MAKING CONNECTIONS

How important is the location of a city?

From ancient times, Carcassonne was important because of its location near the Pyrenees Mountains. The Romans built fortifications on the hilltop and each ruler added to them until the 1600s. A fortified city like Carcassonne, with a double ring of defensive walls and 53 towers, could hold out for months against an army. In this chapter you will learn about the beginning of the Middle Ages.

- What was the advantage of locating a city on a hilltop?
- Why might castles and fortified towns become impractical?
Identifying Create a Layered-Look Book to identify important people, events, and government institutions of England, France, the Holy Roman Empire, Central and Eastern Europe, and Russia.
Germanic tribes became the dominant political force in Europe during the Early Middle Ages, while Christianity became the dominant religion. Rome became the center of the Catholic Church's power. Ultimately a new empire emerged that was linked to the idea of a lasting Roman Empire.

The New Germanic Kingdoms

The Frankish kingdom was the strongest of the early German states and developed new laws based on the importance of family in Germanic society.

HISTORY & YOU How might laws be different if they were based on settling personal feuds rather than on protecting society as a whole? Read about Germanic laws and wergild.

The Germanic peoples had begun to move into the lands of the Roman Empire by the third century. The Visigoths occupied Spain and Italy until the Ostrogoths, another Germanic tribe, took control of Italy in the fifth century. By 500, the Western Roman Empire had been replaced by a number of states ruled by German kings. The merging of Romans and Germans took different forms in the various Germanic kingdoms.

Both the kingdom of the Ostrogoths in Italy and the kingdom of the Visigoths in Spain retained the Roman structure of government. However, a group of Germanic warriors came to dominate the considerably larger native populations and eventually excluded Romans from holding power.

Roman influence was even weaker in Britain. When the Roman armies abandoned Britain at the beginning of the fifth century, the Angles and Saxons, Germanic tribes from Denmark and northern Germany, moved in and settled there. Eventually, these peoples became the Anglo-Saxons.

The Kingdom of the Franks

Only one of the German states on the European continent proved long lasting—the kingdom of the Franks. The Frankish kingdom was established by Clovis, a strong military leader who around 500 became the first Germanic ruler to convert to Christianity. At first, Clovis had refused the pleas of his Christian wife to adopt Christianity as his religion. According to Gregory of Tours, a sixth-century historian, Clovis had remarked to his wife, “Your God can do nothing.”

During a battle with another Germanic tribe, however, Clovis’s army faced certain destruction. Clovis was reported to have cried
New Germanic kingdoms developed in areas that had once belonged to the Western Roman Empire.

1. **Regions** Which Germanic kingdoms were the largest in 500? Which Germanic group west of the Pyrenees survives today?
2. **Movement** What prevented the Germanic kingdoms from spreading south and east of the Danube?

By 510, Clovis had established a powerful new Frankish kingdom that stretched from the Pyrenees in the southwest to German lands in the east—modern-day France and western Germany. He defeated the many Germanic tribes surrounding him and unified the Franks as a people. After Clovis’s death his sons followed Frankish custom and divided his newly created kingdom among themselves. The once-united Frankish kingdom came to be divided into three major areas.
Germanic Society

Over time, Germans and Romans intermarried and began to create a new society. As they did, some of the social customs of the Germanic people came to play an important role.

The crucial social bond among the Germanic peoples was the family, especially the extended family of husbands, wives, children, brothers, sisters, cousins, and grandparents. This extended family worked the land together and passed it down to future generations. The family also provided protection, which was much needed in the violent atmosphere of the time.

The German concept of family affected the way Germanic law treated the problem of crime and punishment. In the Roman system, as in our own, a crime such as murder was considered an offense against society or the state. Thus, a court would hear evidence and arrive at a decision. Germanic law, on the other hand, was personal. An injury by one person against another could mean a blood feud, and the feud could lead to savage acts of revenge.

To avoid bloodshed, a new system developed, based on a fine called *wergild* (WUHR•gihld). Wergild was the amount paid by a wrongdoer to the family of the person he or she had injured or killed. Wergild, which means “money for a man,” was the value of a person in money. The value varied according to social status. An offense against a member of the nobility, for example, cost considerably more than an offense against an ordinary person or a slave. Germanic laws were now established by custom, not at the whim of a king or codified like Roman law.

One means of determining guilt in Germanic law was the ordeal. The *ordeal* was based on the idea of divine intervention. All ordeals involved a physical trial of some sort, such as holding a red-hot iron. It was believed that divine forces would not allow an innocent person to be harmed. If the accused person was unharmed after a physical trial, or ordeal, he or she was presumed innocent.

✓ Reading Check Analyzing What was the significance of Clovis’s conversion to Christianity?

The Role of the Church

The Bishop of Rome became the leader of the Christian Church.

**MAIN IDEA**

By the end of the fourth century, Christianity had become the supreme religion of the Roman Empire. As the official Roman state fell apart, the Church played an increasingly important role in the growth of the new European civilization.

**Organization of the Church**

By the fourth century, the Christian Church had developed a system of organization. Priests led local Christian communities called parishes. A group of parishes was headed by a bishop, whose area of authority was called a *bishopric*, or diocese. The bishoprics were joined together under an archbishop.

Over time, one bishop—the Bishop of Rome—began to claim that he was the leader of what had become the Roman Catholic Church. Catholics believed that Jesus gave the keys to the kingdom of Heaven to Peter, who was considered the chief apostle and the first bishop of Rome. Later bishops of Rome were viewed as Peter’s successors. They came to be known as *popes* (from the Latin word *papa*, “father”) of the Catholic Church.

Western Christians came to accept the bishop of Rome—the pope—as head of the Church, but they did not agree on how much power he should have. In the sixth century, a strong pope, *Gregory I*, known as Gregory the Great, strengthened the power of the papacy (office of the pope) and the Church.

Gregory I, pope from 590 to 604, was also leader of the city of Rome and its surrounding territories (later called the Papal States), thus giving the papacy a source of political power. Gregory I increased his spiritual authority over the Church in the West. He was especially active in converting non-Christian peoples of Germanic
Monks and Monasteries

A monk is a man who separates himself from ordinary society to dedicate himself to God. The practice of living the life of a monk is known as monasticism. At first, Christian monasticism was based on the hermit who led an isolated spiritual life. In the sixth century, however, Saint Benedict wrote a set of rules to guide a community of monks he founded. This community became the model for monasticism in the Catholic Church and the Benedictine rule was used by other monastic groups.

Benedict’s rule divided each day into a series of activities, with primary emphasis on prayer and manual labor. Physical work was required of all monks for several hours a day, because idleness was “the enemy of the soul.” At the very heart of community practice was prayer, the proper “Work of God.” Although prayer included private meditation and reading, all monks gathered together seven times during the day for common prayer and the chanting of Psalms—sacred songs. A Benedictine life was a communal one. Monks ate, worked, slept, and worshiped together.

Each Benedictine monastery was led by an abbot or “father,” whom the monks were expected to obey. The abbot had complete authority over the monks. Each monastery owned lands that enabled it to be self-sustaining and isolated from the world. In the monastery, monks were to fulfill their vow of poverty.

Monks became the new Christian heroes, an important force in the new European civilization. The monastic community set the highest ideal of Christian life and provided a moral example to all. Monks were the social workers of their communities, providing schools for the young, hospitality for travelers, and hospitals for the sick. They also taught peasants carpentry and weaving and made agricultural improvements that they passed on to others.

### INFOGRAPHICS

#### Monastic Life

#### A Monk’s Daily Timetable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MORNING</th>
<th>AFTERNOON</th>
<th>EVENING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2:00 Church service</td>
<td>12:00 Meal</td>
<td>5:45 Meal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3:30 Sleep</td>
<td>1:00 Reading or private prayer</td>
<td>6:00 Church service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4:00 Church service</td>
<td>1:45 Sleep</td>
<td>7:15 Reading or private prayer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5:00 Reading or private prayer</td>
<td>3:00 Work</td>
<td>7:45 Church service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6:00 Church service, breakfast</td>
<td>8:00 Sleep</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7:00 Work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8:00 Church service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9:15 Work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11:45 Church service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Monks were men who devoted their lives to the Church. They took vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience. They also took a vow of stability, swearing to remain in the monastery until death, closed off from the rest of the world.

St. Benedict established a daily timetable for monks. Along with Church service and prayer, monks worked. They did manual labor along with intellectual work, creating illuminated manuscripts and transcribing religious works.

1. **Making Inferences** How much time did the monks spend working each day? What kinds of work might those living at the monastery do?
2. **Drawing Conclusions** Why might structure like the monk’s timetable be important to monastic life?
Monasteries became centers of learning. The monks worked to spread Christianity to all of Europe. English and Irish monks were very enthusiastic missionaries—people sent out to carry a religious message—who undertook the conversion of non-Christian peoples, especially in German lands. By 1050 most western Europeans had become Catholics.

Although the first monks were men, women, called nuns, also began to withdraw from the world to dedicate themselves to God. These women played an important role in the monastic movement. Nuns lived in convents headed by abbesses. Many of the abbesses belonged to royal houses, especially in Anglo-Saxon England. In the kingdom of Northumbria, for example, Hilda founded the monastery of Whitby in 657. As abbess, she was responsible for giving learning an important role in the life of the monastery and helped educate five future bishops.

**Reading Check Describing** How did the Catholic Church affect the new European civilization?

*The Carolingian Empire*

**Main Idea** Charlemagne expanded the Frankish kingdom and created the Carolingian Empire.

**HISTORY & YOU** Who provides your education? Read how Charlemagne promoted learning.

During the 600s and 700s, the Frankish kings gradually lost their power to the mayors of the palace, chief officers of the king’s household. One of them, Pépin, finally took the logical step of assuming the kingship for himself and his family. Pépin was the son of Charles Martel, the leader who defeated the Muslims at the Battle of Tours in 732. Upon Pépin’s death in 768, his son became the new Frankish king. This powerful ruler is known to history as Charles the Great, or Charlemagne. He was a determined and decisive man who was highly intelligent and curious. Charlemagne was a fierce warrior, a strong statesman, and a pious Christian. Although possibly unable to write, he was a wise patron—supporter—of learning.

**INFOGRAPHICS**

**Charlemagne, King of the Franks**

**Charles the Man**  Was athletic, well-spoken, and charismatic  Married four times  Understood Greek, spoke Latin, but possibly could not write  Left an empire to his sole surviving son

**Charles the Administrator**  Delegated authority to the nobles  Retained local laws of conquered areas  Divided kingdom into districts  Used *missi dominici* (“messengers of the lord king”) to inspect and report on provinces

**Charles the Conqueror**  Was an aggressive warrior  Strengthened the Frankish military  Expanded and consolidated the Frankish kingdom

**Charles the Patron of Learning**  Revived classical studies  Preserved Latin culture  Established monastic and palace schools

**Document-Based Questions**

1. **Evaluating** Which of Charlemagne’s actions helped strengthen his empire?
2. **Drawing Conclusions** Which of Charlemagne’s actions continue(s) to affect civilization today?
During his long rule from 768 to 814, Charlemagne greatly expanded the Frankish kingdom and created what came to be known as the Carolingian Empire. At its height, this empire covered much of western and central Europe. Not until Napoleon Bonaparte’s time in the nineteenth century would an empire its size be seen again in Europe.

The administration of the empire depended both on Charlemagne’s household staff and on counts (German nobles) who acted as the king’s chief local representatives. In order to limit the counts’ powers, Charlemagne set up the missi dominici (messengers of the lord king)—two men sent out to local districts to ensure that the counts carried out the king’s wishes.

Charlemagne as Roman Emperor

As Charlemagne’s power grew, so too did his prestige as the most powerful Christian ruler. One monk even described Charlemagne’s empire as the “kingdom of Europe.” In 800, Charlemagne acquired a new title—emperor of the Romans.

Charlemagne’s coronation as Roman emperor showed the strength of the idea of an enduring Roman Empire. After all, his coronation took place 300 years after the collapse of the Western Roman Empire.

The coronation also symbolized the joining of Roman, Christian, and Germanic elements. A Germanic king had been crowned emperor of the Romans by the pope, the spiritual leader of Western Christendom. A new civilization had emerged.

Caroltingian Renaissance

Charlemagne had a strong desire to promote learning in his kingdom. This desire stemmed from his own intellectual curiosity and from the need to educate Catholic clergy and government officials. His efforts led to an intellectual revival sometimes called the Carolingian Renaissance, or rebirth. This revival involved renewed interest in Latin culture and classical works—the works of the Greeks and Romans.

The monasteries, many of which had been founded by Irish and English missionaries, played a central role in this cultural renewal. By the 800s, the work asked of Benedictine monks included copying manuscripts. Monasteries established scriptoria, or writing rooms, where monks copied not only the works of early Christianity, such as the Bible, but also the works of classical Latin authors. Their work was a crucial factor in the preservation of the ancient legacy. Most of the ancient Roman works we have today exist because they were copied by Carolingian monks.

Reading Check

Explaining What was the importance of the missi dominici?

Vocabulary

1. Explain the significance of: excluded, Clovis, wergild, ordeal, bishopric, pope, Gregory I, monk, monasticism, Saint Benedict, missionary, nun, abbes, Pépin, Charlemagne, Carolingian Empire, ensure.

Main Ideas

2. Explain how the missi dominici helped Charlemagne establish a strong empire.

3. Summarize the crucial social bond among the Germanic peoples, along with one area of its application.

4. List the daily activities undertaken by the Benedictine monks.

Critical Thinking

5. The BIG Idea Explaining What significance did Charlemagne’s coronation as Roman emperor have to the development of European civilization?

6. Summarizing Information Identify the rulers discussed in the chapter and explain how they were significant in both religious and political realms.

7. Analyzing Visuals Analyze the chart on page 306. Which of Charlemagne’s accomplishments is the most significant? Why?

Writing About History

8. Persuasive Writing You have been asked to apply Germanic law to modern society. List at least five common crimes that occur today and argue what wergild you think should be established for each crime. Be sure to explain why.
Feudalism

The Carolingian Empire was weakened from within by division after Charlemagne’s death and from outside by enemy attacks. Local nobles became more important as people turned to them for the protection that the empire could no longer provide. The result was feudalism, a new political and social order in Europe.

The End of the Carolingian Empire

Vikings, Magyars, and Muslims invaded Europe during the ninth and tenth centuries.

HISTORY & YOU Why might the death of a strong leader make a country vulnerable to attack? Read how the death of Charlemagne left his kingdom vulnerable.

Charlemagne held his empire together with his personal power and prestige as a leader and the strong administrative system he established. His death created a vacuum of leadership that left the empire vulnerable. The Frankish tradition of dividing an estate among the surviving heirs also weakened the empire. As the Germanic tribes had moved into the Roman Empire and helped create a new European civilization, new invaders entered Europe and influenced its culture.

Invaders

The Carolingian Empire began to fall apart soon after Charlemagne’s death in 814. Less than 30 years later, it was divided among his grandsons into three major sections: the west Frankish lands, the eastern Frankish lands, and the Middle Kingdom. Local nobles gained power while the Carolingian rulers fought each other. Invasions in different parts of the old Carolingian world added to the process of disintegration.

In the ninth and tenth centuries, western Europe was beset by a wave of invasions. The Muslims attacked the southern coasts of Europe and sent raiding parties into southern France. The Magyars, a people from western Asia, moved into central Europe at the end of the ninth century, settled on the plains of Hungary, and invaded western Europe.

The most far-reaching attacks of the time, however, came from the Norsemen or Northmen of Scandinavia, also called the Vikings. The Vikings were a Germanic people. Their great love of adventure and their search for spoils of war and new avenues of trade may have been what led them to invade other areas of Europe.
In the ninth century, Vikings sacked villages and towns, destroyed churches, and easily defeated small local armies. The Vikings were warriors, and they were superb shipbuilders and sailors. Their ships were the best of the period. Long and narrow with beautifully carved, arched prows, the Viking dragon ships carried about 50 men. The construction of the ships enabled them to sail up European rivers and attack places far inland. By the mid-ninth century, the Vikings had begun to build various European settlements.

Beginning in 911, the ruler of the west Frankish lands gave one band of Vikings land at the mouth of the Seine River, forming a section of France that came to be known as Normandy. The Frankish policy of settling the Vikings and converting them to Christianity was a deliberate one. As a result of their conversion to Christianity, the Vikings were soon made a part of European civilization.
The Development of Feudalism

MAIN IDEA A system of lords and vassals spread throughout Europe after the collapse of the Carolingian Empire.

HISTORY & YOU What do you think of when you hear the term knight? Learn about the social order of feudalism.

The Vikings and other invaders posed a large threat to the safety of people throughout Europe. Rulers found it more and more difficult to defend their subjects as centralized governments such as the Carolingian Empire were torn apart.

Thus, people began to turn to local landed aristocrats, or nobles, to protect them. To survive, it became important to find a powerful lord who could offer protection in return for service. This led to a new political and social order known as feudalism.

Knights and Vassals
At the heart of feudalism was the idea of vassalage. In Germanic society, warriors swore an oath of loyalty to their leaders and fought in battles for them. The leaders, in turn, took care of the warriors’ needs. By the eighth century, a man who served a lord in a military capacity was known as a vassal.

The Frankish army had originally consisted of foot soldiers dressed in coats of mail (armor made of metal links or plates) and armed with swords. Horsemen had been throwers of spears. In the eighth century, however, larger horses and the stirrup were introduced. Now, horsemen were armored in coats of mail (the larger horses could carry the weight). They wielded long lances that enabled them to act as battering rams (the stirrups kept them on their horses). For almost five hundred years, warfare in Europe was dominated by heavily armored cavalry, or knights, as they came to be called. The knights had great social prestige and formed the backbone of the European aristocracy.

It was expensive to have a horse, armor, and weapons. It also took more time and practice to learn to use these instruments skillfully. With the breakdown of royal governments, the more powerful nobles took control of large areas of land. When these lords wanted men to fight for them, they granted each vassal a piece of land that supported the vassal and his family. In the society of the Early Middle Ages, where there was little trade and wealth was based primarily on land, land was the most important gift a lord could give to a vassal.

The Feudal Contract
In feudal society, having loyalty to one’s lord was the chief virtue. The relationship between lord and vassal was made official by a public ceremony. To become a vassal, a man performed an act of homage to his lord:

PRIMARY SOURCE
“The man should put his hands together as a sign of humility, and place them between the two hands of his lord as a token that he vows everything to him and promises faith to him; and the lord should receive him and promise to keep faith with him. Then the man should say: ‘Sir, I enter your homage and faith and become your man by mouth and hands [that is, by taking the oath and placing his hands between those of the lord], and I swear and promise to keep faith and loyalty to you against all others.’”
—A Source Book for Medieval History

By the ninth century, the grant of land made to a vassal had become known as a fief (FEF). Vassals who held fiefs came to hold political authority within them. As the Carolingian world fell apart, the number of separate, powerful lords and vassals increased. Instead of a single government, many different people were responsible for keeping order.

Feudalism became increasingly complicated. The vassals of a king, who were great lords, might also have vassals who would owe them military service in return for a grant of land taken from their estates. Those vassals, in turn, might likewise have vassals. At that level, the vassals would be simple knights with barely enough land to provide income for their equipment.
The lord-vassal relationship bound together greater and lesser landowners. It was an honorable relationship between free men and implied no sense of servitude. Feudalism came to be characterized by a set of unwritten rules—known as the **feudal contract**—that determined the relationship between a lord and his vassal. The major obligation of a vassal to his lord was to perform military service, usually about 40 days a year.

When summoned, a vassal had to appear at his lord’s court to give advice. Vassals were responsible for making payments to the lord on certain occasions, for example, the knighting of the lord’s eldest son or marriage of his eldest daughter.

Under the feudal **contract**, the lord also had responsibilities to his vassals. Of course, he supported a vassal by granting him land but he also had to protect his vassal by defending him militarily or by taking his side in a dispute.

**Feudal Society**

**MAIN IDEA** Men and women of the nobility were guided by a code of ethical behavior and society’s expectations of their roles.

**HISTORY & YOU** How do sports provide people with an outlet? Read how tournaments provided an outlet for knights.

Feudal society was built around a culture of warfare as vassals prepared to fight for their lords when called upon. However, such a society also needed to find ways to prevent conflicts and violence from tearing the society apart.

**Nobility and Chivalry**

In the Middle Ages, European society, like Japanese society during the same period, was dominated by men whose chief concern was warfare. Like the Japanese samurai, many European nobles loved war. As one nobleman wrote in a poem on the subject:

From roughly 800 to 1500, the social system of feudalism provided security for most of Europe. Feudalism involved a complex web of obligations for people at all levels of society.

Kings awarded tracts of land, called fiefs, to nobles. As vassals to the king, nobles pledged their loyalty and promised military services as a knight. Wealthier nobles subdivided their land into fiefs for lesser nobles and thus had vassals of their own. Peasants and serfs were not a formal part of feudalism. They were tied to the land. For them, the feudal order meant security.
By the end of the twelfth century, a castle's keep was the strongest part of the castle, but people lived, entertained, worshiped, and conducted business in smaller buildings on the bailey.

1. Making Inferences Which structures in a late medieval castle helped to protect the castle from invaders?

2. Drawing Conclusions Why might a castle include its own offices, stables, kitchen, and chapel?

Great lords and ordinary knights came to form a common group within the aristocracy. They were all warriors, and the institution of knighthood united them all. However, there were also social divisions among them based on extremes of wealth and landholdings.

Trained to be warriors but with no adult responsibilities, young knights had little to do but fight. In the twelfth century, tournaments—contests where knights could demonstrate their fighting skills—began to appear. By the late twelfth century, the joust—individual combat between two knights—had become the main part of the tournament.

Primary Source

“And well I like to hear the call of ‘Help’ and see the wounded fall, Loudly for mercy praying, And see the dead, both great and small, Pierced by sharp spearheads one and all.” —Sources of the Western Tradition, vol. 1

The nobles were the kings, dukes, counts, barons, and even bishops and archbishops who had large landed estates. Their landholdings gave them considerable political power in medieval society. They formed an aristocracy, or nobility, that consisted of people who held political, economic, and social power.
Knights saw tournaments as an excellent way to train for war. One knight expressed it in these words: “A knight cannot distinguish himself in war if he has not trained for it in tourneys.”

In the eleventh and twelfth centuries, under the influence of the Catholic Church, there gradually evolved among the nobility an ideal of civilized behavior, called chivalry. Chivalry was a code of ethics that knights were supposed to uphold. In addition to their oath to defend the Church and defenseless people, knights were expected to treat captives as honored guests instead of putting them in dungeons. In terms of the treatment of women, chivalry put the aristocratic woman on a pedestal. A knight was to treat her with tenderness and respect.

Chivalry also implied that knights should fight only for glory and not for material rewards. Of course, this ideal was not always followed.

**Aristocratic Women’s Roles**

Although women could legally hold property, most remained under the control of men—of their fathers until they married and of their husbands after they married. Still, aristocratic women had many opportunities to play important roles.

Because the lord was often away at war or court, the lady of the castle had to manage the estate. Households could include large numbers of officials and servants, so this was no small responsibility. Care of the financial accounts alone took considerable knowledge. The lady of the castle was also responsible for overseeing the food supply and maintaining all the other supplies needed for the smooth operation of the household.

Women were expected to be subservient to their husbands, but there were many strong women who advised, and even dominated, their husbands. Perhaps the most famous of these was Eleanor of Aquitaine. Eleanor was one of the most remarkable personalities of twelfth-century Europe. Heiress to the duchy of Aquitaine in southwestern France, she was married at the age of 15 to King Louis VII of France. The marriage was not a happy one, and Louis had their marriage annulled. Eleanor married again, only eight weeks later, to Duke Henry of Normandy, who soon became King Henry II of England.

Henry II and Eleanor had a stormy relationship. She spent much time abroad in her native Aquitaine, where she created a brilliant court dedicated to cultural activities. She and Henry had eight children (five were sons). Two of her sons—Richard and John—became kings of England.

As Eleanor aged, she continued to travel to arrange royal and noble weddings and to manage her estates. She lived until her eighties, dying in 1204 in an abbey.

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**Vocabulary**

1. Explain the significance of: Magyars, Hungary, Vikings, enabled, Normandy, feudalism, vassal, knight, fief, feudal contract, contract, tournament, chivalry, Eleanor of Aquitaine.

**Main Ideas**

2. Explain how Frankish traditions weakened the Carolingian Empire following Charlemagne’s death.

3. Describe the benefits granted a vassal under feudalism. What was a vassal’s primary obligation to his lord?

4. List the invasions that besieged the Carolingian Empire throughout the ninth and tenth centuries.

**Critical Thinking**

5. The BIG Idea Summarize What factors helped feudalism develop in western Europe throughout the ninth and tenth centuries?

6. Contrasting Information Use a table like the one below to list the differences between the social order of feudalism and empires.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feudalism</th>
<th>Empires</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Analyzing Visuals Analyze the cast on page 312. What does its structure reveal about medieval life?

**Writing About History**

8. Descriptive Writing Describe a twelfth-century tournament, using details to create vivid images. Use your local library or the Internet to supplement the text information. What questions would you ask about tournaments, knights, and jousting?
The Code of Chivalry

Beginning in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the idea of chivalry developed. This was an idealized set of rules and behaviors that knights were called on to follow. These rules varied according to time and place, but generally the ideal heroic knight was influenced by courtesy, fairness, piety, and devotion to an honorable idea.

More Romance than Reality

Chivalry existed to a certain degree, but it hardly controlled the way knights behaved or courts were run. It was first a literary movement—troubadours and bards spread romantic tales of noble, usually fictitious knights. The stories were also based on the ideas of “courtly love,” in which courtesy toward women was considered the most important quality. It began in the “courts of love” in southern France and then spread, but was never adopted by any large numbers of the nobility. It was a romanticized idea, but, as one historian states, chivalry was “more playacting than real.”
The history of chivalry is sometimes viewed in four periods. The first was during the Crusades, when knights pledged themselves to their holy task. The second was in the Crusades’ aftermath, when military orders, like the Knights Templar, were formed, and member knights took chivalric oaths. The third was during the Hundred Years’ War, when the concepts of honor in battle and with women dominated chivalric ideals. The fourth period was during the 1400s, when chivalry was carried out in ceremonies in royal courts.
The Growth of European Kingdoms

GUIDE TO READING

The BIG Idea
Order and Security  During the High Middle Ages, monarchs began to extend their power and build strong states.

Content Vocabulary
- common law (p. 317)
- Magna Carta (p. 318)
- Parliament (p. 318)
- estate (p. 319)

Academic Vocabulary
- challenge (p. 317)
- document (p. 317)

People and Places
- William of Normandy (p. 316)
- Henry II (p. 316)
- Thomas à Becket (p. 317)
- Paris (p. 319)
- Philip II Augustus (p. 319)
- Otto I (p. 319)
- Slavs (p. 320)
- Kiev (p. 321)
- Alexander Nevsky (p. 321)

Reading Strategy
Cause and Effect  Use a chart like the one below to show the main reasons why eastern Slavs developed separately from western Europe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causes</th>
<th>Effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Development of Eastern Slavs</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The domination of society by the nobility reached its high point between 1000 and 1300—the High Middle Ages. At the same time, monarchs began extending their power. This frequently led to conflict between the two.

England in the High Middle Ages

MAIN IDEA  King John of England put his seal on the Magna Carta in 1215, recognizing the rights of his nobles, and keeping the English monarch from ever becoming an absolute ruler.

HISTORY & YOU  What other famous documents granting rights can you name? Read how the nobles and the kings clashed.

Angles and Saxons, Germanic peoples from northern Europe, had invaded England early in the fifth century. King Alfred the Great had united various kingdoms in the late ninth century, and since then England had been ruled by Anglo-Saxon kings.

The Norman Conquest

On October 14, 1066, an army of heavily armed knights under William of Normandy landed on the coast of England and soundly defeated King Harold and his foot soldiers at the Battle of Hastings. William was crowned king of England. Norman knights received parcels of land, which they held as fiefs, from the king. William made all nobles swear an oath of loyalty to him as sole ruler of England.

The Norman ruling class spoke French, but the marriage of the Normans with the Anglo-Saxon nobility gradually merged Anglo-Saxon and French into a new English language. The Normans also took over existing Anglo-Saxon institutions, such as the office of sheriff. William took a census, known as the Domesday Book. It was the first census taken in Europe since Roman times and included people, manors, and farm animals. William also developed more fully the system of taxation and royal courts begun by earlier Anglo-Saxon kings.

Henry II and the Church

The power of the English monarchy was enlarged during the reign of Henry II, from 1154 to 1189. Henry increased the number of criminal cases tried in the king’s court and also devised means for taking property cases from local courts to the royal courts. By expanding the power of the royal courts, Henry expanded the king’s power. In addition, because the royal courts were now
found throughout England, a body of common law—law that was common to the whole kingdom—began to replace law codes that varied from place to place.

Henry was less successful at imposing royal control over the Church. He claimed the right to punish clergymen in royal courts. Thomas à Becket, archbishop of Canterbury and the highest-ranking English cleric, claimed that only Roman Catholic Church courts could try clerics. An angry king publicly expressed the desire to be rid of Becket: “Who will free me of this priest?” Four knights took the challenge, went to Canterbury, and murdered the archbishop in the cathedral. Faced with public outrage, Henry backed down in his struggle with the Church.

The Magna Carta

Many English nobles resented the ongoing growth of the king’s power and rebelled during the reign of King John. At Runnymede in 1215, John was forced by the nobles to put his seal on a document of rights.
It was called the **Magna Carta**, or the Great Charter. Feudal custom had recognized that the relationship between king and vassals was based on mutual rights and obligations. The Magna Carta gave written recognition to that fact and was used in later years to strengthen the idea that a monarch’s power was limited, not absolute.

In the thirteenth century, during the reign of Edward I, an important institution in the development of representative government—the English **Parliament**—also emerged. It was composed of two knights from every county, two people from every town, and all of the nobles and bishops throughout England. Eventually, nobles and church lords formed the House of Lords; knights and townspeople, the House of Commons. The Parliaments of Edward I granted taxes, discussed politics, and passed laws.

**✓ Reading Check**

**Analyzing** Why was 1066 a turning point in history?

---

**THE MAGNA CARTA**

In the Magna Carta’s 63 clauses, King John vowed that the church would remain free, listed rights due to landholders, said he would dismiss his mercenaries from foreign countries, and gave a council of 25 barons the right to go to war with him if he did not honor the Magna Carta. John was not the first king to make promises to his barons. However, previous monarchs had made general promises and granted them freely, while King John’s barons demanded the very specific promises from him. By recognizing the rights of nobles, the Magna Carta limited the power of English monarchs.

39. No freeman shall be . . . imprisoned . . . except by the lawful judgment of his peers or by the law of the land.
40. To no one will we sell, to no one will we refuse or delay, right or justice.
51. As soon as peace is restored, we will banish from the kingdom all foreign-born knights, cross-bowmen, serjeants, and mercenary soldiers . . .
52. If anyone has been dispossessed or removed by us, without the legal judgment of his peers, from his lands, castles, franchises, or from his right, we will immediately restore them to him . . .
55. All fines made with us unjustly and against the law of the land, and all amercements imposed unjustly and against the law of the land, shall be entirely remitted . . . from the Magna Carta

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1 **amercements**: punishments by fine

**DOCUMENT-BASED QUESTIONS**

1. **Making Inferences** Why might the nobles have insisted that King John send away his foreign army?
2. **Summarizing** What permanent effects did the Magna Carta have on the English monarchy?
France in the Middle Ages

MAIN IDEA  One section of Charlemagne’s empire became France.

HISTORY & YOU  Which states were originally French territory? Read about the development of the French monarchy.

In 843, the Carolingian Empire was divided into three sections. One of them, the west Frankish lands, formed the core of the kingdom of France. In 987, after the last Carolingian king died, the west Frankish nobles made Hugh Capet their king, establishing the Capetian (kuh•PEE•shuhn) dynasty of French kings.

Although they were called kings, the Capetians had little real power. The royal domain, or lands they controlled, included only the area around Paris, known as the Ile-de-France. Formally, they were above the great dukes of France, but many of the dukes were actually more powerful.

The reign of Philip II Augustus, who reigned from 1180–1223, was a turning point in the French monarchy, expanding its income and power. Philip fought wars against the English to take control of the French territories of Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Aquitaine. Philip’s successors continued to add lands to the royal domain.

Much of the thirteenth century was dominated by the reign of Louis IX. Deeply religious, he was later made a saint by the Catholic Church. Louis was known for trying to bring justice to his people by hearing their complaints in person. Philip IV, called Philip the Fair, ruled from 1285 to 1314. He made the monarchy stronger by expanding the royal bureaucracy. Indeed by 1300, France was the largest and best-governed monarchy in Europe. Philip IV also created a French parliament by meeting with members of the three estates, or classes—the clergy (first estate), the nobles (second estate), and the townspeople and peasants (third estate). The meeting, in 1302, began the Estates-General, the first French parliament.

Reading Check  Evaluating  Why was the reign of King Philip II Augustus important to the growth of the French monarchy?

The Holy Roman Empire

MAIN IDEA  Unlike England and France, the lands of Germany and Italy did not become united during the Middle Ages.

HISTORY & YOU  What characteristics would make one group unite with another? Read how the Holy Roman Emperors failed.

In the tenth century, the powerful dukes of the Saxons became kings of the eastern Frankish kingdom, which came to be known as Germany. The best-known Saxon king of Germany was Otto I. Otto was a patron of German culture and brought the Church under his control. In return for protecting the pope, Otto I was crowned emperor of the Romans in 962. The title had not been used since the time of Charlemagne. Otto’s creation of a new Roman Empire in the hands of the Germans had long-range consequences.

Struggles in Italy

As leaders of a new Roman Empire, the German kings attempted to rule both German and Italian lands. Many a German king lost armies in Italy in pursuit of the dream of an empire. The two most famous members of one particular German dynasty prove this.

Frederick I and Frederick II, instead of building a strong German kingdom, tried to create a new kind of empire. Frederick I planned to get his chief revenues from Italy. He considered Italy the center of a “holy empire,” as he called it—hence the name Holy Roman Empire.

Frederick’s attempt to conquer northern Italy led to severe problems. The pope opposed him, fearing that he wanted to include Rome and the Papal States as part of his empire. The cities of northern Italy, which had become used to their freedom, were also unwilling to become his subjects. An alliance of these northern Italian cities and the pope defeated the forces of Frederick I in 1176.

The main goal of Frederick II was to establish a strong, centralized state in Italy. He too was involved in a struggle with the popes and the northern Italian cities.
Frederick II waged a bitter struggle in northern Italy, winning many battles but ultimately losing the war.

**Effects on the Empire**

The struggle between popes and emperors had dire consequences for the Holy Roman Empire. By spending their time fighting in Italy, the German emperors left Germany in the hands of powerful German lords. These nobles ignored the emperor and created their own independent kingdoms. This made the German monarchy weak and incapable of maintaining a strong monarchical state.

In the end, the German Holy Roman Emperor had no real power over either Germany or Italy. Unlike France and England, neither Germany nor Italy created a national monarchy in the Middle Ages. Both Germany and Italy consisted of many small, independent states. Not until the nineteenth century did these states ultimately become unified.

**Reading Check**

Explaining What is the origin of the term Holy Roman Empire?

---

The Slavic peoples were originally a single people in central Europe. Gradually, they divided into three major groups: the western, southern, and eastern Slavs.

**Slavic Europe**

The western **Slavs** eventually formed the Polish and Bohemian kingdoms. German monks had converted both the Czechs in Bohemia and the Slavs in Poland to Christianity by the tenth century. The non-Slavic kingdom of Hungary was also converted. The Poles, Czechs, and Hungarians all accepted Western Christianity and became part of the Roman Catholic Church and its Latin culture.
The southern and eastern Slavic populations took a different path. The eastern Slavic peoples of Moravia were converted to Orthodox Christianity by two Byzantine missionary brothers, Cyril and Methodius, who began their activities in 863. (The Byzantine Empire and its Eastern Orthodox Church are discussed later in this chapter.)

The southern Slavic peoples included the Croats, the Serbs, and the Bulgarians. Most of them embraced Eastern Orthodoxy, although the Croats came to accept the Roman Catholic Church. The acceptance of Eastern Orthodoxy by many southern and eastern Slavic peoples meant that their cultural life was linked to the Byzantine state.

Kievan Rus

Eastern Slavic peoples had also settled in present-day Ukraine and Russia. There, beginning in the late eighth century, they began to encounter Swedish Vikings, who moved into their lands in search of plunder and new trade routes. The Vikings eventually came to dominate the native peoples. The native peoples called the Viking rulers the Rus, from which the name Russia is derived.

One Viking leader, Oleg, settled in Kiev (present-day Kyiv) at the beginning of the tenth century and created the Rus state known as the principality of Kiev. His successors extended their control over the eastern Slavs and expanded Kiev until it included the territory between the Baltic and Black Seas and the Danube and Volga Rivers. By marrying Slavic wives, the Viking ruling class was gradually assimilated into the Slavic population.

The growth of the principality of Kiev attracted missionaries from the Byzantine Empire. One Rus ruler, Vladimir, married the Byzantine emperor’s sister and officially accepted Eastern Orthodox Christianity for himself and his people in 988. Orthodox Christianity became the religion of the state. Kievan Rus prospered and reached its high point in the first half of the eleventh century. However, civil wars and new invasions brought an end to the first Russian state in 1169.

Mongol Rule

In the thirteenth century, the Mongols conquered Russia. They occupied Russian lands and required Russian princes to pay tribute to them. One prince emerged as more powerful than the others. Alexander Nevsky, prince of Novgorod, defeated a German invading army in northwestern Russia in 1242. The khan, leader of the western Mongol Empire, rewarded Nevsky with the title of grand-prince. His descendants became princes of Moscow and eventually leaders of all Russia.

Reading Check  Describing How was the Viking ruling class gradually assimilated into the Slavic population?
The Eastern Roman Empire continued long after the fall of Rome. Islam became a major force against the eastern empire, and Europeans eventually led military expeditions to the region to reclaim land conquered by Muslims.

From Eastern Roman Empire to Byzantine Empire

The Eastern Roman Empire evolved into the smaller Byzantine Empire, which created a unique civilization in the eastern Mediterranean.

HISTORY & YOU Does your family follow certain traditions from a long time ago? Read about the Eastern Orthodox Church.

During the fifth century, Germanic tribes moved into the western part of the Roman Empire and established their states. In contrast, the Roman Empire in the East, centered on Constantinople, continued to exist, although pressured by powerful Islamic forces.

The Reign of Justinian

When Justinian became emperor of the Eastern Roman Empire in 527, he was determined to reestablish the Roman Empire in the entire Mediterranean world. By 552, he appeared to have achieved his goals. His empire included Italy, part of Spain, North Africa, Asia Minor, Palestine, and Syria. However, only three years after Justinian’s death in 565, the Lombards had conquered much of Italy, and other areas were soon lost.

Justinian’s most important contribution was his codification of Roman law. He simplified a vast quantity of legal materials, resulting in the Body of Civil Law. This code of Roman laws was the basis of imperial law in the Eastern Roman Empire until its end in 1453. In addition, it became the basis for much of the legal system of Europe.

The Byzantine Empire

Justinian’s accomplishments had been spectacular, but his conquests left the Eastern Roman Empire with serious problems: too much far-flung territory to protect, an empty treasury, a decline in population after a plague, and renewed threats to its frontiers. The most serious challenge came from the rise of Islam, which unified Arab groups and created a powerful new force that swept through the Eastern Roman Empire.

Islamic forces defeated an army of the Eastern Roman Empire at Yarmûk in 636. As a result, the empire lost the provinces of Syria and
Palestine. Problems arose along the northern frontier as well, especially in the Balkans. In 679, the Bulgars took possession of the lower Danube Valley, creating a strong Bulgarian kingdom.

By the beginning of the eighth century, the Eastern Roman Empire was much smaller, consisting only of the eastern Balkans and Asia Minor. Historians call this smaller empire the Byzantine Empire, a unique civilization that lasted until 1453.

The Byzantine Empire was both a Greek and a Christian state. Greek replaced Latin as the empire’s official language. At the same time, the Byzantine Empire was built on a Christian faith that was shared by many of its citizens. The Christian church of the Byzantine Empire came to be known as the Eastern Orthodox Church. To honor this faith, a great artistic effort was undertaken to enrich church building, ceremonies, and decorations.

The emperor occupied a crucial position in the Byzantine state. Portrayed as chosen by God, he was crowned in sacred ceremonies. His subjects were expected to prostrate themselves in his presence. His power was considered absolute.

Because the emperor appointed the head of the Eastern Orthodox Church, known as the patriarch, the emperor exercised control over church as well as state.

Soon after assuming the throne, Emperor Justinian appointed several commissions to collect and organize the complicated body of Roman laws. The result, *The Body of Civil Law* (or the Justinian Code), stands as one of the great accomplishments of the Middle Ages. Much of the modern world, including Scotland, Quebec, Louisiana, and most of mainland Europe, is governed by systems of justice that descend from the code.

On law: “The precepts of the law are these: to live honestly, to injure no one, and to give every man his due.”

On property: “By the law of nature these things are common to mankind—the air, running water, the sea, and consequently the shores of the sea.”

On theft: “The penalty for manifest theft is quadruple the value of the thing stolen, whether the thief be a slave or a freeman.”

On marriage: “We have enacted that puberty in males should be considered to commence immediately on the completion of their fourteenth year; while, as to females . . . they are esteemed fit for marriage on the completion of their twelfth year.”

### The Justinian Code

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codex Constitutionem</th>
<th>A collection of all known ordinances issued by previous emperors. Redundant and obsolete material was left out. Published in 10 books.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Digest</td>
<td>A selection of the most valuable writings of Roman jurists. Any statement not selected for the Digest was considered invalid. Published in 50 books.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutes</td>
<td>An elementary law textbook for use by first-year law students. Extracts from the Codex and Digest were included.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novels</td>
<td>Several collections of new ordinances passed by Justinian himself after the publication of the Codex.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Byzantines believed that God had commanded their state to preserve the true Christian faith. Political and religious leaders were all bound together in service to this spiritual ideal.

**Life in Constantinople**

Much of Constantinople was destroyed by riots in 532. Afterward, Emperor Justinian rebuilt the city and gave it the appearance it would keep for almost a thousand years. With a population estimated in the hundreds of thousands, Constantinople was the largest city in Europe during the Middle Ages.

The city was dominated by an immense palace complex, hundreds of churches, and a huge arena known as the Hippodrome, where gladiator fights and chariot races were held. Justinian’s public works projects included roads, bridges, walls, public baths, law courts, schools, churches, and underground reservoirs to hold the city’s water supply.

His greatest achievement was the famous Hagia Sophia—the Church of the Holy Wisdom. The center of Hagia Sophia consists of four large piers crowned by an enormous dome, which seems to float in space. Light from 42 windows at the dome’s base helps create this impression.

Until the twelfth century, Constantinople was medieval Europe’s greatest center of commerce. It was the chief center for the exchange of products between West and East. Highly desired in Europe were the products of the East: silk from China, spices from Southeast Asia and India, jewelry and ivory from India (the latter used for church items), wheat and furs from southern Russia, and flax and honey from the Balkans. These goods flowed into Constantinople, and many were then shipped throughout Europe.

Imported raw materials were also used in Constantinople for local industries. In Justinian’s reign, two Christian monks smuggled silkworms from China to begin a silk industry. European demand for silk cloth made it the city’s most lucrative product.

**New Heights and New Problems**

The Macedonians expanded the Byzantine Empire, but new threats arose in the late eleventh century.

**HISTORY & YOU** How do you handle a difference of opinion? Read about the schism between the Eastern Orthodox Church and the Catholic Church.

The size of the Byzantine Empire was greatly reduced by the early eighth century, but the empire recovered and even expanded through a new dynasty known as the Macedonians, who ruled from 867 to 1081.

**Macedonian Emperors**

The Macedonian emperors expanded the empire to include Bulgaria in the Balkans, Crete, Cyprus, and Syria. By 1025, the Byzantine Empire was the largest it had been since the 600s. By expanding trade with western Europe, the Macedonians renewed prosperity to Constantinople.

The new dynasty restored much of the empire’s power, but incompetent successors undid most of the gains. Power struggles between army leaders and wealthy families led to disorder in the late eleventh century.

**Religious Issues**

Relations with the Catholic Church grew worse because the Eastern Orthodox Church did not accept the pope as the sole head of Christianity. In 1054, the pope and the Byzantine patriarch formally excommunicated each other—each took away the other’s rights of church membership. This began a schism, or separation, between the two great branches of Christianity that has not been completely healed to this day.

The Byzantine Empire’s greatest external threat came from the Seljuk Turks in Asia Minor—the empire’s main source of food and workers. In 1071, a Turkish army defeated Byzantine forces at Manzikert. As a result, Emperor Alexius I turned to Europe for military aid to fight the Turks.
The Crusades

**MAIN IDEA** The Crusades had a significant effect on medieval society in both the East and the West.

**HISTORY & YOU** Do you know of any worthy causes founded by children? Read about the Children’s Crusades.

From the eleventh to the thirteenth centuries, European Christians carried out a series of military expeditions to regain the Holy Land from the Muslims. These expeditions are known as the Crusades.

The push for the Crusades came when the Byzantine emperor Alexius I asked the Europeans for help against the Seljuk Turks, who were Muslims. Pope Urban II, who responded to the request, saw a golden opportunity to provide leadership for a great cause. That cause was rallying Europe’s warriors to free Jerusalem and the Holy Land (Palestine) from the infidels or unbelievers—the Muslims.

At the Council of Clermont in southern France near the end of 1095, Urban II challenged Christians to take up their weapons and join in a holy war. The pope promised: “All who die . . . shall have immediate remission [forgiveness] of sins.” The enthusiastic crowd cried out: “It is the will of God, it is the will of God.”

Warriors of western Europe, particularly France, formed the first crusading armies. These knights were mostly motivated by religious fervor, but some sought adventure and welcomed the chance to fight. Others saw an opportunity to gain wealth and a possible title. Italian merchants also sought new trading opportunities in Byzantine and Muslim lands.

**The Early Crusades**

The First Crusade began as three organized bands of mostly French warriors made their way to the East. The crusading army, which included thousands of men in cavalry and infantry, captured Antioch in 1098. The crusaders proceeded down the Palestinian coast, avoiding the well-defended coastal cities, and reached Jerusalem in June 1099. The Holy City was taken amid a horrible massacre of its inhabitants.

**Hagia Sophia**

The main dome of Hagia Sophia is 160 feet (48.8 m) high and over 101 feet (30.8 m) in diameter.

Hagia Sophia’s interior is decorated with colored marble, stone inlays, and mosaics.

The four tall, slender towers (minarets) were added after Hagia Sophia was converted to a mosque.

A Christian church for more than 900 years, Hagia Sophia was converted to a mosque in 1453 when Mehmed II conquered Constantinople.

1. **Drawing Conclusions** What features of Hagia Sophia might have affected Mehmed II’s decision to convert it to a mosque?

2. **Comparing and Contrasting** What are differences and similarities between the Hagia Sophia and Christian churches in western Europe?
After further conquests, the crusaders organized four Latin crusader states in the East. Surrounded by Muslims, these crusader kingdoms depended on Italian cities for supplies. Some Italian port cities, such as Genoa, Pisa, and especially Venice, grew rich and powerful in the process.

It was not easy for the crusader kingdoms to maintain themselves in the East. By the 1140s, the Muslims had begun to strike back. The fall of one of the Latin kingdoms to the Muslims led to calls for another crusade, especially from the monastic leader Saint Bernard of Clairvaux. Bernard managed to enlist two powerful rulers, King Louis VII of France and Emperor Conrad III of Germany, in a Second Crusade. This campaign, however, was a total failure.

In 1187, the Holy City of Jerusalem fell to Muslim forces under Saladin. Three rulers then agreed to lead a Third Crusade: German emperor Frederick Barbarossa, English king Richard I (Richard the Lionhearted), and French king Philip II Augustus.

When members of the Third Crusade arrived in the East in 1189, they struggled to overcome the problems they faced. Frederick drowned in a local river. The English and French arrived by sea and captured the coastal cities but were unable to move...
inland against the Muslim forces. After Philip returned home, Richard negotiated a settlement with Saladin that permitted Christian pilgrims free access to Jerusalem.

The Later Crusades

About six years after Saladin’s death in 1193, Pope Innocent III initiated the Fourth Crusade. As it headed east, the crusading army became involved in a fight over the Byzantine throne. The Venetian leaders of the crusade used the situation to weaken their greatest commercial competitor, the Byzantine Empire. In 1204, the crusaders sacked Constantinople.

Not until 1261 did a Byzantine army recapture the city. The Byzantine Empire was no longer a great power. It now comprised Constantinople and its surrounding lands, as well as part of Asia Minor. This smaller empire limped along for another 190 years, until the Ottoman Turks conquered it in 1453.

Despite failures, the crusading ideal continued. In Germany in 1212, a youth known as Nicholas of Cologne announced that God had inspired him to lead a “children’s crusade.” Thousands of young people marched with him to Italy, where the pope told them to go home. At about the same time, some twenty thousand French children headed to Marseille, where two shipowners agreed to take them to the Holy Land. Two of the ships went down in a storm. The other five sailed to North Africa, where the children were sold into slavery. The next Crusades of adult warriors were hardly more successful.

Did the Crusades have much effect on European civilization? Historians disagree. Clearly, the Crusades benefited the Italian port cities, especially Genoa, Pisa, and Venice. Even without the Crusades, however, Italian merchants would have increased trade with the Eastern world.

The Crusades had some unfortunate side effects on European society. The first widespread attacks on the Jews began in the context of the Crusades. Some Christians argued that to fight the Muslims while the “murderers of Christ,” as they called the Jews, ran free at home was unthinkable. The massacre of Jews became a feature of medieval European life.

Perhaps the greatest impact of the Crusades was political. They eventually helped to break down feudalism. As kings levied taxes and raised armies, nobles joining the Crusades sold their lands and freed their serfs. As nobles lost power, the kings created stronger central governments. Taxing trade with the East also provided kings with new wealth. This paved the way for the development of true nation-states. By the mid-1400s, four strong nation-states—Portugal, Spain, England, and France—would emerge in Europe.
**The FEUDAL ECONOMY**

- Viking attacks in Europe led to decentralized governments and a new feudal system, which was based on military service in return for land grants.
- England and France were the first to build strong centralized states in Western Europe, while Russia developed around Kiev.

**MEDIEVAL EUROPE and the Church**

- Germanic rulers, especially the Franks, ruled the old Western Roman Empire.
- Charlemagne expanded Frankish rule and promoted learning, centered in monasteries.

**Rise and Fall of BYZANTIUM**

- For centuries after Rome’s fall, a wealthy Byzantine Empire dominated trade in the eastern Mediterranean.
- As the Turks of the Ottoman Empire grew powerful, Byzantine rulers in Constantinople were threatened.
- Religious zeal and a spirit of conquest inspired European Crusaders, but Constantinople finally fell in 1453.

This artwork created by monks testifies to the importance of religion in the Middle Ages.

Feudal castles kept out invaders and were a center for government.

Justinian, an early emperor of what was later known as the Byzantine Empire, is seen here as a lawgiver.
**Reviewing Vocabulary**

*Directions: Choose the word or words that best complete the sentence.*

1. Bishops of Rome became known as _______ of the Roman Catholic Church.
   - A patriarchs
   - B popes
   - C wergilds
   - D bishoprics

2. A _______ was the grant of land from the lord to a vassal in return for military service.
   - A feudal contract
   - B schism
   - C wergild
   - D fief

3. Under the influence of the Church, noblemen followed a code of behavior called _______.
   - A chivalry
   - B common law
   - C the Magna Carta
   - D feudalism

4. A _______ developed between the Catholic Church and the Eastern Orthodox Church in 1054.
   - A feudal contract
   - B schism
   - C bishopric
   - D fief

**Reviewing Main Ideas**

*Directions: Choose the best answers to the following questions.*

**Section 1 (pp. 302–307)**

5. What important function did monks perform?
   - A They spread learning.
   - B They helped kings consolidate power.
   - C They spread wealth.
   - D They helped spread trade.

6. Why did Charlemagne promote learning?
   - A To spread German culture
   - B To provide free education to all children
   - C To educate the clergy and government
   - D Charlemagne didn’t promote learning.

**Section 2 (pp. 308–313)**

7. Why were Vikings able to expand throughout Europe?
   - A They controlled Mediterranean trade routes.
   - B They were allies with the Magyars.
   - C They were excellent shipbuilders and sailors.
   - D They defeated the Normans.

8. What was the most important gift a lord could give a vassal?
   - A Gold
   - B Arms and armor
   - C Serfs
   - D Land

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**Need Extra Help?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If You Missed Questions . . .</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section 3 (pp. 316–321)

9. What important English political institution emerged during the reign of Edward I?
   A  House of Lords
   B  Anglican Church
   C  Parliament
   D  Royal courts

10. How did Henry II increase the power of the English monarchy?
    A  By placing the church under royal control
    B  By increasing the power and jurisdiction of the royal courts
    C  By strengthening the feudal system
    D  By signing the Magna Carta

Section 4 (pp. 322–327)

11. What was Justinian’s most important contribution to the Eastern Roman Empire?
    A  The codification of Roman law
    B  The reunification of the Roman Empire
    C  The defeat of Islamic forces at Yarmūk
    D  The appointment of the patriarch

12. What was one of the side effects of the Crusades?
    A  There were fewer wars in Europe.
    B  Nobles gained power.
    C  Feudalism broke down.
    D  Italian merchants lost much of their power.

13. Which Muslim leader won back Jerusalem in 1187?
    A  Mehmed II
    B  Saladin
    C  Urban II
    D  Richard I

Critical Thinking

Directions: Choose the best answers to the following questions.
Base your answers to questions 14 and 15 on the map and your knowledge of world history.

Expansion of Moscow, 1300–1462

14. About how far did Moscow’s territory stretch from north to south in 1462?
    A  150 miles (241.4 km)
    B  420 miles (676 km)
    C  540 miles (869 km)
    D  730 miles (1174.8 km)

15. By what year did Russia add the Volga River to its holdings?
    A  By 1300
    B  By 1340
    C  By 1389
    D  By 1425
16. Why was Constantinople an important center of European trade?
   A. It was located along major Russian and Asian trade routes.
   B. It was located near the center of Europe.
   C. It was an important stopping point for ships on the way to Jerusalem.
   D. It was located along an important African trade route.

   Analyze the chart and answer the question that follows. Base your answers on the chart and on your knowledge of world history.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1st Crusade</th>
<th>2nd Crusade</th>
<th>3rd Crusade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>People involved</strong></td>
<td>Three bands of French warriors</td>
<td>Louis VII, Conrad III</td>
<td>Frederick Barbarossa, Richard I, Philip II Augustus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Results</strong></td>
<td>Jerusalem captured; Latin crusader states organized</td>
<td>Total failure</td>
<td>Christian pilgrims given access to Jerusalem; city still held by Muslims</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. Which Crusade most accomplished its goals?
   A. 1st Crusade
   B. 2nd Crusade
   C. 3rd Crusade
   D. None of the Crusades were successful.

18. What caused the schism in Christianity in the eleventh century?
   A. The pope and the patriarch disagreed about religious doctrines.
   B. The Byzantine emperor refused to recognize the Catholic Church.
   C. The Catholic Church refused to accept the patriarch as sole head of the Christian church.
   D. The Eastern Orthodox refused to accept the pope as sole head of the Christian church.

19. Why is it significant that the vow was given to a particular person rather than a nation, written constitution, or religion?

20. What is meant by the phrase “and the lord should receive him and promise to keep faith with him”?

21. What obligations does this vow impose on the vassal?

22. Using information you find in this text, your local library, or the Internet, describe the political, economic, and social impact of the Crusades. Which of these areas do you think the Crusades impacted the most? Support your answers with factual information.

History ONLINE
For additional test practice, use Self-Check Quizzes—Chapter 9 at glencoe.com.