Emerging Europe and the Byzantine Empire

400–1300

Key Events
As you read, look for the key events in the history of early Europe and the Byzantine Empire.
- The new European civilization was formed by the coming together of three major elements: the Germanic tribes, the Roman legacy, and the Christian church.
- The collapse of a central authority in the Carolingian Empire led to feudalism.
- In the 1100s, European monarchs began to build strong states.
- While a new civilization arose in Europe, the Byzantine Empire created its own unique civilization in the eastern Mediterranean.

The Impact Today
The events that occurred during this time period still impact our lives today.
- Ancient Roman literary works exist today because they were copied by monks.
- The influence of English common law is seen in our American legal system.
- Byzantine architecture inspired building styles in eastern Europe and Southwest Asia.

World History Video The Chapter 9 video, “Charlemagne and His World,” chronicles the emergence of the European nations.

410 Visigoths sack Rome
529 Justinian codifies Roman law in The Body of Civil Law
768 Charlemagne establishes the Carolingian Empire
800 Charlemagne crowned Roman emperor

400 500 600 700 800
Perched above the city, Edinburgh Castle was a residence for Scotland’s kings and queens.

**HISTORY Online**
Visit the *Glencoe World History* Web site at [wh.glencoe.com](http://wh.glencoe.com) and click on Chapter 9—Chapter Overview to preview chapter information.

962 Otto I crowned emperor of the Romans

1054 Schism begins between Eastern and Western Churches

1066 Battle of Hastings fought

1096 Crusades begin

1215 Magna Carta is signed

1453 Byzantine Empire ends

A returning crusader

William of Normandy
On November 24, 800, Charles the Great—or Charlemagne—the king of the Franks, entered Rome. His goal was to help Pope Leo III, head of the Catholic Church. The pope was disliked by the Roman people and was barely clinging to power in the face of their hostility.

Charlemagne brought the pope and the Romans together and resolved their differences. To celebrate the newfound peace, Charlemagne, his family, and a host of citizens from the city crowded into Saint Peter’s Basilica on Christmas Day to attend mass.

All were surprised, according to a Frankish writer, when, “as the king rose from praying before the tomb of the blessed apostle Peter, Pope Leo placed a golden crown on his head.” In keeping with ancient tradition, the people in the church shouted, “Long life and victory to Charles Augustus, crowned by God the great and peace-loving Emperor of the Romans.”

Charles was not entirely happy being crowned emperor by the pope. He said later that he would not have entered the church if he had known that Leo intended to crown him. To the onlookers, however, it appeared that the Roman Empire in the West had been reborn and Charles had become the first Roman emperor since 476.
The New Germanic Kingdoms

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. 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, when Clovis’s army faced certain destruction, he cried out, “Jesus Christ, if you shall grant me victory over these enemies, I will believe in you and be baptized.” After he uttered these words, the enemy began to flee, and Clovis soon became a Christian.

Clovis found that his conversion to Christianity gained him the support of the Roman Catholic Church, as the Christian church in Rome had become known. Not surprisingly, the Catholic Church was eager to obtain the friendship of a major ruler in the Germanic states.

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). After Clovis’s death, however, his sons followed Frankish custom and divided his newly created kingdom among themselves.
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 one against an ordinary person or a slave.

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  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. Local Christian communities called parishes were led by priests. A group of parishes was headed by a bishop, whose area of authority was known as a bishopric, or diocese. The bishoprics of the Roman provinces were joined together under the direction of an archbishop.

Over time, one bishop—the bishop of Rome—began to claim that he was the leader of what was now called the Roman Catholic Church. According to Catholic beliefs, Jesus had given 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 the pope should
“Let all things be common to all, as it is written, lest anyone should say that anything is his own.”
—The Rule of St. Benedict

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 Roman Catholic Church.

Gregory I was pope from 590 to 604. He took control of Rome and its surrounding territories (later called the Papal States), thus giving the papacy a source of political power, and he extended papal authority over the Church in the West. He was especially active in converting the pagan peoples (heathens or non-Christians) of Germanic Europe to Christianity. He did this through the monastic movement.

The Monks and Their Missions

A monk is a man who separates himself from ordinary human society in order to pursue a life of total dedication to God. The practice of living the life of a monk is known as monasticism. At first, Christian monasticism was based on the model of the hermit who pursues an isolated spiritual life. Later, in the sixth century, Saint Benedict founded a community of monks for which he wrote a set of rules. This community established the basic form of monasticism in the Catholic Church. The Benedictine rule came to be 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 of some kind 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 strictly ruled by an abbot, or “father” of the monastery, who had complete authority over the monks. Obedience to the will of the abbot was expected of each monk. Each Benedictine monastery owned lands that enabled it to be a self-sustaining community, isolated from and independent of the world surrounding it. Within the monastery, however, monks were to fulfill their vow of poverty.

Monks became the new heroes of Christian civilization and were an important force in the new European civilization. The monastic community came to be seen as the ideal Christian society that could provide a moral example to the wider society around it. The monks’ dedication to God became the highest ideal of Christian life. They were the social workers of their communities, providing schools for the young, hospitality for travelers, and hospitals for the sick. They taught peasants carpentry and weaving and made improvements in agriculture that they passed on to others.

Monasteries became centers of learning wherever they were located. The monks worked to spread Christianity to all of Europe. English and Irish monks were especially enthusiastic missionaries—people sent out to carry a religious message—who undertook the conversion of pagan 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. Five future bishops were educated under her direction.

Reading Check

Describing What was the role of the Catholic Church in the growth of the new European civilization?
Charlemagne and the Carolingians

During the 600s and 700s, the kings of the Frankish kingdom gradually lost their power to the mayors of the palace, who were the chief officers of the king’s household. One of these mayors, Pepin, finally took the logical step of assuming the kingship of the Frankish state for himself and his family. Pepin was the son of Charles Martel, the leader who defeated the Muslims at the Battle of Tours in 732. Upon Pepin’s death in 768, his son came to the throne of the Frankish kingdom.

This new king was the dynamic and powerful ruler known to history as Charles the Great, or Charlemagne. Charlemagne was a determined and decisive man who was highly intelligent and curious. He was a fierce warrior, a strong statesman, and a pious Christian. Although unable to read or write, he was a wise patron (supporter) of learning.

The Carolingian Empire During his lengthy rule from 768 to 814, Charlemagne greatly expanded the territory of the Frankish kingdom and created what came to be known as the Carolingian (KAR•uh•LIN•jee•uhn) Empire. At its height, Charlemagne’s empire covered much of western and central Europe. Not until the time of Napoleon Bonaparte 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 representatives in local areas. As an important check on the power of the counts, Charlemagne established the missi dominici (“messengers of the lord king”)—two men who were sent out to local districts to ensure that the counts were carrying 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 demonstrated the strength of the idea of an enduring Roman Empire. After all, his coronation took place three hundred years after the collapse of the Western Roman Empire.

The Carolingian Empire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Charles the Man</th>
<th>Charles the Administrator</th>
<th>Charles the Conqueror</th>
<th>Charles the Patron of Learning</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Was athletic, well-spoken, and charismatic</td>
<td>• Delegated authority to loyal nobles</td>
<td>• Was an aggressive warrior</td>
<td>• Revived classical studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Married five times</td>
<td>• Retained local laws of conquered areas</td>
<td>• Strengthened the Frankish military</td>
<td>• Preserved Latin culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Divided his kingdom among his sons at his death</td>
<td>• Treated ethnic groups equally through the laws</td>
<td>• Expanded and consolidated the Frankish nation</td>
<td>• Established monastic and palace schools</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Refused to let his daughters marry</td>
<td>• Used missi dominici (“messengers of the lord king”) to inspect and report on provinces</td>
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Charlemagne was a dynamic and powerful ruler.

1. Examining What activities helped Charlemagne strengthen his empire?
2. Evaluating What event(s) listed above continue(s) to impact civilization today?
The coronation also symbolized the coming together 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.

**An Intellectual Renewal** Charlemagne had a strong desire to promote learning in his kingdom. This desire stemmed from Charlemagne’s own intellectual curiosity and from the need to provide educated clergy for the Church and literate officials for the government. His efforts led to a revival of learning and culture 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 during the seventh and eighth centuries, played a central role in the cultural renewal of this period. 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 Latin classical 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**

1. Define *wergild*, ordeal, bishopric, pope, monk, monasticism, missionary, nun, abbess.
2. Identify *Visigoths*, *Ostrogoths*, Anglo-Saxons, Clovis, Gregory I, Saint Benedict, mayor of the palace, Pepin, Charlemagne, scriptoria.
3. Locate Pyrenees, Carolingian Empire.
4. Summarize the crucial social bond among the Germanic peoples and one area of its application.
5. List the daily activities of the Benedictine monks.

**Critical Thinking**

6. **Explain** What significance did Charlemagne’s coronation as Roman emperor have to the development of European civilization?
7. **Summarizing Information** Identify the rulers discussed in the chapter and explain how they were significant both in religious and political realms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rulers</th>
<th>Religious Realm</th>
<th>Political Realm</th>
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**Analyzing Visuals**

8. **Examine** the painting of Charlemagne shown on page 289 of your text. How does this representation reflect Charlemagne’s dual role as emperor and as Christian leader?

**Writing About History**

9. **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 and why.
Main Ideas
- Vikings, Magyars, and Muslims invaded Europe during the ninth and tenth centuries.
- The collapse of central authority in the European world led to a new political system known as feudalism.

Key Terms
feudalism, vassal, knight, fief, feudal contract, tournament, chivalry

People to Identify
Magyars, Vikings, Eleanor of Aquitaine

Places to Locate
Hungary, Normandy

Preview Questions
1. What led to the development of the system of feudalism?
2. What was the role of aristocratic women in the Middle Ages?

Preview of Events
- 814: Charlemagne dies
- c. 850: Vikings spread throughout Europe
- c. 900: Feudalism takes hold in northern France
- c. 1050: Feudalism spreads through western Europe

Reading Strategy
Identifying Information
Use a diagram like the one below to show the system of loyalties created under feudalism.

System of Loyalties

Voices from the Past
In 1020, Bishop Fulbert of Chartres wrote about the mutual obligations between lord and vassals:

“[The vassal] who swears loyalty to his lord ought always to have these six things in memory: what is harmless, safe, honorable, useful, easy, practicable. Harmless, that is to say, that he should not injure his lord in his body; safe, that he should not injure him by betraying his secrets; honorable, that he should not injure him in his justice; useful, that he should not injure him in his possessions; easy and practicable, that that good which his lord is able to do easily he make not difficult, nor that which is practicable he make not impossible to him.”

—Readings in European History, James Harvey Robinson, 1934

A system of lords and vassals spread over Europe after the collapse of the Carolingian Empire.

The 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. 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 Northmen or Norsemen 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. By their conversion to Christianity, the Vikings were soon made a part of European civilization.

Several different groups invaded and settled in early medieval Europe.

1. Interpreting Maps What areas remained free of invasion? What areas experienced multiple invasions?
2. Applying Geography Skills Describe how the invaders would have disrupted everyday life in Europe.

The Development 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 like 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 system called **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 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. 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** 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:

> 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.’

**Feudalism**

The word **feudalism** usually makes us think of European knights on horseback armed with swords and lances. However, between 800 and 1500, feudal systems developed in various parts of the world.

In Europe, a feudal system based on lords and vassals arose between 800 and 900 and flourished for the next four hundred years.

In Japan, a feudal system much like that found in Europe developed between 800 and 1500. Powerful nobles in the countryside owed only a loose loyalty to the Japanese emperor. The nobles in turn depended on samurai, or warriors who owed loyalty to the nobles and provided military service for them. Like knights in Europe, the samurai fought on horseback, clad in iron.

In the Valley of Mexico, the Aztec developed a political system between 1300 and 1500 that bore some similarities to Japanese and European feudalism. Local rulers of lands outside the capital city were allowed considerable freedom. However, the Aztec king was a powerful ruler and local rulers paid tribute to him and provided him with military forces. Unlike the knights and samurai of Europe and Japan, Aztec warriors were armed with sharp knives and spears of wood, both fitted with razor-sharp blades cut from stone.

**Comparing Cultures**

Research two of the three cultures discussed in this feature. What are the similarities and differences in their feudal systems?
In feudal society, loyalty to one’s lord was the chief virtue.

By the ninth century, the grant of land made to a vassal had become known as a fief (FEEF). 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 now responsible for keeping order.

Feudalism became increasingly complicated. The vassals of a king, who were themselves 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, then, bound together both greater and lesser landowners.

The lord-vassal relationship 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 to the lord. Vassals were responsible for making financial payments to the lord on a number of occasions as well. These included the knighting of the lord’s eldest son, the marriage of the lord’s eldest daughter, and the ransom of the lord’s person if the lord should be captured.

Under the feudal contract, the lord also had responsibilities toward his vassals. Of course, the lord supported a vassal by granting him land. The lord, however, was also required to protect his vassal, either by defending him militarily or by taking his side in a court of law.

**Identifying** Why was land the most important gift a lord could give a vassal?

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**The Way It Was**

**FOCUS ON EVERYDAY LIFE**

**The Castles of the Aristocrats**

The growth of the European nobility in the High Middle Ages (1000 to 1300) was made visible by a growing number of castles scattered across the landscape. Castles varied considerably but possessed two common features: they were permanent residences for the noble family, its retainers, and servants, and they were defensible fortifications.

The earliest castles were made of wood. However, by the eleventh century, castles of stone were being built. At first, the basic castle plan had two parts. The motte was a man-made or natural steep-sided hill. The bailey was an open space next to the motte. Both motte and bailey were encircled by large stone walls. The keep, the central building of the castle, was built on the motte.

The keep was a large building with a number of stories constructed of thick stone walls. On the ground floor were the kitchens and stables. The basement housed storerooms for equipment and foodstuffs. Above the ground floor was the great hall. This very large room served a number of purposes.
The Nobility of the Middle Ages

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:

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.

The nobles were the kings, dukes, counts, barons, and even bishops and archbishops who had large landed estates and considerable political power. They formed an aristocracy, or nobility, that consisted of people who held political, economic, and social power.

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 show 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.

Knights saw tournaments as an excellent way to train for war. As one knight explained: “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. Chivalry also implied that knights should fight only for glory and not for material rewards, an ideal that was not always followed.

Connecting to the Past

1. Explaining What architectural and design features supported the two basic functions of castles?
2. Describing What was the lifestyle of the European nobility in the High Middle Ages?
3. Writing about History Does a nobility exist today? Where?
Aristocratic Women

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 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.

Reading Check
Summarizing
To whom were aristocratic women subject?
The Growth of European Kingdoms

Main Ideas
- During the High Middle Ages, European monarchs began to extend their power and build strong states.
- The Slavic peoples formed three distinct groups, and they settled in different parts of eastern Europe.

Key Terms
common law, Magna Carta, estate

People to Identify
William of Normandy, Henry II, Thomas à Becket, Philip II Augustus, Otto I, Alexander Nevsky

Places to Locate
Paris, Hungary, Kiev

Preview Questions
1. How did centralized monarchies develop in Europe?
2. What caused conflicts between popes and monarchs?

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>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Development of Eastern Slavs</td>
<td></td>
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Voices from the Past

A thirteenth-century writer recorded his impressions of Frederick II, king of Germany and Sicily:

“[Frederick II was] a worthy man, and when he wished to show his good, courtly side, he could be witty, charming, urbane, and industrious. [But he was also strange.] Once he wanted to discover what language a child would use when he grew up if he had never heard anyone speak. Therefore, he placed some infants in the care of nurses, commanding them never to speak or fondle them. For he wanted to discover whether they would speak Hebrew, the first language, or Greek, Latin, Arabic, or the language of their parents. But he worked in vain, because all of the infants died.”

—The Chronicle of Salimbene de Adam, Joseph L. Baird, ed., 1986

Frederick II was one of a number of kings who sought to extend their power during the High Middle Ages—the period from about 1000 to 1300.

England in the High Middle Ages

In this section, you will learn how King John of England was forced to put his seal on the Magna Carta in 1215. By accepting the Magna Carta, John recognized the rights of his nobles, an act that kept the English monarch from ever becoming an absolute ruler.
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 then crowned king of England. Norman knights received parcels of land, which they held as fiefs, from the new 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 culture. 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 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. However, 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?” he screamed. 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 Capetians were formally the overlords of the great lords of France. In reality, however, many of the dukes were considerably more powerful than the Capetian kings.

The reign of King Philip II Augustus, who ruled from 1180 to 1223, was a turning point in the growth of the French monarchy. Philip waged war against the rulers of England, who also ruled the French territories of Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Aquitaine. Philip gained control of most of these territories. In doing so, he expanded the income of the French monarchy and greatly increased its power.

Capetian rulers after Philip II continued to add lands to the royal domain. Much of the thirteenth century was dominated by the reign of the saintly Louis IX. Philip IV, called Philip the Fair, ruled from 1285 to 1314. He was especially effective in strengthening the French monarchy by expanding the royal bureaucracy. Indeed, by 1300, France was the largest and best-governed monarchical state in Europe.

Philip IV also brought a French parliament into being by meeting with representatives of the three estates, or classes—the clergy (first estate), the nobles (second estate), and the townspeople and peasants (third estate). The meeting, held in 1302, began the Estates-General, the first French parliament.

Evaluating

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

The Magna Carta and the First Parliament

Many English nobles resented the ongoing growth of the king’s power and rose in rebellion during the reign of King John. At Runnymead, 1215, John was forced to put his seal on a document of rights called the Magna Carta, or the Great Charter.

The Magna Carta was, above all, a feudal document. Feudal custom had always 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. The Parliament came to be composed of two knights from every county, two people from every town, and all of the nobles and bishops from throughout England. Eventually, nobles and church lords formed the House of Lords; knights and townspeople, the House of Commons. The Parliaments granted taxes and passed laws.

Analyzing

Why do historians consider 1066 a turning point in history?

The French Kingdom

In 843, the Carolingian Empire was divided into three major sections. One of the sections, the west Frankish lands, formed the core of the eventual kingdom of France. In 987, after the death of the last Carolingian king, the west Frankish nobles chose Hugh Capet as the new king, thus establishing the Capetian (kuh•PEE•shuhn) dynasty of French kings.

Although they carried the title of king, the Capetians had little real power. The royal domain, or lands that they controlled, only included the area around Paris, known as the Île-de-France. As kings, the Capetians were formally the overlords of the great lords of France. In reality, however, many of the dukes were considerably more powerful than the Capetian kings.

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

People In History

Louis IX

c. 1214–1270—French king

Louis IX is considered the greatest medieval French king. A deeply religious man, he was later made a saint by the Catholic Church. “This saintly man loved our lord with all his heart and in all his actions followed [Christ’s] example,” noted Jean de Joinville, who accompanied the king on a crusade in 1248.

Louis was known for his attempts to bring justice to his people. He heard complaints personally in a very informal fashion: “In summer, after hearing mass, the king often went to the wood of Vincennes, where he would sit down with his back against an oak . . . . Those who had any suit to present could come to speak to him without hindrance from an usher or any other person.”
The Holy Roman Empire

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. 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.

Struggles in Italy As leaders of a new Roman Empire, the German kings attempted to rule both German and Italian lands. 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. However, he too became involved in a deadly 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.

Effect 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 become unified.

Central and Eastern Europe

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

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. For the most part, they too 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.

**Reading Check** Identifying From where did the Slavic peoples originate?

### The Development of Russia

Eastern Slavic peoples had also settled in the territory of 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.

**Kievan Rus** One Viking leader, Oleg, settled in Kiev 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?
Despite the difficulties that travel presented, early medieval civilization did witness some contact among various cultures. Ibn Fadlan, a Muslim diplomat sent from Baghdad in 921 to a settlement on the Volga River, gave a description of the Swedish Rus. His comments on the filthiness of the Rus reflect the Muslim concern with cleanliness.

"I saw the Rus folk when they arrived on their trading-mission and settled at the river Atul (Volga). Never had I seen people of more perfect physique. They are tall as date-palms, and reddish in color. They wear neither coat or kaftan, but each man carried a cape which covers one half of his body, leaving one hand free. No one is ever parted from his axe, sword, and knife.

They [the Rus] are the filthiest of God’s creatures. They do not wash after discharging their natural functions, neither do they wash their hands after meals. They are as lousy as donkeys. They arrive from their distant lands and lay their ships alongside the banks of the Atul, which is a great river, and there they build big houses on its shores. Ten or twenty of them may live together in one house, and each of them has a couch of his own...

They wash their hands and faces every day in incredibly filthy water. Every morning the girl brings her master a large bowl of water in which he washes his hands and face and hair, then blows his nose into it and spits into it. When he has finished the girl takes the bowl to his neighbor—who repeats the performance. Thus the bowl goes the rounds of the entire household...

If one of the Rus folk falls sick they put him in a tent by himself and leave bread and water for him.

They do not visit him, however, or speak to him, especially if he is a serf [peasant laborer]. Should he recover he rejoins the others; if he dies they burn him. But if he happens to be a serf they leave him for the dogs and vultures to devour. If they catch a robber they hang him to a tree until he is torn to shreds by wind and weather.

—Ibn Fadlan, on the Swedish Rus

Analyzing Primary Sources

1. How did Ibn Fadlan’s impression of the physical attributes of the Swedish Rus differ from his impression of their hygiene?
2. What does the way in which the Rus handled sickness and death tell you about their culture?
3. Why would the Rus way of dealing with hygiene and death be especially repulsive to a Muslim?
The Byzantine Empire and the Crusades

During the First Crusade, French knights captured Jerusalem. One commentator, who accompanied the crusaders, described the scene:

Then the French entered the city [of Jerusalem] at the noonday hour of Friday, the day of the week when Christ redeemed the whole world on the cross. . . . All the heathen, completely terrified, changed their boldness to swift flight through the narrow streets of the city. . . . Some fled into the Tower of David; others shut themselves in the Temple of the Lord and of Solomon, where in the halls a very great attack was made on them. . . . Within this Temple, about ten thousand were beheaded. Not one of them was allowed to live. They did not spare the women and children.

—Chronicle of the First Crusade, M.E. McGinty, trans., 1941

While a new civilization struggled to emerge in Europe, the Byzantine Empire created its own civilization in the eastern Mediterranean and continued to flourish. The Crusades, however, eventually weakened the Byzantine Empire.

The Reign of Justinian

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.
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. He had restored the Roman Empire in the Mediterranean. 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. The Eastern Roman Empire had inherited a vast quantity of legal materials, which Justinian wished to simplify. The result was *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. Furthermore, it was also used in the West and became the basis for much of the legal system of Europe.

**Reading Check**

**Evaluating** What is the significance of *The Body of Civil Law*?

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**From Eastern Roman Empire to Byzantine Empire**

Justinian’s accomplishments had been spectacular, but his conquests left the Eastern Roman Empire with serious problems: too much territory to protect far from Constantinople, 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 Yarmuk 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 defeated the Eastern Roman Empire’s forces and 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 Eastern Roman Empire the **Byzantine Empire**, a civilization with its own unique character that lasted until 1453.

The Byzantine Empire was both a Greek and a Christian state. Greek replaced Latin as both the common language and the official language of the empire. At the same time, the empire was built on a Christian faith that was shared by many citizens. The Christian church of the Byzantine Empire came to be known as the Eastern Orthodox Church. An enormous amount of artistic talent was poured into church building, church ceremonies, and church decoration to honor this faith.

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, he exercised control over church as well as state. The Byzantines believed that God had commanded their state to preserve the true Christian faith. Emperor, church officials, and state officials were all bound together in service to this spiritual ideal.

**Reading Check Evaluating** How did the rise of Islam affect the Eastern Roman Empire?

### Life in Constantinople

Riots in Constantinople in 532 caused widespread destruction. 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.

#### Trade

Until the twelfth century, Constantinople was medieval Europe’s greatest center of commerce. The city 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 by Byzantine craftspeople for church items), wheat and furs from southern Russia, and flax and honey from the Balkans. Many of these goods arrived in Constantinople and were then shipped to the Mediterranean area and northern Europe.

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

#### Building

Much of Constantinople’s appearance in the early Middle Ages was due to Justinian’s program of rebuilding in the sixth century. The city was dominated by an immense palace complex, hundreds of churches, and a huge arena known as the Hippodrome, where both gladiator fights and chariot races were held. Justinian’s public works projects included roads, bridges, walls, public baths, law courts, schools, churches, and colossal underground reservoirs to hold the city’s water supply.

His greatest achievement was the famous Hagia Sophia—the Church of the Holy Wisdom—completed in 537. The center of Hagia Sophia consists of four large piers crowned by an enormous dome, which seems to be floating in space. In part, the builders created this impression by ringing the base of the dome with 42 windows, which allows an incredible play of light within the cathedral.

**Reading Check Explaining** Why was Constantinople one of medieval Europe’s greatest centers of commerce?

### New Heights and New Problems

As we have seen, the size of the Byzantine Empire had been greatly reduced by the beginning of the eighth century. However, the empire recovered and even expanded through the efforts of a new dynasty of Byzantine emperors known as the Macedonians, who ruled from 867 to 1081.

The Macedonian emperors expanded the empire to include Bulgaria in the Balkans, the islands of Crete and Cyprus, and Syria. By 1025, the Byzantine Empire was the largest it had been since the beginning of the seventh century.

The Macedonians also fostered a burst of economic prosperity by expanding trade relations with western Europe, especially by selling silks and metalworks. Thanks to this prosperity, the city of Constantinople flourished. Foreign visitors continued to be astounded by its size and wealth.

The Macedonian dynasty of the tenth and eleventh centuries restored much of the power of the Byzantine Empire, but incompetent successors soon undid most of the gains. Struggles for power between ambitious military leaders and aristocratic families led to political and social disorder in the late eleventh century.

The Byzantine Empire was also troubled by a growing split between its church—the Eastern Orthodox Church—and the Catholic Church of the West. The Eastern Orthodox Church was unwilling to accept the pope’s claim that he was the sole head of the Christian faith. In 1054, Pope Leo IX and the patriarch Michael Cerularius, head of the Byzantine Church, 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 faced threats from abroad as well. The greatest challenge came from the advance of the Seljuk Turks who had moved into Asia Minor—the heartland of the empire and its main source of food and workers. In 1071, a Turkish army disastrously defeated Byzantine forces at...
Manzikert. Lacking the resources to undertake new campaigns against the Turks, Emperor Alexius I turned to Europe for military aid.

Reading Check  
**Summarizing** What threats, both internal and external, did the Byzantine Empire face in the eleventh century?

**The 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 papal leadership for a great cause. That cause was rallying the warriors of Europe for the liberation of 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... whether by land or by sea, or in battle against the pagans, 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. The knights who made up this first crusading army were mostly motivated by religious fervor, but there were other...
attractions as well. Some sought adventure and welcomed the chance to pursue their favorite pastime—fighting. Others saw an opportunity to gain territory, riches, and possibly a title. Merchants in many Italian cities also sought new trading opportunities in Byzantine and Muslim lands.

The Early Crusades The First Crusade began as three organized bands of warriors, most of them French, made their way to the East. The crusading army probably numbered several thousand cavalry and as many as ten thousand infantry. The army 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 the inhabitants.

After further conquests, the crusaders organized four Latin crusader states. Surrounded by Muslims, these crusader kingdoms depended on Italian cities for supplies from Europe. 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, however. Already by the 1120s, the Muslims had begun to strike back. The fall of one of the Latin kingdoms 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 important rulers then...
agreed to lead a Third Crusade: Emperor Frederick Barbarossa of Germany; Richard I (Richard the Lionhearted) of England; and Philip II Augustus, King of France.

Some members of the Third Crusade arrived in the East by 1189, only to encounter problems. Frederick Barbarossa drowned while swimming in a local river. The English and French arrived by sea and met with success against the coastal cities, where they had the support of their fleets. However, when they moved inland, they failed miserably. Eventually, after Philip went home, Richard the Lionhearted negotiated a settlement in which Saladin agreed to allow Christian pilgrims free access to Jerusalem.

The Later Crusades After the death of Saladin in 1193, Pope Innocent III initiated the Fourth Crusade. On its way to the East, the crusading army became involved in a dispute over the succession to the Byzantine throne.

The Venetian leaders of the Fourth Crusade saw an opportunity to neutralize their greatest commercial competitor, the Byzantine Empire. Diverted to Constantinople, the crusaders sacked the city in 1204. Not until 1261 did a Byzantine army recapture the city. The Byzantine Empire had been reestablished, but it was no longer a great Mediterranean power. The empire now comprised the city of Constantinople and its surrounding lands, as well as some lands in Asia Minor. In this reduced size, the empire limped along for another 190 years, until its weakened condition finally enabled the Ottoman Turks to conquer it in 1453.

Despite failures, the crusading ideal was not yet completely lost. In Germany in 1212, a youth known as Nicholas of Cologne announced that God had inspired him to lead a “children’s crusade” to the Holy Land. Thousands of young people joined Nicholas and made their way to Italy, where the pope told them to go home.

At about the same time, a group of about twenty thousand French children made their way to Marseille, where two shipowners agreed to transport them to the Holy Land. Two of the seven ships sent perished in a storm near Sardinia. 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. There is no doubt that the Crusades benefited the Italian port cities, especially Genoa, Pisa, and Venice. Even without the Crusades, however, Italian merchants would have pursued new trade contacts with the Eastern world.

The Crusades did have some side effects that were unfortunate for European society. The first widespread attacks on the Jews began in the context of the Crusades. Some Christians argued that to undertake holy wars against infidel 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.

Checking for Understanding

1. Define patriarch, schism, Crusades, infidel.
2. Identify Justinian, The Body of Civil Law, Byzantine Empire, Macedonians, Seljuk Turks, Saint Bernard of Clairvaux, Saladin, Pope Innocent III.
3. Locate Constantinople, Syria, Palestine, Balkans.
4. Explain how church and state were linked in the Byzantine Empire.
5. List Justinian’s accomplishments.

Critical Thinking

6. Explain Why did cities such as Venice flourish as a result of the Crusades?
7. Organizing Information Use a table like the one below to summarize the results of the First, Second, and Third Crusades.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1st Crusade</th>
<th>2nd Crusade</th>
<th>3rd Crusade</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People Involved</td>
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<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Analyzing Visuals

8. Examine the medieval illustration of one of the battles of the Crusades shown on page 306. How does this visual portrayal of a battle compare to the idealistic goals of the Crusades themselves?

Writing About History

9. Descriptive Writing Write a travel brochure encouraging people to visit Constantinople. Identify the features of the city in the early Middle Ages. What sites would you use to illustrate your brochure?
Distinguishing Between Fact and Opinion

Why Learn This Skill?
Imagine that you are watching two candidates for president debate the merits of the college loan program. One says, “In my view, the college loan program must be reformed. Sixty percent of students do not repay their loans on time.”
The other replies, “College costs are skyrocketing, but only 30 percent of students default on their loans for more than one year. I believe we should spend more on this worthy program.”

How can you tell who or what to believe? You must learn to distinguish fact from opinion in order to effectively evaluate and analyze information acquired from a variety of sources such as books, television, and the Internet.

Learning the Skill
A fact is a statement that can be proved to be true or false. In the example above, the statement “Sixty percent of students do not repay their loans on time” is a fact. By reviewing statistics on the number of student loan recipients who repay their loans, we can determine whether it is true or false. To identify facts, look for words and phrases indicating specific people, places, events, dates, and times.

An opinion, on the other hand, expresses a personal belief, viewpoint, or emotion. Because opinions are subjective, we cannot prove or disprove them. In the opening example, most statements by the candidates are opinions.

Opinions often include qualifying words and phrases such as I think, I believe, probably, seems to be, may, might, could, ought, in my judgment, or in my view. Also, look for expressions of approval or disapproval such as good, bad, poor, and satisfactory. Be aware of superlatives such as greatest, worst, finest, and best. Notice words with negative meanings and implications such as squander, contemptible, and disgrace. Also, identify generalizations such as none, every, always, and never.

Practicing the Skill
For each pair of statements below, determine which is fact and which is opinion. Give a reason for each choice.

1. a The Byzantine Empire came to a pitiful end at the hands of the savage Turks.
b The Byzantine Empire ended when Constantine XI died while defending Constantinople in 1453.

2. a The alliance with the Byzantine Empire made Kiev a major trading link between Europe and Asia and between Scandinavia and Southwest Asia.
b In the 900s, Kiev was the most isolated, uncivilized place and it possessed little in the way of culture.

3. a The Byzantine culture was more advanced than any other of its day.
b Vladimir’s conversion to Eastern Orthodoxy brought Byzantine culture to Kievan Rus.

Applying the Skill
Find a news article and an editorial pertaining to the same subject in your local newspaper. Identify three facts and three opinions from these sources.

Glencoe’s Skillbuilder Interactive Workbook, Level 2, provides instruction and practice in key social studies skills.
Using Key Terms

1. _____ refers to the practice of living the life of a monk.
2. The _____ determined the relationship between a lord and his vassals.
3. Under the influence of the Church, noblemen followed a code of behavior called _____.
4. _____ was the amount paid by a wrongdoer to the family of an injured person.
5. A Christian bishop headed an area called a _____.
6. A series of Christian military expeditions were called the _____.
7. A _____ developed between the Catholic Church and the Eastern Orthodox Church in 1054.
8. The _____ is the Byzantine counterpart to the pope in Rome.
9. Bishops of Rome became known as _____ of the Catholic Church.
10. A _____ was the grant of land from the lord to a vassal in return for military service.

Reviewing Key Facts

11. Citizenship How did the bond of extended family affect the way Germanic law treated the problem of crime and punishment?
12. Government How can feudalism be considered a political system?
13. History What important English political institution emerged during the reign of Edward I?
14. History What two important functions did monks perform?
15. History Why are scriptoria so important to the history of western Europe?
16. Government Name one basic difference between the Roman and Germanic legal systems.
17. History Approximately how long did the Byzantine Empire last?
18. History What steps did the Normans take to create a strong, centralized monarchy in England?
19. Government How did Henry II enlarge the power of the English monarchy?
20. Culture What was the historical context in which the code of chivalry emerged?

Critical Thinking

21. Analyzing What factors helped feudalism to develop in western Europe during the ninth and tenth centuries? Describe the major characteristics of the political system of feudalism.
22. Cause and Effect What caused the schism in Christianity in the eleventh century? Could the split have been prevented?

Writing About History

23. Informative Writing Research the Crusades. 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? Explain your answers fully, and justify them with factual information.

Chapter Summary

Europe and the Byzantine Empire changed and developed in many ways during the Middle Ages.

**Movement**
- Angles, Saxons, and Jutes settle in England.
- Monks come to England to convert the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity.
- Vikings, Magyars, and Slavs enter western Europe.

**Cooperation**
- The Frankish ruler Clovis converts to Christianity and gains the support of the Roman Catholic Church.
- Benedictine Rule emphasizes the need for monks to work together within the monastery.
- The system of feudalism, based on the granting of land to nobles in exchange for military service, spreads throughout Europe.

**Conflict**
- Charlemagne’s death leads to the decline and division of the Holy Roman Empire.
- Schism divides the Eastern Orthodox Church and the Roman Catholic Church.
- William the Conqueror defeats Harold Godwinson in the Battle of Hastings.

**Uniformity**
- The emperor Justinian restores the Roman Empire in the Mediterranean.
- Eastern Orthodox Christianity becomes the state religion of Kiev.
- The Magna Carta guarantees rights to all English people.
Analyzing Sources

Read the following vow of loyalty:

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.'

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

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

Applying Technology Skills

26. Using the Internet Search the Internet for a Web site that provides information on social history during medieval times. Use a search engine to help focus your search by using words such as medieval, feudalism, vassal, and chivalry. Use the information you find to develop a diary that might have been written by an individual living in medieval society. In your diary, describe such things as your daily routine, your family, where you live, and your hopes and plans for the future.

Making Decisions

27. Pretend you are a knight returning from the First Crusade. Write a letter to your wife describing the Crusade and its result. Also, explain why you went on the Crusade, and whether or not the Crusade lived up to your expectations.

Analyzing Maps and Charts

28. Examine the map showing the expansion of Moscow from 1300 to 1462 at the top of this page. By what year had the Volga River been added to Russia’s holdings?

29. What geographic features enabled the princes of Russia to expand their holdings?

30. By 1493 Moscow’s ruler claimed to be “Sovereign of All Russia.” About how far did Moscow’s territory stretch from north to south in 1462?