The states of the Church once more subjugated to the Pope.

rest of the world, inclined to sacrifice the principles of Christian faith and morality to the desire of being brilliant secular princes. Their dominant aspiration was to recover their lost control of the territory of the Church. This territory, running across the middle of the peninsula, formed an extensive possession, but had unfortunately fallen in large part into the hands of petty tyrants. Pope Alexander VI. (1492–1503), of the Spanish family of Borgia, infamous for his murders and excesses, may largely take the credit to himself of having carried the papal policy to a successful issue. Through the unscrupulous agency of his son, Cæsar Borgia, the petty tyrants of the papal states were got rid of, frequently by poison and assassination. The successor of Alexander VI., the mighty Julius II., completed Cæsar's work, and made the Pope absolute master in his dominions.

The Borgias.

Julius II. and Leo X. make Rome the artistic centre of Italy.

Julius II. (1503–13) and his successor, Leo X. (1513–21), are excellent examples of the Renaissance type of Pope. They showed no trace of mediæval austerity, or even of religious fervor; they looked upon their office as an unequalled opportunity for exercising authority and commanding the pleasures of the earth; and while they were ambitious, sensual, splendid, they responded also to the refined influences of the day. Both of them will always be remembered for their enthusiastic patronage of the arts, which made Rome, in their time and largely through their efforts, the artistic centre of Italy. It was during the Papacy of Leo X., who was a member of the famous Florentine family of the Medici, and whose interests were literary, artistic, social, in short, everything but religious, that there was raised in Germany the cry for reform which led to the Protestant schism. Luther wrestling with himself in the solitude of his cell and Leo feasting among pipers and buffoons make one of the notable contrasts of history.

Savoy.—In northwestern Italy, on the border of France, lay, among the snows of the Alps, the duchy of Savoy. At the beginning of the Modern Period the duke of Savoy was not yet an influential potentate, but he sat at the passes of the Alps, which he could open and shut, like a doorkeeper, at his pleasure or—for a consideration. This advantage of position he made shrewd use of, with the result that during the next centuries he waxed bigger and bigger, until finally his power surpassed that of any other prince of Italy. In the nineteenth century his house attained its final success in being called to reign over united Italy.

France.

REFERENCES: KITCHIN, History of France, Vol. II.; CAMBRIDGE MODERN HISTORY, Vol. I., Chapter XII.

The unification of France

In the second half of the fifteenth century, under Charles VII. (1422–61) and Louis XI. (1461–83), France lost much of her mediæval and feudal character and assumed the form of an absolute monarchy. The great fiefs, through the extinction of the local reigning families, had largely come back into the hands of the king, and instead of giving them again to dukes and counts as hereditary possessions, he kept them for himself, ruling them through governors with revocable powers. He had also secured a national revenue by means of a land-tax called *taille*, of which he had free disposal; and he had created a standing army which was in his pay and rendered him independent of the ancient levy of the nobles. The reign of Louis XI. was rendered particularly noteworthy by the resumption of the great fiefs of Provence and Burgundy on the death of the last male heirs of these provinces. Under Louis's son, Charles VIII. (1483–98), fortune continued to smile upon the royal house, for by his marriage with the heiress of Brittany Charles secured the great fief in the northwest for his family, and practically completed the unification of France.

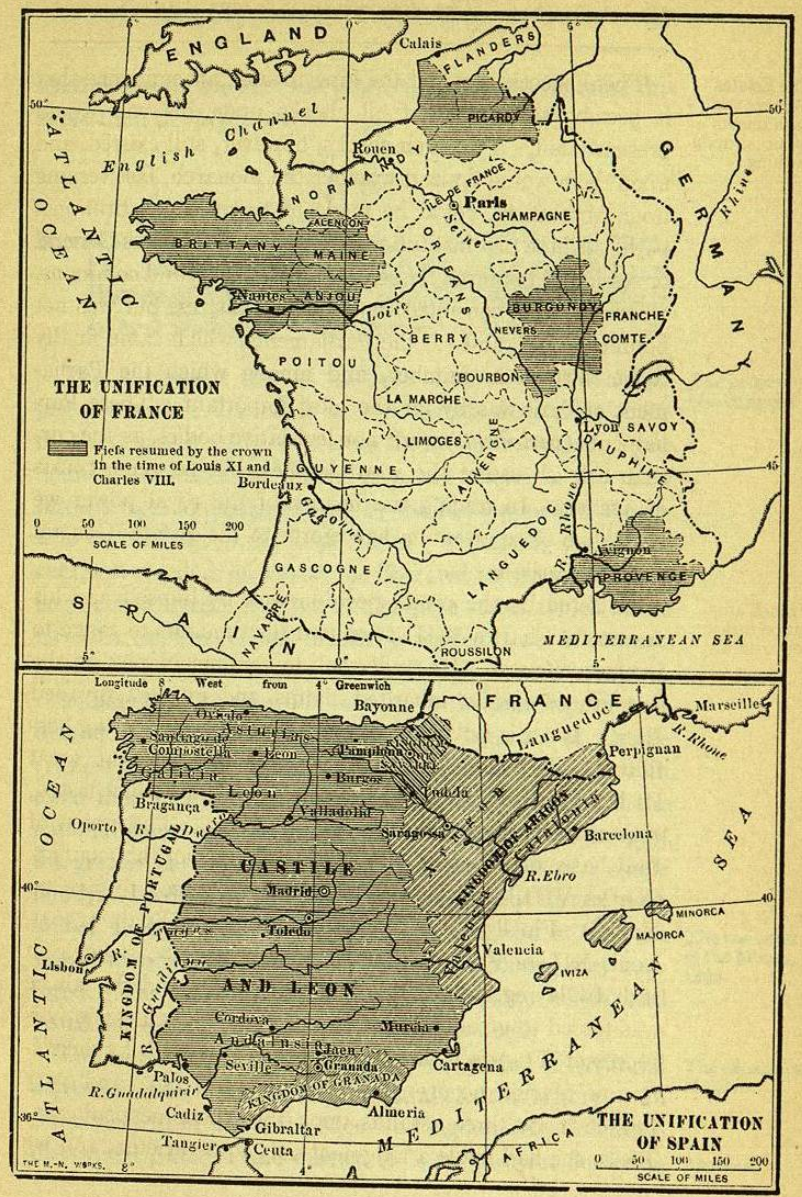
The *taille* and the standing army.

The Estates General and Parliaments as checks upon the king.

These successes raised the king to such an eminence that it became probable that all checks upon his will would presently fail. Two such checks, however, still existed, and upon them would depend whether the monarch, fast verging upon absolutism, could be made to travel a constitutional path. These two institutions were: (1) the Estates General or session of the three classes, clergy, nobility, and commons, whom the king consulted in periods of distress but was not bound to obey, and (2) the Parliaments, which came finally to be thirteen in number, and among which the Parliament of Paris was by far the most important. These Parliaments (*parlements*) were not legislative bodies, as the current English use of the word implies, but supreme courts of justice. In tracing the history of the royal power we must give close attention henceforth to the Estates General and the Parliaments.

French ambition turns toward Italy.

Flattered by the proud position won by himself and his ancestors, Charles VIII. permitted his thoughts to range to foreign conquest. He undertook to conquer Naples on the strength of certain inherited claims, and in 1494 invaded Italy. But his policy of foreign conquest incited the hostility of his jealous neighbor Spain, and led to the great French-Spanish wars for the possession of Italy, which lasted, with occasional interruptions, for fifty years. The review of Italy has acquainted us with the early stages of this conflict. Charles VIII. after a brief triumph was forced to give up Naples. Finally it was ceded to Ferdinand of Spain (1504). Louis XII. of France (1498–1515) renewed the struggle in Italy by laying hold of the duchy of Milan, and though he was forced to give up Milan in 1512 (the Holy League), his successor, Francis I., immediately reconquered it by the victory of Marignano (1515). Thus between 1494 and 1515 France made three assaults upon the Apennine peninsula. Twice she had made a lodgment only to be evicted, and we



shall presently see that her third conquest was no more durable than the other two.

Spain.

REFERENCES: HUME, The Spanish People, Chapters VIII., IX.; HUME, Spain, 1479–1788, Introduction; BURKE, History of Spain, Vol. II., Chapters XXXVII.–XLII.; LEA, A History of the Inquisition of Spain.

The unification of Spain.

The movement toward national unity and absolutism, just observed in France, is no less characteristic of the political development of Spain during the fifteenth century. The Spanish peninsula had suffered a sad eclipse in the early Middle Ages by being overrun by the Mohammedan Moors, who crossed the straits from Africa. Gradually the tide of conquest receded, and upon the liberated territory the Spaniards constructed a number of Christian states, which in the face of a common enemy inevitably tended to act in concert. A process of fusion began, which, though often interrupted, culminated in the fifteenth century in the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon (1479–1516) with Isabella of Castile (1474–1504). The kingdoms of Aragon and Castile both owed their greatness to their effective championship of the national cause against the Moors, and their union brought the greater part of the peninsula into the hands of a single family. Ferdinand and Isabella immediately turned their united strength against the hereditary foe, and in the year 1492 Granada, the last stronghold of the Moors, was captured. The Mohammedan power in Spain, which had lasted for eight centuries, had come to an end.

The conquest of the Moors, 1492.

The expansion of Spain.

The unification of Spain inaugurated a period of territorial expansion which can hardly be paralleled in history. In the same year in which the Moorish kingdom fell, Columbus discovered America and opened to Spain the vast dominion

America.

Naples.

of the New World. Next, Ferdinand, drawn into war with France on account of the conquest of Naples by Charles VIII., beat the French, and seized the kingdom of Naples for himself (1504). In 1512 he further acquired that part

Navarre.

of the border kingdom of Navarre which lay upon the Spanish slope of the Pyrenees. Thus it happened that when Ferdinand was succeeded, upon his death, by his grandson Charles I. (1516–56), this young king found himself master

Charles I.

of the most extensive territories of the world. Although Charles was, merely by virtue of his position as king of Spain, the leading sovereign of Europe, he had additional interests and resources as ruler of the Netherlands and archduke of Austria, which raised him far above any rival. Finally, in 1519, the electors of the Empire made him emperor under the name of Charles V.

The growth of absolutism.

The growth of the royal power had meanwhile kept pace with the territorial extension of Spain. With the aid of the cities, which were, as already explained, the natural allies of the monarch, Ferdinand and Isabella put down the robber-knights, the pest of every feudal country. They thus made the highways safe for the caravans of trade and gave peace to the land. Like all mediæval sovereigns, the monarchs of Aragon and Castile were more or less subject to their barons, who, when they met in formal session, called themselves the Cortes. As early as the twelfth century the representatives of the cities were admitted to

The Cortes.

the Cortes, whereupon the proud nobles of Castile, largely, it would seem, from disgust at this enforced association with commoners, began to withdraw from the parliamentary body. It was a stupid action, practically shattering the political power of the nobility. But the loss of the nobles was the gain of the sovereign, and when he now began to ride rough-shod over the commoners, the Cortes entered upon a slow decline. In Castile they dropped off

first, while in Aragon they showed some vigor as late as the reign of Philip II. (d. 1598).

But the event which, more than the decline of the Cortes, contributed to the extension of the central power was the introduction of that institution, so intimately associated with our conception of Spain, the Inquisition. The fundamental idea of the Inquisition is a committee of inquiry to ferret out and punish religious heresy. Such inquisitorial bodies were frequently organized both by Church and state during the Middle Ages. Spain did not originate the idea, she only took it up and gave it a new and effective expression. The country had a large population of Mohammedans and Jews, and in a period when every nation was animated with a blind passion for its particular religion, and when the modern idea of toleration was everywhere unknown, the alternative was to convert the man of another faith or put him to death. Add that in this case the man of the strange faith was also an alien in blood, and you have a double reason for treating him with rigor. The unity of the nation as well as the unity of the Church demanded his expulsion as a poison likely to infect the whole frame. The people of Spain chose to take this dark view of the heretical and unassimilated peoples in their midst, and the government of Ferdinand and Isabella adopted the opinion, and created, with the aid of the Church, the system of repression called the Inquisition. Tribunals, supporting a special police force and their own prisons, and operating with the secrecy and silence of the grave, were created at various places, and the whole organization was put in charge of a Grand Inquisitor. How solemnly this institution interpreted its task is witnessed by the fact that during the reign of the first Grand Inquisitor, Thomas de Torquemada, who held the office for fifteen years (1483–1498), about 9,000 persons were burned alive, 6,000 were burned in effigy, and 90,000 were condemned to ecclesiasti-

The Inquisition.

The work of the first Grand Inquisitor.

The *auto-da-fé*.

cal and civil penalties.[1] The death by fire, a public performance dignified under the name of *auto-da-fé*, or act of faith, drew large crowds of interested, applauding, and even devout spectators. The vast majority of the Spanish people, it has just been said, approved of the Inquisition. But they paid a heavy penalty for their lamentable intolerance by subjecting themselves to a terrible and invisible authority and by depriving their minds of that vigor and elasticity which result from the free and unhindered play of ideas. In consequence, they never developed those mental qualities which lead to an intelligent political opposition, and fell helplessly under the absolute yoke of the king.

England.

REFERENCES: GARDINER, A Student's History of England, pp. 343–61; GREEN, A Short History of the English People, pp. 288–303; TERRY, History of England, pp. 494–512.

York and Lancaster.

England passed through momentous vicissitudes in the fifteenth century. Under the ambitious monarch Henry V. she had become engaged in a policy of foreign conquest. But though Henry V. had conquered France, Henry VI. (1422–61) had lost all his continental possessions again except Calais. Worse than this, under this same well-intentioned but weak-spirited monarch she fell a prey to civil war. The House of York, related to the reigning House of Lancaster, ventured to put forth a claim to the throne, and the war that ensued, called the War of the Roses, lasted until 1485. In that year Richard III., the last direct male heir of the House of York, was defeated and killed at the battle of Bosworth. The victor, himself of the House of

[1] These figures are probably exaggerated. A careful Catholic historian (Gams) estimates the executions from 1481 to 1504 at 2,000.

Tudor, but at the same time a descendant on the female side of the House of Lancaster, succeeded to the throne as Henry VII. (1485–1509). Through the marriage of Henry VII. to Elizabeth, a daughter of Edward IV. of the House of York, the new House of Tudor united the claims of both contending houses. The situation, as is usual after bitter internal broils, remained precarious, and Henry had to face several civil disturbances in his reign; but as he had the Parliament and the nation back of him, he managed to maintain order and bring the ruinous War of the Roses to an end.

The House of Tudor.

Henry VII. founds the "strong monarchy."

Under Henry, an extremely able and cautious man, there grew up in England the "strong Tudor monarchy." Compared with such warrior predecessors as Edward III. and Henry V., Henry VII. exhibits the figure of a crafty and suspicious politician. For such a one the situation offered a unique opportunity. Traditionally, the power in England lay in the hands of the king and the Parliament, composed of the two houses of the Lords and the Commons. But as at this time the House of Lords was more influential than the House of Commons, the power in England lay practically, as everywhere in feudal times, with king and lords, lay and spiritual. Now the long civil war, which was really a war of two noble factions ranged under the banners of York and Lancaster, had made great havoc among the ranks of the nobility. Moreover, it had confirmed among the trading middle classes the desire for peace. The king found the nobility diminished in authority, and the common people disposed to concur in the repression of the ruling class. He determined to profit by this situation. It will be remembered that absolutism was in the air at the time, as is witnessed by the case of France and Spain. Without breaking any laws Henry managed to reduce to a minimum the importance of his partner in the government, the Parliament, by the simple

device of calling it together as little as possible. Only twice during the last thirteen years of his reign did he take counsel with the representatives of the nation. Parliament was legally associated with him in governing England, but when it did not occupy the stage he was left without a rival.

Henry curbs the nobles.

Perhaps no other matter claimed so much of Henry's attention as the danger arising to the commonwealth from the nobility. They were in the habit of defying the law through their strong castles, their numerous following, and their power to control or overawe the local courts. By the statutes against "livery and maintenance" he forbade them to keep armed and liveried retainers; then, to weaken them further, he assumed the right to summon them before a special court of justice called the Star Chamber Court, which sat at London, was composed of members of his council, and was dependent on himself. The protection of the local courts, which they dominated by threats or influence, was thereby rendered useless. Peace, rapid and complete, was the result. Of course the credit of the king was greatly augmented. In fact, England would have fallen as completely into the hands of her sovereign as France had done, if the law had not remained upon her statute-books that the king could raise no tax without the consent of his Parliament. This provision neither Henry VII. nor any of his successors dared to set aside. Thus, although not strictly observed, it remained the law of the land, and in the course of time, when the common people had acquired wealth and self-reliance, it was destined to become the weapon by which the "strong monarchy" was struck to the ground and Parliament set in the monarch's place.

Parliament remains in control of taxation.

Henry's policy of peace.

It was chiefly to rid himself of Parliament and to strengthen the monarchy internally that Henry kept clear of foreign war. War would have required money, and money

would have required a session of Parliament, from which might have come an interference with the king's plans. Henry, who had the sound sense to be satisfied with doing one thing thoroughly, did not let himself be drawn from his home plans by the prospect of barren victories abroad.

Henry secures a claim to North America.

It was during the reign of Henry VII. that Columbus discovered America. England was not yet a great sea-power, but Henry managed to secure at least a claim to the New World by sending out John Cabot, who, in 1497, discovered the continent of North America.