilda of Flanders in 1053 in the Notre-Dame chapel of Eu castle, Normandy (Seine-Maritime). At the time, William was about 24 years old and Matilda was 22. William is said to have been a faithful and loving husband, and their marriage produced four sons and six daughters. In repentance for what was a consanguine marriage (they were distant cousins), William donated St Stephen's Church (l'Abbaye-aux-Hommes) and Matilda donated Holy Trinity church (l'Abbaye aux Dames).
Feeling threatened by the increase in Norman power resulting from William's noble marriage, Henry I of France attempted to invade Normandy twice (1054 and 1057), without success. Already a charismatic leader, William attracted strong support within Normandy, including the loyalty of his half-brothers Odo of Bayeux and Robert, Count of Mortain, who played significant roles in his life. Later, he benefited from the weakening of two competing power centres as a result of the deaths of Henry I and of Geoffrey II of Anjou, in 1060. In 1062 William invaded and took control of the county of Maine, which had been a fief of Anjou.[9]

[edit] Claim to the English throne
Upon the death of the childless Edward the Confessor, the English throne was fiercely disputed by three claimants—William; Harold Godwinson, the powerful Earl of Wessex; and the Viking King Harald III of Norway, known as Harald Hardrada. William had a tenuous blood claim through his great aunt Emma (wife of Ethelred and mother of Edward). William also contended that Edward, who had spent much of his life in exile in Normandy during the Danish occupation of England, had promised him the throne when he visited Edward in London in 1052. Further, William claimed that Harold had pledged allegiance to him in 1064: William had rescued the shipwrecked Harold from the count of Ponthieu, and together they had defeated Conan II, Duke of Brittany. On that occasion, William had knighted Harold; he had also, however, deceived Harold by having him swear loyalty to William himself over the concealed bones of a saint.[10]

In January 1066, however, in accordance with Edward's last will and by vote of the Witenagemot, Harold Godwinson was crowned King by Archbishop Aldred.

[edit] Invasion of England
Main article: Norman Conquest
Meanwhile, William submitted his claim to the English throne to Pope Alexander II, who sent him a consecrated banner in support. Then, William organised a council of war at Lillebonne and in January openly began assembling an army in Normandy. Offering promises of English lands and titles, he amassed at Dives-sur-Mer a huge invasion fleet, supposedly of 696 ships. This carried an invasion force which included, in addition to troops from William's own territories of Normandy and Maine, large numbers of mercenaries, allies and volunteers from Brittany, north-eastern France and Flanders, together with smaller numbers from other parts of France and from the Norman colonies in southern Italy. In England, Harold assembled a large army on the south coast and a fleet of ships to guard the English Channel.[10]

William the Conqueror invades England. Painted c. 1400-1410, Paris
Fortuitously for William, his crossing was delayed by eight months of unfavourable winds. William managed to keep his army together during the wait, but Harold's was diminished by dwindling supplies and falling morale. With the arrival of the harvest season, he disbanded his army on 8 September.[11] Harold also consolidated his ships in London, leaving the English Channel unguarded. Then came the news that the other contender for the throne, Harald III of Norway, allied with Tostig Godwinson, had landed ten miles (16 km) from York. Harold again raised his army and after a four-day forced march defeated Harald and Tostig on 25 September.

On 12 September the wind direction turned and William's fleet sailed. A storm blew up and the fleet was forced to take shelter at Saint-Valery-sur-Somme and again wait for the wind to change. On 27 September the Norman fleet finally set sail, landing in England at Pevensey Bay (Sussex) on 28 September. William then moved to Hastings, a few miles to the east, where he built a prefabricated wooden castle for a base of operations. From there, he ravaged the hinterland and waited for Harold's return from the north.[11]

William chose Hastings as it was at the end of a long peninsula flanked by impassable marshes. The battle was on the isthmus. William at once built a fort at Hastings to guard his rear against potential arrival of Harold's fleet from London. Having landed his army, William was less concerned about desertion and could have waited out the winter storms, raided the surrounding area for horses and started a campaign in the spring. Harold had been reconnoitring the south of England for some time and well appreciated the need to occupy this isthmus at once.[12]

[edit] Battle of Hastings
Main article: Battle of Hastings

Death of Harold Godwinson in the Battle of Hastings, as shown on the Bayeux Tapestry.

Harold, after defeating his brother Tostig and Harald Hardrada in the north, marched his army 241 mi (388 km) in 5 days to meet the invading William in the south. On 13 October, William received news of Harold's march from London. At dawn the next day,
William left the castle with his army and advanced towards the enemy. Harold had taken a defensive position at the top of Senlac Hill/Senlac ridge (present-day Battle, East Sussex), about seven miles (11 km) from Hastings.

The Battle of Hastings lasted all day. Although the numbers on each side were about equal, William had both cavalry and infantry, including many archers, while Harold had only foot soldiers and few if any archers.[13] Along the ridge's border, formed as a wall of shields, the English soldiers at first stood so effectively that William's army was thrown back with heavy casualties. Then William rallied his troops reportedly raising his helmet, as shown in the Bayeux Tapestry, to quell rumours of his death. Meanwhile, many of the English had pursued the fleeing Normans on foot, allowing the Norman cavalry to attack them repeatedly from the rear as his infantry pretended to retreat further.[13] Norman arrows also took their toll, progressively weakening the English wall of shields. At dusk, the English army made their last stand. A final Norman cavalry attack decided the battle irrevocably when it resulted in the death of Harold who, legend says, was killed by an arrow in the eye, beheaded and bodily dismembered. Two of his brothers, Gyrth and Leofwine Godwinson, were killed as well. By nightfall, the Norman victory was complete and the remaining English soldiers fled in fear.

Battles of the time rarely lasted more than two hours before the weaker side capitulated; that Hastings lasted nine hours indicates the determination of both William's and Harold's armies. Battles also ended at sundown regardless of who was winning. Harold was killed shortly before sunset and, as he would have received fresh reinforcements before the battle recommenced in the morning, he was assured of victory had he survived William's final cavalry attacks.

[edit] March to London

English coin of William the Conqueror (1066–1087) – “The Coronation of William the Conqueror marks one of the sharpest breaks there has ever been in English history. Anglo-Saxon England was dead, the country was now ruled by the Normans. But the disastrous ceremony at Westminster Abbey was an indication that the relationship between the English and their new rulers wasn’t going to be an easy one.”[14]For two weeks, William waited for a formal surrender of the English throne, but the Witenagemot proclaimed the young Edgar Ætheling King instead, though without coronation. Thus, William's next target was London, approaching through the important territories of Kent, via Dover and Canterbury, inspiring fear in the English. However, at London, William's advance was beaten back at London Bridge, and he decided to march westward and to storm London from the northwest. After receiving continental reinforcements, William crossed the Thames at Wallingford, and there he forced the surrender of Archbishop Stigand (one of Edgar's lead supporters), in early December. William reached Berkhamsted a few days later where Ætheling relinquished the English crown personally and the exhausted Saxon noblemen of England surrendered definitively. Although William was acclaimed then as English King, he requested a coronation in London. As William I, he was formally crowned on Christmas Day 1066 in Westminster Abbey, the first documented coronation held there,[15] by Archbishop Aldred.[10] The ceremony was not a peaceful one. When Aldred asked the congregation "Will you have this Prince to be your King", they answered with much shouting. The Norman guards stationed outside, believing the English were revolting, set fire to the neighbouring houses.[16] A Norman monk later wrote "As the fire spread rapidly, the people in the church were thrown into confusion and crowds of them rushed outside, some to fight the flames, others to take the chance to go looting."

[edit] English resistance

Although the south of England submitted quickly to Norman rule, resistance in the north continued for six more years until 1072. During the first two years, King William I suffered many revolts throughout England (Dover, western Mercia, Exeter). Also, in 1068, Harold's illegitimate sons attempted an invasion of the south-western peninsula, but William defeated them.

For William I, the worst crisis came from Northumbria, which had still not submitted to his realm. In 1068, with Edgar Ætheling, both Mercia and Northumbria revolted. William could suppress these, but Edgar fled to Scotland where Malcolm III of Scotland protected him. Furthermore, Malcolm married Edgar's sister Margaret, with much éclat, stressing the English balance of power against William. Under such circumstances, Northumbria rebelled, besieging York. Then, Edgar resorted also to the Danes, who disembarked with a large fleet at Northumbria, claiming the English crown for their King Sweyn II. Scotland joined the rebellion as well. The rebels easily captured York and its castle. However, William could contain them at Lincoln. After dealing with a new wave of revolts at western Mercia, Exeter, Dorset, and Somerset, William defeated his northern foes decisively at the River Aire, retrieving York, while the Danish army swore to depart.
William then devastated Northumbria between the Humber and Tees rivers, with what was described as the Harrying of the North. This devastation included setting fire to the vegetation, houses and even tools to work the fields. After this cruel treatment the land did not recover for more than 100 years. The region ended up absolutely deprived, losing its traditional autonomy towards England. It may, however, have stopped future rebellions, frightening the English into obedience. Then the Danish king disembarked in person, readying his army to restart the war, but William suppressed this threat with a payment of gold. In 1071, William defeated the last rebellion of the north through an improvised pontoon, subduing the Isle of Ely, where the Danes had gathered. In 1072, he invaded Scotland, defeating Malcolm, who had recently invaded the north of England. William and Malcolm agreed to a peace by signing the Treaty of Abernethy and Malcolm gave up his son Duncan as a hostage for the peace.[17] In 1074, Edgar Ætheling submitted definitively to William.

In 1075, during William's absence, the Revolt of the Earls was confronted successfully by Odo. In 1080, William dispatched his half brothers Odo and Robert to storm Northumbria and Scotland, respectively. Eventually, the Pope protested that the Normans were mistreating the English people. Before quelling the rebellions, William had conciliated with the English church; however, he persecuted it ferociously afterwards.

[edit] Reign in England
Normans
William the Conqueror invades England
[show] William I

Robert Curthose, Duke of Normandy
Richard, Duke of Bernay
William II of England
Adela, Countess of Blois
Henry I of England
William II
[show] Henry I

Empress Matilda
William Adelin
Robert, 1st Earl of Gloucester
[show] Stephen
Eustace IV, Count of Boulogne
William I, Count of Boulogne
Marie I, Countess of Boulogne

Monarchy of the United Kingdom
v · d · e

[edit] Events
William spent much of his time (11 years, since 1072) in Normandy, ruling the islands through his writs. Nominally still a vassal state, owing its entire loyalty to the French king, Normandy arose suddenly as a powerful region, alarming the other French dukes who reacted by persistently attacking the duchy. William became focused on conquering Brittany, and the French King Philip I admonished him. A treaty was concluded after his aborted invasion of Brittany in 1076, and William betrothed Constance to the Breton Duke Hoel's son, the future
Alan IV of Brittany. The wedding occurred only in 1086, after Alan's accession to the throne, and Constance died childless a few years later.

William's elder son Robert, enraged by a prank of his brothers William and Henry, who had doused him with filthy water, undertook what became a large scale rebellion against his father's rule. Only with King Philip's additional military support was William able to confront Robert, who was then based in Flanders. During the battle of 1079, William was unhorsed and wounded by Robert, who lowered his sword only after recognising him. The embarrassed William returned to Rouen, abandoning the expedition. In 1080, Matilda reconciled both, and William restored Robert's inheritance.

Odo caused trouble for William, too, and was imprisoned in 1082, losing his English estate and all his royal functions, but retaining his religious duties. In 1083, Matilda died, and William became more tyrannical over his realm.

[edit] Reforms
The signatures of William I and Matilda are the first two large crosses on the Accord of Winchester from 1072. William initiated many major changes. He increased the function of the traditional English shires (autonomous administrative regions), which he brought under central control; he decreased the power of the earls by restricting them to one shire apiece. All administrative functions of his government remained fixed at specific English towns, except the court itself; they would progressively strengthen, and the English institutions became amongst the most sophisticated in Europe. In 1085, in order to ascertain the extent of his new dominions and to improve taxation, William commissioned all his counsellors for the compilation of the Domesday Book, which was published in 1086. The book was a survey of England's productive capacity similar to a modern census.

William also ordered many castles, keeps, and motes, among them the Tower of London's foundation (the White Tower), to be built throughout England. These ensured effectively that the many rebellions by the English people or his own followers did not succeed.

His conquest also led to French (especially, but not only, the Norman French) replacing English as the language of the ruling classes for nearly 300 years.[18][19] Whereas in 1066 fewer than 30% of property owners had non-English given names, by 1207 this had risen to more than 80%, with French names such as William, Robert and Richard most common. Furthermore, the original Anglo-Saxon culture of England became mingled with the Norman one; thus the Anglo-Norman culture came into being.

William I built the central White Tower in the Tower of London. The chapel was built in the Norman style using Caen stone imported from France. William is said to have eliminated the native aristocracy in as little as four years. Systematically, he despoiled those English aristocrats who either opposed the Normans or died without issue. Thus, most English estates and titles of nobility were handed to the Norman noblemen. Many English aristocrats fled to Flanders and Scotland; others may have been sold into slavery overseas. Some escaped to join the Byzantine Empire's Varangian Guard, and went on to fight the Normans in Sicily. Although William initially allowed English lords to keep their lands if they offered submission, by 1070, the indigenous nobility had ceased to be an integral part of the English landscape, and by 1086, it maintained control of just 8% of its original land-holdings. More than 4,000 English lords had lost their lands and been replaced, with only two English lords of any significance surviving.[20] However, to the new Norman noblemen, William handed the English parcels of land piecemeal, dispersing these widely, ensuring nobody would try conspiring against him without jeopardising their own estates within the still unstable post-invasion England. Effectively, this strengthened William's political stand as a monarch.

The medieval chronicler William of Malmesbury says that the king also seized and depopulated many miles of land (36 parishes), turning it into the royal New Forest region to support his enthusiastic enjoyment of hunting. Modern historians, however, have come to the conclusion that the New Forest depopulation was greatly exaggerated. Most of the lands of the New Forest are poor agricultural lands, and archaeological and geographic studies have shown that the New Forest was likely sparsely settled when it was turned into a royal forest.[21]

[edit] Death, burial, and succession

Coin of William I of England. In 1087 in France, William burned Mantes (30 mi [50 km] west of Paris), besieging the town. However, he fell off his horse, suffering fatal abdominal injuries from the saddle pommel. On his
deathbed, William divided his succession for his sons, sparking strife between them. Despite William's reluctance, his combative elder son Robert received the Duchy of Normandy, as Robert II. William Rufus (his third son) was the next English king, as William II. William's youngest son Henry received 5,000 silver pounds, which would be earmarked to buy land.[22] He later became King Henry I of England after William II died without issue. While on his deathbed, William pardoned many of his political adversaries, including Odo.

William died at age 59 at the Convent of St Gervais in Rouen, the chief city of Normandy, on 9 September 1087. William was buried in the Abbaye-aux-Hommes, which he had erected, in Caen, Normandy. It is said that Herluin, his stepfather, loyally bore his body to his grave.[23]

The original owner of the land on which the church was built claimed he had not been paid yet, demanding 60 shillings, which William's son Henry had to pay on the spot. In a most unregal postmortem, it was found that William's corpulent body would not fit in the stone sarcophagus as his body had bloated due to the warm weather and length of time that had passed since his death. A group of bishops applied pressure on the king's abdomen to force the body downward but the abdominal wall burst and drenched the king's coffin, releasing putrefaction gases into the church.[24][25]

William's grave is currently marked by a marble slab with a Latin inscription; the slab dates from the early 19th century. The grave was defiled twice, once during the French Wars of Religion, when his bones were scattered across the town of Caen, and again during the French Revolution. Following those events, only William's left femur, some skin particles and bone dust remain in the tomb.

[edit] Legacy
Silver penny of William I, c.1075, moneyer Oswold, at the mint of Lewes. William's conquest decisively changed English history in terms of customs culture, politics, economics and, most dramatically, the language itself.[26] As Duke of Normandy and King of England, William the Conqueror, divided his realm among his sons, but the lands were reunited under his son Henry, and his descendants acquired other territories through marriage or conquest and, at their height, these possessions would be known as the Angevin Empire.

They included many lands in France, such as Normandy and Aquitaine, but the question of jurisdiction over these territories would be the cause of much conflict and bitter rivalry between England and France, which took up much of the Middle Ages.

An example of William's legacy even in modern times can be seen on the Bayeux Memorial, a monument erected by Britain in the Normandy town of Bayeux to those killed in the Battle of Normandy during World War II. A Latin inscription on the memorial reads NOS A GULIELMO VICTI VICTORIS PATRIAM LIBERAVIMUS – freely translated, this reads "We, once conquered by William, have now set free the Conqueror's native land".[27]

The numbering scheme of the English (or British) Crown regards William as the Founder of the State of England. This explains, among other things, why King Edward I was "the First" even though he ruled long after the Anglo-Saxon King Edward the Confessor.

Physical appearance
Romanticised eighteenth or nineteenth century artists impression of the appearance of King William I of England. No authentic portrait of William has been found. Nonetheless, he was depicted as a man of fair stature with remarkably strong arms, "with which he could shoot a bow at full gallop". William showed a magnificent appearance, possessing a fierce countenance. He enjoyed excellent health until old age; nevertheless his noticeable corpulence in later life eventually increased so much that French King Philip I commented that William looked like a pregnant woman.[28] Examination of his femur, the only bone to survive when the rest of his remains were destroyed, showed he was approximately 5 feet 10 inches (1.78 m) tall, which was around 2 inches (5.1 cm) taller than the average for the 11th century.[29] He is depicted in the Bayeux Tapestry as being clean-shaven, as opposed to Harold and the English lords, who wore moustaches.

Descendants
William is known to have had nine children, though Matilda, a tenth daughter who died a virgin, appears in some sources. Several other unnamed daughters are also mentioned as being betrothed to notable figures of that time.
Despite rumours to the contrary (such as claims that William Peverel was a bastard of William)[30] there is no evidence that he had any illegitimate children.[31]

3. Adeliza (or Alice) (c. 1055 – c. 1065), reportedly betrothed to Harold II of England.
4. Cecilia (or Cecily) (c. 1056–1126), Abbess of Holy Trinity, Caen.
5. William "Rufus" (c. 1056–1100), King of England, killed by an arrow in New Forest.
6. Agatha (c. 1064–1079), betrothed to Alfonso VI of Castile.
7. Constance (c. 1066–1090), married Alan IV Fergent, Duke of Brittany; poisoned, possibly by her own servants.
8. Adela (c. 1067–1137), married Stephen, Count of Blois.
9. Henry "Beauclerc" (1068–1135), King of England, married Edith of Scotland, daughter of Malcolm III of Scotland. His second wife was Adeliza of Leuven.

References
5. Thompson and Johnson, An Introduction to Medieval Europe, 1300–1500 (1937) p 440
11. a b Carpenter, p. 72.
13. a b Carpenter, p. 73.
18. While English emerged as a popular vernacular and literary language within one hundred years of the Conquest, it was only in 1362 that King Edward III abolished the use of French in Parliament

Notes for Matilda MAUDE DE FLANDERS:
Matilda of Flanders (French: Mathilde de Flandre; Dutch: Mathilda van Vlaanderen) (c. 1031 – 2 November 1083) was the wife of William the Conqueror and, as such, Queen consort of the Kingdom of England. She bore William nine/ten children, including two kings, William II and Henry I.

Matilda, or Maud, was the daughter of Baldwin V, Count of Flanders and Adèle of France, herself daughter of Robert II of France. According to legend, when Duke William II of Normandy (later known as William the Conqueror) sent his representative to ask for Matilda's hand in marriage, she told the representative that she was far too high-born, to consider marrying a bastard. After hearing this response, William rode from Normandy to Bruges, found Matilda on her way to church, and dragged her off her horse by her long braids, threw her down in the street in front of her flabbergasted attendants, and rode off. Another version of the story states that William rode to Matilda's father's house in Lille, threw her to the ground in her room (again, by the braids), and hit her (or violently
battered her) before leaving. Naturally, Baldwin took offense at this but, before they drew swords, Matilda settled the matter[1] by agreeing to marry him, and even a papal ban on the grounds of consanguinity did not dissuade her. They were married in 1053.

There were rumors that Matilda had been in love with the English ambassador to Flanders, a Saxon named Brihtric, who declined her advances. Whatever the truth of the matter, years later when she was acting as Regent for William in England, she used her authority to confiscate Brihtric’s lands and throw him into prison, where he died.

[edit] Duchess of NormandyWhen William was preparing to invade England, Matilda outfitted a ship, the Mora, out of her own money and gave it to him. This indicated that she must have owned rich lands in Normandy to be able to do so. Even after William conquered England and became its king, it took him more than a year to visit her new kingdom.[2] Even after she had been crowned queen, she would spend most of her time in Normandy and sponsor ecclesiastical houses there.

[edit] QueenMatilda was crowned queen in 1068 in Westminster, in a ceremony presided over by the archbishop of York. During the ceremony she was said to be sharing in power with her husband and the people were said to be fortunate to be ruled by the ability and wisdom of the queen.[3]

For many years it was thought that she had some involvement in the creation of the Bayeux Tapestry (commonly called La Tapisserie de la Reine Mathilde in French), but historians no longer believe that; it seems to have been commissioned by William’s half-brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and made by English artists in Kent.[citation needed]

Matilda bore William eleven children, and he was believed to have been faithful to her, at least up until the time their son Robert rebelled against his father and Matilda sided with Robert against William.

She stood as godmother for Matilda of Scotland, who would become Queen of England after marrying Matilda’s son Henry I. During the christening, the baby pulled Queen Matilda’s headress down on top of herself, which was seen as an omen that the younger Matilda would be queen some day as well.[4]

After she died, in 1083 at the age of 51, William became tyrannical, and people blamed it on his having lost her.

Contrary to the belief that she was buried at St. Stephen’s, also called l’Abbaye-aux-Hommes in Caen, Normandy, where William was eventually buried, she is intombed at l’Abbaye aux Dames, which is the Sainte-Trinité church, also in Caen. Of particular interest is the 11th century slab, a sleek black stone decorated with her epitaph, marking her grave at the rear of the church. It is of special note since the grave marker for William was replaced as recently as the beginning of the 19th century.

Height
Reputed to be 4’2” (127 cm) tall, Matilda was England’s smallest queen, according to the Guinness Book of Records. However, in 1819 and 1959 Matilda’s incomplete skeleton was examined in France, and her bones were measured to determine her height. The 1819 estimate was under five feet, while the 1959 estimate was 5’ (152 cm) tall. A reputed height of 4’ 2” (127 cm) appeared at some point after 1959 in the non-scientific literature, misrepresenting the 1959 measurement.[5]

Issue
Some doubt exists over how many daughters there were. This list includes some entries which are obscure.

1. Robert Curthose (c. 1054–1134), Duke of Normandy, married Sybil of Conversano, daughter of Geoffrey of Conversano
2. Adeliza (or Alice) (c. 1055 – ?), reportedly betrothed to Harold II of England (Her existence is in some doubt.)
3. Cecilia (or Cecily) (c. 1056–1126), Abbess of Holy Trinity, Caen
4. William Rufus (1056–1100), King of the English
5. Richard (1057 – c. 1081), killed by a stag in New Forest
6. Adela (c. 1062–1138), married Stephen, Count of Blois
7. Agatha (c. 1064 – c. 1080), betrothed to (1) Harold of Wessex, (2) Alfonso VI of Castile
8. Constance (c. 1066–1090), married Alan IV Fergent, Duke of Brittany; poisoned, possibly by her own servants
9. Maud (very obscure, her existence is in some doubt)

Gundred (c. 1063–1085), wife of William de Warenne (c. 1055–1088), was formerly thought of as being yet another of Matilda’s daughters, with speculation that she was William I’s full daughter, a stepdaughter, or even a foundling or adopted daughter. However, this connection to William I has now been firmly debunked.

Matilda was a seventh generation direct descendent of Alfred the Great. Her marriage to William strengthened his claim to the throne. All sovereigns of England, Great Britain and the United Kingdom have been descended from her, as is the present Queen Elizabeth II.

In popular culture Normandy portal
Her love for her husband is referenced in the Award-winning play, Angels in America.

On screen, Matilda has been portrayed by Jane Wenham in the two-part BBC TV play Conquest (1966), part of the series Theatre 625, and by Anna Calder-Marshall in the TV drama Blood Royal: William the Conqueror (1990).

Footnotes:

Child of William I of England and Matilda de Flanders is:
138. i. Henry I of England, b. 1068; d. 1135.

William I (1020 – 12 November 1087), called the Great (le Grand or Tête Hardie, “the Rash”), was Count of Burgundy and Mâcon from 1057 to 1087. He was a son of Renaud I and Alice of Normandy, daughter of Richard II, Duke of Normandy. William was the father of several notable children, including Pope Callixtus II.

In 1057, he succeeded his father and reigned over a territory larger than that of the Franche-Comté itself. In 1087, he died in Besançon and was buried there in the cathedral of St John.

William married a woman named Stephanie.[1]

They had many children:

Renaud II, William's successor, died on First Crusade
Stephen I, successor to Renaud II, Stephen died on the Crusade of 1101
Raymond, married (1090) Urraca, the reigning queen of Castile
Guy of Vienne, elected pope, in 1119 at the Abbey of Cluny, as Calixtus II
Sybilla (or Maud), married (1080) Eudes I of Burgundy
Gisela of Burgundy, married (1090) Humbert II of Savoy and then Renier I of Montferrat

William
Eudes
Hugh III, Archbishop of Besançon
Clementia married Robert II, Count of Flanders and was Regent, during his absence. She married secondly Godfrey I, Count of Leuven and was possibly the mother of Joscelin of Louvain.
Stephanie married Lambert, Prince de Royans (died 1119)
Ermentrude, married (1065) Theodoric I (perhaps) Bertha wife of Alphonso VI of Castile

Child of William and Stephanie is:

139. i. GISELA OF 139 BURGUNDY, MARCHIONESS OF MONTFerrat, b. 1075; d. 1135.

Generation No. 70


Notes for Domnall Brecc De Dalraida:
[Stem of the House of Connor, FTW]
Domnall Brecc (Welsh: Dyfnwal Frych; English: Donald the Freckled) (d. 642 in Strathcarron) was king of Dál Riata, in modern Scotland, from about 629 until 642. He was the son of Eochaid Buide.

He first appears in 622, when the Annals of Tigernach report his presence at the battle of Cend Delgthen (probably in the east midlands of Ireland) as an ally of Conall Guthbinn of Clann Cholmáin. This is the only battle known where Domnall Brecc fought on the winning side.

Domnall suffered four defeats after he broke Dál Riata’s alliance with the Cenél Conaill clan of the Úi Néill. In Ireland, Domnall and his ally Congal Cáech of the Dál nAraidi were defeated by Domnall mac Ædo of the Cenél Conaill, the High King of Ireland, at the Battle of Mag Rath (Moira, County Down) in 637. He also lost to the Picts in 635 and 638 and lastly to Eugein I of Alt Clut at Strathcarron in 642, where he was killed.

A stanza interpolated into the early 9th Century Welsh poem Y Gododdin refers to these events:

I saw an array that came from Pentir,
And bore themselves splendidly around the conflagration.
I saw a second one, rapidly descending from their township,
Who had risen at the word of the grandson of Nwython.[1]
I saw great sturdy men who came with the dawn,
And the head of Dyfnwal Frych, ravens gnawed it.

Domnall’s son Domangart mac Domnaill was later to be king of Dál Riata and from him the later kings of the Cenél nGabráin were descended. A second son, Cathasach, died c. 650, and a grandson of Domnall, also called Cathasach, died c. 688.

Notes
1. Eugein was the grandson of Nwython (Neithon).

References

Child of DOMNALL BRECC DE DALRAIDA is:
140. ♀ DOMMANGART20 DE DALRAIDA II b. 630; d. 673.

137. ENGUERRAND74 II, COUNT OF PONTHIEU (HUG3 II, COUNT OF PONTHIEU, ENGUERRAND72 I, COUNT OF PONTHIEU, Gisèle21 CATÉP, ADELAIDE DE20 Aquitaine, ADELE69, POPPA DE VALOIS58, NORMANDY, PEPIN OF BERENGER AND67 BéAUAX, PEPIN66 II, LORD OF PÉRONNE QUENTIN DE VERMANDOIS, BERNARD OF55 ITALY, BERTHA64 DE TOULOUSE, WILLIAM63, MAKR THEODERIC OF62 TOULOUSE, HANINI BAR ADOL61 DAVID, IZDUNAD ‘DARA’ Sasanid OF60 Persia, YAZDAGIRD III OF59, PRINCE OF Sasanian Persia58 Shahrihar, Khusraw57 II, Hormizd56 IV, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Khushraw (Chosroes I) of55 Kings, Kavadh I54 (KOBAD), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Emperor of Sasanian Persia53 Peroz, Yazdagar3 II, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Varahan53 (BAHRAM), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Yazdagird50 I, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Shapur39 III, Emperor of Persia, Shapur38 II, Emperor of Persia, IFRÁ47 Hormiz, Princess of Seistan, King of Seistan48 Vasudeva, Vasudeva47 II, King of KUSHAN, KENISHA43 III, King of Kushana, King of Kushana42 Vasudeva, HUVISHKA41 I, King of Kushana, KANISHKA40 I, King of Kushans, Vema49 KADPHISES II, King of the Kushans, Princess of38 PESHVAR, Princess of W. Gandara37 Calliope, King of W. Gandara36 HIPPOSTRATOS, STRATO35I, King of Mathura, Princess of BACTRIA34, AGATHOCLES, King of Bactria33, AGATHOCLES, Sundari32 Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire51 BRIHRADHRA, King of Kashimar and Gandhara30 KUNALA, ASHOKA29, MAURYA, King of Maurya Empire, BINDUSA28 (AMITROCHATES), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire27 CHANDRAGUNTA, MAURYA26 V, OF MAGADHA, MAURYA IV25 TAXILA, MAURYA III24, MAURYA II OF23, PRINCESS OF PERSIA22 CHANDRAVARRNA, PRINCESS OF PERSIA21 ATOSSA, PRINCESS OF EGYPT20
Enguerrand, the only son of Hugh II, was banished for life. (Alternatively, the story goes that King Henry defied his nephew, the youthful Duke of Normandy: as "family", the comital house of Ponthieu supported the rebellion.

Duke William put Arques under siege, and then remained mobile with another force in the countryside nearby. He was aware that Normandy was being threatened by the armies of King Henry of France — who wanted to bring his young, former vassal to heel; and that Normandy's erstwhile allies from Ponthieu would also be coming to break the siege of Arques. Young count Enguerrand led a Ponthievin army of relief into the Talou and arrived first; but Duke William successfully ambushed them on October 25, 1053 and Enguerrand was killed (legend says, within sight and sound of Arques, from which his sister witnessed the demise of her brother). Upon learning of this serious reverse, the vacillating Henry withdrew his forces at once back across the Norman border. William of Talou was compelled to surrender Arques and was banished for life. (Alternatively, the story goes that King Henry reinforced Arques, and Duke William lured part of the French army, including Enguerrand and the Ponthievins, away by a feigned flight, then turned on them and won a battle: Henry then withdrew, forcing the surrender of Arques not long after.)

Enguerrand's only son (or possibly his brother by one account), Guy I became count of Ponthieu in his place.
Henry tried to play his brothers off against each other but eventually, wary of his devious manoeuvring, they acted together and signed an accession treaty. This sought to bar Prince Henry from both thrones by stipulating that if

The chronicler Orderic Vitalis reports that the old king had declared to Henry: "You in your own time will have all the dominions I have acquired and be greater than both your brothers in wealth and power."

Henry's reign established deep roots for the Anglo-Norman realm, in part through his dynastic (and personal) choice of a Scottish princess who represented the lineage of Edmund Ironside for queen. His succession was hurriedly confirmed while his brother Robert was away on the First Crusade, and the beginning of his reign was occupied by wars with Robert for control of England and Normandy. He successfully reunited the two realms again after their separation on his father's death in 1087. Upon his succession he granted the baronage a Charter of Liberties, which linked his rule of law to the Anglo-Saxon tradition, forming a basis for subsequent limitations to the rights of English kings and presaged Magna Carta, which subjected the king to law.

The rest of Henry's reign, a period of peace and prosperity in England and Normandy, was filled with judicial and financial reforms. He established the biannual Exchequer to reform the treasury. He used itinerant officials to curb the abuses of power at the local and regional level that had characterized William Rufus' unpopular reign, garnering the praise of the monkish chroniclers. The differences between the English and Norman populations began to break down during his reign and he himself married a descendant of the old English royal house. He made peace with the church after the disputes of his brother's reign and the struggles with Anselm over the English investiture controversy (1103-07), but he could not smooth out his succession after the disastrous loss of his eldest son William in the wreck of the White Ship. His will stipulated that he was to be succeeded by his daughter, the Empress Matilda, but his stern rule was followed by a period of civil war known as the Anarchy.

Henry was born between May 1068 and May 1069, probably in Selby in Yorkshire. His mother Queen Matilda named the infant prince Henry, after her uncle, Henry I of France. As the youngest son of the family, he was almost certainly expected to become a bishop and was given more extensive schooling than was usual for a young nobleman of that time. Henry's biographer C. Warren Hollister suggests the possibility that the saintly ascetic Osmund, Bishop of Salisbury, was in part responsible for Henry's education; Henry was consistently in the bishop's company during his formative years, ca 1080-86. "He was an intellectual", V.H. Galbraith observed, "an educated man in a sense that his predecessors, always excepting Alfred, were not."

Notes for Henry I of England:
Henry I (c. 1068/1069 – 1 December 1135) was the fourth son of William I of England. He succeeded his elder brother William II as King of England in 1100 and defeated his eldest brother, Robert Curthose, to become Duke of Normandy in 1106. A later tradition called him Beauclerc for his scholarly interests — he could read Latin and put his learning to effective use — and Lion of Justice for refinements which he brought about in the royal administration, which he rendered the most effective in Europe, rationalizing the itinerant court, and his public espousal of the Anglo-Saxon legal tradition.

Henry I's second son Richard was killed in a hunting accident in 1081, so William bequeathed his dominions to his three surviving sons in the following manner:

Robert received the Duchy of Normandy and became Duke Robert II
William Rufus received the Kingdom of England and became King William II
Henry received 5,000 pounds in silver.

The chronicler Orderic Vitalis reports that the old king had declared to Henry: "You in your own time will have all the dominions I have acquired and be greater than both your brothers in wealth and power."

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The chronicler William of Malmesbury asserts that Henry once remarked that an illiterate king was a crowned ass. He was certainly the first Norman ruler to be fluent in the English language.
either King William or Duke Robert died without an heir, the two dominions of their father would be reunited under the surviving brother.

When, on 2 August 1100, William II was killed by an arrow in a hunting accident in the New Forest, where Henry was also hunting, Duke Robert had not yet returned from the First Crusade. His absence allowed Prince Henry to seize the royal treasury at Winchester, Hampshire, where he buried his dead brother. Conspiracy theories have been repeatedly examined and widely dismissed.[4] Thus he succeeded to the throne of England, guaranteeing his succession in defiance of William and Robert's earlier agreement. Henry was accepted as king by the leading barons and was crowned three days later on 5 August at Westminster Abbey.

Henry secured his position among the nobles by an act of political appeasement: he issued a coronation charter guaranteeing the rights of free English folk, which was subsequently evoked by King Stephen and by Henry II before Archbishop Stephen Langton called it up in 1215 as a precedent for Magna Carta,[5] The view of Henry and his advisors did not encompass a long view into constitutional history: the Coronation Charter was one of several expedients designed to distance him from the extraordinary and arbitrary oppressions of William Rufus' reign, claiming to return to the practices of Edward the Confessor, made clear in clause 13, a statement of general principles. Its first clause promised the freedom of the church and the security of its properties, and succeeding clauses similarly reassured the propertied class.

First marriage
On 11 November 1100 Henry married Edith, daughter of King Malcolm III of Scotland. Since Edith was also the niece of Edgar Atheling and the great-granddaughter of Edmund Ironside (the half-brother of Edward the Confessor) the marriage united the Norman line with the old English line of kings. The marriage greatly displeased the Norman barons, however, and as a concession to their sensibilities Edith changed her name to Matilda upon becoming Queen. The other side of this, however, was that Henry, by dint of his marriage, became far more acceptable to the Anglo-Saxon populace.

Conquest of Normandy
In the following year, 1101, Robert Curthose, Henry's eldest brother, attempted to seize the crown by invading England. In the Treaty of Alton, Robert agreed to recognise his brother Henry as King of England and return peacefully to Normandy, upon receipt of an annual sum of 3,000 silver marks, which Henry proceeded to pay.

In 1105, to eliminate the continuing threat from Robert, Henry led an expeditionary force across the English Channel.

Battle of Tinchebray
Main article: Battle of Tinchebray
On the morning of 28 September 1106, exactly 40 years after William had made his way to England, the decisive battle between his two surviving sons, Robert Curthose and Henry Beauclerc, took place in the small village of Tinchebray, Basse-Normandie. This combat was totally unexpected. Henry and his army were marching south from Barfleur on their way to Domfront and Robert was marching with his army from Falaise on their way to Mortain. They met at the crossroads at Tinchebray. The running battle which ensued was spread out over several kilometres; the site where most of the fighting took place is the village playing field today. Towards evening Robert tried to retreat but was captured by Henry's men at a place three kilometres (just under two miles) north of Tinchebray where a farm named "Prise" (grip or capture) stands today on the D22 road. The tombstones of three knights are nearby on the same road.

King of England and Ruler of Normandy
King Henry I of England
After Henry had defeated his brother's Norman army at Tinchebray he imprisoned Robert, initially in the Tower of London, subsequently at Devizes Castle and later at Cardiff. One day, while out riding, Robert attempted to escape from Cardiff but his horse bogged down in a swamp and he was recaptured. (A story was later circulated that, to prevent further escapes, Henry had Robert's eyes burnt out: this is not accepted by Henry's recent biographer, Judith Green.[6]) Henry appropriated the Duchy of Normandy as a possession of the Kingdom of England and reunited his father's dominions. Even after taking control of the Duchy of Normandy he didn't take the title of Duke, he chose to control it as the King of England.
In 1113, Henry attempted to reduce difficulties in Normandy by betrothing his eldest son, William Adelin, to the daughter of Fulk, Count of Anjou at the time a serious enemy. They were married in 1119. Eight years later, after William's death, a much more momentous union was made between Henry's daughter, (the former Empress) Matilda and Fulk's son Geoffrey Plantagenet, which eventually resulted in the union of the two realms under the Plantagenet Kings.

Activities as a king

Henry's need for finance to consolidate his position led to an increase in the activities of centralized government. As king, Henry carried out social and judicial reforms; he issued the Charter of Liberties and restored the laws of Edward the Confessor.

Between 1103 and 1107 Henry was involved in a dispute with Anselm, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and Pope Paschal II in the investiture controversy, which was settled in the Concordat of London in 1107. It was a compromise. In England, a distinction was made in the king's chancery between the secular and ecclesiastical powers of the prelates. Employing the distinction, Henry gave up his right to invest his bishops and abbots, but reserved the custom of requiring them to come and do homage for the "temporalities" (the landed properties tied to the episcopate), directly from his hand, after the prelate had sworn homage and feudal vassalage in the ceremony called commendatio, the commendation ceremony, like any secular vassal.

Some of Henry's acts are brutal by modern standards. In 1090 he threw a treacherous burgher named Conan Pilatus from the tower of Rouen; the tower was known from then on as "Conan's Leap." In another instance that took place in 1119, Henry's son-in-law, Eustace de Pacy, and Ralph Harnec, the constable of Ivry, exchanged their children as hostages. When Eustace inexplicably blinded Harnec's son, Harnec demanded vengeance. King Henry allowed Harnec to blind and mutilate Eustace's two daughters, who were also Henry's own grandchildren. Eustace and his wife, Juliane, were outraged and threatened to rebel. Henry arranged to meet his daughter at a parley at Breteuil, only for Juliane to draw a crossbow and attempt to assassinate her father. She was captured and confined to the castle, but escaped by leaping from a window into the moat below. Some years later Henry was reconciled with his daughter and son-in-law.

During his reign, King Henry introduced a new monetary system known as the tally stick, which started primarily as a form of record keeping. Since tally sticks could be used to pay the taxes imposed by the king, he created a demand for tally sticks. This demand for tally sticks expanded their role and they began to circulate as a form of money. This practice survived for many years, a little over 700 in fact, until it was finally retired in 1826.[7] The Bank of England then continued to use wooden tally sticks until 1826: some 500 years after the invention of double-entry bookkeeping and 400 years after Johannes Gutenberg's invention of printing. The tally sticks were then taken out of circulation and stored in the Houses of Parliament until 1834, when the authorities decided that the tallies were no longer required and that they should be burned. As it happened, they were burned rather too enthusiastically and in the resulting conflagration the Houses of Parliament were razed to the ground.[8]

Legitimate children

He had four children by Matilda (Edith), who died on 1 May 1118 at the Palace of Westminster. She was buried in Westminster Abbey.

3. Euphemia, died young.
4. Richard, died young.

Second marriage

On 29 January 1121 he married Adeliza, daughter of Godfrey I of Leuven, Duke of Lower Lotharingia and Landgrave of Brabant, but there were no children from this marriage. Left without male heirs, Henry took the unprecedented step of making his barons swear to accept his daughter Empress Matilda, widow of Henry V, the Holy Roman Emperor, as his heir.
Death and legacy

Henry I burial plaque at Reading Abbey

Henry visited Normandy in 1135 to see his young grandsons, the children of Matilda and Geoffrey. He took great delight in his grandchildren, but soon quarrelled with his daughter and son-in-law and these disputes led him to tarry in Normandy far longer than he originally planned.

Henry died on 1 December 1135 at Saint-Denis-en-Lyons (now Lyons-la-Forêt) in Normandy. According to legend, he died of food poisoning, caused by his eating "a surfeit of lampreys", of which he was excessively fond.[9] His remains were sewn into the hide of a bull to preserve them on the journey, and then taken back to England and were buried at Reading Abbey, which he had founded fourteen years before. The Abbey was destroyed during the Protestant Reformation. No trace of his tomb has survived, the probable site being covered by St. James' School. Nearby is a small plaque and a large memorial cross stands in the adjoining Forbury Gardens.

Although Henry's barons had sworn allegiance to his daughter as their queen, her sex and her remarriage into the House of Anjou, an enemy of the Normans, allowed Henry's nephew Stephen of Blois, to come to England and claim the throne with baronial support. The struggle between the former Empress and Stephen resulted in a long civil war known as the Anarchy. The dispute was eventually settled by Stephen's naming of Matilda's son, Henry Plantagenet, as his heir in 1153.

Illegitimate children

King Henry is famed for holding the record for more than twenty acknowledged illegitimate children, the largest number born to any English king; they turned out to be significant political assets in subsequent years, his bastard daughters cementing alliances with a flock of lords whose lands bordered Henry's.[10] He had many mistresses, and identifying which mistress is the mother of which child is difficult. His illegitimate offspring for whom there is documentation are:

1. Robert, 1st Earl of Gloucester. b. 1090 Often said to have been a son of Sybil Corbet.
2. Maud FitzRoy, married 1113 Conan III, Duke of Brittany
3. Constance or Maud FitzRoy, married 1122 Roscelin, Viscount de Beaumont (died ca. 1176)
4. Mabel FitzRoy, married William III Gouet
5. Alice FitzRoy, married Matthieu I of Montmorency and had two children Bouchard V de Montmorency ca 1130-1189 who married Laurence, daughter of Baldwin IV of Hainault and had issue and Mattheiu who married Matilda of Garlande and had issue. Mattheiu I went on to marry Adelaide of Maurienne.
6. Gilbert FitzRoy, died after 1142. His mother may have been a sister of Walter de Gand.
7. Emma, married Guy de Laval IV, Lord Laval.[11] This is based on epitaphs maintained in the chapterhouse of Clermont Abbey which appear to refer to Emma as the daughter of a king. There may be some confusion here, however, in that Guy's son, Guy de Laval V, was also married to an Emma who described herself as the daughter of Reginald de Dunstanville, Earl of Cornwall, who was an illegitimate son of Henry I as noted below. Additionally, if the elder Emma was also an illegitimate child of Henry I, this would make Guy and his wife Emma first cousins, something that casts more doubt on the claim.[12]

With Edith

Matilda, married in 1103 Count Rotrou III of Perche. She perished 25 November 1120 in the wreck of the White Ship. She left two daughters: Philippa, who married Elias II, Count of Maine (son of Fulk, Count of Anjou and later King of Jerusalem), and Felice.

With Gieva de Tracy

1. William de Tracy

With Ansfride

Ansfride was born c. 1070. She was the wife of Anskill of Seacourt, at Wytham in Berkshire (now Oxfordshire).

1. Juliane de Fontrevault (born c. 1090); married Eustace de Pacy in 1103. She tried to shoot her father with a crossbow after King Henry allowed her two young daughters to be blinded.
2. Fulk FitzRoy (born c. 1092); a monk at Abingdon.
3. Richard of Lincoln (c. 1094 – 25 November 1120); perished in the wreck of the White Ship.
Lady Sybilla Corbet of Alcester was born in 1077 in Alcester in Warwickshire. She married Herbert FitzHerbert, son of Herbert 'the Chamberlain' of Winchester and Emma de Blois. She died after 1157 and was also known as Adela (or Lucia) Corbet. Sybil was definitely mother of Sybil and Rainald, possibly also of William and Rohese. Some sources suggest that there was another daughter by this relationship, Gundred, but it appears that she was thought as such because she was a sister of Reginald de Dunstanville but it appears that that was another person of that name who was not related to this family.

1. Sybilla de Normandy, married Alexander I of Scotland.
2. William Constable, born before 1105. Married Alice (Constable); died after 1187.
3. Reginald de Dunstanville, 1st Earl of Cornwall.

[G. E. Cokayne, in his Complete Peerage, Vol. XI, Appendix D pps 105-121 attempts to elucidate Henry I's illegitimate children. For Mistress Sybil Corbet, he indicates that Rohese married Henry de la Pomerai [ibid.:119]. In any case, the dates concerning Rohese in the above article are difficult to reconcile on face value, her purported children having seemingly been born before their mother, and also before the date of her mother's purported marriage.]

[edit] With Edith FitzForne
1. Robert FitzEdith, Lord Okehampton, (1093–1172) married Dame Maud d'Avranches du Sap. They had one daughter, Mary, who married Renaud, Sire of Courtenay (son of Miles, Sire of Courtenay and Ermengarde of Nevers).

[edit] With Princess Nest
Nest ferch Rhys was born about 1073 at Dinefwr Castle, Carmarthenshire, the daughter of Prince Rhys ap Tewdwr of Deheubarth and his wife, Gwladys ferch Rhywallon. She was married, in 1095, to Gerald de Windsor (aka Geraldus FitzWalter) son of Walter FitzOther, Constable of Windsor Castle and Keeper of the Forests of Berkshire. She had several other liaisons — including one with Stephen of Cardigan, Constable of Cardigan (1136) — and subsequently other illegitimate children. The date of her death is unknown.

1. Henry FitzRoy, 1103-1158. #2. Phillip de Prendergast; Prendergast (Irish: de Priondárgas) is an Irish name of Welsh/Norman origin. The name derives from the 12th century Norman Knight Maurice de Prendergast.

IN WALES

The Prendergast name is said to have been brought to England during the Norman Conquest by one Prenliregast, (also given as Preudirlegast in The Battle Abbey Roll) a follower of William the Conqueror. The son of Prenliregast, Phillip, was given land in the district of Ros in Pembrokeshire, South Wales. Maurice de Prendergast was one of his descendants and in 1160, lord of the manor (castle) of Prendergast. He was probably a nephew of Nesta, the daughter of Rufus, Prince of Demetia (which was the Norman name for Pembrokeshire) where Maurice’s family had lived since the Norman Conquest in 1066. Nesta was distinguished for her beauty and infamous for her affairs (ref. “The Norman Invasion of Ireland” by Richard Roche), it has been said that the “first conquerors of Ireland were nearly all descendants of Nesta”, either by her two husbands or through the son she had to Henry 1 of England.

[edit] With Isabel de Beaumont
Isabel (Elizabeth) de Beaumont (after 1102 – after 1172), daughter of Robert de Beaumont, sister of Robert de Beaumont, 2nd Earl of Leicester. She married Gilbert de Clare, 1st Earl of Pembroke, in 1130. She was also known as Isabella de Meulan.

1. Isabel Hedwig of England
2. Matilda FitzRoy, abbess of Montvilliers, also known as Montpiller

[edit] Fictional portrayals
Henry I has been depicted in historical novels and short stories. They include:[13]

A Saxon Maid by Eliza Frances Pollard. Reportedly "a good short story of the Norman devastations", taking place in the reigns of William II and Henry I. The latter being a prominent character.[13]
Old Men at Pevensey by Rudyard Kipling, a short story included in the collection Puck of Pook’s Hill (1906). Features both Henry I and Robert Curthose.[13]
The King’s Minstrel (1925) by Ivy May Bolton. The titular character is Rahere, depicted as "part jester, part priest, and more wizard than either". The King of the title is Henry I who is "prominently introduced".[13]
The Tree of Justice by Rudyard Kipling, a short story included in the collection Rewards and Fairies (1910). Features both Henry I and Rahere.[13]

The Pillars of the Earth, a 1989 novel by Ken Follett, set during the Anarchy period. In the miniseries based on the book King Henry was portrayed by Clive Wood

See also Normandy portal:
Complete Peerage
Concordat of Worms
First Council of the Lateran
Gesta Normannorum Ducum
Giraldus Cambrensis
Pipe Rolls
Quia Emptores
Robert of Torigny
Simeon of Durham
List of unusual deaths

Footnotes
1.^ First instanced by Matthew of Paris; Charles W. David, "The claims of King Henry I to be called learned", Anniversary Essays in Medieval History by Students of Charles Homer Haskins, 1929, deflated the myth.
9.^ The fact was recorded by Henry of Huntingdon, years after the death of the king.
13.^ a b c d e Nield (1925), p. 28-29

Sources
Matilda of Scotland[1] (c. 1080 – 1 May 1118), born Edith, was the first wife and Queen consort of Henry I of England.

Matilda was born around 1080 in Dunfermline, the daughter of Malcolm III of Scotland and Saint Margaret. She was christened (baptised) Edith, and Robert Curthose stood as godfather at the ceremony. Queen Matilda, the consort of William the Conqueror, was also present at the baptismal font and was her godmother. Baby Matilda pulled at Queen Matilda's headress, which was seen as an omen that the younger Matilda would be queen one day.[2]

The Life Of St Margaret, Queen Of Scotland was later written for Matilda by Turgot of Durham. It refers to Matilda's childhood and her relationship with her mother. In it, Margaret is described as a strict but loving mother. She did not spare the rod when it came to raising her children in virtue, which Tugot supposed was the reason for the good behaviour Matilda and her siblings displayed. Margaret also stressed the importance of piety.[3]

When she was about six years old, Matilda of Scotland (or Edith as she was then probably still called) and her sister Mary were sent to Romsey Abbey, near Southampton, where their aunt Cristina was abbess. During her stay at Romsey and, some time before 1093, at Wilton Abbey, both institutions known for learning,[4] the Scottish princess was much sought-after as a bride; refusing proposals from William de Warenne, 2nd Earl of Surrey, and Alan Rufus, Lord of Richmond. Hériman of Tournai even claims that William II Rufus considered marrying her.

She had left the monastery by 1093, when Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, wrote to the Bishop of Salisbury ordering that the daughter of the King of Scotland be returned to the monastery that she had left.

Marriage
After the mysterious death of William II in August 1100, his brother, Henry, immediately seized the royal treasury and crown. His next task was to marry and Henry's choice was Matilda. Because Matilda had spent most of her life in a convent, there was some controversy over whether she was a nun and thus canonically ineligible for marriage. Henry sought permission for the marriage from Archbishop Anselm, who returned to England in September 1100 after a long exile. Professing himself unwilling to decide so weighty a matter on his own, Anselm called a council of bishops in order to determine the canonical legality of the proposed marriage. Matilda testified that she had never taken holy vows, insisting that her parents had sent her and her sister to England for educational purposes, and her aunt Cristina had veiled her to protect her “from the lust of the Normans.” Matilda claimed she had pulled the veil off and stamped on it, and her aunt beat and scolded her for this act. The council concluded that Matilda was not a nun, never had been and her parents had not intended that she become one, giving their permission for the marriage.

Matilda and Henry seem to have known one another for some time before their marriage — William of Malmesbury states that Henry had "long been attached" to her, and Orderic Vitalis says that Henry had "long adored" her character.

Her mother was the sister of Edgar the Ætheling, proclaimed but uncrowned King of England after Harold, and through her, Matilda was descended from Edmund Ironside and thus from the royal family of Wessex, which in the 10th century, had become the royal family of a united England. This was very important as Henry wanted to make himself more popular with the English people and Matilda represented the old English dynasty. In their children, the Norman and English dynasties would be united. Another benefit was that England and Scotland became politically closer; three of her brothers became kings of Scotland in succession and were unusually friendly towards England during this period of unbroken peace between the two nations: Alexander married one of Henry I's illegitimate daughters and David lived for some time before his accession at Henry's court.[5]
Queen
After Matilda and Henry were married on 11 November 1100 at Westminster Abbey by Archbishop Anselm of Canterbury, she was crowned as "Matilda," a fashionable Norman name. She gave birth to a daughter, Matilda, in February 1102, and a son, William, called "Adelin", in November 1103. As Queen, she maintained her court primarily at Westminster, but accompanied her husband on his travels around England, and, circa 1106–1107, probably visited Normandy with him. Matilda was the designated head of Henry’s curia and acted as regent during several of his absences.[6]

Works
Matilda had great interest in architecture and instigated the building of many Norman style buildings, like at Waltham Abbey and a leper hospital. She also had the first arched bridge in England built, at Stratford-le-Bow, as well as a bathhouse with piped-in water and public lavatories at Queenhithe.[7]

Her court was filled with musicians and poets; she commissioned a monk, probably Thurgot, to write a biography of her mother, Saint Margaret. She was an active queen and, like her mother, was renowned for her devotion to religion and the poor. William of Malmesbury describes her as attending church barefoot at Lent, and washing the feet and kissing the hands of the sick. She also administered extensive dower properties and was known as a patron of the arts, especially music.

Death
After Matilda died on 1 May 1118 at Westminster Palace, she was buried at Westminster Abbey. The death of her only adult son, William Adelin, in the tragic disaster of the White Ship (November 1120) and Henry's failure to produce a legitimate son from his second marriage led to the succession crisis of The Anarchy.

Legacy
After her death, she was remembered by her subjects as "Matilda the Good Queen" and "Matilda of Blessed Memory", and for a time sainthood was sought for her, though she was never canonised.

Issue
Matilda and Henry had four children:

1. Matilda of England (c. February 1102 – 10 September 1167), Holy Roman Empress, Countess consort of Anjou, called Lady of the English
3. Euphemia, died young.
4. Richard, died young.

Notes and sources
1.^ She is known to have been given the name "Edith" (the Old English Eadgyth, meaning "Fortune-Battle") at birth, and was baptised under that name. She is known to have been crowned under a name favoured by the Normans, "Matilda" (from the Germanic Matthilda, meaning "Might-Battle"), and was referred to as such throughout her husband's reign. It is unclear, however, when her name was changed, or why. Accordingly, her later name is used in this article. Historians generally refer to her as "Matilda of Scotland"; in popular usage, she is referred to equally as "Matilda" or "Edith".

References
Giovanna of Montferrat, wife of William Clito, Count of Flanders

By her second marriage to Rainier, Marquess of Montferrat, her children were:

- Humbert
- Agnes, (d. 1127), wife of Arcimboldo VI, lord of Bourbon
- Adelaide of Maurienne (d. 1154), wife of King Louis VI of France

With her first husband, Humbert II of Savoy, whom she married in 1090, her children included:

- was the daughter of William I, Count of Burgundy.

Notes for GISELA OF BURGUNDY, MARCHIONESS OF MONTFERRAT:
Gisela of Burgundy (1075–1135), was a Countess consort of Savoy and a Marchioness consort of Montferrat. She was the spouse of Humbert II Count of Savoy and later of Rainier I of Montferrat whom she married in 1105. She was the daughter of William I, Count of Burgundy.

With her first husband, Humbert II of Savoy, whom she married in 1090, her children included:

- Amadeus III of Savoy
- William, Bishop of Liège
- Adelaide of Maurienne (d. 1154), wife of King Louis VI of France

By her second marriage to Rainier, Marquess of Montferrat, her children were:

- William V of Montferrat
- Giovanna of Montferrat, wife of William Clito, Count of Flanders
Matilda, wife of Alberto of Parodi, Margrave of Parodi
Adelasia, a nun
Isabella, wife of Guido, Count of Biandrate

Child of GISELA OF BURGUNDY. MARCHIONESS OF MONTFERRAT is:
143.  i. ADELAIDE OF 75 MAURIENNE, d. 1154.

Generation No. 71

140.  DOMONGART 75 DE DALRAIDA II (DOMNALL BRECCH 74, EOCHAID BUIDE MACAIDAN OF F 73 ARGYLL I, AIDAN MACGABRAN OF 22, MACDOMANGART OF 71, FELDIELM 10 FOLCHAIN, BRION (BIAN) 69 MACEACHACH, EOCHAID (EOCHU) MUGMEDON OF 68 IRELAND, MUIREADACH TIREH 72 MACFIACHACH II, FIACHAIDH SRAIBHTHINE OF 66 IRELAND, CAIRBRE LIFIOCHAR 65 MC CORMARC, CORMAC ULFHADA 64 MAC AIRT, AIRT AODINFHER 63 MAC CONN, CONN CEAIDCHATHACH 62 MAC FEIDEILMID, FEDHILMIDH (FELIM) 61 RACHTMAR, TUATHAL 60 TEACHTMAR, FIACHA FIONN 59 OLA, FEREDACH 58 FIONN-FEAICHTHACH, CRIAMTHANN-NIADH-NAR 57, LUGHAIDH SRAIBH-N 56 DEARG, BRESS-NAR-LOTHAR 56, EOCHAIDH 55 FEIDLIOCH, FIIONN 53, FINNLOGH 52, ROIGHEN 51 RUADH, ASSAMAN 50 EMHNA, ENNA 50 AIGNEAC, AONGUS 56 TUIRMEAC-TEAMRACH, EOCHAIDH ALT 57 LEATHAN, OLJOLL 46 CAS-FIAICHTACH, CONLA 45 CAOMH, IAARAN 44 GLEOFATHACH, MELO 43 MOLBHITHACH, COLETHACH 42 CAOL-BHREAGH, UGAINE 41 MOR, EOCHAIDH 40 BUADHACH, DUACH 39 LADHRACH, FIACHA 38 TOLGRACH, MUREADACH 37 BOLGACH, SIMEON 36 BREC, AEDAN 35 GLAS, NUADHAS 34 FIONNFAL, GIALCHADH 33, OLJOLL 32 AOCHELCHUN, SIORNA 31 "SAOGLACHACH", DEIN 30 ROTHREATACH 29, MAIR 28, AONGUS 27 OLMUCACH, FIACHA 26 LABHRAINN, FIDIMGHALL 25, ENBOAITH 24, TIGERNMAS 23, FOLL-ACH 22, EITHRIAL 21, IRIAL (IAREL EURALUS) FAIDH (FAITH) 20 MACEREMOIN, HEREMON (2ND MONARCH) OF 19 IRELAND, TEA TEPHI 18 'SCOTA', PRINCESS OF EGYPT, PHARAOH NEKANTHEROS "NECHO 17", PSAMTEK 16 I, NEKO 15 I, SHEPSESRE 14 TEFNAKHITII, PRINCE OF EGYPT, BAKENRANEF (BOCCHORIS) WAH KA 13 "RE", TEFNAKHTE (I) SHEPSES RE OF 12 EGYPT, OSORKON IV 'C' OF 11 MAAT, SHOSHONK 10 AAKHEPERRE, STEPENRE 9 PMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONK 8 III, TAKELOT 7 II, OSORKON 8 I, TAKELOT 7 I, OSORKON 4 I, SHOSHONK I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT 7, THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA 4 SHOSHENQ) was born 630, and died 673.  He married SPONDIANA INGEN ENFIDAIG 675.

Notes for DOMONGART DE DALRAIDA II:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Mornery.FTW]

• ID: 144063
• Name: Domongart De Dalraidha II.
• AKAN: MacDomnaill 1
• Sex: M
• Change Date: 5 MAR 2009
• Birth: 630 2 1
• Event: Title King of Scots 1
• Death: 673 2 1

/Domangart Reti of Dalriada I. b: abt 0465 d: abt 0507
/Gabran (Gabhran) MacDomangart of Argyll b: 500 d: BET 558 AND 560
/CAIRBRE LIFIOCHAR (Liffechar)

MacCormaic d: 0284 =>
V. d: 322

/Fiachaidh Sraibhthine (Scrabhtaine) of Ireland

\Aine ingen Finn Úi Éremóin
\Muireadeach Tirech MacFiaichach II. d: 356
\Aife (Aoife) of Gall Gaedal
\Eochaid (Eochu) Mugmedon of Ireland d: 365
\Muirion b: abt 0336
Domangart mac Donnail (died 673) was a king in Dál Riata (modern western Scotland) and the son of Domnall Brecc. It is not clear whether he was over-king of Dál Riata or king of the Cenél nGabráin.

Domnall Brecc is not listed by the Duan Albanach but is included in other sources, such as genealogies of William the Lion, and that of Causantín mac Cuiléin found with the Senchus fer n-Alban. In these genealogies he is noted as the father of Eochaid mac Domangart.

The Annals of Ulster for 673 report: "The killing of Domangart, son of Domnall Brecc, the king of Dál Riata." Some king-lists state that in his time the Cenél Comgaill separated from the Cenél nGabráin.

It is not clear who succeeded Domangart as king of Dál Riata, if he was such, or as king of the Cenél nGabráin.

Known kings after Domangart include Mael Dúin mac Conall and Domnall Donn of the Cenél nGabráin and Ferchar Fota of the Cenél Loain is assigned a long reign of 21 years by the Duan Albanach and other king-lists, and this would place the beginning of his rule close to the death of Domangart.

[i] References


Child of DOMANGART DE DALRAIDA and SPONDANA ENFIDAIG is:

144. i. Eochaid of76 DALRAIDA II, b. 660; d. 697.

Hugh, Guy's brother, as "the noble heir of Ponthieu" we must assume Enguerrand, who must have died before the Carmen was composed (no later than 1068): when the Carmen refers to brothers, was a participant in the Battle of Mortemer. According to a very convincing interpretation of The Carmen de Hastingae Proelio, Hugh, another of Guy's brothers, was a participant in the Battle of Hastings, and had a hand in the slaying of Harold. Guy I had a son, Enguerrand, who must have died before the Carmen was composed (no later than 1068): when the Carmen refers to Hugh, Guy's brother, as "the noble heir of Ponthieu", we must assume Enguerrand's death as a fact, either at the time

Guy I of Ponthieu (died 13 October 1100) was born sometime in the mid to late 1020s. He was the son of Count Enguerrand II and the grandson of Hugh II.

The Ponthievin alliance with Duke William of Normandy had earlier been secured by the marriage of Enguerrand's and Guy's sister to Duke William's uncle, William of Talou (Enguerrand himself was married to Duke William's sister, Adelaide). William of Talou had built a strong castle at Arques, and from it (in 1053) he defied his nephew the youthful Duke of Normandy. As "family", the comital house of Ponthieu supported the rebellion.

Duke William put Arques under siege, and then remained mobile with another force in the countryside nearby. He was aware that Normandy was being threatened by the armies of King Henry of France, who wanted to bring his young, former vassal to heel; and that Normandy's erstwhile allies from Ponthieu would also be coming to break the siege of Arques. Young Count Enguerrand led a Ponthievin army into the Talou to relieve Arques, and arrived first, but Duke William successfully ambushed them and Enguerrand was killed (legend says, within sight and sound of the walls of Arques, from which his sister witnessed the demise of her brother). Upon learning of this serious reverse, the vacillating Henry withdrew his forces at once back across the Norman border. William of Talou was compelled to surrender Arques and was banished for life. (Alternatively, the story goes that Henry reinforced Arques, and Duke William lured part of the French army, including Enguerrand and the Ponthievin, away by a feigned flight, then turned on them and won a battle: Henry then withdrew, forcing the surrender of Arques not long after.)

With the death of his older brother (who was without male issue or heirs), Guy assumed the comital duties: this is the first mention of Guy in the historical record.

In February 1054, Henry was again ready to chastise Duke William: he reentered the duchy with a large army of his own liegemen and an Angevin army led by Count Geoffrey of Anjou. This combined force moved down the Seine toward Rouen, while Henry's brother Eudes "led" a second army, along with Guy and Count Rainald of Clairmont. The Franco-Ponthievin army was undisciplined, and fragmented out of control to plunder and pillage the countryside around Mortemer. They were attacked suddenly by Normans from Eu and other districts of northeastern Normandy. In the Battle of Mortemer, Guy's younger brother Waleran was mortally wounded, and Guy himself was captured. He spent two years as a prisoner in Normandy, while his uncle, Bishop Guy of Amiens, ruled Ponthieu as regent.

Evidently, from this point on, Count Guy was a vassal of Duke William of Normandy.

In 1066, Harold Godwinson, the Earl of Wessex, was shipwrecked on the shores of Ponthieu and captured by Count Guy. Duke William demanded the release of the earl, and Count Guy delivered Harold Godwinson up after being paid a ransom for him. Harold was not released from Normandy until he too had sworn on the Holy Relics to be Duke William's vassal, and to aid him to the throne of England. (This story is pictured prominently in the Bayeux Tapestry.)

In 1066, Harold accepted the crown of England upon the death of Edward the Confessor, thus precipitating the war that resulted in the Norman Conquest.

According to a very convincing interpretation of The Carmen de Hastingae Proelio, Hugh, another of Guy's brothers, was a participant in the Battle of Hastings, and had a hand in the slaying of Harold. Guy I had a son, Enguerrand, who must have died before the Carmen was composed (no later than 1068): when the Carmen refers to Hugh, Guy's brother, as "the noble heir of Ponthieu", we must assume Enguerrand's death as a fact, either at the time
of the Conquest, or shortly before

His daughter, Agnes, married Robert of Bellême. Their son, William III of Ponthieu, assumed the comital title upon the death of his mother, sometime before 1111.

Sources

FMG on the Counts of Ponthieu

Child of Guy I, COUNT OF PONTHIEU is:

145. i. COUNTESS OF PONTHIEU76 Agnes.


Notes for EMPRESS MATILDA OF ENGLAND PLANTAGENET:
Empress Matilda (c. 7 February 1102 – 10 September 1167), also known as Matilda of England or Maude, was the daughter and heir of King Henry I of England. Matilda and her younger brother, William Adelin, were the only legitimate children of King Henry to survive to adulthood. William’s early death in the White ship disaster in 1120 made Matilda the last heir from the paternal line of her grandfather William the Conqueror.

As a child, Matilda was betrothed to and later married Henry V, Holy Roman Emperor, acquiring the title Empress. The couple had no known children. After being widowed for a few years, she was married to Geoffrey count of Anjou, with whom she had three sons, the eldest of whom became King Henry II of England.

Matilda was the first female ruler of the Kingdom of England. The length of her effective rule was brief, however — a few months in 1141. She was never crowned and failed to consolidate her rule (legally and politically). For this reason, she is normally excluded from lists of English monarchs, and her rival (and cousin) Stephen of Blois is listed
as monarch for the period 1135-1154. Their rivalry for the throne led to years of unrest and civil war in England that have been called The Anarchy. She did secure her inheritance of the Duchy of Normandy — through the military feats of her husband, Geoffrey — and campaigned unstintingly for her oldest son's inheritance, living to see him ascend the throne of England in 1154.

Matilda was the elder of the two children born to Henry I of England and his wife Matilda of Scotland (also known as Edith) who survived infancy; her younger brother was William Adelin.

Her maternal grandparents were Malcolm III of Scotland and Saint Margaret of Scotland. Margaret was daughter of Edward the Exile and granddaughter of Edmund II of England. Most historians believe Matilda was born in Winchester, but one, John M. Fletcher, argues for the possibility of the royal palace at Sutton Courtenay in Oxfordshire. Her paternal grandparents were William the Conqueror and Matilda of Flanders.

When she was seven years old, Matilda was betrothed to the 23 years old Henry V, Holy Roman Emperor; at eight, she was sent to the Holy Roman Empire (Germany) to begin training for the life of an empress consort. The eight-year-old Matilda was crowned Queen of the Romans in Mainz on 25 July 1110.[1][2] Aged 12, Matilda was made a child bride as the royal couple were married at Mainz on 7 January 1114. Matilda accompanied Henry on tours to Rome and Tuscany. Matilda later acted as regent, mainly in Italy, in his absence.[3] Emperor Henry died on 23 May 1125. The imperial couple had no surviving offspring, but Herman of Tournai states that Matilda bore a son who lived only a short while.

Matilda returned to England. Henry I then arranged a second marriage for Matilda, to ensure peace between Normandy and Anjou. On 17 June 1128, Matilda, then 26, was married to Geoffrey of Anjou, then 14. He was also Count of Maine and heir apparent to (his father) the Count of Anjou — whose title he soon acquired, making Matilda Countess of Anjou. It was a title she rarely used. Geoffrey called himself "Plantagenet" from the broom flower (planta genista) he adopted as his personal emblem. Plantagenet became the dynastic name of the powerful line of English kings descended from Matilda and Geoffrey.

Matilda's marriage with Geoffrey was troubled, with frequent long separations, but they had three sons. The eldest, Henry, was born on 5 March 1133. In 1134, she almost died in childbirth, following the birth of Geoffrey, Count of Nantes. A third son, William X, Count of Poitou, was born in 1136. She survived her second husband, who died in Sept. 1151.

In 1120, her brother William Adelin drowned in the disastrous wreck of the White Ship, making Matilda the only surviving legitimate child of her father King Henry. Her cousin Stephen of Blois was, like her, a grandchild of William (the Conqueror) of Normandy; but her paternal line meant she was senior to Stephen in the line of succession.

After Matilda returned to England, Henry named her as his heir to the English throne and Duchy of Normandy. Henry saw to it that the Anglo-Norman barons, including Stephen, twice swore to accept Matilda as ruler if Henry died without a male heir of his body.

When her father died in Normandy, on 1 December 1135, Matilda was with Geoffrey in Anjou, and, crucially, too far away from events rapidly unfolding in England and Normandy. She and Geoffrey were also at odds with her father over border castles. Stephen of Blois rushed to England upon learning of Henry's death and moved quickly to seize the crown from the appointed heir. He was supported by most of the barons and his brother, Henry, bishop of Winchester, breaking his oath to defend her rights. Matilda, however, contested Stephen in both realms. She and her husband Geoffrey entered Normandy and began military campaigns to claim her inheritance there. Progress was uneven at first, but she persevered. In Normandy, Geoffrey secured all fiefdoms west and south of the Seine by 1143; in January 1144, he crossed the Seine and took Rouen without resistance. He assumed the title Duke of Normandy, and Matilda became Duchess of Normandy. Geoffrey and Matilda held the duchy conjointly until 1149, then ceded it to their son, Henry, which event was soon ratified by King Louis VII of France. It was not until 1139, however, that Matilda commanded the military strength necessary to challenge Stephen within England.

During the war, Matilda's most loyal and capable supporter was her illegitimate half-brother, Robert, 1st Earl of Gloucester.
Matilda’s greatest triumph came in February 1141, when her forces defeated and captured King Stephen at the Battle of Lincoln. He was made a prisoner and effectively deposed. Her advantage lasted only a few months. When she arrived in London, the city was ready to welcome her and support her coronation. She used the title of Lady of the English and planned to assume the title of queen upon coronation (the custom which was followed by her grandsons, Richard and John).[4] However, she refused the citizens’ request to halve their taxes and, because of her own arrogance,[4] they closed the city gates to her and reignited the civil war on 24 June 1141.

By November, Stephen was free (exchanged for the captured Robert of Gloucester) and a year later, the tables were turned when Matilda was besieged at Oxford but escaped to Wallingford, supposedly by fleeing across snow-covered land in a white cape. In 1141, she escaped Devizes in a similar manner, by disguising herself as a corpse and being carried out for burial.

In 1148, Matilda and Henry returned to Normandy, following the death of Robert of Gloucester, and the reconquest of Normandy by Geoffrey. Upon their arrival, Geoffrey turned Normandy over to Henry and retired to Anjou.

Later life
Matilda’s first son, Henry, was showing signs of becoming a successful leader. It was 1147 when Henry, aged 14, had accompanied Matilda on an invasion of England. It soon failed due to lack of preparation but it made him determined that England was his mother’s right, and so his own. He returned to England again between 1149 and 1150. On 22 May 1149 he was knighted by King David I of Scotland, his great uncle, at Carlisle.[5] Although the civil war had been decided in Stephen’s favour, his reign was troubled. In 1153, the death of Stephen’s son Eustace, combined with the arrival of a military expedition led by Henry, led him to acknowledge the latter as his heir by the Treaty of Wallingford.

Matilda retired to Rouen in Normandy during her last years, where she maintained her own court and presided over the government of the duchy in the absence of Henry. She intervened in the quarrels between her eldest son Henry and her second son Geoffrey, Count of Nantes, but peace between the brothers was brief. Geoffrey rebelled against Henry twice before his sudden death in 1158. Relations between Henry and his youngest brother, William X, Count of Poitou, were more cordial, and William was given vast estates in England. Archbishop Thomas Becket refused to allow William to marry the Countess of Surrey and the young man fled to Matilda’s court at Rouen. William, who was his mother’s favourite child, died there in January 1164, reportedly of disappointment and sorrow. She attempted to mediate in the quarrel between her son Henry and Becket, but was unsuccessful.

Although she gave up hope of being crowned in 1141, her name always preceded that of her son Henry, even after he became king. Matilda died at Notre Dame du Pré near Rouen in 1167 and was buried in the Abbey of Bec-Hellouin, Normandy. Her body was transferred to Rouen Cathedral in 1847; her epitaph reads: “Great by Birth, Greater by Marriage, Greatest in her Offspring: Here lies Matilda, the daughter, wife, and mother of Henry.”

Historical fiction
The civil war between supporters of Stephen and the supporters of Matilda has proven popular as a subject in historical fiction. Novels dealing with it include:

Graham Shelby, The Villains of the Piece (1972) (published in the US as The Oath and the Sword)
The Brother Cadfael series by Ellis Peters, and the TV series made from them starring Sir Derek Jacobi
Jean Plaidy, The Passionate Enemies, the third book of her Norman Trilogy
Sharon Penman, When Christ and His Saints Slept tells the story of the events before, during and after the civil war
Haley Elizabeth Garwood, The Forgotten Queen (1997)
Ken Follett, The Pillars of the Earth
E. L. Konigsburg, A Proud Taste for Scarlet and Miniver
Ellen Jones, The Fatal Crown (highly inaccurate)
Juliet Dymoke, The Lion’s Legacy (Being part of a trilogy, the first being, Of The Ring Of Earls, the second, Henry Of The High Rock)

Indeed, some novels go so far as to posit a love-affair between Matilda and Stephen, e.g. the Janna Mysteries by Felicity Pulman, set during the civil war between Stephen and Matilda.
Matilda is a character in Jean Anouilh's play Becket. In the 1964 film adaptation she was portrayed by Martita Hunt. She was also portrayed by Brenda Bruce in the 1978 BBC TV series The Devil's Crown, which dramatised the reigns of her son and grandsons.

Finally, Alison Pill portrayed her in the 2010 TV miniseries The Pillars of the Earth, an adaptation of Follett's novel, although she is initially known in this as Princess Maud not Empress Matilda.

Footnotes
1. "Matilda (1102-1167)”, DNB
2. Chibnall, Marjorie The Empress Matilda: Queen Consort, Queen Mother and Lady of the English
3. Chibnall, Marjorie The Empress Matilda: Queen Consort, Queen Mother and Lady of the English
http://books.google.com/books?id=yiqrD_b_EGkC&pg=PA30&dq=%22lady+of+of+the+English%22+uncrowned&hl=
#v=onepage&q=%22lady%20of%20the%20English%22%20uncrowned&l=false. Retrieved 2009-09-19.
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Gardener J and Wenborn W the History Today Companion to British History
Pain, Nesta (1978) Empress Matilda: Uncrowned Queen of England
Parsons, John Carmi. Medieval Mothering (New Middle Ages), sub. Marjorie Chibnall, "Empress Matilda and Her Sons"

Notes for GEOFFREY D’ANJOU:
Geoffrey V (24 August 1113 – 7 September 1151), called the Handsome (French: le Bel) and Plantagenet, was the Count of Anjou, Touraine, and Maine by inheritance from 1129 and then Duke of Normandy by conquest from 1144. By his marriage to the Empress Matilda, daughter and heiress of Henry I of England, Geoffrey had a son, Henry Curtmantle, who succeeded to the English throne and founded the Plantagenet dynasty to which Geoffrey gave his nickname.

Geoffrey was the elder son of Fulk V of Anjou and Eremburga of La Flèche, heiress of Elias I of Maine. Geoffrey received his nickname for the yellow sprig of broom blossom (genêt is the French name for the genista, or broom shrub) he wore in his hat as a badge. King Henry I of England, having heard good reports on Geoffrey's talents and prowess, sent his royal legates to Anjou to negotiate a marriage between Geoffrey and his own daughter, Matilda. Consent was obtained from both parties, and on 10 June 1128 the fifteen-year-old Geoffrey was knighted in Rouen by King Henry in preparation for the wedding. Interestingly, there was no opposition to the marriage from the Church, despite the fact that Geoffrey's sister was the widow of Matilda's brother (only son of King Henry) which fact had been used to annul the marriage of another of Geoffrey's sisters to the Norman pretender William Clito. This fact is understandable considering the opposition to the marriage between Clito and Sibylla came from King Henry himself, not the church.

Marriage
On 17 June 1128 Geoffrey married Empress Matilda, the daughter and heiress of King Henry I of England by his first wife Edith of Scotland, and widow of Henry V, Holy Roman Emperor. The marriage was meant to seal a peace between England/Normandy and Anjou. She was eleven years older than Geoffrey, very proud of her status as an Empress (as opposed to being a mere Countess). Their marriage was a stormy one with frequent long separations, but she bore him three sons and survived him.

Count of Anjou
The year after the marriage Geoffrey's father left for Jerusalem (where he was to become king), leaving Geoffrey behind as count of Anjou. John of Marmoutier describes Geoffrey as handsome, red-headed, jovial, and a great warrior; however, Ralph of Diceto alleges that his charm concealed his cold and selfish character.
When King Henry I died in 1135, Matilda at once entered Normandy to claim her inheritance. The border districts submitted to her, but England chose her cousin Stephen of Blois for its king, and Normandy soon followed suit. The following year, Geoffrey gave Ambrières, Gorron, and Chatillon-sur-Colmont to Juhel de Mayenne, on condition that he help obtain the inheritance of Geoffrey's wife. In 1139 Matilda landed in England with 140 knights, where she was besieged at Arundel Castle by King Stephen. In the "Anarchy" which ensued, Stephen was captured at Lincoln in February, 1141, and imprisoned at Bristol. A legatine council of the English church held at Winchester in April 1141 declared Stephen deposed and proclaimed Matilda "Lady of the English". Stephen was subsequently released from prison and had himself recrowned on the anniversary of his first coronation.

During 1142 and 1143, Geoffrey secured all of Normandy west and south of the Seine, and, on 14 January 1144, he crossed the Seine and entered Rouen. He assumed the title of Duke of Normandy in the summer of 1144. In 1144, he founded an Augustine priory at Chateau-l'Ermitage in Anjou. Geoffrey held the duchy until 1149, when he and Matilda conjointly ceded it to their son, Henry, which cession was formally ratified by King Louis VII of France the following year.

Geoffrey also put down three baronial rebellions in Anjou, in 1129, 1135, and 1145-1151. He was often at odds with his younger brother, Elias, whom he had imprisoned until 1151. The threat of rebellion slowed his progress in Normandy, and is one reason he could not intervene in England. In 1153, the Treaty of Wallingford allowed Stephen should remain King of England for life and that Henry, the son of Geoffrey and Matilda should succeed him.

Death
Geoffrey died suddenly on 7 September 1151. According to John of Marmoutier, Geoffrey was returning from a royal council when he was stricken with fever. He arrived at Château-du-Loir, collapsed on a couch, made bequests of gifts and charities, and died. He was buried at St. Julien's Cathedral in Le Mans France.

Children
Geoffrey and Matilda's children were:

2. Geoffrey, Count of Nantes (1 June 1134 Rouen- 26 July 1158 Nantes) died unmarried and was buried in Nantes
3. William X, Count of Poitou (1136–1164) died unmarried
Geoffrey also had illegitimate children by an unknown mistress (or mistresses): Hamelin; Emme, who married Dafydd Ab Owain Gwynedd, Prince of North Wales; and Mary, who became a nun and Abbess of Shaftesbury and who may be the poetess Marie de France. Adelaide of Angers is sometimes sourced as being the mother of Hamelin.

Heraldry
The first reference to Norman heraldry was in 1128, when Henry I of England knighted his son-in-law Geoffrey and granted him a badge of gold lions (or leopards) on a blue background. (A gold lion may already have been Henry's own badge.) Henry II used two gold lions and two lions on a red background are still part of the arms of Normandy. Henry's son, Richard I, added a third lion to distinguish the arms of England.

Fictional portrayals
Geoffrey was portrayed by actor Bruce Purchase in the 1978 BBC TV series The Devil's Crown, which dramatised the reigns of his son and grandsons in England.

Geoffrey is an important character in Sharon Penman's novel When Christ and His Saints Slept, which deals with the war between his wife and King Stephen.

References

Notes for HENRY V, HOLY ROMAN EMPEROR:
Henry V (11 August 1086 – 23 May 1125) was King of Germany (from 1099 to 1125) and Holy Roman Emperor (from 1111 to 1125), the fourth and last ruler of the Salian dynasty. Henry's reign coincided with the final phase of the great Investiture Controversy, which had pitted pope against emperor. By the settlement of the Concordat of Worms, he surrendered to the demands of the second generation of Gregorian reformers.

He was a son of Henry IV, Holy Roman Emperor and Bertha of Savoy. His maternal grandparents were Otto of Savoy and Adelaide of Susa.

On 6 January 1099, his father Henry IV had him crowned King of Germany at Aachen in place of his older brother, the rebel Conrad. He took an oath to take no part in the business of the Empire during his father's lifetime, but was induced by his father's enemies to revolt in 1104, securing a dispensation from the oath by Pope Paschal II, and some of the princes did homage to him at Mainz in January 1105. Despite the initial setbacks of the rebels, Henry IV was forced to abdicate and died soon after. Order was soon restored in Germany, the citizens of Cologne were punished with a fine, and an expedition against Robert II, Count of Flanders, brought this rebel to his knees.

In 1107, Henry undertook a campaign to restore Borivoi II in Bohemia, which was only partially successful. Henry summoned Svatopluk the Lion, who had captured Duke Borivoi. Borivoi was released at the emperor's command and made godfather to Svatopluk's new son. Nevertheless, on Svatopluk's return to Bohemia, he assumed the throne. In 1108, Henry went to war with Coloman of Hungary on behalf of Prince Álmos. An attack by Boleslaus III of Poland and Borivoi on Svatopluk forced Henry to give up his campaign. Instead, he invaded Poland to compel them to renew their accustomed tribute, but was defeated at the Battles of Głogów and the Hundsfeld. In 1110, he succeeded in securing the dukedom of Bohemia for Ladislaus I.

The main interest of Henry's reign was the settling of the controversy over lay investiture, which had caused a serious dispute during the previous reign. The papal party who had supported Henry in his resistance to his father hoped he would assent to the papal decrees, which had been renewed by Paschal II at the synod of Guastalla in 1106. The king, however, continued to invest the bishops, but wished the pope to hold a council in Germany to settle the question. After some hesitation, Paschal preferred France to Germany, and, after holding a council at Troyes, renewed his prohibition of lay investiture. The matter slumbered until 1110, when negotiations between king and pope having failed, Paschal renewed his decrees and Henry invaded Italy with a large army.

The strength of his forces helped him to secure general recognition in Lombardy where archbishop Grossolano crown him with Iron Crown of Lombardy, and at Sutri he concluded an arrangement with Paschal by which he renounced the rite of investiture in return for a promise of coronation, and the restoration to the Empire of all Christendom, which had been in the hands of the German state and church since the time of Charlemagne. It was a treaty impossible to execute, and Henry, whose consent to it is said to have been conditional on its acceptance by the princes and bishops of Germany, probably foresaw that it would occasion a breach between the German clergy and the pope.

Having entered Rome and sworn the usual oaths, the king presented himself at St Peter's Basilica on 12 February 1111 for his coronation and the ratification of the treaty. The words commanding the clergy to restore the fiefs of the crown to Henry were read amid a tumult of indignation, whereupon the pope refused to crown the king, who in return declined to hand over his renunciation of the right of investiture. Paschal, along with sixteen cardinals, were seized by Henry's soldiers and, in the general disorder which followed, an attempt to liberate the pontiff was thwarted in a struggle during which the king himself was wounded. A Norman army sent by Prince Robert I of Capua to rescue the papists was turned back by the imperialist count of Tusculum, Ptolemy I of Tusculum.

Henry left Rome carrying the pope with him; and Paschal's failure to obtain assistance drew from him a confirmation of the king's right of investiture and a promise to crown him emperor. The coronation ceremony accordingly took place on 13 April, after which the emperor returned to Germany, where he sought to strengthen his power by granting privileges to the inhabitants of the region of the upper Rhine.

In 1112, Lothair of Supplinburg, Duke of Saxony, rose in arms against Henry, but was easily quelled. In 1113, however, a quarrel over the succession to the counties of Weimar and Orlamünde gave occasion for a fresh outbreak on the part of Lothair, whose troops were defeated at the Battle of Warnstadt though the duke was later
pardoned.

[edit] War with Cologne
Archbishop Ruthard of Mainz hands over the Sphaira to Henry V. Having been married at Mainz on 7 January 1114 to Matilda, the daughter of Henry I of England, the emperor was confronted with a further rising, initiated by the citizens of Cologne, who were soon joined by the Saxons and others.[17]

Initially, Henry took the fortified town of Dütz, which lay across the Rhine from Cologne. His control of Dütz allowed him to cut Cologne off from all river trade and transportation. At this point, the citizens of Cologne assembled a large force, including bowmen, and crossed the river, formed their ranks and prepared to meet Henry's army.[18] The Cologne bowmen were able to break the armor of Henry's soldiers; it was summer, the weather was sultry, and the soldiers had removed their armor to find relief from the heat. Henry subsequently withdrew. He turned south, and sacked Bonn and Jülich; on his return to Duetz, he was met by Archbishop Frederick, Duke Gottfried of Lorraine, Henry of Zutphen, and Count Theodoric of Aar, Count Gerhard of Julich, Lambert of Mulenarke, and Eberhard of Gandernol, who put up a stout resistance in which the latter was killed, and Theodoric, Gerhard and Lambert were taken prisoner.

When Frederick, Count of Westphalia arrived with his brother, also named Henry, and their substantial force, the emperor withdrew, barely escaping capture.[19] Finally, in October 1114, the two armies met on the plain at Andernach. After an initial skirmish in which Duke Henry of Lorraine was forced to withdraw, the citizen army and the emperor's force of Swabians, Bavarians, and Franconians clashed. The young men of Cologne, including many journeymen and apprentices, created a fearful din of noise, slashing at all who came near them. Theodoric threw his force into the fight, and the emperor's army was forced back.[20]

Henry failed to take Cologne, and Lothair of Supplinburg defeated his forces at the Battle of Welfesholz (11 February 1115).[21] Eventually, complications in Italy compelled him to leave Germany to the care of Frederick II of Hohenstaufen, Duke of Swabia, and his brother Conrad, afterwards the German king Conrad III.

[edit] Second Italian expedition
After the departure of Henry from Rome in 1111 a council had declared the privilege of lay investiture, which had been extorted from Paschal, to be invalid. Guido, Archbishop of Vienne excommunicated the emperor,[22] calling upon the pope to ratify this sentence. Paschal, however, refused to take so extreme a step; and the quarrel entered upon a new stage in 1115 when Matilda of Tuscany, died leaving her vast estates to the papacy.[23] Crossing the Alps in 1116, Henry won the support of town and noble by granting privileges to the one and giving presents to the other. But the papist Jordan, Archbishop of Milan, excommunicated him at San Tecla. He took possession of Matilda's lands, and was gladly received in Rome. By this time Paschal had withdrawn his consent to lay investiture[24] and the excommunication had been published in Rome; but the pope was compelled to flee from the city. Some of the cardinals withstood the emperor, but by means of bribes he broke down the opposition, and was crowned a second time[25] by Maurice Bourdin, Archbishop of Braga, who was to become Antipope Gregory VIII.

Meanwhile the defeat at Welfesholz had given heart to Henry's enemies; many of his supporters, especially among the bishops, fell away; the excommunication was published at Cologne, and the pope, with the assistance of the Normans, began to make war.[26] In January 1118, Paschal died and was succeeded by Gelasius II. The emperor immediately returned from northern Italy to Rome. But as the new pope escaped from the city, Henry, despairing of making a treaty, secured the election of the Antipope Gregory VIII,[27] who was left in possession of Rome when the emperor returned across the Alps that same year.

[edit] Concordat of Worms
Grave of Henry V in the cathedral of Speyer. After the second Italian expedition, the opposition in Germany was gradually crushed and a general peace declared at Tribur,[28] while the desire for a settlement of the investiture dispute was growing. Negotiations, begun at Würzburg, were continued at Worms, where the new pope, Callistus II,[29] was represented by Cardinal Lambert, Bishop of Ostia.

In the Concordat of Worms, signed in September 1122, Henry renounced the right of investiture with ring and crozier, recognized the freedom of election of the clergy, and promised to restore all church property.[30] The pope agreed to allow elections to take place in presence of the imperial envoys, and the investiture with the sceptre to be
granted by the emperor as a symbol that the estates of the church were held under the crown. Henry, who had been solemnly excommunicated at Reims by Callistus in October 1119,[31] was received again into the communion of the church, after he had abandoned his nominee, Gregory, to defeat and banishment.

The emperor's concluding years were occupied with a campaign in Holland, and with a quarrel over the succession to the margraviate of Meissen, two disputes in which his enemies were aided by Lothair of Saxony. In 1124, he led an expedition against Louis VI of France,[32] turned his arms against the citizens of Worms, and on 23 May 1125 died at Utrecht[33] and was buried at Speyer. His heart and bowels are buried at the Cathedral of Saint Martin, Utrecht. Having no legitimate children, he left his possessions to his nephew, Frederick II of Swabia,[34] and on his death the line of Franconian, or Salian, emperors became extinct. Henry and Matilda had no surviving children, though the chronicler Hériman of Tournai mentions a child who died soon after birth. Henry's illegitimate daughter Bertha married Ptolemy II of Tusculum, son of the first Ptolemy.

See also
Kings of Germany family tree. He was related to every other king of Germany.
Concordat of Worms
First Council of the Lateran

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Child of EMPRESS PLANTAGENET and GEOFFREY D'ANJOU is:
146. i. HENRY II "CORTMANTLE" OF ENGLAND48 PLANTAGENET, b. 1132; d. 1189.


Notes for ADELAIDE OF MAURIENNE:
Adelaide of Savoy (or Adelaide of Maurienne) (Italian: Adelaide di Savoia or Adelasia di Moriana, French: Adélie ou Adèle de Maurienne) (1092 – 18 November 1154) was the second spouse but first Queen consort of Louis VI of France.

Adelaide was the daughter of Humbert II of Savoy and Gisela of Burgundy, and niece of Pope Callixtus II, who once visited her court in France. Her father died in 1103, and her mother married Renier I of Montferrat as a second husband.

She became the second wife of Louis VI of France (1081–1137), whom she married on 3 August 1115. They had eight children, the second of whom became Louis VII of France. Adelaide was one of the most politically active of all France's medieval queens consort. Her name appears on 45 royal charters from the reign of Louis VI. During her tenure as queen, royal charters were dated with both her regnal year and that of the king. Among many other religious benefactions, she and Louis founded the monastery of St Peter's (Ste Pierre) at Montmartre, in the northern
suburbs of Paris. She was reputed to be "ugly," but attentive and pious.[citation needed]

Children
She and Louis had seven sons and one daughter:

1. Philip of France (1116–1131)
2. Louis VII (1120–18 November 1180), King of France
3. Henry (1121–1175), Archbishop of Reims
4. Hugues (b. c. 1122)
5. Robert (c. 1123–11 October 1188), Count of Dreux
6. Constance (c. 1124–16 August 1176), married first Eustace IV, Count of Boulogne and then Raymond V of Toulouse.
7. Philip (1125–1161), Bishop of Paris. not to be confused with his elder brother.
8. Peter (c. 1125–1183), married Elizabeth, Lady of Courtenay

Queen dowager
After Louis VI's death, Adélaïde did not immediately retire to conventual life, as did most widowed queens of the time. Instead she married Matthieu I of Montmorency, with whom she had one child. She remained active in the French court and in religious activities.

Adélaïde is one of two queens in a legend related by William Dugdale. As the story goes, Queen Adélaïde of France became enamoured of a young knight, William d'Albini, at a joust. But he was already engaged to Adeliza of Louvain and refused to become her lover. The jealous Adélaïde lured him into the clutches of a hungry lion, but William ripped out the beast’s tongue with his bare hands and thus killed it. This story is almost without a doubt apocryphal.

In 1153 she retired to the abbey of Montmartre, which she had founded with Louis VII. She died there on 18 November 1154. She was buried in the cemetery of the Church of St. Pierre at Montmartre, but her tomb was destroyed during the Revolution.

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Notes for Louis VI of France:
Louis VI (1 December 1081 – 1 August 1137), called the Fat (French: le Gros), was King of France from 1108 until his death (1137). Chronicles called him "roi de Saint-Denis".

The first member of the House of Capet to make a lasting contribution to the centralising institutions of royal power,[1] Louis was born in Paris, the son of Philip I and his first wife, Bertha of Holland. Almost all of his twenty-nine-year reign was spent fighting either the "robber barons" who plagued Paris or the Norman kings of England for their continental possession of Normandy. Nonetheless, Louis VI managed to reinforce his power considerably and became one of the first strong kings of France since the division of the Carolingian Empire. His biography by his constant advisor Abbot Suger of Saint Denis renders him a fully-rounded character to the historian, unlike most of his predecessors.

In his youth, Louis fought the Duke of Normandy, Robert Curthose, and the lords of the royal demesne, the Île de France. He became close to Suger, who became his adviser. He succeeded his father on Philip's death on 29 July 1108. Louis's half-brother prevented him from reaching Rheims and so he was crowned on 3 August in the cathedral of Orléans by Daimbert, Archbishop of Sens. The archbishop of Reims, Ralph the Green, sent envoys to challenge the validity of the coronation and anointing, but to no avail.
On Palm Sunday 1115, Louis was present in Amiens to support the bishop and inhabitants of the city in their conflict with Enguerrand I of Coucy, one of his vassals, who refused to recognise the granting of a charter of communal privileges. Louis came with an army to help the citizens to besiege Castillon (the fortress dominating the city, from which Enguerrand was making punitive expeditions). At the siege, the king took an arrow to his hauberk, but the castle, considered impregnable, fell after two years.

Just before his death in 1137, William X, Duke of Aquitaine appointed Louis guardian of his daughter and heir, the young Eleanor of Aquitaine, and expressed his wish for her to marry Louis' son. The prospect of adding the Aquitaine to his son's domains made him so happy he could hardly speak.[2]

Louis VI died on 1 August 1137, at the castle of Béthisy-Saint-Pierre, nearby Senlis and Compiègne, of dysentery. He was interred in Saint Denis Basilica. He was succeeded on the throne by his son Louis VII, called "the Younger," who had originally wanted to be a monk.

[edit] Marriages and children

Epitaph of Louis VI, after 1137, Eglise Abbatiale de Saint Denis, today at Cluny Museum. He married in 1104: 1) Lucienne de Rochefort — the marriage was annulled on 23 May 1107 at the Council of Troyes by Pope Paschal II.

He married in 1115: 2) Adélaïde de Maurienne (1092–1154)

Their children:

1. Philip (1116 – 13 October 1131), King of France (1129–31), not to be confused with his brother of the same name; died from a fall from a horse.
2. Louis VII (1120 – 18 September 1180), King of France
3. Henry (1121 – 75), archbishop of Reims
4. Hugues (born ca 1122)
5. Robert (ca 1123 – 11 October 1188), count of Dreux
6. Constance (ca 1124 – 16 August 1176), married first Eustace IV, count of Boulogne and then Raymond V of Toulouse.
7. Philip (1125–61), bishop of Paris. not to be confused with his elder brother.
8. Peter of France (ca 1125–83), married Elizabeth, lady of Courtenay
With Marie de Breuillet, daughter of Renaud de Breuillet de Dourdan, Louis VI was the father of a daughter:

Isabelle (ca 1105 – before 1175), married (ca 1119) Guillaume I of Chaumont.

Child of ADÉLAÏDE MAURIENNE and LOUIS FRANCE is:

147. i. PETER I OF74 COURTENAY.

Generation No. 72

Notes for Eochaid of Dalraidia II:

[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

•ID: 144062
•Name: Eochaid De Dalraidia II.
•Nickname: Crook-Nose I 2
•Sex: M
•Change Date: 5 MAR 2009
•Birth: 660 1 2
•Event: Title FROM 695 TO 697 King of Dál Riata 2
•Death: 697 of Killed in battle 2 1 3

Eochaid mac Domangairt (died ca. 697) was a king of Dál Riata (modern western Scotland) in about 697. He was a member of the Cenél nGabráin, the son of Domangart mac Domnaill and father of Eochaid mac Echdach; Alpín mac Echdach may also be a son of this Eochaid.

He is named in Dál Riata king-lists, the Duan Albanach and the Synchronisms of Flann Mainistrech. In some sources he is called Eochaid Crook-Nose (Riannamail), but modern readings take this is a being a garbled reference to Fiannamail ua Dúnchado rather than an epithet.

The killing of Eochu nepos Domnaill, Eochaid grandson of Domnall Brecc, is reported in the Annals of Ulster for 697.

[edit] References

Child of Eochaid of Dalraidia II is:

Robert's father Earl Roger came over from England, and, taking over his son's castles, defied Curthose. The duke's younger brother Henry, who was on the same ship, was also arrested.

Curthose that Robert was a danger to the security of the duchy. Thus Robert was a threat to the stability of the duchy. Odo had preceded him, had obtained the confidence of the duke, and convinced the duke to give him permission to defend Rochester Castle. The rebels were permitted to leave after the surrender of the castle and the participants were pardoned.

He was the eldest son of Roger of Montgomery, 1st Earl of Shrewsbury and Mabel of Bellême. He was the eldest son of Roger of Montgomery, 1st Earl of Shrewsbury and Mabel of Bellême. He was the eldest son of Roger of Montgomery, 1st Earl of Shrewsbury and Mabel of Bellême. He was the eldest son of Roger of Montgomery, 1st Earl of Shrewsbury and Mabel of Bellême.

Robert's first notable act, as a young man, was to take part in the 1077 revolt of the young Robert Curthose against William the Conqueror, an act he shared with many other Norman nobles of his generation. The rebellion was put down and the participants pardoned. William did require that ducal garrisons be placed in the important baronial castles, which would make future rebellion much more difficult.

Robert's mother, Mabel, was killed in 1082, whereupon Robert inherited her property which stretched across the hilly border region between Normandy and Maine. It is due to this early inheritance that Robert has come to be known as of Bellême rather than of Montgomery.

William the Conqueror died in 1087 and Robert's first act on hearing the news was to expel the ducal garrisons from his castles. Robert Curthose was the new duke of Normandy, but he was unable to keep order and so Robert of Bellême had a free hand to make war against his less powerful neighbours.

[edit] Rebellion of 1088The next year in the Rebellions of 1088, Odo of Bayeux rebelled in an attempt to place Curthose on the English throne in place of William Rufus. At Curthose's request Robert went to England, where he joined in the rebels' defence of Rochester Castle. The rebels were permitted to leave after the surrender of the castle and the failure of the rebellion.

Robert returned to Normandy. Odo had preceded him, had obtained the confidence of the duke, and convinced Curthose that Robert was a danger to the security of the duchy. Thus Robert was arrested and imprisoned upon his disembarkation. (The duke's younger brother Henry, who was on the same ship, was also arrested.)

Robert's father Earl Roger came over from England, and, taking over his son's castles, defied Curthose. The duke captured several of the castles, but he soon tired of the matter and released Robert.
Once released, Robert returned to his wars and depredations against his neighbours in southern Normandy. He did help Curthose in putting down a revolt by the citizens of Rouen, but his motive seems to have been in large part to seize as many wealthy townspeople and their goods as possible. Curthose in turn subsequently helped Robert in some of his fights against his neighbours.

In 1094 one of Robert’s most important castles, Domfront, was taken over by the duke’s brother Henry (later Henry I of England), who never relinquished it and was to be an enemy of Robert for the rest of his life.

Later that year (1094) Robert’s father earl Roger died. Robert’s younger brother Hugh died, and Robert inherited the English properties that had been their father’s, including good part of central and southern Normandy, in part adjacent to the Bellême territories he had already inherited from his mother.

In 1098 Robert’s younger brother Hugh died, and Robert inherited the English properties that had been their father’s, including the Rape of Arundel and the Earldom of Shrewsbury.

Robert was one of the great magnates who joined Robert Curthose’s 1101 invasion of England, along with his brothers Roger the Poitevin and Arnulf of Montgomery and his nephew William of Mortain. This invasion, which aimed to depose Henry I, ended in the Treaty of Alton. The treaty called for amnesty for the participants but allowed traitors to be punished. Henry had a series of charges drawn up against Robert in 1102, and when Robert refused to answer for them, gathered his forces and besieged and captured Robert’s English castles. Robert lost his English lands and titles (as did his brothers), was banished from England, and returned to Normandy.

He was one of Curthose’s commanders at the Battle of Tinchebrai and by flight from the field avoided being captured as Curthose was. With Normandy now under Henry’s rule, he submitted and was allowed to retain his Norman fiefs. But after various conspiracies and plans to free Curthose, Robert was seized and imprisoned in 1112. He spent the rest of his life in prison; the exact date of his death is not known.

[edit] Family and children
Robert married Agnes of Ponthieu, by whom he had one child, William III of Ponthieu, who via his mother inherited the county of Ponthieu.

[edit] References

Child of Countess Agnes and Robert Bellême is:
149. i. William III, Count of Ponthieu.

It has been suggested by John Speed's 1611 book, History of Great Britain, that another son, Philip, was born to the couple. Speed's sources no longer exist, but Philip would presumably have died in early infancy. [6]
Several sources record Henry's appearance. They all agree that he was very strong, energetic and surpassed his peers athletically.

...he was strongly built, with a large, leonine head, freckle fiery face and red hair cut short. His eyes were grey and we are told that his voice was harsh and cracked, possibly because of the amount of open-air exercise he took. He would walk or ride until his attendants and courtiers were worn out and his feet and legs were covered with blisters and sores... He would perform all athletic feats.

John Harvey (Modern)[7]
...the lord king has been red-haired so far, except that the coming of old age and grey hair has altered that colour somewhat. His height is medium, so that neither does he appear great among the small, nor yet does he seem small among the great... curved legs, a horseman's shins, broad chest, and a boxer's arms all announce him as a man strong, agile and bold... he never sits, unless riding a horse or eating... In a single day, if necessary, he can run through four or five day-marches and, thus foiling the plots of his enemies, frequently mocks their plots with surprise sudden arrivals... Always are in his hands bow, sword, spear and arrow, unless he be in council or in books.

Peter of Blois (Contemporary)
A man of reddish, freckled complexion, with a large, round head, grey eyes that glowed fiercely and grew bloodshot in anger, a fiery countenance and a harsh, cracked voice. His neck was poked forward slightly from his shoulders, his chest was broad and square, his arms strong and powerful. His body was stocky, with a pronounced tendency toward fatness, due to nature rather than self-indulgence – which he tempered with exercise.

Gerald of Wales (Contemporary)
Character
Like his grandfather, Henry I of England, Henry II had an outstanding knowledge of the law. A talented linguist and excellent Latin speaker, he would sit on councils in person whenever possible. He dressed casually except when tradition dictated otherwise and ate a sparing diet.[7]

According to contemporary chronicler of court gossip Walter Map, Henry was modest and mixed with all classes easily. "He does not take upon himself to think high thoughts, his tongue never swells with elated language; he does not magnify himself as more than man".[8] His generosity was well-known and he employed a Templar to distribute one tenth of all the food brought to the royal court amongst his poorest subjects.

Henry also had a good sense of humour and was never upset at being the butt of the joke. Once while he sat sulking and occupying himself with needlework, a courtier suggested that such behaviour was to be expected from a descendant of the bastard son of a tanner's daughter (referring to his great-grandfather William the Conqueror being the son of Herleva, daughter of Fulbert a tanner from the Norman town of Falaise). The king rocked with laughter and even explained the joke to those who did not immediately grasp it.[9]

"His memory was exceptional: he never failed to recognise a man he had once seen, nor to remember anything which might be of use. More deeply learned than any king of his time in the western world".[7]

In contrast, the king's temper has been written about. His actions against Thomas Becket are evidence of his blinding temper, along with his conflict with William I of Scotland.[10]

Construction of an empire
Main article: Angevin Empire

Henry's claims by blood and marriage
Henry II depicted in Cassell's History of England (1902).Henry's father, Geoffrey Plantagenet, held rich lands as a vassal from Louis VII of France. Maine and Anjou were therefore Henry's by birthright, amongst other lands in Western France.[4] By maternal claim, Normandy was also to be his. From a contemporary perspective, however, the most notable inheritance Henry received from his mother was a claim to the English throne. Granddaughter of William the Conqueror, Empress Matilda was to be queen regnant of England, but her throne was usurped by her
cousin, Stephen of England. Henry's efforts to restore the royal line to his own family would create a dynasty spanning three centuries and thirteen kings.

Henry's marriage to Eleanor of Aquitaine placed him firmly in the ascendancy. His plentiful lands were added to his new wife's possessions, giving him control of Aquitaine and Gascony. The riches of the markets and vineyards in these regions, combined with Henry's already plentiful holdings, made Henry the most powerful vassal in France.

Taking the English throne

Stephen and Henry discuss across the River Thames how to settle the succession of the English throne. Realising Henry's royal ambition was far from easily fulfilled; his mother had been pushing her claim for the crown for several years to no avail, finally retiring in 1147. It was 1147 when Henry had accompanied Matilda on an invasion of England. It soon failed due to lack of preparation, but it made him determined that England was his mother's right, and so his own. He returned to England again between 1149 and 1150. On 22 May 1149 he was knighted by King David I of Scotland, his great uncle, at Carlisle.

On the 7th of September 1151, Henry's father died and he inherited all his lands including Anjou, Maine and Normandy. Early in January 1153, just months after his wedding, he crossed the Channel one more time. His fleet was 36 ships strong, transporting a force of 3,000 footmen and 140 horses. Sources dispute whether he landed at Dorset or Hampshire, but it is known he entered a small village church. It was 6 January and the locals were observing the Festival of the Three Kings. The correlation between the festivities and Henry's arrival was not lost on them. "Ecce adventit dominator Dominus, et regnum in manu ejus", they exclaimed as the introit for their feast, "Behold the Lord the ruler cometh, and the Kingdom in his hand."

Henry moved quickly and within the year he had secured his right to succession via the Treaty of Wallingford with Stephen of England. He was now, for all intents and purposes, in control of England. When Stephen died in October 1154, it was only a matter of time until Henry's treaty would bear fruit, and the quest that began with his mother would be ended. On 19 December 1154 he was crowned in Westminster Abbey, "By The Grace Of God, Henry II, King Of England". He was thus the first to be crowned "King of England", as opposed to "King of the English". Henry, a vassal of Louis VII, was now more powerful than the French king himself. Henry used the title Rex Angliae, Dux Normaniae et Aquitaniae et Comes Andigaviae (King of England, Duke of Normandy and Aquitaine, Count of Anjou).

Lordship over Ireland

See also: Norman invasion of Ireland

Shortly after his coronation, Henry sent an embassy to the newly elected Pope Adrian IV. Led by Bishop Arnold of Lisieux, the group of clerics requested authorisation for Henry to invade Ireland. Some historians suggest that this resulted in the papal bull Laudabiliter. Whether this donation is genuine or not, Edmund Curtis says, is one of "the great questions of history." It is possible Henry acted under the influence of a "Canterbury plot," in which English ecclesiastics strove to dominate the Irish church. However, Henry may have simply intended to secure Ireland as a lordship for his younger brother William.

William died soon after the plan was hatched and Ireland was ignored. It was not until 1166 that it came to the surface again. In that year, Diarmait Mac Murchada, King of Leinster, was driven from his lands by Rory O'Connor, the High King of Ireland. Diarmait followed Henry to Aquitaine, seeking an audience. Henry promised to help him reassert control and made footmen, knights and nobles available for the cause. Their leader was a Welsh Norman, Richard de Clare, 2nd Earl of Pembroke, nicknamed "Strongbow". In exchange for his loyalty, Diarmait offered Earl Richard his daughter Aoife (Eva) in marriage and made him heir to his kingdom.

The Normans quickly restored Diarmait to his kingdom, but it soon became apparent that Henry had not helped purely out of kindness, and was now worried that Strongbow and his Cambro-Norman supporters would become independent of him. In 1171 Henry arrived from France with an army and declared himself "Lord of Ireland". All of the Normans, along with many Irish princes, took oaths of homage to Henry by November, and he left after six months. He never returned, but in 1177 he named his youngest son, Prince John, as Lord of Ireland.

This process started 800 years of English overlordship on the island. At the Synod of Cashel in 1172 Church reforms were introduced. The 1175 Treaty of Windsor was agreed with King Rory O'Connor, but soon broke down.
Consolidation in Scotland
In 1174, a rebellion spearheaded by his own sons was not Henry's biggest problem. An invasion force from Scotland, led by their king, William the Lion, was advancing from the North. To make matters worse, a Flemish armada was sailing for England, just days from landing. It seemed likely that the king's rapid growth was to be checked.[1]

Henry saw his predicament as a sign from God, that his treatment of Becket would be rewarded with defeat. He immediately did penance at Canterbury[1] for the Archbishop's fate and events took a turn for the better.

The hostile armada dispersed in the English Channel and headed back for the continent. Henry had avoided a Flemish invasion, but Scottish invaders were still raiding in the North. Henry sent his troops to meet the Scots at Alnwick, where the English scored a devastating victory. William was captured in the chaos, and within months all the problem fortresses had been torn down.[which?] Southern Scotland was now completely dominated by Henry, another fief in his Angevin Empire, that now stretched from the Solway Firth almost to the Mediterranean and from the Somme to the Pyrenees. By the end of this crisis, and his sons' revolt, the king was "left stronger than ever before".[17]

Dominating nobles
During Stephen's reign, the barons in England had undermined Royal authority. Rebel castles were one problem, nobles avoiding military service was another. The new king immediately moved against the illegal fortresses that had sprung up during Stephen's reign, having them torn down.

To counter the problem of avoiding military service, scutage became common. This tax, which Henry's barons paid in lieu of military service, allowed the king to hire mercenaries. These hired troops were used to great effect by both Henry and his son Richard, and by 1159 the tax was central to the king's army and his authority over vassals.

Legal reform
Henry II's reign saw the establishment of Royal Magistrate courts.[18] This allowed court officials under authority of the Crown to adjudicate local disputes, reducing the workload on Royal courts proper and delivering justice with greater efficiency.

Henry also worked to make the legal system fairer. Trial by ordeal and trial by combat were still common in the 12th century. By the Assize of Clarendon in 1166, supplemented a decade later by the Assize of Northampton, a precursor to trial by jury was implemented. However, this group of "twelve lawful men," as the Assize commonly refers to it, provided a service more similar to a grand jury, alerting court officials to matters suitable for prosecution. Despite these reforms, trial by ordeal continued until the Fourth Council of the Lateran forbade the participation of the clergy in 1215 and trial by combat was still legal in England until 1819, albeit only rarely resorted to after the twelfth century. Nevertheless, Henry's support of juries was a great contribution to the country's social history and allowed for a smoother transition from ordeal to jury than was managed in other European nations where trial by inquisition and even torture became commonplace.

Main article: Becket controversy
Strengthening royal control over the churchIn the tradition of Norman kings, Henry II was keen to have secular law predominate over the law of the church. The clergy had a free hand, and were not required to obey laws of the land that conflicted with the governance of the church. Henry wanted the laws of the land to be obeyed by all, clergy and laity alike. At Clarendon Palace on 30 January 1164, the king set out sixteen constitutions, aimed at decreasing ecclesiastical interference from Rome. Secular courts would also have jurisdiction over clerical trials and disputes. Henry's authority guaranteed him majority support, but Thomas Becket, the newly appointed Archbishop of Canterbury, refused to ratify the proposals.

Henry was characteristically stubborn, and on 8 October 1164, he called archbishop Thomas Becket before the Royal Council. Becket, however, had fled to France and was under the protection of Henry's rival, Louis VII of France.
The king continued doggedly in his pursuit of control over his clerics. By 1170, the pope was considering excommunicating all of Britain. Only Henry's agreement that Becket could return to England without penalty prevented this fate.

"What miserable drones and traitors have I nurtured and promoted in my household who let their lord be treated with such shameful contempt by a low-born cleric!" were the words which sparked the darkest event in Henry's religious wranglings. This speech has translated into legend in the form of "Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest?"—a provocative statement which would perhaps have been just as riling to the knights and barons of his household at whom it was aimed as his actual words. Bitter at his old friend Becket, constantly thwarting his clerical constitutions, the king shouted in anger but possibly not with intent. However, four of Henry's knights, Reginald Fitzurse, Hugh de Morville (the Lord of Westmorland), William de Tracy, and Richard le Breton overheard their king's cries and decided to act on his words.

On 29 December 1170, they entered Canterbury Cathedral, finding Becket near the stairs to the crypt. They beat down the Archbishop, killing him with several blows. Becket's brains were scattered upon the ground with the words; "Let us go, this fellow will not be getting up again". Whatever the rights and wrongs, it certainly tainted Henry's later reign. For the remaining 20 years of his rule, he would personally regret the death of a man who "in happier times...had been a friend".[19]

Just three years later, Becket was canonised and revered as a martyr against secular interference in God's church; Pope Alexander III had declared Becket a saint. Plantagenet historian John Harvey believes "The martyrdom of Thomas Becket was a martyrdom which he had repeatedly gone out of his way to seek...one cannot but feel sympathy towards Henry".[19] Wherever the true intent and blame lie, it was yet another sacrifice to the ongoing war between church and state.

The Angevin Curse
Civil war and rebellion
Main article: Revolt of 1173–1174

"It is the common fate of sons to be misunderstood by their fathers, and of fathers to be unloved of their sons, but it has been the particular bane of the English throne.[20]"

Henry's attempts to divide his lands amongst his numerous ambitious children, combined with his reluctance to cede his own power and entrust them with any real responsibility, fractured his family. In 1173, Young Henry and Richard revolted against their father, hoping to secure the power and lands they had been promised. While both Young Henry and Richard were relatively strong in France, they still lacked the manpower and experience to trouble their father unduly. The king crushed this first rebellion and exacted punishment. Richard, for example, lost half of the revenue allowed to him as Count of Poitou.[21]

In 1182, the Plantagenet children's aggression turned inward. Young Henry, Richard and Geoffrey all began fighting each other for their father's possessions on the continent. The situation was exacerbated by French rebels and the king of France, Philip Augustus. This was the most serious threat to come from within the family yet, and the king faced the dynastic tragedy of civil war. However, on 11 June 1183, Henry the Young King died. The uprising, which had been built around the prince, promptly collapsed and the remaining brothers returned to their individual lands. Henry quickly occupied the rebel region of Angoulême to keep the peace.[21]

The final battle between Henry's sons came in 1184. Geoffrey of Brittany and John of Ireland, the youngest brothers, had been promised Aquitaine, which belonged to now eldest brother Richard.[21] Geoffrey and John invaded but Richard, who was an accomplished military commander with over 10 years of experience by this time, expelled his brothers. The brothers would never again face each other in combat; Geoffrey died two years later, leaving only Richard and John.

Death and succession
Tombs of Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine in Fontevraud Abbey
Sculpture of Henry II of England on Canterbury Cathedral in Canterbury, England. The final thorn in Henry's side would be an alliance between his eldest surviving son, Richard, and his greatest rival, Philip Augustus. John had
become Henry's favourite son and Richard had begun to fear he was being written out of the king's inheritance.[21] In summer 1189, Richard and Philip invaded Henry's heartland of power, Anjou. The unlikely allies took northwest Touraine, attacked Le Mans and overran Maine and Tours. Defeated, Henry II met his opponents and agreed to all their demands, including paying homage to Philip for all his French possessions.

Weak, ill, and deserted by all but an illegitimate son, Geoffrey, Archbishop of York, Henry died at Chinon on 6 July 1189. His legitimate children, chroniclers record him saying, were "the real bastards".[22] The victorious Prince Richard later paid his respects to Henry's corpse as it travelled to Fontevraud Abbey, upon which, according to Roger of Wendover, 'blood flowed from the nostrils of the deceased, as if...indignant at the presence of the one who was believed to have caused his death'. The Prince, Henry's eldest surviving son and conqueror, was crowned "by the grace of God, King Richard I of England" at Westminster on 1 September 1189.

Descendants
For a list of Henry's male-line descendants, see List of members of the House of Plantagenet.

Henry had a number of mistresses, including Rosamund Clifford. One of the daughters of Eleanor's ex-husband Louis VII, Alys, originally sent to Henry's court to marry Richard, was also said to be Henry's mistress.

Henry also had illegitimate children. While they were not valid claimants, their royal blood made them potential problems for Henry's legitimate successors.[21] William Longespé was one such child. He was the son of Henry's mistress Ida de Tosny. He remained largely loyal and contented with the lands and wealth afforded to him as a royal bastard. Geoffrey, Bishop of Lincoln, Archbishop of York, on the other hand, was seen as a possible thorn in the side of Richard I of England.[21] Geoffrey had been the only son to attend Henry II on his deathbed, after even the king's favourite son, John Lackland, deserted him.[17] Richard forced him into the clergy at York, thus ending his secular ambitions.[21] Another son, Morgan was elected to the Bishopric of Durham, although he was never consecrated due to opposition from Pope Innocent III.[23]

Fictional portrayals
Henry is a central character in the plays Becket by Jean Anouilh and The Lion in Winter by James Goldman. Peter O'Toole portrayed him in the film adaptations of both of these plays – Becket (1964) and The Lion in Winter (1968) – for both of which he received nominations for the Academy Award for Best Actor. He was also nominated for the BAFTA Award for Best British Actor for Becket and won the Golden Globe Award for Best Actor - Motion Picture Drama for both films. Patrick Stewart portrayed Henry in the 2003 television film adaptation of The Lion in Winter, for which he was nominated for the Golden Globe Award for Best Performance by an Actor in a Mini-Series or Motion Picture Made for Television. Curtmantle, a 1961 play by Christopher Fry, also tells the story of Henry II's life, as remembered by William Marshall.

Brian Cox portrayed him in the 1978 BBC TV series The Devil's Crown, which dramatised his reign and those of his sons. He has also been portrayed on screen by William Shea in the 1910 silent short Becket, A. V. Bramble in the 1923 silent film Becket, based on a play by Alfred Lord Tennyson, Alexander Gauge in the 1952 film adaptation of the T. S. Eliot play Murder in the Cathedral, and Dominic Roche in the 1962 British children's TV series Richard the Lionheart.

Henry is a significant character in the historical fiction/medieval murder mysteries Mistress of the Art of Death, The Serpent's Tale and Grave Goods by Diana Norman, writing under the pseudonym Ariana Franklin. He also plays a part in Ken Follett's most popular novel, The Pillars of the Earth, which in its final chapter fictionalizes the king's penance at Canterbury Cathedral for his unknowing role in the murder of Thomas Becket. He is a major character in three of the novels of Sharon Kay Penman known as the Plantagenet Trilogy: When Christ and His Saints Slept, Time and Chance, and The Devil's Brood. The novels tell his life story from before his birth to his death.

Henry is played by David Warner in Mike Walker's BBC Radio 4 series Plantagenet (2010).

See also Normandy portal
House of Plantagenet
List of English monarchs
Notes
2. Thelma Anna Leese, Blood royal, 1996, p. 189
4. Harvey, The Plantagenets, p. 49
5. Harvey, The Plantagenets, p. 51
7. Harvey, The Plantagenets, p. 40
8. Walter Map, Contemporary
9. Harvey, The Plantagenets, p. 43
12. Harvey, The Plantagenets, p. 48
13. "Henry II – the 'First' King of England". http://www.bbc.co.uk/dna/h2g2/A2654741. Canute (r. 1016–1035) was "king of all England" (ealles Engla landes cyning).
16. Warren, Henry II
17. Harvey, The Plantagenets
19. Harvey, The Plantagenets, p. 45
20. Harvey, Richard I, p. 58
21. Harvey, The Plantagenets
22. Simon Schama's A History of Britain, Episode 3, "Dynasty"

References and further reading
J. Boussard, Le government d'Henry II Plantagénêt (Paris, 1956)
John Harvey, The Plantagenets
John Harvey, Richard I
Ralph Turner & Richard Heiser, The Reign of Richard Lionheart
W. L. Warren, Henry II (London, 197

Notes for ELEANOR D’AGUIRAN:
Eleanor of Aquitaine (in French: Aliénor d’Aquitaine, Éléonore de Guyenne) (1122 or 1124 – 1 April 1204) was one of the wealthiest and most powerful women in Western Europe during the High Middle Ages. As well as being Duchess of Aquitaine in her own right, she was queen consort of France (1137–1152) and of England (1154–1189). Eleanor of Aquitaine is the only woman to have been queen of both France and England, with the exception of Margaret of Anjou whose status as Queen of France is disputed. She was the patroness of such literary figures as Wace, Benoît de Sainte-More, and Chrétien de Troyes.

Eleanor succeeded her father as suo jure Duchess of Aquitaine and Countess of Poitiers at the age of fifteen, and thus became the most eligible bride in Europe. Three months after her accession she married Louis VII, son and junior co-ruler of her guardian, King Louis VI of France. As Queen of France, she participated in the unsuccessful Second Crusade. Soon after the Crusade was over, Louis VII and Eleanor agreed to dissolve their marriage, because of Eleanor’s own desire for divorce and also because the only children they had were two daughters – Marie and Alix. The royal marriage was annulled on 11 March 1152, on the grounds of consanguinity within the fourth degree. Their daughters were declared legitimate and custody of them awarded to Louis, while Eleanor's lands were restored.
As soon as she arrived in Poitiers, Eleanor became engaged to Henry II, Duke of the Normans, her cousin within the third degree, who was nine years younger. On 18 May 1152, eight weeks after the annulment of her first marriage, Eleanor married the Duke of the Normans. On 25 October 1154 her husband ascended the throne of the Kingdom of England, making Eleanor Queen of the English. Over the next thirteen years, she bore Henry eight children: five sons, three of whom would become king, and three daughters. However, Henry and Eleanor eventually became estranged. She was imprisoned between 1173 and 1189 for supporting her son Henry's revolt against her husband, King Henry II.

Eleanor was widowed on 6 July 1189. Her husband was succeeded by their son, Richard the Lionheart, who immediately moved to release his mother. Now queen dowager, Eleanor acted as a regent for her son while he went off on the Third Crusade. Eleanor survived her son Richard and lived well into the reign of her youngest son King John. By the time of her death she had outlived all of her children except for King John and Eleanor, Queen of Castile.

The exact date and place of Eleanor's birth are not known. A late 13th century genealogy of her family listed her as 13 years old in the spring of 1137.[2] Some chronicles mentionned a fidelity oath of some lords of Aquitaine on the occasion of Eleanor's fourteenth birthday in 1136. Her parents almost certainly married in 1121. Her birth place may have been Poitiers, Bordeaux, or Nieul-sur-l'Autise, where her mother died as she was 6 or 8.[3]

Eleanor or Aliénor was the oldest of three children of William X, Duke of Aquitaine, whose glittering ducal court was on the leading edge of early–12th-century culture, and his wife, Aenor de Châtellerault, the daughter of Aimeric I, Viscount of Châtellerault, and Dangereuse, who was William IX's longtime mistress as well as Eleanor's maternal grandmother. Her parents' marriage had been arranged by Dangereuse with her paternal grandfather, the Troubadour.

Eleanor was named for her mother Aenor and called Aliénor, from the Latin alia Aenor, which means the other Aenor. It became Éléanor in the langues d'oïl (Northern French) and Eleanor in English.[4] There is, however, an earlier Eleanor on record: Eleonor of Normandy, William the Conqueror's aunt, who lived a century earlier than Eleanor of Aquitaine.

By all accounts, Eleanor's father ensured that she had the best possible education.[5] Although her native tongue was Poitevin, she was taught to read and speak Latin, was well versed in music and literature, and schooled in riding, hawking, and hunting.[6] Eleanor was extroverted, lively, intelligent, and strong willed. In the spring of 1130, when Eleanor was six, her four-year-old brother William Aigret and their mother died at the castle of Talmont, on Aquitaine's Atlantic coast. Eleanor became the heir presumptive to her father's domains. The Duchy of Aquitaine was the largest and richest province of France; Poitou (where Eleanor spent most of her childhood) and Aquitaine together were almost one-third the size of modern France. Eleanor had only one other legitimate sibling, a younger sister named Aelith but always called Petronilla. Her half brothers, William and Joscelin, were acknowledged by William X as his sons, but not as his heirs. Later, during the first four years of Henry II's reign, all three siblings joined Eleanor's royal household.

Inheritance
In 1137, Duke William X set out from Poitiers to Bordeaux, taking his daughters with him. Upon reaching Bordeaux, he left Eleanor and Petronilla in the charge of the Archbishop of Bordeaux, one of the Duke's few loyal vassals who could be entrusted with the safety of the duke's daughters. The duke then set out for the Shrine of Saint James of Compostela, in the company of other pilgrims; however, he died on Good Friday 9 April 1137.[7][8]

Eleanor, aged about fifteen, became the Duchess of Aquitaine, and thus the most eligible heiress in Europe. As these were the days when kidnapping an heiress was seen as a viable option for obtaining a title, William had dictated a will on the very day he died, bequeathing his domains to Eleanor and appointing King Louis VI of France as her guardian.[9] William requested the King to take care of both the lands and the duchess, and to also find her a suitable husband.[5] However, until a husband was found, the King had the legal right to Eleanor's lands. The Duke also insisted to his companions that his death be kept a secret until Louis was informed – the men were to journey from Saint James across the Pyrenees as quickly as possible, to call at Bordeaux to notify the Archbishop, and then
to make all speed to Paris, to inform the King.

The King of France himself was also gravely ill at that time, suffering "a flux of the bowels" (dysentery) from which he seemed unlikely to recover. Despite his immense obesity and impending mortality, however, Louis the Fat remained clear-minded. To his concerns regarding his new heir, Louis, who had been destined for the monastic life of a younger son (the former heir, Philip, having died from a riding accident),[10] was added joy over the death of one of his most powerful vassals — and the availability of the best duchy in France. Presenting a solemn and dignified manner to the grieving Aquitanian messengers, upon their departure he became overjoyed, stammering in delight.

Rather than act as guardian to the Duchess and duchy, he decided, he would marry the duchess to his heir and bring Aquitaine under the French Crown, thereby greatly increasing the power and prominence of France and the Capets. Within hours, then, Louis had arranged for his 17-year-old son, Prince Louis, to be married to Eleanor, with Abbot Suger in charge of the wedding arrangements. Prince Louis was sent to Bordeaux with an escort of 500 knights, as well as Abbot Suger, Theobald II, Count of Champagne and Count Ralph.

First marriage
(left scene) 14th-century representation of the wedding of Louis and Eleanor; (right scene) Depiction of Louis leaving on CrusadeOn 25 July 1137 the couple was married in the Cathedral of Saint-André in Bordeaux by the Archbishop of Bordeaux.[5] Immediately after the wedding, the couple were enthroned as Duke and Duchess of Aquitaine.[5][5] However, there was a catch: the land would remain independent of France until Eleanor's oldest son becomes both King of the Franks and Duke of Aquitaine. Thus, her holdings would not be merged with France until the next generation. She gave Louis a wedding present that is still in existence, a rock crystal vase, currently on display at the Louvre.[5][10][11]

Eleanor's tenure as junior Queen of the Franks lasted only few days. On 1 August, Eleanor's father-in-law died and her husband became sole monarch. Eleanor was anointed and crowned Queen of the Franks on Christmas Day of the same year.[5][8]

Possessing a high-spirited nature, Eleanor was not popular with the staid northerners (according to sources, Louis' mother, Adélaide de Maurienne, thought her flighty and a bad influence) — she was not aided by memories of Queen Constance, the Provençal wife of Robert II, tales of whose immodest dress and language were still told with horror.[12]

Her conduct was repeatedly criticized by Church elders (particularly Bernard of Clairvaux and Abbot Suger) as indecorous. The King, however, was madly in love with his beautiful and worldly bride and granted her every whim, even though her behavior baffled and vexed him to no end. Much money went into beautifying the austere Cité Palace in Paris for Eleanor's sake.[10]

Conflict
Eleanor's grandfather, William IX of Aquitaine, gave her this rock crystal vase, which she in turn gave to Louis as a wedding gift. He later donated it to the Abbey of Saint-Denis. This is the only known surviving artifact of Eleanor's. Although Louis was a pious man, he soon came into a violent conflict with Pope Innocent II. In 1141, the archbishopric of Bourges became vacant, and the King put forward as a candidate one of his chancellors, Cadurc, whilst vetoing the one suitable candidate, Pierre de la Châtre, who was promptly elected by the canons of Bourges and consecrated by the Pope. Louis accordingly bolted the gates of Bourges against the new Bishop; the Pope, recalling William X's similar attempts to exile Innocent's supporters from Poitou and replace them with priests loyal to himself, blamed Eleanor, saying that Louis was only a child and should be taught manners. Outraged, Louis swore upon relics that so long as he lived Pierre should never enter Bourges. This brought the interdict upon the King's lands. Pierre de la Châtre was given refuge by Theobald II, Count of Champagne.

Louis became involved in a war with Count Theobald of Champagne by permitting Raoul I, Count of Vermandois and seneschal of France, to repudiate his wife Éléonore of Blois, Theobald's sister, and to marry Petronilla of Aquitaine, Eleanor's sister. Eleanor urged Louis to support her sister's illegitimate marriage to Raoul of Vermandois. Champagne had also offended Louis by siding with the Pope in the dispute over Bourges. The war lasted two years (1142–44) and ended with the occupation of Champagne by the royal army. Louis was personally involved in the
assault and burning of the town of Vitry. More than a thousand people (1300, some[who?] say) who had sought refuge in the church died in the flames.

Horrified, and desiring an end to the war, Louis attempted to make peace with Theobald in exchange for supporting the lift of the interdict on Raoul and Petronilla. This was duly lifted for long enough to allow Theobald's lands to be restored; it was then lowered once more when Raoul refused to repudiate Petronilla, prompting Louis to return to the Champagne and ravage it once more.

In June, 1144, the King and Queen visited the newly built cathedral at Saint-Denis. Whilst there, the Queen met with Bernard of Clairvaux, demanding that he have the excommunication of Petronilla and Raoul lifted through his influence on the Pope, in exchange for which King Louis would make concessions in Champagne, and recognise Pierre de la Chatre as archbishop of Bourges. Dismayed at her attitude, Bernard scolded her for her lack of penitence and her interference in matters of state. In response, Eleanor broke down, and meekly excused her behaviour, claiming to be bitter because of her lack of children. In response to this, Bernard became more kindly towards her: "My child, seek those things which make for peace. Cease to stir up the King against the Church, and urge upon him a better course of action. If you will promise to do this, I in return promise to entreat the merciful Lord to grant you offspring."

In a matter of weeks, peace had returned to France: Theobald's provinces had been returned, and Pierre de la Chatre was installed as Archbishop of Bourges. In April 1145, Eleanor gave birth to a daughter, Marie.

Louis, however still burned with guilt over the massacre at Vitry-le-Brûlé, and desired to make a Pilgrimage to the Holy Land in order to atone for his sins. Fortuitously for him, in the Autumn of 1145, Pope Eugenius requested Louis to lead a Crusade to the Middle East, to rescue the Frankish Kingdoms there from disaster. Accordingly, Louis declared on Christmas Day 1145 at Bourges his intention of going on a crusade.

Crusade

Eleanor of Aquitaine took up the Second Crusade formally during a sermon preached by Bernard of Clairvaux. However she had been corresponding with her uncle Raymond, King and holder of family properties in Antioch where he was seeking further protection from the French crown. She recruited for the campaign, finally assembling some of her royal ladies-in-waiting as well as 300 non-noble vassals. She insisted on taking part in the Crusades as the feudal leader of the soldiers from her duchy. The story that she and her ladies dressed as Amazons is disputed by serious historians, sometime confused with the account of King Conrad's train of ladies during this campaign (in E. Gibbons Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire). Her testimonial launch of the Second Crusade from Vézelay, the rumored location of Mary Magdalene’s burial, dramatically emphasized the role of women in the campaign.

The Crusade itself achieved little. Louis was a weak and ineffectual military leader with no skill for maintaining troop discipline or morale, or of making informed and logical tactical decisions. In eastern Europe, the French army was at times hindered by Manuel I Comnenus, the Byzantine Emperor, who feared that it would jeopardize the tenuous safety of his empire; however, during their 3-week stay at Constantinople, Louis was feted and Eleanor was much admired. She is compared with Penthesilea, mythical queen of the Amazons, by the Greek historian Nicetas Choniates; he adds that she gained the epithet chrysopous (golden-foot) from the cloth of gold that decorated and fringed her robe. Louis and Eleanor stayed in the Philopation palace, just outside the city walls.

Second Crusade council: Conrad III of Germany, Eleanor's husband Louis VII of France, and Baldwin III of JerusalemFrom the moment the Crusaders entered Asia Minor, the Crusade went badly. The King and Queen were still optimistic – the Byzantine Emperor had told them that the German Emperor Conrad had won a great victory against a Turkish army (where in fact the German army had been massacred), and the great troop was still eating well. However, whilst camping near Nicea, the remnants of the German army, including a dazed and sick King Conrad, stranded past the French camp, bringing news of their disaster. The French, with what remained of the Germans, then began to march in increasingly disorganized fashion, towards Antioch. Their spirits were buoyed on Christmas Eve – when they chose to camp in the lush Dercervian valley near Ephesus, they were ambushed by a Turkish detachment; the French proceeded to slaughter this detachment and appropriate their camp.

Louis then decided to directly cross the Phrygian mountains, in the hope of speeding his approach to take refuge
with Eleanor’s uncle Raymond in Antioch. As they ascended the mountains, however, the army and the King and Queen were left horrified by the unburied corpses of the previously slaughtered German army.

On the day set for the crossing of Mount Cadmos, Louis chose to take charge of the rear of the column, where the unarmed pilgrims and the baggage trains marched. The vanguard, with which Queen Eleanor marched, was commanded by her Aquitainian vassal, Geoffrey de Rancon; this, being unencumbered by baggage, managed to reach the summit of Cadmos, where de Rancon had been ordered to make camp for the night. De Rancon however chose to march further, deciding in concert with the Count of Maurienne (Louis’ uncle) that a nearby plateau would make a better camp: such disobedience was reportedly common in the army, due to the lack of command from the King.

Accordingly, by midafternoon, the rear of the column – believing the day's march to be nearly at an end – was dawdling; this resulted in the army becoming divided, with some having already crossed the summit and others still approaching it. It was at this point that the Turks, who had been following and feinting for many days, seized their opportunity and attacked those who had not yet crossed the summit. The Turks, having seized the summit of the mountain, and the French (both soldiers and pilgrims) having been taken by surprise, there was little hope of escape: those who tried were caught and killed, and many men, horses and baggage were cast into the canyon below the ridge. William of Tyre placed the blame for this disaster firmly on the baggage – which was considered to have belonged largely to the women.

The King was saved by his lack of authority – having scorned a King's apparel in favour of a simple soldier's tunic, he escaped notice (unlike his bodyguards, whose skulls were brutally smashed and limbs severed). He reportedly "nimbly and bravely scaled a rock by making use of some tree roots which God had provided for his safety", and managed to survive the attack. Others were not so fortunate: "No aid came from Heaven, except that night fell."[13]

The official scapegoat for the disaster was Geoffrey de Rancon, who had made the decision to continue, and it was suggested that he be hanged (a suggestion which the King ignored). Since he was Eleanor’s vassal, many believed that it was she who had been ultimately responsible for the change in plan, and thus the massacre. This did nothing for her popularity in Christendom – as did the blame affixed to her baggage, and the fact that her Aquitainian soldiers had marched at the front, and thus were not involved in the fight. From here the army was split by a land march with the royalty taking the sea path to Antioch. When most of the land army arrived, the King and Queen had a profound dispute. Some say Eleanor's reputation was sullied by her supposed affair with her uncle Raymond of Poitiers, Prince of Antioch. However, this may have been a mask, as Raymond through Eleanor tried to forcibly sway Louis to use his army to attack the actual Muslim encampment at nearby Aleppo, gateway to recovering Edessa, the objective of the Crusade by papal decree. Although this was perhaps the better military plan, Louis was not keen to enlarge Eleanor’s family lands. One of Louis' avowed Crusade goals was to journey in pilgrimage to Jerusalem. Rather than fight and strike the decisive blow that could have ended the Second Crusade, Louis imprisoned Eleanor for her opposition, and in crossing the desert to Jerusalem, watched his army dwindle.

Eleanor was humiliated by imprisonment a second time, for rightly opposing Louis’s foolish assault on Damascus with his remaining army, fortified by King Conrad and King Baldwin. It appears that the idea was to plunder this neutral city that still traded with the Crusaders rather than focus any military force on reducing the Muslim forces that had hold of Aleppo, the gate to the recently Muslim reacquired state of Edessa – the actual mission of the 2nd Crusade by Papal decree. With Damascus a disastrous military failure, the royal family retreated to Jerusalem and then sailed to Rome and back to Paris.

While in the eastern Mediterranean, Eleanor learned about maritime conventions developing there, which were the beginnings of what would become admiralty law. She introduced those conventions in her own lands, on the island of Oleron in 1160 (“Rolls of Oléron”) and later in England as well. She was also instrumental in developing trade agreements with Constantinople and ports of trade in the Holy Lands.

Annulment
A posthumous image of Eleanor dating from 1835

Even before the Crusade, Eleanor and Louis were becoming estranged. The city of Antioch had been annexed by Bohemond of Hauteville in the First Crusade, and it was now ruled by Eleanor’s flamboyant uncle, Raymond of Antioch, who had gained the principality by marrying its reigning Princess, Constance of Antioch. Eleanor supported his desire to re-capture the nearby County of Edessa, the cause of
the Crusade; in addition, having been close to him in their youth, she now showed excessive affection towards her uncle – whilst many historians today dismiss this as familial affection (noting their early friendship, and his similarity to her father and grandfather), most at the time firmly believed the two to be involved in an incestuous and adulterous affair. Louis was directed by the Church to visit Jerusalem instead. When Eleanor declared her intention to stand with Raymond and the Aquitaine forces, Louis had her brought out by force. His long march to Jerusalem and back north debilitated his army, but her imprisonment disheartened her knights, and the divided Crusade armies could not overcome the Muslim forces. For reasons of plunder and the Germans' insistence on conquest, the Crusade leaders targeted Damascus, an ally until the attack. Failing in this attempt, they retired to Jerusalem, and then home. Before sailing for home, Eleanor got the terrible news that Raymond, with whom she had the winning battle plan for the Crusade, had been beheaded by the overpowering forces of the Muslim armies from Edessa.

Home, however, was not easily reached. The royal couple, on separate ships due to their disagreements, were first attacked in May by Byzantine ships attempting to capture both (in order to take them to Byzantium, according to the orders of the Emperor). Although they escaped this predicament unharmed, stormy weather served to drive Eleanor's ship far to the south (to the Barbary Coast), and to similarly lose her husband. Neither was heard of for over two months: at which point, in mid-July, Eleanor's ship finally reached Palermo in Sicily, where she discovered that she and her husband had both been given up for dead. The King still lost, she was given shelter and food by servants of King Roger II of Sicily, until the King eventually reached Calabria, and she set out to meet him there. Later, at King Roger's court in Potenza, she learnt of the death of her uncle Raymond; this appears to have forced a change of plans, for instead of returning to France from Marseilles, they instead sought the Pope in Tusculum, where he had been driven five months before by a Roman revolt.

Pope Eugenius III did not, as Eleanor had hoped, grant an annulment; instead, he attempted to reconcile Eleanor and Louis, confirming the legality of their marriage, and proclaiming that no word could be spoken against it, and that it might not be dissolved under any pretext. Eventually, he arranged events so that Eleanor had no choice but to sleep with Louis in a bed specially prepared by the Pope. Thus was conceived their second child – not a son, but another daughter, Alix of France.

The marriage was now doomed. Still without a son and in danger of being left with no male heir, facing substantial opposition to Eleanor from many of his barons and her own desire for divorce, Louis had no choice but to bow to the inevitable. On 11 March 1152, they met at the royal castle of Beaugency to dissolve the marriage. Hugues de Toucy, Archbishop of Sens and Primate of France, presided, and Louis and Eleanor were both present, as were the Archbishops of Bordeaux and Rouen. Archbishop Samson of Reims acted for Eleanor.

On 21 March, the four archbishops, with the approval of Pope Eugenius, granted an annulment due to consanguinity within the fourth degree (Eleanor and Louis were fourth cousins, once removed, and shared common ancestry with Robert II of France). Their two daughters were, however, declared legitimate and custody of them awarded to King Louis. Archbishop Samson received assurances from Louis that Eleanor's lands would be restored to her.

Second marriage
Henry II of England

The marriage of Eleanor of Aquitaine to Henry of Anjou and Henry's subsequent succession to the throne of England created an empire. Two lords – Theobald V, Count of Blois, son of the Count of Champagne, and Geoffrey, Count of Nantes (brother of Henry II, Duke of Normandy) – tried to kidnap Eleanor to marry her and claim her lands on Eleanor's way to Poitiers. As soon as she arrived in Poitiers, Eleanor sent envoys to Henry, Count of Anjou and Duke of Normandy, asking him to come at once and marry her.

On 18 May 1152 (Whit Sunday), eight weeks after her annulment, Eleanor married Henry 'without the pomp and ceremony that befitted their rank'. At that moment, Eleanor became Duchess of Normandy and Countess of Anjou, while Henry became Duke of Aquitaine and Count of Poitiers.

She was about 12 years older than he, and related to him more closely than she had been to Louis. Eleanor and Henry were cousins to the third degree through their common ancestor Ermengarde of Anjou (wife to Robert I, Duke of Burgundy and Geoffrey, Count of Gâtinais); they were also both descendants of Robert II of France. A marriage between Henry and Eleanor's daughter, Marie, had indeed been declared impossible for this very reason.
One of Eleanor's rumoured lovers had been Henry's own father, Geoffrey V, Count of Anjou, who had advised his son to avoid any involvement with her.

On 25 October 1154, Eleanor's second husband became King of England. Eleanor was crowned Queen of England by the Archbishop of Canterbury on 19 December 1154.[8] It may be, however, that she was not anointed on this occasion, because she had already been anointed in 1137.[15]

Over the next thirteen years, she bore Henry five sons and three daughters: William, Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, John, Matilda, Eleanor, and Joan. John Speed, in his 1611 work History of Great Britain, mentions the possibility that Eleanor had a son named Philip, who died young. His sources no longer exist and he alone mentions this birth.[16]

Eleanor's marriage to Henry was reputed to be tumultuous and argumentative, although sufficiently cooperative to produce at least eight pregnancies. Henry was by no means faithful to his wife and had a reputation for philandering. Their son William, and Henry's illegitimate son, Geoffrey, were born just months apart. Henry fathered other illegitimate children throughout the marriage. Eleanor appears to have taken an ambivalent attitude towards these affairs: for example, Geoffrey of York, an illegitimate son of Henry and a prostitute named Ykenai, was acknowledged by Henry as his child and raised at Westminster in the care of the Queen.

The period between Henry's accession and the birth of Eleanor's youngest son was turbulent: Aquitaine, as was the norm, defied the authority of Henry as Eleanor's husband; attempts to claim Toulouse, the rightful inheritance of Eleanor's grandmother and father, were made, ending in failure; the news of Louis of France's widowhood and remarriage was followed by the marriage of Henry's son (young Henry) to Louis' daughter Marguerite; and, most climactically, the feud between the King and Thomas Becket, his Chancellor, and later his Archbishop of Canterbury. Little is known of Eleanor's involvement in these events. By late 1166, and the birth of her final child, however, Henry's notorious affair with Rosamund Clifford had become known, and her marriage to Henry appears to have become terminally strained.

1167 saw the marriage of Eleanor's third daughter, Matilda, to Henry the Lion of Saxony; Eleanor remained in England with her daughter for the year prior to Matilda's departure to Normandy in September. Afterwards, Eleanor proceeded to gather together her movable possessions in England and transport them on several ships in December to Argentan. At the royal court, celebrated there that Christmas, she appears to have agreed to a separation from Henry. Certainly, she left for her own city of Poitiers immediately after Christmas. Henry did not stop her; on the contrary, he and his army personally escorted her there, before attacking a castle belonging to the rebellious Lusignan family. Henry then went about his own business outside Aquitaine, leaving Earl Patrick (his regional military commander) as her protective custodian. When Patrick was killed in a skirmish, Eleanor (who proceeded to ransom his captured nephew, the young William Marshal), was left in control of her inheritance.

The Court of Love in Poitiers
Palace of Poitiers, seat of the Counts of Poitou and Dukes of Aquitaine in the 10th through 12th centuries, where Eleanor's highly literate and artistic court inspired tales of Courts of Love. Of all her influence on culture, Eleanor's time in Poitiers was perhaps the most critical and yet very little is known as to what happened. King Henry II was elsewhere, attending to his own affairs after escorting Eleanor to Poitiers.[17]

It was in Poitiers that many scholars attribute Eleanor’s court as the ‘Court of Love’, where Eleanor and her daughter Marie meshed and encouraged the ideas of troubadours, chivalry, and courtly love into a single court. The existence and reasons for this court are debated.
Peter II of Courtenay, Latin Emperor of Constantinople (abt 1155 to 1218)

Peter was born in France on September 1126 and died 10 April 1183 in Palestine. He married Elizabeth de Courtenay (1127 – 1183). His parents were Louis VI of France and his second Queen consort Adélaide de Courtenay (1104 – 1152). Peter was the youngest son of Louis VI and Adélaide. His sister, Agnès of Courtenay (1125 – 1165), married William of Brienne, son of Erard II of Brienne and of Agnès de Montfaucon.

Notes for Peter I of Courtenay:
Peter of Courtenay was the youngest son of Louis VI of France and his second Queen consort Adélaide de Courtenay. He was the father of the Latin Emperor Peter II of Courtenay.

Peter of Courtenay was married to Elizabeth de Courtenay (1127 – 1183) and they had ten children:
1. Philippe de Courtenay (1153 – bef. 1186)
2. Peter II of Courtenay, Latin Emperor of Constantinople (abt 1155 to 1218)
3. Unknown daughter (abt 1156 – ?)
4. Alice of Courtenay, died 12 February 1218. She married Aymer de Taillefer, Count of Angoulême, and they became the parents of Isabella of Angoulême, who married King John of England.
5. Eustachia de Courtenay (1162 – 1235), married William of Brienne, son of Erard II of Brienne and of Agnès de Montfaucon
6. Clementia de Courtenay (1164 – ?)
7. Robert de Courtenay, Seigneur of Champignelles (1166 – 1239)
8. William de Courtenay, Seigneur of Tanlay (1168 – bef 1248)
9. Isabella de Courtenay (1169 – ?)
10. Constance de Courtenay (after 1170 – 1231)

Child of Peter Courtenay and Elisabeth Courtenay is:
151. i. Alice of Courtenay, b. 1160; d. 1218.
Child of Eochaid III is:

152. ED I Find Mach 28 Echab, b. 714; d. 778.

His wife was Helie of Burgundy, daughter of Eudes I, Duke of Burgundy. The Gesta Normannorum Ducum says William was naturally driven by this to arrest William III of Ponthieu (c. 1095 – 20 June 1172) was son of Robert II of Bellême and Agnes of Ponthieu. He is also called William (II; III) Talvas.

He assumed the county of Ponthieu some time before 1111, upon the death of his mother. His father escaped capture at the battle of Tinchebrai (1106). Later, as envoy for King Louis of France, he went to the English court. He was arrested by King Henry of England and was never released from prison. William was naturally driven by this to oppose King Henry and his allegiance to count Geoffrey of Anjou caused Henry to seize certain of William's castles in Normandy.

Family

His wife was Helie of Burgundy, daughter of Eudes I, Duke of Burgundy. The Gesta Normannorum Ducum says that they had five children, three sons and two daughters. Guy II is called "the eldest son", but the editors doubt this. He assumed the county of Ponthieu during his father Talvas' lifetime, but preceded him in death (Guy II died 1147; William Talvas died 1171). His daughter married Juhel, son of Walter of Mayenne, and his daughter Adela (aka Ela) married William de Warenne, 3rd Earl of Surrey.

Notes

John (24 December 1166 – 18/19 October 1216), also known as John Lackland or Softsword, was King of England from 6 April 1199 until his death. During John's reign, England lost the duchy of Normandy to King Philip II of France, which resulted in the collapse of most of the Angevin Empire and contributed to the subsequent growth in power of the Capetian dynasty during the 13th century. The baronial revolt at the end of John's reign led to the signing of the Magna Carta, a document often considered to be an early step in the evolution of the constitution of the United Kingdom.

John, the youngest of five sons of King Henry II of England and Eleanor, Duchess of Aquitaine, was at first not expected to inherit significant lands. Following the failed rebellion of his elder brothers between 1173 and 1174, however, John became Henry's favourite child. He was appointed the Lord of Ireland in 1177 and given lands in England and on the continent. John's elder brothers William, Henry and Geoffrey died young; by the time Richard I became king in 1189, John was a potential heir to the throne. John unsuccessfully attempted a rebellion against Richard's royal administrators whilst his brother was participating in the Third Crusade. Despite this, after Richard died in 1199, John was proclaimed king of England, and came to an agreement with Philip II of France to recognise John's possession of the continental Angevin lands at the peace treaty of Le Goulet in 1200.

When war with France broke out again in 1202, John achieved early victories, but shortages of military resources and his treatment of Norman, Breton and Anjou nobles resulted in the collapse of his empire in northern France in 1204. John spent much of the next decade attempting to regain these lands, raising huge revenues, reforming his armed forces and rebuilding continental alliances. John's judicial reforms had a lasting, positive impact on the English common law system, as well as providing an additional source of revenue. An argument with Pope Innocent III led to John's excommunication in 1209, a dispute finally settled by the king in 1213. John's attempt to defeat Philip in 1214 failed due to the French victory over John's allies at the battle of Bouvines. When he returned to England, John faced a rebellion by many of his barons, who were unhappy with his fiscal policies and his treatment of many of England's most powerful nobles. Although both John and the barons agreed to the Magna Carta peace treaty in 1215, neither side complied with its conditions. Civil war broke out shortly afterwards, with the barons aided by Louis of France. It soon descended into a stalemate. John died of dysentery contracted whilst on campaign in eastern England during late 1216; supporters of his son Henry III went on to achieve victory over Louis and the rebel barons the following year.

Contemporary chroniclers were mostly critical of John's performance as king, and his reign has since been the subject of significant debate and periodic revision by historians from the 16th century onwards. Historian Jim Bradbury has summarised the contemporary historical opinion of John's positive qualities, observing that John is today usually considered a "hard-working administrator, an able man, an able general".[1] Nonetheless, modern historians agree that he also had many faults as king, including what historian Ralph Turner describes as "distasteful, even dangerous personality traits", such as pettiness, spitefulness and cruelty.[2] These negative qualities provided extensive material for fiction writers in the Victorian era, and John remains a recurring character within Western popular culture, primarily as a villain in films and stories depicting the Robin Hood legends.

John was born to Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine on 24 December 1166.[3] Henry had inherited significant territories along the Atlantic seaboard – Anjou, Normandy and England – and expanded his empire by conquering Brittany.[4] Henry married the powerful Eleanor of Aquitaine, who reigned over the Duchy of Aquitaine and had a tenuous claim to Toulouse and Auvergne in southern France, in addition to being the former wife of Louis VII of France.[4] The result was the Angevin Empire, so called because of the Count of Anjou's traditional seat in the city of Angers.[nb 1] The Angevin Empire of Henry II was inherently fragile: although all the lands owed allegiance to Henry, the disparate parts each had their own histories, traditions and governance structures.[6] As one moved south through Anjou and Aquitaine, the extent of royal power in the provinces diminished considerably, scarcely resembling the modern concept of an empire at all. Some of the traditional ties between parts of the empire such as Normandy and England were slowly dissolving over time.[7] It was unclear what would happen to the empire on Henry's death. Although the tradition of primogeniture, under which an eldest son would inherit all his father's lands,
was slowly becoming more widespread across Europe, it was less popular amongst the Norman kings of England.[8] Most believed that Henry would divide the empire, giving each son a substantial portion, hoping that his children would then continue to work together as allies after his death.[9] To complicate matters, much of the Angevin empire was technically owned by Henry only as a vassal of the King of France of the rival line of the House of Capet. Henry had often allied himself with the Holy Roman Emperor against France, making the feudal relationship even more challenging.[10]

Shortly after his birth, John was passed from Eleanor into the care of a wet nurse, a traditional practice for medieval noble families.[11] Eleanor then left for Poitiers, the capital of Aquitaine, and sent John and his sister Joan north to Fontevrault Abbey.[12] This may have been done with the aim of steering her youngest son, with no obvious inheritance, towards a future ecclesiastical career.[11] Eleanor spent the next few years conspiring against her husband Henry and neither parent played a part in John's very early life.[11] John was probably, like his brothers, assigned a magister whilst he was at Fontevrault, a teacher charged with his early education and with managing the servants of his immediate household; John was later taught by Ranulph Glanville, a leading English administrator.[13] John spent some time as a member of the household of his eldest living brother Henry the Young King, where he probably received instruction in hunting and military skills.[12]

John would grow up to be around 5 ft 5 in high (1.62 m), relatively short for royalty of the day, with a "powerful, barrel-chested body" and dark red hair; he appeared to contemporaries to look like an inhabitant of Poitou.[14] John enjoyed reading and, unusual for the period, built up a travelling library of books.[15] He enjoyed gambling, in particular on backgammon, and was an enthusiastic hunter, even by medieval standards.[16] He liked music, although not songs.[17] John would become a "connoisseur of jewels", building up a large collection, and became famous for his opulent clothes and also, according to French chroniclers, for his fondness for bad wine.[18] As John grew up, he became known for sometimes being "genial, witty, generous and hospitable"; at other moments, he could be jealous, over-sensitive and prone to fits of rage, "biting and gnawing his fingers" in anger.[19][nb 2]

During John's early years, Henry attempted to resolve the question of his succession. Henry the Young King had been crowned King of England in 1170, but without being given any formal powers by his father, and was also promised Normandy and Anjou as part of his future inheritance. Richard was to be appointed the Count of Poitou and would be given control of Aquitaine, whilst Geoffrey was to become the Duke of Brittany.[20] At this time it seemed unlikely that John would ever inherit substantial lands, and John was jokingly nicknamed "Lackland" by his father.[21]

Henry II wanted to secure the southern borders of Aquitaine and decided to betroth his youngest son to Alais, the daughter and heiress of Humbert III of Savoy.[22] As part of this agreement John was promised the future inheritance of Savoy, Piemonte, Maurienne, and the other possessions of Count Humbert.[22] For his part in the potential marriage alliance, Henry II transferred the castles of Chinon, Loudun and Mirebeau into John's name; as John was only five years old his father would continue to control them for practical purposes.[22] Henry the Young King was unimpressed by this; although he had yet to be granted control of any castles in his new kingdom, these were effectively his future property and had been given away without consultation.[22] Alais made the trip over the Alps and joined Henry II's court, but she died before marrying John, which left the prince once again without an inheritance.[22]

In 1173 John's elder brothers, backed by Eleanor, rose in revolt against Henry in the short-lived rebellion of 1173 to 1174. Growing irritated with his subordinate position to Henry II and increasingly worried that John might be given additional lands and castles at his expense,[20] Henry the Young King travelled to Paris and allied himself with Louis VII.[23] Eleanor, irritated by her husband's persistent interference in Aquitaine, encouraged Richard and Geoffrey to join their brother Henry in Paris.[23] Henry II triumphed over the coalition of his sons, but was generous to them in the peace settlement agreed at Montlouis.[22] Henry the Young King was allowed to travel widely in Europe with his own household of knights, Richard was given Aquitaine back, and Geoffrey was allowed to return to Brittany; only Eleanor was imprisoned for her role in the revolt.[24]

John had spent the conflict travelling alongside his father and was given widespread possessions across the Angevin empire as part of the Montlouis settlement; from then onwards, most observers regarded John as Henry II's favourite child, although he was the furthest removed in terms of the royal succession.[22] Henry II began to find more lands for John, mostly at various nobles' expense. In 1175 he appropriated the estates of the late Earl of Cornwall and gave
them to John.[22] The following year, Henry disinherited the sisters of Isabelle of Gloucester, contrary to legal
custom, and betrothed John to the now extremely wealthy Isabelle.[25] In 1177, at the Council of Oxford, Henry
dismissed William FitzAldelm as the Lord of Ireland and replaced him with the ten-year-old John.[25]

Henry the Young King fought a short war with his brother Richard in 1183 over the status of England, Normandy
and Aquitaine.[25] Henry II moved in support of Richard, and Henry the Young King died from dysentery at the end
of the campaign.[25] With his primary heir dead, Henry rearranged the plans for the succession: Richard was to be
made King of England, albeit without any actual power until the death of his father; Geoffrey would retain Brittany;
and John would now become the Duke of Aquitaine in place of Richard.[25] Richard refused to give up
Aquitaine;[25] Henry II was furious and ordered John, with help from Geoffrey, to march south and retake the
duchy by force.[25] The two attacked the capital of Poitiers, and Richard responded by attacking Brittany.[25] The
war ended in stalemate and a tense family reconciliation in England at the end of 1184.[25]

In 1185 John made his first visit to Ireland, accompanied by three hundred knights and a team of administrators.[26]
Henry had tried to have John officially proclaimed King of Ireland, but Pope Lucius III would not agree.[26] John's
first period of rule in Ireland was not a success. Ireland had only recently been conquered by Anglo-Norman forces,
and tensions were still rife between Henry II, the new settlers and the existing inhabitants.[27] John infamously
offended the local Irish rulers by making fun of their unfashionable long beards, failed to make allies amongst the
Anglo-Norman settlers, began to lose ground militarily against the Irish and finally returned to England later in the
year, blaming the viceroy, Hugh de Lacy, for the fiasco.[27]

The problems amongst John's wider family continued to grow. His elder brother Geoffrey died during a tournament
in 1186, leaving a posthumous son, Arthur, and an elder daughter, Eleanor.[28] The duchy of Brittany was given to
Arthur rather than John, but Geoffrey's death brought John slightly closer to the throne of England.[28] The
uncertainty about what would happen after Henry's death continued to grow; Richard was keen to join a new crusade
and remained concerned that whilst he was away Henry would appoint John his formal successor.[29] Richard
began discussions about a potential alliance with Philip II in Paris during 1187, and the next year Richard gave
hommage to Philip in exchange for support for a war against Henry.[30] Richard and Philip fought a joint campaign
against Henry, and by the summer of 1189 the king made peace, promising Richard the succession.[31] John
initially remained loyal to his father, but changed sides once it appeared that Richard would win.[31] Henry died
shortly afterwards.[31]

When John's elder brother Richard became king in September 1189, he had already declared his intention of joining
the Third Crusade.[31] Richard set about raising the huge sums of money required for this expedition through the
sale of lands, titles and appointments, and attempted to ensure that he would not face a revolt while away from his
empire.[32] John was made Count of Mortain, was married to the wealthy Isabel of Gloucester, and was given
valuable lands in Lancaster and the counties of Cornwall, Derby, Devon, Dorset, Nottingham and Somerset, all with
the aim of buying his loyalty to Richard whilst the king was on crusade.[33] Richard retained royal control of key
castles in these counties, thereby preventing John from accumulating too much military and political power.[34] In
return, John promised not to visit England for the next three years, thereby in theory giving Richard adequate time
to conduct a successful crusade and return from the Levant without fear of John seizing power.[35] Richard left
political authority in England – the post of justiciar – jointly in the hands of Bishop Hugh de Puiset and William
Mandeville, and made William Longchamp, the Bishop of Ely, his chancellor.[36] Mandeville immediately died,
and Longchamp took over as joint justiciar with Puiset, which would prove to be a less than satisfactory
partnership.[35] Eleanor, the queen mother, convinced Richard to allow John into England in his absence.[35]

The political situation in England rapidly began to deteriorate. Longchamp refused to work with Puiset and became
unpopular with the English nobility and clergy.[37] John exploited this unpopularity to set himself up as an
alternative ruler with his own royal court, complete with his own justiciar, chancellor and other royal posts, and was
happy to be portrayed as an alternative regent, and possibly the next king.[38] Armed conflict broke out between
John and Longchamp, and by October 1191 Longchamp was isolated in the Tower of London with John in control
of the city of London, thanks to promises John had made to the citizens in return for recognition as Richard's heir
presumptive.[39] At this point Walter of Coutances, the Archbishop of Rouen, returned to England, having been
sent by Richard to restore order.[40] John's position was undermined by Walter's relative popularity and by the news
that Richard had married whilst in Cyprus, which presented the possibility that Richard would have legitimate
children and heirs.[41]
The political turmoil continued. John began to explore an alliance with the French king Philip II, freshly returned from the crusade. John hoped to acquire Normandy, Anjou and the other lands in France held by Richard in exchange for allying himself with Philip.[41] John was persuaded not to pursue an alliance by his mother.[41] Longchamp, who had left England after Walter's intervention, now returned, and argued that he had been wrongly removed as justiciar.[42] John intervened, suppressing Longchamp's claims in return for promises of support from the royal administration, including a reaffirmation of his position as heir to the throne.[42] When Richard still did not return from the crusade, John began to assert that his brother was dead or otherwise permanently lost.[42] Richard had in fact been captured en route to England by the Duke of Austria and was handed over to Emperor Henry VI, who held him for ransom.[42] John seized the opportunity and went to Paris, where he formed an alliance with Philip. He agreed to set aside his wife, Isabella of Gloucester, and marry Philip's sister, Alys, in exchange for Philip's support.[43] Fighting broke out in England between forces loyal to Richard and those being gathered by John.[43] John's military position was weak and he agreed to a truce; in early 1194 the king finally returned to England, and John's remaining forces surrendered.[44] John retreated to Normandy, where Richard finally found him later that year.[44] Richard declared that his younger brother – despite being 27 years old – was merely "a child who has had evil counsellors" and forgave him, but removed his lands with the exception of Ireland.[45]

For the remaining years of Richard's reign, John supported his brother on the continent, apparently loyally.[46] Richard's policy on the continent was to attempt to regain the castles he had lost to Philip II whilst on crusade through steady, limited campaigns. He allied himself with the leaders of Flanders, Boulogne and the Holy Roman Empire to apply pressure on Philip from Germany.[47] In 1195 John successfully conducted a sudden attack and siege of Évreux castle, and subsequently managed the defences of Normandy against Philip.[46] The following year, John seized the town of Gamaches and led a raiding party within 50 miles (80 km) of Paris, capturing the Bishop of Beauvais.[46] In return for this service, Richard withdrew his malevontia, or ill-will, towards John, restored him to the county of Gloucestershire and made him again the Count of Mortain.[46]

Early reign (1199–1204) Accession to the throne, 1199
The donjon of Château Gaillard; the loss of the castle would prove devastating for John's military position in Normandy. After Richard's death on 6 April 1199 there were two potential claimants to the Angevin throne: John, whose claim rested on being the sole surviving son of Henry II, and young Arthur of Brittany, who held a claim as the son of Geoffrey, John's elder brother.[48] Richard appears to have started to recognise John as his legitimate heir in the final years before his death, but the matter was not clear-cut and medieval law gave little guidance as to how the competing claims should be decided.[49] With Norman law favouring John as the only surviving son of Henry II and Angevin law favouring Arthur as the heir of Henry's eldest son, the matter rapidly became an open conflict.[8] John was supported by the bulk of the English and Norman nobility and was crowned at Westminster, backed by his mother, Eleanor. Arthur was supported by the majority of the Breton, Maine and Anjou nobles and received the support of Philip II, who remained committed to breaking up the Angevin territories on the continent.[50] With Arthur's army pressing up the Loire valley towards Angers and Philip's forces moving down the valley towards Tours, John's continental empire was in danger of being cut in two.[51]

Warfare in Normandy at the time was shaped by the defensive potential of castles and the increasing costs of conducting campaigns.[52] The Norman frontiers had limited natural defences but were heavily reinforced with castles, such as Château Gaillard, at strategic points, built and maintained at considerable expense.[53] It was difficult for a commander to advance far into fresh territory without having secured his lines of communication by capturing these fortifications, which slowed the progress of any attack.[54] Armies of the period could be formed from either feudal or mercenary forces.[55] Feudal levies could only be raised for a fixed length of time before they returned home, forcing an end to a campaign; mercenary forces, often called Brabançons after the Duchy of Brabant but actually recruited from across northern Europe, could operate all year long and provide a commander with more strategic options to pursue a campaign, but cost much more than equivalent feudal forces.[56] As a result commanders of the period were increasingly drawing on larger numbers of mercenaries.[57]

After his coronation, John moved south into France with military forces and adopted a defensive posture along the eastern and southern Normandy borders.[58] Both sides paused for desultory negotiations before the war recommenced; John's position was now stronger, thanks to confirmation that Count Baldwin of Flanders and Renaud of Boulogne had renewed the anti-French alliances they had previously agreed to with Richard.[50] The powerful Anjou nobleman William de Roches was persuaded to switch sides from Arthur to John; suddenly the balance
seemed to be tipping away from Philip and Arthur in favour of John.[59] Neither side was keen to continue the conflict, and following a papal truce the two leaders met in January 1200 to negotiate possible terms for peace.[59] From John's perspective, what then followed represented an opportunity to stabilise control over his continental possessions and produce a lasting peace with Philip in Paris. John and Philip negotiated the May 1200 Treaty of Le Goulet; by this treaty, Philip recognised John as the rightful heir to Richard in respect to his French possessions, temporarily abandoning the wider claims of his client, Arthur.[60][nb 3] John, in turn, abandoned Richard's former policy of containing Philip through alliances with Flanders and Boulogne, and accepted Philip's right as the legitimate feudal overlord of John's lands in France.[61] John's policy earned him the disrespectful title of "John Softsword" from some English chroniclers, who contrasted his behaviour with his more aggressive brother, Richard.[62]

**Le Goulet peace, 1200–02**
The new peace would only last for two years; war recommenced in the aftermath of John's decision in August 1200 to marry Isabella of Angoulême. In order to remarry, John first needed to abandon Isabel, Countess of Gloucester, his first wife; John accomplished this by arguing that he had failed to get the necessary papal permission to marry Isabel in the first place – as a cousin, John could not have legally wed her without this.[60] It remains unclear why John chose to marry Isabella of Angoulême. Contemporary chroniclers argued that John had fallen deeply in love with Isabella, and John may have been motivated by desire for an apparently beautiful, if rather young, girl.[60] On the other hand, the Angoumois lands that came with Isabella were strategically vital to John: by marrying Isabella, John was acquiring a key land route between Poitou and Gascony, which significantly strengthened his grip on Aquitaine.[63]

Unfortunately, Isabella was already engaged to Hugh de Lusignan, an important member of a key Poitou noble family and brother of Raoul de Lusignan, the Count of Eu, who possessed lands along the sensitive eastern Normandy border.[60] Just as John stood to benefit strategically from marrying Isabella, so the marriage threatened the interests of the Lusignans, whose own lands currently provided the key route for royal goods and troops across Aquitaine.[64] Rather than negotiating some form of compensation, John treated Hugh "with contempt"; this resulted in a Lusignan uprising that was promptly crushed by John, who also intervened to suppress Raoul in Normandy.[63]

Although John was the Count of Poitou and therefore the rightful feudal lord over the Lusignans, they could legitimately appeal John's actions in France to his own feudal lord, Philip.[63] Hugh did exactly this in 1201 and Philip summoned John to attend court in Paris in 1202, citing the Le Goulet treaty to strengthen his case.[63] John was unwilling to weaken his authority in western France in this way. He argued that he need not attend Philip's court because of his special status as the Duke of Normandy, who was exempt by feudal tradition from being called to the French court.[63] Philip argued that he was summoning John not as the Duke of Normandy, but as the Count of Poitou, who carried no such special status.[63] When John still refused to come, Philip declared John in breach of his feudal responsibilities, reasserted all of John's lands that fell under the French crown to Arthur – with the exception of Normandy, which he took back for himself – and began a fresh war against John.[63]

John's successful 1202 campaign, which culminated in the victory of the battle of Mirebeau; red arrows indicate the movement of John's forces, blue those of Philip II's forces and light blue those of Philip's Breton and Lusignan allies.John initially adopted a defensive posture similar to that of 1199: avoiding open battle and carefully defending his key castles.[65] John's operations became more chaotic as the campaign progressed, and Philip began to make steady progress in the east.[65] John became aware in July that Arthur's forces were threatening his mother, Eleanor, at Mirebeau Castle. Accompanied by William de Roches, his seneschal in Anjou, he swung his mercenary army rapidly south to protect her.[65] His forces caught Arthur by surprise and captured the entire rebel leadership at the battle of Mirebeau.[65] With his southern flank weakening, Philip was forced to withdraw in the east and turn south himself to contain John's army.[65]

John's position in France was considerably strengthened by the victory at Mirebeau, but John's treatment of his new prisoners and of his ally, William de Roches, quickly undermined these gains. De Roches was a powerful Anjou noble, but John largely ignored him, causing considerable offence, whilst the king kept the rebel leaders in such bad conditions that twenty-two of them died.[66] At this time most of the regional nobility were closely linked through kinship, and this behaviour towards their relatives was regarded as unacceptable.[67] William de Roches and other of John's regional allies in Anjou and Brittany deserted him in favour of Philip, and Brittany rose in fresh revolt.[67]
John's financial situation was tenuous: once factors such as the comparative military costs of materiel and soldiers were taken into account, Philip enjoyed a considerable, although not overwhelming, advantage of resources over John.[68][nb 4]

Further desertions of John's local allies at the beginning of 1203 steadily reduced John's freedom to manoeuvre in the region.[67] He attempted to convince Pope Innocent III to intervene in the conflict, but Innocent's efforts were unsuccessful.[67] As the situation became worse for John, he appears to have decided to have Arthur killed, with the aim of removing his potential rival and of undermining the rebel movement in Brittany.[67] Arthur had initially been imprisoned at Falaise and was then moved to Rouen. After this, Arthur's fate remains uncertain, but modern historians believe he was murdered by John.[67] The annals of Margam Abbey suggest that "John had captured Arthur and kept him alive in prison for some time in the castle of Rouen... when John was drunk he slew Arthur with his own hand and tying a heavy stone to the body cast it into the Seine."[70][nb 5] Rumours of the manner of Arthur's death further reduced support for John across the region.[71] Arthur's sister, Eleanor, who had also been captured at Mirebeau, was kept imprisoned by John for many years, albeit in relatively good conditions.[71]

Phillip II's successful invasion of Normandy in 1204; blue arrows indicate the movement of Philip II's forces and light blue Philip's Breton alliesIn late 1203, John attempted to relieve Château Gaillard, which although besieged by Philip was guarding the eastern flank of Normandy.[72] John attempted a synchronised operation involving land-based and water-borne forces, considered by most historians today to have been imaginative in conception, but overly complex for forces of the period to have carried out successfully.[72] John's relief operation was blocked by Philip's forces, and John turned back to Brittany in an attempt to draw Philip away from eastern Normandy.[72] John successfully devastated much of Brittany, but did not deflect Philip's main thrust into the east of Normandy.[72] Opinions vary amongst historians as to the military skill shown by John during this campaign, with most recent historians arguing that his performance was passable, although not impressive.[60][nb 6] John's situation began to deteriorate rapidly. The eastern border region of Normandy had been extensively cultivated by Philip and his predecessors for several years, whilst Angevin authority in the south had been undermined by Richard's giving away of various key castles some years before.[74] His use of routier mercenaries in the central regions had rapidly eaten away his remaining support in this area too, which set the stage for a sudden collapse of Angevin power.[75][nb 7] John retreated back across the Channel in December, sending orders for the establishment of a fresh defensive line to the west of Chateau Gaillard.[72] In March 1204, Gaillard fell. John's mother Eleanor died the following month.[72]

Notes for ISABELLA DE TALLEFER OF ANGOULEME:
Isabella of Angoulême (French: Isabelle d'Angoulême, IPA: [izab?l d'gul?m]; 1188 – 31 May 1246) was suo jure Countess of Angoulême and queen consort of England as the second wife of King John. She was queen from 24 August 1200 until John's death on 19 October 1216. She had five children by the king including his heir Henry who succeeded John as Henry III of England. In 1220, Isabella married secondly Hugh X of Lusignan, Count of La Marche, by whom she had another nine children.

Isabella formed a conspiracy against King Louis IX of France in 1241, after being publicly snubbed by his mother, Blanche of Castile for whom she had a deep-seated hatred.[1] In 1244, after the plot had failed, Isabella was accused of attempting to poison the king, and to avoid arrest, sought refuge in Fontevraud Abbey where she died two years later at the age of about 58.

She was the only daughter and heir of Aymer Taillefer, Count of Angoulême, by Alice of Courtenay, who was sister of Peter II of Courtenay, Latin Emperor of Constantinople and granddaughter of King Louis VI of France.

Isabella became Countess of Angoulême in her own right on 16 June 1202, by which time she was already queen of England. Her marriage to King John took place on 24 August 1200, at Bordeaux, a year after he annulled his first marriage to Isabel of Gloucester. She was crowned queen in an elaborate ceremony on 9 October at Westminster Abbey in London. Isabella was originally betrothed to Hugh IX le Brun, Count of Lusignan, [2] son of the then Count of La Marche. As a result of John's temerity in taking her as his second wife, King Philip II of France confiscated all of their French lands, and armed conflict ensued.

At the time of her marriage to John, the 12-year-old Isabella was already renowned for her beauty[3] and has
sometimes been called the Helen of the Middle Ages by historians.[4] Isabella was much younger than her husband and possessed a volatile temper to match his own. King John, however, was deeply infatuated with his young, beautiful wife; he neglected his state affairs to spend time with Isabella, often remaining in bed with her until noon, although it was the custom for kings to rise at five o'clock in the morning to commence their duties. The common people began to term her a "siren" or "Messalina", although they were pleased with her beauty.[5] Her mother-in-law, Eleanor of Aquitaine readily accepted her as John's wife.[6]

On 1 October 1207 at Winchester Castle, Isabella gave birth to a son and heir who was named Henry after the King's father, Henry II. He was quickly followed by another son, Richard, 1st Earl of Cornwall, King of the Romans; and three daughters, Joan, Isabel, and Eleanor. All five children survived into adulthood, and would make illustrious marriages; all but Joan would produce offspring of their own.

When King John died in October 1216, Isabella's first act was to arrange the speedy coronation of her nine-year-old son at the city of Gloucester on 28 October. As the royal crown had recently been lost in The Wash, along with the rest of King John's treasure, she supplied her own golden circlet to be used in lieu of a crown.[7] The following July, less than a year after his crowning as King Henry III of England, she left him in the care of his regent, William Marshal, 1st Earl of Pembroke and returned to France to assume control of her inheritance of Angoulême, which had belonged to her suo jure since 1202.

In the spring of 1220, she married Hugh X of Lusignan, "le Brun", Seigneur de Lusignan, Count of La Marche, the son of Hugh IX, to whom she had been betrothed before her marriage to King John. It had been previously arranged that her eldest daughter Joan should marry Hugh, and the little girl was being brought up at the Lusignan court in preparation for her marriage. Hugh, however, upon seeing Isabella, whose beauty had not diminished,[8] preferred the girl's mother. Princess Joan was provided with another husband, King Alexander II of Scotland, whom she wed in 1221.

Isabella had married Hugh without waiting to receive the consent of the King's council in England, which was the required procedure for a former Queen of England, as the Council had the power to not only choose the Queen Dowager's second husband, but to decide whether or not she should be allowed to marry at all. Isabella's flouting of this law caused the Council to confiscate her dower lands and stop the payment of her pension.[9] Isabella and her husband retaliated by threatening to keep the Princess Joan in France (she had not yet departed for England); and after furious letters sent by the Council to the Pope, signed by Isabella's son, King Henry, which urged the Pontiff to excommunicate the Count and Countess, the Council, in order to placate the King of Scotland, who was eager to receive his future bride, came to terms with Isabella. She was granted, in compensation for her dower lands in Normandy, the stannaries in Devon and the revenue of Aylesbury for a period of four years. She also received £3000 pounds as payment for arrears in her pension.[10]

By Hugh X, Isabella had nine more children. Their eldest son Hugh XI of Lusignan succeeded his father as Count of La Marche and Count of Angoulême in 1249.

Rebellion and death
Described as "vain, capricious, and troublesome",[11] Isabella could not reconcile herself to the necessary loss in rank which resulted after her marriage to the Count of La Marche. Isabella had been a Queen of England and deeply resented having to give precedence to women who were now of higher rank than she, a mere Countess of Angoulême and La Marche.[12] In 1241, when Isabella and Hugh were summoned to the French court to swear fealty to King Louis IX of France's brother, Alphonse, who had been invested as Count of Poitou, their mother, the Queen Dowager Blanche openly snubbed her. This so infuriated Isabella, who had a deep-seated hatred of Blanche due to the latter having fervently supported the French invasion of England during the First Barons' War in May 1216, that she began to actively conspire against King Louis. Isabella and her husband, along with other disgruntled nobles, including her son-in-law Raymond VII of Toulouse, sought to create an English-backed confederacy which united the provinces of the south and west against the French king.[13] In 1244, after the confederacy had failed and Hugh had made peace with King Louis, two royal cooks were arrested for attempting to poison the King; upon questioning they confessed to having been in Isabella's pay.[14] Before Isabella could be taken into custody, she fled to Fontevraud Abbey, where she died on 31 May 1246.

By her own prior arrangement, she was first buried in the Abbey's churchyard, as an act of repentance for her many
misdeeds. On a visit to Fontevraud, her son King Henry III of England was shocked to find her buried outside the Abbey and ordered her immediately moved inside. She was finally placed beside Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine. Afterwards, most of her many Lusignan children, having few prospects in France, set sail for England and the court of Henry, their half-brother.

Issue
With King John of England: 5 children, all of whom survived into adulthood, including:
3. Joan (22 July 1210 – 1238), the wife of King Alexander II of Scotland. Her marriage was childless.
4. Isabella (1214 – 1241), the wife of Emperor Frederick II, by whom she had issue.
5. Eleanor (1215 – 1275), who would marry firstly William Marshal, 2nd Earl of Pembroke; and secondly Simon de Montfort, 6th Earl of Leicester, by whom she had issue.

With Hugh X of Lusignan, Count of La Marche: nine children, all of whom survived into adulthood, including:
2. Aymer of Lusignan (1222 – 1260), Bishop of Winchester
3. Agnès de Lusignan (1223 – 1269). Married William II de Chauvigny (d.1270), and had issue.
5. Guy of Lusignan (c. 1225 – 1264), killed at the Battle of Lewes. (Tufton Beamish maintains that he escaped to France after the Battle of Lewes and died there in 1269).
8. Marguerite de Lusignan (c. 1229 – 1288). Married firstly in 1243 Raymond VII of Toulouse; secondly c. 1246 Aimery IX de Thouars, Viscount of Thouars and had issue
9. Isabella of Lusignan (1234 – 14 January 1299). Married firstly before 1244 Maurice IV, seigneur de Craon (1224–1250), by whom she had issue; she married secondly, Geoffreys de Rancon.

Notes
2. ^ Hugues X of Lusignan
5. ^ Costain, The Conquering Family, pp.253-54
6. ^ Thomas B. Costain, The Conquering Family, p.246
7. ^ Costain, The Magnificent Century, p.11
11. ^ Costain, The Magnificent Century, p.149

References
Isabelle d’Angoulême, Reine d’Angleterre, by Sophie Fougère
Child of John Plantagenet and Isabella Angoulême is:

154. i. **Henry III of England** 78 Plantagenet, b. 1207.


Notes for Alice of Courtenay:
Alice of Courtenay, Countess of Angoulême (1160 – 12 February 1218)[1] was a French noblewoman of the House of Courtenay. Her father was Peter of Courtenay and her brother was Peter II of Courtenay, Latin Emperor of Constantinople. Alice married twice; by her second husband, Aymer Taillefer, Count of Angoulême, she was the mother of Isabella of Angoulême, who was Queen consort of England, as the wife of King John.

She is also known as Alix de Courtenay.

Family
Alice was born in 1160, the second eldest daughter and one of the ten children of Peter I of Courtenay and Elisabeth of Courtenay, daughter of Renauld de Courtenay and Helvis du Donjon. Her family was one of the most illustrious in France; and her paternal grandparents were King Louis VI of France and Adélaide de Maurienne. Her eldest brother Peter became the Latin Emperor of Constantinople in 1216. In addition to Peter, she had three more brothers, Philippe de Courtenay, Robert, Seigneur of Champignelles, and William, Seigneur of Tanlay; and five sisters, Eustacie, Clemence, Isabelle, Constance, and another whose name is unknown.

Marriages
In 1178, she married her first husband, Guillaume I, Count of Joigny. The marriage did not produce any children, and they were divorced in 1186. A charter dated 1180 records that Count Guillaume, with Alice's consent, donated property to Pontigny Abbey.[2]
Alice married her second husband, Aymer Taillefer in 1186, the same year he succeeded his father, William IV as Count of Angoulême. Sometime in 1188, Alice gave birth to her only child:

Isabelle of Angoulême (1188 – 31 May 1246), married firstly 24 August 1200 King John of England, by whom she had five children; in spring 1220, she married secondly, Hugh X of Lusignan, Count of La Marche, by whom she had another nine children. Alice's husband died on 16 June 1202. Their only child, Isabella succeeded him as suo jure Countess of Angoulême. By this time, Isabella was already Queen of England.

She herself died on 12 February 1218 at the age of about 58. Her daughter would also die at the age of 58 in 1246.

Notes for Aymer of Angoulême:
Aymer (or Aymar) was the third of the 6 children of William V of Angoulême, the Count of Angoulême, and Marguerite of Turenne. His two elder brothers, Wulgrin III of Angoulême and William VI of Angoulême became the Counts of Angoulême, respectively, after the death of their father in 1179 (Wulgrin first, then William VI succeeding in 1181). Aymer succeeded his brother as Count of Angoulême in 1186 as the Count of Angoulême.

In that same year, he married Alice of Courtenay, the daughter of Peter of Courtenay (the son of Louis VI of France) and Elizabeth of the House of Courtenay. In 1188, they had a daughter who would play an important role in the history of England and France: Isabella of Angoulême.

Aymer died in Limoges, France on June 16, 1202. His daughter and only child Isabella succeeded him as the ruler of the county of Angoulême. Her title, however, was largely empty since her husband John, King of England, denied Isabelle control of her inheritance as well as her marriage dowry and dower. John's appointed governor, Bartholomew le Puy, ran most of the administrative affairs of Angoulême until John's death in 1216. In 1217 Isabelle returned and seized her inheritance from le Puy, who appealed unsuccessfully to the English king for help.

Child of Alice Courtenay and Aymer Angoulême is:
155. i. ISABELLA DE TALLEFER OF85 ANGOULÊME, b. 1176; d. 1246.

Generation No. 74

152. ED I FIND MACH78 ECHACH (EOCHADH71 III, EOCHADH OF76 DALRAIDA II, DOMONGART75 DE DALRAIDA II, DOMNALL BRECC74, EOCHADH BIUDE MACAIDAN OF73 ARGYLL I, AIDAN MACGARRAN OF72, GABRAN (GABHRAN MACDOMANGART OF71, FEDELLA70 FOLTCHAIN, BRION (BIAN)69 MACECHACH, EOCHADH (EOCHU) MUGMEDON OF58 IRELAND, MUIREADCH TIREF67 MACFIACHCH II, FIALCHIDH SRIABHTHINE OF56 IRELAND, CAIBRE LIFOCHAR65 MC CORMARC, CORMAC ULFHADA64 MAC AIRT, AIRT AODINFER63 MAC CONN, CONN Ceadchathach62 MAC FEIDEILMID, FEHDLIMIDH (FELIM)61 RACTHMAR, TUATHAL60 TEACHTMAR, FIACHTA FIONN59 OLA, FEREDACH58 FIONN-FEACHTNACH, CRIAMTHANN-NIADH-NAR57, LUGHAIDH SRIABH-N56 DEARG, BRESS-NAR-LOTHAR55, EOCHADH54 FEIDLIOCH, FIONN53, FIONNLOCH52, ROIGEAN51 RUADH, ASSAMAN50 EMNHA, ENNA49 AIGNEAC, AONGUS48 TURMEACH-TEAMRACH, EOCCEIDH ALT47 LEATHAN, OLIOL46 CAS-FIACHLACH, CONLA45 CAOMH, IBARAN44 GLEOFATHACH, MELG43 MOLBHAICH, COLETHACH42 CAOL-BREACH, UGAIN41 MOR, EOCHADH40 BUADHACH, DUACH39 LADHRACH, FIACHA38 TOLGRACH, MUREADCH37 BOLGACH, SIMEON36 BREC, AEAD35 GLAS, NUADHAG33 FIONNFAIL, GIALCACH32, OLIOL32 ALOCHEOIN, SIORNA31 “SAOGHLACH”, DEIN30, ROTHBEACHTACH29, MAIN28, AONGUS27 OLMUACH, FIACH36 LABHRAINN, SMOMHALL25, ENBOATH24, TIGERNMA23, FOLL-AICHT22, EITHRIAL22, IRISLA (IREL EURLIALUS) FAIDH (FIATH)20 MACEREMOIN, HEROMON (2ND MONARCH) OF19 IRELAND, TEO TEPHI18 SCOTA; PRINCESS OF EGYPT, PHARAOH NECTANEBS ‘NECHON17 II’, PSAMTEKH16 I, NEKO15 I, SHEPSRE14 TEFNAKHII, PRINCE OF EGYPT, BAKENRANEF (BOCCORIS) WAH KA13 RE, TEFNAGHE (I) SHEPSES RE OF12 EGYPT, OSORKON IV ’C OF11 MA’AT, SHOSHONK IV10 AAKHEPERRE, STEPENRE9 PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONK8 III, TAKELOT7 II, OSORKON6 II, TAKELOT6 I, OSORKON5 I, SHOSHONK4 I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT, THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA1 SHOSHENQ) was born 714, and died 778.
Child of Ed I Find Mach Echach is:
156. i. Eochaid Annune35 Mac Eda, b. 760; d. 819. 


Notes for Guy II of Ponthieu:
[Stem of the House of Conon.FTW]

Guy II of Ponthieu (c. 1120–1147), the son of William III of Ponthieu and Helie of Burgundy, succeeded his father as Count of Ponthieu during William’s lifetime. He died on the Second Crusade and was succeeded by his son John I of Ponthieu.

Child of Guy II of Ponthieu is:
157. i. John70 I, Count of Ponthieu.

Empire, Bindusa (Amritochates), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire Chandragupta, Maurya V, of Magadha, Maurya IV of Taxila, Maurya III of, Maurya II of, Princess of Persia Chandravarna, Princess of Persia Atossa, Princess of Egypt Neithyti, Haibre, Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II, Nefereibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos 3 Necho II, Psamtek I, Neke I, Shepsesre Tefnakht II, Prince of Egypt, Bakenranef (Bocchoris) Wah K'at, Re, Tefnakhte (I) Shepses Re of Egypt, Osorkon IV, C of Maat, Shoshonk V Aahheperre, Stepnere Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk III, Takelot II, Osorkon II, Takelot II, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot 2, the Great Chief of the Ma Shoshenq) was born 1207. He married Elenore Berenger of Provence, daughter of Ramon Provence and Beatrice Savoie. She was born 1217, and died 1291.

Notes for Henry III of England Plantagenet: Henry III (1 October 1207 – 16 November 1272) was the son and successor of John as King of England, reigning for 56 years from 1216 until his death. His contemporaries knew him as Henry of Winchester. He was the first child king in England since the reign of Æthelred the Unready. England prospered during his reign and his greatest monument is Westminster, which he made the seat of his government and where he expanded the abbey as a shrine to Edward the Confessor. He is the first of only five monarchs to rule the Kingdom of England or its successor states for 50 years or more, the others being Edward III (1327–1377), George III (1760–1820), Queen Victoria (1837–1901) and Elizabeth II (1952–present).

He assumed the crown under the regency of the popular William Marshal, 1st Earl of Pembroke, but the England he inherited had undergone several drastic changes in the reign of his father. He spent much of his reign fighting the barons over Magna Carta[1][2][3][4] and the royal rights, and was eventually forced to call the first "parliament" in 1264. He was also unsuccessful on the Continent, where he endeavoured to re-establish English control over Normandy, Anjou, and Aquitaine.

Henry III was born in 1207 at Winchester Castle, the son of King John and Isabella of Angoulême. His coronation at age nine was a simple affair, attended by only a handful of noblemen and three bishops at St Peter's Abbey, Gloucester. In the absence of a crown (the crown had recently been lost with all the rest of his father's treasure in a wreck in East Anglia) a simple golden band was placed on the young boy's head, not by the Archbishop of Canterbury (who was at this time supporting Prince Louis "the Lion", the future king of France) but by another clergyman—either Peter des Roches, Bishop of Winchester, or Cardinal Guala Bicchieri, the Papal legate. In 1220 a second coronation was ordered by Pope Honorius III who did not consider that the first had been carried out in accordance with church rites. This occurred on 17 May 1220 in Westminster Abbey.[6]

Under John's rule the barons had supported an invasion by Prince Louis because they disliked the way that John had ruled the country. However, they quickly saw that the young prince was a safer option. Henry's regents immediately declared their intention to rule by Magna Carta, which they proceeded to do during Henry's minority.

The treatment of his elder cousin Eleanor of Brittany, who was 23 years his senior (and older than his mother), was a difficult problem for Henry.

Eleanor was the daughter of Duke Geoffrey II of Brittany, elder brother of King John, which meant that she had a better claim to the English throne than John and Henry. But in 1202 John captured Eleanor at Mirebeau and kept her imprisoned at Corfe Castle and unmarried. When John died, according to Primogeniture, the captive Eleanor should have been the rightful queen of England, but the barons passed her over and crowned Henry, leaving the princess still in prison guarded by Peter de Maulay. Before Henry held real power, it was alleged that there was a plot to spirit Eleanor away and deliver her to the king of France; de Maulay was accused of the plot and fell out of favor. However many believed such a plot was just an excuse aiming to discredit de Maulay and Peter des Roches, who would also fall out of favor in spring 1234.

Viewing her claim, with no baronial support for her sex but once recognized by Pope Honorius III,[7] as a threat to the throne, the regents, later Henry himself, viewed Eleanor as "state prisoner" and kept her in a state of semi-captivity,[8] or "under a gentle house arrest".[9] had her transferred between Gloucester, Marlborough and Bristol Castle,[10] and never permitted her to marry. She was under strict custody and always closely guarded, even after child-bearing years.[11] However, Henry also styled Eleanor, who had been left no title, as "king's kinswoman"
referred her as "our cousin", and it was recorded that Eleanor lived as comfortably as a royal princess who received generous gifts from royal family. Henry himself once gave Eleanor a saddle, suggesting that Eleanor was probably a horsewoman, and that she was not always confined in her apartment. On another occasion, Henry sent her 50 yards of linen cloth, three wimples, 50 pounds of almonds and raisins respectively and a basket of figs. While Eleanor was imprisoned at Gloucester, the sheriff there paid for her expenses. In November 1237 at Woodstock, Henry met Eleanor. In the final years of her life Eleanor was moved to Bristol, and Henry ordered the mayor and bailiff there to increase her household. The governor there exhibited her to the public annually, in case there might be rumors that the royal captive had been injured. The fact might suggest that English people were sympathetic to her.

On 10 August 1241 Eleanor died, and was buried at Amesbury. In the Chronicle of Lanercost there was a legend saying that before her death, the remorseful Henry gave her a gold crown, which would be donated to his young son Edward three days later. Another version of events stated that Eleanor returned the crown after wearing it for only one day. After Eleanor, who actually never gave up her rights and claim, finally died an unmarried prisoner, Henry was now indisputably the rightful king of England, although years later he was still unwilling to admit that Eleanor had preceded him in English succession line.

In 1268 Henry donated a manor in Melksham, a place that Eleanor had shown her interest in, to Amesbury for the souls of Eleanor and her younger-brother Arthur, who was captured along with his sister and disappeared mysteriously the next year, it being widely believed that John had him murdered.

In 1244, when the Scots threatened to invade England, King Henry III visited York Castle and ordered it rebuilt in stone. The work commenced in 1245, and took some 20 to 25 years to complete. The builders crowned the existing moat with a stone keep, known as the King's Tower.

Henry's reign came to be marked by civil strife as the English barons, led by Simon de Montfort, demanded more say in the running of the kingdom. French-born de Montfort had originally been one of the King's foreign counselors—a group much resented by the barons. Henry, in an outburst of anger over de Montfort's behaviour in a financial matter, accused de Montfort of seducing his sister and forcing him to give her to de Montfort to avoid a scandal. When confronted by the Barons about the secret marriage that Henry had allowed to happen, a feud developed between the two. Their relationship reached a crisis in the 1250s when de Montfort was brought up on spurious charges for actions he had taken as lieutenant of Gascony, the last remaining Plantagenet land across the English Channel. He was acquitted by the Peers of the realm, much to the King's displeasure.

Henry also became embroiled in funding a war in Sicily on behalf of the Pope in return for a title for his second son Edmund. This situation led many of the barons to fear that Henry was following in his father's footsteps and therefore also needed to be kept in check. De Montfort became leader of those who wanted to reassert Magna Carta and force the king to surrender more power to the baronial council. In 1258 seven leading barons forced Henry to agree to the Provisions of Oxford, which effectively abolished the absolutist Anglo-Norman monarchy, giving power to a council of fifteen barons to deal with the business of government and providing for a thrice-yearly meeting of parliament to monitor their performance. Henry was forced to take part in the swearing of a collective oath to the Provisions of Oxford.

In the following years those supporting de Montfort and those supporting the king grew more and more polarised. Henry obtained a papal bull in 1262 exempting him from his oath and both sides began to raise armies. The Royalists were led by Prince Edward, Henry's eldest son. A civil war, known as the Second Barons' War, ensued.

The charismatic de Montfort and his forces had captured most of southeastern England by 1263, and at the Battle of Lewes on 14 May 1264, Henry was defeated and taken prisoner by de Montfort's army. While Henry was reduced to being a figurehead king, de Montfort broadened representation to include each county of England and many important towns—that is, to groups beyond the nobility. Henry and Edward remained under house arrest. The short period that followed was the closest England was to come to complete abolition of the monarchy until the Commonwealth period of 1649–60 and many of the barons who had initially supported de Montfort began to suspect that he had gone too far with his reforming zeal.
Fifteen months later Prince Edward had escaped captivity (having been freed by his cousin Roger Mortimer) and led the royalists into battle, turning the tables on de Montfort at the Battle of Evesham in 1265. Following this victory, savage retribution was exacted on the rebels.

Though not seen as the most tyrannical of kings, unlike his son Prince Edward, discontent was common during Henry's time and, though traditionally thought of as belonging to the time of King John, the earliest Robin Hood sources and tales suggest that, if he existed at all, it was during Henry's reign.

Death
On Henry's death in 1272 he was succeeded by his son Edward I. His body was laid, temporarily, in the tomb of Edward the Confessor while his own sarcophagus was constructed in Westminster Abbey.

The tomb of King Henry III in Westminster Abbey, London[edit] Attitudes and beliefs during his reign As Henry reached maturity he was keen to restore royal authority, looking towards the autocratic model of the French monarchy.[citation needed] Henry married Eleanor of Provence and he promoted many of his French relatives to higher positions of power and wealth. For instance, one Poitevin, Peter de Rivaux, held the offices of Treasurer of the Household, Keeper of the King's Wardrobe, Lord Privy Seal, and the sheriffdoms of twenty-one English counties simultaneously. Henry's tendency to govern for long periods with no publicly-appointed ministers who could be held accountable for their actions and decisions did not make matters any easier. Many English barons came to see his method of governing as foreign.

Henry was much taken with the cult of the Anglo-Saxon saint king Edward the Confessor who had been canonised in 1161. After learning that St Edward dressed in an austere manner, Henry took to doing the same and wearing only the simplest of robes. He had a mural of the saint painted in his bedchamber for inspiration before and after sleep and even named his eldest son Edward. Henry designated Westminster, where St Edward had founded the abbey, as the fixed seat of power in England and Westminster Hall duly became the greatest ceremonial space of the kingdom, where the council of nobles also met. Henry appointed French architects from Rheims to renovate Westminster Abbey in the Gothic style. Work began, at great expense, in 1245. The centrepiece of Henry's renovated abbey was a shrine to Edward the Confessor. It was finished in 1269 and the saint's relics were then installed.

Henry was known for his anti-Jewish decrees, such as a decree compelling Jews to wear a special "badge of shame" in the form of the Two Tablets. He exacted several tallages specifically from Jews to raise money for his campaigns.

Henry was pious and his journeys were often delayed by his insistence on hearing Mass several times a day. He took so long to arrive for a visit to the French court that his brother-in-law, King Louis IX of France, banned priests from Henry's route. On one occasion, as related by Roger of Wendover, when King Henry met with papal prelates, he said, "If [the prelates] knew how much I, in my reverence of God, am afraid of them and how unwilling I am to offend them, they would trample on me as on an old and worn-out shoe."

Criticisms
Henry's advancement of foreign favourites, notably his wife's Savoyard uncles and his own Lusignan half-siblings, was unpopular with his subjects and barons. He was also extravagant and avaricious; when his first child, Prince Edward, was born, Henry demanded that Londoners bring him rich gifts to celebrate. He even sent back gifts that did not please him. Matthew Paris reports that some said, "God gave us this child, but the king sells him to us".

Henry III's lands in Aquitaine, from a later (15th-century) illumination. (Bibliothèque Nationale, MS fr. 2829, folio 18)[edit] Appearance According to Proulx et al., Henry was a thickset man of great stature who was often revered for his smooth skin. (His son, Edward I suffered from a droopy eyelid.)

Marriage and children
Married on 14 January 1236, Canterbury Cathedral, Canterbury, Kent, to Eleanor of Provence, with at least five children born:

1. Edward I (b. 17 June 1239 – d. 7 July 1307)
2. Margaret (b. 29 September 1240 – d. 26 February 1275), married King Alexander III of Scotland
4. Edmund Crouchback (16 January 1245 – d. 5 June 1296)
5. Katherine (b. 25 November 1253 – d. 3 May 1257), deaf and mute from birth,[20][21] though her deafness may not have been discovered until age 2.[22]
There is reason to doubt the existence of several attributed children of Henry and Eleanor.

Richard (b. after 1247 – d. before 1256),
John (b. after 1250 – d. before 1256), and
Henry (b. after 1253 – d. young)
are known only from a 14th century addition made to a manuscript of Flores Historiarum, and are nowhere contemporaneously recorded.

William (b. and d. ca. 1258) is an error for the nephew of Henry's half-brother, William de Valence, 1st Earl of Pembroke.
Another daughter, Matilda, is found only in the Hayles Abbey chronicle, alongside such other fictitious children as a son named William for King John, and an illegitimate son named John for King Edward I. Matilda's existence is doubtful, at best. For further details, see Margaret Howell, The Children of King Henry III and Eleanor of Provence (1992).

Personal details
His Royal Motto was qui non dat quod habet non accipit ille quod optat (He who does not give what he has, does not receive what he wants).
His favourite wine was made with the Loire Valley red wine grape Pineau d'Aunis which Henry first introduced to England in the thirteenth century.[23]
He built a Royal Palace in the town of Cippenham, Slough, Berkshire named "Cippenham Moat".
In 1266 Henry III of England granted the Lübeck and Hamburg Hansa a charter for operations in England, which contributed to the emergence of the Hanseatic League.

Fictional portrayals
In The Divine Comedy, Dante sees Henry ("the king of simple life") sitting outside the gates of Purgatory with other contemporary European rulers.
Henry is a prominent character in Sharon Kay Penman's historical novel Falls the Shadow; his portrayal is very close to most historical descriptions of him as weak and vacillating.
Henry has been portrayed on screen only rarely. As a child he has been portrayed by Dora Senior in the 1899 silent short King John (1899), a version of John's death scene from Shakespeare's King John, and by Rusty Livingstone in the 1984 BBC Television Shakespeare version of the play.

References
1. ^ Henry III, Treasures in full: Magna Carta, British Library
2. ^ Henry III (r. 1216–1272), Official website of the British Monarchy
3. ^ The Magna Carta and the creation of England's Parliament, HyperHistory.net
4. ^ King Henry III biography, Medieval Life and Times
7. ^ a b Eleanor of Brittany and Her Treatment by King John and Henry III by G. Seabourne
8. ^ a b c A Bit of History WebSite
9. ^ [1]
10. ^ a b c Plantagenet ancestry; a study in colonial and medieval families, by Douglas Richardson and Kimball G. Everingham
12. ^ LIVES OF ENGLAND’S MONARCHS by H. Eugene Lehman
13. ^ Eleanor of Brittany in captivity
Royal palaces: an account of the homes of British sovereigns from Saxon to modern times by Olwen Hedley

Bristol Castle: In a code of instructions signed at Berkeley, 28 August 1249, the King enjoins the mayor and bailiff of Bristol "to lengthen three windows of his chapel, and to whitewash it throughout; also glass windows are ordered to be put in our hall at Bristol, a royal seat in the same hall, and dormant tables around the same, and block up the doors of the chapel beside our great hall there, and make a door in the chancel towards the hermitage; in that hermitage make an altar to St. Edward, and in the turret over that hermitage make a chamber for the clerk with appurtenances; also build a kitchen and a sewer beside the said hall, and find the wages of a certain chaplain whom we have ordered to celebrate divine service in the chapel of our tower there all the days of our life, for Eleanor of Brittany, our cousin, to wit, 50s. per annum."

Chilcott's descriptive history of Bristol by John Chilcott


British History Online

From Louis Blancard, Iconographie des sceaux et bulles, 1860

Katherine Plantagenet, daughter of Henry III, RoyaList Online

Swallowfield, David Nash Ford's Royal Berkshire History

FAQ: Earliest Known Deaf People, Gallaudet University


Notes for ELENORE BERENGER OF PROVENCE:
Eleanor of Provence (c. 1223 – 24/25 June 1291[1]) was Queen consort of England as the spouse of King Henry III of England from 1236 until his death in 1272.

Although she was completely devoted to her husband, and staunchly defended him against the rebel Simon de Montfort, 6th Earl of Leicester, she was very much hated by the Londoners. This was because she had brought a large number of relatives with her to England in her retinue; these were known as "the Savoyards", and they were given influential positions in the government and realm. On one occasion, Eleanor's barge was attacked by angry citizens who pelted her with stones, mud, pieces of paving, rotten eggs and vegetables.

Eleanor was the mother of five children including the future King Edward I of England. She also was renowned for her cleverness, skill at writing poetry, and as a leader of fashion.

Born in Aix-en-Provence, she was the second eldest daughter of Ramon Berenguer V, Count of Provence (1198–1245) and Beatrice of Savoy (1205–1267), the daughter of Thomas I of Savoy and his second wife Margaret of Geneva. All four of their daughters became queens. Like her mother, grandmother, and sisters, Eleanor was renowned for her beauty. She was a dark-haired brunette with fine eyes.[2] Piers Langtoft speaks of her as "The erle's daughter, the fairest may of life".[3] On 22 June 1235, Eleanor was betrothed to King Henry III of England (1207–1272).[1] Eleanor was probably born in 1223; Matthew Paris describes her as being "jamque duodennem" (already twelve) when she arrived in the Kingdom of England for her marriage.

Eleanor was married to King Henry III of England on 14 January 1236. She had never seen him prior to the wedding at Canterbury Cathedral and had never set foot in his kingdom.[4] Edmund Rich, Archbishop of Canterbury, officiated. She was dressed in a shimmering golden gown which was tightly-fitted to the waist, and then flared out in wide pleats to her feet. The sleeves were long and lined with ermine.[5] After riding to London the same day where a procession of citizens greeted the bridal pair, Eleanor was crowned queen consort of England in a ceremony at Westminster Abbey which was followed by a magnificent banquet with the entire nobility in full attendance.[6]

Eleanor and Henry together had five children:

1. Edward I (1239–1307), married Eleanor of Castile (1241–1290) in 1254, by whom he had issue, including his heir Edward II; he married Margaret of France in 1299, by whom he had issue.
4. Edmund Crouchback, 1st Earl of Lancaster (1245–1296), married Aveline de Forz in 1269, who died four years
later without issue; married Blanche of Artois in 1276, by whom he had issue.
5. Katharine (25 November 1253 – 3 May 1257)
Four others are listed, but their existence is in doubt as there is no contemporary record of them. These are:

1. Richard (1247–1256)
2. John (1250–1256)
3. William (1251–1256)
4. Henry (1256–1257)

Eleanor was renowned for her learning, cleverness, and skill at writing poetry,[4] as well as her beauty; she was also known as a leader of fashion, continually importing clothes from France.[3] She often wore parti-coloured cottes (a type of tunic), gold or silver girdles into which a dagger was casually thrust, she favoured red silk damask, and decorations of gilt quatrefoil, and to cover her dark hair she wore jaunty pillbox caps. Eleanor introduced a new type of wimple to England, which was high, "into which the head receded until the face seemed like a flower in an enveloping spathe".[3]

Eleanor seems to have been especially devoted to her eldest son, Edward; when he was deathly ill in 1246, she stayed with him at the abbey at Beaulieu in Hampshire for three weeks, long past the time allowed by monastic rules.[7] It was because of her influence that King Henry granted the duchy of Gascony to Edward in 1249.[citation needed] Her youngest child, Katharine, seems to have had a degenerative disease that rendered her deaf. When the little girl died at the age of three, both her royal parents suffered overwhelming grief.[8]

Unpopularity
Eleanor was a loyal and faithful consort to Henry, but she brought in her retinue a large number of cousins, "the Savoyards," and her influence with the King and her unpopularity with the English barons created friction during Henry's reign.[9] Eleanor was devoted to her husband's cause, stoutly contested Simon de Montfort, raising troops in France for Henry's cause. On 13 July 1263, she was sailing down the Thames on a barge when her barge was attacked by citizens of London.[10] Eleanor stoutly hated the Londoners who returned her hatred; in revenge for their dislike Eleanor had demanded from the city all the back payments due on the monetary tribute known as queen-gold, by which she received a tenth of all fines which came to the Crown. In addition to the queen-gold other such fines were levied on the citizens by the Queen on the thinnest of pretexts.[11] In fear for her life as she was pelted with stones, loose pieces of paving, dried mud, rotten eggs and vegetables, Eleanor was rescued by Thomas Fitzthomas, the Mayor of London, and took refuge at the bishop of London's home.

In 1272 Henry died, and her son Edward, who was 33 years old, became Edward I, King of England. She remained in England as Dowager Queen, and raised several of her grandchildren—Edward's son Henry and daughter Eleanor, and Beatrice's son John. When her grandson Henry died in her care in 1274, Eleanor went into mourning and gave orders for his heart to be buried at the priory at Guildford which she founded in his memory.

She retired to a convent; however, remained in contact with her son, King Edward, and her sister, Queen Margaret of France.

Eleanor died on 24/25 June 1291 in Amesbury, eight miles north of Salisbury, England. She was buried on 11 September 1291 in the Abbey of St Mary and St Melor, Amesbury on 9 December. Her heart was taken to London where it was buried at the Franciscan priory.[12]

In fiction
Eleanor is the protagonist of The Queen From Provence, a historical romance by British novelist Jean Plaidy which was published in 1979.

Notes
1. ^ a b Charles Cawley, Medieval Lands, Provence
3. ^ a b c Costain, The Magnificent Century, p.140
4. ^ a b Costain, The Magnificent Century, p.127
5. ^ Costain, The Magnificent Century, p.129
Notes for ISABELLA DE TALLEFER OF ANGOULEME:
Isabella of Angoulême (French: Isabelle d’Angoulême, IPA: [izab'l d?-gulªm]; 1188 – 31 May 1246) was suo jure Countess of Angoulême and queen consort of England as the second wife of King John. She was queen from 24 August 1200 until John’s death on 19 October 1216. She had five children by the king including his heir Henry who succeeded John as Henry III of England. In 1220, Isabella married secondly Hugh X of Lusignan, Count of La Marche, by whom she had another nine children.

Child of HENRY PLANTAGENET and ELENORE PROVENCE is:
158.  i.  EDWARD OF ENGLAND79 PLANTAGENET, b. 1239, England; d. 1307, England.


BRIHADRAJAK, KING OF KASHMIR AND GANDHARA, KUNALA, ASHOKA, VARDHANA, KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE, BINDUSA (AMITROCHATES), KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE, KING OF MAURYA EMPIRE, CHANDRAGUPTA, MAURYA, MADGA, MAURYA IV, TAKILA, MAURYA III OF MAURYA IV, MAURYA II OF MAURYA IV, PRINCESS OF PERSIA, CHANDRAVARNNA, PRINCESS OF PERSIA, ATOSA, PRINCESS OF EGYPT, NEITHYTI, HAIBERI, WABISIRI, KING OF EGYPT, PSAMTEK II, NEFERIRE, KING OF EGYPT, PHAROH, NECTANEBO II, NEFRI, PSAMTEK II, NEFRI, SHEPSE, TEFNAKHTI, PRINCE OF EGYPT, BAKENAREF (BOCHCHIS) WAG KAI, RE, TEFNAKHTI (I), SHEPSES RE OF EGYPT, OSUKRION IV OF EGYPT, SHOSHON, AAKHEPERRE, STEPHENI, PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HCARACLES, SHOSHON, III, TAKELOT II, OSUKRION II, TAKELOT II, OSUKRION, SHOSHONK, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWHE, NIMLOTL, THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA SHOSHEN) was born 1176, and died 1246. She married (1) JOHN OF ENGLAND PLANTAGENET, son of HENRY PLANTAGENET and ELENORE D’AGUITE. He was born 1167, and died 1216. She married (2) HUGH X OF LUSIGNAN, COUNT OF LA MARCHE.
Isabella formed a conspiracy against King Louis IX of France in 1241, after being publicly snubbed by his mother, Blanche of Castile for whom she had a deep-seated hatred.[1] In 1244, after the plot had failed, Isabella was accused of attempting to poison the king, and to avoid arrest, sought refuge in Fontevraud Abbey where she died two years later at the age of about 58.

She was the only daughter and heir of Aymer Taillefer, Count of Angoulême, by Alice of Courtenay, who was sister of Peter II of Courtenay, Latin Emperor of Constantinople and granddaughter of King Louis VI of France.

Isabella became Countess of Angoulême in her own right on 16 June 1202, by which time she was already queen of England. Her marriage to King John took place on 24 August 1200, at Bordeaux, a year after he annulled his first marriage to Isabel of Gloucester. She was crowned queen in an elaborate ceremony on 9 October at Westminster Abbey in London. Isabella was originally betrothed to Hugh IX le Brun, Count of Lusignan,[2] son of the then Count of La Marche. As a result of John's temerity in taking her as his second wife, King Philip II of France confiscated all of their French lands, and armed conflict ensued.

At the time of her marriage to John, the 12-year-old Isabella was already renowned for her beauty[3] and has sometimes been called the Helen of the Middle Ages by historians.[4] Isabella was much younger than her husband and possessed a volatile temper to match his own. King John, however, was deeply infatuated with his young, beautiful wife; he neglected his state affairs to spend time with Isabella, often remaining in bed with her until noon, although it was the custom for kings to rise at five o'clock in the morning to commence their duties. The common people began to term her a "siren" or "Messalina", although they were pleased with her beauty.[5] Her mother-in-law, Eleanor of Aquitaine readily accepted her as John's wife.[6]

On 1 October 1207 at Winchester Castle, Isabella gave birth to a son and heir who was named Henry after the King's father, Henry II. He was quickly followed by another son, Richard, 1st Earl of Cornwall, King of the Romans; and three daughters, Joan, Isabel, and Eleanor. All five children survived into adulthood, and would make illustrious marriages; all but Joan would produce offspring of their own.

When King John died in October 1216, Isabella's first act was to arrange the speedy coronation of her nine-year-old son at the city of Gloucester on 28 October. As the royal crown had recently been lost in The Wash, along with the rest of King John's treasure, she supplied her own golden circlet to be used in lieu of a crown.[7] The following July, less than a year after his crowning as King Henry III of England, she left him in the care of his regent, William Marshal, 1st Earl of Pembroke and returned to France to assume control of her inheritance of Angoulême, which had belonged to her suo jure since 1202.

In the spring of 1220, she married Hugh X of Lusignan, "le Brun", Seigneur de Luisignan, Count of La Marche, the son of Hugh IX, to whom she had been betrothed before her marriage to King John. It had been previously arranged that her eldest daughter Joan should marry Hugh, and the little girl was being brought up at the Lusignan court in preparation for her marriage. Hugh, however, upon seeing Isabella, whose beauty had not diminished,[8] preferred the girl's mother. Princess Joan was provided with another husband, King Alexander II of Scotland, whom she wed in 1221.

Isabella had married Hugh without waiting to receive the consent of the King's council in England, which was the required procedure for a former Queen of England, as the Council had the power to not only choose the Queen Dowager's second husband, but to decide whether or not she should be allowed to marry at all. Isabella's flouting of this law caused the Council to confiscate her dower lands and stop the payment of her pension.[9] Isabella and her husband retaliated by threatening to keep the Princess Joan in France (she had not yet departed for England); and after furious letters sent by the Council to the Pope, signed by Isabella's son, King Henry, which urged the Pontiff to excommunicate the Count and Countess, the Council, in order to placate the King of Scotland, who was eager to receive his future bride, came to terms with Isabella. She was granted, in compensation for her dower lands in Normandy, the stannaries in Devon and the revenue of Aylesbury for a period of four years. She also received £3000 pounds as payment for arrears in her pension.[10]

By Hugh X, Isabella had nine more children. Their eldest son Hugh XI of Lusignan succeeded his father as Count of La Marche and Count of Angoulême in 1249.
Rebellion and death
Described as "vain, capricious, and troublesome", Isabella could not reconcile herself to the necessary loss in rank which resulted after her marriage to the Count of La Marche. Isabella had been a Queen of England and deeply resented giving precedence to women who were now of higher rank than she, a mere Countess of Angoulême and La Marche. In 1241, when Isabella and Hugh were summoned to the French court to swear fealty to King Louis IX of France's brother, Alphonse, who had been invested as Count of Poitou, their mother, the Queen Dowager Blanche openly snubbed her. This so infuriated Isabella, who had a deep-seated hatred of Blanche due to the latter having fervently supported the French invasion of England during the First Barons' War in May 1216, that she began to actively conspire against King Louis. Isabella and her husband, along with other disgruntled nobles, including her son-in-law Raymond VII of Toulouse, sought to create an English-backed confederacy which united the provinces of the south and west against the French king. In 1244, after the confederacy had failed and Hugh had made peace with King Louis, two royal cooks were arrested for attempting to poison the King; upon questioning they confessed to having been in Isabella's pay. Before Isabella could be taken into custody, she fled to Fontevraud Abbey, where she died on 31 May 1246.

By her own prior arrangement, she was first buried in the Abbey's churchyard, as an act of repentance for her many misdeeds. On a visit to Fontevraud, her son King Henry III of England was shocked to find her buried outside the Abbey and ordered her immediately moved inside. She was finally placed beside Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine. Afterwards, most of her many Lusignan children, having few prospects in France, set sail for England and the court of Henry, their half-brother.

Issue
With King John of England: 5 children, all of whom survived into adulthood, including:
3. Joan (22 July 1210 – 1238), the wife of King Alexander II of Scotland. Her marriage was childless.
4. Isabella (1214 – 1241), the wife of Emperor Frederick II, by whom she had issue.
5. Eleanor (1215 – 1275), who would marry firstly William Marshal, 2nd Earl of Pembroke; and secondly Simon de Montfort, 6th Earl of Leicester, by whom she had issue.

With Hugh X of Lusignan, Count of La Marche: nine children, all of whom survived into adulthood, including:
2. Aymer de Lusignan (1222 – 1260), Bishop of Winchester
3. Agnès de Lusignan (1223 – 1269). Married William II de Chauvigny (d.1270), and had issue.
5. Guy of Lusignan (c. 1225 – 1264), killed at the Battle of Lewes. (Tufton Beamish maintains that he escaped to France after the Battle of Lewes and died there in 1269).
8. Marguerite de Lusignan (c. 1229 – 1288). Married firstly in 1243 Raymond VII of Toulouse; secondly c. 1246 Aimery IX de Thouars, Viscount of Thouars and had issue
9. Isabella of Lusignan (1234 – 14 January 1299). Married firstly before 1244 Maurice IV, seigneur de Craon (1224 – 1250), by whom she had issue; she married secondly, Geofffrey de Rancon.

Notes
2. ^ Hugues X of Lusignan
Notes for JOHN OF ENGLAND PLANTAGENET:
John (24 December 1166 – 18/19 October 1216), also known as John Lackland or Softsword, was King of England from 6 April 1199 until his death. During John's reign, England lost the duchy of Normandy to King Philip II of France, which resulted in the collapse of most of the Angevin Empire and contributed to the subsequent growth in power of the Capetian dynasty during the 13th century. The baronial revolt at the end of John's reign led to the signing of the Magna Carta, a document often considered to be an early step in the evolution of the constitution of the United Kingdom.

John, the youngest of five sons of King Henry II of England and Eleanor, Duchess of Aquitaine, was at first not expected to inherit significant lands. Following the failed rebellion of his elder brothers between 1173 and 1174, however, John became Henry's favourite child. He was appointed the Lord of Ireland in 1177 and given lands in England and on the continent. John's elder brothers William, Henry and Geoffrey died young; by the time Richard I became king in 1189, John was a potential heir to the throne. John unsuccessfully attempted a rebellion against Richard's royal administrators whilst his brother was participating in the Third Crusade. Despite this, after Richard died in 1199, John was proclaimed king of England, and came to an agreement with Philip II of France to recognise John's possession of the continental Angevin lands at the peace treaty of Le Goulet in 1200.

When war with France broke out again in 1202, John achieved early victories, but shortages of military resources and his treatment of Norman, Breton and Anjou nobles resulted in the collapse of his empire in northern France in 1204. John spent much of the next decade attempting to regain these lands, raising huge revenues, reforming his armed forces and rebuilding continental alliances. John's judicial reforms had a lasting, positive impact on the English common law system, as well as providing an additional source of revenue. An argument with Pope Innocent III led to John's excommunication in 1209, a dispute finally settled by the king in 1213. John's attempt to defeat Philip in 1214 failed due to the French victory over John's allies at the battle of Bouvines. When he returned to England, John faced a rebellion by many of his barons, who were unhappy with his fiscal policies and his treatment of many of England's most powerful nobles. Although both John and the barons agreed to the Magna Carta peace treaty in 1215, neither side complied with its conditions. Civil war broke out shortly afterwards, with the barons aided by Louis of France. It soon descended into a stalemate. John died of dysentery contracted whilst on campaign in eastern England during late 1216; supporters of his son Henry III went on to achieve victory over Louis and the rebel barons the following year.

Contemporary chroniclers were mostly critical of John's performance as king, and his reign has since been the subject of significant debate and periodic revision by historians from the 16th century onwards. Historian Jim
Bradbury has summarised the contemporary historical opinion of John's positive qualities, observing that John is today usually considered a "hard-working administrator, an able man, an able general". Nonetheless, modern historians agree that he also had many faults as king, including what historian Ralph Turner describes as "distasteful, even dangerous personality traits", such as pettiness, spitefulness and cruelty. These negative qualities provided extensive material for fiction writers in the Victorian era, and John remains a recurring character within Western popular culture, primarily as a villain in films and stories depicting the Robin Hood legends.

John was born to Henry II and Eleanor of Aquitaine on 24 December 1166. Henry had inherited significant territories along the Atlantic seaboard – Anjou, Normandy and England – and expanded his empire by conquering Brittany. Henry married the powerful Eleanor of Aquitaine, who reigned over the Duchy of Aquitaine and had a tenuous claim to Toulouse and Auvergne in southern France, in addition to being the former wife of Louis VII of France. The result was the Angevin Empire, so called because of the Count of Anjou's traditional seat in the city of Angers. The Angevin Empire of Henry II was inherently fragile: although all the lands owed allegiance to Henry, the disparate parts each had their own histories, traditions and governance structures. As one moved south through Anjou and Aquitaine, the extent of royal power in the provinces diminished considerably, scarcely resembling the modern concept of an empire at all. Some of the traditional ties between parts of the empire such as Normandy and England were slowly dissolving over time. It was unclear what would happen to the empire on Henry's death. Although the tradition of primogeniture, under which an eldest son would inherit all his father's lands, was slowly becoming more widespread across Europe, it was less popular amongst the Norman kings of England. Most believed that Henry would divide the empire, giving each son a substantial portion, hoping that his children would then continue to work together as allies after his death. To complicate matters, much of the Angevin empire was technically owned by Henry only as a vassal of the King of France of the rival line of the House of Capet. Henry had often allied himself with the Holy Roman Emperor against France, making the feudal relationship even more challenging.

Shortly after his birth, John was passed from Eleanor into the care of a wet nurse, a traditional practice for medieval noble families. Eleanor then left for Poitiers, the capital of Aquitaine, and sent John and his sister Joan north to Fontevrault Abbey. This may have been done with the aim of steering her youngest son, with no obvious inheritance, towards a future ecclesiastical career. Eleanor spent the next few years conspiring against her husband Henry and neither parent played a part in John's very early life. John was probably, like his brothers, assigned a magister whilst he was at Fontevrault, a teacher charged with his early education and with managing the servants of his immediate household; John was later taught by Ranulph Glanville, a leading English administrator. John spent some time as a member of the household of his eldest living brother Henry the Young King, where he probably received instruction in hunting and military skills.

John would grow up to be around 5 ft 5 in high (1.62 m), relatively short for royalty of the day, with a "powerful, barrel-chested body" and dark red hair; he appeared to contemporaries to look like an inhabitant of Poitou. John enjoyed reading and, unusual for the period, built up a travelling library of books. He enjoyed gambling, in particular on backgammon, and was an enthusiastic hunter, even by medieval standards. He liked music, although not songs. John would become a "connoisseur of jewels", building up a large collection, and became famous for his opulent clothes and also, according to French chroniclers, for his fondness for bad wine. As John grew up, he became known for sometimes being "genial, witty, generous and hospitable"; at other moments, he could be jealous, over-sensitive and prone to fits of rage, "biting and gnawing his fingers" in anger.

During John's early years, Henry attempted to resolve the question of his succession. Henry the Young King had been crowned King of England in 1170, but without being given any formal powers by his father, and was also promised Normandy and Anjou as part of his future inheritance. Richard was to be appointed the Count of Poitou and would be given control of Aquitaine, whilst Geoffrey was to become the Duke of Brittany. At this time it seemed unlikely that John would ever inherit substantial lands, and John was jokingly nicknamed "Lackland" by his father.

Henry II wanted to secure the southern borders of Aquitaine and decided to betroth his youngest son to Alais, the daughter and heiress of Humbert III of Savoy. As part of this agreement John was promised the future inheritance of Savoy, Piemonte, Maurienne, and the other possessions of Count Humbert. For his part in the potential marriage alliance, Henry II transferred the castles of Chinon, Loudun and Mirebeau into John's name; as John was only five years old his father would continue to control them for practical purposes.
King was unimpressed by this; although he had yet to be granted control of any castles in his new kingdom, these were effectively his future property and had been given away without consultation.[22] Alais made the trip over the Alps and joined Henry II's court, but she died before marrying John, which left the prince once again without an inheritance.[22]

In 1173 John's elder brothers, backed by Eleanor, rose in revolt against Henry in the short-lived rebellion of 1173 to 1174. Growing irritated with his subordinate position to Henry II and increasingly worried that John might be given additional lands and castles at his expense,[20] Henry the Young King travelled to Paris and allied himself with Louis VII.[23] Eleanor, irritated by her husband's persistent interference in Aquitaine, encouraged Richard and Geoffrey to join their brother Henry in Paris.[23] Henry II triumphed over the coalition of his sons, but was generous to them in the peace settlement agreed at Montlouis.[22] Henry the Young King was allowed to travel widely in Europe with his own household of knights, Richard was given Aquitaine back, and Geoffrey was allowed to return to Brittany; only Eleanor was imprisoned for her role in the revolt.[24]

John had spent the conflict travelling alongside his father and was given widespread possessions across the Angevin empire as part of the Montlouis settlement; from then onwards, most observers regarded John as Henry II's favourite child, although he was the furthest removed in terms of the royal succession.[22] Henry II began to find more lands for John, mostly at various nobles' expense. In 1175 he appropriated the estates of the late Earl of Cornwall and gave them to John.[22] The following year, Henry disinherited the sisters of Isabelle of Gloucester, contrary to legal custom, and betrothed John to the now extremely wealthy Isabelle.[25] In 1177, at the Council of Oxford, Henry dismissed William FitzAldelm as the Lord of Ireland and replaced him with the ten-year-old John.[25]

Henry the Young King fought a short war with his brother Richard in 1183 over the status of England, Normandy and Aquitaine.[25] Henry II moved in support of Richard, and Henry the Young King died from dysentery at the end of the campaign.[25] With his primary heir dead, Henry rearranged the plans for the succession: Richard was to be made King of England, albeit without any actual power until the death of his father; Geoffrey would retain Brittany; and John would now become the Duke of Aquitaine in place of Richard.[25] Richard refused to give up Aquitaine;[25] Henry II was furious and ordered John, with help from Geoffrey, to march south and retake the duchy by force.[25] The two attacked the capital of Poitiers, and Richard responded by attacking Brittany.[25] The war ended in stalemate and a tense family reconciliation in England at the end of 1184.[25]

In 1185 John made his first visit to Ireland, accompanied by three hundred knights and a team of administrators.[26] Henry had tried to have John officially proclaimed King of Ireland, but Pope Lucius III would not agree.[26] John's first period of rule in Ireland was not a success. Ireland had only recently been conquered by Anglo-Norman forces, and tensions were still rife between Henry II, the new settlers and the existing inhabitants.[27] John infamously offended the local Irish rulers by making fun of their unfashionable long beards, failed to make allies amongst the Anglo-Norman settlers, began to lose ground militarily against the Irish and finally returned to England later in the year, blaming the viceroy, Hugh de Lacy, for the fiasco.[27]

The problems amongst John's wider family continued to grow. His elder brother Geoffrey died during a tournament in 1186, leaving a posthumous son, Arthur, and an elder daughter, Eleanor.[28] The duchy of Brittany was given to Arthur rather than John, but Geoffrey's death brought John slightly closer to the throne of England.[28] The uncertainty about what would happen after Henry's death continued to grow; Richard was keen to join a new crusade and remained concerned that whilst he was away Henry would appoint John his formal successor.[29] Richard began discussions about a potential alliance with Philip II in Paris during 1187, and the next year Richard gave homage to Philip in exchange for support for a war against Henry.[30] Richard and Philip fought a joint campaign against Henry, and by the summer of 1189 the king made peace, promising Richard the succession.[31] John initially remained loyal to his father, but changed sides once it appeared that Richard would win.[31] Henry died shortly afterwards.[31]

When John's elder brother Richard became king in September 1189, he had already declared his intention of joining the Third Crusade.[31] Richard set about raising the huge sums of money required for this expedition through the sale of lands, titles and appointments, and attempted to ensure that he would not face a revolt while away from his empire.[32] John was made Count of Mortain, was married to the wealthy Isabel of Gloucester, and was given valuable lands in Lancaster and the counties of Cornwall, Derby, Devon, Dorset, Nottingham and Somerset, all with the aim of buying his loyalty to Richard whilst the king was on crusade.[33] Richard retained royal control of key
castles in these counties, thereby preventing John from accumulating too much military and political power.[34] In return, John promised not to visit England for the next three years, thereby in theory giving Richard adequate time to conduct a successful crusade and return from the Levant without fear of John seizing power.[35] Richard left political authority in England – the post of justiciar – jointly in the hands of Bishop Hugh de Puiset and William Mandeville, and made William Longchamp, the Bishop of Ely, his chancellor.[36] Mandeville immediately died, and Longchamp took over as joint justiciar with Puiset, which would prove to be a less than satisfactory partnership.[35] Eleanor, the queen mother, convinced Richard to allow John into England in his absence.[35]

The political situation in England rapidly began to deteriorate. Longchamp refused to work with Puiset and became unpopular with the English nobility and clergy.[37] John exploited this unpopularity to set himself up as an alternative ruler with his own royal court, complete with his own justiciar, chancellor and other royal posts, and was happy to be portrayed as an alternative regent, and possibly the next king.[38] Armed conflict broke out between John and Longchamp, and by October 1191 Longchamp was isolated in the Tower of London with John in control of the city of London, thanks to promises John had made to the citizens in return for recognition as Richard's heir presumptive.[39] At this point Walter of Coutances, the Archbishop of Rouen, returned to England, having been sent by Richard to restore order.[40] John's position was undermined by Walter's relative popularity and by the news that Richard had married whilst in Cyprus, which presented the possibility that Richard would have legitimate children and heirs.[41]

The political turmoil continued. John began to explore an alliance with the French king Philip II, freshly returned from the crusade. John hoped to acquire Normandy, Anjou and the other lands in France held by Richard in exchange for allying himself with Philip.[41] John was persuaded not to pursue an alliance by his mother.[41] Longchamp, who had left England after Walter's intervention, now returned, and argued that he had been wrongly removed as justiciar.[42] John intervened, suppressing Longchamp's claims in return for promises of support from the royal administration, including a reaffirmation of his position as heir to the throne.[42] When Richard still did not return from the crusade, John began to assert that his brother was dead or otherwise permanently lost.[42] Richard had in fact been captured en route to England by the Duke of Austria and was handed over to Emperor Henry VI, who held him for ransom.[42] John seized the opportunity and went to Paris, where he formed an alliance with Philip. He agreed to set aside his wife, Isabella of Gloucester, and marry Philip's sister, Alys, in exchange for Philip's support.[43] Fighting broke out in England between forces loyal to Richard and those being gathered by John.[43] John's military position was weak and he agreed to a truce; in early 1194 the king finally returned to England, and John's remaining forces surrendered.[44] John retreated to Normandy, where Richard finally found him later that year.[44] Richard declared that his younger brother – despite being 27 years old – was merely "a child who has had evil counsellors" and forgave him, but removed his lands with the exception of Ireland.[45]

For the remaining years of Richard's reign, John supported his brother on the continent, apparently loyally.[46] Richard's policy on the continent was to attempt to regain the castles he had lost to Philip II whilst on crusade through steady, limited campaigns. He allied himself with the leaders of Flanders, Boulogne and the Holy Roman Empire to apply pressure on Philip from Germany.[47] In 1195 John successfully conducted a sudden attack and siege of Évreux castle, and subsequently managed the defences of Normandy against Philip.[46] The following year, John seized the town of Gamaches and led a raiding party within 50 miles (80 km) of Paris, capturing the Bishop of Beauvais.[46] In return for this service, Richard withdrew his malevontia, or ill-will, towards John, restored him to the county of Gloucestershire and made him again the Count of Mortain.[46]

Early reign (1199–1204) Accession to the throne, 1199

The donjon of Château Gaillard; the loss of the castle would prove devastating for John's military position in Normandy. After Richard's death on 6 April 1199 there were two potential claimants to the Angevin throne: John, whose claim rested on being the sole surviving son of Henry II, and young Arthur of Brittany, who held a claim as the son of Geoffrey, John's elder brother.[48] Richard appears to have started to recognise John as his legitimate heir in the final years before his death, but the matter was not clear-cut and medieval law gave little guidance as to how the competing claims should be decided.[49] With Norman law favouring John as the only surviving son of Henry II and Angevin law favouring Arthur as the heir of Henry's elder son, the matter rapidly became an open conflict.[8] John was supported by the bulk of the English and Norman nobility and was crowned at Westminster, backed by his mother, Eleanor. Arthur was supported by the majority of the Breton, Maine and Anjou nobles and received the support of Philip II, who remained committed to breaking up the Angevin territories on the continent.[50] With Arthur's army pressing up the Loire valley towards Angers and Philip's forces moving down the valley towards
Tours, John's continental empire was in danger of being cut in two.[51]

Warfare in Normandy at the time was shaped by the defensive potential of castles and the increasing costs of conducting campaigns.[52] The Norman frontiers had limited natural defences but were heavily reinforced with castles, such as Château Gaillard, at strategic points, built and maintained at considerable expense.[53] It was difficult for a commander to advance far into fresh territory without having secured his lines of communication by capturing these fortifications, which slowed the progress of any attack.[54] Armies of the period could be formed from either feudal or mercenary forces.[55] Feudal levies could only be raised for a fixed length of time before they returned home, forcing an end to a campaign; mercenary forces, often called Brabançons after the Duchy of Brabant but actually recruited from across northern Europe, could operate all year long and provide a commander with more strategic options to pursue a campaign, but cost much more than equivalent feudal forces.[56] As a result commanders of the period were increasingly drawing on larger numbers of mercenaries.[57]

After his coronation, John moved south into France with military forces and adopted a defensive posture along the eastern and southern Normandy borders.[58] Both sides paused for desultory negotiations before the war recommenced; John's position was now stronger, thanks to confirmation that Count Baldwin of Flanders and Renaud of Boulogne had renewed the anti-French alliances they had previously agreed to with Richard.[50] The powerful Anjou nobleman William de Roches was persuaded to switch sides from Arthur to John; suddenly the balance seemed to be tipping away from Philip and Arthur in favour of John.[59] Neither side was keen to continue the conflict, and following a papal truce the two leaders met in January 1200 to negotiate possible terms for peace.[59] From John's perspective, what then followed represented an opportunity to stabilise control over his continental possessions and produce a lasting peace with Philip in Paris. John and Philip negotiated the May 1200 Treaty of Le Goulet; by this treaty, Philip recognised John as the rightful heir to Richard in respect to his French possessions, temporarily abandoning the wider claims of his client, Arthur.[60][nb 3] John, in turn, abandoned Richard's former policy of containing Philip through alliances with Flanders and Boulogne, and accepted Philip's right as the legitimate feudal overlord of John's lands in France.[61] John's policy earned him the disrespectful title of "John Softsword" from some English chroniclers, who contrasted his behaviour with his more aggressive brother, Richard.[62]

Le Goulet peace, 1200–02
The tomb of Isabella of Angoulême, John's second wife

The new peace would only last for two years; war recommenced in the aftermath of John's decision in August 1200 to marry Isabella of Angoulême. In order to remarry, John first needed to abandon Isabel, Countess of Gloucester, his first wife; John accomplished this by arguing that he had failed to get the necessary papal permission to marry Isabel in the first place – as a cousin, John could not have legally wed her without this.[60] It remains unclear why John chose to marry Isabella of Angoulême. Contemporary chroniclers argued that John had fallen deeply in love with Isabella, and John may have been motivated by desire for an apparently beautiful, if rather young, girl.[60] On the other hand, the Angoumois lands that came with Isabella were strategically vital to John: by marrying Isabella, John was acquiring a key land route between Poitou and Gascony, which significantly strengthened his grip on Aquitaine.[63]

Unfortunately, Isabella was already engaged to Hugh de Lusignan, an important member of a key Poitou noble family and brother of Raoul de Lusignan, the Count of Eu, who possessed lands along the sensitive eastern Normandy border.[60] Just as John stood to benefit strategically from marrying Isabella, so the marriage threatened the interests of the Lusignans, whose own lands currently provided the key route for royal goods and troops across Aquitaine.[64] Rather than negotiating some form of compensation, John treated Hugh "with contempt"; this resulted in a Lusignan uprising that was promptly crushed by John, who also intervened to suppress Raoul in Normandy.[63]

Although John was the Count of Poitou and therefore the rightful feudal lord over the Lusignans, they could legitimately appeal John's actions in France to his own feudal lord, Philip.[63] Hugh did exactly this in 1201 and Philip summoned John to attend court in Paris in 1202, citing the Le Goulet treaty to strengthen his case.[63] John was unwilling to weaken his authority in western France in this way. He argued that he need not attend Philip's court because of his special status as the Duke of Normandy, who was exempt by feudal tradition from being called to the French court.[63] Philip argued that he was summoning John not as the Duke of Normandy, but as the Count of Poitou, which carried no such special status.[63] When John still refused to come, Philip declared John in breach of his feudal responsibilities, reassigned all of John's lands that fell under the French crown to Arthur – with the
exception of Normandy, which he took back for himself – and began a fresh war against John.[63]

John's successful 1202 campaign, which culminated in the victory of the battle of Mirebeau; red arrows indicate the movement of John's forces, blue those of Philip II's forces and light blue those of Philip's Breton and Lusignan allies. John initially adopted a defensive posture similar to that of 1199: avoiding open battle and carefully defending his key castles.[65] John's operations became more chaotic as the campaign progressed, and Philip began to make steady progress in the east.[65] John became aware in July that Arthur's forces were threatening his mother, Eleanor, at Mirebeau Castle. Accompanied by William de Roches, his seneschal in Anjou, he swung his mercenary army rapidly south to protect her.[65] His forces caught Arthur by surprise and captured the entire rebel leadership at the battle of Mirebeau.[65] With his southern flank weakening, Philip was forced to withdraw in the east and turn south himself to contain John's army.[65]

John's position in France was considerably strengthened by the victory at Mirebeau, but John's treatment of his new prisoners and of his ally, William de Roches, quickly undermined these gains. De Roches was a powerful Anjou noble, but John largely ignored him, causing considerable offence, whilst the king kept the rebel leaders in such bad conditions that twenty-two of them died.[66] At this time most of the regional nobility were closely linked through kinship, and this behaviour towards their relatives was regarded as unacceptable.[67] William de Roches and other of John's regional allies in Anjou and Brittany deserted him in favour of Philip, and Brittany rose in fresh revolt.[67] John's financial situation was tenuous: once factors such as the comparative military costs of materiel and soldiers were taken into account, Philip enjoyed a considerable, although not overwhelming, advantage of resources over John.[68][nb 4]

Further desertions of John's local allies at the beginning of 1203 steadily reduced John's freedom to manoeuvre in the region.[67] He attempted to convince Pope Innocent III to intervene in the conflict, but Innocent's efforts were unsuccessful.[67] As the situation became worse for John, he appears to have decided to have Arthur killed, with the aim of removing his potential rival and of undermining the rebel movement in Brittany.[67] Arthur had initially been imprisoned at Falaise and was then moved to Rouen. After this, Arthur's fate remains uncertain, but modern historians believe he was murdered by John.[67] The annals of Margam Abbey suggest that "John had captured Arthur and kept him alive in prison for some time in the castle of Rouen... when John was drunk he slew Arthur with his own hand and tying a heavy stone to the body cast it into the Seine."[70][nb 5] Rumours of the manner of Arthur's death further reduced support for John across the region.[71] Arthur's sister, Eleanor, who had also been captured at Mirebeau, was kept imprisoned by John for many years, albeit in relatively good conditions.[71]

Phillip II's successful invasion of Normandy in 1204; blue arrows indicate the movement of Philip II's forces and light blue Philip's Breton allies. In late 1203, John attempted to relieve Château Gaillard, which although besieged by Philip was guarding the eastern flank of Normandy.[72] John attempted a synchronised operation involving land-based and water-borne forces, considered by most historians today to have been imaginative in conception, but overly complex for forces of the period to have carried out successfully.[72] John's relief operation was blocked by Philip's forces, and John turned back to Brittany in an attempt to draw Philip away from eastern Normandy.[72] John successfully devastated much of Brittany, but did not deflect Philip's main thrust into the east of Normandy.[72] Opinions vary amongst historians as to the military skill shown by John during this campaign, with most recent historians arguing that his performance was passable, although not impressive.[60][nb 6] John's situation began to deteriorate rapidly. The eastern border region of Normandy had been extensively cultivated by Philip and his predecessors for several years, whilst Angevin authority in the south had been undermined by Richard's giving away of various key castles some years before.[74] His use of routier mercenaries in the central regions had rapidly eaten away his remaining support in this area too, which set the stage for a sudden collapse of Angevin power.[75][nb 7] John retreated back across the Channel in December, sending orders for the establishment of a fresh defensive line to the west of Chateau Gaillard.[72] In March 1204, Gaillard fell. John's mother Eleanor died the following month.[72]

Child is listed above under (150) John of England Plantagenet.

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Notes for John I, Count of Ponthieu:

[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

John I of Ponthieu (c. 1140–1191) was the son of Guy II of Ponthieu and succeeded him as Count of Ponthieu in 1147. He married Beatrice of Saint-Pol, and was succeeded by his son William IV Talvas.[1]
Edward I was a tall man for his era, hence the nickname "Longshanks". He was temperamental, and this, along with issues remained unsettled. When the king died in 1307, he left to his son, Edward II, an ongoing military affairs. After suppressing a minor rebellion in Wales in 1276–77, Edward responded to a second rebellion in 1279, also known as Edward Longshanks and the Hammer of the Scots, was King of England from 1272 to 1307. The first son of Henry III, Edward was involved early in the political intrigues of his father's reign, which included an outright rebellion by the English barons. In 1259, he briefly sided with a baronial reform movement, supporting the Provisions of Oxford. After reconciliation with his father, however, he remained loyal throughout the subsequent armed conflict, known as the Second Barons' War. After the Battle of Lewes, Edward was hostage to the rebellious barons, but escaped after a few months and joined the fight against Simon de Montfort. Montfort was defeated at the Battle of Evesham in 1265, and within two years the rebellion was extinguished. With England pacified, Edward left on a crusade to the Holy Land. The crusade accomplished little, and Edward was on his way home in 1272 when he was informed that his father had died. Making a slow return, he reached England in 1274 and he was crowned king at Westminster on 19 August.

Edward's reign had two main phases. He spent the first years reforming royal administration. Through an extensive legal inquiry, Edward investigated the tenure of various feudal liberties, while the law was reformed through a series of statutes regulating criminal and property law. Increasingly, however, Edward's attention was drawn towards military affairs. After suppressing a minor rebellion in Wales in 1276–77, Edward responded to a second rebellion in 1282–83 with a full-scale war of conquest. After a successful campaign, Edward subjected Wales to English rule, built a series of castles and towns in the countryside and settled them with Englishmen. Next, his efforts were directed towards Scotland. Initially invited to arbitrate a succession dispute, Edward claimed feudal suzerainty over the kingdom. In the war that followed, the Scots persevered, even though the English seemed victorious at several points. At the same time there were problems at home. In the mid-1290s, extensive military campaigns required high levels of taxation, and Edward met with both lay and ecclesiastical opposition. These crises were initially averted, but issues remained unsettled. When the king died in 1307, he left to his son, Edward II, an ongoing war with Scotland and many financial and political problems.

Edward I was a tall man for his era, hence the nickname "Longshanks". He was temperamental, and this, along with
his height, made him an intimidating man, and he often instilled fear in his contemporaries. Nevertheless, he held the respect of his subjects for the way he embodied the medieval ideal of kingship, as a soldier, an administrator and a man of faith. Modern historians have been more divided on their assessment of the king; while some have praised him for his contribution to the law and administration, others have criticised him for his uncompromising attitude to his nobility. Currently, Edward I is credited with many accomplishments during his reign, including restoring royal authority after the reign of Henry III, establishing parliament as a permanent institution and thereby also a functional system for raising taxes, and reforming the law through statutes. At the same time, he is also often criticised for other actions, such as his brutal conduct towards the Scots, and issuing the Edict of Expulsion in 1290, by which the Jews were expelled from England. The Edict remained in effect for the rest of the Middle Ages, and it would be over 350 years until it was formally overturned in 1656.

Edward was born at the Palace of Westminster on the night of 17–18 June 1239, to King Henry III and Eleanor of Provence.[2] Although the young prince was seriously ill on several occasions, in 1246, 1247, and 1251, he grew up to be strong and healthy.[3] Edward was in the care of Hugh Giffard — father of the future Chancellor Godfrey Giffard — until Bartholomew Pecche took over at Giffard's death in 1246.[4] Among his childhood friends was his cousin Henry of Almain, son of King Henry's brother Richard of Cornwall.[3] Henry of Almain would remain a close companion of the prince, both through the civil war that followed, and later during the crusade.[5]

In 1254, English fears of a Castilian invasion of the English province of Gascony induced Edward's father to arrange a politically expedient marriage between his fourteen-year-old son and Eleanor, the half-sister of King Alfonso X of Castile.[6] Eleanor and Edward were married on 1 November 1254 in the Abbey of Santa María la Real de Las Huelgas in Castile.[7] As part of the marriage agreement, the young prince received grants of land worth 15,000 marks a year.[8] Though the endowments King Henry made were sizable, they offered Edward little independence. He had already received Gascony as early as 1249, but Simon de Montfort, 6th Earl of Leicester, had been appointed as royal lieutenant the year before and, consequently, drew its income, so in practice Edward derived neither authority nor revenue from this province.[9] The grant he received in 1254 included most of Ireland, and much land in Wales and England, including the earldom of Chester, but the king retained much control over the land in question, particularly in Ireland, so Edward's power was limited there as well, and the king derived most of the income from those lands.[10]

From 1254 to 1257, Edward was under the influence of his mother's relatives, known as the Savoyards,[11] the most notable of whom was Peter of Savoy, the queen's uncle.[12] After 1257, Edward increasingly fell in with the Poitevin or Lusignan faction — the half-brothers of his father Henry III — led by such men as William de Valence.[13] This association was significant, because the two groups of privileged foreigners were resented by the established English aristocracy, and they would be at the centre of the ensuing years' baronial reform movement.[14] There were tales of unruly and violent conduct by Edward and his Lusignan kinsmen, which raised questions about the royal heir's personal qualities. The next years would be formative on Edward's character.[15]

Eleanor of Castile died on 28 November 1290. Uncommon for such marriages of the period, the couple loved each other. Moreover like his father, Edward was very devoted to his queen and was faithful to her throughout their married lives—a rarity among monarchs of the time. He was deeply affected by her death. He displayed his grief by erecting twelve so-called Eleanor crosses, one at each place where her funeral cortège stopped for the night.[227] As part of the peace accord between England and France in 1294, it was agreed that Edward should marry the French princess Margaret. The marriage took place in 1299.[228]

Edward and Eleanor had at least fourteen children, perhaps as many as sixteen. Of these, five daughters survived into adulthood, but only one boy outlived Edward – the future King Edward II. Edward I was reportedly concerned with his son's failure to live up to the expectations of an heir to the crown, and at one point decided to exile the prince's favourite Piers Gaveston.[229] Edward may have been aware of his son's bisexual orientation even though he did not throw the prince's favorite from the castle battlements as depicted in Braveheart.

By Margaret, Edward had two sons, both of whom lived into adulthood, and a daughter who died as a child.[230] The Hailes Abbey chronicle indicates that John Botetourt may have been Edward's illegitimate son, however the claim is unsubstantiated.[231]
Eleanor was born in Castile, Spain, daughter of Saint Ferdinand, King of Castile and Leon and his second wife, Joan, Countess of Ponthieu. Her Castilian name, Leonor, became Alienor or Alianor in England, and Eleanor in modern English. She was named after her grandmother Eleanor of England.

Eleanor was the second of five children born to Fernando and Jeanne. Her elder brother Fernando was born in 1239/40, her younger brother Louis in 1242/43; two sons born after Louis died young. For the ceremonies in 1291 marking the first anniversary of Eleanor's death, 49 candlebearers were paid to walk in the public procession to commemorate each year of her life. This would date her birth to the year 1241. Since her parents were apart from each other for 13 months while King Ferdinand conducted a military campaign in Andalusia from which he returned to the north of Spain only in February 1241, Eleanor was probably born toward the end of that year. Both the court of her father and her half-brother Alfonso X of Castile were known for its literary atmosphere. Growing up in such an environment probably influenced her later literary activities as queen. She was said to have been at her father's deathbed in Seville in 1252.[1]

Eleanor's marriage in 1254 to the future Edward I of England was not the first marriage her family planned for her. The kings of Castile had long made the flimsy claim to be paramount lords of the Kingdom of Navarre in the Pyrenees, and from 1250 Ferdinand III and his heir, Eleanor's half-brother Alfonso X of Castile, hoped she would marry Theobald II of Navarre. To avoid Castilian control, Margaret of Bourbon (mother to Theobald II) in 1252 allied with James I of Aragon instead, and as part of that treaty solemnly promised that Theobald would never marry Eleanor.

Then, in 1252, Alfonso X resurrected another flimsy ancestral claim, this time to the duchy of Gascony, in the south of Aquitaine, last possession of the Kings of England in France. Henry III of England swiftly countered Alfonso's claims with both diplomatic and military moves. Early in 1254 the two kings began to negotiate; after haggling over the financial provision for Eleanor, Henry and Alfonso agreed she would marry Henry's son Edward, and Alfonso would transfer his Gascon claims to Edward. Henry was so anxious for the marriage to take place that he willingly abandoned elaborate preparations already made for Edward's knightng in England, and agreed that Alfonso would knight Edward before the wedding took place.

The young couple married at the monastery of Las Huelgas, Burgos on 1 November 1254. Henry III took pride in resolving the Gascon crisis so decisively, but his English subjects feared that the marriage would bring Eleanor's kinfolk and countrymen to live off Henry's ruinous generosity. Several of her relatives did come to England soon after her marriage. She was too young to stop them or prevent Henry III from paying for them, but she was blamed anyway and her marriage was unpopular. Interestingly enough, Eleanor's mother had been spurned in marriage by Henry III and her great-grandmother, Alys, Countess of the Vexin, had been spurned in marriage by Richard I. However, the presence of more English, Frank and Norman soldiers of fortune and opportunists in the recently reconquered Seville and Cordoba Moorish Kingdoms would be increased, thanks to this alliance between royal houses, until the advent of the later Hundred Years War when it would be symptomatic of extended hostilities between the French and the English for peninsular support.

Arranged royal marriages in the Middle Ages were not always happy, but available evidence indicates that Eleanor and Edward were devoted to each other. Edward is among the few medieval English kings not known to have conducted extramarital affairs or fathered children out of wedlock. The couple were rarely apart; she accompanied him on military campaigns in Wales, famously giving birth to their son Edward on 25 April 1284 in a temporary dwelling erected for her amid the construction of Caernarfon Castle.

Their household records witness incidents that imply a comfortable, even humorous, relationship. Each year on Easter Monday, Edward let Eleanor's ladies trap him in his bed and paid them a token ransom so he could go to her bedroom on the first day after Lent; so important was this custom to him that in 1291, on the first Easter Monday after Eleanor's death, he gave her ladies the money he would have given them had she been alive. Edward disliked
ceremonies and in 1290 refused to attend the marriage of Earl Marshal Roger Bigod, 5th Earl of Norfolk; Eleanor thoughtfully (or resignedly) paid minstrels to play for him while he sat alone during the wedding.

That Edward remained single until he wed Marguerite of France in 1299 is often cited to prove he cherished Eleanor's memory. In fact he considered a second marriage as early as 1293, but this does not mean he did not mourn Eleanor. Eloquent testimony is found in his letter to the abbot of Cluny in France (January 1291), seeking prayers for the soul of the wife "whom living we dearly cherished, and whom dead we cannot cease to love." In her memory, Edward ordered the construction of twelve elaborate stone crosses (of which three survive, almost intact) between 1291 and 1294, marking the route of her funeral procession between Lincoln and London. (See "Procession, burial and monuments" section below).

However, only one of Eleanor's four sons survived childhood and, even before she died, Edward worried over the succession: if that son died, their daughters' husbands might cause a succession war. Despite personal grief, Edward faced his duty and married again. He delighted in the sons his new wife bore, but attended memorial services for Eleanor to the end of his life, Marguerite at his side on at least one occasion.

Eleanor is warmly remembered by history as the queen who inspired the Eleanor crosses, but she was not so loved in her own time. The English saw her as a greedy foreigner. Walter of Guisborough preserves a contemporary poem:

"The king desires to get our gold/the queen, our manors fair to hold..."

John Peckham, Archbishop of Canterbury warned Eleanor that her activities in the land market caused outcry, gossip, rumour and scandal across the realm. Her often aggressive acquisition of lands was an unusual degree of economic activity for any medieval noblewoman, let alone a queen: between 1274 and 1290 she acquired estates worth above £2500 yearly. In fact, Edward himself initiated this process and his ministers helped her. He wanted the queen to hold lands sufficient for her financial needs without drawing on funds needed for government. One of his methods to help Eleanor acquire land was to give her debts Christian landlords owed Jewish moneylenders; she foreclosed on lands pledged for the debts and also profited from the favour Eleanor showed them afterwards. But her reputation in England was further blighted by association with the highly unpopular moneylenders.

Peckham also warned of complaints against her officials' demands upon her tenants. On her deathbed, Eleanor asked Edward to name justices to examine her officials' actions and make reparations. The surviving proceedings from this inquest do reveal a pattern of ruthless exactions, often without the queen's knowledge. She righted such wrongs when she heard of them, but not often enough to prevent a third warning from Peckham that many in England thought she urged Edward to rule harshly. In fact Edward allowed her little political influence, but her officials' demands were ascribed to her imagined personal severity, which was used to explain the king's administrative strictness. In other words, the queen was made to wear the king's unpopular mask. It was always safer to blame a foreign-born queen than to criticise a king, and easier to believe he was misled by a meddlesome wife. Eleanor was neither the first queen nor the last to be blamed for a king's actions, but in her case the unsavory conduct of her own administration made it even easier to shift such blame to her.

Eleanor of Castile's queenship is significant in English history for the evolution of a stable financial system for the king's wife, and for the honing this process gave the queen-consort's prerogatives. The estates Eleanor assembled became the nucleus for dower assignments made to later queens of England into the 15th century, and her involvement in this process solidly established a queen-consort's freedom to engage in such transactions. Few later queens exerted themselves in economic activity to the extent Eleanor did, but their ability to do so rested on the precedents settled in her lifetime.

Child of Edward Plantagenet and Eleanor Leon is:
161. i. Joan de Acre PLANTAGENET, b. 1272; d. April 23, 1307.

Generation No. 76

Notes for Alpín mac Eochdach:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Mornay.FTW]

Alpín mac Eochaid may refer to two persons. The first person is a presumed king of Dál Riata in the late 730s. The second is the father of Kenneth MacAlpin (Cináed mac Alpin). The name Alpín is taken to be a Pictish one, derived from the Anglo-Saxon name Ælfwine; Alpín's patronymic means son of Eochaid or son of Eochu.

[edit] Alpín father of King KennethIrish annals such as the Annals of Ulster and the Annals of Innisfallen name Kenneth's father as one Alpín. This much is reasonably certain.

The Chronicle of the Kings of Alba usually begins with Kenneth, but some variants include a reference to Kenneth's father: "[Alpín] was killed in Galloway, after he had entirely destroyed and devastated it. And then the kingdom of the Scots was transferred to the kingdom [variant: land] of the Picts."

John of Fordun (IV, ii) calls Kenneth's father "Alpin son of Achay" (Alpín son of Eochu) and has him killed in war with the Picts in 836; Andrew of Wyntoun's version mixes Fordun's war with the Picts with the Chronicle version which has him killed in Galloway.

[edit] Alpín of Dál RiataThe genealogies produced for Kings of Scots in the High Middle Ages traced their ancestry through Kenneth MacAlpin, through the Cenél nGabráin of Dál Riata to Fergus Mór, and then to legendary Irish kings such as Conaire Mór and the shadowy Deda mac Sin.

These genealogies, perhaps oral in origin, were subjected to some regularisation by the scribes who copied them into sources such as the Chronicle of Melrose, the Poppleton Manuscript and the like. Either by accident, or by design, a number of kings were misplaced, being moved from the early 8th century to the late 8th and early 9th century.

The original list is presumed to have resembled the following:

1. Eochaíd mac Domangairt
2. Aineccellach mac Ferchair
3. Eógan mac Ferchair
4. Selbach mac Ferchair
5. Eochaíd mac Eochdach
6. Dúngal mac Selbaig
7. Alpín
8. Muiredach mac Ainbcellaig
9. Eógan mac Muiredaig
10. Áed Find
11. Fergus mac Echdach

After modification to link this list of kings of Dál Riata to the family of Kenneth MacAlpin, the list is presumed to have been in this form:

1. Eochaid mac Domangairt
2. Ainbcellach mac Ferchair
3. Eógan mac Ferchair
8. Muiredach mac Ainbcellaig
9. Eogan mac Muiredaig
10. Áed Find
11. Fergus mac Echdach
4. Selbach mac Ferchair (called Selbach mac Eógain)
5. Eochaid mac Echdach (called Eochaid mac Áeda Find)
6. Dúngal mac Selbaig (name unchanged)
7. Alpín (called Alpín mac Echdach)

However, the existence of the original Alpín is less than certain. No king in Dál Riata of that name is recorded in the Irish annals in the early 730s. A Pictish king named Alpín, whose father's name is not given in any Irish sources, or even from the Pictish Chronicle king-lists, is known from the late 720s, when he was defeated by Óengus mac Fergusa and Nechtan mac Der-Ilei. For the year 742, the Annals of Ulster are read was referring to the capture of "Elffin son of Crop" (the former reading had besieged rather than captured). Whether Álpin son of Crup is related to the Alpín of the 720s is unknown.

[edit] References


Child of ALPIN MAC ECHDACH is:

162. i. **KENNETH MACALPIN** of **31 SCOTLAND**, b. 810; d. 859.

160. **WILLIAM** IV, **COUNT OF PONTHEU** (John79, I. **COUNT OF PONTHEU**, GUY II of78 PONTHEU, **WILLIAM** III, **COUNT OF PONTHEU**, COUNTESS OF PONTHEU76 Agnes, Guy75, I. **COUNT OF PONTHEU**, **ENGUERRAND** IV, **COUNT OF PONTHEU**, Hugh73, II. **COUNT OF PONTHEU**, **ENSUNDRE** I, **COUNT OF PONTHEU**, Guisèle71, Capet, ADELAIDE OF AQUITAIN, Adeleid69, POPPA DE VALOIS OF68 Normandy, PEPIN OF BERENGAR AND67 BAUEAUX, PEPIN66, II. LORD OF PERONNE, **QUENTIN OF VERMANDOIS**, BERNARD OF65 ITALY, BERTHA64 DE TOULOUSE, WILLIAM63, MAIR THEUDERIC OF62 TOULOUSE, HANINI BAR ADOD61 DAVID, Izdundad ‘Dara’ Sasanid OF60 Persia, Yazdagird III OF59, **PRINCE OF Sasanian Persia**58 Shahrihar, Khosrow57, II. **HORMIZD** IV, EMPEROR OF Sasanian Persia, Khosrow (Chosroes I) OF56, Kings, Kavadh I44, (Kobad), EMPEROR OF Sasanian Persia, EMPEROR OF Sasanian Persia53 PEROZ, YazdagirdII, II. EMPEROR OF Sasanian Persia, Varahan V31, (Bahram), EMPEROR OF Sasanian Persia, Yazdagird50, III. EMPEROR OF Sasanian Persia, ShapurIV, EMPEROR OF Persia, ShapurIII, EMPEROR OF Persia, Ifra47, Hormiz, **Prince of SEistan**, King of SEistan46, **Vasudeva**, **Vasudeva**III, King of Kushana, **Vasudeva**IV, King of Kushana, **Kanishka**III, King of Kushana, **Kanishka**IV, King of Kushana, **Vema**III, **Kadphiyes**II, **King of the Kushans**, **Princess of58 Peshwar**, **Princess of W. Gandara**37 Calliope, King of W. Gandara36, Hippostratos, Strato51, I. **King of Mathura**, **Princess of Bactria**44, Agathoclea, **King of Bactria** Agathocles, Sundari22, MAURYA, **PRINCESS OF MAURYA**, **PRINCESS OF MAURYA EMPIRE**, **King of MAURYA EMPIRE**31, **Brihadratha**, King of Kashmir and Gandhara30, Kunala, Ashoka29, **Vardhana**, King of MAURYA EMPIRE, **Bindusa**28, (Amirnches), **King of MAURYA**, **King of MAURYA EMPIRE**, **King of MAURYA EMPIRE**27, Chandragupta, **MAURYA**V, OF MAGADHA, **MAURYA IV OF55 Taxila**, **MAURYA III OF54, MAURYA II OF53, **PRINCESS OF PERSIA**22.
Child of William and Countess Alys is:
163. i. **Countess of Ponthieu and Montreuil** 81 Marie, b. 1199; d. 1250.

Gilbert de Clare, 7th Earl of Hertford, were married on 30 April 1290 at Westminster Abbey, and had four children to he still tried to woo her.[15] He bought her expensive gifts and clothing to try to win favor with her.[16] The couple Gilbert de Clare became very enamored with Joan, and even though she had to marry him regardless of how she felt, even though she had to marry him regardless of how she felt, he still tried to woo her.[15] He bought her expensive gifts and clothing to try to win favor with her.[16] The couple married in secrecy.

Edward arranged a second marriage almost immediately after the death of Hartman.[12] Gilbert de Clare, Earl of Gloucester, who was almost thirty years older than Joan and newly divorced, was his first choice.[13] The earl resigned his lands to Edward upon agreeing to get them back when he married Joan, as well as agreed on a dower of two thousand silver marks.[14] By the time all of these negotiations were finished, Joan was twelve years old.[14] Gilbert de Clare became very enamored with Joan, and even though she had to marry him regardless of how she felt, he still tried to woo her.[15] He bought her expensive gifts and clothing to try to win favor with her.[16] The couple were married on 30 April 1290 at Westminster Abbey, and had four children together.[17] They were:
Joan’s first husband, Gilbert de Clare died on 7 December 1295.[18]

Joan had been a widow for only a little over a year when she caught the eye of Ralph de Monthermer, a squire in Joan’s father’s household.[19] Joan fell in love and convinced her father to have Monthermer knighted. It was unheard of in European royalty for a noble lady to even converse with a man who had not won or acquired importance in the household. However, in January 1297 Joan secretly married [20] Ralph. Joan's father was already planning another marriage for Joan to Amadeus V, Count of Savoy.[20] to occur 16 March 1297. Joan was in a dangerous predicament, as she was already married, unbeknownst to her father.

Joan sent her four young children to their grandfather, in hopes that their sweetness would win Edward's favor, but her plan did not work.[21] The king soon discovered his daughter's intentions, but not yet aware that she had already committed to them,[18] he seized Joan’s lands and continued to arrange her marriage to Amadeus of Savoy.[17] Soon after the seizure of her lands, Joan told her father of that she had married Ralph. The king was enraged and retaliated by immediately imprisoning Monthermer at Bristol Castle.[17] The people of the land had differing opinions on the princess’ matter. It has been argued that the ones who were most upset were those who wanted Joan’s hand in marriage.[22]

With regard to the matter, Joan famously said, “It is not considered ignominious, nor disgraceful for a great earl to take a poor and mean woman to wife; neither, on the other hand, is it worthy of blame, or too difficult a thing for a countess to promote to honor a gallant youth.”[23] Joan's statement in addition to a possibly obvious pregnancy seemed to soften Edward’s attitude towards the situation.[22] Joan's first child by Monthermer was born in October 1297; by the summer of 1297, when the marriage was revealed to Edward I, Joan's condition would certainly have been apparent, and would have convinced Edward that he had no choice but to recognize his daughter's marriage. Edward I eventually relented for the sake of his daughter and released Monthermer from prison in August 1297.[17] Monthermer paid homage 2 August, and being granted the titles of Earl of Gloucester and Earl of Hertford, he rose to favor with the King during Joan's lifetime.[24]

Monthermer and Joan had four children:

1. Mary de Monthermer, born October 1297. In 1306 her grandfather King Edward I arranged for her to wed Duncan Macduff, 8th Earl of Fife.
2. Joan de Monthermer, born 1299, became a nun at Amesbury.
3. Thomas de Monthermer, 2nd Baron Monthermer, born 1301.
4. Edward de Monthermer, born 1304 and died 1339.

Joan of Acre was the seventh of Edward I and Eleanor’s fourteen children. Most of her older siblings died before the age of seven, and many of her younger siblings died before adulthood.[25] Those who survived to adulthood were Joan, her younger brother, Edward of Caernarfon (later Edward II), and four of her sisters: Eleanor, Margaret, Mary, and Elizabeth.[26]

Joan, like her siblings, was raised outside her parents' household. She lived with her grandmother in Ponthieu for four years, and was then confided to the same caregivers who looked after her siblings.[27] Edward I did not have a close relationship with most of his children while they were growing up, yet “he seemed fonder of his daughters than his sons.”[26]

However, Joan of Acre’s independent nature caused numerous conflicts with her father. Her father disapproved of her leaving court after her marriage to the Earl of Gloucester, and in turn “seized seven robes that had been made for her.”[28] He also strongly disapproved of her second marriage to Ralph de Monthermer, a squire in her household, even to the point of attempting to force her to marry someone else.[28][29] While Edward ultimately developed a cordial relationship with Monthermer, even giving him the title of Earl,[28] there appears to have been a notable difference in the Edward’s treatment of Joan as compared to the treatment of the rest of her siblings. For instance, her father famously paid messengers substantially when they brought news of the birth of grandchildren, but did not do this upon birth of Joan’s daughter.[30]

In terms of her siblings, Joan kept a fairly tight bond. She and Monthermer both maintained a close relationship with her brother, Edward II, which was maintained through letters. After Edward II became estranged from his parents
and lost his royal seal, “Joan offered to lend him her seal”.[31]

Joan of Acre died on 23 April 1307, at the manor of Clare in Suffolk.[24] The cause of her death remains unclear, though one popular theory is that she died during childbirth, a common cause of death at the time. While Joan's age in 1307 (about 35) and the chronology of her earlier pregnancies with Ralph de Monthermer suggest that this could well be the case, historians have not confirmed the cause of her death.[32]

Less than four months after her death, Joan’s father, Edward I died. Joan's widower, Ralph de Monthermer, lost the title of Earl of Gloucester soon after the deaths of his wife and father in law. The earldom of Gloucester was given to Joan’s son from her first marriage, Gilbert, who was its rightful holder. Monthermer continued to hold a nominal earldom in Scotland that had been conferred on him by Edward I until his death.

Joan’s burial place has been the cause of some interest and debate. She is interred in the Augustinian priory at Clare, which had been founded by her first husband's ancestors and where many of them were also buried. Allegedly, in 1357, Joan’s daughter, Elizabeth De Burgh, claimed to have “inspected her mother's body and found the corpse to be intact,”,[32] which in the eyes of the Roman Catholic Church is an indication of sanctity. This claim was only recorded in a fifteenth-century chronicle, however, and its details are uncertain, especially the statement that her corpse was in such a state of preservation that "when her paps (breasts) were pressed with hands, they rose up again." Some sources further claim that miracles took place at Joan’s tomb,[32] but no cause for her beatification or canonization has ever been introduced.

Joan in fiction

Joan of Acre makes an appearance in Virginia Henley's historical romance, entitled Infamous. In the book, Joan, known as Joanna, is described as a promiscuous young princess, vain, shallow and spoiled. In the novel she is only given one daughter, when she historically has eight children. There is no evidence that supports this picture of Joan.[33]

In The Love Knot by Vanessa Alexander, Edward the II’s sister, Joan of Acre is an important heroine. The author portrays a completely different view of the princess than the one in Henley’s novel. The Love Knot tells the story of the love affair between Ralph de Monthermer and Joan of Acre through the discovery of a series of letters the two had written to each other.[34]

Between historians and novelists, Joan has appeared in various texts as either an independent and spirited woman or a spoiled brat. In Lives of the Princesses of England by Mary Anne Everett Green, Joan is portrayed as a “giddy princess” and neglectful mother.[35] Many have agreed to this characterization; however, some authors think there is little evidence to support the assumption that Joan of Acre was a neglectful or uncaring mother.[36]

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Notes for GILBERT DE CLARE:

Gilbert de Clare, 6th Earl of Hertford, 7th Earl of Gloucester (2 September 1243 – 7 December 1295) was a powerful English noble. Also known as "Red" Gilbert de Clare, probably because of his hair colour.

Gilbert de Clare was born at Christchurch, Hampshire, the son of Richard de Clare, Earl of Hertford and Gloucester,
and of Maud de Lacy, Countess of Lincoln, daughter of John de Lacy and Margaret de Quincy. Gilbert inherited his father's estates in 1262. He took on the titles, including Lord of Glamorgan, from 1263.

Being under age at his father's death, he was made a ward of Humphrey de Bohun, 2nd Earl of Hereford.

Massacre of the Jews at Canterbury In April 1264, Gilbert de Clare led the massacre of the Jews at Canterbury,[1] as Simon de Montfort had done in Leicester.

Gilbert de Clare’s castles of Kingston and Tonbridge were taken by the King, Henry III. However, the King allowed de Clare's Countess Alice de Lusignan, who was in the latter, to go free because she was his niece; but on 12 May de Clare and de Montfort were denounced as traitors.

The Battle of Lewes Two days later, just before the Battle of Lewes, on 14 May, Simon de Montfort knighted the Earl and his brother Thomas. The Earl commanded the central division of the Barontial army, which formed up on the Downs west of Lewes. When Prince Edward had left the field in pursuit of Montfort's routed left wing, the King and Earl of Cornwall were thrown back to the town. Henry took refuge in the Priory of St Pancras, and Gilbert accepted the surrender of the Earl of Cornwall, who had hidden in a windmill. Montfort and the Earl were now supreme and de Montfort in effect de facto King of England.

Excommunication On 20 October 1264, Gilbert and his associates were excommunicated by Pope Clement IV, and his lands placed under an interdict.

In the following month, by which time they had obtained possession of Gloucester and Bristol, the Earl was proclaimed to be a rebel. However at this point he changed sides as he fell out with de Montfort and the Earl, in order to prevent de Montfort's escape, destroyed ships at the port of Bristol and the bridge over the River Severn at Gloucester.

Having changed sides, de Clare shared the Prince's victory at Kenilworth on 16 July, and in the Battle of Evesham, 4 August, in which de Montfort was slain, he commanded the second division and contributed largely to the victory.

On 24 June 1268 he took the Cross at Northampton in repentance and contrition for his past misdeeds.

Activities as a Marcher Lord In October 1265, as a reward for supporting Prince Edward, Gilbert was given the castle and title of Abergavenny and honour and castle of Brecknock.

At Michaelmas his disputes with Llewelyn the Last were submitted to arbitration, but without a final settlement. Meanwhile he was building Caerphilly Castle into a fortress. At the end of the year 1268 he refused to obey the King's summons to attend parliament, alleging that, owing to the constant inroads of Llewelyn the Last, his Welsh estates needed his presence for their defence.

At the death of Henry III, 16 November 1272, the Earl took the lead in swearing fealty to Edward I, who was then in Sicily on his return from the Crusade. The next day, with the Archbishop of York, he entered London and proclaimed peace to all, Christians and Jews, and for the first time, secured the acknowledgment of the right of the King's eldest son to succeed to the throne immediately.

Thereafter he was joint Guardian of England, during the King's absence, and on the new King's arrival in England, in August 1274, entertained him at Tonbridge Castle.

The Welsh war in 1282 During Edward's invasion of Wales in 1282, de Clare insisted on leading an attack into southern Wales. King Edward made de Clare the commander of the southern army invading Wales. However, de Clare's army faced disaster after being heavily defeated at the Battle of Llandeilo Fawr. Following this defeat, de Clare was relieved of his position as the southern commander and was replaced by William de Valence, 1st Earl of Pembroke (whose son had died during the battle).
Private Marcher War
In the next year, 1291, he quarrelled with the Earl of Hereford, Humphrey de Bohun, 3rd Earl of Hereford, grandson of his onetime guardian, about the Lordship of Brecknock, where de Bohun accused de Clare of building a castle on his land culminated in a private war between them. Although it was a given right for Marcher Lords to wage private war the King tested this right in this case, first calling them before a court of their Marcher peers, then realising the outcome would be coloured by their likely avoidance of prejudicing one of their greatest rights they were both called before the superior court, the King's own. At this both were imprisoned by the King, both sentenced to having their lands forfeit for life and de Clare, the Earl of Gloucester, as the aggressor, was fined 10,000 marks, and the Earl of Hereford 1,000 marks.

They were released almost immediately and both of their lands completely restored to them - however they had both been taught a very public lesson and their prestige diminished and the King's authority shown for all.

Death and burial
He died at Monmouth Castle on 7 December 1295, and was buried at Tewkesbury Abbey, on the left side of his grandfather Gilbert de Clare.

His extensive lands were enjoyed by his surviving wife Joan of Acre until her death in 1307. Gilbert and Joan had a descendant named Ursula Hildyard of Yorkshire, who in 1596 married (Sir) Richard Jackson of Killingwoldgraves, near Beverley in the East Riding. Jackson died in 1610 and was interred at Bishop Burton. In 1613, James posthumously awarded a coat of arms and a knighthood to Richard for meritorious military service in the Lowlands of Scotland.

Marriage and succession
Gilbert's first marriage was to Alice de Lusignan, also known as Alice de Valence, the daughter of Hugh XI of Lusignan and of the family that succeeded the Marshal family to the title of the Earl of Pembroke in the person of William de Valence, 1st Earl of Pembroke. They married in 1253, when Gilbert was ten years old. She was of high birth, being a niece of King Henry, but the marriage floundered.

Gilbert and Alice separated in 1267; allegedly, Alice's affections lay with her cousin, Prince Edward. Previous to this, Gilbert and Alice had produced two daughters:

1. Isabella de Clare (10 March 1262-1333), after a marriage with Guy de Beauchamp, 10th Earl of Warwick having been contemplated, or possibly having taken place and then annulled, married Maurice de Berkeley, 2nd Baron Berkeley
2. Joan de Clare (1264-after 1302), married (1) Duncan Macduff, 7th Earl of Fife; (2) Gervase Avenel

After his marriage to Alice de Lusignan was annulled in 1285, Gilbert was to be married to Joan of Acre, a daughter of King Edward I of England and his first wife Eleanor of Castile. King Edward sought to bind de Clare, and his assets, more closely to the Crown by this means. By the provisions of the marriage contract, their joint possessions and de Clare's extensive lands could only be inherited by a direct descendant, i.e. close to the Crown, and if the marriage proved childless, the lands would pass to any children Joan may have by further marriage.

On 3 July 1290, the Earl gave a great banquet at Clerkenwell to celebrate his marriage of 30 April 1290 with Joan of Acre (1272 - 23 April 1307) after waiting for the Pope to sanction the marriage. Edward then gave large estates to Gilbert, including one in Malvern. Disputed hunting rights on these led to several armed conflicts with Humphrey de Bohun, 3rd Earl of Hereford, that Edward resolved.[2] Gilbert made gifts to the Priory, and also had a "great conflict" about hunting rights and a ditch that he dug, with Thomas de Cantilupe, Bishop of Hereford, that was settled by costly litigation.[3] Gilbert had a similar conflict with Godfrey Giffard, Bishop and Administrator of Worcester Cathedral (and formerly Chancellor of England. Godfrey, who had granted land to the Priory, had jurisdictional disputes about Malvern Priory, resolved by Robert Burnell, the current Chancellor. [4]

Thereafter, Gilbert and Joan are said to have taken the Cross and set out for the Holy Land. In September, he signed the Barons' letter to the Pope, and on 2 November, surrendered to the King, his claim to the advowson of the Bishopric of Llandaff.
Gilbert and Joan had one son: also Gilbert, and three daughters: Eleanor, Margaret and Elizabeth. Gilbert, Earl of Hertford and Gloucester (1291–1314) succeeded to his father's titles and was killed at the Battle of Bannockburn. Eleanor de Clare (1292–1337) married Hugh Despenser the Younger, favourite of her uncle Edward II. Hugh was executed in 1326, and Eleanor married secondly William de la Zouche. Margaret de Clare (1293–1342) married firstly Piers Gaveston (executed in 1312) and then Hugh de Audley. The youngest sister Elizabeth de Clare (1295–1360) married John de Burgh in 1308 at Waltham Abbey, then Theobald of Verdun in 1316, and finally Roger d'Amory in 1317. Each marriage was brief, produced one child (a son by the 1st, daughters by the 2nd and 3rd), and left Elizabeth a widow.

Child of Joan Plantagenet and Gilbert de Clare is:
164. i. Margaret10 De Clare, b. 1292; d. April 09, 1342.

Generation No. 77


Notes for Kenneth MacAlpin of Scotland:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Cináed mac Ailpín (Modern Gaelic: Cionnach mac Ailpein),[1] commonly Anglicised as Kenneth MacAlpin and known in most modern regnal lists as Kenneth I (died 13 February 858) was king of the Picts and, according to national myth, first king of Scots, earning him the posthumous nickname of An Ferbasach, “The Conqueror”.[2] Kenneth’s undisputed legacy was to produce a dynasty of rulers who claimed descent from him and was the founder of the dynasty which ruled Scotland for much of the medieval period.

The Myth of myth, conqueror of the Picts and founder of the Kingdom of Alba, was born in the centuries after the real Kenneth died. In the reign of Kenneth II (Cináed mac Maíl Coluim), when the Chronicle of the Kings of Alba was compiled, the annalist wrote:

So Kinadius son of Alpinus, first of the Scots, ruled this Pictland prosperously for 16 years. Pictland was named after the Picts, whom, as we have said, Kinadius destroyed. ... Two years before he came to Pictland, he had received the kingdom of Dál Riata.
In the 15th century Andrew of Wyntoun's Orygynale Cronykil of Scotland, a history in verse, added little to the account in the Chronicle:

Quhen Alpyne this kyn was dede, He left a sowne wes cal'd Kyned,
Dowchty man he wes and stout, All the Peychtis he put out.
Gret bataylis than dyd he, To pwt in freedom his cuntre!

When humanist scholar George Buchanan wrote his history Rerum Scoticarum Historia in the 1570s, a great deal of lurid detail had been added to the story. Buchanan included an account of how Kenneth's father had been murdered by the Picts, and a detailed, and entirely unsupported, account of how Kenneth avenged him and conquered the Picts. Buchanan was not as credulous as many, and he did not include the tale of MacAlpin's treason, a story from Giraldus Cambrensis, who reused a tale of Saxon treachery at a feast in Geoffrey of Monmouth's inventive Historia Regum Britanniae.

Later 19th century historians such as William Forbes Skene brought new standards of accuracy to early Scottish history, while Celticists such as Whitley Stokes and Kuno Meyer cast a critical eye over Welsh and Irish sources. As a result, much of the misleading and vivid detail was removed from the scholarly series of events, even if it remained in the popular accounts. Rather than a conquest of the Picts, instead the idea of Pictish matrilineal succession, mentioned by Bede and apparently the only way to make sense of the list of Kings of the Picts found in the Pictish Chronicle, advanced the idea that Kenneth was a Gael, and a king of Dál Riata, who had inherited the throne of Pictland through a Pictish mother. Other Gaels, such as Caustantín and Óengus, the sons of Fergus, were identified among the Pictish king lists, as were Angles such as Talorcen son of Eanfrith, and Britons such as Bridei son of Beli.[3]

Modern historians would reject parts of the Kenneth produced by Skene and subsequent historians, while accepting others. Medievalist Alex Woolf, interviewed by The Scotsman in 2004, is quoted as saying:

The myth of Kenneth conquering the Picts - it’s about 1210, 1220 that that’s first talked about. There’s actually no hint at all that he was a Scot. ... If you look at contemporary sources there are four other Pictish kings after him. So he’s the fifth last of the Pictish kings rather than the first Scottish king."

Many other historians could be quoted in terms similar to Woolf.[5]

A feasible synopsis of the emerging consensus, may be put forward, namely, that the kingships of Gaels and Picts underwent a process of gradual fusion,[6] starting with Kenneth, and rounded off in the reign of Constantine II. The Pictish institution of kingship provided the basis for merger with the Gaelic Alpin dynasty. The meeting of King Constantine and Bishop Cellach at the Hill of Belief near the (formerly Pictish) royal city of Scone in 906 cemented the rights and duties of Picts on an equal basis with those of Gaels (pariter cum Scottis). Hence the change in styling from King of the Picts to King of Alba. The legacy of Gaelic as the first national language of Scotland does not obscure the foundational process in the establishment of the Scottish kingdom of Alba.

[edit] BackgroundKenneth's origins are uncertain, as are his ties, if any, to previous kings of the Picts or Dál Riata. Among the genealogies contained in the Rawlinson B 502 manuscript, dating from around 1130, is the supposed descent of Malcolm II of Scotland. Medieval genealogies are unreliable sources, but many historians still accept Kenneth's descent from the established Cenél nGabráin, or at the very least from some unknown minor sept of the Dál Riata. The manuscript provides the following ancestry for Kenneth:

...Cináed son of Alpín son of Eochaid son of Áed Find son of Domangart son of Domnall Brecc son of Eochaid Buide son of Áedán son of Gabrán son of Domangart son of Fergus Mór ...

Leaving aside the shadowy kings before Áedán son of Gabrán, the genealogy is certainly flawed insofar as Áed Find, who died c. 778, could not reasonably be the son of Domangart, who was killed c. 673. The conventional account would insert two generations between Áed Find and Domangart: Eochaid mac Echdach, father of Áed Find, who died c. 733, and his father Eochaid.

Although later traditions provided details of his reign and death, Kenneth's father Alpin is not listed as among the kings in the Duan Albanach, which provides the following sequence of kings leading up to Kenneth:
It is supposed that these kings are the Constantine son of Fergus and his brother Óengus II (Angus II), who have already been mentioned, Óengus's son Uen (Éoghanán), as well as the obscure Áed mac Boanta, but this sequence is considered doubtful if the list is intended to represent kings of Dál Riata, as it should if Kenneth were king there.[8]

That Kenneth was a Gael is not widely rejected, but modern historiography distinguishes between Kenneth as a Gael by culture and/or in ancestry, and Kenneth as a king of Gaelic Dál Riata. Kings of the Picts before him, from Bridei son of Der-Ilei, his brother Nechtan as well as Óengus I son of Fergus and his presumed descendants were all at least partly Gaelicised.[9] The idea that the Gaelic names of Pictish kings in Irish annals represented translations of Pictish ones was challenged by the discovery of the inscription Custantin filius Fircus(sa), the latinised name of the Pictish king Caustantín son of Fergus, on the Dupplin Cross.[10]

Other evidence, such as that furnished by place-names, suggests the spread of Gaelic culture through western Pictland in the centuries before Kenneth. For example, Atholl, a name used in the Annals of Ulster for the year 739, has been thought to be "New Ireland", and Argyll derives from Oir-Ghàidheal, the land of the "eastern Gaels".

Kenneth's reign is dated from 843, but it was probably not until 848 that he defeated the last of his rivals for power. The Pictish Chronicle claims that he was king in Dál Riata for two years before becoming Pictish king in 843, but this is not generally accepted. In 849, Kenneth had relics of Columba, which may have included the Monymusk Reliquary, transferred from Iona to Dunkeld. Other that these bare facts, the Chronicle of the Kings of Alba reports that he invaded Saxonia six times, captured Melrose and burnt Dunbar, and also that Vikings laid waste to Pictland, reaching far into the interior.[11] The Annals of the Four Masters, not generally a good source on Scottish matters, do make mention of Kenneth, although what should be made of the report is unclear:

Gofraid mac Ferusa, chief of Airgíalla, went to Alba, to strengthen the Dal Riata, at the request of Kenneth MacAlpin.[12]

The reign of Kenneth also saw an increased degree of Norse settlement in the outlying areas of modern Scotland. Shetland, Orkney, Caithness, Sutherland, the Western Isles and the Isle of Man, and part of Ross were settled; the links between Kenneth's kingdom and Ireland were weakened, those with southern England and the continent almost broken. In the face of this, Kenneth and his successors were forced to consolidate their position in their kingdom, and the union between the Picts and the Gaels, already progressing for several centuries, began to strengthen. By the time of Donald II, the kings would be called kings neither of the Gaels or the Scots but of Alba.[13]

Kenneth died from a tumour on 13 February 858 at the palace of Cinnbelachoir, perhaps near Scone. The annals report the death as that of the "king of the Picts", not the "king of Alba". The title "king of Alba" is not used until the time of Kenneth's grandsons, Donald II (Domnall mac Causantín) and Constantine II (Constantín mac Áeda). The Fragmentary Annals of Ireland quote a verse lamenting Kenneth's death:

Because Cináed with many troops lives no longer there is weeping in every house; there is no king of his worth under heaven as far as the borders of Rome.[14]
Kenneth left at least two sons, Constantine and Áed, who were later kings, and at least two daughters. One daughter married Run, king of Strathclyde, Eochaid being the result of this marriage. Kenneth's daughter Máel Muire married two important Irish kings of the Uí Néill. Her first husband was Aed Finliath of the Cenél nEógain. Niall Glúndub, ancestor of the O'Neill, was the son of this marriage. Her second husband was Flann Sinna of Clann Cholmáin. As the wife and mother of kings, when Máel Muire died in 913, her death was reported by the Annals of Ulster, an unusual thing for the male-centred chronicles of the age.

See also Scotland in the Early Middle Ages
Scotland in the High Middle Ages
Notes
1. Cináed mac Ailpín is the Mediaeval Gaelic form. A more accurate rendering in modern Gaelic would be Cionaodh mac Ailpein, since Coinneach is historically a separate name. However, in the modern language, both names have converged.
2. Skene, Chronicles, p. 83.
3. That the Pictish succession was matrilineal is doubted. Bede in the Ecclesiastical History, I, i, writes: "when any question should arise, they should choose a king from the female royal race, rather than the male: which custom, as is well known, has been observed among the Picts to this day." Bridei and Nechtan, the sons of Der-Ilei, were the Pictish kings in Bede's time, and are presumed to have claimed the throne through maternal descent. Maternal descent, "when any question should arise" brought several kings of Alba and the Scots to the throne, including John Balliol, Robert Bruce and Robert II, the first of the Stewart kings.
5. For example, Foster, Picts, Gaels and Scots, pp. 107–108; Broun, "Kenneth mac Alpin"; Forsyth, "Scotland to 1100", pp. 28–32; Duncan, Kingship of the Scots, pp. 8–10. Woolf was selected to write the relevant volume of the new Edinburgh History of Scotland, to replace that written by Duncan in 1975.
6. After Herbert, Rí Éireann, Rí Alban, kingship and identity in the ninth and tenth centuries, p. 71.
8. See Broun, Pictish Kings, for a discussion of this question.
9. For the descendants of the first Óengus son of Fergus, again see Broun, Pictish Kings.
10. Foster, Picts, Gaels and Scots, pp.95–96; Fergus would appear as Uurgu(i)st in a Pictish form.
11. Regarding Dál Riata, see Broun, "Kenneth mac Alpin"; Foster, Picts, Gaels and Scots, pp. 111–112.
12. Annals of the Four Master, for the year 835 (probably c. 839). The history of Dál Riata in this period is simply not known, or even if there was any sort of Dál Riata to have a history. Ó Corráin's "Vikings in Ireland and Scotland", available as etext, and Woolf, "Kingdom of the Isles", may be helpful.
13. Lynch, Michael, A New History of Scotland
[edit] References
For primary sources see under External links below.

Dauvit Broun, "Dunkeld and the origins of Scottish Identity" in Dauvit Broun and Thomas Owen Clancy (eds), op. cit.

Etext (pdf)

Alex Woolf, "Constantine II" in Lynch (ed.), op. cit.

Alex Woolf, "Kingdom of the Isles" in Lynch (ed.), op. cit.

Child of KENNETH MACALPIN OF SCOTLAND is:

165. i. CONSTANTINE OF82 ALBA I, b. 836; d. 876.


Notes for COUNTESS OF PONTHIEU AND MONTREUIL MARIE:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Marie of Ponthieu (17 April 1199[1] – 1251) was the Countess of Ponthieu and Countess of Montreuil, ruling from 1221 to 1251.

Marie was the daughter of William IV of Ponthieu and Alys, Countess of the Vexin, and granddaughter of King Louis VII of France by his second wife Constance of Castile. As her father's only surviving child, Marie succeeded him, ruling as Countess of Ponthieu and Countess of Montreuil from 1221 to 1251.

Marriages and children

She married Simon of Dannmartin before September 1208. He was the son of Alberic II of Dannmartin and Maud de Clermont, daughter of Renaud de Clermont, Count de Clermont-en-Beauvaisis and Clemence de Bar.[2] Simon and Marie had four daughters but only two are recorded. The eldest was Joan of Dannmartin (1220-16 March 1279), second wife of Ferdinand III of Castile. The other daughter was Philippa of Dannmartin (died 1277/81) who married firstly Raoul II d’ Issoudun, secondly Raoul II de Coucy, and thirdly Otto II, Count Geldern.

Marie married secondly sometime between September 1240 and 15 December 1241, Mathieu de Montmorency, Seigneur d'Attichy, who was killed in battle at Mansurrah on 8 February 1250 during the Seventh Crusade, led by King Louis IX of France.[3]
Notes for Simon of Dammartin:
Simon of Dammartin (1180 – 21 September 1239) was a son of Alberic II of Dammartin (Aubry de Dammartin) and his wife Mathildis of Clermont.

Biography
Simon was the brother of Renaud I, Count of Dammartin, who had abducted the heiress of Boulogne, and forced her to marry him. It is thought that in order to strengthen the alliance with the Dammartins, King Philip Augustus of France allowed Simon to marry Marie, Countess of Ponthieu, who was a niece of the king, in 1208. Renaud and Simon of Dammartin would eventually ally themselves with John, King of England. In 1214 the brothers stood against Philip Augustus in the Battle of Bouvines. The French won the battle, and Renaud was imprisoned, while Simon was exiled.

Marie's father William IV, Count of Ponthieu had remained loyal to Philip Augustus. When William died in 1221, Philip Augustus denied Marie her inheritance and gave Ponthieu in custody to his cousin Robert III, Count of Dreux. After the death of Philip Augustus, Marie was able to negotiate an agreement with his successor Louis VIII in 1225. Ponthieu was held by the king, and Simon would only be allowed to enter this or any other fief if he obtained royal permission. In 1231 Simon agreed to the terms and added that he would not enter into marriage negotiations for his daughters without consent of the king.[1]

Family
Simon married Marie, Countess of Ponthieu[2], the daughter of William IV, Count of Ponthieu and Alys, Countess of the Vexin. Marie became Countess of Ponthieu in 1221. [3]

Simon and his wife Marie had four daughters[4]:


Mathilda of Dammartin (-1279), married John of Châtellerault

Philippe of Dammartin (-1280), married 1) Raoul II of Lusignan, 2) Raoul II, Lord of Coucy, 3) Otto II, Count of Guelders.

Maria of Dammartin, married John II, Count of Roucy.

References
4. ^ Nobility of Northern France from Medieval Lands

Child of Countess Marie and Simon Dammartin is:
166. i. JEANNE G. DE DAMMARTIN, b. 1216; d. 1279.

priory, where she was buried. [2]

Margaret died in April 1342 and her sister Elizabeth de Clare paid for prayers to be said for her soul at Tonbridge Priory, where she was buried. [2]

References

1. "The history of the worthies of England, Volume 3 By Thomas Fuller".

Hugh II de Audley, 1st Baron Audley and 1st Earl of Gloucester (1289 – 10 November 1347) was the English Ambassador to France in 1341.

His father, Hugh I de Audley (ca. 1250 – ca. 1336), was born in Audley in the English County of Staffordshire, the son of James of Audley (born c. 1225 in Audley, Staffordshire) and Ela Longsue (daughter of William II Longspee), and his great great grandfather was therefore Henry II, King of England.

Hugh II married Isolde de Mortimer, who was born c. 1290 in Wigmore, Herefordshire to Edmund Mortimer, 2nd Baron Mortimer, a member of the Mortimer family of Marcher Lords, many of whom were Earl of March. They had two children in addition to Hugh de Audley: John de Aldithley (Audley), born circa 1293, and Alice de Audley, born circa 1304 and married firstly Ralph de Greyestone, 3rd Baron Greyestone, and later, Ralph de Neville, a member of the Neville family.

Life

Hugh de Audley was born in Stratton Audley in the English County of Oxfordshire. He married Margaret de Clare, widow of Piers Gaveston, 1st Earl of Cornwall), who was (favourite, and possibly lover, of King Edward II of England). They had a daughter, Margaret de Audley (born c. 1318 in Stafford), who was abducted as a wife by Ralph Stafford, 1st Earl of Stafford.

He served as High Sheriff of Rutland from 1316 to 1324 and again from 1327 to 1349. [1]

Following his death, de Audley was buried in Tonbridge Priory.[2]

Child of MARGARET DE CLARE and HUGH DE AUDLEY is:

167. i. MARGARET[82] DE AUDLEY, b. 1325; d. September 07, 1347.

Generation No. 78

165. CONSTANTINE OF[82] ALBA I (KENNETH MACALPINE OF[81] SCOTLAND, ALPIN[80] MAC ECHDACH, EOCOAI ANUNNUE[79] MAC EDA, ED I FIND MACH[78] ECHACH, EOCOAI[77] III, EOCOAI OF[76] DALRAIDA II, DOMANGART[75] DE DALRAIDA II, DOMNALL CREICH[74], EOCOAI BUIDE MACAIDAN OF[73] ARGYLL I, AIDAN MACGABRAN OF[72], GABRAM (GABRAN) MACDOMANGART OF[71], FEDELM[70] FOLCHAIN, BRION (BIAN)[69] MAC ECHACH, EOCOAI (EOCHU) MUGMEDON OF[68] IRELAND, MUIREADACH TIREH[67], MAC FIAICACH II, FIACHAIDH SRAIBHITHNE OF[66] IRELAND, CAIRRE LIOIFCHAR[65] MAC CORMARC, CORRACH ULFHAIDH[64], MAC AIRT, AIRT AOINIFHAIR[63], MAC CONN, CONN CREADCHATHACH[62], MAC FEIDEILMOID, FEIDHLMIDH (FELIM)[61], RACHTMAR, TUATHAL[60], TEACHTMAR, FIACHA FIONN[59], OLA, FEREDACH[58], FIONN-FAICHTNAICH, CREITHMANN-NA-DH-NAIR[57], LUGHAIDH SRAIBH-N[56], DEARG, BRESS-NA-LOTHAR[55], EOCOAI[54], FEIDILICH, FIONN[53], FIONNLOGH[52], ROIGHEN[51], RUADH, ASSAMAN[50], EMHNA, ENNA[49], AINEAC, AONGUS[48], TURMEACH-TEAMRACH, EOCOAI DH ALT[47], LEATHAN, OLIOL[46], CAS-FIAICHLACH, CONLA[45], CIAOH, IARAN[46], GLEOFATHACH, MELE[45], MOLBHATHACH, COLETHACH[42], CAOL-BIREACH, UGAINE[41], MÓR, EOCOAI[40], BUADHACH, DUACH[39], LADHRACH, FIACHA[38], TOLGHRACH, MUREADACH[37], BOLGACH, SIMEON[36], BREAIC, AEDA[35], GLAS, NUADHAS[34], FIONNFAIL, GIALCHADH[33], OLIOL[32], ALOCHLEN, SIONNA[31], SAOGHALACH, DEI[30], ROITEACHTAC, MAH[29], AONGUS[28], OLMUCHACH, FIACHA[26], LABRAINNE, SMHOINNALL, EINBOATH[24], TIGERNMACH[23], FOLL-AICH[22], EITHRIAL[21], IRID (IREAL ERULIUS), FAIDH (FAITH)[20], MACEREMOIN, HEREMON (HERMION) OF[19] IRELAND, TAO SETH[18], SCOTA: PRINCESS OF EGYPT, PHARAOH NECTANEBOUS (NECHO) OF, IRELAND, TEA SETH[17], SCOTA: PRINCESS OF EGYPT, PHARAOH NECTANEBOUS (NECHO) OF, RE; TAFNKHITET I, SHEPSERET[14], TEFNAKHITET II, PRINCE OF EGYPT, BAKENRANEF (BOCCHORIS) WAH KAI[13], RE; TEFNAKHITET I, SHEPSERET RE OF[12], EGYPT, OSORKON IV, C. OF[11], MAAT, SHOSHONK[10], AAKHEPERRE, STEPENET[9], PYMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEOPOLIS, SHOSHONK[8], III, TAKELOT[7], II,
Osorkon⁶ II, Takelot⁵ I, Osorkon⁴ I, Shoshonk³ I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot², the Great Chief of the Ma¹ Shoshenq) was born 836, and died 876.

Notes for Constantine of Alba I:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Causantín or Constantín mac Cináeda (Modern Gaelic Cóiseam mac Choinnich) (died 877) was a king of the Picts. He is often known as Constantine I, in reference to his place in modern lists of kings of Scots, though contemporary sources described Constantín only as a Pictish king. A son of Cináed mac Ailpín ("Kenneth MacAlpin"), he succeeded his uncle Domnall mac Ailpín as Pictish king following the latter's death on 13 April 862. It is likely that Constantín's (Constantine I) reign witnessed increased activity by Vikings, based in Ireland and Northumbria, in northern Britain and he died fighting one such invasion.

Very few records of ninth century events in northern Britain survive. The main local source from the period is the Chronicle of the Kings of Alba, a list of kings from Cináed mac Ailpín (died 858) to Cináed mac Maíl Coluim (died 995). The list survives in the Poppleton Manuscript, a thirteenth century compilation. Originally simply a list of kings with reign lengths, the other details contained in the Poppleton Manuscript version were added from the tenth century onwards.[1] In addition to this, later king lists survive.[2] The earliest genealogical records of the descendants of Cináed mac Ailpín may date from the end of the tenth century, but their value lies more in their context, and the information they provide about the interests of those for whom they were compiled, than in the unreliable claims they contain.[3] The Pictish king-lists originally ended with this Constantín, who was reckoned the seventieth and last king of the Picts.[4]

For narrative history the principal sources are the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle and the Irish annals. While Scandinavian sagas describe events in 9th century Britain, their value as sources of historical narrative, rather than documents of social history, is disputed.[5] If the sources for north-eastern Britain, the lands of the kingdom of Northumbria and the former Pictland, are limited and late, those for the areas on the Irish Sea and Atlantic coasts—the modern regions of north-west England and all of northern and western Scotland—are non-existent, and archaeology and toponymy are of primary importance.[6]

[edit] Languages and namesWriting a century before Constantín was born, Bede recorded five languages in Britain. Latin, the common language of the church, Old English, the language of the Angles and Saxons, Irish, spoken on the western coasts of Britain and in Ireland, Brythonic, ancestor of the Welsh language, spoken in large parts of western Britain, and Pictish, spoken in northern Britain. By the ninth century a sixth language, Old Norse, had arrived with the Vikings.

[edit] Amlaíb and ÍmarViking activity in northern Britain appears to have reached a peak during Constantín's reign. Viking armies were led by a small group of men who may have been kinsmen. Among those noted by the Irish annals, the Chronicle of the Kings of Alba and the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle are Ívarr—Ímar in Irish sources—who was active from East Anglia to Ireland, Halfdán—Albdann in Irish, Healfdene in Old English— and Amlaíb or Óláfr. As well as these leaders, various others related to them appear in the surviving record.[7]

Viking activity in Britain increased in 865 when the Great Heathen Army, probably a part of the forces which had been active in Francia, landed in East Anglia.[8] The following year, having obtained tribute from the East Anglian King Edmund, the Great Army moved north, seizing York, chief city of the Northumbrians.[9] The Great Army defeated an attack on York by the two rivals for the Northumbrian throne, Osberht and Ælla, who had put aside their differences in the face of a common enemy. Both would-be kings were killed in the failed assault, probably on 21 March 867. Following this, the leaders of the Great Army are said to have installed one Ecgberht as king of the Northumbrians.[10] Their next target was Mercia where King Burgred, aided by his brother-in-law King Æthelred of Wessex, drove them off.[11]

While the kingdoms of East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria were under attack, other Viking armies were active in the far north. Amlaíb and Auisle (Āsl or Auðgísl), said to be his brother, brought an army to Forthriu and obtained tribute and hostages in 866. Historians disagree as to whether the army returned to Ireland in 866, 867 or even in
Late sources of uncertain reliability state that Auisle was killed by Amlaíb in 867 in a dispute over Amlaíb's wife, the daughter of Cináed. It is unclear whether, if accurate, this woman should be identified as a daughter of Cináed mac Ailpín, and thus Constantín's sister, or as a daughter of Cináed mac Conaing, king of Brega.[13] While Amlaíb and Auisle were in north Britain, the Annals of Ulster record that Áed Findliath, High King of Ireland, took advantage of their absence to destroy the longphorts along the northern coasts of Ireland.[14] Áed Findliath was married to Constantín's sister Máel Muire. She later married Áed's successor Flann Sinna. Her death is recorded in 913.[15]

In 870, Amlaíb and Ívarr attacked Dumbarton Rock, where the River Leven meets the River Clyde, the chief place of the kingdom of Alt Clut, south-western neighbour of Pictland. The siege lasted four months before the fortress fell to the Vikings who returned to Ireland with many prisoners, "Angles, Britons and Picts", in 871. Archaeological evidence suggests that Dumbarton Rock was largely abandoned and that Govan replaced it as the chief place of the kingdom of Strathclyde, as Alt Clut was later known.[16] King Artgal of Alt Clut did not long survive these events, being killed "at the instigation" of Constantín son of Cináed two years later. Artgal's son and successor Run was married to a sister of Constantín.[17]

Amlaíb disappears from Irish annals after his return to Ireland in 871. According to the Chronicle of the Kings of Alba he was killed by Constantín either in 871 or 872 when he returned to Picland to collect further tribute.[18] His ally Ívarr died in 873.[19]

[edit] Last days of the Pictish kingdom
In 875, the Chronicle and the Annals of Ulster again report a Viking army in Picland. A battle, fought near Dollar, was a heavy defeat for the Picts; the Annals of Ulster say that "a great slaughter of the Picts resulted". Although there is agreement that Constantín was killed fighting Vikings in 877, it is not clear where this happened. Some believe he was beheaded on a Fife beach, following a battle at Fife Ness, near Crail. William Forbes Skene read the Chronicle as placing Constantín's death at Inverdovat (by Newport-on-Tay), which appears to match the Prophecy of Berchán. The account in the Chronicle of Melrose names the place as the "Black Cave" and John of Fordun calls it the "Black Den". Constantín was buried on Iona.

[edit] Aftermath
Constantín's son Domnall and his descendants represented the main line of the kings of Alba and later Scotland.

[edit] Notes
1. ^ Woolf, Pictland to Alba, pp. 87–93; Dumville, "Chronicle of the Kings of Alba".
2. ^ Anderson, Kings and Kingship, reproduces these lists and discusses their origins, further discussed by Broun, Irish origins.
5. ^ Woolf, Pictland to Alba, pp. 277–285; Ó Corrain, "Vikings in Scotland and Ireland"...
8. ^ Check Nelson.
11. ^ Keynes ...
13. ^ Downham, ?, FAA.
14. ^ Byrne? Ó Corrain? AU 866.4
15. ^ Woolf, AU 913.1, Byrne p. 857, poss. same as Amlaíb's wife.
16. ^ AU 870.6, AU 871.2, Woolf, Downham, Smyth.
17. ^ AU 872.5, Smyth, Woolf.
18. ^ Woolf, Downham.
19. ^ Woolf, Downham, AU 873.3
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Murphy, Dennis, ed. (1896), The Annals of Clonmacnoise, being annals of Ireland from the earliest period to A.D. 1408, Dublin: Royal Society of Antiquaries of Ireland, http://www.archive.org/details/annalsofclonmacn00royauoft, retrieved 2007-12-01
itself. The French king Philip Augustus had seized Normandy from King John of England as recent
would marry King Henry III of England. This marriage would have been politically unacceptable to the French,
daughter of Louis VII of France and Constance of Castile.
Clémence de Bar.[2] Her maternal grandparents were William IV of Ponthieu and Alys, Countess of the Vexin,
de Dammartin and Mahaut de Clermont, daughter of Renaud de Clermont, Count of Clermont
Marie of Ponthieu, Countess of Montreuil (17 April 1199
Joan was the eldest daughter of Simon of Dammartin, Count of Ponthieu (1201-1252), suo jure Countess of Ponthieu (1251-1279) and Aumale (1237-1279). Her daughter, the English queen Eleanor of Castile, was her successor in Ponthieu. Her son and co-ruler in Aumale, Ferdinand II, Count of Aumale, predeceased her, so she was succeeded by her grandson John I, Count of Aumale, deceased at the Battle of Courtrai, 11 July 1302.

Joan was the eldest daughter of Simon of Dammartin, Count of Ponthieu (1180-21 September 1239) and his wife Marie of Ponthieu, Countess of Montreuil (17 April 1199-1251). Her paternal grandparents were Alberic II, Count de Dammartin and Mahaut de Clermont, daughter of Renaud de Clermont, Count of Clermont-en-Beauvaisis, and Clémence de Bar.[2] Her maternal grandparents were William IV of Ponthieu and Alys, Countess of the Vexin, daughter of Louis VII of France and Constance of Castile.

Henry III of England
Coat of Arms of the County of Ponthieu
Blason of the County of Aumale, PicardyAfter secret negotiations were undertaken in 1234, it was agreed that Joan would marry King Henry III of England. This marriage would have been politically unacceptable to the French, however, since Joan stood to inherit not only her mother’s county of Ponthieu but also the county of Aumale that was vested in her father’s family. Ponthieu bordered on the duchy of Normandy, and Aumale lay within Normandy itself. The French king Philip Augustus had seized Normandy from King John of England as recently as 1205, and

Notes for JEANNE DE DAMMARTIN:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]
Philip's heirs could not risk the English monarchy recovering any land in that area, since it might allow the Plantagenets to re-establish control in Normandy.

As it happened, Joan's father Simon had become involved in a conspiracy of northern French noblemen against Philip Augustus and to win pardon from Philip's son Louis VIII, Simon—who had only daughters—was compelled to promise that he would marry off neither of his two eldest daughters without the permission of the king of France. In 1235, the queen-regent of France, Blanche of Castile, invoked that promise on behalf of her son, King Louis IX of France, and threatened to deprive Simon of all his lands if Joan married Henry III. Henry therefore abandoned the project for his marriage to Joan and in January 1236 married instead Eleanor of Provence, the sister of Louis IX's wife.

Marriages and children
In November 1235, Blanche of Castile's nephew, King Ferdinand III of Castile, lost his wife, Elisabeth of Hohenstaufen, and Blanche's sister Berengaria of Castile, Ferdinand's mother, was concerned that her widowed son might involve himself in liaisons that were unsuited to his dignity as king. Berengaria determined to find Ferdinand another wife, and her sister Blanche suggested Joan of Dammartin, whose marriage to the king of Castile would keep her inheritance from falling into hostile hands.[3] In October 1237, at the age of about seventeen, Joan and Ferdinand were married in Burgos. Since Ferdinand already had seven sons from his first marriage to Elisabeth of Hohenstaufen, there was little chance of Ponthieu being absorbed by Castile.

They had four sons and one daughter:
1. Ferdinand II, Count of Aumale (1239–ca 1265) m. (after 1256) Laure de Montfort, Lady of Espernon (d before 08.1270), and had issue:
2. Eleanor of Castile, Countess of Ponthieu, who married king Edward I of England and had issue
3. Louis (1243–ca 1275), who married Juana de Manzanedo, Lady of Gaton, and had issue
4. Simon (1244), died young and buried in a monastery in Toledo
5. John (1245), died young and buried at the cathedral in Córdoba
She accompanied Ferdinand to Andalucia and lived with him in the army camp as he besieged Seville in 1248.[4]

Upon her mother's death in 1251, Joan succeeded as Countess of Ponthieu and Montreuil, which she held in her own right.

After Ferdinand III died in 1252, Joan did not enjoy a cordial relationship with his heir, her stepson Alfonso X of Castile, with whom she quarreled over the lands and income she should have received as dowager queen of Castile. Sometime in 1253, she became the ally and supporter of another of her stepsons, Fadrique of Castile, who also felt Alfonso had not allowed him all the wealth their father had meant him to have. Joan unwisely attended secret meetings with Henry and his supporters, and it was rumored that she and Fadrique were lovers. This further strained her relations with Alfonso and in 1254, shortly before her daughter Eleanor was to marry Edward of England, Joan and her eldest son Ferdinand left Castile and returned to her native Ponthieu.

Sometime between May 1260 and 9 February 1261, Joan took a second husband, Jean de Nesle, Seigneur de Falvy et de La Hérelle (died 2 February 1292).[5] This marriage is sometimes said to have produced a daughter, Béatrice, but she was in fact a child of Jean de Nesle's first marriage. In 1263, Joan was recognized as countess of Aumale after the death of a childless Dammartin cousin. But her son Ferdinand died around 1265, leaving a young son known as John of Ponthieu.

During her marriage to Jean de Nesle, Joan ran up considerable debts and also appears to have allowed her rights as countess in Ponthieu to weaken. The death of her son Ferdinand in 1265 made her next son, Louis, her heir in Ponthieu but around 1275 he, too, died, leaving two children. But according to inheritance customs in Picardy, where Ponthieu lay, Joan's young grandson John of Ponthieu could not succeed her there; her heir in Ponthieu automatically became her adult daughter Eleanor, who was married to Edward I of England.[citation needed] It does not appear that Joan was displeased at the prospect of having Ponthieu pass under English domination; from 1274 to 1278, in fact, she had her granddaughter Joan of Acre (the daughter of Edward I and Eleanor) with her in Ponthieu, and appears to have treated the girl so indulgently that when she was returned to England her parents found that she was thoroughly spoiled.
That same indulgent nature appears to have made Joan inattentive to her duties as countess. When she died in March 1279, her daughter and son-in-law were thus confronted with Joan's vast debts, and to prevent the king of France from involving himself in the county's affairs, they had to pay the debts quickly by taking out loans from citizens in Ponthieu and from wealthy abbeys in France.

They also had to deal with a lengthy legal struggle with Eleanor's nephew, John of Ponthieu, to whom Joan bequeathed a great deal of land in Ponthieu as well as important legal rights connected with those estates. The dispute was resolved when John of Ponthieu was recognized as Joan's successor in Aumale according to the inheritance customs that prevailed in Normandy, while Edward and Eleanor retained Ponthieu and John gave up all his claims there. By using English wealth, Edward and Eleanor restored stability to the administration and the finances of Ponthieu, and added considerably to the comital estate by purchasing large amounts of land there.

Notes for Ferdinand of Castile:

Saint Ferdinand III (5 August 1199 – 30 May 1252) was the King of Castile from 1217 and León from 1230. He was the son of Alfonso IX of León and Berenguela of Castile. Through his second marriage he was also Count of Aumale. He finished the work done by his maternal grandfather Alfonso VIII and consolidated the Reconquista. In 1231, he permanently united Castile and León. He was canonized in 1671 and, in Spanish, he is Fernando el Santo, San Fernando or San Fernando Rey.

Ferdinand was born at the monastery of Valparaíso (Peleas de Arriba, in what is now the province of Zamora) in 1198-99.

His parents' marriage was annulled by order of Pope Innocent III in 1204, due to consanguinity. Berenguela took their children, including Ferdinand, to the court of her father. In 1217, her younger brother Henry I died and she succeeded him to the Castilian throne, but immediately surrendered it to her son, Ferdinand, for whom she initially acted as regent. When Alfonso died in 1230, Ferdinand also inherited León, though he had to fight Alfonso's heirs, Sancha and Dulce, daughters of his first wife, for it. He thus became the first sovereign of both kingdoms following the death of Alfonso VII in 1157.

Early in his reign, Ferdinand had to deal with a rebellion of the House of Lara. He also established a permanent border with the Kingdom of Aragon by the Treaty of Almizra (1244).

St Ferdinand spent much of his reign fighting the Moors. Through diplomacy and war, exploiting the internal dissensions in the Moorish kingdoms, he triumphed in expanding Castilian power over the southern Iberian peninsula. He captured the towns of Úbeda in 1233, Córdoba in 1236, Jaén in 1246, and Seville in 1248, and occupied Murcia in 1243, thereby reconquering all Andalusia save Granada, whose king nevertheless did homage as a tributary state to Ferdinand in 1238. Ferdinand divided the conquered territories between the Knights, the Church, and the nobility, whom he endowed with great latifundias. When he took Córdoba, he ordered the Liber Judiciorum to be adopted and observed by its citizens, and caused it to be rendered, albeit inaccurately, into Castilian.

The capture of Córdoba was the result of a well-planned and executed process whereby parts of the city (the Ajarquía) first fell to the independent almogavars of the Sierra Morena to the north, which Ferdinand had not at the time subjugated.[1] Only in 1236 did Ferdinand arrive with a royal army to take Medina, the religious and administrative centre of the city.[1] Ferdinand set up a council of partidores to divide the conquests and between 1237 and 1244 a great deal of land was parcelled out to private individuals and members of the royal family as well as to the Church.[2] On 10 March 1241, Ferdinand established seven outposts to define the boundary of the province of Córdoba.

On the domestic front, he strengthened the University of Salamanca and founded the current cathedral of Burgos. He was a patron of the newest movement in the Church, that of the friars. Whereas the Benedictines and then the Cistercians and Cluniacs had taken a major part in the Reconquista up until then, Ferdinand founded Dominican,
Franciscan, Trinitarian, and Mercedarian houses in Andalusia, thus determining the religious future of that region. Ferdinand has also been credited with sustaining the convivencia in Andalusia.[3]

The Primera Crónica General de España asserts that, on his death bed, Ferdinand said to his son “you are rich in lands and in many good vassals — more so than any other king in Christendom,” probably in recognition of his expansive conquests.[4] He was buried in the cathedral of Seville by his son Alfonso X. His tomb is inscribed in four languages: Arabic, Hebrew, Latin, and an early incarnation of Castilian.[5] St Ferdinand was canonized by Pope Clement X in 1671. Several places named San Fernando were founded across the Spanish Empire.

The symbol of his power as a king was his sword Lobera.

Child of Jeanne de Danmartin and Ferdinand Castile is:

169.    ii.  Eleanor of Castile A, b. 1244; d. 1290.


Notes for Margaret de Audley:
Margaret de Audley, suo jure 2nd Baroness Audley and Countess of Stafford (1318[citation needed] – between 1347 and 1351[1]) was an English noblewoman. She was the only daughter of Hugh de Audley, 1st Earl of Gloucester by his wife Lady Margaret de Clare.[2] Her mother was the daughter of Joan of Acre, Princess of England; thus making Margaret a great-granddaughter of King Edward I by his first consort, Eleanor of Castile. As the only daughter and heiress of her father, she succeeded to the title of 2nd Baroness Audley [E., 1317] on 10 November 1347.[1]

Marriage and issue
Margaret was abducted by her future husband, Ralph de Stafford, 1st Earl of Stafford. Her worth was at least £2314 a year, which was more than ten times Stafford’s own estates. After the abduction, her parents filed a complaint with King Edward III, but the King supported Stafford’s actions. In compensation, the King appeased Hugh and Margaret by creating Hugh the 1st Earl of Gloucester. Margaret de Audley and Stafford married before 6 July 1336 and they subsequently had two sons and four daughters:
Sir Ralph de Stafford (d. 1347), married Maud of Lancaster, daughter of Henry of Grosmont, 1st Duke of Lancaster and Isabel de Beaumont in 1344.[3]
Hugh de Stafford, 2nd Earl of Stafford, born circa 1336 in Staffordshire, England, married Philippa de Beauchamp; they were the ancestors of the Dukes of Buckingham (1444 creation).[3]

Elizabeth de Stafford, born circa 1340 in Staffordshire, England, died 7 August 1376, married firstly Fulk le Strange;[3] married secondly, John de Ferrers, 3rd Baron Ferrers of Chartley; married thirdly Reginald de Cobham, 2nd Baron Cobham.[4]
Beatrice de Stafford, born circa 1341 in Staffordshire, England, died 1415, married firstly, in 1350, Maurice FitzGerald, 2nd Earl of Desmond (d. June 1358); married secondly, Thomas de Ros, 5th Baron de Ros, of Helmsley; married thirdly Sir Richard Burley, Knt.[3]
Joan de Stafford, born in 1344 in Staffordshire, England, died 1397, married firstly, John Charleton, 3rd Baron Charleton;[3] married secondly Gilbert Talbot, 3rd Baron Talbot.[5]
Katherine de Stafford, born circa 1348 in Staffordshire, England and died in December 1361. Married on 25 December 1357 Sir John de Sutton III (1339 – c. 1370 or 1376), Knight, Master of Dudley Castle, Staffordshire. They were parents of Sir John de Sutton IV, hence grandparents of Sir John de Sutton V.[6]

References
3. a b c d e A general and heraldic dictionary of the peerages of England, Ireland and Scotland, extinct, dormant and in abeyance by John Burke. Publisher Henry Colburn and Richard Bentley, 1831. pg 488. From Google books, checked 30 March 2011.

Child of MARGARET DE AUDLEY and RALPH DE STAFFORD is:
170. i. ELIZABETH3 STAFFORD, b. 1337; d. August 07, 1375.

Generation No. 79

168. DONALD DASACHTACH OF33 SCOTS II (CONSTANTINE OF82 ALBA I, KENNETH MACALPIN OF81 SCOTLAND, ALPIN80 MAC ECHDACH, ECHADH ANNUINE79 MAC EDA, ED I FIND MACHN78 ECHACH, ECHADH77 III, ECHADH OF76 DALRAIDA II, DOMMONT75 DE DALRAIDA II, DOMNALL BRECC74, ECHADH BUIDE MACAIDAN OF73 ARGYLL I, AIDAN MACGABRAN OF72, GABRAN (GABHRAN) MACDOMANGART OF71, FEIDEL70, FOLCHAIN, BRION (BIOAN)69 MAC ECHADH, ECHADH (EOCHU) MUGMEDON68 IRELAND, MUIRECHADH TIREH67 MAC FICHACH II, FIACHADH SRAIBHINTHE OF66 IRELAND, CAIRRBE LIFIOCH65 MÓ CORMAC, CORMAC ULFHAID64 MAC AIRT, AIRT AOSNHE63 MAC CONN, CONN CREADCHATH62 MAC FEIDILMID, FEIDILMIDH (FELM)61 RACHTHAR, TUAHAL60 TEACHTHAR, FIACHA FIONN59 OLA, FEREDACH58 FIONN-FECHNACH, CRIATHANN-NIADH-NAR57, LUGHAIDH SRIABH-N56 DEARG, BRESS-NAR-LOTHAR55, ECHADH54 FEIDILIOCH, FIONN53, FIONNLOGH52, ROGHEIN51 RUADH, ASSAMAN50 EMINH, ENNA49 AIGNEAC, AONGUS48 TURIMEACH-TEAMRACH, ECHADH AL47 LEATHAN, OJOLL46 CAS-FIACHACH, CONA45 CAOMH, IARAN44 GLEOFATHACH, MELG35 MOLBHITHACH, COLETHACH42 CAOL-BHEREACH, UIGANE41 MOR, ECHADH40
The Chronicle of the Kings of Alba has Donald succeeded by his cousin Constantine II. Donald's son Malcolm Áeda),[7] b
his epithet.[6] The consensus view is that the key changes occurred in the reign of Constantine II (Causantín mac
historians, while divided as to when this change should be placed, do not generally attribute it to Donald in view of
The change from king of the Picts to king of Alba is seen as indicating a step towards the kingdom of th
where he is called king of Alba, rather that king of the Picts. He was buried on Iona.

Berchán places Donald's death at Dunnottar, but appears to attribute it to Gaels rather than Norsemen; other sources
It has been suggested that the attack on Dunnottar, rather than being a small raid by a handful of pirates, may be
associated with the ravaging of Scotland attributed to Harald Fairhair in the Heimskringla.[4] The Prophecy of
Berchán places Donald’s death at Dunnottar, but appears to attribute it to Gaels rather than Norsemen; other sources
report he died at Forres.[5] Donald's death is d

Donald’s death is certainly known but usually placed in 889. The Chronicle of the Kings of Alba reports:

Donald became king on the death or deposition of Giric (Giric mac Dúngail), the date of which is not ce
Donald's death is 0900 in Forres, Moray, Scotland of Killed in Battle against Danes 3 2 4

Donnall mac Causantín (Modern Gaelic: Dòmhnall mac Chòiseim),[1] anglicised as Donald II (died 900) was King
of the Picts or King of Scotland (Alba) in the late 9th century. He was the son of Constantine I (Causantín mac
Cináeda). Donald is given the epithet Dásachtach, “the Madman”, by the Prophecy of Berchán.[2]

Donald became king on the death or deposition of Giric (Giric mac Dúngail), the date of which is not certainly known but usually placed in 889. The Chronicle of the Kings of Alba reports:

“ Doniualdus son of Constantini held the kingdom for 11 years [889–900]. The Northmen wasted Pictland at this
time. In his reign a battle occurred between Danes and Scots at Innisibsolian where the Scots had victory. He was killed at Opidum Fother [modern Dunnottar] by the Gentiles.[3]”

It has been suggested that the attack on Dunnottar, rather than being a small raid by a handful of pirates, may be
associated with the ravaging of Scotland attributed to Harald Fairhair in the Heimskringla.[4] The Prophecy of
Berchán places Donald’s death at Dunnottar, but appears to attribute it to Gaels rather than Norsemen; other sources
report he died at Forres.[5] Donald's death is dated to 900 by the Annals of Ulster and the Chronicon Scotorum,
where he is called king of Alba, rather than that of the Picts. He was buried on Iona.

The change from king of the Picts to king of Alba is seen as indicating a step towards the kingdom of the Scots, but
historians, while divided as to when this change should be placed, do not generally attribute it to Donald in view of
his epithet.[6] The consensus view is that the key changes occurred in the reign of Constantine II (Causantín mac
Aeda),[7] but the reign of Giric has also been proposed.[8]

The Chronicle of the Kings of Alba has Donald succeeded by his cousin Constantine II. Donald's son Malcolm

Notes for DONALD DASACHTACH OF SCOTS II:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

•ID: 116001
•Name: Donald Dasachtach of Scots II.
•AKAN: Donnall II 1
•AKAN: Donnall mac Causantin 2
•Nickname: The Madman 2
•Sex: M
•Change Date: 5 MAR 2009
•Birth: 0862 3 2
•Event: Title King of Alba 2
•Event: Title FROM 0889 TO 0900 6th King of Scots 4 1 3
•Note: Donald became king on the death or deposition of Giric (Giric mac Dúngail), the date of which is not
certainly known but usually placed in 889.
•Death: 0900 in Forres, Moray, Scotland of Killed in Battle against Danes 3 2 4
•Burial: Iona 4
•OBJE:
•FORM: JPEG
•FILE: C:\BK6\wetere\Picture\Donald Dasachtach of Scots II.jpg

Donald Dasachtach of Scots II (Dòmhnall mac Chòiseim or Donnall II, died 900) was King of the Picts or King of Scotland (Alba) in the late 9th century. He was the son of Constantine I (Causantín mac Cináeda). Donald is given the epithet Dásachtach, "the Madman", by the Prophecy of Berchán.[2]
(Máel Coluim mac Domnall) was later king as Malcolm I. The Prophecy of Berchán appears to suggest that another king reigned for a short while between Donald II and Constantine II, saying "half a day will he take sovereignty". Possible confirmation of this exists in the Chronicon Scotorum, where the death of "Ead, king of the Picts" in battle against the Úi Ímair is reported in 904. This, however, is thought to be an error, referring perhaps to Ædawulf, the ruler of Bernicia, whose death is reported in 913 by the other Irish annals.[9]

Child of DONALD DASACTHACH OF SCOTS II is:
171.  i.  MALCOLM MACALPIN of 84 ALBA I, b. 897.


Notes for ELEANOR OF CASTILE and LEON:
Eleanor of Castile (1241 – 28 November 1290) was the first queen consort of Edward I of England. She was also Countess of Ponthieu in her own right from 1279 until her death in 1290, succeeding her mother and ruling together with her husband.

Eleanor was born in Castile, Spain, daughter of Saint Ferdinand, King of Castile and Leon and his second wife, Joan, Countess of Ponthieu. Her Castilian name, Leonor, became Alienor or Aliaon in England, and Eleanor in modern English. She was named after her grandmother Eleanor of Castile.

Eleanor was the second of five children born to Fernando and Jeanne. Her elder brother Fernando was born in 1239/40, her younger brother Louis in 1242/43; two sons born after Louis died young. For the ceremonies in 1291 marking the first anniversary of Eleanor's death, 49 candlebearers were paid to walk in the public procession to commemorate each year of her life. This would date her birth to the year 1241. Since her parents were apart from each other for 13 months while King Ferdinand conducted a military campaign in Andalusia from which he returned to the north of Spain only in February 1241, Eleanor was probably born toward the end of that year. Both the court of her father and her half-brother Alfonso X of Castile were known for its literary atmosphere. Growing up in such an environment probably influenced her later literary activities as queen. She was said to have been at her father's
Eleanor's marriage in 1254 to the future Edward I of England was not the first marriage her family planned for her. The kings of Castile had long made the flimsy claim to be paramount lords of the Kingdom of Navarre in the Pyrenees, and from 1250 Ferdinand III and his heir, Eleanor's half-brother Alfonso X of Castile, hoped she would marry Theobald II of Navarre. To avoid Castilian control, Margaret of Bourbon (mother to Theobald II) in 1252 allied with James I of Aragon instead, and as part of that treaty solemnly promised that Theobald would never marry Eleanor.

Then, in 1252, Alfonso X resurrected another flimsy ancestral claim, this time to the duchy of Gascony, in the south of Aquitaine, last possession of the Kings of England in France. Henry III of England swiftly countered Alfonso's claims with both diplomatic and military moves. Early in 1254 the two kings began to negotiate; after haggling over the financial provision for Eleanor, Henry and Alfonso agreed she would marry Henry's son Edward, and Alfonso would transfer his Gascon claims to Edward. Henry was so anxious for the marriage to take place that he willingly abandoned elaborate preparations already made for Edward's knighting in England, and agreed that Alfonso would knight Edward before the wedding took place.

The young couple married at the monastery of Las Huelgas, Burgos on 1 November 1254. Henry III took pride in resolving the Gascon crisis so decisively, but his English subjects feared that the marriage would bring Eleanor's kinfolk and countrymen to live off Henry's ruinous generosity. Several of her relatives did come to England soon after her marriage. She was too young to stop them or prevent Henry III from paying for them, but she was blamed anyway and her marriage was unpopular. Interestingly enough, Eleanor's mother had been spurned in marriage by Henry III and her great-grandmother, Alys, Countess of the Vexin, had been spurned in marriage by Richard I. However, the presence of more English, Frank and Norman soldiers of fortune and opportunists in the recently reconquered Seville and Cordoba Moorish Kingdoms would be increased, thanks to this alliance between royal houses, until the advent of the later Hundred Years War when it would be symptomatic of extended hostilities between the French and the English for peninsular support.

Arranged royal marriages in the Middle Ages were not always happy, but available evidence indicates that Eleanor and Edward were devoted to each other. Edward is among the few medieval English kings not known to have conducted extramarital affairs or fathered children out of wedlock. The couple were rarely apart; she accompanied him on military campaigns in Wales, famously giving birth to their son Edward on 25 April 1284 in a temporary dwelling erected for her amid the construction of Caernarfon Castle.

Their household records witness incidents that imply a comfortable, even humorous, relationship. Each year on Easter Monday, Edward let Eleanor's ladies trap him in his bed and paid them a token ransom so he could go to her bedroom on the first day after Lent; so important was this custom to him that in 1291, on the first Easter Monday after Eleanor's death, he gave her ladies the money he would have given them had she been alive. Edward disliked ceremonies and in 1290 refused to attend the marriage of Earl Marshal Roger Bigod, 5th Earl of Norfolk; Eleanor thoughtfully (or resignedly) paid minstrels to play for him while he sat alone during the wedding.

That Edward remained single until he wed Marguerite of France in 1299 is often cited to prove he cherished Eleanor's memory. In fact he considered a second marriage as early as 1293, but this does not mean he did not mourn Eleanor. Eloquent testimony is found in his letter to the abbot of Cluny in France (January 1291), seeking prayers for the soul of the wife "whom living we dearly cherished, and whom dead we cannot cease to love." In her memory, Edward ordered the construction of twelve elaborate stone crosses (of which three survive, almost intact) between 1291 and 1294, marking the route of her funeral procession between Lincoln and London. (See "Procession, burial and monuments" section below).

However, only one of Eleanor's four sons survived childhood and, even before she died, Edward worried over the succession: if that son died, their daughters' husbands might cause a succession war. Despite personal grief, Edward faced his duty and married again. He delighted in the sons his new wife bore, but attended memorial services for Eleanor to the end of his life, Marguerite at his side on at least one occasion.

Eleanor is warmly remembered by history as the queen who inspired the Eleanor crosses, but she was not so loved in her own time. The English saw her as a greedy foreigner. Walter of Guisborough preserves a contemporary poem:
The king desires to get our gold/the queen, our manors fair to hold...

John Peckham, Archbishop of Canterbury warned Eleanor that her activities in the land market caused outcry, gossip, rumour and scandal across the realm. Her often aggressive acquisition of lands was an unusual degree of economic activity for any medieval noblewoman, let alone a queen: between 1274 and 1290 she acquired estates worth above £2500 yearly. In fact, Edward himself initiated this process and his ministers helped her. He wanted the queen to hold lands sufficient for her financial needs without drawing on funds needed for government. One of his methods to help Eleanor acquire land was to give her debts Christian landlords owed Jewish moneylenders; she foreclosed on lands pledged for the debts. The debtors were often glad to rid themselves of the debts and also profited from the favour Eleanor showed them afterwards. But her reputation in England was further blighted by association with the highly unpopular moneylenders.

Peckham also warned of complaints against her officials' demands upon her tenants. On her deathbed, Eleanor asked Edward to name justices to examine her officials' actions and make reparations. The surviving proceedings from this inquest do reveal a pattern of ruthless exactions, often without the queen's knowledge. She righted such wrongs when she heard of them, but not often enough to prevent a third warning from Peckham that many in England thought she urged Edward to rule harshly. In fact Edward allowed her little political influence, but her officials' demands were ascribed to her imagined personal severity, which was used to explain the king's administrative strictness. In other words, the queen was made to wear the king's unpopular mask. It was always safer to blame a foreign-born queen than to criticise a king, and easier to believe he was misled by a meddling wife. Eleanor was neither the first queen nor the last to be blamed for a king's actions, but in her case the unsavory conduct of her own administration made it even easier to shift such blame to her.

Eleanor of Castile's queenship is significant in English history for the evolution of a stable financial system for the king's wife, and for the honing this process gave the queen-consort's prerogatives. The estates Eleanor assembled became the nucleus for dower assignments made to later queens of England into the 15th century, and her involvement in this process solidly established a queen-consort's freedom to engage in such transactions. Few later queens exerted themselves in economic activity to the extent Eleanor did, but their ability to do so rested on the precedents settled in her lifetime.

Notes for Edward of England Plantagenet:
Edward I (17 June 1239 – 7 July 1307), also known as Edward Longshanks and the Hammer of the Scots, was King of England from 1272 to 1307. The first son of Henry III, Edward was involved early in the political intrigues of his father's reign, which included an outright rebellion by the English barons. In 1259, he briefly sided with a baronial reform movement, supporting the Provisions of Oxford. After reconciliation with his father, however, he remained loyal throughout the subsequent armed conflict, known as the Second Barons' War. After the Battle of Lewes, Edward was hostage to the rebellious barons, but escaped after a few months and joined the fight against Simon de Montfort. Montfort was defeated at the Battle of Evesham in 1265, and within two years the rebellion was extinguished. With England pacified, Edward left on a crusade to the Holy Land. The crusade accomplished little, and Edward was on his way home in 1272 when he was informed that his father had died. Making a slow return, he reached England in 1274 and he was crowned king at Westminster on 19 August.

Edward's reign had two main phases. He spent the first years reforming royal administration. Through an extensive legal inquiry, Edward investigated the tenure of various feudal liberties, while the law was reformed through a series of statutes regulating criminal and property law. Increasingly, however, Edward's attention was drawn towards military affairs. After suppressing a minor rebellion in Wales in 1276–77, Edward responded to a second rebellion in 1282–83 with a full-scale war of conquest. After a successful campaign, Edward subjected Wales to English rule, built a series of castles and towns in the countryside and settled them with Englishmen. Next, his efforts were directed towards Scotland. Initially invited to arbitrate a succession dispute, Edward claimed feudal suzerainty over the kingdom. In the war that followed, the Scots persevered, even though the English seemed victorious at several points. At the same time there were problems at home. In the mid-1290s, extensive military campaigns required high levels of taxation, and Edward met with both lay and ecclesiastical opposition. These crises were initially averted, but issues remained unsettled. When the king died in 1307, he left to his son, Edward II, an ongoing war with Scotland and many financial and political problems.
Edward I was a tall man for his era, hence the nickname "Longshanks". He was temperamental, and this, along with his height, made him an intimidating man, and he often instilled fear in his contemporaries. Nevertheless, he held the respect of his subjects for the way he embodied the medieval ideal of kingship, as a soldier, an administrator and a man of faith. Modern historians have been more divided on their assessment of the king; while some have praised him for his contribution to the law and administration, others have criticised him for his uncompromising attitude to his nobility. Currently, Edward I is credited with many accomplishments during his reign, including restoring royal authority after the reign of Henry III, establishing parliament as a permanent institution and thereby also a functional system for raising taxes, and reforming the law through statutes. At the same time, he is also often criticised for other actions, such as his brutal conduct towards the Scots, and issuing the Edict of Expulsion in 1290, by which the Jews were expelled from England. The Edict remained in effect for the rest of the Middle Ages, and it would be over 350 years until it was formally overturned in 1656.

Edward was born at the Palace of Westminster on the night of 17–18 June 1239, to King Henry III and Eleanor of Provence.[2] Although the young prince was seriously ill on several occasions, in 1246, 1247, and 1251, he grew up to be strong and healthy.[3] Edward was in the care of Hugh Giffard — father of the future Chancellor Godfrey Giffard — until Bartholomew Pecche took over at Giffard's death in 1246.[4] Among his childhood friends was his cousin Henry of Almain, son of King Henry's brother Richard of Cornwall.[3] Henry of Almain would remain a close companion of the prince, both through the civil war that followed, and later during the crusade.[5]

In 1254, English fears of a Castilian invasion of the English province of Gascony induced Edward's father to arrange a politically expedient marriage between his fourteen-year-old son and Eleanor, the half-sister of King Alfonso X of Castile.[6] Eleanor and Edward were married on 1 November 1254 in the Abbey of Santa María la Real de Las Huelgas in Castile.[7] As part of the marriage agreement, the young prince received grants of land worth 15,000 marks a year.[8] Though the endowments King Henry made were sizable, they offered Edward little independence. He had already received Gascony as early as 1249, but Simon de Montfort, 6th Earl of Leicester, had been appointed as royal lieutenant the year before and, consequently, drew its income, so in practice Edward derived neither authority nor revenue from this province.[9] The grant he received in 1254 included most of Ireland, and much land in Wales and England, including the earldom of Chester, but the king retained much control over the land in question, particularly in Ireland, so Edward's power was limited there as well, and the king derived most of the income from those lands.[10]

From 1254 to 1257, Edward was under the influence of his mother's relatives, known as the Savoyards,[11] the most notable of whom was Peter of Savoy, the queen's uncle.[12] After 1257, Edward increasingly fell in with the Poitevin or Lusignan faction — the half-brothers of his father Henry III — led by such men as William de Valence.[13] This association was significant, because the two groups of privileged foreigners were resented by the established English aristocracy, and they would be at the centre of the ensuing years' baronial reform movement.[14] There were tales of unruly and violent conduct by Edward and his Lusignan kinsmen, which raised questions about the royal heir's personal qualities. The next years would be formative on Edward's character.[15]

Eleanor of Castile died on 28 November 1290. Uncommon for such marriages of the period, the couple loved each other. Moreover like his father, Edward was very devoted to his queen and was faithful to her throughout their married lives—a rarity among monarchs of the time. He was deeply affected by her death. He displayed his grief by erecting twelve so-called Eleanor crosses, one at each place where her funeral cortège stopped for the night.[227] As part of the peace accord between England and France in 1294, it was agreed that Edward should marry the French princess Margaret. The marriage took place in 1299.[228]

Edward and Eleanor had at least fourteen children, perhaps as many as sixteen. Of these, five daughters survived into adulthood, but only one boy outlived Edward — the future King Edward II. Edward I was reportedly concerned with his son's failure to live up to the expectations of an heir to the crown, and at one point decided to exile the prince's favourite Piers Gaveston.[229] Edward may have been aware of his son's bisexual orientation even though he did not throw the prince's favourite from the castle battlements as depicted in Braveheart.

By Margaret, Edward had two sons, both of whom lived into adulthood, and a daughter who died as a child.[230] The Hailes Abbey chronicle indicates that John Botetourt may have been Edward's illegitimate son, however the claim is unsubstantiated.[231]
Child is listed above under (158) Edward of England Plantagenet.


Child of Elizabeth Stafford and John Ferrers is:

172. i. ROBERT DE FERRERS, b. October 31, 1357; d. March 13, 1412/13.

Generation No. 80

171. MALCOLM MACALPIN OF ALBA I (DONALD DASCHATICH OF SCOTS II, CONSTANTINE OF ALBA I, KENNETH MACALPIN OF SCOTLAND, ALPIN, MAC ECHDACH, Eochaid Annuine, MAC EDA, ED F MACH, ECHACH, Eochaidh of Dalraid II, Domnall Brecc, Eochaidh Buide MacAidan of Argyll I, Aidan MacGABRAN OF CABERN, MACDOMBART OF FELSEM, FOLTECHAIN, BRION (BIAN), MacEchach, Eochaid (Eochu) MUGMEDON, IRELAND, MUIREADACH TIREH, MacFhachach, Fiachaiddh Sraibhtine of IRELAND, CARBREE, LIFIOCHAR, Mc CORMARC, CORMAC ULFHAD, MAC AIRT, AIRT AODHFEHR, MAC CONN, CON CREADCHATHACH, MAC FEIDEILMID, FEIDEILMID (FELIM), RACHTMAR, TUATHAL, TEACTHAR, FIACHA FIONN, OLA, FEREDACH, FIONN, FEACHTACH, CRIAMTHANN-NIADH-NAR, LUGHAIDI SRAIBH-NI DEARG, BRESS-NAR-LOTHAR, EOCRADH, FEIDILCH, FIONN, FIONLOCH, ROYGHEN, RUAHD, ASSAMAN, EMINA, ENNA, AIGNEAC, AONGUS, TUIREACH-TEAMRACH, EOCCHADH ALT, LEATHAN, OLIOGL, CAS-FHIACHACH, CONLA CAOMH, IARAN, GLEOFATHACH, MELO, MOLBITHACH, COLETHACH, CAOL-BHREAGH, UGAINEB, MÖR, EOCRADH BUADHACH, DUACH, LADHRACH, FIACHA, TOLGRACH, MUREDACH, BOLGHACH, SIMEON, BREC, AEDAN, GLAS, NUAHDS, FIONNFAIL, GIALCHADH, OLIOGL, AOLCHEON, SIORNA, "SOGHALACH", DEIN, ROITEACHTHACH, MAN, AONGUS, OLMUCACH, FIACHA, LAMBRAINN, SMOMGHALL, ENEOATH, TIGERNSS, FOLL-AICH, EETHRIAL, IRIAL, IARIL EURLIALUS, FAIDH (FAITH), MACEREMON, HEREMON (2ND MONARCH) OF IRELAND, TEA TEPHIC, SCOTA, PRINCESS OF EGYPT, PHARAOH NEKANEBOV ‘NECHO’ II, PASMITEK I, NEKO I, SHERSESE I, TEFEKHTII, PRINCE OF EGYPT, BAKENRANEF (BOCCORIS) WAH KA I RE, TEFEKHTHE (I) SHERSESE RE OF EGYPT, OSORKON IV C OF MAAT.
SHOSHONK V\textsuperscript{A} AAKHEPERRE, STEPENRE\textsuperscript{A} PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONK\textsuperscript{A} III, TATELOT\textsuperscript{A} II, OSORKON\textsuperscript{A} II, TAKELOT\textsuperscript{A} I, OSORKON\textsuperscript{A} I, SHOSHONK\textsuperscript{A} I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT\textsuperscript{A}, THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA\textsuperscript{A} SHOSHENQ) was born 897.

Notes for MALCOLM MACALPIN OF ALBA I:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

[House of Morney.FTW]

Máel Coluim mac Domnaill (anglicised Malcolm I) (c. 900–954) was king of Scots (before 943 – 954), becoming king when his cousin Causantín mac Æda abdicated to become a monk. He was the son of Domnall mac Causantín.

Since his father was known to have died in the year 900, Malcolm must have been born no later than 901, by the 940s he was no longer a young man, and may have become impatient in awaiting the throne. Willingly or not—the 11th-century Prophecy of Berchán, a verse history in the form of a supposed prophecy, states that it was not a voluntary decision that Constantine II abdicated in 943 and entered a monastery, leaving the kingdom to Malcolm.[1]

Seven years later the Chronicle of the Kings of Alba says:

[Malcolm I] plundered the English as far as the river Tees, and he seized a multitude of people and many herds of cattle: and the Scots called this the raid of Albidosorum, that is, Nainndisi. But others say that Constantine made this raid, asking of the king, Malcolm, that the kingship should be given to him for a week’s time, so that he could visit the English. In fact, it was Malcolm who made the raid, but Constantine incited him, as I have said.[2]

Woolf suggests that the association of Constantine with the raid is a late addition, one derived from a now-lost saga or poem.[3]

In 945 Edmund of Wessex, having expelled Amlaíb Cuaran (Olaf Sihtricsson) from Northumbria, devastated Cumbria and blinded two sons of Domnall mac Eógain, king of Strathclyde. It is said that he then "let" or "commended" Strathclyde to Máel Coluim in return for an alliance.[4] What is to be understood by "let" or "commended" is unclear, but it may well mean that Máel Coluim had been the overlord of Strathclyde and that Edmund recognised this while taking lands in southern Cumbria for himself.[5]

The Chronicle of the Kings of Alba says that Máel Coluim took an army into Moray "and slew Cellach". Cellach is not named in the surviving genealogies of the rulers of Moray, and his identity is unknown.[6]

Máel Coluim appears to have kept his agreement with the late English king, which may have been renewed with the new king, Edmund having been murdered in 946 and succeeded by his brother Edred. Eric Bloodaxe took York in 948, before being driven out by Edred, and when Amlaíb Cuaran again took York in 949–950, Máel Coluim raided Northumbria as far south as the Tees taking "a multitude of people and many herds of cattle" according to the Chronicle.[7] The Annals of Ulster for 952 report a battle between "the men of Alba and the Britons [of Strathclyde] and the English" against the foreigners, i.e. the Northmen or the Norse-Gaels. This battle is not reported by the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, and it is unclear whether it should be related to the expulsion of Amlaíb Cuaran from York or the return of Eric Bloodaxe.[8]

The Annals of Ulster report that Máel Coluim was killed in 954. Other sources place this most probably in the Mearns, either at Fetteresso following the Chronicle, or at Dunnottar following the Prophecy of Berchán. He was buried on Iona.[9] Máel Coluim’s sons Dub and Cináed were later kings.

Notes
1.^ Woolf, Pictland to Alba, p. 175; Anderson, Early Sources, pp. 444–448; Broun, "Constantine II".
5. ASC Ms. A, s.a. 946; Duncan, pp. 23–24; but see also Smyth, pp. 222–223 for an alternative reading.
6. It may be that Cellach was related to Cuncar, Mormaer of Angus, and that this event is connected with the apparent feud that led to the death of Máel Coluim’s son Cináedin 977.
7. Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, Ms. D, s.a. 948, Ms. B, s.a. 946; Duncan, p. 24.
8. Early Sources, p. 451. The corresponding entry in the Annals of the Four Masters, s.a. 950, states that the Northmen were the victors, which would suggest that it should be associated with Eric.
9. Early Sources, pp. 452–454. Some versions of the Chronicle, and the Chronicle of Melrose, are read as placing Máel Coluim’s death at Blervie, near Forres.

References
For primary sources see also External links below.


Child of MALCOLM MACALPIN OF ALBA I is:
173. i. KENNETH MACALPIN OF ALBA II, b. 932.


Child of ROBERT DE FERRERS and MARGARET DE SPENCER is:
174. i. PHILLIPPA 45. DE FERRERS, b. 1393; d. 1458.

Generation No. 81

Notes for Kenneth MacAlpin of Alba II:
[Stem of the House of Conor.FTW]

[House of Morna.FTW]

Dub mac Malcolm (Modern Gaelic: Dubh mac Mhaol Chalum),[1] sometimes anglicised as Duff MacMalcolm,[2] called Dén, "the Vehement"[3] and Niger, "the Black"[4] (died 967) was king of Alba. He was son of Malcolm I (Mael Coluim mac Domnaill) and succeeded to the throne when Indulf (Ildulb mac Causantín) was killed in 962.

While later chroniclers such as John of Fordun supplied a great deal of information on Dub's life and reign, including tales of witchcraft and treason, almost all of this is rejected by modern historians. There are very few sources for the reign of Alba of which the Chronicle of the Kings of Alba and a single entry in the Annals of Ulster are the closest to contemporary.

The Chronicle records that during Dub's reign bishop Fothach, most likely bishop of St Andrews or of Dunkeld, died. The remaining report is of a battle between Dub and Cuilén, son of king Ildub. Dub won the battle, fought "upon the ridge of Crup", in which Duchad, abbot of Dunkeld, sometimes supposed to be an ancestor of Crínán of Dunkeld, and Dubdon, the mormaer of Atholl, died.

The various accounts differ on what happened afterwards. The Chronicle claims that Dub was driven out of the kingdom. The Latin material interpolated in Andrew of Wyntoun's Orygynale Cronyk states that he was murdered at Forres, and links this to an eclipse of the sun which can be dated to 20 July 966. The Annals of Ulster report only: "Dub mac Malcolm, king of Alba, was killed by the Scots themselves"; the usual way of reporting a death in internal strife, and place the death in 967. It has been suggested that Sueno's stone, near Forres, may be a monument to Dub, erected by his brother Kenneth II (Cináed mac Malcolm). It is presumed that Dub was killed or driven out by Cuiłen, who became king after Dub's death, or by his supporters.

Dub left at least one son, Kenneth III (Cináed mac Dub). Although his descendants did not compete successfully for the kingship of Alba after Cináed was killed in 1005, they did hold the mormaerdom of Fife. The MacDub (or MacDuff) held the mormaerdom, and later earldom, until 1371.

Child of Kenneth Alba and Lady Leinster is:

175. i. Malcolm MacKenneth of\(^{36}\) Alba II, b. 954; d. 1034.

174. Phillippa\(^{35}\) de Ferrers (Robert\(^{84}\), Elizabeth\(^{83}\) Stafford, Margaret\(^{82}\) de Audley, Margaret\(^{81}\) de Clare, Joan deacre\(^{80}\) Plantagenet, Edward of England\(^{79}\), Henry III of England\(^{78}\), John of England\(^{77}\), Henry II “Curtmantele of England”\(^{76}\), Empress Matilda of England\(^{75}\), Henry I of\(^{74}\) England, William I “The Conqueror”, King of England, Robert\(^{72}\) de Normandy, Richard of\(^{71}\) Normandy, Richard\(^{70}\) I, Duke of Normandy, William Longsword of\(^{69}\) Normandy, Poppe de Valois of\(^{68}\), Pepin of Berenger and\(^{67}\) Baueax, Pepin\(^{66}\) II, Lord of Peronne Quentin of Vermandois, Bernhard of\(^{65}\) Italy, Bertha\(^{64}\) de Toulouse, William\(^{63}\), Makir Theuderic of\(^{62}\) Toulouse, Hanini bar Ado\(^{61}\) David, Iudundad “Dara” Sasanid of\(^{60}\) Persia, Yazdagird III of\(^{59}\), Prince of Sasanian Persia\(^{58}\) Shahrihar, Khusraw\(^{57}\) II, Hormizd\(^{56}\) IV, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Khushraw (Chrosroie) I of\(^{55}\) Kings, Kavadh I\(^{54}\) (Kobad), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Emperor of Sasanian Persia\(^{53}\) Peroz, Yazdagird II, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Varahan\(^{51}\) (Bahram), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Yazdagird I, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Shapur\(^{49}\) III, Emperor of Persia, Shapur\(^{48}\) II, Emperor of Persia, Igra\(^{47}\) Hormiz, Princess of Seistan, King of Seistan\(^{46}\) Vasudeva, Vasudeva\(^{45}\) III, King of Kushana, Vasudeva\(^{44}\) II, King of Kushana, Kanishka\(^{43}\) III, King of Kushana, King of Kushana\(^{42}\) Vasudeva, Hudisiva\(^{41}\) I, King of Kushana, Kanishka\(^{40}\) I, King of Kushans, Vema\(^{39}\) Kadiphises II, King of the Kushans, Princess of Peshwar, Princess of W. Gandara\(^{37}\) Calliope, King of W. Gandara\(^{36}\) Hippotroasts, Strato\(^{35}\) I, King of Mathura, Princess of Bactria\(^{34}\) Agathoclea, King of Bactria\(^{33}\) Agathocles, Sundry\(^{32}\) Maurya, Princess of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire\(^{31}\) Brihadratha, King of Kashmir and Gandhara\(^{30}\) Kunal, Ashoka\(^{29}\) Vardhana, King of Maurya Empire, Bindusa\(^{28}\) (Amitrocates), King of Maurya Empire, King of Maurya Empire\(^{27}\) Chandragupta, Maurya\(^{26}\) V, of Magadha, Maurya\(^{25}\) IV of\(^{24}\) Taxila, Maurya\(^{23}\) III of\(^{22}\), Maurya\(^{21}\) II of\(^{20}\) Princess of Persia\(^{19}\) Chandravarna, Princess of Persia\(^{18}\) Atossa, Princess of Egypt\(^{17}\) Neithyta, Habibre\(^{16}\) Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek I\(^{15}\) I, Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos “Neche” II, Psamtek II, I, Shepserese\(^{14}\) Teferakhht, Prince of Egypt, Bakenrenef (Bocchoris) Wah Ka\(^{13}\) Re, Tefnakhte I, Shepse Re of Egypt, Osorkon IV C’ of\(^{12}\) MAAT, Shoshonk I\(^{11}\) Aakheperre, Stepene\(^{9}\) Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleopolis, Shoshonk II, Takeiot II, Osorkon II, Takeiot I, Osorkon I, Shoshonk I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot, The Great Chief of the Ma\(^{4}\) Shoshenq) was born 1393, and died 1458. She married Thomas Greene. He was born February 10, 1399/00.

Child of Phillippa de Ferrers and Thomas Greene is:

176. i. Thomas\(^{36}\) Greene, b. 1421, England; d. 1462, England.

Generation No. 82
The former is probable because later English-speaking sources called him "Grim"; Old Irish donn has similar
meaning to Old English greimm, which means "power" or "authority"; see Skene, Chronicles, p. 98; Hudson, Celtic Kings, p. 105.

3.^ Duncan, p. 22; Smyth, pp. 220–221 and 225, prefers to assume that Kenneth had a son, Giric, who ruled jointly with his father; also ESSH, p. 522, note 4.

4.^ ESSH, p. 520, note 5; Smyth, pp. 221–222, makes Gille Coemgáin the son of this Kenneth following ESSH, p. 580.

5.^ Annals of Ulster and Chronicon Scotorum, s.a. 1005; the various versions of the Chronicle of the Kings of Alba and the Prophecy of Berchán agree on the site of the battle; ESSH, pp 522–524. Duncan, p. 22, suggests that the killer's name should be read as Giric mac Cínáeda, "Giric son of Kenneth", a brother of Malcolm. If not, this Giric was presumably also killed at about this time.

6.^ This Cináed and Boite's son, Smyth, pp. 220–221; Duncan, p. 32. See also ESSH, p. 571, note 7.


[edit] References
For primary sources see also External links below.


[edit] External links
CELT: Corpus of Electronic Texts at University College Cork includes the Annals of Ulster, Tigernach, the Four Masters and Innisfallen, the Chronicon Scotorum, the Lebor Bretnach (which includes the Duan Albanach), Genealogies, and various Saints' Lives. Most are translated into English, or translations are in progress.

(CKA) The Chronicle of the Kings of Alba

Child of MALCOLM ALBA and AELGIFU is:

177. i. BETHOC (BEATRIX) MACKENNETH OF 87 SCOTLAND, b. 984.

Child of THOMAS GREENE and MATILDA THROGMORTON is:
178. i. JOHN8 DE GREENE, b. 1445, England; d. 1483, England.

Generation No. 83

177. BETHOC (BEATRIX) MACKENNETH OF37 SCOTLAND (MALCOLM MACKENNETH OF36 ALBA II, KENNETH MACALPIN OF35, MALCOLM MACALPIN OF34, DONALD DASCHTACH OF29 SCOTS II, CONSTANTINE OF28 ALBA I, KENNETH MACALPIN OF27 SCOTLAND, ALPIN28 MAC ECHDACH, Eochaíd ANNUNE29 MAC EDÁ, ED I FIND MAC8 ECHACH, Eochaíd77 III, Eochaíd of76 DALRAIDA II, DOMONGART75 DE DALRAIDA II, DOMNALL BRECQ74, Eochaíd BUIDE MACAIDAN of73 ARGyll I, AIDAN MACGABRAN OF72, GABRAN (GABRAN) MACDOMANGART OF71, FELDELM70 FOLTCHAIN, BRION (BIAN)59 MAC ECHACH, Eochaíd (EOCHU) MUGMEDON OF58 IRELAND, MUIREADACH TIREH57 MACFIAICHALL II, FIACHAIDH SRAIBHTHINE OF56 IRELAND, CARBRE LIFIOCHAR55 MC CORMARC, CORMAC ULFHADA64 MAC AIRT, AIRT AODANCE3 MAC CONN, CONN Ceadchathach32 MAC FEIDEILMID, FEIDHLIMIDH (FELIM)63 RATCHMAR, TUATHAL60 TEACHTMAR, FIACHA FIONN59 OLA, FEREDACH58 FIONN-FEACHTNACH, CRIAMTHANN-NIADH-NÁR57, LUGHAIDH SRÍABH-NÁIR56 DEARG, BRESS-NAR-LOTHAR55, Eochaídh54 FEIDLIOCH, FIONN53, FIONNLOGH52, ROUGHEN51 RUADH, ASSAMAN50 EHena, ENNA50 AIGNEAC, AONGUS50 TUIREMEACH-TEAMRACH, Eochaídh ALT51 LEATHAN, OLIOL56 CAS-FIAICHALL, CONLA55 CAOMH, IARAN54 GLEOFATHACH, MELG53 MOLBHITHACH, COLETHACH42 CAOL-BREACH, UGAINE41 MÓR, Eochaídh41 BUADHACH, DUACH39 LADHRACH, FIacha38 TOLGARACH, MUREDACH37 BOLGACH, SIMEON36 BREAČ, AEDAN35 GLAS, NUADHAS34 FIONNFHAIL, GIALCHADH33, OLIOL32 AOLCHEOIN, SIOGNA31, “SAOGHALACH”, DEIN30, ROTHACHTAICH29, MAIN28, AONGUS27 OLMUACUH, FIACHA26 LABHRAINN, SMOMGHAL25, EINBRETH24, TIGERNNAS23, FOLL-AICH22, EITHRIL1, IRIAL (IARAL ERIALUS) FAIDH (FAITH)20 MACEREMOIN, HEREMON (2ND MONARCH) OF19 IRELAND, TEA TEPHI18 SCOTA, PRINCESS OF EGYPT, PHARAOH NECTANEBO ‘NECHO 17 II’, PSAMTEKH2 I, NEKO15 I, SHEPSES24 TEFNAKHTII, PRINCE OF EGYPT, BAKENRAF (BOCCORIS) WAH KÊI RE, TEFNAKHTI I, SHEPSES RE OF15 EGYPT, OSORKON IV OF41 MAAT, SHOSHONK10 AAKHEPERRE, STEPENKH9 PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONK8 III, TAKELOT7 II, OSORKON6 II, TAKELOT5 I, OSORKON5 I, SHOSHONK4 I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT2, THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA1 SHOSHENQ) was born 984. She married CRÍNÁN (GRIMUS) THE THANE OF ATHOLL, son of DUNCAN MOARMER DE ATHOLE. He was born 978, and died 1045.

Notes for CRÍNÁN (GRIMUS) THE THANE OF ATHOLL:
[Stem of the House of Connor.FTW]

Crínnán of Dunkeld (died 1045) was the lay abbot of the diocese of Dunkeld, and perhaps the Mormaer of Atholl. Crínnán was progenitor of the House of Dunkeld, the dynasty which would rule Scotland until the later 13th century.

Crínnán was married to Bethoc, daughter of King Malcolm II of Scotland (reigned 1005–1034). As Malcolm II had no son, the strongest hereditary claim to the Scottish throne descended through Bethóc, and Crínnán’s eldest son Donnchad I (reigned 1034–1040), became King of Scots. Some sources indicate that Malcolm II designated Duncan as his successor under the rules of tanistry because there were other possible claimants to the throne.

Crínnán’s second son, Maldred of Allerdale, held the title of Lord of Cumbria. It is said that from him, the Earls of Dunbar, for example Patrick Dunbar, 9th Earl of Dunbar, descend in unbroken male line.

Crínnán was killed in battle in 1045 at Dunkeld.

Sir Iain Moncreiffe argued he belonged to a Scottish sept of the Irish Cenél Conaill royal dynasty.[1]

Crínnán as Lay Abbot of Dunkeld
The monastery of Saint Columba was founded on the north bank of the River Tay in the 6th century or early 7th century following the expedition of Columba into the land of the Picts. Probably originally constructed as a simple group of wattle huts, the monastery - or at least its church - was rebuilt in the 9th century by Kenneth I of Scotland (reigned 843–858). Caustantín of the Picts brought Scotland’s share of the relics of Columba from Iona to Dunkeld at the same time others were taken to Kells in Ireland, to protect them from Viking raids. Dunkeld became the prime bishopric in eastern Scotland until supplanted in importance by St Andrews since the 10th century.
While the title of Hereditary Lay Abbot was a feudal position that was often exercised in name only, Crinán does seem to have acted as Abbot in charge of the monastery in his time. He was thus a man of high position in both clerical and secular society.

The magnificent semi-ruined Dunkeld Cathedral, built in stages between 1260 and 1501, stands today on the grounds once occupied by the monastery. The Cathedral contains the only surviving remains of the previous monastic society: a course of red stone visible in the east choir wall that may be re-used from an earlier building, and two stone 9th-century-10th-century cross-slabs in the Cathedral Museum.

Child of Bethoc Scotland and Crinan Atholl is:

179.  

i. DUNCAN 'THE GRACIOUS' MACCRINAN OF 58, SCOTLAND I. b. 1004.


Child of John De Greene and Edith Latimer is:

180.  

i. JOHN 86 GREENE, b. 1470, England; d. 1520, England.

Generation No. 84

179.  DUNCAN 'THE GRACIOUS' MACCRINAN OF 58, SCOTLAND I (BETHOC (BEATRIX) MACKENNETH OF 87, MALCOLM MACKENNETH OF 56, ALBA II, KENNETH MACALPIN OF 55, MALCOLM MACALPIN OF 54, DONALD DASCHATACH OF 53 SCOTS II, CONSTANTINE OF 52, ALBA I, KENNETH MACALPIN OF 51 SCOTLAND, ALPIN 50 MACH EADA, ED I FIND MACH 58 ECACH, ECACH, ECACH 77 III, ECACH OF 69 DALRAIDA II, DOMONGART 62 DE DALRAIDA II, DOMNALL BRECC 58, ECACH, BUIDE MACAIDAN OF 57 ARGYLL I, AIDAN MACGABRAN OF 56, GABRAN (GABHRAN) MACDOMANGART OF 51, FELDELY 70 FOLCHAIN, BRON (BIANN 68 MAC'ECACH, ECACH (EOUCHU) MUGMEDON OF 58, IRELAND, MIUREADACH TIREH 57 MACFIACHACH II, FIACHIDAID SRABHTHINE OF 56, IRELAND, CAIRBRE LIFIOCHAR 56 MC
In the animated television series Gargoyles he is depicted as a weak and conniving king who assassinates those who he believes threaten his rule. He even tries to assassinate Macbeth. However like in actual history he is killed in battle.

Notes

Duncan is depicted as an elderly King in Macbeth by William Shakespeare. He is killed in his sleep by the protagonist, Macbeth.

In the animated television series Gargoyles he is depicted as a weak and conniving king who assassinates those who he believes threaten his rule. He even tries to assassinate Macbeth. However like in actual history he is killed in battle.

Notes

Duncan was the third son of Malcolm II, and his mother came from the old Moray line. He became king after the death of his brother, Donnchadh, in 1018. During his reign, he faced numerous challenges, including a rebellion by his brother, Donnchadh, and a failed invasion of the Isle of Iona. Despite these challenges, Duncan managed to consolidate his power and maintain his rule for over 20 years. His reign was marked by stability and prosperity, and he was remembered as a wise and just king. After his death in 1040, Duncan was succeeded by his son, Malcolm III, who continued his legacy of power and authority.
1. A b Broun, "Duncan I (d. 1040)".
2. Donnchadh mac Crínáin is the Mediaeval Gaelic form.
7. Oram, David I, p. 233, n. 26: the identification is from the Orkneyinga saga but Máel Muire's grandson Máel Coluim, Earl of Atholl is known to have married Donald III's granddaughter Hextilda.
9. Broun, "Duncan I (d. 1040)"; the date is from Marianus Scotus and the killing is recorded by the Annals of Tigernach.

References

Anderson, Alan Orr, Early Sources of Scottish History AD 500 to 1286, volume one. Republished with corrections, Paul Watkins, Stamford, 1990. ISBN 1-871615-03-8


Child of Duncan Scotland and Aelflaed Northumbria is:

181. i. MALCOLM III MACDUNCAN CANMORE of Scotland, b. 1031; d. 1093.

181. MALCOLM III MACDUNCAN CANMORE OF 89 SCOTLAND (DUNCAN THE GRACIOUS MACCRINAN OF, BETHOC (BEATRIX) MACKENNETH OF, MALCOLM MACKENNETH OF ALBA II, KENNETH MACALPIN OF, MALCOLM MACALPIN OF, DONALD DASCHTACH OF, SCOTTS II, CONSTANTINE OF ALBA I, KENNETH MACALPIN OF, SCOTLAND, ALPINE MAC ECHDACH, ECHDACH ANNUNE 79 MAC EDA, ED I FIND MACHI 78 ECHACH, ECHDACH 77, ECHDHACH OF 76 DALRAIDH II, DOMONGART 75 DE DALRAIDH, DONNALL BRECC 74, ECHDACH BIUDE MACADHAN OF 73 ARGULL I, AIDAN MACGABRAN OF 72, GABRAN (GABHRAN) MACDOMANGART OF 71, FEDELM 70 FOLTCHAIN, BRION (BIAN) 79 MAC ECHACH, ECHDACH (EUCHAS) MUGMEDON OF 58 IRELAND, MUIREADCH TIREH 67 MACFHIACHACH II, FIACHHDH SRAIBHTHINE OF 56 IRELAND, CARBRE LIFIACHACH 65 MC CORMARC, CORCARM ULFHADA 64 MAC AIRT, AIRT AODHIN 63 MAC CONN, CONN Ceadchathach 62 MAC FEIDEILMID, FEDELIUMIDH (FELIM) 61 RACHTMAR, TUAITHL 60 TEAHTMAR, FIACHA FIONN 59 OLA, FEREDACH 58 FIONN-FEACHTACH, CRIAMTHANN-NIADH-NAR, LUGHAIHDH SRIABHN 56 DEARG, BRESS-NAR-LOTHAR 55, ECHDACH 54 FEIDLIOCH, FIONN 53, FIONNLOCH 52, ROIGHEN 51 RUAITH, ASSAMAN 50 EMHNA, ENNA 49 AIGNEAC, AONGUS 48 TURMEACH-TEAMRACH, ECHDACH AIT 47 LEATHAN, OLIOLO 46 CAS-FIACHLACH, CONLA 45 CAOMH, IARAN 44 GLEOFATHACH, MELOG 43 MOLBHTHACH, COLETHACH 42 CAOL-BHREACH, UGAIN 41 MÓR, ECHDACH 40 BUADHCHACH, DUACH 39 LADHRACH, FIACHA 38 TOLGRACH, MUREADHCH 37 BOLGACH, SIMEON 36 BREAIC, AEDAN 35 GLAS, NUIADHAS 34 FIONNFAIL, GIALCHADH 33, OLIOLO 32 AOLCHEIN, SIORA 31: "SAOGHALACH", DEIN 30, ROTHEACHTACH 29, MAIN 28, AONGUS 27 OLMUCHAICH, FIACHA 26 LABHRAINN, SMIOGMHALL 25, ENBOATH 24, TIGERNAM 23, FOID-AIDH 22, EITHRIAL 21, IREID (IAREL) EURIALUS) FAIDH (FAITH) 20 MACREMOIN, HEREMON (2ND MONARCH) OF 19 IRELAND, TEA TEPHI 18 SCOTA, PRINCESS OF EGYPT, PHARAOH NECTANEBO "NECHO II", "PSAMTEK 18 I, NEKO 15 I, SHEPSESRE 14 TEFNAKHTII, PRINCE OF EGYPT, BAKRENKAH (BOCCHORIS) WAH KA 13 RE, TEFNKH (I) SHESSES RE OF 12 EGYPT, OSOROK IV 11 C OF 11 MAAT, SHOSHONK VI 10 AAKHEPERRE, STEPENRE 9 PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONK III, TAKELD 8 II, OSOROKN 7 II, TAKELOT 7 I, OSOROKN 7 I, SHOSHONK I, GREAT CHIEF OF THE MESHWESH, NIMLOT, THE GREAT CHIEF OF THE MA 5 SHOGENQ) was born 1031, and died 1093. He married SAINT MARGARET OF SCOTLAND, daughter of EDWARD EXILE and AGATHA VON BRAUNCHWEIG. She was born 1045, and died 1093.

Notes for MALCOLM III MACDUNCAN CANMORE OF SCOTLAND:
Máel Coluim mac Donnchada (Modern Gaelic: Maol Chaluim mac Dhonnchadh, [1] called in most Anglicised regnal lists Malcolm III, and in later centuries nicknamed Canmore, "Big Head", [2] [3] either literally or in reference to his leadership, [4] "Long-neck"; [5] died 13 November 1093), was King of Scots. It has also been argued recently that the real "Malcolm Canmore" was this Malcolm's great-grandson Malcolm IV, who is given this name in the contemporary notice of his death. [6] He was the eldest son of King Duncan I (Donnchad mac Crínáin). Malcolm's long reign, lasting 35 years, preceded the beginning of the Scoto-Norman age.

Malcolm's Kingdom did not extend over the full territory of modern Scotland; the north and west of Scotland remained in Scandinavian, Norse-Gael and Gaelic control, and the areas under the control of the Kings of Scots would not advance much beyond the limits set by Malcolm II (Máel Coluim mac Cináeda) until the 12th century. Malcolm III fought a succession of wars against the Kingdom of England, which may have had as their goal the conquest of the English earldom of Northumbria. However, these wars did not result in any significant advances southwards. Malcolm's main achievement is to have continued a line which would rule Scotland for many years,[7] although his role as 'founder of a dynasty' has more to do with the propaganda of his youngest son David, and his descendants, than with any historical reality. [8]

Malcolm's second wife, Saint Margaret of Scotland, was later beatified and is Scotland's only royal saint. However, Malcolm himself gained no reputation for piety. With the notable exception of Dunfermline Abbey he is not definitely associated with major religious establishments or ecclesiastical reforms.

Malcolm's father Duncan I (Donnchadh mac Crínáin), was later beatified and is Scotland's only royal saint. However, Malcolm himself gained no reputation for piety. With the notable exception of Dunfermline Abbey he is not definitely associated with major religious establishments or ecclesiastical reforms.

Malcolm's father Duncan I (Donnchadh mac Cináeda), Duncan's maternal grandfather. According to John of Fordun, whose account is the original source of part at least of William Shakespeare's Macbeth, Malcolm's mother was a niece of Siward, Earl of Northumbria, [9] [10] but an earlier king-list gives her the Gaelic name Suthen. [11] Other sources claim that either a daughter or niece would have been too young to fit the timeline, thus the likely relative would have been Siward's own sister Sybil, which may have translated into Gaelic as Suthen.
Duncan's reign was not successful and he was killed by Macbeth (Mac Bethad mac Findlaích) on 15 August 1040. Although Shakespeare's Macbeth presents Malcolm as a grown man and his father as an old one, it appears that Duncan was still young in 1040,[12] and Malcolm and his brother Donalbane (Donnall Bán) were children.[13] Malcolm's family did attempt to overthrow Macbeth in 1045, but Malcolm's grandfather Crínán of Dunkeld was killed in the attempt.[14]

Soon after the death of Duncan his two young sons were sent away for greater safety — exactly where is the subject of debate. According to one version, Malcolm (then aged about 9) was sent to England, and his younger brother Donalbane was sent to the Isles.[15][16] Based on Fordun's account, it was assumed that Malcolm passed most of Macbeth's seventeen year reign in the Kingdom of England at the court of Edward the Confessor.[17][18]

According to an alternative version, Malcolm's mother took both sons into exile at the court of Thorfinn Sigurdsson, Earl of Orkney, an enemy of Macbeth's family, and perhaps Duncan's kinsman by marriage.[19]

An English invasion in 1054, with Siward, Earl of Northumbria, in command, had as its goal the installation of Máel Coluim, "son of the King of the Cumbrians (i.e. of Strathclyde)". This Máel Coluim, perhaps a son of Owen the Bald, disappears from history after this brief mention. He has been confused with King Malcolm III.[20][21] In 1057 various chroniclers report the death of Macbeth at Malcolm's hand, on 15 August 1057 at Lumphanan in Aberdeenshire.[22][23] Macbeth was succeeded by his stepson Lulach, who was crowned at Scone, probably on 8 September 1057. Lulach was killed by Malcolm, "by treachery",[24] near Huntly on 23 April 1058. After this, Malcolm became king, perhaps being inaugurated on 25 April 1058, although only John of Fordun reports this.[25]

If Orderic Vitalis is to be relied upon, one of Malcolm's earliest actions as King may have been to travel south to the court of Edward the Confessor in 1059 to arrange a marriage with Edward's kinswoman Margaret, who had arrived in England two years before from Hungary.[26] If he did visit the English court, he was the first reigning King of Scots to do so in more than eighty years. If a marriage agreement was made in 1059, however, it was not kept, and this may explain the Scots invasion of Northumbria in 1061 when Lindisfarne was plundered.[27] Equally, Malcolm's raids in Northumbria may have been related to the disputed "Kingdom of the Cumbrians", reestablished by Earl Siward in 1054, which was under Malcolm's control by 1070.[28]

The Orkneyinga saga reports that Malcolm married the widow of Thorfinn Sigurdsson, Ingibiorg, a daughter of Finn Arnesson.[29] Although Ingibiorg is generally assumed to have died shortly before 1070, it is possible that she died much earlier, around 1058.[30] The Orkneyinga Saga records that Malcolm and Ingibiorg had a son, Duncan II (Donnchad mac Maíl Coluim), who was later king.[5] Some Medieval commentators, following William of Malmesbury, claimed that Duncan was illegitimate, but this claim is propaganda reflecting the need of Malcolm's descendants by Margaret to undermine the claims of Duncan's descendants, the Meic Uilleim.[31] Malcolm's son Domnall, whose death is reported in 1085, is not mentioned by the author of the Orkneyinga Saga. He is assumed to have been born to Ingibiorg.[32]

Malcolm's marriage to Ingibiorg secured him peace in the north and west. The Heimskringla tells that her father Finn had been an adviser to Harald Hardraade and, after falling out with Harald, was then made an Earl by Sveyn Estridsson, King of Denmark, which may have been another recommendation for the match.[33] Malcolm enjoyed a peaceful relationship with the Earldom of Orkney, ruled jointly by his stepsons, Paul and Erlend Thorfinnsson. The Orkneyinga Saga reports strife with Norway but this is probably misplaced as it associates this with Magnus Barefoot, who became king of Norway only in 1093, the year of Malcolm's death.[34]

Although he had given sanctuary to Tostig Godwinson when the Northumbrians drove him out, Malcolm was not directly involved in the ill-fated invasion of England by Harald Hardraade and Tostig in 1066, which ended in defeat and death at the battle of Stamford Bridge.[35] In 1068, he granted asylum to a group of English exiles fleeing from William of Normandy, among them Agatha, widow of Edward the Confessor's nephew Edward the Exile, and her children: Edgar Ætheling and his sisters Margaret and Cristina. They were accompanied by Gospatric, Earl of Northumbria. The exiles were disappointed, however, if they had expected immediate assistance from the Scots.[36]

In 1069 the exiles returned to England, to join a spreading revolt in the north. Even though Gospatric and Siward's son Waltheof submitted by the end of the year, the arrival of a Danish army under Sveyn Estridsson seemed to
ensure that William's position remained weak. Malcolm decided on war, and took his army south into Cumbria and across the Pennines, wasting Teesdale and Cleveland then marching north, loaded with loot, to Wearmouth. There Malcolm met Edgar and his family, who were invited to return with him, but did not. As Sweyn had by now been bought off with a large Danegeld, Malcolm took his army home. In reprisal, William sent Gospatrick to raid Scotland through Cumbria. In return, the Scots fleet raided the Northumbrian coast where Gospatrick's possessions were concentrated.[37] Late in the year, perhaps shipwrecked on their way to a European exile, Edgar and his family again arrived in Scotland, this time to remain. By the end of 1070, Malcolm had married Edgar's sister Margaret, the future Saint Margaret of Scotland.[38]

The naming of their children represented a break with the traditional Scots Regal names such as Malcolm, Cínáed and Æd. The point of naming Margaret's sons, Edward after her father Edward the Exile, Edmund for her grandfather Edmund Ironside, Ethelred for her great-grandfather Ethelred the Unready and Edgar for her great-great-grandfather Edgar and her brother, briefly the elected king, Edgar Ætheling, was unlikely to be missed in England, where William of Normandy's grasp on power was far from secure.[39] Whether the adoption of the classical Alexander for the future Alexander I of Scotland (either for Pope Alexander II or for Alexander the Great) and the biblical David for the future David I of Scotland represented a recognition that William of Normandy would not be easily removed, or was due to the repetition of Anglo-Saxon Royal name—another Edmund had preceded Edgar—is not known.[40] Margaret also gave Malcolm two daughters, Edith, who married Henry I of England, and Mary, who married Eustace III of Boulogne.

In 1072, with the Harrying of the North completed and his position again secure, William of Normandy came north with an army and a fleet. Malcolm met William at Abernethy and, in the words of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle "became his man" and handed over his eldest son Duncan as a hostage and arranged peace between William and Edgar.[41] Accepting the overlordship of the king of the English was no novelty, previous kings had done so without result. The same was true of Malcolm; his agreement with the English king was followed by further raids into Northumbria, which led to further trouble in the earldom and the killing of Bishop William Walcher at Gateshead. In 1080, William sent his son Robert Curthose north with an army while his brother Odo punished the Northumbrians. Malcolm again made peace, and this time kept it for over a decade.[42]

Malcolm faced little recorded internal opposition, with the exception of Lulach's son Máel Snechtai. In an unusual entry, for the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle contains little on Scotland, it says that in 1078:

“ Malcholom [Máel Coluim] seized the mother of Mælslahtan [Máel Snechtai] ... and all his treasures, and his cattle; and he himself escaped with difficulty.[43] ”

Whatever provoked this strife, Máel Snechtai survived until 1085.[44]

[edit] Malcolm and William Rufus

William Rufus, "the Red", King of the English (1087-1100). When William Rufus became king of England after his father's death, Malcolm did not intervene in the rebellions by supporters of Robert Curthose which followed. In 1091, however, William Rufus confiscated Edgar Ætheling's lands in England, and Edgar fled north to Scotland. In May, Malcolm marched south, not to raid and take slaves and plunder, but to besiege Newcastle, built by Robert Curthose in 1080. This appears to have been an attempt to advance the frontier south from the River Tweed to the River Tees. The threat was enough to bring the English king back from Normandy, where he had been fighting Robert Curthose. In September, learning of William Rufus's approaching army, Malcolm withdrew north and the English followed. Unlike in 1072, Malcolm was prepared to fight, but a peace was arranged by Edgar Ætheling and Robert Curthose whereby Malcolm again acknowledged the overlordship of the English king.[45]

In 1092, the peace began to break down. Based on the idea that the Scots controlled much of modern Cumbria, it had been supposed that William Rufus's new castle at Carlisle and his settlement of English peasants in the surrounds was the cause. However, it is unlikely that Malcolm did control Cumbria, and the dispute instead concerned the estates granted to Malcolm by William Rufus's father in 1072 for his maintenance when visiting England. Malcolm sent messengers to discuss the question and William Rufus agreed to a meeting. Malcolm travelled south to Gloucester, stopping at Wilton Abbey to visit his daughter Edith and sister-in-law Cristina. Malcolm arrived there on 24 August 1093 to find that William Rufus refused to negotiate, insisting that the dispute be judged by the English barons. This Malcolm refused to accept, and returned immediately to Scotland.[46]
It does not appear that William Rufus intended to provoke a war,[47] but, as the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle reports, war came:

“... For this reason therefore they parted with great dissatisfaction, and the King Malcolm returned to Scotland. And soon after he came home, he gathered his army, and came harrowing into England with more hostility than beoved him ...”

Malcolm was accompanied by Edward, his eldest son by Margaret and probable heir-designate (or tánaiste), and by Edgar.[48] Even by the standards of the time, the ravaging of Northumbria by the Scots was seen as harsh.[49]

[edit] Death
While marching north again, Malcolm was ambushed by Robert de Mowbray, Earl of Northumbria, whose lands he had devastated, near Alnwick on 13 November 1093. There he was killed by Arkil Morel, steward of Bamburgh Castle. The conflict became known as the Battle of Alnwick.[50] Edward was mortally wounded in the same fight. Margaret, it is said, died soon after receiving the news of their deaths from Edgar.[51] The Annals of Ulster say:

“Mael Coluim son of Donnchad, over-king of Scotland, and Edward his son, were killed by the French i.e. in Inber Alda in England. His queen, Margaret, moreover, died of sorrow for him within nine days.[52]”

Malcolm's body was taken to Tynemouth Priory for burial. The king's body was sent north for reburial, in the reign of his son Alexander, at Dunfermline Abbey, or possibly Iona.[53]

On 19 June 1250, following the canonisation of Malcolm's wife Margaret by Pope Innocent IV, Margaret's remains were disinterred and placed in a reliquary. Tradition has it that as the reliquary was carried to the high altar of Dunfermline Abbey, past Malcolm's grave, it became too heavy to move. As a result, Malcolm's remains were also disinterred, and buried next to Margaret beside the altar.[54]

Issue
Malcolm and Ingebjorg had 3 sons:

1. Duncan II of Scotland, succeeded his father as King of Scotland
2. Donald, died ca.1094
3. Malcolm, died ca.1085

Malcolm and Margaret had eight children, six sons and two daughters:

1. Edward, killed 1093.
2. Edmund of Scotland
3. Ethelred, abbot of Dunkeld
4. King Edgar of Scotland
5. King Alexander I of Scotland
6. King David I of Scotland
7. Edith of Scotland, also called Matilda, married King Henry I of England
8. Mary of Scotland, married Eustace III of Boulogne

[edit] Depictions in fiction
Malcolm appears in William Shakespeare’s Macbeth. He is the son of King Duncan and heir to the throne. He first appears in the second scene where he is talking to a sergeant, with Duncan. The sergeant tells them how the battle was won thanks to Macbeth. Then Ross comes and Duncan decides that Macbeth should take the title of Thane of Cawdor. Then he later appears in Act 1.4 talking about the execution of the former Thane of Cawdor. Macbeth then enters and they congratulate him on his victory. He later appears in Macbeth’s castle as a guest. When his father is killed he is suspected of the murder so he escapes to England. He later makes an appearance in Act 4.3, where he talks to Macduff about Macbeth and what to do. They both decide to start a war against him. In Act 5.4 he is seen in Dunsinane getting ready for war. He orders the troupes to hide behind branches and slowly towards the castle. In Act 5.8 he watches the battle against Macbeth and Macduff with Siward and Ross. When eventually Macbeth is killed, Malcolm takes over as king.
Notes for SAINT MARGARET OF SCOTLAND:
Saint Margaret (c. 1045 – 16 November 1093), also known as Margaret of Wessex and Queen Margaret of Scotland, was an English princess of the House of Wessex. Born in exile in Hungary, she was the sister of Edgar Ætheling, the short-ruling and uncrowned Anglo-Saxon King of England. Margaret and her family returned to England in 1057, but fled to Scotland following the Norman conquest of England of 1066. Around 1070 Margaret married Malcolm III, King of Scots, becoming his Queen consort. She was a pious woman, and among many charitable works she established a ferry across the Firth of Forth for pilgrims travelling to Dunfermline Abbey, which gave the towns of Queensferry and North Queensferry their names. Margaret was the mother of three Kings of Scotland and a Queen consort of England. According to the Life of Saint Margaret, attributed to Turgot, she died at Edinburgh Castle in 1093, just days after receiving the news of her husband's death in battle. In 1250 she was canonised by Pope Innocent IV, and her remains were reinterred in a shrine at Dunfermline Abbey. Her relics were dispersed after the Scottish Reformation and subsequently lost.

Margaret was the daughter of the English prince, Edward the Exile and granddaughter of Edmund Ironside, king of England. After the Danish conquest of England in 1016, Canute had the infant Edward exiled to the continent. He was taken first to the court of the Swedish king, Olof Skötkonung, and then to Kiev. As an adult, he travelled to Hungary, where in 1046 he supported Andrew I's successful bid for the throne. The provenance of Margaret's mother, Agatha, is disputed, but Margaret was born in Hungary around 1045. Her brother Edgar the Ætheling and her sister Cristina were also born in Hungary around this time. Margaret grew up in a very religious environment in the Hungarian court. Andrew I of Hungary was known as "Andrew the Catholic" for his extreme aversion to pagans, and great loyalty to Rome, which probably could have induced Margaret to follow a pious life.

Still a child, she came to England with the rest of her family when her father, Edward, was recalled in 1057 as a possible successor to her great-uncle, the childless Edward the Confessor. Her father died soon after the family's arrival in England, but Margaret continued to reside at the English court where her brother, Edgar Ætheling, was considered a possible successor to the English throne. When the Confessor died in January 1066, Harold Godwinson was selected as king, Edgar perhaps being considered still too young. After Harold's defeat at the battle of Hastings later that year, Edgar was proclaimed King of England, but when the Normans advanced on London, the Witenagemot presented Edgar to William the Conqueror who took him to Normandy before returning him to England in 1068, when Edgar, Margaret, Cristina and their mother Agatha fled north to Northumbria.

Journey to Scotland
According to tradition, the widowed Agatha decided to leave Northumbria with her children and return to the continent. However, a storm drove their ship north to Scotland, where they sought the protection of King Malcolm III. The spot where they are said to have landed is known today as St. Margaret's Hope, near the village of North Queensferry. Margaret’s arrival in Scotland in 1068, after the failed revolt of the Northumbrian earls, has been heavily romanticized, though Symeon of Durham implied that her first meeting with Malcolm III of Scots may not have been until 1070, after William the Conqueror's harrying of the north.

Malcolm was probably a widower, and was no doubt attracted by the prospect of marrying one of the few remaining members of the Anglo-Saxon royal family. The marriage of Malcolm and Margaret took place some time before the end of 1070. Malcolm followed it with several invasions of Northumberland, probably in support of the claims of his brother-in-law Edgar. These, however, had little result beyond the devastation of the province.[1]

Family
Margaret and Malcolm had eight children, six sons and two daughters:

1. Edward, killed 1093,
2. Edmund of Scotland
3. Ethelred, abbot of Dunkeld
4. King Edgar of Scotland
5. King Alexander I of Scotland
6. King David I of Scotland
7. Edith of Scotland, also called Matilda, married King Henry I of England
8. Mary of Scotland, married Eustace III of Boulogne
Religious life

Margaret attended to charitable works, and personally served orphans and the poor every day before she ate. She rose at midnight to attend church services every night. She was known for her work for religious reform. She was considered to be an exemplar of the “just ruler”, and also influenced her husband and children to be just and holy rulers. A cave on the banks of the Tower Burn in Dunfermline was used by the queen as a place of devotion and prayer. St Margaret’s Cave, now covered beneath a municipal car park, is open to the public.[2]

Death

Her husband, Malcolm III, and their eldest son, Edward, were killed in a fight against the English at the Battle of Alnwick on 13 November 1093. Her son Edmund was left with the task of telling his mother of their deaths. Margaret was ill, and she died on 16 November 1093, three days after the deaths of her husband and eldest son.

Veneration

St Margaret’s Chapel, Edinburgh Castle
Ruins of St Margaret's Church, Oslo

St Margaret’s Chapel in Dunfermline[edit]
Sainthood
Saint Margaret was canonised in the year 1250 by Pope Innocent IV in recognition of her personal holiness, fidelity to the Church, work for religious reform, and charity. On 19 June 1250, after her canonisation, her remains were moved to Dunfermline Abbey.[3] The Roman Catholic Church formerly marked the feast of Saint Margaret of Scotland on 10 June, because the feast of "Saint Gertrude, Virgin" was already celebrated on 16 November, but in Scotland, she was venerated on 16 November, the day of her death. In the revision of the Roman Catholic calendar of saints in 1969, 16 November became free and the Church transferred her feast day to 16 November.[4] However, some traditionalist Catholics continue to celebrate her feast day on 10 June. She is also venerated as a saint in the Anglican Church.

 Churches
Several churches are dedicated to Saint Margaret. One of the oldest is St Margaret’s Chapel in Edinburgh Castle, which was founded by her son King David I. The chapel was long thought to have been the oratory of Margaret herself, but is now considered to be a 12th century establishment. The oldest building in Edinburgh, it was restored in the 19th century, and refurbished in the 1990s.

St. Margaret's Church (Margaretakirken) in Maridalen near Oslo, Norway, is dedicated to Saint Margaret of Scotland. The stone church dates from the middle of the 1200s. It is now a ruin, but after restoration in 1934 the church today is one of the best-preserved medieval buildings in Oslo after the Old Aker Church.[5]

Others include the 13th-century Church of St Margaret the Queen in Buxted, East Sussex,[6] and St Margaret of Scotland, Aberdeen.

Other establishments

A number of foundations, particularly in Scotland, are named after Saint Margaret:

Queen Margaret University, Edinburgh, which adopted the name in 1972
Queen Margaret College, Glasgow
Queen Margaret Union, a student union at Glasgow University
Queen Margaret Hospital, Dunfermline
The towns of South Queensferry and North Queensferry mark the location of the ferry established by Queen Margaret
Queen Margaret Academy, Ayr
St Margaret's Academy, Livingston
Queen Margaret College, Wellington, New Zealand
St Margarets School, Bushey
St. Margaret's Secondary School and Primary School, Singapore

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External links

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University of Pittsburgh: Margaret of Scotland

Catholic Encyclopedia: St. Margaret of Scotland

Child of MALCOLM SCOTLAND and SAINT SCOTLAND is:
183. i. MATILDA MAUD EDITHA AETHIELING OF SCOTLAND, b. 1079; d. 1118.


Child of JOHN GREENE and KATHERINE WRIGHT is:

Generation No. 86

183. MATILDA MAUD EDITHA AETHIELING OF SCOTLAND (MALCOLM III MACDUNCAN CANMORE OF89, DUNCAN 'THE GRACIOUS' MACCRINAN OF88, BETHOC (BEATRIX) MACKENNETH OF87, MALCOLM MACKENNETH OF86 ALBA II, KENNETH MACALPIN OF85, MALCOLM MACALPIN OF84, DONALD DASCHTACH OF83 SCOTS II, CONSTANTINE OF82 ALBA I, KENNETH MACALPIN OF81 SCOTLAND, ALPIN80 MAC ECHDACH, Eochaid ANNUINE59 MAC EDA, ED I FIND MACH78 ECHACH, Eochaid77 III, Eochaid76 DALRAIDA II, DOMONGART54 DE DALRAIDA II, DOMNALL BRECC54, Eochaid Buide MACAIDAN OF73 ARGYLL I, Aidan Mac Gabran OF72, Gabran (Gabhhan) Mac Domangart OF71, FELDLYM70 FOLCHAIN, BRION (BIAN)69 MAC ECHACH, Eochaid (Eoch) MUGMEDON OF68 IRELAND, MUIREADHACH TIRE57 MACFIACHACH II, FIACHAIDH SRABHITHNE OF56 IRELAND, CARBRE LIFIOCHAR55 MC CORMARC, CORRACHAULFHA54 MAC AIRT, AIRT AONFHER53 MAC CONN, CONN CEACDHATHACH52 MAC FEIDEILMID, FEIDHLMIDH (FELIM)51 RACHTMAR, TUATHAL60 TEACHER, FIACHA FIONN59 OLA, FEREDACH58 FIONN-FEACHTACH, CRIAMTHANN-NIADHR-NAIR57, LUGHAIDH SRIABH-N56 DEARG, BRESS-NAR-NOTHAR55, Eochaidh54 FEIDLOCH, FIONN53, FIONNLOGH52, ROIGHEN51 RUADH, ASSAMAN50 EMINA, ENNA49 AIGNAC, AONGUS48 TURMEACH-TEAMRACH, Eochaidh ALT57 LEATHAN, OLIOLL46 CAS-FIACHLACH, CONLA45 CAOMH, IARAN44 GLEOFATHACH, MELG43 MOLBHATHAC,
Matilda was born around 1080 in Dunfermline, the daughter of Malcolm III of Scotland and Saint Margaret. She was christened (baptised) Edith, and Robert Curthose stood as godfather at the ceremony. Queen Matilda, the consort of William the Conqueror, was also present at the baptismal font and was her godmother. Baby Matilda pulled at Queen Matilda's headress, which was seen as an omen that the younger Matilda would be queen one day.[2]

When she was about six years old, Matilda of Scotland (or Edith as she was then probably still called) and her sister Mary were sent to Romsey Abbey, near Southampton, where their aunt Cristina was abbess. During her stay at Romsey and, some time before 1093, at Wilton Abbey, both institutions known for learning,[4] the Scottish princess was much sought-after as a bride; refusing proposals from William de Warenne, 2nd Earl of Surrey, and Alan Rufus, Lord of Richmond. Hériman of Tournai even claims that William II Rufus considered marrying her.

She had left the monastery by 1093, when Anselm, Archbishop of Canterbury, wrote to the Bishop of Salisbury ordering that the daughter of the King of Scotland be returned to the monastery that she had left.

Marriage
After the mysterious death of William II in August 1100, his brother, Henry, immediately seized the royal treasury and crown. His next task was to marry and Henry's choice was Matilda. Because Matilda had spent most of her life in a convent, there was some controversy over whether she was a nun and thus canonically ineligible for marriage. Henry sought permission for the marriage from Archbishop Anselm, who returned to England in September 1100 after a long exile. Professing himself unwilling to decide so weighty a matter on his own, Anselm called a council of bishops in order to determine the canonical legality of the proposed marriage. Matilda testified that she had never taken holy vows, insisting that her parents had sent her and her sister to England for educational purposes, and her aunt Cristina had veiled her to protect her "from the lust of the Normans." Matilda claimed she had pulled the veil off and stamped on it, and her aunt beat and scolded her for this act. The council concluded that Matilda was not a nun, never had been and her parents had not intended that she become one, giving their permission for the marriage.

Matilda and Henry seem to have known one another for some time before their marriage — William of Malmesbury states that Henry had "long been attached" to her, and Orderic Vitalis says that Henry had "long adored" her character.

Her mother was the sister of Edgar the Ætheling, proclaimed but uncrowned King of England after Harold, and through her, Matilda was descended from Edmund Ironside and thus from the royal family of Wessex, which in the 10th century, had become the royal family of a united England. This was very important as Henry wanted to make himself more popular with the English people and Matilda represented the old English dynasty. In their children, the
Norman and English dynasties would be united. Another benefit was that England and Scotland became politically closer; three of her brothers became kings of Scotland in succession and were unusually friendly towards England during this period of unbroken peace between the two nations: Alexander married one of Henry I's illegitimate daughters and David lived for some time before his accession at Henry's court.[5]

Queen
After Matilda and Henry were married on 11 November 1100 at Westminster Abbey by Archbishop Anselm of Canterbury, she was crowned as "Matilda," a fashionable Norman name. She gave birth to a daughter, Matilda, in February 1102, and a son, William, called "Adelin", in November 1103. As Queen, she maintained her court primarily at Westminster, but accompanied her husband on his travels around England, and, circa 1106–1107, probably visited Normandy with him. Matilda was the designated head of Henry's curia and acted as regent during several of his absences.[6]

Works
Matilda had great interest in architecture and instigated the building of many Norman style buildings, like at Waltham Abbey and a leper hospital. She also had the first arched bridge in England built, at Stratford-le-Bow, as well as a bathhouse with piped-in water and public lavatories at Queenhithe.[7]

Her court was filled with musicians and poets; she commissioned a monk, probably Thurgot, to write a biography of her mother, Saint Margaret. She was an active queen and, like her mother, was renowned for her devotion to religion and the poor. William of Malmesbury describes her as attending church barefoot at Lent, and washing the feet and kissing the hands of the sick. She also administered extensive dower properties and was known as a patron of the arts, especially music.

Death
After Matilda died on 1 May 1118 at Westminster Palace, she was buried at Westminster Abbey. The death of her only adult son, William Adelin, in the tragic disaster of the White Ship (November 1120) and Henry's failure to produce a legitimate son from his second marriage led to the succession crisis of The Anarchy.

Legacy
After her death, she was remembered by her subjects as "Matilda the Good Queen" and "Matilda of Blessed Memory", and for a time sainthood was sought for her, though she was never canonised.

Issue
Matilda and Henry had four children:

1. Matilda of England (c. February 1102 – 10 September 1167), Holy Roman Empress, Countess consort of Anjou, called Lady of the English
3. Euphemia, died young.
4. Richard, died young.

Notes and sources
1. ^ She is known to have been given the name "Edith" (the Old English Eadgyth, meaning "Fortune-Battle") at birth, and was baptised under that name. She is known to have been crowned under a name favouried by the Normans, "Matilda" (from the Germanic Matthilda, meaning "Might-Battle"), and was referred to as such throughout her husband's reign. It is unclear, however, when her name was changed, or why. Accordingly, her later name is used in this article. Historians generally refer to her as "Matilda of Scotland"; in popular usage, she is referred to equally as "Matilda" or "Edith".
Henry I (c. 1068/1069 – 1 December 1135) was the fourth son of William I of England. He succeeded his elder brother William II as King of England in 1100 and defeated his eldest brother, Robert Curthose, to become Duke of Normandy in 1106. A later tradition called him Beauclerc for his scholarly interests—he could read Latin and put his learning to effective use—and Lion of Justice for refinements which he brought about in the royal administration, which he rendered the most effective in Europe, rationalizing the itinerant court, and his public espousal of the Anglo-Saxon legal tradition.

Henry's reign established deep roots for the Anglo-Norman realm, in part through his dynastic (and personal) choice of a Scottish princess who represented the lineage of Edmund Ironside for queen. His succession was hurriedly confirmed while his brother Robert was away on the First Crusade, and the beginning of his reign was occupied by wars with Robert for control of England and Normandy. He successfully reunited the two realms again after their separation on his father's death in 1087. Upon his succession he granted the baronage a Charter of Liberties, which linked his rule of law to the Anglo-Saxon tradition, forming a basis for subsequent limitations to the rights of English kings and presaged Magna Carta, which subjected the king to law.

The rest of Henry's reign, a period of peace and prosperity in England and Normandy, was filled with judicial and financial reforms. He established the biannual Exchequer to reform the treasury. He used itinerant officials to curb the abuses of power at the local and regional level that had characterized William Rufus' unpopular reign, garnering the praise of the monkish chroniclers. The differences between the English and Norman populations began to break down during his reign and he himself married a descendant of the old English royal house. He made peace with the church after the disputes of his brother's reign and the struggles with Anselm over the English investiture controversy (1103-07), but he could not smooth out his succession after the disastrous loss of his eldest son William in the wreck of the White Ship. His will stipulated that he was to be succeeded by his daughter, the Empress Matilda, but his stern rule was followed by a period of civil war known as the Anarchy.

Henry was born between May 1068 and May 1069, probably in Selby in Yorkshire. His mother Queen Matilda named the infant prince Henry, after her uncle, Henry I of France. As the youngest son of the family, he was almost certainly expected to become a bishop and was given more extensive schooling than was usual for a young nobleman of that time. Henry's biographer C. Warren Hollister suggests the possibility that the saintly ascetic Osmund, Bishop of Salisbury, was in part responsible for Henry's education; Henry was consistently in the bishop's company during his formative years, ca 1080-86. "He was an intellectual", V.H. Galbraith observed, "an educated man in a sense that his predecessors, always excepting Alfred, were not." The chronicler William of Malmesbury asserts that Henry once remarked that an illiterate king was a crowned ass. He was certainly the first Norman ruler to be fluent in the English language.

William I's second son Richard was killed in a hunting accident in 1081, so William bequeathed his dominions to his three surviving sons in the following manner:

Robert received the Duchy of Normandy and became Duke Robert II.
William Rufus received the Kingdom of England and became King William II.
Henry received 5,000 pounds in silver.
The chronicler Orderic Vitalis reports that the old king had declared to Henry: "You in your own time will have all
the dominions I have acquired and be greater than both your brothers in wealth and power."

Henry tried to play his brothers off against each other but eventually, wary of his devious manoeuvring, they acted
together and signed an accession treaty. This sought to bar Prince Henry from both thrones by stipulating that if
either King William or Duke Robert died without an heir, the two dominions of their father would be reunited under
the surviving brother.

When, on 2 August 1100, William II was killed by an arrow in a hunting accident in the New Forest, where Henry
was also hunting, Duke Robert had not yet returned from the First Crusade. His absence allowed Prince Henry to
seize the royal treasury at Winchester, Hampshire, where he buried his dead brother. Conspiracy theories have been
repeatedly examined and widely dismissed.[4] Thus he succeeded to the throne of England, guaranteeing his
succession in defiance of William and Robert's earlier agreement. Henry was accepted as king by the leading barons
and was crowned three days later on 5 August at Westminster Abbey.

Henry secured his position among the nobles by an act of political appeasement: he issued a coronation charter
guaranteeing the rights of free English folk, which was subsequently evoked by King Stephen and by Henry II
before Archbishop Stephen Langton called it up in 1215 as a precedent for Magna Carta.[5] The view of Henry and
his advisors did not encompass a long view into constitutional history: the Coronation Charter was one of several
expedients designed to distance him from the extraordinary and arbitrary oppressions of William Rufus' reign,
claiming to return to the practices of Edward the Confessor, made clear in clause 13, a statement of general
principles. Its first clause promised the freedom of the church and the security of its properties, and succeeding
clauses similarly reassured the propertied class.

First marriage
On 11 November 1100 Henry married Edith, daughter of King Malcolm III of Scotland. Since Edith was also the
niece of Edgar Atheling and the great-granddaughter of Edmund Ironside (the half-brother of Edward the Confessor)
the marriage united the Norman line with the old English line of kings. The marriage greatly displeased the Norman
barons, however, and as a concession to their sensibilities Edith changed her name to Matilda upon becoming
Queen. The other side of this, however, was that Henry, by dint of his marriage, became far more acceptable to the
Anglo-Saxon populace.

[edit] Conquest of Normandy
In the following year, 1101, Robert Curthose, Henry's eldest brother, attempted to
seize the crown by invading England. In the Treaty of Alton, Robert agreed to recognise his brother Henry as King
of England and return peacefully to Normandy, upon receipt of an annual sum of 3,000 silver marks, which Henry
proceeded to pay.

In 1105, to eliminate the continuing threat from Robert, Henry led an expeditionary force across the English
Channel.

Battle of Tinchebray
Main article: Battle of Tinchebray
On the morning of 28 September 1106, exactly 40 years after William had made his way to England, the decisive
battle between his two surviving sons, Robert Curthose and Henry Beauclerc, took place in the small village of
Tinchebray, Basse-Normandie. This combat was totally unexpected. Henry and his army were marching south from
Barfleur on their way to Domfront and Robert was marching with his army from Falaise on their way to Mortain.
They met at the crossroads at Tinchebray. The running battle which ensued was spread out over several kilometres;
the site where most of the fighting took place is the village playing field today. Towards evening Robert tried to
retreat but was captured by Henry's men at a place three kilometres (just under two miles) north of Tinchebray
where a farm named "Prise" (grip or capture)[citation needed] stands today on the D22 road. The tombstones of
three knights are nearby on the same road.

King of England and Ruler of Normandy
King Henry I of England
After Henry had defeated his brother’s Norman army at Tinchebray he imprisoned Robert, initially in the Tower of London, subsequently at Devizes Castle and later at Cardiff. One day, while out riding, Robert attempted to escape from Cardiff but his horse bogged down in a swamp and he was recaptured. (A story was later circulated that, to prevent further escapes, Henry had Robert's eyes burnt out: this is not accepted by Henry's recent biographer, Judith Green.[6]) Henry appropriated the Duchy of Normandy as a possession of the Kingdom of England and reunited his father's dominions. Even after taking control of the Duchy of Normandy he didn't take the title of Duke, he chose to control it as the King of England.

In 1113, Henry attempted to reduce difficulties in Normandy by betrothing his eldest son, William Adelin, to the daughter of Fulk, Count of Anjou at the time a serious enemy. They were married in 1119. Eight years later, after William's death, a much more momentous union was made between Henry's daughter, (the former Empress) Matilda and Fulk's son Geoffrey Plantagenet, which eventually resulted in the union of the two realms under the Plantagenet Kings.

Activities as a king

Henry's need for finance to consolidate his position led to an increase in the activities of centralized government. As king, Henry carried out social and judicial reforms; he issued the Charter of Liberties and restored the laws of Edward the Confessor.

Between 1103 and 1107 Henry was involved in a dispute with Anselm, the Archbishop of Canterbury, and Pope Paschal II in the investiture controversy, which was settled in the Concordat of London in 1107. It was a compromise. In England, a distinction was made in the king's chancery between the secular and ecclesiastical powers of the prelates. Employing the distinction, Henry gave up his right to invest his bishops and abbots, but reserved the custom of requiring them to come and do homage for the "temporalities" (the landed properties tied to the episcopate), directly from his hand, after the prelate had sworn homage and feudal vassalage in the ceremony called commendatio, the commendation ceremony, like any secular vassal.

Some of Henry's acts are brutal by modern standards. In 1090 he threw a treacherous burgher named Conan Pilatus from the tower of Rouen; the tower was known from then on as "Conan's Leap." In another instance that took place in 1119, Henry's son-in-law, Eustace de Pacy, and Ralph Harneç, the constable of Ivry, exchanged their children as hostages. When Eustace inexplicably blinded Harneç's son, Harneç demanded vengeance. King Henry allowed Harneç to blind and mutilate Eustace's two daughters, who were also Henry's own grandchildren. Eustace and his wife, Juliane, were outraged and threatened to rebel. Henry arranged to meet his daughter at a parley at Breteuil, only for Juliane to draw a crossbow and attempt to assassinate her father. She was captured and confined to the castle, but escaped by leaping from a window into the moat below. Some years later Henry was reconciled with his daughter and son-in-law.

During his reign, King Henry introduced a new monetary system known as the tally stick, which started primarily as a form of record keeping. Since tally sticks could be used to pay the taxes imposed by the king, he created a demand for tally sticks. This demand for tally sticks expanded their role and they began to circulate as a form of money. This practice survived for many years, a little over 700 in fact, until it was finally retired in 1826.[7] The Bank of England then continued to use wooden tally sticks until 1826: some 500 years after the invention of double-entry bookkeeping and 400 years after Johannes Gutenberg's invention of printing. The tally sticks were then taken out of circulation and stored in the Houses of Parliament until 1834, when the authorities decided that the tallies were no longer required and that they should be burned. As it happened, they were burned rather too enthusiastically and in the resulting conflagration the Houses of Parliament were razed to the ground.[8]

Legitimate children

He had four children by Matilda (Edith), who died on 1 May 1118 at the Palace of Westminster. She was buried in Westminster Abbey.

3. Euphemia, died young.
4. Richard, died young.

Second marriage
On 29 January 1121 he married Adeliza, daughter of Godfrey I of Leuven, Duke of Lower Lotharingia and Landgrave of Brabant, but there were no children from this marriage. Left without male heirs, Henry took the unprecedented step of making his barons swear to accept his daughter Empress Matilda, widow of Henry V, the Holy Roman Emperor, as his heir.

Death and legacy
Henry I burial plaque at Reading Abbey
Henry visited Normandy in 1135 to see his young grandsons, the children of Matilda and Geoffrey. He took great delight in his grandchildren, but soon quarrelled with his daughter and son-in-law and these disputes led him to tarry in Normandy far longer than he originally planned.

Henry died on 1 December 1135 at Saint-Denis-en-Lyons (now Lyons-la-Forêt) in Normandy. According to legend, he died of food poisoning, caused by his eating "a surfeit of lampreys", of which he was excessively fond.[9] His remains were sewn into the hide of a bull to preserve them on the journey, and then taken back to England and were buried at Reading Abbey, which he had founded fourteen years before. The Abbey was destroyed during the Protestant Reformation. No trace of his tomb has survived, the probable site being covered by St. James' School. Nearby is a small plaque and a large memorial cross stands in the adjoining Forbury Gardens.

Although Henry's barons had sworn allegiance to his daughter as their queen, her sex and her remarriage into the House of Anjou, an enemy of the Normans, allowed Henry's nephew Stephen of Blois, to come to England and claim the throne with baronial support. The struggle between the former Empress and Stephen resulted in a long civil war known as the Anarchy. The dispute was eventually settled by Stephen's naming of Matilda's son, Henry Plantagenet, as his heir in 1153.

Illegitimate children
King Henry is famed for holding the record for more than twenty acknowledged illegitimate children, the largest number born to any English king; they turned out to be significant political assets in subsequent years, his bastard daughters cementing alliances with a flock of lords whose lands bordered Henry's.[10] He had many mistresses, and identifying which mistress is the mother of which child is difficult. His illegitimate offspring for whom there is documentation are:

1. Robert, 1st Earl of Gloucester. b. 1090 Often said to have been a son of Sybil Corbet.
2. Maud FitzRoy, married 1113 Conan III, Duke of Brittany
3. Constance or Maud FitzRoy, married 1122 Roscelin, Viscount de Beaumont (died ca. 1176)
4. Mabel FitzRoy, married William III Gouet
5. Alice FitzRoy, married Matthieu I of Montmorency and had two children Bouchard V de Montmorency ca 1130-1189 who married Laurence, daughter of Baldwin IV of Hainault and had issue and Mattheiu who married Matilda of Garlande and had issue. Mattheiu I went on to marry Adelaïde of Maurienne.
6. Gilbert FitzRoy, died after 1142. His mother may have been a sister of Walter de Gand.
7. Emma, married Guy de Laval IV, Lord Laval.[11] This is based on epitaphs maintained in the chapterhouse of Clermont Abbey which appear to refer to Emma as the daughter of a king. There may be some confusion here, however, in that Guy's son, Guy de Laval V, was also married to an Emma who described herself as the daughter of Reginald de Dunstanville, Earl of Cornwall, who was an illegitimate son of Henry I as noted below. Additionally, if the elder Emma was also an illegitimate child of Henry I, this would make Guy and his wife Emma first cousins, something that casts more doubt on the claim.[12]

With Edith I.
Matilda, married in 1103 Count Rotrou III of Perche. She perished 25 November 1120 in the wreck of the White Ship. She left two daughters: Philippa, who married Elias II, Count of Maine (son of Fulk, Count of Anjou and later King of Jerusalem), and Felice.

With Gieva de Tracy
1. William de Tracy

With Ansfride
Ansfride was born c. 1070. She was the wife of Anskill of Seacourt, at Wytham in Berkshire (now Oxfordshire).

1. Juliane de Fontrevault (born c. 1090); married Eustace de Pacy in 1103. She tried to shoot her father with a crossbow after King Henry allowed her two young daughters to be blinded.
2. Fulk FitzRoy (born c. 1092); a monk at Abingdon.
3. Richard of Lincoln (c. 1094 - 25 November 1120); perished in the wreck of the White Ship.

[edit] With Sybil Corbet Lady Sybilla Corbet of Alcester was born in 1077 in Alcester in Warwickshire. She married Herbet FitzHerbert, son of Herbert 'the Chamberlain' of Winchester and Emma de Blois. She died after 1157 and was also known as Adela (or Lucia) Corbet. Sybil was definitely mother of Sybil and Rainald, possibly also of William and Rohese. Some sources suggest that there was another daughter by this relationship, Gundred, but it appears that she was thought as such because she was a sister of Reginald de Dunstanville but it appears that that was another person of that name who was not related to this family.

1. Sybilla de Normandy, married Alexander I of Scotland.
2. William Constable, born before 1105. Married Alice (Constable); died after 1187.
3. Reginald de Dunstanville, 1st Earl of Cornwall.

[G. E. Cokayne, in his Complete Peerage, Vol. XI, Appendix D pps 105-121 attempts to elucidate Henry I's illegitimate children. For Mistress Sybil Corbet, he indicates that Rohese married Henry de la Pomerai [ibid.:119]. In any case, the dates concerning Rohese in the above article are difficult to reconcile on face value, her purported children having seemingly been born before their mother, and also before the date of her mother's purported marriage.]


[edit] With Princess Nest Nest ferch Rhys was born about 1073 at Dinefwr Castle, Carmarthenshire, the daughter of Prince Rhys ap Tewdwr of Deheubarth and his wife, Gwladys ferch Rhywallon. She was married, in 1095, to Gerald de Windsor (aka Geraldus FitzWalter) son of Walter FitzOther, Constable of Windsor Castle and Keeper of the Forests of Berkshire. She had several other liaisons — including one with Stephen of Cardigan, Constable of Cardigan (1136) — and subsequently other illegitimate children. The date of her death is unknown.

1. Henry FitzRoy, 1103-1158. #2. Phillip de Prendergast; Prendergast (Irish: de Priondárgas) is an Irish name of Welsh/Norman origin. The name derives from the 12th century Norman Knight Maurice de Prendergast.

IN WALES

The Prendergast name is said to have been brought to England during the Norman Conquest by one Prenliregast, (also given as Preudirlegast in The Battle Abbey Roll) a follower of William the Conqueror. The son of Prenliregast, Phillip, was given land in the district of Ros in Pembrokeshire, South Wales. Maurice de Prendergast was one of his descendants and in 1160, lord of the manor (castle) of Prendergast. He was probably a nephew of Nesta, the daughter of Rufus, Prince of Demetia (which was the Norman name for Pembrokeshire) where Maurice’s family had lived since the Norman Conquest in 1066. Nesta was distinguished for her beauty and infamous for her affairs (ref. "The Norman Invasion of Ireland" by Richard Roche), it has been said that the "first conquerors of Ireland were nearly all descendants of Nesta", either by her two husbands or through the son she had to Henry 1 of England.

[edit] With Isabel de Beaumont Isabel (Elizabeth) de Beaumont (after 1102 – after 1172), daughter of Robert de Beaumont, sister of Robert de Beaumont, 2nd Earl of Leicester. She married Gilbert de Clare, 1st Earl of Pembroke, in 1130. She was also known as Isabella de Meulan.

1. Isabel Hedwig of England
2. Matilda FitzRoy, abbess of Montvilliers, also known as Montpiller

[edit] Fictional portrayals Henry I has been depicted in historical novels and short stories. They include:[13]
A Saxon Maid by Eliza Frances Pollard. Reportedly "a good short story of the Norman devastations", taking place in the reigns of William II and Henry I. The latter being a prominent character.[13]
Old Men at Pevensey by Rudyard Kipling, a short story included in the collection Puck of Pook's Hill (1906). Features both Henry I and Robert Curthose.[13]
The King’s Minstrel (1925) by Ivy May Bolton. The titular character is Rahere, depicted as "part jester, part priest, and more wizard than either". The King of the title is Henry I who is "prominently introduced".[13]
The Tree of Justice by Rudyard Kipling, a short story included in the collection Rewards and Fairies (1910). Features both Henry I and Rahere.[13]
The Pillars of the Earth, a 1989 novel by Ken Follett, set during the Anarchy period. In the miniseries based on the book King Henry was portrayed by Clive Wood

See also Normandy portal:

Complete Peerage
Concordat of Worms
First Council of the Lateran
Gesta Normannorum Ducum
Giraldus Cambrensis
Pipe Rolls
Quia Emptores
Robert of Torigny
Simeon of Durham
List of unusual deaths

Footnotes
1. First instanced by Matthew of Paris; Charles W. David, "The claims of King Henry I to be called learned", Anniversary Essays in Medieval History by Students of Charles Homer Haskins, 1929, deflated the myth.
9. The fact was recorded by Henry of Huntingdon, years after the death of the king.
13. a b c d e Nield (1925), p. 28-29

Sources
Child is listed above (138) Henry I of England.

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<td>AKHEPEREBRE, STEPENRE—PIMAY, PRINCE OF EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONK—III</td>
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<td>TAKELOD—II, OSORKON—III</td>
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<td>TAKELOD—II, OSORKON—II</td>
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Child of PARNELL GREEN and BARTELEMEW PARTRIDGE is:


Generation No. 87
Child of Elizabeth Partridge and Rev. May is:

186.  
   i.  John Mease\(^{52}\), May, b. 1615, Prince William County, Virginia; d. Prince William County, Virginia.

**Generation No. 88**

186.  John Mease\(^{52}\), May (Elizabeth\(^{91}\), Partridge, Parnell\(^{90}\), Green, John\(^{89}\), Greene, John\(^{88}\), John\(^{87}\), De Greene, Thomas\(^{86}\), Greene, Phillip\(^{85}\), De Ferrers, Robert\(^{84}\), Elizabeth\(^{83}\), Stafford, Margaret\(^{82}\), De Audley, Margaret\(^{81}\), De Clare, Joan de Acre\(^{80}\), Plantagenet, Edward of England\(^{79}\), Henry III of England\(^{78}\), John of England\(^{77}\), Henry II of England\(^{76}\), William Longsword of England\(^{75}\), Normandy, Poppe de Valois of England\(^{74}\), Pepin de Berenger and Baueaux, Pepin\(^{73}\), Lord of Peronne Quenten of Vermandois, Bernhard of Italy, Bertha\(^{64}\), de Toulouse, William\(^{63}\), Makir Theuderic of Toulouse, Hanni bar Ado\(^{62}\), David, Izdundad “Dara” Sasand of Persia, Yazdagird III of Persia, Prince of Sasanian Persia\(^{61}\), Shahrirah, Khusraw\(^{60}\), II, Hormizd\(^{59}\), IV, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Khushraw (Chrosoroe I) of Persia, Kings, Kayadhi I\(^{58}\) (Kobad), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Pizzus, Yazdagird\(^{57}\), II, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Varaham\(^{56}\) (Bahrarm), Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Yazdagird\(^{55}\), I, Emperor of Sasanian Persia, Shapur\(^{54}\), II, Emperor of Persia, Iraz\(^{53}\), Hormiz, Princess of Seistan, King of Seistan\(^{52}\), Vasudeva, Vasudeva\(^{51}\), III, King of Kushana, Vasudeva\(^{50}\), II, King of Kushana, Kanishka\(^{49}\), III, King of Kushana, King of Kushana, King of Kushana, Vasudeva, Huvishka\(^{48}\), I, King of Kushana, Kanishka\(^{47}\), I, King of Kushana, Vema\(^{46}\), Kadiphises\(^{45}\), I, King of the Kushans, Princess of Persia, Pizzus, Chandravarna, Princess of Persia\(^{44}\), Atoassa, Princess of Egypt\(^{43}\), Neithyiti, Haibre\(^{42}\), Wahibre, King of Egypt, Psamtek II\(^{41}\), Neferibre, King of Egypt, Pharaoh Nectanebos “Necho”\(^{40}\), II, Psamtek\(^{39}\), I, Neko\(^{38}\), I, Shepleses\(^{37}\), Tefnakhte I, Shepse re of Egypt, Osorkon IV\(^{36}\), C of MAAT, Shoshonk\(^{35}\), I, Akeheperre, Stepener\(^{34}\), Pimay, Prince of Egypt at Heracleropolis, Shoshonk\(^{33}\), III, Takeplot\(^{32}\), II, Osorkon\(^{31}\), II, Takeplot\(^{30}\), I, Osorkon\(^{30}\), I, Shoshonk\(^{29}\), I, Great Chief of the Meshwesh, Nimlot\(^{28}\), the Great Chief of the Ma’ Shosheno) was born October 22, 1576 in Swimbridge, Devonshire, England. She married Rev. William Mease May. He was born 1574 in England, and died 1650 in Henrico County, Virginia.
Child of John May and Elizabeth Newcomb is:

187.  i.  **Henry** May, b. 1645.

**Generation No. 89**


Child of Henry May is:

188.  i.  **Mattox**, b. 1684, Richmond County, Georgia; d. 1758.

**Generation No. 90**

Child of MATTIO MAY and DORCUS ABNEY is:

189. i. JOHN SR.95 MAY, b. 1710, Virginia; d. 1785, Richmond County, Georgia.

Generation No. 91


Child of JOHN MAY and JANE WILLIAMS is:

190. i. JAMES96 MAY, b. 1735, North Carolina; d. 1789, Wilkes County, Georgia.

Generation No. 92

Child of James and Lydia Bishop is:

191. Drury 97, May, b. 1780, North Carolina; d. 1844, Fayetteville, Georgia.

Generation No. 93
Child of Drury May and Anna Moses is:
192. Drury B.98 May, b. 1817, Pulaski County, Georgia.

Generation No. 94


Child of Drury May and Louisa May is:
193. Julia Ann99 May, b. April 12, 1849, Fayette County, Georgia; d. February 20, 1926, Vado, New Mexico, Dona Ana County.

Generation No. 95


194. i. JAMES ROBERT100 CLIPPER, b. September 16, 1872, Georigian, Butler County, Alabama; d. June 16, 1939, Wasco, California.

Generation No. 96

Child of James Clipper and Hattie Ross is:


Generation No. 97


Child of Ora Clipper and John Connor is:


Generation No. 98


Children of Johnney Connor and Leodiou Morney are:


Generation No. 99

I, NEKO I, SHEPSES RE' I, TEFNAKHTII, PRINCE OF EGYPT, BAKENRANEF (Bocchoris) W AH KA RE', TEFNAKHTI I
SHEPSES RE' OF EGYPT, OSORKON IV 'C' OF MAAT, SHOSHONK V, AKHEPERRE, STEPENRE PIMAY. PRINCE OF
EGYPT AT HERACLEPOLIS, SHOSHONK III, TAKELOT II, OSORKON II, TAKELOT I, OSI ROKN I, SHOSHONK I. GREAT

Child of KEVIN MICHAEL CON N OR (OMOWALE JABALI) is:
   i. MALAIKA AISHA JABALI, b. January 06, 1986.