

revolution was accomplished. John II restored alienated property to the royal domain, withdrew from the lords the right of life and death over their vassals, sent the Duke of Braganza to the scaffold and stabbed the Duke of Viseu with his own hand. He transmitted absolute power to his son Manuel the Fortunate (1495), who during twenty years did not assemble the Cortes. Under the latter prince the Portuguese discovered the road to the Cape of Good Hope and the Indies.

Thus throughout all Western Europe royalty became predominant. This condition indicated the approach of great wars. Because the countries of Central Europe remained divided, they were to become the battlefield of royal ambitions.

IV

GERMANY AND ITALY FROM 1453 TO 1494

Frederick III (1440) and Maximilian (1493).—In Germany the house of Austria had just recovered possession of the imperial crown (1438), to which hardly a shadow of authority was attached. Frederick III was not a man to modify this state of affairs, but was content with bare existence. His reign of fifty-three years is marked only by an unfortunate war against Matthias Corvinus, king of Hungary, and by the marriage of his son Maximilian to Mary of Burgundy, daughter of Charles the Bold and heiress of the Netherlands.

Maximilian endeavored to restore the public peace in Germany. The Diet, which exercised legislative power, prohibited all war between the states. The empire was divided into ten circles, in each of which a military director was charged with maintaining order. This police organization did not succeed, because the German princes had no idea of being checked in their enterprises. They had seized upon the absolute power in their lands, as the kings had done in their kingdoms. The monarchical revolution accomplished in France, England and Spain had also taken place in the empire, but not to the profit of the emperor. In 1502 the seven electors concluded the Electoral Union and decided to convene every year for the purpose of consultation as to the best means of preserving their independence from imperial authority. With another object in view several of the cities had already set up the Hanseatic League. This was the mercantile association of all the cities along the banks of the Rhine and the German coast. It had counting houses in the Netherlands, France, England and even in the heart of Russia, and was prosperous for centuries.

As archduke of Austria and sovereign of the Netherlands, Maximilian acquired by the treaty of Senlis (1493) Artois and Franche-Comté. Then in an erratic manner he

meddled in Italy. The most important event in his reign was the marriage of his son Philip the Fair with Jane the Foolish, daughter of Isabella of Castile and of Ferdinand of Aragon, who brought to the house of Austria as her dowry Spain, Naples and the New World. Maximilian died (1519) during the first throes of the Reformation.

Italy. Republics Replaced by Principalities. — In the middle of the twelfth century Italy was the centre of Mediterranean commerce. She had a skilful agricultural system and well developed manufactures. She was rich, luxurious and corrupt, with a passion for arts and letters but no taste for arms. More divided than Germany, she had not even a nominal head like the emperor, nor a body like the Diet which could sometimes speak in her name. Almost universally the republics had been changed into principalities, whose princes reigned as tyrants or magnificent despots. The capture of Constantinople by the Ottomans caused a momentary panic, and the different states of Italy formed a confederation at Lodi (1454). Men talked of a crusade. Pius II wished "the bell of the Turks" to be rung every morning throughout Christendom. But when the first moment of fright was over, each one went back to his own private interests.

At Milan the condottiere Francesco Sforza, who had succeeded the Visconti in 1450, left the ducal crown to his son, who was assassinated by the nobles (1476). His grandson Giovanni Galeazzo, a child of eight years, fell under the tutelage of his uncle Ludovico il Moro, who for the sake of usurping the power was destined to call in the French and begin the fatal Italian wars. Genoa incessantly disturbed by factions offered itself to Louis XI, who had the wisdom to refuse the fatal gift and transfer it to the Duke of Milan. The Lombards, as the inhabitants of that rich duchy were called, continued to be the bankers of Europe, and their agents were found everywhere in the commercial world.

Venice remained the chief power in northern Italy. No republic could more fully resemble a monarchy. After 1454 its exclusive oligarchy was governed by three state inquisitors, who watched each other and made their own laws. The state existed tranquilly in the lap of pleasure under this strong but pitiless government, whose principal instruments of action were spies and secret accusation. Provedi-

tors kept watch of the generals, who were carefully chosen from among the foreign mercenaries or condottieri, so that she might have nothing to fear from them at home. On the continent she had just subjugated four provinces, while the Turks were ruining her domination in the East. She lost Negropont and Scutari and beheld their swift horsemen threaten her lagoons. In order to save their commerce the Venetians consented to pay tribute to the new masters of Constantinople. When they were taunted with this disgrace, they replied, "We are Venetians first of all, Christians afterward." In Italy the wealth of the "Most Serene Republic" excited the covetousness of the neighboring princes, while her recent acquisitions endangered their security. In 1482 they formed a league against her, but she triumphed over the excommunications of the Pope and over the arms of his allies.

At Florence the Medici had supplanted the Albizzi by relying on the Minor Arts, or the middle class. They were rich bankers with many debtors in the city whom they held attached to their fortune. Cosmo de Medici, the head of this house, was master of Florence until 1464 though he bore no title. He caused commerce, manufactures, arts and letters to thrive, and expended more than \$6,000,000 in building palaces, hospitals and libraries, though continuing to live like a private citizen. He was surnamed the "Father of the Country." Liberty no longer existed. The nobles tried to restore it by the conspiracy of the Pazzi (1478), and assassinated Giuliano de Medici at the foot of the altar. Lorenzo, his brother who escaped the dagger, punished the murderers. One of the conspirators, Archbishop Salviati, was hanged in his episcopal robes from a window of his palace. Lorenzo, the most illustrious of the Medici, welcomed the Greek fugitives from Constantinople. He had a translation of Plato made, an edition of Homer published, and encouraged artists and learned men. Ghiberti cast for him the doors of the Baptistery of San Giovanni, which Michael Angelo deemed "worthy to be the gates of Paradise." In 1490, ruined by his magnificence, he was about to suspend payment. To save him the republic became bankrupt herself.

Under Pietro II, his unworthy successor, a new popular party, the frateschi, demanded public liberty. Its leader, the Dominican monk Girolamo Savonarola, wished to restore

to the clergy purity of manners, to the people their ancient institutions, and to letters and the arts the religious sentiment which they had already lost. Beholding the opposition of the young nobles and of the wealthy classes to every reform, he declared that all those gilded vices were about to be chastised by a foreign hand. "O Italy! O Rome! Do penance, for lo, the barbarians are coming like hungry lions!"

The papacy was unable to avert these disasters, because the Holy See was occupied by popes who disgraced the tiara. Thus Sixtus IV busied himself in carving a principality in the Romagna for his nephew, and to attain success had taken part in the conspiracy of the Pazzi. Alexander VI Borgia is the scandal and the sorrow of the Church. His election had been defiled by simony. His pontificate was polluted by debauchery, perfidy and cruelty. He indeed delivered the Holy See from the many turbulent petty lords who infested the neighborhood of Rome, but his weapons for their overthrow were ruse, treason and assassination. His son, Cæsar Borgia, is an infamous example of a man devoured with ambition and destitute of scruples, marching to his goal by any road. To create for himself a state in the Romagna, he waged against the lords of that country the same sort of war that his father had carried on against those of the papal states. No crime troubled him, whether by dagger or poison. More than any other man he contributed to earn for Italy the surname which was then applied to her of the "Poisonous."

At Naples Ferdinand in 1459 had succeeded Alphonso the Magnanimous. He triumphed at Troia over John of Calabria, his Angevine rival, but he seemed desirous of bringing about a new revolution by reviving hatreds instead of effacing them. The harshness of his rule stirred up his barons against him. He deceived them by promises, invited them to a banquet of reconciliation, then had them seized at his very table and put to death. The common people fared no better. Ferdinand claimed the monopoly of all the commerce of the kingdom and crushed the people with taxes. He did not prevent the Ottomans from seizing Otranto and the Venetians from taking Gallipoli and Policastro. The profound contempt which he excited explains how subsequently Charles VIII could drive him from his kingdom of Naples without breaking a lance. All the Italian states from one end of the peninsula to the other were in the same condition.

V

THE OTTOMAN TURKS

(1453-1520)

Powerful Military Organization of the Ottomans. Mohammed II. — The Ottomans were apparently the foe whom Italy had most to dread. By the conquest of Constantinople they had definitely established themselves in the great peninsula which separates the Adriatic and Black Seas. Mohammed II was obeyed from Belgrade on the Danube to the Taurus in Asia Minor. But this mighty empire had two classes of enemies. On the west were the various Christian nations, and on the East the Persian schismatics. These two parties by taking turns at fighting the Ottomans were to keep them within bounds. The one checked their progress on the Tigris, and the other along the lower valley of the Danube.

The Ottoman government was like that of all Asiatic peoples despotism tempered by insurrection and assassination. Nevertheless above the Sultan or Padishah was the Koran, whose interpreters, the Sheik ul Islam and the Oulema, often won the ear of the ruler or of the people. The Turkish armies were then stronger than those of the Christians. Their most effective force consisted of 40,000 janissaries, a regular and permanent troop. The Christians had as yet hardly more than the feudal militia. Moreover the sultan could quickly raise 100,000 men from the timariots, or lands given for life on condition of military service. They thoroughly understood the art of fortification and possessed an unequalled artillery. These efficient means of action were put in play for two centuries by ten successive and energetic princes. Above all account must be taken of the religious fanaticism and martial ardor of a race which also saw its victories fruitful in acquisition of lands and wealth. It is not difficult to explain the rapid progress of the Ottomans.

After making Constantinople his capital, Mohammed II undertook the subjugation of Hungary and Austria. But he was hurled back in 1456 by Hunyadi from the walls of Belgrade. He then attacked the remnants of the Greek Empire and seized Athens, Lesbos, the Morea and Trebizond. Christendom ought to have united in one common effort. Pope Pius II demanded it. But the sovereigns were busy about other things. Matthias Corvinus, king of Hungary, who was most endangered, and Frederick III, emperor of Germany, were warring against each other. Corvinus did at least force the Turks to a halt on the Danube. But the Albanian Scanderbeg, Prince of Epirus, was their one persistent enemy. During twenty-three years he fought them without repose and gained more than twenty battles. His death in 1468 and the fall of Croia, his capital, delivered Albania into their hands. Two years afterward they wrested Negropont from the Venetians. Also they triumphed over the Tartar Ouzoun Hassan, who had just founded in Persia the dynasty of the White Sheep, and was stirred up against them by Pope Paul II.

Fortunately the Moldavians on the lower Danube, the Albanians and some Greek mountaineers compelled Mohammed II to divide his forces. Although he had sworn to feed his horse with oats on the altar of Saint Peter's in Rome, he could undertake no serious enterprise against Italy. The surprise of Otranto by his fleet was hardly more than a bold and sudden raid by sea (1480). When his horsemen came and burned villages within sight of Venice, that republic took alarm. She sued for peace, ceded Scutari on the coast of the Adriatic and promised an annual tribute. Mohammed II was heading a great expedition, the object of which was known only to himself, when death overtook him in 1481 at the age of fifty-three.

Bayezid II (1481) and Selim I the Ferocious (1512). — His son, Bayezid II, was a scholar rather than a soldier. Moreover he was forced to consult prudence, inasmuch as his brother Zizim after an unsuccessful rebellion had escaped as a fugitive to the Knights of Rhodes. By them he had been delivered into the hands of Pope Alexander VI. As long as Zizim was with the Christians, he was a constant menace to his brother. Yet despite his pacific inclination, it was necessary to keep the janissaries busy and somehow win their favor. So Bayezid sent them to conquer Bosnia,

Croatia and Moldavia on the left bank of the Danube where the Ottomans already possessed Wallachia. The soldiers became discontented with their indolent sultan and placed his son Selim on the throne. At once the movement of conquest resumed its course. The new monarch attacked Persia, beginning the religious war by the massacre of 40,000 Shiite Mussulmans who inhabited his states. A bloody battle near Tauris was indecisive, but he soon subjugated the provinces of Diarbekir, Ourfa and Mossoul, which extended the Turkish Empire as far as the Tigris (1518). Syria belonged to the Mamelukes of Egypt. Selim attacked them. He defeated them at Aleppo, at Gaza and finally on the banks of the Nile, where the Copts and fellahs, downtrodden by the Mamelukes, welcomed him as a liberator. Moutawakkel, caliph of Cairo, confided to him the Standard of the Prophet and resigned the religious authority into his hands. The Arab tribes in their turn submitted. The scherif of Mecca came to offer the conqueror the keys of the Kaaba. Thus the sultan became the Commander of the Faithful, the spiritual as well as the temporal chief of the Mussulmans.

By this conquest the road to the East by way of Egypt was closed to Europeans. This was the death-blow of Venice. Master of the eastern basin of the Mediterranean, Selim also held in its western basin the strong fortress of Algiers, which the pirate Horouk, surnamed Barbarossa, had wrested from Spain and placed under his protection in return for the title of Bey (1518). From that time until 1830 Algiers was a nest of pirates who preyed upon European commerce. Abominable cruelties accompanied the conquests of Selim and earned for him the surname of the Ferocious. He died in 1520 and had for his successor Souleiman the Magnificent, the worthy rival of his illustrious contemporaries Charles V and Francis I.

VI

WARS IN ITALY. CHARLES VIII AND LOUIS XII

Consequences of the Political Revolution in European Wars.

—One general fact had been evolved during the second half of the fifteenth century. It was that society in all the states had reverted to a form of government, lost since the Roman Empire and based upon the absolute power of kings. This is the political side of the revolution in progress. It was to affect the arts, sciences and literatures, and even for a part of Europe the beliefs, at the same time that it modified institutions. The inevitable consequence of this first transformation, which places the peoples with their wealth and forces at the disposal of their sovereigns, will be to imbue the kings with the desire of aggrandizing their dominions. Thus European wars are about to follow feudal wars, just as kings have followed nobles. France, the first ready, is also the first in the endeavor to issue from her frontiers.

Expedition of Charles VIII into Italy (1494).—The prudent Louis XI had been careful not to assert the rights which the house of Anjou had bequeathed him over the kingdom of Naples. His son, Charles VIII, revived these claims with ambitious projects. Not to be hampered in the execution of plans which he thought would carry him from Naples to Constantinople, and from Constantinople to Jerusalem, he abandoned Cerdagne and Roussillon to Ferdinand the Catholic, and Franche-Comté, Charolais and Artois to Maximilian. He crossed the Alps at Mount Ginevra and was well received at Turin and in the duchy of Milan, where Ludovico il Moro then needed his support against the Neapolitans. He forced Pietro de Medici to deliver to him Sarzana and Pietra Santa, the two fortresses of the Apennines, and arrived without encountering any obstacle at Florence, which he entered as a conqueror. But when he demanded a war contribution, the inhabitants threatened a riot and he withdrew, though still holding Pisa and Siena.

At Rome the cardinals and nobles, who had been harshly treated by Alexander VI, opened the gates to the French. The Pope took refuge in the castle of San Angelo. Charles trained his cannon on the ancient fortress and demanded the son of the pontiff, Caesar Borgia, as hostage. Also he demanded that Zizim, the brother of Sultan Bayezid II, who was then with the Pope, should be surrendered to him, thinking this prisoner would advance his ultimate plans in the East. A few days later the former captive escaped. The latter was given up, but soon afterward died, perhaps from poison. At San Germano, Ferdinand II, king of Naples, wished to fight but his soldiers deserted and Charles entered the capital without breaking a lance (1495). There he had himself crowned King of Naples, Emperor of the East, and King of Jerusalem. He speedily alienated all parties.

While he gave himself up to festivity, in his rear Venice formed a league against him, which included Ludovico il Moro, Pope Alexander VI, Maximilian, Ferdinand the Catholic, and Henry VII of England. Forty thousand men lay in wait for him at the foot of the Apennines. Warned by Commynes, he hastily marched northward, leaving in the south 11,000 men. The battle of Fornovo reopened his road to the Alps, but Italy was lost and no fruit remained from this brilliant expedition.

Italy freed from the foreigner returned to her domestic quarrels. Ludovico implored the aid of the Emperor Maximilian, who suffered a ridiculous defeat before Leghorn. In the Romagna civil war continued between the Pope and the barons, in Tuscany between Pisa and Florence, in Florence itself between the partisans and the enemies of Savonarola. The latter perished at the stake (1498), but his death did not restore harmony.

Louis XII (1498). Conquest of Milan and Naples.—Louis XII, grandson of a brother of Charles VI, succeeded his cousin, whose widow he married to prevent her carrying Brittany to another house. He inherited not only the claims of Charles VIII to Naples, but also those of his grandmother, Valentine Visconti, to Milanese territory which had been usurped by the Sforza. Cajoling or bribing the neutrality or support of Caesar Borgia, Venice and Florence, he sent Trivulcio, an Italian mercenary, to conquer Milan. Ludovico il Moro lost, regained and again lost the city, but was finally betrayed by his troops and was

confined in France in the castle of Loches. Master of Milan, Louis sought to acquire the kingdom of Naples without striking a blow. Therefore he shared it in advance with Ferdinand the Catholic. He reserved for himself the title of King, together with the Abruzzi, Terra di Lavoro, and the capital. Ferdinand asked nothing but Apulia and Calabria. The unfortunate Frederick, king of Naples, finding himself betrayed by the Spaniard Gonsalvo of Cordona, placed himself at the mercy of the king of France, who offered him a retreat on the banks of the Loire. But the conquest made, disputes soon arose between the Spaniards and the French. Perfidious negotiations gave Gonsalvo time to bring up his troops. The French generals were everywhere defeated and their forces again evacuated the kingdom (1504).

To retain at least the Milanese territory, Louis XII signed the disastrous treaty of Blois. His claims to Naples he renounced in favor of Prince Charles, the sovereign of the Netherlands, who was destined to become Charles V of Germany. It was stipulated that Charles should wed Madame Claude, the daughter of the king. The dowry of the bride was to be Burgundy and Brittany. Public opinion cried out against this dangerous marriage, so Louis assembled the States General. They declared that the two provinces were inalienable, and implored the king to betroth his daughter to his presumptive heir, Francis, Duke of Angoulême.

League of Cambrai (1508). The Holy League (1511).— Julius II. succeeded Alexander VI. This warlike Pope undertook to expel from Italy those whom he called barbarians. He also aimed at humbling Venice and at rendering the Holy See the dominating power of the peninsula. First he managed to unite every one against Venice. Louis XII wished to recover from that republic the places formerly acquired from the duchy of Milan. Ferdinand the Catholic claimed from it several maritime cities of the kingdom of Naples. The Emperor Maximilian was desirous of extending his sway in Friuli. All the jealousies and desires coalesced therefore in 1508, at Cambrai.

At Anagdello Louis gained over the Venetians a victory which permitted his allies to fill their hands with Venetian booty. Thereupon the Pope promptly turned this league against his successful confederate, and formed the Holy

League to expel the French from Italy. Setting an example, in person he stormed the cities and entered them through the breach. Louis assembled at Pisa a council to depose him. Julius convoked another council at the Lateran, which excommunicated the king, and drew into alliance all the Catholic powers, even including the Swiss, upon whom Louis was lavishing his money.

Invasion of France (1513). Treaties of Peace (1514).— At first France was victorious, thanks to the talents of the youthful Gaston de Foix, who drove the Swiss back to their mountains, captured Brescia from the Venetians and defeated all the allies at Ravenna. But he was slain in that last battle. Under his successor, La Palisse, the French retreated to the Alps. Maximilian Sforza, the son of Ludovico il Moro, reentered Milan. Then France was invaded from three sides. Ferdinand the Catholic threatened French Navarre. The English and Germans routed the French cavalry at the battle of Spurs. Lastly, the Swiss penetrated as far as Dijon, and their withdrawal was purchased by payment in gold. The only ally of France was James IV, king of Scotland. He shared her evil fortune and was defeated and slain at Flodden Field by the English. Louis begged a truce from his enemies. He disavowed the council of Pisa, and persuaded Henry VIII to return to his island, promising a pension of 100,000 crowns for ten years. Thus, after fifteen years of war, after immense loss of blood and money, France was no farther advanced than when the reign of Charles VIII began. Louis died on January 1, 1515. His domestic administration had been superior to his foreign policy. He created two parliaments, one at Provence and another in Normandy, suppressed the use of Latin in criminal procedure, stopped pillage by soldiers, and caused commerce and agriculture to thrive. So he has been surnamed the Father of his People.