Great civilizations flourished in East and Southeast Asia in the thousand years after about the A.D. 500s. The cultures that emerged in China, Korea, Japan, and Southeast Asia reached new heights of achievement. Change and growth also characterized the civilizations that emerged in Europe during these same years. The barbarian peoples who overran much of the Roman Empire brought with them behaviors and traditions that gradually developed into a new and distinct European civilization. In this chapter, you will learn how new European societies and cultures arose from the ashes of Rome’s collapse.
What's Your Opinion?

Themes Journal

Do you agree or disagree with the following statements? Support your point of view in your journal.

Government
Successful governments should establish a firm separation between the powers of church and state.

Constitutional Heritage
Individual rights do not need to be included and defined in a constitution.

Economics
Farming societies promote more secure and peaceful lifestyles than do societies that are centered upon industrial growth.
The Rise of the Franks

The Main Idea
A new European civilization arose based on Roman and Germanic values and traditions.

The Story Continues  "Charles was large and strong, and of lofty stature...his appearance was always stately and dignified...His gait [stride] was firm, his whole carriage manly, and his voice clear."
This is how one observer described Charlemagne, one of the strong rulers who helped bring order to Europe in the Middle Ages.

The Frankish Rulers

For hundreds of years following the breakup of the Western Roman Empire, Europe was the scene of widespread disorder and change. Waves of barbarian invasion and settlement brought new customs and lifestyles to many parts of western Europe. Over time the social and political patterns typical of life in the empire merged with new patterns brought by barbarian peoples who settled in the West.

An age of transition. Gradually Europeans began to restore order in their lives. Many historians see the years between the 400s and about 1500 as a transition in the development of Western culture. Thus this period is generally known as the Middle Ages, or the medieval period of European development. It is the time in history between the end of the classical age and the beginnings of the modern world.

Many Germanic tribes plundered Europe and established small kingdoms. One tribe proved to have a lasting impact on European history. This group of loosely organized Germanic peoples, known as the Franks, did much to shape the new culture of post-Roman Europe.

Clovis and the Merovingians. The Franks first came into contact with the Roman Empire during the 200s, when they began moving into the lower Rhine River valley. In 481 a ruler named Clovis became king of one of the Frankish tribes. Clovis and his successors were called Merovingians because Clovis traced his family back to an ancestor named Menwech. Clovis was an able military leader. He and his troops conquered and absorbed other Frankish tribes. Soon they controlled all of northern Gaul.

Because Clovis had by this time become a Christian, the Franks received the support of the Christian church. The Franks soon seized and began to rule southwestern Gaul. This is the area that today is occupied by France, which is named for the Franks. When Clovis died, his sons divided the kingdom, as was often the Frankish custom.
The Merovingian kings who ruled after Clovis were generally weak. Eventually the chief of the royal household, known as the “mayor of the palace,” became the real ruler of each kingdom. One of these mayors was Pépin II, who ruled from 687 to 714. Pépin and his successors united the Frankish kingdoms.

**Charles Martel and Pépin the Short.** After Pépin II died, his son, Charles Martel, known as Charles the Hammer, became mayor of the palace. Charles Martel’s cavalry defeated the Spanish Moors in 732 when they invaded France. This halted the Muslim advance in western Europe, although Muslim raids continued.

Charles Martel died in 741. His son, Pépin III, called “the Short,” became the Merovingian kingdom’s joint mayor of the palace with his brother, Carloman. Pépin, already king in all but name, overthrew Chilperic III, the last Merovingian ruler, and claimed the Frankish throne for his own. In 751 Pépin was anointed king of the Franks. Pépin III’s coronation established the Carolingians, a new line of Frankish rulers. The pope’s confirmation of Pépin’s rule, moreover, strengthened the legitimacy of the new Carolingian dynasty. This was because European Christians believed that the pope’s blessing came directly from God. Over time monarchs throughout western Europe sought the church’s blessing in order to support their rule.

The pope sought Pépin’s help against the Lombards, a Germanic tribe that was attacking central Italy and threatening Rome. Pépin led a Frankish army into Italy and defeated the Lombards. The Franks won control of the territory around Rome and gave it to the pope. This gift of land is called the Donation of Pépin. It created the Papal States, which for centuries remained the stronghold of the church. The alliance that grew between the Franks and the church as a result of these actions made each side stronger. It also paved the way for the rise of Charlemagne, Pépin’s son and the greatest of all Frankish kings.

**Charlemagne’s empire.** Charlemagne inherited the Frankish throne in 768 and ruled until 814. During the 46 years of his reign, Charlemagne worked to build a “new Rome” centered in what is now France and Germany. As a devout Christian he helped to spread church teachings and Christian beliefs. His rule did much to bring civilization, order, and learning to barbarian Europe during the 800s.

Charlemagne spent much of his life at war. He defeated the Lombards in Italy, the Saxons in northern Germany, and the Avars in central Europe. He tried to conquer all of Muslim Spain, but failed. He was able, however, to drive the Moors back across the Pyrenees, a mountain range that separates Spain and France. Charlemagne’s victory over the Moors added a small strip of Spanish land, called the “Spanish March,” to his large empire. It also created a “buffer zone”—a kind of frontier—between Christian and Muslim Europe.

On Christmas Day of the year 800, Charlemagne was in Rome to worship at Saint Peter’s Basilica. As Charlemagne knelt in prayer, Pope Leo III placed a crown on his head and declared him “Emperor of the Romans.” Although the Roman Empire was long gone, the title indicates Charlemagne’s importance to western Europe. He had united much of western Europe for the first time in
400 years. Because of this, Europe regarded Charlemagne as the successor to the Roman emperors. The pope's coronation of Charlemagne was also significant because it showed the close ties that existed between the Franks and the Christian church.

Charlemagne was very conscious of his unique position as leader of a new western order. He saw himself, moreover, as the inheritor of Roman authority. He aimed to live up to the image of a Roman emperor in his actions, his policies, and the glory of his empire. He was greatly admired for his skills as a warrior as well as for his devotion to Christianity.

**Government.** Charlemagne's empire was divided into regions, each governed on the emperor's behalf by an official known as a count. Charlemagne established his capital at the northern Frankish city of Aix-la-Chapelle (AHS-lah shah-puhl), today the bustling German city of Aachen (ah-kahn). The emperor used oaths of fidelity to ensure that the counts and other Carolingian officials ruled effectively under his command. Appointed officials helped Charlemagne run his empire. These officials were called *missi dominici* or "the lord's messengers." They would travel through the empire to hear complaints, investigate official misconduct, and determine the effectiveness of laws. The *missi dominici* ensured that the counts were serving the emperor and not themselves. Charlemagne viewed the *missi dominici* as his direct representatives and gave them a great deal of authority to make decisions in his name.

**History Makers Speak**

"Let the *missi* themselves make a diligent investigation whenever any man claims that an injustice has been done to him by any one . . . and they shall administer the law fully and justly in the case of the holy churches of God and of the poor, of wards (orphans) and widows, and of the whole people."

Charlemagne, quoted in D.C. Murra, ed. *Translations and Reprints from the Original Sources of European History. Vol. IV. Laws of Charles the Great*

**Education and learning.** Although Charlemagne himself was not formally educated, he placed great value on education. He started schools at his palace for his own children and other young nobles. Scholars—usually monks—were invited from all over western Europe to teach at the school. Charlemagne appointed one of Europe's most respected thinkers, Alcuin (uh-kwehn) of York, to head the school and establish its course of learning. Alcuin developed a curriculum based on the Roman model, emphasizing grammar, rhetoric, logic, mathematics, music, and astronomy. Charlemagne also brought together scholars to produce a readable Bible. They used a new script called Caroline minuscule. The new Bible was used throughout Charlemagne's empire. Charlemagne also ordered the empire's bishops to create libraries.

Although some scholars claim Charlemagne never learned to write, he could read. Saint Augustine's *City of God* was one of his favorite books. Throughout his rule Charlemagne encouraged—sometimes forced—the empire's people to convert to Christianity.

**READING CHECK: Summarizing** What steps did Charlemagne take to help assure that his officials ruled effectively and honestly?
The Decline of the Frankish Empire

The proud empire that Charlemagne had built and governed so well did not long survive his death in 814. His descendants did not inherit Charlemagne’s energy, his ability, or his long-range point of view. As a result, the empire’s strength declined rapidly. By the mid-800s the once mighty Carolingian state had begun to divide and collapse.

The empire after Charlemagne’s death. Charlemagne’s only surviving son, Louis the Pious, proved to be a well-educated and religious king but a weak and shortsighted ruler. When Louis died in 840, his sons Lothair, Charles the Bald, and Louis the German agreed to divide the empire among themselves after much dispute. This agreement, signed in 843, became known as the Treaty of Verdun.

Instead of uniting to overcome enemies from within and beyond the splintered empire, Charlemagne’s grandsons and their successors fought among themselves. By

Charlemagne’s Empire, 768–814 (left) and The Frankish Kingdoms After the Treaty of Verdun, 843 (right)

Interpreting Maps The Carolingian Empire, begun under Pépin III and expanded by Charlemagne, brought much of western Europe under Frankish rule. Charlemagne’s grandsons divided the empire into three separate kingdoms.

Skills Assessment: 1. Human Systems Identify the Germanic tribes that Charlemagne incorporated into his empire.
2. Analyzing Information Whose kingdom after 843 claimed the most major cities?
870 the middle kingdom had been divided between the rulers of the eastern and western kingdoms. To make matters worse, powerful lords in these two kingdoms became increasingly independent of the Carolingian monarchs. These lords thought they could best serve their own interests by defying the weakening rule of the central monarchs.

Charlemagne’s empire was further undermined by invasions of different peoples from beyond the empire’s frontiers. Muslims from Africa invaded the Mediterranean coast. Slavs from the east raided central Europe. Another group from the east, the nomadic Magyars who settled in what is now Hungary, terrorized Europe for about 50 years before they were finally defeated.

The Vikings. The most feared invaders of western Europe during the 800s and the 900s were the Vikings from Scandinavia in the north. Vikings, or “Norsemen,” were Germanic peoples from what are now the countries of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. The Vikings’ customs and myths centered on pagan gods. Archaeologists have excavated Viking burial mounds that include boats and tools for use in the afterlife. The Vikings would sometimes place a dead person in a boat and burn it. In about 930 an Arab, Ibn Fadlan, witnessed the funeral of a Viking chieftain. The chieftain’s ship was hauled onto the land, and his body

Peoples of Europe, 600–1000

Interpreting Maps Beginning in the early Middle Ages, new waves of invasions by Muslim, Germanic, and Slavic peoples swept across western Europe.

Skills Assessment: 1. Human Systems What major group of invaders was most concentrated in the Mediterranean Basin?
2. Drawing Inferences Why might both the Vikings and the Muslims have been drawn to Constantinople?
was placed on the ship along with rich grave goods. A historian, using Ibn Fadlan's account, described the Arab observer's experience:

"On the day of the burial, . . . the slave girl said, 'Lo, I see my lord and master he calls to me. Let me go to him.' Aboard the ship waited the old woman called the Angel of Death, who would kill her. The girl drank from a cup . . . and sang a long song. She grew fearful and hesitant. At once the old woman grasped her head and led her into the tent. Inside the tent the girl died beside her master by stabbing and strangling. Then the ship was fired."


Although the Vikings were ruled by kings and nobles, their government was surprisingly democratic for its time. Assemblies of landowners made the laws. The Vikings were primarily farmers but also gathered, fished, and hunted. In the spring and summer the Vikings would travel south and west along the coasts of mainland Europe and the British Isles. They sailed rivers into Germany, France, and the Baltic area. The Vikings would raid and loot settlements and bring captives back to work as slaves on their farms in Scandinavia. Their way of capturing towns was often savage and cruel. Their use of axes and large dogs struck terror into people. The Vikings were also skilled in siege operations and could capture even strongly fortified towns.

Their sturdy ships carried the Vikings across the Atlantic Ocean to what is now Iceland, Greenland, and North America. In time they settled in England, Ireland, and parts of continental Europe. A large Viking settlement in northwestern France gave that region its name—Normandy, from the French word for "Northmen."

✔ **READING CHECK:** Finding the Main Idea Why were groups such as the Magyars and Vikings able to invade the Frankish Empire successfully?

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**SECTION 1 REVIEW**

1. **Define** and explain the significance: medieval

2. **Identify** and explain the significance: Middle Ages Clovis Merovingians Charles Martel Carolingians Charlemagne Louis the Pious Magyars Vikings

3. **Categorizing** Copy the diagram and use it to show how Charlemagne organized his government and what responsibilities were held by the various officials.

   [Diagram: Charlemagne's Empire]

4. **Finding the Main Idea**
   a. What actions helped Charlemagne to unify his empire?
   b. In what ways did the actions of Charlemagne's grandsons cause the Carolingian Empire to become vulnerable to invaders from the north, south, and east?

5. **Writing and Critical Thinking**

   **Comparing and Contrasting** Imagine that you are living in Paris at the end of the 800s. Write a journal entry in which you compare daily life in the western kingdom to stories that you have heard of life in the Carolingian Empire during Charlemagne's reign.

   **Consider:**
   - the actions that Charlemagne took to centralize and expand the empire
   - the effects of the Treaty of Verdun on the unity and security of the empire

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**Homework Practice Online**

[Keyword: SH3 HP4]

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THE RISE OF THE MIDDLE AGES 101
Feudalism and the Manorial System

The Main Idea
Feudalism and manorialism structured and organized European society in the Middle Ages.

The Story Continues
Society in the Middle Ages was strongly shaped by relationships of loyalty and service between higher and lower nobles. “I urge you. . . . to maintain towards [your overlord] . . . a devoted and certain fealty [loyalty] both of body and soul,” one mother advised her son. For centuries the nature of this binding relationship organized medieval society on the basis of military service and land ownership.

Feudalism

Within 100 years of Charlemagne’s death, organized, large-scale government in Europe all but disappeared. By the 900s most Europeans were governed by small, local, independent leaders, most often by local lords. The political organization these leaders represented is known as feudalism.

The system. Within the feudal system a powerful noble granted land to a lesser noble. Actual ownership of the land remained with the noble who made the grant. The noble who received the grant was entitled to use of the land and its products, but could not “own” the land. This grant of land allowed the lesser noble to “maintain” himself and his household. In return for maintenance, the lesser noble promised loyalty, military assistance, and other services to the lord who granted the land. The person who granted land was a lord and the grant of land was called a fief. The person who received the fief was a vassal. The transaction of a noble granting land and a vassal receiving land created a contract between the two. A vassal could further divide the land he had been granted and grant it to others, such as knights. Thus, a vassal could also be a lord.

Eventually the fief became hereditary, as legal possession of the land passed from a vassal to his son. By about 1100 it had become customary for the eldest son of a lord or vassal to inherit ownership or possession of the land. This system of inheritance from father to eldest son is called primogeniture (pyr-moh-juh-nuh-guh-nyur). Women’s rights regarding legal property were limited. A woman might have had fiefs in her dowry. However, when she married, her husband gained control over her dowry. In most cases a woman regained control of the property in her dowry if her husband died.

WHY IT MATTERS TODAY
Feudal Europe was the scene of frequent local wars and conflicts. Use current or other current event sources to investigate how continual conflict affects the people of a region and the lifestyles they follow. Record your findings in your journal.

READ TO DISCOVER
1. How did feudalism help to shape political and social development in Europe during the Middle Ages?
2. In what ways did manorialism influence economic growth in Europe during the Middle Ages?

DEFINE
feudalism
fief
vassal
primogeniture
manorialism
serfs
chivalry

INTERPRETING THE VISUAL RECORD
Lord and vassal This stained-glass window depicts the relationship between a lord and his vassals. How can you tell that the lord is more powerful than the vassals in this picture?
Throughout the Middle Ages local lords held many of the powers associated with government. Kings were also bound by the customs and obligations of feudalism. In theory every landholder was a vassal to the king. In practice, however, the king controlled only those who lived on his feudal lands. Even the church was part of the feudal system. The medieval church owned vast amounts of land and had many vassals who were granted fiefs in return for military protection and service.

**Warfare.** Wars were common during the Middle Ages. Many wars grew out of private fights between feudal lords, or lords and vassals, and were local conflicts that involved only a handful of nobles and their knights. In other cases, wars could be large-scale events that involved whole regions and that could be immensely destructive.

Knights in the Middle Ages wore armor in battle and were heavily armed. In the early Middle Ages, armor was made of chain mail—small, interlocking metal links stitched to a knee-length leather shirt. The knight would also wear an iron helmet and carry a sword, a large shield, and a lance. With the introduction of gunpowder during the late Middle Ages, overlapping metal plates replaced chain mail. Often, plate armor was so heavy that knights had to be hauled onto their horses with cranes. Battle horses were much larger than today’s saddle horses. The warhorses of the Middle Ages probably resembled today’s Clydesdales and Percherons in size, weight, and power.

In medieval times wars had different effects on society. For nobles, wars were an opportunity for glory and wealth. For most people of the Middle Ages, however, war was a major cause of suffering and hardship. The church tried to limit the general suffering caused by war by issuing several decrees that prohibited acts of violence and private warfare near churches and other holy buildings. If the decrees were not obeyed, the church threatened punishment. The church also forbade violence against cattle and agricultural equipment as well as certain types of persons, including clergy, women, merchants, and pilgrims. The church tried to get all lords to accept another decree that forbade fighting on certain days, such as weekends and holy days. However, restrictions on fighting could almost never be enforced strictly. Private wars continued until kings became strong enough to stop them.

**Feudal justice.** Feudal justice differed greatly from Roman justice. A feudal trial was decided in one of three ways: trial by battle; compurgation, or oath taking; and trial by ordeal. A trial could be a duel between accuser and accused—or their representatives—in which the outcome determined innocence or guilt.
The Rise of Feudalism

When reading sources on the rise of feudalism, readers should be careful to distinguish between facts and values statements. A fact can be proven true or false. A values statement is an opinion that represents a particular point of view. For example, a writer can state that Charlemagne was a successful ruler. That is a values statement because it is based on the writer's idea of success. Sometimes a fact and a values statement can be included in the same sentence. For example, a writer may state that Charlemagne spoke Greek and Latin so beautifully he could have taught both languages. Charlemagne's ability to speak the languages can be proven true or false. However, whether he spoke them beautifully is a matter of opinion.

A Historian's View

The statement below discusses one historian's view of the best way to define feudalism.

"The simplest way will be to begin by saying what feudal society was not. Although obligations arising from blood-relationship played a very active part in it, it did not rely on kinship alone...feudal ties...developed when those of kinship proved inadequate...

European feudalism should therefore be seen as the outcome of the violent dissolution of older societies. It would in fact be unintelligible without the great upheaval of the Germanic invasions which, by forcibly uniting the two societies originally at very different stages of development, disrupted both of them and brought to the surface a great many...social practices of an extremely primitive nature."

Skills Reminder

To distinguish a fact from a values statement, review the difference between a fact and a values statement. Then identify words that suggest a value or opinion. For example, adjectives such as great, wonderful, horrible are words that express feelings. "I" statements can also help determine whether a statement is a point of view. In my opinion or I think express a point of view. Finally, ask questions about the sentence. Can "That meal I had was really awful" mean more than one thing? What is the fact in the statement and what is the opinion?

Skills Practice

1. Which sentences in the historian's statement contain facts?
2. Which sentences in the historian's statement contain values statements?
3. While listening to a radio or TV news report, identify the factual information provided by the report. Then identify statements of opinion and values statements, and analyze how those statements are used to influence the listener's/viewer's conclusions.
In compurgation, the accuser and the accused were supported by people who swore that the person they represented was telling the truth. The oath takers were probably similar to character witnesses in today’s trials. The outcome of a trial by ordeal was determined by how the accused survived a particular ordeal. The accused had to carry a piece of hot iron, plunge his hand in a pot of boiling water, or survive extended immersion in cold water. If the accused person’s wounds healed quickly and well, he was innocent; if not, he was guilty.

✓ READING CHECK: Analyzing Information What were some aspects of feudalism?

The Manorial System

Feudalism provided social and political structure to the culture of the Middle Ages. Similarly, manorialism shaped the economy of much of Europe during these years. The system took its name from the manors of the Middle Ages. Manors were large farming estates that included manor houses, cultivated lands, woodlands, pastures, fields, and villages.

Central authority and organized trade—key parts of most modern economies—were almost nonexistent during the Middle Ages. Thus people who lived on manors needed to be self-sufficient. They sought to produce everything they needed, including food, clothing, and shelter. Some items, however, such as iron, salt, wool, wine, and certain manufactured goods, were purchased.

A lord and several peasant families shared the land of the manor. Generally the lord kept about one third of the manor’s lands, called the domain, for himself. The manor’s peasants farmed the remaining two-thirds of the land for themselves. In return for being able to work the land, the peasants gave the lord some of their crops and helped to farm his land. The peasants also provided other services on the manor and paid many kinds of taxes.

Ideally a manor village was located along a stream or river, which provided waterpower for the village mill. For safety a small group of houses were clustered near the manor house or castle. The land surrounding the manor house included the village, vegetable plots, cultivated fields, pastures, and forests. Cultivated land was often divided into three large fields for growing grain. Only two of the three fields were planted at one time. The third field could lie fallow, or unplanted, for a season to regain its fertility. The three fields were divided into small strips distributed among the peasants. If the lord’s domain was divided, he too had strips of land in each field.

Peasant life. Peasants’ lives were difficult in medieval times because they spent long hours at backbreaking work in the fields. A text written during the Middle Ages described a typical workday from a peasant’s point of view.

“...I work very hard. I go out at dawn, driving the oxen to the field, and I yoke them to the plough; however hard the winter I dare not stay at home for fear of my master; but, having yoked the oxen and made the plough-share ... fast to the plough, every day I have to plough a whole acre or more... It is hard work, because I am not a free man.”

Aelfric, Colloquy; translated by G.G. Coulton in The Medieval Village

INTERPRETING THE VISUAL RECORD

Peasant farmers This stylized image from the 1400s illustrates the work of medieval peasants during harvest time. What evidence does this illustration provide of tools and techniques used by farm workers during the Middle Ages?

ANALYZING PRIMARY SOURCES

Summarizing According to this account, why did the peasant find his work to be especially hard?
Most peasants—called serfs—could not leave the land without the lord’s permission. Their meals consisted mainly of black bread, lentils, some vegetables, and ale. Because livestock helped work the fields, and because peasants were generally forbidden to hunt on the lord’s land, they could rarely afford to eat meat. Compared to life expectancies today, average life spans in the Middle Ages were very short. Among the factors that severely limited the life expectancies of most Europeans were disease, starvation, and frequent warfare. Very likely, peasants lived, worked, and died in the village in which they had been born.

**Nobles’ lifestyles.** Frequently people think of the Middle Ages as a time when lords and knights lived in elegant castles. The upper classes of the Middle Ages, however, generally did not live in luxury or even in comfort by today’s standards.

A castle was a fortified base from which the lord enforced his authority and protected the surrounding countryside. In the early Middle Ages, castles were simple structures made from earth and wood. Later they were made from stone.

Castles were usually built on hills or other landforms that would prevent easy attack. If a castle was on flat land that was difficult to defend, a ditch called a moat was built around it and sometimes flooded with water. A drawbridge extended across the moat to allow entry to the castle’s courtyard. If the castle was attacked, the drawbridge could be raised.

A building called the “keep” was the main part of the castle. The keep was a strong tower that usually contained storerooms, workshops, and perhaps barracks and the lord’s living quarters. In the great hall the lord received visitors. The castle’s rooms had thick walls and small windows with no glass. As a result the rooms were usually dark and chilly. The lord spent most of his day looking after his land and dispensing justice among his vassals and serfs.

A lord or the head of a peasant family depended on his wife and children for help. Marriage was viewed as a way to advance one’s fortune. Through marriage a man might acquire land. While marriage might bring a man land, it usually produced children who had to be cared for. A lord would often provide dowries for any daughters. Among peasants, children were often welcomed as a source of farm labor.

**Chivalry.** By the late 1100s a code of conduct known as *chivalry* had begun to bring major changes to feudal society. Chivalry was a system of rules that dictated knights’ behavior towards others. The word chivalry comes from the French word *cheval,* meaning “horse,” and refers to the fact that knights were mounted soldiers.

To become a knight, a boy had to belong to the noble class and had to pass through two stages of training. The first stage began at about the age of seven, when a boy would serve as a knight’s page, or attendant. The page would learn knightly manners and begin to learn how to use and care for weapons. As a teenager the page would
become a knight's assistant, called a squire. The squire would take care of the knight's horse, armor, and weapons. Then, probably when the knight thought that the squire was ready, the squire would accompany the knight into battle. If the squire proved himself to be a skilled and courageous fighter, he would be knighted in an elaborate religious ceremony.

A knight in full armor, wearing a closed helmet, often could be distinguished from other knights only by his coat of arms. The knight's coat of arms was a graphic symbol that identified him and that represented his personal characteristics. The coat of arms was painted or stitched onto the knight's shield or outer coat, his flag, or possibly his horse's trappings. Generally the coat of arms was passed along from one generation to the next.

According to the code of chivalry, knights were expected to be courteous to women and the less powerful.

Chivalry did much to improve the rough and crude manners of early feudal lords. Behavior, however, did not become perfect by any modern standard. A knight was required to extend courtesy only to people of his own class. Toward others his attitude and actions could be coarse, bullying, and arrogant.

✓ READING CHECK: Drawing Inferences How did manorialism complement feudalism?

SECTION 2 REVIEW

1. Define and explain the significance: feudalism, fief, primogeniture, manorialism, serfs, chivalry
2. Making Generalizations Copy the graphic organizer below to demonstrate the responsibilities of lords and peasants on a manor.

   ![Graphic Organizer]

   Manor

   Lords ➔ Peasants

3. Finding the Main Idea
   a. How was medieval Europe different from previous civilizations?
   b. What were the chief political and economic characteristics of feudalism and manorialism?

4. Writing and Critical Thinking
   Summarizing Imagine that you are a squire in service to a knight, or a young noblewoman in service to a lady. Compose a journal entry that describes your duties and goals.
   Consider:
   • the relationship between the squire and knight or the young noblewoman and the lady
   • the responsibilities of the servant

THE RISE OF THE MIDDLE AGES 107
The Church

The Story Continues  Throughout the Middle Ages the church was one of the few sources of leadership and stability that people could rely upon. One historian has noted that "The continuity and the authority of the Church of Rome stood out in marked contrast against... the short-lived kingdoms which rose and fell in [the early Middle Ages]." As a result, the Catholic church became one of medieval Europe's most powerful and enduring institutions.

The Church Hierarchy

The medieval church had broad political powers, probably because Europe's central governments were weak if they existed at all. The church filled the need for leadership by performing many of the functions that modern governments provide today. Throughout most of the Middle Ages, the church was one of the only institutions whose presence was felt throughout Europe. Its powers extended across kingdoms and through every social and political level. The church was also a great economic force during the Middle Ages. By the 1100s the medieval church was one of Europe's leading landowners, and many of its leaders were powerful feudal overlords.

The parish priest. Within the church, members of the clergy were organized according to a strict hierarchy of rank. Each rank within the clergy had different responsibilities and powers. The parish priest held the lowest rank in the church hierarchy. The parish itself was the smallest division in the church, and the priest directly served the people in his parish. He was responsible for their religious instruction and for the moral and spiritual life of the community as a whole. In some remote parishes, however, people might still have mixed pagan beliefs and superstitions with elements of Christianity.

Although he held the lowest rank in the church, the parish priest was one of its most important officers. He could administer five of the seven sacraments. The sacraments were ceremonies at which participants received God's direct favor, or grace, to help ward off the consequences of sin. By the 1100s the church recognized seven sacraments that are still practiced today. Parish priests could perform baptism, Holy Communion, penance, matrimony, and the anointing of the sick and dying. Bishops performed the sacraments of confirmation and the taking of holy orders.

The bishop. The bishop managed a group of parishes called a diocese. The cathedral, the bishop's official church, was usually located in the principal city of the diocese. *Cathedral* is the Latin word for the bishop's throne, or chair. The king or powerful nobles usually controlled the selection of bishops on

This jeweled silver cup was made in Germany in the 1200s for use during the sacrament of Holy Communion.
the basis of family connections and political power. Many bishops were feudal lords or vasals in their own right and had vasals themselves.

**Church leadership.** A group of several dioceses, called an archdiocese, was managed by an archbishop. An archbishop had all the powers and responsibilities of a bishop and also had authority over the bishops of the archdiocese.

The pope held supreme authority in the church. The pope was advised by the curia, a group of counselors drawn from the highest ranks of the clergy. The curia’s most important and powerful members were cardinals, the “princes of the church,” who advised the pope on legal and spiritual matters. From the late 1100s on, only cardinals could elect the pope. With very few exceptions, a commoner could move up in the medieval world only by being a member of the church hierarchy. A man of great ability, regardless of birth, could rise to great heights within the church, although this did not happen often.

**READING CHECK:** **Drawing Inferences** Why was the role of the parish priest among the most important within the hierarchy of the church?

**Monasticism**

The medieval church was made up of two types of clergy. Priests, bishops, and the pope were secular clergy. The word *secular* comes from the Latin word *saeculum*, which means “the present world.” Secular clergy gave sacraments and preached the gospel among people in the everyday world. The second group of clergy was called regular clergy. The word *regular* comes from the Latin word *regula*, which means “rule.” Male monks made up the regular clergy because they had to live in accordance with strict rules. Female nuns also lived in accordance with strict rules, but they were not considered clergy because only men could fulfill that role in the church.

**Monastic lifestyles.** Monks and nuns believed that they had to withdraw from the world and its temptations to live a Christian life. They chose to serve God through fasting, prayer, and self-denial. During the early centuries of Christianity, monks lived alone and practiced their devotion to God in many ways. They sometimes inflicted extreme physical suffering on themselves to prove their dedication. Eventually most monks and nuns gave up the hermit’s lifestyle and formed religious communities. Monks lived in communities called monasteries, while nuns lived in convents. Monasticism refers to the way of life in convents and monasteries.

**The Benedictine Rule.** In some places efforts were made to organize the monastic communities before the 500s. Around that time a young Roman named Benedict became disgusted with the worldly corruption he witnessed. He left Rome to worship God as a hermit. Benedict’s reputation for holiness spread and he attracted many followers. To accommodate his growing following, Benedict established a monastery at Monte Cassino, in the mountains of central Italy. Benedict—later Saint Benedict—created rules to govern monks’ lives. Monasteries and convents all over Europe adopted these standards, called the Benedictine Rule.
The Benedictine Rule was fairly strict. Everything a monk or nun used or wore belonged to their community. Even the monk’s time and labor belonged to his monastery. An abbot was the elected head of the community and controlled and distributed all property. An abbess served a similar role for women in convents. Monks and nuns spent many hours of each day in prayer. The rest of their days were taken up with tasks that the abbot or abbess assigned them.

**The spread of monastic influence.** Monks and nuns often took care of the needy in medieval society. In time many monasteries became rich as pious nobles gave money or land to monasteries in return for spiritual favor. Convents also received some gifts, but they generally did not become as wealthy as many monasteries.

Some monks left their monasteries to become missionaries. For example, Saint Patrick is credited with bringing Christianity to Ireland in 432. Monastic schools in Ireland were the basis of an advanced culture that lasted from about 500 to about 800. Saint Augustine led a group of monks to England. Eventually, all of England accepted Christianity. Augustine became the Archbishop of Canterbury, and Canterbury became the center of the Christian church in England.

**✓ READING CHECK: Identifying Cause and Effect** How did Saint Benedict change monasticism?

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**The Church and Medieval Life**

The Christian clergy—secular and regular alike—played a major role in medieval institutions and everyday life. Throughout the Middle Ages, the church enjoyed great political, economic, and social influence across most of Europe.

**Political role.** In the Papal States, the pope was both political and religious leader. Many popes claimed that the church held political as well as spiritual power over all monarchs. Church leaders also held positions of power as feudal lords and as advisors to kings and nobles.

The church had its own code of law, called canon law, and its own courts. Members of the clergy could be tried in this court and the court would rule accordingly, perhaps excommunicating them. An excommunicated person was cut off from the church and could not receive the sacraments or be buried in sacred ground. Excommunication was greatly feared by Christians because it effectively removed an individual from society.

The court could also issue an interdict against an entire region. All churches in that region would be closed, and clergy would be forbidden to perform marriages, burials, or other sacraments. People in an interdicted area could be at risk of eternal punishment. In many cases, the church used its power of interdict to turn a region’s people against rulers who opposed church powers and policies. The church did not allow anyone to question the basic principles of the Christian religion. People who denied the truth of the church’s principles or who preached beliefs not approved by the church were considered heretics. They were viewed as unbelievers whose sinful beliefs attacked the church and who thus deserved eternal damnation. In a sense, heresy was a threat to the church in the way that treason is a threat to a government.

The medieval church also had the power to tax. The parish priest collected a tithe, or one-tenth of a Christian person’s income. The church also received a large income from its own lands. By the early 1200s, when the church was at the height of its power, it was perhaps the wealthiest single institution in Europe.
**Economic and Social Role.** The spiritual teachings of the church did much to shape the European economy of the Middle Ages. For example, the church generally did not approve of people gaining wealth at the expense of others. Instead it taught that people who labored should be regarded with the dignity of free people. Monks participated in agriculture and some monasteries were involved in large-scale trade.

The church considered the family a sacred institution. It did not allow divorce and said special prayers for family members. The clergy was involved with social work and took care of the poor and needy. Some religious orders even established hospitals.

**Problems of the Church.** The church’s great wealth and influence led to many problems. One major problem concerned lay investiture—the practice of a noble, such as a king, appointing a friend or relative to be a bishop or abbot. Church leaders held that only a member of the clergy could grant spiritual authority to another member. During the Middle Ages, moreover, people could buy high positions within the church hierarchy. This practice was called simony. The purchaser might have gained wealth through his position, either from church income or by charging high fees for performing religious services. As time went on, the practice of simony came under growing criticism from inside and outside the church.

Many church leaders and lay rulers attempted to bring about church reform. Two religious groups dedicated themselves to this goal. Saint Francis of Assisi founded the order of Franciscans in 1209. Saint Dominic founded the order of the Dominicans in 1216. Members of these orders, called friars, lived and preached among the people.

In the mid-1200s the church attempted to reform itself with the help of the Dominicans. The church ordered the Dominicans to seek out heretics and to stamp out teachings that opposed church doctrines. This search for heretics is known as the Inquisition. Heretics who confessed to sinful teachings or practices were forced to perform penance, a ritual designed to bring forgiveness. Those who did not confess were turned over to the government for punishment or execution, which sometimes involved burning at the stake. The church believed that these severe actions were needed to stop the spread of heresy in the Christian world.

**READING CHECK: Summarizing** How was the church involved in the political and economic life of the Middle Ages?
The Struggle for Power in England and France

The Main Idea
Royal power gained supremacy over the power of the nobles in England and France during the Middle Ages.

The Story Continues
Kings, nobles, and church leaders sought to gain power over one another throughout the Middle Ages. King Philip II of France, for example, sought to control the election of bishops in the French church. “We warn the canons and monks,” Philip ordered, “to elect someone who will be pleasing to God and useful to the realm.” The struggle for power among these groups was a continuing theme in the development of medieval Europe.

Anglo-Saxon and Norman England
In Europe before the 1000s, kings and lords often struggled for power. Some lords were as powerful as kings and served the kings when they wished. Some kings, however, tried to control the nobles. From this continual struggle for power the kingdoms of England and France emerged. Over time the power of the monarchs in these kingdoms became supreme.

Anglo-Saxon England. By about 450 Roman rule in Britain ended. Following the legions’ withdrawal, Germanic tribes moved into the island, first as raiders, then as settlers. The culture that emerged from this Germanic settlement was named “Anglo-Saxon” after two of these tribes, the Angles and the Saxons. England, the “land of the Angles,” refers to the eastern island of the British Isles, except for Scotland in the north and Wales in the west.

Over time the Anglo-Saxons formed several independent kingdoms in England. These kingdoms became known as Northumbria, in northern England and what is now southern Scotland; Mercia, in central England; and Wessex, in southern England. Eventually the Anglo-Saxons divided these kingdoms into governmental districts called shires. A shire was governed by a shire-reeve, which became the word sheriff.

Alfred the Great. By the early 800s the kings of Wessex controlled almost all of England. Viking raiders from the north, however (called “Danes” by the English), challenged the rule of Wessex and overran much of England. In 871 Alfred the Great came to the throne of Wessex determined to drive the Danes from the island. Alfred made a temporary peace after being defeated by the Danes. He spent the next five years building a powerful army and a fleet of fighting ships. In 876 Alfred attacked the Danes. By 886 the exhausted and weakened Danes had sued for peace.
The treaty that resulted allowed the Danes to live in parts of Mercia and Northumbria, where they were allowed to govern themselves.

**Danish rule.** During the 900s Alfred’s successors were able to win more land back from the Danes. At the same time they unified the country, strengthened its government, and spread Christianity throughout the land. However, the Danes began to attack again at the end of the century. By 1013 the Danes once again controlled the entire country.

In 1016 King Canute of Denmark took the throne of England and most of Scandinavia in a combined kingdom. Canute was a wise ruler and spent much of his time in England. His sons, however, were weak rulers. By 1042 the Danish line had died out and the Anglo-Saxon nobles chose Edward the Confessor as their new king.

**The Norman Conquest.** Edward the Confessor was part Anglo-Saxon and part Norman. The powerful Duchy of Normandy was located in northwestern France. When Edward died without leaving an heir in 1066, a distant relative—Duke William of Normandy—claimed the English throne. The Anglo-Saxons refused to recognize his claim. Instead they selected Edward’s brother-in-law, Harold of Wessex, to be king. William, determined to win the throne of England, crossed the English Channel with a powerful force of Norman knights. In a decisive battle William defeated Harold’s Anglo-Saxon army at Hastings in October 1066. In December of that year, he was crowned King William I of England.

William, known today as William the Conqueror, soon overcame armed Anglo-Saxon resistance to his rule. In the years after the conquest, the Normans’ laws, customs, and language were introduced in England. However, the Anglo-Saxons did not quickly accept them. Anglo-Saxon was a Germanic language. Norman French, in contrast, was based on Latin. As a result, the language of the Norman-English nobility continued to be French, while the language of most people in England continued to be Anglo-Saxon. Slowly, however, the lifestyles, laws, and customs of England grew to combine elements of both Anglo-Saxon and Norman cultures.

**READING CHECK: Summarizing** Why is the year 1066 significant in English history?

**The Conqueror and His Successors**

William ruled England from 1066 to 1087. He brought feudalism from France to the newly conquered England. William shaped England’s new feudal system, however, so that the king, not the nobles, held supreme authority. He required each feudal lord to swear personal loyalty directly to him. This meant that all English lords were vassals of the king. William also stopped the lords from uniting against him by scattering their fiefs throughout England. The new king’s actions laid a strong foundation for centralized government and a strong monarchy in England.

The king also worked to determine the population, wealth, and ways that land was divided and used in his new kingdom. William sent royal commissioners to every English shire. Their task was to count each shire’s people, assess landholdings, and measure type and value of property. The results of this great survey helped the king to set up an accurate, central tax system. The records that were gathered became known as the Domesday, or Doomsday, Book.
Reforms under William’s successors. Henry I, one of William the Conqueror’s sons, ruled from 1100 to 1135. Henry was an able ruler and administrator who set up a new department, the exchequer, to handle the kingdom’s finances. This made the central government more efficient. He also made an important contribution to England’s legal system. Henry sent traveling judges throughout the country to try cases. This action weakened the feudal lords because the king’s royal court, not the lords’ feudal courts, dispensed justice.

Henry II, who ruled from 1154 to 1189, also made decisions that increased royal authority. Instead of performing feudal military service for the king, his vassals—the nobles—could pay him a fee. He would use the money to hire mercenaries, or soldiers from different places. In this way Henry II would have an army made up of soldiers who were loyal to him because he was paying them. An army made up of nobles might not have been as loyal.

England’s legal system grew under Henry II’s direction. Traveling judges established routes, or circuits, and further strengthened royal law throughout England. During the late 1100s the 12-member jury developed in the court system. Juries decided civil as well as criminal cases. Trial by jury to determine guilt or innocence replaced the feudal trial by ordeal and combat.

Henry aimed to increase the authority of his royal courts at the expense of the church. Thus he sought to try certain members of the clergy who had already been judged in church courts. Thomas Becket, the Archbishop of Canterbury, refused to allow his clergy to be tried in royal courts. Becket and Henry, who had once been good friends, became bitter enemies over the issue. Four of the king’s knights, believing that they were helping Henry, murdered the archbishop in his cathedral.

Even though Henry II denied any part in the murder, he did pence to appease the church. Henry had to abandon his attempts to reduce the power of the English church. Becket was named a saint, and his shrine in Canterbury became a popular destination for pilgrims.

The last years of Henry II’s reign were troubled. His sons plotted against him and his marriage to Eleanor of Aquitaine was stormy. The French lands that Eleanor had brought to Henry when they married, moreover, involved England in new conflicts with the French. Nevertheless, the years of Henry’s rule had strengthened the English monarchy at the feudal lords’ expense. Later kings were able to build upon Henry’s work.

King John and Magna Carta. One of Henry II’s sons, King John, is known for his actions that led to a revolt among England’s nobles. John demanded that the nobles pay more taxes to support his wars in France. In 1215 a powerful group of high nobles—barons of the kingdom—joined together against the king and his demands. Their threats of an armed uprising against the throne forced John to accept a document known as Magna Carta (Latin for “Great Charter”). One eyewitness described the confrontation between John and the nobles who opposed his harsh and high-handed rule:

"[The] nobles came to [King John] in gay military array, and demanded the confirmation of the liberties and laws of King Edward, with other liberties granted to them and to the kingdom and Church of England . . . The King, hearing the bold tones of the barons in making this demand, much feared an attack from them . . ."

Magna Carta protected the liberties of the nobles. It also provided a limited outline of rights for England’s ordinary people. King John agreed not to collect any new or special taxes without the consent of the Great Council, a body of important nobles and church leaders who advised the king. John also promised not to take property without paying for it. He promised not to sell, refuse, or delay justice. The king also agreed to let any accused person be judged by a jury of his or her peers. John’s acceptance of Magna Carta meant that the king—like his subjects—had to obey the law or face revolt and overthrow. Magna Carta made the law the supreme power in England.

✓ READING CHECK: Summarizing What contributions did William the Conqueror and his successors make to England?

Parliament and Common Law

Two other major developments took place in England in the years following Magna Carta. The first was the growth of Parliament and the beginnings of representative government. The second was the growth of common law—law based upon customs and judges’ decisions, rather than upon written codes.

Parliament. A widespread revolt of nobles against King Henry III in the 1260s rocked England and again threatened the monarchy. Simon de Montfort, a powerful lord who led the revolt, aimed to build middle-class support for the nobles’ cause. In this way, de Montfort reasoned, both the middle class and the nobility could combine forces against the king. In 1265 de Montfort asked representatives of the middle class to meet with the nobles and clergy who made up the Great Council. The middle-class representatives included four knights from each shire and two burgesses—leading citizens—from each of several major towns.

The practice of having members of the middle class meet with the clergy and the nobles in the Great Council remained. This representative body eventually became the English Parliament. Over time Parliament was divided into two parts, called “houses.” Nobles and the clergy made up the House of Lords, and knights and burgesses made up the House of Commons.

The early Parliament mainly served to advise the king, but it also had the right to refuse new taxes sought by the king. As England’s centralized government grew, taxes were needed to help meet its ever-increasing costs. Parliament’s power to accept or reject new taxes became more and more important.

Common law. Edward I ruled England from 1272 to 1307. Edward, one of England’s greatest monarchs, divided the king’s court into three branches. The Court of the Exchequer kept track of the kingdom’s financial accounts and tried tax cases. The Court of Common Pleas heard cases between ordinary citizens. The Court of the King’s Bench conducted trials that concerned the king or the government.

The decisions made by the new royal courts were collected and used as the basis for future court verdicts. This collection of decisions became known as common law because it was applied equally and in common to all English people. Common law differed greatly from law that was based on statutes, such as Roman law. It was a “living law” in the sense that it changed to meet changing conditions.

✓ READING CHECK: Comparing How are the parliamentary system and common law similar to the government and laws practiced in the United States?
Rise of the Capetian Kings in France

The last Carolingian king died in 987. In the same year a group of nobles chose Hugh Capet to be King of France. Capet and his descendants, a line known as the Capetians, ruled for more than 300 years.

Hugh Capet ruled only a small area called the Île-de-France (eel-duh-FRAYN). Feudal lords ruled the rest of France, holding areas known as duchies. The Capetians aimed to develop a strong central government and to unite the duchies of France under the rule of the monarchy.

The growth of royal territory. The Capetians sought to increase the lands under their control in several ways. For example, some Capetian kings married noblewomen whose dowries included great fiefs. They also took control of the lands of noble families that had died out. The Capetians looked, as well, to conquer French lands held by the English kings since the days of William the Conqueror. Philip II, known as Philip Augustus, particularly favored this policy of taking English holdings in France. King Philip, who ruled from 1180 to 1223, greatly increased royal landholdings by taking large provinces, such as Normandy and Maine, from the English.

Strengthening the central government. The Capetian kings appointed well-trained officials to run the government. They also extended the jurisdiction of the royal courts. The Parliament of Paris, the highest of the royal courts, eventually became a kind of supreme court, hearing appeals from all parts of the kingdom.

The Growth of France, 1035–1328

Interpreting Maps In 1035 the French royal domain—land that was personally owned by the French monarch—was limited to the Île-de-France. Within 300 years, the royal domain had grown many times over, and the king controlled most of France.

Skills Assessment: 1. Locate Identify the principal city of the Île-de-France. 2. Making Generalizations How did the king control those parts of France that were not part of the royal domain?
The Capetians’ struggle for power continued under Philip IV (Philip the Fair), who ruled France from 1285 to 1314. Philip was able to increase royal power over the French church by taxing the clergy. When Pope Boniface VII opposed Philip, the king had him arrested. Following Boniface’s death in 1303, Philip influenced the election of the next pope, Clement V. The shrewd king also moved to build his popularity among the French people. Philip convened the Estates General, a representative body made up of the three major social classes in France. The Estates General included commoners as well as nobles and members of the clergy. By involving the Estates General in his government, Philip secured widespread support in his struggle against the church.

Royal power in France was greatly strengthened under Philip IV and the earlier Capetian rulers. Despite the centralizing reforms they achieved, however, France remained largely feudal in its political organization. The Capetian kings had a vision of France as a united country, but the idea of unification under the monarchy had little appeal at the local level. Thus the Capetians failed to achieve their great aim. By the 1300s, moreover, the dynasty itself had reached an end, for although Philip IV had three sons, none produced an heir to the throne. In 1328 the last of the Capetian rulers, Charles IV, died. A new line of French kings—the Valois—came into power.

**READING CHECK:** Comparing How was the Estates General of France similar to England’s Parliament?

**SECTION 4 REVIEW**

1. **Define** and explain the significance:
   - shires
   - common law

2. **Identify** and explain the significance:
   - Alfred the Great
   - Edward the Confessor
   - William the Conqueror
   - Henry II
   - Thomas Becket
   - Eleanor of Aquitaine
   - Magna Carta
   - Simon de Montfort

3. **Sequencing** Create a time line like the one below. Complete it to show the major events in the early development of representative government in medieval England.

   ![Time Line](image)

4. **Finding the Main Idea**
   - a. How did William the Conqueror’s actions in 1066 change England?
   - b. In what ways did Magna Carta support the rise of representative government in England?
   - c. What role did Simon de Montfort play in the development of Parliament?
   - d. Why did the kings of France seek to weaken church power in their lands?

5. **Writing and Critical Thinking**
   - **Supporting a Point of View** Write a paragraph that supports the following statement: “Americans today are governed by a constitution that traces its origins back to events in England in the 1200s.”
   - **Consider:**
     - the struggle for power between England’s kings and nobles during the Middle Ages
     - the rights and freedoms that are guaranteed by our Constitution and Bill of Rights

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*Philip IV was one of France’s mightiest rulers during the Middle Ages. In this 15th-century illustration, Philip is shown giving an audience to a French noble.*

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**Homework Practice Online**

**keyword:** SH3 HP4
The Clash over Germany and Italy

The Main Idea
Political conflict between the medieval popes and the German emperors weakened both sides.

The Story Continues
The struggle between church and state was particularly bitter in the Holy Roman Empire. Both the emperor and the pope held that their authority came from God. Pope Innocent III, who led the medieval church to its greatest power, claimed divine supremacy over all worldly rulers. According to Innocent, "... our power is not from man but from God." Ultimately the conflict between church and state weakened both.

The Holy Roman Empire

While Charlemagne was still alive, Italy was part of his empire. However, his death in 814 caused Italy to fall into a state of disorder. Several of Charlemagne's descendants inherited the title of Holy Roman Emperor. However, they did not really rule Italy. In the years around 900, the Byzantine Empire held parts of Italy. The pope ruled the Papal States, while Arab Muslims ruled Sicily and frequently attacked the Italian mainland.

In Germany the great feudal lords elected Otto I their king in 936. Otto, a powerful and forceful ruler, became known as Otto the Great. Otto worked to develop a strong kingdom in Germany like that of the Capetians in France. However, the German king was also interested in Italy. In 951 Otto moved to seize territory in northern Italy. When Pope John XII struggled with Roman nobles, he begged Otto for help. The pope rewarded Otto's support by crowning him Emperor of the Romans in 962.

Otto's title was the same as that granted to Charlemagne 162 years earlier. Otto ruled Germany and northern Italy, however—a much smaller area than Charlemagne had held. Nevertheless, the empire stood as a major power in Europe for hundreds of years after Otto's crowning. It endured—in name, at least—until the early 1800s. Over time, however, the Holy Roman Empire was weakened by internal divisions, the rise of other European powers, and the ambitions of local nobles who sought to break from imperial control. Imperial power gradually declined until the emperor became little more than a figurehead. But the once mighty empire did leave an enduring legacy: a close and lasting tie between Germany and Italy.

Interpreting the Visual Record

The coronation of Otto I
Pope John XII placed this crown on the head of Otto I in 962, naming Otto "Emperor of the Romans." In what way does the emperor's crown symbolize the relationship between church and state in the Holy Roman Empire of the Middle Ages?
The reign of Emperor Henry III between 1046 and 1056 represented the height of imperial power. Henry, like Charlemagne, viewed the church as a branch of the imperial government. He expected the church to actively support the empire and its ruler. During Henry’s reign, three different men claimed the papacy. Henry removed these men from office and elected a German as pope. He also chose the next three popes.

**READING CHECK:** Comparing In what major way was Henry III’s view of the church similar to the view of Charlemagne?

Struggles between the Papacy and European Rulers

Henry III’s death in 1056 brought his five-year-old son, Henry IV, to the imperial throne. Powerful German nobles saw Henry’s youth as an opportunity to regain their independence and feudal powers. The church, too, moved to restore the power it had lost during Henry III’s reign. At the age of about 15, Henry moved to strengthen his imperial rule. Eventually Henry’s actions brought him into conflict with one of the great leaders of the medieval church, Pope Gregory VII. The struggle between Henry and Gregory reflected the clash between church and state that was a continuing issue in the Middle Ages.

**Gregory and Henry IV.** Pope Gregory was both devout and able. He worked to bring spiritual reform to the church by increasing the power and authority of the papacy. Gregory believed that the church was the supreme spiritual and temporal power on earth. He felt that rulers and ordinary people alike were subject to the will of the church and its pope. Gregory did not hesitate to use the terrible punishment of excommunication as a way to resolve conflicts of church and state.

The conflict between Henry IV and Gregory VII concerned the old issue of lay investiture—the appointment of bishops by temporal rulers. Henry believed that he had the right to appoint bishops of the German church. Gregory angrily opposed lay investiture and responded to the emperor’s attempt to name bishops by excommunicating Henry. In addition, Gregory released the emperor’s subjects from their vows of loyalty to their ruler and urged the nobles to elect another emperor.

**Imperial submission.** Fearing rebellion, Henry sought the pope’s mercy. During the harsh winter of 1077, Henry traveled to meet the pope. They met at Canossa, in the mountains of northern Italy. Henry and his attendants had to make their way through treacherous, ice-covered peaks. When he finally reached Canossa, the humiliated Henry waited in the bitter cold for three days to be admitted to the pope’s presence. When they finally met, Henry pleaded for the pope’s mercy. As a result, the pope revoked Henry’s excommunication.

The struggle over lay investiture continued, however. Finally, in 1122, representatives of both sides met in the German city of Worms to settle the conflict. The agreement they reached, known as the Concordat of Worms, limited imperial power over the German church. The emperor could appoint bishops to fiefs. Only the pope, however, had the power to name bishops, whose spiritual authority came directly from the church.
The Concordat of Worms recognized the spiritual leadership of the popes. Conflict between popes and emperors did not end in 1122, however. The German emperors continued to interfere in Italian politics and to threaten the popes’ rule in the Papal States. The popes, in turn, opposed all attempts by the emperors to gain control in Italy.

**Frederick Barbarossa.** Frederick I, also known as Frederick Barbarossa (Frederick of the Red Beard), ruled Germany from 1152 to 1190. Frederick, like other emperors before him, sought to gain control of Italy.

In the northern Italian region known as Lombardy, the great trading centers of Bologna, Padua, Verona, and Milan had grown increasingly independent of imperial control. Each of these city-states had a wealthy merchant class. Frederick, seeking to strengthen his rule by gaining wealth, set out to capture the Lombard cities. Frederick sent imperial representatives to take control of the cities’ governments. When Milan resisted, Frederick captured and destroyed the city and drove out the people.

The other city-states refused Frederick’s demands. With the help of the pope, they united to form the Lombard League. They raised a powerful army that defeated Frederick in 1176. In the peace settlement that followed, the cities of the League recognized Frederick as overlord. In return, Frederick let the cities govern themselves. The Lombard League’s success showed the growing political power of cities in medieval Europe.

**Innocent III.** Between 1198 and 1216, the strongest of the medieval popes—Innocent III—greatly strengthened the church and increased its worldly power. Innocent was a skillful political leader who, like Gregory VII before him, believed in the supreme earthly power of the papacy. To Innocent, emperors and kings were no more than servants of the church. Because of this belief Innocent felt that he had the authority to settle all political, as well as spiritual, problems. Temporal rulers and nobles could advise the pope, but they could not control him.

“Just as the founder of the universe [God] established two great lights in the firmament of heaven, a greater one to preside over the day and a lesser to preside over the night, so too... he instituted two great dignities [pope and monarch], a greater one [the pope] to preside over souls... and a lesser one [the monarch] to preside over bodies... These are the pontifical authority and the royal power.”

Innocent III, quoted in *The Crisis of Church & State: 1050–1300*, by Brian Tierney.
Innocent III involved himself in disputes all over Europe. He freely used his powers of excommunication and interdiction to settle conflicts. When he quarreled with King John of England, Innocent placed the entire realm under interdict. To have the interdict lifted, John was forced to become the pope’s vassal and to pay an annual tithe to Rome. Innocent also used the interdict against the king of France, Philip Augustus, after Philip tried to have his marriage annulled. Innocent forced Philip to take his wife back and to restore her to her place as queen of France. Innocent also dominated nearly all of Italy. In Germany he overthrew two kings and put rulers of his choice on the throne.

Innocent was able to greatly increase papal authority and prestige in medieval Europe. Conditions in Europe, as well as Innocent’s personal skill, helped him to build church power. Later popes, however, lacked both Innocent’s abilities and the favorable conditions that had helped him to become supreme. As a result, papal power slowly declined after Innocent’s death in 1216.

The great goal of uniting Germany and Italy was never achieved. During the early 1200s Emperor Frederick II tried to bring the two regions together under imperial rule. Like earlier emperors, however, Frederick failed.

Not only did imperial attempts to unify Italy and Germany fail, but each country also remained divided into small, independent cities and feudal states. The emperor had little real control over the fragmented kingdom. Italy remained divided into three regions. Northern Italy was controlled by the Lombard cities. The Papal States held power in Italy’s center, and the kingdom of Sicily controlled the south. Neither Italy nor Germany were unified until the 1800s.

**READING CHECK: Comparing** How were the aims of Gregory VII and Innocent III similar?

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**SECTION 5 REVIEW**

1. **Identify** and explain the significance:
   - Otto I
   - Henry III
   - Henry IV
   - Pope Gregory VII
   - Frederick Barbarossa
   - Pope Innocent III

2. **Summarizing** Copy the graphic organizer shown below. Use it to summarize the actions and events that led to Frederick Barbarossa’s defeat by the Lombard League.

3. **Finding the Main Idea**
   a. Why was the issue of lay investiture considered so important by both German emperors and popes?
   b. Why do you think emperors and popes were unable to cooperate or to build alliances that would have strengthened both?

4. **Writing and Critical Thinking**
   **Supporting a Point of View** Imagine yourself as a literate citizen of the Holy Roman Empire during the late 1100s. Write a letter to Frederick Barbarossa with the aim of convincing him that the powers of church and state should be separate.
   **Consider:**
   - the extensive powers of the Holy Roman emperors
   - how Otto’s empire might have benefited from a separation of church and state
   - why both the pope and the emperor might have gained by resolving their conflict for power

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**Homework Practice Online**

**keyword:** SH3 HP4
CHAPTER 4

Review

Creating a Time Line
Copy the time line below onto a sheet of paper. Complete the time line by filling in the events, individuals, and dates from the chapter you think were significant. Pick three events and explain why you think they were significant.

455  768  1066  1215

Writing a Summary
Using standard grammar, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation, write an overview of the events in the chapter.

Identifying People and Ideas
Identify the following terms or individuals and explain their significance:

1. Middle Ages
2. Charlemagne
3. feudalism
4. primogeniture
5. manorialism
6. Saint Benedict
7. Inquisition
8. Thomas Becket
9. Magna Carta
10. Eleanor of Aquitaine

Understanding Main Ideas

SECTION 1 (pp. 102–103)
The Rise of the Franks
1. Why would the pope's blessing strengthen a king's rule?
2. How did Magna Carta and the type of government that it fostered affect events in Europe?

SECTION 2 (pp. 104–107)
Feudalism and the Manorial System
3. How did the practice of primogeniture exclude women or peasants from controlling land?
4. How were feudal lords and peasants affected by the principles of chivalry?

SECTION 3 (pp. 108–111)
The Church
5. How was the church's organization similar to that of a centralized government?
6. What overall effect did Benedict have on the development of monasticism?
7. What were some of the problems the church faced in the Middle Ages?

SECTION 4 (pp. 114–117)
The Struggle for Power in England and France
8. Why are the years 1066 and 1215 significant to English history?
10. How did royal power in France and England differ?

SECTION 5 (pp. 118–121)
The Clash over Germany and Italy
11. Why was Otto's rule different than the Capetians' in France?
12. Contrast the conflicts between Henry II and Thomas Becket and Henry IV and Pope Gregory VII.

Reviewing Themes

1. Government How could religious leaders and kings have avoided many wars in the Middle Ages?
2. Constitutional Heritage How did Magna Carta and the type of government it fostered affect events in Europe?
3. Economics When would working the land for the lord of a manor not have provided a living for a peasant?

Thinking Critically

1. Drawing Inferences Why was it so important for kings, emperors, the church, and nobles to possess land?
2. Analyzing Information Why did the Concordat of Worms not end the struggles between popes and emperors?
3. Identifying Cause and Effect How did church officials, such as bishops, become involved in feudalism?

Writing About History
Comparing Write a report comparing the life of a present-day teenager to that of a squire or a young noblewoman in service to a higher-ranking noblewoman. Use the chart below to help you organize your thoughts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Food</th>
<th>Squire or young noblewoman</th>
<th>Present-day teenager</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clothes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duties</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chances for movement in society</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Interpreting Maps**

Study the map below. Then use the information on the map to answer the questions that follow.

**The Vikings in Britain, 700s–1100s**

1. Based on the map, which of the following statements best describes how geographic factors influenced Viking settlement in England and Ireland?
   a. Britain is an island.
   b. The Vikings were in search of croplands.
   c. The Vikings settled along rivers and coastal areas.
   d. Open land for settlement was plentiful in Britain.

2. How successful do you think the Vikings were at expanding their settlements in England and Ireland? Explain your answer.

**Decision Making**

Read the quote below about London in the 1200s. Then answer the questions that follow.

"In the thirteenth century, London succeeded in piping water from springs at Tyburn to a fountain in West Cheap, but there was neither pressure nor abundant quantity of water. The authorities intended the fountain to provide drinking water for the poor, and household water for the neighborhood. . . . but the chief sources of water . . . remained the wells, streams, . . . and the River Thames—the ultimate destination of most of London’s garbage and sewage."

3. Which of the following statements best expresses what you think about an issue described in the quote?
   a. Piping water to a fountain was not a good idea because people would have fought over the water.
   b. The poor people in London did not have enough water and the authorities should have drilled wells for them.
   c. Dumping garbage and sewage into the Thames polluted it and the water would have been harmful to drink.
   d. The authorities should not have piped water from Tyburn because that left the people of Tyburn without water.

4. Why did you choose the statement you did in question 3? Use a decision-making process to explain your answer.